

**CONTEMPORARY MIGRATION BETWEEN
MALAYSIA AND AUSTRALIA: TRANSNATIONAL
AND SETTLEMENT EXPERIENCES**

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ABSTRACT

Australia hosts a large contingent of overseas Malaysians which has evolved from a number of waves of migration, particularly in recent years. The contemporary migration relationship between the two countries is complex involving movement in both directions, along with the transnational linkages which have generated wide research and policy interest, but little studied in the Malaysia – Australia context.

This study provides a deeper understanding of why Malaysians move to Australia, how well they settle in, and how they maintain links with Malaysia. It adopts a mixed-methods approach using quantitative and qualitative analysis drawing on data collected in an online survey of 1033 Malaysians living in Australia, and 30 interviews with survey respondents and key informants. The findings show that there are three categories of migrants: 1) student; 2) economically active age group; and 3) retirees. The first group is characterised by young, predominantly Malay students, whereas the second is mainly made up of Chinese holding skilled visas. The third group was dominated by females, predominantly Chinese and aged over 50 years. These migrants play a distinct role in their host country, and represent potential resources for their home country too. They are highly skilled, visit their home country frequently for business and leisure, and many retain a strong sense of connection and identification with the countries they move between. The return intentions vary significantly between the Malays and the other ethnic groups, with many intending to stay in Australia. The Malays were very positive about their overseas presence being beneficial to Malaysia, were more likely to return, and over a-quarter own a home and property there. The Chinese were more likely to stay and settle permanently in Australia.

A smaller survey of 134 Australians in Malaysia provide an interesting insight into factors contributing to patterns of movement between Australia and Malaysia. Most were in the economically active age groups, on work contracts, and also most likely to return to Australia. Through a better understanding of these migrants, their migration decisions and potential contribution to Malaysia, it is possible to examine the reciprocal migration flows between Australia and Malaysia.

DECLARATION

I certify that this work contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university or other tertiary institution and, to the best of my knowledge and belief, contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference has been made in the text. In addition, I certify that no part of this work will, in the future, be used in submission for any other degree or diploma in any university or other tertiary institution without the prior approval of the University of Adelaide and where applicable, any partner institution responsible for the joint-award of this degree.

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Christina Ken Yin Yeo

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"It always seems impossible until it's done." - Nelson Mandela

ABBREVIATIONS

AANZFTA	ASEAN-Australia-New Zealand Free Trade Area
ABS	Australian Bureau of Statistics
ACCA	Association of Chartered Certified Accountants
Advance	Advance – Australia’s Global Community
ADB	Asian Development Bank
AiM	Australians in Malaysia (Australian diaspora survey)
AMBC	Australia Malaysia Business Council
APEC	Asia-Pacific Economic Co-operation
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
ATO	Australian Taxation Office
AUD	Australian Dollar
BGP	Brain Gain Programme
CBU	Complete Built Up
CISA	Certified Information System Auditor
CISM	Certified Information Security Manager
CKD	Complete Knocked Down
CPA	Certified Public Accountant
DIFD	Department for International Development
DIBP	Department of Immigration and Border Protection
DOS	Department of Statistics
EPU	Economic Planning Unit
FAQ	Frequently Asked Question
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
GFMD	Global Forum on Migration and Development
HTA	Hometown Associations
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IOM	International Organisation for Migration
IT	Information Technology
ITU	International Telecommunication Union

KEA	New Zealand's Global Network
MABC	Malaysia Australia Business Council
MADS	Malaysian Australian Diaspora Survey
MAFTA	Malaysia-Australia Free Trade Agreement
MANZA	Malaysian Australian New Zealand Association
MEM	Malaysia Economic Monitor
MiA	Malaysians in Australia (Malaysian diaspora survey)
MoHA	Ministry of Home Affairs
MoHE	Ministry of Higher Education
MOHR	Ministry of Human Resources
MOIA	Ministry for Overseas Indian Affairs
MOSTI	Ministry of Science, Technology and Innovation
MOTAC	Ministry of Tourism and Culture
MM2H	Malaysia My Second Home
MPI	Migration Policy Institute
MSA	Malaysia Students Association
MSO	Malaysian Students Organisation
NEAC	National Economic Advisory Council
NELM	New economics of labour migration
NESB	Non-English-speaking background
NEP	New Economic Policy
NILS	National Institute of Labour Studies
NKEAs	National Key Economic Areas
NRI s	Non Resident Indians
OAD	Overseas Arrivals and Departures
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OMM	One Million More Census of Australians Abroad
PIO s	Persons of Indian Origin
REP	Returning Experts Programme
SAHM	Stay-at-home-mum
SMS	Short Message Service

SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TalentCorp	Talent Corporation Malaysia Berhad
TPP	Trans-Pacific Partnership Agreement
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
USA	United States of America

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background to study

Globally there is an increased interest in the potential for diaspora to contribute to their home country. This has been fuelled by a number of factors including the increasing selectivity of emigration, particularly with regards to the global demand for highly skilled labour (talent) that has characterised increasing transnational mobility. Migration is an integral part of globalisation with the increasing integration of national economies, internationalisation of goods and services, and emerging employment patterns. Modern information and communication technologies and transportation have facilitated migration and seen more diverse and complex flows (Castles, De Haas & Miller 2014; Faist, Fauser & Reisenauer 2013; Vertovec 2009).

It is thus important for policy makers and researchers to understand the factors influencing the decision-making processes of migrants, their settlement and progression experiences, and how their transnational linkages impact both origin and destination countries. Although there has been a growing literature on transnationalism, migration and diaspora, context-specific empirical studies in this area tend to be lacking. This is due to many factors including a lack of data available to measure the extent, composition and dynamics of contemporary migration (Hugo 2013). It is in this area that this study seeks to make a contribution.

There has been a significant paradigm shift in Asian migration and there are constraints in studying the phenomenon, which include data limitations, the complexity of the region where each country differs from one another, and bias in data (Hugo 2006d, 2014b). Lucas (1998) also notes that Malaysian emigrant datasets are very limited. Notwithstanding these limitations, the use of destination-end data such as in Australia has been helpful in providing some insights into the characteristics of Malaysian migration to Australia, as well as the patterns of movement in both directions.

Malaysia and Australia share a long-standing migration history due to their common British colonial heritage. The Colombo Plan introduced since 1952 and the removal of the White Australia Policy in the 1970s, stimulated the earlier large-scale flows from Malaysia to Australia, and paved the way for the creation of a migration corridor between the two countries. Although the initial flows were unidirectional, as Malaysians tended to bring their families to settle with them in Australia, migration between the two countries has recently become more complex. Today Malaysian and Australian migrants travel well-trodden paths between the two countries, with highly qualified Malaysians migrating to Australia, and Australians to Malaysia. However, it is also important to study the Malaysia – Australia migration in terms of its transnationalism implications so that both countries can make best use of the networks and systems which exist as a result of the movement.

This chapter outlines the aims and objectives of this study. It conceptualises migration in the global context, from developing to developed nations where vast economic growth has prompted unprecedented mobility. It explores the contemporary mobility in Asia, particularly between Malaysia and Australia, and highlights the increasing prominence of movement between both countries. The study addresses the question of Malaysian migrants in Australia, and seeks to show both the Malaysian and Australian governments can better engage the diaspora in creating values and potential collaboration which will benefit home and host country, as well as the migrants, a ‘win-win-win’ strategy (Skeldon 1997; Weil 2002).

1.2 Research questions

Using the concept of diaspora and transnationalism, this study addresses the following specific research questions:

- What are the trends, patterns and determinants of mobility between Malaysia, and Australia, especially Malaysians living in Australia?
- What are the demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of Malaysians in Australia and their settlement experiences?
- What are the characteristics of counter-flows of Australians residing in Malaysia?

- How do migrants maintain linkages and contribute to the host and home countries?
- What can governments do to engage the diaspora?
- What are the policy and theoretical implications of this study?

1.3 Research objectives

The overall aim of the study is to examine the contemporary movement of migrants between Malaysia and Australia, and its impact on the socio-economic dynamics of both countries, as well as the migrants themselves. This includes the mobility decision-making process, settlement experiences, and how the extensive migrant network and linkages could be leveraged to deliver a triple win outcome which benefits all. It aims to explore the concept of transnationalism and role of diaspora in the context of the Malaysia – Australia migration system.

To achieve this, this study addresses the following objectives:

- a. To identify the most significant trends, patterns, and determinants of transnational migration between Malaysia and Australia;
- b. To investigate the demographic and socio-economic characteristics, as well as the transnational experiences of Malaysian migrants in Australia and also Australian migrants in Malaysia;
- c. To explore their settlement and experiences and the nature and extent of linkages with home, as well as their future intentions to return and their diaspora potential; and
- d. To recommend policy responses and further research to build on the existing diaspora engagement strategies in Malaysia and Australia.

1.4 Conceptualising migration, diaspora and transnationalism

... The face of migration is changing. Today, migrants are coming from, and going to, more places than ever before. Almost half of migrants are women. Once of every ten migrants is under the age of 15. And four of every ten migrants are living in developing countries. (UN Secretary-General's remarks to High-Level Dialogue on International Migration and Development, 2013)

It is very clear that the emerging trends in global migration demonstrate the pervasive changes in the scale, direction and complexity of migration, both within and between nations and borders. According to the United Nations (2013a, p.1), the global stock of international migrants reached 232 million in 2013 up from 154 million in 1990. One in seven of the world's population is either an internal or an international migrant. Table 1.1 demonstrates that there has been consistent growth in international migrants and consequentially, an increasing share in total population.

Table 1.1 Global international migrant stock, 1980-2013 (in millions)

Year	International migrants stock (mil)	Share in total population (%)
1980	99.3	2.2
1990	154.2	2.9
2000	174.5	2.8
2010	220.7	3.2
2013	231.5	3.2

Source: United Nations, Department of Economic & Social Affairs (2013). Trends in International Migrant Stock: Migrants by Age and Sex (2013)

The UN data also indicate that the more developed regions host more immigrants than the less developed ones. In fact, there has been a 1.6 times increase in immigrants since 1990 in the developed regions increasing the total to 135.6 million in 2013, while the less developed regions has seen a 1.3 times increase from 71.9 million (1990) to 95.9 million.

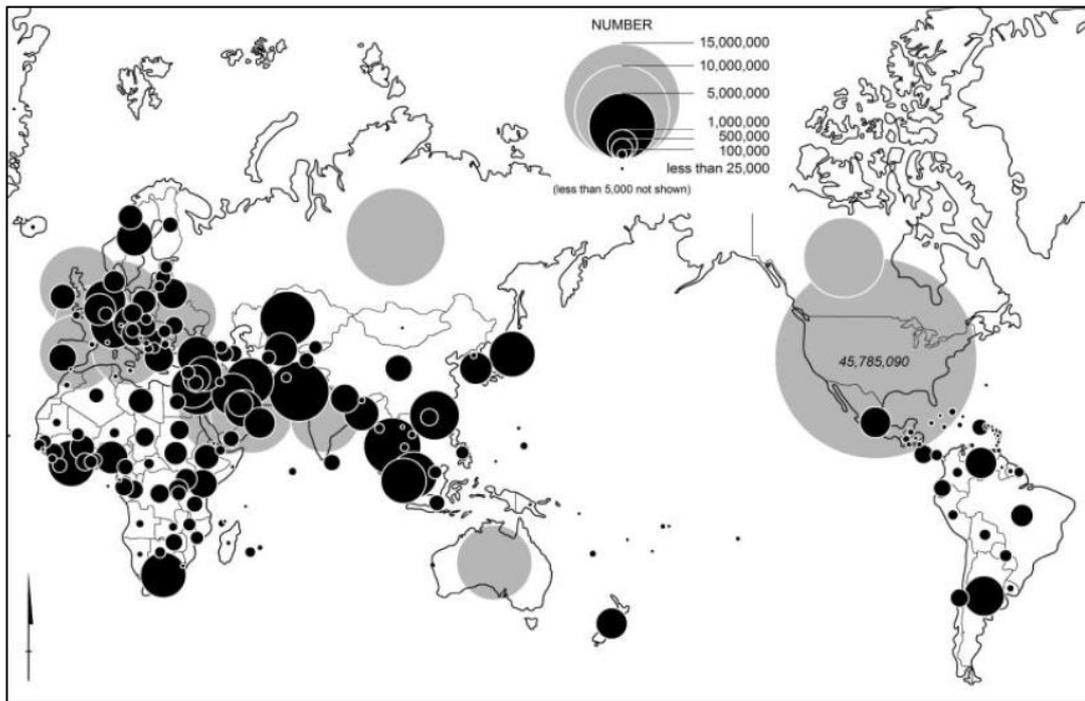
New trends in migration movement emerge as a result of the increasing number of migrants moving to new places in different directions. There are four major migration flows globally, namely the South-South (S-S), South-North (S-N), North-North (N-N), and North-South (N-S). South refers to developing countries while North the developed industrialised ones (Martin 2013, p.2). The S-S formed the largest flow of migrants with over 82 million or 36 per cent in 2013 moving from one developing country to another,

such as from Indonesia to Malaysia, or Bangladesh to India. The S-N corridor is the second largest corridor, with some 35 per cent of global migrants moving from developing nations to the developed ones, for example from Malaysia to Australia or the United States. The S-N migration took precedence for many years, however, in recent years, the S-S migration has received a considerable amount of attention with its increasing share of global economic growth and the scale of migration comparable to the S-N flow (Hugo 2013). The other two migration corridors are N-N and N-S. The N-N flow accounts for 23 per cent of international migrants moving from one industrialised country to another, as from Australia to United States. Lastly, the N-S flow which has the least number of migrants, moving from developed countries to developing like in the case of Australians to Malaysia.

Conventionally, international migration has been associated with countries of origin being low-income developing nations while destination countries were high-income developed nations. King (2002) contests that such demarcation does not truly reflect the nature of contemporary migration as all countries constantly experience both inward and outward movement.

Figures 1.1 illustrates the dispersion and scale of the stock of migrants by country of destination, indicating that while developed countries host a large number of immigrants, the South regions are also receiving and relying on migrants to fill jobs. For instance, The United Arab Emirates hosts about 7.8 million migrants, which translates into an 84 per cent migrant share of total population. Kuwait is another developing country where the migrant share per population is 60 per cent. The Russian federation hosts about 11 million migrants. It is not surprising to note that popular destinations like Canada and the United States host 5 per cent of the world's population and almost a quarter of the world's migrants. The United States hosts over 45 million migrants which accounts for 14 per cent of the migrant share of total population. Another popular southern destination is Australia which has more than 6 million migrants out of a population of 23 million.

Figure 1.1 International migration by country of destination, 2013



Source: Hugo (2014, p.4)

Nonetheless, the figures stated above represent only the static ‘stock’ of international migrants which are captured at a single point in time and do not document the flows or actual movement of the migrants. Hence having location-specific studies on migration flows enable a better understanding of the mobility patterns and trends.

Some of the characteristics of the emerging patterns of mobility include migration selectivity, feminisation, increased distances and the significance of social networks. In addition, mobility tends to be less permanent and has become more non-permanent and circular. Hence, much of these movements are not captured in the traditional data collection framework that measures permanent migration. The cross-border linkages built in the form of visits, long distance communication, remittances, and social capital have become more intensified and intimate (Poot 1996; Pries 2013).

Migration remains a dynamic driver of development, for both origin and destination countries, as well as transit countries. In fact, the global *Human Development Report 2009* (UNDP 2009, p.26) showed that many countries are simultaneously source, transit and destination countries (Undie, Johannes & Kimani 2009). Drivers of migration include the neo-classical economic-driven factors, conflicts and environmental

degradation, to the integration and disintegration of countries. However, De Haas (2005) argues that there are no clear cut dichotomies between origin and destination, or permanent and temporary migration to characterise migration, while Leeson (2012) claims that migration is a consequence rather than a driver towards development.

Cohen and Vertovec (1999) found that there are six dimensions to study changes in global contemporary migration. Firstly, Castles (1998) argues that labour migration flows occur during war or economic crisis. Secondly, it is acknowledged that occurrences of illegal and undocumented labour migration activities are much higher than what is recorded. Thirdly, the definition of refugee migration has been restricted according to the 1951 Geneva Convention and excludes internally displaced persons, as well as those escaping from environmental and ecological disasters. Female migration constitutes the fourth dimension of the contemporary migration discourse, moving from being 'ignored' in the debate to an established contributor in the field of migration. The fifth and sixth dimensions in studying changes in the global contemporary migration highlight the increasing dominance of temporary and permanent skilled migrants.

In relation to those six dimensions, there have been new empirical insights into international migration. Ruhs (2013) argues that international migration is motivated by two inequalities coupled with three revolutions. The demographic and economic inequality supports the classical view of migration where migrants, particularly young people, tend to cross borders to earn higher wages, leaving behind older family members. However, the inequalities provide the potential for migration but not necessarily the pathway or means of migration. The revolutions which support transnational mobility are the advancement in communications, transportation and human rights. These revolutions link multiple localities and multiple identities, marking the birth and significance of the 'diaspora' and more extensively, the 'transnationalism' idea and concept with migrants playing instrumental roles in development.

Migrants can make very powerful contributions to our societies. But these contributions can only be made if we are ready to recognize and use the potential of migration. (European Commissioner for Home Affairs keynote speech at United Nations High Level Dialogue on Migration and Development 2013)

There is an increased interest in the potential for the role of diaspora to contribute to both origin and destination countries. Previous studies and reports of the Malaysian and Australian diaspora (Hugo 2001, 2006b, 2006c, 2011c; Hugo & Harris 2011; Hugo, Rudd & Harris 2003; World Bank 2011) support the view that these migrants should be seen as representing potential resources for their home countries. They are often highly skilled, visit their home countries frequently for business and leisure, and many retain a strong sense of connection and identification with the countries that they move between.

All the diaspora activities and ideas intertwine with the concept of transnationalism. In the past, traditional approaches to international migration focus on permanent displacement from one country to another, were concerned with settlement experiences in the host country and the detrimental impact on source countries. However, the transnationalism approach looks at both origin and destination, and most importantly, linkages between them. Vertovec (2009) introduces transnationalism as the multiple ties and interactions linking people or institutions across nation-state borders. It encapsulates the new and contemporary transnational practices of migrants which contribute to an understanding of the contribution of diasporas towards the socio-economic and political aspects of their homeland and settlement locations.

1.5 Contextualising migration in Asia

Over half of the world's population live in the Asia-pacific region, some 4.2 billion (60 per cent) of the global population of 6.9 billion in 2010 (UN 2013a, p.1). Asia is now the largest destination area with the increase of South-South (S-S) migration. As explained earlier, the S-S migration, mainly in Asia is increasingly significant as a large number of developing countries receive more immigrants than they send.

Castles and Miller (2009) provide a chronological background of the development of Asian migration, and some of the significant features include the westward movement from Central Asia to Europe back in the Middle Ages, and centuries-old Chinese migration to South East Asia. The authors also highlight the significance of movements within Asia. In fact, four of the world's top ten migration corridors include Asian countries, namely Bangladesh-India (3.5 million), India-United Arab Emirates (2.2

million), Philippines-USA (1.6 million) and Afghanistan-Iran (1.6 million) (IOM 2013, p.64). Each of these flows is triggered by different factors and have different characteristics.

Some of the key elements of Asian international migration include contract labour migration, forced migration, marriage migration and student migration (Hugo 2005; 2014c). The first element, i.e. contract labour migration is economic-driven, and occurs amongst migrants at all skill levels. The lower-skilled Asian migrants move to other countries within Asia, and out of the region to developed nations. For instance, there are over one million Indonesian low-skilled migrants mainly in the plantation, construction, manufacturing and domestic help sectors in Malaysia. Another example is the Arab share of the low-skilled migrant workers in the construction sector. On the other hand, the highly-skilled migrants from other regions move to Asia for its economic vibrancy as is the case of expatriates from Australia and the United States working in the oil and gas sector in Malaysia and the gulf cooperation countries.

The second element of international migration is forced migration. It consists of refugees, asylum seekers and people displaced by disasters. The third element is marriage migration. Hugo (2014c) argues that marriage migration is often the neglected element of migration but is increasingly significant internationally. It is closely linked to economic migration and is also directly related to the demographics and changing roles and position of women. The last element of international migration, i.e. student mobility is perhaps one of the most extensive international movements, and is often a precursor to skilled migration. In 2011, there are over 4.3 million international students globally, up from 2 million in 2000, with almost 40 per cent of them are in Asia with 1 million students concentrated in East Asia and the Pacific (UNESCO 2013, p.iii). Australia and Japan, traditional destinations in East Asia and the Pacific, are now rivalled by Malaysia, Singapore, New Zealand, China and the Republic of Korea, which hosted 7 per cent of the global share of international students.

The diversity in the Asian migration system and particularly, Southeast Asian migration, requires a complex understanding of micro and macro-level factors of mobility decisions and settlement experiences. Broadly defined, there are three prominent migration streams in Southeast Asia. Firstly, the skilled labour flows.

Second, the unskilled and semi-skilled labour flows and thirdly, the undocumented labour flows (Kaur 2007; 2009).

Kaur (2007, 2009) and World Bank (2009, p.65) postulate that the highly-skilled labour stream migrants are professionals whose skill sets are in high demand, and often are highly-paid. This group of high-end labour are employed on employment passes to assume specialised technical positions or c-suite roles, i.e. Chief Executive Officer (CEO), Chief Operating Officer (COO), and Chief Financial Officer (CFO) in large organisations. They include those on expatriate assignments under multinational corporations, and are often in the consultancy line of work.

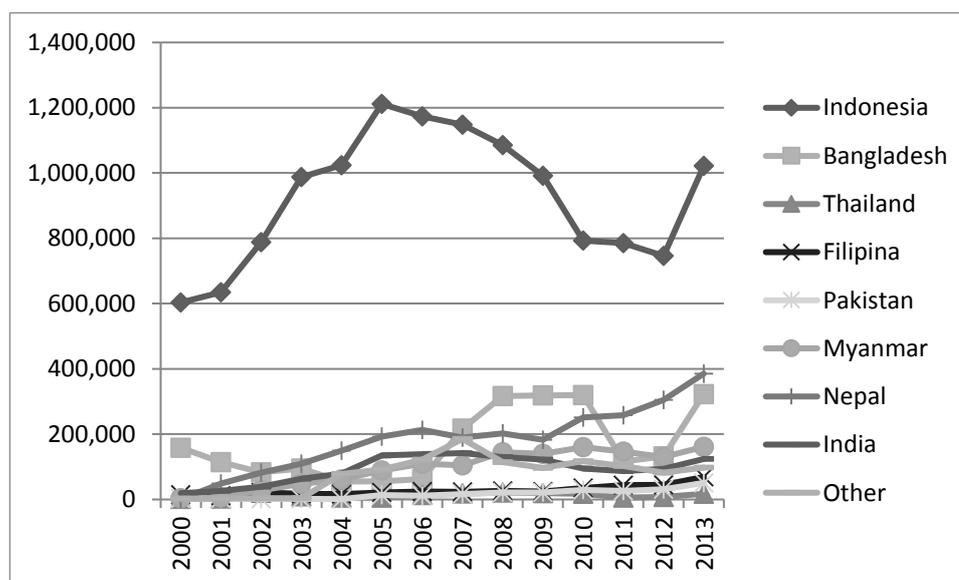
Workers under the unskilled and semi-skilled category are often recruited on temporary worker schemes on specific jobs or contracts with employers. Most of them are brought in to work primarily in the agricultural, fisheries, construction and manufacturing sectors. This form of labour arrangement is costly due to the high administrative costs including payments to intermediaries, which gives rise to the emergence of the third form of labour migration, i.e. undocumented or unauthorised migrant workers. Consequently, illegal migrant workers end up in vulnerable positions within the 3D (dirty, dangerous, and difficult) jobs in the informal sector (Massey et al. 1998, p.180; Piore 1979). More often than not, they have to work beyond the legally-enforced minimum wage, health and safety standards.

1.5.1 Migration: The Malaysian context

Central to this study is the analysis of the contemporary movement between Malaysia and Australia. Conventionally, both Malaysia and Australia are destination countries. However, Malaysia receives far more less-skilled migrants compared to its emigration of skilled professionals (Hugo 2011a, pp.150-151). By contrast, Australia is highly selective in terms of recruiting migrants and has predominantly skilled immigrants and out-migrants (Hugo 2006b). The outflow from Malaysia is made up of over one million diaspora, with one-third being highly-skilled while the inflow is predominantly low-skilled.

According to the Population and Housing Census Malaysia in 2010, there were more than two million non-citizens in Malaysia, with half of them being labourers, both legal and illegal. However, it was claimed that the figures were not exhaustive as there were many illegal immigrants in the country that were not counted (Lee 2012, pp.12-13). Figure 1.2 shows the increase in foreign workers in Malaysia by source countries from 2000 to 2014. There was a steady growth of foreign workers from 2000 to 2005, particularly amongst the Indonesians within the agriculture, construction and manufacturing sectors. However, the global financial crisis of 2008-2009 brought ramifications for the world economy. With the United States' economy contracting steeply, the ripple effect caused the export-dependent Asian economies to contract as well, and Malaysia's exports collapsed coupled with a dive in its foreign direct investment (FDI). The contraction in manufacturing was steepest hence a reduction in total foreign workers from 2.06 million to 1.57 million from 2008 to 2012.

Figure 1.2 Foreign workers in Malaysia by source countries, 2000-2013



Source: Ministry of Home Affairs, Malaysia (2014)
Other source countries include Cambodia, China, Sri Lanka, Vietnam and Laos

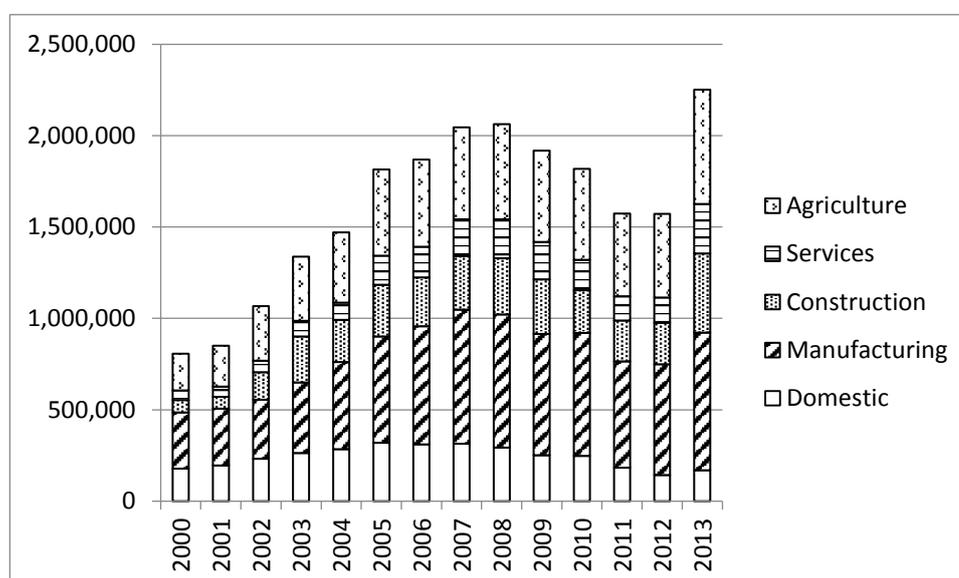
In 2011, the Malaysian government introduced the 6P Amnesty Programme¹ to better manage the population of illegal immigrants. It was aimed to register illegal immigrants in the country to better monitor their activities and movement. Over 1.3 million

¹ Under the Registration, Legislation, Amnesty, Supervision, Enforcement and Deportation programme (abbreviated in the Malay language to 6P), illegal workers were required to register with the Home Ministry, obtain temporary work permits and have their finger prints recorded in a biometric system.

registered, with some deported, and over 500,000 were given work permits of between two and three years, depending on the sectors. As a result of the amnesty programme, the foreign worker admissions spiked in 2013, mainly due to workers from Indonesia, Bangladesh and Nepal.

Figure 1.3 shows the composition of foreign workers in Malaysia by sectors. The two main sectors were manufacturing and agriculture. In 2013, there were over 750,000 foreign workers in manufacturing, followed by agriculture (625,093), construction (434,200), services (269,321), and domestic (169,936).

Figure 1.3 Composition of foreign workers in Malaysia by sectors



Source: Ministry of Home Affairs, Malaysia (2014)
Only documented foreign workers

The foreign worker population is overwhelmingly low-skilled and employed in the labour-intensive sectors. Besides security concerns, one of the major issues about this huge low-skilled foreign worker base is the resistance of employers to contribute towards their education and training, and the lack of incentives to invest in technology (Hugo 2011; World Bank 2010).

By contrast, Malaysia hosts about 84,299 expatriates, which made up only 4 per cent of the total foreign workers intake (EPU 2014). Almost half of them are employed in the services sector (35,373), while some 14,993 are in the information technology sector. Studies have found that these highly-skilled foreign workers strongly complement the

Malaysian skilled workforce with the exponential transfer and exchange of knowledge, technology and experience (World Bank 2009, 2010, 2015).

Although Malaysia is a net immigration country, it has also substantial skilled emigration which negatively impacts on its trajectory towards achieving a high-income advanced economy. In relation to this, The National Economic Advisory Council reports that:

Malaysia faces an exodus of talent. Not only is our education system failing to deliver the required talent, we have not been able to retain local talent of all races nor attract foreign ones due to poor prospects and a lack of high-skilled jobs (NEAC 2010, p.60)

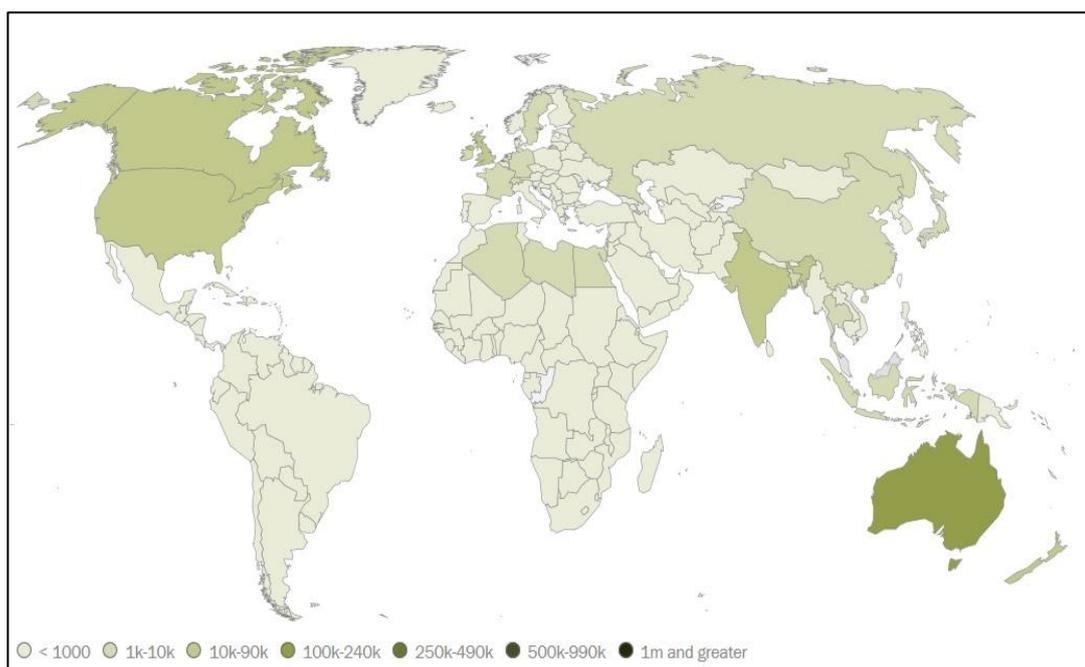
Like many developing countries, Malaysia lacks the required human capital or 'talent' to contribute effectively in the National Key Economic Areas (NKEAs)² that have been identified. Although efforts are made to optimise, nurture and develop the local talent pool, so that it is more sustainable in the long run, the training process will take much longer. The labour market deficit is further exacerbated by the brain drain. Hugo (2011) argues that on the one hand, emigration leads to a brain drain which has a negative impact due to the loss of skilled workers, while on the other hand, there are various means and ways in which emigration is positive for development for the host countries.

Carrington and Detragiache (1998) estimate that Malaysia had the highest brain drain of tertiary educated population in East Asia, and the World Bank (2011, p.103) reported that there are more than one million Malaysians abroad, of which a third could be considered as brain drain. Figure 1.4 illustrates the geographic locations of the Malaysia-born migrants globally. It was created using an online interactive tool developed by Pew Research Centre based on international migrant data published by the United Nations. Due to proximity, it is not surprising to note that Singapore hosted the largest number of overseas Malaysia-born population (1.04 million in 2013).

² There are 12 sectors of economic opportunity for the private sector which help drive Malaysia towards high-income status and global competitiveness. These sectors were identified based on their potential contribution to GNI and create multiplier effects across the economy. List of sectors: Oil, gas and energy, palm oil and rubber, financial services, tourism, business services, electronics and electrical, wholesale and retail, education, healthcare, communications content and infrastructure, agriculture, Greater Kuala Lumpur/Klang Valley (GKL/KV).

Besides the geographical factor, the inclination amongst Malaysians to move to Singapore is also partly attributed to the Malaysia-Singapore historical and political ties. Following its separation from Malaysia in 1965, Singapore faced critical labour shortages. Bilateral arrangements were made to facilitate movement between both countries which enabled migrant workers from Malaysia to work in Singapore. Consequently, another wave of Malaysian migration to Singapore, predominantly the Malaysian Chinese occurred after the 13 May 1969 racial riots in Malaysia (Kaur 2007).

Figure 1.4 Top destination countries for Malaysia-born migrants, 2013



Source: Pew Research Centre (2014)

Australia has the second largest overseas Malaysia-born population, with close to 120,000 Malaysia-born people in Australia in 2011, which is an increase of 25.8 per cent from the 2006 Australian census. The 2011 census distribution by state and territory shows that Victoria hosts the largest number with 39,791, followed by New South Wales (27,257), Western Australia (24,967) and Queensland (12,790). The characteristics, patterns and trends in the flows of Malaysian migrants to Australia are discussed in Chapter 4. The United States and the United Kingdom each hosts about 60,000 Malaysia-born migrants. This is followed by Canada (30,000), New Zealand (20,000) and Hong Kong (20,000).

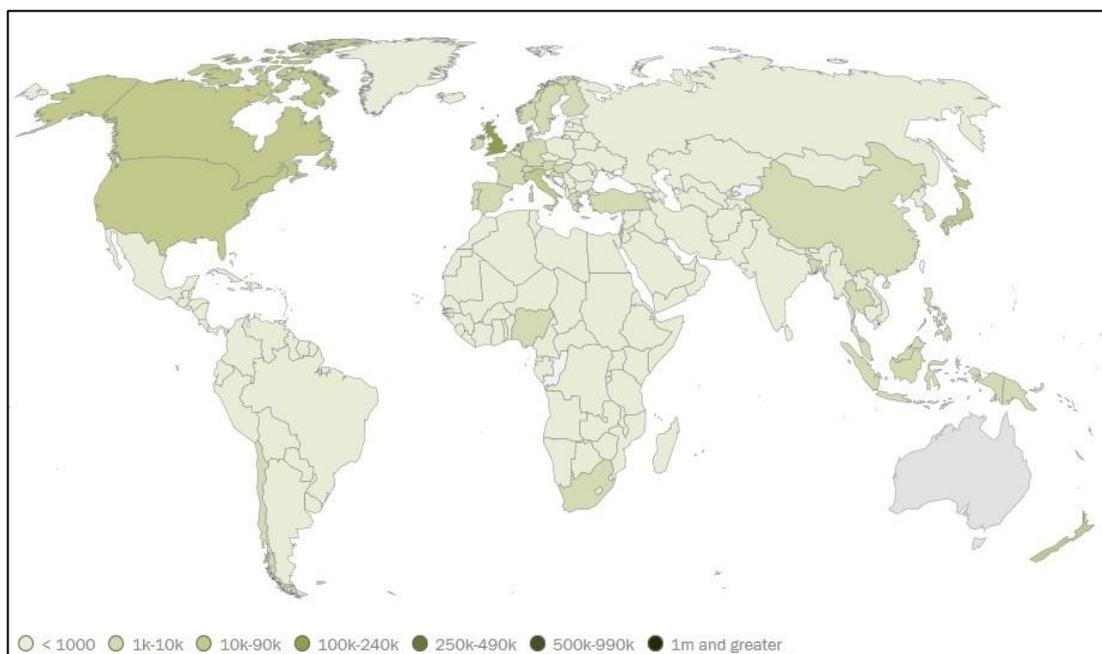
Apart from the professional diaspora, many Malaysians go abroad to pursue their studies and some continue to stay upon graduation to look for jobs and other opportunities, further compounding the negative consequences of the brain drain. According to the 2011 statistics released by the Ministry of Higher Education, there are a total of 89,686 Malaysian students studying abroad hence education contributes to developed countries attracting the brightest young potential immigrants (Lucas 2001), which is discussed in Chapter 4.

1.5.2 Migration: The Australian context

As pointed out by King (2002) and Hugo (2013), it is inappropriate to dichotomise nation-states as being either source or destination countries in studying contemporary global migration. They argue that it is more useful to study countries in which there are movers in both directions, as is the case between Malaysia and Australia. Like Malaysia, Australia is better known as an immigration country but at the same time, however there has been an increasing trend in the emigration of the Australia-born in the last decade or so (Hugo, Rudd & Harris 2003). There has been an upsurge in Australians migrating to Malaysia though the figure is small compared to the other popular destination countries.

Figure 1.5 shows the distribution of the Australia-born population overseas created using the online interactive tool by Pew Research Centre using the United Nations' international migrant data. However, it is difficult to determine the exact number of the Australian diaspora and expatriate community (Hugo 2006a, 2008b).

Figure 1.5 Top destination countries for Australia-born migrants, 2013



Source: Pew Research Centre (2014)

Based on available data, it was found that the top destination of the Australia-born in 2013 was the United Kingdom with some 110,000 Australians living there. The second most popular destination was New Zealand due to its proximity. According to the Statistics NZ's International Travel and Migration (2015, pp.5-6), there is a net flow of migration from Australia to New Zealand from April to December 2015. The mobility is facilitated with the Trans-Tasman Mutual Recognition Arrangement between the two countries. The shift is attributed to New Zealand's economic and political stability, as well as the end of Australia's mining boom. The third most popular country of destination of the Australians is the United States with about 70,000 Australia-born counted there. This is followed by Canada and Italy (20,000 each), Japan and Netherlands (10,000 each).

Malaysia hosts about 5000 Australians, which is a relatively small number compared to the total Malaysia-born people in Australia. These include returnees who are Australia-born to Malaysian parents. They form part of the discussion in Chapter 7 on the Australian diaspora (and expatriates) residing in Malaysia during this study period.

1.6 Rationale for the study

It is important for policy makers and researchers to understand the factors influencing the decision-making processes of the diaspora, and how their networks and linkages impact on both origin and destination countries. Therefore this study builds on the base of knowledge about the Malaysian diaspora from (Hugo 2011b, 2011c), the Australian diaspora (Hugo 2006a, 2006b, 2006c, 2014a; Hugo & Harris 2011; Hugo, Rudd & Harris 2003) and other researchers by examining the Malaysian diaspora in Australia, and to a limited extent, Australians in Malaysia. Diaspora are increasingly impacting on migration theory, particularly in transnationalism. Previous studies acknowledge the importance of the role of diaspora (including Hugo 2011; World Bank 2011) but empirically, rather less attention has been paid to the actual experiences and aspirations of migrants classified as diaspora.

This study seeks to understand the key issues surrounding the expectations and aspirations of Malaysians in Australia, because of the following points:

- High emigration rate from Malaysia to Australia;
- Linkages maintained by the migrants between both countries;
- The existing skilled foreign migrants in Australia; and
- Existing policy and engagement frameworks to enhance the mutual benefits of migration for both origin and destination countries, as well as for the migrants (diaspora) themselves.

1.7 Research methods

This research adopted a mixed-method approach and was undertaken in three (3) stages:

- Secondary data collection and analysis
- Primary data collection (quantitative online surveys)
- Primary data collection (qualitative in-depth interviews)

Surveying the targeted respondents was challenging because there was no comprehensive listing available. This study, in facing this limitation, examined a number of possibilities involving incomplete sampling frames, and adopted a multi-pronged strategy of contacting various relevant organisations (formal and informal), chambers of commerce, expatriate groups, alumni associations, as well as social networks, who agreed to disseminate the survey information on their websites or in newsletters.

The first stage involved secondary data analysis. The existing information about emigration and diaspora particularly in the ASEAN region was limited. Some of Hugo's work (Hugo, G 2005, 2006d, 2008b, 2014b, 2015a, 2015b) was perhaps the most comprehensive on this area. There were some administrative sources abroad and in the country of origin that were useful in providing data about diaspora and populations. For example, data were obtained from official websites like Department of Immigration and Border's Protection (DIBP) and Australian Bureau Statistics (ABS), United Nations Human Development Report, consular offices, censuses, and population sample surveys.

The second stage of the research process involved constructing the two sets of online questionnaires, with the main one targeting the Malaysians in Australia, and the other set the Australians in Malaysia. Design of the questionnaires was adapted from the Australian Emigration Survey (Hugo, Rudd & Harris 2003), One Million More (OMM) Survey (2006), and Parker (2010). They incorporated local elements, which were customised to address the research objective and aims. The questionnaires were disseminated online after conducting pilot tests and obtaining ethics approval. The sampling was undertaken using the snowballing approach to attract more and diverse respondents through social media and also the expatriate organisations, such as the business councils and informal associations. These organisations helped to recruit the respondents through their newsletters, bulletins and internal mailing lists.

In this regard, generalisations about the wider population cannot be made, but there are some valuable insights to be gained about the respondents to contribute to the body of information about these diasporas. The survey form was administered electronically using the Survey Monkey programme. It replicated the success of previous emigration

studies that had used online surveys as a method of collecting data. Prior to the distribution of the survey, approval and assistance were obtained from the participating organisations. All survey responses were submitted anonymously. The exception to this are the respondents who voluntarily provided their contact details so that they would be engaged further in follow-up interviews that they were keen to do.

The final stage of the research focused on the qualitative primary data collection. In-depth interviews were conducted with the respondents and key informants with the intention of forming a more detailed understanding of the respondents' mobility and diasporic backgrounds, patterns and characteristics. Key informants were selected via the purposive sampling of relevant stakeholders i.e. bureaucrats, politicians, employers, and trade unions. These interviews were conducted face-to-face and were recorded with the interviewees' permission if granted.

1.8 Organisation of the thesis

This thesis is organised into eight chapters, including this introductory chapter which provides an overview of the study, outlining the aims and objectives, and the method used to obtain requisite data. It also contextualises the discussion and highlights the research and policy gaps thus establishing the significance and contribution of the study to research and policy.

Chapter 2 presents a systematic review of network, transnationalism and migration systems theory. These approaches help to explain the process, drivers and outcomes of migration. The concepts and importance of diaspora and the transnational community are also discussed.

Chapter 3 specifies the research methodology utilising a conceptual framework for the study, and explains the approaches adopted. The chapter highlights the cost-effectiveness of running a web survey and utilising social media to recruit the study respondents, and also discusses the complementary benefits of conducting face-to-face in depth interviews with survey respondents and key informants. It presents an overview of the demographic characteristics and socio-economic status of respondents. Based on the scope of the study, it highlights the methodology limitations.

Chapter 4 provides a comprehensive overview of the Malaysia – Australia migration system based on secondary sources such as census data, and immigration reports and statistics. This chapter describes the changing mobility patterns, volume, migrant characteristics and the history of emigration in both countries.

Chapter 5 discusses the mobility decisions for different migrant groups. The chapter uses the migration system theories and transnationalism approach to discuss the drivers of migration, and how they influence the patterns, characteristics and the decision-making process of migrants. It identifies movement to other countries in addition to Malaysia and Australia, and also discusses migrant intentions to remain overseas or return to Malaysia.

Chapter 6 focuses on the settlement experiences of migrants in Australia, and examines the post-migration attachment to homeland and how they maintain the transnational linkages with social and professional contacts in Malaysia, through short visits, telecommunication and other transnational community activities like hometown associations (HTAs). It also explores the effects of time on their identification and affiliation with Malaysia, and elaborates upon the different types of attachment relating to Malaysia, Australia and elsewhere as part of the diasporic identification process. This includes how one relates to which country in terms of his or her (i) professional life; (ii) personal and family life; and (iii) home of origin.

Chapter 7 explores the mobility decision-making process of Australians in Malaysia, and the overall characteristics of movement from Australia to Malaysia. The chapter also provides information on their demographic and socio-economic characteristics, their transnational and settlement experiences and their intentions to return.

Chapter 8 summarises the key findings of the study and its policy implications in terms of what governments can do to leverage transnational movement, and how best to engage diaspora to deliver a win-win-win outcome for host and destination countries, as well as for the migrants themselves. It also suggests limitations of the study and proposes areas for further research.

Chapter 2: Theoretical framework

2.1 Introduction

International migration has changed significantly over the years and is characterised by distinctive features which differ from earlier migration periods. The long-standing discussion of international migration has assumed that there exists an imbalance of resources between sending and receiving nations globally which motivates people to move. However, it has been found that approach to migration that has prevailed for the past 50 years cannot adequately explain the emerging complexities in the patterns, causes and implications of the current scenario (Castles & Miller 2009; Hugo, Aghazarm & Appave 2011; Massey et al. 1998; Sana & Massey 2005).

There is a growing literature on the two pillars used in various theoretical and conceptual models explaining migration, namely the ‘micro’ and ‘macro’ level frameworks. At the micro-level, it is contested that the migration decision is not entirely an individual rational choice responding to solely economic conditions. At the macro-level, many challenge the simple push-pull migration model put forward by Lee (1966), the universal gravity model which is a modified revision of Newton’s law of gravitation (Zipf 1946), or the Todaro (1969) model which argues that wage and employment differentials motivate migration. The gravity model uses population of origin and destination as a measure of diversity and assumes that distance is a major obstacle to migration, suggesting that larger places attract people, ideas and commodities. Critics claim that these models are over simplistic in understanding international migration.

Research by (Massey et al. 1993) is one of the earliest efforts to review and appraise theories of international migration, and provide the groundwork for future empirical work related to contemporary migration. Against this background, this chapter provides an overview of selected theories formulated to explain, predict and understand international migration. In some cases, it also challenges and extends existing knowledge within the boundaries of the study’s theoretical framework. The chapter draws attention to the ideas of transnationalism and diaspora linking the migration

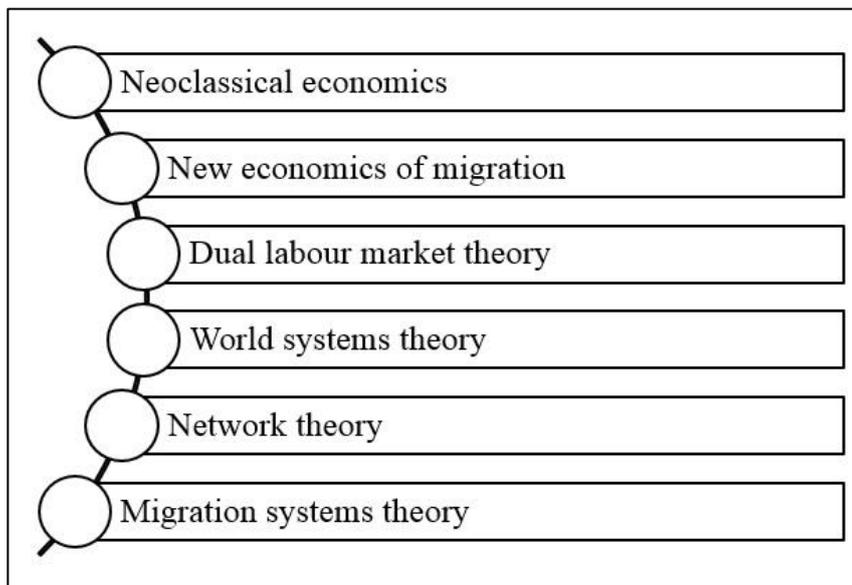
systems theory and its application in the case of Malaysia – Australia contemporary movement.

2.2 Evolution of migration theoretical perspectives

Over recent years, the topic of migration has gained increasing significance on policy and research agendas. The earliest theories of migration emphasised migration implications for socio-economic development such as living standards, poverty in countries of origin and destination (Hugo 2013; Massey 2015). Figure 2.1 presents an overview of the evolution of migration theoretical perspectives. It illustrates the development and discursive shifts in theorising international migration with no specific order in terms of significance.

Neoclassical economic theorists posit that the differences in net economic advantages, mainly wage dividends are the main causes of migration (Hicks 1963; Todaro 1989). It is argued that capital flows in the reverse direction from developed to under-developed countries will continue until an equilibrium is reached (Todaro & Maruszko 1987). Dustmann and Görlach (2015) argue that wage differentials as a motivation for migration applies only if other factors such as the consumption behaviour and purchasing power parity in both countries are identical. The wage equalisation effect is also emphasised in the dual labour market theory (Borjas 1990; Piore 1979). Others argued that the pull factors from receiving economies arising from the unmet job demands are more significant than the internal push factors.

Figure 2.1 Theories of migration



Source: Constructed by author based on interpretations from Massey et al. (1993) and Massey (2015)

Although early theories focus on individual wage differentials in explaining migration, subsequent theories embrace an expanded outlook on the migration phenomenon. The new economics of migration theory rejects individualism and places emphasis on wage differentials solely (Stark 1991). Proponents of the new economics of migration theory suggest that member(s) of a family may migrate even if there is no or very low wage differences, because remittances are deemed to be a reliable form of diversified risk in the long run for the family (Stark 1991; Stark, Taylor & Yitzhaki 1986). However, the household strategy which emphasizes the importance of the family or the household in the migration decision has also been criticised. Boyd and Grieco (2003) have argued that family or household decisions and actions do not represent equally distributed benefits for all members.

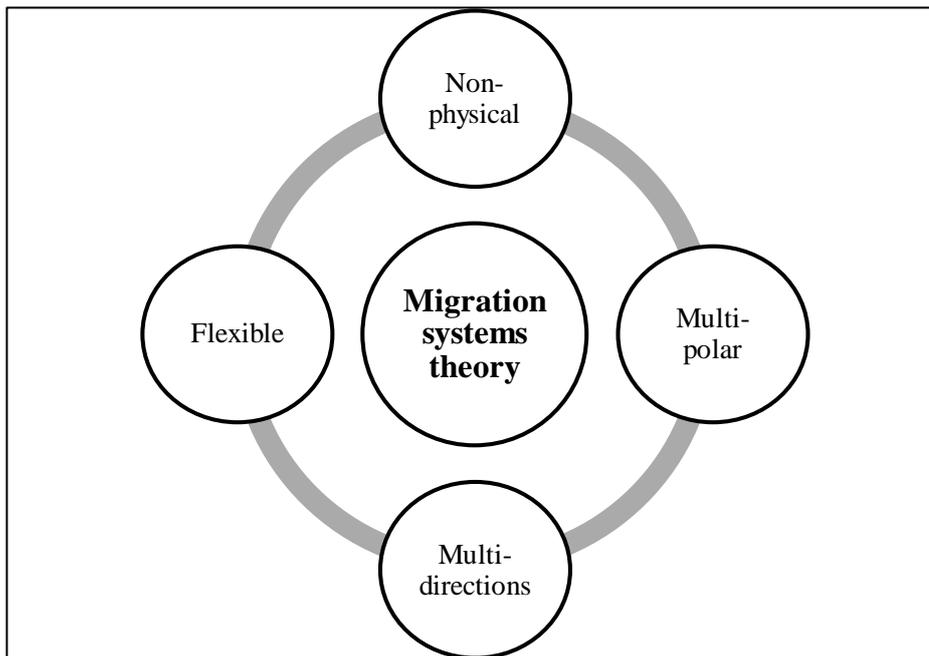
Evolving from the economic-centred migration theory, the world systems theorists suggest that migration is rooted in the historical structure between nations which is associated with capitalism in the developing world (Portes & Walton 1981; Sassen 1988). It is argued that the global market and colonial relationships are maintained via cultural and economic ties (Castells 1989). The neo-colonialism forms a strong relationship between past colonial powers and their former colonies, which in turn creates transport and communication infrastructures, administrative linkages, shared linguistic and cultural values (Morawska 2007). Nations such as Europe, Japan and

Australia constitute the 'core', while the least developed countries are referred to as the 'periphery', which are highly dependent on the core-periphery relationship for trade, capital penetration, as well as migration (King 2012, p.18).

The network theory, like the world systems theory and the dual labour markets theory, suggests a path dependency to migration patterns. Once a migration flow is established, it becomes self-sustaining and may not be influenced by policy or economic changes. Proponents of network theory also claim that the expansion of networks gradually reduces the costs and risks associated with migration (Hugo 1981; Massey 1990; Taylor et al. 1996). Initially, migrants have no social links to rely on in the new destination, hence it is costly. However, each new migrant will serve as a point of reference for their friends and relatives who plan to move to the destination area, thus reducing the costs of subsequent migration. Consequently, the networks established by the earlier migrants help provide potential employment, reducing the livelihood risks of the new arrivals (Choldin 19973; Fawcett 1989; Light, Bachu & Karageorgis 1993).

Many of these theories are criticised for being too economic-driven. While there is no single theory which can adequately address much current migration, the migration systems perspective tends to encapsulate contemporary movement which is shown in Figure 2.2. Firstly, the migration systems theory argues that distance is not a barrier in establishing migration flows between countries within a system. Instead, the flows reflect economic and political relationships rather than geographical settings (non-physical). This disputes Ravenstein's Law (1885, 1889) which claims that there is an inverse relationship between the number of migrants and the distance travelled. Secondly, migration is multi-polar, where migrants from several source countries move to several other destination countries which are overlapping. Thirdly, it is argued that countries may belong to several migration systems and the migration flows can be multi-directional. Lastly, the migration system is flexible as it responds to changes in social, economic, political, and other environmental changes.

Figure 2.2 Characteristics of contemporary movement under the migration systems theory



Source: Constructed by author based on interpretations from Fawcett (1989); Massey et al. (1993)

At the outset, it is important to note that not all four of the movement characteristics of the migration systems theory are applicable in all migration flows and contexts. Thus it is important to be able to identify which of those descriptions are most relevant in explaining international migration according to the study context and discipline. Current patterns and trends in international migration suggest that a full understanding of the contemporary migration process can only be achieved through a multi-faceted theory that cuts across disciplines, perspectives and assumptions.

In discussing migration across disciplines, Brettell and Hollifield (2014, p.4) constructed a matrix which acts as a framework to establish a dialogue across them (see Table 2.1). Each discipline has its pre-defined dominant theories guiding its arguments. Nevertheless, it is interesting to note that the various migration theories discourse tends to cut across disciplines. Favell (2007, pp.260-261) provides an exemplary example of approaching the cross-disciplinary subject like migration using the University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA) programme with sociology as its base. He argues that in studying migration, multi-disciplinarity with a multi-methods approach should be a basic premise even if the case study focus of the course is exclusively immigration in the United States.

Table 2.1 Migration theories across disciplines

Discipline	Dominant theories
Anthropology	Relational or structuralist and transnational
Demography	Rationalist (borrows heavily from economics)
Economics	Rationalist: cost-benefit and utility-maximising behaviour
Geography	Relational, structural and transnational
History	Eschews theory and hypothesis testing
Law	Institutionalist and rationalist (borrows from all social sciences)
Political Science	Institutionalist and rationalist
Sociology	Structuralist or institutionalist

Source: Brettell & Hollifield (2014, p.4)

It is also worth noting that there are migration studies which deal with cross-disciplinary theories. For instance, investigation of contemporary movement between Asia and Australia may trigger discussions in relation to geographical and economic disciplines. Interdisciplinary debates on the study of migration have proven to be desirable yet challenging due to the nuanced differences among the domains, frameworks, assumptions, and methods of the various fields of study (Boswell & Mueser 2008).

2.3 Transnationalism: What about it?

Research has shown that there has been a paradigm shift from permanent migration to non-permanent movement between origin and destination (Hugo 2015, p.311; Hugo, Wall & Young 2015, p.13). The flows of migrants can impact on the origin, destination and transit countries. They also have effects on the migrants themselves, and the significant linkages and networks which are established (Asis & Piper 2008; Dunn 2005; Hugo 2011c; Piper 2008).

Portes, Guarnizo and Landolt (1999) identified transnationalism as a useful concept to describe contemporary migration. They emphasised that the intensified and simultaneity of long-distance, cross-border socio-economic structures and activities merit the term ‘transnationalism’. In fact, there are various views on the subject of transnationalism. It started with the idea of crossing nation-state boundaries which tied in with the globalisation wave. However, the word ‘transnational’ was initially used in migration literature in the early 1990s when the term ‘transnationalism’ was prominent (Basch, Schiller & Blanc 1994). Marshall (2006) argues that the notion of citizenship relate to ‘full membership’ of individuals in the community in terms of rights and

responsibilities, and extend beyond the national boundaries. In transnationalism, citizenship cannot be purely understood in terms of the conventional idea of 'nation-state' (Yuval-Davis 1999).

Rationalising the pertinence of transnationalism to contemporary migration, Cohen and Vertovec (1999) argue that new theoretical terms and concepts are required to understand the social, economic, political and cultural implications of social identities forged across national boundaries. The technological advancement in communications and transport enable migrants to live 'multi-locational' lives. This concept of being 'glocal' led to a rapid proliferation of transnational communities (Vertovec 1999, p. 447).

Vertovec (1999) provides a general framework of transnationalism covering six depictions for individuals being 'here and there' and 'home away from home', namely social morphology, type of consciousness, mode of cultural reproduction, avenue of capital, site of political engagement and re(construction) of 'place' or locality. It is difficult to discuss Vertovec's depictions of transnationalism separately from diaspora and transnational social space, as they are arguably not mutually exclusive. It has been found that migrants, who are on the move, are part of dispersed transnational communities which are sustained by various modes of social organisation and communication (Gupta & Ferguson 1992; Smith & Guarnizo 1998).

Portes (1999) compelling contribution to the transnationalism debate is his demarcation of 'transnationalism from above' and 'transnationalism from below'. He structures transnationalism according to the notion of transnational actors or activities across transnational space. 'Transnationalism from above' refers to transnational activities conducted by powerful institutional actors such as multinational corporations and states, while the latter points to activities which are initiated by migrants and their home country network of contacts (Smith & Guarnizo 1998).

Other scholars contend that structuration is a means to bridge the agency-structure divide (Goss & Lindquist 1995; Morawska 2001). This study focusses upon how the different mobility decisions and settlement experiences of migrants are influenced by

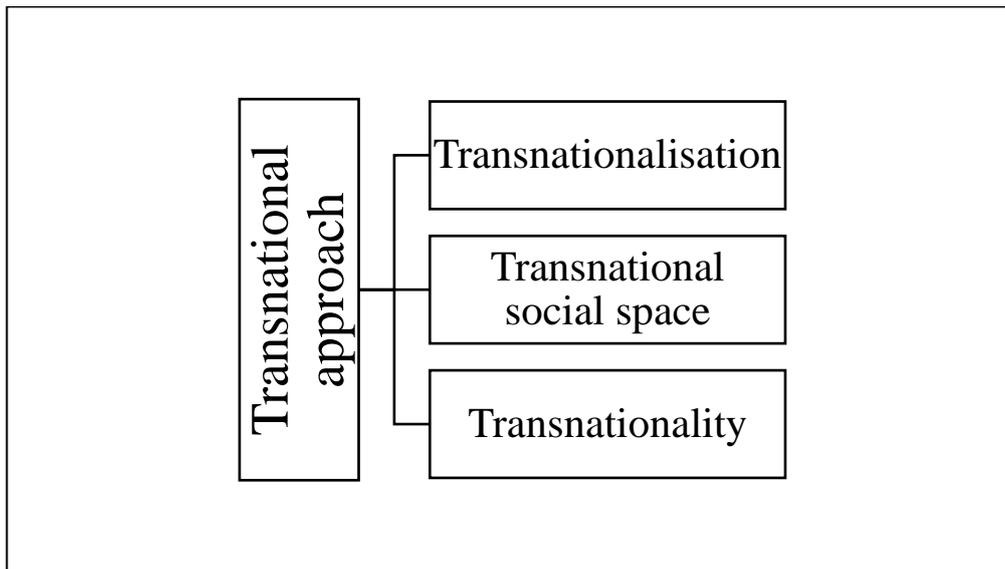
institutional and non-institutional actors. It also explores how some migrant groups are more likely to be more transnational than others (Foner 1997).

2.3.1 Being interconnected, being transnational

Like any other social science theory and concepts, there are various perspectives and debate on the idea of transnational approaches. There is no specific theory to sufficiently describe the phenomena. Faist, Fauser and Reisenauer (2013) delineate three key concepts of transnational scholarship relevant for migration research as shown in Figure 2.3. These are *transnationalisation*, *transnational social space* and *transnationality*. The concepts are not mutually exclusive and contribute to the transnational approach debate.

The first concept, *transnationalisation* ‘refers to ties maintained, events and activities across the borders of several nation-states’ (Faist, Fauser & Reisenauer 2013, p. 10). It focuses on cross-border processes and relationships, which are exemplified by the ties which are maintained by the migrants and non-migrants back home. The notion of agency and structure comes into play when transnationalisation is adopted as a concept in researching migration. This is what differentiates transnationalisation and globalisation. Globalisation is an account of ties, events and processes involving states and their agents solely, while the transnational approach scrutinises the actors, i.e. the migrants and non-migrants who forge ties across borders (Faist 2000). This relates to the network and linkages maintained by migrants and their family and associates back home or in any other part of the world.

Figure 2.3 Transnational Approaches: Transnationalisation, transnational social space and transnationality



Source: Constructed by author based on interpretations from Faist et al. (2013)

This in turn creates the second concept, *transnational social space* where individual, groups, organisations, or states maintain contacts. Diasporas belong to the transnational community, who experience territorial dispersion of their members in the past, which is due to trauma or specialisation in long-distance trade in this study context (Cohen 2008). This contrasts migrants in earlier times with today's migrants, as Schiller and her associates coined the term 'transmigrants' to highlight the important role of today's contemporary migrants themselves (actors) across the social space (Schiller & Fouron 1999). The transnational activities include uni-, bi- and multi-directional transfer of remittances, and exchange of knowledge and expertise. These transactions are dynamic and fluid in nature (Faist 2000; Kivisto 2001). A study by Faist, Fauser & Reisenauer (2013) categorises transnational social space, indicating that there are three ideal types, i.e. transnational kinship groups, transnational circuits and transnational communities as shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Types of transnational social spaces

Type	Primary resource in ties	Main characteristic	Typical example
Transnational kinship groups	Reciprocity	Upholding the social norm of equivalence; control over members of small groups	Remittances of household or family members from country of immigration to country of emigration (e.g. contract workers)
Transnational circuits	Exchange	Exploitation of insider advantages; strong and weak social ties in peer networks	Trading networks, e.g. Chinese, Lebanese and Indian business people
Transnational communities	Solidarity	Mobilisation of collective representations within (abstract) symbolic ties (e.g. religion, nationality, ethnicity)	Diasporas (e.g. Jews, Armenians, Palestinians, Kurds)

Source: Faist, Fauser & Reisenauer (2013, p.57)

The first type of transnational social space is often associated with the classic example of economic migrants who leave home to work elsewhere. They then are obliged to remit earnings to family back home, while transnational circuits often refer to ties formed to enable exchange of resources particularly in trade and services. The last type of transnational social space – transnational communities is highly formalised in the sense that the ties are formed in solidarity. Diasporas are the typical examples of transnational communities and this is where transnationality helps explain the social practices of the dispersed migrants and their non-migrant families and associates (Brubaker 2005; Cohen 1997; Donato et al. 2006). This suggests that measures should be taken to maximise the role and potential contribution of the diaspora.

The first two concepts emphasise aspects of geographical mobility but neglect individuals and groups who may not directly engage in transnational practices. The third concept, *transnationality* includes these individuals or groups who have not migrated, and have no relationship with migrants, but are well connected with colleagues overseas through work-based conduits (Mau & Büttner 2010).

2.4 Redefining diaspora

Like transnationalism, diaspora is an important concept in both academic research and policy debates. Diaspora is not a new concept and has undergone dramatic change to suit the emerging contemporary global movement of migrants. As a social construct, the term has evolved in its meaning, coverage and implications (Shuval 2000). The increasing cross-border mobility as a result of bilateral, regional and transnational agreements facilitate trade and services. The global war for talent also contributes to the emerging academic and policy discourse.

There is increased interest in the potential for diaspora to contribute to both origin and destination countries. Previous studies and reports of the Malaysian and Australian diaspora (Hugo 2006a, 2006c, 2011b, 2011c; Hugo, Rudd & Harris 2003) support the view that these migrants should be seen as having a distinct role in their host countries, and represent potential resources for their home countries too. They are often highly skilled, visit their home countries frequently for business and leisure, and many retain a strong sense of connection and identification with the countries that they move between.

This section defines diaspora and examines how its definition has evolved. The case is made for the Malaysia-born abroad to be seen as diaspora. Arguments on diaspora engagement are also presented based on two international examples.

2.4.1 The concept of diaspora

Diaspora are a global phenomenon. It is important to establish a definition of the term 'diaspora'. It has its origins in the Greek word 'to colonise' and until recently it was exclusively been applied to describe a group of people who are linked by common ethno-linguistic and/or religious bonds who have left their homeland, usually under some form of coercion, and who have developed a strong identity and mutual solidarity in exile (Hugo 2008a, 2008b). Some of the earlier general theoretical groundwork on diaspora was elaborated by Clifford (1994), Cohen (1997) and Safran (1991). Scholars have divided the diaspora into three broad categories that influenced the diasporic

process globally: the Classical Period, the Modern Period, and the Contemporary Period (Cohen 1997; Mohan & Zack-William 2002; Reis 2004).

The first historical phase i.e. the Classical Period lies in Ancient Greece which signifies a positive colonisation. However, the subsequent millennia diaspora is negatively connotated following the enslavement and exile of the Jews from Babylon. The final major period of diasporisation, the Contemporary Period refers to the post-World War II period to the present. While both the Modern and Contemporary periods are relevant in understanding diaspora in the globalisation context, this study focuses on the latter. The Malaysian-Australian diaspora under study here fits into the contemporary category, which is highly circular, temporary in nature, and creates linkages.

Diaspora theory is closely linked to the theoretical discourse of transnationalism. Tölölyan (1991) argues that diaspora are the exemplary communities of transnational movement. (Tölölyan 1996) further claims that the rapidity of material and discursive change in the past decades has increased the number and diversity of diaspora. Numerous reviews of the diaspora definition and concept make reference to Safran's (1991) extensive work on the common features of diaspora (Chaliand & Rageau 1995; Clifford 1994; Cohen 1997; Helmreich 1992; Kearney 1995; Van Hear 2005) which include:

- Being dispersed from an original location to foreign regions;
- Possess tacit knowledge of original homeland i.e. location, history;
- Perceive to be not fully accepted in host countries;
- Harbour thought of return once homeland conditions are favourable;
- Believe in committing to ensure well-being of homeland; and
- Develop strong ethnic group consciousness.

Critiques of Safran's work argue that not all types of diaspora ascribe to all the characteristics (Clifford 1994). For example, it is argued that Safran's model is very much focused on the Jewish experience and is not applicable to other diaspora. He also challenges the idea of thinking diasporic movement on two points – home and exile. He claims that there may involve more than two points, and what matters most is the connection between the points. Diaspora evolve over time, and they together with their

subsequent generations may move again, yet retain links to their homeland and the other places where they have lived (Cohen 1997; MacGaffey & Bazenguissa-Ganga 2000).

Butler (2001) then aptly builds on the work of Safran to advance a number of criteria which he considers characterises temporary diaspora. Like Clifford, he argues that it is not necessary for communities of expatriates to fulfil all the criteria but suggests that they should at least meet most of them. Butler's (2001, p.191) diaspora definition includes:

- Expatriates should be spread over more than one destination;
- They should retain a relationship with their real or imagined homeland;
- There should be an awareness of group identity;
- The diaspora should exist beyond the first generation

These multiple localities and the cross-generations concept of diaspora is important in this study. Despite being spatially dispersed geographically, the Malaysian diaspora constitutes an important component of the nations' overseas population. Hugo (2006c) also claims that Australia's expatriate community fulfils the contemporary diaspora criteria. In the same vein, this study applies Butler and Hugo's explanation to examine the Malaysian-Australian diaspora, mainly focusing on the migrants' transnational mobility, linkages and perceived identification with Malaysia as their 'homeland'.

2.4.2 Diaspora and networks

As discussed earlier, diaspora implies some kind of shared consciousness, which in turn generates common cultural, economic and political endeavours. Sheffer (1986) argues that modern diaspora maintain strong sentimental and material links with their countries of origin (homelands). In relation to this, UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan in his 2006 Report to the General Assembly stressed the importance of recognising migrants' transnational lives and ties:

No longer do those who emigrate separate themselves as thoroughly as they once did from the families and communities they leave behind... Owing to the communications and transportation revolution, today's international migrants are, more than ever before, a dynamic human link between cultures, economies, and societies. Penny-a-minute phone cards keep migrants in close touch with family and friends at home, and just a few seconds are needed for the global financial system to transmit their earning, shelter, pay

for education or health care, and can relieve debt. The Internet and satellite technology allow a constant exchange of news and information between migrants and their home countries. Affordable airfares permit more frequent trips home, easing the way for a more fluid back-and-forth pattern of mobility (UN 2006, pp.5-7).

Annan highlights the growing significance of contemporary international migration in countries of origin and destination. Researchers argue that the post-migration experiences and linkages forged are crucial in bridging economic, social and political networks amongst the countries involved (Hugo 2008b; Newland & Plaza 2013; Reis 2004). It is argued that diaspora play a central role in the migration-development nexus. Policymakers, heads of states, international agencies, such as the United Nations and the World Bank now, devote increasing attention to international migrant populations considering their significant impact on host-home country development. The International Organisation for Migration (IOM) has put forward some comprehensive points on diaspora and their development potential on its website <https://diaspora.iom.int/>:

The Diaspora is fast emerging as one of the forces for development in the globalizing world... they accumulate human and financial capital for economic and social development in their host communities. Like temporary migrants, the wider Diasporas have been contributing to development of their home countries by sending remittances and managing businesses in their home countries. Many members of Diasporas work in skill sectors that are of critical importance to their home countries. Many accumulate knowledge to establish and manage their own enterprises and are equally at home with the general situation and business cultures of both their original and host countries. Members of Diasporas have contacts with potential business partners in countries of destination and can facilitate the establishment of trade and production links that promote the market access of export goods from developing countries. Diaspora communities can also influence the economic and political processes of host countries in favour of their home countries..." (IOM 2015)

It is important to examine the role of transnationalised diaspora in development among the different types of transnational social spaces, i.e. transnational kinship, circuits and communities. While it is recognised that financial remittances are one of the key components of diasporic contribution to development, this study focuses on the potential role that the Malaysian diaspora can play in promoting trade and foreign direct investment (FDI), generate businesses and entrepreneurial activities and transfer skills and knowledge via networks. These important linkages are generated from the frequent short visits, telecommunications such as phone calls, e-mails and social media

applications, and affiliations to hometown and professional organisations made by the migrants. Stressing the importance of diaspora and social remittances in economic development, Newland and Plaza (2013, pp.4-7) claim that an important player in development planning is the private sector, and that diaspora can leverage their transnational experiences and social networks for entrepreneurial, business and job creation purposes, particularly at the level of local small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs). Diasporas build bridges for cross-border business, trade and investments between host and home countries. Diaspora-driven SMEs and diaspora networks facilitate the transfer of skills, knowledge and technologies and act as effective capacity builders. Given the familiarity of diaspora with both the home and host country, they can act as facilitators, middle persons and cost savers. Finally, they can invest directly or indirectly in sectoral development back home through their remittances, savings and private investments.

2.4.3 Engaging diaspora

The potential for migrants to transform their homeland has captured the attention of national and local authorities, international institutions and the private sector. There is an emerging consensus that countries can actually co-operate to create triple wins, for migrants, for their country and for the societies that receive them (Castles & Ozkul 2014; Hugo 2011a; Newland 2007).

Brubaker (2005, p.8) who cited Lie (1995) argue that it can no longer be assumed that immigrants make a sharp break from their homelands. Rather, the pre-migration networks, cultures and capital remain salient:

The sojourn itself is neither unidirectional nor final... [M]ovements... follow multifarious trajectories and sustain diverse network. Rather than the singular immigrant, scholars now detail the diversity of immigration circumstances, class backgrounds, gendered transitions, and the sheer multitude of migration experiences.

Like the scholars, the governments around the world have also increasingly acknowledged and recognised the value that diaspora populations, particularly their networks, contribute to both countries of origin and destination. Major development agencies like the World Bank, Asian Development Bank (ADB), International Labour Organisation (ILO), International Organisation for Migration (IOM), and The

Department for International Development (DFID) argue that diaspora based in high income countries can play a role in economic development and poverty reduction in low income origin areas. Several countries such as the Philippines, India, China and more recently, Malaysia, have set up agencies to engage with the diaspora and facilitate these impacts.

For source countries, in addition to the remittances, diaspora are also sources of human capital as well as direct and indirect investments (Agunias and Newland 2012). While historically, emigration is viewed as a loss for the source countries and gain for the receiving countries, more are recognising that an engaged diaspora can be an asset (Agunias & Newland 2012; Gamlen 2010; Hugo 2006a; Mahroum, Eldridge & Daar 2006; Reis 2004).

Mahroum and colleagues (2006) argue that people cannot be stopped from emigrating, and vice versa, they cannot be forced to return to their country of origin. Nonetheless, source countries can benefit from their diaspora if they have effective diaspora policies. Gamlen (2008a, 2008b) defines diaspora policies as state institutions and practices that apply to members of that state or society who reside outside the state borders. In the same vein, other authors interpret diaspora policies as facets of 'external' or 'extra-territorial citizenship' (Barry 2006; Bauböck 1994; Schiller 2005).

Different authors also attempt to categorise diaspora policies. Østergaard-Nielsen (2003) and Chander (2006) provide a clear demarcation between economic, political and cultural devices of sending states, while Barry (2006) identifies legal, economic and political instruments that apply to emigrant citizens. Levitt and De La Dehesa (2003) distinguish between bureaucratic reforms, investment policies, political rights, state services abroad, and symbolic politics. Gamlen (2006) classifies diaspora policies according to how they contribute to expanding citizenship beyond territorial borders, distinguishing two types: i) 'community building policies' aimed at cultivating or recognizing diaspora communities, and ii) mechanisms aimed at extending membership privileges and obligations to these diaspora communities.

Although considerable research has been devoted to define and categorise diaspora policies, rather less attention has been paid to discuss practical techniques to better

engage diaspora (Gamlen 2008b; Lee 2004). In reviewing diaspora engagement strategies for countries of origin, it is important to understand the ‘brain gain’ or ‘brain circulation’ approach (Gaillard & Gaillard 1998; Kapur 2001). Zweig and Changgui (1995) found that more than 31 per cent of Chinese scientists who live in the United States maintain contacts with their home institutions in China, while in later research in 1999, they also found that Indian and Chinese scientists maintain professional affiliations with other institutions in their home countries. This demonstrates the great potential of tapping into the diaspora networks to solicit expertise for home development.

Agunias and Newland (2012) suggest four fundamental steps which governments can undertake to engage the Asian diaspora:

- Identify engagement goals;
- Map diaspora according to geographical locations and skills possessed;
- Forge a relationship of trust between diaspora and governments of both origin and destination countries; and
- Mobilise diaspora to contribute to sustainable development.

Two observations are drawn from points put forward by Agunias and Newland (2012) on engaging diaspora. Firstly, as the strategies are customised to the unique context of the Asian diaspora population, they are strategic references for policymakers and researchers in this field of study. Secondly, though the authors acknowledge the implementation gap of the government-led diaspora policy, they fail to suggest alternative leadership models for action. For example, India established the Ministry for Overseas Indian Affairs (MOIA) to address the gap on migration policy coordination across government agencies. They also initiated a Scholarship Programme for Diaspora Children to engage Indian citizens not residing in India (NRIs³) and Persons of Indian Origin (PIOs⁴). The South Korean government introduced the Overseas Koreans Foundation (OKF) to strengthen the connection with the Korean diaspora. They also revised the Nationality Law to allow dual citizenship, and built online networks to engage Koreans globally. Taking the examples of how the Korean Government and the

³ Indian citizens not residing in India

⁴ Persons of Indian Origin who have acquired the citizenship of some other country

Indian Government engage their diaspora, there are limitations to what the states can do.

Although government intervention may be helpful in respect to repatriation strategies, there are alternative models which can be considered, for instance, community leadership where grass-root initiatives drive engagement, as well as top-down initiatives by international bodies and institutional-based models promoting inter-agency collaboration (Mahroum, Eldridge & Daar 2006). Arguably, more can be achieved if the private sector and civil-society organisations work together to create initiatives that bridge both countries of origin and destination. With more systematic cooperation from government and international organisations, they may benefit all parties.

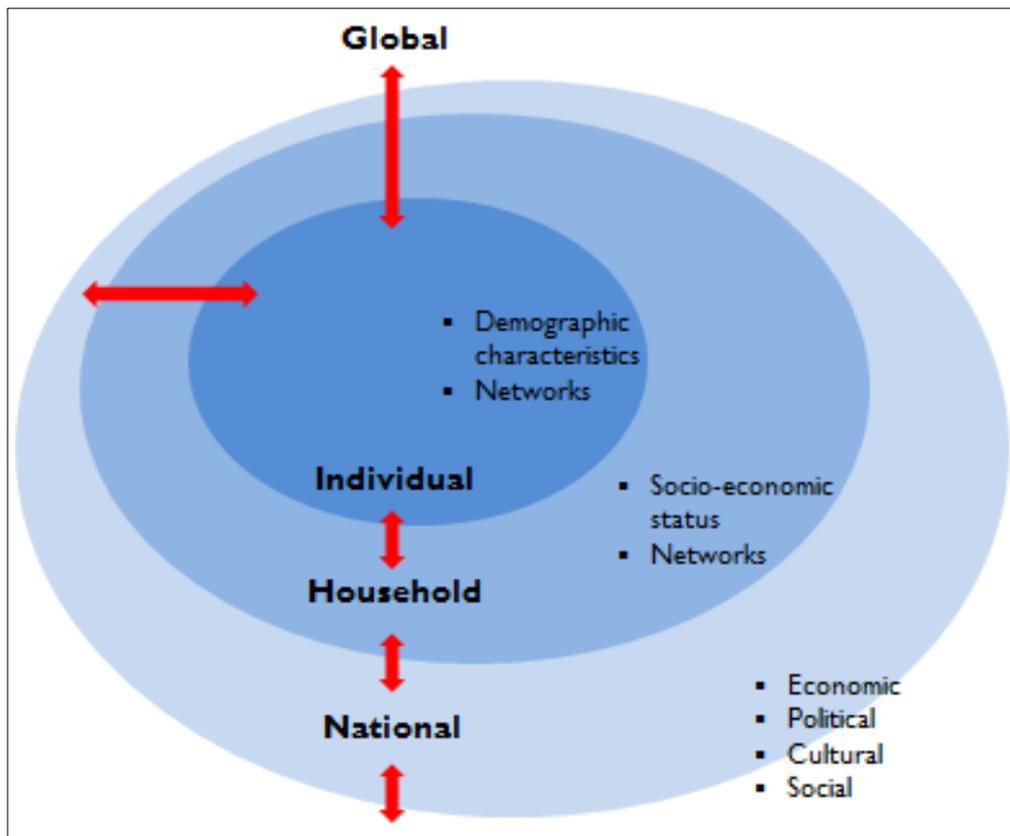
2.5 Conceptual framework for research

Rather than taking the narrow argument of theoretical exclusivity, this study adopts an integrative approach to all the interacting factors relevant to international migration. These factors operate at multiple levels simultaneously. As discussed earlier, the paradigm shift in international migration research includes shifts from:

- Permanent settlement to transnationalism;
- Assimilation and integration within destination to transnational ties between ‘origin’ and ‘destination’; and
- Focus on immigration and destination to paying attention to both emigration and immigration, origin and destination, and most importantly, the linkages between them.

Figure 2.4 illustrates the integrative conceptual framework linking different levels of social organisation at both origin and destination, individual and household decision-making processes and migrant networks (Fawcett & Arnold 1987; Goss & Lindquist 1995; Massey 1990; Schmink 1984).

Figure 2.4 Conceptual framework for understanding factors in migration decision-making process



Source: Author's own compilation

To avoid a fragmented discussion in establishing the significance of migration issues, flows, and challenges, the migration systems theory is combined with the structuralist perspective to define the interactions at three levels of analysis: micro, meso and macro. At the micro-level, migrant characteristics, networks and values influence the migration decision-making process, the neoclassical approach explains the migration decision through basic utility maximisation. Using the economic explanation, individuals basically pursue their highest utility *ceteris paribus* (assuming all other factors unchanged). Utility here refers to wage dividends, status, comfort, autonomy, and being close to family, friends and community. Some accumulate assets for the purpose of investing back home. In fact, one of the key contributors to the surge of interest in the migration-development nexus is the increased size and significance of remittances from the migrants to their homeland (De Haas 2012; Newland 2007).

The decision to migrate, however is sometimes a collective decision which is influenced by the household or community of the migrant. It is important to note that a rigid focus on individual decision-making fails to account for other motivations to migrate. Particular communities, for instance certain ethnic groups or countries may be more prone to migration, while others with similar socio-economic circumstances may not. Hence, it is crucial to examine the specific group of migrants. This study explores the motivation of migrants to move by their different ancestry and ethnic backgrounds to establish a classification of migrants according to their migration patterns and characteristics.

The proponents of the new economics of labour migration (NELM) also support the view that migration decisions are jointly made by both migrants and non-migrants. One good example is the collective support by family given to a migrant during his or her initial period in the destination country in the hope that the migrant will accumulate enough savings while overseas. The savings will then be used to initiate chain migration or to invest in homeland development (Goldin, Cameron & Balarajan 2012, p.107). It was found that this sustained flow of foreign exchange can improve the receiving countries' credit ratings and provide greater financial education and services that benefit the people who receive remittances (Newland 2007).

Research has found that in order to translate potential migration into actual migration requires networks and systems, which enable the exchange of information, settlement experiences, and job opportunities between source and destination countries. 'The importance of networks for migration can hardly be overstated... [they] rank amongst the most important explanatory factors for migration' (Arango 2004, p.28). This is also supported by Tilly (1990, p.79) who claims 'it is not people who migrate but networks'.

At the meso-level, the analysis of the relationships and agents, as well as intermediaries is crucial (Faist 2000; Goss & Lindquist 1995). The social networks are vital to facilitate migration together with socio-economic development. Migrants who first leave to seek opportunities abroad maintain contact with family and friends back home, thus creating the 'network effect', which reduces the risks for subsequent migrants. Ironically, it has also been argued that the same network effect can diminish over time as the migrant communities grow (De Haas 2009; Goldin, Cameron & Balarajan 2012).

As the migrant communities increase in numbers, areas with high migrant populations often have various customised services to support new arrivals in terms of accommodation and employment. One such organisation is Home Town Associations (HTAs) in destination countries which gathers migrants together to celebrate cultural events or festivals (Goldring 2004). Beyond the less formal social channel for migrants, there are the professional networks formed amongst colleagues, alumni and peers. A migrant may make use of more than one type of network throughout the process of moving and settling down. These migrant networks sprouting around the world generate well-connected diaspora and transnational communities (Gamlen 2011; Gamlen et al. 2013; Newland 2007).

The economic, political, cultural and social linkages between and amongst countries also play a role in influencing the mobility decision. This refers to the macro-level forces of migration such as internationalisation of the economy and the technological advancements that impact on the mobility decisions and experiences of migrants. This study's conceptual framework seeks to link the demographic dynamics at the macro- and micro (individual) levels at both origin and destination that are associated with migration. Lee (1966, p.56) argues that migration is selective, which means that demographic characteristics such as place of origin and destination, age, sex, marital status, household arrangements, ethnicity, education and occupation affect the propensity and decision to migrate. Hence it is important to analyse these characteristics to better understand migration patterns, trends and outcomes.

It is important to highlight the ways in which the micro, meso and macro factors are interconnected and have cumulative causation effects on each other. These factors influence the migration decision, and the settlement experiences of migrants (Castles, De Haas & Miller 2014; Parker 2010). This sits well with the cumulative causation theory of migration which hypothesises that migration leads to more migration. The creation of migrant networks facilitates migration, trade and investments, as well as the transfer of remittances and social capital. In this regard, Bakewell (2010) argues that the dualism approach between structure and agency is helpful in providing a theoretical basis for understanding processes of migration and change.

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the theoretical framework of the research and outlines the migration systems theory approach adopted here to study the contemporary movement between Malaysia and Australia. Four dimensions of the migration systems theory are selected as they provide a holistic approach in explaining contemporary international migration, particularly in the context of Malaysia-Australia.

The emerging interest in transnationalism and diaspora also complement the aim here to better understand the international migration scenario, i.e. mobility decisions, settlement experiences and the future intentions of migrants. Contemporary migrants tend to create and maintain social and professional contacts with non-migrants back home, as well as fellow migrants in destination countries. These important transnational linkages can be further explored and leveraged by policymakers and governments of the source, destination and transit countries to deliver a win-win-win outcome if effective engagement policies are in place.

By adopting an integrative conceptual framework linking different levels of social organisation in countries of origin and destination, this study also investigates interacting effects between individual and household decision-making processes and migrant networks. It hopes to address the specific empirical gap which previous research on contemporary movement between Malaysia and Australia has tended to neglect.

Chapter 3: Research methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the research design framework adopted in this study which aims to examine the contemporary movement of migrants between Malaysia and Australia, and its implications on the socio-economic dynamics of both countries, as well as the migrants themselves. It begins by introducing the reasons why a mixed-methods approach was chosen for this cross-sectional study. It then discusses the data collection techniques and processes, and the data analysis which included statistical and thematic analysis. The main research instruments are online survey questionnaires, in-depth interviews, and secondary sources. The final part presents the limitations of the research methodology.

3.2 Mixed-methods

There is an increased interest in mixed-methods research, hence the various ways in which it is classified. Bryman (2006); Bryman, Becker and Sempik (2008) discuss mixed-methods based on the purpose and roles of quantitative and qualitative components in such studies. Morgan (1998) classifies mixed-methods studies in terms of two criteria, first being the priority decision; and second, the sequence decision. In fact, much of the earlier mixed methods designs tend to use it as a framework of parallel or sequential designs (Creswell 1999; Morse 2003). There was limited research using mixed methods design which satisfactory integrated the different methods. Researchers (Bazeley 2004; Caruth 2013; Creswell 2013; Greene, Caracelli & Graham 1989; Matthews & Ross 2014; Tashakkori & Teddlie 2010) argue that a mixed-methods approach to choosing data collection methods should be drawn from the research questions, and they can best be answered using both quantitative and qualitative data.

There is an ongoing debate on the comparative usefulness of quantitative and qualitative analysis, however they should not be considered as mutually exclusive. In general, quantitative data provides statistical and theoretical evidence on the effectiveness of a particular policy, but often ignores the opinions and more in-depth information.

Qualitative data presents the voice of the individual or key informants, but they often do not provide empirical evidence to support the effectiveness of the topic of interest. In this regards, the quantitative and qualitative data analysis should be considered together and done in a balanced way.

Denzin (1978a, 2012) claimed that '*triangulation*' was an approach which integrates multiple observers, theoretical perspectives, data sources and methodologies. The introduction of triangulation in approaching research also suggests attempts to consolidate purpose, design and information sources. The idea of triangulation implies that findings from multiple sources and methods are integrated in order that they may be mutually corroborated.

Proponents of triangulation applaud the integrated effort to conduct social research (Campbell & Fiske 1959; Deacon, Bryman & Fenton 1998; Olsen 2004). It is argued that triangulation complements both quantitative and qualitative research strategies. The process also serves a form of cross-check across findings from both quantitative and qualitative research. For instance, Silva and Wright (2008) found that qualitative interviews assist in checking the quantitative data which increases survey data robustness.

It is common to use mixed methods and different data sources to study social phenomenon like transnationalism and diaspora. Triangulation in research helps increase the credibility and validity of the results. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000, p.195) define triangulation as an "attempt to map out, or explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than one standpoint". Altrichter et al. (2013) contend that triangulation gives a more detailed and balanced picture of the situation. Other proponents of triangulation research postulate that it is a method of cross-checking information from various sources for regularities in data collection (O'Donoghue & Punch 2003).

The mixing of data types is known as data triangulation, and is said to help in validating claims whereas the mixing of methodologies, such as mixing the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches is a more profound form of triangulation (Hussein 2015; Olsen

3.3 Primary and secondary data

Primary data were gathered using a survey questionnaire, interviews and observations while secondary data were provided by other studies, most notably by government departments and institutions like The World Bank and United Nations. Secondary data were used to establish background material to address some of the research issues. In this regards, numerous scholars argue that using secondary data in research helps to minimise costs (Dale, Arber & Procter 1988; Law 2005). In this context it provided invaluable background data on the overall patterns of migration and trends over time.

Information about emigration and diaspora, particularly in the ASEAN region is limited, however, Hugo (2005, 2008b, 2011b, 2011c); Hugo, Rudd and Harris (2003) provide some of the most comprehensive work to date. There are also some administrative useful data about diaspora and populations, data from official websites like the Department of Immigration and Border Protection (DIBP) and the Australian Bureau Statistics (ABS), United Nations Human Development Report, consular offices, censuses, and population related sample surveys. The *2003 Australian Emigration Survey* and the *2006 One Million More Census of Australians Abroad (OMM)* provide an overview of the Australian diaspora population.

The Australian Emigration Survey (2003) was one of the main references to approach this research (Hugo, Rudd & Harris 2003). The survey aimed to reach Australian graduates living abroad and sampled the Australian universities alumni groups. Respondents were given an option to reply online in addition to mailing back the questionnaire. Additional information was also circulated through expatriate organisations and a link was put through on their websites. A PhD study of the Australian diaspora in the USA (Parker 2010), provided useful information on the dynamics and characteristics of diaspora populations. It used an online survey method to collect information on the Australian diaspora in USA, which proved to be effective with more than 1000 participants responding.

There is only a small amount of data on the Malaysian diaspora globally. Despite the increased attention given to Malaysians migrating, there are few academic studies in this area and they tend to concentrate on the demographics and the likely push-pull

factors. Apart from research by Hugo (2011b, 2011c) on Malaysian emigration, a study by Lucas (2008) provided a profile of the Malaysian diaspora in terms of geographical locations with their occupational and educational structure in the USA and Australia. This has been complemented by a World Bank report in 2011, which states that there are more than one million Malaysians abroad, of which a third can be seen as a ‘brain drain’ (World Bank 2011, p.104).

3.4 Operationalising the research

This study examines the contemporary movement between Malaysia and Australia and the main focus is upon Malaysian migrants living in Australia. It also includes a look at Australians moving to Malaysia. After identifying the research design, it is important to spell out the variables or data required to address the research questions. Figure 3.2 shows the data and research questions identified to address this study’s research objectives.

Figure 3.2 A framework of data and variables to collect

To examine the contemporary migration between Malaysia and Australia and its implications on the socio-economic dynamics of both countries, as well as the migrants themselves	
<u>Variables/Data</u>	
<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; margin-bottom: 10px;"> <p style="text-align: center;">RQ*1</p> <p>What are the trends, patterns & determinants of mobility between Malaysia & Australia?</p> </div>	<p><u>Macro-level:</u> Arrival & departure (permanent, long term & short term), reasons for overseas travel for Australian residents, reasons for visiting Australia (temporary entrant)</p> <p><u>Micro-level:</u> Reasons for migration (one or more destination, return)</p>
<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; margin-bottom: 10px;"> <p style="text-align: center;">RQ*2 & 3</p> <p>What are the demographic & socio-economic characteristics of the migrants & their settlement experiences?</p> </div>	<p><u>Macro-level:</u> Population composition</p> <p><u>Micro-level:</u> Age, sex, ancestry, citizenship, birthplace, birthplace of parents, type of visa, location, length of stay, employment, occupation, income, sector, education, spouse, experiences</p>
<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; margin-bottom: 10px;"> <p style="text-align: center;">RQ*4</p> <p>How do migrants maintain linkages & contribute to the host & home countries?</p> </div>	<p>Visit (frequency, average length of visit, reasons), type of networks (intra & inter), contacts (social & professional – frequency, channel), assets, overseas presence</p>
<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; margin-bottom: 10px;"> <p style="text-align: center;">RQ*5</p> <p>What can governments do to engage diaspora?</p> </div>	<p>Motivations for migration, incentive to attract return migration, respondents’ awareness & perception of government policy & initiatives, participation in diaspora program (contribution)</p>
<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px;"> <p style="text-align: center;">RQ*6</p> <p>What are the policy & theoretical implications?</p> </div>	<p>Diaspora engagement strategies, mutual recognition agreements</p>

*RQ: Research question

Source: Constructed by author

The framework helps to guide plans on how the research questions can best be addressed, and subsequently justify the choice of data collection methods. This research is operationalised in three stages as shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Table collection methods

Stage	Activity	Source
1	Secondary data collection and analysis <i>Literature review</i>	- immigration data - census data - previous surveys - relevant academic literature - government policy compendiums - diaspora/expat population online posts and forums
2	Quantitative primary data collection <i>Malaysians in Australia (MiA)</i> <i>Australians in Malaysia (AiM)</i>	2 sets of online questionnaires: MiA and AiM - Malaysian High Commission - Australia-Malaysia Business Council (AMBC) - Malaysia clubs - Malaysian Postgraduate Students Association - JOM magazine - LinkedIn - Online forums i.e. Allo Expat, InterNations, alumni groups - Church communities - Australian High Commission - Malaysia-Australia Business Council (MABC) - Talent Corporation Malaysia Berhad - The Expat Magazine - Expatriate Lifestyle Magazine - Malaysia My Second Home (MM2H) Unit - MANZA - LinkedIn - Online forums i.e. Allo Expat, InterNations, Advance, alumni groups, international schools
3	Qualitative primary data collection	- Survey respondents who agreed to be interviewed - Key informants in government departments, non-profit organisations

Surveying the targeted respondents was challenging because there was no comprehensive listing available. This study examined a number of possibilities involving incomplete sampling frames, and adopted a multi-pronged strategy of contacting various relevant organisations (formal and informal), chambers of commerce, expatriate groups, alumni associations, as well as social networks which agreed to disseminate the survey information on their websites or in their newsletters.

3.4.1 Stage 1: Secondary data collection and analysis

Existing information about emigration and diaspora, particularly in the ASEAN region is limited. There are only a few administrative sources that were useful in providing data about diaspora populations at the macro level. There are also micro level diaspora and expatriate forums and blogs which were particularly insightful in preparing the questionnaire. The literature review provided some themes on the decision-making of migrants, their mobility patterns and transnational networks.

3.4.2 Stage 2: Quantitative primary data collection

The second stage of the research process involved constructing the two sets of online questionnaires, with the main one targeting the Malaysians in Australia, and the other set the Australians in Malaysia. Design of the questionnaires was adapted from the *Australian Emigration Survey* (Hugo, Rudd & Harris 2003), *One Million More (OMM) Survey* (2006), and Parker (2010). They incorporated local elements, which were customised to address the research objectives.

The online survey was launched for six months from 1 April to 30 September 2014, and administered via the organisations and platforms listed in Table 3.1. A snowballing approach was also adopted to attract more and diverse respondents. The aim was to disseminate the survey as widely as possible through various expatriate organisations, such as business councils and informal associations. The listed organisations, both physical and virtual in existence, had various communication channels with the target respondents i.e. newsletters, and e-bulletins which could be used. However, generalisations about the wider population cannot be made, but it did provide some valuable insights about particular groups and contribute to the body of information about diaspora populations.

This survey was administered online using the Survey Monkey programme. This method replicated the success of previous emigration studies that have used online surveys, given that time and cost-efficiency were important considerations. All survey responses were submitted anonymously to the researcher using the Survey Monkey programme. The exception was in cases where respondents voluntarily provided their

contact details if they were keen to be engaged further for interviews (Stage 3). The entire survey was completed online and there was no attempt to trace the sources so that the confidentiality of respondents was protected.

3.4.3 Stage 3 Qualitative primary data collection

In-depth interviews were conducted with key informants with the intention of forming a more detailed understanding of mobility patterns and the characteristics of migrants. Key informants were those who expressed an interest to be engaged further when the online survey was administered. They also included purposive sampling of relevant stakeholders i.e. bureaucrats, politicians, employers, trade union representatives, complementing the information from the survey. These interviews were conducted face-to-face and via telephone. They were recorded with the permission sought from the interviewees. Interestingly, key informants from government agencies and trade unions did not consent to the interviews being recorded.

The review of secondary sources and the online surveys were administered in Stages 1 and 2, and provided a good understanding of the study population which was useful in conducting the in-depth interviews. In this regard, the qualitative methods in Stage 3 aimed to provide further elaboration of the themes which were identified at earlier stages.

3.5 Sampling methods

The ideal situation would be to draw a sample from a sampling frame of all foreigners in a country that was provided by government or a registration system. However, this does not exist, privacy requirements in Australia and inconsistent records in Malaysia made it impossible, hence non-probability sampling was used. Hewson and Laurent (2008) suggest that in the absence of a sampling frame, an appropriate sample can be generated by posting an invitation to participate in an online survey on newsgroup message boards, relevant mailing lists and web pages. This was really the only option together with other means of contacting the target population.

This is basically an unrepresentative sample, with the response rate unknown which is in line with non-probability sampling techniques. A combination of convenience and snowball sampling methods were used to help reach respondents for the online survey and in-depth interviews. Details of sampling procedures are explained in the subsequent section.

3.5.1 Non-probabilistic sampling on the Internet

As non-probability sampling methods draw samples arbitrarily, the Internet is well suited to be used as a tool to recruit potential respondents.

The Internet can easily, quickly, and inexpensively access an enormous subject pool. Potential participants can exhibit a broad range of traits due to the reach of the medium. Alternatively, the Internet can isolate groups of people exhibiting particular interests or characteristics by making use of the countless content-driven sites available on the Internet. (Best & Harrison 2009, p.415)

Social research is frequently based on convenience sampling (Bryman, 2012 p.202). Snowball sampling is also a form of convenience sample where the researcher touches base with a small group of people relevant to the research topic, and then is referred to other potential respondents. It is proven to be helpful to connect and interview key government informants and groups of people with similar interests or backgrounds.

The quality of data collected is not compromised, and is validated with other credible sources of information available about the population. These include findings from previous studies on similar topics. Although the Malaysian and Australian Diaspora Survey findings cannot be generalised, they do provide a basis for further research.

3.5.2 Respondent criteria

For the Malaysians in Australia, the survey questionnaire was open to all people of Malaysian origin, aged 18 and above, who lived, worked or studied in Australia during the research period. Another set of survey questions invited any person of Australian origin, aged 18 and above, who lived, worked or studied in Malaysia to participate during the same period. The term 'Person of Malaysian origin' and 'Person of Australian origin' were used to include people who have given up their citizenships

from their home country, as well as second or subsequent generations of migrants in Malaysia and Australia.

3.6 Pilot study

A pilot study is usually good research practice which helps test the research instrument, i.e. questionnaire and interview schedule to increase its success (Baker 1994, pp.182-3). Van Teijlingen and Hundley (2002) referred to 'pilot studies' as mini versions of a full-scale or feasibility study, as well as specific pre-testing of the research instrument. The survey was distributed to a few people, including:

- Malaysians currently living in Australia
- Australians currently living in Malaysia
- Friends and acquaintances from diverse backgrounds

The feedback received from participants in the pilot surveys was invaluable. It was suggested that some questions could be re-organised, and the number of questions and pages reduced to minimise the risk of 'respondent fatigue'. For instance, instead of asking respondents how many times they visited their home country since arriving in Australia or Malaysia, some may have lost count or could not recall. The revised question asked the number of times they visited their home country in the previous year. Moreover, a few questions were restructured to be more precise and numerical hence making them more user-friendly.

Another important lesson drawn from the pilot surveys was making the key questions mandatory. In the pilot, all questions in the survey form were optional. This means the respondents would not be required to answer all the questions. However, in cases where key questions were crucial for analysis, respondents were not able to proceed to the next page until the mandatory questions, marked by the asterisk symbol (*), were completed. The final survey implemented a few mandatory questions.

Although having a dropdown menu helps manage diverse answers to a particular question by listing choices for respondents to choose from, it can also slow down the performance of the survey tool if the choices are numerous. For example, if the

dropdown menu used for country of birth or town of residence is too long, it may cause issues with loading time. The pilot responses collected from Survey Monkey were exported to the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) in SPSS format. Piloting this process helped to obtain a better understanding of variables, coding syntax and all the technicalities needed to achieve effective and efficient data collection and analysis.

Comments received from a stakeholder who was invited to participate also helped in adding policy-related questions to the survey. For example, to include questions regarding the *Returning Experts Programme* (REP) introduced by the Malaysian government. Respondents were also asked if they voted in the last general election. The analysis drawn from those answers was invaluable to present relevant policy recommendations to the government. All amendments were made accordingly which contributed to the good response rate obtained in the main survey.

3.7 Instrumentation

According to Glewwe (2005), the three important constraints faced in most surveys are financial resources, organisational capacity and the willingness, ability and accessibility of respondents. The objectives and constraints form the survey foundations, and determine questionnaire design, content and distribution. Ultimately, that helps to ensure results that address the research needs (Glewwe 2005; Matthews & Ross 2010). Ethics clearance was a pre-requisite and was obtained from the Low Risk Human Research Ethics Review Group of the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences and the Faculty of the Professions, The University of Adelaide (Appendix 1).

3.7.1 Constructing the online questionnaire

Migratory behaviour involves more than one location. Choo (2014); Ge and Ho (2014); Parker (2012) are recent examples of research adopting dual and multi-site questionnaires. This research adopts a dual-site questionnaire: One Malaysians in Australia (MiA), the other Australians in Malaysia (AiM). However, the main focus and analysis is on the Malaysians in Australia. Design of the MiA and AiM survey questionnaires was adapted from the Australian Emigration Survey (Hugo, Rudd et al.

2003), OMM (2006), Parker (2010), and the TalentCorp Returning Experts Programme Survey in 2014. The questionnaire for this study incorporated local elements, and was designed to address the research objectives. The monitoring of a number of online expatriate discussion forums, analysing the content of expatriate magazines, as well as migrant web blogs, also contributed to a better understanding of the study and thus a more appropriate questionnaire.

Participant information sheets in the form of Frequently Asked Questions (FAQ) were prepared (Appendix 2). They included the survey objective, time required to complete the survey (15-20 minutes), researcher contact details, confidentiality assurance, consent, and withdrawal options. To address the research questions, 60 questions and their respective parts were set. The number of questions to be answered varied across respondents as they could opt to skip some, and in certain cases, filtered questions shortened the length of survey. For instance, when there was a filter question ‘if yes go to Question 5’ it skipped automatically to the next question accordingly.

The survey questions were thematised under several headings, namely personal details, decision to migrate, experiences abroad, especially the settlement process, linkages maintained, intentions to return, and the diaspora engagement programme. Table 3.2 shows the grouping of variables and data collected according to the identified research themes.

Table 3.2 Grouping variables by research themes

Theme	Variable or data
Personal characteristics	Age-sex
	Ancestry
	Birthplace of person
	Birthplace of father
	Birthplace of mother
	Birthplace of spouse
	Citizenship of person
	Citizenship of spouse
	Household arrangement
	Marital status
	Visa category
Education and qualifications	Year of arrival
	Field of study
Employment and income	Level of highest educational attainment
	Annual income
Location	Employment status before & after migrating
	Occupation before & after migrating
	Sector
	Country before & after migrating
	State before & after migrating
Decision to migrate	Countries other than Malaysia and Australia
	Spouse country of residence
	Reason for migration
Settlement	Source of information
	Change in employment status
	Change in household financial status
Linkages: Identification	Change in marital status
	Home of origin
	Personal and family life
Linkages: Visits	Professional life
	Total visits in 2013
	Reason for visits
Linkages: Contacts maintained	Average length of stay
	Organisation and club in destination
	Organisation and club in origin
	Type of contacts in destination
	Type of contacts in origin
	Method to keep in touch
Linkages: Assets and investments	Frequency of keeping in touch
	Assets in destination
	Assets in origin
Intention to return	Plan to return
	Intended timeframe to return
	Reason for returning
	Reason for not returning
	Incentive to return
Diaspora engagement	Overseas presence
	Awareness of diaspora initiative

Two types of survey questions were used: closed and open-ended. The closed questions were either dichotomous or multiple choice. Examples of dichotomous questions which offer two choice ('Yes' or 'No') include: *'Have you lived in countries other than Australia and Malaysia'*, *'Do you plan to return to Malaysia to live?'*, *'Do you maintain contact with people and organisations in Malaysia?'* The multiple choice questions include *'Please indicate the main reasons for your decision to move to Australia'*, *'How did you learn of opportunities in Australia that prompted your move here?'*, *'What type of linkages do you keep with Malaysia?'*

In some cases, partially open-ended questions provided respondents with the opportunity to give additional comments in the text fields. For instance, respondents were able to provide other reasons for their decision to move, and their main reasons for returning. These questions helped respondent perspectives on a particular topic without assuming they would conform to the set list. Another example was about what was required for Malaysian respondents in Australia to return to Malaysia, there were various descriptions which denote change of government. Some of the responses to this question include *'change to a better and fairer government'*, *'more transparent government'*, *'a smart, effective and fair government in Malaysia'*, *'change of regime'*, *'complete change of culture from government'*. These responses were then grouped under 'dissatisfaction with government'. A general question at the end of the questionnaire which gave the respondents the opportunity to add other comments about the study ensured that respondents felt that their opinions were valued.

The order of the questions were logically set, and each question lead to another and were grouped under the common theme. There were also general questions which were followed by a few detailed sub-questions. For example, questions relating to return migration were asked in a specific order to fully capture the respondents' return intentions:

'Do you plan to return to Malaysia to live?'
'If yes, when do you plan to return to Malaysia to live? (Please select one)'
'What are your main reasons for returning to Malaysia?'

3.7.2 Web-based survey

The advent of information and communications technology (ICT) has transformed social research design and approaches. ICT-based data collection tools support and supplement traditional data collection techniques to increase their relevance and enrich the analysis (Granello & Wheaton 2004). Web-based surveys can be ‘fielded’ (i.e., launched) quicker than snail mail surveys. Some of the service providers offering web-based surveys include Survey Monkey, Zoomerang and Google Forms.

With the Internet being one of the main communication platforms, web surveys are increasingly popular for research. Web surveys operate by inviting potential respondents to visit a website where the questionnaire is made available. As Couper and Miller (2008) found, there is a growing tendency for researchers who conduct postal questionnaire surveys to offer respondents an option to complete them online. For instance, in the Australian Emigration Survey, a questionnaire was distributed to participating university alumni associations that sent it to Australian graduates with a cover letter. Recipients of the questionnaire were able to return the completed questionnaire in a reply paid envelope or fax, or complete it online. A total of 2072 useable questionnaires were returned, and some of the mailed surveys were returned online, however others were informed by newsletters etc. that provided the online link. That demonstrated the effectiveness of the online method in approaching the study, which was one of the first times such an approach had been developed.

The Malaysian Australian Diaspora Survey (MADS) 2014 online questionnaires were created using Survey Monkey. Upon receiving ethics clearance for the research protocol, the questions were created using Survey Monkey’s Gold Plan which supports SPSS integration. The software had certified survey templates for various categories. These templates consist of methodologically certified questions from a question bank, which is a useful resource for reference. Optimising Survey Monkey’s questionnaire design and formatting tool that facilitates reading and navigation between pages. Features like the progress bar and automatic skipping of questions which are not applicable to the respondent are attractive. A copy of the questionnaire is enclosed in Appendix 3).

Detailed information on the project and participant consent requirements was published on the website's main page. In MADS 2014, two internet addresses were created for the respective target group of respondents, namely:

- <https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/MalaysiansInAustralia>
- <https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/AustraliansInMalaysia>

Both the web surveys in MADS 2014 were made available to anyone informed of the link and had access to the Internet. The Malaysians in Australia (MiA) survey gathered 1033 respondents while the Australians in Malaysia (AiM) survey was less successful, and received 134 responses.

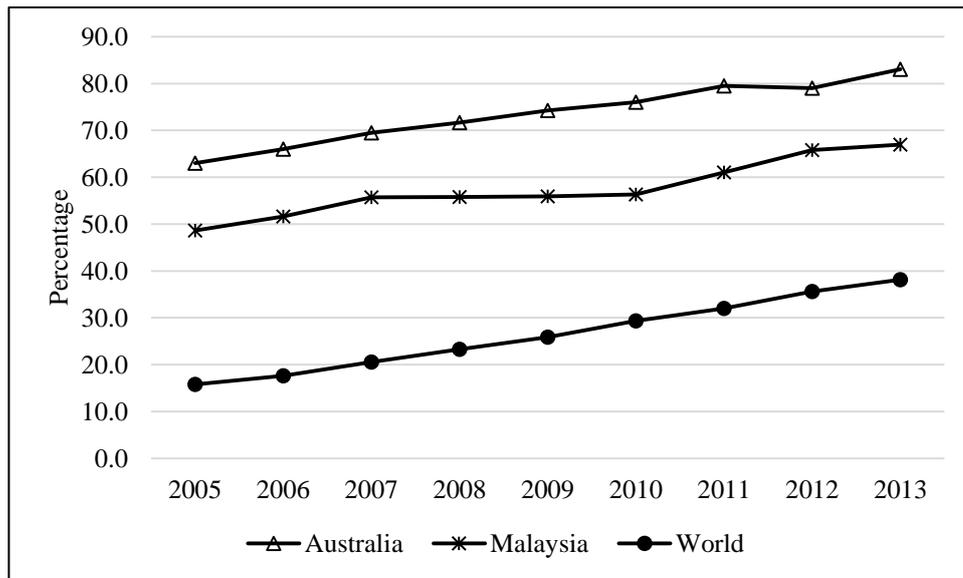
Respondents were assured that they could not be identified and the results were strictly confidential. After the surveys were completed and submitted online, they were transferred into SPSS to produce descriptive statistics and cross tabulations. The open-ended responses supplemented the data analysis with some qualitative data that had to be classified and coded. This provided a good insight into attitudes, concerns and views of respondents. The Text Analysis function in Survey Monkey helped in categorising open-ended responses. The responses were further recoded using SPSS RECODE command according to the categories of responses identified and the number of responses in each category.

3.7.2.1 Potential limitations of the web survey

Although offering respondents an online option is convenient, it is acknowledged that there are limitations. In terms of reach and accessibility, only people who are information technology (IT) literate and have access to the Internet can take part in web surveys, others are effectively excluded. This effectively biases the survey towards the young and more educated groups. However, this limitation is offset by the fact that both Malaysia and Australia have relatively high Internet usage indicators. The internet penetration rate in both countries are above the world average. This is based on the United Nations core indicator for Information and communication technologies and economic development. Internet users are defined as people who use the Internet from any location, including work and home via various devices such as computers, smart

phones, and digital television. The indicator ‘Internet users (per 100 population)’ is derived by dividing the number of Internet users by total population and multiplying by 100. Figure 3.3 shows that the internet penetration rate of Australia and Malaysia is 83 per cent and 67 per cent respectively. These figures are way above the world average of 38 per cent in 2013 (ITU and World Bank estimates, 2013).

Figure 3.3 Internet users (per 100) for Australia, Malaysia and the world



Source: International Telecommunication Union, World Bank estimates (2013)

As such, it is anticipated that potential respondents in both countries are able to access Internet facilities easily. Moreover, the Malaysian/Australian diaspora are predominantly highly educated and skilled professionals, who tend to be concentrated in the main cities, hence have good access to Internet facilities.

Another concern with regard to administering a web survey is to generate interest among respondents to participate and complete the questionnaire. Young respondents were more likely to be more engaged than the older group, and given that it is a self-administered web survey, respondents needed to be highly motivated. Bryman (2012) argues that to ensure good participation and completion of the web survey, the solicitation to participate must be highly persuasive. A participant information page which addressed ‘what’s in it for me’ queries, provided answers to potential long-term gains for them in order to get them to support the project by partaking in the survey.

3.7.3 Survey distribution: Leveraging social media

It is important to harness the Internet and social media to create awareness about the survey, recruit respondents and collect data. Internet data collection is increasingly used in conjunction with other methodologies to enhance or improve the ability to easily and effectively contact individuals (Best & Harrison 2009, p.417). In particular, social media has become more integrated in daily life interactions, be it personal, social or business communications. Recently, every facet of every business, including research, seems intent on leveraging social media. Using social media to recruit survey respondents seems to be a natural fit. Facebook and Twitter combined reaches over 1.5 billion users. According to the Search Engine Journal in 2013, there were 1.15 billion registered Facebook users, 1 billion registered Google+ users, and 554.7 million registered Twitter users.

Upon securing approvals from the identified organisations which agreed to help disseminate the survey information, an introductory note was circulated via their network of contacts (Appendix 4). The introductory note states the research objectives and benefits, the background to the study, researcher details, survey duration and provides information on ethics consent. More than 80 organisations and agencies in Malaysia and Australia were approached. However, some required official approval before they agreed to disseminate the questionnaire on their official websites, newsletters and publications.

In addition to the 80 organisations, some 39 Australian universities alumni associations and forums, 34 international schools in Malaysia, and 25 institutes of higher learning were approached to assist in distributing the survey. In order to further reach potential respondents, social networks, such as expatriate and diaspora forums in Facebook, LinkedIn and Twitter were used and more than 3000 personalised messages were sent via Facebook.

3.8 Social media platforms used

The following sub-sections describe the study's survey distribution via the different social media platforms used to promote and recruit respondents for the study.

3.8.1 Facebook

Started as a personal social communication tool in 2004 with a million registered users, Facebook has since been monetised and has become a platform for businesses, corporations, politicians and researchers to reach out to their target audiences. By the end of 2014, there were over one billion registered Facebook users, and total revenue generated from various advertising fees and payments totalled \$3.85 billion (Facebook Annual Report 2014, p.47).

In addition to sending emails and personal messages, efforts to reach as many respondents as possible to take the MADS 2014 survey was extended using Facebook. There are many relevant Facebook group pages which were used to recruit respondents. By employing chain referrals, or snowball sampling, Facebook group members and friends helped to spread the survey information.

Australia and Malaysia have a 78 per cent and 68 per cent Facebook subscribers penetration rate respectively (Internet World Stats 2015). According to the same source, the highest active Facebook users are aged between 18 and 34 years (64 per cent). Given that the Malaysia-born population in Australia is dominated by young people of working age, who are highly educated and highly skilled, there were many Malaysian-related Facebook groups and pages which had been created and actively used. These Facebook groups and pages, serving different needs and purposes, are popular and facilitate active interactions across various themes. The popular themes include the Malaysian food and eateries, news from back home, as well as new migrant arrival and settlement experiences. The MiA survey was promoted via all the relevant Facebook sites.

Although younger cohorts use Facebook in greater proportions, a 2011 Pew survey found that those aged 65 and older had been the fastest growing group in terms of social media adoption (Madden & Zickuhr 2011). Hugo (2006) observed that Australia-born people in Asia are generally older, which suggests that many move or relocate to Asia at a later stage of their professional life, and presumably for retirement due to the perceived lower cost of living in upper middle-income economies like Malaysia. The AiM survey was distributed through Facebook pages and groups of Australian expatriates in Malaysia.

3.8.2 LinkedIn and Twitter

Although Facebook dominates in the social media statistics usage and subscription overall, there are potential respondents who are excluded, particularly professionals who prefer to network on a professional-specific platform like LinkedIn. There are over 85 million LinkedIn members residing in the Asia-Pacific region, with over seven million registered users in Australia, and two million in Malaysia (LinkedIn 2015). Leveraging on LinkedIn's huge user population in Australia and Malaysia, the survey link was shared on the LinkedIn account of several entities. For example, Advance Australia Global Community assisted in promoting the survey to its Asia database members on Advance's Facebook, LinkedIn, and Twitter page.

Given the multi-channel approach to respondent recruitment, it is not possible to trace how many respondents have been referred to the survey from the participating organisations or postings on social media groups. However, from a two-part survey question, the respondents were asked if they participate in any Malaysian or Australian-based organisations or clubs in Australia or Malaysia. If they did, they were asked to list the names of the organisations in which they were involved.

Table 3.3 shows that about one third of the respondents participated in the Malaysian or Australian-based organisations or clubs in Australia or Malaysia. More than 40 per cent who answered 'No' in both samples may have excluded virtual affiliations, such as subscriptions to social media groups and clubs. These respondents may have related only to formal organisations when answering the question.

Table 3.3 Participation of respondents in expatriate organisations in Malaysia and Australia

Participate in expatriate organisation	MiA (n=1033)	AiM (n=134)
Yes	35.9	31.6
No	42.6	45.9
Not stated	21.5	22.6
TOTAL	100.0	100.0

Source: MADS 2014

3.8.3 Effectiveness of survey distribution method

The MADS survey was distributed across various organisations and platforms in Malaysia and Australia. However, there were potential limitations and survey biases. One of the more obvious limitations of the AiM survey is that Australian expatriates living in key cities may have more exposure to expatriate-related updates and events. Key expatriate organisations and clubs are based in Kuala Lumpur presumably due to the fact that many multinational corporations and international schools are concentrated in the capital city of Malaysia. Malaysia Australia NZ Association (MANZA), Malaysian Warriors Australia Rules Football Club, and other business and social networking engagements are held in Kuala Lumpur.

Table 3.4 shows that 36.6 per cent of the AiM respondents said they participated in MANZA activities, which is one of the few Australian organisations who agreed to circulate the survey to its members through its newsletter.

Table 3.4 Respondents participation in Australian organisations/clubs in Malaysia

Australian-based organisations in Malaysia	n	%
Malaysia Australia NZ Association (MANZA)	15	36.6
Malaysian Warriors Australia Rules Football Club	10	24.4
Malaysia Australia Business Council (MABC)	5	12.2
Malaysia-Australia Defence Alumni Association (M-ADAA)	2	4.9
Others	9	22.0
Total*	41	100.0

*Indicates some respondents participated in more than one organisation
Source: AiM Survey 2014, MADS 2014

On the Malaysian diaspora survey, it is no surprise that most respondents belong to the Malaysian students associations or organisations (MSA/MSO) in Australia and many subscribe to Malaysian related Facebook groups and pages. Table 3.5 shows that over 70 per cent of the MiA respondents said that they were involved in MSAs/MSOs and one third were members of Malaysian Facebook groups.

Table 3.5 Respondents participation in Malaysian organisations/clubs in Australia

Malaysian-based organisations in Australia	n	%
Malaysian student association/organisation	141	39.4
Malaysian Facebook groups/pages	118	33.0
Social & sports	27	7.5
Political group	26	7.3
Religious group	19	5.3
Business & professional	12	3.4
Cultural group	4	1.1
Others	11	3.0
Total*	358	100.0

*Indicates some respondents participated in more than one organisation
Source: MiA Survey 2014, MADS 2014

Nonetheless, it cannot be deduced that involvement in the expatriate organisations or clubs solely contributes to an awareness of the survey and subsequent uptake. Some respondents may not be involved in any of the expatriate organisation or club activities, but they may have been invited or introduced by friends or acquaintances to undertake the survey.

3.9 Interviews with respondents and key informants

Interviews are one of the most employed methods in qualitative research. Most literature on qualitative interviews describes them as being unstructured and semi-structured. As Parker (2004) argues, there is no such thing as structured interviews “because people always say things that spill beyond the structure.” Semi-structured interviews are used in this research as they were deemed to be most suitable. There was only one interviewer involved in the investigation with a fairly clear focus to pursue and probe into deeper understanding of the research themes. Cohen and Crabtree (2006) note that semi-structured interviewing, guided by an inventory of issues, is flexible and allows interviewees to share their needs and concerns.

3.9.1 Interview guide

O'Leary (2013) argues that prior observations and a review of existing text on the research subject establishes a better understanding of the project. Indirect data found in open virtual social interactions, documents and databases related to the Malaysian and Australian migrants served as a guide in creating a thematised questionnaire and interview guide. Data captured and analysed from MADS 2014 became one of the main references to finalise the interview questions in the interview guide.

The main themes addressed in both the online questionnaire and interviews include: motivations for mobility, settlement experiences including transnational linkages maintained with home (and transit) countries, and policy recommendations. Amendments were made to the interview guide after preliminary analysis of the MADS results. Several questions were added to gain an in-depth understanding of migrant pre- and post- migration experiences. Questions on perceived contributions to the country of origin and destination, and views on the engagement efforts of government are also asked specifically during the interviews. The added questions included how the respondents came to know about the survey, which helped to validate effectiveness of the respective survey distribution channels used.

Semi-structured interviews are advantageous as they allow flexibility as the interview progresses. Interviewees themselves raised additional or complementary issues, which further contributed towards the study findings. For instance, an interviewee indicated how their children had influenced the decision to move, and how they were benefiting from the move. A copy of the interview guide is enclosed in Appendix 5.

3.9.2 Interview sample

There are two groups of interviewees engaged in this research. Firstly, those respondents who completed the MADS 2014 questionnaire, and were invited to participate in the follow-up in-depth interviews by providing their email addresses on the last page of the online questionnaire. Follow-up emails were sent to those respondents who were keen to be interviewed. The second group of interviewees were those identified as key informants.

Due to time and resources, the number of face-to-face interviews, including key informant interviews, were confined to the main cities within Klang Valley (which include Kuala Lumpur), Kuching and Kota Kinabalu in Malaysia, and Melbourne and Adelaide in Australia. The main cities in Malaysia were chosen because there were more expatriates living and working in those commercial and transportation hubs. Melbourne was targeted because the 2011 Australian Census showed that Victoria had the largest Malaysian-born population (39,791) whereas Adelaide was selected for its convenience as it was the place of residence of the researcher at the time.

Table 3.6 shows that from the Australian diaspora survey of the 134 respondents, 44 per cent indicated an interest in being interviewed. Subsequently, 14 interviews were conducted based on their availability and consent. As for the Malaysians in Australia, there were 1033 respondents, one-third replied with email addresses to be contacted for interviews. Finally, upon mutually agreed times and venues, only 13 respondents were interviewed in person, while another 6 were interviewed by telephone. It was quite difficult to set a time which was convenient for the respondents who were willing to be interviewed.

Table 3.6 Interview sample from MADS 2014 respondents

	AiM	MiA
Took online survey (n)	134	1033
Provided email address for interviews	44.0%	33.0%
Interviewed	22.0%	5.0%

Source: MADS 2014

3.9.3 Interviewing Australians in Malaysia

Studies show that face-to-face interviews prove to be a very rich source of information (Duncan & Fiske 2015). Beyond words, other information received includes gestures, body language and facial expressions. While it is not possible to note all of the non-verbal communication, it is suggested that key points should be transcribed immediately post-interview for better recollection of those non-verbal features. According to Berg, Lune and Lune (2004), the interviewees may treat the interviewer like a guest, hence will most likely answer the questions accurately and properly.

From the 13 face-to-face interviews of the Australian diaspora in Malaysia (AiM), there were ten males and three females, with most of them aged between 40 and 59. The majority were Australia-born (10), while the other three were born in USA, UK and Malaysia respectively. Eight were holding Employment Passes while nine had been living in Malaysia for less than six years, and had originated mainly from the states of New South Wales and Victoria.

Being a researcher based in an Australian institution, and originating from Malaysia, it helped facilitate the interview process. Familiarity with both countries and an understanding of issues surrounding Australian migrants helped build rapport with the interviewees. They were comfortable relating their experiences in localised terms and context.

One such example of relating to the local context was given by an Australian expatriate in Malaysia, when she expressed her views about the pro-*bumiputera* affirmative action in Malaysia, which is believed to have contributed to the high emigration rate amongst the Malaysian-Chinese:

You know how Bumiputera policies here are like..., I personally find them bizarre... Why should they be given privileges exclusively when they form the majority of the population? That is not socially just... (#97, female expatriate in her late forties)

Another example where being familiar with scenarios in both countries helped to better understand another interviewee's point on safety concerns in Malaysia:

You would have noticed that you could just chill and leave your belongings unattended at the park back in Australia. Here, I feel so unsafe especially when I'm out with the children alone. Snatch theft news is being reported almost every day, and I'm sure you read about the kidnapping news in front of this international school in Mont Kiara... (#117, female expatriate residing in Selangor)

3.9.4 Interviewing Malaysians in Australia

Similar to the interviews conducted in Malaysia, the researcher's 'dual-position' as a Malaysian residing in Australia was also advantageous. Nonetheless, the researcher was able to reaffirm interviewees that all information shared will not be divulged to anyone else. This confidentiality assurance was important to the interviewees. However, as anticipated, almost all interviewees were reluctant to have interviews recorded.

A total of 19 interviews were conducted, predominantly males aged 30-39 years, and were General Skilled Migration visa holders. Eight of them had been in Australia for more than 10 years. Overall, of those 19 interviewed, 6 were conducted using a telephone, while the others were face-to-face. Like the interviewees in Malaysia, they were recruited from the online survey.

Similar to the face-to-face interviews, the purpose of the research was communicated clearly at the beginning of the telephone conversation. Greener (2011) argues that there will be less risk of problems arising when interviewees are better briefed. Telephone interviews are increasingly popular due to their practicality to meet the needs of both interviewers and interviewees, without incurring physical travel costs. Fowler (2013) found that respondents perceive telephone interviews to provide more privacy given the greater social distance between them and the interviewer. A mutually agreed time was set via email correspondence before the interviewer contacted the interviewee at the scheduled time.

3.9.5 Interviewing key informants

Despite academic literature suggesting informant bias, in this study key informants played a vital role in providing in-depth explanations with regards to macro issues on policy and programmes, as well as unpublished official statistics. The identified informants were key stakeholders involved in the whole spectrum of the research field.

Seidler (1974, p.816) found that for key informants, there was a need to solicit information from a small number of highly knowledgeable participants on specific research issues. There is a clear demarcation between the role of respondent and informant in organisations assuming interviewees role in research (Anderson 1987; Seidler 1974). Data provided by individuals reflect their own reflections, perceptions and personal views, while those responding as key informants representing certain organisations, required authorised or approved data originating from the organisational information or specialised knowledge (Kumar, Stern & Anderson 1993).

Recognising the potential sources of informant bias resulting from their position and errors of recall, an interview brief was prepared and sent to informants before the interviews took place. This helped them to prepare for the interview thus reducing the risk of providing inconsistent and incomplete data.

Table 3.7 lists the range of institutions involved in the interviews. There were 12 interviews with key informants from 11 Malaysian public and private institutions, and one Australian institution. However, the information gathered from the one informant in Australia was exhaustive, and comprehensively addressed the research questions. The single informant is Malaysia-born who engaged in the local Malaysian community, and at the same time embraced Australian multiculturalism, and was a Member of the Legislative Council who oversees multicultural affairs, trade and investment and small business.

Table 3.7 Key informants' interview

Informants interview in Malaysia

Ministry of Foreign Affairs
 Malaysian My Second Home
 Ministry of International Trade and Industry
 Economic Planning Unit, Prime Minister's Department
 Ministry of Home Affairs
 Department of Immigration (Sabah)
 Department of Immigration (Sarawak)
 Department of Immigration (HQ Putrajaya)*
 Chief Minister's Department (Sarawak)
 Federation of Malaysian Manufacturers
 Talent Corporation Malaysia Berhad

Informant interview in Australia

South Australian Legislative Council for the
 Liberal Party of Australia

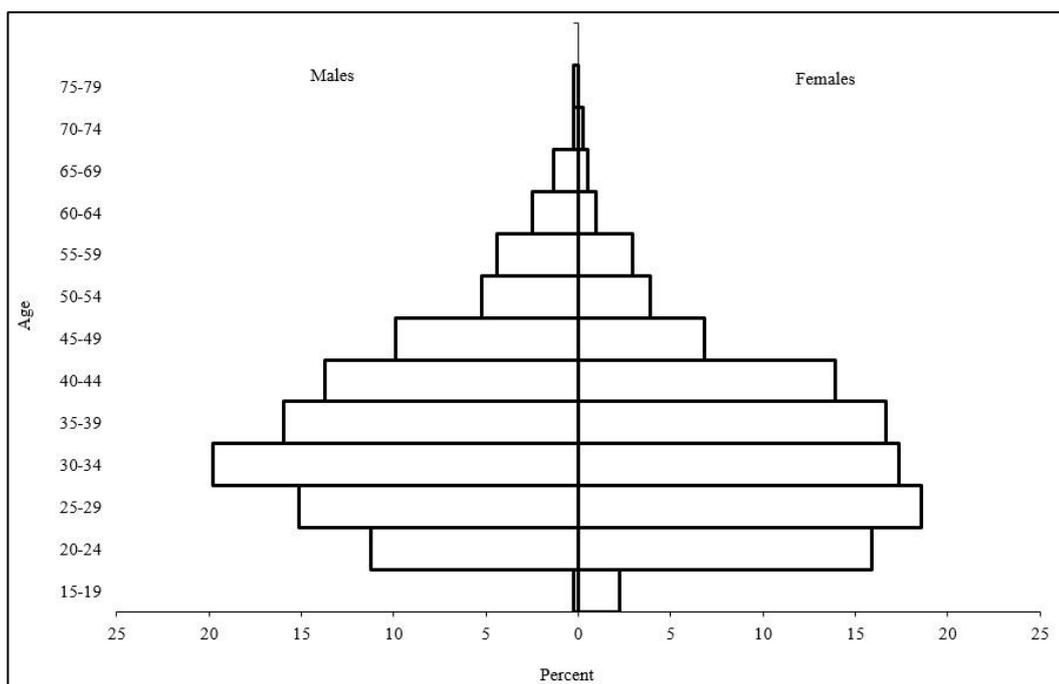
*Provided interview script. Unable to schedule for face-to-face interview.

3.10 The demographic characteristics of respondents

This section presents the key demographic characteristics of respondents, including age and sex, education, ethnic or ancestry background, visa category, employment status, occupation, income, marital status, and household arrangements. Figure 3.4 shows that

the Malaysians residing in Australia were primarily in the economically active age group. There was little differences between males and females across the different age groups, with slightly more females (409) than males (364) in total. However, it is important to note that there were more females in the younger age group compared with men. In contrast, there were more males in the older age group. Most importantly, there were only a few respondents aged over 55 years; and none under 18 year of age as survey respondents could only be included if aged over 18 years of age.

Figure 3.4 Age-sex structure of the Malaysian respondents in Australia



Source: MiA Survey 2014

The respondents were considered highly educated. Some 86 per cent had a degree or tertiary qualification, with one-third of them having a postgraduate degree. There were slightly more females (36 per cent) who had a postgraduate degree compared with males (31 per cent). Of particular note, there was a large majority of Chinese respondents (73 per cent), followed by Malay (17 per cent), Indian (8 per cent) and the other ethnics which include the indigenous people (2 per cent). The Chinese dominance amongst the respondents corroborates with the Australian census data, and has been precipitated by dissatisfaction with pro-Malay policies (*bumiputera*) introduced after the serious racial riots in Kuala Lumpur in May 1969.

Table 3.8 shows the visa category of respondents, and more than 45 per cent of them held a *General Skilled Migration* visa. This was followed by *Student* visa (26 per cent), *Family visa* (7 per cent) and some 7 per cent indicated that they were holding Australian citizenship. There were 4 per cent holding the *Employer Sponsored visa*, while rest held *Business Skills visa* (1 per cent), *Distinguished Talent visa* (0.7 per cent), *Working Holiday visa* (0.7 per cent) and other (10 per cent). Therefore in total over two-thirds were skilled migrants or students.

Table 3.8 Visa category of the respondents

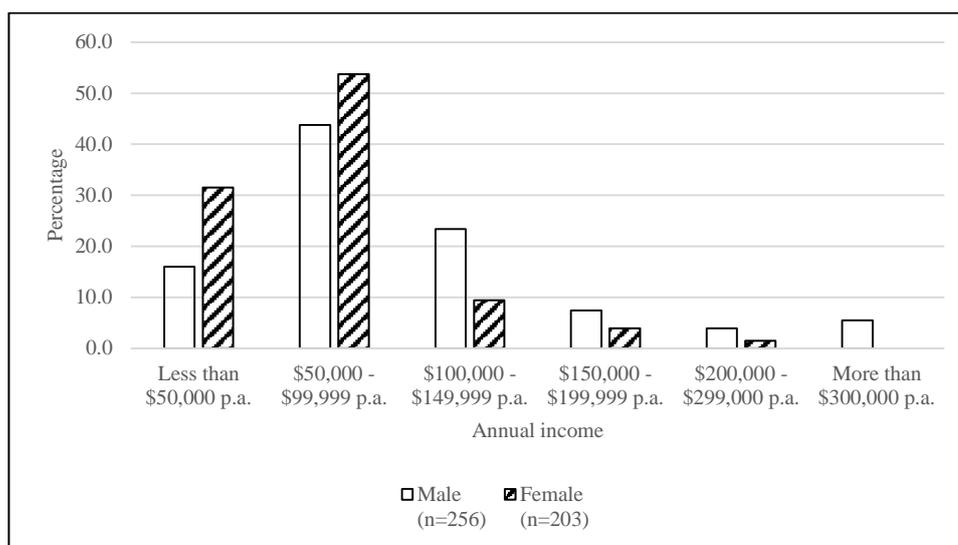
Visa category	n	%
General skilled migration	373	44.7
Student	213	25.5
Family	56	6.7
Citizen	55	6.6
Employer sponsored	32	4.0
Business skills	12	1.4
Distinguished talent	6	0.7
Working holiday	6	0.7
Other*	81	9.7
TOTAL	834	100.0

Source: MiA Survey 2014

*Include Permanent Residency, spousal/partner/de-facto sponsored-visa

Figure 3.5 compares the annual income which is estimated in A\$ per annum of male and female respondents, and shows that the majority of them were earning between \$50,000 and \$99,999 per annum. Males tended to earn a higher incomes compared to females, with almost a quarter of the males earning between \$100,000 and \$149,999 compared to 9 per cent of females. Some 17 per cent of males were earning more than \$150,000 while the corresponding ratio for females was 5 per cent.

Figure 3.5 Annual income (estimated in A\$) of male and female respondents



Source: MiA Survey 2014

The majority of respondents were married, 67 per cent of males and 59 per cent of females, and there were more single females than males. Only 2 per cent of respondents were separated or divorced and less than one per cent widowed. Table 3.9 shows the family household living arrangements of respondents with 43 per cent living as a couple with children, followed by one-fifth in single person households, and two or more unrelated individuals accounted for 10 per cent, which represented group household and most likely students.

Table 3.9 Living arrangements of the respondents

Household living arrangement	n	%
Single person household	159	20.7
Couple only household	134	17.4
Couple with children	331	43.1
One parent with children	29	3.8
Two or more unrelated individuals	78	10.2
Other (please specify)	37	4.8
TOTAL	768	100.0

Source: MiA Survey 2014

3.11 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the research design, and elaborated upon the mixed methods approach adopted for this study. Firstly, it is important to note that triangulation mediates the quantitative and qualitative divide. Secondly, it is acknowledged that secondary data complements primary data (and vice versa) in the mixed-methods strategy.

To ensure all the research objectives and questions were answered, the research design incorporated the three main themes of the study: mobility decisions, settlement experiences which include the maintenance of transnational linkages, and recommendations to better engage diaspora. The research themes were translated into effective and efficient design of the research instruments used here, and that ultimately helped gather answers to the identified research questions.

However, there are limitations in terms of data availability, particularly of the Australia-born population in Malaysia. Unlike Australia, Malaysia does not have a systematic method of collecting complete information on its foreign-born population. The method of data collection used has a potential bias but it is supplemented with data triangulated from multiple sources explained earlier.

Due to the absence of a sampling frame, a combination of convenience and snowball sampling methods were used. Therefore it is important to conclude that the survey findings cannot be generalised but they do provide an interesting insight of the sampled population.

Chapter 4: The Malaysia – Australia migration system

Mobility has become an integral part of the life of a global citizen as they make decisions to move from one destination to another. Hugo (2014d, p.2) points out that:

In the last two decades there has been a significant increase in individual mobility which has meant that migration has become within the calculus of choice of most of the world's population as they weigh their life chances.

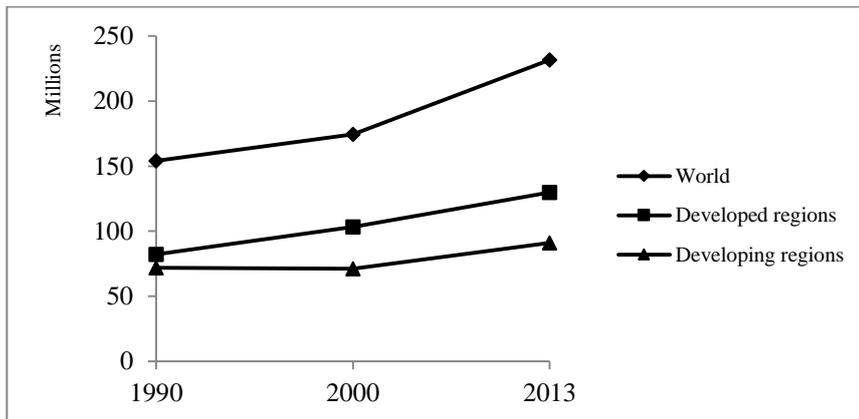
An increase in personal mobility is deemed to be both a cause, as well as consequence of the wider economic, social and political transformation that has been occurring, hence it is extremely complex and multi-faceted (Boyle, Halfacree & Robinson 2014; Hugo 2011a). As migration continues to evolve in terms of scale, complexities, patterns and flows, it is important to contextualise it to better understand the scenario, as in the case of the Malaysia – Australia migration system.

This chapter provides an overview of global international migration and its implications, looking specifically at the Malaysia – Australia migration system which is shaped by multiple factors. It is organised into three major sections. The first provides an overview of international migration and the background of the Malaysia – Australia migration system based on secondary sources such as census data, immigration reports and statistics. The second describes the key elements of the Malaysia – Australia migration system, and the third discusses the impacts of the contemporary movement between the two countries with a focus on policy considerations.

4.1 The global migration scenario

Migration affects population dynamics, including the demographic characteristics, labour market structure and overall political, social, security and economic settings. Traditionally, developed regions such as Europe, Northern America, Australia, and New Zealand tended to host more international migrants compared to the developing nations. In fact, the North hosted 60 per cent of international migrants in 2013, up from 53 per cent in 1990. However, it is interesting to note that the growth of migrant stock in the South has been more rapid than the North since 2000 (see Figure 4.1), which was discussed in Chapter 1.

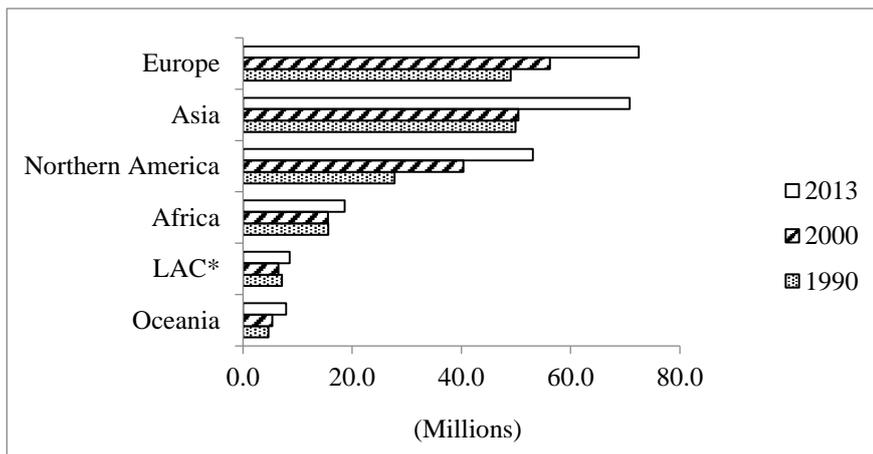
Figure 4.1 Trends in international migrants in developed and developing regions, 1990-2013



Source: United Nations (2013, p.2)

According to the United Nations, in 2013 there were 232 million migrants globally, which accounted for 3.2 per cent of the global total population. Figure 4.2 show that Europe and Asia hosted the largest number of international migrants, with 72 million in Europe and 71 million in Asia. However, Asia had gained more international migrants than any other major area since 2000 due to its high population growth and economic vibrancy.

Figure 4.2 International migrants by major area, 1990-2013



*Latin America and the Caribbean
Source: United Nations (2013, p.3)

One of the most significant impacts of international migration is how it has transformed societies, and how it will continue to transform the global population. Researchers Castles, De Haas and Miller (2014); Hugo (2014a) have argued that the migration

discourse needs to break away from the conventional dichotomy of origin-destination; Northern countries (developed)-Southern countries (developing); internal-international migration; permanent-temporary movement; uni-directional and multi-directional flows. Though much has changed, and experiences differ across the world's contemporary migration system, there are several common characteristics according to Massey et al. (1998):

- Source countries experience resource limitations, i.e. lack of capital supply, jobs and over-supply of labour
- Destination countries have intensive capital and technology but lack labour
- Immigration needs to be managed
- Disparities exist in wealth, power and population

Interestingly, what Massey and associates found in the late 1990s is still applicable in explaining the current migration situation. There is also a relationship between international migration and demographic changes. As demographic transition progresses to lower fertility and lower mortality and towards an ageing population, which is common in more developed countries, this has indirectly fuelled the migration of young skilled workers from less developed to the more developed regions.

4.2 Contemporary movement between Malaysia and Australia

Harnessing the emerging transnationalism theory requires a more holistic analysis of mobility (Dunn 2005; Hugo 2013). In studying the contemporary movement between Malaysia and Australia, it is important to observe the following guidelines:

- To focus on origin and destination, as well as the migration's impact on the flows and linkages between them (Faist 2000; Levitt 2001)
- To analyse all types of mobility, including non-permanent movement
- To emphasise diaspora linkages and their potential contribution
- To acknowledge that migrants can identify with more than one nation state (Basch, Schiller & Blanc 1994)
- To understand how bilateral and multilateral agreements between countries can facilitate migration

4.2.1 Key features of the Malaysia – Australia migration system

Many countries, including Malaysia fail to collect data on emigration flows or its expatriate population, and if data exist, it is mainly on permanent migration (Dumont & Lemaître 2005; Hugo 2006d; Schachter 2006). Australia is one of the very few nations which boasts a robust data collection of both immigrants and emigrants, including country of birth, date of birth, country of origin and destination, intended and actual length of stay in Australia. This is based on comprehensive data from the incoming and outgoing passenger cards, and is highly useful to study the Malaysia – Australia migration system.

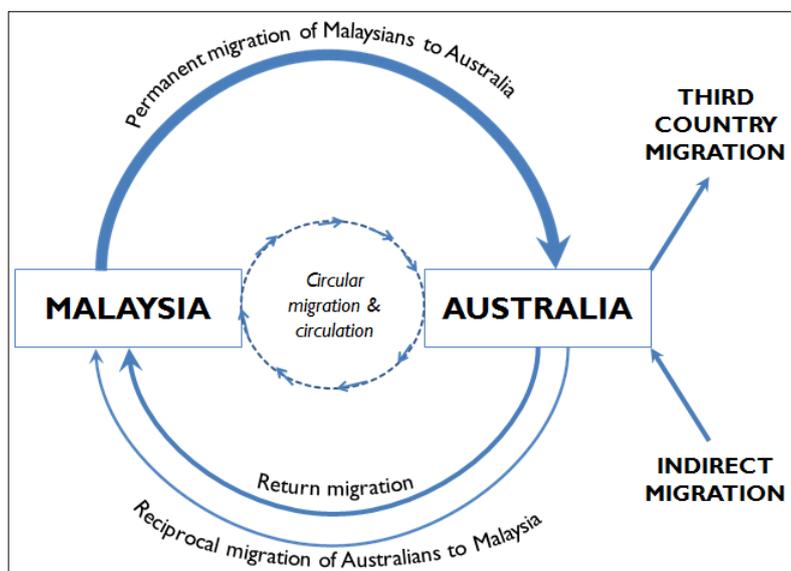
Australian arrivals and departures data can be separated into three categories based on the length of intended stay in Australia and time intended to stay away from Australia. The categories are: 1) permanent movement⁵; 2) long-term movement⁶; and 3) short-term movement⁷. Figure 4.3 illustrates these contemporary movements in a model of the Malaysia – Australia migration system, whereby the Malaysia – Australia stream is dominant and consists of both temporary and permanent movement. It is most helpful to consider countries in pairs for which there are movers in both directions. Within this model, several distinct elements were identified.

⁵ Australians residents and citizens departing with the stated intention of residing abroad permanently. Foreigners arriving with the stated intention of remaining permanently in Australia.

⁶ Departures of Australian residents and citizens who intend to return after at least 12 months. Foreigners with temporary residence who intend to leave Australia after at least 12 months.

⁷ Australian residents and citizens who intend to stay overseas for less than 12 months. Foreigners who intend to stay in Australia for less than 12 months.

Figure 4.3 A model of the Malaysia – Australia migration system



Source: Adapted from Hugo (2013, p.6)

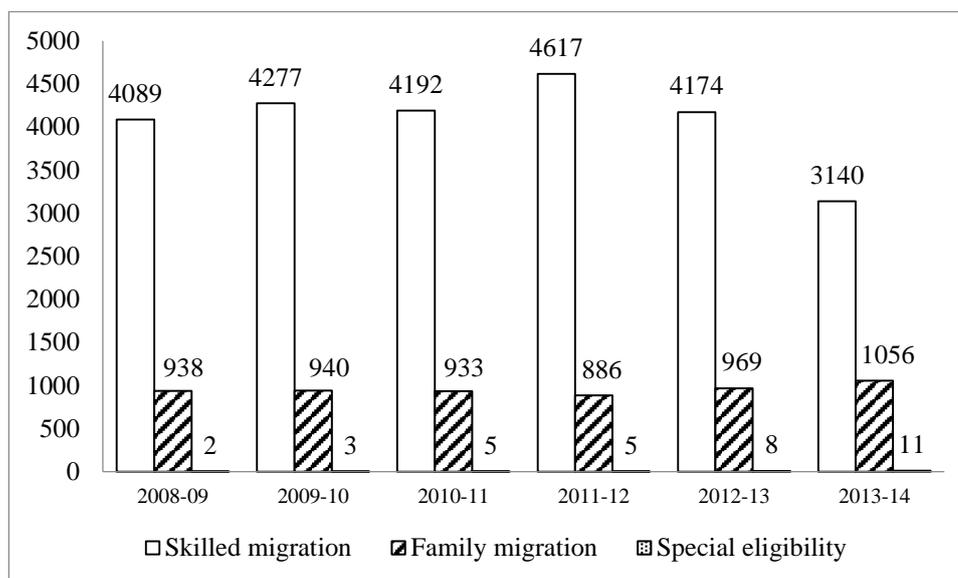
Firstly, there is the permanent settlement of Malaysians in Australia. This refers to the more traditional, permanent movement of Malaysians under the Skill, Family or Special Eligibility streams of the Australian immigration programme⁸. Malaysia has been one of the top source countries in the General Skilled Migration⁹ visa places (DIBP 2013). Figure 4.4 shows that one of the defining characteristics of the Malaysian permanent migration to Australia is skilled-based, with much lower family and virtually a very minimum number of ‘special eligibility’ visa grants.

Secondly, on the reverse stream, there is return migration of Malaysians in Australia to Malaysia and vice versa. This group may include second generation of the Malaysia-born and ex-Malaysians who have since taken up Australian citizenship.

⁸ Skill stream allows for the migration of skills and abilities which will contribute to the economy, i.e. employer-sponsored, business skills, general skilled migration, and distinguished talent. Family stream allows for the permanent entry of people with close family ties in Australia comprising partners, dependent children, parents, and other family members. Special eligibility allows for the resettlement of former Australian residents.

⁹ General Skilled Migration is the sum of total Skilled Family Sponsored, Skilled Independent and State/Territory Sponsored visas.

Figure 4.4 Australia: Malaysia-born migrants by visa category, 2008-09 to 2013-14



Source: DIBP (2008-2014)

There is also third country migration as a result of transnationalism where migrants move from and to other countries. Finally, the Malaysia – Australia migration model captures the circulation and circular migration between both countries. Circulation refers to short-term movements from Malaysia to Australia and from Australia to Malaysia, and can also involve long-term migration of Malaysians to Australia and vice versa. An important part of the inflow of temporary residents is that involving international students. Visitor visa grants are only used by people who visit Australia for short business trips, short holidays, tourism, recreation or visit family and friends.

Table 4.1 shows the trends in the Malaysia-born temporary visa category in Australia from 2008-09 to 2013-14. In 2013-14, every nine in ten temporary visa grants were visitors, while 3.5 per cent were overseas students from Malaysia. Though the percentage is small compared to the visitors, Australia is still one of the most popular tertiary study destinations for international students originating from Malaysia. In 2008-09, there were 11,545 Malaysian tertiary students in Australia, although by 2013-14, this had declined to 9,592 students. Over the same period visitors increased from 162,970 to 267,400. However, Malaysia was the fifth top source country for international students in Australia totalling 19,201 (Department of Education and

Training 2014). Temporary work visas also declined from 1,880 to 1,241 over the same period.

Table 4.1 Australia: Composition of Malaysia-born temporary visa category

Visa category	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14
International student	11545	10643	9709	9316	9143	9592
Temporary work visa (457)*	1880	1130	1436	1875	1537	1241
Visitor	162970	166170	193151	192978	215896	267400
Work/Holiday	98	100	100	100	100	100
TOTAL	176493	178043	204396	204269	226676	278333

*This visa lets a skilled worker to Australia to work in their nominated occupation for their approved sponsor for up to four years.

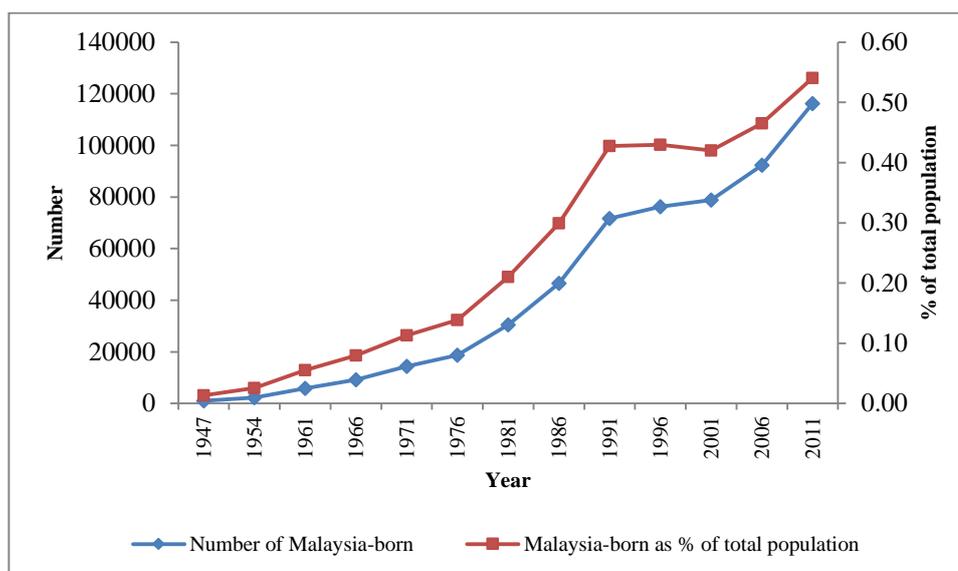
Source: DIBP (2008-14)

4.3 The Malaysian diaspora in Australia

The relationship which now exists between Malaysia and Australia started in 1941-42 during World War II, and Australia also assisted Malaysia during the confrontation with Indonesia in the 1960s. However, the Malaysia-born population in Australia was small then, due to the enforced White Australia Policy which prevailed since 1901, which effectively excluded non-Europeans from Australia (Price 1974 cited in Hugo 2011b, p.153).

There were only 1,015 Malaysia-born people in 1947, and that increased almost six-fold to 5,793 by 1961. Figure 4.5 shows an upturn in the Malaysia-born population in the 1970s which continued through to the 1990s, making them one of the largest Asia-born communities in Australia. There were a few key factors contributing to this growth, namely the 1950 Colombo Plan, which sponsored many Asian students to undergo Australian training and degree programmes, as a part of a project to assist with Australia's engagement with Asia. At the same time, the White Australia Policy became less stringent from 1950 onwards which contributed to the increase in Asian migrants in the country. Some Malaysians who were sponsored under the Colombo Plan married Australians and remained in the country (Hugo 2011b; Ziguras & Law 2006).

Figure 4.5 Australia: Growth of Malaysia-born population, 1947-2011



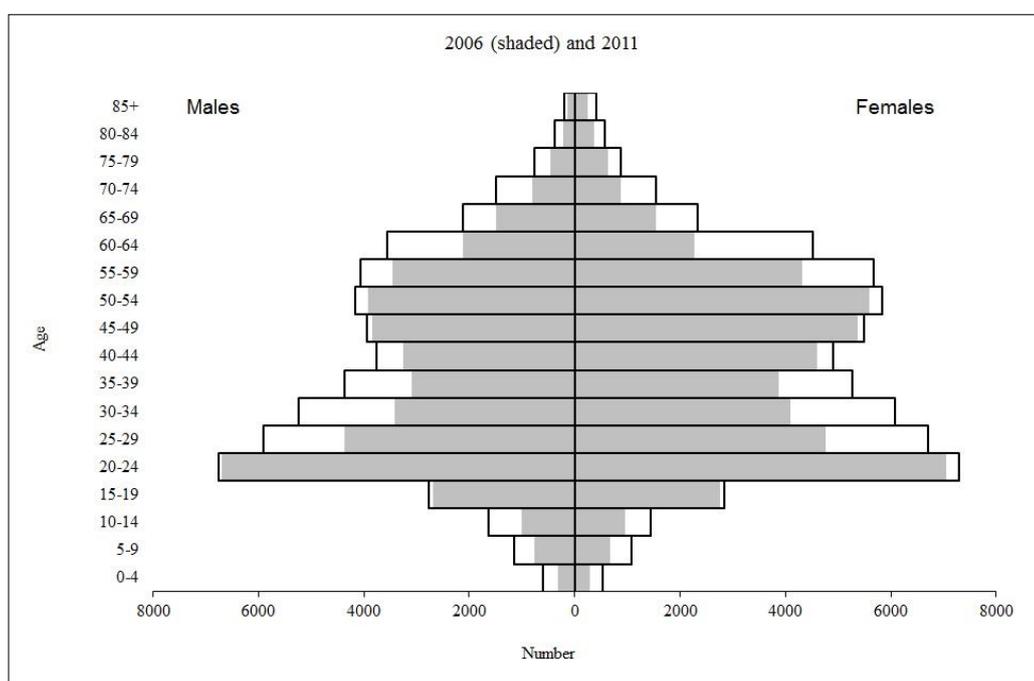
Source: ABS (2011)

Following the removal of the White Australia Policy in the 1970s, Australia had an influx of the non-European migrants, and by the early 2000s, almost two-fifths of Australian migrants originated from Asia. At the end of June 2013, there were 148,760 Malaysia-born people living in Australia, elevating them to being the ninth largest migrant community in Australia, an increase of 40 per cent since 2006, making up 2.3 per cent of Australia's overseas born population and 0.6 per cent of Australia's total population.

4.3.1 Age and gender

The Malaysia-born population in Australia is concentrated in the economically active age groups. The age-sex structure shown in Figure 4.6 clearly illustrates that there has been an increase of Malaysia-born across all age categories, with the largest group in the working age groups or as students with a median age of 38.1 years as a result of a small number aged less than 15 years. The age-sex structure shows a very much tree-shaped population, with a high number of economically active population aged between 20 and 39 demonstrating the selectivity of migration.

Figure 4.6 Age-sex structure of Malaysia-born population, 2006-2011



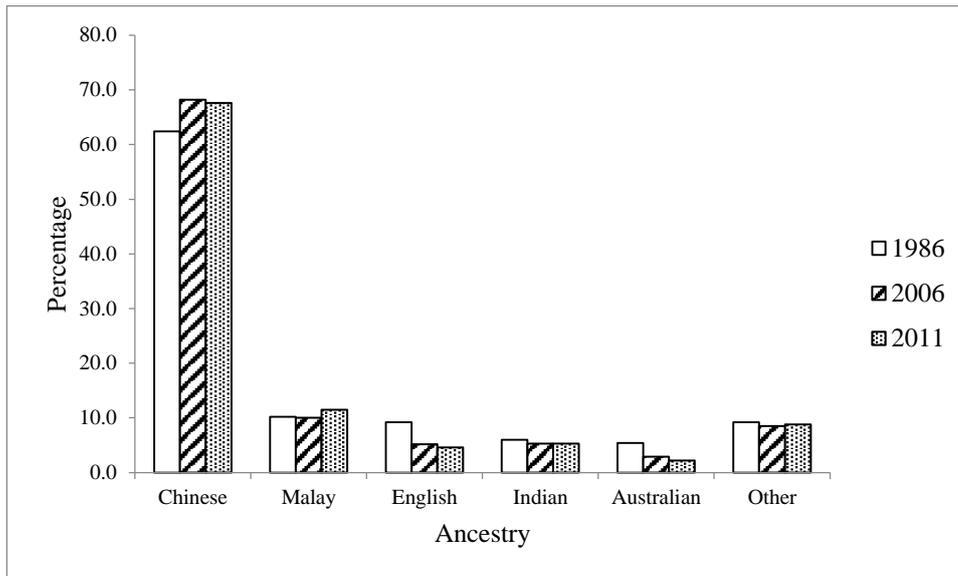
Source: ABS (2006, 2011)

4.3.2 Ancestry

Another important feature of the Malaysian diaspora globally, including Australia is the dominance of the Malaysian Chinese. There has been a consistent influx of ethnic Chinese in Australia, and in the 2011 Australian census, more than two-thirds of the Malaysia-born population indicated that they were of Chinese ancestry (68 per cent), Malay (12 per cent), Indian (5 per cent), and English (2 per cent). In fact, the ethnic composition of the Malaysian migration to Australia has been quite consistent. Figure 4.8 shows that the proportions of Chinese, Malay, and Indian have been similar across the 1986, 2006 and 2011 Australian Censuses. It is obvious that emigration from Malaysia to Australia is highly selective of the ethnic Chinese, who made up 24 per cent of the Malaysian population in 2010 (DOS 2011). In fact, they account for two-thirds of Malaysian emigrants to Australia. The literature explains this phenomenon as a result of the race-based affirmation action which favours the majority, or two-thirds of the population known as *bumiputera*¹⁰, or *sons of the soil* (Hugo 2011c; Koh 2014, 2015).

¹⁰ The ‘special position’ of the Malays and the indigenous peoples (natives) provided in the Federal Constitution of Malaysia

Figure 4.7 Ancestry of Malaysia-born persons in 1986, 2006 and 2011



Source: (ABS 1986, 2006, 2011)

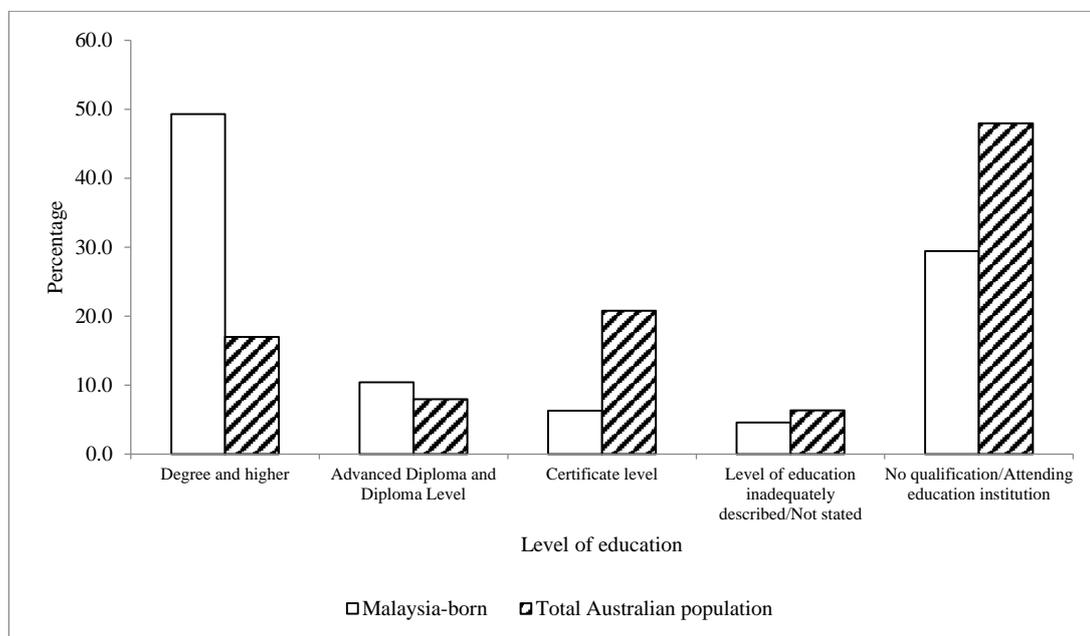
However, it is also interesting to note that there has been an increase in Malay emigrants from 9,269 to 13,346 persons between the 2006 and 2011 Australian censuses. This indicates that the new generation of Malay are starting to migrate to seek better job opportunities abroad as they are being discriminated against by the private sector in Malaysia, and often disgruntled and disappointed with the situation in the country as it has perceived to be authoritarian and fundamentalist. These issues have been highlighted, and published in *The Malaysian Insider*, *Malay Mail Online*, and *Free Malaysia Today* (Kamal 2011; Lim 2014; Neal 2013). Although Malaysia has been showcased as a successful multicultural nation, the electoral engineering does not suggest the same. The country has not been observing crucial political principles and human rights, such as freedom of speech and assembly, or the right to be apprehended only by an order of an independent court (Holik 2011).

4.3.3 Educational qualification

Besides the striking racial or ancestry differences amongst the Malaysian emigrants coming to Australia, another important element in this flow are the levels of education. Figure 4.8 compares the educational qualifications between the Malaysia-born and the total Australian population. It shows that almost half of the Malaysia-born had a degree compared to less than one-fifth of the Australian population, suggesting a very significant level of educational selectivity in permanent migration from Malaysia to Australia. By contrast,

there were more Australians having certificate level qualification or no formal qualifications.

Figure 4.8 Australia: Level of qualification of Malaysia-born and Australian total population, 2011

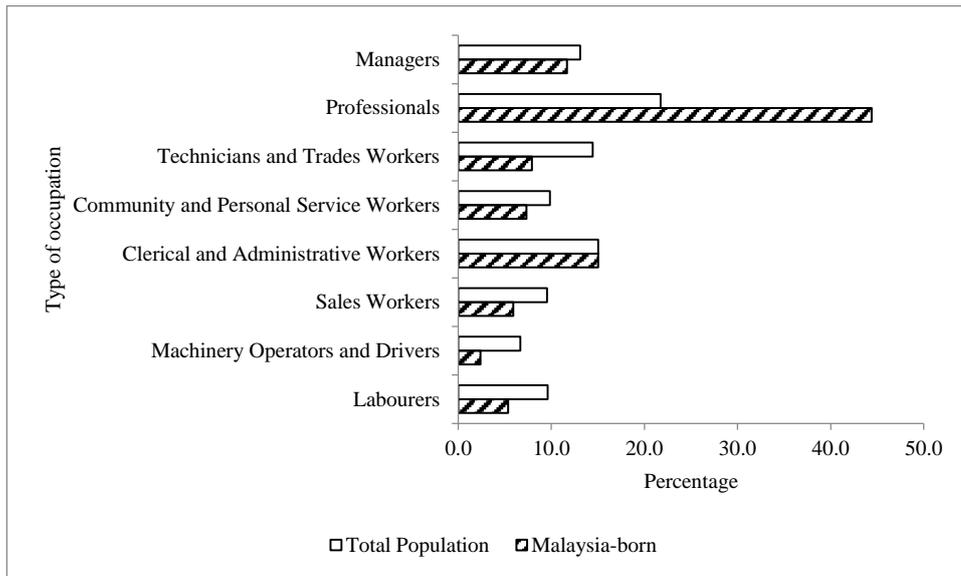


Source: ABS (2011)

4.3.4 Occupation and income

The selectivity of migration to Australia is also reflected in the occupations that the Malaysian migrants hold in Australia. At the 2011 Census, the labour force participation rate of the Malaysia-born aged 15 years and older was 68 per cent, which was slightly higher than for the Australian population. Figure 4.9 shows that four in every ten Malaysian were working as professionals compared to one-fifth of the total population. On the other hand, the overall population tended to be more technically skilled as there were more technicians and trades workers, machinery operators and drivers, as well as labourers compared to the Malaysia-born. There were little variations for managers, community and personal service workers, and clerical and administrative workers.

Figure 4.9 Australia: Malaysian-born by occupation, 2010



Source: ABS (2011)

In addition to the educational qualifications and occupations, the income of the Malaysian emigrants is also another proxy which demonstrates their relatively high socio-economic status. In 2011, the median individual weekly income for the Malaysia-born in Australia aged 15 years and above was A\$703 which was much higher than the overseas born population (A\$597) and total Australian population (A\$577) (ABS 2011).

To some extent the educational attainment, occupation and income data on the Malaysia-born population indicates the effectiveness of the Australian immigration programme which clearly favours the skilled and professional groups. In recent years, immigration policies in many countries have focused on facilitating the immigration of highly-skilled workers (Menz & Caviedes 2010; Ruhs 2006). In this regards, Australia has one of the most sophisticated immigration programmes which targets skilled workers according to specific occupational needs. According to DIBP's Settlement Database, almost two-fifths of the Australian Skilled Programme migrants were born in South-East Asia. The Malaysia-born migrants are the fifth largest skilled migrant group in Australia (ABS 2011; DIBP SDB extract 2006).

4.3.5 Geographic distribution

The Asian-born population in Australia are highly urbanised, with 82 per cent of them living in capital cities compared with two-thirds of the total Australian population. Table 4.2 shows the geographic distribution of the Malaysia-born population by states in 2011, with over one-third of them concentrated in Victoria, 23 per cent in New South Wales and 22 per cent in Western Australia. In terms of proportion of the total population, there was a higher concentration in New South Wales, followed by Victoria and Queensland.

Table 4.2 Australia: Malaysia-born by geographic distribution, 2011

Distribution of migrants	Proportion of Malaysia-born (%) (n=116,196)	Proportion of total population (%) (n=21,507,719)
Victoria	34.0	25.0
New South Wales	23.0	32.0
Western Australia	22.0	11.0
Queensland	11.0	20.0
South Australia	6.0	7.0
ACT	2.0	2.0
Tasmania	1.0	2.0
Northern Territory	1.0	1.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0

Source: ABS (2011)

The high saturation of the Malaysia-born in only three states can be attributed to the establishment of ethnic enclaves which emerged from the initial waves of Malaysia migration.

The existence of a large, concentrated population of co-ethnics creates a demand for specialised cultural products and services then paved opportunities for immigrant entrepreneurs (Massey et al. 1998, p.31).

There exists a Malaysian supply chain of product and services which include food and other entrepreneurial activities in certain areas of the states. For instance, the Malaysia-born in Victoria tend to settle in suburbs closer to the city centre such as Carlton and the Melbourne CBD. Settlement in these suburbs reflects the international student population too where it is found that more than half of the Malaysian-born are students. This indirectly creates an

agglomeration of Malaysian-based entrepreneurial activities, particularly in the food industry.

Another example is the high concentration of Malaysia-born migrants in the south east of the city of Perth. This includes the suburbs of Karawara and Bentley which are located near Curtin University. These settlement patterns and migrant characteristics are important for decision –making by governments, policymakers, and service providers. Migrants tend to make up their minds where they want to settle before they arrive in Australia, and most are likely to live near their family and friends who are already residents there. If there is any policy interest to influence the places of settlement of new migrants, it occurs before arrival. The other important policy considerations in managing migrant settlement, include employment and career opportunities, health, housing, education and training, and support networks (DIBP 2002). Examples of the services provided by government agencies include Medicare¹¹, Centrelink¹², employment services, and the Australian Tax Office.

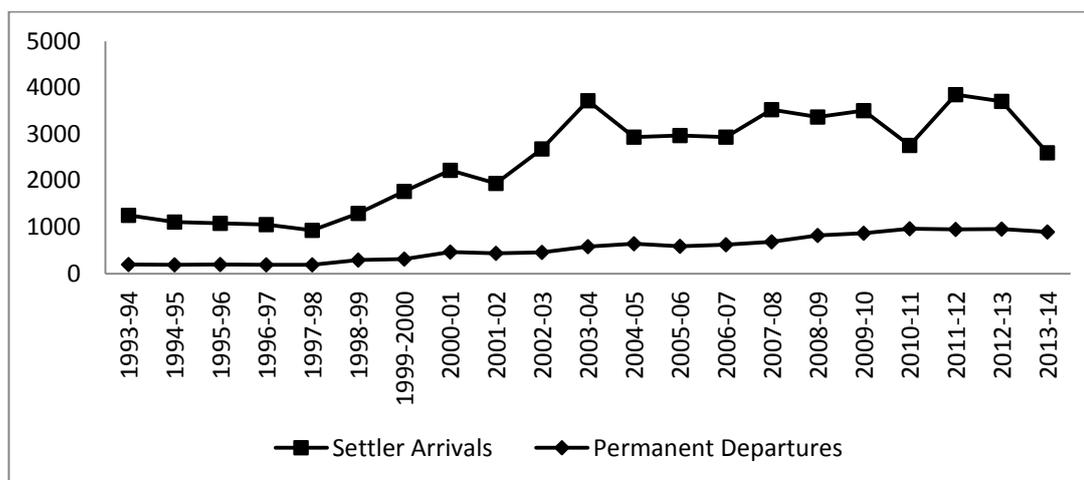
4.3.6 Permanent movement

Figure 4.10 shows the trend in permanent migration between Malaysia and Australia over the last two decades, indicating that there has been considerable annual variations in the flow of Malaysian settlers to Australia. The rise in the late 1990s was due to the increase in student migration, which then tended to translate into permanent residency upon the completion of study. Of particular note, between 1993 and 2014, there were 11,503 Australian residents who departed from Australia to live permanently in Malaysia, compared with 51,227 persons who moved permanently from Malaysia to Australia over the same period. This means that there were about five permanent migrants from Malaysia to Australia for every one move in the opposite direction. There was a decrease in the arrivals of Malaysia-born after 2011-12 as a result of Australian immigration becoming more focused on temporary skilled migration visas.

¹¹ Provides medical and hospital services to all Australian residents and certain categories of visitors to Australia. This includes paying Medicare benefits on behalf of the Department of Health which is responsible for developing Medicare policy.

¹² Delivers payments and services, as well as providing services for seniors, job seekers, students and trainees, families, carers, parents, people with disability, Indigenous Australians, and people from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds.

Figure 4.10 Australia: Malaysia-born settler arrivals and permanent departures, 1993-94 to 2013-14



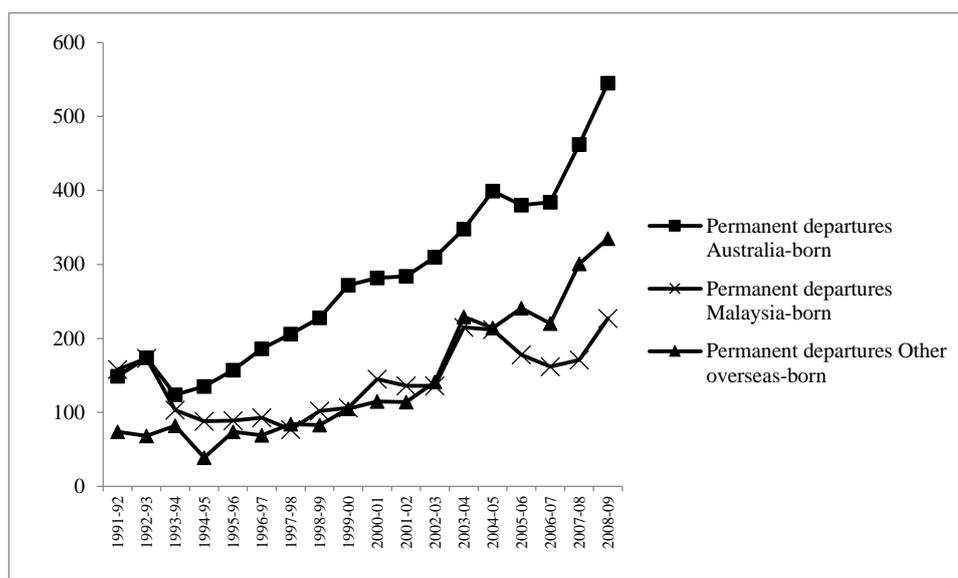
Source: DIBP unpublished data

To further analyse the characteristics of the flow of permanent departures¹³ from Australia to Malaysia, the departures data is categorised into three groups, namely (1) Australia-born; (2) Malaysia-born; and (3) Other overseas-born. Figure 4.11 indicates that Malaysia-born departures were less than others departing from Australia to Malaysia, accounting for one-fourth of all departures between 1991 and 2009.

In 2011-12, 938 Malaysia-born permanent residents indicated at departure that they were leaving Australia permanently, with one-third of them intending to return to Malaysia. It is interesting to note that of these returnees; more than a half were holding managerial and professional occupations, and largely departing from New South Wales (33 per cent) and Victoria (29 per cent). Not surprisingly, these two main states host the highest concentration of Malaysia-born migrants.

¹³ Permanent departures are those who reported on their overseas departure card that they were leaving Australia permanently.

Figure 4.11 Permanent departures to Malaysia by birthplace, 1991 to 2009



Source: DIBP unpublished data

It is important to note that the significant permanent departures of the Australia-born population were not a result of return migration (of second generation Malaysian settlers). Rather, they were Australian expatriates who moved to live and work as skilled migrants in Malaysia (Hugo 2011b). More than two-thirds of the Australia-born who departed from Australia permanently were also highly-skilled managers and professionals (DIBP 2014).

To put this in the Malaysian perspective, there were 2,499 Australians in Malaysia according to the 2010 Malaysian census. As of 2014, Australians accounted for 1,637 persons (or 1.9 per cent) of the total expatriate population in Malaysia (EPU¹⁴ 2014). There was also between 2 to 3 per cent of Australians from a total of 26,063 under the Malaysia My Second Home (MM2H)¹⁵ programme (MOTAC¹⁶ 2014).

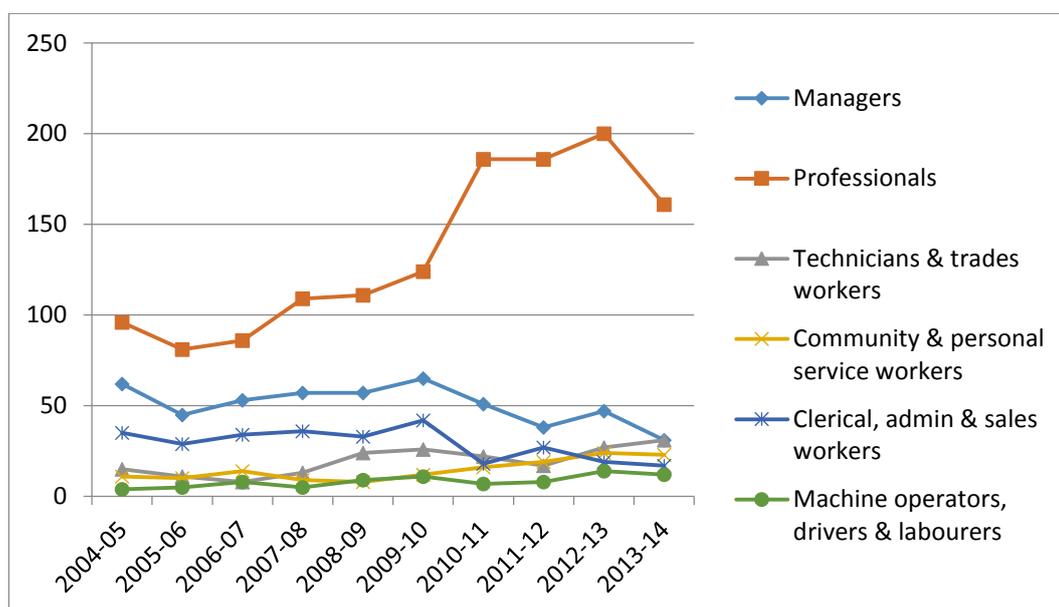
¹⁴ EPU refers to the Economic Planning Unit under the Malaysian Prime Minister's Department.

¹⁵ M2H is promoted by the Malaysian Government to encourage foreigners who meet certain requirements to stay in Malaysia on multiple-entry social visit pass. The Social Visit Pass is valid for ten years, and is renewable. Successful applicants are allowed to bring their spouses and unmarried children aged 21 and below as dependants.

¹⁶ MOTAC refers to the Ministry of Tourism and Culture which houses the MM2H programme.

The permanent flow from Australia to Malaysia, like the permanent flow in the opposite stream is highly skilled. Figure 4.12 indicates that the outflows were predominantly professionals. It is interesting to note that there was a slight increase in the outflow of the technically-skilled, and community service workers in recent years, suggesting that there has been a transfer of social services and technical knowledge and skills to the Malaysian labour market.

Figure 4.12 Australia: Permanent departures to Malaysia by occupation, 2004-05 to 2013-14

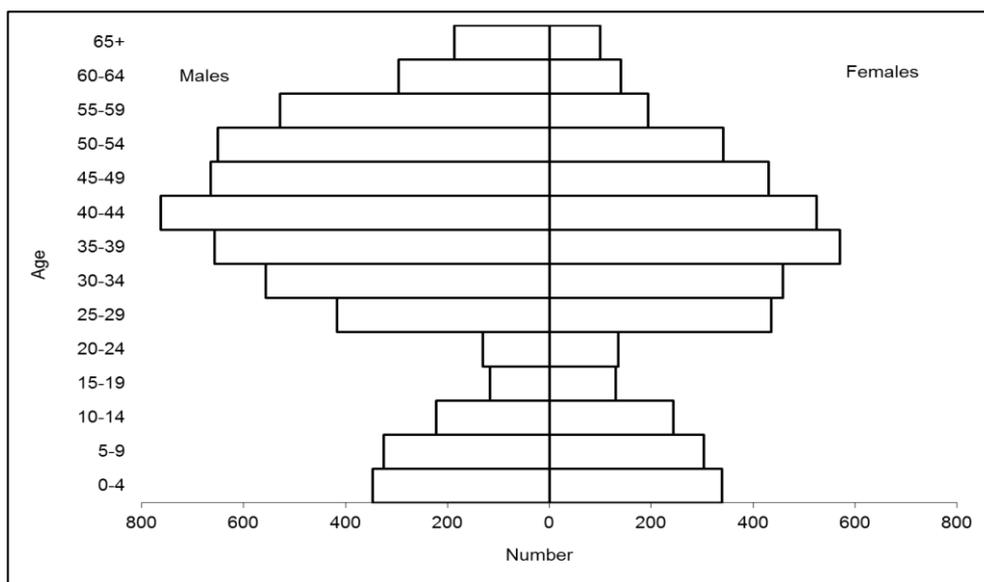


Source: DIBP unpublished data

The departures to Malaysia were made up of mainly established families with children and of adults primarily in the economically active age groups (Figure 4.13). These scenarios suggest some form of brain drain¹⁷ experienced by Australia and a talent-dividend for Malaysia. This is crucial for Malaysia given the skill shortages which must be overcome to advance Malaysia's aspirations towards achieving a high-income developed nation.

¹⁷ Carrington and Detragiache (1998), Docquier and Rapoport (2004; 2011) define brain drain as the emigration of the high-skilled individuals. Drawing from studies on Africa's medical brain drain (Beine et al. 2008; Bhargava et al. 2011), Docquier and Rapoport (2011) argue that although migration benefits the medical sector in Africa, the magnitude is insignificant.

Figure 4.13 Australia: Age-sex composition of permanent departures to Malaysia, 1993-94 to 2013-14



Source: DIBP unpublished data

Nonetheless, the scale of ‘brain drain’ is more pervasive in the departures from Malaysia to Australia. The World Bank (2011) conducted a Malaysian diaspora survey and found that two-thirds of the respondents listed career prospects as the top concern contributing to their migration decision. This was followed by social injustice (60 per cent), compensation (54 per cent) and study (30 per cent).

Another significant observation of Figure 4.12 was the group who were born in a third country moving permanently from Australia to Malaysia. This suggests a scenario of transnational movement where migrants move to only a few destinations. The ‘third country’ migrants moving between Malaysia and Australia were born in the United Kingdom predominantly. The transnationalism pattern of movement was also evident in the country of destinations of the Malaysia-born Australian residents¹⁸. Between 1993-94 and 2008-09, only about one-third moved back to Malaysia. The main destinations include Singapore, Hong Kong and China (Hugo 2011b).

¹⁸ Australian residents refer to Australian citizens who reside in Australia and other permanent residents

4.3.7 Temporary movement

Scholarship on migration tends to focus on permanent migration from origin to destination, and then return migration from destination to origin. However, permanent movement is not the only way in which migrants maintain linkages with their homeland. In the Malaysia – Australia mobility dichotomy, it is obvious that there is significant temporary movement between both countries. Therefore it is critical to also examine the interactions arising from temporary mobility patterns. These linkages include the frequency and reasons for visits, asset ownership and investments, as well as the use and frequency of telecommunications.

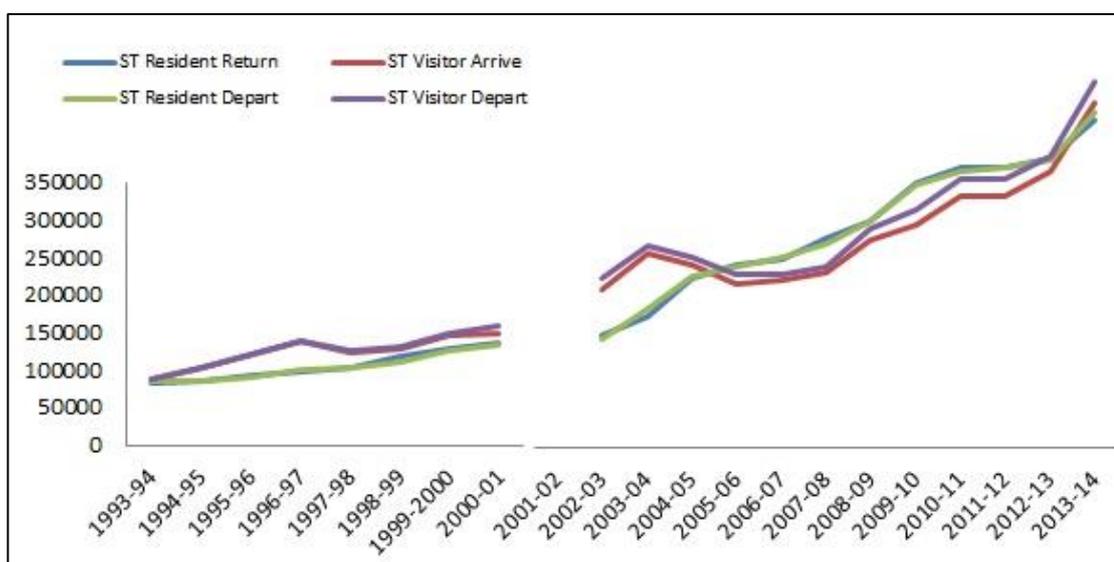
Hugo (2011b, p.166-168) reported that the Department of Immigration and Border Protection has assigned a Personal Identifier number to every individual moving in and out of Australia, to record patterns of movement history. He used a special data set on all Malaysia-born persons arriving and departing from Australia from 1998 till 2006, and established three categories based on their mobility patterns:

- (1) Settlers arriving between 1998 and 2006 and had made at least one temporary move out of Australia since arrival;
- (2) Visitors from Malaysia who are not Australian residents entering Australia using a visitor visa. Arrivals (162,184) exceeded departures (146,187) suggesting that some visitors converted their status to be a resident onshore;
- (3) Temporary movement of Malaysia-born people who are permanent Australian residents and had arrived before 1998. The number of migrants travelling out of Australia was slightly higher (83,946) than those who travelled into Australia (83,136) between 1998 and 2006 indicating that there are some who actually lived in Malaysia and only returned to Australia for visits.

One of the most important observations from these data is that there have been high occurrences of circular movement of the Malaysia-born between Malaysia and Australia, and many of them had made several temporary moves out of Australia since settling there.

Figure 4.14 shows that there has been consistent growth in terms of the number of Malaysians visiting Australia and also Australians visiting Malaysia. It is important to note the reverse pattern in 2005-06 where there were more residents returning from and departing to Malaysia compared to Malaysian visitors to Australia. There have been many reasons cited for the short-term visits to Malaysia, such as social visits, business trips and attending conferences.

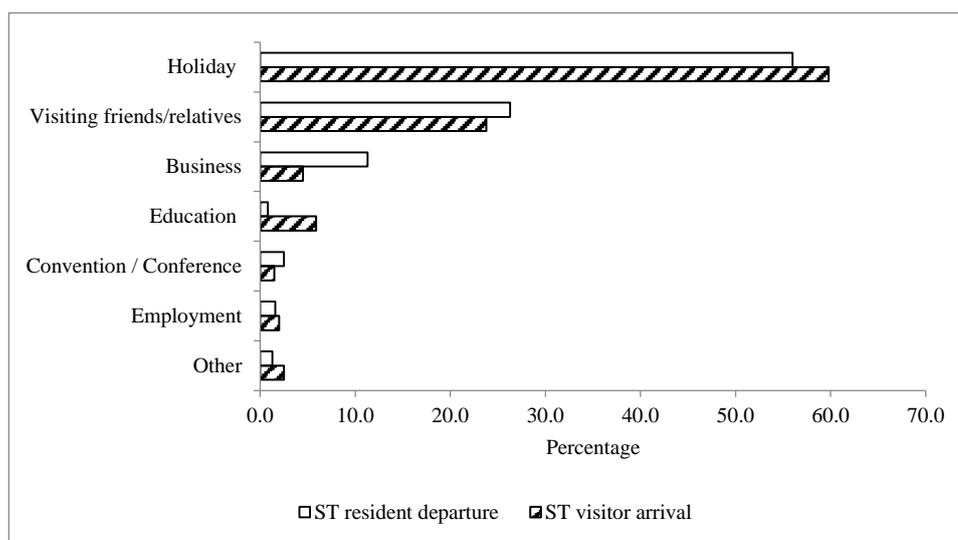
Figure 4.14 Australia: Short-term arrivals/departures to/from Malaysia, 1993-94 to 2013-14



Source: DIBP unpublished data

Figure 4.15 shows that in 2013-14, there were 311,876 short-term visits from Malaysia to Australia. Holidays accounted for 60 per cent of the movement, while the second most popular was to visit relatives and friends (25 per cent). Some 7 per cent of the visits were for business and employment, 6 per cent were related to education, and a small number to attend a conference, convention or exhibition.

Figure 4.15 Short-term arrivals/departures from/to Malaysia by reasons, 2013-14



Source: DIBP unpublished data

In relation to the opposite flow, the main reasons for the short-term departures of Australians to Malaysia were also coincidentally related to holidays and social visits (82 per cent). It is important to note that a significant percentage of these visits are business-related (11 per cent). Only a small percent of the short-term visits to Malaysia include to attend a conference or convention (3 per cent), employment (2 per cent), and education (2 per cent).

These short-term mobility trends and patterns show that there is great potential for diaspora to foster mutual benefits for both Malaysia and Australia, especially in the area of tourism and business development. Migrants moving between the two countries have high skills, knowledge and experience which should be leveraged for knowledge transfer and socio-economic development in Malaysia.

Numerous studies have also shown that highly skilled migrants contribute to the economy through innovation and entrepreneurship (Kaushal & Fix 2006). Edmonston and Smith (1997) argue that these highly skilled migrants produce a surplus for public coffers by paying more in taxes than they take out in services. In an economic environment in which human capital drives productivity and development, and also in the global war for talent, strategies to maximise the available human capital are of utmost importance for federal, state and local policymakers.

4.4 Policy considerations

There remains more to be investigated in the internationalisation of highly skilled labour and diaspora options. In the case of Malaysia, being part of the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC), there is increasingly more regional integration being established. Malaysia has ongoing Free Trade Agreement negotiations such as the Trans-Pacific Partnership Agreement (TPP), and has signed several bilateral and multilateral agreements. Regionally, movement towards the establishment of a unified connectivity framework has profound bearing on migration policies. For instance, the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) is supported by a free flow of goods, services, investment and capital, which include skilled labour. Hence, the compliance to operationalisation of Mode 4 on Movement of Natural Persons¹⁹ must be enforced. However, the measurement of Mode 4 flows poses formidable challenges in providing evidence-based policy input as it is not easy to govern and manage the movement of foreigners once they enter the country.

4.4.1 Bilateral and multilateral arrangements

It is important to note that there is the Malaysia-Australia Free Trade Agreement (MAFTA) between Malaysia and Australia. This bilateral agreement builds on the commitments made by both countries in Australia's regional FTA with ASEAN and New Zealand (AANZFTA). Besides benefitting the goods industry, these bilateral and multilateral arrangements facilitate trade and investment in services. For instance, there are facilities which enable Australian business executives and senior managers to work in Malaysia and stay for longer periods, they have easier access to visas for spouses and dependants, the establishment of mutual recognition of qualifications, and licensing for professionals.

¹⁹ Under the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS), services can be traded internationally in four different ways (known as four modes). Mode 4 refers to the presence of persons of one WTO member in the territory of another for the purpose of providing a service. It does not include persons seeking access to the employment market in the host member, nor does it affect measure regarding citizenship, residence or employment on permanent basis.

In addition to trade and investment, there are regular consultations between Foreign Ministers and a ministerial-level Joint Trade Committee meeting. There is also bilateral defence and security cooperation, i.e. Malaysia-Australia Joint Defence Programme and the Five Power Defence Arrangement.

The existing links between Australia and Malaysia are multi-faceted and occur at multiple levels. Earlier the formal international bilateral and multi-lateral relationships were discussed and the resulting commitments were outcomes of formal government and Parliamentary resolutions. There are also on-going links and interactions between individuals, business councils and other expatriate organisations.

4.4.2 Skilled migration and international education

Reciprocity in foreign student exchange between Malaysia and Australia continues to be an important factor in determining the level and extent of the movement from Malaysia to Australia. The Malaysian students formed the fifth largest group of student visa holders in Australia after China, India, Korea and Vietnam totalling 21,587 according to AEI International student data in 2012. Efforts to further promote and create education and investment linkages between both countries are also complemented by the Malaysian alumni of Australian universities.

At the government level, there has been documents exchanged and reciprocal visits between representatives of both countries. One such visit was made by the previous Australian High Commissioner to Malaysia, of which H.E. Miles Kupa made the following statement:

In 2012 I visited Kuching, capital of the East Malaysian state of Sarawak and a key destination for Australian investment. Sarawak is also home to two Australian university branch campuses, Swinburne and Curtin. The visit confirmed the importance of educational linkages between Australia and Malaysia, and vocational education was highlighted as an important sector for new growth opportunities. I met the Chief Minister (who is an alumni of The University of Adelaide) and other leading government and business figures. (*Borneo Post Online*, 20 July 2012)

There are strategic reasons for international student recruitment, especially for a developed country like Australia, which faces declining fertility and an increasing ageing population. The immigration and international education policies are now well-aligned to ensure continuous recruitment of young skilled migrants from the international student talent pool (Ziguras and Law 2006). Presumably as Australian graduates, they would have fewer integration issues and challenges compared to newly-arrived migrants. One of the recent policy revisions to attract international students is the introduction of post-study work arrangements, the Temporary Graduate Visa (subclass 485) which replaced the Skilled Graduate Visa in 2013. This new post-study visa has two streams: (1) the Graduate Work stream²⁰ and (2) the Post-Study Work stream²¹ which offers eligible graduates the opportunity to stay back for up to four years to live and work in Australia (DIBP 2013).

Malaysia too, has export-oriented international education policies but the situation is slightly different compared to Australia. Malaysia has a large number of students studying abroad, mainly self-sponsored students. However, it has also started to encourage its students to study locally by increasing the number of tertiary education institutions and training opportunities. Unlike Australia which tries to tap into the foreign student talent pool to recruit skilled migrants, Malaysia does not encourage its foreign students to remain in the country after completing their studies for several reasons. One is the high rate of graduate unemployment. According to the Minister in the Prime Minister's Department, Datuk Seri Abdul Wahid Omar in May 2015, there were 161,000 graduates, aged between 20 and 24 who have yet to secure a job even after six months of completing their study (*The Malaysian Insider*, 12 May 2015). Another reason for resistance to allow foreign students to stay and work after graduation is the perception that foreigners take away local jobs. Finally, it is argued that Malaysia has a large workforce which can be self-sustained given more training and capacity-building. There is a youth bulge, one of the significant demographic factors for a developing nation that must be addressed and migration of the more skilled has been an advantage to developed countries with aging populations.

²⁰ The eligible qualifications (degree, diploma or trade) must be aligned to nominated occupation.

²¹ The eligible qualifications include Bachelor degree, Bachelor (honours) degree, Masters by coursework degree, Masters (extended) degree, Master by research degree and Doctoral degree. Diploma-level or trade qualification are not considered.

In addition to the education linkages, the diaspora community plays an important role as a source of drawing foreign direct investments (FDIs) to the home country. They also act as the bridgehead for exports and facilitate technology transfers to help home country industry move up the global value chain (Abu Talib et al. 2012; Hugo 2011c).

4.4.3 National talent policy and programme

In Malaysia thus far, research and policy on foreign labour immigration has been the focus. Prior to the release of the World Bank's Brain Drain report in 2011, limited attention was given to emigration and diaspora. Little effort on attracting and retaining talent were demonstrated in the introduction of programmes such as Returning Expert Programme (REP) and Brain Gain Programme (BGP).

The REP was first introduced in 2001 by the Ministry of Human Resources to promote the return of Malaysian professionals working overseas. Till mid-2010, over 1000 returnees took advantage of the incentives offered which include tax exemptions on 2 cars and all personal effects, a foreign spouse and children eligible for permanent residency and leniency for children to attend international schools (Kanapathy 2003, p.3; Lucas 2008).

As for the BGP, it was established by the Ministry of Science, Technology and Innovation (MOSTI) in December 2006 to fast-track Malaysia's transition to an innovation-led economy. It aimed to leverage the Malaysian diaspora and/or foreign researchers, engineers, scientists and technopreneurs for the national benefit. The priority industry clusters covered were bio-informatics, renewable energy, and bio-technology in food production, emerging technology for curing diseases, climate change-related technologies, nanotechnology and cybersecurity. However, the BGP has since ceased after the rationalisation of the Malaysian government human capital or talent development programme in the Tenth Malaysia Plan (EPU 2010, p.238-241).

With the inception of Talent Corporation Malaysia Berhad (TalentCorp) under the Prime Minister's Department as part of the Tenth Malaysia Plan, the REP incentive has been revised twice, once in 2011 and then in 2014. Some of the recent revisions made to the programme include tax exemption on cars which were revised from two locally

manufactured Complete Knocked Down (CKD)²² cars to one locally manufactured CKD or fully imported Complete Built Up (CBU)²³ car per approved REP applicant, subject to RM150,000 worth of tax exemption; and refinement of the REP eligibility criteria to better aligned to the needs of the economy (TalentCorp 2014).

The eligibility criteria refinement incorporated other important elements in addition to the applicants' formal qualifications and work experience abroad. For instance, the assessment takes into account the following:

- Accumulated work experience prior to employment abroad.
- Current salary received abroad,
- Alignment of experience and expertise to the priority economic sector or specific skill gap.

The programme continues to facilitate the return of Malaysian professionals from overseas to help overcome the shortage of expertise in the country needed to achieve the economic transformation (TalentCorp 2014). Since 2011, more than 2,500 REP applications have been approved. TalentCorp has also started facilitating applications from employers which ensure that the headhunted Malaysian talent from overseas meet the critical skill needs of leading Malaysian corporations. According to the World Bank in its 2015 report "*Improving the effectiveness of TalentCorp's initiatives*", concludes that the REP is effective in attracting the right talent for Malaysia. It also found that there is a net fiscal benefit estimated at RM27,000 per returnee (World Bank 2015, p.54).

Despite the lucrative measures introduced under the REP to attract and facilitate the return of Malaysian professionals overseas, it is not without limitations. Since its inception, it has received many criticisms. Firstly, the applicant must be a Malaysian

²² CKD vehicle is one which is imported or exported in parts and not as one assembled unit. Such units are first sent to an assembly plant in the target country where all these parts are assembled and one complete vehicle is made using the imported components. These units generate employment in the target country as more machinery and manpower investment is needed to assemble the components to build the vehicle.

²³ CBU is the terminology used when a vehicle is imported/exported to/from other country as a complete car which has been fully assembled. No further assembly is required before they are sold at the target country's markets.

citizen. According to the Immigration Department of Malaysia, a total of 107,766 Malaysians had renounced their citizenship between the 2010 and September 2014. This automatically excludes about 10 per cent of the total overseas Malaysia-born, and prevent one-third of the highly-skilled Malaysian diaspora from applying for the REP as Malaysia does not allow dual citizenship²⁴.

Other arguments with regards to the REP initiative include the more pressing need to retain local talent rather than try to attract talent back from overseas. It is argued that the REP scheme will drive more talent outflows as it inadvertently encourages local professionals to leave for overseas work and opportunistically apply for REP incentives to return in the future (Mok 2014 published in *The Malay Mail Online*, 21 June 2014).

4.4.4 Migrants settlement and integration

Migration is one of the key elements in the population growth and development of Australia. One in four Australian residents was foreign-born in 2011. Theoretically, migrants help to fill labour and skills shortages in specific areas which are not met by the native workforce. Although having an attractive scheme to encourage immigration is important, the settlement and retention strategy of migrants should not be ignored. Some of the critical factors in retention include employment, family settlement, services and infrastructure and social connections (DIBP 2014). Despite debate about the impact on social cohesion and the job market, Australia which embraces multiculturalism and a 'fair go' demonstrates a strong record of integration.

There have been arguments about the settlement and integration of migrants in the context of the increasing focus on temporary migration in Australia. One immediate tension is that many of the skilled migrants and their dependents may not be eligible for most of the settlement-related services and programmes offered by the Australian government to permanent migrants. Benchmarking the international experience, particularly for the European case, has seen settlement assistance prove to be very helpful to all migrants, permanent or temporary. It would make sense to ensure good

²⁴ According to UN (2013), over half of the major areas (continents) except Asia recognise dual citizenship: Latin America & the Caribbean (82.0 per cent), Africa & Oceania (56.0 per cent), Europe (55.0 per cent), Northern America (50.0 per cent) and Asia (35.0 per cent).

settlement experiences for all migrants to reap the full benefits of migration for both countries of origin and destination. Nonetheless, temporary migration is quicker and easier to obtain, and migrants can extend to become permanent if skill sets are deemed critical for Australia.

4.5 Conclusion

Data availability continues to pose a challenge in researching transnational movement globally but in Australia's case, they have one of the most comprehensive and systematic data on international migration (Australian Government Productivity Commission 2010). The robust Australian migration data helps in studying the impact of migration in Australia, and can also be used to study migration, to a lesser extent, on the Asian countries as well.

In the ASEAN region and Australia, the paradigm of migration is no longer a one-off and straightforward. The era of substantial Malaysian permanent settlement in Australia has been transformed. There have been more complex trends and patterns of movement emerging between both countries in recent years. There are now many migration pathways and mechanisms at both origin and destination. This has led to important linkages forged by the Malaysian diaspora with their homeland which shapes the flows in both directions.

There has been a transformation of the Malaysia – Australia migration system due to the growth of Malaysians in Australia forming a distinct diaspora, as well as socio-economic changes they have implemented. The advent of information and communication technology and the modernisation of transport, has changed the dynamics of migration decisions and future mobility plans. In this regards, Governments at both ends can engage in development-friendly migration policy, such as encouraging diaspora linkages, facilitating return migration in various forms, i.e. permanent, temporary and virtual as well as mainstreaming migration policies into development plans at national, regional and local levels. It would also be interesting to note the forthcoming liberation of the human capital movement under the ASEAN – Australia arrangement, especially the Malaysia – Australia migration corridor.

In the long run, Malaysia needs to seriously consider reviewing some of the structural barriers and corresponding policies which may further increase emigration. These policy and political challenges may deter or discourage return migration, or hamper invaluable diaspora contribution from abroad. Based on the high emigration amongst the Malaysian Chinese to Australia, as well as the other destinations, it warrants a review of Malaysia's inherent political and socio-economic situation and policies which may contribute to the high outflow of the skilled workers and students.

Chapter 5: Mobility decisions

5.1 Introduction

As discussed in the preceding chapters, there are a number of migration theories propagated to explain why people move, how the subsequent migration perpetuates, and the interactions between micro-, meso- and macro-level actors. Vertovec (2009) argues that globalisation and the emerging concept of transnationalism have blurred many formerly distinctive spheres of decision-making.

This chapter begins with a discussion of one of the core themes of this study, i.e. the migration decision-making process of the respondents. There are clearly different motivations for different groups of migrants. The chapter embraces transnationalism in discussing the drivers of migration for respondents in the online survey undertaken here, and how these factors influence their characteristics and decision-making about migration. It also addresses the question of their subsequent mobility and settlement experiences, as well as future plans to remain in Australia, or return to Malaysia. It investigates the reasons for, and against returning, and incentives to attract return migration.

5.2 The decision-making process

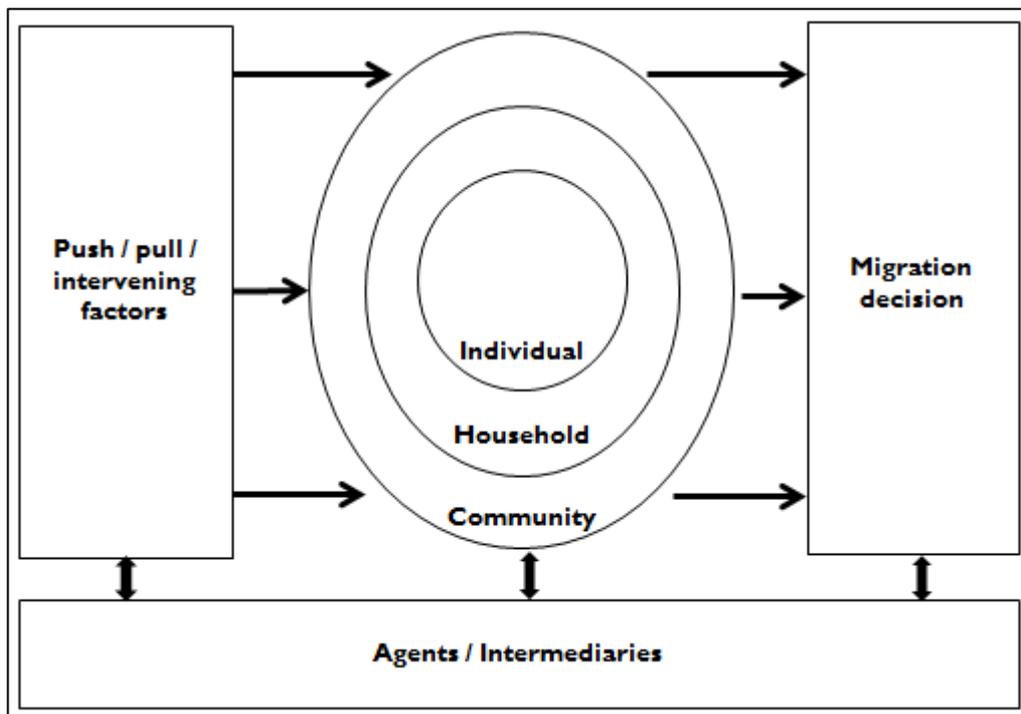
Globalisation is closely linked to transnationalism and has impacted socio-economic transformation and development in all regions of the world. Emerging transnationalism is a global scenario which results in international migration and movement across borders. Massey et al. (1993) offer an overview of the evolutionary theories on international migration while Castles and Miller (2014) argue that it is crucial to study both ends of the migration flow, particularly the important linkages forged between home and host countries. They also subscribe to the argument that the migration systems theory encapsulates this emerging trend and its significance. They claim that the entire structure, size, direction and complexity of migration changes, and differs across regions and countries.

The significance of international migration in economic development is further emphasised by Lucas (2005), demonstrating that there are strong links between international migration and economic development in low income countries. Although migration patterns vary significantly across regions, the key motivation of migration tends to be to seek 'greener pastures' for themselves and their families, which contributes to the growth in the host countries. This phenomenon is exemplified by the high migration rate from the South to the North, particularly in the OECD countries, which effectively generates high remittance flows back to the South, spurring the source countries economic development.

Malaysia continues to experience a high emigration rate despite being known as a major immigration country. At the micro level, the decision to move is a personal choice, however, household conditions influence the cost-benefit consideration in migration decisions. Faist and Fauser (2011) indicate that transnational communities have influence on the migration decision-making process as well as the push and pull factors. Agents and intermediaries play a vital role in the migration decision-making process. Intermediaries in this context include networks and linkages that constitute the migration system (Fawcett 1989). Czaika and de Haas (2013) argue that the simplistic push-pull model which identifies factors in origin and destination countries cannot provide a holistic explanation of the multiple factors influencing the migration decision.

With no claim that it is an exhaustive framework, Figure 5.1 attempts to demonstrate that migration decisions are complex as they encompass different levels across different actors or components. In making the decision to migrate, there are push, pull, and other intervening factors at the individual, household, and community levels. At the same time, there are also external agents or intermediaries which play a role in the decision-making process. These intermediaries include advertising or consulting services for migration and also education agents. There are also family and friends who have already migrated and become a source of reference for the potential migrants with regards to the destination area and work opportunities.

Figure 5.1 Migration drivers and processes



Source: Constructed by author

It has been acknowledged that there is no single theory or method which can explain any form of migration. However, it makes sense to establish a framework which can be used to discuss the subject. For instance, responses given to the question '*Please indicate the main reasons for your decision to move to Australia*' does not provide the absolute answer. However, the answers may reflect events or people that triggered the movement but may not reveal the entire underlying causes. These have to be gauged by more in-depth questions and interviews.

5.3 Motivations differ across the profile of respondents

Studies of migration, including the increasing significance of skilled migration, provide information about the reasons the skilled migrants move from their home country to other countries globally, but little about the causes. However, these insights into the factors and motivations for the international mobility of skilled migrants can support policy recommendations for both source and destination countries concerned with retaining or attracting these talents (Khoo 2014). It is important to bear in mind that this does not necessarily match with motivations of the less skilled or of families etc.

Khoo, Hugo & McDonald (2011) also found that reasons for skilled migration are beyond just economic or employment-related factors. Non-economic reasons are often given and of equivalent importance. The reasons also vary by country or region of origins of respondents, and other characteristics such as gender, marital status, skill levels, and educational qualifications. To add to the complexity of understanding migration decisions, demographic and socio-economic characteristics differ and change across time (King et al. 2006). At the micro-level, factors such as the age on arrival, educational qualifications and employment aspirations play a role in the migration decision-making. At the meso-level, the networks and contacts, while at the macro-level, the external conditions like the economic and political scenario all contribute towards the decision-making process of migrants and their subsequent patterns of mobility (Goldin, Cameron & Balarajan 2012, p.97-120).

5.3.1 Gender and migration

Like ethnicity and location, gender has been a crucial dimension of social differentiation affecting migration decisions. The role of gender in migration scholarship has been increasingly acknowledged and debated. Migrant women tend to be over-represented in the least desirable occupations and their mobility is often associated with following partners, family reunion, education, refugees, and marriage, particularly in the Asian context (Castles, De Haas & Miller 2014).

In this study, migrant respondents were asked to select from a list of specified reasons for their move to Australia. Of the 11 specified reasons, eight were selected by the respondents, with varying levels of statistical significance. In Table 5.1 the responses to each of the reasons are ranked by popularity of the total response and it shows that there are differences between males and females in the way they are ranked. It is important to note that the two most selected responses of both males and females for their move to Australia were '*education or study*', and '*lifestyle*'. There were two-thirds of females citing education compared to males (57 per cent). On the other hand, there were more males (47 per cent) compared to females (40 per cent) who indicated lifestyle as the reason for moving to Australia. The lifestyle factors were clearly important in the Malaysia – Australia migration decision. Cultural, environmental, quality of life, and

social reasons for moving are recognised as part of the lifestyle attraction (Kontuly, Smith & Heaton 1995; Stimson & Minnery 1998).

Table 5.1 Reasons given by male and female respondents for emigration to Australia (multiple responses, percentage indicating ‘yes’ to a list of specified reasons)

Reasons for move to Australia	Male (n=364)	Female (n=409)	Total (n=773)
Education	57.4	67.7	62.9
Lifestyle	46.7	40.3	43.3
Better employment opportunities	22.0	19.1	20.4
Marriage and partnership	4.7	10.5	7.8
Career advancement	6.6	3.4	4.9
To be close to family and friends	5.2	4.4	4.8
Overseas job transfer	6.3	2.0	4.0
Partner's employment	2.5	5.4	4.0

Source: MiA Survey 2014

Only one-fifth of respondents indicated better employment opportunities, and as anticipated, there were higher responses related to employment and professional aspirations amongst the males, although only slightly less for females. There were higher responses to ‘*marriage or partnership*’ and ‘*partner’s employment*’ amongst the females, however they were generally quite low, 11 per cent of females compared to 5 per cent of males gave marriage or partnership as reason for emigration. As for the responses to ‘*partner’s employment*’, only 5 per cent of females and 3 per cent of males chose this reason. This is where the notion of ‘*trailing spouse*’ emerges but is not particularly strong in this context (Harvey 1998; Shahnasarian 1991).

Although clearly not a major factor here, a large majority of respondents were married to spouses who were born in Malaysia, held Malaysian citizenship or were residing in Australia. This shows that the birthplace and aspirations of the spouse play a role in the migration decision of both males and females. An example was given by one of the respondents who agreed to be interviewed and he said:

We [my then-girlfriend and me] did our tertiary education in Melbourne, She went on to do her chartered accountancy and I returned to Malaysia after we graduated... When we decided to get married, she insisted that we start our family here in Melbourne. (#62, young male migrant who shifted for marriage)

Another comment with regards to marriage-driven migration was given by a respondent in the general comment box at the end of the survey is as follows:

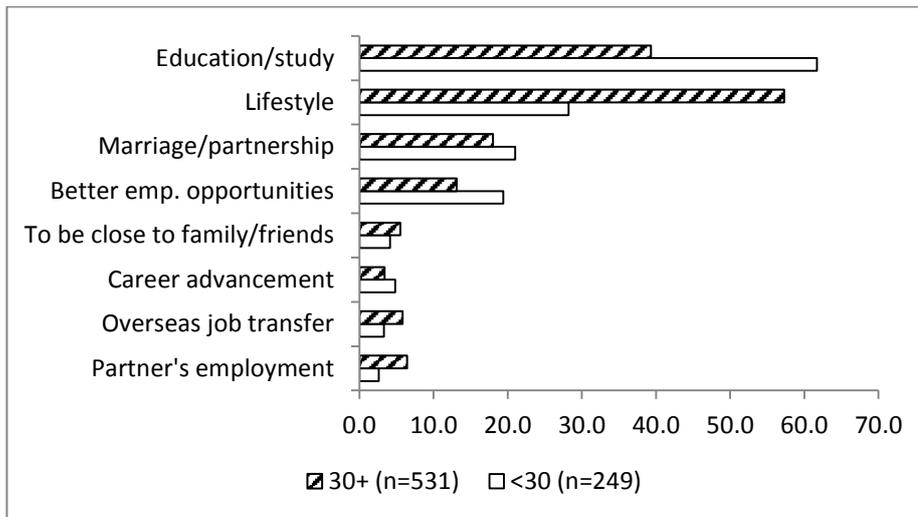
... I had first arrived on a holiday when I was young, then returned [to Australia] later to finish my degree but did not [intend] to migrate [here] till after I got married to my spouse who is based here (Female in her early thirties)

Interestingly, the response ‘*to be close to family or friends*’ was relatively low for both males (5 per cent) and females (4 per cent), indicating that it was a minor factor in the decision to migrate to Australia. In this regard, Table 5.1 shows that it is important to consider males and females responses separately to analyse the differences between both sexes.

5.3.2 The influence of age on migration decision

Demographic and socio-economic characteristics have been found to change across time (King et al. 2006). Moreover, Rogers and Castro (1981) found that most migratory processes are age-selective, so it is important to disaggregate reasons by age which can also reflect life cycle stages. There were some differences in the respondents’ reasons for moving based on their age on arrival in Australia. Figure 5.2 shows that there is an opposite preference between the two most popular reasons given by respondents aged under 30 years and the older group broadly defined as over 30 years of age. The under-30 group consists mainly of students undergoing their study in degree courses, while the older respondents were in early career stages, as well as being more established. More of the younger respondents (62 per cent) chose ‘*education*’ compared to the older group (40 per cent), whereas the major responses to ‘*lifestyle*’ were the older group (57 per cent) compared to the younger respondents (28 per cent).

Figure 5.2 Reasons given by respondents by age on arrival (*multiple responses, percentage indicating ‘yes’ to a list of specified reasons*)



Source: MiA Survey 2014

One of the respondents who agreed to be interviewed and had arrived in Australia as a student in 2002 said that:

Following in the footsteps of my elder siblings, I pursued my degree overseas upon completion of upper senior 3 education in Malaysia. It was my parent’s “default” arrangement for all of us. Like many overseas students, I job-hunted after graduating with the intention to settle here. (#363, male in his early thirties who currently holds an Australian permanent residency)

This scenario corroborates with studies which associate education or study with economic reasons for moving (Boyle, Halfacree & Robinson 2014; Iredale 2001). Boyle, Halfacree and Robinson (2014) claim that one of the motivating factors for young adults to leave their parental home is in the pursuit of education. Hugo (2014a) also argues that student migration shapes international migration patterns and trends. In addition, Lucas (2001) found that the education of foreign students helps industrialised nations attract the brightest immigrants. In this regard, it is relevant to the Malaysia – Australia migration corridor as student migration makes a significant contribution to temporary and permanent settlement patterns in Australia as discussed in Chapter 4.

As shown in Figure 5.2, more than 55 per cent of respondents aged 30 years or more tended to move for the lifestyle in Australia, which was found to be even more prevalent for those aged 50 years or more. Many relate to the Australian lifestyle as being very

much outdoors and laid back, which is similar to findings from a HSBC expatriate research study which surveyed over 9000 expatriates online in 2014. It was found that expatriates perceived that Australia offers a better quality of life, unlike other countries which cater for career-specific purposes. Khoo (2014) also found that Australia's lifestyle is an important factor for migrants. From follow-up interviews with respondents volunteering from the online survey, it was found that they were attracted to Australia for the perceived [better] lifestyle experience:

It is a lifestyle choice more than anything else. It wasn't the salary but Australia offers my family and I the desired quality of life. (#519, manager in financial services)

When I first came [to Australia] as a student, I already knew that this is where I'd like to settle. Australia is an ideal place to start my career and family. I went home after graduating, worked a couple of years and then applied to migrate here. (#1018, male administrator-turned-entrepreneur)

There were also some other lifestyle-related comments made by a few respondents of different ages as follows:

Australia gives us the relaxed lifestyle. (Female aged above 50)

Lifestyle here is so much safer and better. Safer in the sense that you can walk home in the middle of the night and not be worried about being mugged, as compared to the high crime rates in Malaysia. Lifestyle [is], well... more relaxing. (Female in her late twenties)

I am very blessed to be able to live in a country that embraces my family. The law and order is in good shape. I value freedom, equality, [and] fair go. (Male aged above 50)

Life in Australia is more relaxed and family-oriented. The social network for families is better organised and community based. (Male aged above 50)

Migrated for lifestyle. Job opportunities in Australia are severely lacking especially for professionals. (Male aged between 25 and 49)

Migrating here is a personal choice in the hope of a better future life, kids' education and lifestyle. (Male aged between 25 and 49)

Most of the people I know moved here [Australia] for a better lifestyle and not to make big money. (Female in her early forties)

5.3.3 Educational attainment and migration

There were over one million Malaysians abroad, of which a third represented a brain drain. Almost 60 per cent of them were concentrated in Singapore, followed by Australia at 15 per cent (World Bank 2010, pp.103-104). As Khoo (2014) found, the highly-educated and highly-skilled migrants tend to move for non-economic reasons beyond the presumed economic drivers. She also claimed that Australia's lifestyle is the most common reason given by skilled temporary migrants for coming to Australia.

Table 5.2 demonstrates that there were slight differences in the reasons for migration between respondents with undergraduate and postgraduate qualifications. Overall, education was the most popular reason with some two-thirds being those who had other types of qualifications such as professional certifications, i.e. Certified Information System Auditor (CISA), Certified Information Security Manager (CISM), Certified Public Accountant (CPA), and the Association of Chartered Certified Accountants (ACCA). They would have migrated to Australia and pursued their professional qualifications as these are recognised locally. There were also some respondents who had migrated to do their Year 12 in Australia. Having successfully completed the final year of secondary education in Australia enables students to apply for entry to further education, though it does not guarantee a place.

Table 5.2 Reasons given by respondents for emigration by education qualification (multiple responses, percentage indicating 'yes' to a list of specified reasons)

Reasons for move to Australia	Postgrad (n=267)	Undergrad (n=417)	Other (n=118)
Education	64.0	59.7	66.9
Lifestyle	41.6	47.7	34.7
Marriage and partnership	19.9	25.2	22.0
Better employment opportunities	18.4	21.3	19.5
To be close to family and friends	2.6	5.5	9.3
Career advancement	5.2	5.0	4.2
Overseas job transfer	5.2	4.1	4.2
Partner's employment	5.6	4.6	0.8

Source: MiA Survey 2014

Table 5.2 also shows that lifestyle was the second most preferred reason for more than 40 per cent of respondents with postgraduate and undergraduate qualifications, and over one-third of those with other qualifications. Interestingly, the three most popular reasons given by all respondents were not directly economic-driven: 1) Education; 2) Lifestyle; and 3) Marriage and partnership. One of the respondents who was interviewed said he and his spouse, both with postgraduate qualifications, had migrated to Australia not to seek better economic outcomes, but rather to secure a better future for their children:

Frankly speaking, our household income was much higher [back then], and I would say we were better off in terms of our professional career and status before we made the move [to Australia]... We decided to move, as we were more concerned about our children's future... (#486, manager in financial services in his late forties)

There were other similar comments made by some of the respondents with tertiary qualifications for example:

We migrated to Australia to enable our children to go to a better school and hopefully a better future. (Male respondent in his late forties)

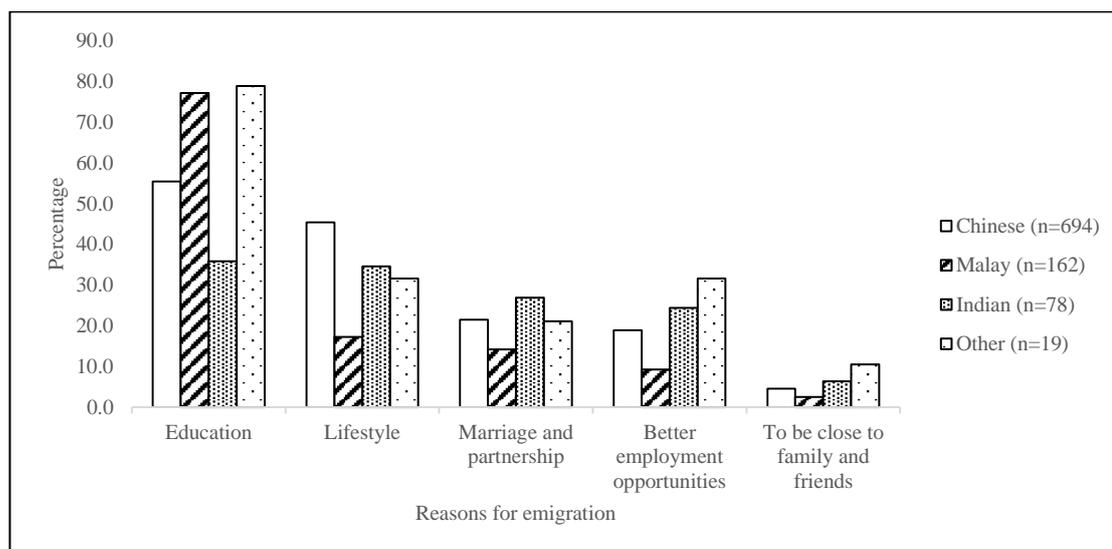
Better education and opportunity for my children in Australia compare to Malaysia. Fairer treatment. (Male respondent in his late forties)

Australia is definitely a more promising place for my kids to grow and has a better education system. I was a postgraduate student in Curtin and felt that was one of the best choices I made for my personal education growth, which I strongly want my kids to have. (Female respondent in her early thirties)

5.3.4 The influence of ethnicity on the migration decision

Respondents were asked to provide their ancestry background and it was found that the two most popular responses were 'education' and 'lifestyle' across all the ethnic groups. However, it is important to note the differences in responses amongst the respondents by their ethnicities. Figure 5.3 shows the five most popular reasons given by the respondents for emigration to Australia by ethnicity, indicating that 78 per cent of the Malay respondents gave education as a reason for moving to Australia followed by 56 per cent of the Chinese and 36 per cent of the Indians.

Figure 5.3 Top five reasons for respondents' emigration by ethnicity (*multiple responses, percentage indicating 'yes' to a list of specified reasons*)



Source: MiA Survey 2014

It was apparent that *'lifestyle'* was highly favoured by the Chinese respondents with less indicating the economic-factors such as employment opportunities, career advancement and overseas job transfer. Interestingly, the Indian respondents were more likely to give reasons relating to marriage or partner's employment compared to the other ethnic groups. Overall, the economic factors were not highly considered by respondents in the emigration decision.

Beyond the listed reasons for emigration to Australia, respondents were able to state other reasons in an open text-field, of which the responses were coded and three separate themes were identified: 1) Discriminatory policy; 2) Political leadership and overall situation in Malaysia; and 3) Children education and their future. It is not surprising to find that a large majority of Chinese and Indians said they migrated to ensure that their children receive a better education and opportunities in life. It was also found that both the Chinese and Indians were more likely to indicate discriminatory policy at home as the other reason for their emigration to Australia. Some of their responses are as follows:

Disappointed with Malaysian discrimination policy

Discrimination in home country

Equity and equality we were not entitled to in Malaysia

Equal opportunity in Australia

Escape institutionalised racism, and apartheid

Freedom of religion, racism in Malaysia

General absence of meritocracy and transparency

Negative push factors in Malaysia: bad governance, racial and religious discriminations, no freedom of speech, increasing Islamic extremism etc.

New Economy Policy

Racial discrimination

Religious fundamentalism making people stupid

Sick of the corrupted Malaysian government discriminatory policies

It was also found that all 15 responses focussed on political leadership and the overall situation in Malaysia which motivated emigration to Australia were given by the Chinese, with some of them listed below:

Disappointed with the political situation in Malaysia

Corrupted leaders and government

Politics and safety

Poor, disgusting and unfair governance

Public safety and human rights

Sick of political mess in home country

Political instability

In fact, one of the respondents who was interviewed gave his views with regards to how much he detested the political leaders in Malaysia, which was one of the main reasons for uprooting his family to Melbourne:

Shame on the Malaysian leaders, the nation spends 15-20 years nurturing its citizens, then to have these clowns [politicians] tell these citizens that they are unwanted... and eventually lose them to other nations who accord them proper value and respect. (#486, male in his late forties who was initially very reluctant to leave his comfortable job in Malaysia)

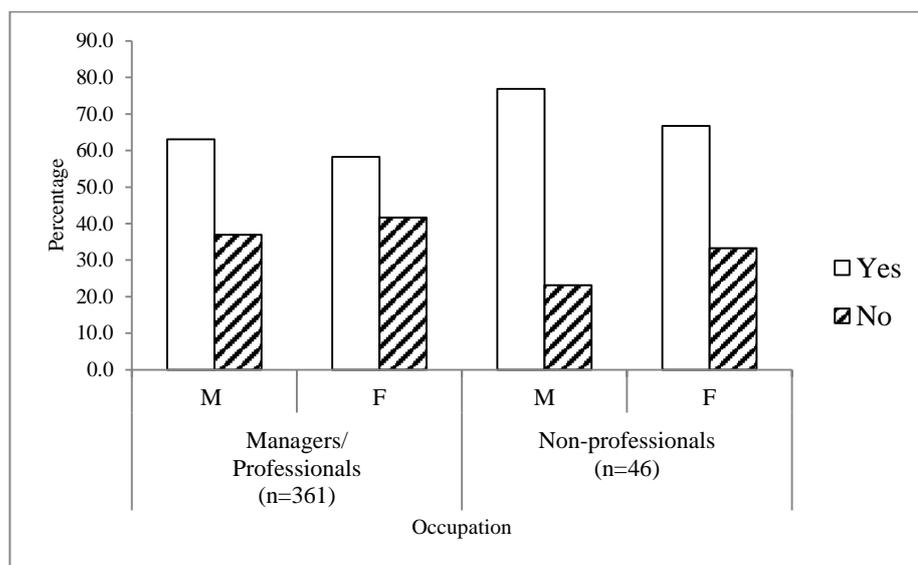
5.4 Influence of pre-move contacts on the migration decision

As Goldin, Cameron and Balarajan (2012) argue, migration decisions are complex in the context of the increased contemporary movement. There are often multiple intertwined factors contributing to the migration decision-making process. In addition to the digital communication networks that facilitate and maintain contacts, Faist, Fauser and Reisenauer (2013) introduce the notion of transnational circuits used to provide a context to the importance of ties between people and organisations where information and services are exchanged to achieve a common goal. In this case, contemporary movement was seen to include both migration and short-term visits.

In this regard, it is necessary to understand the characteristics of respondents who had established contacts with people and organisations in Australia before they decided to move. Contacts that prompted the move, and served as intermediaries supporting the migration decision-making were also established in the survey. The respondents were asked if they had contacts in place with people or organisations in Australia before moving. They were also asked about information sources which prompted their move to Australia.

Figure 5.4 shows that the majority of respondents had contacts in Australia before making the move. Six in every ten had pre-move contacts in both categories of employment, and six in every ten males in managerial and professional roles had contacts, compared to three-quarters of those in non-professional roles. Less females in managerial and professional roles (58 per cent) tended to establish pre-move contacts compared to those who were not in those roles (67 per cent).

Figure 5.4 Male and female respondents with pre-move contacts by professional and non-professional employment



Source: MiA Survey 2014

Another interesting finding from this study was that non-professionals tended to be more reliant on pre-move contacts compared to the respondents in a managerial or professional capacity. A large majority of both male (77 per cent) and female (67 per cent) respondents in this occupation category had established pre-move contacts.

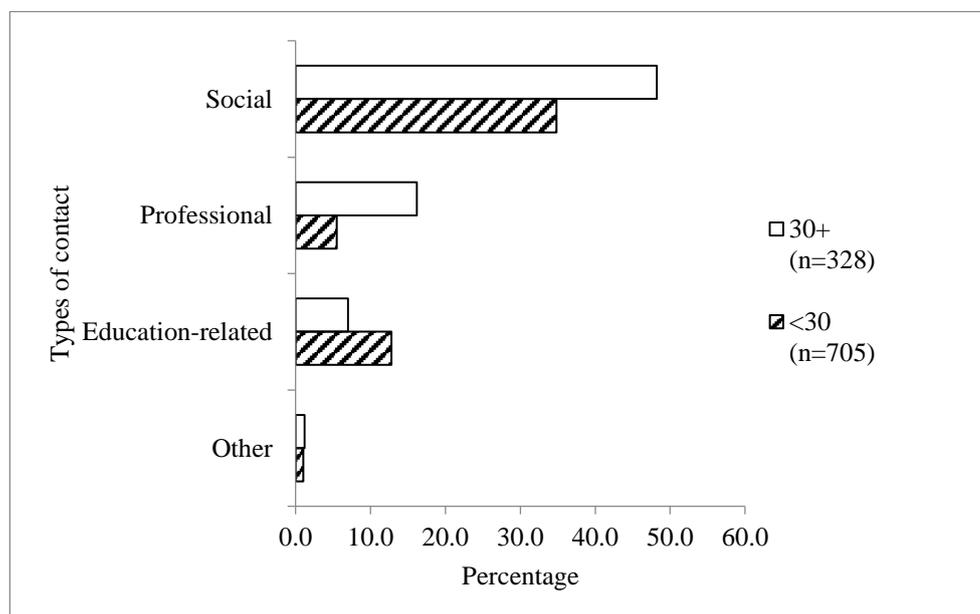
Respondents were then asked specifically about the types of pre-move contacts they had and the responses were analysed by two age groups: 1) below 30 years of age; and 2) 30 and above. Figure 5.5 shows that the most popular response given by more than one third of male and female respondents was social contacts, with half of the older respondents giving this response, compared to a third of the younger ones. Two of the interviewees explained how their social contacts had influenced their decision to migrate to Australia:

My brother-in-law was studying in Monash [University] then. Many of my own relatives migrated to Australia in the eighties... They encouraged us to move and we referred to them when we were addressing the pre-move anxiety... (#486, male respondent in his late forties who referred to relatives in Australia before finally deciding to migrate)

A family friend's daughter attended high-school in Melbourne and had really enjoyed the education system. They [family friend] then influenced my parents to send us to study in Australia too... (#888, young female healthcare professional)

There were also more respondents in the older group who indicated that they relied on professional contacts in Australia for information before deciding to move (16 per cent). Vertovec (2009) also found that the skilled respondents were more likely to rely on professional networks rather than kinship networks. The younger ones, in contrast, were more likely to use education and study-related contacts as a reference before moving to Australia. This is not surprising as the younger group had initially moved to Australia to pursue their education hence universities and student agent representatives would be their point of contact.

Figure 5.5 Pre-move contacts of respondents by age on arrival



Source: MiA Survey 2014

In addition to the three main contacts, about one per cent of both age relied on other sources of information such as members of the local church and religious bodies, or Malaysian student associations. One of the respondents who was interviewed said that she had been connected to a Malaysian postgraduate community in Australia which had helped her form a better understanding of the living and studying conditions before she decided to pursue her postgraduate training in Melbourne:

I was indecisive at first about making the decision to pursue my postgraduate training in Australia. However, I found and made contacts with a fellow-Malaysian student who was in Victoria. She was very helpful. She then linked me to many other people in the association... (#869, female academic in her late thirties on postgraduate training)

Motivation to migrate, whether permanent or temporarily, is influenced by a myriad of factors. One of the strong motivating factors contributing to the migration decision is obtaining knowledge of opportunities in the destination country from sources known to the potential migrant. Transnational circulation of people and information provide insights into the prospects of migration to certain places. A large body of literature has investigated the transnational or diasporic ties maintained by migrants after their move to another country (Cohen 1997; Schiller 2005; Schiller & Fournon 1999). However, there is limited scholarship around many of the sources which tend to prompt the migration decision.

In this study, it was found that many respondents had been influenced by their independent search for information and having been to Australia before. Table 5.3 compares the sources that prompted male and female respondents to move to Australia, and indicates that over one-third of the respondents had carried out independent searches, while almost a third indicated that they were motivated to move to Australia as a result of previously visiting the country. It is interesting to note that there was almost no difference between males and females in terms of the ranking of responses. ‘Independent search’, ‘been to Australia’, and ‘existing networks in Australia’ were the three most popular responses given by both sexes. These was followed by ‘partner/family going there’, ‘experience of others’, ‘networks in Malaysia’ and ‘ad by migration agents’.

Table 5.3 Sources that prompted male and female respondents move to Australia (multiple responses, percentage indicating ‘yes’ to a list of specified reasons)

Sources	Male (n=364)	Female (n=409)	Total (n=773)
Independent search	36.3	33.7	34.9
Been to Australia	32.1	31.5	31.8
Existing networks in Australia	24.5	22.0	23.2
Partner or family going there	22.8	19.6	21.1
Experience of others	21.7	18.6	20.1
Networks in Malaysia	18.1	17.6	17.9
Ad by migration agents	7.4	7.6	7.5
Other	10.2	11.5	10.9

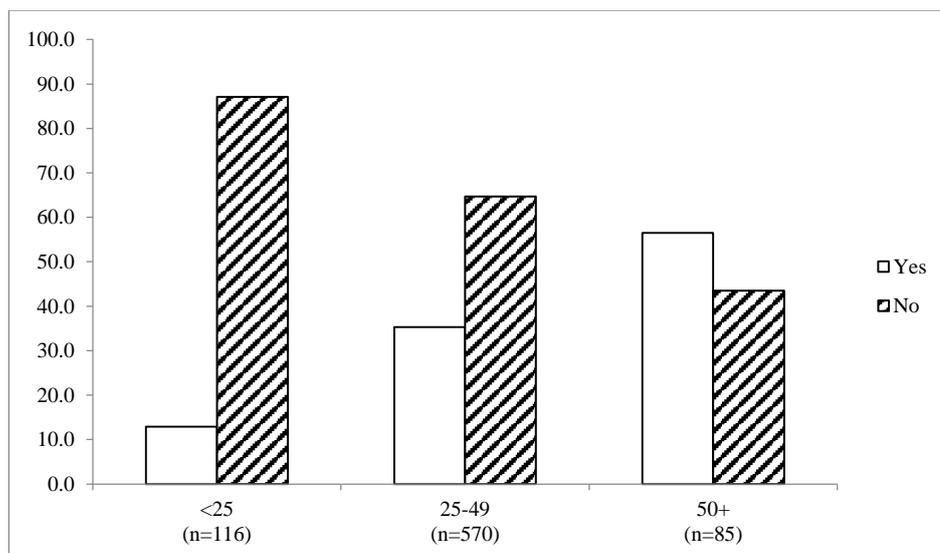
Source: MiA Survey 2014

5.5 Lived elsewhere: Who and why?

Migrants today engage in transnational mobility whereby they move to more than one destination, for a myriad of reasons. In relation to this, many terms have been coined by various scholars (Motyl et al. 2014). Constant and Zimmermann (2011) use the term ‘repeat migration’, while King and Newbold (2008) refer to it as ‘return migration’. Hugo (2013) claimed that many scholars use the term ‘circular migration’ to denote such multiple moves. Takenaka (2007) refers these to multiple movements as secondary movement, while one of the earlier scholars Beenstock (1996) calls it ‘remigration’. There are however, some differences amongst the terms contextually as patterns and trends of movement are diverse, and tend to be dependent upon the characteristics of migrants.

Respondents were asked if they had lived in countries other than Malaysia and Australia, with more male respondents (56 per cent) living elsewhere than was the case for females (44 per cent). Figure 5.6 shows that a half of the respondents over 50 years of age had lived elsewhere whereas only one in ten of the respondents under 25 years had done so. Almost a third aged 25-49 had lived in another country. This is not surprising as the older respondents were more established, and were more likely to have experienced more employment and business opportunities.

Figure 5.6 Respondents who have lived in other countries by age group



Source: MiA Survey 2014

The survey also found more than one-third of the Chinese and Indian respondents had lived in another country other than Malaysia and Australia (Table 5.4). The Chinese were found to be more likely to venture abroad for employment and business opportunities, and this was validated with their open text field responses such as ‘*job assignments and business trips*’, ‘*explore career opportunities*’, ‘*my first job*’, ‘*business*’ etc. They were also found to have lived elsewhere because of family reasons, with most responses relating to the job relocation and overseas postings of their parents. It is worth noting that all the additional reasons for living elsewhere in relation to opportunity and overseas experience were given by the Chinese. The Malays were the least likely to have lived elsewhere. From the open text-field, only two responses were given by the Malay respondents which indicated that they have lived elsewhere to pursue study, and also followed parents who were posted overseas.

Table 5.4 Respondents who have lived in other countries by ethnic group

Lived elsewhere	Chinese (n=588)	Malay (n=132)	Indian (n=58)	Other (n=15)
Yes	36.9	21.2	34.5	26.7
No	63.1	78.8	65.5	73.3
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: MiA Survey 2014

5.5.1 Select economic characteristics and transnational mobility

It is clear in most studies that the highly-educated or highly-skilled are more mobile compared to the less-educated or low-skilled (Iredale 2001; Khoo, Hugo & McDonald 2008; Lowell & Findlay 2001). More often than not, these transnational migrants tend to engage in staged movement. This approach differs from the two-step migration model, which tends to lead to permanent residency or citizenship. This triangular model provides an intermediary country (*‘entrepôt’*), which serves as a stepping-stone to progress to the desired destination country (DeVoretz, Ma & Zhang 2003). They used the latter model to explain the staged movement of Chinese immigrants between Hong Kong, Canada, and the other parts of the world, and argued that those who engage in such staged movement are predominantly the high achievers in terms of educational attainment and employment status.

Table 5.5 compares the educational qualifications, occupations and income of respondents who had lived in countries other than Malaysian and Australia. There was a linear relationship between education level as well as economic status and international mobility. Respondents who achieved higher educational qualifications and had higher economic status tended to demonstrate higher transnational mobility in respect to living in other countries.

Table 5.5 Mobility of respondents by education, occupation and income

	Lived in other countries	
	n	%
Educational qualification		
<i>Postgraduate</i>	259	44.8
<i>Undergraduate</i>	410	32.0
<i>Other</i>	114	22.8
Occupation	n	%
<i>Managers & professionals</i>	380	46.1
<i>Other</i>	49	34.7
Income	n	%
<i><\$100,000</i>	346	33.2
<i>\$100,000+</i>	142	56.3

Source: MiA Survey 2014

About 45 per cent of respondents with postgraduate qualifications compared to 32 per cent of undergraduate respondents had lived in countries other than Malaysia and Australia. Respondents who were in managerial and professional occupations also demonstrated higher transnational mobility compared to the others. This is quite common for jobs in big international consulting firms like the Boston Consulting Group (BCG), PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC), Ernst & Young (EY) and Deloitte, where internal job assignment opportunities in the overseas office globally are available. Every four in ten respondents had lived in another country before moving to Australia.

Additionally, using income as a proxy for economic status, the analysis showed that respondents with higher incomes were more likely to have lived elsewhere. More than half of the respondents earning A\$100,000 and above annually had lived in other countries, while only one-third with less than A\$100,000 shared the same transnational

experience. Clearly, these findings support the findings of Khoo (2014) who argues that the highly skilled are more highly mobile.

5.5.2 Reasons for living in multiple countries

Although economic-driven mobility appeared to be less a motivating factor for migration to Australia, it was a dominant reason for living in other countries. This scenario corroborates with the simplistic neoclassical interpretation of international migration where individuals who move in search of residence that maximises their well-being (Borjas 1990). Table 5.6 shows that the economic elements associated with reasons for living in other countries were more popular amongst the male respondents. For example, there were 12 per cent of males to 3 per cent of females who selected overseas job transfer. There were also twice as many males who selected *'better employment opportunities'* compared to females. Though low in overall ranking, it is important to note that there were also more males who selected *'career advancement'* as a reason for living elsewhere.

Table 5.6 Reasons for living in other countries by male and female respondents (multiple responses, percentage indicating 'yes' to a list of specified reasons)

Reasons for living in other countries	Male (n=141)	Female (n=121)	Total (n=262)
Education	40.4	41.3	40.8
Overseas job transfer	30.5	11.6	21.8
Better employment opportunities	24.1	16.5	20.6
Marriage and partnership	21.3	15.7	18.7
Lifestyle	14.9	16.5	15.6
Partner's employment	1.4	14.0	7.3
To be close to family and friends	6.4	7.4	6.9
Career advancement	9.2	1.7	5.7

Source: MiA Survey 2014

It is not surprising to find that the most popular reason for living elsewhere given by both male and female respondents (who had lived elsewhere) was *'education or study'*. Some 40 per cent of males and 41 per cent females who had lived and studied overseas before migrating to Australia. In fact, one of those interviewed explained that he studied overseas, went back to Malaysia then got himself overseas stints before he ended up in Australia:

My parents saved hard so that I could pursue my law degree in UK. Nothing beats the international exposure and experience... [I] went back to Malaysia to work and did a few overseas stints before deciding to migrate to Australia. (#226, male, moved to Australia in 2012)

With regards to reasons for living in other countries before coming to Australia, another two male interviewees said the following:

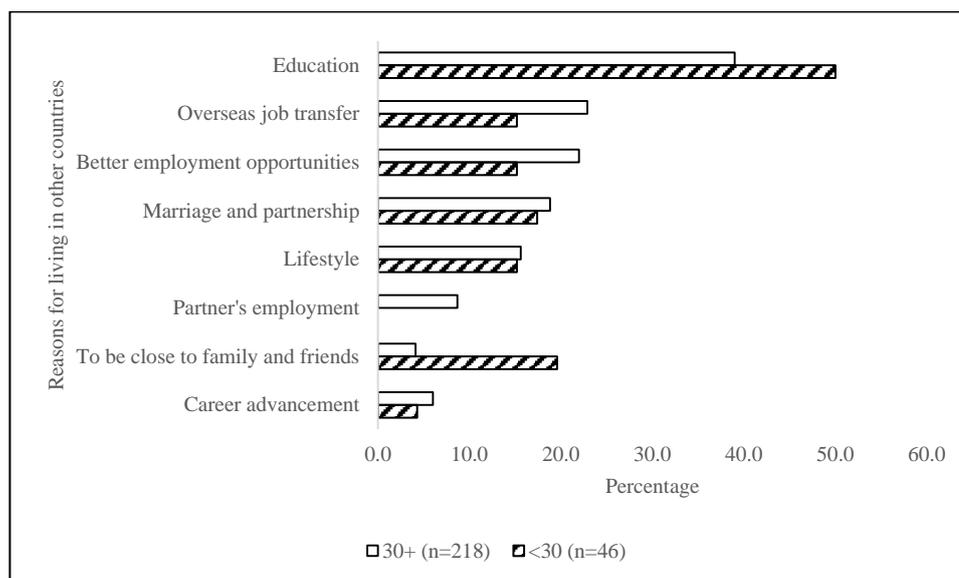
I personally felt that having global work experience is helpful for career progression. In my line [ICT and technology], it would value add to gain some technical experience in USA and Japan... I was attached to a Japanese technology firm prior to this... (#898, male, worked in Japan for a few years)

When my company offered me an internal transfer to Singapore, I did not hesitate to take up the opportunity. The entire package was attractive. After a few years in Singapore, I accepted a subsequent transfer offer to Australia... (#933, male, transferred to Singapore then Australia)

‘Lifestyle’ was not an important determinant in the decision-making of those who had lived elsewhere. Earlier it was established to be high on the list of reasons for migration for both males and females (Table 5.1). However, one of the similarities between reasons given by respondents for migration to Australia, and also for living elsewhere, was the higher percentage of female respondents citing partner’s employment as one of the reasons for multiple migrations. This is one of the contributing factors for many skilled female respondents who were not in full-time employment or not in the workforce, as their mobility was not driven by their personal career aspirations which is discussed further in Chapter 6.

Figure 5.7 highlights the importance of considering the responses of the younger (less than 30 years) respondents separately, as the total response conceals the differences between them. Many of the younger respondents were more likely to give reasons relating to family and friends, as they were likely to have moved abroad following their parents’ job relocation. The older respondents (above 30 years) were more likely to have travelled and lived abroad for overseas job transfers, employment opportunities and career advancement. Understandably, with a higher rate of being married amongst the older respondents, all responses with regards to partner’s employment were given by them. Overall, it is also probable that the older respondents would have higher chances of having lived overseas for reasons such as education, and career-related opportunities as compared to the younger ones.

Figure 5.7 Respondents' reasons for living in other countries by age (*multiple responses, percentage indicating 'yes' to a list of specified reasons*)



Source: MiA Survey 2014

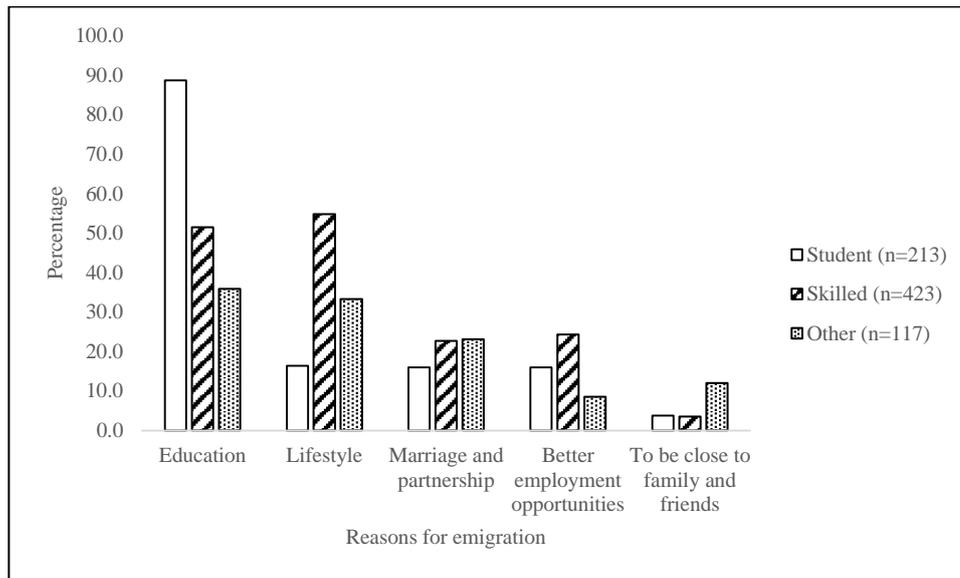
5.6 Main characteristics of respondents' migration to Australia

This section provides an overview of the migration patterns and characteristics of the respondents identified by their visa category to differentiate between students and skilled respondents who were working in Australia. Figure 5.8 shows the respondents' reasons for emigration by visa category: 1) Student; 2) Skilled²⁵; and 3) Other²⁶.

²⁵ Include General Skilled Migration visa, Employer-sponsored visa, Business Skills visa, and Distinguished Talent visa

²⁶ Include Family migration visa, Working Holiday and other categories including those who had become citizens of Australia

Figure 5.8 Top five reasons for emigration by visa category (multiple responses, percentage indicating ‘yes’ to a list of specified reasons)



Source: MiA Survey 2014

It was not surprising to find that respondents who were holding student visas came to Australia for education hence the high rate of response (89 per cent). Some 52 per cent of the skilled respondents would have moved initially to Australia for education then stayed to work. However, more than half of the skilled respondents indicated ‘*lifestyle*’ as their reasons for moving to Australia, while almost a quarter cited ‘*better employment opportunities*’. Some 23 per cent of skilled respondents chose ‘*marriage and partnership*’ for their move to Australia. Though not dominant, migration to be close to family and friends was the fifth most popular reason.

Table 5.7 shows the classification of respondents by visa category. It was found that there were three main categories of migration: 1) Education; 2) Economic; and 3) Social. The migration for education is characterised by young, predominantly Malays, and almost two-thirds holding a student visa. Some 71 per cent were not married and eight in every ten had never been to Australia, and had not lived in countries other than Malaysia and Australia.

The economic migration is made up of the economically active age group, with more males than females. They were predominantly Chinese (85 per cent), followed by Indian (9 per cent), Malay (5 per cent) and other (2 per cent). This group of respondents were

holding the general skilled migration visa, employer-sponsored visa, business skills or distinguished talent visa. Many of them had lived elsewhere (36 per cent), or had been to Australia before (35 per cent) compared to those on student visas. Over half of this group were married with young children.

Lastly, the social migration is largely made up of respondents aged 30 and above, with more females (54 per cent) than males (46 per cent) in the group. This tends to be a family-driven migration amongst young families and retirees. The dominant ethnic group was Chinese (80 per cent), followed by Indian (12 per cent), and Malay and other races (7 per cent). Some 83 per cent of the respondents were married, and 40 per cent had lived elsewhere, and a fifth had been to Australia before.

Table 5.7 Classification of respondents by visa

Visa category	Student		Skilled		Other	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Sex	163		348		82	
<i>Male</i>	58	35.6	193	55.5	38	46.3
<i>Female</i>	105	64.4	155	44.5	44	53.7
Age	164		349		85	
<30	122	74.4	68	19.5	18	21.2
30+	42	25.6	281	80.5	167	78.8
Ancestry	200		397		97	
<i>Chinese</i>	85	42.5	337	84.9	78	80.4
<i>Malay</i>	102	51.0	18	4.5	5	5.2
<i>Indian</i>	6	3.0	35	8.8	12	12.4
<i>Other</i>	7	3.5	7	1.8	2	2.1
Marital status	166		351		84	
<i>Single</i>	119	71.7	92	26.2	10	11.9
<i>Married</i>	45	27.1	253	72.1	70	83.3
<i>Divorced or widowed</i>	2	1.2	6	1.7	4	4.8
Lived elsewhere	172		363		90	
<i>Yes</i>	35	20.3	129	35.5	35	38.9
<i>No</i>	137	79.7	234	64.5	55	61.1
Been to Australia	213		423		117	
<i>Yes</i>	41	19.2	147	34.8	26	22.2
<i>No</i>	172	80.8	276	65.2	91	77.8

Source: MiA Survey 2014

5.7 Intentions to return

The literature on migration has established that return migration is considerable and highly selective (Borjas 1989; Dustmann 1996). Boyle, Halfacree and Robinson (1998) argued that it is common for migrants to leave a particular place for a period of time, and return later at some point of time. The common groups were young adults who had initially migrated in pursuit of better employment and career opportunities elsewhere tended to return home later; or retirees who choose to return to their home country after their kids had become independent, and many had finished their working lives.

Respondents were asked in the survey about their intentions to return to Malaysia to live. Table 5.8 shows that four in every ten respondents were undecided about returning, with over a third giving a definite 'no'. The difference between the male and female respondents was very small with a higher proportion of females indicating that they would return, and more males indicated otherwise. Overall, it should be noted that only one-fifth had intentions of returning which was slightly higher for females than males.

Table 5.8 Intentions of male and female respondents to return to Malaysia to live

Intention to return	Male (n=364)	Female (n=409)	Total (n=773)
Yes	18.7	21.0	19.9
No	37.9	35.2	36.5
Undecided	43.4	43.8	43.6
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: MiA Survey 2014

Of particular note, the age of respondents had a much greater influence on intentions to return. It is interesting to note that younger respondents were more likely to return compared to older ones. Table 5.9 shows that some 35 per cent of respondents under the age of 25 indicated that they would return compared to those aged between 25-49 years (18 per cent) and above 50 years (9 per cent). It also shows that as age increased, the number of 'no' responses increased. Those respondents indicating that they were undecided remained relatively consistent (over 40 per cent) amongst those under 50 years, demonstrating that young and economically-active aged respondents were

leaving their options open, and not committing to a definite answer to return to Malaysia.

Table 5.9 Intention of respondents to return to Malaysia by age

Intention to return	<25 (n=118)	25-49 (n=574)	50+ (n=88)
Yes	34.7	18.3	9.1
No	17.8	36.9	59.1
Undecided	47.5	44.8	31.8
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: MiA Survey 2014

In order to understand return intentions, it is important to examine their ancestry background. Table 5.10 presents the return intentions accordingly and the Chinese respondents were the ones most unlikely to return with only 10 per cent responding 'yes', while 43 per cent indicated 'no', although 47 per cent were undecided. Similarly, the Indian respondents shared the same trend in terms of responses, with 42 per cent claiming that they were not returning. On the other hand, 62 per cent of the Malays intended to return and only 8 per cent said 'no', while only 30 per cent were undecided. It can be argued that with so many undecided, there are opportunities for the Malaysian government to entice and attract migrants to return. This also suggests the need for the Australian government to review the retention strategy for migrants who possess highly-demanded skill sets.

Table 5.10 Intentions of respondents to return to Malaysia by ancestry

Intention to return	Chinese (n=588)	Malay (n=132)	Indian (n=60)	Other (n=15)
Yes	10.0	62.1	18.3	53.3
No	42.9	7.6	41.7	13.3
Undecided	47.1	30.3	40.0	33.3
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: MiA Survey 2014

5.7.1 Motivation for return

Survey respondents were also asked the reasons for intending to return to Malaysia. Table 5.11 compares reasons respondents gave for intending to return to Malaysia, and it is clear that the reasons given were very much in contrast to those given for leaving Malaysia (Table 5.1). While education and lifestyle were dominant amongst the reasons for migration to Australia, family reunion and retirement were the most popular reasons given by both male and female respondents for returning to Malaysia, 68 per cent and 77 per cent respectively.

These reasons are similar to the World Bank (2015, p.50) findings on the return motivations of those in Returning Expert Programme (REP), which found that the decision to return was primarily precipitated by family reasons, and that females were more likely to indicate family reunion as a reason for returning, 16 per cent of females compared to 13 per cent of males. However, a similar proportion of male and female respondents said they intended to return for retirement. One in every ten gave *'retirement'* as the reason for returning to Malaysia. It is important to note in this study that males were more likely to return due to the 'ageing or sick parents and relatives' and 'better cultural values for children upbringing' compared to females. In the Chinese and most Eastern culture values, daughters marry 'out of the family' and become part of their husband's family, while sons remain within the original family structure. Therefore, it is the son's responsibility to care for elderly parents when the need arises. This point was shared by one of the male respondents who was interviewed:

It is important for me to return to Malaysia in a few years' time after gaining some work experience in Australia, partly due to the fact that my mum is getting old, and I, as her son, should stay close with her... (#131, Chinese male respondent in his early twenties)

Interestingly, *'better economic prospects in Malaysia'* and *'lifestyle in Malaysia preferred'* were the two more popular reasons given by male and female respondents for returning.

Table 5.11 Reasons given by male and female respondents who intend to return to Malaysia (multiple responses, percentage indicating ‘yes’ to a list of specified reasons)

Reasons for intending to return	Male (n=68)	Female (n=86)	Total (n=154)
To be reunited with family	67.6	76.7	72.7
Better economic prospects	51.5	40.7	45.5
Lifestyle in Malaysia preferred	44.1	29.1	35.7
Better cultural values for children upbringing	30.9	20.9	25.3
Ageing or sick parents and relatives	25.0	15.1	19.5
To retire	19.1	17.4	18.2
Marriage	5.9	20.9	14.3
Opportunities for family	11.8	14.0	13.0

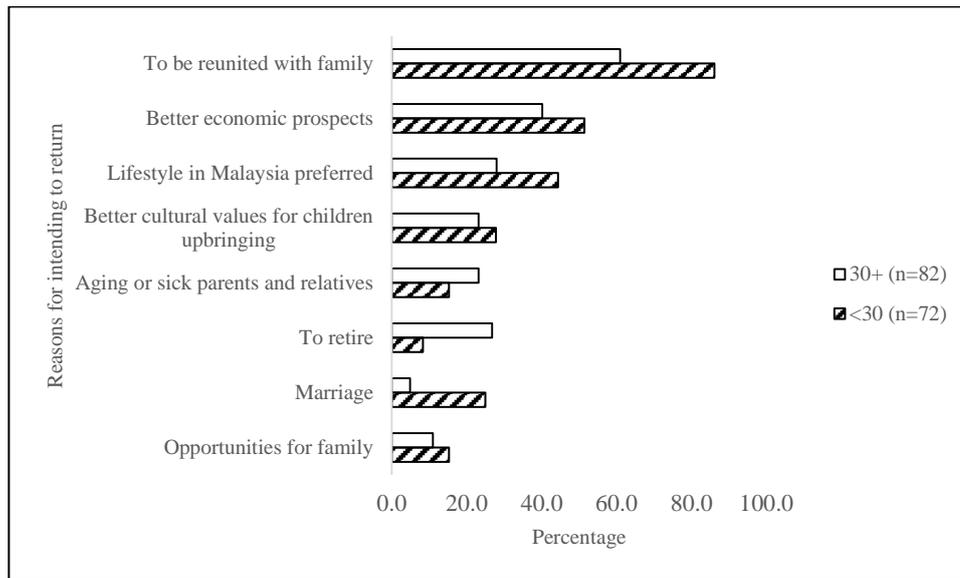
Source: MiA Survey 2014

There was no difference in terms of ranking of reasons chosen by respondents by age category. However, there were stark differences between young and older respondents in terms of the responses given. Figure 5.9 shows that those less than 30 years of age (86 per cent) gave higher responses to family reunion compared to those aged over 30 (61 per cent). It also shows that the young respondents were more likely to return due to better economic prospects in Malaysia, 51 per cent compared to 40 per cent respectively. One of the young respondents who was interviewed talked about their intention to return to Malaysia for its economic prospects:

If good job opportunities in Malaysia come by, I will return... My spouse is an Australian, but he won't mind going to Malaysia if the economic prospects are better there for young professionals like us... (#216, young female professional)

Almost all the other reasons for returning stated in the open text-field were given by students who were mainly sponsored by the Government to pursue their education in Australia. It was clear from the responses that they were aware of their obligation to return to serve their scholarship bond in Malaysia. There was also a few responses which indicated some of these respondents were privately sponsored and therefore tied to an employment bond. Interestingly, there was a student respondent who said that she intended to return and help the opposition party build a better Malaysia.

Figure 5.9 Reasons given by respondents who intend to return to Malaysia by age group (multiple responses, percentage indicating ‘yes’ to a list of specified reasons)



Source: MiA Survey 2014

Another respondent in her late thirties who was interviewed said that she was going to return to Malaysia to retire after her children have grown up to be independent:

I'm definitely thinking of retiring in my hometown Penang... when the kids are independent. I've sacrificed my career to come here [Australia] for their education and future. Once the mission is accomplished, I'd like to return and spend my golden years there. (#248, female, new migrant)

While lifestyle was popular as an initial reason for migration to Australia, it is ironic to note that 44 per cent of the young respondents claimed that they would leave Australia for Malaysia because they preferred the lifestyle in Malaysia, compared to only 28 per cent of the older respondents. The lifestyle in Malaysia which was mentioned in the open text-field responses and interviews included shopping, the ‘mamak’ culture, where they can chill out at the various Indian Muslim stalls almost everywhere in Malaysia, which are open 24 hours and seven days a week. Interestingly, it was also the younger respondents who gave higher responses to the other family-related reasons such as ‘better cultural values for children upbringing in Malaysia’ (28 per cent), ‘marriage’ (25 per cent) and ‘opportunities for family’ (15 per cent).

Reasons relating to caring for ageing parents or family members were quite prominent amongst the respondents. This is perhaps due to the eastern culture of filial obligations to elderly parents. Some of the young interviewees claimed their intention to return was due to ageing family members:

There will come a time when my parents are really old and become dependent to move around. Being the only son, I have to return to take care of them like how they took care of my grandparents when they were still alive... (#62, male respondent, youngest (and only) son to his parents)

My fiancé and I are still very passionate about pursuing our careers respectively. He is based in Singapore. We both had decided that we will return to Malaysia or probably Singapore to settle down within the next 2-3 years near to his parents as he is their eldest son... (#888, female respondent, has a fiancé in Singapore)

5.7.2 Effects of length of stay on return decision and reason

The propensity to return home is influenced by migrant's characteristics and individual experiences. One of the important factors which have a bearing on the likelihood of return is length of stay in Australia. It is commonly hypothesised that intentions to return reduce with the length of stay in destination country. However, this study found that 27 per cent of the respondents who were recent arrivals, i.e. first year in Australia, claimed that they intended to return to Malaysia, while some 43 per cent of those who had been living in Australia between two to five years indicated that they would return (Table 5.12). The increase in rate of return was understandable as the respondents may still experience challenges or difficulty in settling down after the first year of arrival. However, after the tenth year in Australia, only 10.3 per cent of the respondents indicated that they would return to Malaysia.

Table 5.12 Reasons for returning to Malaysia by length of stay in Australia (multiple responses, percentage indicating 'yes' to a list of specified reasons)

Reasons for intending to return	<1 year (n=44)	2-5 years (n=71)	6-10 years (n=17)	>10 years (n=33)
To be reunited with family	72.7	77.5	76.5	54.5
Better economic prospects	34.1	50.7	52.9	33.3
Lifestyle in Malaysia preferred	34.1	35.2	35.3	36.4
Better cultural values for children upbringing	22.7	23.9	23.5	27.3
Aging or sick parents and relatives	9.1	15.5	35.3	27.3
To retire	11.4	9.9	23.5	39.4
Marriage	15.9	16.9	11.8	6.1
Opportunities for family	18.2	14.1	5.9	9.1

Source: MiA Survey 2014

There is a clear correlation between intentions to return home for retirement and years in Australia. The percentage of return increases according to the number of years in Australia which depicts respondents' preference to retire in Malaysia. The initial rate of return intention for retirement was 11 per cent, then increased to 24 per cent, and further to 39 per cent after the tenth year of stay in Australia. The second to fifth year appears to be important in the decision to return home. Closely linked to this is the World Bank (2015) study on the Returning Expert Programme (REP) applicants which found that almost 40 per cent of them intended to return within the third and tenth year. This suggests that the significant timing to influence the decision to return home is relatively early in their period of residence as the likelihood to return reduces significantly after the fifth year of arrival in Australia.

5.7.3 Future plans to return

Survey respondents who were indicated that they intended to return were asked when they would do so. Table 5.13 shows their characteristics and their planned timing of their return to Malaysia. It is interesting to note that over 38 per cent of males and females would do so in the next three years, while almost a quarter of females would do so in the next year. There were more females who intended to return between three and five years compared to males. However, it is the reverse after five years. About 16 per cent of males and females were not sure when they would return. Some 43 per cent of respondents in the 25-49 age group indicated that they would return in the next three

years, while half of those above 50 years after five years. Those aged under 25, presumably students, would return over the next three years, with 48 per cent of Malays intending to do so followed by the other ethnic group (38 per cent), Indian (36 per cent), and Chinese (29 per cent). The Chinese were least likely to return within the next year compared to the other ethnic group, with one-fifth indicating that they were not sure when they would return. Overall, it is found that most of the respondents would most likely return in the next three years except for those above 50 years.

Table 5.13 Respondents who intend to return by planned time to return

Characteristics	n	Planned time to return				
		< 1 year	1-3 years	Between 3 to 5 years	>5 years	Not sure
Sex	154					
<i>Male</i>	68	19.1	38.2	5.9	20.6	16.2
<i>Female</i>	86	23.3	38.4	11.6	11.6	15.1
Age	154					
<25	41	31.7	31.7	12.2	9.8	14.6
25-49	105	19.0	42.9	7.6	15.2	15.2
50+	8	0.0	12.5	12.5	50.0	25.0
Ancestry	160					
<i>Chinese</i>	59	11.9	28.8	10.2	28.8	20.3
<i>Malay</i>	82	28.0	47.6	8.5	2.4	13.4
<i>Indian</i>	11	27.3	36.4	9.1	18.2	9.1
<i>Other</i>	8	25.0	37.5	12.5	25.0	0.0

Source: MiA Survey 2014

5.8 Not returning: Why and what needs to happen?

It is of policy interest to countries of origin of skilled migration to attract their skilled emigrants to return home (Khoo 2014). The findings of this study on why some respondents intend to return home and others do not, is useful for policy considerations to encourage and facilitate return migration. While there are migrants who will eventually return to their home countries, there is bound to be some who decide otherwise for many reasons. For those who decide against returning, or intend to venture to subsequent destinations, the concept of ‘diaspora’ and ‘transnational community’ are often intertwined to explain the scenario of the non-returnees or expatriates. In trying

to distinguish the term diaspora from transnationalism, and to understand how the non-returnees can still play a role in homeland development, scholars tend to engage in debates (Anthias 1998; Brah 1996; Faist & Fauser 2013; Gamlen 2011).

5.8.1 Reasons for not intending to return

Understanding migrants' reasons for not returning to home countries may contribute towards greater appreciation of what governments in sending countries can do to engage and facilitate diaspora engagement. Table 5.15 shows that the most popular reason for not returning for males and females was the preferred lifestyle in Australia. Two of the respondents who were interviewed alluded to their preferences for lifestyle in Australia:

No way that I am going back to 'suffer' in Malaysia. Just thinking of the terrible traffic jams and the hectic lifestyle is enough to put me off. (#1018, male respondent in his early thirties)

Aussie lifestyle was one of the most important factors contributing to my decision to uproot from Malaysia. Men and women, both enjoy good work-life balance here. (#226, male respondent in his late thirties)

The next two most common deterrents to returning to Malaysia were income and employment-related. This was especially the case for males, with 47 per cent of males indicating '*higher income here*' as a reason for not returning compared with 38 per cent of females. There were 33 per cent of males who indicated '*career and promotion opportunities better here*' compared with 31 per cent of females too. Surprisingly, males were more likely not to return to Malaysia due to the reason '*family is here*', 42 per cent compared to less than one-third of females. This would most probably be attributed to the fact that their immediate family, i.e. spouse and children had migrated together.

Table 5.14 Reasons given by male and female respondents for not returning to Malaysia (multiple responses, percentage indicating ‘yes’ to a list of specified reasons)

Reasons for not returning	Male (n=138)	Female (n=144)	Total (n=282)
Lifestyle more attractive here	73.9	67.4	70.6
Higher income here	47.1	38.2	42.6
Established in current location	40.6	43.8	42.2
Family here	42.8	31.3	36.9
Employment opportunities better here	31.2	36.8	34.0
Career & promotion opportunities better here	32.6	30.6	31.6
Partner's employment is located here	7.2	16.7	12.1
More favourable personal income tax regime here	7.2	6.9	7.1

Source: MiA Survey 2014

It is interesting to find that there was not much difference between males and females who indicated that they were already established in their current location in Australia. One of the respondents who was interviewed shared his experience about being established here:

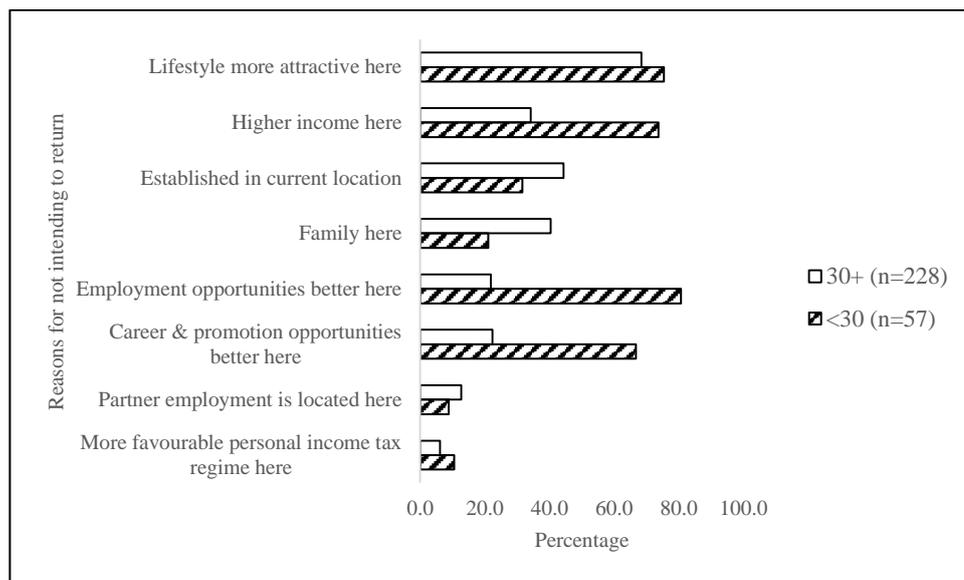
Well, I consider myself quite established here. I own a reasonably big accounting firm which is an incredibly rewarding experience and achievement... (#217, male migrant who had since naturalised as Australian citizen)

Lifestyle and economic-related reasons featured strongly in the decision to stay in Australia. The responses also show a close correspondence between the most predominant reasons given for migration to Australia and the most popular reasons given by respondents for not intending to return to Malaysia.

Analysing the responses given by age provided some interesting insights. Figure 5.10 shows the reasons given by the respondents for not intending to return to Malaysia, and the most popular reasons given by both age groups was ‘*lifestyle more attractive here*’, with the under thirty age group (75 per cent) slightly more than those above 30 (68 per cent). It is important to note that the younger respondents too were not inclined to return to Malaysia due to better economic prospects in Australia. For instance, some 74 per cent of the younger ones cited ‘*higher income here*’, compared to 34 per cent of the older ones. There were 80.7 per cent of the younger respondents who claimed that the employment opportunities were better in Australia, and about two-thirds chose ‘*career*

and promotion opportunities'. It was found that more of the older respondents (44 per cent) did not intend to return as they were more established in Australia compared to the younger ones (32 per cent). The older respondents were also more likely to not return because of their family who were already living together in Australia (40 per cent) compared to the younger ones.

Figure 5.10 Reasons of respondents for not intending to return to Malaysia by age (multiple responses, percentage indicating 'yes' to a list of specified reasons)



Source: MiA Survey 2014

5.8.2 Incentives to return

Respondents who indicated that they would not return were also asked an open question about what was required to attract their return to Malaysia. Table 5.15 shows that 28 per cent of the 221 respondents were pessimistic about incentives to encourage them to return. Almost one third of females stated that it was very unlikely to attract returnees while it was almost a quarter for males.

Table 5.15 Events or incentives required to attract male and females respondents to return to Malaysia

Events or incentives to return	Male (n=117)	Female (n=104)	Total (n=221)
Very unlikely	23.9	31.7	27.6
Change of government	30.8	18.3	24.9
Equal opportunities or rights	26.5	16.3	21.7
Higher living quality and standard	11.1	13.5	12.2
Family-related reasons	5.1	12.5	8.6
Changed conditions in Australia	2.6	7.7	5.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: MiA Survey 2014

Male respondents were more politically-influenced in terms of offering suggestions on incentives to attract the return of migrants, with 31 per cent of them suggesting a change of government as one of the key events which could encourage return migration, compared to 18 per cent of the female respondents. Males were also more likely to demand equal opportunities and rights compared to the females. Some of the related interview excerpts are appended below.

My wife and I love it here but deep down [in my heart], I hope to return to Malaysia to play my role towards making Malaysia a better place, which include pushing for a new government, better governance... (#289, young male professional who has been living in Australia for 13 years)

I don't think there are equal opportunities or rights in Malaysia. I still follow news from Malaysia from time to time and I find many of the current development disheartening... (#840, male respondent who moved to Australia with family 32 years ago)

Isn't it amusing that after so many years of independence, loyalty amongst the non-Malay citizens to the country are still being questioned? (#486, male respondent in his late forties who detested the Malaysian government)

On the other hand, female respondents tended to favour a higher living standards and family-driven events as an attraction to return to Malaysia. Females were also more likely to be influenced by changed conditions in Australia to make them return to Malaysia, 8 per cent compared to 3 per cent of males.

Table 5.16 further analyses the incentives to encourage return by age, and it was found that older respondents were more involved in contributing suggestions on events or incentives to return. Firstly, there were 177 responses given by them compared to only 45 by younger respondents. Secondly, there were higher rates of response amongst the older group for the four most popular incentives compared with the younger group. About one in every three of the older respondents said it was very unlikely that there were any incentives which could attract non-returnees compared with 18 per cent of the younger respondents.

There were also more of the senior respondents who thought a change of government would enable them to consider returning compared with the young ones. One-fifth of the younger respondents felt that family-related reasons would be an incentive for them to return compared to only 6 per cent of the older ones. It is also important to note that the younger respondents were more likely to be affected by changed conditions in Australia as an incentive to return home compared to the older ones (push factor).

Table 5.16 Incentives for respondents to return to Malaysia by age group

Events or incentives to return	<30 (n=45)	30+ (n=177)	Total (n=221)
Very unlikely	17.8	29.9	27.5
Change of government	17.8	26.6	24.8
Equal opportunities or rights	20.0	22.6	22.1
Higher living quality and standard	11.1	12.4	12.2
Family-related reasons	20.0	5.6	8.6
Changed conditions in Australia	13.3	2.8	5.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0

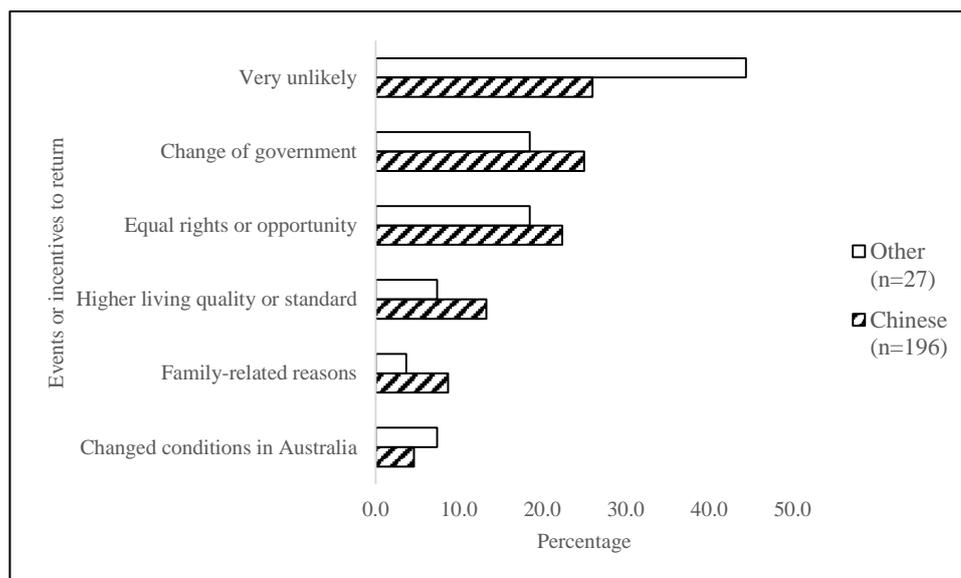
Source: MiA Survey 2014

5.8.3 Influence of ancestry background on incentives to attract returnees

Figure 5.11 compares the categories of incentives with the ancestry background of the respondents. Although the majority of Chinese respondents indicated that it was highly unlikely for them to return, with or without incentives (26 per cent), it is not surprising to find that another quarter favoured a change of government. There was also a dominance of Chinese indicating that other incentives such as equal rights or opportunity, higher living quality or standard and family-related incentives. There were

some 44 per cent of respondents from other ancestry backgrounds, including Malay and Indian who also suggested a change of government would be helpful in encouraging returnees. A small percentage of the Chinese (5 per cent) and the other respondents (7 per cent) stated that if the conditions in Australia become less favourable, it may also prompt their decision to move back to Malaysia.

Figure 5.11 Proposed events or incentives to return by Chinese and other ancestry



Source: MiA Survey 2014

5.9 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the mobility decisions of respondents, and their return intentions. As Vertovec (2009) argues, globalisation and the emerging concept of transnationalism have blurred many formerly distinctive spheres of mobility decision-making beyond the simple push-pull factors. This study found that there are various factors influencing the migration decision of respondents, at the individual, family and community level. There were also actors serving as intermediaries (pre-move contacts) supporting the decision-making process. Males compared to females, as well as those in non-professional roles tended to rely on information from contacts in Australia before making the decision to move.

From different profiles of respondents, three categories of migration could be identified, namely: (1) student migration (education); (2) economic migration; and (3) social

migration (family-related). The migration for education is characterised by young, predominantly Malay students while economic and social migration were dominated by the Chinese. Beyond education and lifestyle as the most popular reasons for migration to Australia, there was the underlying push factors with regards to dissatisfaction with the discriminative policies, and the political leadership and government in Malaysia. Children's education and future were also highlighted as one of the reason for migration to Australia.

Male respondents were also found to be more mobile in terms of having lived in other countries other than Malaysia and Australia. It can also be concluded that the highly-skilled, those with managerial and professional positions, high-income, and/or high-level of education were more mobile.

For the majority who were undecided or did not intend to return, the preferred Australian lifestyle was the major factor, followed by the economic incentives offered in Australia. This contrasts with the motivations for moving to Australia which was clearly not economic-driven. It was also found that the most appropriate time to influence respondents' decision to return home was relatively early in their stay in Australia, and the likelihood for return reduces significantly after about fifth year of arrival in Australia.

Chapter 6: Settlement experiences and linkages with Malaysia

6.1 Introduction

The Malaysia-Australia migration system is complex and encompasses many types of flows in both directions. A significant element of the contemporary mobility between both countries is the growing Malaysian diaspora population in Australia. This population has also contributed to the increasing level of non-permanent movement between both Malaysia and Australia (Hugo 2011b). Notwithstanding the incentive package to attract and facilitate home-bound Malaysian migrants to return home, evidence shows that the return rate is considerably low (Lucas 2008). It is therefore important to better understand their settlement experiences in terms of migration outcomes, including the transnational connections which have been built and maintained between both countries.

The central idea of this chapter is to understand the post-migration experiences and linkages maintained by the respondents in this study, which is organised in three major sections. The first looks at the post-migration attachment of respondents to Malaysia, and how they maintain the transnational linkages with their social and professional contacts back home. This can occur through short visits, virtual communication or engaging in transnational community activities like hometown associations (HTAs).

Apart from visits, cross-boundaries communications, and affiliations with HTAs, asset ownership and investments are also regarded as important linkages. The second part of the chapter examines the asset ownership and investments of the respondents and how these assets have a bearing on future mobility and their identification with Malaysia. The third section discusses some of the key migration outcomes and the experience of respondents post-migration. It outlines their settlement experience in terms of their living arrangements, household financial status, and their perceived labour force outcomes.

6.2 Identification with Malaysia

Census and immigration data have shown how the Malaysia-born population has continued to increase significantly and is dominated by second generation and young migrant families who continue to identify with their Malaysian heritage. In the scholarship of diaspora, one of the main themes relates to the extent to which migrants or expatriates identify with, and maintain links with their perceived homeland. These issues were addressed in the Malaysia diaspora survey and one of the significant findings was the strong identification of respondents with Malaysia. They were asked if they still considered Malaysia to be home, and the majority of them still claimed they did so, with two-thirds of females responding positively compared to 58 per cent of males (Table 6.1). It was interesting that about one-fifth of males and females were undecided, and there was a very low percentage who said 'no', with more males than females doing so.

Table 6.1 Response given by male and female respondents to 'still call Malaysia home'

Still call Malaysia home	Male (n=364)	Female (n=409)	Total (n=773)
Yes	57.7	66.2	62.3
No	22.8	14.2	18.2
Undecided	19.5	19.6	19.5
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: MiA Survey 2014

It is very important to note that while there was an extremely positive response from all respondents of different ancestry backgrounds, there were notable differences amongst them. Table 6.2 shows that the Malays were most attached to Malaysian compared with other ethnic groups, with the Chinese more likely to say 'no' and be 'undecided'. It is also important to note that a quarter of the Indians were undecided about saying Malaysia was still 'home'. It can also be assumed that the Chinese and Indians were least likely to call Malaysia home as there has been a broad-based resentment of the pro-Malay policies introduced to restructure the Malaysian society in 1970, and this social re-engineering and the affirmative action programme have not been revised since then.

Table 6.2 Response given by respondents to ‘still call Malaysia home’ by ethnicity

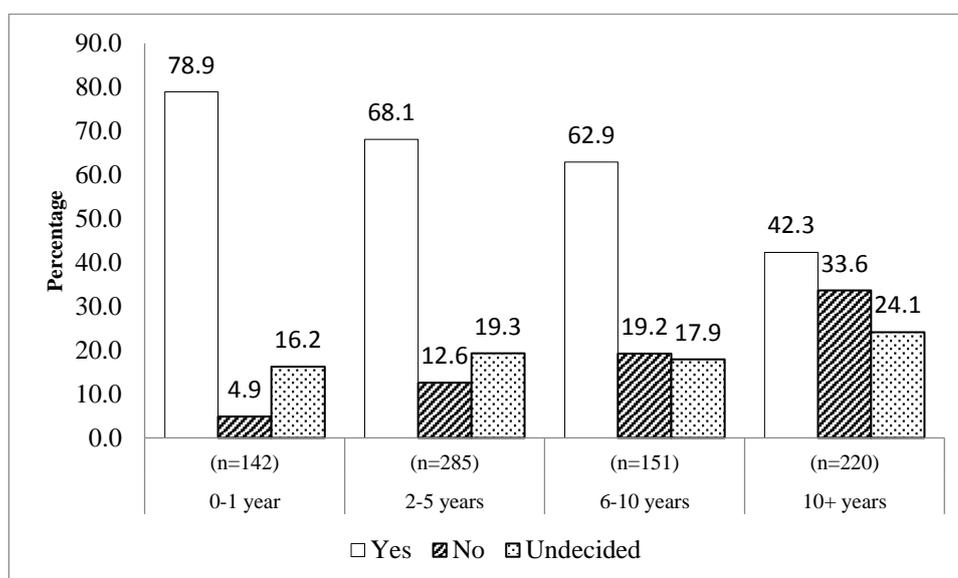
Still call Malaysia home	Chinese (n=570)	Malay (n=128)	Indian (n=57)	Other (n=15)
Yes	56.7	88.3	63.1	86.6
No	21.7	5.5	12.3	6.7
Undecided	21.6	6.2	24.6	6.7
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: MiA Survey 2014

6.2.1 Time lived in Australia and affiliation with Malaysia as ‘home’

Researchers claim that feelings of attachment to home county usually reduce as time goes by (Carling 2008; Green, Power & Jang 2008). In this study, it is not surprising to find that there is an inverse relationship between length of stay in Australia and the identification of Malaysia as home. Figure 6.1 shows that as the number of years in Australia increased, the ‘yes’ response steadily declined from 79 per cent in the first year to 42 per cent after ten years. On the other hand, the percentage who responded ‘no’ in respect to Malaysia being home increased from 5 per cent during the first year to one-third after the tenth year in Australia.

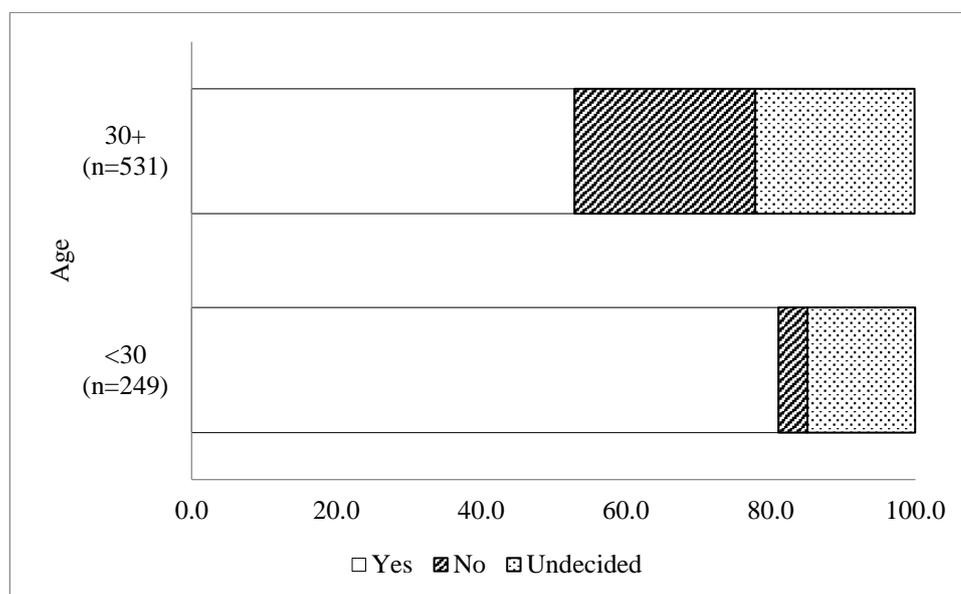
Figure 6.1 Response given by respondents to ‘still call Malaysia home’ by years lived in Australia



Source: MiA Survey 2014

In terms of age, it was found that a higher proportion (81 per cent) of the young respondents (less than 30 years) considered Malaysia to be 'home' compared to 53 per cent of older ones (Figure 6.2). A quarter of the older respondents no longer considered Malaysia to be their home country, while 22 per cent were undecided. Of particular note, the birthplace of respondents appeared to have the most influence on identification with Malaysia, as those who were born in Malaysia were more likely to call Malaysia 'home' (63 per cent) compared with others who were born elsewhere.

Figure 6.2 Response given by respondents to 'still call Malaysia home' by age



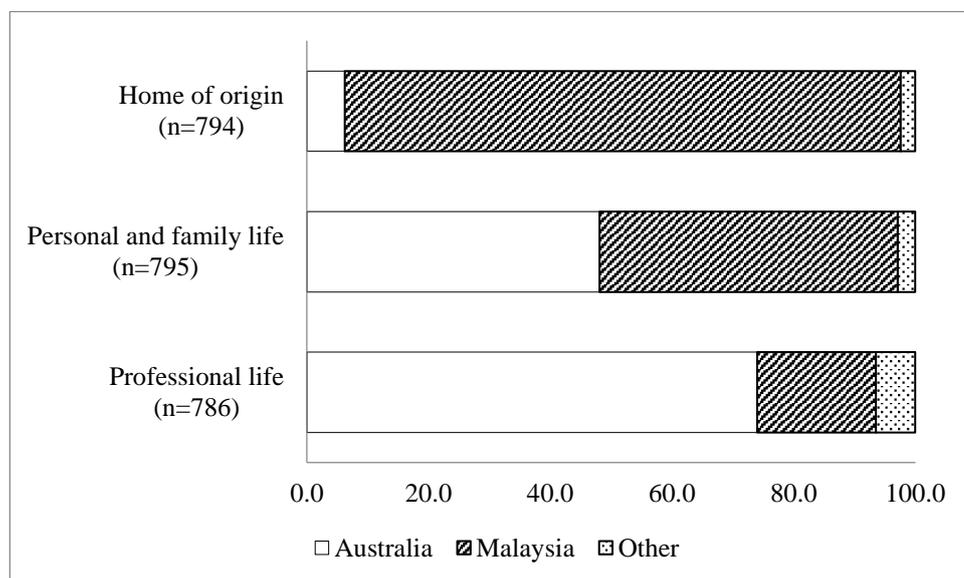
Source: MiA Survey 2014

6.2.2 Multiple identifications

In addition to analysing their identification with 'home', respondents were asked a further set of questions relating to which country they strongly identified with regards to 'home of origin', 'personal and family life', and 'professional life'. According to Shuval (2000), one of the important elements in discussing the theoretical paradigm of diaspora is attitudes and feelings toward the homeland. The content of attachment i.e. financial, family and friends constitute a critical understanding of a diaspora group and their specific identities. In studying diaspora and transnationalism, it is also pertinent to consider the attachment formed with host countries. Castles, Miller and Ammendola (2005) argue that the transnational affiliation and consciousness form the sense of belonging of migrants towards 'bifocality'.

Figure 6.3 shows that Malaysia was regarded as home of origin by an overwhelming majority of respondents (91 per cent). The main determinant was the birthplace of the respondents as 93 per cent who chose 'Malaysia' as home of origin were born in Malaysia, and only 6 per cent identified Australia as home of origin. On the other hand, the most popular responses given for the country associated with professional life was Australia (74 per cent), while almost one-fifth selected Malaysia. Of particular note, it is interesting that almost half the responses related personal and family life with Malaysia, while the other half with Australia.

Figure 6.3 Respondents' identification with countries



Source: MiA Survey 2014

Two of the survey respondents who were interviewed provided explanation relating to their identification with Malaysia and Australia as follows:

I am born in Malaysia, so Malaysia is home to me in that sense, but my family is here [in Australia] with me, I relate my family life to this country more than Malaysia. Also, I am already established here, having my own firm... Australia is where I lead my professional life... (#217 males in his late forties)

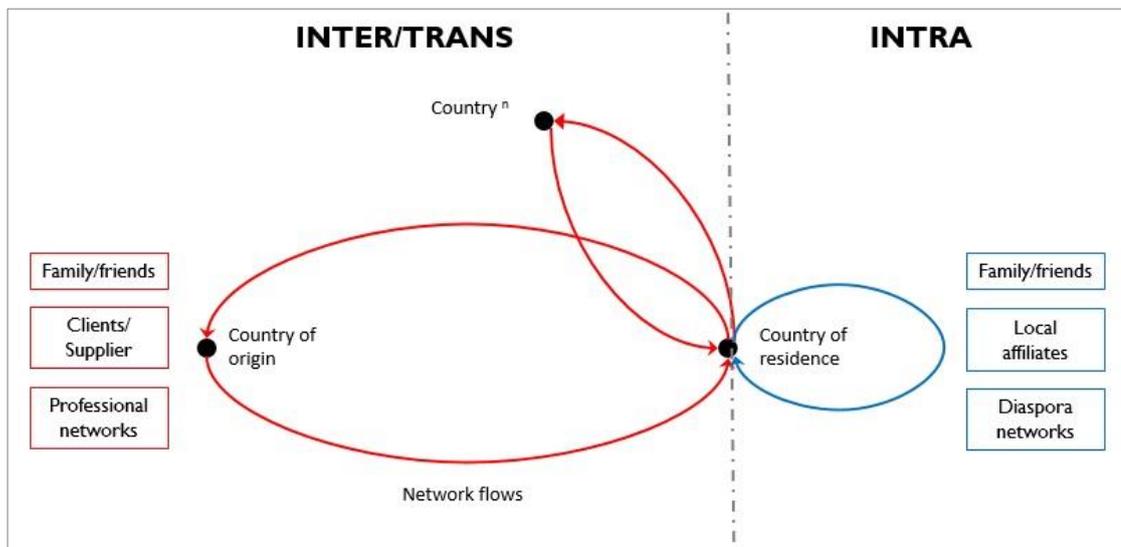
My home of origin is Malaysia, and so is the family life. My mum and all my close friends are in Malaysia... How I relate to Australia is totally different, more for my career and professional development... (#131, male in his early twenties)

6.3 Transnational networks

Malaysians living abroad maintain contact with Malaysia in multiple forms, both physical and non-physical. Physical linkages are established via return visits, while non-physical ones include long-distance, cross-boundary telecommunications using phone calls, emails, mobile text messages and social media. They maintain contact with their family and friends back home, as well as those within the country of residence. For business-related networks, communication with clients, suppliers and local affiliates such as partners and business associates, is important, while for some, they continue to maintain contact with their professional networks outside their country of residence.

Figure 6.4 shows the transnational network flows which are maintained by the respondents and indicate that transnational networks can be divided into two types: 1) intra- and 2) inter- or transnational networks. The intra-network flows amongst fellow migrants within the country of residence can include family and friends, local affiliates, and hometown diaspora networks, whereas the international or transnational networks consist of relationships with contacts in the homeland and elsewhere.

Figure 6.4 Transnational network flows



Source: Adapted from Harma (2014); Interpreted by author

6.3.1 Short visits to Malaysia

Transnational migrants engage in transnational social practices by travelling between their current countries of residence and their country of origin. As opposed to the classical approaches in migration research which focuses on emigrants, this study adopts the transnational perspective on migrants' multi-sitedness proposed by Faist, Fauser and Reisenauer (2013). The flows between countries are examined, transcending the idea of state and nation (Basch, Schiller & Blanc 1994). In this regards, regular visits home are one of the important linkages with Malaysia. The cost-efficiency and convenience of travel have encouraged return visits amongst migrants. Duval (2004, p.51) provides a succinct explanation of this type of mobility.

Return visits are defined as periodic but temporary sojourns made by members or migrant communities to either their external homeland or another location in which significant social ties exist.

In this study, respondents were asked if they had visited Malaysia in 2013, and seven in every ten of the male and female respondents indicated that they had done so at least once in 2013. Males were found to make shorter visits than females, with almost half claiming that the average length of stay on visits was less than two weeks compared with 40 per cent of females. On the other hand, females were found to have longer visits with over 60 per cent indicating that the average length of stay was more than two weeks compared to 50 per cent of males. Slightly more respondents aged under 30 years (80 per cent) had made at least one visit back to Malaysia compared to 72 per cent of the older migrants.

Hugo (2015a) found that there has been a significant increase in short-term visitor arrivals from South East Asia for various reasons, predominantly for holidays. This pattern is also similar for short-term departures from Australia. There is a trend of the highly mobile Malaysia-born in Australia departing for Malaysia for many reasons. It is relatively cheap to travel home given the short distance, and low cost carriers like AirAsia X offering cheap fares.

In order to establish the extent to which visits were socially, business or work-related, the respondents were asked why they visited Malaysia. Table 6.3 shows that there were only slight differences between males and females, with two-thirds indicating the prime

reason was to visit family and friends. Over one-third claimed it was for holidays, while only 8 per cent said business or work-related. The responses to business were slightly more popular among the male respondents. Surprisingly, more females indicated work as the reason for visits compared to the males, but the numbers were small.

Table 6.3 Reasons for visits to Malaysia by gender (*multiple responses, percentage indicating 'yes' to a list of specified reasons*)

Reasons for visits	Male (n=364)	Female (n=409)	Total (n=773)
Visit family and friends	65.7	67.5	66.6
Holiday	36.3	34.5	35.3
Business-related	6.0	2.2	4.0
Work-related	2.5	5.4	4.0
Study	1.9	1.2	1.6
Other	8.8	12.5	10.7

Source: MiA Survey 2014

In addition to the specified reasons for visits, respondents were given the opportunity to provide any other reasons. Table 6.4 shows that a quarter of respondents cited events such as a wedding as the reason for the visit home. Subsequently, the ranking of reasons based on popularity were festive and religious events such as Chinese New Year and Raya celebration, family-related matters, birthdays, personal errands, and funerals.

Table 6.4 Other reasons for visits to Malaysia

Other reasons	n	%
Wedding	20	25.6
Festive/Religious events	13	16.7
Family-related matters	9	11.5
Birthday	8	10.3
Personal errands	8	10.3
Funeral	7	9.0
Election	6	7.7
Research/seminar/internship	5	6.4
Anniversary	2	2.6
TOTAL	78	100.0

Source: MiA Survey 2014

A small percentage of respondents who were still holding Malaysian citizenship visited Malaysia in 2013 to vote in the Malaysian general election. Another 6 per cent visited Malaysia to conduct research and to attend seminars etc. This group of respondents were

most likely students or academics. Some of the quotes from respondents with regards to reasons for visits are as follows:

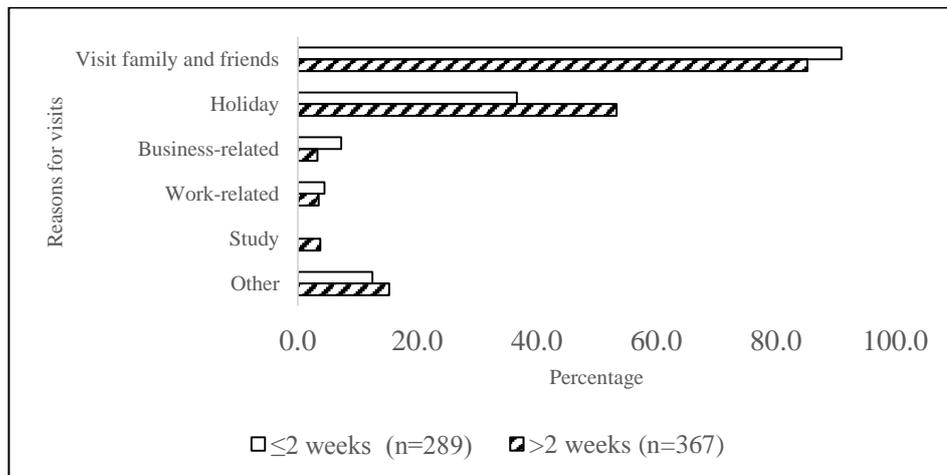
We made it a point to visit our families back home once a year during the festive occasion... Partly also due to our parents' request... (#62, male, Australian Permanent Resident)

When it gets cold in winter, my partner and I tend to make our annual trip home to escape the chill, mainly for holidays in Malaysia and neighbouring countries like Thailand and Singapore. (#216, female, married to an Australian)

Everyone in the family tries to head home when there are weddings of family members, close relatives or friends. It is like a reunion... (#888, female, Australian Permanent Resident)

The reasons for visits were compared against the duration of visits and shown in Figure 6.5. As anticipated, it was found that the social and holiday visits were generally longer while business and work-related visits tended to be shorter. Most visits to see family and friends were between one to two weeks. Interestingly, this study found that male respondents tended to visit Malaysia for a shorter duration compared with females. The males were also more likely to have shorter work trips. All study-related visits took more than two weeks. There were also more male respondents who underwent short study courses less of than six months, compared with females, who tended to be enrolled in longer term study, i.e. more than six months.

Figure 6.5 Reasons for visits to Malaysia by duration



Source: MiA Survey 2014

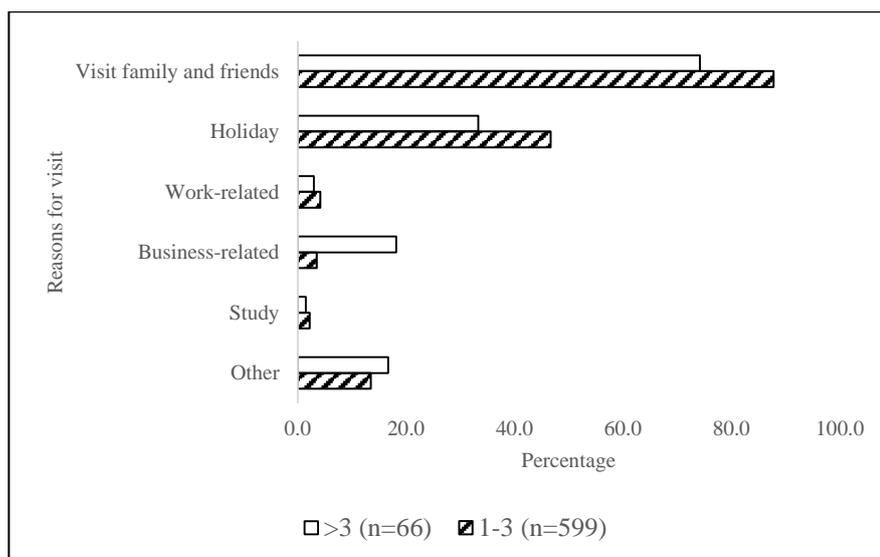
Details of the reasons and duration of visits were captured from interviews. Some of the interviews' excerpts in relation to this are as follows:

We still have our old folks and relatives in Malaysia. So we try to visit them frequently albeit briefly. I try to arrange to spend at least 1-2 weeks in Malaysia during off-peak season [when it's not kids' long term break]. (#217, male, Australian citizen)

We look forward to our annual visit home, each lasting 2 weeks or so. Good to catch up with family members and friends. Can't visit too long as leave days are limited. (#216, female, Australian Permanent Resident)

The World Bank (2015) found that every nine in ten Malaysian diaspora under the Returning Expert Programme (REP) visited Malaysia at least once in a year, while almost a quarter made five trips or more to Malaysia. Figure 6.6 compares the reasons for visits by their frequency, and shows that 74 per cent of respondents indicated that they visited Malaysia more than three times in 2013. One-third claimed that they went back more than three times for a holiday, and some 18 per cent visited Malaysia more than three times for business. This concurs with a study by Hugo (2011b) on the Malaysian diaspora which suggested that the high frequency of visits associated with business demonstrated that the Malaysian community in Australia were active in business activities in their homeland.

Figure 6.6 Reasons for visits to Malaysia by frequency of visits



Source: MiA Survey 2014

6.3.2 Return visits and return intentions

According to Foner (2001), return migration rates tend to be lower now than previously. However, literature also suggests that return visits to homeland facilitate return migration eventually (Baldassar 2001; Duval 2004). Gmelch (1980) argues that return visits are best positioned in between emigration and decisions to return in the migration cycle. Figure 6.7 shows Gmelch's characterisation of the return visit as a precursor to return migration.

Figure 6.7 Return visits facilitate return migration



Source: Gmelch (1980)

Although Gmelch's simplistic return migration model may not fully address the complexity of contemporary short-term movement between countries, it helps to conceptualise the notion of maintaining visibility in their homeland. These short visits in turn become a mechanism, which leads to a smooth transition back to home should return migration eventuate.

Using responses in this study, this section examines the link between return visits and intentions to return. Contrary to the popular assumption, it was found that only a small percentage of respondents who intended to return had visited Malaysia in 2013 (Table 6.5). In fact, more than half of the respondents indicated that they did not visit Malaysia in 2013 regardless of their intentions to return. This suggests that the return visits home were for reasons as discussed in Section 6.3.1, and have no bearing on their intentions to return decisions.

Table 6.5 Visits to Malaysia in 2013 and intention to return

Visited Malaysia in 2013	Intention to return		
	Yes (n=165)	No (n=302)	Undecided (n=360)
Yes	14.5	32.1	23.9
No	85.5	67.9	76.1
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: MiA Survey 2014

Some of the interviewees' comments relating to their visits home and their return intentions are as follows:

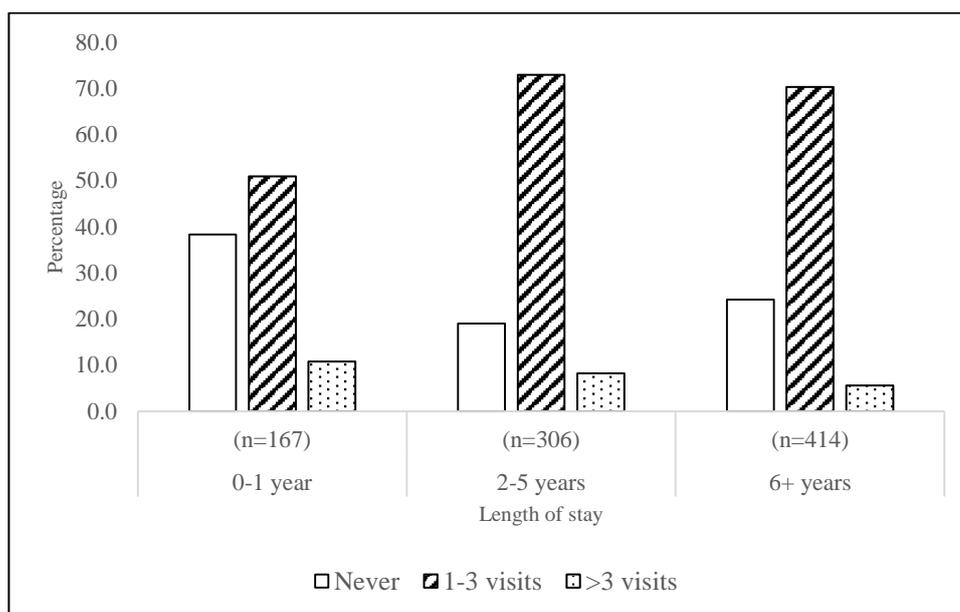
It was never our intention to return home for good. We both had established our careers here [Australia]... Important for us to fly home at least once a year or sometimes once every two years... (#216, female professional in her early thirties)

I've never been back to Malaysia since my family moved here in 1983. No intention to return, my family is here and we enjoy our good lives here. (#840, male who has taken up Australian citizenship)

Several implications are identified with regards to return visits. Although it is argued that return visits help in a migrant reintegration with the homeland (Arowolo 2000; Duval 2004; Faist 2000), these visits, with or without intentions to return have other effects on migration. Hugo (2015, p.315) argues that continuous visits facilitate homeland development, and that there is considerable circulation between Australia and South-East Asia, including Malaysia, which can have significant development impacts.

Figure 6.8 shows that a large proportion of the respondents continue to visit Malaysia after moving to Australia, irrespective of length of stay. Increasingly, the rate of visit (1-3 times) increases by length of stay in Australia between the first and fifth year of arrival (an increase of 22 per cent from 51 per cent). A quarter of respondents who had lived in Australia for more than five years claimed that they had not visited Malaysia in 2013, while seven in every ten visited Malaysia between one to three times. It was also found that respondents who had recently arrived tended to make more visits home compared to those who had been living in Australia for some time. There were 11 per cent of respondents who had been in Australia for a year had made more than three trips home in 2013, while only 6 per cent of those who had arrived more than five years ago did so.

Figure 6.8 Number of visits to Malaysia and years since arrival



Source: MiA Survey 2014

One of the determinants of visits to Malaysia by respondents was income. The higher income group had the higher a frequency of visits, with 13 per cent of those with income greater than A\$100,000 having visited more than three times since locating to Australia, compared with only 4 per cent of those earning below that amount. The young emigrants, who were less established, not only earned less, but as yet had not returned regularly to Malaysia.

It is also important to note that two-thirds of the young working-age respondents (67 per cent) engaged in frequent visits to Malaysia suggesting a significant contribution in terms of remittances, particularly social. This warrants further investigation on how the Malaysian government can best devise strategies to leverage on social capital of these migrants who make frequent visits home.

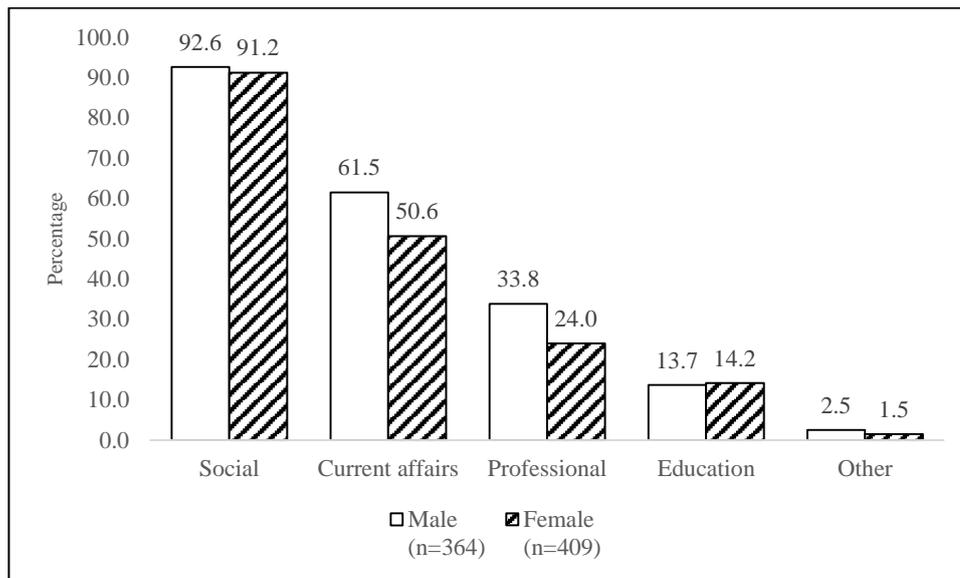
6.3.3 Maintaining contacts

In addition to visits, another form of transnational network maintained by the respondents is the contact they have with people, organisations or hometown associations (HTAs) in Malaysia. Generally, it was found that almost all respondents maintained contact with people or organisations in Malaysia regardless of sex, age, ethnicities, occupation or length of stay in Australia. However, it was found that Chinese and Malay respondents had slightly higher rates of maintaining contacts with people or organisations in Malaysia, followed by Indian and two-thirds of the other races.

In order to better understand the reasons for maintaining contacts, the respondents were asked a set of questions relating to the types of linkages they kept with Malaysia. There were four types of linkages listed: i) Social linkages including family and friends; ii) Current affairs referring to respondent interest to keep up with information and current affairs back home; iii) Professional contacts including employment and business-related interactions; and iv) Education, which mainly refers to study-related information.

Figure 6.9 shows that the social linkages feature strongly as the main type of contacts maintained by the respondents with Malaysia. This was followed by current affairs, professional and education linkages. In fact, over half of the male and female respondents were following updates on current affairs and news from Malaysia. These include awareness of government-related initiatives and events like general elections and the diaspora engagement programme. Males were much more likely to maintain social, current affairs and professional linkages than were the females. On the other hand, there were slightly more females compared with males who indicated education as the main form of linkages with Malaysia. This could be attributed to the fact that males were more likely to socialise, and interact with others as they were in the workforce whereas females tended to be more likely a homemaker, taking care of kids' schooling and household chores. However, there appears to be little difference between males and females overall.

Figure 6.9 Types of linkages with Malaysia by male and female respondents



Source: MiA Survey 2014

Comments that respondents expressed on contact which they maintained:

Though the Malaysian news can be quite farcical, I still keep abreast with the latest through the social media. Can't trust the sources from the mainstream... And yes, I keep in touch with my old friends back home using social media. (#507, male in his late fifties, still follows news from Malaysia though living in Australia for 17 years)

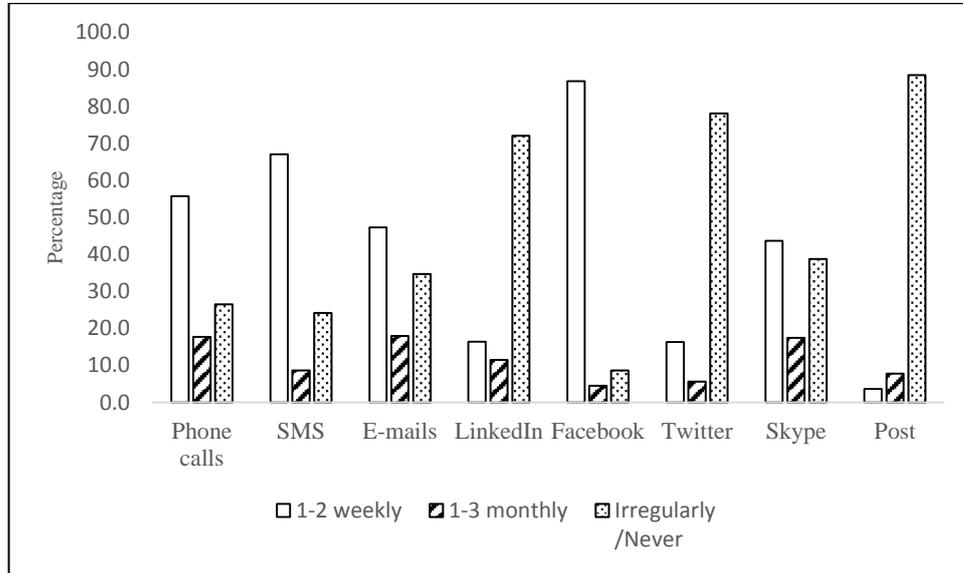
I don't follow current affairs in Malaysia, getting absurd I feel. However, I maintain contacts with my family and friends frequently. There are WhatsApp groups, FB groups and so on. I am also keep in touch with my professional contacts in the healthcare industry. (#888, female in her mid-twenties)

6.3.3.1 Methods and frequency of maintaining contacts

Respondents maintain contact with their social and professional associates using various communication channels. Figure 6.10 shows that the most popularly used methods of contact with social networks in Malaysia are Facebook and short message service (SMS). Some 87 per cent of respondents indicated that they use Facebook weekly and fortnightly to keep in touch with their social networks in Malaysia, while 67 per cent use SMS. Affordable phone calls (56 per cent) and the convenience of e-mails (47 per cent) were also frequently used to keep in touch. Some 44 per cent used Skype to interact with family and friends back home. As anticipated, the use of mail was not popular. Almost eight in every ten respondents indicated that they have never

posted a letter to keep in touch with their social networks, including family and friends back home.

Figure 6.10 Methods and frequency of networking with social contacts in Malaysia



Source: MiA Survey 2014

Comments from respondents in regards to keeping in touch with contacts in Malaysia:

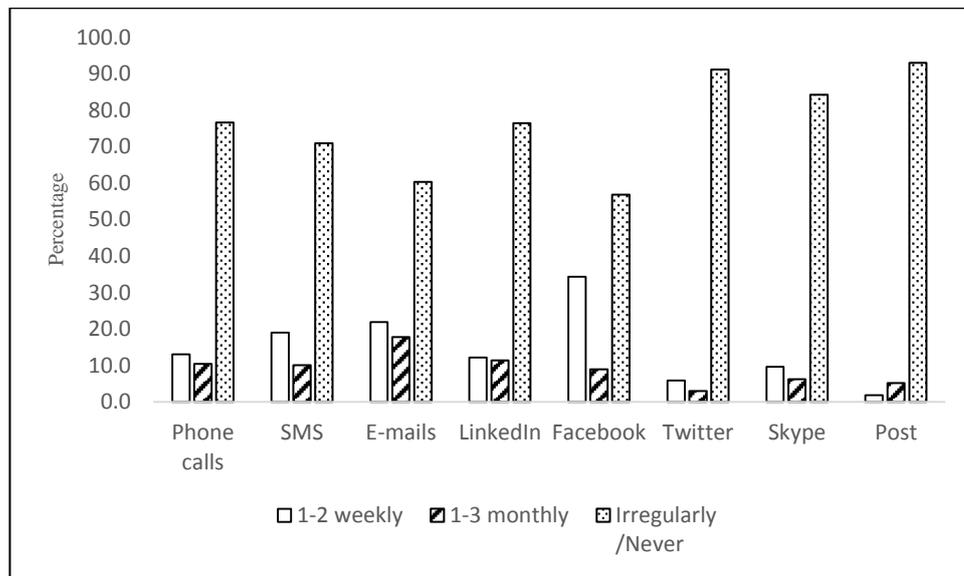
Since the birth of our son, dad and mum started to learn using Facebook and Instagram to follow baby Justin's progress. It is so easy to keep in touch, old folks are always excited to receive messages from us too. (#62, male, only son to his parents, and now having his kid who is the only grandson bearing the family surname)

With all the social media and technology, who needs to post a letter? Greeting cards are also being sent electronically. (#131, male student)

Respondents were also asked another set of questions on their methods and frequency of maintaining contact with their professional networks in Malaysia. Figure 6.11 shows that over a third of the respondents interact frequently with their professional contacts on Facebook. The next favoured and frequently used modes of contact were e-mails (22 per cent) and SMS (20 per cent). Surprisingly, LinkedIn was not preferred to keep in touch with their professional contacts. There were some 12 per cent who indicated that they use LinkedIn every one to two weeks, 11 per cent one to three monthly, while an astonishing three-quarters had never or had been irregularly using LinkedIn. Those who used LinkedIn were mostly working as managers and professionals. Nonetheless, the

usage was not as high as anticipated. The post was also not favoured by the respondents, as was the case for Twitter and Skype. Most of the respondents indicated that they hardly or never use post (93 per cent), Twitter (91 per cent) and Skype (84 per cent).

Figure 6.11 Methods and frequency of networking with professional contacts in Malaysia



Source: MiA Survey 2014

Affiliations with professional organisations in Malaysia were also considered to be an important way of maintaining ties. However, only one in ten male and female respondents claimed that they were affiliated with some professional organisation in Malaysia. It was found that the older respondents who were holding managerial and professional jobs were more likely to retain membership with professional organisations in Malaysia. Some 16 per cent of the older respondents, with one-fifth of them holding managerial and professional jobs, indicated that they belonged to organisations such as the Institute of Engineers Malaysia, Malaysia Dental Association, Malaysia Institute of Accountants, and Malaysian Medical Association. Interestingly, the Malay respondents were more likely to maintain professional membership in Malaysia (30 per cent), compared to Indians (17 per cent) and Chinese (11 per cent).

Comments from respondents with regards maintaining professional contacts in Malaysia are as follows:

Though we have no intention to return, I think it's important to maintain contacts with my professional network back home... Funnily I don't use LinkedIn but prefer occasional e-mails sending festive greetings. (#933, male professional in his mid-thirties)

I would usually just drop an email or a sms [short messaging system] whenever there are any relevant updates with regards to our profession globally but more inclined towards updates from Australia of course as I'm based here currently. (#898, male professional in his earlier forties)

6.4 Government diaspora-related initiatives in Malaysia

The strong identification with Malaysia as home showed that the respondents were still involved in aspects of Malaysian life. Malaysians abroad are eligible to a postal vote starting from the 13th Malaysian General Election in 2013. There was a high awareness of the postal vote introduction but ironically, there was low voting participation indicated by the respondents. There were only about a quarter who voted, and males were more likely to do so (28 per cent) compared to females (21 per cent).

With the increased emigration from Malaysia to Australia, the Malaysian government has embarked on several initiatives to engage overseas Malaysians. One of them is the Returning Expert Programme (REP) which facilitates the return of Malaysian professionals. It was discussed in detail in Chapter 4. Like the postal vote, the awareness of the REP was relatively high, males (61 per cent) compared to females (41 per cent). It is apparent that the majority of the professional respondents (66 per cent), who were aged over 30 were more aware of the REP. It is also evident that the Indians (59 per cent) and Chinese (53 per cent) had higher awareness of the programme compared to the Malays (37 per cent).

Respondents were also asked how they knew about the REP, and over half the male respondents indicated that they were made aware through professional networks (64 per cent), online media (60 per cent), paper media and informal networks (53 per cent each) and Talent Corporation engagement session (52 per cent). Females were most likely to have learned about REP through a TalentCorp engagement session (48 per cent)

compared with other channels of information: paper media and informal network (47 per cent each), online media (40 per cent) and professional network (37 per cent).

In terms of age, it was found that the older respondents, particularly those in the 45-49 age group, were more exposed to the REP compared to the younger one regardless of which communication channel used, except for the TalentCorp engagement session (Table 6.6). For example, some 42 per cent of the older respondents indicated that they learned about the REP through online media compared with 19 per cent of the young respondents. There were almost twice as many older respondents who had heard of REP via paper media and informal networks especially amongst those aged above 50. Some 9 per cent of the older respondents had heard of REP through professional networks compared to 6 per cent of the younger respondents. This is not surprising as the target group of the programme are mainly those in the economically active age group who are highly educated and skilled.

Table 6.6 REP communication channel by age (*multiple responses, percentage indicating 'yes' to a list of specified reasons*)

REP channel	<30 (n=249)	30+ (n=531)	Total (n=780)
Online media	18.5	41.8	34.4
Paper media	8.8	14.3	12.6
Informal networks	8.8	14.3	12.6
Professional networks	6.4	8.9	8.1
TalentCorp engagement session	9.6	7.2	7.9

Source: MiA Survey 2014

6.5 Intra-networks

Besides examining linkages maintained with hometown associations (HTAs) in Malaysia, it is also important to examine the connections established with other Malaysians in Australia. An overwhelming majority of male and female respondents indicated that they had contacts with other Malaysians in Australia regardless of their age and length of stay in Australia. Every nine in ten Malay, Chinese and Indian respondents also claimed that they were in contact with other Malaysians in Australia.

Respondents were also asked if they participate in Malaysian-based organisations in Australia. While there were no difference between males and females in terms of participation rate, it was found that the younger respondents (52 per cent) were more likely to participate in those organisations compared with the older ones (42 per cent). A subsequent question on types of organisation was asked. Respondents were given the opportunity to list the organisations or clubs in which they were involved in Australia. Table 6.7 shows that female respondents were more likely to participate in students organisations (50 per cent) compared with males (32 per cent). By contrast, there were more males (51 per cent) who indicated that they were joining social or community type organisations compared to females (40 per cent). It was also found that almost all student respondents on student visas were involved in student organisations.

Table 6.7 Participation in Malaysian-based organisations in Australia

Types of Malaysian-based organisation in Australia	Male (%) (n=138)	Female (%) (n=149)	Total (%) (n=287)
Students	31.9	49.6	41.1
Social/Community	51.4	39.6	45.3
Business/Professional	8.7	5.4	7.0
Political	5.8	2.7	4.2
Religious	2.2	2.7	2.4
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: MiA Survey 2014

6.6 Overseas presence benefits to Malaysia

Respondents were asked a set of questions relating to what they thought were the benefits to Malaysia of them living overseas. The response was mediocre, with some 45 per cent of respondents perceiving that their presence overseas had benefits for Malaysia. There was not much difference between males (47 per cent) and females (42 per cent), or the higher (39 per cent) and lower income (37 per cent) groups. However, it was found that the younger respondents (57 per cent) were more positive about their overseas presence being beneficial to Malaysia compared with the older ones (39 per cent). Another interesting finding was that the Malays had the highest positive response (83 per cent), followed by the Indians (52 per cent) and Chinese (35 per cent).

Understandably, it is important to know in what ways their presence overseas was beneficial hence a question on the specific benefits was asked. Table 6.8 shows that the most popular responses given by over one-third of respondents was *'learn skills or gain experiences transferable back to Malaysia'*. Generally, males were found to be more optimistic about their overseas contribution to Malaysia. For instance, there were some 29 per cent of males and 22 per cent of females who felt that their existing contacts were useful for other Malaysians. There were also more males (28 per cent) who indicated that their presence *'created goodwill towards Malaysia'* compared with 22 per cent females. In addition, over a quarter of male and female respondents claimed that they were being *'good ambassadors for Malaysia'*. The lowest ranked response related to *'investment opportunities'* by one-fifth of males and 10 per cent of females indicating this as a benefit.

Table 6.8 How overseas presence benefits Malaysia (multiple responses, percentage indicating 'yes' to a list of specified reasons)

Overseas presence benefits Malaysia	Male (n=364)	Female (n=409)	Total (n=773)
Learn skills/gain experiences transferable back to Malaysia	36.0	33.5	34.7
Existing contacts useful for other Malaysians	29.1	21.8	25.2
Create goodwill towards Malaysia	28.0	21.8	24.7
Good ambassadors for Malaysia	23.9	20.8	22.3
Investment opportunities	20.1	10.3	14.9
Other	2.7	2.0	2.3

Source: MiA Survey 2014

In examining the perceived benefits for Malaysia by sector, respondents in the wholesale and retail (31 per cent), oil, gas and energy (27 per cent), as well as education (26 per cent) sectors were more likely to perceive that their skills and experience were transferable back to Malaysia. Those in the education sectors were also more likely to view their presence overseas as being useful in providing contacts for other Malaysians and to create goodwill towards Malaysia. There were higher responses given to *'good ambassadors for Malaysia'* by respondents in the financial services and healthcare sectors, while about 19 per cent of respondents in the oil, gas and energy sector thought that they facilitated investment opportunities between both countries.

6.7 Assets and investments

6.7.1 Assets ownership

In examining linkages with Malaysia, a significant aspect is the assets and investments kept or maintained by the diaspora. Beyond the return visits, long-distance communication and subscription to hometown associations, the financial remittances, properties and investments are considered as valuable linkages maintained between both homeland and country of residence. Table 6.9 shows the assets currently owned by the respondents in Australia, Malaysia and other countries. Property refers to tangible and intangible things owned such as land, buildings, money, copyrights and patents. Home is considered separately from property for the purpose of this study.

Table 6.9 Assets owned in Australia and Malaysia (multiple responses, percentage indicating ‘yes’ to a list of specified reasons)

Assets owned	Australia	Australia & Malaysia	Malaysia	No ownership
Home	14.6	4.0	14.9	65.2
Property	14.6	4.0	14.9	65.2
Business	9.2	1.2	3.2	85.7
Bank account	20.5	43.6	1.9	29.7
Financial investments	12.5	8.3	16.0	59.7
Other	3.0	1.1	1.6	93.7

Source: MiA Survey 2014

Overall, the majority of the respondents either did not respond or claimed that they did not own assets. However, it is clear that bank accounts are the most popular form of assets owned as it is highly flexible in terms of maintenance. Some 44 per cent of respondents indicated that they owned bank accounts in both Australia and Malaysia. It is also interesting to note that 16 per cent of respondents claimed that they had financial investments in Malaysia. This was slightly higher than the 13 per cent of respondents having financial investments in Australia. There were equal responses for home and property ownership in Australia (15 per cent) and Malaysia (15 per cent) respectively. Only a small percentage owned both assets simultaneously (4 per cent). In terms of business ownership, it is important to note that some 9 per cent of respondents indicated

that they had a business in Australia while 3 per cent continued to maintain their businesses in Malaysia. Only one per cent owned businesses in both countries.

It was not surprising to find that with the exception of bank accounts, assets ownership was much higher for the older respondents. It was also higher for the higher income group. However, there were significant differences in terms of assets ownership by ethnicity. Table 6.10 shows that Chinese respondents tended to own more assets in Australia compared with the other ethnic groups. On the other hand, the Malays were more likely to have a higher rate of assets ownership in Malaysia compared with the other respondents. For instance, there were a quarter of Malays who owned home and property in Malaysia. Over one-third of them also claimed that they had financial investments in Malaysia compared with the Chinese (13 per cent), Indian (12 per cent) and the others (26 per cent).

Table 6.10 Assets ownership in Australia and Malaysia by ethnicities (*multiple responses, percentage indicating ‘yes’ to a list of specified reasons*)

Assets owned in Australia only	Chinese (n=694)	Malay (n=162)	Indian (n=78)	Other (n=59)	Total (n=953)
Home	18.0	4.9	12.8	10.5	15.2
Property	18.0	4.9	12.8	10.5	15.2
Business	12.0	5.6	2.6	0.0	9.9
Bank account	24.5	7.4	25.6	10.5	21.4
Financial investments	15.6	4.3	12.8	0.0	13.1
Other	3.5	1.9	3.8	0.0	3.1
Assets owned in Malaysia only					
Home	13.5	25.3	11.5	26.3	15.6
Property	13.5	25.3	11.5	26.3	15.6
Business	2.6	7.4	1.3	10.5	3.5
Bank account	1.6	4.9	1.3	0.0	2.1
Financial investments	13.4	34.0	11.5	26.3	17.0
Other	1.9	1.2	1.3	5.3	1.8
Assets owned in Australia and Malaysia					
Home	4.3	3.7	3.8	5.3	4.2
Property	4.3	3.7	3.8	5.3	4.2
Business	1.3	1.9	0.0	0.0	1.3
Bank account	44.5	59.3	29.5	52.6	46.0
Financial investments	8.2	8.0	12.8	21.1	8.8
Other	1.3	0.6	0.0	5.3	1.2

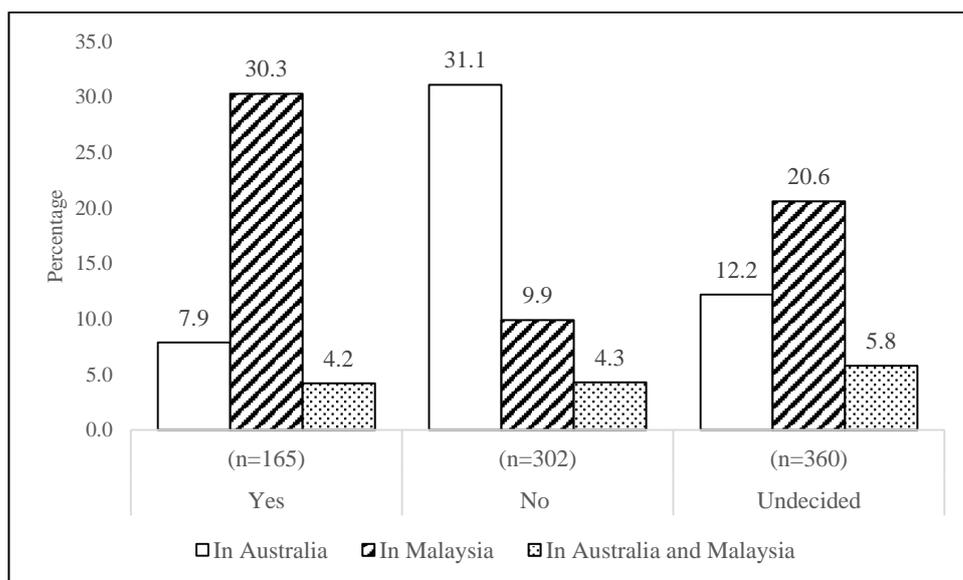
Source: MiA Survey 2014

6.7.2 Effects of return intention on assets ownership

Research has shown that there is a relationship between the maintenance of assets and investments in the country of origin and intentions to return (Ahlburg and Brown 1998; Collier et al. 2011; Carling and Pettersen 2014). Findings show that return intentions tend to be linked to higher remittance, investments and assets maintenance in the country of origin. However, little or no empirical research has been done with regards to assets ownership and return intentions with the Malaysian diaspora moving between Malaysia and Australia.

Figure 6.12 shows the home and property ownership of respondents by their intentions to return, and almost one-third of respondents who had intentions to return to Malaysia claimed that they owned home and property there. Some 8 per cent of these potential returnees also owned properties in Australia, while 4 per cent owned properties both in Australia and Malaysia. By contrast, it was found that 31 per cent of the respondents who were not returning indicated that they owned a home and property in Australia, and almost 10 per cent maintained their assets in Malaysia while 4 per cent continued to own assets in both countries.

Figure 6.12 Home and property ownership by intention to return



Source: MiA Survey 2014

It should be noted that those who were undecided about returning still maintained assets in Malaysia, some 21 per cent indicated that they owned home and property in Malaysia. Some 12 per cent did so in Australia, and 6 per cent in both countries. Respondent comments demonstrate that by maintaining some assets back home could be a backup plan for future mobility:

Right now, we are comfortable here as it is but I maintain investments in Malaysia. Not thinking of returning but maybe things will change in the future. (#226, male professional in his mid-thirties)

Have yet to decide whether we will return... We sold some [assets] but decided to retain some assets back home. Our folks are still living in Malaysia and those assets may come in handy should we need the money. (#248, female in her late thirties)

6.8 Migration outcomes

This section investigates the respondents' economic and social outcomes after moving to Australia. This includes comparing the labour force (employment) status, occupation, and household financial situation of respondents before and after they had moved to Australia.

6.8.1 Labour force status

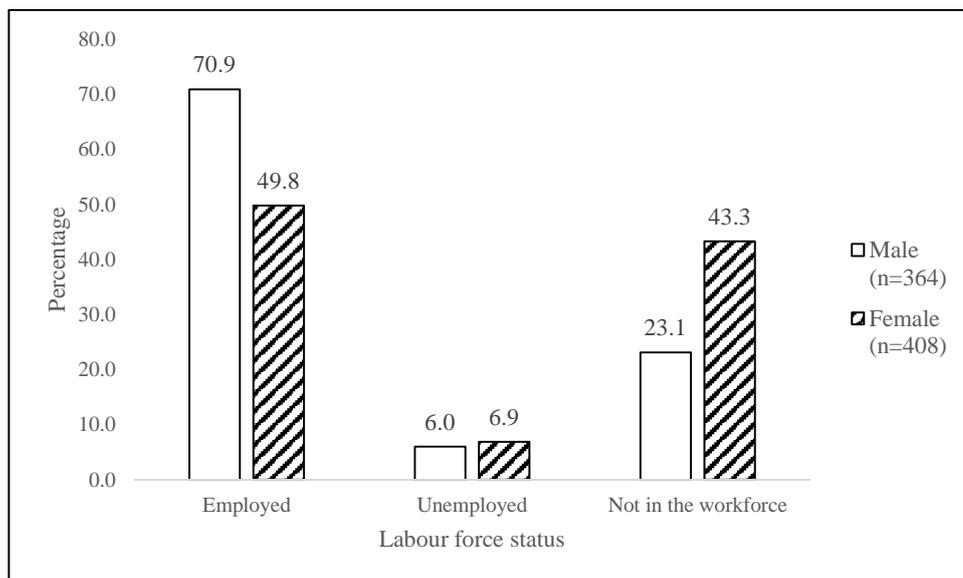
There has been an increasing debate on how migrants fare in the workforce after migration. Although Australia claims to have benefitted from its selective migration programme, critics claim that migrants experience downward economic mobility after moving to Australia (Coughlan 1997; Ho and Alcorso 2004). Economic mobility refers to the ability of an individual, family or group to improve (or lower) their economic status which can be measured by employment, occupation and income levels. Mukomel (2013) argues that upward labour mobility is very unlikely for most migrants.

Figure 6.13 shows the proportion of male and female respondents who were in the workforce when they took the survey. Over half of them were employed, with more males (71 per cent) than females (50 per cent). The unemployment rate was low being slightly higher for females compared to males. About one-third of the respondents were not in the workforce, 43 per cent of females compared to 23 per cent males. Generally,

the respondents have done well, at least in securing employment. However, comparing their employment status before moving to Australia, it was found that the rate were slightly lower for males at 61 per cent, and higher for females at 53 per cent. The overall unemployment rate was only 2 per cent before leaving which increased to 6 per cent after moving to Australia.

As for those who were not in the workforce, the rate had reduced from 41 per cent to one-third. It is assumed that the increase in the labour force participation rate was likely due to the respondents who had previously been students had since found employment in Australia. They were also likely to have shaped the lower rate of those not in the workforce after moving to Australia. It is important to note that many females who were not in the labour force after moving had become stay-at-home-mum (SAHM), taking care of the children and managing the household chores as domestic help is likely to be too expensive and not readily available in Australia at time of survey.

Figure 6.13 Employment status of male and female respondents



Source: MiA Survey 2014

Some of the respondents provided explanations on the points discussed:

Caring for younger kids. (Male respondent in his early fifties, on why his spouse was not working)

Baby-sitting now as full-time housewife. (Male respondent in his early thirties, on why his spouse was not working)

Full-time housewife and taking care of my kid as we do not have a helper here. (Male in his early thirties, on why his spouse was not working)

I quit my job before migrating in 2012 and did not go back to workforce due to my toddler. (Female respondent in her early thirties)

My income can support my wife and I. (Male in his early sixties)

Have not found employment. (Female in her late forties)

Lack of job opportunity. (Male in his early thirties, on why his spouse was not working)

Tried to practise as a doctor here but so many procedures, and have to pay high fees... Have to do social works first to have some income. (Female in her late twenties)

In terms of age, it was found that 71 per cent of the employed respondents were aged 50 and above, 68 per cent between 25 and 49 years, and 13 per cent were under 25 years. The large majority of those under 25 years (83 per cent) were not in the workforce as they were mostly students.

This study also found that a significant majority of the respondents were working for salaries, wages or commission (87 per cent). This suggests that the rate of entrepreneurial uptake is low. Table 6.11 shows that one-fifth of the male respondents were in the information and communication technology (ICT) sector, while the females tended to be employed in the healthcare and education sectors (22 per cent and 17 per cent).

Table 6.11 Employment sectors of male and female respondents

Sector of employment	Male (%) (n=257)	Female (%) (n=205)
Information and communication technology	20.2	3.9
Healthcare	13.2	22.0
Business and financial services	12.5	16.6
Education	6.2	21.5
Oil, gas and energy	6.2	3.9
Wholesale and retail	5.1	5.9
Electronics and electrical	3.9	2.0
Tourism	1.2	2.9
Other ¹	31.5	21.3
TOTAL	100.0	100.0

Source: MiA Survey 2014

Note: Consulting, construction, FMCG, logistics, public sector/NGO, real estate, agriculture

6.8.2 Occupational mobility

While being employed is an essential part of successful labour market outcomes, it is just one of the indicators alongside income and occupation. Occupational mobility refers to the ease of movement of resources between jobs. For instance, a worker leaves a job as an accountant to take a job as an accounts executive. According to Birrell et al. (2006, p. 81) in their report on the evaluation of the general skilled migration categories, one of the key indicators to measure the effectiveness of the skilled migration programme is whether migrants find employment in skilled occupations, or ideally they assume higher level occupations.

Table 6.12 shows the occupational distribution of the male and female respondents and it is evident that the respondents were highly skilled and highly educated as over two-thirds were professionals, with some 15 per cent managers. It is important to note that females were more likely to become community and personal service workers, or clerical and administrative workers compared to males.

Table 6.12 Differences of male and female respondents' main occupation

Current occupation	Male (n=242)	Female (n=193)	Total (n=435)
Managers	14.9	15.5	15.1
Professionals	71.1	61.7	66.9
Technicians & Trades Workers	4.5	0.0	2.5
Community & Personal Service Workers	2.1	5.7	3.7
Clerical & Administrative Workers	1.2	14.0	6.9
Sales Workers	2.9	2.6	2.8
Machinery Operators & Drivers	2.1	0.5	1.4
Labourers	1.2	0.0	0.7
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: MiA Survey 2014

Papademetriou, Somerville and Sumption (2009) found that social mobility is central to immigrant integration. Migrants tend to experience downward mobility when they migrate despite having high levels of educational attainment. Papademetriou and colleagues highlight four factors responsible for this initial downward mobility. Firstly, there are language barriers. These migrants are often referred to as people with “non-English-speaking background” (NESB) (Colic-Peisker 2011). The other factors are differences in educational attainment, skills and qualification not being recognised and limited access to work opportunities. However, these challenges tend to be overcome with time.

Table 6.13 shows the respondents' occupations prior to migration, 27 per cent had worked as managers, while 62 per cent were professionals. There were very low numbers working as technicians and trades workers, community and personal service workers and labourers. In fact, there were no machinery operators and drivers as these jobs were most likely carried out by foreign workers in Malaysia.

Table 6.13 Differences of male and female respondents' main occupation before moving to Australia

Pre-move occupation	Male (n=211)	Female (n=198)	Total (n=409)
Managers	28.5	25.3	27.0
Professionals	65.4	57.6	61.6
Technicians & Trades Workers	1.4	0.5	1.0
Community & Personal Service Workers	0.0	1.5	0.7
Clerical & Administrative Workers	1.9	12.6	7.1
Sales Workers	2.8	2.0	2.4
Labourers	0.0	0.5	0.2
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: MiA Survey 2014

Some of the respondents who were interviewed said they had to occupy positions that were worse than the one they previously held prior to migrating to Australia. Their comments are as follows:

Despite having more than 10 years of experience in the [telecommunication] industry, I was not successful in my interviews for jobs in that line... Reason they gave was they wanted a candidate with local experience... (#507, a male migrant who held senior position in the Malaysian telco industry)

My Bachelor degree was not recognised. I had to go for skills assessment which was frustrating... (#898, a male graduate in Information and Communication Technology)

To be honest, I only landed in my current job after being introduced to the employer by someone who knows someone in the company... When I first arrived, I could not get myself employed despite sending many applications and CVs... (#226, a professional who migrated to Australia 2 years ago)

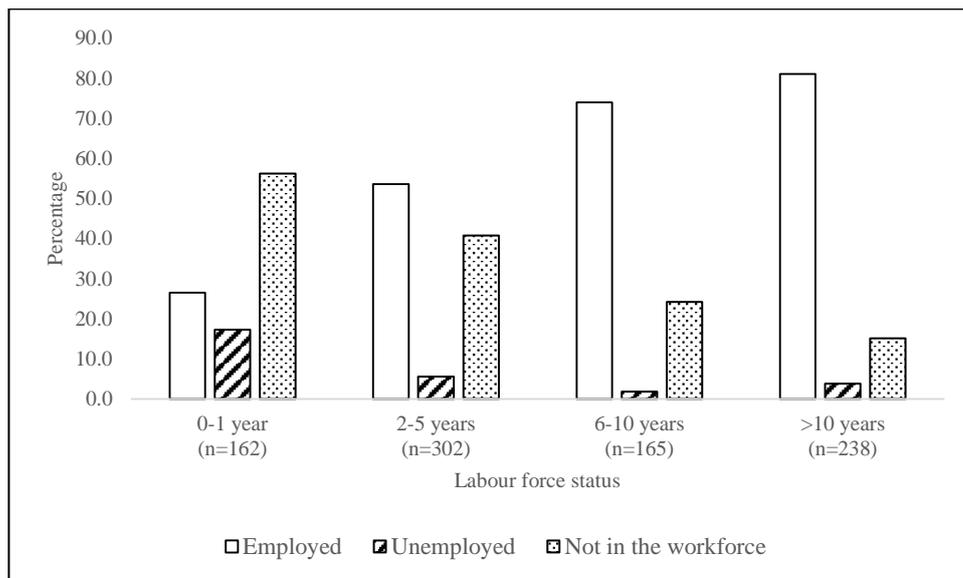
While the majority managed to remain employed as managers and professionals, there are a few who had to accept jobs such as cleaning, catering, and domestic help. For instance, one of the respondents shared having to accept odd-jobs though both she and her spouse had high educational attainment and professional work experience in Malaysia:

Many of our friends who had recently arrived had to do odd-jobs like cleaning homes and offices though they had high educational attainment and were experienced in their respective occupation back home. My spouse and I went through the same... (#869, highly educated female in her late thirties)

6.9 Effect of length of stay on economic status

It is assumed that it is premature to judge the settlement experience of migrants who have made a lifetime move as they take some time to find a job and settle down. Birrell et al. (2006, p.72) argue that the longer term employment status is better than the initial arrival stage. A direct relationship is observed when comparing the respondents' improved labour force status and their length of stay in Australia. Table 6.14 shows that as length of stay increased, the percentage with improved labour force status increased, i.e. from 27 per cent in the first year of arrival, to 54 per cent between 2-5 years, then 74 per cent to 81 per cent after the tenth year. The inverse relationship was found when comparing the percentage who were not in the workforce.

Figure 6.14 Respondents labour force status change by length of stay in Australia



Source: MiA Survey 2014

Corresponding with the findings in Figure 6.14, it was found that the proportion of respondents who were managers and professionals increased slightly from 78 per cent during the first year of arrival to 87 per cent after the fifth year in Australia. By contrast, there was a decrease in the percentage of respondents in non-managerial and non-professional occupations by length of stay in Australia. This corroborates with the LSIA-based studies which show that migrant employment outcomes improve with duration of settlement in Australia (Ho & Alcorso 2004).

Another proxy used to demonstrate the economic outcomes of migrants is change in the household financial situation. Table 6.14 shows that the household financial situation of both males and females had improved over their period of stay in Australia. The upward trend was most significant between the fifth and tenth year in Australia. On the other hand, a corresponding percentage of respondents who experienced a worse financial situation after moving reduced over time. The majority of recently arrived respondents felt that their financial situation remained unchanged. In sum, both males and females have done well, at least in settling down and have experienced positive change in household financial status. Nonetheless, it is evident that males had slightly better migration outcomes than females.

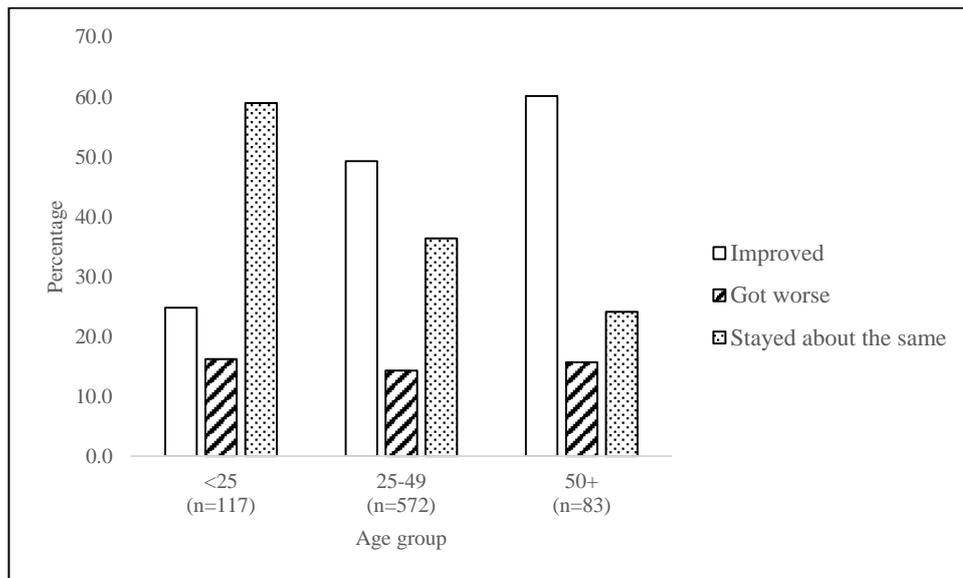
Table 6.14 Male and female respondents' household financial situation change by length of stay

Change in household financial situation	Years in Australia (%)			
	<1	2-5	6-10	>10
Male	n=54	n=127	n=69	n=113
Improved	29.6	37.0	62.4	75.2
Got worse	20.4	18.9	7.2	5.3
Stayed about the same	50.0	44.1	30.4	19.5
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Female	n=81	n=149	n=78	n=97
Improved	14.8	26.2	60.3	73.2
Got worse	21.0	22.8	8.9	8.2
Stayed about the same	64.2	51.0	30.8	18.6
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: MiA Survey 2014

Figure 6.15 shows that the majority of those aged above 50 experienced improved financial status, followed by 19 per cent aged between 25 and 49 years, and a quarter under 40 years. Some 14 to 16 per cent of respondents in all age group said that their situation had got worse. As age increased, the percentage of those with unchanged household financial status decreased from almost 60 per cent for those aged below 25, to less than a quarter amongst those aged above 50.

Figure 6.15 Respondents household financial status change by age



Source: MiA Survey 2014

6.10 Conclusion

This chapter has examined respondents' identification with Malaysia and found that the majority still regard Malaysia as home. However, the identification differs slightly across ethnicities, age groups and country of birth. It also lapses across time. The notion of multiple identification was also explored where it was found that the majority of respondents attached their professional life to Australia, where they claimed that equal career advancement opportunities were given ('fair go'). Those who related their personal and family life with Australia tended to have relocated with their families.

This chapter has shown that respondents maintain strong transnational networks with Malaysia, through frequent social visits home, long-distance communication via Facebook and e-mails, affiliations with professional and social networks in Malaysia as well as Malaysian-based associations in Australia. It was interesting to find that male respondents, and younger Malays were more positive about their overseas presence being beneficial to Malaysia. In terms of asset ownership and investments in Malaysia and Australia, the likelihood to maintain them was found to be linked to respondents' future plans to return.

Generally, the respondents experienced positive migration outcomes when analysing their labour force status, occupational mobility and household financial situation. The males had much better employment outcomes than did the females as the latter tended to give up their career and become stay-at-home-mums to take care of their children and manage the household chores, as childcare facilities and domestic help are expensive in Australia. The older respondents, particularly those above 50 were also more likely to experience better migration outcomes as it was shown that their economic status improved by length of stay in Australia.

Chapter 7: Australians in Malaysia

7.1 Introduction

To better understand the reciprocal migration flow from Australia to Malaysia, a small survey of 134 respondents in Malaysia was conducted. This chapter examines the migration decision-making process, and the pattern of movement from Australia to Malaysia. Survey respondents were asked about their transnational and settlement experiences. These include understanding their identification with Australia and their means and ways to keep in touch with people, organisations, and other developments back home.

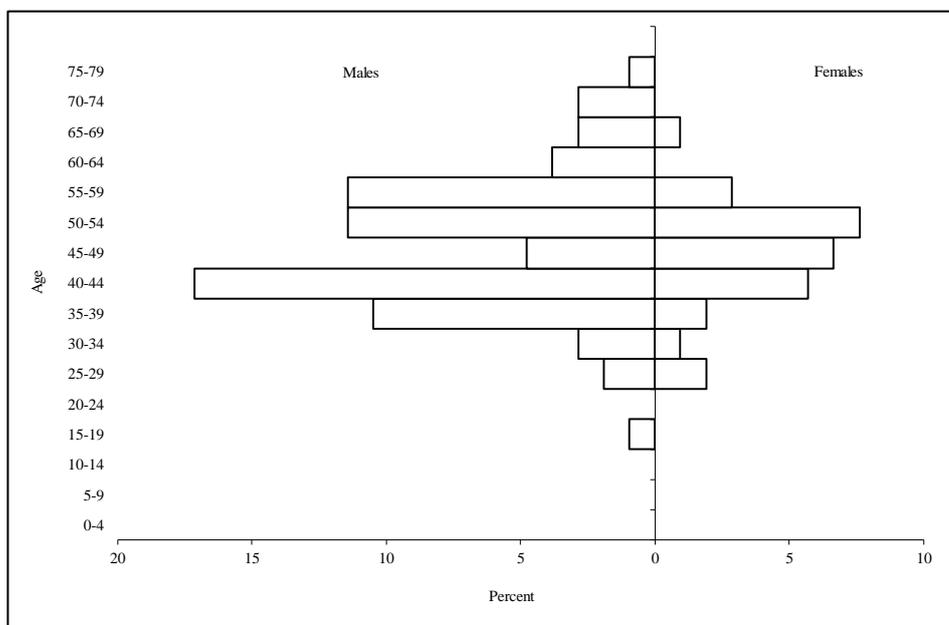
Analysis of immigration unpublished data has shown that there were 11,503 Australian residents who departed from Australia to live permanently in Malaysia compared with 51,227 persons who moved permanently from Malaysia to Australia between 1993 and 2014. This means that there was about one permanent move from Australia to Malaysia for every five in the opposite direction. Similar to the Malaysia to Australia flow, the Australia to Malaysia stream is highly-skilled. The last part of this chapter investigates migration outcomes and future plans of respondents who were living in Malaysia.

7.2 An overview of the respondents' characteristics

This survey aimed to fully understand the migration process, and to assess the socio-economic consequences of migration back to Malaysia. It was designed to identify the respondents' characteristics, their reasons for leaving, and their intentions to return to Australia. Their current employment and household arrangements, and how these have changed since leaving Australia were also examined. Like the Malaysians in Australia survey, this survey also asked about the respondents' perceptions of how their overseas presence benefitted Australia, and whether they still call Australia home. Subsequent in-depth interviews were also conducted with respondents who provided their e-mail address in the survey form and agreed to be interviewed.

One of the most striking features of the migration flow from Australia shown in Figure 7.1 was the dominance of male respondents across all age groups, except 25-29 and 45-49 years where the males were slightly outnumbered by females. It is important to note the high rate of the mid-level working age male respondents aged 40-44 years, and also the senior-level ones aged 50-59 years. This finding is similar to the census data which shows that the departures to Malaysia were made up of mainly established families with children being in the economically active age groups. Females who were concentrated in the economically active age groups between 40 and 54 years, with few aged less than 40 or over 55 years.

Figure 7.1 Age and sex structure of respondents moving from Australia to Malaysia



Source: AiM Survey 2014

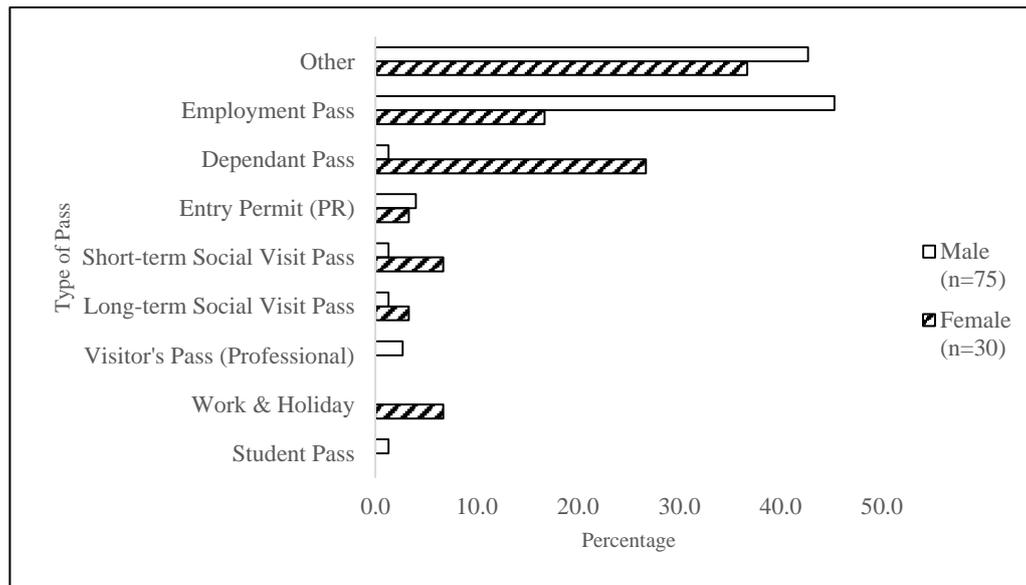
Figure 7.2 shows that the majority of respondents were Australians holding an Employment Pass²⁷, 45 per cent of males compared to 17 per cent of females. By contrast, females were more likely to hold a Dependant Pass²⁸ (27 per cent) compared to only about one per cent of males. As anticipated, females were more likely to hold

²⁷ A work permit that enables an expatriate to take up employment with an organisation in Malaysia. The pass is subject to the contract of employment (up to 60 months).

²⁸ This facility is accorded to families of expatriates, including husband/wife, children under the age of 21, handicapped children, legally adopted children.

Social Visit Passes²⁹ while males had Professional Visit Passes³⁰. Interestingly, only females went to Malaysia on Work and Holiday Passes³¹. From the interview with a key informant from the Ministry of Home Affairs, it was learnt that each year the 100 quota is filled by the Malaysians heading to Australia, but there was a very low uptake amongst the Australians.

Figure 7.2 Types of immigration passes held by male and female respondents



Source: AiM Survey 2014

It was also not surprising to find that the rate of Entry Permit³² (Permanent Residency) issuance was low due to the tight conditions for Entry Permit applications, and the preference to return to Australia or move elsewhere. Based on observations of several expatriate forums, it was found to be very common for entry permits to be rejected, and it was extremely difficult to fulfil the requirements as not all were explicitly stated. For

²⁹ There are two types of Social Visit Pass (SVP): Long-2term and short-term SVP. The short-term SVP is given for foreign visitors for social visit, tourism, journalism, conference, factory inspection, signing agreement, students on goodwill missions or taking examinations, sport competition, and other reasons approved by the Director General of Immigration. The Long-term SVP is issued to foreigners for temporary stay in Malaysia for less than six months.

³⁰ A Professional Visit Pass (PVP) is granted to foreign talents with acceptable professional qualifications or skills. They can enter the country and provide services or undergo practical training with A Malaysian company on behalf of an overseas company on temporary basis, for up to 12 months.

³¹ The Malaysian and Australian Governments have reciprocal arrangements whereby each country currently offers a maximum of 100 Work and Holiday visas per programme year to citizens of the other country.

³² An Entry Permit accords any foreign national intending to enter and reside in Malaysia as a permanent resident. There are 4 categories: 1) Investors or experts; 2) Professionals; 3) Foreign spouse of Malaysian citizen and child/children of Malaysian citizen under the age of 6; and 4) Point system (state-level)

example, one of the respondents who had a Malaysian partner said during the in-depth interview:

We were told that our marriage needs to be registered here, and to provide some of the most ridiculous documents such as our wedding photo or wedding invitation and not to mention the long list of other documentation. I also have to prove that I have been living here [Malaysia] for at least five years before I can submit the application for the PR. That said, we received different 'criteria' each time we visited the Immigration counter... We have also heard many stories of others who told us how challenging it was for them, including foreign spouses of Malaysian citizens (#44, male in his early fifties holding an Employment Pass in Malaysia)

Another respondent who agreed to be interviewed said she and her spouse decided not to apply for PR after learning about the challenges which others faced:

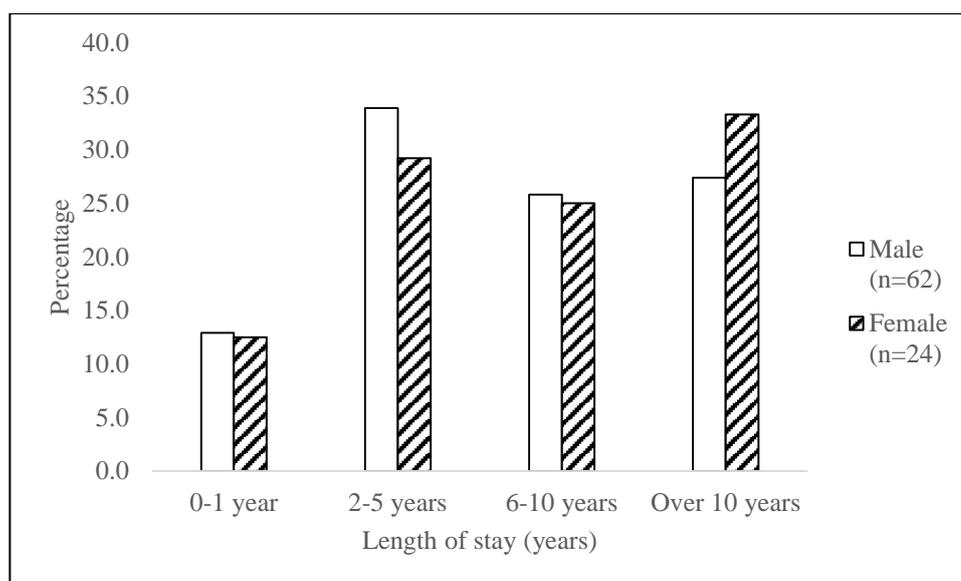
We have been living here [Malaysia] for more than 20 years. Never thought of filing a PR... maybe we were not sure if we would return to Australia then. After a couple of years, we sought advice from our expatriate friends if permanent residency is an option, and hearing their horror stories on the uncertainties in terms of application procedure, and the bureaucracies, we decided to renew our Employment Pass whenever they expire... Only recently we managed to obtain the Residence Pass, with ten years validity (#117, female RP-T principal holder)

The type of passes that the respondents held had some bearing on their length of stay since arriving in Malaysia, as only those on long-term passes managed to stay longer in Malaysia. For example, the Malaysia My Second Home (MM2H) programme grants a special Long-Term Social Visit Pass (SVP) which allows the holder to live in Malaysia for up to ten years, and it is renewable after the tenth year. Otherwise, it is only valid for up to six months. Another example of special long term SVP is the Residence Pass – Talent (RP-T)³³ programme which was jointly introduced by the Ministry of Home Affairs, Immigration Department and TalentCorp in 2011. Therefore the length of stay is an important determinant of the respondents' characteristics. More than 70 per cent of the other passes stated by the respondents were the RP-T, while another 4 per cent MM2H, with the remaining one-fifth were returnees from Australia who were still holding Malaysian citizenship.

³³ A 10-year renewable pass for highly qualified expatriates to continue residing and working in Malaysia. It offers expatriates an attractive range of benefits, including the flexibility to change employers multiple times during the validity of the pass. There are other categories including persons of Malaysia-origin, entrepreneurs, special talent.

Figure 7.3 shows that about 10 per cent of the respondents had stayed in Malaysia for less than a year, with one-third of them between two to five years, and a further 29.1 per cent for more than ten years. A higher proportion of female respondents (33 per cent) tended to have stayed longer in Malaysia compared with the males (27 per cent). It was interesting to find that one-third of those who had stayed over ten years in Malaysia had Malaysian spouses.

Figure 7.3 Length of stay in Malaysia of male and female respondents



Source: AiM Survey 2014

Another important characteristics was the rate of postgraduate qualification attainment which was high at 49 per cent among the respondents, with slightly more females (52 per cent) than males (48 per cent). There were no differences between males and females for the undergraduate category.

Geographically, the respondents who had moved to Malaysia tended to live in the capital and main cities, with 90 per cent living in Kuala Lumpur and Selangor and 5 per cent in East Malaysia (Sabah and Sarawak), and other parts of the country respectively. Respondents were asked of their locations before moving to Malaysia, and it was found that 73 had previously stayed in Australia and New Zealand, with almost a quarter indicating that they had stayed in Asia while 5 per cent had come from Europe.

7.3 Main reasons for moving to Malaysia

There are many factors which contribute to the decision-making of migrants to move and be mobile and the responses given to *'Please indicate the main reasons for your decision to move to Malaysia'* may provide some insights into the events that trigger the decision to move but may not necessarily be the underlying cause. Similar to the Malaysian migrants in Australia, the Australians in Malaysia were asked to respond to a list of specified reasons and were given the opportunity to respond to more than one.

Table 7.1 shows the responses to each of the reasons which vary between the male and female respondents. The most favoured response for moving to Malaysia was *'overseas job transfer'*, though it was somewhat higher for males than for females. Evidently, the top six responses given by males except for *'lifestyle'* (which shared the same ranking as *'better employment opportunities'*) were all related to better employment aspirations in respect to career advancement, professional development and higher income.

Table 7.1 Reasons given by male and female respondents for emigration (*multiple responses, percentage indicating 'yes' to a list of specified reasons*)

Reasons for move to Malaysia	Male (n=75)	Female (n=30)	Total (n=105)
Overseas job transfer	48.0	43.3	46.7
Lifestyle	26.7	16.7	23.8
Better employment opportunities	26.7	10.0	21.9
Career advancement	24.0	0.0	17.1
Higher income	18.7	6.7	15.2
Professional development	20.0	3.3	15.2
Partner's employment	0.0	43.3	12.4
Marriage and partnership	8.0	3.3	6.7
Family and friends	6.7	6.7	6.7
Education/study	1.3	0.0	1.0
Other	13.3	10.0	12.4

Source: AiM Survey 2014

Similar to the males, *'overseas job transfer'* was the most favoured response for females. However, it is worth noting that equally as popular was *'partner's employment'* at 43 per cent amongst the females with no males responding accordingly. It was found that there was not much differences in ranking across the age of respondent and educational attainment. In terms of destination areas, there were distinct variations. The employment and career related reasons had higher responses amongst respondents living in Kuala Lumpur (KL) and Selangor, while social-related reasons like *'family and friends'*, and *'marriage and partnership'* were predominant among those residing in Sabah and Sarawak in East Malaysia. This is not surprising as most expatriates were concentrated in the capital city and the high-economic growth states in Malaysia.

It was intriguing to find that the non-economic reasons for moving to Malaysia such as *'partner's employment'*, *'family and friends'*, *'marriage and partnership'* were much more popular amongst respondents whose parents were born in Malaysia compared with those who had parents born elsewhere.

Besides the destination location, it is also interesting to analyse the reasons for moving according to the previous destination before arriving in Malaysia given that the migration decision is related to internal and external forces at different levels including the characteristics of the pre-move location (Brown & Moore 1970; Clark 1986). Table 7.2 shows that a large proportion of the respondents indicated *'overseas job transfer'* as reason for move, particularly those who had previously lived in Europe (80 per cent), followed by Asia (48 per cent), Australia and New Zealand (41 per cent).

Table 7.2 Top six reasons for move to Malaysia by previous location (*multiple responses, percentage indicating 'yes' to a list of specified reasons*)

Reasons for move to Malaysia	Australia & NZ (n=81)	Asia (n=25)	Europe (n=5)
Overseas job transfer	40.7	48.0	80.0
Lifestyle	25.9	16.0	20.0
Better employment opportunities	23.5	20.0	20.0
Career advancement	21.0	8.0	0.0
Higher income	18.5	8.0	0.0
Professional development	18.5	4.0	20.0

Source: AiM Survey 2014

Over a quarter of the respondents who were previously living in Australia and New Zealand indicated 'lifestyle' as the reason for the move, which was not as popular for those from other parts of Asia as they may have already experienced a similar culture or lifestyle characteristics. Two of the survey respondents who were interviewed said:

KL is geographically strategic in South East Asia. Singapore is too 'sterile' while situation in Jakarta, Manila and Bangkok can be quite unpredictable. KL gives a good balance where healthcare, education and banking facilities and services are relatively good, and the lifestyle here is affordable... (#125, male in his late-thirties)

It was a combined factor – lifestyle and travel opportunity. We can afford this nice place, a haven within KL city. Cheap food and great shopping... (#117, retired female freelancing in her early fifties)

It was also found that respondents who had come from Australia and New Zealand were more inclined to select economic and career aspiration-related reasons for their move to Malaysia compared with those who had lived in Asia and Europe. The other less significant reason, 'partner's employment' was considered important for one-fifth of those who had lived in Europe before moving to Malaysia, followed by Australia and New Zealand (11 per cent) and Europe (8 per cent).

Generally, the 'pull' of overseas countries influencing the decision to move seemed dominant. However, in comments given by survey respondents in the open-ended text field, a few also expressed 'push' factors in their decision to move to Malaysia as below:

New position in Malaysia after unemployed in Australia. (Male respondent in his early forties)

Marital problem – separation. (Male respondent in his early sixties)

Australia should show pride and invest in academic achievement. (Male respondent in his early fifties)

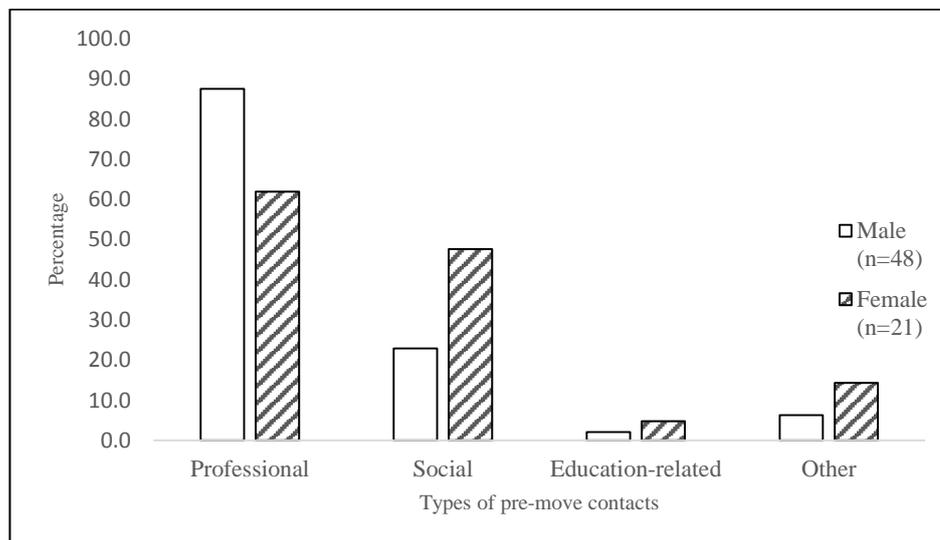
Australian economy is on its way down after failing to invest in knowledge based industries for the last two decades while riding the mining boom. It's so expensive that it's no longer an attractive destination for international bases looking to set up, or maintain, a base in the Asia Pacific. Professionals see the dark clouds coming and are leaving in droves as their jobs and relatively high wages won't be there in 2 years. South East Asia is the new boom region. Lots of Aussies here and I expect more. (Male respondent in his late thirties)

7.3.1 Influence of pre-move contacts on migration decision: Type and importance

The respondents were asked if they had contacts with people or organisations in Malaysia before moving, with subsequent questions on the type of contacts and information sources which prompted the move.

Figure 7.4 shows the types of contacts which the male and female respondents had before moving to Malaysia. Overall, the most selected response was ‘*professional*’ contact, although it was higher for males (88 per cent) than for females (62 per cent). There was also a clear distinction between males and females for ‘*social*’ contacts, with female responses (48 per cent) more than twice that of males (23 per cent). Female respondents who provided ‘*other*’ types of pre-move contacts in the open text-field stated that they had referred to the *spouse of husband’s colleague, husband’s employer and Australian expatriate association in Malaysia* before making the move. The lowest response was ‘*education-related*’ which implies that Malaysia was not the preferred study destination for the respondents.

Figure 7.4 Male and female respondents who had pre-move contacts in Malaysia



Source: AiM Survey 2014

7.3.2 Sources that prompted move

Respondents were asked about sources which prompted their move to Malaysia. Table 7.3 shows that the three most popular responses were ‘*networks in Australia*’, ‘*existing networks in Malaysia*’, and ‘*been to Malaysia before*’. The response rate for ‘networks in Australia’ was the same for males and females. However, there were stark differences for ‘*existing networks in Malaysia*’, and ‘*been to Malaysia before*’, with more males who had existing networks in Malaysia at 30 per cent compared with 17 per cent of females. In contrast, more females had been to Malaysia before compared to males. Females were also more likely to have been influenced by a partner or family going to Malaysia.

Table 7.3 Sources that prompted male and female respondents’ move to Malaysia (multiple responses, percentage indicating ‘yes’ to a list of specified reasons)

Sources	Male (n=75)	Female (n=30)	Total (n=105)
Networks in Australia	26.7	26.7	26.7
Existing networks in Malaysia	29.3	16.7	25.7
Been to Malaysia before	18.7	26.7	21.0
Partner or family going there	1.3	16.7	5.7
Experiences of others	4.0	6.7	4.8
Ad by migration agents	1.3	0.0	1.0
Other	30.7	30.0	30.5

Source: AiM Survey 2014

Other sources include internal transfer, recruitment firms, job advert

The migration decisions of females were more likely to be influenced by partner or family, with 17 per cent claiming that their spouses or family who were heading to Malaysia prompted them to move there too, compared to only one per cent of males. Three in every ten male and female respondents gave comments about the ‘*other*’ sources they had in the open-ended text field in the survey. There were 32 comments, with almost two-thirds being internal transfer, and nine said they were approached by recruitment firms, while others either saw job advertisements, or followed their family and friends who had migrated. The males’ responses tended to be job-related:

Approached an International organization, and the position that I was offered was in Malaysia. (Male in his late fifties, had been in Australia for 2-5 years)

Approached by Executive Search firm. (Male aged between 50-54 in the financial services sector, had stayed less than a year in Australia)

Business Development Role for South East Asia with my Company. (Male in his late forties, been in Australia for at least six years)

Contacted direct by Employer after they had viewed my profile on e-Financial Careers. (Male in his early fifties, working in the financial services sector)

Current employer opening office in Malaysia. (Male in his early thirties, moved to Australia in 2013)

Met Australians working / building businesses in Malaysia and exporting to Australia at trade shows. (Male aged between 35-39 in the oil, gas and energy sector)

Was posted here. (Male in his early forties, had been working in Australia between 2-5 years)

On the other hand, the females' responses were more likely to be influenced to be by informal sources:

Referred to his [spouse] ex-colleagues. (Female in her early fifties)

Family members and friends are here [in Malaysia]. (Female in her early thirties, had migrated to Malaysia more than 10 years ago)

Husband's work transfer. (Female in her early forties, had just arrived in Malaysia in 2014)

7.4 Lived elsewhere: Who and why?

Australians are considered to be adventurous, with tens of thousands of Australians heading overseas for holidays, work and other reasons. In cognisance of this, a set of questions were asked to examine the transnational patterns and characteristics of respondents. The main question asked whether they had lived in countries other than Malaysia and Australia, and more than half of the male and female respondents had done so. Table 7.4 shows that females were more well-travelled (80 per cent) compared to the males (68 per cent). It was also found that the older respondents were more likely to have lived elsewhere compared with the younger ones. Of particular note, it was

found that the majority of respondents, regardless of occupation and education level, had lived outside of Malaysia and Australia.

The ranking of reasons for living elsewhere were slightly different from those for moving to Malaysia, with ‘*Overseas job transfer*’ remaining the top reason for both male and female respondents. Interestingly, there were slightly more females (46 per cent) compared to males (41 per cent). One-third of the male respondents indicated ‘*better employment opportunities*’ while only 8 per cent of females did so. Education was the third most popular reason for migration to Malaysia for a quarter of females and 16 per cent of males, which was the lowest response for reasons to move.

Table 7.4 Reasons for living in other countries by male and female respondents (multiple responses, percentage indicating ‘yes’ to a list of specified reasons)

Reasons for living in other countries	Male (n=51)	Female (n=24)	Total (n=75)
Overseas job transfer	41.2	45.8	42.7
Better employment opportunities	33.3	8.3	25.3
Education	15.7	25.0	18.7
Lifestyle	17.6	12.5	16.0
Professional development	15.7	12.5	14.7
Marriage and partnership	15.7	8.3	13.3
Partner's employment	3.9	29.2	12.0
Career advancement	7.8	0.0	5.3
Family and friends	5.9	0.0	4.0
Other	15.7	16.7	16.0

Source: AiM Survey 2014

Reasons such as ‘*marriage and partnership*’ was slightly more important for males than females. On the other hand, females tended to move to follow their partner, more specifically for employment, with 29 per cent of female respondents stating ‘partner’s employment’ compared to 4 per cent of males. The other less significant reasons provided by the respondents in the open-ended text field include *travel*, *international cultural experience* and *birthplace*. Some of the respondents who agreed to be interviewed further expressed the benefits of being expatriates and being transnational in multiple destinations:

My job postings have brought my family and I to Switzerland, USA, France and The Philippines. The exposure and international experience had impacted my children positively in their growing years... (#107, male in his late fifties holding a high-level post in a big multi-national firm in Selangor)

I am now a SAHM [stay-at-home-mum] and never once regretted giving up my career and follow my husband everywhere he goes. We have lived in a few countries and have always been adventurous with our young kids... (#113, female in her early forties, moved from Abu Dhabi to KL)

7.5 Intentions to return

One of the most salient aspects of diaspora policy and study is the extent to which expatriates remain in the host countries. Ultimately, the rate of return matters for governments and development, particularly amongst their highly-skilled diaspora with global experience and exposure. It is therefore necessary to understand what factors, events or incentives that can influence the decision to return. The Australian government captures information on destination countries of Australians departing permanently through the outgoing passenger card, as well as the countries in which returnees spent most of their time abroad on the incoming passenger card. In the absence of information on return intentions, it is interesting to examine the responses relating to the intentions of the survey respondents to return to Australia.

Figure 7.5 shows that half of the respondents said that they would return to Australia, with slightly more females (63 per cent) compared to males (45 per cent). Some 40 per cent of the respondents were undecided about returning, while almost 8 per cent indicated that they would not. It was found that males were generally more pessimistic about returning than was the case for females.

Figure 7.5 Intentions of male and female respondents to return to Australia to live



Source: AiM Survey 2014

The age of respondents appeared to have only a small influence on return intentions, with 60 per cent of the younger group claiming that they intend to return compared to 50 per cent of the older respondents. Interestingly, it was only those aged 40 and above who did not intend to return. There were also slightly more senior respondents, particularly those above 50 years who were undecided about returning compared to the younger group.

The respondents were also asked about their citizenship, and it was interesting that citizenship had a considerable influence on their intentions to return. Almost half of the respondents who indicated that they intended to return still held Australian citizenship, while 44 per cent of those with Australian citizens were undecided, and a small 7 per cent claimed that they were not returning. It is also worth noting that the citizenship of spouses appeared to be a determinant of intentions to return. Table 7.5 shows that respondents partnering Australian spouses were most likely to return to Australia (61 per cent), while one-third were undecided, and only 5 per cent said 'no'. It is important to note that almost 80 per cent of those with Malaysian partners were undecided about returning to Australia and some 14 per cent least likely to return. This suggests that some may decide to stay in Malaysia permanently with their Malaysian spouses. The intentions to return of respondents who had spouses with other citizenships was lower (42 per cent) with a similar percentage 'undecided', but more (16 per cent) indicating that they would not return to Australia.

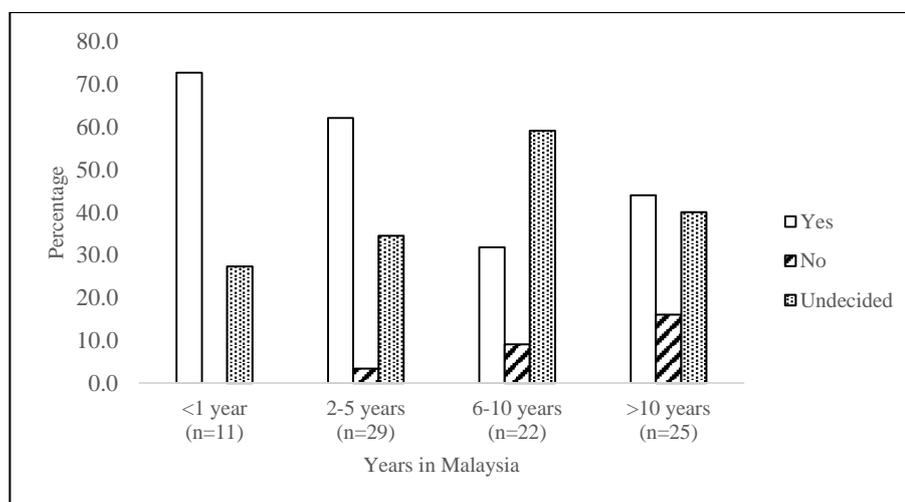
Table 7.5 Intention of respondents to return to Australia to live by citizenship of spouse

Intention to return	Citizenship of spouse			Total (n=90)
	Australian (n=57)	Malaysian (n=14)	Other (n=19)	
Yes	14.3	61.4	42.1	50.0
No	7.1	5.3	15.8	7.8
Undecided	78.6	33.3	42.1	42.2
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: AiM Survey 2014

Of particular note, the length of stay in Malaysia appeared to have an impact on the return intentions of respondents (Figure 7.6). As the length of stay increased, the number of 'yes' responses decreased except for those who had stayed in Malaysia for more than 10 years. In contrast, the rate of those who responded 'no' and *undecided* increased. It is also important to note that most who considered returning home appeared to be newly arrived migrants who had only been in Malaysia for a year or so.

Figure 7.6 Return intentions of respondents by length of stay in Malaysia

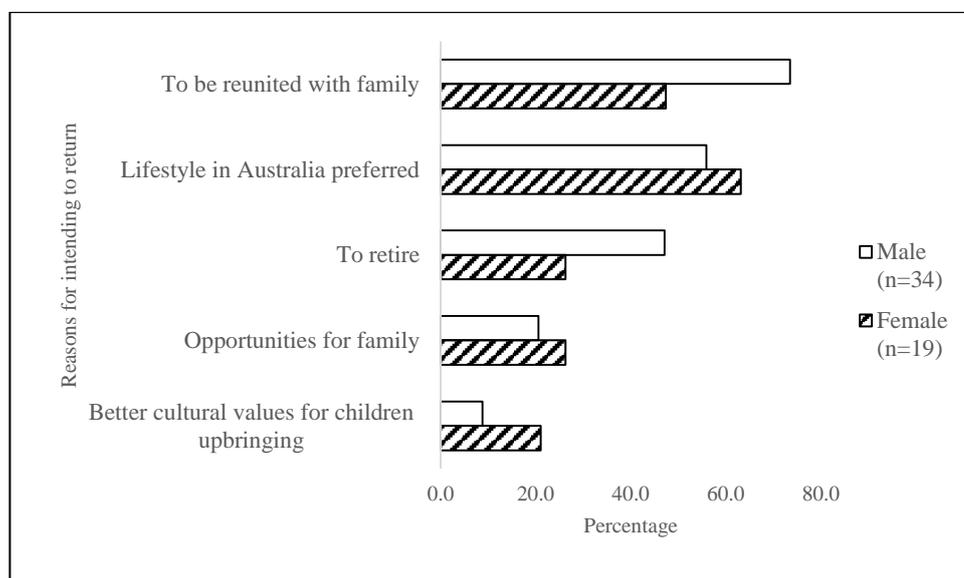


Source: AiM Survey 2014

7.5.1 Motivation for return

Survey respondents who responded positively about their return intentions to Australia were asked the reasons for doing so. Figure 7.7 shows the five most popular responses given by the male and female respondents, which are in sharp contrast to the reasons given for their decision to move overseas. Although economic reasons were dominant for their multiple moves outside of Australia, it was clear that non-economic reasons were significant factors attracting potential returnees.

Figure 7.7 Top 5 reasons given by male and female respondents who intend to return to Australia to live (multiple responses, percentage indicating ‘yes’ to a list of specified reasons)



Source: AiM Survey 2014

It was interesting to find that males were more likely to return to be reunited with family and to retire compared with females. On the other hand, females tended to return for the Australian lifestyle and for better cultural values for the upbringing of their children compared to males. They were also more likely to make sacrifices for their family, as 26 per cent said they would return if there were opportunities for the family in Australia, compared with one-fifth of males. One of the female respondents who agreed to be interviewed said:

I gave up my professional career to follow my husband to many places for his job postings but nothing like Malaysia. We love it here. However, I reckon I'd still would have preferred to raise my children in Australia, it's just different... the school system, the way Australians embrace the sport culture, and I think that is very important. (#113, female who is a stay at home mum after giving up her career)

There were also some other reasons which were provided by the survey respondents in which demonstrate the strong connection of Australians with home:

Australia is home. (Female respondents in her early forties)

Children's education. (Male respondents in his early forties)

Security of future, family and ease of living. (Female respondents in her late forties)

Ultimately it [Malaysia] is not home so I feel like although it is great to have the opportunity overseas, I will always want to go home for myself, my husband and our kids. (Female respondent aged 40-44)

One respondent provided a reason which was more of a 'push' factor to leave Malaysia:

Longer term the institutionalised racism overwhelms all that is good about Malaysia. (Female respondent in her late forties)

The other less popular responses included '*do not appreciate the climate here*', '*better economic prospects in Australia*' and '*people here not as friendly*'. The least popular reason was '*marriage*'. Overall, these results were quite similar to The Australian Emigration Survey 2002 findings where family and lifestyle were the dominant reasons given for returning to Australia, with little importance given to economic factors (Hugo, Rudd & Harris 2003, p.51).

The five most popular reasons for returning were similar when analysis considered the respondents' age. '*To be reunited with family*' was the most prominent response, followed by '*lifestyle in Australia preferred*'. Some two-thirds of the younger respondents preferred the Australian lifestyle compared with 58 per cent of the older ones. As anticipated, the older respondents were more likely to return to retire (42 per cent). Ironically, two-thirds of the younger respondents indicated that they would return to Australia for the upbringing of their children compared to only 10 per cent of the

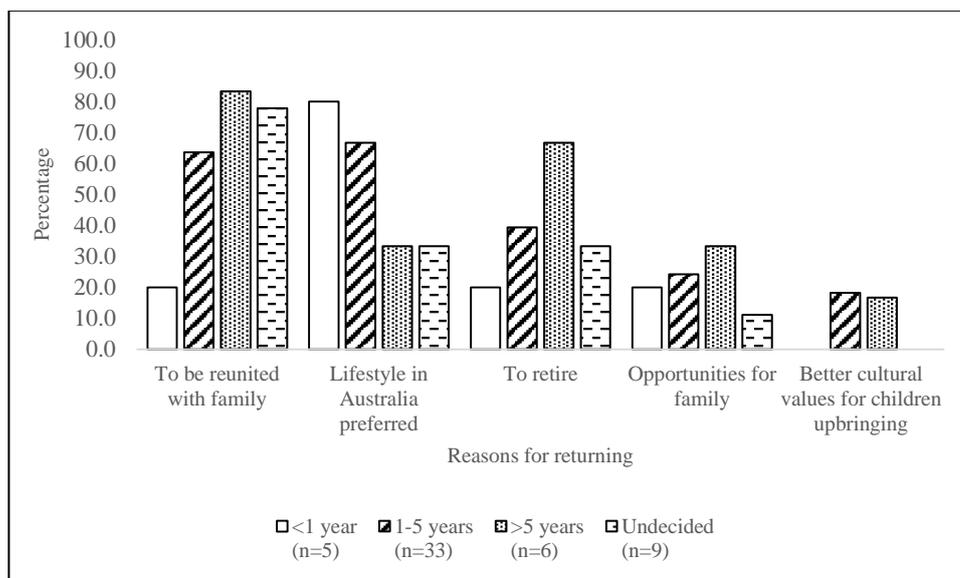
older respondents. It was also found that over two-thirds of the younger respondents claimed that they did not appreciate the Malaysian climate compared with 4 per cent of the older group.

7.5.2 Future plans to return

This section further elaborates on the return decision according to the planned time frame to return. Figure 7.8 shows that family reunion is the most favoured reason for intending to return to Australia regardless of the time spent in Malaysia though not during the first year abroad. Notably, respondents who planned to return within the first year tended to prefer the Australian lifestyle. It is common given that they may not be comfortable with the new environment at the beginning. However, the rate of return reduced across time as they adapt.

It was found that the two-thirds of those who intended to retire in Australia were more likely to do so after five years in Malaysia. Similarly, one-third who were thinking of returning should there be opportunities for family members in Australia other than for themselves, were also more likely to return after five years.

Figure 7.8 Top 5 reasons for returning by when planned time to return



Source: AiM Survey 2014

Reasons for returning to Australia were similar for *'to be reunited with family'*, *'to retire'* and *'opportunities for family'*, with the rate of return increasing over time. Family-related reasons and retirement plans remained influential in the return decision of the respondents. It is important to highlight that most Australian expatriates in Malaysia will likely to either return to Australia or move on to another country after their current contract expired in Malaysia. It is compulsory for expatriates to have contract employment to stay in the country as there is lack of opportunities to obtain other immigration passes such as permanent residency in Malaysia.

7.6 Not returning: Why and what needs to happen?

In examining return migration, the reasons given for not intending to return are of equal importance and policy interest. There were eight respondents who gave reasons for not returning, two were females and interestingly, they perceived that the employment opportunities were better in Malaysia and there were no equivalent jobs in Australia. Four of the male respondents indicated that they preferred the lifestyle in Malaysia. The other reasons for not returning provided in the open-ended text field included:

Prefer the climate here [Malaysia] and it is more affordable to live and retire here. People generally show respect for seniors. (Male respondent in his early seventies)

We will eventually move to Ireland as wife is Irish. (Male respondent in his early forties)

One respondent provided his overall comment with regards to the differences between Malaysian and Australia which influenced his intention to return:

I have enjoyed a long stay in Malaysia and have gradually got used to the things here that are different to Australia. The lifestyle and attitudes are quite different. It is sometimes difficult for me to re-assimilate when I'm back home in Australia. (Male respondent in his late thirties)

This study found that only a very small number of respondents were not keen to return, and many were still undecided about returning. Of the 13 respondents who were willing to provide more information about their migration experiences, seven had intentions to return to Australia while the remaining six were undecided. Two of the respondents who were undecided said:

Well it [return to Australia] depends on whether my company will extend my tenure here in Malaysia, or re-assign me to another location. Could be anywhere in the world...
(#119, male expatriate in the financial services, age early forties)

I have been posted many times and I don't think Malaysia will be the final destination... so yes, still undecided about when exactly will we return to Australia. **(#107, senior male expatriate in the fast moving consumer goods sector)**

7.6.1 Incentives to return

Respondents who said that they would not return were asked a question about what was required to change their mind about returning to Australia. All five responses came from male respondents as follow:

Family-related reason. **(Male in his early seventies, held a 10-year Residence Pass-Talent (RP-T))**

A divorce, but then would stay in Malaysia. **(Male in his early forties, had a Permanent Residency in Malaysia)**

If my ability to stay in Malaysia was terminated. **(Male in his late sixties, held an Employment Pass)**

My current role would have to be terminated. **(Male RP-T pass holder, aged between 45-49)**

Significant political and social unrest. **(Male RP-T pass holder in his late fifties)**

Interestingly, besides family, the other responses could be considered as 'push' factors from Malaysia. It indicates that the respondents were satisfied with the situation in Australia, and did not leave because they were forced to. Moreover, they did not appear to have further expectations from the Australian government in engaging Australians like themselves abroad. In this regards, several follow-up interviews were conducted with those who were willing to provide more information about their migration and settlement experiences. Questions were asked about what they thought should be done by the Australian government in terms of diaspora engagement. Some of the responses are as follows:

Probably not, expatriation is a personal thing, [maybe] eliminate capital gains tax for non-residents... but I do not think that the [Australian] government needs to do more than what they are currently doing in engaging citizens abroad. (#107, male expatriate in his late fifties)

We did not register ourselves at The Australian High Commission in KL as we do not see the need to. We are here to experience living in another foreign country and if we like it, we may think of extending our stay here. No intention to return as yet though Australia is more developed, advanced compared to here [Malaysia]... (#68, male in his early fifties)

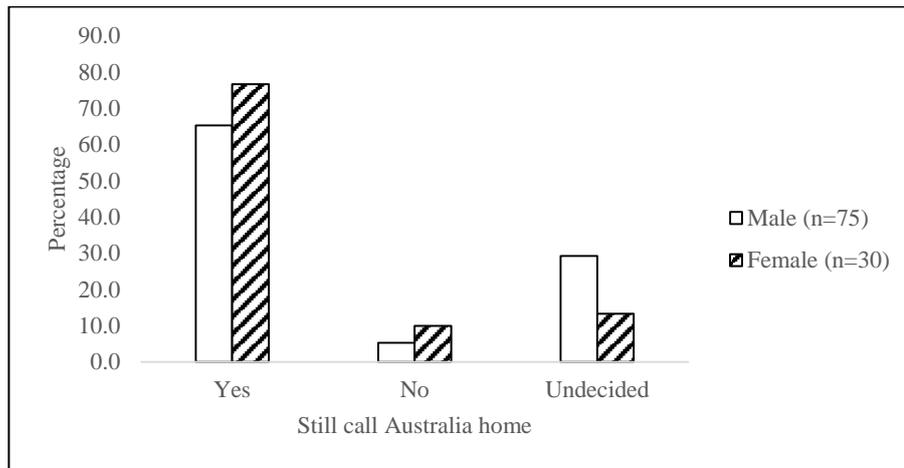
7.7 Settlement experiences and links with Australia

Analysis of census and immigration data have shown the increasing number of arrivals and departures from Australia to Malaysia (Figure 4.13, Chapter 4). The earlier sections provided background to the reasons for migration and the changing international mobility patterns. This section continues to discuss the post-migration settlement experiences in Malaysia and how important connections are being maintained by the respondents. This is particularly important for those who do not intend, or were undecided, about returning home. It is important to understand how they identify with Australia, or the countries in which they had lived, and how their mobility plans may influence their asset ownership decisions.

7.7.1 Identification with Australia

Respondents were asked if they still considered Australia to be home. Figure 7.9 shows that the majority responded positively, 77 per cent females and 65 per cent of males. Almost a quarter of the respondents indicated that they were undecided, almost a third of males compared to only 13 per cent of females. All respondents aged 30 and above responded compared to only 5 of the younger group. Overall, two-thirds regarded Australia as home, while over a quarter were undecided, and only a small number replied 'no' meaning that Australia was not considered to be home. All the five younger respondents gave positive responses. This confirms earlier findings that the majority of the Australians identify strongly with Australia as home, and many had gone overseas for employment and career-related opportunities, and were often engaged in contract employment for specified periods of time.

Figure 7.9 Response given by male and female respondents to ‘still call Australia home’

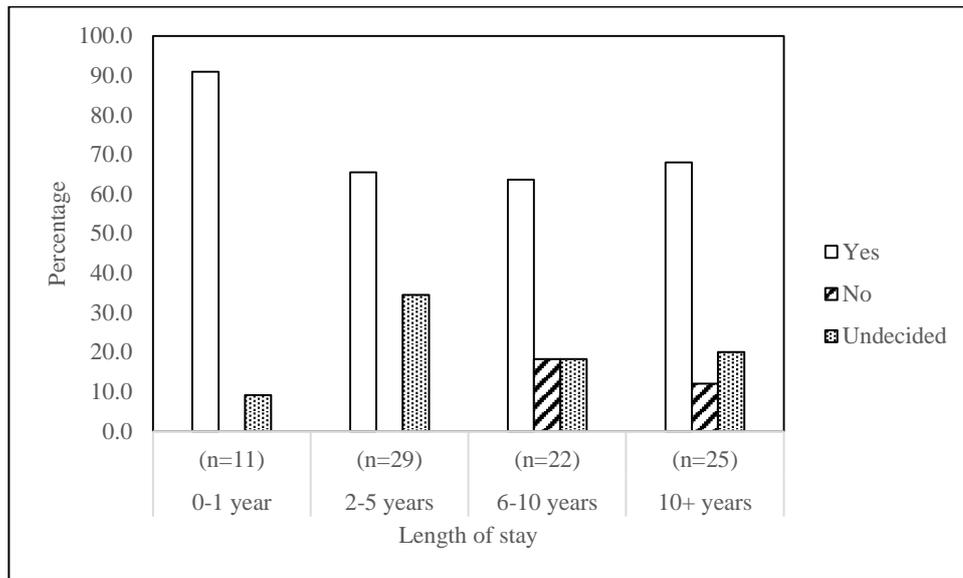


Source: AiM Survey 2014

It is worth noting that the country of birth and citizenship had a considerable influence on the response to still considering Australia home. Two-thirds of respondents who were born in Australia, and some 69 per cent still holding Australian citizenship responded positively to the question, while 28 per cent of the Australia-born respondents, and a quarter with Australian citizenship were undecided. Only a small portion did not consider Australia to be home.

Figure 7.10 shows that as the number of years respondents had spent in Malaysia increased, the number of 'yes' responses decreased and 'no' increased between the first and tenth year since arrival. This pattern however changed slightly after the tenth year where there was an increase in the positive responses and a decrease in the negative responses. The percentage of those who were undecided increased significantly between the first and the fifth year since arrival.

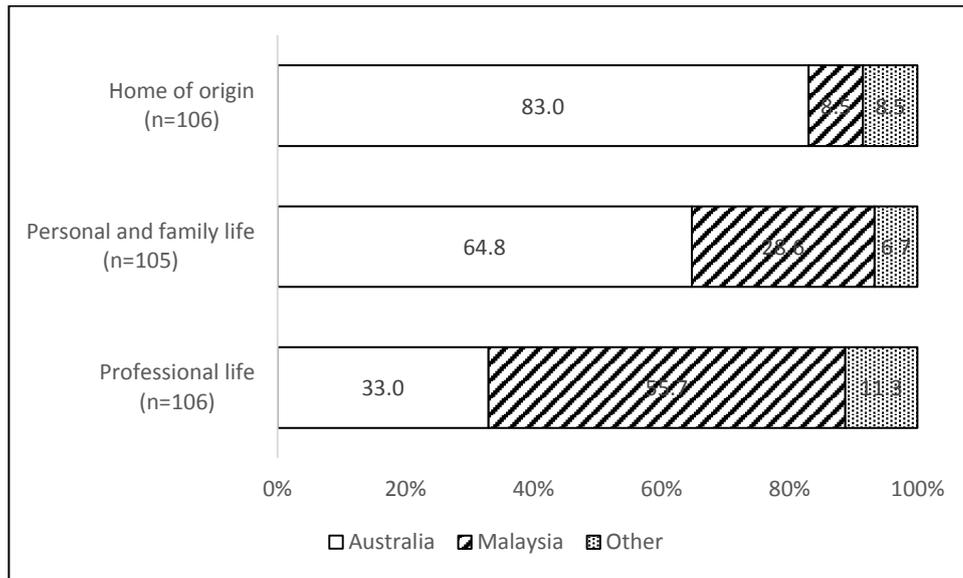
Figure 7.10 Response given by respondents to ‘still call Australia home’ by years in Malaysia



Source: AiM Survey 2014

Literature shows that as a result of transnationalisation, people may attach to more than one country in different spheres in life (Faist et al. 2013). This multiple form of identification extends beyond borders. Besides analysing the respondents' identification with 'home', a set of questions were asked on which country they strongly identified with regards to '*home of origin*', '*personal and family life*' and '*professional life*'. Figure 7.11 shows that 83 per cent of the respondents related to Australia as home of origin, 65 per cent identified their personal and family life closely to Australia, and about one-third of the respondents identified their professional life with Australia while more than half indicated Malaysia. This is anticipated since they were residing and working in Malaysia when the survey was undertaken.

Figure 7.11 Respondents' identification with countries



Source: AiM Survey 2014

Some explanation of the multiple identification were provided during the follow-up interviews:

My wife and I have always known that we will return home [Australia] someday. There's no question about it. Furthermore, my mother-in-law has cancer... Somehow, we still relate our personal and family life with Australia. I see Malaysia as my current job location though I enjoy the cheaper cost of living here... (#115, male expatriate in his late fifties)

I have many 'homes'. I am originally from the USA. Married and settled in Sydney with my spouse. Worked in Australia and a few countries before landing a job in Malaysia. I somehow still relate my family life to Australia, and Malaysia is just a work destination for me. (#126, male expatriate in his late thirties)

Though I no longer hold Malaysian citizenship, Malaysia will always be my home of origin. My wife and children are all now staying in Melbourne, so I have come to realise that Australia is where I relate my family life and not Malaysia. I've still my businesses here [Malaysia]... (#91, ex-Malaysian who is now an Australian citizen in his late fifties)

7.7.2 Visits to Australia

Regular visits home are considered as a good way to maintain linkages with Australia, and respondents were asked about the frequency of trips they had made to Australia in 2013, as well as the reasons and length of stay for those visit(s). Table 7.6 shows that

a large proportion of the respondents made between one to three visits home in that year. It was found that 21 per cent of male respondents made more than three visits compared to 17 per cent of females. Only 12 per cent said that they did not visit Australia in that year, with little difference between males and females.

Table 7.6 Frequency of visit(s) in 2013 by male and female respondents

No. of visit in 2013	Male (n=75)	Female (n=30)	Total (n=105)
Never	12.0	13.3	12.4
1-3 times	66.7	70.0	67.6
>3 times	21.3	16.7	20.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: AiM Survey 2014

It was found that there was an increase in the number of visits back to Australia by age, with the older respondents visiting Australia more frequently. One-fifth of those aged 30 or more had made more than three visits home while none of the younger respondents (aged below 30 years) did so. Quite a large proportion (40 per cent) of those aged under 30 years claimed that they never visited Australia in 2013, while only 11 per cent of the older group had made no visits.

It is interesting to find from the survey (AiM) that 80 per cent of respondents currently employed in the information, communication and technology sector made between one to three visits to Australia in 2013, while those in the business and financial services had visited Australia more frequently, with over one-third making more than three visits. It is also interesting to examine the frequency of visits against the return intentions of the respondents. Table 7.7 shows that there were two categories of respondent who had intentions to return to Australia. Firstly, those who intended to return, but did not visit Australia in 2013 (54 per cent). Secondly, the respondents who had intentions to return and high rates of visits back home, with some 57 per cent visiting Australia more than three times in 2013. There were also a high number of visits for respondents who were undecided about returning, with about 40 per cent visiting Australia at least three times in that year. It is also evident that the rate of visits were very low for those who had no intentions of returning.

Table 7.7 Intentions to return to live in Australia and frequency of visits by respondents

Intention to return	Never (n=13)	1-3 times (n=72)	>3 times (n=21)	Total (n=106)
Yes	53.8	47.2	57.1	50.0
No	7.7	9.7	0.0	7.5
Undecided	38.5	43.1	42.9	42.5
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: AiM Survey 2014

In terms of average length of stay on visits, Table 7.8 shows that 62 per cent stayed between one to two weeks. More males were found to be making short trips of less than a week compared to females. In contrast, females happened to stay for a longer duration during their visits, i.e. two week to a month.

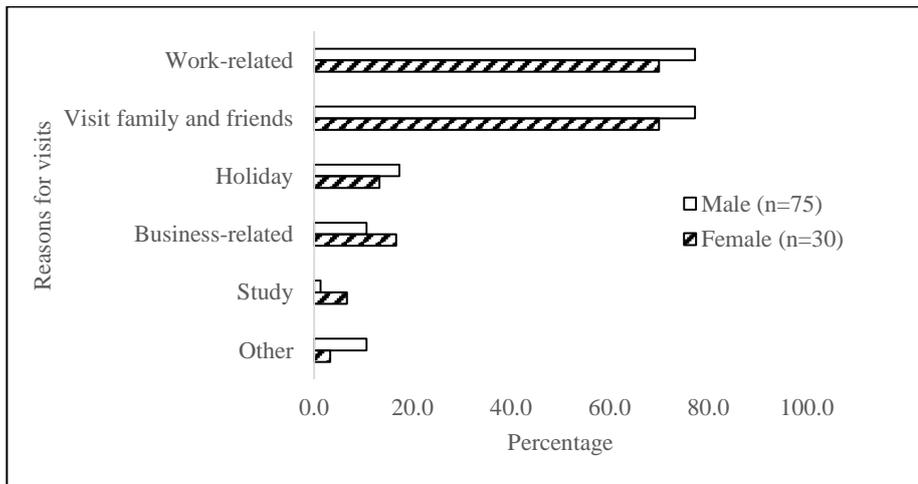
Table 7.8 Average length of stay on visits to Australia

Average length of stay on visits	Male (n=66)	Female (n=26)	Total (n=92)
<1 week	19.8	7.7	16.3
1 to 2 weeks	60.6	65.4	62.0
>2 weeks to <1 month	13.6	19.2	15.2
1 month to <3 months	1.5	0.0	1.1
>6 months	4.5	7.7	5.4
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: AiM Survey 2014

About three quarters of respondents primarily went back to Australia for work and to visit family and friends. In both cases, there were more males compared with females. The next most popular response was to have a holiday in Australia, with 17 per cent of males and 13 per cent of females. Contrary to popular belief, more female visits were business-related (17 per cent) compared to 11 per cent of males. The lowest response was for study, 7 per cent of females and one per cent of males gave that as a reason for their visits home. These short visits include attending university open days and short-term courses in Australia.

Figure 7.12 Reasons for visits to Australia (multiple responses, percentage indicating ‘yes’ to a list of specified reasons)



Source: AiM Survey 2014

There were 11 respondents who provided other reasons in the open-text field. Of the 11, two cited ‘*funeral*’, the rest cited ‘*birthday*’, ‘*birthday and wedding*’, ‘*I lived there*’, ‘*medical*’, ‘*only left Australia two months ago*’, ‘*sporting event, i.e. marathon*’, ‘*university open days*’, ‘*wedding*’, ‘*wedding and medical*’. In other words, mainly for celebration or life events.

7.7.3 Maintaining contacts

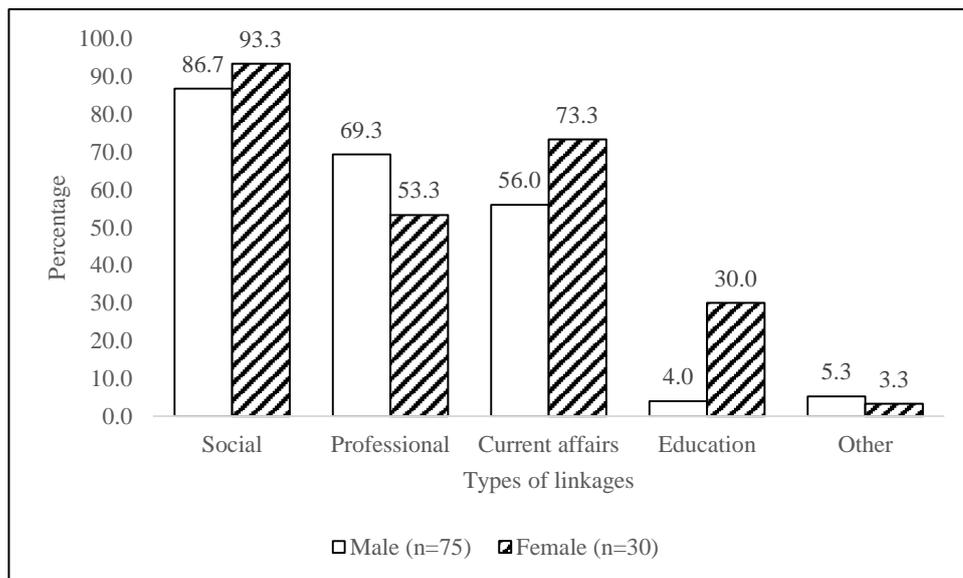
Besides the visits home, another form of maintaining transnational networks is by the contacts with people, and organisations such as hometown associations (HTAs) in Australia. There was an extremely positive response, with some 94 per cent of males and females claiming that they maintained contacts with people and organisations in Australia. It was found that the responses were very positive across ages, occupation, industry sector, and income group.

To further understand the reasons of maintaining such contacts, the respondents were asked a set of questions relating to the types of linkages they kept with those contacts in Australia. The multiple-response answers listed were given: i) Social linkages, which include family and friends); ii) Current affairs, which refer to respondents’ interest to keep abreast with news updates back in Australia; iii) Professional contacts, which

denote employment and business-related interactions; and iv) Education, which mainly refers to study-related information and updates.

Figure 7.13 shows that the social linkages feature strongly as the main type of contact maintained by the respondents with Australia, with slightly more females giving that response than males. This was followed by professional contacts, current affairs and education. The male respondents were found to be more professionally connected to Australia compared to females. Interestingly, more females appeared to be keeping abreast with current affairs back home. Some 70 per cent of them followed the news and development updates in Australia compared to 56 per cent of males. Another 30 per cent of females indicated study as their linkages with Australia, while for males this was only 4 per cent.

Figure 7.13 Types of linkages with Australia by male and female respondents in Malaysia (multiple responses, percentage indicating ‘yes’ to a list of specified reasons)



Source: AiM Survey 2014

Five of the survey respondents gave other comments with regards to linkages kept with Australia, and four could be categorised as professional linkages. Their remarks are as follow:

Involved in Australian charity activities. (Male respondent in his late sixties)

LinkedIn [Professionally connected with Australians back home]. (Male respondent in his late fifties)

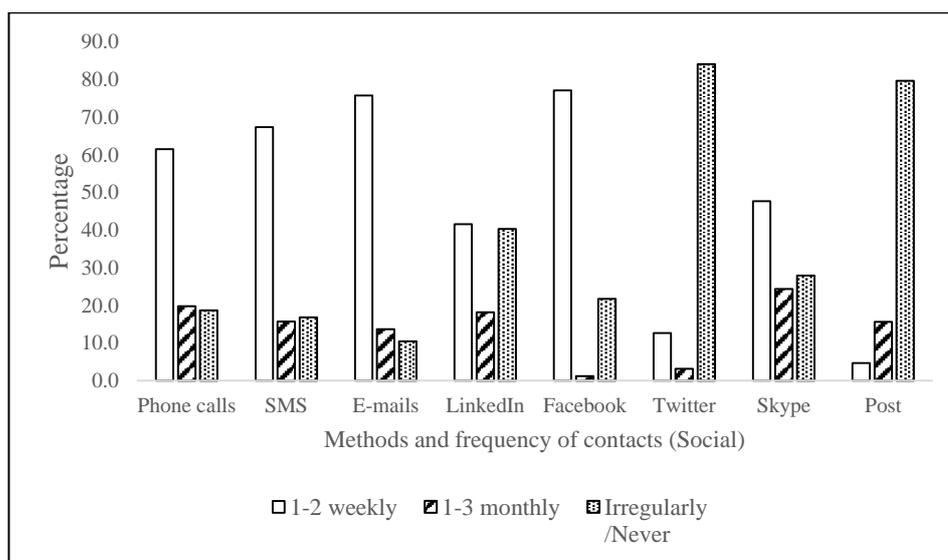
Own property [in Australia]. (Male respondent in his late thirties)

An estate agent for investment property in Australia, (Male respondent in his early forties)

We have a business in Australia as well. (Female respondent in her early fifties)

Subsequent questions with regards to methods and frequency of maintaining contact were asked. Figure 7.14 shows that the most popular methods of keeping in touch with social contact in Australia were Facebook and e-mails, with 77 per cent indicating that they use Facebook weekly and fortnightly to keep in touch with their friends and family back home, while three quarters used e-mails.

Figure 7.14 Methods and frequency of networking with social contacts in Australia



Source: AiM Survey 2014

The availability of cheap and free short message service (SMS) and also affordable phone calls, were the next most popular modes of maintaining contact with social networks in Australia. Free cross-platform mobile messaging application like WhatsApp allows messages to be exchanged without having to pay. In addition to basic messaging, WhatsApp users can create groups, exchange unlimited images, audio and video files. Two of the survey respondents who were interviewed said:

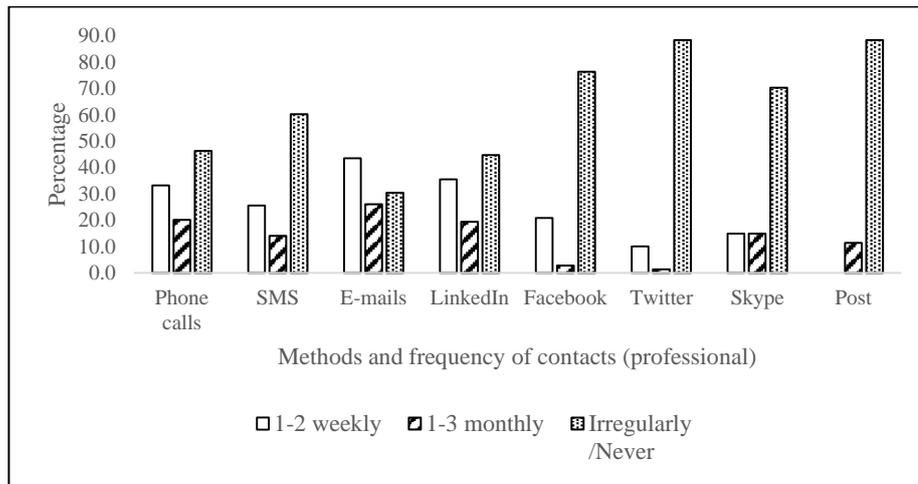
It is so easy and cheap, or almost free to stay in touch with people back home. I am in so many WhatsApp groups: family members, different group of friends, even ex-schoolmates! (#29, male in his early forties)

I interact with my wife and children daily using WhatsApp. It's literally FOC [free-of-charge] as long as you are within a free Wi-Fi zone, you can WhatsApp! (#91, male in his late fifties)

Some 48 per cent of respondents used Skype to interact with family and friends back home. As anticipated, the use of Twitter and post were the least popular. It is apparent that social media was the most widely and frequently used methods to keep in touch for the respondents. In fact, two survey respondents stated that they use Instagram too. Instagram enables its users to take pictures and videos, and share them across many other types of social networking platforms like Facebook, Twitter Tumblr and Flickr.

Besides social contacts, the respondents were also asked questions pertaining to their frequency of maintaining contact with their professional networks in Australia. Figure 7.15 shows that the three most preferred modes of contact used for professional contacts was e-mails (44 per cent), followed by LinkedIn (36 per cent) and phone calls (33 per cent).

Figure 7.15 Methods and frequency of networking with professional contacts in Australia



Source: AiM Survey 2014

Similar to social correspondence, the post was the least popular method of contact as 88 per cent of the respondents indicated that they irregularly or never use mail to interact with their professional contacts in Australia. Social media like Facebook, Twitter and Skype were also not preferred by the respondents. A low percentage of respondents indicated that they use the social media frequently, while a large proportion claimed that it was used irregularly or not at all. This is not surprising as these respondents were predominantly above 40 years of age, and were holding senior positions in multinational corporations in Malaysia. A male respondent in his late forties made a comment with regards to the frequency of keeping in touch with his professional contacts as follows:

It really depends on what is going on. In some cases, it can be a month between contacts, at other time, hours.

7.7.4 Affiliations with professional organisations in Australia

In addition to short visits home to Australia, maintaining contacts via information and communication technology, affiliations with professional organisations is considered a significant form of maintaining linkages. Some 44 per cent of respondents indicated that they belonged to professional organisations in Malaysia, with more females (50 per cent) than males (41 per cent) doing so. It is intriguing to find that more than half of the respondents holding managerial and professional jobs claimed that they were not affiliated with professional organisations in Australia.

It is worth noting that the respondents in education (64 per cent), business and financial services (57 per cent) were more likely to stay affiliated with professional organisations back home. The listed organisations include: Certified Practicing Accountants (CPA) Australia, Institute of Chartered Accountants Australia, Law Society, Tax Institute and Institute of Engineers. Excerpts from interviews conducted with two respondents on their professional affiliations with Australia are as follows:

I thought it would make sense to continue being professionally affiliated with Australia though I have started my own financial consultancy here. (#37, male in his early thirties, owns financial consultancy in Malaysia)

I'm in the education line. It is important to maintain partnerships with a few of the key institutions in Australia as well as other countries for my business... but mainly Australia. (#44, male in his early fifties)

7.8 Intra-networks

Another form of attachment or identification is the relationships established with fellow Australians in Malaysia. Eighty per cent of respondents gave positive responses regardless of sex, age, and occupation status. However there were slight differences by sectors and length of stay in Malaysia. It was found that respondents who were working in the business and financial services were more likely to maintain contact with other Australians in Malaysia (86 per cent). This was followed by those in the oil, gas and energy (80 per cent) and information and communication technology (80 per cent).

It is not surprising to find that there is an inverse relationship between length of stay and rate of connection. As length of time increased, the percentage of those who maintain contact with fellow Australians in Malaysia decreased from 90 per cent in the first year to 68 per cent after ten years. It is important to note that those who were undecided about returning to Australia tended to be more connected with fellow Australians in Malaysia (86 per cent), while slightly less for those intended to return (79 per cent), followed by those who were not returning to Australia (75 per cent).

Respondents were also asked if they participated in Australian-based organisations while living in Malaysia, and it was found that males (41 per cent) were more likely to do so than was the case for females (38 per cent). Moreover, over 70 per cent of those

who participated in such organisations were aged between 40 and 59 years, with about a quarter under 40, and only 5 per cent amongst those aged above 60 years.

Similar to prior analysis on the effects of length of years in Malaysia, it was found that 55 per cent participated in organisations in Malaysia within the first year, which decreased to 46 per cent between 2-5 years, dropping to only 24 per cent after ten years (Table 7.9). Interestingly, four in every seven respondents who remained professionally affiliated with organisation in Australia claimed that they participated in Australian-related organisations in Malaysia.

Table 7.9 Rate of participation in Australian-based organisations in Malaysia by length of stay

Participate in Australia-based organisation in Malaysia	0-1 year (n=11)	2-5 years (n=28)	6-10 years (n=21)	>10 years (n=25)
Yes	54.5	46.4	42.9	24.0
No	45.5	53.6	57.1	76.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: AiM Survey 2014

Some two-thirds of the respondents from the wholesale, retail, tourism and healthcare sectors indicated that they participated in activities organised by Australian organisations locally. This was followed by some 40 per cent from the information and communication technology sector. The lowest responses were from those in the education sector (18 per cent). Respondents were given the opportunity to list the Australian or expatriate organisations in which they were involved, and they were categorised under three groups: i) Social and community which included mainly the Malaysia Australia New Zealand Association (MANZA), the Malaysian Warriors Australian Rules Football Club, and alumni association; ii) Business and professional organisation such as Malaysia Australia Business Councils; and iii) Others³⁴.

Table 7.10 shows that an overwhelming majority of respondents replied positively on their engagement with social and community-related organisations, with males and females giving proportionately similar responses. It was found that females (17 per cent)

³⁴ Auskick, Australian International School in Malaysia (AISM), KL Mountain Bike Hash

were more likely to participate in business and professional associations such as the Australia Malaysia Business Council (AMBC) compared with males (13 per cent) though the difference was small.

Table 7.10 Participation in Australian-based organisations in Malaysia

Types of Australian-based organisation in Malaysia	Male (n=31)	Female (n=12)	Total (n=43)
Social/Community	83.9	83.3	83.7
Business/Professional	12.9	16.7	14.0
Other	3.2	0.0	2.3
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: AiM Survey 2014

7.9 Overseas presence

It can be argued that it is in the interest of the Australian government to tap into the huge diaspora talent pool globally, including those in Malaysia. Therefore it is important to understand to what extent the Australian diaspora perceive themselves to be beneficial to Australia. Questions were asked with regards to what the respondents thought were their contribution to Australia by them being overseas, and whether they felt that their overseas presence was beneficial to Australia. There was a high positive response, with two-thirds of respondents perceiving their presence overseas had benefits for Australia, slightly more males (69 per cent) than females (60 per cent). Almost three quarters of the respondents aged between 40-59 years perceived that their overseas presence benefited Australia, which was less among the younger and older group.

More respondents who were holding managerial and professional positions tended to perceive that their overseas presence brought benefits to Australia than was the case for other groups. This demonstrates that there are many Australians who can potentially contribute to the long-term advancement of their home country. Nonetheless, the understanding of the importance of their overseas presence would not be complete without knowing the specific benefits. Table 7.11 presents the benefits indicated by male and female respondents.

Table 7.11 Benefits of overseas presence to Australia (*multiple responses, percentage indicating ‘yes’ to a list of specified reasons*)

Overseas presence benefits Malaysia	Male (n=75)	Female (n=30)	Total (n=105)
Learn skills & gain experiences transferable back to Australia	42.7	33.3	40.0
Existing contacts useful for other Australians	40.0	30.0	37.1
Create goodwill towards Australia	40.0	30.0	37.1
Good ambassadors for Australia	36.0	30.0	34.3
Create business/trade links with Australian companies	36.0	20.0	31.4
Investment opportunities	26.7	10.0	21.9
Other	5.3	6.7	5.7

Source: AiM Survey 2014

Overall, males were more positive about their overseas presence with some 43 per cent indicating that the skills and experiences they have gained would be transferable back to Australia, compared to one-third of females. Some 40 per cent of males and 30 per cent of females indicated ‘*existing contacts useful for Australians*’ and ‘*create goodwill towards Australia*’ were important benefits of them being overseas. Of particular note, the males were also more likely to contribute to the Australian economy through business links and opportunities. There were more males who claimed that they were good ambassadors for Australia (36 per cent), create business and trade links with Australian companies (36 per cent) and generate investment opportunities (27 per cent) compared to females.

Based on interviewee responses, it is intriguing to note that some felt that they should integrate with the local setting and not be ‘*Aussie*’ while living in other countries. Two such examples which were given:

...I am proud of being an Australian, don’t get me wrong... However, I do not promote the fact that I’m from Australia, and consciously don’t want to be seen as Australian... Didn’t come to Msia to experience Australia, what is the point of being overseas if you mix with your fellow country man and not integrate with the locals? That’s just my viewpoint... (#68, male in his early fifties)

We didn’t come here [Malaysia] to experience Australia if you get what I mean... Didn’t bother to mingle with fellow Australians here... (#115, male in his late fifties)

In examining the perceived benefits for Australia by sector, it was found that respondents from sectors such as education, financial services, information and communication technology (ICT), and also oil, gas and energy were more optimistic about their positive contribution to Australia. Some 58 per cent of respondents from the education sector perceived that their existing contacts were useful for other Australians, followed by financial services (50 per cent) and ICT (40 per cent). It was also found that one-third of respondents in the oil, gas and energy sector stated that besides their useful contacts, their skills and experience were transferable back to Australia. Similar to their fellow Australians in the other sectors, they believed that they were good ambassadors for Australia, thus creating goodwill, as well as business and investment opportunities. Some 68 per cent of those who thought they were contributing from abroad still considered Australia to be home. It was also found about two-thirds of the respondents who were born in Australia or were still holding Australian citizenship were more likely to consider that their overseas presence benefited Australia.

7.10 Ownership of assets

Asset ownership and investments of the diaspora are considered important linkages with the home country. Apart from the frequent short visits home, long distance communication and affiliations to hometown associations, financial remittances, properties and investments are often less tangible connections, if not more important, between country of origin and residence. The respondents were asked a set of multiple-response questions about their asset ownership in Malaysia and Australia. Property refers to tangible and intangible things owned such as land, buildings, money, copyrights and patents. Home was being considered separately from property for the purpose of this study (Table 7.12).

Table 7.12 Assets owned by the respondents in Malaysia, Australia and other countries Australia (multiple responses, percentage indicating ‘yes’ to a list of specified reasons)

Assets owned	Malaysia	Australia	Malaysia & Australia	No ownership
Home	10.4	32.8	9.0	42.5
Property	5.2	28.4	3.0	58.2
Business	9.0	2.2	5.2	81.3
Bank account	7.5	6.7	48.5	21.6
Financial investments	5.2	25.4	13.4	44.0
Other	1.5	1.5	1.5	94.0

Source: AiM Survey 2014

Table 7.12 shows that a high percentage of respondents claimed that they did not own business, property, or any other types of assets or investments. It is not surprising to find that more respondents indicated that they own a home (33 per cent), property (28 per cent) and financial investments (25 per cent) in Australia. Only 10 per cent said they own a home in Malaysia. Interestingly, there were more respondents owning business in Malaysia (9 per cent) compared with 2 per cent in Australia. Almost half of the respondents owned bank accounts in both Malaysia and Australia as it requires less maintenance and it is easy to open one. Having a bank account in a few countries demonstrates that the respondents were engaged in transnational movement, being in several places for work, business or investment. Some 14 per cent of the respondents owned bank accounts in Malaysia, Australia and elsewhere.

In examining the effects of return intentions on asset ownership, it was found that those who intended to return to Australia owned a home (53 per cent) and property (45 per cent) in Australia and not Malaysia. On the other hand, asset ownership was much higher in Malaysia amongst respondents who did not intend to return. It was found that half of the respondents who indicated that they were not intending to return to Australia owned a home, or properties (38 per cent) in Malaysia. The follow-up interviews indicated that:

Yes, we still keep our family home in Australia. It makes sense to do so since we visit often. We are looking forward to returning to our own home one day. (#115, male expatriate in his late fifties, currently living with partner in Malaysia)

We are undecided or more inclined to not return. Open to future relocation elsewhere but we have bought a nice condo here which is conveniently located near the international school, shopping vicinity... Could be considered an investment. (#126, male in his late thirties, born in USA, highly mobile due to nature of his job)

7.11 Migration outcomes

Table 7.13 shows that the majority of the respondents felt that their household financial status had improved after moving to Malaysia, much more so for males (69 per cent) than females (50 per cent). A survey respondent who was interviewed said:

We did the math before coming and it seemed silly to turn the lucrative job down... and yes, the offer which was almost three times our two salaries in Australia had definitely improved our household financial status here [Malaysia]... (#113, female homemaker who followed her spouse work relocation in more than 3 countries)

It was a career advancement opportunity for me. Better package altogether, with a nice place to live, kids go to one of the best international schools near our place... (#119, male assuming higher role in Malaysia on a 3-year contract)

Table 7.13 Change in household financial status since moving to Malaysia of male and female respondents

Change in household financial status	Male (n=74)	Female (n=28)	Total (n=102)
Improved	68.9	50.0	63.7
Got worse	4.1	7.1	4.9
Stayed about the same	27.0	42.9	31.4
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: AiM Survey 2014

Less than 5 per cent of the respondents indicated that their financial status got worse while almost one-third claimed it had stayed about the same although this differed between males and females. There were more females who said that their financial status got worse, or stayed about the same since moving to Malaysia compared to males. This is not surprising as the earlier findings show that females tended to give up their career and follow their spouses who tended to have better employment opportunities.

Table 7.14 shows that the majority of respondents of all ages experienced an improved financial status, with 71 per cent for those aged between 40 and 59 years, and over half of those under 40 years as well as those 60 years and above. Some 10 percent of the

younger respondents claimed that their status had got worse status. In fact, about 42 per cent of the older ones said their financial status stayed about the same, compared to 24 per cent for the 40-59 group, and 38 per cent for the under 40 group.

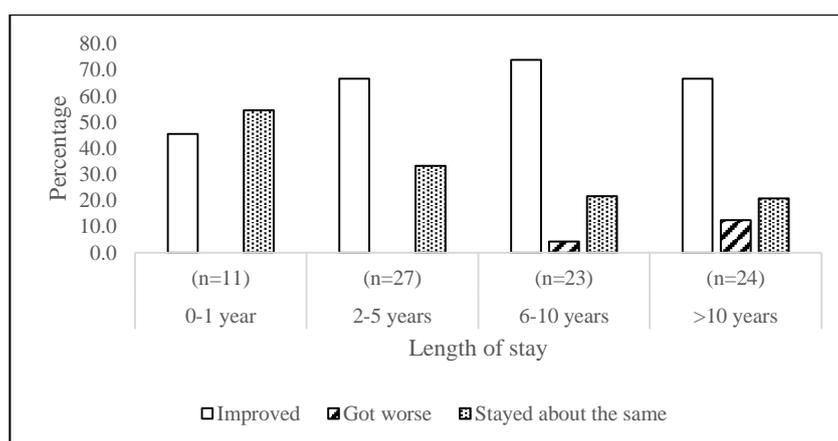
Table 7.14 Change in household financial status since moving to Malaysia by age group

Change in household financial status	<40 (n=21)	40-59 (n=55)	60+ (n=26)
Improved	52.4	70.9	57.7
Got worse	9.5	5.5	0.0
Stayed about the same	38.1	23.6	42.3
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: AiM Survey 2014

A direct relationship was between an improved financial status and the length of stay of respondents in Malaysia. Figure 7.16 shows that the longer they were in Malaysia, their financial standing increased, i.e. from 46 per cent in the first year of arrival, to two-thirds between 2-5 years, then 74 per cent between 6-10 years. However, it is intriguing to note that after five years, some 4 per cent of the respondents' status got worse, which increased to more than 12 per cent after the tenth year.

Figure 7.16 Respondents financial status change by length of stay in Malaysia



Source: AiM Survey 2014

Besides financial status, the labour mobility of respondents was also assessed, given that it is one of the main indicators of economic mobility, referring to the ability of an individual, family or group to improve (or lower) their economic status. Respondents were asked about their employment status before and after moving to Malaysia. Table 7.15 shows that 88 per cent of respondents who were previously on full-time employment maintained that status after moving to Malaysia, with some 5 per cent taking up part-time employment, while 7 per cent were no longer in the workforce. The rate of employment is high as many had moved to Malaysia with a job offer or taken up an internal job relocation with their employers and were mainly on contracts.

Table 7.15 Current employment status of male and female respondents who were employed full-time before moving to Malaysia

Current employment status	Male (n=67)	Female (n=15)	Total (n=82)
Employed full-time	92.5	66.7	87.8
Employed part-time	3.0	13.3	4.9
Not in the workforce	4.5	20.0	7.3
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: AiM Survey 2014

Further analysis showed that the large proportion of those who experienced downward labour mobility were females. They were highly-educated, but had given up their career to follow their spouses. Some 13 per cent of them had become part-time, and one-fifth no longer in the workforce after the move to Malaysia. Respondents were asked if their spouses or partners were working in Malaysia, and less than one third of males, with almost 80 per cent of females said 'yes'. There were 32 responses given in the open text-field on why their spouses or partners were not working, and over 40 per cent indicated that they were homemakers, while 28 per cent said visa restrictions, 16 per cent stated that there was no need to work, while others said the pay offered would not commensurate with their qualification and experience. This confirms the earlier findings that females tended to stay out of the labour force, or do part-time work after moving to Malaysia. Some ended up volunteering in non-governmental organisation while a few had difficulties finding jobs.

Some of the survey respondents provided explanations on the points discussed:

I found fulfilment through volunteer work in Malaysia. This was facilitated through my children's school, Garden International School, and I think more non-working expatriate spouses should be encouraged to take this up as a flexible and worthwhile use of their time. (Female respondent in her early forties)

She is currently very busy with the expatriate association. (Male respondent in his early fifties)

Her [my wife] stateless status make things difficult and we have one 6-year old son (Australian citizen), and one adopted one-year old daughter, undocumented, stateless which she takes care of. (Male respondent in his late forties)

*[She] was working now looking after children. (Male respondent in his late thirties)
My partner is employed here and I am on a dependent pass. I continue to work for my Australian company from Malaysia via the Internet and phone. However, technically I am probably contravening my dependent visa in Malaysia. My company is trying to get me employed by a recruitment company so that I can work more easily... I wish that it was easier to work here. (Female respondent in her early forties)*

Visa states 'forbidden to work'. Also, we have two young children, and there is no need for my wife to work. (Male respondent in his early forties)

Work permits are not issued to spouses in most circumstances. (Male respondent in his late thirties)

Difficulty getting work. (Female respondent in her late forties)

We are retired. (Male respondent in his early sixties)

No reason to at all. It is not a requirement. (Male respondent in his late fifties)

7.12 Conclusion

This chapter in discussing the migration decisions, settlement experiences of Australians living in Malaysia showed that that economic reasons dominated in the multiple moves outside of Australia, while non-economic reasons were significant factors in respect to their intentions to return. It was interesting to find that males were more likely to return to be reunited with family and to retire, compared to females. On

the other hand, females tended to return for the Australian lifestyle and the upbringing of children compared to males.

Most respondents maintained contact with people and organisations back home, while others engaged with fellow Australians residing in Malaysia. The respondents were also considered to be highly-mobile as many had experienced living, working or studying in other countries. A large majority continued to regard Australia as home, and intended to return to live at some point in their lives. This poses opportunities for skills and expertise to be transferred home. Most respondents were also optimistic about their overseas presence being beneficial to Australia.

This chapter also found that besides the short visits home, and the use of long distance telecommunications, most respondents also maintained connections in the form of asset ownership and investments. These were found to have some implications on their long-term decisions, particularly on their intentions to return. Generally, their financial situations had improved, which basically was the main reason for them being in Malaysia, though females tended to follow their partners on job relocation and could fit the concept of being a trailing spouse.

Chapter 8: Implications and conclusions

8.1 Introduction

Transnationalism is not new, but has gained renewed interest with rapid advances in transportation and communication technologies, coupled with countries becoming more 'open' and progressive in their immigration policy. This study has examined contemporary movement from Malaysia to Australia, with more complex trends and patterns of movement emerging between these countries in recent years. These movements, both temporary and permanent, have significant impacts on both countries and the migrants themselves. Many retain a strong sense of connection and identification with the countries they move between. This has led to important linkages forged by the migrants with their homeland which shapes the flows in both directions. Globally there is increased policy and research interest on transnational movement and diaspora, but context-specific empirical studies in this area tend to be lacking.

Drawing from data collected in an online survey of 1033 Malaysians living in Australia, and 30 in-depth interviews, as well as a literature review of secondary sources, this study has provided a deeper understanding of why Malaysians move to Australia, how well they settle in, and how they maintain links with Malaysia. A smaller survey of 134 Australians living in Malaysia, and 14 in-depth interviews has provided insights into factors contributing to patterns of movement in the reverse direction, between Australia and Malaysia, which made it possible to examine the potential contribution of these migrants to both countries.

This final chapter synthesises the empirical findings of the study addressing the identified research questions and objectives. It then discusses the policy and theoretical implications. Finally, this chapter highlights the limitations of the study, and proposed potential areas for future research.

8.2 Summary and synthesis of major findings

This study has not only identified the patterns of contemporary movement between both countries, but explored the migration decision-making process, and the settlement experiences of the respondents. It has also sought to understand the important network and linkages maintained with home countries, and how these linkages can be optimised for a 'triple win' outcome, which delivers benefit to home and host countries, as well as the migrants themselves. To achieve this objective, four aims were established, each of which is discussed below.

8.2.1 The trends, patterns and determinants of transnational mobility between Malaysia and Australia

The first objective was to establish the emerging trends and patterns of mobility between Malaysia and Australia, and discuss the processes and motivations of the movement, particularly the movement from Malaysia to Australia. The relationship between Malaysia and Australia developed during World War II in 1941-42, and then Australia assisted Malaysia during its confrontation with Indonesia in the 1960s. This was followed by the introduction of the Colombo Plan which sponsored many Asian students, including Malaysians, to undergo Australian education and training. The movement during the early period tended to be uni-directional and permanent in nature, where most migrants stayed permanently in Australia.

This study demonstrates the increasing complexity of the flows between the two countries with the rise in non-permanent movement, particularly short-term movements. Transnational migration is not uni-directional, and it is only appropriate to view it as a system involving both in- and out- migration, with the linkages forged between both origin and destination. Compared with Australia, Malaysia receives more unskilled migrants, while its emigration is dominated by skilled professionals. The outflow from Malaysia is made up of over one million diaspora, with one-third being highly-skilled, whereas the inflow is predominantly low-skilled. Australia on the other hand, is highly selective in terms of recruiting migrants and favours both permanent and non-permanent skilled migration with few opportunities for unskilled workers (Hugo 2014).

The most striking feature of the permanent flow between Malaysia and Australia is the higher rate of departures from Malaysia to Australia, which is five times the flow from Australia to Malaysia. One of the defining characteristics of the permanent immigration to Australia is the increasing focus on skills, and less on family migration. This is evident from the study where over half the respondents were skilled migrants, with only 7 per cent entering via the family migration stream. Although the migration relationship between Malaysia and Australia has been dominated by the Malaysians settling permanently in Australia, the opposite flow has become increasingly important. Every one in five Malaysian respondents indicated that they intend to return to Malaysia, particularly the young Malays who had come to Australia to study. By contrast, the Chinese and Indians were highly unlikely to return as their move to Australia tended to have been precipitated by the controversial race-based affirmative action policy, i.e. New Economic Policy (NEP) in Malaysia, in which privileges are given to the *bumiputeras* in placement opportunities in public universities and in the civil service, government scholarships and procurement. An important part of the inflow of temporary residents in Australia has increasingly been students. Over a quarter of the respondents in the survey undertaken here were students, who were able to change their status from temporary to permanent upon completion of their studies, hence overseas education was one of the main pathways to migration for them. These scenarios suggest some form of brain drain as noted in Chapter 4.

It is evident from the study that a range of micro-, meso-, and macro-level factors influence the migration decision-making process (Chapter 2). It was also found that reasons for skilled migration were beyond just pure economic or employment-related factors. The study provides insights into why Malaysians migrate to Australia, and how the individual, household, internal push factors, together with external pull factors and intermediaries, influence the decision-making process.

The two most prominent reasons for emigration to Australia were non-economic, i.e. education and lifestyle. Education was regarded as a pathway to gain permanent residency in Australia, and half of the student respondents indicated that they had no intention to return, or were undecided about returning to Malaysia. This study found that student migration decision was often made by the family who supported and encouraged the respondents to study overseas, rather than by individuals. Lifestyle

factors were also significant in the Malaysia – Australia migration decision, as a high percentage of Malaysian respondents stated a preference for the Australian lifestyle which is deemed to be more relaxed and provided the desired quality of life.

Emigration to Australia can be classified into three categories, namely: 1) education; 2) economic; and 3) social migration. Education migration was characterised by young, predominantly Malay students, who were largely not married, and had not lived in other countries besides Australia and Malaysia. Economic migration was made up of the economically active age group, mainly Chinese, who were transnational in the sense that they had also been living in other countries for education and employment-related reasons. Over half of these respondents belonged to family households with young children. Lastly, social migration was largely made up of respondents aged 30 and above, and tended to be family-driven by young families and retirees.

The dynamics of the migration processes between Malaysia and Australia had a gender dimension as the movement was largely characterised by highly skilled females who were not participating in the labour force. The dynamics are presented through the gendered patterns on the movement between the two countries, and also the status of the female respondents in the labour market. It was found that there were more females who were highly educated moving to Australia compared to males. However, they were under-represented in the Australian labour market after the move due to changes in household arrangements whereby they often had to take care of their children, and manage household chores as domestic help and childcare facilities are expensive and not readily available in Australia.

Migrants today engage in transnational mobility whereby they move to more than one destination, for a myriad of reasons. This study examined the transnational mobility of the respondents beyond Malaysia and Australia, and males were found to be more transnationally mobile compared to females. The older respondents were also more likely to have lived in other countries. Educational qualification, occupation levels and income status were major determinants of mobility as it was found that there was a higher rate of mobility amongst those with postgraduate qualifications, those in managerial and professional occupations, as well as those with higher incomes. These

findings support other research findings that show the highly skilled tend to be highly mobile (Khoo et al. 2007).

The reverse flow from Australia to Malaysia is predominantly non-permanent as the main motivation of move was employment-driven which reflects the fact that the globalisation of labour markets is an important element in the increasing flow of migrant workers between countries (Hugo, Rudd & Harris 2003). A large majority of the male-dominated flow were those on intra-company transfers which were contract-based with limited tenures. The Australian respondents indicated that they enjoyed the lifestyle in Malaysia, citing the cheap cost of living and travelling as an attraction. The flow was highly skilled, with higher postgraduate qualifications amongst the females than males. Similar to the Malaysian female respondents in Australia, they were under-represented in the labour market. In most cases, they voluntarily decided to do so as *'trailing spouses'* of males who were the primary skilled migrant. However, there were a few instances where immigration restrictions were hindrances to securing a job in Malaysia.

8.2.2 Demographic and socio-economic characteristics of migrants

The second objective of this study was to investigate the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of migrants. Migration is always selective, which is highly evident in this study. The survey findings show that Malaysian respondents were in the economically active age group, with slightly more females than males who were concentrated in the older age group. Chinese dominated among the respondents who were also found to be highly educated with a large majority having tertiary qualifications. A large proportion of the respondents were migrants under the skilled stream visa, and some had taken up Australian citizenship.

The selectivity of migration is also reflected in the occupations which the respondents hold in Australia. Emigration to Australia is characterised by highly educated and highly skilled migrants, with over half of the respondents in employment. Many were holding managerial and professional roles suggesting that emigration of Malaysians to Australia represents a significant loss of human capital to Malaysia which is undergoing an economic transformation towards achieving a high-income nation where talent is a critical enabler. In terms of occupational mobility, the percentage of those working as

managers and professionals had dropped slightly after migration and this was attributed to the fact that females dropped out of the labour force to take care of their children and household chores. The male respondents were also found to be earning more than females, and more likely to be in full-time employment.

Clearly, the emigration to Australia is selective of the *non-bumiputera* (ethnicities other than Malay and the indigenous people), highly educated, and more skilled which reflects a common pattern in the movement to OECD (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development) countries. The high skill level of the Malaysian diaspora in Australia forms part of the emerging multicultural middle class community in Australia (Colic-Peisker 2011; Hugo 2011). They were found to be concentrated in large Australian cities which are indicative of their socio-economic positions, and this scenario is evident in the study where the majority of the respondents indicated that they reside in Melbourne and Sydney.

Respondents who moved from Australia to Malaysia were made up of mainly established families and children, with adults being in the economically active age groups. It was male-dominated, with a large majority holding expatriate positions, hence the high concentration of respondents residing in Kuala Lumpur and Selangor, the main city and state in Malaysia. A high level of educational attainment is an important determinant of the emigration from Australia, and it is evident in this study, with most having postgraduate qualifications, slightly more females than males. However, the females were mainly on a dependent pass, and most ended up unemployed or as homemakers. This too implies that there is under-utilised skills and resources amongst the expatriate *trailing spouses* in Malaysia. The Malaysian government has to allow foreign spouses to work, particularly those who fill the critical skills gap in the key economic sectors, but it has been on a case-by-case basis for the Employment Pass. However, the newly introduced Residence Pass-Talent programme allows dependents of the primary applicants to work and the flexibility to change employers. Notwithstanding, more could be done to optimise this latent foreign talent in the country.

8.2.3 Dynamics of transnational ties and communication

There has been renewed global interest in diaspora, one of the key themes relates to the extent to which expatriates identify with, and maintain contact with their homeland. The third objective was to explore the dynamics of the settlement experiences, the transnational ties maintained, and implications for future engagement. The findings suggest that the respondents should be seen as having a distinct role in their host country, and represent a potential resource for their home country. They are highly skilled, visit their home country frequently for business and leisure, and many retain a strong sense of connection and identification with the countries they move between. They assume an important role as diaspora, and as such bridging people and organisations across the transnational social space (Faist et al. 2013). In fact, it was found that the respondents relied on intermediaries and their personal contacts to obtain information before making the decision to migrate.

Over half of the Malaysian respondents in Australia regarded Malaysia as ‘home’ but as time in Australia increased, the percentage declined gradually. The strength with which many Malaysians continue to identify with Malaysia is highly evident amongst the Malay respondents, as well as the younger respondents (age 30 and below). Birthplace had a considerable influence on the response to still consider Malaysia ‘home’, with those who were born in Malaysia more likely to call Malaysia ‘home’ compared with others who were born elsewhere.

Literature shows that people may attach to more than one country in different spheres of life, and multiple forms of identification extend beyond national borders. Although the majority of respondents related their country of birth as their home, there was a large proportion who identified their professional life with the host country where they were residing and working (Chapter 6).

The respondents were found to maintain intense transnational networks through regular visits home, and long-distance telecommunication media. Seven in every ten respondents had visited Malaysia in 2013, and almost half had stayed about two weeks during each visit. Two-thirds of the respondents indicated the prime reason was to visit family and friends, while one-third claimed it was for holidays. There was a small

percentage who indicated business and work-related reasons for the short visits. It was interesting to note that over a quarter of respondents make trips back to attend weddings and festive or religious events.

It was found that all respondents, regardless of age, sex, ethnicities, occupation, or income level kept in touch with people and organisations, including hometown associations. It is evident in this study that social networks, which include family and friends, were the main type of contacts they maintained. The male respondents tended to be more professionally connected than females, while more females had education-related linkages back home. More than half the respondents appeared to be keeping abreast with current affairs back home through social media, mainly Facebook. It is the most popular method of communication amongst friends and families. Interestingly, the Malaysian respondents also utilised Facebook to keep in touch with their professional contacts.

Affiliations with hometown associations and professional organisations is another significant form of maintaining linkages, though not many Malaysians did so. Only a small number of respondents, mainly the older ones who were holding manager and professional jobs, indicated that they belonged to organisations like the Institute of Engineers Malaysia, Malaysia Dental Association, and Malaysia Institute of Accountants. It was found that the Malays were more likely to participate compared with the other ethnicities. The majority of the Australian expatriates in Malaysia were however, not affiliated to any professional organisations back home although those who did were predominantly in the education business and financial sectors.

Another form of attachment or identification with home is the relationships established with fellow countrymen in the host country ('intra network'). The responses were not very positive, mainly in social or community-centred engagements for the Malaysians in Australia. It is not surprising to find that as length of time increased, the percentage of those who maintain contact with fellow Malaysians decreased. All these connections play an important role in the transnational social space to maintain ties not only with families or networks, but also to the wider community.

One of the significant aspects of linkages, but little studied, is the home and property assets and investments maintained by the diaspora. This has an impact on the return visits, communication and affiliations established by the transnational migrants. It is not surprising to find that almost half of respondents owned a bank account in the host country as it is highly flexible in terms of maintenance, and is considered an essential facility to perform various transactions, including mobile banking, payment of utility bills, safekeeping, conduit to receive wages, and online shopping. Owning a bank account in a few countries demonstrates that the respondents were engaged in transnational movement, being in several places for work, business, or investments. As anticipated, the rate of asset ownership was much higher for the older respondents and the higher income group. The Malaysian Chinese respondents tended to be more diversified in terms of asset ownership both in the home and host country compared with the other ethnic groups. The Malays, however, were more likely to maintain assets in Malaysia itself.

Research has shown that there is a relationship between the maintenance of assets and investments in the country of origin and the intentions of migrants to return (Ahlburg and Brown 1998; Collier et al. 2011; Carling and Pettersen 2014). It is evident in the findings of this study that return intentions contribute to higher investments and assets maintenance in the country of origin. It was found that almost one-third of the respondents who had intentions to return to Malaysia owned a home and property there.

The Australians in Malaysia responded more positively when asked whether they still called Australia home, with birthplace and citizenship being the main determinants. A large proportion of the Australians in Malaysia made between one to three visits home in 2013. There was a corresponding increase in the number of visits back to Australia by age. The younger respondents, who were less well established, may not only had less disposable income, but had not sufficient time as yet to return regularly. This study also found that those in the business and financial services visited Australia frequently, and that the rate of visits were higher for those who had intentions to return. A large majority of them had intentions to return, or to move elsewhere should there be subsequent overseas job postings. The Australians tended to be in contact with fellow countrymen in Malaysia, participating in social engagements for the expatriates.

These Australian respondents in Malaysia also actively maintained contact with their professional and social networks back home. The most popular methods of keeping in touch with social contacts were Facebook and e-mails, with 77 per cent indicating that they use Facebook weekly and fortnightly to keep in touch with their friends and family back home, while three quarters used e-mails. They preferred the more formal channel such as e-mails, LinkedIn, and phone calls to communicate with their professional contacts. Given the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents, being highly skilled and technology savvy, it is not surprising to find that Internet mediates the transnational communication. In terms of asset ownership, it was found that over half of the respondents who had intentions to return home owned home and property in Australia.

8.2.4 Diaspora engagement

The potential for migrants to contribute to their homeland are increasingly recognised and acknowledged by scholars and governments around the world. The diaspora population and their important networks are valuable assets to both host and home countries even if they do not intend to return. It is in this vein that the fourth objective to recommend policy responses and further research to build on the Malaysian and Australian diaspora engagement strategy was established. In this regards, it is important to first understand what they thought were the benefits to their homeland of them living overseas. Although the response was positive with the Australians, it was mediocre for the Malaysians. The younger Malaysian respondents were found to be more positive about their overseas presence being beneficial to Malaysia compared with the older ones. It is also important to note that the Malays had the highest positive response. The most popular responses given by more than one-third of respondents was *'learn skills or gain experiences transferable back to Malaysia'*. Males were found to be more optimistic about their potential contribution to Australia for being overseas. More than a quarter of them thought that the contacts they had made would be useful for other Malaysians, while others felt that they created goodwill towards Malaysia.

In examining the perceived benefits to Malaysia by sector, the Malaysian respondents in Australia working in the wholesale and retail, and the oil, gas and energy, as well as education sectors, were more likely to say that it was positive for their skills and

experiences. For the Australians in Malaysia, it is worth noting that those who still considered Australia to be home, or were still holding Australian citizenship, were more likely to perceive that their overseas presence would benefit Australia.

The strong identification with home country showed that the respondents were still very much involved in aspects of their homeland life. The establishment of organisations such as *Advance*, *Talent Corporation Malaysia Berhad*, *The Indus Entrepreneurs*, and *The Science and Technology Department of the Overseas Chinese Affairs Bureau*, demonstrate the commitment of government and non-government organisations in engaging diaspora. Taking *Advance* for example, it is a non-profit organisation built on public-private partnership model with a global community in over 90 countries. They work with the Australian government and the private sector to engage the over one million overseas Australians to build a powerful network and dynamic resource. With increased emigration from Malaysia, the Malaysian government has embarked on several initiatives to engage overseas Malaysians. It was found that whilst the awareness of the diaspora-related programme was fairly high, the participation rate of the respondents was low.

There needs to be a better understanding of the expectations of migrants abroad in the efforts to engage them more effectively. This study found that almost one-third of the Malaysian respondents who were not keen to return to Malaysia were pessimistic about incentives to engage them, or to encourage them to return. It is also important to note that almost a quarter of the respondents suggested a change of government as one of the key events which may encourage a positive response to returning. Conversely, the Australians did not have any expectations from the Australian government in engaging them.

8.3 Migration outcomes and implications

8.3.1 Labour force participation

There has been an increasing debate on how migrants fare in the workforce after migration. Although Australia claims to have benefitted from its selective migration programme, critics claim that migrants experience downward economic mobility after

moving to Australia (Coughlan 2012, 2013; Ho and Alcorso 2004). This is evident in this study where the labour force participation of the Malaysian respondents decreased slightly after migrating to Australia. Over half of the respondents were employed, with more males in work than females. The unemployment rate was low with slightly more females compared to males. About one-third of the respondents were not in the workforce, some 43 per cent of females compared to 23 per cent males. Generally, they have done well, at least in securing employment. However, many had not secured jobs that were suited to their skill or educational levels.

It was found that there were respondents who went to Australia as students, and had since found employment suggesting some successes in converting student migration to workforce participation. However, the majority of respondents were working for salaries, wages or commission, which suggests that the rate of entrepreneurial uptake is low.

Some respondents were found to experience downward occupational mobility although the majority managed to remain employed as managers and professionals. Some were occupying positions that were worse than the one they previously held before they migrated to Australia. One of the main reasons that caused the downward mobility was that foreign qualifications were often not recognised by the host country as found by others (Birrell et al. 2006).

Generally, the Malaysian respondents experienced positive migration outcomes when analysing their labour force status, occupational mobility, and household financial situation. The males had much better employment outcomes than did the females as the latter tended to give up their career and become stay-at-home-mums to take care of their children and manage the household chores as childcare facilities and domestic help are expensive and not readily available in Australia. The older respondents, particularly those above 50 were also more likely to experience better migration outcomes as it was shown that their economic status improves by length of stay in Australia.

A large proportion of the Australian respondents in Malaysia who experienced downward labour mobility were females. They were highly-educated, but had given up their career to follow their spouses voluntarily. Some 13 per cent of them were in part-

time employment, and one-fifth were no longer in the workforce after the move to Malaysia. This confirms the earlier findings that males had much better employment outcomes as their migration was likely to be more expatriate relocation, as females tended to not work, or do part-time work after moving to Malaysia. Some ended up volunteering in non-governmental organisation, while a few had difficulties finding jobs and obtaining the necessary work visas.

8.3.2 Effect of length of stay on economic situation

It is assumed that as length of residency increases, employment status improves. This is evident in this study where the proportion of employed male and female respondents increased significantly by length of stay in Australia, particularly between the first and fifth year of arrival. This is consistent with the Longitudinal Survey of Immigrants to Australia (LSIA) data and indicated that many students had joined the workforce. The proportion of respondents who were managers and professionals also increased slightly after living in Australia for at least five years.

Another proxy used to demonstrate the economic outcomes of migrants is change in the household financial situation. It was found that respondents whose household financial status improved experienced a positive change over their longer period of stay. It is not surprising that the majority of the recently arrived respondents felt that their financial situation remain unchanged. The majority of those above 50 years of age claimed that they had experienced improved financial status, and a quarter under 40 years. A relatively low percentage said that their situation got worse.

8.4 Implications for theory

There has been a paradigm shift in the global migration scenario. This study concedes that while there is not a single theory which can adequately explain the emerging complexities in the patterns, causes and implications of international migration, it is important to be pragmatic in approaching the subject matter. The earlier theories of migration tend to be economically-driven, mainly advocating that wage differentials trigger migration, with individual and household strategies adopted in the decision-making process (Karl and Stark 1986; Stark 1991; Taylor 1986). However, the findings

of this study do not fully demonstrate this as it is much more complicated. The study findings are discussed in the context of network and migration systems theory, to show that the initial migrants serve as a point of reference for their friends and relatives who plan to move to the destination area. This pre-move source of information and assistance form a self-sustaining migration flow, reduces the costs and risks of migration, which then further motivates people back home to move (Hugo 1981; Massey 1990; Taylor 1986). The economic benefits are important but not the only actor in driving migration.

Migrants in this study were found to have made several moves from different countries, and within the same migration corridor, i.e. Malaysia – Australia. They moved between the two countries, made return visits, and some planned to return to their home country or move to another destination country. The trends and patterns of the migration are also responsive to changes in the social, economic, and political situations which conforms to the migration systems theory (Fawcett 1989; Massey et al. 1993). Moreover, the study found evidence that mobility between countries is not confined to permanent settlement as temporary movement has become more popular since 1990s.

Some of the implications of transnationalism involves analysing not only the flows, but the linkages and relationships between countries of origin and destination (Faist 2000; Levitt 2001). Migrants were found to maintain strong linkages with their home countries, and they visit the home country frequently for business and leisure as travel costs have reduced over the years with the entrance of budget airlines. The increased accessibility to affordable and efficient telecommunication media also enables instant, regular and intense contact with their homeland. Transnational asset ownership and investment decisions were found to influence decisions of returning home (Hiebert & Ley 2006, Renaud 2002).

Similar to other studies (Coughlan 1998, 2012, 2013; Ho and Alcorso 2004; Mukomel 2013), this thesis provides evidence to reject the economic theory of immigration that migration positively impacts only to enable the income-maximisation of migrants and the host country. The economic theory posits that individuals maximise utility, and are able to search for a host country that enhances their well-being. However, the findings here demonstrate that there were other underlying reasons for the migration decision which influence the outcomes. The migration decision-making process is not all

straightforward, and not purely an economic decision. The overall rate of labour force participation and occupation level had slightly decreased due to the non-participation of highly qualified females, who largely opted to become homemakers or found it difficult to secure suitable employment. The employment outcomes were found to improve gradually over time in the host country.

8.5 Implications for policy

Effective public policy can be a catalyst for gains from skilled emigration, especially in the contemporary movement between Malaysia and Australia. As reported in Chapter 4, there remains more to be investigated in the internationalisation of highly skilled labour and diaspora options. The Malaysia-Australia Free Trade Agreement (MAFTA) builds on the commitments made by both countries in Australia's regional FTA with ASEAN and New Zealand (AANZFTA). These bilateral and multi-lateral agreements make commitments on the movement of persons to support increased trade and investments between the two countries, reduce barriers to labour mobility and improve temporary entry access within the context of each country's immigration and employment frameworks.

This study has engaged in a considerably large but selective survey of more than 1000 Malaysians living in Australia, a small online survey of over 100 Australians in Malaysia, as well as 44 in-depth interviews with survey respondents and key informants. Though it is not representative of the full Malaysian or Australian diaspora, it can provide insights to address the set research questions.

8.5.1 An emigration policy?

The Malaysian government does not have an emigration policy but in the effort to deliver a highly skilled workforce, Talent Corporation ('TalentCorp') has been established as one of the key initiatives under the Tenth Malaysia Plan in 2011 to attract, nurture and retain the talent needed for a developed nation. TalentCorp adopts a multi-pronged strategy to address the critical skills gap required for an economic transformation programme for Malaysia, by partnering public and private organisations to: 1) Optimise Malaysian professionals; 2) Enhance graduate employability; 3) Engage

Malaysian abroad; and 4) Facilitate foreign talent. It would be ideal to optimise the local skilled workforce, but they do not necessarily fill the critical skills gap. One out of every four degree graduates in Malaysia remain unemployed six months after graduation, and they account for almost two-fifths of those who are unemployed.

While the government implements diaspora engagement initiatives such as outreach and the Returning Expert Programme (REP), the rate of return has not been encouraging amongst the highly skilled. The number of returnees reduced further after the REP incentives and criteria were tightened in April 2014 to ensure that only the qualified are included. Devising the best mix of incentives which are appropriate to the local situation may be required. Although the diaspora should be regarded as a valuable resource, and part of the national population, they should not be the beneficiaries but rather the investors. Further, government has to ensure that returnees are truly qualified and complement the local workforce.

Though emigration of the highly-skilled cannot be stopped, it can be better managed. The study findings emphasise that policy makers need to address the structural issues which have caused emigration in the first place. Lifestyle migration under the pretext of economic migration is highly evident, followed by education and social migration. Thus, policies and directions towards enhancing the quality of life (covering a wide range of contexts, including healthcare, politics, employment, education) of Malaysians as a whole would be relevant. It is also timely to review the racial-demarkation policy privileging the *bumiputeras* to be more inclusive and merit-based.

As migration further intensifies following government immigration liberalisation efforts to attract and retain the best and the brightest, the transnational interdependencies between Malaysia and Australia will become more complex and difficult to demarcate between foreign and internal policy. Australian policymakers must take into account the external consequences of their immigration integration policy towards Malaysians in Australia, and at the same time consider the internal implications of their foreign policy towards Malaysia. The Malaysian government on the other hand should consider establishing diaspora policies to encourage the Malaysians overseas to integrate themselves into the host country in order to benefit from educational and employment opportunities, participate in politics, and support Malaysia by contributing from abroad.

Both the host integration policy and home diaspora policy should be complementary to deliver better outcomes for the home and host country, as well as the migrants themselves (*'triple win'*).

8.5.2 Engaging diaspora

The Australian lifestyle followed by economic factors in Australia were the main reasons given by the respondents for not returning to Malaysia. A quarter of the respondents suggested a change of government, citing dissatisfaction with the current regime in Malaysia. A large majority of the respondents were aware of the government initiatives, including the diaspora engagement and facilitation initiatives, but the uptake has been low. Hence it would make sense to channel efforts to engage the one-fifth who had intentions to return, and facilitate their return, and determine whether their skill sets and experience match those in demand (targeted approach and demand-driven).

Social media plays a vital role in engaging diaspora as respondents actively maintain transnational contacts using the likes of Facebook. It is cost-effective compared with physical outreach and engagement. Governments need to tap into the financial and technical resources of the private sector and even international organisations to effectively share the cost of engagement. The partnership between *Advance* and the Australian government and other international organisations is a good example.

Another two dimensions which warrant policy intervention are the engagement of the emerging second generation, and the under-utilised skills of female migrants. It would also be beneficial to have a registry of overseas Malaysians, and make better use of arrival and departure data for evidence-based policymaking. It is also necessary to improve efforts to identify key 'nodes', i.e. overseas Malaysians who are influential, iconic or famous figures to mentor fellow Malaysians, particularly those who perceive that their overseas presence could benefit Malaysia. It is important to recognise the benefits of the transnational ties and identities to fully capture the benefits of mobility between the two countries that accrue from the circulation of people, ideas, and skills along the Malaysia-Australia migration corridor.

8.6 Implications for future research

This research has contributed to a greater understanding of the contemporary movement between Malaysia and Australia, particularly the dominant emigration flow to Australia. The empirical evidence provided insights on some of the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the Malaysians in Australia, as well as the Australian expatriate community in Malaysia. It has established that there are dynamic transnational ties which both facilitate and maintain linkages for host and home countries. However, this study is not without its limitations, and this section puts forward some suggestions for future research.

The sample in this study is highly selective of those with tertiary education, have access to the Internet, and are generally very social media-savvy. As there is no comprehensive listing of the study population, non-probability sampling was used hence findings cannot be generalised to the wider population of the expatriate community. In addition, coverage for the follow-up interviews had to be confined to selected main cities based on the high concentration of respondents. It may be highly beneficial in future to explore the mobility patterns and experiences of a particular group, such as students, a specific ethnic group, or linkages maintained by those in the critical sector(s) such as the business and financial services.

There would seem to be merit in also in identifying and monitoring the emergence and proliferation of the Malaysians in specific cities or states in Australia. For example, there is a high concentration of Malaysians in Melbourne, Victoria, who were well-represented in many fields or industries. It would also be interesting to examine whether having Australian qualifications translate into better migration outcomes. This information may serve as a powerful resource to tap into the pool of skills, knowledge, expertise and networks for mutual cooperation and development between the two countries.

8.7 Conclusion

This study has demonstrated that the contemporary migration relationship between Malaysia and Australia has impacted on the two countries, and particularly the migrants themselves. These migrants play a distinct role in their host country, and represent a potential resource for their home country too. The linkages forged by the migrants with their homeland have enhanced the level of movement between the two countries. The movement is becoming more complex and dynamic involving flows in both directions, with permanent and temporary movements, as well as young and older migrants. There has been a transformation of the Malaysia –Australia migration system as a result of the economic and demographic changes, as well as through the advancement of transport and telecommunication services. More research is needed to bridge the gap in knowledge that exists in the Malaysia – Australia migration context. This will translate to a more comprehensive diaspora policy to improve the migration outcomes for greater benefits for all (*triple-win*).

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Ethics Clearance



RESEARCH BRANCH
OFFICE OF RESEARCH ETHICS, COMPLIANCE AND
INTEGRITY

BEVERLEY DOBBS
EXECUTIVE OFFICER
LOW RISK HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW
GROUPS
THE UNIVERSITY OF ADELAIDE
SA 5005 AUSTRALIA

TELEPHONE +61 8 8313 4725
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email: beverley.dobbs@adelaide.edu.au
CRICOS Provider Number 00123M

11/12/2013

Professor G Hugo
School: Geography, Environment and Population

Dear Professor Hugo

ETHICS APPROVAL No: HP-2013-124
PROJECT TITLE: Malaysians in Australia vs. Australians in Malaysia: A comparative study of its motivations, identifications and intentions

The ethics application for the above project has been reviewed by the Low Risk Human Research Ethics Review Group (Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences and the Faculty of the Professions) and is deemed to meet the requirements of the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007)* involving no more than low risk for research participants. You are authorised to commence your research on 4 Dec 2013.

Ethics approval is granted for three years and is subject to satisfactory annual reporting. The form titled *Project Status Report* is to be used when reporting annual progress and project completion and can be downloaded at <http://www.adelaide.edu.au/ethics/human/guidelines/reporting>. Prior to expiry, ethics approval may be extended for a further period.

Participants in the study are to be given a copy of the Information Sheet and the signed Consent Form to retain. It is also a condition of approval that you **immediately report** anything which might warrant review of ethical approval including:

- serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants,
- previously unforeseen events which might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project,
- proposed changes to the protocol; and
- the project is discontinued before the expected date of completion.

Please refer to the following ethics approval document for any additional conditions that may apply to this project.

Yours sincerely

ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR RACHEL A. ANKENY
Co-Convenor
Low Risk Human Research Ethics Review Group (Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences and Faculty of the Professions)

ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR PAUL BABIE
Co-Convenor
Low Risk Human Research Ethics Review Group (Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences and Faculty of the Professions)

Appendix 2a: Participant Information Sheet (Malaysians in Australia)

Survey of Malaysians in Australia

Note: This survey will be conducted Survey Monkey Online Survey programme. Format and layout may differ but content remains the same.

What is the survey about?

An increasing interest in Malaysians living and working outside their home country and their potential contribution has emerged among researchers and governments.

The online survey aims to better research the characteristics, trends, motivations, and future intentions of Malaysians, aged 18 and above currently living or working in Australia. It is anticipated that findings of this study will provide insights towards the outcome of movement between both countries.

Who is carrying out the survey?

The survey is being conducted by a PhD student, Ms Christina Yeo, enrolled at The University of Adelaide, Australia. This study is completely confidential and findings will not identify respondents in any way. All responses will not be traceable to any individuals and all steps will be taken to protect your privacy. Analysis will be made at an aggregate and not at individual level.

How much time will the survey take?

This web-based survey will take 10-15 minutes.

Can I withdraw from the survey?

Being in this survey is completely voluntary – you are not under any obligation to participate. If you do consent to participate and start completing this survey, you can withdraw at any time before you submit your answers by clicking the 'Exit Survey' link at the bottom of the screen.

Will anyone else know the results?

All aspects of the study, including results, will be strictly confidential. All survey and interview data will be kept on password-secured computers and will only be accessible to the researcher and supervisors at the University of Adelaide

Will the study benefit me?

There is no reward or reimbursement for participation in this study. However your input will be contributing towards a better understanding of Malaysians and/or persons of Malaysian origin motivation and roles in Australia. It is anticipated that the survey results will provide better insights towards enhancing expatriates and migrant related policy and programme.

You can elect to be contacted to participate in a follow-up interview in relation to the findings of the survey. Please express your interest and provide your contact details at the e-mail address listed below. You will be contacted at a later date to arrange a mutually convenient time for an interview.

What if I require further information?

If you seek to get more information at any stage, please do not hesitate to contact Christina Yeo at the following details:

Mobile No. +61 (0)416 849 650 (Australia)
E-mail Add. christina.yeo@adelaide.edu.au

How to complete the survey?

Should you want to proceed with the survey, please press Next. Please do not exit your web browser until you have completed the last page. However, if you choose to withdraw from the survey, press the 'Exit Survey' link.

Contacts for information on research and independent complaints procedure

The following study has been reviewed and approved by The University of Adelaide Human Research Ethics Committee:

Research Title	Malaysians in Australia vs. Australians in Malaysia: A comparative study of its motivations, identifications and intentions
Approval Number	

The Human Research Ethics Committee monitors all the research projects which it has approved. The committee considers it important that people participating in approved projects have an independent and confidential reporting mechanism which they can use if they have any worries or complaints about that research.

This research project will be conducted according to the NHMRC National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (see <http://www.nhmrc.gov.au/publications/synopses/e72syn.htm>)

If you have questions or problems associated with the practical aspects of your participation in the project, or wish to raise a concern or complaint about the project, then you should consult the project coordinator:

Name	Prof. Graeme Hugo
Phone	+61 (0)8 8313 5646

If you wish to discuss with an independent person matters related to:

- making a complaint, or
- raising concerns on the conduct of the project, or
- the University policy on research involving human participants, or
- your rights as a participant,

please contact the Human Research Ethics Committee's Secretariat on phone (08) 8313 6028 or by email to hrec@adelaide.edu.au

Thank you for your participation

Appendix 2b: Participant Information Sheet (Australians in Malaysia)

Survey of Australians in Malaysia

Note: This survey will be conducted Survey Monkey Online Survey programme. Format and layout may differ but content remains the same.

What is the survey about?

An increasing interest in Australians living and working outside their home country and their potential contribution has emerged among researchers and governments.

The online survey aims to better research the characteristics, trends, motivations, and future intentions of Australians, aged 18 and above currently living or working in Malaysia. It is anticipated that findings of this study will provide insights towards the outcome of movement between both countries.

Who is carrying out the survey?

The survey is being conducted by a PhD student, Ms Christina Yeo, enrolled at The University of Adelaide, Australia. This study is completely confidential and findings will not identify respondents in any way. All responses will not be traceable to any individuals and all steps will be taken to protect your privacy. Analysis will be made at an aggregate and not at individual level.

How much time will the survey take?

This web-based survey will take 10-15 minutes.

Can I withdraw from the survey?

Being in this survey is completely voluntary – you are not under any obligation to participate. If you do consent to participate and start completing this survey, you can withdraw at any time before you submit your answers by clicking the 'Exit Survey' link at the bottom of the screen.

Will anyone else know the results?

All aspects of the study, including results, will be strictly confidential. All survey and interview data will be kept on password-secured computers and will only be accessible to the researcher and supervisors at the University of Adelaide

Will the study benefit me?

There is no reward or reimbursement for participation in this study. However your input will be contributing towards a better understanding of Australians motivation and roles in Malaysia. It is anticipated that the survey results will provide better insights towards enhancing expatriates and migrant related policy and programme.

You can elect to be contacted to participate in a follow-up interview in relation to the findings of the survey. Please express your interest and provide your contact details at the e-mail address listed below. You will be contacted at a later date to arrange a mutually convenient time for an interview.

What if I require further information?

If you seek to get more information at any stage, please do not hesitate to contact Christina Yeo at the following details:

Mobile No. +61 (0)416 849 650 (Australia)
E-mail Add. christina.yeo@adelaide.edu.au

How to complete the survey?

Should you want to proceed with the survey, please press Next. Please do not exit your web browser until you have completed the last page. However, if you choose to withdraw from the survey, press the 'Exit Survey' link.

Contacts for information on research and independent complaints procedure

The following study has been reviewed and approved by The University of Adelaide Human Research Ethics Committee:

Research Title	Malaysians in Australia vs. Australians in Malaysia: A comparative study of its motivations, identifications and intentions
Approval Number	

The Human Research Ethics Committee monitors all the research projects which it has approved. The committee considers it important that people participating in approved projects have an independent and confidential reporting mechanism which they can use if they have any worries or complaints about that research.

This research project will be conducted according to the NHMRC National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (see <http://www.nhmrc.gov.au/publications/synopses/e72syn.htm>)

If you have questions or problems associated with the practical aspects of your participation in the project, or wish to raise a concern or complaint about the project, then you should consult the project coordinator:

Name	Prof. Graeme Hugo
Phone	+61 (0)8 8313 5646

If you wish to discuss with an independent person matters related to:

- making a complaint, or
- raising concerns on the conduct of the project, or
- the University policy on research involving human participants, or
- your rights as a participant,

please contact the Human Research Ethics Committee's Secretariat on phone (08) 8313 6028 or by email to hrec@adelaide.edu.au

Thank you for your participation.

Appendix 3a: Questionnaire (Malaysians in Australia)

Survey of Malaysians in Australia



This is a research project undertaken by a PhD student, Ms. Christina Yeo, enrolled at The University of Adelaide, Australia.

Thank you very much for taking the time to complete the questionnaire. Completed forms may be returned as an email attachment to: christina.yeo@adelaide.edu.au Alternatively, you may send by post in the reply paid envelope provided to: The University of Adelaide, Discipline of Geography, Environment and Population, Level G, Napier Building, Adelaide, SA 5005.

A1. Age: _____ Gender: Male
 Female

B1. What is your country of birth?
B2. Please state your countries of citizenship:
B3. What is your ancestry?
B4. Where were your parents born? Father : _____
Mother : _____
B5. Do you hold an Australian visa?
 Yes (go to Question B6)
 No (go to Question C1)

B6. If yes, under which category? *(Please select one)*
 Citizen
 General skilled migration
 Employers sponsored
 Business skills
 Distinguished talent
 Family
 Working holiday
 Students
 Other *(please specify)*:

C1. Where are you currently living in Australia?
Suburb/Town: _____
State/Territory: _____ Postcode: _____

C2. Where were you living before you left for Australia?
City/Town: _____
State/Territory: _____ Postcode: _____
Country: _____

- D1. In what year did you first arrive in Australia? _____
- D2. How old were you when you first arrived in Australia? _____

- E1. Please indicate the main reasons for your decision to move to Australia *(You may tick more than one)*
- Overseas job transfer/exchange
 - Better employment opportunities
 - Partner's employment
 - Promotional/career advancement
 - Marriage/partnership
 - To be close to family/friends
 - Education/study
 - Lifestyle
 - Higher income
 - Professional development
 - Other *(please specify)*:

- F1. How many times did you visit Malaysia last year?

- F2. What are the main reasons for these visits? *(You may tick more than one)*
- Business-related
 - Work-related
 - Visit family and friends
 - Holiday
 - Study
 - Special events *(e.g. birthday, anniversary, wedding, funeral, please specify)*:

 - Other *(please specify)*:

- F3. What is the average length of stay on visits there?
- Less than 1 week
 - 1 – 2 weeks
 - More than 2 weeks – less than 1 month
 - 1 month – less than 3 months
 - 3 months – less than 6 months
 - 6 months or more

- G1. What is your current employment status?
 Employed full-time (go to question G2)
 Employed part-time (go to question G2)
 Unemployed (go to question H1)
 Not in the workforce (go to question H1)
 Student (go to question H1)

- G2. If you are currently employed, is your job:
 Permanent
 Contract
 Other *(please specify)*:

- G3. What is your main occupation?

- G4. What industry are you currently employed in?

- G5. In this job, are you:
 Working for wages, salary or commission
 In your own business, and employing others
 In your own business, but not employing others
 Other *(please specify)*:

- G6. What is your current annual income? *(Estimated in AUD)*
 Less than \$50,000 per annum
 \$50,000 - \$99,999 per annum
 \$100,000 - \$149,999 per annum
 \$150,000 - \$199,999 per annum
 \$200,000 - \$299,000 per annum
 More than \$300,000 per annum

- G7. Please indicate any salary package entitlements that make your current job attractive.

- H1. What was your employment status, before moving to Australia?
 Employed full-time
 Employed part-time
 Unemployed
 Not in the workforce
 Student

- H2. If you were employed, what was your main occupation?

H3. Since moving to Australia, has your household financial situation changed:

- Improved
- Got worse
- Stayed about the same

I1. What is your highest completed education qualification?

- Postgraduate degree
 - Postgraduate diploma
 - Honours degree
 - Bachelor degree
 - Undergraduate diploma
 - Secondary school
 - Other *(please specify)*:
-

I2. What is your field of study?

J1. Did you have contacts in place with people or organizations in Australia before moving here?

- Yes (go to Question J2)
- No (go to Question J3)

J2. If yes, what type of network or contacts? *(You may tick more than one)*

- Social (family and friends)
 - Professional (employment/business related)
 - Education/study-related
 - Other *(please specify)*:
-

J3. How did you learn of opportunities in Australia that prompted your move here? *(You may tick more than one)*

- Existing networks in Australia
 - Networks in Malaysia
 - Partner/family going there
 - Been to Australia before
 - Experiences of others who have travelled to Australia
 - Independent search
 - Advertisement by migration agents
 - Other *(please specify)*:
-

- K1. Do you plan to return to Malaysia to live?
 Yes (go to Question K2, K3)
 No (go to Question K4)
 Undecided (go to Question K4)

K2. If yes, when do you plan to return to Malaysia to live? *(Please state year):*

- K3. What are your main reasons for returning to Malaysia? *(You may tick more than one)*
 To be reunited with family members back home
 Marriage
 Aging or sick parents/relatives
 To retire
 Better economic prospects in Malaysia
 Better cultural values for children upbringing in Malaysia
 Opportunities for family members other than myself in Malaysia
 Lifestyle in Malaysia preferred
 Good Malaysian food not easily available here
 People here not as friendly
 Do not appreciate the climate here
 Unable to secure a good job or career
 Other *(please specify):*

- K4. What are your main reasons for not returning to Malaysia? *(You may tick more than one)*
 Employment opportunities better here
 Career and promotion opportunities better here
 Partner's employment is located here
 Marriage/partnership keeps me here
 Family here
 Lifestyle more attractive here
 Established in current location
 Higher income here
 More favourable personal income tax regime here
 No equivalent jobs in Malaysia
 Cost of relocating back to Malaysia
 Perceived political instability in Malaysia
 Other *(please specify):*

K5. What needs to happen for you to return to Malaysia?

L1. Are you aware of the Returning Experts Programme (REP) introduced by the Malaysian government to facilitate the return of Malaysian professionals?

Yes (go to Question L2)

No (go to Question M1)

L2. Please state which communication channel:

Online media (e.g. websites, social media sites, e-mails)

Paper media (e.g. newspapers, programme flyers)

Informal network

Professional network

Talent Corporation engagement session

Other (please specify):

M1. Do you have contact with other Malaysians living in Australia?

Yes

No

M2. Do you participate in any Malaysian-based organisations/clubs in Australia?

Yes

No

M3. Please list any Malaysian or expats organisations/clubs you are involved with in Australia?

N1. Do you maintain contact with people/organisations in Malaysia?

Yes

No (go to Question N1)

N2. What type of linkages do you keep with Malaysia?

Social through interactions with family and friends

Professional (employment/business related)

Education/study related

Informational/current affairs on e.g. Internet/TV programmes

Other (please specify):

N3. How often do you stay in touch with your social networks in Malaysia? *(Select all that apply)*

	Weekly	Fortnightly	Monthly	Quarterly	Irregularly	Never
Phone calls	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Mobile text messages	<input type="checkbox"/>					
E-mail	<input type="checkbox"/>					
LinkedIn	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Facebook	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Twitter	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Skype	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Post	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Other <i>(please specify)</i> :						

N4. How often do you stay in touch with your professional networks in Malaysia? *(Select all that apply)*

	Weekly	Fortnightly	Monthly	Quarterly	Irregularly	Never
Phone calls	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Mobile text messages	<input type="checkbox"/>					
E-mail	<input type="checkbox"/>					
LinkedIn	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Facebook	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Twitter	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Skype	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Post	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Other <i>(please specify)</i> :						

N5. Do you belong to any professional organisations/clubs in Malaysia?

Yes, please list:

No

O1. Do you feel your presence overseas has any benefits for Malaysia?

Yes (go to Question O2)

No (go to Question P1)

O2. If yes, what would that be? *(You may tick more than one)*

Existing contacts useful for other Malaysians

Learning skills/gaining experiences transferable back to Malaysia

Creating goodwill towards Malaysia

Creating business/trade links with Malaysian companies

Good ambassadors for Malaysia

Investment opportunities

Other *(please specify)*:

P1. Do you consider Malaysia still to be your home?

Yes

No

Undecided

P2. Which country do you identify most strongly with for the following:

	Malaysia	Australia	Other.
Please state.			
Home of origin	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> _____
Personal and family life	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> _____
Professional life	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> _____

Q1. Did you vote in the last General Election (GE13)?

Yes

No

Q2. Are you aware that starting from GE13, all Malaysians abroad are eligible to postal vote?

Yes

No

R1. What is your current marital status?

Never married

Separated or divorced

Widowed

Married

R2. Has your marital status changed since you left Malaysia?

Yes (go to Question R3, R4)

No (go to Question R4)

R3. How has your marital status changed?

R4. What is the birthplace of your spouse/partner?

R5. What is the citizenship of your spouse/partner?

R6. Is your spouse/partner living here in Australia?

Yes

No (please specify country):

S1. What is your current family/household living arrangement?

Single person household (go to Question T1)

Couple only household (go to Question T1)

Couple with children (go to Question S2)

One parent with children (go to Question S2)

Two or more unrelated individuals (go to Question T1)

Other (please specify):

S2. If you have children, what are their age groups? (Select all that apply)

Less than 5 years

5-9 years

10-14 years

15-19 years

Over 20 years

S3. What are their citizenships?

T1. Please list any of the following that you currently own in your home country, and/or Australia (or other countries)? *Select all that apply*

Malaysia

Australia

Elsewhere

A home

Property

A business

A bank account

Financial investments

Other (please specify):

T2. Please list any of the following that you intend to purchase in your home country, and/or Australia (or other countries)? *Select all that apply*

Malaysia

Australia

Elsewhere

A home

Property

A business

A bank account

Financial investments

Other *(please specify)*:

U1. Could you provide any further comments that may be of use to this study?

V1. Thank you very much for taking your time to complete this survey. I hope to conduct some follow-up interviews and would be grateful if you are keen to be engaged further. Please provide your e-mail address in the space provided below if you elect to participate in a follow-up interview so that I may contact you:

E-mail address1:

E-mail address2:

Thank you very much for your contribution.

Appendix 3b: Questionnaire (Australians in Malaysia)

Survey of Australians in Malaysia



This is a research project undertaken by a PhD student, Ms. Christina Yeo, enrolled at The University of Adelaide, Australia.

Thank you very much for taking the time to complete the questionnaire. Completed forms may be returned as an email attachment to: christina.yeo@adelaide.edu.au Alternatively, you may send by post in the reply paid envelope provided to: The University of Adelaide, Discipline of Geography, Environment and Population, Level G, Napier Building, Adelaide, SA 5005.

A1. Age: _____ Gender: Male
 Female

- B1. What is your country of birth?
- B2. Please state your countries of citizenship:
- B3. What is your ancestry?
- B4. Where were your parents born? Father : _____
Mother : _____
- B5. Is Visa required for you to enter Malaysia? *(Please select one)*
 Yes (go to question B6, B7)
 No (go to question B7)
- B6. If yes, under which category?
 Single Entry Visa
 Multiple Entry Visa
 Transit Visa
- B7. What type of Pass do you hold in Malaysia?
 Visitor's Pass (Temporary Employment)
 Visitor's Pass (Professional)
 Employment Pass
 Short Term Social Visit Pass
 Long Term Social Visit Pass
 Dependant Pass
 Student Pass
 Entry Permit (Permanent Resident)
 Work and Holiday
 Others *(please specify):*

C1. How long have you been living in Malaysia?

C2. Where are you currently living in Malaysia?

City/Town: _____

State/Territory: _____ Postcode: _____

C3. Where were you living before you left for Malaysia?

Suburb/Town: _____

State/Territory: _____ Postcode: _____

Country: _____

D1. Please indicate the main reasons for your decision to move to Malaysia *(You may tick more than one)*

- Overseas job transfer/exchange
- Better employment opportunities
- Partner's employment
- Promotional/career advancement
- Marriage/partnership
- To be close to family/friends
- Education/study
- Lifestyle
- Higher income
- Professional development
- Other *(please specify)*:

E1. How many times have you visited Australia since first moving to Malaysia?

E2. What are the main reasons for these visits? *(You may tick more than one)*

- Business-related
- Work-related
- Visit family and friends
- Holiday
- Study
- Special events *(e.g. birthday, anniversary, wedding, funeral, please specify)*:

Other *(please specify)*:

E3. What is the average length of stay on visits there?

- Less than 1 week
- 1 – 2 weeks
- More than 2 weeks – less than 1 month
- 1 month – less than 3 months
- 3 months – less than 6 months
- 6 months or more

F1. What is your current employment status?

- Employed full-time (go to question F2)
- Employed part-time (go to question F2)
- Unemployed (go to question G1)
- Not in the workforce (go to question G1)
- Student (go to question G1)

F2. If you are currently employed, is your job:

- Permanent
 - Contract
 - Other (please specify):
-

F3. What is your main occupation?

F4. What industry are you currently employed in?

F5. In this job, are you:

- Working for wages, salary or commission
 - In your own business, and employing others
 - In your own business, but not employing others
 - Other (please specify):
-

F6. What is your current annual income? (Estimated in AUD)

- Less than \$50,000 per annum
- \$50,000 - \$99,999 per annum
- \$100,000 - \$149,999 per annum
- \$150,000 - \$199,999 per annum
- \$200,000 - \$299,000 per annum
- More than \$300,000 per annum

F7. Please indicate any salary package entitlements that make your current job attractive.

G1. What was your employment status, before moving to Malaysia?

- Employed full-time
- Employed part-time
- Unemployed
- Not in the workforce
- Student

G2. If you were employed, what was your main occupation?

G3. Since moving to Malaysia, has your household financial situation changed:

- Improved
- Got worse
- Stayed about the same

H1. What is your highest completed education qualification?

- Postgraduate degree
- Postgraduate diploma
- Honours degree
- Bachelor degree
- Undergraduate diploma
- Secondary school
- Other *(please specify)*:

H2. What is your field of study?

I1. Did you have contacts in place with people or organizations in Malaysia before moving here?

- Yes (go to Question I2)
- No (go to Question I3)

I2. If yes, what type of network or contacts? *(You may tick more than one)*

- Social (family and friends)
- Professional (employment/business related)
- Education/study-related
- Other *(please specify)*:

J3. How did you learn of opportunities in Malaysia that prompted your move here? *(You may tick more than one)*

- Existing networks in Malaysia
 - Networks in Australia
 - Partner/family going there
 - Been to Malaysia before
 - Experiences of others who have travelled to Malaysia
 - Independent search
 - Advertisement by migration agents
 - Other *(please specify)*:
-

J1. Do you plan to return to Australia to live?

- Yes (go to Question J2, J3)
- No (go to Question J4)
- Undecided (go to Question J4)

J2. If yes, when do you plan to return to Australia to live? *(Please state year)*:

J3. What are your main reasons for returning to Australia? *(You may tick more than one)*

- To be reunited with family members back home
 - Marriage
 - Aging or sick parents/relatives
 - To retire
 - Better economic prospects in Australia
 - Better cultural values for children upbringing in Australia
 - Opportunities for family members other than myself in Australia
 - Lifestyle in Australia preferred
 - People here not as friendly
 - Do not appreciate the climate here
 - Unable to secure a good job or career
 - Other *(please specify)*:
-

J4. What are your main reasons for not returning to Australia? *(You may tick more than one)*

- Employment opportunities better here
 - Career and promotion opportunities better here
 - Partner's employment is located here
 - Marriage/partnership keeps me here
 - Family here
 - Lifestyle more attractive here
 - Established in current location
 - Higher income here
 - More favourable personal income tax regime here
 - No equivalent jobs in Australia
 - Cost of relocating back to Australia
 - Unhappy with Australia's present political climate
 - Other *(please specify):*
-

J5. What needs to happen for you to return to Australia?

K1. Do you have contact with other Australians living in Malaysia?

- Yes
- No

K2. Do you participate in any Australian-based organisations/clubs in Malaysia?

- Yes
- No

K3. Please list any Australian or expats organisations/clubs you are involved with in Malaysia?

L1. Do you maintain contact with people/organisations in Australia?

- Yes
- No (go to Question M1)

L2. What type of linkages do you keep with Australia?

- Social through interactions with family and friends
 - Professional (employment/business related)
 - Education/study related
 - Informational/current affairs on e.g. Internet/TV programmes
 - Other *(please specify):*
-

L3. How often do you stay in touch with your social networks in Australia? *(Select all that apply)*

	Weekly	Fortnightly	Monthly	Quarterly	Irregularly	Never
Phone calls	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Mobile text messages	<input type="checkbox"/>					
E-mail	<input type="checkbox"/>					
LinkedIn	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Facebook	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Twitter	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Skype	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Post	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Other <i>(please specify)</i> :						

L4. How often do you stay in touch with your professional networks in Australia? *(Select all that apply)*

	Weekly	Fortnightly	Monthly	Quarterly	Irregularly	Never
Phone calls	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Mobile text messages	<input type="checkbox"/>					
E-mail	<input type="checkbox"/>					
LinkedIn	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Facebook	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Twitter	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Skype	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Post	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Other <i>(please specify)</i> :						

L5. Do you belong to any professional organisations/clubs in Australia?

Yes, please list:

No

M1. Do you feel your presence overseas has any benefits for Australia?

Yes (go to Question M2)

No (go to Question N1)

M2. If yes, what would that be? *(You may tick more than one)*

Existing contacts useful for other Australians

Learning skills/gaining experiences transferable back to Australia

Creating goodwill towards Australia

Creating business/trade links with Australian companies

Good ambassadors for Australia

Investment opportunities

Other *(please specify)*:

N1. Do you consider Australia still to be your home?

Yes

No

Undecided

N2. Which country do you identify most strongly with for the following:

	Australia	Malaysia	Other.
Please state.			
Home of origin	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> _____
Personal and family life	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> _____
Professional life	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> _____

O1. What is your current marital status?

Never married

Separated or divorced

Widowed

Married

O2. Has your marital status changed since you left Australia?

Yes (go to Question O3, O4)

No (go to Question O4)

O3. How has your marital status changed?

O4. What is the birthplace of your spouse/partner?

O5. What is the citizenship of your spouse/partner?

O6. Is your spouse/partner living here in Malaysia?

Yes

No (please specify country):

O7. Is your spouse/partner working here in Malaysia?

Yes

No (please state reason):

- P1. What is your current family/household living arrangement?
- Single person household (go to Question Q1)
 - Couple only household (go to Question Q1)
 - Couple with children (go to Question P2, P3)
 - One parent with children (go to Question P2, P3)
 - Two or more unrelated individuals (go to Question Q1)
 - Other *(please specify)*:
-

- P2. If you have children, what are their age groups? *(Select all that apply)*
- Less than 5 years
 - 5-9 years
 - 10-14 years
 - 15-19 years
 - Over 20 years

- P3. What are your children's citizenships?
-

- Q1. Please list any of the following that you currently own in your home country, and/or Malaysia (or other countries)? *Select all that apply*

Australia

Malaysia

Elsewhere

A home

Property

A business

A bank account

Financial investments

Other *(please specify)*:

Q2. Please list any of the following that you intend to purchase in your home country, and/or Malaysia (or other countries)? *Select all that apply*

Australia

Malaysia

Elsewhere

A home

Property

A business

A bank account

Financial investments

Other *(please specify)*:

R1. Could you provide any further comments that may be of use to this study?

S1. Thank you very much for taking your time to complete this survey. I hope to conduct some follow-up interviews and would be grateful if you are keen to be engaged further. Please provide your e-mail address in the space provided below if you elect to participate in a follow-up interview so that I may contact you:

E-mail address1:

E-mail address2:

Thank you very much for your contribution.

Appendix 4a: Sample of Introductory Note (E-mail)

Dear Sir/Madam

Survey of Australians in Malaysia and Malaysians in Australia

My name is Christina Yeo and I am a PhD student at The University of Adelaide. I am working with Professor Graeme Hugo on a research project looking at the motivations and experiences of Malaysians and Australians moving between Australia and Malaysia.

As part of this research, I have designed online surveys to be distributed to Australians in Malaysia and Malaysians in Australia.

I hope to better research the causes, motivations and experiences of these migrants; and ultimately to contribute towards mainstreaming mobility and migration into national development strategies and policy responses.

I am enquiring whether it would be possible to **post a link to my survey on Swinburne website, FB page and/or e-mail my survey to staff/students**. Individual responses are completely confidential; all results will be presented in aggregate form. I will keep you posted as the study progresses and inform you of all research findings.

The survey takes 10-15 minutes to complete. It requires either a tick or just a few words of comments.

Details of the surveys are as follows:

Australians in Malaysia

I invite Australians, including persons of Australian origin, aged 18 and above, currently living/working/studying in Malaysia.

<https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/AustraliansInMalaysia>

Malaysians in Australia

I invite fellow Malaysians, including persons of Malaysian origin, aged 18 and above, currently living/working/studying in Australia.

<https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/MalaysiansInAustralia>

Please let me know if working with your organisation is possible. Thank you very much for your time.

Sincerely,

Christina Ken Yin YEO
The University of Adelaide, AUSTRALIA 5005
christina.yeo@adelaide.edu.au

Appendix 4b: Sample of Introductory Note (Social media, newsletter)

**Why people move? What happens after they move?
How is it like in the Australian and Malaysian contexts?**

In a humble quest to learn more about you:
Malaysians in Australia
<https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/MalaysiansInAustralia>
Australians in Malaysia
<https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/AustraliansInMalaysia>

**“Do.
Or do not.
There is
no try.”**
(Yoda)

PhD Survey on Malaysian and Australian diaspora

Christina Yeo, PhD Candidate in Geography, Environment & Population at The University of Adelaide's School of Social Sciences, is completing a study of the motivations, activities, contributions of Malaysians living in Australia, and/or moving between Australia and Malaysia.



The knowledge gained from the online survey analysis will provide an invaluable insight as to what are the outcomes of these movements for Australia, for Malaysia, and for the people moving between both countries.

As a Malaysian living overseas, your participation in completing this survey will be a great contribution towards establishing a better understanding about a very important, but often neglected, segment of the Malaysian population.

This online survey takes approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. It requires either a tick or just a few words of comments. The study is completely confidential, and whatever is reported in the study will not identify you in any way.

For more information, and to complete Christina's survey, please click on the following link: <https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/MalaysiansInAustralia>

The survey will close at the end of June 2014.

HOME ABOUT SERVICES DRIVING IN AUSTRALIA NEWS & VIEWS RESOURCES

**MALAYSIAN HONORARY CONSUL
in South Australia**

To all Malaysians in Adelaide

A Malaysian doing her PhD in Adelaide has asked me to post the following:

Dear Malaysians in Australia,

A fellow Malaysian, who is pursuing her PhD at The University of Adelaide, is making a study of the motivations and experiences of Malaysian and Australian diaspora moving between Malaysia and Australia. As part of her research, she has compiled an online survey to be distributed to Malaysians in Australia.

The knowledge gained from analysis of survey results will provide invaluable insight as to what are the outcomes of these movements for Australia, for Malaysia, and for the people moving between both countries.

As Malaysian living overseas, your participation in completing this survey will be a great contribution towards establishing a better understanding about a very important, but often neglected, segment of the Malaysian population.

This online survey takes approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. It requires either a tick or just a few words of comments. The study is completely confidential, and whatever is reported in the study will not identify you in any way.

For more information and to complete the survey please follow this link:
<https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/MalaysiansInAustralia>

Survey of Australians in Malaysia

Hi,

Researchers from The University of Adelaide have compiled an online survey which includes questions about the motivations, activities and intentions of Australians living in Malaysia, and/or moving between Malaysia and Australia.

The knowledge gained from analysis of survey results will provide invaluable insight as to what are the outcomes of these movements for Malaysia, for Australia, and for the people moving between both countries.

As Australian living overseas, your participation in completing this survey will be a great contribution towards establishing a better understanding about a very important, but often neglected, segment of the Australian population.

This online survey takes approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. It requires either a tick or just a few words of comments. The study is completely confidential, and whatever is reported in the study will not identify you in any way.

For more information and to complete the survey please follow this link:
<https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/AustraliansInMalaysia>

Thank you for your participation!



Appendix 5a: Interview guide (Malaysians in Australia)

1. How did you learn about the online survey? (FB/LinkedIn/etc.)
2. When did you first arrive in Australia? Migrate?
3. What do you think of Australia as a place to work and live before coming here?
4. What are your views of Australia compared to other countries as work/live destination?
5. Do you have friends from Malaysia who are living/working in Australia?
6. Why did you go overseas and not remain in Malaysia?
7. What were the main factors of leaving? (push/pull)
8. Did you consider another country to work/live in?
9. Which country and why?
10. What is important to you when deciding the destination country to live/work in?
11. What sources of information did you use and how important were they?
12. What are your preferred overseas countries (apart from Australia)?
13. Why did you consider those places?
14. What made you decide to come to Australia?
15. How long do you plan to remain here in Australia?
16. Was this something you decided before coming here or after?
17. What are your future plans?
18. Do you plan to migrate/move permanently?
19. Any plans to go to a 3rd country?
20. Any plans to return to your home country?
21. After having lived here for some time, are your expectations met?
22. How is the engagement with the Malaysian High Commission/Representative(s) here?
23. What do you think Malaysia can do to improve life for Malaysians living in Australia?
24. What do you think Australia can do to improve life for Malaysians living in Australia?
25. Do you see yourself contributing to Malaysia?
26. Do you see yourself contributing to Australia?
27. Is your spouse working? Why not if wish to?
28. Any suggestions to Australia to better promote Australia as a work/live destination?

Appendix 5b: Interview guide (Australians in Malaysia)

1. How did you learn about the online survey? (FB/LinkedIn/etc.)
2. When did you first arrive in Malaysia? Migrate?
3. What do you think of Malaysia as a place to work and live before coming here?
4. What are your views of Malaysia compared to other countries as work/live destination?
5. Do you have friends from Australia who are living/working in Malaysia?
6. Why did you go overseas and not remain in Australia?
7. What were the main factors of leaving? (push/pull)
8. Did you consider another country to work/live in?
9. Which country and why?
10. What is important to you when deciding the destination country to live/work in?
11. What sources of information did you use and how important were they?
12. What are your preferred overseas countries (apart from Malaysia)?
13. Why did you consider those places?
14. What made you decide to come to Malaysia?
15. How long do you plan to remain here in Malaysia?
16. Was this something you decided before coming here or after?
17. What are your future plans?
18. Do you plan to migrate/move permanently?
19. Any plans to go to a 3rd country?
20. Any plans to return to your home country?
21. After having lived here for some time, are your expectations met?
22. How is the engagement with the Australian High Commission/Representative(s) here?
23. What do you think Australia can do to improve life for Australians living in Malaysia?
24. What do you think Malaysia can do to improve life for Australians living in Malaysia?
25. Do you see yourself contributing to Australia?
26. Do you see yourself contributing to Malaysia?
27. Is your spouse working? Why not if wish to?
28. Any suggestions to Malaysia to better promote Malaysia as a work/live destination?

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