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JUGRA SURVEY

EMPLOYMENT PATTERN

by

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to the University of Malaya
in part fulfilment towards the
Degree of Bachelor of Economics
(Division of Rural Development)

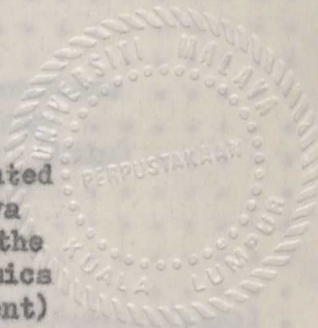


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2	The District of Kuala Langat viii
3	Map of Households in Jugra map attached

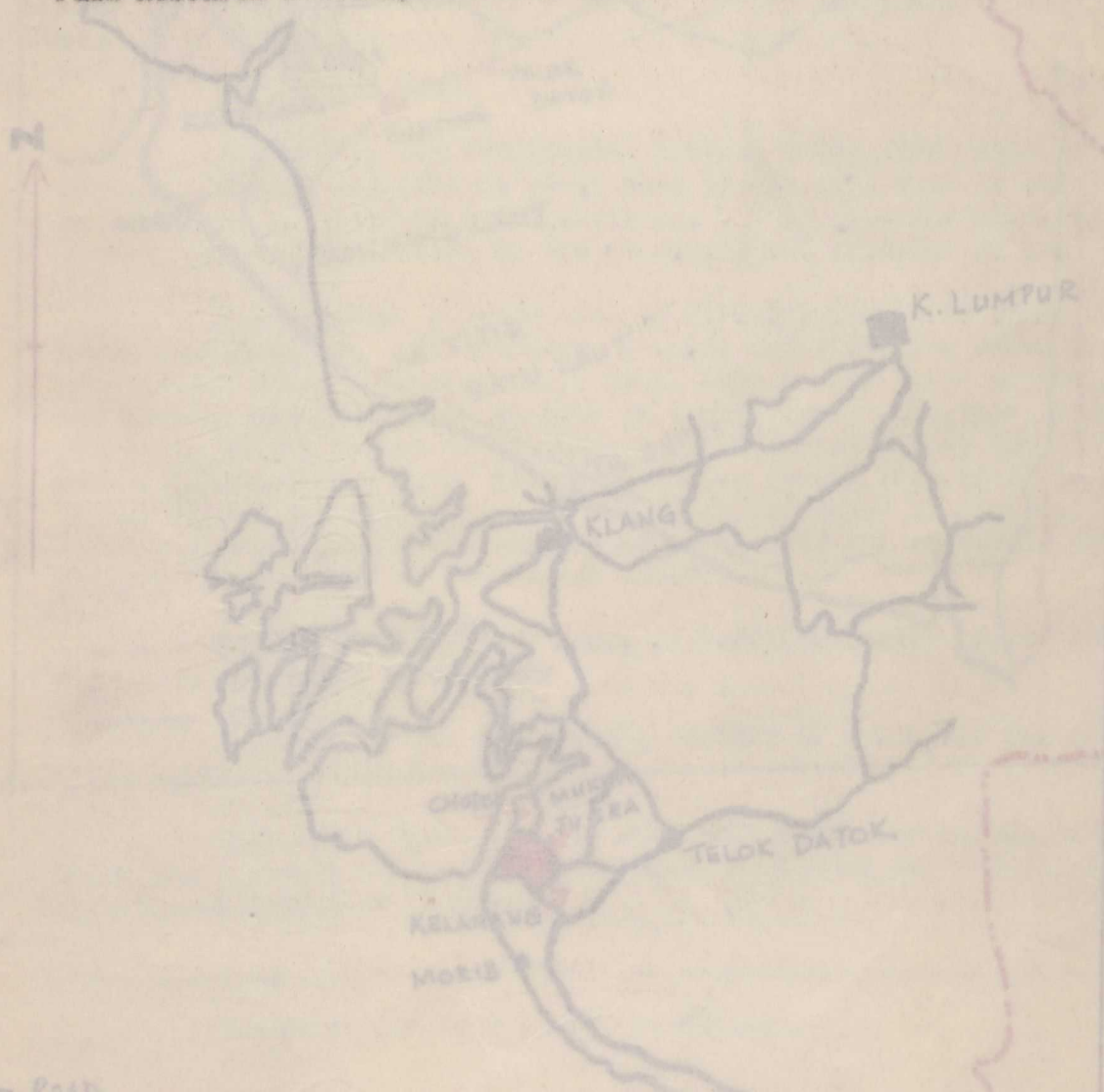
Finally, I am also deeply indebted to the Tok Sidang of the Makin for assisting me in contacting the various Ketua Kampong and the Kampong Committees. Last but not least, my thanks also go to the Headmasters of all Secondary Schools in Teluk Bahok; Primary School Headmasters of Permatang Pasir and Kolanang; and the Manager of Oil Palm Research Station, Kelanang Bahru.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I am greatly indebted to my Supervisor, Professor U.A. Aziz, for his constructive criticisms and suggestions.

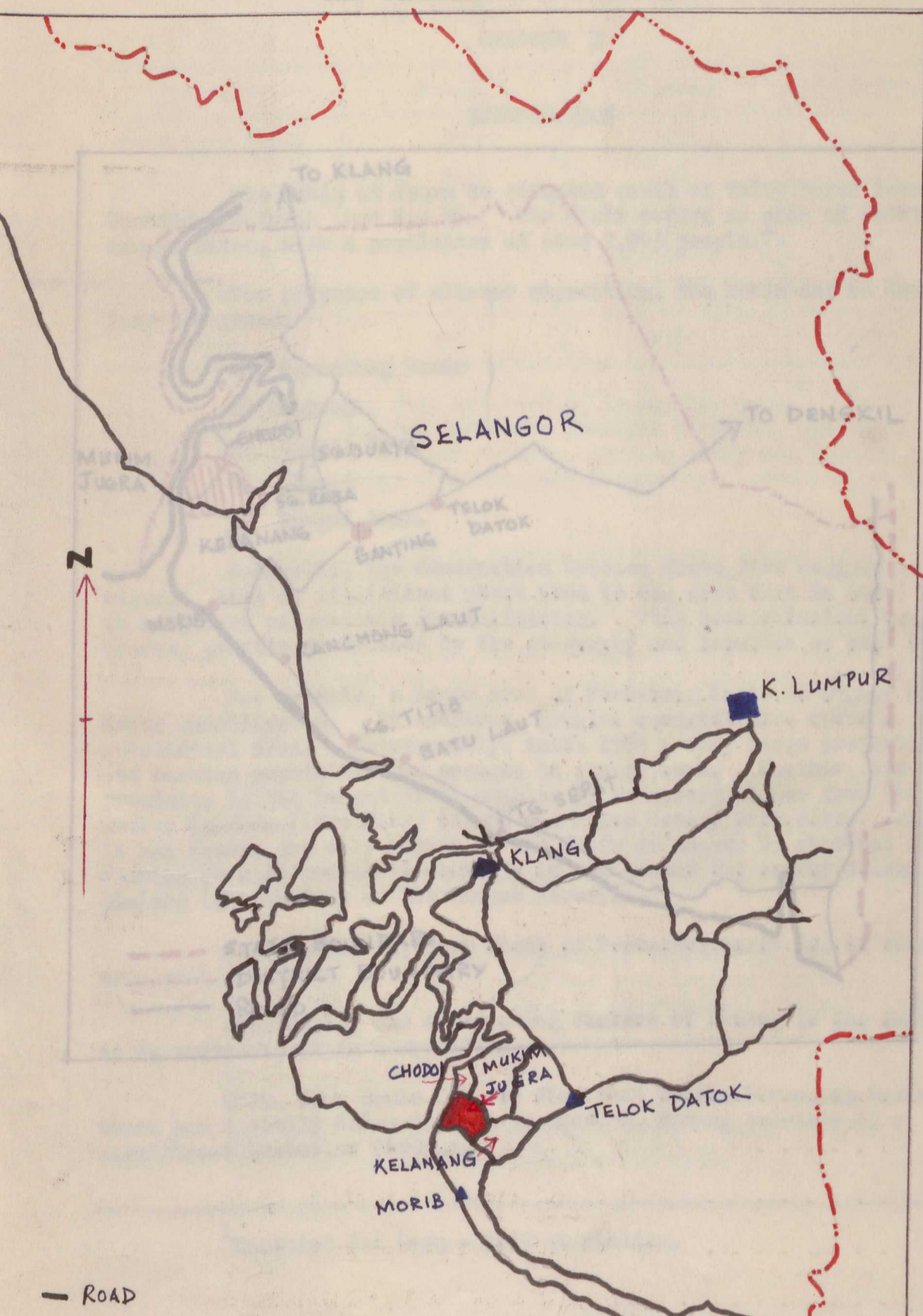
I wish also to record my thanks to the District Officer and Assistant District Officers, Telok Datok; the MARA Officer; the Agricultural Officer and the Welfare Officer of Kuala Langat for giving me a general introduction of the Mukim.

Finally, I am also deeply indebted to the Tok Sidang of the Mukim for assisting me in contacting the various Ketua Kampongs and the Kampong Committees. Last but not least, my thanks also go to the Headmasters of all Secondary Schools in Telok Datok; Primary School Headmasters of Permatang Pasir and Kelanang; and the Manager of Oil Palm Research Station, Kelanang Bahru.



MAP 1

THE STATE OF SELANGOR

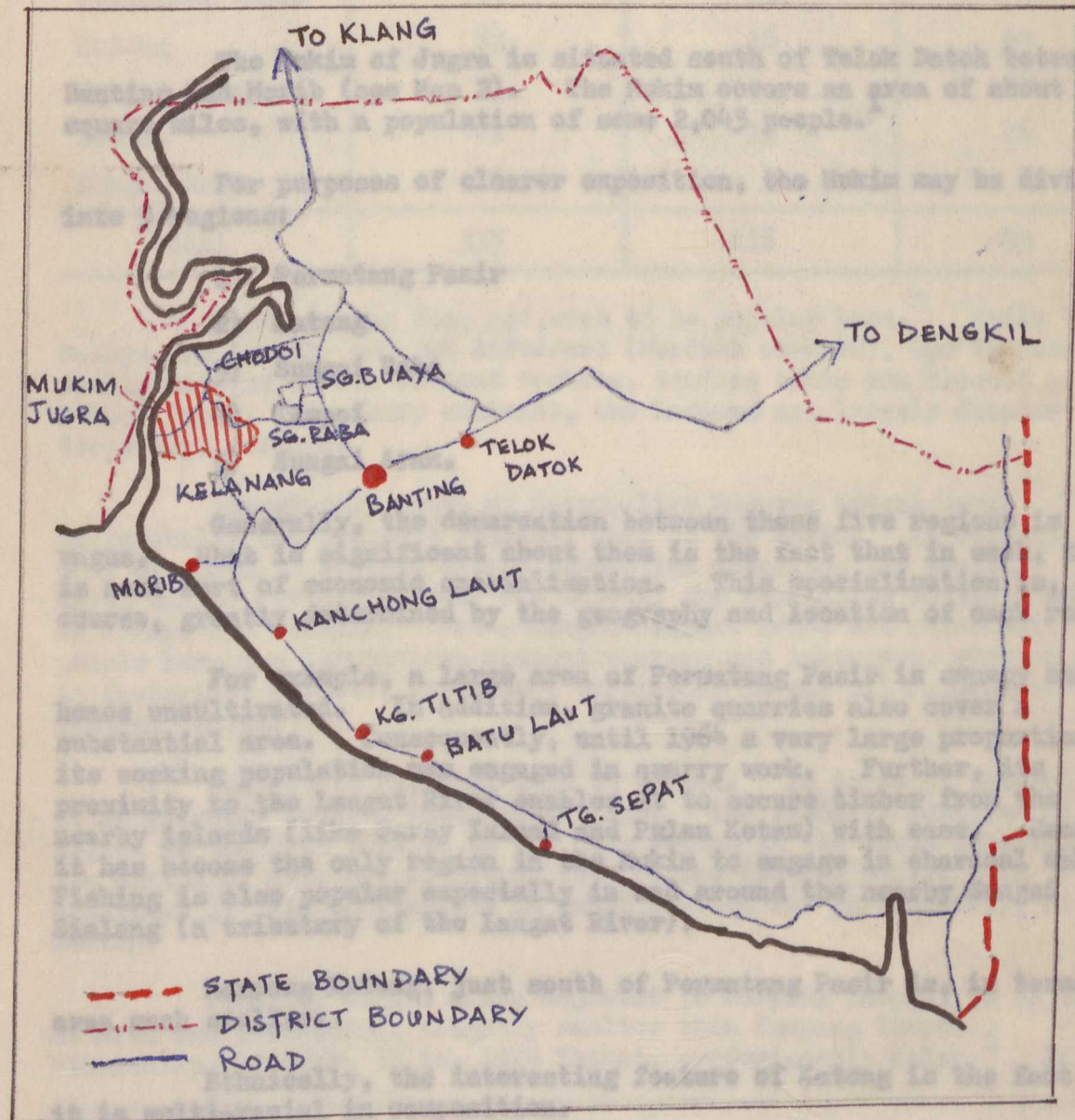


MAP 2

THE DISTRICT OF KUALA LANGAT

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION



Thus, from Table I.1, we find that within Permatang Pagar which has a wholly Malay-Chinese population, Kating consists of a significant number of Indians.

TABLE I.1

RACIAL DISTRIBUTION OF LARGE FISH BY REGIONS IN THE MUKIM

CHAPTER I

Region	Malay	Chinese	Indian
Permatang Pasir	85	76	4
Katong	2	25	16
Sungai Raba	118	118	93
Tampoi			
Sungai Arak			
Total	105	118	93

INTRODUCTION

The Mukim of Jugra is situated south of Telok Datch between Banting and Morib (see Map 2). The Mukim covers an area of about 5 square miles, with a population of some 2,043 people.¹

For purposes of clearer exposition, the Mukim may be divided into 5 regions:

- 1) Permatang Pasir
- 2) Katong
- 3) Sungai Raba
- 4) Tampoi
- 5) Sungai Arak.

Generally, the demarcation between these five regions is vague. What is significant about them is the fact that in each, there is some sort of economic specialisation. This specialisation is, of course, greatly determined by the geography and location of each region.

For example, a large area of Permatang Pasir is swampy and hence uncultivated. In addition, granite quarries also cover a substantial area. Consequently, until 1964 a very large proportion of its working population was engaged in quarry work. Further, its proximity to the Langat River enables it to secure timber from the nearby islands (like Carey Island and Pulau Ketam) with ease. Hence, it has become the only region in the Mukim to engage in charcoal making. Fishing is also popular especially in and around the nearby Sungai Sialang (a tributary of the Langat River).

Kampong Katong, just south of Permatang Pasir is, in terms of area much smaller.

Ethnically, the interesting feature of Katong is the fact that it is multi-racial in composition.

Thus, from Table I.1, we find that unlike Permatang Pasir which has a wholly Malay-Chinese population, Katong consists of a significant number of Indians.

¹District Red Book - 1967 statistics.

TABLE I.1
RACIAL DISTRIBUTION OF LABOUR FORCE
BY REGIONS IN THE MUKIM

Region	Malay	Chinese	Indian
Permatang Pasir	85	76	4
Katong	83	26	45
Sungai Raba	57	-	23
Tampoi	71	13	16
Sungai Arak	39	3	5
Total	335	118	93

Attap making does not seem to be popular here.² While the Malays are largely odd job labourers (Meremah workers), the Chinese are mostly engaged as Own Account workers, tending their own coconut or rubber farms. In sharp contrast, the Indians are largely Jabatan Kerja Raya workers.

Immediately south of Katong lies Kampong Sungai Raba. It is incidentally the smallest regional unit in the Mukim. It consists only of about 30 houses, with a population totalling 118 people.³ Here, unlike Permatang Pasir and Katong, the population consists solely of Malays and Indians. Not a single Chinese house was recorded! The people here are largely own account workers and labourers, working either in factories, estates, government service or in the Oil Palm Research station nearby.

The fourth regional unit is Tampoi. In terms of population it is slightly smaller than Sungai Raba. The distinct features of this region is the fact that it is the only region in the Mukim involved in the making of mats and mengkuang food covers (Tudong Saji). In addition, it also specialises in bakul making, and particularly, attap making.

Finally, Sungai Arak, adjacent to Kampong Tampoi, is in terms of area and population, slightly smaller than Kampong Tampoi.⁵ Ethnically, however, it is, like Tampoi, predominantly Malay.⁵ An

²See Table II.8.

³Red Book - Gerakan Maju Daerah 1967. These statistics relate to the entire population including children.

⁴See Table I.1.

⁵Ibid.

especially interesting feature of Kampong Sungai Arak is the fact that a relatively large proportion of its population work in the Oil Palm Research station, popularly known in the region as, O.P.R.S.

Objectives

The basic objective of this exercise is to determine the pattern of Employment and Unemployment in the Mukim.

In this connection, first an attempt shall be made to determine, describe, and analyse both the major and minor occupations in the Mukim.

Secondly, it shall seek to determine the extent of unemployment and thereafter to analyse it in terms of its possible causes and effects.

Lastly, this exercise shall also attempt to expose and analyse some major economic problems confronting the Mukim, in so far as they relate to the current problems of Unemployment and Under-employment in the Mukim.

Scope

The scope of this survey has been determined by a discussion with the Supervisor, Professor Ungku Abdul Aziz.

1. In terms of area, it is concerned only with the Mukim of Jugra.
2. In terms of age, it includes only those between the ages of 15 and 60 years. That is, it shall ignore those below the ages of 15 and those above 60 years.
3. In terms of employment it only includes those people living in the Mukim irrespective of where they work.

Methodology

The methodology of this survey can be conveniently considered under the following headings:

1. Collection of data
2. Tabulation.

The collection of data was carried out by a personal house to house interview. For this purpose a three page Questionnaire was prepared.

Before the commencement of the actual interviews, a preliminary testing was made to check the efficacy of the Questionnaire. This was

done by interviewing five households selected randomly in the Mukim. Certain amendments were found to be necessary and therefore accordingly made. Then interviewing was commenced via a detailed map of the area.

The interviewing was direct, informal and casual. The respondents were always approached in their own houses. In every case before the commencement of the interview, the respondents were clearly briefed on the aims and importance of the inquiry. It was found that this helped relieve the initial fears and suspicions of the respondents.

It must also be noted that although the Questionnaire was rather technical and in English, the interviews were all conducted in Malay, in as simple and interesting manner as possible. Instead of merely eliciting standard data only, an attempt was always made to draw the respondents into some systematic, frank conversation. Care was always taken to keep this conversation strictly within the bounds of this Survey. In this way some useful answers and information were freely and candidly given.

On the whole, the respondents were found to be cooperative, and this was especially so with the Malay households. The Chinese, in contrast, were generally reluctant, and this was sometimes overcome by the intervention of their regional 'kepalas' or headman.

Finally, it may be pointed out that there was no sampling of any sort, since a survey of the whole universe was made. Altogether over 200 households were interviewed.

Once all interviews were completed, the next task was that of sifting and tabulating the mass of data, before they could be meaningfully analysed.

To render this tabulation easier and thorough, a method was devised on the advice of Prof. Ungku Aziz. This method involved the printing of cards⁷ size 6 inches by 3½ inches. Each of these cards contained all data necessary for the analysis. The size of the card was designed such that it could be easily and conveniently handled like a pack of playing cards. Further, each card was used to record, only the particulars of one individual in the Mukim. In other words, for every individual in the Mukim, whether working or unemployed between the ages of 15 and 60 years, a separate card was prepared.

In addition to these cards, for purposes of cross reference, a special form was drafted. In this special form records were kept on the basis of each of the households. Each household was identified in terms of a number, which corresponded with the lot number of the household (as it appeared in the Mukim Map) as well as the reference number in the cards.

⁷Refer Appendix II.

⁸Refer Appendix III.

In this way, the use of the rather haphazard and unsystematic lot numbers as reference numbers in the cards was conveniently discarded. In short then, the functions of this special form was two-fold:

- 1) To act as cross references
- 2) To store information not included in the cards. Such 'stored' information included data on the number of those below 15 years; above 60 years; housewives; and finally students.

Lastly, it may also be pointed out that certain important people associated with the Mukim like the Penghulu, Tok Sidang, Ketua Kampongs; District Officer and the Assistant District Officer; Headmasters of Primary and Secondary schools in Permatang Pasir and Telok Datoh respectively and the Manager of the Oil Palm Research Station were interviewed to gather some first-hand supplementary information regarding the economic and social problems of the Mukim.

Survey of the Labour Supply

The 'labour supply' here means the total number of people who are able to provide labour. That is, it includes both who are actively employed and those who are presently unemployed but actively seeking employment. Fifteen years of age is taken to be the lowest-age limit, because a large number of school-leavers who are currently actively seeking jobs are found to be around this age. The age-limit on the other extreme is quite irrelevant because it was found that none except the sick, were unemployed as a result of old age. On the basis of this classification, the total labour force of Mukim Jaga comprises of 546 people. The Composition and Characteristics of the labour force shall now be briefly outlined.

TABLE II.1

LABOUR SUPPLY

Race	No. of People	Total %
Malay	325	61.4
Chinese	116	21.2
Indians	95	17.4
Total	546	

In Table II.1, the labour force is shown in terms of racial composition. It shows that the labour force comprises of all three major races in West Malaysia. The Malays certainly constitute an overwhelming majority of the total labour force in the Mukim.

TABLE II.2

LABOUR SUPPLY : AGE GROUPS

Age Groups	CHAPTER II	Number
15 - 20	EMPLOYMENT PATTERN	163
21 - 25		86
26 - 30		72

Introduction

This chapter concerns the description and analysis of employment pattern in the Mukim. It forms a central part of this graduation exercise.

It shall first begin with a general survey of the labour supply in the Mukim. Next, it shall discuss the nature, characteristics and relative importance of each economic activity or form of employment. Their problems as well as their future prospects shall also be briefly examined.

Survey of the Labour Supply

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TABLE II.2
LABOUR SUPPLY : AGE GROUPS

Age Groups	Number
15 - 20	163
21 - 25	86
26 - 30	72
31 - 35	42
36 - 40	54
41 - 45	32
46 - 50	25
51 - 55	32
56 - 60	23
60 & above	17
Total	<u>546</u>

In Table II.2 above, the distribution of labour supply in terms of age groups is examined.

From the table, we find that the labour force seems to be concentrated most around the 15-20 age group. On further analysis, if we re-classify the labour force into 3 age groups, as is shown in Table II.3 below, we find that those between the ages of 15-25 constitutes almost 46% of the total population. On the other hand, those above 26 years constitute over 54%. This implies that there is a definite drift of young people away from the Mukim. My subsequent enquiries more than amply confirmed this observation. Generally, it was found that, on average, every household had at least one member working outside the Mukim.

TABLE II.3
LABOUR SUPPLY : AGE DISTRIBUTION

Age Groups	No. of People
15 - 25	249
26 - 40	168
41 & above	129
Total	<u>546</u>

In Table II.4, the labour supply is viewed in terms of sex. This is very important because, generally, the members of the fairer

sex were found to be unwilling to work where the work is tough, heavy and tiring - as most of the works are in the Mukim. Thus, it would be naive and unrealistic to regard the two sexes as being equal in terms of willingness, preparedness and ability to work.

TABLE II.4

LABOUR SUPPLY BY SEX AND AGE

Age Groups	Male	Female	Total
15 - 25	150	116	266
26 - 40	133	31	164
41 & above	88	28	116
Total	371	175	546
Percentage	68	32	100

In the above table, it can be seen that the male constitute 68% of the labour supply, while the female constitute 32%. It may also be observed that for the females, their potential labour supply is highest in the 15-25 years category, and subsequently, the number decreases with age. As for the males, the trend is also similar but not quite so spectacular. For the males, we find that the drop is greatest after 41 years of age. The reason seems to be mainly due to the particular nature of the occupations, i.e. heavy, tough and tiring. Thus, after 41 years they find it too difficult to continue. Another possible reason may be due to a low life expectancy. As for the females, the reason is quite different. It may be observed that the drop in the female labour supply is greatest after 26 years. The reason basically lies in the fact that after marriage, especially after bearing children, the female-folk are rather reluctant to work, preferring to do household chores only.

In Table II.5, it shows the working population (i.e. those who are already employed) in terms of age groups and sex.

We find that although the female population (i.e. labour supply) constitute some 32%,¹ it accounts only for 21% of the working population. The males,² on the other hand, while constituting 62% of the total labour supply, account for some 79% of the working population! This confirms that men and women are not equal in terms of preparedness and ability to work, especially where the work demands strength, toughness and toil.

¹See Table II.4.

²Ibid.

found in many. Skin diseases and listlessness were common in others. However, the exact state and extent of the health of the people could not be ascertained.

TABLE II.5

WORKING POPULATION BY AGE AND SEX

Age Groups	Male	Female	Total
15 - 25	94	38	132
26 - 40	126	22	148
41 & above	78	20	98
Total	298	80	378
Percentage	79	21	100

The foregoing analysis can now be briefly summarized. Firstly, that the total labour supply amounts to 546 people of which the Malays, Chinese, and Indians account for about 61%, 21% and 17% respectively. Secondly, that those below the age of 25 years account for barely about 46% of the total population as against those above 26 years which accounts for 54%. This implies rural-urban migration especially of young people, confirmed by the writer's direct inquiries from the people in Mukim. Finally, sex-wise, we find that although the female population constitute 32% of the labour supply, they account for only 21% of the working population.

Characteristics

Let us now consider the characteristics of the labour supply briefly.

Generally, the labour is of a semi-skilled and unskilled variety. The various types of occupation in the Mukim demand very little technical specialisation. For example, 'arang making' (charcoal making); meremah (odd jobs); tukang kayu (carpentry); nelayan (fishing) are occupations of a simple kind, demanding little skill, if any. Fishing, for example, is not done by any sophisticated techniques like trawler fishing - rather the fisherman use small 'perahus' or boats and simple cast nets. Similarly, odd jobs and carpentry are of a very elementary type demanding very little skill.

Another salient feature of the labour supply is the fact that it is largely illiterate or semi-literate. Thus, significantly not even a single person belongs to Division III in the Government service! As Nik Mahmood rightly points out, "the level of education of the people in the Mukim is alarmingly low."

The third and final major characteristic of the labour supply is that it is relatively unhealthy. Tuberculosis particularly, was

³ Nik Mahmood.

found in many. Skin diseases, fatigue and listlessness were common in others. However, the exact state and extent of the health of the people could not be ascertained by the writer.

In short, the labour supply in the Mukim is characterised by 3 major features - lack of any specialised skill; low level of education, and relatively poor state of health.

Having thus discussed the labour supply - its characteristics and composition, we may now turn to discuss the Employment pattern.

Employment Pattern

The discussion of the Employment pattern shall be divided into 2 sections:

Section I - shall outline the major types of occupation in the Mukim, and make a general examination of the overall pattern.

Section II - shall concentrate on a detailed description of the various types of Employment.

Section I - General Examination of the Employment Pattern

For purposes of simplicity, the major types of occupations may be classified very broadly into 10 categories. These are as follows:

Occupation	Total	Relative
1. Attap and Bakul making	10	2.4%
2. Arang making	5	1.2%
3. Oil Palm Research Station (O.P.R.S.)	15	3.6%
4. Meremah	32	8.7%
5. Nelayan	63	16.7%
6. Tukang Kayu	93	24.6%
7. Own Account Workers	378	95.4%
8. Estate Workers		
9. Government Workers		
10. Miscellaneous.		

The above classification is by no means an exhaustive one. It must also be pointed out too, that each category is by no means an exclusive one - rather there is a great deal of over-lapping between them. For example, a meremah worker, sometimes may be a carpenter or a fisherman or an attap maker or even an own account worker, depending on the work available. Similarly, in slack seasons a tukang kayu (carpenter) may turn into a meremah worker. This follows from the fact that there is very little specialisation in the Mukim and that qualitatively, most of the jobs are such that they need very little skill, hence, they are within the 'reach' of every villager. Nonetheless,

the above classification is made on the basis of the average time spent by each worker on a particular job.

In Table II.6 below, we find that the most important single occupation in the Mukim is the Government occupation which account for some 16.7%; followed by own account workers (14.8%); O.P.R.S. (11.3%); meremah (10%); estate (8.7%); arang (7%); attap and bakul (3.4%); nelayan (2.4%) and lastly, tukang kayu (1.2%). Apart from these categories, a large number of miscellaneous workers work in various capacities - from apprentice, mechanics, salesman, ice-cream vendors, taxi drivers, bowling attendants to saw-millers, petrol kiosk attendants, news-vendors, etc.

TABLE II.6

RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF DIFFERENT OCCUPATIONS IN THE MUKIM

Occupation	Number Employed		Total	Relative %
	Male	Female		
Attap & bakul	13	-	13	3.4%
Arang	26	-	26	7.0%
O.P.R.S.	32	11	43	11.3%
Meremah	38	-	38	10.0%
Nelayan	10	-	10	2.4%
Tukang kayu	5	-	5	1.2%
Own account	47	8	55	14.8%
Estate	16	16	32	8.7%
Government	54	9	63	16.7%
Miscellaneous	77	16	93	24.6%
Total			378	

Now, how is income distribution related to the overall employment pattern? This has been summarized in Table II.7. It shows that average monthly income varies with different types of occupations. Education particularly seems to be a very important factor in this connection. For example, the most profitable, i.e. the highest average monthly income is obtained working in the Government sector. As shown in Table II.7, the average income for this sector is \$170 per month, and the income of the recipients in the other sectors vary between \$47 to \$117 per month.

The least profitable sectors are bakul and attap making with an average monthly income of \$47 and meremah with an average of \$56 per month. Both these occupations are solely Malay occupations.

TABLE II.7

OCCUPATIONAL PATTERN WITH CORRESPONDING
AVERAGE INCOME AND HOURS OF WORK

Occupation	Average Monthly Income (\$)	Average Hours of Work Per Day
Bakul & Attap	47	6
Arang	117	8
O.P.R.S.	91	8
Meremah	56	6
Fishing	75	10
Tukang Kayu	80	9
Own Account	95	7
Estate	77	8
Government	170	8
Miscellaneous	89	8

Finally, let us consider the relationship of the Occupational pattern to Environment. As pointed out in the first chapter, there are 5 regional units in the Mukim, the boundaries of which are not easily discernible, but which nonetheless, the people of the Mukim somehow know it. In terms of these geographical regional units, the occupational distribution is shown in Table II.8.

From the table we find that the employment pattern is somehow related to the environment. For example, arang making is significantly confined to Permatang Pasir and Katong, and this is not too difficult to explain. The 2 main reasons are:

1. The area is marshy. Therefore, there is limited agricultural prospects. Hence, the place must be utilized by non-agricultural enterprises.
2. In arang making, timber is needed. But timber can only be obtained from the nearby outlying islands. The Langat River happens to cross the region. Thus, this solves the problem of transport of logs from the nearby islands.

Thus, for these 2 reasons, all the arang factories are exclusively located in Permatang Pasir. As for Katong, it happens to be the region nearest Permatang Pasir, hence, a substantial number of them work in the arang factories of Permatang Pasir. Similarly, Sungai Arak and Tampoi, being nearest to the Oil Palm Research Station, has the highest number of its workers working in the station. As for attap and bakul making they seem to be monopolised by people of Tampoi. The

TABLE II.8

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE EMPLOYMENT PATTERN AND
GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION

Occupation	Permatang Pasir	Sungai Raba	Katong	Sungai Arak	Tampoi
Attap & Bakul	2	-	-	1	10
Arang	16	-	9	-	1
O.P.R.S.	3	9	3	10	18
Meremah	8	3	14	7	6
Fishing	2	1	4	2	1
Tukang Kayu	2	-	1	1	1
Own Account	22	11	15	1	7
Estate	1	8	10	2	11
Government	19	7	19	4	14
Miscellaneous	38	11	29	3	11

reasons are again due partly to its location, partly to tradition, and partly to ease of transport. Tampoi happens to be closest to Kelanang (and adjoining Mukim) where attap and bakul making are exceptionally important. Thus, Tampoi being very close to Kelanang is naturally influenced by it. Moreover, when Chinese lorries come to collect attap and bakul from Kelanang, it can at the same time collect these from Tampoi, since Tampoi lies on the same route. However, this particular occupation has not spread to the other regions in the Mukim, presumably because the market for these products is very limited and seems to be fast declining.

In short then, there seems to be a definite relationship between occupational pattern and geographical location.

Section II - Detailed Description of the Occupational Pattern

Now that we have seen the broad general outline of the labour force and occupational pattern, we may now proceed to examine a detailed description of each occupation.

1. Attap and Bakul Making

Attap making and bakul (i.e. basket) making are essentially 2 separate occupations. There are typical cottage industries, and since they constitute two separate industries, they shall be described separately.

Attap making, as seen earlier, is not a very important occupation. It employs about 8 people. But an important qualification

must be made at this point. These 8 people are full-time workers, but there are also a large number of part-time workers. While to the full-time workers attap making constitutes the main and only occupation, the part-time workers on the other hand, do not depend on attap production for their livelihood. Whatever they earn from this activity forms only as a supplement to their income. Thus, if these part-time workers are included then attap production at any one time, may employ as much as 30-35 people.

All in all there are 6 separate activities involved in the production of attap. These are as follows:

a. Collection of nipah leaves

The leaves are cut by a parang and then stacked in bundles. Each of these bundles contain leaves sufficient to make about 50 attaps. The rate charged for this service is \$1.00. It is customary and fixed.

b. Preparation of bemban

'Bemban' is a Malay word, which refers to long (i.e. about 4 feet), flat bamboo strips with a width of about 2 inches. These strips form the 'back-bone' of the attap. The amount charged for preparing 100 bemban or strips, is 60 cents. This rate again is more or less fixed and traditional.

c. Preparation of strings

This forms the third distinct activity. The string is derived from the outer skin of either the bamboo or bemban stems. It is used to tie up the leaves of the nipah together. In this case, the rate charged is 40 cents for every 100 pieces.

d. The actual weaving of attaps

The above three things - nipah leaves, bemban, and strings - are assembled and are fixed together to make attaps. This is purely a women activity. The rate charged for this service is \$1.00 for weaving 100 attaps, i.e. a cent for each attap.

e. The drying operation

Once the attaps have been prepared, the next thing that has to be done is that it must be dried in sunlight. This may take as much as 2 weeks! Attaps that are 'wet' fetch lower prices compared to attaps that are 'dry'. The drying of attaps is usually done by simply laying them out on the ground in the front portion of the house.

f. Bundling up dried attaps

This forms the last and final activity. Once the attaps have been dried they are then collected, stacked in groups of 50 attaps and then bundled up. The rate charged for tying is 40 cents per hundred attaps.

These then are the different stages in the production of attaps.

As seen earlier, the average monthly income of an attap producer is about \$47.⁴ For example, 3 members of a family may produce 3,000 attaps a month. Assuming that they are able to sell all those produced, they will be able to get \$165, provided, of course, they perform all the 6 separate functions themselves.⁵ Thus, attap production is not a particularly encouraging industry. Indeed, the demand for attap is small, and in fact, declining, because there is now a growing preference for zinc sheet roofing. According to the Ketua Kampong of Tampoi, "Zinc roofing provides some sort of social prestige."

Finally, it is important to note that this industry is exclusively Malay. Nowhere can one find Chinese or Indians engaged in it. Secondly, there is a distinct division of labour between the sexes. For example, weaving is strictly a women's job (men doing it are ridiculed and laughed at). Again, while cutting the nipah and bundling them up; cutting the bamboo and transporting them home - are men's jobs, the slicing of the bamboo into fine strips or ridges (called bemban) and slicing of strings - are strictly women's jobs. In short, the heavy jobs are done by the men-folk, while the lighter ones are handled by the women.

Lastly, this industry is characterised by middle-men marketing, i.e. attaps are in most cases, never sold directly by those who make them. There were 2 main reasons advanced for this. These were:

- 1) The market in the immediate vicinity is very limited, especially as the people prefer to use zinc roofs more and more. Thus, if they are to sell by themselves, at best they can sell only a few attaps at a time and even so at long intervals.
- and, ii) But the need for cash is urgent, thus they prefer to sell to the Chinese in bulk for cash, even though if this inevitably means lower prices.

Bakul Making

The characteristics of bakul⁶ making industry are broadly

⁴See Table II.7

⁵Current price of attap is \$5.50 for 100 attaps.

⁶Bakul is a Malay word for basket. In the Mukim, these are made of bamboo, they are tough and heavy.

similar to the attap making industry, i.e. there is a distinct division of labour between the sexes; it is characterised by middle-men marketing and lastly, it is an all Malay industry.

However, unlike attap, the bakul needs very little raw material. Indeed, the only material used is bamboo. The main work is to cut bamboo into small, flat, long pieces, and then to smoothen them until they become thin and soft enough to be woven into baskets or bakul.

These bakul are produced in pairs, one big, and one small. By producing in pairs, the producers avoid the waste of bamboo. Thus, the reason is essentially economic in nature.

Income-wise, bakul production, like attap production, is not lucrative. For example, a couple can produce about 40 pairs a week if they work full-time. Since the current price is 60 cents per pair, and assuming they sell all these 40 pairs, then they make a total of \$24 per week, or a gross income of some \$96 per month. But, after deducting⁷ the cost of buloh (bamboo), which for a pair amounts to about 10 cents, then the total net income per month is about \$80.

In general, however, the prospects of this industry too, like attap making, is not too good. In the market it faces very keen competition from the rather pleasant-looking and light plastic baskets. However, the fisherman, the coffee berries' gatherers, etc. continue to use them.

2. Arang Making

Arang (i.e. charcoal) making employs about 7% of the total employed population in the Mukim. Unlike the 2 earlier occupations, arang making is an exclusively male activity.

All in all, there are about 8 arang factories in the Mukim. Out of these, 3 belong to Malays and the remaining 5 are Chinese-owned. Recently, however, one Malay-owned factory has been closed down. Altogether about 80 people are employed, but only 26 people are from the Mukim of Jugra.

The actual nature of the occupation shall now be described. Broadly, they may fall under 3 distinct heads:

- i) The timber cutting operations
- ii) The transport of the logs
- iii) The work in the 'dapor' or kiln.

⁷The bamboo is usually bought or alternatively obtained free from the jungle - normally the former is preferred because it saves much time and effort. Each 'batang' (sufficient for making a pair of bakul) costs 10 cents.

⁸Factory owned by Raja Kassim. According to one source this was basically due to Chinese manipulations.

i) The timber cutting operations

This is the first stage. Workers from the Mukim have to go in motor boats to outlying islands like Carey Island, Pulau Ketam, etc. The fare of the boat is borne by the employer.

The workers then have to stay in the jungle. They normally team up in groups of 3. The huts are provided, but food must be brought by the workers themselves. They take only the raw materials like padi, sugar, etc. and cook by themselves in the jungle.

The actual work in the jungle, involves the cutting of trees; clearing the stems off its leaves and finally chopping them into about 4 feet long, round logs of timber.

The payment is on a piece-rate basis. It is calculated on the basis of the weight of the 'prepared' logs. For example, one pickul timber (which may take about 4 days to cut and clear) is paid \$45.

Generally, each worker, on average, receives about \$5 per day. This works out to be about \$125 per month. However, it must be pointed out that the whole operation stops during low tides, because then the logs cannot be transported.

ii) The transport of the logs

This is the second stage. Here, the workers are employed in 3 different capacities. The job of the first category of workers is to carry the logs from various parts of the jungle to the boat. The job of the second category of workers is to transport these logs by means of boats to Permatang Pasir. Finally, the work of the third category, is to carry the logs from the boat to the arang factories.

These are rather heavy jobs. The people who work in this occupation or industry are all young and strong. Others who are less strong and old, can hardly stand up to the job.

Another general handicap is that, this particular activity offers employment of only a temporary nature, in the sense that workers are employed on call, and dismissed when the operation stops due to water-movements. According to the workers involved in this particular aspect of the occupation, they only work for about 16 days a month (i.e. during the days when there is high tide). Specifically high tides occur every month approximately as follows:

From the 29th to 5th	7 days
From the 14th to 22nd	9 days
Total	16 days

For the rest of the month, some work in their own farms, while others are left unemployed. On average, they earn about \$5 per day, and

this amounts to \$80 per month. In comparison to those cutting timber, this sum seems to be rather low.

iii) The work in the 'dapor' (kiln)

In this capacity the workers are almost always employed on a permanent basis. Their work involves the burning of logs to form charcoal. It is a very exacting job, especially as the ventilation in the dapor is extremely poor and unhealthy. It is smoky, dark and dingy.

As for payments, these workers are paid only \$4 per day, and this means \$120 per month, since they work throughout the month.

3. Oil Palm Research Station

The Oil Palm Research Station (O.P.R.S.) presently employs about 43 people, and this constitutes some 11.3% of the total employed in the Mukim.⁹ It thus ranks fourth in importance, in terms of the employment it gives to the people in the Mukim.

Sex-wise, there are 32 males and 11 females employed by the O.P.R.S.¹⁰ In terms of age, the majority of the people employed are between the ages of 18 years to 25 years.

The work by these people of the Mukim in the O.P.R.S. falls largely in 3 different capacities:

- i) Weighing of the fruits
- ii) Separating fruits from the bunches
- iii) Grading and packing of the fruits.

The weighing of the fruits is merely part of a wider activity. Here, one worker has to carry loads of fruits and place them on the weighing machine, while another worker records the readings. It is an apparently simple occupation, but it is highly monotonous and routine.

Separating the fruits from the bunches is larvely done by women only. It involves the use of the 'parang' to break and separate the fruits from a big bunch. Then, the worker has to collect the fruits and fill them up in a gunny sack.

The grading and packing of the fruits, by and large, provides employment for the highest number. Here rows of workers (all females) sit on a long, rectangular table. Their job is to separate the different species of fruits brought from different parts of the research station, then to classify them and finally to pack them up in various small quantities in plastic containers.

⁹See Table II.6.

¹⁰Ibid.

Apart from these 3 major activities, only a few are involved in other capacities. For example, there is only 1 boy and 1 girl from the Mukim employed as clerks - and the girl happens to be the highest paid female employee in the Research Station! In addition, a few work as gardeners; 1 works as a watchman of the O.P.R.S. Recreation Club; and a small number work in the field as fruit pluckers.

On average the income per individual is about \$91.¹¹ But this flat average hides the differences in earnings between different individuals working in different capacities, which ranges from \$200 per month to \$60 per month. Secondly, it may also be noted that the average monthly income of males is higher than the females, i.e. while the average for the female is about \$86, the average for the male is over \$105.

In passing, it must be pointed out that all the workers of the Mukim in the O.P.R.S. are permanent employees. Further, the average income earned by them, relatively speaking, vis-a-vis the other occupations in the Mukim - like attap and bakul making, tukang kayu, meremah, etc. - is considerably high and significant.

4. Meremah

'Meremah' is a local Malay term for kampong odd-jobs. It is quite an important occupational category, providing employment to about 10% of the total employed population in the Mukim.

Although meremah loosely means odd-jobs, on close examination however, the writer detected 2 very different meanings.

In one sense it literally means doing odd-jobs. It ranges from 'menajak,' and 'menebas' (2 ways of grass cutting); 'mamanjat kelapa,' 'mengait kelapa' (2 ways of plucking coconut); bertukang (carpentry); memetak kopi (plucking of coffee berries); menyiram rachun (spraying of poison); to land clearing, 'changkolling' and parit making.

Here, the workers are paid either on a task basis or piece rate basis. For example, the rate for menebas¹² varies from \$8 to \$12 per acre while those for menajak¹³ varies between \$5 to \$10 per acre. Yet, another form of land clearing is called 'melandak.' This is a rather unique method of stepping down lallang by means of a wooden steeper. In this case, the payment ranges between \$7 to \$10 per acre.

¹¹See Table II.7.

¹²'Menebas' refers to clearing lallang, weeds, etc. by using a parang. This method is employed when the field or bush is particularly thick.

¹³'Menajak' is another form of land clearing, but in this case by means of a tajak.

However, in the case of coconut plucking and coffee harvesting the payment is done usually on a piece rate basis. For example, in the case of coffee harvesting, the worker is paid between 80 cents to \$1 for every 1 tin (kerosene oil tin) of berries collected. In the case of coconut plucking, however, the payment is made on the basis of nuts collected or plucked. The payment here is on the basis of 2 cents per nut. 'Mengupek kelapa' or husking the nuts is paid separately. In this case ½ cent is paid for each nut husked.

This, then, is one meaning of 'meremah' jobs. In another sense, it refers to the practice of taking temporary outright ownership of a piece of land or property from a landlord for a certain fixed sum of money, and then working on it. The temporary land ownership is usually 'sold' by auction to the highest bidder. This is especially so in the case of nipah farm.

Once a person has bought this right, he then sets down to work on it. For example, if it's a nipah farm, he cuts the nipah leaves, bundles them up, takes them to his house, and then his wife and his older children sit down to make attaps. In this way he has created jobs for himself and his family. But the moment all the nipah leaves have been cut, the land automatically passes on back to the owner or landlord.

Similarly, in the case of a coconut plot, there are 2 possible arrangements.

- i) Pajak buah
- ii) Pajak kebun.

In both cases, the landlord sells outright ownership temporarily. In the case of 'pajak buah' the landlord sells his 'right of harvesting' temporarily at every season, for a flat rate of say \$60 or \$100 depending on the approximate number of trees in the plot. In the case of 'pajak kebun', however, it is quite different. In this case, an agreement is signed whereby the landlord leases his land for a period of 3 to 5 years in return for an annual payment of say \$100, the actual amount depending on the size of the farm. In the case of a fruit orchard, the arrangement is again the same.

Now, let us briefly consider some of the major characteristics of this 'meremah' occupation. These are:

- i) It is a temporary job. It is either seasonal or irregular in nature. They may or may not be employed everyday. Thus, there is no definite, steady income. If the weather is poor, or if the worker is sick or injured, there is no compensation and no income from any source. He must survive on what little he has and there is no other alternative.
- ii) Another peculiar feature of meremah is that a meremah worker is essentially a 'jack of all trades and master

of none'. He has to hunt for a job daily. In one day, he may do 2 or 3 jobs - like cutting lallang in the morning; spraying insecticide in the afternoon; and cutting nipah leaves in the evening. Thus, there is no specialisation at all.

iii) The payment is made either on a piece rate or task performed basis. The exception is when the worker purchases temporary outright ownership. In this case, his income is actually his profits. But this is less common, as it involves some initial capital outlay.

Finally, iv) Income-wise, the meremah worker is one of the lowest paid, with an average monthly income of \$56.¹⁴ Thus, it is characterised by serious under-employment, as the job is highly irregular and uncertain.

5. Nelayan

Nelayan, is a Malay word for fisherman. At one time, the fisherman was quite well-off in the Mukim. To-day, however, fishing is not an important occupational activity. It currently employs only about 2.5% of the working population in the Mukim.

From the point of view of income, it averages about \$75 per month. But this is only an average, for the lowest income can be as much as \$40 per month! Besides, fishing is a very tough and exacting job - a fisherman usually works for about 11 hours a day!

An important point to note in this activity is that, although both Malays and Chinese are engaged in it, income-wise, the position of the Chinese is not bad at all. This anomaly arises from a qualitative difference. For while the Malays use simple 'perahus' or oar-driven boats, the Chinese employ bigger, fast-moving engine-powered boats.

Another salient feature to note is that in the case of the Malays, fishing is a sort of a family activity. The father is always invariably helped by one of his eldest sons, or notwithstanding this, by his brother or some other close friends.

However, in view of a rapidly declining income (as a result of fast-moving, technically superior Chinese boats and a scarcity of fish in the coastal waters), there is a tendency for the Malays to become employees of the Chinese. In this case, they are paid in terms of a certain share per kati of fish caught. For example, currently, they are paid at the rate of 35 cents per kati of fish caught. This amount is in turn shared by the number of helpers on the boat. Usually there are 2 to 3 people per boat. Thus, for every kati of fish caught, each worker gets about 10 cents.

¹⁴See Table II.7.

6. Tukang Kayu (Carpenter)

This is the least important occupational category, employing only 1% of the total employed labour force in the Mukim.

The work involves house-building; repair work; building of tents and platforms for weddings; repairing attap roofs and so on.

The workers always work in groups. In the case of house-building they work on contract. All materials are usually supplied by the owner. On average it takes between 1 to 2 months to complete a house. The payment is either on a time basis (i.e. \$4 per day per worker) or on the basis of task performed (i.e. paid in terms of building the whole house for a certain definite amount, like \$500). So the payment is either on a time basis or task performed basis.

The average income earned is about \$80 a month, and it never exceeds \$150. An apprentice, however, may receive as low as \$30 per month.

In passing some very significant features of this activity may be quickly observed. In the first place, like earlier jobs, this job is highly irregular and as such, a 'tukang kayu' is invariably half the time unemployed. Thus, the incidence of under-employment here is quite high. Jobs end the moment a task is completed and from then on, another waiting period ensues. Secondly, it is solely a male activity. The third and last significant feature is that, the quality of the work is characteristically simple, and standardized in nature, strictly confined to the needs of the simple kampong-folk. Significantly, no furniture is made, as this involves a certain degree of skill and sophistication and above all as it entails some capital outlay.

7. Own Account Workers (Pekerjaan Persendirian)

By definition, this category will include only those who are self-employed. Largely, these will refer to those cultivating their own lands; shop-keepers running their own businesses; women rearing their own poultry, cattle or pigs; taxi-drivers driving their own taxis; mid-wives; ice cream sellers and so on.

This group is in terms of employment, the third most important category giving employment to about 15% of the total working population in the Mukim.¹⁵

As observed earlier, an own account worker, can be anyone doing his own 'business' or enterprise. Therefore, it would be rather difficult to describe each in detail. Alternatively, the writer shall attempt to outline all the basic characteristic features of this category.

¹⁵Ibid.

8. There are 5 major characteristics.

i) There is a specialisation of work on the basis of race. For example, all businesses are owned by Chinese, with a negligible number of Indians. On the other hand, farmers are nearly all Malays, with a sprinkling of Chinese. All ice-cream sellers are Indians, whereas taxi-drivers are mainly Chinese and Malays.

ii) There is a qualitative difference. For example, both Malays and Chinese may be own account workers. But, qualitatively speaking, the Chinese generally own larger pieces of land, which are better drained and better manured and therefore yielding higher productivity - and significantly are characterised by a rather low land:labour ratio.

The Malays, on the other hand, own smaller plots, then again they are invariably jointly owned by a number of people in the family; and in sharp contrast to the Chinese farms, they are plagued by a high labour:land ratio.

iii) In terms of age, this occupational category is dominated by those 35 years and above. The younger people may also work, but only temporarily. For the moment, they get an alternative employment elsewhere, they move out.

iv) Nearly all own account enterprises operate on a family basis, i.e. not one enterprise employed outside labour. The reason is mainly because the enterprises are generally small; under-employment and unemployment high, thus, a family rarely employs outside labour.

v) In terms of income, there is a great inequality in earnings. For example, although the average monthly earnings is about \$95,¹⁶ the actual income varies for individuals between \$300 to \$20 per month! This difference originates from differences in age, sex and nature of work done. For example, a middle-aged man earns higher income than a sixty year old. Similarly, a housewife, doing her own part-time work necessarily earns less than her husband doing full-time own account work. Finally, while a businessman may earn an average monthly income of about \$300, a taxi-driver earns only about \$150. On the other hand, a farmer may earn only an average of about \$60 per month! Thus, the great inequality in earnings in this category basically arise from differences in age, differences in sex and differences in work done by different individuals.

¹⁶Ibid.

8. Estate Workers

This category of workers comprising some 9% of the total employed labour force, largely consists of rubber tappers. Some others work in various capacities like gardeners, amahs, factory workers, all in fact working in rubber estates.

The particular work they do in the estate is often determined by their sex and education. If they are female then invariably they work either as amahs, tappers, or factory workers. On the other hand, the male always work either as tappers or gardeners.

Generally, as a bulk of the members in this group work either as tappers or factory workers, it would be useful to describe these 2 in some detail.

Tapping rubber is a well-known activity. The job entails getting up early in the morning and cycling to the estates nearby. Nearly all the workers work in the nearby Jugra Estate, with the exception of 4 people who work in the far away Brooklands Estate (which is about 10 miles from the Mukim).

The payment made is on the basis of latex collected. There is, at present, no minimum wage rate. The income of the tappers vary between \$70 to \$50 per month. However, in the 'thinning' season when the leaves begin to fall, the yield is so low that the monthly pay may go down to as low as \$40 per month.

As for factory workers, these are largely female workers from the Mukim. Of course, they are a great proportion of men working in the factory, but the work they do is quite different. They generally man the machines, carry latex and put them into the coagulators, etc. The women, however, largely do the job of drying the coagulated sheets. The payment averages a little over \$2 per day.

Apart from these 2 major sub-categories of workers, there are also others working as clerks. These receive, relatively, quite a handsome pay - a little over \$200 per month. Thus, some education, particularly English education, can make quite a great difference in earnings. The writer may as well point out, that the villagers are quite alive to this reality and tend to become rather emotional about it. Perhaps, we shall discuss this particular problem of education, more fully later on in this exercise.

9. Government Workers

This is a very important category of workers and constitutes about 17% of the total employed labour force in the Mukim. Furthermore, it is also the single most important category of employment in the Mukim. Another significant point to note is that it provides the highest average monthly income of over \$170.¹⁷

¹⁷Ibid.

The Government workers in the Mukim belong to 3 major categories of occupations. These are:

- i) J.K.R. workers
- ii) Teachers
- iii) Town Board workers.

The J.K.R. workers are largely of South Indian extraction. They work in manual capacities - like road making, bridge construction, etc. The work is quite heavy, both women and men work side by side. The monthly income averages slightly over \$100, but with over-time work, the monthly income may well exceed over \$130 per month.

The Town Board workers, however, constitute a smaller number than the J.K.R. workers. These Town Board workers largely work in menial capacities, like street sweepers, street scavengers and so on. Their average income is slightly over \$80 per month, and there is seldom any over-time work.

Nevertheless, by far the most interesting and relatively affluent occupation in the Mukim is teaching. Teachers command high respect. Their monthly pay range between \$500 to \$80 depending on an individual's academic qualifications, length of service, and the school in which he or she teaches.

Generally, those teaching in Indian, Chinese or Arabic schools earn much less than those teaching in Malay schools. However, those teaching in Malay schools generally earn much less than those teaching in English schools.

10. Miscellaneous

This category has been so-called, primarily because the workers here are involved in multifarious occupations that cannot be classified in any of the 9 preceeding categories described earlier.

Although this category embraces about one-fourth (or 25%) of the total employed labour force in the Mukim, it nonetheless, encompasses a diverse and multitudinous variety of occupations - ranging from foreman, mechanics, textile shop, salesmen, sawmill workers, construction workers, cinema ticket collectors, dock workers to apprentices, baby-sitters, nurses, 'kachang puteh' sellers, news vendors, waiters, petrol kiosk attendants, Bata shoe factory workers and so on.

This category is characterised by 3 very interesting and significant features.

In the first place, it was found that nearly all of them worked outside the Mukim. But they all have their families in the Mukim, and return to the Mukim regularly and often.

Secondly, it was found that nearly all of them are very young people, between the ages of 18 years to 30 years.

Thirdly, all these workers work in urban areas like Banting, Klang, Port Swettenham and, in fact, as far away as Kuala Lumpur. In Kuala Lumpur some work as gardeners in the Tuanku Abdul Rahman Park; one works in the Shah Bowling Alley, one in the Japan Club and so on.

CHAPTER III

On the basis of these 3 significant features, one may safely conclude therefore, that the incidence of urban-rural migration, especially of young people, is quite high in the Mukim.

Introduction

This chapter shall deal with the question of unemployment and under-employment in the Mukim.

For simplicity, it shall be divided into 2 parts:

Part I shall deal with unemployment, and

Part II shall deal with under-employment.

Part I. Unemployment

Analysis of the Problem

An unemployed person here is defined as one "who is not gainfully at work on any day in a week, but actively seeking employment and is capable of taking a job if offered it."

As pointed out in the last chapter, out of a total potential labour force of 346 people, only some 378 people are presently employed. This means that the remaining 168 people, or slightly over 30% of the total potential labour force is presently unemployed.

An analysis of this spectacular number of unemployed, shows that out of the 168 people unemployed, the male unemployed population account for some 43% while the female account for the remaining 57%.

Table III.1 shows the unemployed in terms of sex and age. It will be found that in the age category of 15-25 years, there are altogether 56 male and 78 females unemployed. Unemployment decreases with increase in age. Thus, in the 26-40 years group, there are only 7 males and 13 females unemployed.

From Table III.1 also, 2 very important and interesting points emerge. In the first place, unemployment is higher among the females. For example, out of a potential female labour supply of 175¹, some 94 of them are presently unemployed. This means that over 54% of the potential

¹Federation of Malaya, Employment, Under-employment, 1962.
(Department of Labour and Statistics Department.)

²Table II.4.

TABLE III.1

DISTRIBUTION OF UNEMPLOYMENT BY SEX AND AGE

CHAPTER III

UNEMPLOYMENT AND UNDER-EMPLOYMENT

Introduction

This chapter shall deal with the question of unemployment and under-employment in the Mukim.

For simplicity, it shall be divided into 2 parts:

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Part I UnemploymentAnalysis of the Problem

An unemployed person here is defined as one "who is not gainfully at work on any day in a week, but actively seeking employment and is capable of taking a job if offered it."¹

As pointed out in the last chapter, out of a total potential labour force of 546 people, only some 378 people are presently employed. This means that the remaining 168 people, or slightly over 30% of the total potential labour force is presently unemployed.

An analysis of this spectacular number of unemployed, shows that out of the 168 people unemployed, the male unemployed population account for some 43% while the female account for the remaining 57%.

Table III.1 shows the unemployed in terms of sex and age. It will be found that in the age category of 15-25 years, there are altogether 56 male and 78 females unemployed. Unemployment decreases with increase in age. Thus, in the 26-40 years group, there are only 7 males and 10 females unemployed.

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²Table II.4.

DISTRIBUTION OF UNEMPLOYMENT BY SEX AND AGE

Age	Sex		Total
	Male	Female	
15 - 25 years	56	78	134
26 - 40 years	7	10	17
40 years & above	9	8	17
Total	72	96	168

female labour supply in the Mukim is currently unemployed.

On the other hand, out of a total potential male labour supply of 371 people,³ only 72 of them are unemployed. This means that only 20% of the potential male labour supply in the Mukim is unemployed.

Thus, unemployment among the females is over two and a half times greater than the male population in the Mukim! The reason lies mainly in the mobility of labour. Generally, the female population is more immobile for various reasons. For example, it was found that most parents strongly objected to their daughters seeking employment elsewhere outside the Mukim, partly on the grounds that it was easier for boys to find accommodation than girls. Besides they feel rather unsafe to permit their daughters, bred in the ways of the kampong, to be suddenly exposed to the rather 'ultra-modern' town or city life. The concern for the daughters is particularly extreme among the Malabarais. The writer found that Malabari girls are even forbidden to work within the Mukim!

Another interesting fact that emerges is that unemployment is highest among the younger population. As shown in the table above, the total unemployed population in the 15-25 years old category, is exactly 134 people. This means that slightly over 80% of the unemployed population belongs to this category.

Causes of Unemployment in the Mukim

There are several causes accounting for this spectacular rate of unemployment in the Mukim. Among the major ones are:

1. Scarcity of jobs
2. Low qualifications
3. Under-aged nature of the unemployed
4. Lack of information.

³Ibid.

1. Scarcity of Jobs

This appears to be the most basic and fundamental problem. Jobs are scarce basically due to a poor physical environment. As has been pointed out earlier, the Mukim of Jugra is a rather backward area and is devoid of many essential economic infra-structure facilities like electricity, telegraph, hospitals, secondary education and even water supply. Thus, the poor physical environment and lack of basic economic infra-structure facilities, have led to a stagnation in the economy of the Mukim. Thus, industries cannot be attracted due to this backwardness.

In addition, there is the problem of declining traditional occupations.

For example, at one time, the fishing industry was quite successful and profitable and, hence, employed a substantial number of people in the Mukim. To-day, however, many ex-fisherman have left the occupation mainly because of technological changes. Trawlers and fast-moving motor-boats are no match for the small, slow-moving sampans. Hence, since one motor-boat costs as much as \$1,000, the peasants (mostly Malays) can hardly afford it. Thus, the traditional Malay fisherman in the Mukim cannot possibly compete with the fast-moving, sophisticated Chinese-owned motor boats.

Similarly, the typical cottage industries - like basket-making, mat-making, etc. are rapidly declining. The main reasons here lie in changing tastes and fashion. For example, housewives now prefer to carry the modern light plastic baskets rather than the heavy bamboo baskets made in the Mukim. Similarly, the people now prefer to use carpets (tikar getah) to mats. As a result, these traditional occupations are slowly being 'squeezed out' altogether.

Again, in the case of attap making which until recently was one of the most important occupations in the Mukim, is to-day slowly becoming less and less important. Here again it is due mainly to a shift in taste and fashion. According to the Penghulu, for example, a zinc roofing is a sign of prestige and social distinction. Thus, even a relatively poor family in the Mukim to-day, may have zinc roofing, for at least the front portion of their house. This new preference for zinc roofing means the demand for attaps is rapidly declining - and with it also its price. Consequently, the attap makers find it less and less profitable to make attaps.

But the changes in technology and taste are not by themselves bad, if the occupations they displace, can be replaced by some other alternative occupations for the people in the Mukim. Unfortunately, however, this is not the case.

2. Low Qualifications

This factor is again of tremendous importance. As pointed out earlier, the rate of literacy in the Mukim is rather low. The highest level of education often ends in Standard VI in the primary

TABLE III.2
NUMBER OF STUDENTS PROCEEDING TO FORM I

Year	Number of Students (Std. 6)	Number Proceeding to Form I
1963	35	6
1964	28	19
1965	30	22
1966	26	19
1967	32	20

Source: Sekolah Kebangsaan Rendah, Permatang Pasir.

In Table III.2 above, this is amply illustrated.

Similarly, in another school, the situation was found to be more or less the same.

TABLE III.3
NUMBER OF STUDENTS PROCEEDING TO FORM I

Year	Number of Students (Std. 6)	Number Proceeding to Form I
1963	53	18
1964	48	13
1965	46	22
1966	26	19
1967	35	21

Source: Sekolah Kebangsaan Rendah, Kg. Kelanang.

Thus, the level⁴ of education in the Mukim as Nik Mahmood puts it, "is alarmingly low."

But why is this so? On enquiries the writer found that the reason did not lie in parents under-estimating the value of education. On the contrary, they were found to be aware and enthusiastic about it. Indeed, the only reason their children stopped schooling was because of a lack of money. While they acknowledged that government subsidy was given to aid their children's schooling cost, they contended however,

⁴Nik Mahmood.

that the amount paid by the government was far too low. Besides, their children must travel for as much as 10 miles to go to the nearest secondary school.

Another compelling reason put forward by them was that Malay education, economically speaking, was useless. For it is true that as far as jobs are concerned, the job-seekers are tremendously handicapped by Malay education. According to nearly all the 'drop-outs,' the basic reason they were rejected at interviews, was because they were Malay educated. Some parents in the Mukim were, in fact, vociferously bitter about it. Their dilemma is that while English education on the one hand is rather expensive, on the other, their children simply cannot find any job in the commercial, industrial or even the Government sector without it. The position for the Chinese-educated, however, is not so bad. They can quite easily obtain employment in the commercial and business sector, since the Chinese companies invariably always employ their own fellow Chinese. Consequently, the rate of unemployment is relatively much higher among Malays compared to the Chinese and Indians. This can be seen in Table III.4 below.

TABLE III.4

DISTRIBUTION OF UNEMPLOYMENT BY RACE

Race	Number Unemployed		Per Cent Unemployed	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Malays	40	66	55.5	68.0
Chinese	12	13	16.6	14.5
Indians	20	18	28.0	18.0
Total	72	96		

Thus, we find that unemployment among Malays is extremely high for both the sexes, relative to the other 2 races. It is very significant to note that among the Chinese unemployment among both the sexes is the lowest. Further, it is also of interest to note that unlike the Malays, both in the Chinese and Indian category, the percentage of unemployment among the female is higher than among the males.

In addition to this, another feature of low qualification is the fact that the unemployed generally possess no specialized skill or training. Education in the Mukim is confined to the academic type. There are no vocational or technical schools. The nearest technical school is some 45 miles away in Kuala Lumpur! The low level of education among the unemployed can be shown in Table III.5.

From this, we find that the bulk of the unemployed are those who have had only primary education. Thus, it explains that one of the factors accounting for the high rate of unemployment is probably the

TABLE III.5
INCIDENCE OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN RELATION TO
THE LEVEL OF EDUCATION

	Number Unemployed	
	Males	Females
No education	1	9
Primary Education	61	77
Form I and II	2	5
L.C.E. or Form III	5	4
Form IV	-	-
School Certificate	3	1
Total	72	96

low level of education of the unemployed.

3. Under-aged Population

This is another serious factor. It is a result of the fact that school-children leave school rather prematurely every year. This may be seen in Table III.6 below.

TABLE III.6
NUMBER OF SCHOOL LEAVERS ANNUALLY FROM STD. 6

Year	Number of Students	Number Leaving School
1963	35	29
1964	28	9
1965	30	8
1966	26	7
1967	32	12

Source: Sekolah Kebangsaan Rendah, Permatang Pasir.

However, it must be noted that the above figures relate only to Malay school leavers. The pattern with the Chinese school and Indian school leavers too, nevertheless, is substantially the same.

In addition, the writer also interviewed a nearby Malay School,

adjoining the Mukim, which according to the Ketua Kampong, has a large percentage of the Mukim children attending it. According to the records in this school, the position again, is strikingly the same.

TABLE III.7

NUMBER OF SCHOOL LEAVERS ANNUALLY FROM STD. 6

Year	Number of Students	Number Leaving School
1963	53	38
1964	48	35
1965	46	24
1966	26	7
1967	35	14

Source: Sekolah Kebangsaan Rendah, Kg. Kelanang.

In view of this unusually large proportion of school children leaving school prematurely, the unemployment situation in the Mukim continues to worsen and aggravate.

Employers are naturally reluctant to give employment to these youngsters for obvious reasons. And since they can neither continue their studies nor get a job, they must inevitably idle around for as long as 4 to 5 years (since many leave school at 13 years old in Std. 6), before they are even eligible to apply for a job.

Although no exact data is available, it is apparent that this reservoir of the unemployed seems to be growing every year.

And what is more, the social, economic and psychological effects of this are most disturbing.

Parents tend to regard their unemployed children as a liability, and the unemployed children themselves become disillusioned and often resort to dangerous pranks. For example, one widow complained that she found it rather embarrassing for her son to "turn into a thief!"

4. Lack of Information

This factor is particularly relevant in relation to the mobility of labour. Logically before an unemployed person can decide to go anywhere to seek a job, he must first and foremost need to have some knowledge of the availability of jobs.

In this connection, the writer found that information was particularly lacking. The unemployed simply do not know where to seek advice and information on vacancies. The schools in the area have no

career counselling instructors and the nearest Labour Exchange is some 35 miles away at Port Swettenham.

The criticisms levelled against the Labour Exchange are many and bitter - and some quite justifiably so.

It is true quite a large number of them have not even heard of the Exchange. But the majority of them are presently registered, or were once registered with the Exchange. There are also others who know the existence of the Exchange, but refuse to register!

The indignance against the Labour Exchange arises mainly because of its apparent inefficiency. Thus, the unemployed in the Mukim feel that it does not serve them any purpose. According to them, the Exchange merely serves the urban folk. They also point out that despite registering and re-registering - for as much as 5 years - they are not even called for a single interview.

Further, they quite rightly point out that the Labour Exchange is too far away to be in effective contact. Everytime they go to register it may cost them as much as \$5, which they can hardly afford.

In the circumstances, they must rely on friends for information. Some who are fortunate enough to have relatives outside the Mukim, like Klang, Kuala Lumpur, Port Swettenham, often go out and stay with them temporarily to seek jobs. The writer found that quite a large number of people in the Mukim were living in this way away from home. After a few months if they still failed to secure any jobs, then they invariably have to return to their parents in the Mukim.

Conclusion

In conclusion, some of the major points in the foregoing analysis may be now briefly recapitulated:

1. The average rate of unemployment in the Mukim is 30%.
2. The incidence of unemployment is higher among females (i.e. 54%, as against 20% among males).
3. A very substantial number of the unemployed (over 80%) are in the 15-25 years age group. Thus, unemployment is particularly high among the younger members of the population.
4. There are 4 basic causes of unemployment in the Mukim. These may be summarized as follows.

Firstly, there is a scarcity of jobs, which arises from the poor, physical environment; lack of economic infrastructure which has led to a stagnation in the Mukim economy; and displacement of traditional occupations like fishing, bakul making, attap making and so on.

Secondly, unemployment is caused by low qualifications. This arises from a low level of education; non-technical nature of the education; lack of experience; and where Malay is the sole medium of instruction.

Thirdly, a substantial number of the unemployed are under-aged. The main reason for this is due to 'premature' school leavers, who cannot continue their education for financial difficulties.

And finally, it arises as a result of a lack of information, which tremendously inhibits labour mobility.

Part II A Note on Under-employment

Under-employment according to a United Nations Committee of expert economists is:

"..... are those persons who work on their own account and who are so numerous, relatively to the resources with which they work that if a number of them were withdrawn for work in other sectors of the economy, the total output of the sector from which they were withdrawn would not be diminished even though no significant reorganisation occurred in their sector and no significant substitution of capital."

Thus, under-employment occurs where a portion of the total potential working hours of the labour force are not fully utilized throughout the year, even though they may be in utilization at certain periods only.

In the Mukim, under-employment takes various forms. The most common occurs where the occupation is one of an irregular nature. This may be due to a variety of reasons - like changes in season; changes in demand or changes in climate.

Certain agricultural products like coconut, coffee, fruits, nipah palm, etc. can only be harvested periodically. Thus, coffee harvesters, coconut pluckers, nipah palm cutters, etc., find employment only seasonally.

Changes in demand too are very significant. In most cases these changes in demand almost always lead to falling prices. For example, the price for attap in 1967 was \$7.00 for 100 attaps. This year, i.e. 1968, the price is \$4.50 per 100 attaps! This fall in price is primarily due to a deficiency in demand caused by changes in taste and fashion. As a result of this reduced demand, attap workers, either go out of employment or produce less attaps, since producing more would be pointless as they cannot be sold immediately.

⁵Measures for Economic Development of Under-developed Countries 1951, p. 7. Quoted in U.A. Aziz, The Development and Utilization of Labour Resources in South East Asia.

Similarly, climatic changes, particularly rainfall, affect meremah, own account and attap making workers. Meremah (odd job) workers cannot work because the nature of their work⁶ is such that it cannot be done in the rain. Thus, as long as there is rain, their work automatically stops. Own account workers, particularly, farmers, cannot do any work for the same reason. As for the attap making, sunshine is essential for drying the attaps, without which they cannot be sold.

Again, other climatic changes like changes in tide, literally paralyse the arang (i.e. charcoal) making industry for as much as one and a half week every month.

The consequences of under-employment is easy to see. They have not only economic, social, but also psychological repercussions.

Economically, under-employment is undeniably a waste of human resources. For on average, the people, particularly in the meremah and arang category, often work sometimes for less than 20 days, and sometimes for only as low as 15 days a month! This means that they are employed only partially. At other times they just remain idle, or are forced to work in occupations that yield relatively low income - i.e. it leads to "disguised unemployment" - a situation where dismissed or temporarily unemployed workers, are forced to take up inferior occupations, "where their productivity is less than in the occupations they have left."⁷ This occurs in the Mukim, when for example, an arang worker (earning \$5 a day), temporarily out of employment, takes up odd jobs like cutting grasses, or spraying insecticides, for which he may earn only \$3 or so per day.

However, sometimes, even odd jobs are scarce and difficult to find. Thus, the temporarily unemployed must sometimes simply remain idle - unless of course they have their own farm to tend, which unfortunately is rare.

Thus, economically, under-employment leads to lower productivity, which means lower income and lower savings - and the repercussion of these on economic development is very well-known.

From a social viewpoint, the implications again are grave. Under-employment leading to lower productivity and lower income in turn causes serious imbalances in health, education, and in the attitude to work. An unhealthy individual (as a result of malnutrition), for example, is less energetic, and less and less inclined to work in the long run. Similarly, a person with low education is generally less adaptative and productive than a higher educated person.

⁶ See Meremah Occupation, Chapter II.

⁷ See Arang Occupation, Chapter II.

⁸ Joan Robinson. Quoted in U.A. Aziz, Development and Utilization of Resources in South East Asia.

Finally, although the direct economic wastes and the indirect social implications are grave in themselves, these are however, compounded by equally grave psychological consequences.

When there exists a backlog of unemployment and under-employment, "not only is their labour power going to waste, but their skills too are fast deteriorating."

Besides, psychologically, under-employment has a serious debilitating effect. The people involved soon become less and less inclined to work. As one worker puts it, "Everytime I have to stop working temporarily, I feel it very disturbing, particularly so when I just begin to 'heat up' on the job!" Thus, temporary stoppage of work leads to a break in the momentum of work, and, in the case of the arang worker, he may have to remain idle for as long as 4 or 7 days at a stretch before he can go back to work. In the meantime, whatever skill he has acquired is often lulled in the frequent inactivity of his occupation.

Income Distribution

Let us begin the discussion by examining the nature of income distribution in the Nkris.

The average per capita income is \$105 per month. But this is a rather crude average figure, and is unrealistic because of the wide disparity in the earnings of different individuals in the Nkris.

Thus, as can be seen in Table IV.1, the income earned among individuals vary between \$40 and below, a month, to \$400 and above a month. Further, as shown by means of the Ogive, in Diagram 1, 50% of the working population earn below \$100 per month.

The very significant inequality in the distribution of wealth and incomes can be seen more clearly by means of a Lorenz Curve of Income, as shown in Diagram 2.

From this curve, the following results can easily be discerned:

1. There is an unequal distribution of income among the recipients, because as we can see, the line of absolute equality is quite far apart from the actual line of income distribution in the Nkris.
2. Almost 50% of the income is earned by only 10% of the recipients. These are, generally, businessmen who earn quite high incomes. Since BC is very steep, it brings the curve very far below the line of absolute equality. This appears to be the main cause of the great disparity in earnings and an unequal distribution of income.

⁹D.J. Blake, Employment and Unemployment in Singapore.

TABLE IV.1

CUMULATIVE FREQUENCY TABLE FOR
INCOME DISTRIBUTION IN THE MUKIM

CHAPTER IV

Income (₹)	ECONOMIC PROBLEMS	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Frequency Percentage
<u>Introduction</u>			
The Mukim of Jugra is a rural area, with all the characteristics and problems peculiar of such an environment.			
In this chapter an attempt will be made to expose and examine some of the special problems confronting the Mukim. The aim here, however, is only to examine those problems in so far as they affect unemployment and under-employment in the Mukim.			
<u>Income Distribution</u>			
Let us begin the discussion by examining the nature of income distribution in the Mukim.			
The average per capita income is \$105 per month. But this is a rather crude average figure, and is unrealistic because of the wide disparity in the earnings of different individuals in the Mukim.			

Thus, as can be seen in Table IV.1, the income earned among individuals vary between \$40 and below, a month, to \$400 and above a month! Further, as shown by means of the Ogive, in Diagram 1, 55% of the working population earn below \$100 per month.

The very significant inequality in the distribution of wealth and incomes can be seen more clearly by means of a Lorenz Curve of Incomes, as shown in Diagram 2.

From this curve, the following results can easily be discerned:

1. There is an unequal distribution of income among the recipients, because as we can see, the line of absolute equality is quite far apart from the actual line of income distribution in the Mukim.
2. Almost 50% of the income is earned by only 10% of the recipients. These are, generally, businessmen who earn quite high incomes. Since BC is very steep, it brings the curve very far below the line of absolute equality. This appears to be the main cause of the great disparity in earnings and an unequal distribution of income.
3. The remaining 50% of the income is earned by 90% of the recipients, which belong to the low income group earning

TABLE IV.1

CUMULATIVE FREQUENCY TABLE FOR
INCOME DISTRIBUTION IN THE MUKIM

Income (\$)	Frequency (f)	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Frequency Percentage
0 - 39	45	45	12
40 - 79	110	155	41
80 - 119	124	279	73
120 - 159	42	321	85
160 - 199	18	339	89
200 - 239	21	360	94
240 - 279	4	364	96
280 - 319	4	368	97
320 - 359	5	373	98
360 - 399	2	375	99
400 and above	3	378	100
Total	378		

about \$60 to \$70 per month.

4. Finally at point A, we find that 15% of the income is earned by 20% of the recipients. This implies that there is a very small number of people earning below \$40 per month.

Major Economic Problems

The major economic problems of the Mukim may be grouped under 3 major categories: low productivity; marketing; unemployment and under-employment. Let us consider them one by one.

Low Productivity

This is a very real problem in the Mukim, and its consequences are rather grave. For low productivity inevitably leads to low income and hence cause poverty.

There are several reasons that lead to low productivity in the Mukim. Amongst these one of the basic problem is that of inferior¹ soils. As has been already pointed out elsewhere in this exercise,

¹Chapter I.

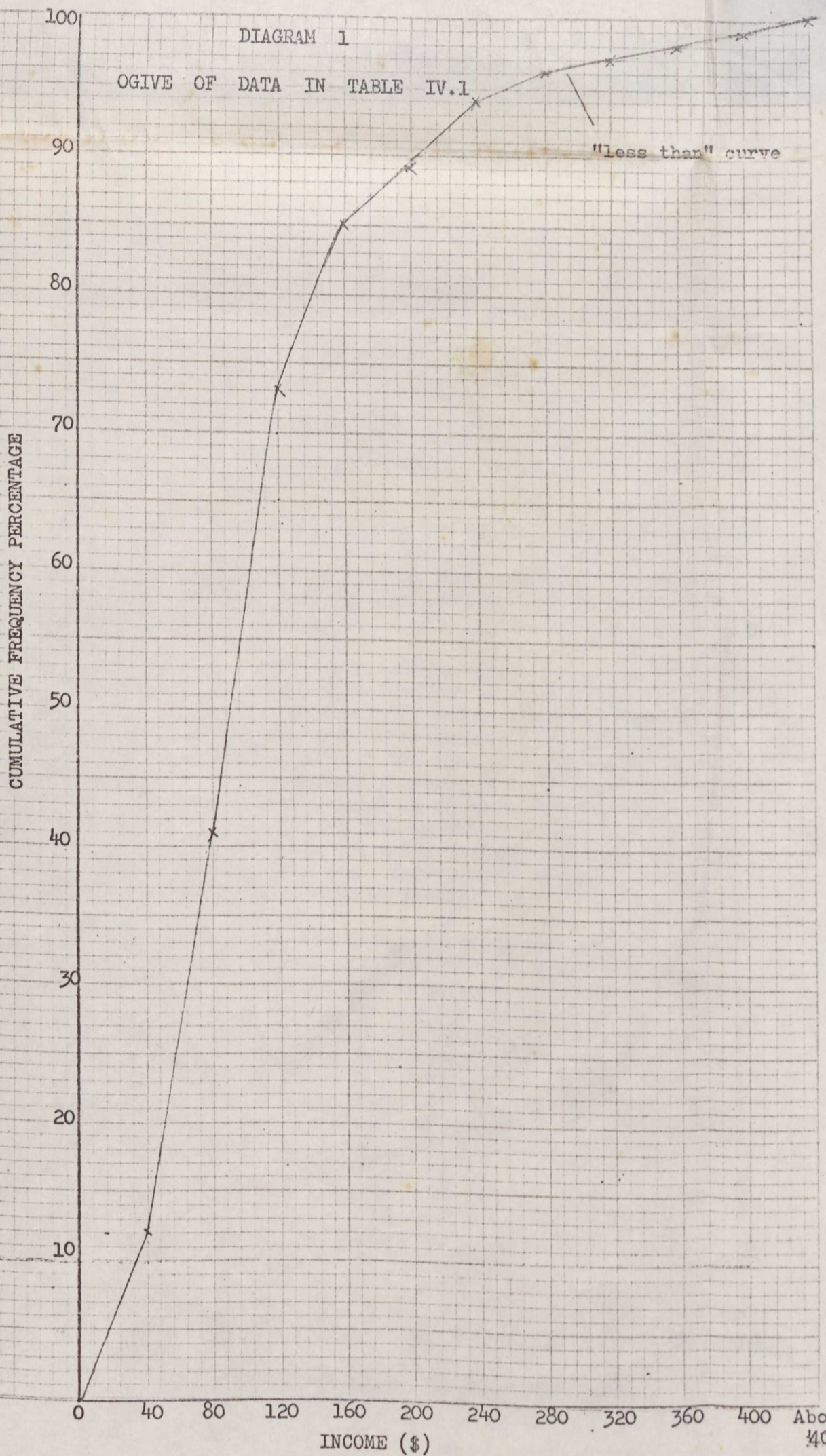
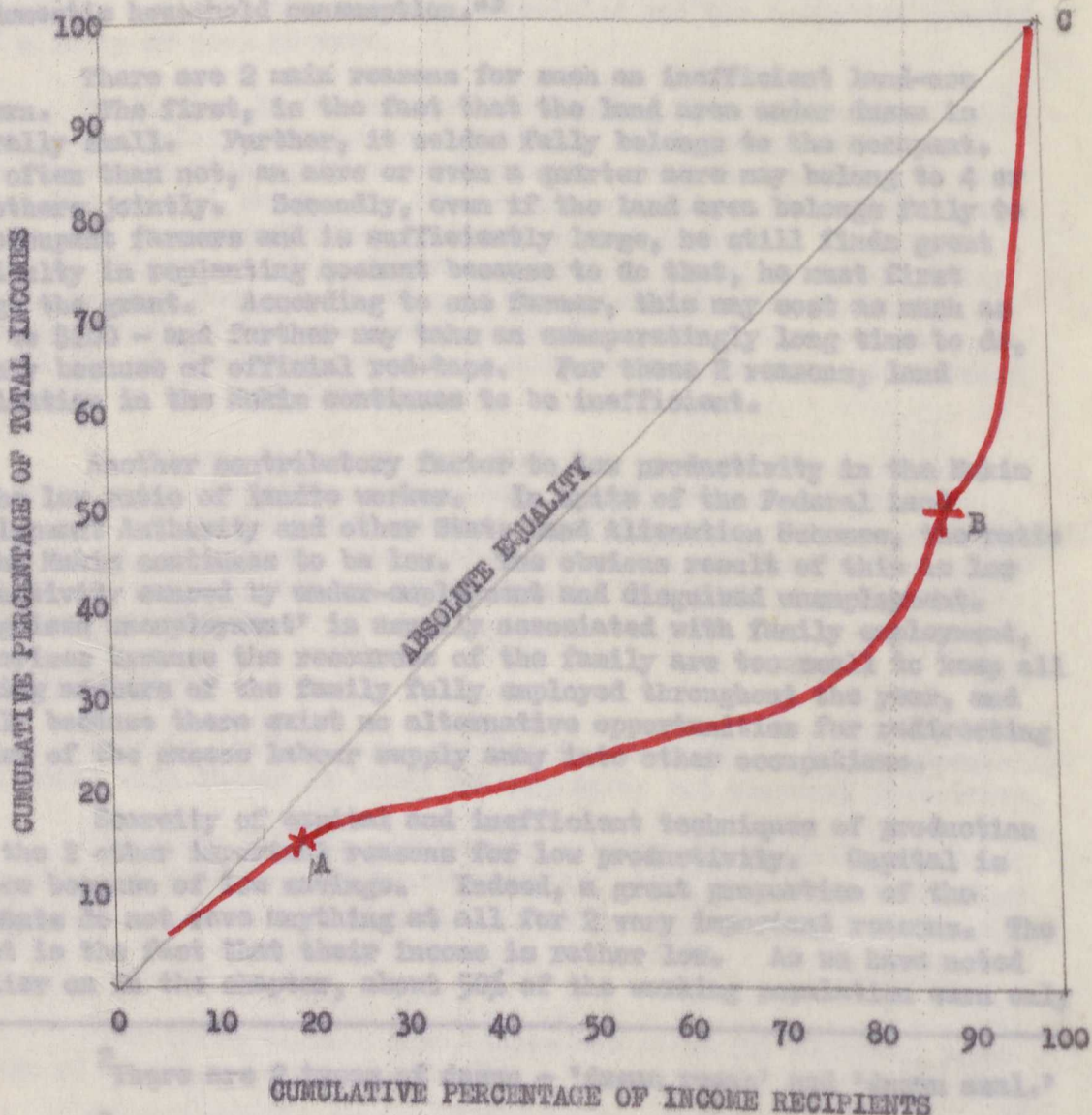


DIAGRAM 2

LORENZ CURVE OF INCOMES



a large portion of the Mukim is partly swampy and partly covered by granite. As for the remaining area a large portion of it is inefficiently used. For example, the writer found that every household have a certain compound - the area varying from a quarter acre to 2 acres - surrounding their house. This is what the people, call the 'Dusun.'² It is often covered by a few fruit trees, and a few scattered coconut and rubber trees. It would be alright if all these trees were productive, but unfortunately, this is not always the case. The fruit trees bear fruit only once or twice a year - and even so not all fruit trees are equally productive. The output of the usually productive trees, again, often for some curious, unknown reasons, vary substantially from season to season.

The scattered coconut and rubber trees are, characteristically, old trees and therefore of very low productivity. In most cases, "the rubber trees are not tapped at all, because the yield is so hopelessly low and the coconut trees yield nuts, barely sufficient for their own domestic household consumption."³

There are 2 main reasons for such an inefficient land-use pattern. The first, is the fact that the land area under dusun is generally small. Further, it seldom fully belongs to the occupant. More often than not, an acre or even a quarter acre may belong to 4 or 5 brothers jointly. Secondly, even if the land area belongs fully to the occupant farmers and is sufficiently large, he still finds great difficulty in replanting coconut because to do that, he must first change the grant. According to one farmer, this may cost as much as \$100 to \$200 - and further may take an exasperatingly long time to do, plainly because of official red-tape. For these 2 reasons, land utilization in the Mukim continues to be inefficient.

Another contributory factor to low productivity in the Mukim is the low ratio of land to worker. In spite of the Federal Land Development Authority and other State Land Alienation Schemes, the ratio in the Mukim continues to be low. The obvious result of this is low productivity caused by under-employment and disguised unemployment. 'Disguised unemployment' is usually associated with family employment, and arises because the resources of the family are too small to keep all working members of the family fully employed throughout the year, and partly because there exist no alternative opportunities for redirecting a part of the excess labour supply away into other occupations.

Scarcity of capital and inefficient techniques of production are the 2 other important reasons for low productivity. Capital is scarce because of low savings. Indeed, a great proportion of the peasants do not save anything at all for 2 very important reasons. The first is the fact that their income is rather low. As we have noted earlier on in the chapter, about 50% of the working population earn only

²There are 2 types of dusun - 'dusun rumah' and 'dusun asal.'

³This was gathered in the course of a conversation with the Ketua Kampong of Tampoi.

about \$80 per month.⁴ Secondly, because each household generally has a large number of dependents. This can be borne out by the fact that the age structure of the population is "bottom heavy," i.e. a high proportion of the total population belong to the lower age brackets.⁵ Thus, this age structure results in a large number of dependents. For these 2 reasons, low income and large proportion of dependents, the people can scarcely save anything.

Scarcity of capital mainly leads to inefficient techniques of production. This can be illustrated by reference to 2 areas of economic activity in the Mukim - the charcoal making and fishing industry.

In the charcoal making industry, as mentioned earlier on, the logs of timber are carried from the 'pelabohan'⁶ to the kiln by means of bullock-carts. This is often very slow and laborious. In one day, one bullock cart has to make as much as 10 to 15 trips to and fro. This problem could be tremendously alleviated and the operation speeded up if a lorry or jeep is used.

Similarly, in the case of the fishing industry in the Mukim, as far as the Malay peasants are concerned, it is characterised by labour-intensive fishing in coastal waters. But the unfortunate fact is that the coastal waters are already over-fished. There is scope, however, for deep-sea fishing, and this is now exploited in a small way by the Chinese. This, however, cannot be exploited by the Malay peasants because deep-sea fishing is a capital-intensive operation beyond the means of the poor Malay peasants. Thus, the average productivity of the Malay peasant is much, much lower than his Chinese counterpart in the same industry.

To sum up, it can be seen that low productivity is a very basic problem in the Mukim. It arises chiefly because of inferior soils; inefficient land utilisation; scarcity of capital; inefficient techniques of production; low land-labour ratio and the 'bottom heavy' structure of age composition, which results in a high proportion of dependents per family.

Marketing Problems

This is another basic problem in the Mukim. It is especially significant with regard to bakul making, attap and charcoal industries.

There are 5 basic problems in relation to marketing. These are monopolist buyers; fluctuating prices; lack of market knowledge;

⁴Diagram 1.

⁵See Table II.3. Also, there are about 512 children below the age of 15 years (see Appendix VI).

⁶'Pelabohan' is a Malay word for a landing place.

small-scale production and lastly, the racial problem.

Let us now examine these problems in further detail.

Bakul, attap and charcoal making are all small-scale industries. As a result, the producers find it rather inconvenient to market the produce by themselves. It is true, however, some of these producers, particularly those involved in bakul making and attap production, do go to town occasionally on bicycles to sell their produce. But, this has severe limitations for 2 essential reasons. In the first place, these producers, after so much effort can manage to sell only a few of these at a time. Secondly, the need for immediate cash necessitates quick, wholesale selling. Thus, for these 2 reasons they have no alternative except to sell them to middle-men.

But, middle-men, unlike the producers, seem to be very well organised. Usually these 'carve out' segments of the market among themselves. Thus, in one locality, for example, Tampoi, there are only 2 middle-men dealers dealing in attap and bakul buying. This, of course, means that the producers normally must sell at the price of the middle-men. Since there are no other 'wholesale' buyers they have no alternative but to sell to them.

The fluctuating prices is another major problem. The trend here is of gradual decline in prices and the reasons for this have already been elaborated elsewhere in Chapter II. The result of this is that it has a depressing effect on the producers.

Market imperfections also arise because of a significant lack of knowledge of market opportunities. As a result, the producers do not know exactly when, where and at what price they can sell their products. Secondly, because of a lack of information on the market and demand conditions for their product, they are not in a position to effectively bargain with the middle-men. And thirdly, because of this lack of information, they are not able to compare the relative prices obtained by them from the middle-men against those obtainable elsewhere. Consequently, there is little incentive for them to market their own products themselves.

Finally, because all the producers on the one hand, are Malays and all the middle-men on the other, Chinese, obvious racial tension arise. It was not uncommon for the writer to hear open allegations against the Chinese by the poor, helpless Malay peasants. For example, one Malay charcoal producer, complained of gross exploitation and favouritism by the Chinese. According to him, prices were determined by the Chinese associations, and he simply had no say in it, whatsoever. Secondly, he charged that weighting of the charcoal was done rather arbitrarily by them. According to his own calculations, it was always under-weighed. Lastly, due to lack of transport, he had no choice but to wait until the Chinese middle-men came along to collect them. Because of these acute shortcomings, he alleged, that one of his fellow Malay charcoal producer had to go bankrupt. Apart from these, the

writer also heard a number of other serious allegations. For example, some unemployed Malay workers complained that Chinese charcoal producers and fishermen always employ their own people. Further, even if they employed Malays they always insisted on paying them wages below their fellow Chinese labourers.

To sum up, these then are some of the major marketing problems in the Mukim. The fact that these marketing imperfections bring lower returns to the producers is serious enough. But, what is more disconcerting is the fact that it tends to generate serious racial implications and tension.

Unemployment and Under-employment

This is the fourth major economic problem. The extent, nature and causes of unemployment and under-employment have already been examined in Chapter III.

What is significant here is the extraordinarily high rate of unemployment in the Mukim. For, while the national rate of unemployment in West Malaysia is 6%, the rate of unemployment in the Mukim is 30%. Thus, the problem of unemployment in the Mukim is $\frac{30}{6} = 5$ times greater than the problem at the national-level.

Here, the writer shall examine 3 basic aspects of this problem:

1. Its effect on wage levels
2. Its effect on productivity
3. Its effect on development.

Wage Levels

Here, the idea is to ask, "What is the effect of unemployment and under-employment upon wage levels and wage structures?"

The answer is difficult to provide, owing to a lack of empirical data. Nevertheless, even though the actual extent could not be determined, there is no denying the fact that the effect is definitely there.

This is especially so for when some sectors are expanding and increasing their shares of the total labour force while others are stagnant, it is certainly likely that differences in levels of wages will appear. For example, in the Mukim it will be found that while

⁸Tun Abdul Razak, speech delivered in moving the adoption of the First Malaysia Plan, 1966-70, at the House of Representatives on 15th December, 1965.

⁹D.J. Blake, *Employment and Unemployment in Singapore*, pp. 166-191. Quoted in *Crucial Issues in Industrial Relations in Singapore*, W.E. Chalmers (ed.).

per capita monthly income for workers in the attap, bakul and meremah categories is fast declining (owing partly to a surplus of unemployed and under-employed labour force), the other sectors like the O.P.R.S., charcoal (arang) making and the Government, show a great positive difference in earnings.¹⁰

This difference in relative effects for those occupations requiring some skill and education (e.g. O.P.R.S., Government, etc.) and those which do not (e.g. meremah, attap, etc.) is easy to explain. Basically, the strategic importance of particular skills and education necessary to new and expanding industries naturally require relatively greater increase in wages while those of the unskilled remain low, largely because of the abundance of unskilled labour.

While this particular aspect is a logical economic phenomenon (as it is compounded from the free interplay of the forces of supply and demand), the point to note here, however, is the psychological and social problems it brings with it. For example, as has been observed earlier, one resultant effect of this is the indignation of the Malays towards Malay school education. For, when those out of English and Chinese medium schools find both employment relatively easier, and obtain the remuneration relatively higher than their Malay-medium school counterparts, the enormity of the psychological problem, should be abundantly clear.

Let us now turn to an examination of its second aspect, that is, the impact of unemployment and under-employment on productivity.

Productivity

Here again, although the writer cannot provide any objective, empirical evidence, it is quite clear, nevertheless, that unemployment and under-employment has great impact on the levels of productivity in the Mukim.

Some idea of this impact has already been shown earlier on.¹¹

Generally, low productivity is a result of many complex factors - like health, education, skills, factor mobility, adequate knowledge of market opportunities, social and economic infrastructure facilities available, absence or presence of exploitation and so on. However, the essential point to note is, overall productivity is also significantly affected by misutilization, or under-utilization or unutilization of productive resources like labour. In this context, then, unemployment and under-employment, which are undeniably a waste of human resources, invariably affect overall productivity in the Mukim. Of course, in passing it may be pointed out that labour productivity is not a function of the worker's skill and diligence alone. It is also, and often more importantly, a matter of management efficiency; the

¹⁰ See Table II.5.

¹¹ See Chapter III, Part II.

provision of machinery and other capital equipment.

Development Aspect

In this case, the question of unemployment and under-employment raises a unique problem.

If unemployment or under-employment is caused by old age rather than scarcity of jobs, then the implications on development are quite different.

For example, if unemployment were largely confined to persons of over 40, the cause could conceivably be that these workers were being displaced by technological development and that being older, they found it difficult to acquire new skills and so became unemployed. If so, the problem of development would be largely of re-training.

But, this is not so in the Mukim. The survey shows that the incidence of unemployment is much higher for those in the youngest working age group of 15-25 years.¹² Indeed, 80% of the total unemployed belong to this category.

The inference, therefore, is that the economy has not been working fast enough in the past to provide jobs for young people coming into the labour force. That is, that the unemployment is mainly structural rather than seasonal, frictional or cyclical. Thus, the basic problem of development, therefore, seems to lie in the creation of new job opportunities. Although no exact empirical data can be provided, the writer is of the view that it is generally low.

The third important problem concerns the level of productivity. As has been pointed out in the last chapter, the level of productivity is rather low in the Mukim. While it is true many factors affect productivity, the writer feels that under-employment in the Mukim has a significant negative effect on productivity. Thus, if under-employment is somehow removed, it will have a considerable impact in increasing productivity.

Finally, it was pointed out in Chapter III, that the level of education in the Mukim is woefully low.

These, then, are the basic obstacles inhibiting a greater rate of employment in the Mukim. The object of this chapter, then, would be to determine ways in which these problems can be overcome.

It is submitted here that there are 3 essential ways in which the problems of unemployment and under-employment can be overcome in the Mukim. These are creating new jobs; increasing the geographical

¹²See Table III.1 Part II.

mobility of labour and thirdly in expanding education.

Creation of New Jobs

Since the scarcity of labour is the basic problem, the first essential priority of development should be in the direction of creating new jobs.

RECOMMENDATIONS

At present, the prospects of such a possibility, however, is limited. There are 3 main reasons for this:

Introduction

An attempt will be made here to review and discuss some of the problems in so far as it affects unemployment and under-employment. The prospects for some possible alternatives will also be examined. Finally, some recommendations will be made with a view to over-coming, or at least relieving the acute problems of unemployment and under-employment in the Mukim.

Review of the Major Problems

Let us first quickly review the major problems affecting unemployment and under-employment. As pointed out in the earlier chapters,¹ one of the most basic problem is the inadequacy of employment opportunities, i.e. an acute shortage of jobs.

In addition to this, the second basic problem is the low level of mobility² of labour. Although no exact empirical data can be provided, the writer is of the view that it is generally low.

The third important problem concerns the level of productivity. As has been pointed out in the last chapter, the level of productivity is rather low in the Mukim. While it is true many factors affect productivity, the writer feels that under-employment in the Mukim has a significant negative effect on productivity. Thus, if under-employment is somehow removed, it will have a considerable impact in increasing productivity.

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¹See Chapters II, III and IV.

²See Chapter III, Part II.

mobility of labour and thirdly in expanding education.

Creation of New Jobs

Since the scarcity of jobs is the basic problem, the first essential priority of development should be in the direction of creating new jobs.

At present, the prospects of such a possibility, however, is limited. There are 5 main reasons for this:

1. Poor communication system;
2. Lack of economic infrastructures, particularly electricity, which is basic to the development of any new industry;
3. Limited market;
4. Lack of skilled labour and technical know-how;
5. Lack of capital accumulation in the Mukim.

Given these 5 problems, the possibility of the development of new industries in the Mukim is quite remote. Nonetheless, the problems are by no means insurmountable.

As a pre-requisite, the authorities must first provide some of the essential economic and social infrastructure facilities like power, health, education and an effective communications system. Then, it may be possible to woo capital and entrepreneurship to the Mukim. It is submitted here that light industries like brick-making, palm oil,³ copra and coconut oil making,⁴ fruit industries like the processing and packing of tinned pineapple and rambutan, etc. are all certainly feasible.

Another great potential is the expansion of the cottage industries in the Mukim. Presently, they are in a depressed and sad state, mainly because of marketing problems. The writer has seen a number of attractive mats; straw hats; mengkuang food-covers; baskets and beautiful plastic flowers - made by women in the Mukim. It is submitted here that the potential for these products is most promising, and the writer strongly feels that if the marketing problem can be solved and the right encouragement is given by FAMA or MARA, these industries should prove very flourishing and profitable indeed.

Further, it is an interesting possibility that with sufficient publicity, the week-end tourists to Morib (a nearby beach resort), can easily be diverted towards the Mukim, where not only interesting historical sites abound, but also opportunity can be taken to sell these

³The Oil Palm Research Station is already in existence, and provides employment to some 10% of the working population. The writer believes that the potential for future expansion is encouraging.

⁴It was in operation some 5 years ago. The company was called "Sharikat Cocotex."

cottage products at such sites. and vocational training, which will be

In addition to light industries and cottage industries, the prospect for the existing charcoal (i.e. arang) industry seems to be promising. The twin handicap here is the rapidly declining timber resources and marketing problems. Only if these 2 problems can somehow be overcome, the prospects are good, otherwise in the long run it is bleak and uncertain.

Lastly, another potential sector for providing employment in the Mukim is quarry industry. The quarry in the Mukim was last in operation only some 4 years ago. It is widely believed in the Mukim that it was closed down not because it was uneconomical, but rather "because of bad management and corruption" and this is quite openly alleged by those who have been unemployed as a result of it. It is, therefore, suggested here that in future any contract for quarrying should be given only to those with proven expertise and adequate capital and that the contract as far as possible should not be a long term one, rather it must be one that is renewable every year. This recommendation is made in the light of the fact, that the last contract was given on considerations other than expertise⁵ and secondly for a period of over 5 years. Thus, when a contractor collapses, other contractors cannot come in (as in the present case) because the period of the previous contractor has not expired yet. Thus, in the meantime, the unemployed as a result of this must seek other jobs which is not easy to come by. Thus, many of them must simply remain idle, and thereby aggravate further the already high rate of unemployment and under-employment in the Mukim. It is submitted, therefore, that the present system of contracting the quarry must be revised in order to protect the interest of the workers from inexperienced contractors and bad management.

Increasing the Mobility of Labour

This seems to be another alternative to relieve the chronic employment and under-employment problem.

The first difficulty here is the absence of any channel of information. This is a very critical factor. In this connection, the nearest Labour Exchange at Port Swettenham seems to be totally inadequate, ineffective and not helpful at all. Thus, to increase mobility the first priority should be to have a more efficient Labour Exchange or labour information unit somewhere nearer to the Mukim, preferably in Banting or Telok Datch. Secondly, the schools too must be able to help in providing Career Counsellors - which is presently the monopoly of only some large English secondary schools in urban areas. Indeed, the need for such counsellors is equally pressing, if not greater, in the rural areas where the incidence of unemployment and under-employment is relatively greater. A third essential pre-requisite for increasing mobility of labour is to render them mobile. This should be

⁵It was given to the brother of the present Sultan of Selangor, who, as far as is known, had no prior experience at all in this business.

possible by providing technical and vocational training, which will be very useful to them in seeking employment in the modern commercial and industrial sector.

Another handicap is that certain barriers exist which limit mobility. For example, barriers like race and language greatly impede mobility. Hence, as pointed out earlier, those with English education seem to find employment relatively easier than those with Malay education. Similarly, it was also observed that Chinese find employment relatively easier than Malays or Indians.

A further point to note is that mobility is not merely a function of economic incentives (though this is undoubtedly a predominating factor) but also to a certain extent, it flows through channels which are socially rather than economically determined. For example, in the Mukim mobility seems to be higher among males and that secondly, it varies with age, i.e. the younger ones are more prone to move than the older ones.

Finally, another factor that affects mobility is the value system. Generally, for example, there are certain deeply ingrained prejudices against unmarried women working away from home.

Nevertheless to sum up, the prospects for increasing mobility seems, on the whole, to be fairly bright, provided 2 essential prerequisites are fulfilled - namely, the provision of information and secondly the right type of education and training to meet the demands of the rapidly progressing modern commercial and industrial sector.

Education

Education, then, is by far the most essential factor to eliminate or at least relieve the extra-ordinarily high rate of unemployment in the Mukim. For, while on the one hand, it can not only help to develop a pool of skilled personnel, but also on the other, "it can act as a potent weapon for loosening the hold of tradition" in the Mukim.

Nevertheless, to increase agricultural productivity, to make the population more mobile, to equip them with skills, so necessary in a technological age, the type of education needed is really a vocational and technical type. The present disillusionment over it is a rather disturbing feature, especially so when Malay is the National Language of our country.

For a start, it is suggested that if the Government is really

⁶See Chapter III.

⁷J.H. Smith - The Analysis of Labour Mobility [Manpower Policy & Employment Trends].

⁸Eli Ginzberg, Manpower Policy in East Asia, p. 8. U.M.B.C., Economic Review, Vol. IV, No. 1, 1968.

serious to encourage these people to pursue higher education, it must first provide them with adequate financial aid. The oft-repeated assumptions that these people stop their education simply because they are lazy or refuse to study or that their parents do not appreciate and understand the need for higher education - may be simply dismissed as something based on a mischievous hypothesis or a blatant ignorance of facts and reality. The sad truth, as has been pointed out several times elsewhere in this exercise, is that the people - both including young students as well as their parents - are deeply aware of the need for higher education, and the only limiting factor is finance.

In conclusion, education really has twin objectives. On the one hand, "from a humanistic point of view, education trains one for citizenship, freedom, dignity and the worth of man," and on the other, as far as the Mukim is immediately concerned, it is an important human investment, which "can contribute twice as much as capital towards gains in productivity."¹⁰ In addition to these, the right type of education cannot only make the labour more mobile, and thereby relieve the pressure in the Mukim, but also a skilled reservoir of manpower in the Mukim can encourage and facilitate external investment in the Mukim.

⁹V. Kanapathy, Education, Manpower & Malaysian Economic Development - U.M.B.C. Economic Review, Vol. III, No. 1, 1967.

¹⁰Ibid.

SAMPLE OF QUESTIONNAIRE

DIVISION OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT
Faculty of Economics & Administration
University of Malaya

JS-11-83

Ref: Lot No.

Date of Interview:

Occupational Survey of Nukin Jugra

SCHEDULE 1
PERSONAL DATA

1. Name of Interviewee:
2. Address (& Lot No.):
3. Details of the House-hold:

[illegible]

4. Properties owned by the family:

- a) Nature of properties owned:
- b) Approx. total value:
- c) If land:

Lot No.	Location	Crops grown	Income derived	Any shares held
1)
2)

11. Number of people occupied in the family:

11. If own account worker:		Educational qualification	Any previous employment	Reasons for being unemployed
Type of work:				
(1) If farmer:				
a) Size of land:	_____			
b) Ownership:	_____			
c) If not owned, amount of rent paid:	_____			
d) Crops grown:	_____			
e) Income derived (including breakdown of sources):	_____			
f) Hours of work:	_____			
g) No. of people working and payments paid:	_____			
h) Incidence of under-employment, if any. If so, why & how:	_____			
i) Would you take any other job, if given the opportunity (why):	_____			

2. If any other work (e.g. tapping, fishing, etc.):

a) Type of work:

b) Details:

Name	Nature of work	Income	Hours worked	Place of Work	Period of Occupation	Prior Occup.	Future Plans (if given opp)
			1 Attep				
			2 Bakul				
			3 Arang				
			4 O P R S				
			5 Meremah				
			6 Nelayan				

II Details of the Unemployed in the family:

Name	Age	Period of Unemployment	Educational qualification	Any previous experience	Reasons for being unemployed
		10			
		11 Other S			
		12 Unempid			
		PP Ktg SR Tamp SA			
		Location			
		Education: M E I			

*Remarks and general observation:

AGE	JS - II
0-5	1
6-10	2
11-15	3
16-20	4
21-25	5
26-30	6
31-35	7
36-40	8
41-45	9
46-50	10
51-55	11
56-60	12
Over 60	13

APPENDIX II

SAMPLE OF SUMMARY CARD

Form Reference Number		Adult (Cards)	13 Children	100	Student	Housewife	Total Number of People in the Household
Ref		Total Y \$		JS - II			
Race		M C I	Male - Female		Single Married		AGE
Type of E	Y(\$)	Hrs	Pd	Pl			
1 Attap					PP	Ktg	SA
2 Bakul						Tamp	
3 Arang						SR	
4 O P R S							
5 Meremah							
6 Nelayan							
7 T. Kayu							
8 Own a/c							
9 Estate							
10 Govt							
11 Other S							
12 Unempld							
				Location			
				Education: M C E I			
				Over 60			

APPENDIX III

SAMPLE OF CROSS-REFERENCE
FORM

Form Reference Number	Adult (Cards)	Below 15 Children	Above 60	Student	Housewife	Total Number of People in the Household

	The	of	the	is	in	the	and	Appendix
II.	It	comprises	54	pages	7 1/2 x 9 1/2	inches	each	card
	for	each	individual	in	the	main	list	of 15 years to
60	years	Again	due	to	its	bulk	it	is not possible to include
	it	directly	in	the	main	list.		

Appendix VI - Cross Reference Form

It is also available in the Faculty of Economics & Administration Library.

REMARKS	DATE	TIME
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This is a list of names of individuals who are listed in the index in the order in which they appear in the index. The names are listed in the order in which they appear in the index. The names are listed in the order in which they appear in the index.

This is done in order to help the future researcher to locate any particular household, or to obtain data concerning any particular household easily by cross-reference.

A NOTE ON APPENDICES IV, V, VI &
THE HOUSEHOLD MAP ATTACHED

Appendix IV - Completed Questionnaires

The sample of this Appendix is found in page 53, under Appendix I. It consists of 211 three-page completed questionnaires, i.e. each questionnaire for each household interviewed. Due to the bulkiness, it has not been possible to include it in this graduation exercise.

It is, however, available in the Faculty of Economics & Administration Library.

Appendix V - Summary Cards

The sample of this Appendix is found in page 56 under Appendix II. It comprises 545 summary cards of size 6" x 3½", i.e. each card for every single individual in the Mukim between the ages of 15 years to 60 years. Again, due to its bulkiness it is not possible to include it directly in this exercise.

It is, however, available in the Faculty of Economics & Administration Library too.

Appendix VI - Cross Reference Forms

The sample of this Appendix is found in page 57 under Appendix III. It comprises 9 forms. A detailed description of its contents and purposes has already been explained in page 4, Chapter I.

It is also available in the Faculty of Economics & Administration Library.

Household Map of Jugra

This map is meant to pin-point the location of each individual house in the Mukim. Hence, every single household in the Mukim is numbered in the map. The number of each particular household in turn exactly corresponds to the particular household's Questionnaire form, Summary cards and Reference forms.

This is done in order to help the future researcher to locate any particular household, or to obtain data concerning any particular households easily by cross-reference.