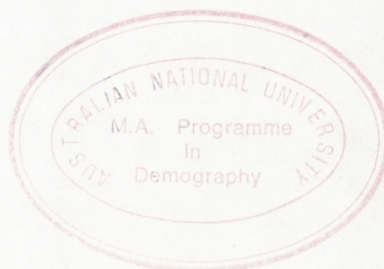


M.A. DEMOGRAPHY PROGRAM
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MIGRATION TO SOUTH SUMATRA AND SOME OF ITS IMPLICATIONS

by

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Thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the Degree of
Master of Arts in Demography at the Australian National University

Canberra, April 1978

D E C L A R A T I O N

Except where otherwise indicated, this thesis
is my own work.

April, 1978

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ABSTRACT

The regional disparities within a country are one of the main causes of internal migration. At the same time, it has been recognised that the movement of people plays an important role in the development process of the nation as a whole. In Indonesia, regional differences as well as the importance of internal migration are among many reasons for the government to carry out the movement of people from Java to the outer islands under colonisation and then transmigration schemes. This study attempts to observe the facts related to the voluntary (unguided) movement on the one hand, and the extensive implementation of the guided movement by the government on the other. Some of the effects of migration on the receiving area (South Sumatra province) are also presented.

Migration to South Sumatra has mostly been directed and concentrated in only two major areas, i.e. the rural areas of OKU (Ogan Komering Ulu) regency and Palembang municipality. The movement to OKU regency cannot be separated from the colonisation and later the transmigration schemes, and was mainly the result of these two programs. At the present time, the rural to rural movement which is undertaken by the government in moving these people, is directed toward the purpose of rural development in the receiving areas, in addition to improving the living standard of the transmigrants. The movement to Palembang (urban area) broadly reflects the spatial incidence of economic development. The status of Palembang as an industrial city, capital city and the centre of activities could be the major attraction for people. More recently, there has been a tendency for a high proportion

of migrants to South Sumatra to prefer living in urban areas, particularly in Palembang.

This study revealed that, at the present time, the transmigration contributed a low proportion of the total immigrants annually. This proposition was based on two facts: firstly, about fifty per cent of the migrants in this province arrived within the last ten years preceding the 1971 census, the period in which transmigration was decreased in number; secondly, a high percentage of migrants in the non-transmigrant areas lived in the urban areas. The impact of these findings is that the voluntary (unguided) movement occurred extensively towards the centre of economic activities.

In conformity with migration theory, this study found that the distance factor influenced the volume of migration - either guided or unguided movement. Economic motives emerged as the main reason for people to move or be moved.

Analysis of characteristics of the migrants found that most migrants came from Java, particularly those who settled in the rural areas. Most migrants were young in age and possibly had already a relatively large family size when they moved. Although it is recognised that migrants had a very low level of education, in general, however, the educational level of the migrants was rather high compared with the population as a whole, both in urban and rural areas.

Migrants not only had a great influence on the growth rate of the population of the receiving areas in this province, but also had a high contribution in each sector of economic activity.

The findings on migration to Palembang and OKU indicated that migrants, whether residing in the rural or urban areas, had an improved standard of living, compared with in the previous place of residence.

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G L O S S A R Y

BAPPENAS	Badan Perencanaan Pembangunan Nasional (National Planning Body)
BIES	Bulletin of Indonesian Economic Studies
BPS	Biro Pusat Statistik (Central Bureau of Statistics/CBS)
becak	Unmotorised tricycle vehicle
Dirjen Transmigrasi	Direktorat Jendral Transmigrasi (Directorate General of Transmigration)
DKI.Jakarta	Daerah Khusus Ibukota Jakarta (Greater Jakarta)
FEUI	Fakultas Ekonomi Universitas Indonesia (Faculty of Economics, University of Indonesia)
IIK	Institute Ilmu Keuangan (Institute of Finance)
IPEDA	Iuran Pembangunan Daerah (Regional Development Contribution)
Kecamatan	Sub district
Kewedanaan	Sub division
LEKNAS	Lembaga Penelitian Ekonomi dan Kemasyarakatan (National Institute of Economic and Social Research)
LIOT	Lematang Ilir Ogan Tengah
MURA	Musi Rawas
MUBA	Musi Banyu Asin
Outer-islands	This term is used for islands other than Java
OKU	Ogan Komering Ulu
OKI	Ogan Komering Ilir
PUSRI	Pupuk Sriwijaya (Sriwijaya Fertiliser Plant)
PERTAMINA	Perusahaan Pertambangan Minyak Nasional (National Oil-mining Company)
PN.TIMAH	National Tin-mining Company
PN.TABA	Perusahaan Negara Tambang Arang Bukit Asam (National Bukit Asam Coal-mining Company)
PELITA	Pembangunan Lima Tahun (Five Year Development), REPELITA (Five Year Development Plan)
PPN	Program Perencanaan Nasional (National Planning Program)
RAPBD	Rancangan Anggaran Pembiayaan dan Belanja Daerah (Regional Budget)

SPP-ADO	Sumbangan Pengganti-Alokasi Devisa Otomatis (Compensation Aid of the Automatic Foreign Exchange Allocation System)
SUSENAS	Survey Sosial dan Ekonomi Nasional (National Social and Economic Survey)
SSCDP	South Sumatra Co-operative Development Project

CHAPTER 1

I N T R O D U C T I O N

The theory and analysis of regional growth has invited much attention among scientists since the late 1920s: formerly, the focus was mainly on national studies. Regional problems that came later led to extensive reverberations on the development of regional growth theory, especially in the last decade. Among these problems were urbanisation, inter-regional migration, depressed regions and different economic opportunities among regions. Inter-regional migration, as one aspect that has much influence on regional growth, aroused interest among economists and other social scientists in their discussions. However, they failed to produce clear and unambiguous results (Richardson, 1973; 1-6 and 89).

The importance of inter-regional migration as Richardson cited can be seen from its role as an adjustment process, followed by equilibrating effects in the inter-regional economic growth. The region which has high population pressure on limited land and widespread disguised unemployment in the rural agricultural sector, does not stimulate national economic development. It even brings about economic and social problems in the area concerned. Labour has low productivity and eventually has low income. Therefore, the regional economy as a whole cannot be raised. The reallocation of manpower or labour surplus is the most reasonable answer to these problems.

Economists have contributed a great deal to the study of migration. Generally, most attention is paid to the determinants of labour mobility. In connection with this field, Shaw, in his review, has categorised the course of studies into four classifications, i.e. (1) in relation to the impact or role of immigration or outmigration on the economic adjustment of origin and destination areas; (2) regarding the performance of migration as a mechanism for the effective allocation of an economy's labour force; (3) concerning labour force migration within a push-pull framework; (4) returns to labour force migration as a form of investment (Shaw, 1975; 53-56).

In the first category, the most significant contribution was made by Lee et al. (1957), Kuznets et al. (1960), and Eldridge et al. (1964) in their study of the 'Population Redistribution and Economic Growth, United States: 1870-1950' (three volumes). This study regards migration as a factor and consequence of the modernisation and growth of an economy. Kuznets, for example, says:

'...The rapidity and magnitude of the differential impacts that accompany modern economic growth are such that the vital processes of birth and death can play but a minor role in adjusting the distribution of population to economic opportunities in different parts of the country ... In consequence, it is migration that must provide the main mechanism of adjustment, and it is migration that must account for most of the population redistribution that can be viewed as an effect of economic growth ...'

(Kuznets and Thomas in Lee et al., 1957; 2)

In another study, Kuznets and Thomas explained the direct relationship between the process of growth and inter-regional migration. The study focussed on three vital stages in the process of economic

development. Firstly, there will be an increase in the income per capita; the population will grow rapidly; and, finally, the rapid growth in income per capita will be accompanied by shifts in the productive resources of the economy (Kuznets and Thomas, 1957; 196-211).

In the second type, migration is viewed as a mechanism for the redistribution of the economy's human resources. Labour is regarded as a factor of production, therefore an efficient allocation of this factor of production among the resources would give the greatest return. Studies on migration as an allocative mechanism were conducted, for instance, by Tarver (1965) and Harris and Todaro (1970). Olsson (1965), in this case, has provided an interesting discussion of micro and macro-migration theory and findings in relation to formulating a strategy for the inducement of resettlement migration.

The third classification interpreted inter-regional migration as a function of man's response to unfavourable economic conditions, unprofitable land tenure systems (push factor), and also man's response to the pull factors in relation to the economic opportunities in other places, amenities, etc. One such study was done by Rutman (1970) in West Virginia.

The last type defined migration in terms of general investment theory. Sjaastad views the problem of migration as one of resource allocation, therefore treating labour migration as a human investment which spends costs and gets returns. He also emphasised it as the main conclusion of his paper as follows (Sjaastad, 1962; 92):

'... migration cannot be viewed in isolation; complementary investments in the human agent are probably as important or more important than the migration process itself ...'

What are the more specific reasons for inter-regional migration? There is no simple answer to this question. In general, however, inter-area migration occurs chiefly as a result of 'different economic opportunities in the areas affected', or 'from areas of inferior economic opportunity to areas of superior economic opportunity' (United Nations, 1953; 106). Regarding the availability of land and labour, migrants tend to move from areas of labour surplus to those with labour shortage (Richardson, 1974; 90). This proposition seems to point out the significance of labour movement as one of the ways out of regional inequality.

Helleiner, in his study on Nigeria, also gave special attention to the labour function. In his conclusion he found that spatial re-allocation from labour surplus areas to land surplus areas could solve the prevailing factor imbalances (G.K. Helleiner in Soon Lee Ying, 1974; 11).

Finally, it is interesting to quote the earlier theory of migration. The theory was written by Ravenstein and formulated as the 'laws of migration'. These were derived from his empirical study of British migration between 1871 and 1881. Some of his laws and conclusions are as follows (Ravenstein, 1885 and 1889; 167-226 and 241-301):

(1) '... the great body of our migrants only proceed a short distance, ... setting in the direction of the great centres of commerce and industry which absorb the migrants.'

(2) The process of migration absorption would go by stages so that the gaps left by those who move to the cities are

filled up by migrants from remote areas. 'Migrants enumerated in a centre of absorption will ... grow less (as the distance from the centre increases).'

(3) 'Each current of migration produces a compensation counter-current.'

(4) 'Migrants proceeding long distances generally go by preference to one of the great centres of commerce or industry.'

(5) The urban dwellers are less migratory than those from the rural areas.

(6) Females appear to predominate among short-journey migrants.

(7) Migration increases following the improvement of technology.

(8) Economic motive dominates in the decision to move ... 'I do not question for a moment that the principal, though not the only cause of migration, has to be sought for in one part of the country, whilst there exist elsewhere underdeveloped resources which hold out greater promise for remunerative labour. It is obvious that this is not the only cause. Bad or oppressive laws, heavy taxation, an unattractive climate, uncongenial social surroundings, and even compulsion (slave trade, transportation), all have produced and are still producing currents of migration, but none of these currents can compare in volume with that which arises from the desire inherent in most men to "better" themselves in material respect.'

From Ravenstein's Migration Laws there are some conclusions to be drawn. It is clear that the decision to move is not only caused by the over-population in some parts of the country, but also by the economic motives of the migrants. The latter even dominates the reason for moving. The influence of the Industrial Revolution on population movement was felt during the period to which Ravenstein referred. The rapid growth of industries in urban centres created many opportunities and attracted people from rural areas. They left their way of life as landless farmers and tried to better themselves in the towns. Therefore, according to Ravenstein, 'migration means life and progress: a sedentary population stagnation' (1889; 288). Another important conclusion of this theory is the relationship between migration and distance. In the simplest sense it seems that people tend to move to a neighbouring area and those who move to a distant region prefer to stay in the centre of economic activities.

1.1 Basic Concept and Definitions

The concepts of migration used in the Indonesian censuses were similar to those suggested by the United Nations (1970; 3-4). The internal migration data in a census can be obtained by asking questions concerning the movement of people. Usually, the questions relate to the place of birth, place of last residence, duration of residence in the place of enumeration, and the place of residence on a specific date before the census.

In Indonesian censuses these types of questions have been put to the people. In the 1971 census, for example, the information

on internal migration was obtained from questions which asked people about their province of birth, whether or not they had ever lived in another province, province of previous residence, and total years lived in the present province (Cho, 1976; 86). A province as an administrative or political unit was the basis of migration tabulation in the census. This concept of migration ignores a considerable part of movement which involves the activities of daily life such as commuting to and from the place of work, visiting, shopping, and travelling. It was also excluding the movement within a province. Thus, in the Indonesian context (census tabulation) a person who changed his place of residence from one province to another was defined as a migrant. The definition includes those who intended to stay permanently in the new province and those who had travelled to and settled in another province for more than six months.

Some other concepts of migration used in this study are given below with their definitions:

Life-time migrant: a person whose area of residence at the census or survey date differs from his area of birth. The number of persons in this group is commonly referred to as 'life-time migration'. However, this number gives a gross understatement of the amount of migration that has occurred during the life-time of the living population as well as the number of persons who have migrated. It does not include all moves that occurred between departure from the area of birth and arrival in the area of residence. It also excludes persons who moved away from their place of birth and then returned.

Return migrant (life-time return migrant): those persons who have returned to their areas of birth after having migrated at least once in their life-time.

Ever-migrated people: the number of life-time migrants including the life-time return migrants.

Migrants by previous place of residence: similar to the 'ever-migrated people' (life-time migrants plus return migrants), that is, all persons who have ever lived outside their area of birth (United Nations, 1970; 18).

Recent migrants: those who moved during the last five years preceeding the census.

1.2 Interest in the Study

The pattern of population settlement in Indonesia reflects its economic and social development. Uneven distribution of population and differences in regional economic potential are the main predetermining factors of internal migration. Internal migration in Indonesia is low when compared with developed countries. Alden Speare indicated that the life-time inter-provincial migration in Indonesia, according to the 1971 census, was only 4.8 per cent of the population. Although one should not compare the United States with Indonesia in this matter, the corresponding figure for the United States is at least 20 per cent in each census for the past 100 years (Lembaga Demografi, June 1975; 66).

The inevitable process of internal migration, however, is gradually becoming a very important issue in the development of Indonesia

as well as in the process of achieving an interdependent national economic system. The high population density of Java has worried the government since the Dutch period. The effort to move people from Java to the outer islands, begun in 1905, is still going on. In some parts it is considered the most important program in solving the population and economic problems of both the originating and the receiving areas. In the framework of the national economic system, regions should not have wide disparities (PPN.FEUI-BAPPENAS, 1973). While some bordering regions have similar types of economic activities, others are quite different. In other words, regions are to be linked by economic activity chains and the development process is supposed to create an interdependent economic system. There is no region which will grow independently although each region has its own unique characteristics. In terms of development, each region should provide economic support to other regions.

The prevailing process of internal migration, whether it is categorised as unguided or guided (transmigration), eventually affects the receiving areas: North Sumatra, Lampung and South Sumatra provinces (the last two formerly being one province) have been the largest receiving areas respectively. Migrants comprise more than 50 per cent of Lampung's total population. South Sumatra is not as extreme as Lampung but in the future it will receive many transmigrants. Consequently, there are two points which should be considered: (1) the demographic consequences of migration which can be seen from the growth rate and population distribution; and (2) the economic implications related to the migrant labour force and their contributions to the economic activities of that region.

1.3 Objectives

The purpose of this study is to see how internal migration to South Sumatra has affected the regional development of the province. Specifically, the study will:

- (1) examine the characteristics of migrants in South Sumatra;
- (2) distinguish guided migration (transmigration) from unguided migration;
- (3) determine the influence of migration on population growth and distribution;
- (4) determine the migrant's contribution to the economic activity of the province.

1.4 Sources of Data

The main data source for this study is the 1971 Population Census of Indonesia. The data on transmigration between 1929 and 1976 were obtained from the South Sumatra Transmigration Office, and unpublished data from the Directorate General of Transmigration have also been used. Some additional supporting data are taken from surveys which were conducted by the Faculty of Economics, University of Sriwijaya, LEKNAS, the Directorate General of Transmigration, and the University of Bonn.

1.5 Outline of the Thesis

In the following chapter (Chapter 2), consideration will be given to the general problem of regional inequalities and the features of inter-regional migration.

Chapter 3 will examine the number of immigrants to South Sumatra province. The emphasis will be on the 1971 Population Census data. The demographic and economic characteristics of these migrants, including their distribution, will also be discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 4 will examine the implementation of transmigration to South Sumatra separately. The characteristics of the transmigrants will be described in this chapter. As a part of immigration, this chapter could form a supplement to Chapter 3 and also to Chapter 5.

In Chapter 5, discussion will be focussed on immigrants in OKU regency and Palembang municipality as the largest receiving areas. The significance of immigrants in these two areas will be discussed. Some important characteristics and conditions of immigrants will also be reviewed.

Finally, Chapter 6 will discuss some implications of migration on South Sumatra, and will explain the relationship between the development progress and the migration prospect.

CHAPTER 2
DEVELOPMENT PLANNING AND INTERNAL MIGRATION
IN INDONESIA

This chapter presents a background of the provincial situation, both demographically and economically. Included is a discussion on internal migration in Indonesia, and a short feature on the implementation of colonisation and transmigration by the government.

2.1 Regional Development

Indonesia, as the fifth most populous country in the world, has a large physical size consisting of thousands of islands. It is inhabited by many different kinds of people. They are different in race, language, custom, culture, and religion. These scattered islands are separated from each other by straits and seas. Some islands are connected by a relatively good system of transportation and communication, especially between the big islands. Others still have poor systems and are isolated and backward. This is because geographically these islands are scattered and are difficult to reach. Also, the transportation system is a problem on land because of the scarcity of roads and railways. However, since the First Five Year Development Program of 1969/70 - 1973/74, these conditions have been continually improving.

The above situation has an effect on the development process and the pattern of population distribution. Moreover, in physical

terms, each island or more specifically each province¹ is different in size, in natural resources and in quality of soil. Consequently, the growth of the regions varies and this is reflected in the rate of change in economic magnitude and living conditions. Three groups of regional differences have been recognised in Indonesia: differences in general aspects such as differences in area, population, and regional government finance; differences in production; and differences in trade/export (Hariri Hady, 1970; 1-21). These regional differences are described below.

2.1.1 Area and Population Distribution Differences

The area distribution as shown in Appendix A.1, demonstrates the difference in size among provinces. They range from 19,023 km² to 421,981 km², excluding some small and special regions such as DKI Jakarta, Bali, and Yogyakarta. The division into provinces is based on political considerations rather than economic conditions. Therefore, some provinces have difficulties in managing their land areas due to their size, shape, or occurrence of natural barriers. It is very difficult to prepare a regional economic plan, as most of the peripheral areas have the same economic system as the neighbouring provinces. For instance, some regions such as West Kalimantan, East Kalimantan, Central Kalimantan and Irian Jaya have an insufficient system of transportation and communication. In addition, these regions contain such natural barriers as large swamp lands, mountainous regions and tropical

1 Region in this thesis usually means the province as a sub-national region.

jungles. Certainly these larger regions face tremendous problems in the administration of their areas. Similarly, the same problems are found in the provinces that consist of many widely scattered small islands such as Maluku and the Nusa Tenggara provinces.

Concerning the differences in population size and density, Indonesia faces two kinds of problems. Firstly, the problem of over-population includes all provinces in Java, Bali and Lombok. Secondly, the problem of under-population faces the rest of the country. The latter areas consist of about 90 per cent of the country's total land area. The results cause some obstacles and unfavourable conditions in regional development. Provinces in Java are economically more advanced as compared with the outer regions. Moreover, these regions can provide cheap labour and large marketing areas. In contrast, most other parts of Indonesia, where population density is relatively low, are experiencing unattractive conditions in terms of economic development. The scarcity of labour and lack of marketing areas are the main problems in stimulating the growth of economic activities.

In the case of South Sumatra, this province could be categorised as one of the largest area provinces in Indonesia (103,688 km²). It is the fifth after Irian Jaya, East Kalimantan, Central Kalimantan, and West Kalimantan. Relative to its number of people, however, South Sumatra is one of the provinces with a lower population density (33/km²). This province consists of mountainous and hilly areas to the east. Some islands lie in the eastern part, where Bangka and Belitung islands are the big and the most important ones.

2.1.2 Financial Resources of Provinces

Provincial financial resources are very important for the continuation of regional development, especially in developing and maintaining many social and economic overhead facilities. The lack of financial sources often not only limits the development plan, but also restrains the opportunity to choose among certain projects. Consequently, the projects or activities are not properly implemented and the target is achieved only to the extent that finances are available.

There are two groups of provincial financial resources, namely revenue from the central government and revenue from local sources. In fact, provinces are not able to raise their own local sources and this is partly because of lack of capability of local administrators. There are numerous big government enterprises/ industries operating in each province. However, their contribution to supporting the provincial revenue is not large enough. The big taxes such as income-tax, company-tax, and property-tax belong to the central government. Therefore, the greater part of the regional budget depends upon aid from the central government.

Before the initiation of the Second Five Year Development Plan, provincial budgets were highly dependent upon two main sources of finance. These were the Central Government Subsidy and the Compensation Aid of the Automatic Foreign Exchange Allocation System (SPP-ADO) = Sumbangan Pengganti Alokasi Devisa Otomatis). Under this system, provinces received their SPP-ADO from ten per cent of the export value originating from their own region. Definitely, this system resulted in a very small SPP-ADO for the regions poor in resources.

On an average, both sources contributed about 90 per cent of the regional budget. But for most of the provinces, the central government subsidy constituted at least 80 per cent of their budgets, except in DKI-Jakarta, North Sumatra and South Sumatra, where it was only about 30 per cent to 40 per cent.

To get a clearer idea of the provincial budget system, the following example will show the details of the regional revenue.

The RAPBD (Regional Budget) of South Sumatra province for the period of 1971/1972 was as follows:

Revenue from the Central Government:

1. Central Government Subsidy	Rp.1,846,366,400	(28.3%)
2. SPP-ADO	- 3,844,607,000	(59.0%)
3. Regional Development Contribution (IPEDA)	- 35,000,000	(0.5%)
4. Licence Fee/Royalty	- 96,000,000	(1.5%)
5. Kerosene Sold	- --	
6. Petrol Opcenten (Surtax)	- 12,000,000	(0.2%)
7. Copra Rehabilitation	- --	
8. Rice Sold Premium	- --	
9. Cess (Tax on the exports of the main agricultural product, i.e. pepper, coffee, rubber)	- --	
Total	(I) = Rp.5,833,973,400	(89.5%)

Revenue from Local Sources:

1. Taxes	}	Rp.684,534,000*
2. Retribution		
3. Government Development Agencies Revenue (Pendapatan Dinas2)		
4. Others		
5. Balance of the 1970/1971 Budget		
Total	(II) =	Rp. 684,534,000 (10.5%)
Total	(I) + (II) =	Rp.6,518,507,400 (100%)

(IIK, Laporan Survey 1971-1972; 97-107)

* These figures are not available separately.

The above example explains the situation of the regional budget. The contents are almost the same in other provinces. The variation occurs only in the amounts of money in each budget item. Clearly, the central government subsidy and the SPP-ADO contributed a high portion of the provincial revenue.

There are two other programs that are funded by the central government under the Rural Public Works Programs. These programs allocate central government funds directly to the regencies/municipalities on a per capita basis (Rp.400 per capita in 1975/76). Also they allocate money to villages throughout Indonesia for development projects (Rp.300,000 per village in 1975/76 (see Supplement of President's Speech, August 1976)). To some extent, these programs tend to promote inter-provincial disparities.

Since the initiation of the Second Five Year Development Program (1974/75-1978/79), the SPP-ADO has been changed to Province Development Aid (Bantuan Pembangunan Daerah Tingkat I). The reason behind this move was to minimise the regional differences in financial problems. The aid was now based on the length of the provincial roads, the cultivated agricultural areas, and it also took into consideration the regional conditions. The minimal amount of this aid was 500 million rupiah. The poor regions could therefore solve some of their financial problems in the development program.

From Appendix A.2 the variation in SPP-ADO amounts received by each province can be seen before it was changed to Province Development Aid. Simultaneously, it shows the natural richness of each region. For example, North Sumatra and South Sumatra were the

highest receivers of ADO-SPP. In other words, these two areas had the highest export values originating from each of them. It is worth noting however, that the combined Province Development Aid and the central government subsidy still dominated the budget in each province.

2.1.3 Production

In the manufacturing and industrial sectors, most of the investment took place in the provinces of Java, and was mainly concentrated in Jakarta, Surabaya, and surrounding areas. This is reasonable because these areas provided all of those strategic facilities needed for industry. In the areas outside Java the growth in manufacturing has taken place to a lesser extent in the southern and northern parts of Sumatra and the southern parts of Sulawesi, concentrated mainly in Medan, Palembang and Ujung Pandang respectively (Ibrahim, 1973; 1-11).

In the agricultural sector, especially in the traditional export commodities such as copra, rubber, palm oil and coffee, the annual rate of growth is low. Although these products contribute a substantial percentage of national exports, the growth in these commodities is not rapid enough to create any significant income for the people in the producing regions. Growth occurred rapidly in forestry and fisheries and in oil-mining. These sectors indeed, could stimulate the general improvement of the region.

Rice is the most important produce in Indonesia. Social and political conditions may be affected if the production, the price, or import of rice are disturbed. So far, all provinces in Indonesia have tried to be self-sufficient in its production. This situation,

in fact, is related to the lack of transportation for redistributing the product from the surplus provinces. The level of rice production in Indonesia as a whole is not yet satisfactory. Although Java's total land area is relatively small, the large rice farming area is in Java. Out of total harvested areas in Indonesia in 1973, about 54 per cent were in Java and this produced 61 per cent of the Paddy's production for the country. This fact is due to the ecological differences between Java and the majority of the outer-island areas. As Geertz wrote in his book, 'the flourishing of wet rice agriculture in Java has generally been explained by the happy combination of fire (volcanic activities), water (rivers), earth (well-drainaged land) and air'. He also emphasised that the nicely appropriate landscapes for wet-rice cultivation do not exist in almost all parts of the outer-islands (Geertz, 1963; 38-39).

Manufacturing and agricultural products are produced in the Java region in large portions. However, the wealth of the people is contrary to this. The regional income survey that was conducted by the team from the Faculty of Economics, University of Indonesia (FEUI, 1974; Tables 2A.1 and 2A.5) showed that the per capita Gross Regional Domestic Product of this region was relatively less than that for regions outside of Java (except DKI-Jakarta) with lower than the average income per capita of Indonesia both in 1968 and 1972, (see Appendix A.3).¹ The GRDP in some provinces outside Java is

1 The discussion on the regional income disparities has also been done by Esmara (BIES, March 1975, vol.XI, no.1). The other side of differences is the regional price disparities: the discussion on this subject was presented by Arndt and Sundrum (in BIES, July 1975, vol.XI, no.2).

higher not only because of richness of their resources - the high concentration of people in Java is also responsible for this disproportion.

Some figures, which are demonstrated in Appendices A.2 and A.3, have put South Sumatra among the richest areas in Indonesia, in terms of its resources. It contributes an important source of national income to the country from many big government industries which operate in this province, e.g. oil-mining and refinery, the fertiliser industry and other petro-chemical industries, tin-mining, coal-mining and many other big and medium industries. Export of these products brings in much income for the government. Some other major export commodities originating from this province are rubber, coffee, pepper, timber and so on.

In analysing the economic condition of the population in South Sumatra as a whole, one should not base one's views on these illustrations. There are two things which should be taken into consideration: i.e. that almost all of the income from the government industries goes to the central government; and the fact that Palembang city is the centre of the majority of industries in this province. Therefore, the benefits obtained from big industries are not directly enjoyed by a large proportion of the population, particularly those who live in rural areas. Ironically, despite all these features and many other efforts that have been made by the government, this province is still experiencing a lack of rice production to supply the needs of its population.

2.1.4 Regional Development Policy

The objectives and directions of national development have been decreed in the State Main Policies (Garis-Garis Besar Haluan Negara). It is emphasised that the aim of Indonesian development is social justice and prosperity in the communities (Masyarakat Adil-Makmur) (REPELITA II, Book I; 1). Therefore, the three development objectives derived from this major principle mentioned in each development plan are:

- (1) political integration and stability
- (2) the maximisation of economic growth
- (3) the reduction of regional disparities.

There are other objectives such as employment maximisation and equitable income distribution in addition to the three mentioned above.

Regional disparities in Indonesia already mentioned are strongly felt in the economic sectors. The differences in income, regional potential, manpower and infrastructure¹ are the most prominent disparities. These differences are also felt in the social sector in areas such as education, health, culture and religion. The regional development seminar conducted by PPN (National Planning Program) pointed out the most important key to solving the problem of regional disparities in Indonesia was infrastructure.

1 Infrastructure-structure of component parts, or a system as backing for development purposes (for example, communication, transportation, irrigation, electricity, hospitals, schools). (See Chambers Twentieth Century Dictionary, 1972.)

It is hoped that by providing economic and social infrastructure needed by the regions, the effort of regional development can be carried out properly. It is also expected that the balance in economic development will eventually be concomitant with the movement of regional potential (such as products and manpower) (PPN, 1973; 274-276). The growth and development of such rich regions outside of Java will invite people to move there, especially if the transportation systems to those regions are good and easy and also not too costly. The potential resources that have never been exploited will attract people to obtain better jobs and improve their standard of living. Therefore, the need to subsidise migrants will no longer be necessary since they themselves can choose to which particular region they intend to go. Certainly this situation could save some of the government budget that is already spent on transmigration schemes. The fast growth of economic and social conditions in the outer islands will also reduce the considerably large numbers of people migrating to Java. Logically, the images which outer-islands people have that Java can provide everything if they can only go there, will gradually disappear.

In South Sumatra, the development of infrastructure since independence to the late 1960s, particularly the transportation network, was very slow and almost experienced no development at all. Palembang was possibly the only area which did benefit somewhat from progress during this period. Since the PELITA-I was commenced (1969/70), the social and economic development of South Sumatra, especially in urban areas, have shown much improvement. The development of transportation networks, in particular, has stimulated the growth of economic life of this province.

In regional development strategy, the region should be looked at from two sides: from its most beneficial function in the national development context, and from the individual economic structure of each region in the range of sectors of activity. From the first instance arises the importance of regionalisation arrangements. For example, South Sumatra, Bengkulu and Jambi provinces are geographically and economically interconnected with each other. Therefore, in making a development strategy for these areas, they should be viewed as one region. In the second framework, each region will have a different strategy and will be developed according to the characteristics of that particular region. Some areas are dominated by agricultural, manufacturing, mining or social services sectors. Then the development plan should be based on the primarily dominant sector in each province.

In the national development strategy level which was proposed by BAPPENAS (National Planning Body), 'Palembang area' is one of the ten growth centres. This area covers South Sumatra province, Bengkulu province, Jambi Province (except Kerinci regency) and the North Lampung regency as hinterland of the Palembang area. In order to carry out development in South Sumatra province itself, the local government has divided the area into six development units. This division is based on the characteristics of the area concerned, and also takes into consideration the three major transportation systems - river, railway and road. These units of development are (Pemerintah Daerah Propinsi Sumatera Selatan, 1973; 38-40):

1. Palembang development unit (covers OKI and LIOT),
with Palembang municipality as its centre;

2. Sekayu development unit, with Sekayu (regency capital) as its centre;
3. Lubuk Linggau development unit, with Lubuk Linggau (regency capital) as the centre;
4. Lahat development unit (covers Semendo area), with Lahat (regency capital) as the centre;
5. Baturaja development unit, with Baturaja (regency capital) as its centre;
6. Bangka-Belitung development unit, with Pangkal Pinang municipality as the centre.

It should be noted that these proposed divisions (for the PELITA-II) are not the same as the administrative divisions in this province. This plan is supposed to be a guide for the government in carrying out the development tasks.

2.2 Internal Migration in Indonesia

Internal migration in Indonesia has two facets. The first is rural-urban movement, and the second is inter-regional movement. Two versions of inter-regional movement are movement among provinces within the same island and movement between the islands. The geographical situation of Indonesia and the regional differences between the islands cause significant movements of the population. Obviously, the combinations of rural and urban movements also characterise the inter-regional movement, in particular, the rural to rural movement which is undertaken by the government under the transmigration scheme. The

purpose of this study, however, is mainly to discuss the province to province movement (inter-regional movement).

In measuring migration in Indonesia, one has to face the difficulties of collecting comparable data. The 1930, 1961 and 1971 censuses have collected migration data. Data on migration in the 1930 census were extremely good, but they are not completely comparable with the data in the recent censuses (1961 and 1971), especially with regard to the changes in area. Actually, the 1961 and 1971 censuses should enable competent people to produce migration data in more detail. Unfortunately, the 1961 census was not fully processed due to the political, economic, and administrative problems of that period (Cho, 1976; 77). In addition, some survey results that are relevant to migration can be matched in order to get relatively good migration data. The importance of data is not only for presenting the migration facts, but also for the purpose of future perspective in the development process.

2.2.1 Population Mobility

It has been mentioned before that the life-time inter-provincial migration in Indonesia was only 4.8 per cent of the population in 1971. This figure shows that the volume of migration is relatively small. Therefore one can conclude that Indonesia has a highly immobile population. The same observation can be arrived at by tracing back to the earliest data. The 1930 census data revealed a movement of 5.63 per cent (3,332,508) of the population to different residencies. The rural population of Java had 99 per cent of its

population born in the same residency. Therefore, only 1.0 per cent of them had moved to other residencies (McNicoll, 1968; 40). It is worth noting that these figures are rather high because residency administrative areas in 1930 were smaller compared with provinces. At present almost all provinces consist of at least two residency areas.

The stability of the population is also supported by the Labour Force Sample Surveys that were conducted by the Department of Labour in 1957 and 1958 (in McNicoll, 1968). The 1958 survey showed that 3.5 per cent of the urban population in Java had moved to other villages over the previous year. The corresponding case in rural areas was only 1.3 per cent. It should be remembered that this survey did not take into account outmigration from rural areas both to the cities and to the outer-islands, so it had only recorded the movement within rural areas in Java.

The National Sample Survey that was conducted in 1964/1965 showed a broader picture concerning the mobility of the population. The results were broken down into Java and outer-islands regions. It showed that the movement of people to urban areas in Java was higher than to urban areas in the outer-islands. The proportion of the population who were migrants in urban Java was 3.0 per cent and 12.1 per cent using one year and five year reference periods respectively. However, migrants represented a higher proportion of the population in the rural areas in the outer-islands than they did in rural Java (see Appendix A.4).

In the 1961 census, the stability of population became even clearer. Regions in Java, except for Jakarta, had low percentages

of people who were born outside each province. The percentages of the rural population that were born outside West Java, Central Java, Jogjakarta and East Java were 1.2 per cent, 0.9 per cent, 1.7 per cent and 0.7 per cent respectively. It also showed that the percentage of people who were born in the outer-islands and living in rural Java was very low. On an average, it was only 0.1 per cent of the rural population of each province in Java. In Java urban populations, for every ten people who moved to urban areas, about two people came from the outer-islands. The remainder came from other provinces within Java. In the outer-islands, the figures for rural areas were almost the same as those in Java with the exception of Sumatra. Sumatra's rural population had a higher percentage of people who were born in Java (9.5 per cent). Certainly this is strongly related to the implementation of the transmigration program which has moved a large number of people to this region.

2.2.2 Inter-regional Migration

Possibly the most important factor in presenting inter-regional migration patterns in Indonesia is to distinguish the provinces/regions according to whether they have been receiving areas or sending areas. In view of the high population density in Java, the conclusion is that, in general, Java is mainly an area of origin and the outer-islands are the receiving areas. Although this statement is evidently right, the reasons for movement vary among provinces or regions, and also there are some provinces in the outer-islands from which many people have left.

The inter-regional movement, especially inter-island movement has been occurring for a long time. It became important when many Javanese people left their homes in the mid-nineteenth century. They were recruited as contract labourers for estates and other enterprises in the outer-islands, particularly for foreign capitalist interests. This was followed by colonisation¹ schemes beginning in 1905 which had the primary objective of reducing over-population in Java.² However, this scheme seems to have been used as a source of cheap labour rather than to solve the over-population problem. H. Craandijk (in Sjamsu, 1960) does not even accept that during this period Java was over-populated. Colonisation became a subject of attention when there was discussion of whether poenale-sanctie³ should be wiped out. This issue worried the people who were concerned about their business interests, particularly the cheap labour market. Consequently, in July 1924, the Minister of Colonisation Affairs, in his letter to the Governor-General of the Dutch-Indies, ordered him not to stop poenale-sanctie before the population had been distributed evenly among the islands (Sjamsu, 1960; 119-124). However, one cannot ignore some success which was achieved by the colonisation scheme. These successes can be seen in some resettlement areas which appeared as old and established locations of colonists, namely, Metro (in Lampung) and

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- 1 Colonisation was an effort (based on instruction from the Dutch-Indies Government) to move the people from Java to outer-islands due to the concern about over-population in Java during that period (in fact most of them were brought to the Government Estates).
 - 2 The more complete discussion on the movement of people from Java as a crowded island to the outer-islands in the earlier period (colonisation) was given by Pelzer (1948) in his book, Chapters VI, VII and VIII.
 - 3 Poenale-sanctie was the colonial-Dutch rule issued in 1910 which gave authority to employers to control and manage their Indonesian labourers.

Belitang (in South Sumatra). Since independence, the movement of people from Java to the outer-islands has been tackled by the Transmigration Office (Djawatan Transmigrasi) and the word 'transmigration' is used instead.

In the 1930 census, there were about 825,000 people who were born in Java living in the outer-islands, and 93 per cent of them were in Sumatra. This figure is comparable with the 1961 census and the pattern is almost the same. The 1961 census data indicated that about 1.35 million Java-born people were living in the rural areas of the outer-islands. McNicoll estimates 1.9 million for both urban and rural, if the ratio of urban to rural among the Java-born in the outer-islands is 2:7. Most of them lived in Sumatra (92.8 per cent) with the remainder in Kalimantan (4.4 per cent), Sulawesi (1.6 per cent) and Maluku/Nusa Tenggara (1.2 per cent) (McNicoll, 1968; 53). The magnitude of movement from Java to the outer-islands can be seen from the National Sample Survey 1964/65 (SUSENAS 64/65). It revealed that 419,000 people had moved from Java to the outer-islands during the five years preceeding the survey. In 1964, about 152,000 people had moved from Java. In terms of urban-rural destination in the movement from Java to the outer-islands, the NSS survey showed that three-quarters of migrants from Java settled in the rural areas of the outer-islands. On the other hand, more than one-half of the immigrants to Java went to urban areas.

The 1971 census gives more complete migration data. Among the 5.7 million people living outside their province of birth (lifetime inter-provincial migration), there were 2,763,644 people (48.5

per cent) categorised as belonging to the inter-island movement. The term inter-island movement in this sense was defined as the movement among important groupings of islands which had a significant number of migrant people (see Table 2.1). The table indicates that 89.5 per cent of Java/Bali-born inter-island migrants were living in Sumatra. This figure is almost the same as that observed in the 1930 and 1961 censuses (see Figure 1).

A small decrease in the percentage of Java/Bali-born in Sumatra in 1971 can be attributed to the extensive implementation of transmigration and general improvement in islands other than Sumatra that attracted people to move there. Those who moved to Sumatra were distributed into three important destinations (by 1971), namely, Lampung (50.7 per cent), North Sumatra (23.1 per cent) and South Sumatra (14.4 per cent). The areas of origin of the people born in Java and who lived in the outer-islands were Central Java (47.2 per cent), East Java (25.6 per cent), and West Java (16.4 per cent).

For the outer-islands, the pattern of movement has been towards Java. This is reasonable because, in general, Java is more developed than the outer-islands. This does not mean that the outer-islands have no resources for their own growth, but that the central government policies give priorities for Java's development. Certainly, because of population pressure, Java has received more attention in attempting to solve its development problems. In Java, those born in the outer-islands are concentrated in centres of high economic, administrative and educational activities. About 95 per cent of Sumatra-born inter-island migrants were living in Java/Bali. Also, inter-island migrants from Kalimantan, Maluku/Irian Jaya and Nusa

TABLE 2.1

POPULATION BY PLACE OF RESIDENCE AND PLACE OF BIRTH, 1971

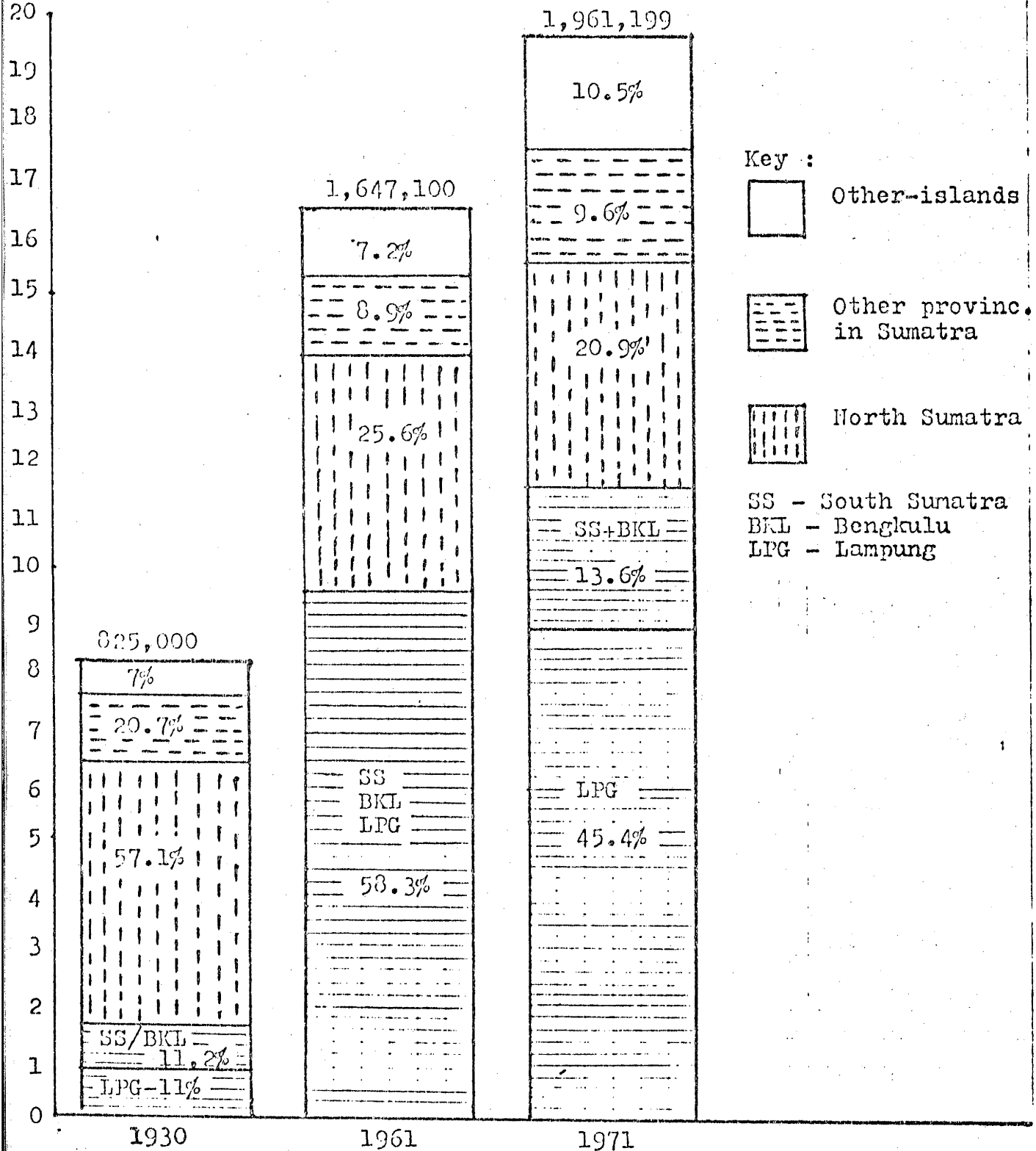
Place of Residence	Place of Birth						Total	Population of Each Place	In-Migration Rate (%)
	Sumatra	Java/Bali	Kalimantan	Sulawesi	Maluku/ Irian Jaya	Nusa Ten- ggara (E+W)			
Sumatra	-	1,755,632	17,206	89,210	1,952	5,038	1,869,038	20,801,177	8.99
Java/Bali	349,869	-	75,340	99,784	23,033	24,293	572,319	78,149,727	0.73
Kalirantan	6,696	90,415	-	22,716	1,424	1,046	122,297	5,152,571	2.37
Sulawesi	7,680	65,280	5,740	-	8,742	3,384	90,826	8,525,364	1.76
Maluku/Irian Jaya	3,345	27,403	815	35,136	-	1,974	68,673	2,012,951	3.41
Nusa Tenggara (E + W)	1,193	22,469	1,023	14,963	843	-	40,491	4,498,714	0.90
Total	368,783	1,961,199	100,124	261,809	35,994	35,735	2,763,644	-	-
Population of Each Place	20,801,177	78,149,727	5,152,571	8,525,364	2,012,951	4,498,714	-	119,140,504	-
Out-Migration Rate (%)	1.77	2.51	1.94	3.07	1.79	0.79	-	-	2.32

Source: 1971 Population Census, BPS, Jakarta, Series D, Table 23.

FIGURE 1

JAVA BORN POPULATION IN OUTER-ISLANDS, 1930, 1961 AND 1971 CENSUSES

(in hundred thousand)



Notes : The 1961 data is McNicoll's estimation

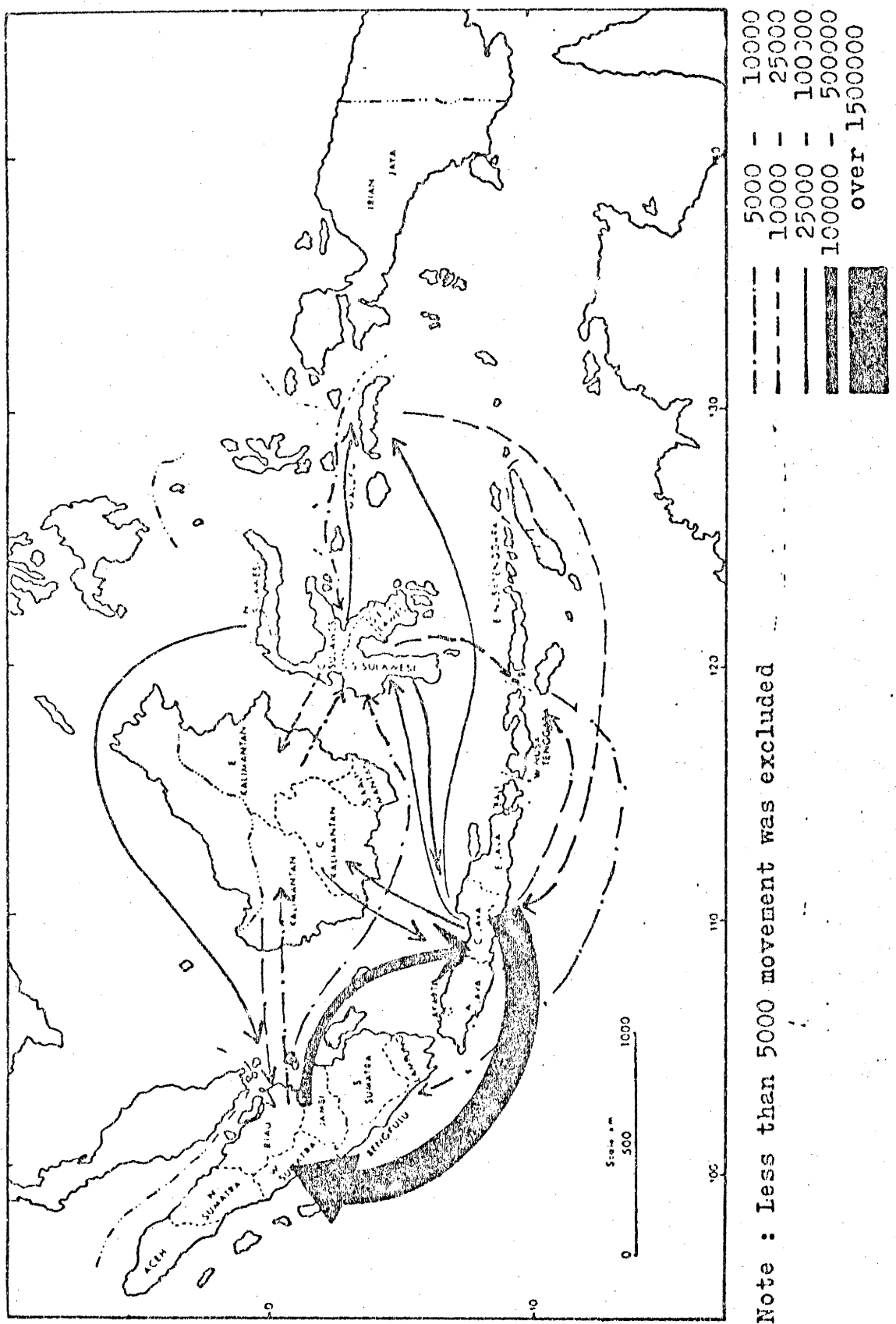
Tenggara, in large percentages, live in Java/Bali. There is an exception for Sulawesi-born people where the percentages of migrants to Java and to other outer-islands are both relatively large. It is important to remember that Sulawesi people, especially Buginese, are famous as sailors. For a long time many of them travelled throughout the country seeking new settlement areas. Therefore, many of them are found living in the coastal areas of some provinces.

Looking at the life-time migration rate (based on the 1971 data) as shown in Table 2.1, the outstanding figure for immigration was that in Sumatra (8.99 per cent), while the outmigration from this island was only 1.77 per cent. It is interesting to see that the out-migration rate from Sulawesi was relatively higher than other islands in Indonesia (3.07 per cent). The balance between immigration and out-migration rates of each island shows that Sumatra, Kalimantan, Maluku/Irian Jaya and Nusa Tenggara are the gaining islands. The losing islands are Java/Bali and Sulawesi.

Jakarta, as the capital city with all of its super-abundances over other provinces, became a focal point of movement. About 65.5 per cent of Sumatra-born people living in other islands were in Jakarta (by 1971). The percentages for Sulawesi and Kalimantan were 35.0 per cent and 22.0 per cent (see Figure 2).

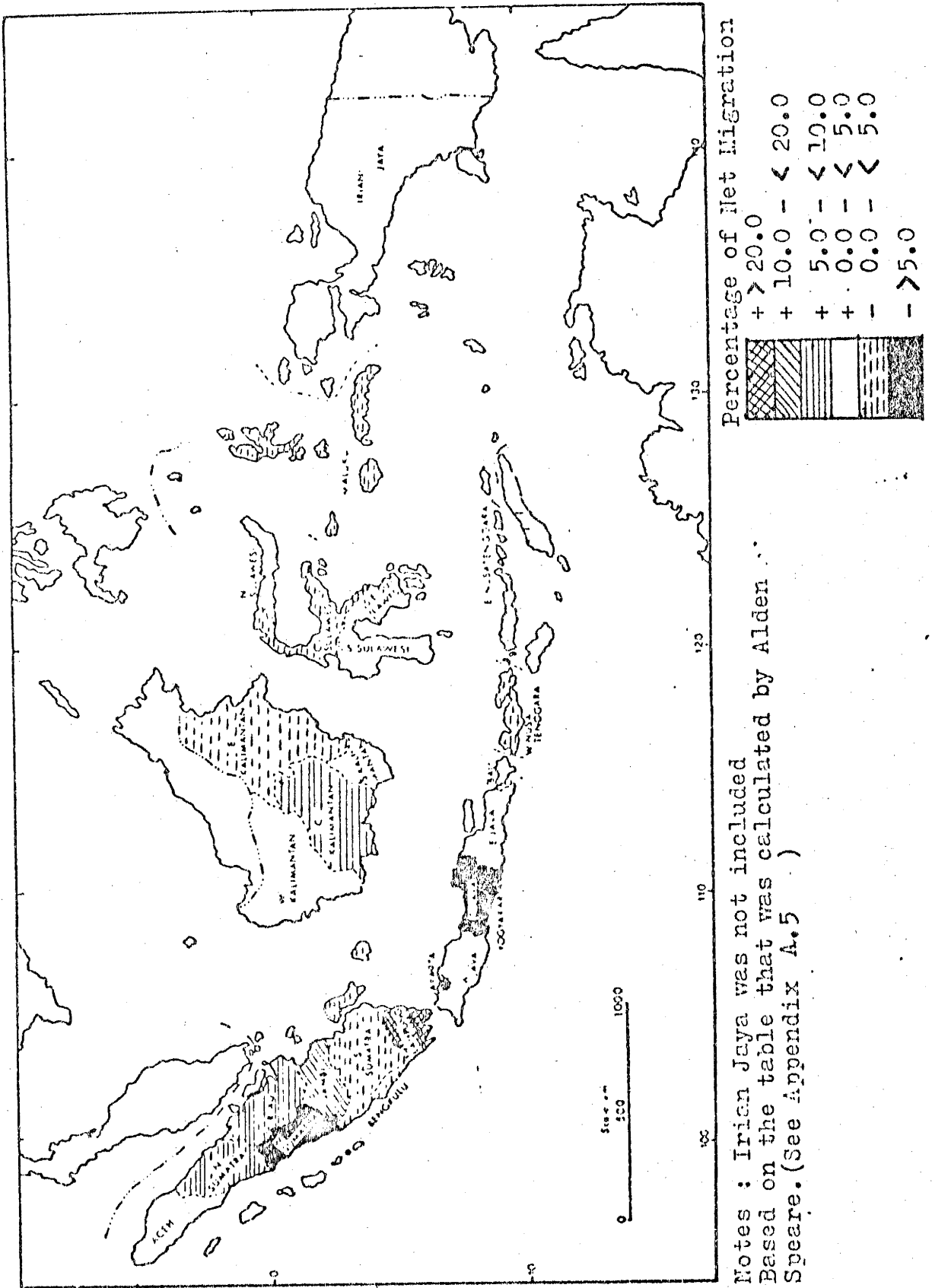
The life-time inter-provincial migration as shown in Figure 3 (see also Appendix A.5) points out which provinces had net losses or gains through migration. Except for Jakarta, all other provinces in Java/Bali experienced negative net migration. This was caused, to a large extent, by the implementation of transmigration.

FIGURE 2
INTER ISLANDS MIGRATION, BASED ON BIRTH PLACE DATA, 1971



Note : Less than 5000 movement was excluded

FIGURE 3
 PERCENTAGE OF NET LIFE-TIME MIGRATION, BY PROVINCE, 1971



Net losses also happened in South Sulawesi and West Sumatra which have considerably high outmigration rates. The old tradition for the Minangkabau to go abroad (merantau) is one aspect that is reducing its population. The sailing habit of the Buginese in South Sulawesi caused them to be scattered and settled throughout the country. In fact, there are also some provinces having high outmigration where the level of immigration has tended to make up for those people who left their provinces. The outstanding example of this is South Sumatra. The life-time outmigration in this province was 5.8 per cent. On the contrary, life-time immigration was higher at 9.5 per cent. Therefore this province could not be classified as an area of net loss.

2.2.3 Transmigration

Undoubtedly, transmigration implementation (including colonisation implemented before independence) has caused a large number of Javanese to be settled in the outer-islands, especially in Sumatra. During the colonisation period between 1905 and 1942, about 200,000 people were moved from Java to the outer-islands. In general, this scheme was unsuccessful in increasing the living standard of the migrants. One of the reasons was that the government seemed to develop enclaves of typical Javanese communities in the colonies' villages. They had to keep their traditions, habits, and the community system as they were in Java. This not only made those people isolated, but also caused clashes and conflicts with the local people. There was no guidance from the government for improving their way of life and this brought about poverty among the settlers. In the transmigration period the objectives are far different. The emphasis is primarily given to

the development interest of the receiving areas as well as trans-migrants' needs. Certainly, transmigration also had as an objective reducing over-population in Java.

TABLE 2.2

NUMBER OF MIGRANTS FROM JAVA/BALI BETWEEN 1905 AND 1974,
BASED ON THE COLONISATION AND TRANSMIGRATION SCHEMES

Period	Number of Migrants	Migration Scheme
1905-1911*	6500	Colonisation
1912-1950**	222,056	Colonisation, including the movement under the Japanese occupation, and some movement in the early period of independence; excluding the ex-contract labour movement and the number of <u>Transmigrasi Keluarga</u> (families nominated and initially supported by old migrants).
1951-1968**	408,810	Transmigration
1.4.1969 to 31.3.1974**	182,326	Transmigration (the First Five Year Development Plan), including the trans-migrants from West Nusa Tenggara in 1973/74.

Sources: * Sjamsu, 1960; 106.

** Unpublished data of the Direktorat Jendral Transmigrasi, Jakarta.

The contribution of the colonisation and transmigration schemes in the movement of Javanese to outer-islands is shown in Table 2.2. However, it is worth keeping in mind that in the continuing process of Java-outer-islands movement, the return migrants to Java and the unguided migration to the outer-islands are excluded. It is very difficult to estimate these numbers. The rough data of unguided migration, however,

could be estimated by comparing the life-time immigration and the transmigration data in each province. If one follows a cohort of transmigrants, of course, the number would be decreased because of death and return migration. However, if a comparison is made with the number of Java-born in outer-islands in 1971, the transmigrants possibly make up about one-third of the total. Therefore about two-thirds are those who moved outside the scheme.

The realisation of transmigration between 1951 and 1973/74 shows that a rather high percentage of transmigrants come from Central Java (34.9 per cent), followed by East Java (27.8 per cent), Bali and other areas (13.2 per cent), West Java (12.5 per cent), and Yogyakarta (11.0 per cent) (see Table 2.3). Although the resettlement areas cover all areas outside of Java/Bali, about two-thirds of transmigrants were settled in two areas only, namely, Lampung (33.8 per cent) and South Sumatra (32.6 per cent) provinces.

Summary

It is recognised that transmigration has played an important role in moving a large number of people from Java to the outer-islands, especially in the area of rural development. This scheme also seems to be important in encouraging spontaneous migration. Moreover, the high pressure of population density in Java operates as a push factor since Java can no longer provide enough opportunity for a better living for the people. Certainly the opposite movement is also occurring, and its effects make it even more difficult to solve the high growth of population in Java.

TABLE 2,3

THE ACCOMPLISHMENTS OF TRANSMIGRATION 1951-1973/1974

Year	Original Areas					Total
	West Java	Central Java	Yogya	East Java	Bali and Other Areas	
1951	471	1588	390	502	-	2951
1952	1091	8777	2745	4992	-	17,605
1953	6896	12,754	4427	14,751	1181	40,009
1954	5442	9397	3236	7552	4111	29,738
1955	3164	6503	1923	5454	4345	21,389
1956	3233	10,025	3243	8280	738	25,519
1957	1783	5926	2094	5148	5094	20,045
1958	2130	6692	1979	6592	3210	20,603
1959	5991	15,311	2654	18,462	3678	46,096
1960	2180	7065	1960	7886	2987	22,078
1961	5100	8470	1363	4317	350	19,600
1962	3018	10,046	1644	5446	2039	22,193
1963	840	4622	695	3138	22,836	32,131
1964	683	7819	4675	59	1986	15,222
1965	4202	26,524	7503	12,903	1193	52,325
1966	1359	1191	485	1072	543	4650
1967	1697	1826	28	1600	1015	6166
1968	2592	3719	1373	2125	681	10,490
1969/70*	2105	4093	5397	4726	1527	17,848
1970/71	3004	5949	2636	3495	4901	19,985
1971/72	2647	4119	2739	4139	5226	18,870
1972/73	7936	15,457	5916	16,850	5761	51,920
1973/74	6737	28,416	6212	24,966	4380	73,703**
Total	74,301	206,289	65,317	164,455	77,782	591,136

Notes: * The starting period of the First Five Year Development Program (April 1969 to March 1970).

** The total includes DKI Jakarta (1433), West Nusa Tenggara (1451) and local transmigration (108).

Source: Unpublished data, Direktorat Jendral Transmigrasi, Jakarta.

The regional differences which show relatively more economic opportunities available in the outer-islands, so far do not give their support in solving the uneven population distribution. This situation is caused by the unattractive condition of some areas outside Java. Therefore the size of the population movement is not significant compared with the growth rate of population in Java. The illustration of the government financial aid to the relatively developed provinces does not help much in stimulating the people to move to less well-developed areas. The aid consideration is mainly based on the size of the population and the reality of development performance. Some provinces which have a large population and enough infrastructure will receive more aid in order to improve the standard of living of the people and to maintain the infrastructure. The contrary situation is found in many provinces outside of Java. Some provinces in the outer-islands grow relatively slowly, and this is not an attractive condition for people to move into. Consequently only a few areas that are close to Java and have favourable economic conditions become focal points of movement. Eventually the hope of solving the high growth of population in Java by high spontaneous migration becomes more difficult and even impossible, because it will involve such a tremendous number of people.

The transmigration implementation has influenced the growth and structure of the population of some provinces in the outer-islands. It has also affected the economic structure of the regions concerned. Apart from this scheme, it seems that the number of unguided movements in some regions, whether they come from Java or from other islands, cannot be ignored, but must be discussed. For better or worse, their existence will influence the settling areas.

CHAPTER 3

ESTIMATION OF MIGRATION TO SOUTH SUMATRA

This chapter is mainly concerned with life-time migration. The first section deals with the life-time immigrants as revealed by the censuses prior to the 1971 census. Section two discusses the detailed characteristics of the life-time immigrants including the life-time return migrants (ever-migrated people) based on the 1971 population census. Since the discussion involved all ever-migrated people in South Sumatra, the foreign-born migrants whose place of last residence had been other countries are included. This is done for the sake of convenience. The focus, however, is still on internal migration.

Separately, in the following sections brief attention will be given to the various categories of migrants. Section four discusses the life-time migrants based on the place of birth data. Section five examines similar data based on the place of previous residence. Section six shows the details of the return migrants. Lastly, section seven offers the illustration of recent migration. In this part, a discussion on the outmigration will also be included.

It is also important to note that South Sumatra province has experienced boundary changes over time. Formerly, South Sumatra province consisted of four residencies - two of which were Lampung and Bengkulu residencies. In 1964 Lampung stood as a separate province, and then followed by Bengkulu in 1967. The possibility of misreporting due to these changes had also been taken into consideration in the

1971 census. It is discussed in the instruction book to enumerators (Biro Pusat Statistik, 1971a; 36).

3.1 Features of Migration to South Sumatra Before the 1971 Census

The 1930 census was the first to produce data on migration in Indonesia. These data were derived from replies to the question about the place of birth. In Java and Madura, people were required to report the district (Kecamatan) in which they were born, and in the outer-islands, the sub-division (Kewedanaan).¹ The number of migrants in South Sumatra from regions other than Java was not significant. However, based on the race classification there was an indication that Malays had penetrated this area over a long period. In the 1930 census, 8.5 per cent of the people claimed to be Malays in South Sumatra. This figure included those Malays who were born in South Sumatra. The only significant movement was the number of life-time inmigrants from Java and Madura. Their distribution in South Sumatra is illustrated in Table 3.1. The total of Java and Madura-born people was 4.9 per cent of the total population in South Sumatra in 1930. These people represented only 7.9 per cent of Java and Madura-born in Sumatra as a whole. Table 3.1 also shows that 60.6 per cent of the inmigrants were males. With regard to their place of origin, 41.7 per cent were from West Java, 39.7 per cent from Central Java (including Surakarta), and the remainder came from other parts of Java and Madura.

1 Sub-division (Kewedanaan) administrative area in this period was larger than a district but smaller than what is now called a regency.

TABLE 3.1
 NUMBER OF MIGRANTS IN SOUTH SUMATRA
 FROM JAVA AND MADURA, 1930

Area	Male	Female	Total	Sex-Ratio
Palembang (South Sumatra Mainland)	36,995	23,471	60,466	158
Bangka	2,934	2,029	4,963	145
Belitung	1,091	1,137	2,228	96
Total South Sumatra	41,020	26,637	67,657	154

Source: Volkstelling 1930, Deel IV.

It is surprising that the percentage of people born in West Java (41.7 per cent) was higher than that of Central Java (including Surakarta), because the corresponding figures for Java and Madura-born in Sumatra as a whole were 43.5 per cent from Central Java, and only 19.5 per cent from West Java. So it is probable that the proportion of West Javanese settled in South Sumatra is higher than in other areas in Sumatra.

In the 1961 census, the migration data were not processed by the Central Bureau of Statistics (BPS). McNicoll, however, produced some tables on migration based on this census. Unfortunately, these tables are limited in their scope. The tabulations for the regions outside Java, for example, were made only for rural areas. According to these tables, the Java-born immigrants consisted of 15.3 per cent (191,000 people) of the rural population in South Sumatra and Bengkulu.

TABLE 3.2
 NUMBER OF PERSONS IN SOUTH SUMATRA
 BORN IN JAVA AND MADURA, 1930

Place of Birth	Lived in			Total
	Palembang	Bangka	Belitung	
West Java	24,447	2,514	1,222	28,183
Central Java	22,979	1,220	396	24,595
Yogyakarta	3,992	208	40	4,240
De Vorstenlanden	6,071	427	104	6,602
East Java	5,959	552	495	7,006
Total	60,466	4,963	2,228	67,657

Source: Volkstelling 1930, Deel IV.

In South Sumatra, Java-born migrants contributed high percentages to the rural population of Ogan Komering Ulu (22.0 per cent) and Musi Rawas (15.5 per cent) (McNicol1, 1968; Table 8). It is worth remembering that these two regencies were the old transmigration areas which had received a large number of transmigrants. The sex-ratio among migrants shows that males outnumbered females. There were 118 females and 132 males per 100 females for these two regencies respectively.

The origin areas of Java-born migrants in South Sumatra in 1961 cannot be presented because the data are not available. However, the data for Sumatra as a whole show that 53.8 per cent of Java-born migrants came from Central Java, and only 18.4 per cent from West Java. The origin area distribution pattern of immigrants at the time of the

1961 census is almost the same as that revealed by the 1930 census for Sumatra. Owing to the fact that in the 1930 census the percentages of immigrants from West and Central Java in South Sumatra were close, there is a possibility that the percentage of West Java-born migrants in South Sumatra is higher than that for Sumatra as a whole in 1961.

3.2 Migration to South Sumatra Province According to the 1971 Census

The general discussion of ever-migrated people in South Sumatra is based on the 3.87 per cent sample of the census results. The actual number in the total population was generated by weighting the sample with the inflation factors. The demographic and socio-economic characteristics of these migrants are described below.

3.3 Demographic and Socio-Economic Characteristics of Ever-Migrated People

In general, the ever-migrated people constituted 11.11 per cent (381,855 people) of the total population of South Sumatra.¹ These ever-migrated people in the 1971 census can be split into:

- (1) life-time migrants (327,312 people);
- (2) return migrants (47,980 people);
- (3) outside Indonesia-born migrants (6,563 people).

However, for convenience the following description is based on data for all ever-migrated people.

1 In the course of this study, the migrants and the non-migrants are not distinguished, since the sample tape only provides the migrant people. Therefore, the comparison is made on the total population in which the migrant people are included.

3.3.1 Area Distribution

Among all migrants in South Sumatra, 65 per cent can be found only in Palembang and OKU. These two areas received 32.9 per cent and 32.1 per cent of all migrants in this province respectively (see Table 3.3).

TABLE 3.3
DISTRIBUTION OF EVER-MIGRATED PEOPLE BY REGENCY
AND MUNICIPALITY IN SOUTH SUMATRA, 1971

Regency/ Municipality	Number	%	Sex(%)		Area (%)	
			Male	Female	Urban	Rural
<u>Regency</u>						
MUBA	33,804	8.9	57.6	42.4	-	100.0
OKI	7,613	2.0	59.7	40.3	21.0	79.0
OKU	122,531	32.1	54.3	45.7	-	100.0
LIOT	21,569	5.6	55.7	44.3	46.5	53.5
Lahat	25,665	6.7	61.6	38.4	32.4	67.6
MURA	18,159	4.8	54.4	45.6	31.9	68.1
Bangka	6,664	1.7	68.0	32.0	-	100.0
Belitung	14,169	3.7	57.1	42.9	79.6	20.4
<u>Municipality</u>						
Palembang	125,451	32.9	52.7	47.3	100.0	-
Pangkal Pinang	6,230	1.6	56.2	43.8	100.0	-
South Sumatra	381,855	100.0	55.1	44.9	44.2	55.8

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 population census, sample tapes.

The high concentration of migrants in Palembang and OKU is strongly related to the characteristics and the functions of these two areas. Palembang, as the largest urban area in this province is also one of the largest cities outside Java. It has an agglomeration of big industries as well as medium and small industries. Its functions as a centre of administrative, social, and economic activities could be the main attraction for migrants. On the other hand, OKU regency has long been famous as a major receiving area of colonists/transmigrants. This regency has the old established settlement area of Belitang. Until recently, this regency continually received a high number of transmigrants annually.

Although all regencies/municipalities showed high proportions of males, the highest percentage of male migrants could be seen in Bangka regency, and relatively low proportions in Palembang. Regarding the variation in the sex balance, it seems that there could be more male migrants than females in the areas where the number of migrants are relatively small.

In OKU regency, all migrants lived in rural areas although this regency also has an urban area. Therefore, one can relate this situation with the transmigration programme which is directed to the rural areas. The agricultural development in this regency, especially in the transmigrant settlement areas, has been very good. Some important facilities such as health, roads and markets have been provided and developed by the local government. The outstanding example of this is the Belitang sub-district.

Other regencies where migrants lived in rural areas were MUBA and Bangka regencies. In the MUBA regency this was caused by the

fact that this area did not have any urban categories according to the 1971 census. According to the 1971 census definition regarding the urban area classification, this regency should have at least Sekayu as an urban area category (regency capital). In fact, it did not appear, and even Sungei Gerong, which was designated as 'other urban area' in the 1961 census, did not appear either. On the other hand, migrants living in rural areas of Bangka regency were possibly involved in the scattered tin-mining areas of this regency. Another factor is that many Chinese who live in this regency have been in business producing ceramics and pottery and they live mostly in rural areas.

Palembang and Pangkal Pinang which were classified as urban areas caused all migrants in these two areas to be identified as urban migrants.

The percentage of migrants in each regency/municipality, given in Table 3.4, reveals that Palembang and OKU had one migrant for every five people. This high proportion of migrants in these two areas not only had an influence on the demographic aspects, but also on other sectors, especially in the economic activities (see also Figure 4 and Appendix B.1).

3.3.2 Age and Sex Distribution

By the time of the 1971 census, migrants were mostly concentrated in the labour force age groups. Although the total sex ratio among the migrants was in favour of the male migrants, the age patterns were for both sexes almost the same. The sex ratio in each age group clearly showed an excess of males in almost all age groups. It is

TABLE 3.4
MIGRANT POPULATION IN EACH REGENCY/MUNICIPALITY, 1971

Regency/ Municipality	Total Population	Migrant	Percentage Migrant
<u>Regency</u>			
MUBA	374,876	33,804	9.0
OKI	445,788	7,613	1.7
OKU	538,575	122,531	22.8
LIOT	363,769	21,569	5.9
Lahat	372,821	25,665	6.9
MURA	252,420	18,159	7.2
Bangka	303,804	6,664	2.2
Belitung	128,694	14,169	11.0
<u>Municipality</u>			
Palembang	582,581	125,451	21.5
Pangkal Pinang	74,733	6,230	8.3
South Sumatra	3,438,061	381,855	11.1

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 population census, sample tapes.

interesting to note that the excess of males over females increased with the increase in the age of the migrants, particularly if it is compared with the total population. It appears that more males moved and settled in this area in the earlier period than females (see Tables 3.5 and 3.6).¹ Looking at the age distribution by regencies and municipalities there was little difference between them. The

¹ This skewed sex ratio for migrants occurs despite the transmigration policy of moving families.

TABLE 3.5
 PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF EVER-MIGRATED PEOPLE
 BY BROAD AGE GROUPS IN EACH REGENCY/MUNICIPALITY, 1971

Regency/ Municipality	Age			Total
	0-14	15 - 59	60+*	
<u>Regency</u>				
MUBA	10.7	82.8	6.5	100.0
OKI	12.2	77.5	10.3	100.0
OKU	14.7	81.5	3.8	100.0
LIOT	11.6	80.0	8.4	100.0
Lahat	10.0	83.0	7.0	100.0
MURA	11.8	81.0	7.2	100.0
Bangka	12.2	82.9	4.9	100.0
Belitung	10.5	77.2	12.3	100.0
<u>Municipality</u>				
Palembang	15.1	80.3	4.6	100.0
Pangkal Pinang	9.2	74.6	16.2	100.0
Male	12.4	81.2	6.4	100.0
Female	14.9	80.5	4.6	100.0
Total	13.5	80.8	5.7	100.0

Note: * Including age Code 100 (333 people).

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 Population census, sample tapes.

TABLE 3.6
SEX RATIO OF EVER-MIGRATED PEOPLE AND OF THE
TOTAL POPULATION ACCORDING TO FIVE-YEAR AGE GROUPS
IN SOUTH SUMATRA, 1971

Age	Sex Ratio ($\frac{M}{F} \cdot 100$)	
	Migrants	Total Population
0 - 4	110	100
5 - 9	86	102
10 - 14	113	104
15 - 19	107	95
20 - 24	116	89
25 - 29	115	87
30 - 34	131	103
35 - 39	120	99
40 - 44	133	108
45 - 49	148	106
50 - 54	131	101
55 - 59	168	113
60 - 64	183	104
65 - 69	145	99
70 - 74	181	115
75+	150*	97
Total	123	100

Note: * Including age Code 100 (333 people).

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 Population Census sample tapes and the 1971 Population Census, BPS, Series E-06.

interesting evidence is that Palembang and OKU had a slightly higher proportion of young migrants (0-14 years). This variation is relevant in the light of the fact that these two areas received the largest number of migrants among other areas in this province (see Chapter 5).

In fact, this table only shows the age structure of migrants who had already stayed in this province for different durations of

residence. The approximate age structure of migrants at the time they came to South Sumatra is presented in Table 3.7. This table is based on migrants who had stayed in this province for a duration of residence between zero and eight years.

TABLE 3.7

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY AGE AND SEX OF MIGRANTS
BY THE TIME THEY ARRIVED IN SOUTH SUMATRA (0 TO 8 YEARS RESIDENCE)

Age	Male	Female	Total
0 - 4	10.3	13.3	11.6
5 - 9	9.2	11.7	10.3
10 - 14	9.7	12.7	11.0
15 - 19	15.6	19.2	17.1
20 - 24	18.9	15.9	17.6
25 - 29	14.6	9.6	12.4
30 - 34	8.8	6.8	7.9
35 - 39	4.9	4.0	4.5
40 - 44	3.7	2.7	3.3
45 - 49	2.0	1.7	1.8
50 - 54	0.9	0.8	0.9
55 - 59	0.6	1.0	0.8
60 - 64	0.4	0.3	0.3
65 - 69	0.1	0.1	0.1
70 - 74	0.2	0.1	0.2
75+	0.2	0.1	0.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number	92,418	71,209	163,627

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 Population Census, sample tapes.

The table shows that besides a high percentage of migrants in the working age brackets (during the last eight years), there was a considerably high proportion of migrants in the very young age group (0-14 years (about 33 per cent). The age group 15-29 years consisted

of almost one-half of the migrants. The female age structure, however, tended to be younger than that for males.

Based on this age structure, one can calculate the age dependency ratio by the time they arrived in South Sumatra, which represents the ratio of the combined child population and aged population to the population of intermediate age (Shryock et al., 1971; 235). The total dependency ratio¹ among the migrant population in South Sumatra gives a value of 23.8. It means that about 24 people are dependent on every 100 members of the productive population. The child dependency ratio (i.e. the ratio of children under 15 to persons 15 to 59), and the old-age dependency ratio (i.e. the ratio of persons 60 and over to persons 15 to 59) gives values of 16.7 and 7.1. The total dependency ratio of migrants was much lower than for South Sumatra as a whole, where approximately one person supported another person.

3.3.3 Province of Origin and Pattern of Movement

With regard to the province of origin of migrants in South Sumatra, it is clear that most of them came from Java (see Table 3.8), and in particular from Central Java. This situation is partly due to the fact that Java is the main origin area of transmigrants. Other significant sources of migrants besides Java are West Sumatra and South Sulawesi. It is interesting to remember that people from these two

1 Total dependency ratio:
$$\frac{P_{0-14} + P_{60+}}{P_{15-59}} \times 100$$

The calculation of dependency ratio is a bit rough, since it excludes migrants who moved out from this province. However, in this context it is assumed that the movements during the last eight years were very little and can be ignored.

TABLE 3.8
 EVER-MIGRATED PEOPLE IN SOUTH SUMATRA BY PLACE OF BIRTH
 AND BY PREVIOUS PLACE OF RESIDENCE, 1971

Province	Place of birth	Previous place of residence	Difference
1.D.I.Aceh	1,002	1,572	- 570
2.North Sumatra	4,399	5,694	- 1,295
3.West Sumatra	22,659	20,121	+ 2,538
4.Riau	1,468	3,880	- 2,412
5.Jambi	4,213	10,270	- 6,057
6.South Sumatra	47,980	-	+ 47,980
7.Bengkulu	11,880	16,501	- 4,621
8.Lampung	9,394	29,354	- 19,960
9.DKI.Jakarta	9,943	23,462	- 13,519
10.West Java	67,222	73,568	- 6,346
11.Central Java	117,698	113,568	+ 4,130
12.Yogyakarta	8,491	8,517	- 26
13.East Java	49,008	48,090	+ 918
14.Bali	402	556	- 154
15.West Nusa Tenggara	187	323	- 136
16.East Nusa Tenggara	363	401	- 38
17.West Kalimantan	602	1,099	- 497
18.Central Kalimantan	-	184	- 184
19.South Kalimantan	414	919	- 505
20.East Kalimantan	590	1,351	- 761
21.North Sulawesi	820	414	+ 406
22.Central Sulawesi	1,232	1,308	- 76
23.South Sulawesi	14,686	11,867	+ 2,819
24.South East Sulawesi	129	203	- 74
25.Maluku	373	287	+ 86
26.Irian Jaya	137	312	- 175
Other Countries	6,563	8,034	- 1,471
T o t a l	381,855	381,855	0*

Note: * Balance without 'Other Countries' figures.

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 Population Census, sample tapes.

areas are famous as 'perantau' (people who travelled to other areas in order to find some opportunities and to gain some experience). Many of them are traders (Padangese/Minangkabau from West Sumatra) and sailors (Buginese from South Sulawesi). Other important origin areas of migrants are the bordering provinces: Lampung, Bengkulu and Jambi.

The pattern of movement as shown in Table 3.8 can be formulated into four categories (see Figure 5):

(1) The positive figures as shown in column 4 represent those people who were born in a certain province, then moved to other provinces and finally came to South Sumatra. The total of this group was 57,406 people. The foreign-born movement was excluded.

(2) The negative figures in column 4 represent those people who were born in other provinces, went to a certain province, and then came to South Sumatra. The total of this group was 10,897 people.

(3) The return migrants with the total of 47,980 people are those who were born in South Sumatra, went to other provinces and then came back to South Sumatra again.

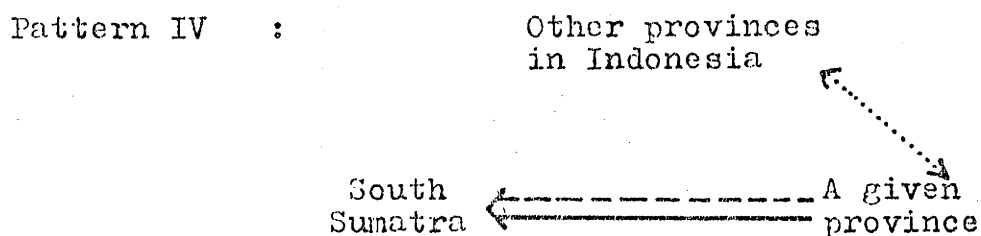
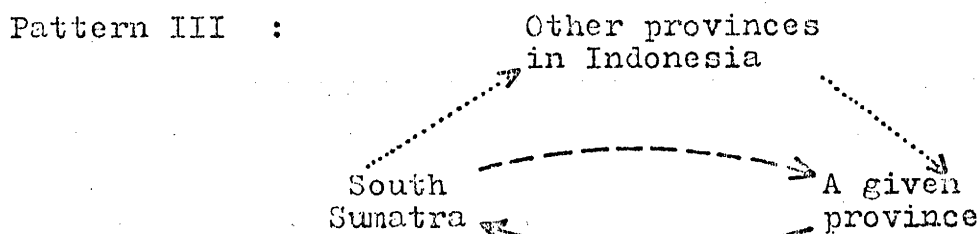
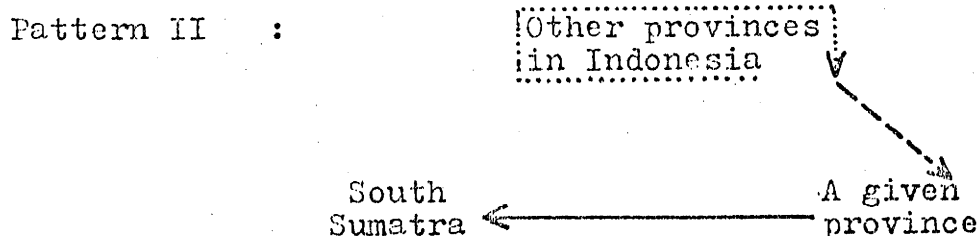
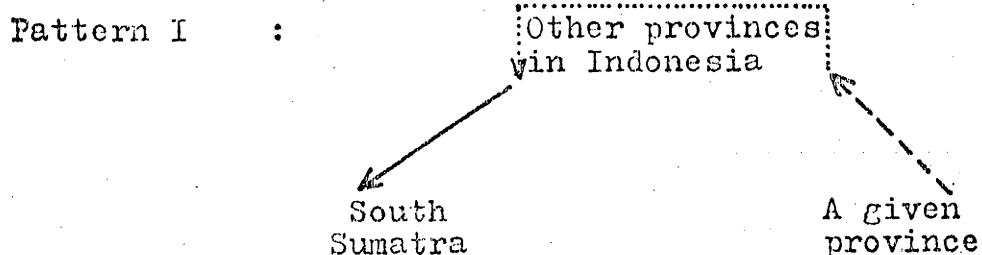
(4) The last pattern is depicted by those migrants in South Sumatra whose place of birth and the place of previous residence were the same province other than South Sumatra.

It should be noted that the patterns outlined above exclude the movement to and from other countries (1471 people).

It is recognised that movement between provinces in Indonesia is costly, especially if it involves long distances and inter-island

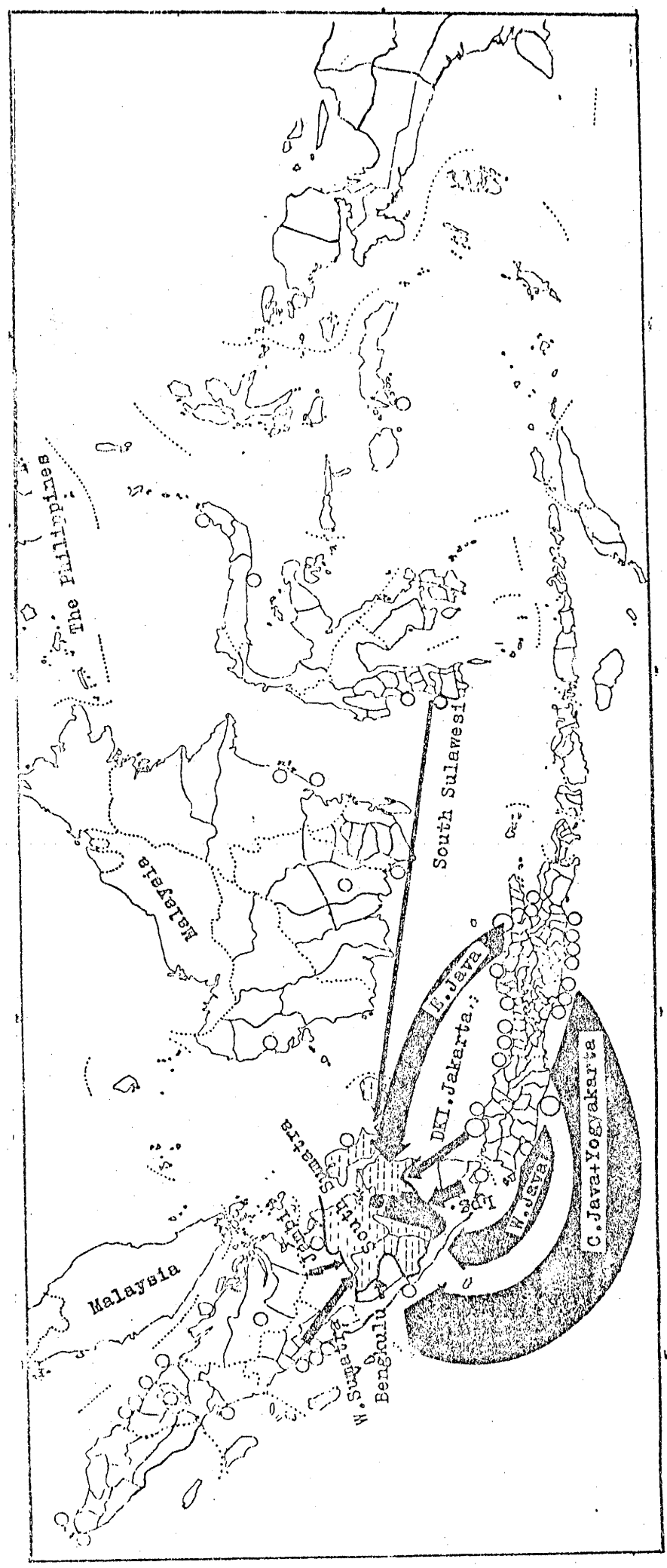
FIGURE 5

PATTERN OF MIGRATION TO SOUTH SUMATRA
(Based on Table 3.8 ,column 4)



Keys : Born in -----> Go to (first stage)
 Lived in -----> Go to (second stage)
 (previous place-
 of residence)
> the possibility of other movement
 (if occurred) which can not be seen
 from the census results.

FIGURE 6
FLOWS OF MOVEMENT TO SOUTH SUMATRA
(BASED ON THE PREVIOUS PLACE OF RESIDENCE DATA, 1971)



Keys : ——— 1 mm equal 10,000 migrants .
 ■ Concentration areas
 ○ Municipality
 - - - - - Province border
 ——— Regency border

movement. The condition of transportation facilities and other infrastructure for these kinds of movements is still not adequate enough to encourage movement. The only exception is the relatively good transportation system in Java. Other good facilities are provided for inter-island movement which connects Java and the southern part of Sumatra.

Among these divisions it can be seen that the largest movement occurred under pattern IV. This pattern seems to demonstrate the greater possibility of a single step movement as the cost of movement between the provinces is high.

The high negative figures in column 4 of Table 3.8 bring to light the provinces which receive many migrants from other provinces in Indonesia. These provinces act as important stepping-stones in movement before the migrants come to South Sumatra. These provinces are Lampung, DKI.Jakarta, followed by West Java and Jambi. Besides the step-wise migration, the negative figures may also indicate return movement to South Sumatra.

The above circumstances could also be found from Table 3.9. This table gives a cross tabulation of migrants by place of birth and previous place of residence. Evidently the diagonal figures of this table show that most of the migrants came straight from their province of birth to South Sumatra. The exception is that the farther the origin area/province the lower the percentage in that diagonal. In this case, migrants may have lived in some other provinces first before coming to South Sumatra.

The main stepping-stones for all migrants in Indonesia, as shown in this table were DKI.Jakarta and West Java. However, there were

PROVINCE OF BIRTH AND PREVIOUS PLACE OF RESIDENCE, 1971

Previous Place:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	OC	Total
Birth																												
1	32.8	2.0	1.0	0.1	-	-	-	-	18.7	6.3	17.1	-	1.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0
2	0.5	73.2	1.9	0.5	0.2	-	1.8	0.7	9.0	2.0	2.2	2.1	5.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.3	-	0.2	0.1	-	-	100.0
3	0.4	0.6	79.8	0.6	2.7	-	4.4	2.2	5.8	2.1	0.5	0.2	0.5	-	-	0.1	0.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0
4	-	-	-	73.7	6.1	-	-	-	4.5	3.8	1.5	6.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.7 100.0
5	-	0.5	1.0	3.9	81.9	-	4.7	2.0	3.7	1.0	0.5	-	0.5	-	-	-	-	0.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0
6	0.8	2.5	2.5	2.9	6.6	-	6.9	30.0	17.1	14.5	5.4	1.5	2.6	-	0.2	-	0.5	-	0.3	0.7	-	-	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	4.6 100.0	
7	-	0.2	0.8	-	0.7	-	91.5	0.9	3.4	1.2	0.1	-	0.5	-	-	-	0.1	0.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.2 100.0
8	-	0.2	0.5	-	-	-	0.7	94.8	1.1	0.9	1.1	0.2	-	-	-	-	-	0.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.2 100.0
9	-	-	0.3	-	0.4	-	-	1.6	94.7	1.1	0.9	-	0.1	-	0.2	-	0.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.4 100.0
10	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.5	0.3	-	0.2	2.4	1.1	93.6	0.5	-	0.3	0.1	-	0.1	0.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.1	0.1	-	100.0
11	0.2	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.5	-	0.4	1.5	0.6	1.3	92.5	0.5	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	-	0.3	0.2	-	-	0.1	-	-	-	-	0.1 100.0
12	1.3	1.0	0.6	0.8	0.4	-	0.7	3.3	1.5	2.3	3.2	79.2	4.4	-	-	-	0.6	-	0.6	0.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0
13	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	-	0.4	2.8	0.3	1.0	1.2	0.3	91.9	-	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.6	-	-	0.1	-	-	-	-	100.0
14	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5.2	-	2.7	-	0.2	86.6	5.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0
15	-	-	-	7.0	-	-	-	34.8	-	-	-	-	12.8	45.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0
16	-	-	-	-	0.3	-	-	17.9	19.6	17.6	-	5.8	0.3	-	38.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0
17	-	-	-	5.5	-	-	5.1	-	4.0	12.0	-	1.7	-	-	-	-	71.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0
18	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0
19	-	5.3	-	-	-	-	-	5.1	14.7	0.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	61.1	-	-	13.0	-	-	-	-	-	100.0
20	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.7	1.7	0.3	-	27.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	69.0	-	-	-	0.2	-	-	-	100.0
21	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	44.0	2.9	0.1	0.2	6.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	46.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0
22	-	-	-	1.1	4.4	-	-	-	4.5	-	-	-	0.9	-	-	-	-	-	0.8	-	-	83.1	5.3	-	-	-	-	100.0
23	-	0.4	2.4	11.0	-	-	0.1	0.4	3.6	1.1	-	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.1	-	0.1	0.1	0.8	0.1	-	1.5	77.1	0.4	0.4	-	-	100.0
24	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	41.9	-	56.6	-	-	-	0.8 100.0
25	-	5.6	-	3.5	-	-	-	-	19.8	26.3	-	-	2.7	-	-	-	0.3	-	-	0.3	-	-	5.9	-	33.0	-	-	2.7 100.0
26	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.3	-	-	-	-	100.0
OC	-	-	0.2	0.6	2.9	-	1.3	0.7	2.9	1.4	1.1	2.0	0.7	-	-	-	-	0.3	-	0.2	-	-	2.0	-	-	-	-	83.9 100.0
Total	0.4	1.5	5.3	1.0	2.7	-	4.3	7.7	6.1	19.3	29.7	2.2	12.6	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	-	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.3	3.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	2.1 100.0

Notes: Numbers 1 to 26 are the province's codes, similar to those in Table 3.8.
 OC = other countries.
 Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 Population Census, sample tapes.

also other variations in this regard. Within Sumatra many migrants used West Sumatra, Lampung and Bengkulu as their stepping-stones. For the eastern part of Indonesia, which is far from South Sumatra, migrants mainly settled first in East Java before they came to South Sumatra.

3.3.4 Duration of Residence

The distribution of duration of residence of ever-migrated people in this province shows that almost 50 per cent of them moved within the 10 years preceding the 1971 census (Table 3.10). The duration of residence data suffer from the memory lapse of the migrants. Also, a considerable heaping in reporting the duration of residence in years ending with digits zero and five after nine years of duration was observed. Consequently, all durations above nine years were combined as 10 plus (10+).

TABLE 3.10
TOTAL YEARS LIVED IN SOUTH SUMATRA BY MIGRANTS, 1971

Total Years	Number	Percentage
0	11,669	3.1
1	19,926	5.2
2	23,932	6.3
3	22,035	5.8
4	15,127	4.0
5	17,099	4.5
6	24,439	6.4
7	20,167	5.3
8	12,393	3.2
9	9,737	2.5
10+	193,609	49.4
Not stated	11,722	3.1
Total	381,855	100.0

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 Population Census, sample tapes.

In Table 3.10, if the zero and nine year durations are excluded, the calculation based on durations one to eight years produces an average of 19,390 migrants arriving in this province annually. This figure should be interpreted as an average number of immigrants during the last decade.¹

3.3.5 Marital Status and Household Structure

The marital status of migrants shows that most of them were married (64.6 per cent). The single migrants constituted 27.4 per cent, and the remainder were in the category of divorced or widowed (8.1 per cent).

Among these migrants 137,581 persons (36.8 per cent) claimed themselves as heads of the household. However, only 121,591 persons (31.8 per cent) were married heads of households. The single, divorced and widowed migrants who were the household head constituted 15,990 persons (4.2 per cent).

The calculation for the average household size (AHS) based on the total number of migrants and the total number of households is somewhat difficult because it would not include the members of each family who were born in South Sumatra province. Also, the available data cannot give the AHS by the time the migrants came to this province. Since the migrants had already stayed for a long time in this province,

1. The similar calculation was made for the number of migrants whose previous place of residence was South Sumatra, living in other provinces. The results show that at least 61.7 per cent of them outmigrated within the last 10 years preceding the 1971 population census. By using the same procedure, the average outmigrants from South Sumatra was 23,296 people annually during the last decade (see Appendix B.2).

they had extended their families as well as creating new families by marrying. This is the reason why the number of household heads among migrants was high by the time the census was conducted. However, Table 3.11 possibly could give an idea of how large the AHS of migrants was by the time of the census. It is estimated that migrant families had an AHS of more than three because 74.1 per cent of household heads claimed so. The concentration of number of household members ranged from three to eight.

TABLE 3.11
DISTRIBUTION OF THE HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD OF MIGRANTS
ACCORDING TO THE NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS, 1971

Number of household members	Head of household	Percentage
1	5,628	4.1
2	13,086	9.5
3	16,918	12.3
4	20,759	15.1
5	20,184	14.7
6	18,428	13.4
7	14,167	10.3
8	11,222	8.2
9	7,411	5.4
10+	9,778	7.0
Total	137,581	100.0

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 Population Census, sample tapes.

3.3.6 Educational Attainment

Among all migrants aged six years and over, 8.8 per cent were still attending school. Therefore, the remainder had finished their schooling or had no education. Among those who were still attending school, most of them were at the primary education level. In general, most migrants had a low level of education. About 89 per cent of them received their education up to primary school level (including some of those who had not yet finished school). The distribution of educational attainment by sex shows that male migrants received more education than female migrants.

TABLE 3.12

PERCENTAGE OF DISTRIBUTION OF MIGRANTS SIX YEARS AND OVER,
BY EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT, AND BY SEX, 1971

Educational Attainment	Male	Female	Total	Persons still at school*
No school	24.5	49.5	35.7	0.0
Not yet finished elementary	36.9	29.3	33.5	5.4
Elementary	24.2	13.7	19.5	1.5
Junior high	5.1	3.2	4.2	1.0
Senior high	3.1	1.2	2.2	0.4
Special junior high	2.2	1.4	1.8	0.2
Special senior high	2.7	1.4	2.1	0.2
Academy	0.6	0.2	0.4	0.1
University	0.8	0.2	0.5	0.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	8.8
Number	205,270	166,316	371,586	32,649

Note: * Percentage was made on the total population 6 years and above.

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 Population Census, sample tapes.

Table 3.13 shows the distribution of population according to age and educational attainment. In the young age groups it could be seen that a somewhat higher percentage of migrants received 'high school and above' education, particularly in the age groups 15-34 years. These percentages probably are even higher for migrants who have completed their schooling. This large group of better educated young people could give a good indication of manpower supply for this province. This table also demonstrates that the older the ages, the higher the proportion of 'low educated' migrants. This situation probably is a result of poor education as well as poor educational facilities during the earlier period.

TABLE 3.13
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MIGRANTS BY AGE
AND EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT, 1971

Age	No Schooling	Not yet finished elementary	Finished elementary	Junior high school and above	Total
0 - 4	98.3	1.7	0.0	0.0	100.0
5 - 9	57.6	42.4	0.0	0.0	100.0
10 - 14	19.3	66.6	12.8	1.3	100.0
15 - 19	19.2	39.8	27.9	13.1	100.0
20 - 24	16.4	34.2	26.0	23.4	100.0
25 - 29	25.6	32.5	25.8	16.1	100.0
30 - 34	32.2	28.1	22.8	16.9	100.0
35 - 44	43.7	28.9	17.4	10.0	100.0
45 - 64	54.3	25.8	15.1	4.8	100.0
65+	73.4	16.9	8.0	1.7	100.0
All ages	37.3	32.7	19.0	11.0	100.0
Number	142,328	124,927	72,559	42,041	381,855

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 Population Census, sample tapes.

3.3.7 Category of Living Unit

The decisive factors for category of living unit are mentioned in the Series-F publication of the 1971 population census (BPS, 1975; xv). These are as follows:

- (1) Material for walls
 - (a) Bricks/cement
 - (b) Wood
 - (c) Bamboo, other
- (2) Material for roof
 - (a) Concrete, wood
 - (b) Zinc (corrugated iron), tiles
 - (c) Leaves, other
- (3) Material for floor
 - (a) Tiles
 - (b) Cement/bricks, wood
 - (c) Bamboo, earth, other

This categorisation shows that the house which has all (a) combinations is the best or most valuable. The house which has two (a) and one (b) is the second in value. The third category is for the house which has two (b) and either an (a) or a (c). The worst living condition is the house which covers almost all (c) combinations.

Migrants mostly live in the second and third categories of the living conditions. About 50 per cent of heads of households had good housing conditions (categories I and II). However, one should take into consideration the fact that in South Sumatra people usually use wood for both walls and floor. Most houses use wood pillars, and

these are very expensive to build. But in the census category these houses were grouped in category III. Nevertheless, these sorts of difficulties are also found in other categories (see Table 3.14).

TABLE 3.14
CATEGORY OF LIVING UNIT OF MIGRANTS,
BY NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS, 1971

Category	Number	Percentage
I	9,911	7.2
II	57,015	41.4
III	43,655	31.7
IV	27,000	19.6
Total	137,581	100.0

3.3.8 Labour Force

The nature of the potential labour force of migrants is fixed by their age and sex structures. The proportion of migrants in the potential labour force age groups (10 years and above) was 93.2 per cent. The data revealed that 62.0 per cent of all migrants aged 10 years and above were economically active in this province. In other words, this percentage shows the proportion of those who were included in the labour force, i.e. they were working or looking for work during the week before the census.

The importance of migrant contribution to the labour force of South Sumatra could be described as follows: 15.4 per cent of the potential labour force in this province was comprised of migrants,

whereas in the total labour force (economically active population) of South Sumatra, 18.0 per cent were migrants. These illustrations imply that migration to this province meant a higher supply of labour.

Labour force participation rates among migrants were very much higher for males than for females. Overall labour force participation rates for migrants varied in comparison with the rates for South Sumatra as a whole. The male participation rates among migrants were higher than the corresponding rate for South Sumatra as a whole. It is mainly because of the higher age-specific participation rates among younger male migrants. However, among older males, South Sumatra shows higher age-specific participation rates. In contrast, female participation rates for South Sumatra were higher than for female migrants. This situation is possibly due to the fact that a considerably higher proportion of migrants go to the urban areas where females have relatively low participation rates (see Table 3.15). On the other hand, many females in the rural areas are involved in the agricultural sector, especially those who served on their family farm (see also Figure 7).

Table 3.16 shows that 40.5 per cent of migrants were classified as self-employed. It was followed by 32.5 per cent of those who were employees. It is interesting to note that many migrants employed members of their families in daily activities, especially in the agricultural sector. This circumstance could be seen from the considerably high percentage of those who worked as 'unpaid family workers' (24.7 per cent).

TABLE 3.15
 LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES OF MIGRANTS AND OF THE
 TOTAL POPULATION OF SOUTH SUMATRA, 1971

(one week reference period)

Age group	Migrants	Total population
<u>Males</u>		
10 - 14	24.9	17.0
15 - 19	69.5	53.2
20 - 24	87.8	81.1
25 - 29	96.7	93.7
30 - 34	96.9	94.9
35 - 39	97.9	94.7
40 - 44	96.7	94.6
45 - 64	88.5	89.4
65+	<u>57.0</u>	<u>62.0</u>
All ages 10+	<u>85.3</u>	<u>69.2</u>
<u>Females</u>		
10 - 14	14.4	14.0
15 - 19	26.9	31.2
20 - 24	27.3	37.5
25 - 29	30.7	42.5
30 - 34	35.6	46.9
35 - 39	44.2	50.4
40 - 44	40.8	55.9
45 - 64	38.7	50.0
65+	<u>21.5</u>	<u>24.2</u>
All ages 10+	<u>32.9</u>	<u>37.2</u>

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 population census, sample tapes.

FIGURE 7

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES OF MIGRANTS
AND OF THE TOTAL POPULATION OF SOUTH SUMATRA,
1971

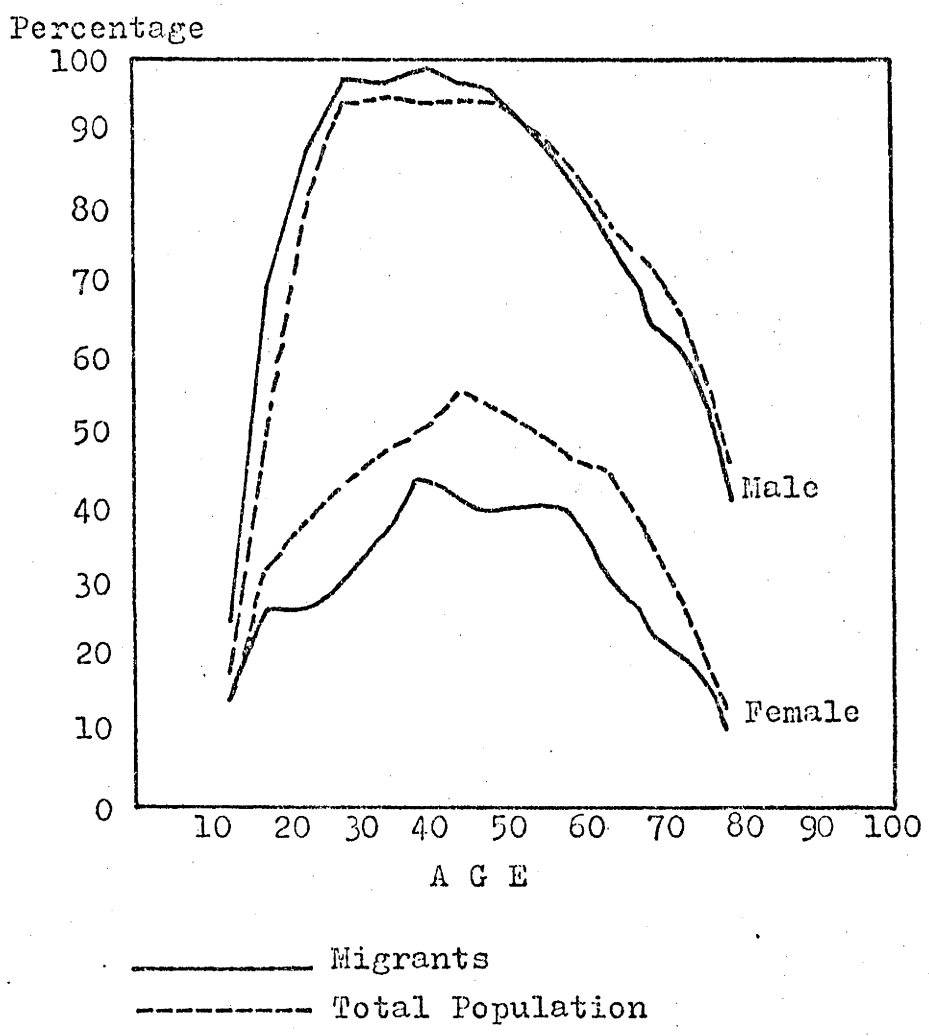


TABLE 3.16

DISTRIBUTION OF ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MIGRANTS (AGE
TEN YEARS AND ABOVE) BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS, 1971

(one week reference period)

Employment Status	Number	Percentage
Own Account	88,401	40.5
Employer	4,940	2.3
Employee	70,843	32.5
Unpaid Family Worker	53,958	24.7
Total	218,169	100.0

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 Population Census, sample tapes.

3.3.9 Occupation

The occupational structure of migrants was still dominated by the agricultural activities (50.8 per cent). The relatively higher percentage in non-agricultural activities (45 per cent) was mainly the result of the high proportion of migrants living in urban areas (Table 3.17). The high percentage of migrants living in urban areas to some extent could make a great contribution to the economic activities of the areas. They could be an acceleration factor in the development process of the area, especially those who have special skills or training. On the contrary, they will have to be a burden on urban areas if they do not have enough ability to contribute, and even more so if the employment opportunities are limited. This kind of problem is less likely to happen in the rural areas where the development

process does not need a complicated combination of factors of production. The high availability of agricultural land and even arable land requires only a simple category of labour in order to increase its production.

The details of migrants' occupations could give a clear idea as to how important the migrants' involvement is according to their kind of occupation (see also BPS, 1971; X-XIV).

TABLE 3.17
DISTRIBUTION OF ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MIGRANTS
BY OCCUPATION, 1971

Occupation	Number	Percentage
1. Professional, technical and related	6,499	3.0
2. Administrative and managerial	2,685	1.2
3. Clerical and related	13,876	6.3
4. Sales	30,878	14.2
5. Service	15,886	7.3
6. Agricultural, animal husbandry, forestry, fishing, hunting	110,792	50.8
7. Production and related, transportation equipment operators and labourers	28,332	13.0
8. Unidentified occupation*	9,221	4.2
Total	218,169	100.0

Note: * Codes number 299 and 1000.

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 Population Census, sample tapes.

Table 3.17 presents some major occupational categories in which migrants were involved. Besides these broad categories, the outstanding figures will be cited from each group.

(1) The first category comprised highly educated and trained personnel who carry out professional functions in scientific, engineering, medical, educational and other fields. They are highly qualified workers¹. More than half of the migrants in this category worked as teachers (3379 people), ranging from kindergarten to university level. Most of them, however, were primary school teachers.

(2) The second category consists of high-ranking government officials and administrators whose principle tasks are to formulate political and economic policies. Their activities also involve assisting the government in implementing its programs and authority. Migrants in this category were divided into two kinds of occupations, that is, Directors/Managers (1985 people) and Government Administrators.

(3) In the third category the occupations are associated with administration/clerical work relating to routine operations of government and private enterprise. Migrants in this category worked mainly as government executive officials (5909 people). Some others worked as clerical supervisors, typists, bookkeepers and in other kinds of clerical jobs.

(4) The fourth category covers all occupations relating to buying and selling goods, property, and services of all kinds. It

1 This category also covers directors, managers of government or private establishments functioning as planners, organisers, decision makers of activities in the field of manufacturing, transportation, communications, etc.

also covers a small group of managers who are involved in wholesale and retail trade. Almost all of the migrants in this group worked as vendors on the pavements/sidewalks, shop-assistants, canvassers, hawkers and salesmen (29,966 people).

(5) The fifth category concerns services relating to catering and lodging, building, maintenance, cleaning, laundering, car-washing, boot-polishing, porters, prostitution, etc. Migrants in this category were mostly found as maid-servants (2878 people), washers (1296 people), cooks, servants, waiters/waitresses, laundress, barbers. A large number of them required physical labour as, for example, coolie (7634 people).

(6) The sixth category primarily involves agriculture, animal husbandry, forestry, fishing and hunting. Almost all the migrants in this category were farmers, whether general farmers (96,476 people) or specialised farmers (10,260 people), producing one main type of product in a year, such as tobacco, rubber, etc.

(7) In the seventh category, the major groups covered are those associated primarily with the extraction of minerals, the fabrication and repair of products, and the operation of transport and communication equipment. This category has many minor groups and many types of activities and occupations. However, migrants are only concentrated in certain kinds of activities. Some outstanding occupations are jobs such as crushers, chemical processors, food and beverage processors, tobacco-cigar makers, furniture makers, wood workers, construction workers, dockets and freight handlers. A large number of migrants are also found as drivers (5552 people) of

motorised transportation vehicles such as becak drivers (tricycle-type vehicles without machine or fuel).

Those in the first three categories of the occupational occupations seem to have relatively secure positions. Except for the agricultural activities (category six), most of the migrants in other categories were likely to have insecure jobs due to the kind of activities mentioned above. This is the case particularly in the fourth and fifth categories.

3.3.10 Industry

The distribution of migrants by industry as shown in Table 3.18, could give an idea about these sectors of activities. It also has a similar percentage of those who work in the agricultural sector, as shown in the occupational status distribution. The non-agricultural sector revealed only 44.4 per cent of all working migrants. Considering the high percentage of migrants going to urban areas, one could infer that the migrants who worked in the non-agricultural sectors were mostly found in the cities, particularly in Palembang.

To complete the discussion of the occupational structure of migrants, details about industry can throw some light on migrant activities. Smallholder farmers were the largest group in the first category (Agriculture). Certainly this is caused by the high proportion of migrants who settled in the rural areas of OKU regency where most of them were involved in this sector.

TABLE 3.18

DISTRIBUTION OF ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MIGRANTS BY INDUSTRY, 1971

Industry	Number	Percentage
1. Agriculture, hunting, forestry	114,636	52.5
2. Mining, quarrying	5,697	2.6
3. Manufacturing	13,326	6.1
4. Electricity, gas and water	265	0.1
5. Construction	4,829	2.2
6. Wholesale, retail trade, restaurant and hotel	32,245	14.8
7. Transport, storage and communication	10,065	4.6
8. Financing, insurance, R.E. and business services	926	0.4
9. Community, social and personal services	29,447	13.5
10. Activities not adequately defined	6,733	3.1
Total	218,169	100.0

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 Population Census, sample tapes.

In the 'mining and quarrying' sector, migrants were mostly involved in crude petroleum and natural gas production with PERTAMINA (oil company) and PUSRI (fertiliser plants), the two leading government companies located in South Sumatra (specifically in Palembang) as probable employers. Besides these two large companies, many migrants could also be found with other big companies which operated in South Sumatra, i.e. coal-mining (PN.TABA) in Tanjung-Enim of LIOT regency, and tin-mining (PN.TIMAH) in Bangka and Belitung regencies. Both of

the latter are the largest companies in terms of mining activities in Indonesia.

In the 'manufacturing' sector, migrants were concentrated in the manufacture of food, beverages, tobacco, textiles, wood products, furniture, printing, publishing, petroleum, coal and chemicals. These kinds of activities were usually found in the form of medium and small scale industries.

In category six, migrants mostly undertook retail trading. Some of them were involved as workers in restaurants, cafes, etc. In the 'transport, storage and communication' sector, most migrants were connected with land and water transport. Lastly, in category nine ('community, social and personal services') migrants worked in public administration and defence, social and related community services, and personal and household services.

3.4 Life-Time Migration

Of all migrants in South Sumatra, 327,312 were born in other provinces (Table 3.8). In other words, 9.5 per cent of the total population in this province were classified as life-time immigrants (excluding 6563 people who were born in other countries).

South Sumatra province received migrants from almost all other parts of the country. However, a significant number of them came from only a few provinces. These are the adjoining provinces in the southern part of Sumatra, and the adjacent provinces, particularly

in Java.¹ More than three-quarters of the migrants came from Java, the large origin areas being Central Java (36 per cent), West Java (20.5 per cent) and East Java (15 per cent). Other significant origin areas outside Java were West Sumatra (7 per cent), South Sulawesi (4.5 per cent) and Bengkulu (3.6 per cent).

3.5 Migration from Place of Previous Residence

The total immigrants according to the place of previous residence data are more numerous than the life-time immigrants (see also Table 3.8).² This is because migrants by place of previous residence include all life-time migrants as well as those migrants who had returned to their place of birth (the latter are not considered life-time migrants). According to Alden Speare, this case is one of the reasons why tabulation of migration by previous place of residence tends to be less useful than the tabulation of migration by place of birth (1975; 69).

The total number of immigrants in South Sumatra, based on this data, was 373,821 (excluding 8034 people who came from other

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- 1 The destinations of outmigrants from South Sumatra are directed to adjoining provinces in Sumatra and Java. Almost all of the outmigrants are scattered in these regions (98 per cent). The most common destinations in this case are Lampung and DKI.Jakarta. These two provinces received 40 and 24 per cent respectively of outmigrants from South Sumatra. The net migration based on life-time migration was an excess of immigrants over outmigrants of 128,252 people (see Appendix B.3).
 - 2 The life-time outmigrants from this province numbered only 199,060 people, whereas the previous residence tabulation gave a figure of 338,380 outmigrants. The difference of 139,320 people could be explained as the non-natives of South Sumatra who had lived in this province and then returned to their origin areas or moved to other areas/provinces. This evidence could confirm the open nature of this province. Besides, many people who came and settled in its territory but many also left this area (see Appendix B.4).

countries). The origin areas pattern of these migrants was almost the same as the life-time migrants. An interesting result of this tabulation is that more people reported Lampung and DKI.Jakarta as their previous residences.

3.6 Return Migrants

The discussion on return migrants in this part will be mainly limited to the aspects of their movement. However, a general review of some of their characteristics will also be included in order to understand more about this group.

There was a slight difference between urban and rural residence of return migrants. About 52 per cent of them lived in urban areas and the remainder in the rural areas. The sex distribution of return migrants showed more males (59.9 per cent) than females (40.1 per cent). The high percentage of children could imply that many return migrants moved together with their families (Table 3.19). It is interesting to note that about 60 per cent of them returned to South Sumatra between 1961 and 1971 (Table 3.20). The high stream of return migration to this province occurred during the late 1960s and early 1970s. This situation is possibly caused by the government development efforts, which in this period started to show a significant effect on the economic life of the province, i.e. road-network rehabilitation, industrial development, etc., particularly in the urban areas such as Palembang.

With regard to their previous place of residence, Table 3.21 shows that most of them came from Lampung (30 per cent), DKI.Jakarta

TABLE 3.19
 PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RETURN MIGRANTS BY AGE
 AND SEX, 1971

Age	Male	Female	Total
0 - 14	15.0	23.0	18.2
15 - 59	77.3	70.6	74.7
60+	7.7	6.4	7.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number	25,726	19,254	47,980

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971
 Population Census, sample tapes.

(17.1 per cent) and West Java (14.5 per cent). Jambi and Bengkulu provinces which border South Sumatra also contributed significantly to the return migration.

The areas which received many return migrants were Palembang (36.9 per cent), followed by OKU regency (18.2 per cent). The preference to live in Palembang could be due to the possibility that many migrants prefer to live in cities where they can find a job, get an education or go into business. On the other hand, people who returned to OKU regency probably came from the rural areas of Lampung province since the farmers from these two areas can easily come and go in order to seek better job opportunities (see Table 3.22).

3.7 Recent Migration

The migration in South Sumatra by previous place of residence as mentioned earlier becomes more useful when cross tabulated by duration

TABLE 3.20

DURATION OF RESIDENCE OF RETURN MIGRANTS, 1971

Duration	Number	Percentage
0	1,581	3.3
1	4,359	9.1
2	4,073	8.5
3	4,174	8.7
4	3,101	6.5
5	2,682	5.6
6	2,904	6.1
7	2,447	5.1
8	1,593	3.3
9	1,037	2.2
10+	20,029	41.7
Total	47,980	100.0

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 Population Census, sample tapes.

TABLE 3.21

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RETURN MIGRANTS
BY PREVIOUS PLACE OF RESIDENCE, 1971

Province	Percentage
Other Provinces in Sumatra	8.7
Jambi	6.6
Bengkulu	6.9
Lampung	30.0
DKI.Jakarta	17.1
West Java	14.5
Central Java	5.4
Other Provinces in Java	4.1
Other Provinces in Indonesia	3.0
Other Countries	4.6
Total	100.0
Number	47,980

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 Population Census, sample tapes.

TABLE 3.22
 PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RETURN MIGRANTS, BY
 REGENCY AND MUNICIPALITY, 1971

Regency/Municipality	Percentage
<u>Regency</u>	
MUBA	8.6
OKI	7.9
OKU	18.2
LIOT	8.5
Lahat	6.7
MURA	3.8
Bangka	2.4
Belitung	4.0
<u>Municipality</u>	
Palembang	36.9
Pangkal Pinang	2.9
Total	100.0
Number	47,980

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971
 Population Census, sample tapes.

of residence. This section will discuss recent migration which is obtained by summing the number of migrants who have stayed in South Sumatra for up to four years.

To identify some characteristics of migrants who came during this period, it can be seen that 54.4 per cent of them went to

the urban areas. By comparing this figure with the corresponding figure of ever-migrated people in this province (45.5 per cent) it is clear that a higher percentage of the recent migrants settled in the urban areas. On the basis of this evidence, one could say that there is a preference at the present time by many migrants to live in the urban areas. The destination of the recent migrants has been the city of Palembang where capital investment and development are concentrated. The stream to rural areas in South Sumatra is mainly the result of transmigration. This fact is even more clear if one realises that most of the migrants in rural areas of South Sumatra came from Java (see Chapter 4).

The sex distribution of recent migrants revealed that the male migrants were still dominant in percentage (57 per cent). This figure was even higher than the corresponding figure for all ever-migrated people (55.1 per cent). This case might have been due to the reason that a high proportion of recent migrants were single (50.5 per cent) and male dominated. For comparison, the single status of ever-migrated people in this province was only 27.4 per cent.

Table 3.23 shows that there were many more people who left this province (124,385 people) than those who came (92,417 people) during 1966-1971. This was probably caused by the economic and political chaos in Indonesia in 1966. This situation created unfavourable economic conditions during that period. Moreover, the First Five Year Development Program had only just entered into its second year by 1971. Therefore, it is possible that many people went to seek opportunities in other provinces, particularly in the neighbouring

TABLE 3.23

MIGRATION TO AND FROM SOUTH SUMATRA BETWEEN 1966-1971

Province	Inmigrants	Outmigrants	Net Migrants
Aceh	432	216	+ 216
North Sumatra	1,671	1,438	+ 233
West Sumatra	5,143	6,300	- 1,157
Riau	1,191	1,250	- 59
Jambi	4,847	4,147	+ 700
Bengkulu	4,697	12,568	- 7,871
Lampung	10,583	32,306	- 21,723
DKI.Jakarta	9,147	18,216	- 9,069
West Java	22,312	20,577	+ 1,735
Central Java	15,842	15,806	+ 36
Yogyakarta	2,199	4,392	- 2,193
East Java	8,547	4,634	+ 3,913
Bali	97	1,068	- 971
West Nusa Tenggara	129	31	+ 98
East Nusa Tenggara	75	81	- 6
West Kalimantan	286	2	+ 284
Central Kalimantan	10	17	- 7
South Kalimantan	152	39	+ 111
East Kalimantan	382	10	+ 372
North Sulawesi	163	216	- 53
Central Sulawesi	587	0	+ 587
South Sulawesi	3,695	792	+ 2,903
South East Sulawesi	13	50	- 37
Maluku	56	41	+ 15
Irian Jaya*	163	188	- 25
Total	92,417	124,385	- 31,968

Notes: Foreign born were excluded.

* Urban only.

Source: The 1971 Population Census, Series-E, Nos.1-26, BPS, Jakarta.

provinces. The conspicuous feature of this is that a high proportion (62.5 per cent) of people left South Sumatra to rural areas of Lampung, Bengkulu and Jambi (based on unpublished data, sample tapes).

In absolute terms, the high stream of movement during the period 1966-1971 occurred between South Sumatra on one side and Lampung, West Java, DKI.Jakarta, Bengkulu and East Java on the other. The net migration during this period showed that a high number of migrants left for Lampung, DKI.Jakarta and Bengkulu.

Summary

South Sumatra has received many migrants, predominantly from Java, from the colonial period up to the present time. It is likely that the volume of movement was already high before the commencement of the colonization scheme officially directed to this area in 1937 (i.e. Belitang and Tugumulyo).

The 1971 census results which enable one to analyse the migration data based on the life-time migration, show that most migrants came direct from their provinces of origin. Some others lived in other provinces first before they settled in South Sumatra. This case emerged in relatively high movement from neighbouring provinces, and an even larger total movement from Java which has already been known as the major source of outmigration.

The more extensive movement to this province occurred during the last ten years preceding the census (1961-1971), particularly the years towards the 1970s. The outstanding figures on immigrants can

be seen in the movement during the last five years (1966-1971). Contrary to this fact, there was also a high stream of outmigration from this province in the same period, and even South Sumatra experienced higher outmigration than immigration. These circumstances seem to maintain the intercensal growth rate of population at a certain level, in which one could not easily see the effect of migration on the population as a whole. However, migration also occurred in a different direction. A large stream of immigration to this province was directed to urban areas, while outmigration was mostly to rural areas of the bordering provinces, i.e. Lampung. Therefore one could draw a conclusion that at the present time urban areas (particularly Palembang) in South Sumatra are attractive points of destination.

The distribution of migrants in this province could make the above evidence become clearer. Most migrants in South Sumatra were concentrated only in two areas, i.e. Palembang municipality and OKU regency. These two areas represent urban and rural settlements respectively. This situation is strongly related to the condition of these areas. Palembang, as a major city outside Java, has the attraction of pulling people into areas of industrial development which surround the city. On the other hand, OKU regency still appears as an important site in resettling people under and even beyond the government scheme. Therefore it is no wonder that this area has received so many migrants.

Migrants in general have a very low level of education. However, the relatively high percentage of school-age migrants who receive an education implies that there is an improvement in education in the latest period.

The contribution of migrants to the labour force had been very important. About 10-20 per cent in South Sumatra who were classified as potential labour force (age 10 years and above) were migrants, whereas almost two out of ten persons in the labour force (economically active population, i.e. people who have been working or looking for work during the week before the census) were also migrants.

Normally, female participation rates in the labour force are higher in rural areas than those in urban areas, particularly in places where most women are involved in agricultural activities. The high number of migrants to urban areas in South Sumatra affected the labour force participation rates of female migrants. The participation rate of females in South Sumatra as a whole was higher than the rates for female migrants. This situation was mainly because of the fact that three-quarters of South Sumatra's population lived in rural areas, whereas almost one-half of the migrants to this province resided in urban areas.

The activities in terms of agricultural and non-agricultural occupations did not differ between the migrants and population as a whole in South Sumatra. Again, this situation is a consequence of urban-rural residential distribution. The migrants in the non-agricultural sector appeared mostly to be engaged in insecure jobs. However, about two out of ten migrants seem to have a good position.

The classification of migrants according to their place of birth (life-time migrants) shows that most of them were born in Central Java, West Java, East Java, West Sumatra, South Sulawesi and Bengkulu successively. On the other hand, the tabulation of migrants

by previous place of residence depicts the importance of Lampung and DKI.Jakarta as significant sources of migrants. Evidently, this case was affected by the large number of migrants in Lampung and DKI.Jakarta who were born in South Sumatra and then returned to South Sumatra. The high flow of return migration occurred within the last ten years preceding the 1971 census. Palembang and OKU in this case received most of these return migrants.

The previous discussion on recent migration in South Sumatra brings to light that at the present time many migrants prefer to live in urban areas, particularly in Palembang. Migration to the rural areas of this province is mainly a result of the transmigration schemes.

CHAPTER 4

TRANSMIGRATION TO SOUTH SUMATRA

It has been mentioned before that the mobility of the population in Indonesia is low. Therefore the contribution of transmigration is very important in moving people from densely populated areas (Java/Bali) to sparsely populated areas (outer-islands). The authority (Transmigration Office) responsible for this scheme with a high budget and an extensive organisation could be viewed as a business agent who spends such capital for investment. The activity to invest in human beings on the one hand is supposed to encourage the development of the receiving areas as well as the nation as a whole. On the other hand, the business of migrating people is also an investment activity which develops the human capital itself. Schultz, in his seminar paper on human capital formation, includes migration as one of the 'more important activities that improve human capabilities ...' (Schultz, October 1962; 1-8).

4.1 Transmigration as a Part of Immigration

The implementation of transmigration to South Sumatra has an important role in contributing to the number of immigrants to this province annually. Although we do not know the approximate proportion of transmigrants in the total immigrant population, the data on transmigration are the only official records which enable us to predict the number of immigrants to South Sumatra each year. From the previous chapter (Chapter 3) we have an idea as to the size of

the immigrant population in South Sumatra. In this section, the discussion will focus on transmigration as a part of immigration to South Sumatra.

It is already known that South Sumatra is second after Lampung province in terms of receiving large numbers of colonists/transmigrants. The distribution of transmigrants in South Sumatra, however, is still directed to two major receiving areas - OKU regency and MUBA regency, but in particular to OKU regency where many settlement areas are being opened. There is a high probability that transmigration dominates the number of immigrants in these two regencies.

The effects of this scheme can be seen from two sides. First, the demographic effects are reflected in the growth and density of population in some districts/regencies that have received many transmigrants. Second, the economic effects are represented by the reclamation of the new agricultural areas, the high level of production in the settlement areas and the labour force for undertaking those objectives. Eventually some of them will become centres for agricultural-product suppliers.

This chapter will discuss the settlement areas of transmigration in South Sumatra, the volume of transmigrants and also some characteristics of the transmigrants.

4.2 Implementation and Areas of Resettlement

The first effort in moving people from Java to South Sumatra was carried out in 1919. The location was Pasemah (Mata Lintang). Unfortunately, this project was a failure. It was stopped in 1922 and

all the colonists were returned to Java. In 1929 the colonial government attempted again by moving 214 colonists to Pagaralam. However, this area was no longer extended for colonisation. The most important colonisation areas in this province were Belitang (OKU regency) and Tugumulyo (MURA regency) which were opened in 1937 (Sjamsu, 1960; 50-53). These two areas still receive a high number of transmigrants annually and are also famous as the 'rice-barn' of South Sumatra.

Until about 1970 there was no further reclamation of new areas since Belitang and Tugumulyo were available. After the initiation of the First Five Year Development Program 1969/70-1973/74 (PELITA I), the government began by opening some other areas as locations for transmigration. In this case, the provincial government provided the land and freed the areas for transmigration purposes. Certainly it should be regarded as the local development programme. Based on the availability of the areas, the central government (Transmigration Office), in association with the local government, opened and developed the areas for a specific number of transmigrants. In the period 1969 to 1971 four other areas were opened: Air Deras, Air Beliti (Musi Rawas Regency) and Upang, Cinta Manis (Musi Banyu Asin Regency). By 1976 there were eight other areas opened as transmigration projects, which were scattered over four regencies including the extension of some old areas. The details of this program can be seen in Table 4.1 (see also Figure 8).

The topography of the transmigration areas can be divided into two categories. The tidal projects (Upang and Cinta Manis) are located between the mouth of the Musi River and the city of Palembang. The others are non-tidal projects. The topography of the

TABLE 4.1

TRANSMIGRATION AREAS IN SOUTH SUMATRA

Regency	Location	Available Land (Ha)	Land Opened by 1975/76 (Ha)	Remarks
1. Ogan Komering Ulu (OKU)	Belitung	30,000	7,772*	Opened in 1937
	Rasuan	na	1,000	Opened in 1973/74
	Kotanegara	na	644	Opened in 1973/74
	Baturadja-Martapura	65,000	203	Opened in 1976/77
2. Ogan Komering Ilir (OKI)	Way Hitam (Belitung)	3,800**	2,714	-
	Pematang-Panggung	75,000	2,412	Opened in 1974/75
3. Musi Rawas (MURA)	Tugumulyo	10,000	na	Opened in 1937
	Air Deras	1,000	na	Opened in 1969/70
	Air Beliti	3,000	2,452	Opened in 1969/70
4. Musi Banyu Asin	Delta Upang	15,000	4,004	Opened in 1969/70
	Cinta Manis	12,000	3,498	Opened in 1970/71
5. Bangka	Payung	10,000	400	-

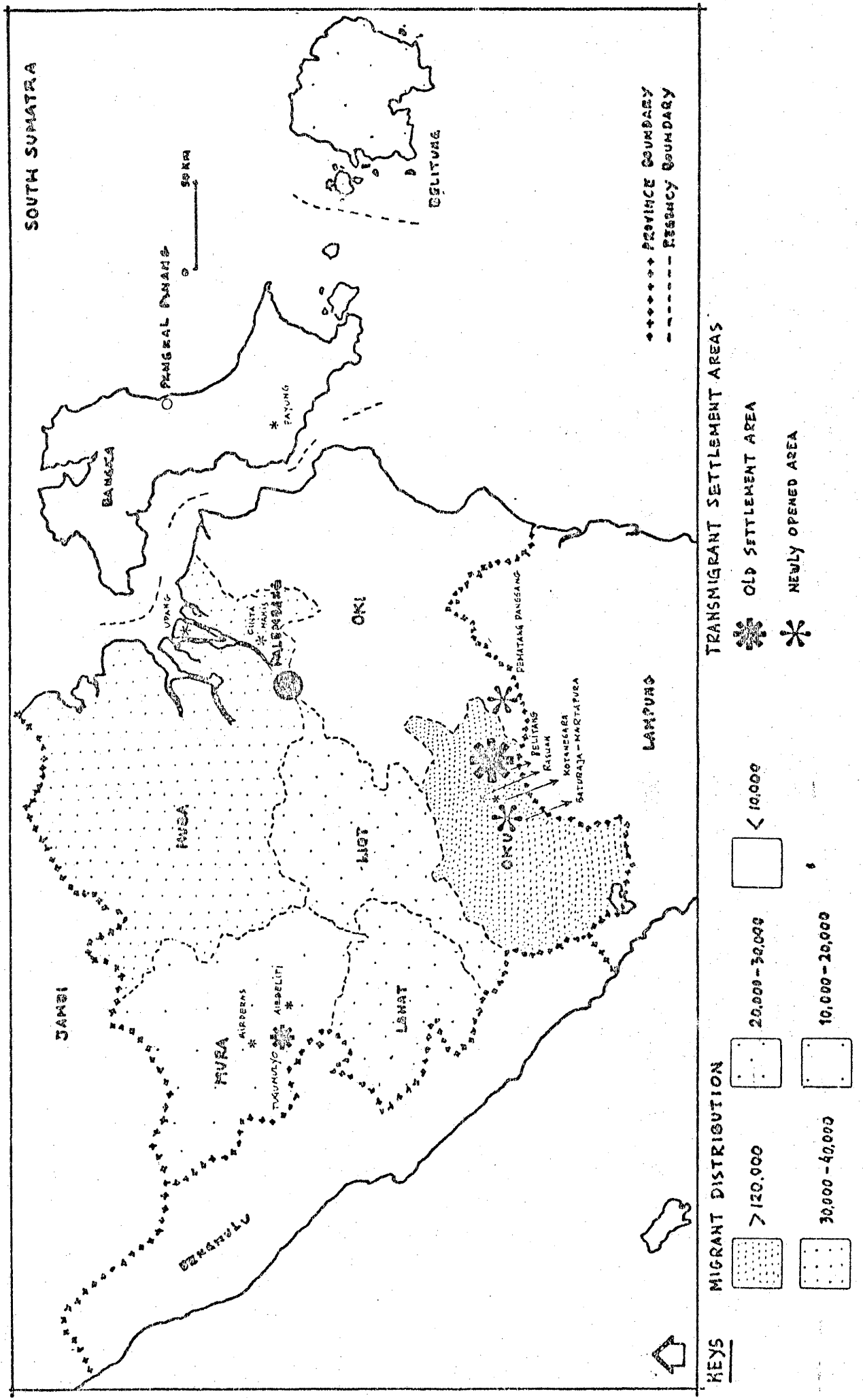
Notes: * Survey result by Direktorat Jendral Transmigrasi.

** This figure possibly overlaps with Belitung data. However, the availability of land in Belitung at present could be more than stated.

Sources: Direktorat Jendral Transmigrasi, 1976; 4.

Kantor Wilayah Transmigrasi Sum-Sel, Dec. 1976 and Feb. 1977. Sjamsu, 1960; 50-53.

FIGURE 8
THE DISTRIBUTION OF MIGRANT POPULATION AND THE TRANSMIGRANT SETTLEMENT AREAS IN SOUTH SUMATRA



tidal areas consists of relatively lowland plain. These areas are mostly influenced by sea water. When the level of the sea increases, some areas are flooded by water. The changes in the level of the water are exploited by the transmigrants for cultivating the wet rice. Certainly in preparing this type of area a certain system of cultivation is needed. On the other hand, the non-tidal areas generally depend on rainfall and river water. The topography of these areas consists of rolling hills. The forest is keeping the soil fertile since dead plant material is constantly added to the soil so that rain water sinks into the ground. Therefore it is important not to clear the forest, otherwise erosion will reduce and break down the fertility, especially along the slopes. In general, most of the settlement areas utilise the river bed which lies throughout the province.

4.3 Classification of Transmigrants

In implementing transmigration, it was customary to classify transmigration undertakings and transmigrants according to the organisation that was responsible for implementation and the type of financial subsidies. These are as follows (Hardjono, 1977; 28-30).

(1) General Transmigration (Transmigrasi Umum)

Under this category the movement is fully financed and carried out by the government transmigration agency, using its own facilities. This category was commenced in 1952.

(2) Special Transmigration (Transmigrasi Khusus)

This category is responsible for moving people for some special reason or purpose. Included in this category is private transmigration which is undertaken by non-government bodies. Also sectoral transmigration which involves some government departments and bodies as well as other organisations comes into this category.

(3) Local Transmigration (Transmigrasi Lokal)

This involves resettling people within the same island or more commonly within the same province under government guidance.

(4) Independent Transmigration (Transmigrasi Spontan)

In this category the transmigrants are helped by the government to a limited extent. This category is divided into two groups:

- (a) Spontan Tanpa Bantuan Biaya, means that nothing is given other than uncleared land in the transmigration project. However, people are still counted in government statistics as independent or spontan transmigrants.
- (b) Spontan Dengan Bantuan Biaya, means that some financial assistance is given in the form of transportation and housing materials.

Two further kinds of transmigration categories were introduced during the PELITA-I. The first was the 'crash program'. This

program involved the selection of other sites where land could be obtained immediately. Transmigrants who had previously been placed in a certain area were removed to other areas for special reasons. It also covered an attempt to move people in order to achieve a specific target of transmigrants. At present, this program puts more emphasis on the necessity for rehabilitation of transmigrants. The second category appeared at the end of PELITA-I which was referred to as 'BANPRES' transmigration. It was introduced to encourage greater numbers of partly assisted transmigrants to leave Java and Bali. This was funded by a special presidential fund.

It is worth noting that all the above categories were initiated after the Indonesian government started the transmigration scheme. The people who were moved before 1950 by the colonial Dutch government were known as colonists. At the earlier period of the present scheme (1951) the Transmigration Office (Djawatan Transmigrasi) only moved families who were asked by the old settlers to join them in the colony areas. So, in this period, people were mostly grouped as 'family transmigrants' (transmigrasi keluarga). 'Local transmigration' was also present. The government moved people from Periangen Timur to Banten (West Java). In 1952 'general transmigration' was started. Eventually this category became very important in the total movement.

Between 1950 and 1969 most of the transmigrants who came to South Sumatra were categorised under 'general transmigration'. In the period of PELITA-I (1969/70-1973/74) the category of 'general transmigration' to South Sumatra was replaced by 'independent transmigration' (transmigrasi spontan). During PELITA-I, 57.4 per cent of

all transmigrants who had been moved were categorised as 'independent transmigrants'. The main destination remained the old and well established settlement areas within Belitang district. Only 8 per cent of the 'independent transmigrants' were resettled in the newly-opened areas (Cinta Manis).

Obviously this tendency is interesting since the ultimate goal of this scheme is to encourage people to move without any government assistance. The high proportion of 'independent transmigrants' (transmigrasi spontan) perhaps will be followed by the 'pure independent transmigrants' who will move entirely of their own accord. In other words, they will move without the sponsorship of the government and also, without any kind of subsidy. Eventually the term 'spontaneous transmigrants' will be used correctly.

4.4 Volume of Transmigrants, Origin and Destination Areas

During the colonisation period, the moving of people from Java to South Sumatra (Keresidenan Palembang) was not conducted regularly. The movements in 1919 (Mata Lintang) and 1929 (Pagaralam) were probably experimental projects. Afterwards, there was no movement until 1937. In 1937, the colonial government opened the relatively good areas for transmigration, that is, Belitang and Tugumulyo.¹ These areas continually received transmigrants up to 1940. During the Second World War, Japan captured Indonesia until 1945. This was

1 The availability of land in these two areas, according to the authorisation decree by the resident of Palembang, were 30,000 hectares and 10,000 hectares respectively.

followed by the War of Independence against the Dutch after Indonesia proclaimed its independence in 1945. There was no scheme to move people during this period since the situation did not allow for it. This condition continued until 1949 when the Indonesians just started organising the country. In fact, before 1950 about 25,000 people had been moved to South Sumatra during the period of colonisation (see Table 4.2).

After independence, the movement of people from Java to outer-islands began again under the 'transmigration scheme'. This scheme started in 1950 and is still carried out intensively by the Indonesian Government. The interesting feature of the transmigration implementation during the period 1951-1961 is the high number of transmigrants who were moved by the government to South Sumatra. Almost 50 per cent of all transmigrants were directed to this province. In the next period (1962-1971), this percentage decreased to 23.3 per cent due to the extending of resettlement areas to all other provinces in Indonesia. By viewing the performances of this scheme during the PELITA-I (1969/1970-1973/1974) in particular, this province received 16.5 per cent of the transmigrants who had been moved from Java/Bali to the outer-islands.

With regard to the origin areas of transmigrants, it is clear that most of them came from Central Java and East Java. The destination areas were dominated by Belitang and Tugumulyo for a long time until the extension of some of the other new areas during the PELITA-I. In this period the transmigrants resided in Upang, Cinta Manis (tidal projects) and Air Deras, Air Beliti and Way Hitam

TABLE 4.2

TRANSMIGRATION TO SOUTH SUMATRA BY AREAS OF ORIGIN

Period	West Java	Central Java	Yogya	East Java	Bali & Others	Total
Until 1940*	-	-	-	-	-	25,367
1951-1961**	15,064	48,805	13,220	47,032	8,099	132,220
1962-1971***	5,483	16,164	4,522	12,579	6,830	45,578
1951-1971	<u>20,574</u>	<u>64,964</u>	<u>17,742</u>	<u>59,611</u>	<u>14,929</u>	<u>177,794</u>
1969/70-1973/74	4,727	9,528	4,783	9,732	1,219	29,989

Notes: * Transmigration only occurred in 1929, 1937 and 1939.

** No transmigration in 1960.

*** No transmigration in 1966.

Sources:

Anral Sjamsu, 1960; 50-53.

Unpublished data by Direktorat Jendral Transmigrasi, Jakarta.

Dudy Soegoto, 1974; Tables 5 and 6.

South Sumatra Transmigration Office, 1976.

See also Appendix C.1.

(non-tidal projects). Except for those in the tidal projects, other transmigrants came to the old transmigration area (Belitang). The settlement in the old transmigration area seemed reasonable because a large proportion of land in each project was still available. Also, the new settlers could benefit from the experience of the old settlers. The result in carrying out the transmigration scheme during the PELITA-I shows that 49.3 per cent of transmigrants who had been moved by the government were resident in Belitang (OKU regency). All of them were moved as independent transmigrants (Transmigrasi Spontan) (see Section 4.3). Again, this situation is possibly caused by the attraction of Belitang sub-district as an old and established settlement area, which is now still being developed by the local government as a 'rice-barn' of South Sumatra. Another thing is that this area is easily accessed either by railway or road. Certainly, many independent transmigrants are probably relatives of old settlers.

The positive involvement of some foreign agencies in developing new settlement areas in this province seems an encouraging factor in getting a high number of transmigrants in the future. Some of the new projects in South Sumatra received financial assistance from IBRD (Baturadja-Martapura project) and technical assistance from FAO (Pematang Panggang project).

4.5 Characteristics of Transmigrants

The knowledge of the characteristics of the transmigrants is important for the effective implementation of the scheme. Inadequate views about them will lead to suffering among the transmigrants and will also accumulate problems in the receiving areas. The transmigration

office in this respect has certain requirements for a transmigrant.

These are as follows (Directorate General of Transmigration, 1974; 37):

1. of Indonesian nationality
2. not involved in the communist movement of the 30th September 1965 and not a member of any banned political or mass organisation
3. a genuine farmer, or possessing some other skills
4. between the ages of 20 and 40 (if the head of the family)
5. having a family/legally married
6. of sound health
7. of some religious persuasion
8. of good conduct
9. with a wife not more than three months pregnant
10. members of family between the ages of six months and 60 years
11. transmigrants who have been members of the armed forces are given concessions in the case of age (20-54 years), and also marital status (no longer or not yet married).

To some extent the above requirements are not much different from those under the decree issued by the Kepala Djawatan Transmigrasi in August 1952. According to the decree, the age range of the household head should be between 18-45 years and members of the family between the ages of six months and 50 years. Since transmigration emphasises family movement, it is expected that it will not have a significant effect on the age-sex structure of the receiving areas.

The next discussion will attempt to determine some aspects of transmigrant characteristics, while viewing its influence on the demographic and economic circumstances of the province.

4.5.1 Sources of Data on Transmigrant Characteristics

Due to the lack of data concerning the characteristics of transmigrants this part will use some survey results. The specific information about the characteristics of transmigrants who came to South Sumatra will be derived from the survey that was conducted by the Faculty of Economics, University of Sriwijaya, in association with the Directorate General of Transmigration in October 1975. This survey was restricted to Belitang sub-district only (OKU regency). However, the significant role of Belitang in receiving a large proportion of transmigrants since the colonisation period up to the present time, possibly could be used as an example to determine the characteristics of those transmigrants who came to South Sumatra. It is worth noting that transmigrants in Belitang sub-district contributed about 61 per cent of the whole population of the area in 1975.

4.5.2 Age Distribution

Regarding the age distribution of transmigrants to South Sumatra, the survey results (1975) show that more than half of the transmigrants were in the age groups of zero to 14 years (51.66 per cent). This information was sought from those who came between 1961 and 1974 in the category of 'general transmigration'. Almost a similar figure (50 per cent) for children can be seen for the transmigrants who came as 'independent transmigrants' (transmigran spontan). The fact that many transmigrants came in the younger age groups is not too surprising as the requirements which have been discussed before allow this situation to happen. This evidence is important

because in the past there have been many claims that most of the transmigrants are in the labour force age groups (15 to 54 years). It is also clear that the household heads of transmigrant families bring many young children with them when they move.

4.5.3 Average Household Size

The average household size of transmigrants by their provinces of origin is almost the same. The data on transmigration between 1951 and 1968 indicate that the average household size (AHS) of transmigrants from West Java, Central Java, Yogya and East Java were 4.22, 4.14, 4.28 and 4.24 respectively. The AHS of transmigrants from Bali and other areas was higher than those from provinces in Java (4.60). The LEKNAS survey providing the background of transmigrants gave a similar figure where Bali showed a higher AHS than other regions. In general, 63.8 per cent of heads of households had a member of family of more than four (LEKNAS, 1976; Table 2-1).

The implementation of transmigration during PELITA-I shows a change in the regional AHS pattern. In this period the transmigrants who came from Central Java had a higher household size than those who came from other areas. Respectively, the AHS of transmigrants by origin areas were as follows: West Java 4.54, Central Java 4.79, Yogya 4.25, East Java 4.03 and Bali 4.45. In general, there has been a tendency towards an increase in the AHS of most recent transmigrants as compared with their predecessors. Transmigration that was undertaken during the PELITA-I shows this phenomenon.

TABLE 4.3

AVERAGE SIZE OF TRANSMIGRANT HOUSEHOLDS MOVING
TO SOUTH SUMATRA DURING THE PELITA-I PERIOD

Year	AHS
1969/70	4.10
1970/71	4.13
1971/72	4.29
1972/73	4.59
1973/74	4.76

Source: Unpublished data, Direktorat Jendral
Transmigrasi.

The implementation of the above facts is that each transmigrant household will have a large household size in the new area, since they are still young and are likely to produce more children. This case is supported by the survey results in Belitang area, which show that the longer the transmigrant families stay in the new area, the higher is their household size (Direktorat Jendral Transmigrasi, 1976; Table III-2). The increase in the household size of transmigrants who move at the latter period could be affected by the becoming attractive resettlement areas, and less economic opportunities at the origin areas. Therefore, many transmigrants bring together all their members of the household. The consequences of this situation are that the receiving areas should provide some facilities such as schools for the children in the pre-labour force age groups. The need for family planning, of course, is one consequence of increasing family size.

4.5.4 Education

It is not surprising that the level of education of transmigrants is very low. Most of them have been poor peasants in their origin rural areas. Both surveys (LEKNAS and Direktorat Jendral Transmigrasi) show that a large percentage of transmigrants have low education; many of them have attended primary school or nothing at all. However, it is not an extraordinary case since education, especially primary education, is a national problem, where the government is just about to achieve the target of providing enough primary school facilities for all children.

4.5.5 Economic Conditions and Activities at the Areas of Origin

In general, most transmigrants came from areas which had infertile land (fallow land) and low-lying land which was prone to flooding. If they were paddy farmers, their cultivation would depend on rain and would result in only one harvest a year. Most of them were subsistence farmers, and many of them cultivated or worked for other people who owned the land. About 50 per cent of the transmigrants had no such important possessions. They had no land, house or even furniture such as tables, chairs, cupboards, etc.

The main occupation of transmigrants before they moved was agriculture. However, most of them were categorised only as agricultural labourers or share croppers. Only a small portion of them (about 15 per cent) were reported as traders, teachers, craftsmen and even some of these were unemployed (these data are only for the

activities of the head of household). The additional activities were mostly in the area of craftsmen and traders (LEKNAS, 1976; Tables 2-7 to 2-10). Further information about their previous activities can be derived from the results of the survey conducted by Direktorat Jendral Transmigrasi. The information includes the activities of all family members. The survey shows that the main occupation of transmigrants before they moved was agriculture.

TABLE 4.4
THE MAIN OCCUPATION OF TRANSMIGRANTS BEFORE
MOVING (PERCENTAGE)

Occupation	LEKNAS ¹ 1975	Dirjen. Transmigrasi 1975 ²
Agriculture	35.5	58.13
Agricultural labour	48.0	3.94
Others	12.5	19.69
Unemployed	4.0	4.94
Dependent on parent	-	13.30
Total	100.0	100.0

- Notes: 1) Field survey was conducted in March/April 1975 on the transmigrant transition camps. The sample included the heads of households.
- 2) Field survey was conducted in October 1975 in Belitang transmigration area. The sample included all family members.

Sources: Direktorat Jendral Transmigrasi, 1976: 26 and LEKNAS, 1976: Table 2-7.

4.5.6 Economic Conditions and Activities at the Destination Area

Consistent with the goal of transmigration for supporting the development program of the receiving areas where agricultural development was emphasised, almost all transmigrants became farmers in the new settlement areas. In contrast with their conditions in the areas of origin, in their new place their status as farmers was far better. Here they had their own land on which to live and cultivate. About 93.04 per cent of the transmigrants who came to South Sumatra (Belitang) had agriculture as their main occupation. Among these, only 0.49 per cent were agricultural labourers. It is important to note that the unemployed people and daily labourers (unsecure labour) no longer exist in the new settlement areas. Besides their main jobs, they also create some sorts of additional jobs. Many transmigrants prefer to run small shops (trade), home industries (handicrafts) or to be an agricultural labourer in other farms or villages. The survey on Belitang, however, found that the land tenure among old settlers had been decreased from an average of 2 ha per family (when they arrived) to 1.4 ha. The land fractionalisation through the inheritance procedures, and the custom of selling a part of the land when intending to visit areas of origin, are responsible for the decrease in land ownership.

Finally, one can conclude that transmigrants not only increase the agricultural production, they also create some additional employment. The emergence of some additional jobs also means that transmigrants have an opportunity to increase their productivity. The local government has to consider this situation while establishing

and developing the transmigrant areas (Belitang) and develop some kinds of industries which will help to increase their incomes.

Summary

The implementation of transmigration which is directed towards the development of rural areas in this province seems to have a great effect on the volume and characteristics of the rural population. Particularly, the influence could be seen on the demographic situation of OKU and MURA regencies as the old receiving areas. The role of both regencies in receiving transmigrants will still be important in the future, even if the opening of transmigration areas is extended to other regencies. At least as established transmigration areas they could attract the movement of independent transmigrants (transmigrasi spontan). At present, a high proportion of migrants moved by the government are independent transmigrants. About one-half of all transmigrants to this province were classified as independent transmigrants, according to the data during PELITA-I.

The ultimate goal of transmigration in this province has been to open new areas for agricultural development. On one side, this project can supply the needed labour force for cultivating the idle production factor (land) and increasing the provincial production of agricultural products. On the other side, it can create employment, improve productivity and increase the standard of living of the transmigrants themselves.

Demographically, the data show that most transmigrants are young (mostly less than 50 years old) and even a half of them are in

the age range of zero to 14 years. Another important indication is that transmigrant families are already big before or after they have moved in; the average household size is between four and five. These circumstances pose some problems for transmigration to this province besides some of the advantages. Socially, most of the transmigrants have either a very low education or no education. Economically, most of them have been in a very poor condition before they moved.

This part did not give much idea about the characteristics of transmigrants. This is due to the paucity of data and related information. For the completeness however, some of this information possibly could be covered by Chapter 5. This part will present characteristics of the migrants in OKU regency. The reason behind this approach is that the transmigrants are likely to dominate the number of migrants in this area. Certainly this approach will not be a hundred per cent true in representing transmigrants in this area, because it includes the non-transmigrants (other migrants beyond the transmigration scheme), but the possibility of transmigrant domination in this area might be good enough to represent all transmigrants in this province.

CHAPTER 5

THE SIGNIFICANCE AND CHARACTERISTICS OF MIGRANTS IN
PALEMBANG MUNICIPALITY AND OGAN KOMERING ULU REGENCY
(OKU) AS MAJOR CONCENTRATION AREAS

The importance of discussing these two areas separately lies in the fact that most migrants in South Sumatra lived in Palembang and OKU, and these two areas represented two contrasting situations with regard to the residential pattern of the migrants. All migrants to Palembang were automatically referred to as urban residents whereas in OKU all were considered rural dwellers.

As has been mentioned before, Palembang and OKU have specific circumstances in receiving or attracting people to them. Palembang, as the capital city of South Sumatra province, is also known as the largest industrial agglomeration outside Java. This city is also large in area (224 km²), and in population (582,581 people by 1971). On the other side, OKU regency has had many resettlement areas for transmigrants since 1937. Moreover, the local government is still continuing the expansion of the existing settlement areas and even opening new settlement locations within the regency for receiving more transmigrants. Therefore, discussion on these two areas will be related to the provincial plan and development problems, in particular, population problems and labour force supply.

This part will illustrate some differences in migrant characteristics in these two areas. It will also contain some remarks on the demographic and economic consequences of migration in these two areas.

5.1 Volume of Immigrants

The proportion of migrants to the total population of these two areas was significant. Migrants in 1971 constituted 21.5 per cent and 22.5 per cent of the total population of Palembang and OKU respectively. The effects of this situation could clearly be seen in the annual population growth rate¹ of OKU regency. This regency had an annual growth rate of 3.51 per cent based on the 1961 and 1971 censuses. This rate was the highest among the various regencies and municipalities in South Sumatra. On the contrary, Palembang which also received a high number of migrants, did not register such a high growth rate. It was only 2.15 per cent annually during the same period (1961-1971), whereas the evidence shows that more than half of the migrants in this city moved within this decade. Possibly the only reason for this is that there was a high outmigration from this city to other areas. Therefore the balance between in- and outmigration kept the growth rate at this low level.

The importance of migration to the population growth rate in these two areas could also be illustrated from data in Table 5.1. The average annual number of migrants between 1961 and 1971 was 6875 persons and 5943 persons to Palembang and OKU respectively. These figures were derived from the total immigrants in both areas whose duration of residence was one to eight years. Migrants with zero and nine years duration were excluded, because the zero year figure did not represent the number of migrants in one year, and the nine years

1 The calculation of population growth rate was based on the exponential formula:

$$P_t = P_0 e^{rt}$$

figure was very much affected by the reports on ten years' duration of residence. By using the average population between 1961 and 1971¹ in each area as the denominators, other rates of population growth merely based on the number of immigrants, were calculated separately. These were 1.3 per cent and 1.2 per cent in Palembang and OKU respectively. This simple calculation, however, could show the contribution of migration to the population growth rate in these two areas. Another interpretation of these results is that the 60 per cent annual rate of population growth in Palembang was due to immigrants. About one-third of the annual growth rate of population in OKU regency was attributed to immigrants.

Table 5.1 depicts the high volume of immigrants to Palembang towards the 1970s. On the other hand, the volume of immigrants to OKU regency annually fluctuated following the success of transmigrant resettlement schemes in this area. Since most of the transmigrants to South Sumatra were settled in this regency, it was obvious that anything that happened with the transmigration program would have had much impact on this area. The implementation of transmigration in South Sumatra as has been mentioned in Appendix C.1, particularly during the last ten years (1961-1971), showed that in 1965 a high number of transmigrants came to South Sumatra (16,403 people), and none arrived in 1966. The influence of these facts could be seen in the number of migrants who came to OKU regency,

1 The average population of Palembang was:

$$\frac{P_{61} + P_{71}}{2} = \frac{474,971 + 582,581}{2} = 528,776$$

and for OKU it was:

$$\frac{381,524 + 538,575}{2} = 460,050$$

TABLE 5.1
 PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MIGRANTS IN PALEMBANG AND OKU
 BY TOTAL YEARS LIVED IN SOUTH SUMATRA, 1971

Year	Palembang		OKU	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
0	5,349	4.3	2,611	2.1
1	10,935	8.7	1,901	1.6
2	9,910	7.9	6,169	5.0
3	9,113	7.3	5,121	4.2
4	5,270	4.2	4,559	3.7
5	5,607	4.5	3,763	3.1
6	5,132	4.1	13,870	11.3
7	4,929	3.9	7,990	6.5
8	4,106	3.3	4,178	3.4
9	3,740	3.0	3,032	2.5
10+	61,360	48.9	69,337	56.6
Total	125,451	100.0	122,531	100.0

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 population census, sample tapes.

where the highest number came in 1965 (13,870 people with the duration of residence as six years). The relatively low number of immigrants to OKU in 1966 might have been caused by the inability to carry out the transmigration scheme during the political and economic chaos at that time. Migrants could have made a mistake in calculating whether they had already lived there for five or six years. Therefore, it is possible that the number of immigrants to OKU in 1966 (3763 people) was overstated. Obviously the inter-area movement of migrants from other areas in South Sumatra to OKU regency could also have made the 1966 figure too high.

Table 5.1 also demonstrates that during the five years preceding the 1971 census the number of transmigrants to OKU annually was lower compared with the earlier period. The high proportion of migrants in this regency who had been staying ten years and over (56.6 per cent) possibly relates to the colonisation/transmigration programs which has been undertaken in this area since 1937.

5.2 Age and Sex Structure

The age structure of recent migrants by the time they came to South Sumatra was different in these two areas of settlement. As a whole, many migrants to OKU regency were in younger age groups than those who went to Palembang. In the 0-14 years age group, 38.9 per cent of migrants were in OKU and 32.6 per cent in Palembang. Palembang seems to show a higher potential labour force between the ages of 15 and 59 years (Table 5.2). Evidently, female migrants were much younger than male migrants in both areas, and it looks like the female age structure caused the total age structure to be younger.

In discussing the age structure of migrants in OKU regency, one should relate this to transmigration. It is very likely that the age structure of migrants was influenced by the age structure of transmigrants to this area. There are two main reasons in assuming this. First, the fact that all migrants in OKU lived in rural areas, and most of them settled in the transmigrant settlement areas (Belitang, Rasuan, Kutaneegara, Martapura-Baturadja, Way Hitam). And, second, almost 90 per cent of migrants in this regency came from Java and Bali, confirming that most migrants in OKU were transmigrants.

TABLE 5.2
 PERCENTAGE OF DISTRIBUTION OF MIGRANTS BY THE TIME
 THEY ARRIVED (0-8 YEARS RESIDENT) IN PALEMBANG AND OKU
 BY SEX AND BROAD AGE GROUPS, 1971

Area	Age			Total
	0 - 14	15 - 59	60+	
<u>Palembang</u>				
Male	29.6	69.8	0.6	100.0
Female	36.3	62.9	0.8	100.0
Total	32.6	66.8	0.6	100.0
<u>OKU</u>				
Male	36.1	63.5	0.4	100.0
Female	42.5	57.3	0.2	100.0
Total	38.9	60.8	0.3	100.0

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 population census, sample tapes.

Therefore the migrant features in OKU, to a large extent, could represent those of the transmigrants in this area.

The most important finding based on this table is that at least one-third of the migrants when they first arrive in South Sumatra are in the younger age groups (0-14 years). Migrants to rural areas, however, seem to be much younger than those who resided in urban areas. Almost 40 per cent of the migrants to rural areas (OKU) are in the zero to 14 years age groups. This fact supports the finding that almost one-half of the transmigrants to OKU regency were

very young (based on the survey in the Belitang transmigrant area). Thus it is apparent that not all of the transmigrants are members of the labour force.

With regard to the dependency ratio of migrants (when they first arrived), Table 5.3 gives some illustration as to the burden created by the dependent age groups (0-14 and 60+ years of age) who go to urban areas compared with those who go to the rural areas. It can be seen from this table that the total dependency ratio of rural migrants (64.5) is higher than for the urban migrants. This is mainly due to the high child-dependency ratio in the rural areas. Some comparison could also be made with the urban and rural dependency ratios in the population of South Sumatra as a whole.¹ Apparently, the pattern of dependency ratios is almost the same, where the rural population is heavily burdened with dependent children and elderly people. However, the differences are not too large in comparison with the differences among the urban and rural migrants.

5.3 Education

In general, migrants in both areas had low levels of education. Table 5.4 illustrates this situation as follows: 81.5 per cent of migrants to Palembang received not more than an elementary school education, and 32.8 per cent of them had no education at all. The situation is even worse in OKU (rural areas) where the corresponding figures were 97 per cent and 43.8 per cent respectively.

1 This comparison is made due to lack of data of Palembang and OKU regency.

TABLE 5.3
 DEPENDENCY RATIOS OF MIGRANT COMMUNITIES AND OF THE TOTAL
 POPULATION OF SOUTH SUMATRA, 1971

Ratio	Migrants to		S. Sumatra Population	
	Palembang	OKU	Urban	Rural
Total Dependency	49.7	64.5	93.8	102.4
Child Dependency	48.8	64.0	87.2	94.1
Old-Age Dependency	0.9	0.5	6.6	8.3

Notes: South Sumatra data based on the 1971 census. Migrant data based on the approximate age structure of migrants by the time they came to South Sumatra.

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 Population Census, sample tapes, and 1971 Population Census, Series E, no.06, Population of South Sumatra.

In fact, among all the migrants, 11.2 per cent and 6.9 per cent of them in Palembang and OKU respectively were still attending school. Certainly, this group of migrants can be found in the young ages (see Table 5.5). In Palembang a considerably high percentage of migrants who were still attending school were among those in the age groups up to 24 years. On the other hand, a similar situation could be noticed only up to 14 years in OKU regency. In addition, 58.0 per cent and 37.0 per cent of migrants below 10 years in Palembang and OKU respectively were also attending school. These circumstances are due to the availability of educational facilities in both areas.

Palembang, as a capital city and an educational centre for the southern part of Sumatra, provides more complete educational facilities. Therefore, it could attract people who had an opportunity to attend school

TABLE 5.4

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MIGRANT EDUCATIONAL
ATTAINMENT IN PALEMBANG AND OKU, BY SEX, 1971

Education	Palembang			OKU		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
No school	20.8	46.1	32.8	31.7	58.1	43.8
Not yet finished elementary	27.3	24.6	26.0	49.3	32.1	41.4
Elementary	26.9	18.0	22.7	15.3	7.6	11.8
Junior high school	7.8	4.9	6.4	1.8	1.0	1.4
Senior high school	6.1	2.1	4.2	0.4	0.5	0.4
Special junior high school	3.5	1.8	2.7	0.8	0.2	0.5
Special senior high school	4.7	2.1	3.5	0.8	0.5	0.6
Academy	1.1	0.2	0.7	0.0	0.1	0.0
University	1.7	0.4	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number	66,157	59,294	125,451	66,501	56,030	122,531

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 population census, sample tapes.

TABLE 5.5
 PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MIGRANTS 10 YEARS AND
 ABOVE BY AGE AND EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT,
 IN PALEMBANG AND OKU, 1971

Age	Palembang			OKU		
	Low	High	Att.	Low	High	Att.
10 - 14	98.7	1.3	56.4	100.0	-	51.1
15 - 19	78.2	21.8	29.2	96.9	3.1	6.2
20 - 24	61.7	38.3	10.9	94.6	5.4	1.2
25 - 29	74.0	26.0	1.2	94.5	5.4	-
30 - 34	72.9	27.1	-	93.5	6.5	-
35 - 44	82.1	17.9	-	97.6	2.4	-
45 - 64	90.5	9.5	-	99.2	0.8	-
65+	97.3	2.7	-	100.0	-	-
Ages 10+	79.7	20.3	8.7	97.0	3.0	5.2
Number	91,585	23,290	9,977	110,476	3,682	5,976

Notes: Low Education up to primary level, including those who did not receive any education.

High High school and above.

Att. Still attending school (they could be in the low or high education level).

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 population census, sample tapes.

or continue their education. On the contrary, in OKU regency, especially in the rural areas, these kinds of facilities are not adequate, even at the primary level of education. This sort of situation did not encourage migrants to go to school and also they themselves could not afford to do so because of their economic limitations.

Both tables clearly show that migrants in Palembang received more education than those in OKU regency. In the city, 18.5 per cent of the migrants had a 'junior high school and above' education. Whereas the corresponding figure in OKU regency was only 2.9 per cent. In particular, male migrants in Palembang were more educated than others. There were 24.9 per cent who received a 'junior high school and above' education in this city. This situation is worthy of note since the nature of urban jobs requires more educated people than those in the agricultural areas.

The significance of migrants' educational level could be compared with the total population of each area. The migrants to Palembang seem to have a rather higher level of education (20.3 per cent) as compared with the city's population as a whole (16.5 per cent) in terms of 'high school and above' education. The less educated migrants constituted 79.9 per cent of the 10 years and above migrants (including those who did not have any education at all), while this proportion for the total population of the city was 83.5 per cent. The corresponding figures for the 10 years and above population in OKU regency gave similar percentages of less educated and more educated migrants as compared with the population of OKU as a whole.

From the above presentation it can be seen that the migrants' educational level is low, but in general, higher than the educational level of the population as a whole in each area. With regard to the educational facilities, this evidence does not appear favourable for the receiving areas, since these areas already have their own problems. Specifically, the problems involve the lack of adequate educational facilities for the school-age population. These facilities are already burdened by the natural increase of the local school-age population. Added to this are the increasing numbers of migrants coming into these areas each year who also require the use of these facilities. From the employment side, the large number of uneducated labour force will raise the number of people in jobs which could not act in pushing or accelerating the development process, and even will create unemployment. To a large extent this case is likely to happen in the urban areas.

5.4 Migrant Activities

Regarding the activities of the migrants aged 10 years and above, OKU regency had a higher labour participation rate as compared with Palembang (Table 5.6). The differences in the age specific rates were very much higher in the younger age groups and in the older age groups. These differences in participation rates between the two areas are due to the fact that agriculture is the major activity of the people in the rural areas, and also agricultural activities usually involve many females, children and elderly people. A comparison with the urban and rural figures of South Sumatra population as a whole is also given in this table. It is evident that the migrants to Palembang

TABLE 5.6

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES OF MIGRANTS IN PALEMBANG AND
OKU, AND OF THE URBAN AND RURAL POPULATIONS OF SOUTH SUMATRA, 1971
(One Week Reference Period)

Age	Migrants		South Sumatra	
	Palembang	OKU	Urban	Rural
10 - 14	16.0	25.4	8.9	18.1
15 - 19	34.6	61.1	26.5	48.6
20 - 24	49.3	65.2	48.5	62.5
25 - 29	57.2	67.7	58.2	69.0
30 - 34	65.2	72.6	63.6	74.1
35 - 39	68.2	75.3	63.5	75.4
40 - 44	66.2	76.8	66.6	79.1
45 - 64	59.7	75.3	60.5	73.6
65+	35.2	50.0	38.6	47.0
Ages 10+	54.0	66.5	42.7	57.0
Number	62,018	75,943	271,871	954,093

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 population census, sample tapes and the 1971 Population Census, Series No. 06, Population of South Sumatra, CBS, Jakarta.

(urban area) had a higher labour participation rate (54.0) than the total urban population in South Sumatra (42.7). Certainly, it will be even higher if the comparison is made between migrants and non-migrants. A similar situation exists among the migrants to rural areas. They had a higher labour participation rate (66.5) than the

rural population as a whole in this province (57.0). The conclusion to these findings is that migrants to either the urban or the rural areas had a higher labour force participation rate than that of the total population of each residency.

The percentage distribution of economically active migrants to some extent could explain the above circumstances. The higher participation rates of migrants in OKU than those in Palembang are due to the high percentage of those who were grouped as 'unpaid family workers' (42.9 per cent). This is the group which generally covers females and child workers (see Table 5.7). In Palembang many migrants had a status of 'employees' (57.9 per cent), while in OKU the figure was only 8.0 per cent. By excluding the 'unpaid family workers' in both areas, it seems that most working migrants in Palembang can create income for themselves (94.2 per cent), whereas in OKU, almost one-half of them could not do the same.

The importance of migrants' status as compared with the status of the urban and rural population for South Sumatra could also be seen in this table. It is clear that the migrants in the urban area (Palembang) are found more in the first three categories of employment status than the urban population in South Sumatra. On the other hand, migrants to rural areas (OKU) had a higher percentage of those who had an 'own account' status than the rural population of this province. It is possible that many migrants in rural areas are less dependent on their family, and already have such independent activities. This would explain the higher migrants' 'own account' status.

TABLE 5.7
 PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MIGRANTS AND
 OF URBAN AND RURAL POPULATIONS OF SOUTH SUMATRA BY
 EMPLOYMENT STATUS, 1971
 (One Week Reference Period)

Employment status	Migrants		South Sumatra	
	Palembang	OKU	Urban	Rural
Own account	32.9	48.0	30.1	40.1
Employer	3.4	1.1	2.5	1.1
Employee	57.9	8.0	46.8	13.5
Unpaid family worker	5.8	42.9	20.6	45.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number	60,975	75,690	259,924	941,126

Notes: Ages below 10 years were excluded.

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 population census, sample tapes and the 1971 Population Census, Series No. 06, Population of South Sumatra, CBS, Jakarta.

An additional source of information on migrants' activities is shown in Table 5.8. The proportion of working migrants was higher in OKU (64.4 per cent) than Palembang (50.8 per cent). In the 'other activities' category, migrants in Palembang showed higher percentages than migrants in OKU regency. The conspicuous differences are found in the 'went to school' and 'housekeeping' categories of activities. These two activities were much higher in Palembang, particularly the 'housekeeping' category. This is the consequence of

TABLE 5.8

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MIGRANTS AGED 10 YEARS AND ABOVE
IN PALEMBANG AND OKU, BY ACTIVITY, 1971
(One Week Reference Period)

Activity	Palembang			OKU		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Worked	76.2	22.0	50.8	88.1	29.6	64.4
Looking for Work	3.9	2.3	3.1	2.0	1.8	2.1
Went to School	9.7	7.5	8.7	6.4	3.1	5.2
Housekeeping	1.2	62.7	30.0	0.7	44.7	24.9
Retired	2.4	0.9	1.7	0.2	0.2	0.3
Others	5.1	3.2	4.2	2.3	2.9	2.9
Not Stated	1.5	1.4	1.5	0.1	0.4	0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number	61,148	50,727	114,875	62,443	51,715	114,158

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 Population Census, sample tapes.

a high proportion of females in Palembang who were engaged in household duties in their own home (62.7 per cent), while in OKU the proportion was only 44.7 per cent.

5.5 Migrant Involvement in Industry

There are marked differences in the industrial activities of migrants in Palembang and OKU. In OKU regency, agriculture was the main sector of industry (89.5 per cent), specifically in the rural areas. Only a small porportion of the migrants were involved in 'trading', 'community, social and personal services' and 'manufacturing' sectors. Virtually none were involved in 'mining', 'quarrying' and 'finance' sectors. On the contrary, the migrant activities in Palembang appeared in greater percentages in sectors relating to the needs, functions and the location of the city. As a trading/commerce city, Palembang had migrants who seemed to predominate in the 'wholesale, retail trade' (31.3 per cent). Palembang as an industrial city which has many industrial complexes and provides infra-structure for such activities, shows high percentages of migrants involved in related sectors. There were 34.2 per cent of them engaged in the 'manufacturing', 'mining and quarrying', 'electricity, gas and water', 'construction' and 'communication' sectors. As an administrative and service city, again, the table shows that many migrants were in service activities (29.2 per cent). It is interesting to keep in mind that Palembang, with the largest land area (224 km²), is surrounded by swampy areas, therefore agricultural activities still exist in the city (see Appendix D.1).

In OKU regency there is not much variation in the industry classification. For example, migrants who were categorised in agriculture (industry) were mostly those who worked in agricultural areas (occupational-status), in other words they were real farmers. In Palembang, migrants were relatively distributed among all categories of occupational activity. Therefore, in each category of industry one can see that migrants had varying status ranging from low level status occupations up to those of high ranking status. The significance of migrant participation in the sectors of industry in Palembang and OKU is presented in Table 5.9. As a whole, the proportion of economically active migrants in the economically active populations of Palembang and OKU were 36.3 per cent and 41.1 per cent respectively.

Migrants in Palembang constituted a rather high proportion in all sectors except in the 'agriculture' and 'mining' sectors. In 'mining and quarrying' sector, in particular, migrants had a very low participation rate (0.3 per cent). In the 'agricultural' sector it was only 8.4 per cent. In other categories of industry this proportion ranged between 30 and 50 per cent.

In OKU regency, migrant participation varied among sectors. Although in absolute numbers migrants were mostly involved in agricultural activities, their participation in this sector was only 42.9 per cent of the total number of people engaged in this sector in this regency. Migrants had a very high participation in the 'manufacturing' sector (71.3 per cent) and 100 per cent participation in the 'electricity' sector. Migrants were not represented in the 'mining'

TABLE 5.9

THE RATIO OF THE ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MIGRANTS TO THE
ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION IN PALEMBANG AND OKU
BY INDUSTRY, 1971

Industry	Palembang	OKU
1. Agriculture, hunting, forestry	8.4	42.9
2. Mining, quarrying	0.3	0.0
3. Manufacturing	43.7	71.3
4. Electricity, gas and water	45.2	100.0
5. Construction	31.9	35.0
6. Wholesale, retail, trade, restaurant and hotel	42.3	42.1
7. Transport, storage and communication	44.8	21.3
8. Financing, insurance, R.E. and business services	40.2	0.0
9. Community, social and personal services	48.0	24.5
10. Activities not adequately defined	11.3	6.7
Total	36.3	41.1

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 population census, sample tapes and Population of South Sumatra, Series E, No. 06, CBS, Jakarta.

and 'financing' sectors as none of these activities existed in the rural areas of this regency.

A conclusion which can be drawn from these facts is that the migrants, whether they were going to Palembang (urban area) or to OKU (rural area), made considerably high contributions in the economic activities, particularly in the major sectors in each area.

5.6 Occupation and Educational Background

Due to the nature and the availability of jobs in each area, the orientation of migrant occupations in Palembang is toward the non-agricultural activities (urban type), whereas migrant occupations in OKU regency were directed to the agricultural activities (rural types). In OKU there was not much variation in the kinds of migrant occupations. On the contrary, migrant occupations in Palembang varied and were distributed among many occupational groups (see Table 5.10).

The cross tabulation of migrant occupations by their education shows that the occupational concentration of migrants with low level education was in 'sales', 'services', 'clerical and related', 'production and related' categories. On the other hand, the educated migrants had a higher percentage in the first three categories of occupations (see Table 5.10). These cases can be found both in Palembang and OKU.

The details of migrant jobs in Palembang in the categories where they were mostly found, are as follows:

(1) The 'sales' category contained the highest percentage of migrant occupations in the city (30.0 per cent). In this category most migrants worked as street vendors, hawkers, canvassers, salesmen, shop assistants and demonstrators.

(2) The 'service' category, which revealed 18.7 per cent of working migrants, was also among the highest groups. The outstanding jobs in this category were those which merely required physical labour rather than a skill, such as working as a coolie.

TABLE 5.10

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MIGRANTS, BY OCCUPATION
AND EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT, IN PALEMBANG AND OKU, 1971

Occupation	Education					
	Palembang			OKU		
	Low	High	Total	Low	High	Total
1. Professional, Technical and Related	1.3	15.3	4.5	0.2	32.1	1.3
2. Administrative and Managerial	0.7	8.8	2.5	0.1	2.0	0.1
3. Clerical and Related	5.7	36.2	12.7	0.6	12.1	0.9
4. Sales	35.2	12.6	30.0	3.9	3.9	3.9
5. Service	22.7	4.9	18.7	0.8	0.0	0.7
6. Agriculture, Animal Husbandry and Forestry, Fishing, Hunting	2.1	0.5	1.7	90.7	39.8	89.0
7. Production and Related, Transportation Equipment, Operators and Labourers	29.7	18.2	27.1	3.0	8.0	3.1
8. Unidentified Occupation	2.6	3.5	2.8	0.8	2.0	0.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number	47,064	13,911	60,975	73,173	2,517	75,690

Notes: Low - low level of education refers to those who did not have any education at all up to primary school.

High - high level of education refers to high school and above education.

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 Population Census, sample tapes.

Other important groups were maids, housekeepers, cleaners, building caretakers, waiters, bartenders, barbers and cooks.

(3) The second largest category was the 'production and related' category which involved 27.1 per cent of working migrants in Palembang. It is difficult to determine the specific tasks in this category. However, the main status was clear, i.e. whether the labourers and workers were in small/private business, in medium/large business or in industrial activities. The most conspicuous figure represented those migrants who worked as drivers, especially 'becak drivers' (unmotorised tricycle vehicle).

From this information one could conclude that most migrants in the city were involved in relatively low level occupations, in terms of the continuity of the jobs, security and income. It is possible that these circumstances were the results of low attainment in education among the migrants.

In OKU regency, particularly in the rural areas in which the environment provides little choice except cultivating and reclaiming the land, most of the migrants were found in agricultural activities. About 90.0 per cent of them were poorly educated farmers. They were engaged in mixed farming, i.e. those who grew more than one kind of crop in a year, for example rice and other crops such as vegetables, tobacco, cassava, potatoes, etc. (general farmers). Only a small proportion of migrants worked as specialised farmers, i.e. those who concentrated on producing one main type of agricultural product per year. The environment is such that the only opportunities available

are those in agricultural-type activities, and therefore included both poorly educated and well educated migrants. Some other highly educated migrants were found as teachers, particularly in the primary schools and also as local government officials. As in Palembang, most migrants in the 'sales' category in OKU were working as salesmen, shop assistants, street vendors and canvassers. Some other jobs in which migrants were involved were in the processing of clay and wood, for example as potters, wood workers and furniture makers.

Finally, one cannot ignore the substantial categories of 'professional', 'administrative' and 'clerical', in which 19.7 per cent of migrants (mostly highly educated) in Palembang were involved. Their contribution was very important. This can be seen from their occupational structure. The most conspicuous figures were found among those migrants who worked as government executives, highly qualified workers in the medical field, teachers, managers/directors, clerks and even scientists, such as engineers. It is not the aim of this study to disregard those migrants who were grouped in other categories. They possessed some education, some special skill or training, but their numbers have been too small to consider.

Table 5.11 is concerned with the origin areas of those migrants in each occupational category. The return migrants contributed high percentages in the 'professional', 'administrative' and 'clerical' categories, both in Palembang and OKU regency. Relative to their total numbers, West Sumatra-born migrants also had an important role in these categories. Well known as traders, a high percentage of them appeared in 'sales' category in Palembang as well

TABLE 5.11

THE MAIN AREAS OF ORIGIN OF MIGRANTS IN PALEMBANG AND
OKU ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONAL STATUS, 1971

Place of birth	Occupational status ²						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<u>Palembang</u>							
West Sumatra	15.5	9.8	6.4	14.4	2.8	0.0	8.3
South Sumatra ¹	20.0	30.5	27.8	8.6	3.7	6.0	11.9
West Java	19.8	16.7	8.5	34.8	46.9	27.9	28.1
Central Java	9.2	11.0	26.7	22.5	26.9	41.8	26.8
East Java	9.9	4.2	6.4	4.3	6.0	6.1	5.7
Other provinces	25.6	27.8	24.2	15.4	13.7	18.2	19.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number	2,765	1,535	7,726	18,318	11,375	1,058	16,503
<u>OKU</u>							
West Sumatra	0.0	50.5	0.0	12.0	0.0	0.1	2.2
South Sumatra ¹	53.0	0.0	35.7	13.7	9.2	5.9	8.6
West Java	0.0	49.5	14.2	10.1	18.0	17.8	36.0
Central Java	26.1	0.0	42.9	44.0	36.4	44.8	38.3
East Java	5.2	0.0	0.0	15.1	27.4	26.7	8.5
Other provinces	15.7	0.0	7.2	5.1	9.0	4.7	6.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number	959	101	709	2,978	555	67,367	2,369

Notes: 1 Return migrant.

2 Numbers of occupational status are the same as in Table 5.10.

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 population census, sample tapes.

as in OKU. Certainly, due to the large number of migrants from Java, especially from West Java and Central Java, migrants from these areas appeared in almost all categories. However, if consideration is given to the total number of migrants in each category, their major concentrations were different. Most of them were found in the 'sales', 'service', 'agriculture' and 'production' categories, and they even dominated these kinds of occupations. Their competitors were those who came from West Sumatra and the return migrants. Nevertheless only a small number of migrants from West Sumatra appeared in the 'service' and 'agriculture' categories. Although migrants from East Java in these two areas were in the third order in terms of their total number, their participation in each occupational category was relatively low, particularly in Palembang. Even in OKU regency, they virtually did not appear in the 'administrative' and 'clerical' categories.

5.7 Province of Origin

In presenting the origin areas of migrants in Palembang and OKU, there are two important factors which can clarify the relationship between these typical urban (Palembang) and rural (OKU) areas and other provinces. First, it can demonstrate the major origin areas of migrants in each residency, how far it is from South Sumatra, and why the migrants come from those provinces. Second, at the same time, it can also point out provinces which attract people from South Sumatra.

There was much variation in the province of origin of migrants in these two areas in terms of their place of birth and their

previous place of residence. In general, however, most of them came from Java and were born there as well.

Table 5.12 shows that 62.6 per cent of migrants in Palembang were born in Java, particularly in West Java (29.3 per cent) and Central Java (20.9 per cent). Another 18.6 per cent of them were born in other provinces in Sumatra, and a high proportion of these were born in West Sumatra (9.0 per cent) and the bordering provinces of Lampung, Bengkulu and Jambi. Regarding their place of previous residence, the pattern was almost the same, except that those who came from Java made up 70.9 per cent. This difference is due to the inclusion of return migrants and those who were born in other provinces in Indonesia, although Java had been their previous place of residence. Apparently most of the return migrants (78.0 per cent) came from the adjacent provinces, particularly from West Java, DKI.Jakarta and Lampung.

This table, as well as the above illustrations, indicate that Palembang received migrants from all parts of Indonesia. Although those originating from Java still appeared in large numbers, those of Sumatran origin also made up a substantial proportion. Viewing the return migrants in this city in particular, it is evident that West Java, DKI.Jakarta and Lampung are the priority destination areas of South Sumatran people. This finding could support the unconfirmed report that most people from this province moved to these three areas for many reasons and purposes, for example, for doing business, administrative matters, studying, or they were attracted by modern life and development in these areas (particularly in DKI.Jakarta).

TABLE 5.12
DISTRIBUTION OF MIGRANTS BY PLACE OF BIRTH AND PREVIOUS PLACE OF
RESIDENCE, IN PALEMBANG AND OKU, 1971

Province	Palembang			OKU		
	Place of Birth	Previous Place of Residence	Difference	Place of Birth	Previous Place of Residence	Difference
1. Aceh	533	596	- 63	50	300	- 250
2. N. Sumatra	2544	2790	- 246	253	961	- 708
3. W. Sumatra	11,293	9349	+ 1944	814	912	- 98
4. Riau	535	1004	- 469	-	250	- 250
5. Jambi	2262	4131	- 1869	351	503	- 152
6. S. Sumatra	17,716	-	+ 17,716	8750	-	+ 8750
7. Bengkulu	2903	4569	- 1666	853	1611	- 758
8. Lampung	3288	8409	- 5121	3768	11,648	- 7880
9. DKI.Jakarta	6740	12,523	- 5783	502	1258	- 756
10. W. Java	36,745	41,179	- 4434	20,169	20,024	+ 145
11. C. Java	26,231	25,808	+ 423	51,703	49,798	+ 1905
12. Yogyakarta	2229	2655	- 426	2500	2200	+ 300
13. E. Java	6598	6769	- 171	32,218	32,166	+ 52
14. Bali	63	84	- 21	300	350	- 50
15. W. Nusa Tenggara	21	105	- 84	-	-	-
16. E. Nusa Tenggara	128	64	+ 64	50	50	0
17. W. Kalimantan	86	149	- 63	50	-	+ 50
18. C. Kalimantan	-	86	- 86	-	50	- 50
19. S. Kalimantan	88	49	+ 39	-	-	-
20. E. Kalimantan	259	451	- 192	150	350	- 200
21. E. Sulawesi	366	240	+ 126	-	-	-
22. C. Sulawesi	42	42	0	-	-	-
23. S. Sulawesi	841	611	+ 230	-	-	-
24. S.E. Sulawesi	-	22	- 22	-	-	-
25. Maluku	214	64	+ 150	-	-	-
26. Irian Jaya	107	172	- 65	-	-	-
Other Countries	3619	3530	+ 89	50	50	0
Total	125,451	125,451	0*	122,531	122,531	0*

Note: * Balance without 'other countries' figures (international migration).

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 Population Census, sample tapes.

In OKU regency the pattern of migrants' origin areas was almost the same by both place of birth and previous place of residence. The major source of migrants to this area was Java. Only a small portion came from other provinces in Sumatra. Most of those from Java were born and came from Central Java, East Java and West Java (the total was about 87 per cent). Besides Java, the outstanding figure was shown to be those who came from Lampung province. The percentage of migrants whose previous residence was Lampung was much higher than those who were born in this province. In fact, among all those who came from Lampung (11,648 persons), 53.0 per cent were return migrants, 31.5 per cent and 14.6 per cent were born in Lampung and Java respectively.

This finding supplements the close relationship between Lampung and South Sumatra in terms of the movement of the people, particularly between the rural areas in both provinces. It is already known that many people from South Sumatra went to Lampung to do business in pepper and coffee farming, besides paddy cultivation as an additional job. On the other hand, OKU regency also offers some good attractions for people, for example, the large and established transmigrant settlement area in Belitang, which is gradually being extended and the opening of some new locations in other parts of the regency. This area also has extensive coffee-farming in the western part which forms an important export commodity of South Sumatra. Quite a high percentage of Java-born migrants who moved to OKU from Lampung province could be an indication that many transmigrants in this province have been looking for some other opportunities in OKU regency. It could also be interpreted that some transmigration settlement areas in Lampung can no longer provide a better living for the migrants.

The total absolute difference given in Table 5.12 represents figures for those migrants who had experienced at least two movements in their life time. In Palembang, 33 per cent of migrants (41,384 people) had experienced multiple movement. The corresponding figure was 18.3 per cent (22,404 people) in OKU regency. Therefore one can conclude that most migrants in OKU regency came straight from their origin areas. Undoubtedly, the transmigration scheme which collects people from Java and moves them straight to the new settlement areas caused this situation.

5.8 Motivation for Migration and Migrant Improvement at the Destination Area

The data concerning motivation to migrate either to Palembang or to OKU regency in this section are based on the surveys that have been conducted in both areas, and other surveys which are relevant to this discussion.

The migrant survey in Palembang was conducted in 1974 by LEKNAS-IDRC under the sponsorship of South Sumatra Cooperative Development Project (SSCDP). The sample was based on purposive random sampling. The migrant tabulation was based on the previous place of residence. A migrant in this survey was defined as a person whose place of previous residence was not Palembang and who had already stayed in this city for more than six months. The results of this survey show that only 64 per cent of the migrants came from other provinces. Therefore, in interpreting the findings one should keep in mind that the internal movement within South Sumatra (rural to urban, or urban to urban) was included in all the figures.

Since most of the migrants in OKU regency are transmigrants, the information about them will be suitable enough to represent all migrants in this area. The condition of transmigrants before moving will be derived from the survey that was conducted by LEKNAS in association with the Directorate General of Transmigration in March and April 1975 in West Java, Central Java, East Java and Bali (transmigrants were interviewed at their gathering centres). In addition, the survey that was conducted by the Faculty of Economics, University of Sriwijaya, also in association with the Directorate General of Transmigration will be included for studying the conditions of transmigrants at their new places (OKU regency). This survey was conducted in October 1975 at Belitang transmigration area in OKU regency.

5.8.1 Motivation for Migration

The SSCDP survey results reported that the main reason for moving to Palembang was economic, such as 'finding a job, etc.' (37 per cent). This was followed by the reason 'join the family' (27.5 per cent). Some migrants in this city came for the purposes of study (7.5 per cent) and 6.3 per cent gave their reasons as 'duty to assume new assignment in the city'. Fifteen per cent said that they cannot specify their reason ('just came'), 2.3 per cent were 'attracted by the life in the city' and 4.4 per cent came because of 'other reasons' (LEKNAS-IDRC, 1974; 2-28).

As most of the migrants to OKU have been transmigrants, it can be said that transmigrants were moved by the government for their own benefit as well as for the purpose of carrying out a government plan. The recent survey by LEKNAS found that 85 per cent of the

transmigrant household heads said that they joined the transmigration scheme because they imagined they would have a better life in a new place. Only 8 per cent wanted to participate in development, 3.5 per cent were attracted by their families and 1.5 per cent said they felt compelled to move (LEKNAS, 1976; 33). The high percentage of those who imagined to have a better life in the new places could be interpreted as being motivated by economic reasons, because most of the transmigrants were in economically poor condition when they moved. Almost 50 per cent of the people who joined this scheme had no possessions, and almost 30 per cent had only land or a house (LEKNAS, 1976; 23).

The conclusion to these findings is economic motivations are the main reasons or at least play an important role in motivating people to move to either urban or rural areas.

5.8.2 Improved Standard of Living

An interesting finding of the SSCDP survey is that the migrants in the city tended to involve themselves in independent jobs like a small business rather than becoming government servants. Becak driving appeared in second place. Working as a manual labourer was only transitional. The survey showed that many migrants did this job when they first came to Palembang, but they were able to find other sources of employment once they became familiar with the city.

This survey also showed that the economic condition and status of the migrants in the city had improved. An upward shift in the income level of the migrants was observed. In the place of origin

only 44.3 per cent of migrants had a monthly income of between Rp.5,000 - Rp.25,000 plus. At the time of the survey, 69.3 per cent of the migrants were in this income group (LEKNAS-IDRC, 1974; 2-30).

The survey in the Belitang transmigration area (OKU regency) showed that the transmigrants were involved in agricultural activities. In the place of origin many of them, however, did not work in agriculture (41.9 per cent including children). For example, many of them worked as traders, craftsmen, teachers, or were unemployed.

The improvement in living conditions for the transmigrants in the new place (Belitang) is noteworthy, particularly if one keeps in mind that most transmigrants did not bring with them any valuable possessions. In Belitang, some of these transmigrants already have their own houses, land and have even accumulated other possessions such as breeding animals, bicycle, radio, sewing machine, watches and other home furniture. Certainly all of these things were obtained by excess agricultural production which could be sold and other goods purchased (Direktorat Jendral Transmigrasi, 1976; 38-40).

Finally, these findings prove that migrants to Palembang (urban area) and OKU (rural area) had a better standard of living as compared with their living conditions in their place of origin.

Summary

Concerning the number of migrants there was one migrant for every five persons in both Palembang and OKU regency. This ratio is significant enough to influence many aspects of population in these two areas, particularly the demographic and economic aspects. The

characteristics of migrants in urban areas (Palembang) and rural areas (OKU) were entirely different in many situations.

The first finding shows that, despite many migrants who came to Palembang, the intercensal growth rate of the population in this city was low. It was the outmigration stream as a counter balance which disguised this phenomenon. Unlike Palembang, OKU regency showed the highest growth rate of its population among the various areas in this province. The transmigration program to South Sumatra, which was mainly directed to this regency, could be the primary cause of this observation.

The age data of migrants by the time they came to this province during the ten years preceding the census, revealed identical age structures which are commonly found among the urban and rural migrants. The age structure of rural migrants, however, was much younger than for those who went to the urban areas. Obviously, the dependency ratio of rural migrants was higher than those of urban migrants.

With regard to their education, it is very clear that most migrants, whether they moved to urban areas or to rural areas, had a very low level of educational attainment and a large number of them had no education. Nevertheless, migrants to urban areas (Palembang) were in a better situation than those in rural areas (OKU) because many were better educated.

The participation of migrants in the labour force was higher in rural areas (OKU) than for those in urban areas (Palembang). The involvement of rural migrants in the agricultural activities caused

their participation rates to be high, especially in the case of those who employed their family members. These circumstances could be seen from the high percentage of 'unpaid family workers' in rural areas. On the other hand, most women in urban areas (Palembang) were engaged in household duties in their own homes (housekeeping). In general, however, migrants to either urban or rural areas had higher labour force participation rates than the population as a whole in each area.

In relation to the occupational status of the migrants, it was clearly observed that the migrants in rural areas (OKU) had very little job variation. Invariably most of them were involved in agricultural activities. On the other hand, Palembang provided many variations of occupations, ranging from agricultural to high ranking jobs. According to their level of education, many migrants worked in insecure jobs in the categories of 'sales', 'service' and 'production', such as coolies, street vendors, hawkers, maids, cleaners, and becak drivers. Economically, a high number of migrants entering these sorts of activities did not improve and accelerate the development process of the city. About 20 per cent of the migrants had good positions.

The participation of economically active migrants in the industrial sectors in Palembang and OKU was significant. In Palembang about 40-50 per cent of the people who were involved in each category of industry were migrants. The only exception was 'agriculture' and 'mining' sectors, because in these two sectors migrants had very low participation, especially in the 'mining' sector. In OKU regency, where most migrants were engaged in the agricultural sectors, migrants

had a high participation rate. More than four out of ten farmers in this regency were migrants. In other sectors migrants also participated significantly, particularly in the 'electricity' and 'manufacturing' sectors.

Most migrants in Palembang and OKU came from Java. The place of origin of migrants in Palembang showed considerable variation. This city received migrants from all parts of Indonesia. After Java there were also many migrants from West Sumatra whose people are well known as perantau (movers). The bordering provinces also formed an important origin of migrants (including DKI.Jakarta and West Java). On the other hand, the number of migrants to OKU was highly dependent on the number of transmigrants moving to this area under the transmigration scheme. The origin of almost all migrants in this regency followed the pattern of major sources of transmigrants from Java, i.e. Central Java, East Java and West Java successively.

Regardless of the possibility of multiple movements in-between, it seems that people who were born in South Sumatra (return migrants) tended to be attracted to DKI.Jakarta and West Java. Many of these South Sumatra-born return migrants preferred to live in Palembang (urban area). In contrast, most of those born in South Sumatra who returned to OKU regency seemed to live only in Lampung province before coming back to South Sumatra and settling down in the rural areas of OKU regency. It is possible that movement of people between these two provinces occurred from rural to rural agricultural areas. This is because the closest bordering areas between these two provinces form an extensive agricultural area, such as paddy fields and coffee plantations.

The surveys which were conducted in Palembang and OKU revealed that the economic motive was the main reason for people to move to either urban or rural areas. These surveys also proved that migrants had a better standard of living in the new areas as compared with that in their areas of origin.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

In the previous discussion it has been mentioned that the aspects of migration to South Sumatra did not attract much attention from the government authorities in this province. The reason for this was that the volume of migration (particularly immigration) annually was considered too small compared with the total population of South Sumatra. In contrast, some findings in this study show that migration plays an important role not only in terms of the numbers involved but also the participation of migrants in many facets of the economic life in the region.

Some migration studies, certainly, have been conducted in this region. Unfortunately the subject matter of these studies has been limited to the implementation of transmigration. Our findings indicate that this scheme contributed less than one-half of those who came to this province annually.

6.1 Labour Force Supply and Economic Contribution of Migrants

Migrants in South Sumatra contributed a relatively high proportion to the labour force. Two out of ten economically active in the population in this province were migrants. This fact not only influences the total labour force but could also affect the quality and composition of labour in this area.

In general, labour force participation rates of migrants were higher than those for the total population. This was the result of the participation of females and young children in the family business, particularly in the rural areas. Nevertheless, the labour force participation rates of female migrants were higher than the total females in South Sumatra.

Viewing the economic activities of the migrants, migrants to rural areas were involved in the agricultural activities. On the whole, 14 per cent of the economically active population engaged in this sector in South Sumatra was made up of migrants. This proportion, however, varied among regencies in this province. OKU regency, which revealed a high proportion of migrants, showed that about 43 per cent of its population involved in the agricultural sector was that of migrants.

On the contrary, migrants to urban areas had much variation in their activities. The employment pattern in the cities depends on the availability of the jobs, characteristics of the urban areas, and the ability of migrants to participate in such activities. Since most of the migrants to urban areas were settled in Palembang municipality, the peculiarity of this city had much influence on migrant preferences. Due to the level of education, most of the educated migrants (high school and above) worked as professional, administrative, clerical, production and sales workers. However, only about one-fifth of migrants to this city had relatively secure jobs. Almost four-fifths of them were engaged in relatively insecure jobs. Evidently the sectoral activities of migrants showed that most of them were involved in 'trading', 'services', 'manufacturing' and

'transportation' sectors successively. With the exception of 'agriculture' and 'mining', migrants in Palembang formed a large part (about 40 to 50 per cent) of each occupational sector.

6.2 Transmigration and Voluntary Migration

Actually, the effects of the transmigration scheme in terms of the total people moved should be viewed only in OKU and MURA regencies, or more specifically, in Belitang and Tugumulyo sub-districts. Although these two regencies depicted the highest rates of population growth (between 1961 and 1971) among other areas in South Sumatra, the influx and concentration of transmigration was mostly in OKU regency. Moreover, OKU regency at the present time is more developed in terms of the number of the resettlement areas, land opened, and the financial aid and technical assistance received in extending the transmigration projects.

Although the official resettlement scheme commenced in 1937 and was known as the colonisation scheme, a large number of people were moved only under the transmigration scheme which started in 1950. The more extensive movements occurred between 1951-1961, where about 13,000 transmigrants were moved to South Sumatra annually. The period after this showed a decline in the volume of transmigrants annually.

Some evidence based on the migration data between 1961 and 1971 depicts the significance of the voluntary migration (unguided movement). The approximate percentage of total immigrants to the total population of South Sumatra annually during this period was

0.62 per cent. Out of this, the transmigrants constituted only 0.15 per cent. Therefore, the remainder (0.42 per cent) was the contribution of annual voluntary movement. This fact is of considerable importance in evaluating the success and the effectiveness of the transmigration scheme, since this project has been an expensive exercise. The present trend shows that among all the transmigrants there is a considerably high proportion of spontaneous transmigrants (independent transmigrants, i.e. those who only get a little subsidy from the government). This is a good sign for the government to take note of. Another point which is also of relevance is that, at the present time, the immigrants in this province have shown preference to living in the urban areas.

6.3 Population Growth Rate

Based on the census results, the annual growth rate of the population in South Sumatra was 2.26 per cent between 1930 and 1961 which decreased to 2.15 per cent between 1961 and 1971. These results do not represent the real demographic situation in this province as this area has been continuously influenced by the movement of people across its boundaries.

Like the other provinces in Indonesia, South Sumatra province has a high birth rate. It ranges between 43.4 and 49.3 per thousand population according to the 1971 data (unadjusted and adjusted data respectively).¹ These results are not too surprising

1 The calculation of birth and death rates has been done by the writer in his paper which was presented to the Demographic Institute, University of Indonesia in 1974. The differences in decimal figures are due to rigidity in calculation.

since marriage usually occurs at a young age, the level of education has been low - especially among women, and the family planning program was not officially implemented until 1971. These situations do not enable fertility to decline rapidly. A large difference in the results by using unadjusted and adjusted data is the consequence of the adjustment of the number of births.

On the other hand, the death rate ranged between 19.0 and 19.5 per thousand population based on the same data. Although the death rate is still high, it is expected that it will decline in the future. This expectation is based on government efforts in eliminating venereal diseases in introducing public health knowledge to the communities, and in the development of health facilities at the present time in the country.

The balance of the birth and death rates gives a natural growth rate of the population of between 2.43 and 2.98 per cent annually on the basis of the unadjusted and adjusted data respectively. These natural growth rates seem likely to give a minimum and maximum range of population growth rate, without taking into account the migration effects. Compared with the intercensal growth rate of 2.15 per cent as shown by the 1961, and the 1971 census data in particular, these natural growth rates are still high. Therefore, in getting a clear picture of this rate, the migration effects should be taken into consideration.

In the earlier discussion it was mentioned that the annual contribution¹ of immigrants on the population growth rate in

1. Contribution of migrants in this context means, contribution of those who were categorised as migrant only.

this province had been significant. The similar case is also pointed out by the outmigration from South Sumatra. It was 0.75 per cent during the same period (1961-1971). In the case of immigration, about 30 per cent of the provincial annual growth rate of population during this period was the contribution of immigrants. The high stream of outmigration during the last ten years could be the reason why the intercensal growth during this period was low.

On the whole, these percentages do not have much meaning in the context of the growth rate of population in South Sumatra, but with regard to the distribution of migrants the situation is different. Since most of the migrants were concentrated in Palembang and OKU, their contribution to the population growth rate was very high. The previous calculation revealed that 60 per cent and 30 per cent of the annual population growth rate in Palembang and OKU respectively was due to total immigrants to each area annually.

In the previous chapter (Chapter 5), it has been mentioned that this province experienced higher immigration than outmigration. In addition, it was also observed that during the 1960s this province experienced higher outmigration than immigration. Regarding these circumstances, there are possibly two periods of rate of population growth which occurred before the 1970s. These are as follows:

- (1) The period where the growth rate of population was high may have happened before the 1960s. During this period the volume of immigration exceeded the outmigration, even though the latter happened extensively. The reason for this could be the result

of a high volume of transmigration annually. The combination of slightly high immigrants and the natural growth rate should produce a population growth of around 3 per cent annually.

(2) Another period is the period where the volume of outmigration exceeded immigration. This era happened at around 1960 during the early period of PELITA-I (1969/70). The approximate figure of the population growth rate after migration should be between 2.5 and 3 per cent annually.¹ This proposition is supported by the fact that the difference between out- and immigration annually during this period (1961-1971), revealed as minus 0.15 per cent, whereas the natural growth rate in the same period was 2.98 per cent (adjusted data). The difference, therefore, still gives 2.83 per cent annually (after migration).

The intercensal growth rate of 2.26 per cent (between 1930 and 1961) and 2.15 per cent (between 1961 and 1971) annually are considerably different from the above illustration. These differences could be connected with the possibility that one or both of the total population figures as recorded by the 1961 and 1971 censuses are wrong. The suspected error in the total population as recorded by these two censuses is also emphasised in the Sumatra Regional Planning Study, with reference to lower intercensal population growth rates in the southern provinces of Sumatra (University of Bonn, 1976; 33).

1 Dr N. Iskandar in the SRPS study has projected the population of South Sumatra by using the natural growth rate of population of 2.93 annually for the period 1970-1975.

6.4 Migration Stream

On the basis of some findings in the previous chapters, the migration flow to South Sumatra could be formulated as follows:

(1) Immigration to this province is mostly directed only to two areas, i.e. Palembang city and OKU regency. The flow of immigration to OKU regency is predominantly the result of the transmigration settlement scheme. On the other hand, flow of immigration to Palembang is both a consequence of the urbanisation within this province and from other provinces as well.

(2) It seems that a large proportion of outmigrants from South Sumatra came from Palembang municipality (as their previous place of residence).

6.5 Trends in Migrant Destination and Economic Development in South Sumatra

The existing situation shows that most migrants live in Palembang municipality and OKU regency. It seems that the uneven distribution of migrants among areas in South Sumatra will continue in the future. The recent development could accelerate the growth rate of population in these two areas as well as in the province as a whole. These circumstances could also be supported by the potential decrease in outmigration from this province as a consequence of development progress in this area.

The characteristics of the South Sumatra economy are unique among all other provinces in Indonesia. Per capita Gross Domestic

Product (GDP) of this province is among the highest in Indonesia. The GDP composition in 1972 gives a lower figure for the agricultural sector (39.3 per cent) compared with Indonesia as a whole (43.9 per cent), although most people (71.5 per cent) in South Sumatra had been involved in agricultural activities. This shows that the high per capita GDP disguised the fundamental characteristics of the province - a poor, agriculturally-based economy with low productivity (University of Bonn, 1976; 24-31).

Palembang, in this case, is the principal source of growth of GDP in South Sumatra which disguises the low productivity and income of the majority of the province's population and agriculturally-based employment. This city has great immediate potential for further industrialisation. As the largest city, Palembang also forms the largest market in this region. Other factors contributing to the prospects of industrialisation in this city are its fairly large and relatively low wage labour force; its favourable location with regard to the deposits of oil, natural gas and coal; its prospects for an adequate and dependable supply of low cost electric power; its port; and the fact that refining facilities, fertiliser factories and other major industries are already located in this city. In addition to the large resource-oriented industries, Palembang is experiencing growth in smaller but nevertheless important industries such as saw mills and a plywood factory, spinning mill and weaving plant, pharmaceutical industry and wood processing industry.

All of the above illustrations could be the major causes as to why many migrants live in this city, and also as incentives for

people to move into the city in the future. The previous discussion confirms this possibility, where in recent times many migrants prefer to live in urban areas, particularly in Palembang.

The recent government decision to open up the new settlement areas under the transmigration scheme throughout the province is directed at influencing the settlement pattern. Nevertheless, migrants still tend to gravitate to the rural areas of OKU regency or nearby. This phenomenon is shown by the high proportion of migrants in the latest period who went to the settlement areas of this regency. This case seems reasonable because, despite many of the old and established settlement areas being located in this regency, the soil is also good for cultivation. It has also been mentioned in the SRPS study that the southern part of South Sumatra (OKU and OKI regencies) has favourable potential for large scale transmigration developments (University of Bonn, 1976; 65).

Besides the large transmigration areas, there are also some other favourable conditions which are now supporting the growth of OKU regency, i.e. the Trans-Sumatra Highway and the cement industry. The Trans-Sumatra Highway network, which passes through this regency from the southern part to the north-west, is now about to be finished and could smooth and encourage the economic life of this regency. Moreover, the cement industry which is now being built in Baturadja (capital of OKU regency) will start to produce in about two years. It could invite the emergence of other industries in this area. The industrialised centre in South Sumatra will be located between Baturadja and Tandjung Enim (LIOT regency). As has been mentioned before, Tandjung Enim is a centre for the coal mining area. The

government has already decided to rehabilitate this mining area, not only as a mining field, but also for generating a high source of electric power for the southern part of Sumatra. This project is tackled by Shell Coal Company and perhaps the operation could begin in the early 1980s.

Obviously there are also other transmigration settlement areas which are developed by the government in other regencies, but their conditions are not too attractive for people to move into. For example, the Upang and Cintamanis settlement areas (OKI regency) are located close to the mouth of the Musi River and are relatively far from the centre of economic activities. Although on the map it seems that those two areas are close to Palembang, the river as the only means of transportation, limits the mobility of people as well as goods and products. Also, the SRPS study has shown that the tidal reclamation areas (Upang and Cintamanis) will yield only very low returns on the required investment. This project appears to be a very costly way of settling transmigrants, and contributing very little to national economic progress (1976; 15).

Another area with indications for good potential lies to the east and southeast of Muara Beliti, in MURA regency close to Tugumulyo, where the old settlement areas are located. A similar survey recommended this area as a suitable site for transmigration because of its good classification of lands.

Finally, based on the above discussion, one can draw a conclusion that in the near future the distribution of migrants will continue concentrating in Palembang and OKU regency, although efforts

are made to prevent this situation. The reason is simply that only a small proportion of immigrants (in this case transmigrants) can be managed and directed by the government. A large proportion of immigrants which cannot be controlled by the government undoubtedly will prefer to settle in the centres of economic activity, i.e. Palembang or in other areas where the situation appears much better. In terms of urban and rural distribution, it seems that migrants to urban areas, particularly to Palembang, will grow faster than the number of migrants to rural areas.

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APPENDICES

<u>Appendix</u>	<u>Title</u>
A.1	Population and Land Area of Indonesia by Province, 1971
A.2	Provincial Development Aid (Bantuan Daerah Tingkat I) 1974/75 - 1975/76 and SPP.ADO 1973/74 for Each Province (in Million Rupiah)
A.3	Gross Regional Domestic Product by Current Price in Each Province, 1968 and 1972
A.4	Population Mobility, 1964
A.5	Life-Time In- and Outmigration by Province, 1971
B.1	Density and Rate of Growth, South Sumatra, 1961-1971
B.2	Numbers of Persons Living in Other Provinces at the Time of the 1971 Census whose Previous Province of Residence was South Sumatra, by Duration of Residence
B.3	Estimates of Net Migration Between South Sumatra and Other Provinces (Place of Residence Data), 1971
B.4	Estimates of Net Migration Between South Sumatra and Other Provinces (Previous Place of Residence Data), 1971
C.1	Transmigration to South Sumatra by Areas of Origin, 1951-1972
D.1	Distribution of Economically Active Migrants by Industry and Occupation, in Palembang and OKU, 1971

APPENDICES

POPULATION AND LAND AREA OF INDONESIA BY PROVINCE, 1971

Province	Area		Population		
	Km ²	%	Number	%	Per Km ²
1. Aceh	55,392	2.91	2,008,341	1.7	36
2. N. Sumatra	70,787	3.72	6,620,811	5.6	94
3. W. Sumatra	49,778	2.61	2,792,221	2.3	56
4. Riau	94,562	4.96	1,641,074	1.4	17
5. Jambi	44,924	2.36	1,005,658	0.8	22
6. S. Sumatra	103,688	5.44	3,438,061	2.9	33
7. Bengkulu	21,168	1.11	579,316	0.4	25
8. Lampung	33,307	1.75	2,775,695	2.3	83
<u>Sumatra</u>	<u>473,606</u>	<u>24.86</u>	<u>20,801,177</u>	<u>17.5</u>	<u>44</u>
9. DKI.Jakarta	590	0.03	4,546,492	3.8	7706
10. W. Java	46,300	2.43	21,620,950	18.1	467
11. C. Java	34,206	1.80	21,865,863	18.4	639
12. Yogyakarta	3,169	0.17	2,488,544	2.1	785
13. E. Java	47,922	2.52	25,508,387	21.4	532
<u>Java</u>	<u>132,187</u>	<u>6.95</u>	<u>76,029,636</u>	<u>63.8</u>	<u>575</u>
14. Bali	5,561	0.30	2,120,091	1.8	381
15. W. Nusa Tenggara	20,177	1.06	2,203,435	1.8	109
16. E. Nusa Tenggara	47,876	2.57	2,295,279	1.9	48
<u>Bali + N. Tenggara</u>	<u>73,614</u>	<u>3.87</u>	<u>6,618,805</u>	<u>5.5</u>	<u>90</u>
17. W. Kalimantan	146,760	7.70	2,019,924	1.7	14
18. C. Kalimantan	152,600	8.01	701,936	5.9	5
19. S. Kalimantan	37,660	1.98	1,699,105	1.4	45
20. E. Kalimantan	202,440	10.63	731,606	0.6	4
<u>Kalimantan</u>	<u>539,460</u>	<u>28.32</u>	<u>5,152,571</u>	<u>4.3</u>	<u>10</u>
21. N. Sulawesi	19,023	1.00	1,717,671	1.4	90
22. C. Sulawesi	69,726	3.66	913,662	0.8	13
23. S. Sulawesi	72,781	3.82	5,179,911	4.3	71
24. S.E. Sulawesi	27,686	1.45	714,120	0.6	26
<u>Sulawesi</u>	<u>189,216</u>	<u>9.93</u>	<u>8,525,364</u>	<u>7.2</u>	<u>45</u>
25. Maluku	74,505	3.91	1,089,511	0.9	15
26. Irian Jaya	421,981	22.16	923,440	0.8	2
<u>Maluku + Irian Jaya</u>	<u>496,486</u>	<u>26.07</u>	<u>2,012,951</u>	<u>1.7</u>	<u>4</u>
Indonesia	1,904,569	100.00	119,140,504	100.0	62

Sources: Statistical Pocketbook Indonesia 1974/1975, BPS, Jakarta.
1971 Population Census, Series B and E, BPS, Jakarta.

APPENDIX A.2

PROVINCIAL DEVELOPMENT AID (BANTUAN PEMBANGUNAN DAERAH BINGKAT I) 1974/75 - 1975/76 AND SPP.ADO
1973/74 FOR EACH PROVINCE
(in Million Rupiah)

Province	SPP.ADO 1973/74	Province Development Aid			
		1974/75		1975/76	
		Amount	% Increase	Amount	% Increase
1. Aceh	406.5	949.0	133.5	1,186.3	25.0
2. N. Sumatra	4,734.2	5,401.7	14.1	6,076.8	11.1
3. W. Sumatra	470.9	1,090.3	131.5	1,362.9	25.0
4. Riau	1,071.7	1,420.0	32.5	1,774.9	25.0
5. Jambi	834.1	1,154.9	38.5	1,443.6	25.0
6. S. Sumatra	4,159.3	4,759.6	14.4	5,394.9	13.4
7. Bengkulu	72.4	500.0	490.6	750.0	50.0
8. Lampung	1,487.5	1,754.8	18.0	2,193.4	25.0
9. DKI.Jakarta	311.9	1,500.0	381.0	1,874.9	25.0
10. W. Java	967.8	4,004.0	313.7	4,504.4	12.5
11. C. Java	499.1	4,287.0	759.0	4,822.8	52.5
12. Yogyakarta	12.6	555.0	4,304.8	750.0	35.1
13. E. Java	1,388.2	5,695.0	310.2	6,366.3	11.8
14. Bali	83.0	629.0	244.0	786.3	25.0
15. W. Nusa Tenggara	24.2	689.0	2,747.1	861.3	25.0
16. E. Nusa Tenggara	60.5	998.0	1,549.6	1,247.5	25.0
17. W. Kalimantan	1,186.7	1,429.0	20.4	1,786.9	25.0
18. C. Kalimantan	321.0	550.0	71.3	750.0	36.4
19. S. Kalimantan	605.1	781.1	29.1	976.4	25.0
20. E. Kalimantan	824.7	999.2	20.3	1,240.1	24.1
21. N. Sulawesi	397.5	706.0	77.6	882.5	25.0
22. C. Sulawesi	213.9	600.0	180.5	750.0	25.0
23. S. Sulawesi	122.6	1,791.0	1,149.8	2,238.7	25.0
24. S.E. Sulawesi	143.3	600.0	432.9	750.0	25.0
25. Maluku	52.7	613.0	561.3	766.3	25.0
26. Irian Jaya	71.4	500.0	600.3	750.0	50.0
Indonesia	20,481.4	43,950.0	144.6	52,287.0	19.0

Source: Presidential Speech, August 1976, Supplement.

APPENDIX A.3

GROSS REGIONAL DOMESTIC PRODUCT BY CURRENT PRICE IN EACH PROVINCE,
1968 AND 1972

Province	1968		1972	
	Million Rp.	Rp. per Capita	Million Rp.	Rp. per Capita
1. Aceh	38,059.0	20,201.17	84,350.2	41,126.38
2. N. Sumatra	147,598.0	24,340.04	312,142.2	45,802.23
3. W. Sumatra	45,113.4	17,049.66	80,651.0	26,338.37
4. Riau	145,398.8	96,354.51	495,089.3	292,360.53
5. Jambi	30,316.5	32,881.24	46,833.6	45,162.58
6. S. Sumatra	83,803.6	25,945.39	186,423.9	52,961.34
7. Bengkulu	11,497.0	23,852.70	17,446.7	32,794.55
8. Lampung	48,143.9	20,237.03	90,476.0	30,974.32
9. DKI.Jakarta	198,564.2	27,073.37	276,152.2	57,639.78
10. W. Java	298,976.8	14,674.43	598,078.2	27,079.52
11. C. Java	300,273.6	14,411.98	565,448.1	25,389.43
12. Yogyakarta	31,103.2	12,857.88	59,224.0	23,529.60
13. E. Java	449,030.9	18,205.19	945,186.3	36,444.43
14. Bali	27,619.1	13,672.82	64,014.9	29,663.99
15. W. Nusa Tenggara	20,090.6	9,672.89	40,383.3	17,980.10
16. E. Nusa Tenggara	20,816.2	9,470.52	45,612.1	19,559.22
17. W. Kalimantan	35,844.0	19,045.70	48,356.6	23,360.68
18. C. Kalimantan	22,566.6	35,706.65	45,896.4	63,392.82
19. S. Kalimantan	37,666.7	23,193.78	66,661.8	38,689.38
20. E. Kalimantan	40,433.7	60,169.20	170,839.5	226,277.48
21. N. Sulawesi	33,672.3	21,111.16	43,890.2	24,951.79
22. C. Sulawesi	11,937.6	14,487.38	23,384.5	23,745.50
23. S. Sulawesi	71,179.2	14,295.89	125,251.4	23,803.00
24. S.E. Sulawesi	8,708.6	13,115.36	20,316.0	27,754.10
25. Maluku	13,497.0	13,688.64	46,803.4	41,640.04
26. Irian Jaya	12,120.0	13,931.03	35,381.1	37,599.97
Central Government	2,700.0	-	5,900.0	-
Indonesia	2,096,730.5	23,673.19	4,539,192.9	37,272.80

Source: Perhitungan Pendapatan Regional di Indonesia 1968-1972, FEIU, Jakarta, 1974 (Regional Income Calculation).

APPENDIX A.4
POPULATION MOBILITY, 1964

Region	Percentage of Population Living in Present Desa/Town for				
	1 Year	2 Years	3 Years	4 Years	5 Years
	Less Than				
					More Than
					5 Years
Java*					
Urban	3.0	6.0	8.6	10.6	12.1
Rural	1.2	2.4	3.2	3.8	4.5
Total	1.4	2.8	3.8	4.6	5.3
Outer-Islands**					
Urban	2.2	4.6	6.6	8.8	10.1
Rural	1.7	2.9	3.9	4.7	5.4
Total	1.8	3.1	4.3	5.2	6.0

Notes: * Excluding Jakarta Raya.

** Excluding East Nusa Tenggara, Maluku and West Irian.

Source: The National Sample Survey, 1964/65 (in McNicoll, 1968; 35).

APPENDIX A.5

LIFE-TIME IN- AND OUTMIGRATION BY PROVINCE, 1971

Province	Percent of 1971 Population		
	Inmigration	Outmigration	Net Migration
1. Aceh	3.0	2.3	- 0.3
2. North Sumatra	8.0	2.9	5.1
3. West Sumatra	3.1	11.6	- 8.5
4. Riau	12.5	2.6	9.9
5. Jambi	15.6	2.7	12.9
6. South Sumatra	9.5	5.8	3.7
7. Bengkulu	6.9	4.8	2.1
8. Lampung	36.1	1.1	35.0
9. DKI.Jakarta	39.7	2.9	36.8
10. West Java	1.7	5.5	- 3.8
11. Central Java	1.2	8.2	- 7.0
12. Yogyakarta	4.0	10.7	- 6.7
13. East Java	1.1	2.9	- 1.8
14. Bali	1.0	2.7	- 1.6
15. West Kalimantan	1.0	1.7	- 0.7
16. Central Kalimantan	7.1	1.6	5.5
17. South Kalimantan	3.9	5.0	- 1.1
18. East Kalimantan	5.4	3.3	2.2
19. North Sulawesi	2.8	3.5	- 0.7
20. Central Sulawesi	5.6	3.8	1.8
21. South Sulawesi	1.3	4.7	- 3.4
22. S. East Sulawesi	3.6	4.3	- 0.7
23. West Nusa Tenggara	1.5	0.6	0.9
24. East Nusa Tenggara	0.4	1.1	- 0.7
25. Maluku	3.9	3.4	0.5
26. Irian Jaya*	22.3	4.3	18.0
Total	4.8	4.8	0

Note: * Urban only. Based on the 1971 Population Census Series D, Table 23, pp.101-102.

Source: Alden Speare Jr, June 1975; 67.

APPENDIX B.1

DENSITY AND RATE OF GROWTH, SOUTH SUMATRA, 1961-1971

Regency/Municipality	Size (Km ²)	Population		Density		Rate of Growth (%)
		1961	1971	1961	1971	
<u>Regencies</u>						
MUBA	25,664	296,226	374,876	11	15	2.39
OKU	10,408	381,524	538,575	37	52	3.51
OKI	21,658	378,262	445,788	17	21	1.66
LIOT	9,575	332,456	363,769	35	38	0.90
LAHAT	4,034	310,035	372,821	77	92	1.87
MURA	21,513	185,693	252,420	9	12	3.12
BANGKA	11,614	251,639	303,804	22	26	1.90
BELITUNG	4,532	102,375	128,694	23	28	2.31
<u>Municipalities</u>						
Palembang	224	474,971	582,581	2120	2601	2.04
Pangkal Pinang	32	60,283	74,733	1884	2335	2.15
South Sumatra	109,254	2,773,462	3,438,061	25	31	2.15

Source: The 1961 Population Census, BSP and The 1971 Population Census, BPS, Jakarta.

APPENDIX B.2

NUMBER OF PERSONS LIVING IN OTHER PROVINCES AT THE TIME
OF THE 1971 CENSUS WHOSE PREVIOUS PROVINCE OF RESIDENCE
WAS SOUTH SUMATRA, BY DURATION OF RESIDENCE

Total Years	Number	Percentage
0	10,862	3.2
1	28,817	8.5
2	23,402	6.9
3	28,804	8.3
4	27,763	8.2
5	24,453	7.2
6	22,181	6.6
7	17,548	5.2
8	14,120	4.2
9	11,536	3.4
10+	118,179	34.9
Not Stated	11,435	3.4
Total	338,380	100.0

Source: The 1971 Population Census, BPS, Series 01-26,
Jakarta.

APPENDIX B.3
ESTIMATES OF NET MIGRATION BETWEEN SOUTH SUMATRA
AND OTHER PROVINCES (PLACE OF BIRTH DATA), 1971

Province	Immigrants	Outmigrants	Net Gain or Loss for South Sumatra
Aceh	1,002	563	+ 439
North Sumatra	4,399	3593	+ 806
West Sumatra	22,659	3833	+ 18,826
Riau	1,468	3449	- 1,981
Jambi	4,213	8465	- 4,252
Bengkulu	11,880	14,788	- 2,908
Lampung	9,394	78,798	- 69,404
DKI.Jakarta	9,943	46,828	- 36,885
West Java	67,222	15,203	+ 52,019
Central Java	117,698	9,017	+ 108,681
Yogyakarta	8,491	3,948	+ 4543
East Java	49,008	6,712	+ 42,296
Bali	402	435	- 33
West Nusa Tenggara	187	69	+ 118
East Nusa Tenggara	363	111	+ 252
West Kalimantan	602	215	+ 387
Central Kalimantan	0	250	- 250
South Kalimantan	414	540	- 126
East Kalimantan	590	142	+ 448
North Sulawesi	820	478	+ 342
Central Sulawesi	1,232	34	+ 1,198
South Sulawesi	14,686	865	+ 13,821
South East Sulawesi	129	125	+ 4
Maluku	373	199	+ 174
Irian Jaya*	137	400	- 263
Total**	327,312	199,060	+ 128,252

Notes: * Urban only. ** Foreign-born have been excluded.
Immigrants - those who were born in each province, enumerated in South Sumatra.
Outmigrants - those who were born in South Sumatra, enumerated in other provinces.

Source: The 1971 Population Census, Series E, No.1-26, Table 22, CBS, Jakarta.

APPENDIX B.4

ESTIMATES OF NET MIGRATION BETWEEN SOUTH SUMATRA
AND OTHER PROVINCES (PREVIOUS PLACE OF RESIDENCE DATA), 1971

Province	Inmigrants	Outmigrants	Net Migrants
Aceh	1,572	863	+ 709
North Sumatra	5,694	7,978	- 2,284
West Sumatra	20,121	3,126	+ 16,995
Riau	3,880	4,606	- 726
Jambi	10,270	13,357	- 3,087
Bengkulu	16,501	19,656	- 3,155
Lampung	29,354	99,623	- 70,269
DKI.Jakarta	23,462	55,810	- 32,348
West Java	73,568	53,114	+ 20,454
Central Java	113,568	43,939	+ 69,629
Yogyakarta	8,517	8,938	- 421
East Java	48,090	18,064	+ 30,026
Bali	556	2,703	- 2,147
West Nusa Tenggara	323	157	+ 166
East Nusa Tenggara	401	977	- 576
West Kalimantan	1,099	126	+ 973
Central Kalimantan	184	134	+ 50
South Kalimantan	919	644	+ 275
East Kalimantan	1,351	353	+ 998
North Sulawesi	414	1,187	- 773
Central Sulawesi	1,308	117	+ 1,191
South Sulawesi	11,867	1,855	+ 10,012
South East Sulawesi	203	405	- 202
Maluku	287	380	- 93
Irian Jaya*	312	268	+ 44
Total**	373,821	338,380	+ 35,441

Notes: * Urban only. ** Foreign born have been excluded.
 Inmigrants - those who came to South Sumatra with the previous places of residence in other provinces.
 Outmigrants - people who came to each province with the previous place of residence South Sumatra.

Source: The 1971 Population Census, Series E and D, CBS, Jakarta.

APPENDIX C.1

TRANSMIGRATION TO SOUTH SUMATRA BY AREAS OF ORIGIN, 1951-1972

Year	West Java	Central Java	Yogyakarta	East Java	Bali & Others	Total
1951	-	434	-	50	-	484
1952	84	2,593	594	1,223	-	4,494
1953	487	7,653	2,408	5,756	659	16,963
1954	1,360	4,504	1,459	4,220	993	12,536
1955	1,783	3,208	917	3,203	673	9,784
1956	1,856	7,484	3,038	7,176	478	20,032
1957	377	1,201	106	864	-	2,548
1958	2,130	6,692	1,979	6,578	2,012	19,391
1959	5,991	14,324	2,531	17,315	3,118	43,279
1960	-	-	-	-	-	-
1961	996	712	188	647	166	2,709
1962	1,079	6,963	1,295	2,800	604	12,741
1963	353	299	63	208	3,550	4,473
1964	-	-	-	-	726	726
1965	2,038	6,935	1,550	5,149	731	16,403
1966	-	-	-	-	-	-
1967	436	-	28	444	-	908
1968	-	982	798	102	-	1,882
1969/70	604	727	1,110	1,380	-	3,821
1970/71	621	1,123	770	1,138	574	4,226
1971/72	465	499	411	1,413	645	3,433

Source: Unpublished data by Directorate General of Transmigration, Jakarta.

APPENDIX D.1

DISTRIBUTION OF ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MIGRANTS BY INDUSTRY AND
OCCUPATION, IN PALEMBANG AND OKU, 1971

Industry	Occupational Status*								Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
<u>Palembang</u>									
1. Agriculture, Hunting, Forestry	0	0	218	0	43	1058	21	527	1635
2. Mining, Quarrying	190	42	443	0	445	0	740	0	1860
3. Manufacturing	379	568	869	152	1681	0	5168	21	8837
4. Electricity, Gas and Water	0	0	128	0	0	0	64	0	192
5. Construction	22	148	85	21	444	0	2191	0	2911
6. Wholesale, Retail, Trade, Restaurant and Hotel	0	44	451	17,827	494	0	233	22	19,071
7. Transport, Storage and Communication	42	86	1180	22	295	0	5463	0	7088
8. Financing, Insurance, R.E., and Business Services	22	64	430	0	66	0	21	0	603
9. Community, Social and Personal Services	2089	583	3794	275	7886	0	2537	42	17,206
10. Activities Not Adequately Defined	21	0	128	21	21	0	65	1315	1571
Total	2765	1535	7726	18,318	11,375	1058	16,503	1695	60,975
<u>OKU</u>									
1. Agriculture, Hunting, Forestry	0	0	0	0	0	67,317	0	401	67,718
2. Mining, Quarrying	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3. Manufacturing	0	0	0	0	100	0	1155	0	1255
4. Electricity, Gas and Water	0	0	0	0	0	0	51	0	51
5. Construction	0	0	0	0	0	0	352	0	352
6. Wholesale, Retail, Trade Restaurant and Hotel	0	0	0	2978	50	0	0	51	3079
7. Transport, Storage and Communication	0	0	0	0	0	0	356	0	356
8. Financing, Insurance, R.E., and Business Services	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9. Community, Social and Personal Services	959	101	709	0	405	0	455	0	2629
10. Activities Not Adequately Defined	0	0	0	0	0	50	0	200	250
Total	959	101	709	2978	555	67,367	2369	652	75,690

Notes: * Codes are the same as those used in Table 5.10.

Source: Unpublished data based on the 1971 Population Census, sample tapes.