To Awakening to reality

Available online at www.elixirpublishers.com (Elixir International Journal)

Agriculture

Elixir Agriculture 37 (2011) 3790-3797



Akeem Olawale Olaniyi¹, Ahmad Makmom Abdullah¹, Mohammad Firuz Ramli¹ and Alias Mohd Sood² ¹Department of Environmental Sciences, Faculty of Environmental Studies, University Putra Malaysia. 43400, Serdang, Darul Eshan, ²Department of Forest Production, Faculty of Forestry, University Putra Malaysia 43400, Serdang, Darul Eshan, Selangor, Malaysia.

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received: 8 June 2011; Received in revised form: 18 July 2011; Accepted: 28 July 2011;

Keywords

GDP (Gross Domestic Product), GNI (Gross National Income), ALU (Agricultural Land Use), SEF (Socio – Economic Factors).

ABSTRACT

A study is conducted to investigate the effects of socio economic factors on agricultural land use in Malaysia. Relevant socio – economic variables for the study were aggregated from the databases of various international and national agencies such as FAO, Index Mundi and Malaysian Departments of Agriculture and Statistics. These data were subjected to statistical analysis using stepwise regression method in SPSS version 18. Findings indicated that, relevant socio – economic factors in agricultural land use in Malaysia are available workforce in the population and their working conditions in the agricultural and non – agricultural sectors. This study has revealed that labour supply and their conditions of service are major factors in agricultural land use in Malaysia. This study further underscores the need for greater application labour saving technology in agricultural practices given the competition between agricultural and non – agricultural uses of available workforce in the population.

© 2011 Elixir All rights reserved.

Introduction

Malaysia is divided into three main regions: Peninsula Malaysia, Sabah and Sarawak. The approximate locations of the three regions are: Peninsula: $6^0 45^1$ and $1^0 20^1$ N latitudes and $99^0 40^1$ and $104^0 20^1$ E longitudes; Sabah: $4^0 00^1$ and $7^0 00^1$ N latitudes and $115^0 20^1$ and $119^0 20^1$ E longitudes and Sarawak: $0^0 50^1$ and $5^0 00^1$ N latitudes and $109^0 35^1$ and $115^0 40^1$ E longitudes. The neighbouring countries are Thailand and Brunei on the north and Singapore and Indonesia on the South. Figure 1 shows the location of Malaysia in relation to her Asian neighbours.



Fig. 1 Geographical location of Malaysia in relation to her Asian neighbours

Climatically, Malaysia, experiences heavy rainfall of about 2,540 to 5000mm per annum (Dale, 1959; Andriesse, 1968). The average daily temperatures and relative humidity are 21 - 32°C and 85 percent respectively (Nieuwolt, et al. 1982). Anon (1992) found that the topography of Peninsular Malaysia is characterized by the central mountain ranges running from north to south.

Malaysian soils are acidic and highly weathered Ultisols and Oxisols (International Board for Soil Research and Management - IBSRAM, 1985) of characteristically low pH (3.0 - 4.5); low base saturation; low Nitrogen, Sulphur, Molybdenum and Boron, Copper and Zinc (Nieuwolt, et al. 1982). Malaysia has a land area of 32.98 million ha with approximately 15.56

Tele:	
E-mail addresses:	aolibraheem2007@yahoo.com
	© 2011 Elixir All rights reserved

million ha (47 percent) of the land being arable. Of this arable land, Peninsula Malaysia has 8.10 million ha, Sarawak has 5.31 million ha while Sabah has 2.15 million ha.

However, since 1991, there has been inter crops and inter sectoral competition for land use meaning there have been changing land use between different crops and sectors of the economy to the extent that the future food security of the country is becoming threatened (DoA, 2003; Lim and Chan, 1993).

For, instance, analysis of the land use change by the Department of Agriculture, DoA between 1985 to 2010, as shown in Table 1, indicated that the land use by rubber, cocoa, coconut, paddy, pepper and tobacco has been reducing while the corresponding land use by vegetables and fruits have been increasing. This land use change have been motivated by change in the population's taste, income and improved standard of living (DoA, 2003).

Land use and cover changes cannot take place independently but have certain linkages with the human and natural activities that drives them (e.g., climate change). Understanding the dynamics of land use change has increasingly been recognised as one of the key research imperatives in global environmental studies (Lambin, et al. 1999; Geist, et al. 2001). The monitoring of such changes would be useful when it is accompanied by the understanding of the forces that propel the processes (Lambin, et al. 2000; Serneel, et al. 2001; Wu, et al. 2001). This task could be achieved by a statistical modelling, 'Panel analysis', which links the changes in dependent variables (land use) during a certain interval of time with the changes in independent variables (socio-economic factor) in the corresponding interval of time across a large number of localities (Lambin, 1994; Kok and Veldkamp, 2000; Wright and Samaniego, 2008).

This analysis postulates a linear relationship between the dependent and independent variables and can be expressed mathematically as follows (Kleinbaum, et al. 1976 and 1998; Lambin, 1994):

Y is the dependent variable,

 X_1, \dots, X_n are the independent variables,

 β_0 is a constant

 βn are regression coefficients and

 \mathcal{E} is the random error component.

The adjusted coefficient of \mathbb{R}^2 is a measure of the amount of variation in land use type that can be explained by the independent variables (driving factors). The standardized betas (coefficient) of the individual variables indicate the relative importance of a variable in the explanation of the percentage of a land use type relative to the other variables. In empirical land use analysis, spatial autocorrelation (Anselin, 2002; Munroe et al. 2002) due to trends of the underlying factors, land tenure structure, agglomeration effects and imitation among farmers (Verburg, et al. 2004) and multicolinearity between drivers of land use can be minimized by applying stepwise regression analysis and variables that show multicolinearity will be removed from the regression equation (Kok and Veldkamp, 2000).

Few studies have been conducted on land use and its potential driving forces in Malaysia (Othman, et al. 2009; Kamaruzaman, 2009). The existing works were carried out on small study area thereby making the generalization of their findings for entire Malaysia unacceptable. This study is, therefore, conducted to take a country - wide look at the socio economic variables affecting agricultural land-use in Malaysia in order to gain a better understanding of the factors and thus provide essential knowledge for taking appropriate policy actions in achieving sustainable agricultural land use in the study area.

Literature Review

The studies of land use dynamics make important research in the academic and political circles. For instance, the study of implication of agricultural land use (ALU) change is very crucial in that, if the amount of land to be converted to non agricultural uses under the expected economic and population growth is too high, a threat to food security may occur. (Brown, 1995). Therefore policy makers may ask the urban land planners to create an alternative plan for the foreseen urbanization and population expansion (Xiangzheng, et al. 2009).

Human use of land for cropping, forestry and urbanization affects the structure, functioning and the interactions between ecosystems components and is capable of causing global environmental change and threats to global food security (Vitousek, et al. 1992; Brown, 1995; Turner, et al. 1994).

Modelling of the land use change taking cognizance of the socio-economic drivers provides opportunity for exploring the extent and location of land use and its effects (Verburg, et al. 1999).

Land use is a result of the complex interaction between human and biophysical driving forces that acted over the spatio temporal scales (Verburg, et al. 1999).

While it is easy to measure LU at a given site and relating this to their spatio temporal drivers, it is however, difficult to aggregate these changes at a regional or global scales because aggregated assessments obscure the local variability of geographical situation and lead to underestimation of the effects of LU for certain region (Verburg, et al. 1999).

Drivers of Land Use Change

Several literatures exist on the proximate drivers of land use and land use change processes. (Angelsen and Kaimowitz, 1999; Cunha da Costa R., 2004) arable land conversion (Xie, et al. 2005), pasture expansion (Wassenaar, et al. 2007), methodological challenges (Busch, 2006; Lambin et al. 2001; Burgi et al. 2004) and development of land – use indicators (Farrow and Winograd, 2001). Five major types of driving forces that influence landscape development have been identified by (Hesperger and Burgi, 2007; Verburg, et al. 2004; Geist and Lambin, 2002) as follows:

- natural: soil characteristics and drainage conditions;

- socio-cultural: demography, lifestyle and historical events;

- economic: market structure, accessibilities and consumer demands;

- political: policies e.g. nature conservation and infrastructure development;

- technological: mechanization,

Population Growth

Population distribution and associated demographic is considered important factors affecting land use distribution. Population growth has been cited severally as the proxies of drivers of land use and land cover changes ((Bilsborrow and Okoth Ogondo, 2005; Turner, et al. 1993; Heilig, 1994). The need to supply food, infrastructures and housing to the teaming population will lead to the development of new townships in fallow land around the existing cities (Mahapatra and Kant, 2005) and its main effect is to cause cropland encroachment on forestland and related resource degradation (Yin and Li, 2001). Population parameters are commonly expressed in form of age, location and activities distribution, the rate of change by age, location and activities over time, mortality and fertility rate, level of education, dependency ratio etc

Agricultural Growth

Growth in agricultural production in developing countries are either accomplished by expansion of the agricultural areas or intensification. Barraclough and Ghimire, 1995; DoA, 2003; Wunder, 2000; have identified commercial agriculture, farm settlement schemes, cattle ranching and shifting cultivation as the major sources of agricultural expansion to new areas in Malaysia. Investment in agriculture has also been argued to be an important variable in agricultural land use because agricultural investment is a proxy for the value of agricultural land. (Firman, 199; Seto and Kaufmann, 2003). This variable is captured by specifying the amount of land use per agricultural activities relative to non - agricultural uses, the physical condition and chemical characteristics of the sites occupied by agricultural activities etc.

Economic Growth

Theories have been postulated that economic growth is capable of having either positive or negative influence on ALU. For instance, if the economy is stagnating, people tend to explore land resources wantonly for survival (Limey, 1997; Myrdal, 1957 and Brundtland, 1987) and conversely, economic growth tends to create land intensive activities (Angelson, 1999), therefore, increase in income will reduce pressure on land use (Rudel and Roper, 1997) or otherwise, increasing income can increase the demand for agricultural and forest products (vegetables and fruits – due to change in taste) for domestic and industrial uses (Kant and Redntz, 1997), and hence lead to the expansion of the agricultural land (Mahapatra and Kant, 2005). Therefore there is the need to study the specific situation to be able to explain the effect of growing or stagnating economy on agricultural land use change. Economic growth in land use analysis is usually expressed by the GDP or GNI per capita and the percentage change of GDP and GNI per capita over time.

Labour Dynamics

Urbanization can be perceived as a break from Malthusian dependence on natural resources to that of less dependence on natural ecosystem and the start of modern economic growth (Lucas, 2000). This further entails a variety of contemporaneous changes, such as rising productivity, sectoral shifts in employment, output, expenditure, and demographic transition (decrease in mortality and fertility and the age structure of the population) (Kuznets, 1973; Williamson, 1988). Economic growth initiates urbanization which further results to the release of worker from farm activities to non-farm activities. Therefore, as the national economy progresses, there is a movement of workers from agricultural sector to non agricultural sectors and this has great implication for a land use dynamics. Therefore, in land use analysis labour related variables are captured in form of the ratio of labour engaged, the return per unit labour and the rate of change of labour engaged in farm and non - farm activities.

Road Development

Road development has been considered as an important factor in land use and land cover change because of its direct and indirect effects on land cover changes. The opening of a new area for new roads results to increased accessibility, reduction in transportation cost and land speculation and hence the development of land areas around and along the fringes of the roads which might hitherto undeveloped (Schneider, 1995). Road density (km road per km2 land mass) is commonly used measure to capture this variable in a land use study.

Methodology

The method adopted in the research is shown graphically in Figure 2. The country-level land use data (dependent variable) and the corresponding socio-economic data (independent variables) from 1965 to 2007 were aggregated and imputed into SPSS version 18, a software for multivariate analysis. Taking into account different land use as dependent and socio-economic data as independents variables, within a confidence level of 0.05. Data on various land use types in Malaysia were obtained from on-line databases of the FAO Statistics Division (FAOSTAT, 2004), the Global Forest Assessment database (FAOSTAT, 2001), and the Global Land Cover Facility (GLCF, 2002). Studies on land use and land cover changes have applied the variable as both quantitative (absolute land area under different uses - discrete variable) and qualitative variable (as a percentage of every land use type over total landmass continous) but the use of percentage of each use type/total land mass can be a better because this make the variable to be comparable over time. Therefore, land-use patterns were derived from these data by converting all the data into percentages of total area and these were constructed into 8 land-use types: builtup land, permanent crops, permanent pasture, nonpermanent arable land, timber plantations, natural forest, nonarable land, and water surface. Non - arable land was calculated as the remainder of total land area and land types.

Socio - economic data were aggregated from the Malaysian Department of Statistics 1965 to 2007. The list of socio – economic data employed in this study is shown in Table 2.

Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to evaluate the null hypothesis that SEF has no effect on ALU. The hypothetical

socio-economic (SEF) drivers of agricultural land use (ALU) are investigated with multiple regression methods. First, the most important land use drivers (independent variables) for different land use types (dependent variables) are selected from a set of hypothetically important variables by means of stepwise regression. The selected significant variables are then used to construct multiple regression models.





multiple regression models was built to interactively minimize collinearity among the independent variables in the final model. The initial regression models included all independent variables. Independent variables with the least significant regression coefficients (largest P-values) were then successively removed. Collinearity was evaluated when all remaining regression coefficients were significant. If collinearity was present, multiple regression models was compared for all possible combinations of the collinear independent variables and selected the final model to minimize collinearity (all condition indices < 15) and maintain the adjusted squared multiple R. Of these models, the adjusted coefficient of determination is a measure for the amount of variation in the type of land use that can be explained by the respective independent variable. The standardized betas of the individual variables indicate the relative importance of a variable in the explanation of the land use type relative to the other variables.

Discussion of the Results

The results of the multiple linear regression of the land use on the independent variables are presented in the Table 3. The result clearly indicated that there is very high correlation between agricultural land use (ALU) and the socio economic factors. For all the land use types (LUT) considered, the adjusted R^2 is between 0.691 and 1.000 indicating that the independent variables considered adequately explained the dependent variables.

From Table 3, agricultural land use (ALU) is shown to be negatively correlated with workers on rubber plantation. This shows that the ALU is majorly impacted by labour scarcity and this equation suggest that labour are being released from rubber plantation into other agricultural practices particularly now when the cultivation of rubber is not popular with Malaysian government. In order to underscore the importance of labour scarcity in plantation agriculture, report from Malaysian Department of Agriculture DoA, (1998) indicated that about 400,000 hectares of agricultural land were idle and about 300,000 hectares of rubber holdings were untapped and 30,000 hectares of oil palm were not fully harvested between 1998 – 2010. The reason for this because a unit labour has a higher economic returns in the manufacturing sector than in the agricultural sector. For instance, it had been documented that labour productivity in agriculture is only about 60 per cent of the labour productivity in the manufacturing sector (DoA, 1998). $Y_1 = 8641.379 - 19.135$

X₁.....(2) (0.933)

Furthermore, the regression estimate of permanent crop shows that permanent crop is positively correlated with agricultural area. Indicating that the permanent crop will occupy 70.1% of every new agricultural area cultivated. There is the need to address this trend of growing permanent crops to the detriment of food crops. This trend has been identified as the cause of rising food import bill, DoA, (1998). Though it has been found that it is economical for Malaysia to import food (rice) however, it will be dangerous for a country to over – depend on importation for her food supply particularly that the global supply is limited with competition among buyers and uses.

 $Y_2 = 239.542 + 0.701 X_2$ (3) (0.999) The regression estimate of forestry shows that forestry is positively correlated with workers on rubber plantation. This is an indication of the successful practice of agro – forestry between rubber and forestry and lately there is a consensus among the scientific communities that categorises some tree crops such as rubber plantation as a forest. $Y_{3} = 5417.212 + 9.968 X_1$ (4) (0.786)

 $Y_4 = -1.09E7 + 843.995 X_3....(5) (0.983)$

The regression estimate for cocoa plantation showed that cocoa cropping is positively correlated with workers on cocoa plantation an indication that labours force play a crucial role in cocoa farm land use. Although it is recognized that labour force participation generally declines as age increases. Yet, the economic activities of the present elderly still mirror the past, in which agriculture was the major sector providing the greatest number of jobs and 62 per cent of older persons worked in the agricultural sector MDoS, (1991).

 $Y_9 = 1508.251 + 6.699 X_6 \dots (6) (0.963)$

The regression estimate of coffee output shows that coffee output is positively correlated with improved condition of service by workers in the country. This relationship cannot be easily explained

 $Y_7 = -4.767E7 + 194674.401X_4....(7)(0.871)$

The regression estimate of rubber plantation shows that rubber cultivation is negatively correlated with improved standard of living of the populace. This is an indication that as far as other potential users/competitors for labour are ready to offer better working conditions, there will continue to be reduction of labour engaged in rubber cultivation and hence reduction in rubber plantation farm land use. DoA, (1998) identified that labour productivity in agriculture is only about 60 per cent of the labour productivity in the manufacturing sector implying intense competition between agriculture and the manufacturing sectors for labour demand.

 $Y_5 = 1249.825 - 2.700X_4....(8) (0.993)$

The regression estimate of rice output shows that rice output is positively correlated with ratio of women work force in total available labour is an indication women labour dominates rice farming in Malaysia and future land use in rice cultivation is greatly depend on available women in the agricultural labour. $Y_{10} = -4982786.79 + 1.771E7 X_7.....(9) (0.925)$

The regression estimate of coconut output shows that coconut output is negatively correlated with the size of arable farmland is an indication of competition between coconut farm and arable farming with forestry plantation.

 $Y_6 = 867589.767 - 551.914 X_5....(10) (0.920)$

The regression estimate of tobacco cultivation shows that tobacco output is negatively correlated with the size of rubber plantation is an indication of competition between rubber farm and tobacco farming for farmland.

 $Y_{11} = 304686.6 - 33.819X_8$(11) (0.926) The regression estimate of oil palm shows that oil palm output is positively correlated with the age distribution of the population is an indication that most people in oil palm plantation are in the last category of age of age group in the population.

 $Y_8 = -7834528.7 + 194674.401X_3$ (12) (0.993)

The economic activities of the present elderly cohort still mirror the past economic structure of Malaysia, in which agriculture was the major sector providing the greatest number of jobs and 62 per cent of older persons worked in the agricultural sector (1991 Census).

When all the selected socio – economic variables by stepwise regression analysis are imputed into the equation simultaneously as shown in the second section of Table 4, the result indicated that labour availability were identified a major factor in ALU in Malaysia as expressed in this relationship

 $Y_{17} = 0.181 + 0.002 X_{15} + 0.007 X_{16} - 0.409 X_{17}$(13) (1.00) The above result clearly indicates that ALU in Malaysia will continue to be a function of availability of labour but the return per every labour input in agricultural production (productivity per labour in terms of RM/labour) will still influence the readiness of labour to be engaged in agricultural production given the competing non – agricultural labour use.

The regression analyses of the change in rubber farm show a negative relationship with road density.

Indicating that the change in rubber farm is affected by the road density in the country as expressed in the relation below:

 $Y_{12} = 67.875 - 0.001 X_9 \dots (14) (0.782)$ The regression analysis of the change in oil palm land use is positively related to the male population labour force.

This clearly indicates that the change in oil palm farm is affected by the work force ratio of the population as expressed in the relation below:

 $Y_{13} = 0.000 + 33.049 X_{10} \dots (15) (0.855)$

The regression analysis shows a negative correlation between changes in ALU with dependent age category. This shows that as category in dependent age group increases, the ALU decreases as expressed in the relation below:

 $Y_{14} = 0.402 - 0.258 X_{11} \dots (16) (0.592)$

In the past, durning the colonial era, the colonial masters had to organised a massive inflow of immigrant labour in order to meet production schedules in mining and plantation agriculture (Bussink, 1980).

The regression analysis of the change in non - ALU indicates a negative relationship with ALU.

This is an indication of a serious competition between agricultural and non – agricultural land uses as expressed in the relation below:

 $Y_{15} = 0.158 - 1.906 X_{12}$ (17) (0.951)

The regression analysis of the change in ALU indicates a negative relation with non - ALU as expressed in the relation below:

$$\begin{split} Y_{16} &= 0.121 - 0.509 \; X_{13}....(18) \; (0.952) \\ \textbf{Conclusions} \end{split}$$

The socio – economic factors SEF affecting agricultural land use ALU in Malaysia has been investigated with the use of regression analysis. The study underscores the importance of availability of labour in ALU in Malaysia and intensive cultivation of tree crops at the expense of food crops. The new approach for increased agricultural and food production in Malaysia is through intensification of production and application of science and technology.

Moreso, efforts should be geared at increasing the productivities of the smallholders farmers by encouraging group farming. Application of technology for the successful cultivation of marginal Lands.

The efforts at encouraging migrant labour from neighboring countries should be concretized and permanent food production zone should be identified and gazzetted while the introduction of Agro-Technology Parks such as mechanized operations, precision control of inputs should be accelerated.

References

Andriesse J P. A study of the environment and characteristics of podzols occurring in the tropical lowland of Sarawak (East Malaysia). In: Andriesse, J.P. (ed). Proceedings of the 3rd Malaysian Soil Conference. May 1968. Kuching, Sarawak, Malaysia.1968.

Anon A. Agroclimatic and crop zone classification of Malaysia. UNDP/World Meteorological Organization. Project MAL/08/009. 1992.

Angelsen A, Kaimowitz D. Rethinking the causes of deforestation: lessons from economic models. The World Bank Research Observer, , IBRD/World Bank. 1999; 14 (1): 73 – 98.

Anselin L. Under the hood: Issues in the specification and interpretation of spatial regression models. Agricultural Economics. 2002; (27):247–267.

Barraclough SL, Ghimire KB, Forests and Livelihoods. Macmillian Press Ltd, UNRISD. 1995.

Bilsborrow RE, Okoth Ogondo WKY. The use of a multi-level statistical model to analyze factors influencing land use: A study of the Ecuadorian Amazon. Global and Planetary Change. 2005. Brown LR. Who will feed China ? wake up call for a small

planet. The worldwatch environmental series, New York. 1995. Bruntland Commission on Environment and Development. Our

common future, Oxford University Press, Oxford. 1987.

Burgi M, Hersperger AM, Schneeberger N. Driving forces of landscapes change – current and new directions. Landscape Ecology. 2004; (19): 857 – 868.

Busch G. Future European agricultural landscapes - what can we learn from existing quantitative land use scenario studies ? Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment. 2006; 114 (1) :121 – 140.

Bussink WCF, Young K, Hasan P. Malaysia: Growth and Equity. The John Hopkins University Press. 2006: 345.

Cunda da Costa R.. Potential for producing bio fuel in the Amazon deforested areas, Biomass and Bioenergy. 2004; 26 (5): 405 - 415.

Dale W L. The rainfall of Malaya - Part I. Journal of Tropical Geography. 1959; (13): 30-32.

Dumnaski J, Pettapiece W W, McGregor RJ. . Relevance of scale dependent approaches for integrating biophysical and socio

economic information and development of agro ecological indicators. Nutrient Cycling in Agroecosystems 1998; (50): 13 - 22.

Eastling WE. Why regional studies are needed in development of full scale integrated assessment modeling of global change processes. Global Environmental Change 1997; (7): 337 – 356.

Food and Agricultural Organisation. Unpublished material underlying the FAO report Bruinsma, J (Eds), World Agriculture: Towards 2015/2030 – an FAO Perspective. Earthscan /FAO, London/ Rome. 2004.

Food and Agricultural Organisation. Forest resources assessment 2000. Online: http://www.fao.org/forestry/fo/fra.FAO, Rome, Italy. 2001.

Farrow A, Winograd M. Land use modelling at the regional scale: an input to rural sustainability indicators for Central America, Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment. June 2001; 85 (1-3): 249-268.

Firman T. Land conversion and urban development in the northern region of West Java, Indonesia, Urban Studies. 1997; 34 (7): 1027 – 1046.

Geist H, Lambin EF. What drives tropical deforestation ? LUCC Report Series No. 4, LUCC International Project Office,

University of Louvain. 2001.

Geist HJ, Lambin EF. Proximate causes and underlying driving forces of tropical deforestation. BioScience. 200; 252(2):143–150. International Board for Soil Research and Management. 1985.

Jarvis PG. Prospects for bottom - up models. Pages 115 - 126 in: Ehleringer J.R. and C.B. Field (Eds) Scaling physiological processes. Leaf to globe. Academic Press, San Diego, USA. 1993.

Kamaruzaman J. Sustainable management of mature oil palm plantation in UPM Campus, Malaysia Using Airborne Remote Sensing. Journal of Sustainable Development. . 2009; 2 (3): 14 -25.

Kant S, Rednatz A. An econometric model of tropical deforestation. Journal of Forest Economics. 1997; (3): 51 – 86.

Kleinbaum DG, Kupper LL, Muller KE, Nizam A. Applied regression analysis and other multivariable methods. Duxbury Press,1998: 111-119.

Kok K, Veldkamp TA.. Using the CLUE framework to model changes in land use on multiple scales in tools for land use analysis on different scales with case studies for Costa Rica. 35 - 64 in: Tools for Land Use Analysis on Different Scales with Case Studies for Costa Rica (Eds) Kluwer Academic Publishers. 2000: 274.

Lai KC, Devendra C, Hashim MY, Djafar MJ, Jegathesan S. Preliminary findings of a study on buffalo and cattle rearing in the Muda area. MARDI Report 1973: (3): 3 - 15

Lambin EF, Serneel S. Proximate cause of land-use change in Narok District, Kenya: a spatial statistical model, Agriculture, Ecosystem and Environment. 2001; (85): 65-81.

Lambin EF. Land cover assessment and monitoring, in WILEY, J. Encyclopedia of Analytical Chemistry. 2000.

Lambin EF. Land use and land cover change (LUCC) Implementation Strategy, IGBP Report 48 and IHDP Report 10, IGBP, 1999.

Lambin EF. Modelling deforestation processes (A Review), Tropical ecosystem environment observations by satellites, TREES series B: Research Report n°1, EUR15744EN. 1994: 45-101. Levin SA. Concepts of scale at the local level. Pages 7 - 19 in: Ehleringer J.R. and C.B. Field (Eds) Scaling physiological processes. Leaf to globe. Academic Press, San Diego, USA. 1993.

Lim JS, Chan YK. Steep land in Peninsular Malaysia: Present utilization and future. 1993.

Lumely S. The environment and the ethics of discounting: an empirical analysis. Ecological Economics. 1997; (20): 71 - 82.

Malaysian Department of Agriculture. "Highlands Development Plan for Cameron Highland District", Report by Soil Management Division. 2003.

Malaysia Department of Agriculture. Third National Agriculture Policy, Government of Malavsia, 1999.

Malaysian Department of Statistics, Malaysia. Malaysia: Educational levels of older persons, 1970 – 2020. 1998.

Malaysian Department of Statistics, Malaysia. Older persons' marital status by sex and age group, 1991 and 2000. 2001.

Malaysian Economic Planning Unit. Land capability classification in West Malaysia, Prime Minister's Department, Kuala Lumpur. 1967.

Mertens B, Lambin EF. Spatial modelling of deforestation in Southern Cameroon: spatial disaggregation of diverse deforestation processes, Applied Geography. 1997; (17): 143-162.

Mertens B. Sunderlin WD, Ndoye O, Lambin EF. Impact of macroeconomic change on deforestation in South Cameroon: Integration of household survey and remotely sensed data. World Development. 2000; 28 (6): 983-999.

Munroe DK, York AM. Jobs, houses and trees: changing regional structure, local land - use patterns and forest cover in Southern Indiana. Growth and Change. 2003; 34 (3): 299 – 320.

Myrdal G. Economic theory and under - developed regions. In: Duckworth, G., London. 1957.

Nieuwolt S. Climate and Agricultural Planning (Special Report). Serdang: MARDI. 1992.

Nieuwolt S, Zaki GM. Gopinathan B. Agroecological regions in Peninsular Malaysia, MARDI, Selangor. 1982: 20.

Olsson O, Hibbs DA. Biogeography and long-run economic development. European Economic Review. 2005; 49 (4): 909 -938.

Othman J, Sarifah SAM, Sood AM. Land use and deforestation: modelling of river catchments in Klang Valley, Malaysia. Sains Malaysiana. 2009; 38 (5): 655 - 664.

Putterman L. Agriculture, diffusion and development: Ripple effects of the Neolithic revolution. Ecocnomica. 2008; 75 (300): 729 - 748.

Rosswall T, Woodmansee RG, Risser PG. (Eds), Scales and global change. Spatial and temporal variability in biospheric and geospheric processes. SCOPE 35, John Wiley & Sons Ltd, Chichester, UK. 1998. P. 328 - 355.

Rudel TK, Roper J.. The path to rain forest destruction: cross national patterns of tropical deforestation 1975 - 1990. World Development. 1997 (25): 53 - 65.

Schoorl JM, Veldkamp A, Fresco LO. The conversion of land use and its effects (CLUE-CR), a regression based model applied to Costa Rica (Pascal version 1.2). Quantitative Approaches in Systems Analysis No. 8. AB-DLO/C.T. de Wit Graduate School of Production Ecology. Wageningen, The Netherlands. 1997: (51).

Serneel S, Lambin EF. Proximate cause of land-use change in Narok District, Kenya: a spatial statistical model, Agriculture, Ecosystem and Environment. 2001; (85) 65-81.

Seto KC, Kaufmann RK. Modelling the drivers of urban land use in the Pearl River Delta, China: intergrating remote sensing with socioeconomic data, Land Economics. 2003; (79): 106 -121.

SAS Institute Inc. SAS/STAT Software, Release 8.2. Changes and enhancements. Technical Report. Carv, NC, USA. 2004.

Tunku, M., Tunku, Y. B., Crop Diversification in Malaysia. serial on the Internet]. 2010 [cited 2011 June 7]; 102(6): [about 8 p.]. Available from http:// www.fao.org/DOCREP/003/X6906E/X6906e08.htm.

Turner BL, Skole DL. Sanderson S, Fischer G, Fresco LO, Lemans R. Land-useand land-cover change science/research plan. IGBP Report No. 35; HDP Report No. 7. IGBP, Stockholm, Sweden. 1995.

Turner BL, Ross RH, Skole DL. Relating land use and global land cover change. IGBP Report No. 24; IHDP Report No. 5. 1994.

Veldkamp A, Fresco LO. CLUE: A conceptual model to study the conversion of land use and its effects. Ecological Modelling. 1996; (85): 253 - 270.

Veldkamp A, Fresco LO. Exploring land use scenarios, an alternative approach based on actual land use, Agricultural Systems. 1997; (55): 1-17.

Verburg PH, de Koning GHJ, Kok K, Veldkamp A, Bouma J. A spatial explicit allocation procedure for modelling the pattern of land use change based upon actual land use. Ecological Modellin.g 1999; (116): 45-61.

Verburg PH, Schot P, Dijst M, Veldkamp ALand use change modelling: Current practice and research priorities. Geojournal . 2004; 61 (4): 309–324.

Vitousek P. Global environmental change: An Introduction. Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics. 1992; (23): 1-14.

Wassenaar T, Geber P, Verburg PH, Rosales M, Ibrahim M, Steinfeld H. Projecting land use in the Neotropics: The geography of pasture expansion into forest, Global Environmental Change. 2007; 17 (1): 86 - 104.

Wright SJ, Samaniego M J. Historical, demographic, and economic correlates of land-use change in the Republic of Panama. Ecology and Society. 2008; 13 (2): 17.

Wu J, Ransom MD, Kluitenberg WG, Nellis MD, Seyler HL. Land use management using soil survey geographic database for Finey County, Kansas. Soil Science Society of America. 2001; (65): 169 - 177.

Williamson J G. Migration and urbanization. In H. Chenery and T. Srinivasan (Eds.), Handbook of Development Economics. Elsevier. 1988; 1 (11 – 23): 425 - 465.

Wunder I. Ecuador suffers the highest deforestation rate in South America. Mosnadl, R. et al. 2008. In gradients in a tropical Mountain Ecosystem of Ecuador. Ecological Studies. 2000;198.

Xiangheng D, Jikun H, Scott R, Emi U. 2009. Economic growth and the expansion of urban land in China urban studies. 2010 47: 813 http:usj.sagepub.com/content/47/4/813 serial on the Internet]. 2009 [cited 2011 Jun 7]: [about 15 p.]. Available from http://www.sagepublications.com

Xie Y, Mei Y, Guanjin T, Xuerong X. Socio economic forces of arable land conversion: A case study of Wuxian city China. Global Environmental Change. 2005; (15): 238 - 252.

Yin, H, Li, C. Human impact on floods and flood disasters on the Yangtze River, Geomorphology 41. 2001; (2-3): 105-109.

		,					/
Period	1985 – 1990	1990 – 1995	1985 - 1995 - 1995 - 2000	2000 - 2005	2005 - 2010	1995 - 2010	
Rubber	-1.2	-1.8	-1.5	-1.5	-2.2	-3.2	-2.3
Oil Palm	6.5	4.6	5.5	4.3	2	1	2.4
Cocoa	6.6	-14.6	-4.6	-3	-0.5	0	-1.2
Paddy	0.8	-0.2	0.3	-5	-1.8	-1.	-2.6
Coconut	-1.1	-4.6	-2.9	-3	-2	-1.9	-2.3
Pepper	16.3	-2.4	6.6	-2	-1.6	-1	-1.5
Vegetable	es 2.1	3.7	2.9	2.7	5.7	6.2	4.9
Fruits	6.4	4.7	5.6	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5
Tobacco	-8.8	0.6	-4.2	-2.4	-3.5	-4.5	-3.5
Others	0.1	0.9	0.5	1.4	0.9	3.1	1.8
Source: Economic Planning Unit, Ministry of Agriculture (cited by Tunku, M., Tunku, Y.B., 2010)							

Table: 1 Agricultural Land Use Change in Malaysia from 1985 – 2010 ('000ha)

Table 2. Potential Socio -	Economic Factors	Affecting ALU
Table 2. I otenual boelo -	Economic Factors	Antening ADO.

Table 2. Totential Socio – Economic Factors Affecting ALC.					
Independent variables		Measured by			
Agric area		% agric area of total land mass			
Arable farm land use		% arable area of total agric area			
Rubber, Forestry, Cocoa, Oil Palm, workers					
Rubber, Forestry, Cocoa, Oil Palm, efficiencies					
Cars per 1000 persons (condition of service)					
% change in agric land use					
% change in non agric land use					
% of forest land use					
% change in population of age group 0 -14 years old					
% change in population of age group 15 - 64 years old	l				
% change in population of age group 65 years and above	ve old				
% change in fishery workers					
% change in non – agric workers					
% workers in primary industry					
% workers in secondary industry					
% workers in tertiary industry					
Age category					
Road density					
Population density					
Change in gross farm product per agric worker					
Change in gross farm product per unit farmland					
GDP	GDP/capita				
GNI	GNI/Capita				
Total Expenditure/year					
Government expenditure/year					
Private expenditure/year					

Tuble of Result of Multivariate Marijshs of Socio - Beonomie Factors (SEF) of Agricultura Bana Ose (MEC) in Manajsha									
Dependent variables	Final independent variables	Constant	Parameter Estimate	Std Error	Std coeff	df	F	Pr > F	Adj R ²
Agric Land Use	Rubber workers	8641.379	-19.135	1.002	-0.97	1	364.637	0.000	0.933
_									
Permanent crops	Agric area	239.542	0.701	0.01	1.000	1	4953.421	0.000	0.999
Forest (ha)	Rubber worker	5417.212	9.968	2.266	0.910	1	19.351	0.012	0.786
Oil palm (ha)	Age >/= 15yrs	-1.097E7	843.955	3.860	0.996	1	477.902	0.000	0.983
Rubber (ha)	Workers condition of service	1249.825	-2.700	0.101	-0.997	1	714.137	0.000	0.993
Coconut output	Arable farm land	867589.767	-551.914	1.064	-0.965	1	54.739	0.002	0.920
Coffee output	Workers condition of service	-4.767E7	194674.401	3.295	0.947	1	34.891	0.004	0.871
Oil palm output	Age above sixty five	-7834528.7	19511.8	8.037	0.997	1	589.363	0.000	0.990
Cocoa output	Cocoa area	1508.251	6.699	2.725	0.985	1	132.693	0.000	0.963
Rice output	Female employed/labour force	-4982786.790	1.771E7	3.423	0.933	1	26.755	0.007	0.925
Tobacco output	Rubber farm land	30468.6	-33.819	1.930	-0.974	1	74.952	0.001	0.926
Change in rubber farm	Road density in Malaysia	67.875	-0.001	0.000	-0.909	1	18.960	0.012	0.782
Change in oil palm farm	Male labour force	-	33.049	7.116	0.937	1	36.244	0.002	0.855
Change in agric land use	Change in pop of 0 - 14	0.402	-0.258	0.099	-0.821	1	8.252	0.045	0.592
%change in non- agric LU	% change in agric LU	0.158	-1.906	0.192	-0.985	1	98.644	0.002	0.951
% change in agric land use	% change in non agric area	0.121	-0.509	0.051	-0.985	1	98.644	0.002	0.952
Change in Agric Land Use	% change in fishery workers	0.181	0.002						1.000
including all the variables	% change in RM/workers		0.007						
into the equation at once	% change in non – agric		-0.409						
-	workers								

Table 3: Result Of Multivariate Analysis Of Socio – Economic Factors (SEF) Of Agricultural Land Use (ALU) In Malaysia

Table 4: Actual Socio – Economic Factors (SEF) Affecting Agricultural Land Use (ALU) In Malavsia

D 1 (11	T 1 1 4 11	
Dependent variables	Independent variables	Regression Method
$Y_1 = Agricultural land use$	$X_1 = $ Rubber workers	stepwise
Y_2 = Permanent crops land use	$X_2 = Agric area$	"
$Y_3 =$ Forest land use	$X_1 =$ Rubber worker	دد
$Y_4 = Oil palm$	$X_3 = Age category$	دد
$Y_5 = Rubber$	$X_4 = Cars per 1000 persons (condition of service)$	دد
$Y_6 = Coconut$ output	$X_5 =$ Arable farm land	دد
$Y_7 = Coffee output$	$X_4 = Cars per 1000 persons (condition of service)$	دد
$Y_8 = Oil palm output$	$X_3 = Age category$	دد
$Y_9 = Cocoa output$	$X_6 = Cocoa area$	٠٠
$Y_{10} = Rice output$	X ₇ =Female employed/labour force	٠٠
$Y_{11} = Tobacco output$	$X_8 =$ Rubber farm	٠٠
Y_{12} = Change in rubber farm	$X_9 = Road density$	"
Y_{13} = Change in oil palm farm	$X_{10} =$ Male labour force	٠٠
Y_{14} = Change in agric land use	X_{11} = Change in working population	٠٠
$Y_{15} = $ % change in non- agric area	X_{12} = % change in agric area	"
$Y_{16} = \%$ change in agric area	X_{13} = % change in non agric area	٠٠
Y_{17} = Change in agric area	$X_{15} = \%$ change in fishery workers	enter
-	$X_{16} = \%$ change in RM/workers	
	$X_{17} = \%$ change in non – agric	workers