



The Effect of Migration, Land Conversion, and Village Funds on Strengthening Agricultural Economy and Reducing Rural Poverty in Indonesia

Nur Imam Saifuloh, Nursini, Sabir, Anas Iswanto Anwar

Department of Economics, Faculty of Economics and Business, Hasanuddin University, Makassar, Indonesia

Received: November 10, 2022 ▪ Reviewed: November 25, 2022

▪ Accepted: December 22, 2022 ▪ Published: January 30, 2023

Abstract:

This study examines the problem of rural poverty, which shows a more severe picture than urban poverty in terms of the number of poor people, poverty depth, and severity. The agricultural sector drives economic activity in rural areas, so this variable is used as a medium to reduce existing poverty problems. To uncover this problem, we collected secondary data from all provinces in Indonesia except DKI Jakarta Province. The data were then analyzed using a structural model through R software. The results of this study revealed that the agricultural sector could not reduce rural poverty. Migration has reached its peak, so many people who migrate do not necessarily reduce rural poverty. This situation is exacerbated by the massive conversion of agricultural land to industry. If the government wants to reduce rural poverty, it should be serious about improving the agricultural sector so that it grows, is competitive, and of high quality, not just giving village funds to every village. It aims to balance the structure of the economy and labor in addition to highlighting Indonesia's specific traits as an agricultural nation.

Keywords: migration, land conversion, village fund, agriculture, rural poverty.

移民、土地转用和村庄基金对加强印度尼西亚农业经济和减少农村贫困的影响

摘要:

本研究考察了农村贫困问题，农村贫困在贫困人口数量、贫困深度和严重程度方面比城市贫困更为严重。农业部门推动农村地区的经济活动，因此该变量被用作减少现有贫困问题的媒介。为了发现这个问题，我们收集了印度尼西亚除DKI雅加达省以外所有省份的二手数据。然后通过R软件使用结构模型分析数据。这项研究的结果表明，农业部门不能减少农村贫困。迁移已经达到顶峰，这么多人迁移并不一定能减少农村贫困。农业用地大规模转为工业用地加剧了这种情况。如果政府想减少农村贫困，就应该认真改善农业部

门，使其有增长、有竞争力、有质量，而不仅仅是给每个村庄的村庄资金。它旨在平衡经济和劳动力结构，同时突出印度尼西亚作为农业国家的具体特征。

关键词：迁移、土地转换、村基金、农业、农村贫困。

1. Introduction

Poverty is still a hot topic discussed by economic and social activists. This problem is getting more attention when there is a gap between rural and urban poverty, particularly in many developing countries (Aroui et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2020; Vu & Rammohan, 2022). Poverty in Indonesia is seen from three main indicators, namely the Head Count Index, Poverty Gap Index, and Poverty Severity Index, showing that the incidence of rural poverty is more severe and urgent to be addressed. The number of poor people is more in rural areas. Although the rural poverty line is lower than the urban poverty line, the poverty rate is much higher. However, the average expenditure of the rural poor is moving away from the poverty line, and the disparity in spending among the poor is widening (Badan Pusat Statistik, 2022).

Indonesia's economic growth has increased over the last two decades, but rural areas, as one of the supporting pillars, have not received the spillover effect of this increase. The proportion of economic growth is still dominated by the industrial and service sectors, which grow and develop in urban areas. Meanwhile, the agricultural sector, the main sector in rural areas, only takes a small share, and even the number decreases yearly. Surprisingly, when there was an economic shock due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the growth of the agricultural sector increased. Unfortunately, rural poverty rates are also increasing (Figure 1). This situation can be used as a basis for criticizing the view that the agricultural economy is a variable for reducing rural poverty (Bigsten & Levin, 2004; Dollar et al., 2016; Dollar & Kraay, 2002; Foster et al., 2010).

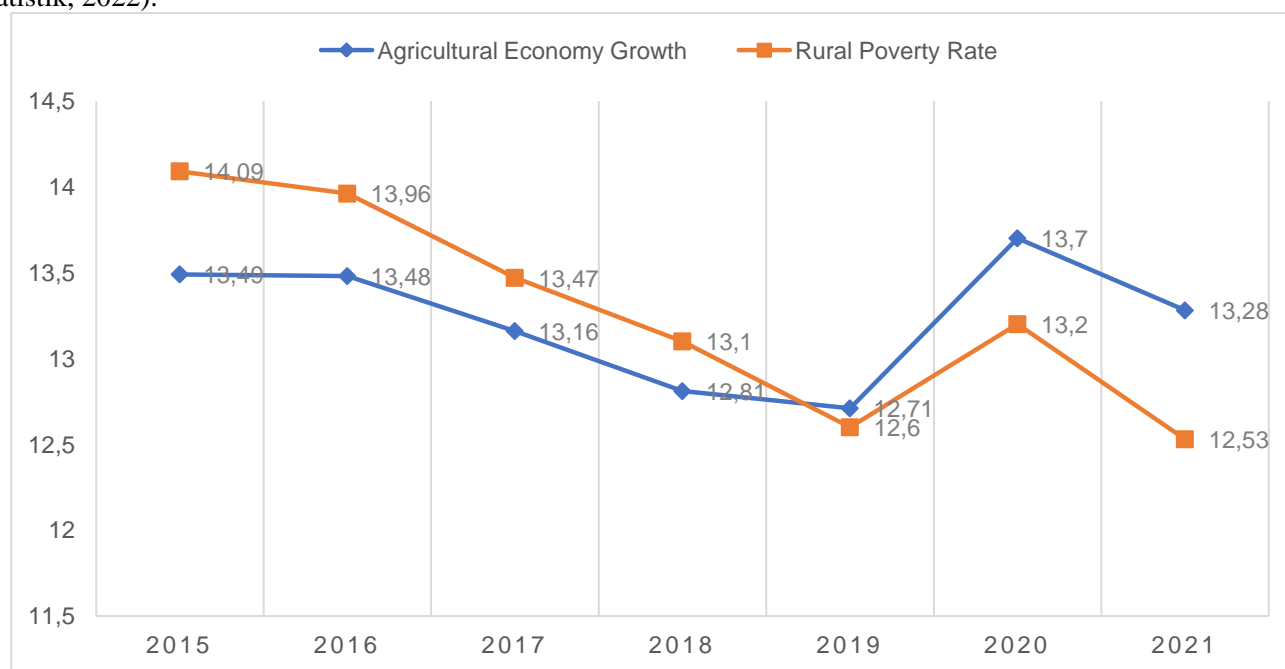


Figure 1. Agricultural economy growth and rural poverty rate (Badan Pusat Statistik, 2022)

The industrial and service sectors in urban areas require many workers and offer higher wages than the agricultural sector in rural areas (Ravallion et al., 2007). When the agricultural sector experienced excess labor, many young people massively migrated to cities (Adams & Page, 2005). Migration can ultimately reduce poverty (Grigorian & Melkonyan, 2011; Kim, 2007; Yang, 2008).

Unfortunately, today's cities are already experiencing a surplus of labor, so to work there, one must have certain skills and levels of education.

Competition for jobs in urban areas will be difficult for those who are elderly, especially if the previous job was farming, did not have the skills outside agriculture, and did not meet a high level of education (Vargas-Silva et al., 2016).

The development of the industrial and service sectors has now entered rural areas by transferring the function of agricultural land to factories, road construction, and mining exploitation (Sarkar, 2007). It often happens in peri-urban areas, especially as urban buffers (Verburg et al., 2006). The economic factor is

the most dominant cause of land conversion. Farming is no longer sufficient for daily needs, and land conversion is considered more profitable. Additionally, the government's lack of attention to the fate of farmers and no longer having families to take care of agricultural land has forced villagers to sell their agricultural land (Dewi & Sarjana, 2015). In other cases, the government forces people to sell their land to conduct development (Quy, 2016).

According to the data published by Badan Pusat Statistik (2022), agricultural land in Indonesia consisting of paddy fields, vegetable crops, and plantations, especially oil palms, has expanded in the last seven years. Meanwhile, non-oil palm plantations experienced a decrease in land area. Unfortunately, increasing the area of land does not necessarily increase agricultural production, let alone reduce rural poverty (Xiang et al., 2021; Bai et al., 2021; Tebay, 2021).

Table 1. Changes in the agricultural land area in Indonesia (hectares) (Badan Pusat Statistik, 2022)

No.	Land Type	2015	2021
1.	Wetland Area	8.110.455	10.514.744
2.	Harvested Area	563.993	712.650
3.	Oil Palm Area	11.300.400	14.663.600
4.	Non-Oil Palm Area	11.455.300	11.212.400

In 2015, the government began implementing a village fund policy. This policy strengthens village entities as part of the national economy so villages can manage their potential (Viverita et al., 2022). After seven years of operation, current village funds have produced various outputs such as irrigation in rice fields, construction of roads, bridges, water connections, village markets, wells, and drainage. The government claims that village funds have succeeded in increasing village independence.

However, the facts show that village funds create

little public goods and do not provide any public services. Rural poverty is still high. Apart from that, village funds have been heavily corrupted, giving rise to the practice of "cukong" in village head elections, reducing village heads' obedience to district/city governments, and creating money illusions among village officials. Therefore, these claims must be proven through credible research results.

Numerous studies on village finances have been conducted recently. According to Sunu and Utama (2019), village grants had a damaging impact on poverty. Research by Wahyuddin et al. (2019) supports the findings of this investigation. However, different conclusions were conveyed by Setianingsih (2016), who thinks that village funds for village development positively affect poverty.

Developing countries such as Laos and Myanmar have implemented policies similar to village funds. In Laos, this policy is known as the Village Development Fund (Paavola, 2012). Meanwhile, in Myanmar, it is called the Local Development Fund (Robertson et al., 2015). Unfortunately, the community has not fully felt the impact of implementing this policy. Based on the description above, it is interesting for the author to examine further the effects of population migration, land conversion, and village funds to strengthen the agricultural sector and reduce rural poverty rates.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Theory of the Causes of Poverty

Theories of the causes of poverty have evolved. The latest developments submitted by Brady (2019). He argued that poverty is caused by several variables in three main theories, namely behavioral theories, structural theories, and political theories.

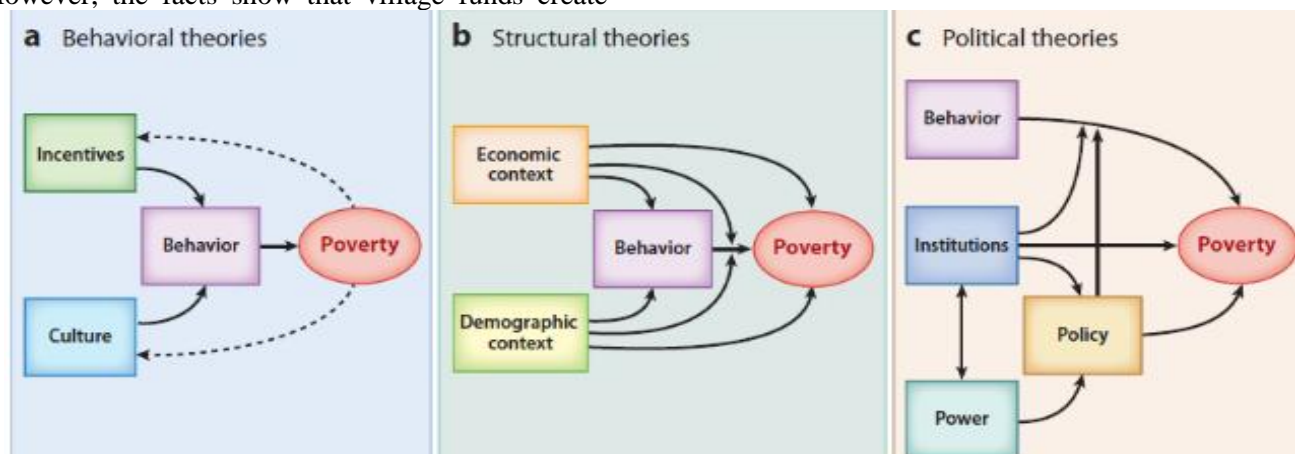


Figure 2. The conceptual model of behavioral causality relations, structure, and politics in poverty (Brady, 2019)

The behavioral theory discusses how much behavior can be controlled by individuals so as not to fall into poverty. It can be seen from the income and culture of individuals or their environment. Lazy, minimal skills, low level of education, physically weak, indifferent to change, and counterproductive behavior are causes of poverty that originates from within the individual, as for causes from outside the individual, such as the

environment or nature that does not support, lack of resources, and low technological development (Agussalim, 2009).

According to the structural theory, poverty is born due to economic and demographic factors that directly or indirectly affect poverty through human behavior. The prevailing economic system allows for concentrating power and resources by certain parties.

Other parties do not have the same access to available economic facilities. The demographic context in structural theory places an emphasis on environmental and population changes. The increasingly massive industrialization can pollute the environment and harm society. Unbalanced development causes spatial mismatch and population displacement. However, high population growth also contributes to the long-term problem of poverty (Badrudin, 2012).

Furthermore, from a political perspective, poverty is caused by institutions that have the power to influence government policies. This power comes from the political sector, which mobilizes disadvantaged classes such as trade unions, party choices, and demands for expanding the country's welfare. This mobilization is important because, in a capitalist democracy, politicians side with the elite and business. Additionally, demands for justice in distributing economic resources through laws and regulations must be stipulated (Kuncoro, 2015).

2.2. Empirical Studies

Several studies examining the link between economic growth and poverty have been conducted. There are at least three different perspectives on this linkage. First, economic growth is not enough to reduce poverty (Afridi et al., 2021; Cheema & Sial, 2012). Second, economic growth reduces poverty through inequality reduction channels (Bourguignon, 2004; Kakwani et al., 2003; Thorbecke, 2013; Zaman & Khilji, 2013). Third, economic growth reduces poverty directly (Bigsten & Levin, 2004; Dollar & Kraay, 2002).

Migration can affect poverty through different channels. Ravallion et al. (2007) revealed that pockets of poverty were originally located in rural areas. However, the migration of rural residents to urban areas has increased poverty in urban areas. People migrate faster than handling poverty. The results of this study were refuted by Adams and Page (2005), that migration can reduce poverty in terms of the poverty level, depth, and severity.

Many papers discussing the relationship between land and poverty have begun to be carried out. The current expansion of the industrial and service sectors has become dominant and shifted the role of the

agricultural sector in the economy. Sarkar (2007) said that the government changed agricultural land into a center for industry and services, especially if the flow of investment funds has entered (Marjit & Kar, 2019). Community land, especially farmers, bought (compensation) cheaply. However, if the project is underway and the land and buildings are resold, the price can be more than doubled.

Studies on the impact of general government spending on rural poverty have been going on for a long time. Fan et al. (2002) have studied the role of government spending on rural poverty alleviation in China. In another study, Fan and Zhang (2008) confirmed the positive effect of government spending on rural poverty, especially in Uganda. They concluded that rural poverty can be overcome through government investment in rural infrastructure, agricultural services, education, and health. Government spending on the research and development of agricultural products has had a substantial impact. It could reduce rural poverty by increasing agricultural productivity and wage rates.

Studies conducted by Sunu and Utama (2019) said that village funds affect community welfare. The same result was stated by Wahyuddin et al. (2019). Meanwhile, Setianingsih (2016) states that the village government uses village funds for community empowerment programs.

2.3. Theoretical Framework

The conceptual framework is established as follows based on the theory of the causes of poverty and the aforementioned empirical studies:

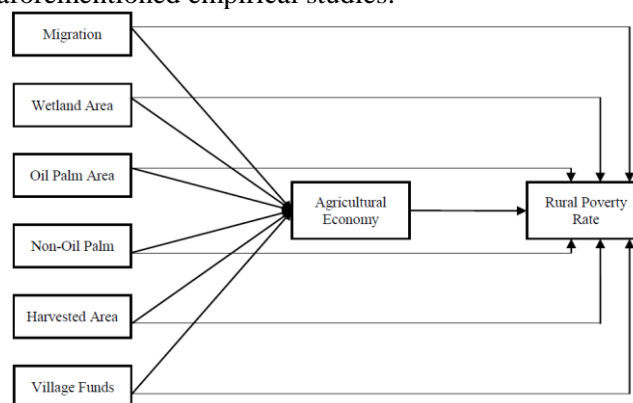


Figure 3. Theoretical framework (Theories and previous studies)

Table 2. Operational variable

Socio-Economic Variables	Abbreviation	Units	Data Source
Recent Out-Migrant (X_1)	ROM	People	BPS
The Wetland Area (X_2)	TWA	km ²	The National Land Agency
Planted Area of Oil Palm (X_3)	PAOP	Thousand ha	Ministry of Agriculture
Planted Area of Non-Oil Palm (X_4)	PANOP	Thousand ha	Ministry of Agriculture
Harvested Area of Vegetables (X_5)	HAV	Ha	BPS
Village Funds (X_6)	VF	Million IDR	Ministry of Finance
Agricultural Economic Growth (Y_1)	AEG	Percentage	Bank of Indonesia
Rural Poverty Rate (Y_2)	RPR	Percentage	BPS

2.4. Hypotheses

Below are some hypotheses proposed in this study:

H_1 : The recent-out migrant has had a negative effect, direct and indirect, on the rural poverty rate through agricultural economic growth.

H_2 : The wetland area positively and indirectly affects the rural poverty rate through agricultural economic growth.

H_3 : The planted area of oil palms has a positive impact, direct and indirect, on the rural poverty rate through agricultural economic growth.

H_4 : The planted area of non-oil palms has a positive, direct, and indirect impact on rural poverty through agricultural economic growth.

H_5 : The harvested area of vegetables has a positive impact, direct and indirect, on the rural poverty rate through agricultural economic growth.

H_6 : Village funds have negative effects, direct and indirect, on rural poverty rates through agricultural economic growth.

H_7 : Agricultural economic growth has a negative directly on the rural poverty rate.

3. Methodology of the Research

3.1. Type of Research and Scope

This study was designed using a quantitative approach based on the research problems. This research occurs in Indonesia, with the unit of analysis being all provinces except DKI Jakarta. This exception is

because DKI Jakarta does not have areas with a rural economy style, as stated in the Regulation of the Head of the Central Bureau of Statistics Number 120 of 2020 concerning the Classification of Urban and Rural Villages in Indonesia in 2020. Thus, data regarding land conversion, village funds, and rural poverty itself are not available. However, the socio-economic life of the people of DKI Jakarta is more urban, although there are residents who work as farmers or fisherfolk.

3.2. Type of Data and Method to Collect Data

The type of data used in this study is quantitative, consisting of cross-section data (33 provinces) and time series data (2015–2021 or seven years), resulting in 231-panel data. According to the source, the quantitative data were obtained from existing financial reports, government regulations, decrees, and statistical publications issued by the Central Bureau of Statistics, Bank Indonesia, and related ministries. Thus, the data source used is secondary data. Because the research data comes from secondary data, the data collection technique used is the documentation technique.

3.3. Method of Analysis Data

Simultaneous equations with the type of Structural Modeling (SM) are used to determine the relationship between migration, land conversion, and village funds on economic growth and rural poverty. Data analysis was performed using R studio software. The following is the flow of data analysis in this study:

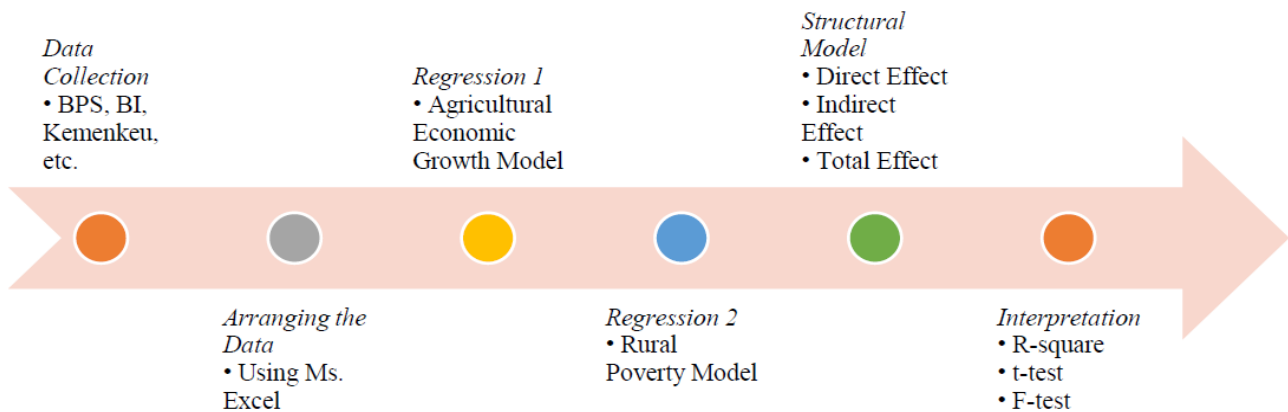


Figure 4. Theoretical framework (Theories and previous studies)

For further analysis, functional equations are formed in the simultaneous model with reduced form as follows:

$$Y_{1it} = f(X_{1it}, X_{2it}, X_{3it}, X_{4it}, X_{5it}, X_{6it})$$

$$Y_{2it} = f(X_{1it}, X_{2it}, X_{3it}, X_{4it}, X_{5it}, X_{6it}, Y_{1it})$$

All variables will be a natural logarithm (Ln) except for variables whose units are already in percentage form.

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{1it} &= f(\text{Ln}X_{1it}, \text{Ln}X_{2it}, \text{Ln}X_{3it}, \text{Ln}X_{4it}, \text{Ln}X_{5it}, \\ &\quad \text{Ln}X_{6it}) \\ &= \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \text{Ln}X_{1it} + \alpha_2 \text{Ln}X_{2it} + \alpha_3 \text{Ln}X_{3it} + \alpha_4 \text{Ln}X_{4it} \\ &\quad + \alpha_5 \text{Ln}X_{5it} + \alpha_6 \text{Ln}X_{6it} + e_1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{2it} &= f(\text{Ln}X_{1it}, \text{Ln}X_{2it}, \text{Ln}X_{3it}, \text{Ln}X_{4it}, \text{Ln}X_{5it}, \\ &\quad \text{Ln}X_{6it}, Y_{1it}) \\ &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Ln}X_{1it} + \beta_2 \text{Ln}X_{2it} + \beta_3 \text{Ln}X_{3it} + \beta_4 \text{Ln}X_{4it} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &+ \beta_5 \text{Ln}X_{5it} + \beta_6 \text{Ln}X_{6it} + \beta_7 Y_{1it} + e_2 \\ &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Ln}X_{1it} + \beta_2 \text{Ln}X_{2it} + \beta_3 \text{Ln}X_{3it} + \beta_4 \text{Ln}X_{4it} \\ &\quad + \beta_5 \text{Ln}X_{5it} + \beta_6 \text{Ln}X_{6it} + \beta_7 (\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \text{Ln}X_{1it} + \\ &\quad \alpha_2 \text{Ln}X_{2it} + \alpha_3 \text{Ln}X_{3it} + \alpha_4 \text{Ln}X_{4it} + \alpha_5 \text{Ln}X_{5it} + \\ &\quad \alpha_6 \text{Ln}X_{6it} + e_1) + e_2 \\ &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Ln}X_{1it} + \beta_2 \text{Ln}X_{2it} + \beta_3 \text{Ln}X_{3it} + \beta_4 \text{Ln}X_{4it} \\ &\quad + \beta_5 \text{Ln}X_{5it} + \beta_6 \text{Ln}X_{6it} + (\alpha_0 \beta_7) + (\alpha_1 \beta_7 \text{Ln}X_{1it}) \\ &\quad + (\alpha_2 \beta_7 \text{Ln}X_{2it}) + (\alpha_3 \beta_7 \text{Ln}X_{3it}) + (\alpha_4 \beta_7 \text{Ln}X_{4it}) + \\ &\quad (\alpha_5 \beta_7 \text{Ln}X_{5it}) + (\alpha_6 \beta_7 \text{Ln}X_{6it}) + (\beta_7 e_1) + e_2 \\ &= (\beta_0 + \alpha_0 \beta_7) + (\beta_1 \text{Ln}X_{1it} + \alpha_1 \beta_7 \text{Ln}X_{1it}) + \\ &\quad (\beta_2 \text{Ln}X_{2it} + \alpha_2 \beta_7 \text{Ln}X_{2it}) + (\beta_3 \text{Ln}X_{3it} + \\ &\quad \alpha_3 \beta_7 \text{Ln}X_{3it}) + (\beta_4 \text{Ln}X_{4it} + \alpha_4 \beta_7 \text{Ln}X_{4it}) + \\ &\quad (\beta_5 \text{Ln}X_{5it} + \alpha_5 \beta_7 \text{Ln}X_{5it}) + (\beta_6 \text{Ln}X_{6it} + \\ &\quad \alpha_6 \beta_7 \text{Ln}X_{6it}) + (\beta_7 e_1 + e_2) \\ &= \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 \text{Ln}X_{1it} + \gamma_2 \text{Ln}X_{2it} + \gamma_3 \text{Ln}X_{3it} + \gamma_4 \text{Ln}X_{4it} + \end{aligned}$$

$$\gamma_5 \text{Ln}X_{5it} + \gamma_6 \text{Ln}X_{6it} + e_3$$

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. Descriptive Data

The government with the lowest administrative area in Indonesia is divided into villages, sub-districts, Transmigration Settlement Units (UPT), and Transmigration Settlement Units (SPT). Even though it is divided only into four categories, because of the diversity in Indonesia, there are other terms to refer to the lowest administrative areas, such as "desa adat" and Nagari/Jorong. These terms are grouped into the term village as stated in Law Number 6 of 2014 concerning Villages.

In this law, a village is defined as a legal community unit that has territorial boundaries that are authorized to regulate and manage government affairs, local community interests based on community initiatives, origin rights, and traditional rights that are recognized and respected in the system of government of the Unitary State of the Republic of Indonesia. It differs from 'kelurahan', defined as the division of administrative areas in Indonesia under sub-districts (Law Number 23 of 2014 concerning Regional Government).

The number of lowest government administration areas according to the government classification in Indonesia can be seen in Figure 5.

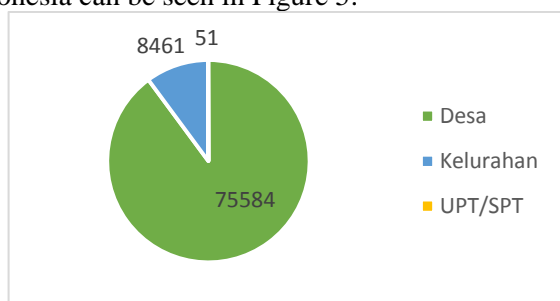


Figure 5. Lowest government classification in Indonesia (Badan Pusat Statistik, 2021)

The lowest number of governments in Indonesia was recorded at 84,096. Of that number, more than 75 percent (75,584 villages) are villages or are called by other names (Customary Village, Nagari, Jorong, Korong). It was followed by 8,461 sub-districts and 51 UPT/SPT.

Rural areas are closely related to the agricultural sector. However, this sector only provides an average share of 13.23 percent over the last seven years. The economic growth rate for the agricultural sector has even decreased every year. It correlates positively with increasing rural poverty rates. This is because the population working in this sector reached 37,748,228 people (32.87 percent) of the total working population

(2015). However, this figure then decreased in line with the declining interest of the population to work in the agricultural sector. Many of them have moved to other jobs in the industrial and service sectors, especially in urban areas.

Migrasi Population migration in Indonesia has been going on for a long time, but it was only recorded starting in 1980. The records were obtained from the Population Census (SP) results and the Inter-Census Population Survey (SUPAS), conducted every decade. Migration activities can overcome poverty in rural areas, but simultaneously, it is a new problem. The younger generation tends to choose to work as industrial workers in urban areas. As a result, the potential workforce in the agricultural sector is decreasing, and even the regeneration problem of farmers in rural areas can become a real threat.

Rural poverty can also be caused because people do not have agricultural land to work. It can happen because, since birth, the person does not own agricultural land or owns agricultural land, but due to certain factors, it changes its function and is not even used. These factors include industrialization, urbanization, residential development, infrastructure projects, government policies, and low land productivity.

The government has issued several regulations related to land conversion. In 2009, the Government of Indonesia issued Law Number 40 of 2009 concerning the Protection of Sustainable Food Agricultural Land. The background of this law was the increasing population growth, economic development, and industrialization, which led to degradation, conversion of functions, and fragmentation of agricultural land for food. However, in fact, land conversion continues to occur.

In 2019, the President of the Republic of Indonesia issued Presidential Regulation No. 59 of 2019 concerning the Control over the Function Transfer of Paddy Fields. The regulation mandates an increase in domestic rice production, so it is necessary to accelerate the map of protected paddy fields as a national strategic program. Unfortunately, this regulation was later amended by Law no. 11 of 2020 concerning Job Creation, which contradicts the previous regulations. Finally, land conversion continues (Table 1). Residents who do not own land will usually work as agricultural laborers for landlords or other jobs according to their expertise. Meanwhile, residents who own land will have choices about using these assets.

The government has implemented a village fund strategy to boost the local economy. Since it was originally implemented, the transfer has risen steadily. The amount of money the federal government gave to villages in 2015 was estimated at 20 trillion rupiah. The confirmed village fund currently stands at 71 trillion

rupiah. According to the government, village funds can boost the village economy, particularly agriculture.

4.2. Analysis and Discussion

After a series of tests, the estimation model for the agricultural economic growth models is as follows.

$$Y_1 = 11,07567 - 0,01298 \text{ ROM}_{it} + 0,2198 \text{ TWA}_{it} + 0,14508 \text{ PAOP}_{it} - 0,01749 \text{ PANOP}_{it} +$$

$$Y_2 = 0,01899 \text{ HAV}_{it} + 0,13204 \text{ VF}_{it} + e_1$$

$$132,64850 - 1,40988 \text{ ROM}_{it} - 0,11834$$

$$\text{TWA}_{it} - 1,81737 \text{ PAOP}_{it} + 0,32545 \text{ PANOP}_{it}$$

$$- 0,72925 \text{ HAV}_{it} + 3,45310 \text{ VF}_{it} - 11,38490$$

$$\text{AEG}_{it} + e_2$$

Table 3. Estimate results of the direct and indirect effects

Socio-Economic Indicators	Model 1.	Model 2.		
	AEG (Y ₁)	RPR (Y ₂)		
	Direct Effect	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect
	Estimate	Estimate	Estimate	Estimate
ROM	-0.01298*	-2.73354***	0.15139	-1.14660
TWA	0.2198***	-0.69991*	-0.02563	0.19416
PAOP	0.14508*	-3.59504***	-0.01692	0.12816
PANOP	-0.01749	0.08741	0.00204	-0.01545
HAV	0.01899	-0.35112	-0.00221	0.01678
VF	0.13204***	6.04366***	-0.01540	0.11664
AEG		-0.11664		-0.11664
Constanta	11.07567	-47.83206***		
R2	0.56572	0.48138		
Adjusted R2	0.55409	0.46510		
F Stat	291.794***	29.56965***		

Notes: *p < 0.1; **p < 0.05; ***p < 0.01

The first part of Table 3 is the estimation result from the agricultural economic growth model (Y₁), which only has a direct effect. The coefficient of determination in the first model is 0.56572, meaning that the model can be said to be fit. This figure also implies that 56.572 percent of the variation in agricultural economic growth can be explained by the exogenous variables ROM, TWA, PAOP, PANOP, HAV, and VF. Simultaneously, the remaining 43.428 percent is explained by other variables outside the model.

Only ROM, TWA, PAOP, and VF had a significant effect from many exogenous variables included in the model. PANOP and HAV had no significant effect. However, all exogenous variables together have a significant effect.

The second part in Table 2 is the rural poverty model, which consists of direct, indirect, and total effects. The direct influence of the variables involved in the rural poverty model produces an R2 value of 0.48138. This model can be said to be feasible. The statistical F test in the model yields a value of 29.56965, which is significant at a 1 percent error rate. All exogenous variables included in the model jointly affect rural poverty. The t-test results (partial test) for each exogenous variable on rural poverty produce different effects. Variables that have no significant effect include PANOP, HAV, and AEG.

The third part describes the indirect effect of exogenous variables (X₁ to X₆) on the RPR endogenous variables through the AEG intervening variable. This model concludes that TWA, PANOP, HAV, and VF will have a stronger influence on poverty if they can increase AEG. Meanwhile, ROM and PAOP are no better through AEG.

Furthermore, the fourth part is the accumulation of

direct and indirect effects of exogenous variables on endogenous variables. ROM and PANOP have a positive effect on rural poverty. In contrast, other variables (TWA, PAOP, HAV, VF, and AEG) show a negative effect. The increase in migration and non-palm oil farming made rural poverty increase, not decrease as expected.

The migration makes the agricultural sector short of human resources. Although on the other hand, it reduces poverty, as previous empirical studies have revealed by Ravallion et al. (2007), Acosta et al. (2008), and Bouoiyour et al. (2016). Remittances made by migrants are used not only to support production activities but also to improve the quality of human resources through education, mastery of information technology, health services, and skills (Vargas-Silva et al., 2016).

The effect of migration on wages supports the results of previous studies, as stated by Allen (2011) and Aroui et al. (2017), migration negatively impacts people in rural areas. People who work in urban areas will receive wages that are used for themselves and their families where they live. The income earned is then used for various consumption and production purposes. In terms of production, rural communities will receive additional capital from transfers or remittances that can be used to increase business, employment, or wages.

The results of the estimation of migration to rural poverty are also in line with previous studies. Grigorian and Melkonyan (2011) stated that the migration activity positively impacted the families left behind. Income from the city is distributed to families for basic life needs such as consumption, education, and health. Not only that but improvements in living conditions were also seen.

All agricultural land in the agricultural economic growth model produces estimates that agree with previous studies except for non-oil palm plantations (PANOP), as disclosed by Suryahadi et al. (2009), Özel et al. (2013), Nizar et al. (2013), Madito and Khumalo (2014), Quy (2016), and Tegep et al. (2019). It must be encouraged for positive economic growth. This situation implies that increasing the area of paddy fields, oil palm plantations, and vegetable crops increases agricultural economic growth. Because the commodities produced are superior or can compete in the global market. Unlike other commodities, palm oil is a superior commodity that receives more government attention. Therefore, increasing oil palm land is reasonable if it is followed by increasing agricultural economic growth. Indonesia's oil palm plantations and palm oil production are the largest in the world. Palm oil contributed 16.09 percent to exports.

Expanding paddy fields, oil palms, and vegetable crops in the rural poverty model reduced poverty. Because all three are the main things for the people in Indonesia. Paddy fields produce rice, the main food source (the people's staple food), while vegetable crops produce various vegetables consumed by the community. Meanwhile, oil palms are the main sources of income for people who depend on plantations for their livelihood. The increase in the area of non-oil palm plantations does not have the same impact because they are not only commodities, and their prices are uncompetitive in the market.

Village Funds disbursed by the government have produced various public facilities that indirectly improve the rural economy, especially the agricultural sector. The construction of roads, bridges, reservoirs, and rice barns are the facilities needed by rural communities. Economic activities, both agricultural and non-agricultural, will run smoothly. It will reduce production costs and increase work efficiency.

Although village funds can reduce agricultural production costs, they have not been able to reduce rural poverty. The practice in the field, when there is a project whose budget comes from the Village Fund, makes the community more interested in being part of the project. They take on the role of construction workers. Jobs in agriculture even became a side when the project was implemented. It does increase wages, but temporarily. Agricultural land should be cultivated by rural communities whose profession is farmers.

The Village Fund has a function not only to produce public facilities but also to improve the quality of life of the people. Improper use of Village Funds causes rural poverty to increase. In several cases, village funds were also heavily corrupted, giving rise to the practice of *cukong* in choosing village heads ("pilkades"), and were unable to create village community empowerment toward a better economy. These results support the

study by Setianingsih (2016).

For village funds to reduce poverty, the government should be able to copy the Village Development Funds concept in Laos (Paavola, 2012). Village development funds are realized as micro-loans for village communities to develop their businesses. The increase in a business capacity is hoped to absorb more workers and increase people's income. If village funds are directed at increasing the income of rural communities, this will impact reducing rural poverty levels.

Regarding agricultural economic growth variables, Foster and Rosenzweig (2004) once stated that economic growth in the agricultural sector is the key to reducing rural poverty. Considering that agriculture is the main activity of people in rural areas, increased productivity triggers the acquisition of more wages so that it can reduce poverty. Relatively recent studies by Suryahadi et al. (2009), Zaman and Khilji (2013) support this statement. They investigated the relationship between sectoral economic growth and poverty reduction in urban and rural areas. The results of this study state that economic growth can reduce poverty in all sectors and locations. Even agricultural economic growth plays a major role in reducing rural poverty rates. Didu and Fauzi (2016) observed that regional economic growth, as measured by Gross Regional Domestic Product (GRDP), influences poverty reduction. This study supports some statements above.

5. Conclusion

Migration reduces the agricultural economy's growth because less labor is willing to work in this sector. However, migration can reduce rural poverty. Additional land for rice farming, oil palm plantations, and vegetable crops can increase agricultural economic growth. Unfortunately, only non-oil plantations have no effect. Land expansion for agriculture can also reduce rural poverty. Providing funds to each local government will increase agricultural economic growth while increasing poverty. Agricultural economic growth itself can reduce rural poverty.

6. Recommendations

Migration can indeed reduce rural poverty, but rural areas will not always depend on industry and services in urban areas. Developing the agricultural sector so it can absorb young workers is necessary. This is because Indonesia, as an agricultural country, cannot be separated from the agricultural sector. Of course, this cannot only be realized through land expansion. In the future, it is necessary to increase agricultural productivity.

The use of village funds for the next period is better for developing the poor and marginalized. They must be given training, and skills improvement (hard and soft

skills) as a provision for work. The use of village funds to improve agricultural infrastructure must be properly maintained so that the agricultural sector can increase its productivity.

References

- [1] ACOSTA, P., CALDERÓN, C., FAJNZYLBER, P., & LOPEZ, H. (2008). What is the Impact of International Remittances on Poverty and Inequality in Latin America? *World Development*, 36(1), 89–114. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2007.02.016>
- [2] ADAMS, R.H., & PAGE, J. (2005). Do international migration and remittances reduce poverty in developing countries? *World Development*, 33(10), 1645–1669. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2005.05.004>
- [3] AFRIDI, J.R., PERVAIZ, Z., & ASIF, M.F. (2021). Welfare Implications of Economic Growth: An Empirical Assessment for Pakistan. *Humanities and Social Sciences Reviews*, 9(3), 363–371. <https://doi.org/10.18510/hssr.2021.9337>
- [4] AGUSSALIM. (2009). *Mereduksi Kemiskinan: Sebuah Proposal Baru untuk Indonesia*. Makassar: Nala Cipta Litera.
- [5] ALLEN, R.C. (2011). The British industrial revolution in global perspective. *Proceedings of the British Academy*, 167, 199–224.
- [6] AROURI, M., BEN YOUSSEF, A., & NGUYEN, C. (2017). Does urbanization reduce rural poverty? Evidence from Vietnam. *Economic Modelling*, 60, 253–270. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econmod.2016.09.022>
- [7] BADAN PUSAT STATISTIK. (2021). *Statistik Indonesia 2021*. Retrieved from <https://www.bps.go.id/publication/2021/02/26/938316574c78772f27e9b477/statistik-indonesia-2021.html>
- [8] BADAN PUSAT STATISTIK. (2022). *Statistik Indonesia 2022*. Retrieved from <https://www.bps.go.id/publication/2022/02/25/0a2afea4fab72a5d052cb315/statistik-indonesia-2022.html>
- [9] BADRUDIN, R. (2012). *Ekonomi Otonomi Daerah*. Yogyakarta: UPP STIM YKPN.
- [10] BAI, Y.-L., ZHANG, L.-X., SUN, M.-X., & XU, X.-B. (2021). Status and path of intergenerational transmission of poverty in rural China: A human capital investment perspective. *Journal of Integrative Agriculture*, 20(4), 1080–1091. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2095-3119\(20\)63373-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2095-3119(20)63373-1)
- [11] BIGSTEN, A., & LEVIN, J. (2004). Growth, Income Distribution, and Poverty: A Review. In: SHORROCKS, A., & VAN DER HOEVEN, R. (eds.) *Growth, Inequality, and Poverty: Prospects for Pro-poor Economic Development*, WIDER Studies in Development Economics. Oxford: Oxford Academic, pp. 251–276. <https://doi.org/10.1093/0199268657.003.0012>
- [12] BOUOYIYOUR, J., MIFTAH, A., & MOUHOUD, E.M. (2016). Education, male gender preference and migrants' remittances: Interactions in rural Morocco. *Economic Modelling*, 57, 324–331. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econmod.2015.10.026>
- [13] BOURGUIGNON, F. (2004). *The Poverty-Growth-Inequality Triangle*. Retrieved from <https://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/449711468762020101/pdf/28102.pdf>
- [14] BRADY, D. (2019). Theories of the Causes of Poverty. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 45(4), 155–175. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-soc-073018-022550>
- [15] CHEEMA, A.R., & SIAL, M. (2012). An Assessment of Pro-Poor Growth in Pakistan from 1993 to 2008. *Journal of Research in International Business Management*, 2(1), 1–9. Retrieved from <https://www.interestjournals.org/articles/an-assessment-of-propoor-growth-in-pakistan-from-1993-to-2008.pdf>
- [16] DEWI, I.A.L., & SARJANA, I.M. (2015). Faktor-Faktor Pendorong Alihfungsi Lahan Sawah Menjadi Lahan Non-Pertanian (Kasus: Subak Kerdung, Kecamatan Denpasar Selatan). *Jurnal Manajemen Agribisnis*, 3(2), 163–171. Retrieved from <https://ojs.unud.ac.id/index.php/agribisnis/article/view/17104>
- [17] DIDU, S., & FAUZI, F. (2016). Pengaruh jumlah penduduk, pendidikan dan pertumbuhan ekonomi terhadap kemiskinan di Kabupaten Lebak. *Jurnal Ekonomi-Qu*, 6(1), 102–117. <http://dx.doi.org/10.35448/jequ.v6i1.4199>
- [18] DOLLAR, D., & KRAAY, A. (2002). Growth is Good for the Poor. *Journal of Economic Growth*, 7, 195–225. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1020139631000>
- [19] DOLLAR, D., KLEINEBERG, T., & KRAAY, A. (2016). Growth still is good for the poor. *European Economic Review*, 81, 68–85. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.EUROECOREV.2015.05.008>
- [20] FAN, S., & ZHANG, X. (2008). Public Expenditure, Growth and Poverty Reduction in Rural Uganda. *African Development Review*, 20(3), 466–496. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8268.2008.00194.x>
- [21] FAN, S., ZHANG, L., & ZHANG, X. (2002). *Growth, inequality, and poverty in rural China: The role of public investments*. Washington, District of Columbia: International Food Policy Research Institute. <https://doi.org/10.2499/0896291286rr125>
- [22] FOSTER, A.D., & ROSENZWEIG, M.R. (2004). Agricultural Productivity Growth, Rural Economic Diversity, and Economic Reforms: India, 1970–2000. *Economic Development and Cultural Change*, 52(3), 509–542. <https://doi.org/10.1086/420968>
- [23] FOSTER, J., GREER, J., & THORBECKE, E. (2010). The Foster-Greer-Thorbecke (FGT) poverty measures: 25 years later. *Journal of Economic Inequality*, 8(4), 491–524. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10888-010-9136-1>

- [24] GRIGORIAN, D.A., & MELKONYAN, T.A. (2011). Destined to Receive: The Impact of Remittances on Household Decisions in Armenia. *Review of Development Economics*, 15(1), 139–153. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9361.2010.00598.x>
- [25] KAKWANI, N., SON, H.H., QURESHI, S.K., & ARIF, G.M. (2003). Pro-Poor Growth: Concepts and Measurement with Country Case Studies. *The Pakistan Development Review*, 42(4), 417–444. <http://dx.doi.org/10.30541/v42i4pp.417-444>
- [26] KIM, N. (2007). *The impact of remittances on labor supply: The case of Jamaica*. Washington, District of Columbia: World Bank. Retrieved from <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/7152>
- [27] KUNCORO, M. (2015). *Mudah Memahami dan Menganalisa Indikator Ekonomi*. Yogyakarta: UPP STIM YKPN.
- [28] LIU, Y., AMIN, A., RASOOL, S.F., & ZAMAN, Q.U. (2020). The role of agriculture and foreign remittances in mitigating rural poverty: Empirical evidence from Pakistan. *Risk Management and Healthcare Policy*, 13, 13–26. <https://doi.org/10.2147/RMHP.S235580>
- [29] MADITO, O., & KHUMALO, J. (2014). Economic growth - Unemployment nexus in South Africa: VECM approach. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(20), 79–84. <https://doi.org/10.5901/mjss.2014.v5n20p79>
- [30] MARJIT, S., & KAR, S. (2019). International Capital Flows, Land Conversion and Wage Inequality in Poor Countries. *Open Economies Review*, 30(5), 933–945. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11079-019-09548-4>
- [31] NIZAR, C., HAMZAH, A., & SYAHNUR, S. (2013). Pengaruh Investasi dan Tenaga Kerja terhadap Pertumbuhan Ekonomi serta Hubungannya terhadap Tingkat Kemiskinan di Indonesia. *Jurnal Ilmu Ekonomi*, 1(2), 1–8.
- [32] ÖZEL, H.A., SEZGIN, F.H., & TOPKAYA, Ö. (2013). Investigation of Economic Growth and Unemployment Relationship for G7 Countries Using Panel Regression Analysis. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 4(6), 163–171. Retrieved from <https://www.ijbssnet.com/journal/index/1932>
- [33] PAAVOLA, M. (2012). *The Impact of Village Development Funds on Community Welfare in the Lao People's Democratic Republic*. Doctoral dissertation, University of Helsinki. Retrieved from <http://urn.fi/URN:ISBN:978-952-10-7610-7>
- [34] QUY, N.H. (2016). Relationship between Economic Growth, Unemployment and Poverty: Analysis at Provincial Level in Vietnam. *International Journal of Economics and Finance*, 8(12), 113–119. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijef.v8n12p113>
- [35] RAVALLION, M., CHEN, S., & SANGRAULA, P. (2007). New Evidence on the Urbanization of Global Poverty. *Population and Development Review*, 33(4), 667–701. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1728-4457.2007.00193.x>
- [36] ROBERTSON, B., JOELENE, C., & DUNN, L. (2015). *Local Development Funds in Myanmar: An Initial Review*. Retrieved from https://asiafoundation.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/10/Local-Development-Funds-in-Myanmar_ENG.pdf
- [37] SARKAR, A. (2007). Development and Displacement: Land Acquisition in West Bengal. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 42(16), 1435–1442. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/4419496>
- [38] SETIANINGSIH, I. (2016). Kontribusi dana desa dalam menurunkan angka kemiskinan di Kabupaten Melawi. *Jurnal Ekonomi Daerah (JEDA)*, 5(3), 1–17. Retrieved from <https://jurnal.untan.ac.id/index.php/JEDA2/article/view/21437>
- [39] SUNU, M.K.K., & UTAMA, M.S. (2019). Pengaruh Dana Desa Terhadap Tingkat Kemiskinan Dan Kesejahteraan Masyarakat Di Kabupaten/Kota Provinsi Bali. *E-Jurnal Ekonomi dan Bisnis Universitas Udayana*, 8(8), 843–872. <https://doi.org/10.24843/EEB.2019.v08.i08.p02>
- [40] SURYAHADI, A., SURYADARMA, D., & SUMARTO, S. (2009). The effects of location and sectoral components of economic growth on poverty: Evidence from Indonesia. *Journal of Development Economics*, 89(1), 109–117. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdeveco.2008.08.003>
- [41] TEBAY, V. (2021). Policy Analysis of Village Development Targeting Poverty Reduction in Papua Province. *Journal of Southwest Jiaotong University*, 56(4), 673–681. <https://doi.org/10.35741/issn.0258-2724.56.4.57>
- [42] TEGEP, J., SURATMAN, E., & INDRA, S. (2019). The Failure of Foreign Direct Investment to Explain Unemployment Rate and the Mediating Role of Economic Growth and Minimum Wage. *International Journal of Economics and Financial Issues*, 9(2), 154–161. <https://doi.org/10.32479/ijefi.7524>
- [43] THORBECKE, E. (2013). The Interrelationship Linking Growth, Inequality and Poverty in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Journal of African Economies*, 22(suppl_1), i15–i48. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jae/ejs028>
- [44] VARGAS-SILVA, C., MARKAKI, Y., & SUMPTION, M. (2016). *The impacts of international migration on poverty in the UK*. Joseph Rowntree Foundation. Retrieved from <https://www.jrf.org.uk/report/impacts-international->

- [migration-poverty-uk](#)
- [45] VERBURG, P.H., KOK, K., GILMORE, R., & VELDKAMP, P.A. (2006). Modeling Land-Use and Land-Cover Change. In: LAMBIN, E.F., & GEIST, H. (eds.) *Land-Use and Land-Cover Change. Global Change - The IGBP Series*. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer, pp. 117–135. <https://doi.org/10.1007/3-540-32202-7>
- [46] VIVERITA, V., ASTUTI, R.D., MARTDIANTY, F., & KUSUMASTUTI, R.D. (2022). Village Fund Management, Quality of Life and Community Wellbeing: Evidence from Lebak Regency, Indonesia. *Journal of Southwest Jiaotong University*, 57(3), 468–483. <https://doi.org/10.35741/issn.0258-2724.57.3.38>
- [47] VU, L., & RAMMOHAN, A. (2022). Is There an Informal Employment Penalty in Food Security? Evidence from Rural Vietnam. *The European Journal of Development Research*, 34, 2923–29475. <https://doi.org/10.1057/s41287-021-00498-7>
- [48] WAHYUDDIN, W., RAMLY, A., DJALIL, M.A., & INDRIANI, M. (2019). Efektivitas Pemanfaatan Dana Desa dalam Mengentaskan Kemiskinan di Kec Kuala Kabupaten Nagan Raya. *NUANSA: Jurnal Penelitian Ilmu Sosial dan Keagamaan Islam*, 16(2), 181–193. <https://doi.org/10.19105/nuansa.v16i2.2410>
- [49] XIANG, J., LI, X., XIAO, R., & WANG, Y. (2021). Effects of land use transition on ecological vulnerability in poverty-stricken mountainous areas of China: A complex network approach. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 297, 113206. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.JENVMAN.2021.113206>
- [50] YANG, D. (2008). International migration, remittances and household investment: Evidence from Philippine migrants' exchange rate shocks. *The Economic Journal*, 118(528), 591–630. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-0297.2008.02134.x>
- [51] ZAMAN, K., & KHILJI, B.A. (2013). RETRACTED: The relationship between growth–inequality–poverty triangle and pro-poor growth policies in Pakistan: The twin disappointments. *Economic Modelling*, 30(1), 375–393. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.ECONMOD.2012.09.023>
- 参考文献:**
- [1] ACOSTA, P., CALDERÓN, C., FAJNZYLBER, P., & LOPEZ, H. (2008)。国际汇款对拉丁美洲的贫困和不平等有何影响？*世界发展*，36(1)，89–114。 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2007.02.016>
- [2] ADAMS, R.H., & PAGE, J. (2005)。国际移民和汇款会减少发展中国家的贫困吗？*世界发展*，33 (10)，1645–1669。 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2005.05.004>
- [3] AFRIDI, J.R., PERVAIZ, Z., & ASIF, M.F. (2021)。经济增长对福利的影响：对巴基斯坦的实证评估。*人文与社会科学评论*，9(3)，363–371。 <https://doi.org/10.18510/hssr.2021.9337>
- [4] 阿古萨利姆。(2009)。减贫：印度尼西亚的新提案。望加锡：那拉思普达文学。
- [5] 艾伦，R.C.(2011)。全球视野下的英国工业革命。英国科学院院刊，167、199–224。
- [6] AROURI, M., BEN YOUSSEF, A. 和 NGUYEN, C. (2017)。城市化会减少农村贫困吗？来自越南的证据。*经济建模*，60，253–270。 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econmod.2016.09.022>
- [7] 巴丹普萨特统计。(2021)。2021年印度尼西亚统计局。取自<https://www.bps.go.id/publication/2021/02/26/938316574c78772f27e9b477/statistik-indonesia-2021.html>
- [8] 巴丹普萨特统计。(2022)。2022年印度尼西亚统计局。取自<https://www.bps.go.id/publication/2022/02/25/0a2afea4fab72a5d052cb315/statistik-indonesia-2022.html>
- [9] 巴德鲁丁，R. (2012)。区域自治经济。日惹：UPP兴奋剂YKPN。
- [10] BAI, Y.-L., ZHANG, L.-X., SUN, M.-X., & XU, X.-B. (2021)。中国农村贫困代际传递现状与路径：人力资本投资视角。*综合农业杂志*，20 (4)，1080–1091。 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2095-3119\(20\)63373-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2095-3119(20)63373-1)
- [11] BIGSTEN, A., & LEVIN, J. (2004)。增长、收入分配和贫困：回顾。载于：S HORROCKS, A. 和 VAN DER HOEVEN, R. (编辑) 增长、不平等和贫困：有利于穷人的经济发展前景，发展经济学更广泛的研究。牛津：牛津学术出版社，第251–276页。 <https://doi.org/10.1093/0199268657.003.0012>
- [12] BOUOYIYOUR, J., MIFTAH, A., & MOUHOUD, E.M. (2016)。教育、男性性别偏好和移民汇款：摩洛哥农村的互动。*经济模型*，57，324–331。 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econmod.2015.10.026>
- [13] 布尔吉尼翁，F. (2004年)。贫困-增长-不平等三角关系。取自<https://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/449711468762020101/pdf/28102.pdf>
- [14] 布雷迪 (2019)。贫困原因的理论。*社会学年度回顾*，45(4)，155–175。 <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-soc-073018-022550>
- [15] CHEEMA, A.R., & SIAL, M. (2012)。1993年至2008年巴基斯坦有利于穷人的

- 增长评估。国际商业管理研究杂志，2(1)，1-9。从...获得
<https://www.interestjournals.org/articles/an-assessment-of-propoor-growth-in-pakistan-from-1993-to-2008.pdf>
- [16] DEWI, I.A.L., & SARJANA, I.M. (2015)。水田转为非农用地的驱动因素（案例：南登巴萨区 Subak Kerdung）。农业管理杂志，3(2)，163-171。取自<https://ojs.unud.ac.id/index.php/agribisnis/article/view/17104>
- [17] DIDU, S., & FAUZI, F. (2016)。人口、教育和经济增长对勒巴克摄政贫困的影响。经济学杂志，6(1)，102-117。<http://dx.doi.org/10.35448/jequ.v6i1.4199>
- [18] DOLLAR, D., & KRAAY, A. (2002)。增长有利于穷人。经济增长杂志，7，195-225。<https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1020139631000>
- [19] DOLLAR, D., KLEINEBERG, T. 和 KRAAY, A. (2016年)。增长对穷人仍然有利。欧洲经济评论，81，68-85。<https://doi.org/10.1016/J.EUROECOREV.2015.05.008>
- [20] 范胜，& 张鑫 (2008)。乌干达农村的公共支出、增长和减贫。非洲发展评论，20(3)，466-496。<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8268.2008.00194.x>
- [21] FAN, S., ZHANG, L., & ZHANG, X. (2002)。中国农村的增长、不平等和贫困：公共投资的作用。哥伦比亚特区华盛顿：国际食品政策研究所。<https://doi.org/10.2499/0896291286rr125>
- [22] FOSTER, A.D., & ROSENZWEIG, M.R. (2004)。农业生产率增长、农村经济多样性和经济改革：印度，1970-2000年。经济发展与文化变革，52(3)，509-542。<https://doi.org/10.1086/420968>
- [23] FOSTER, J., GREER, J., & THORBECKE, E. (2010)。福斯特-格里尔-索贝克(FGT)贫困措施：25年后。经济不平等杂志，8 (4)，491-524。<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10888-010-9136-1>
- [24] GRIGORIAN, D.A., & MELKONYAN, T.A. (2011)。注定要接收：汇款对亚美尼亚家庭决策的影响。发展经济学评论，15(1)，139-153。<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9361.2010.00598.x>
- [25] KAKWANI, N., SON, H.H., QURESHI, S.K., & ARIF, G.M. (2003)。有利于穷人的增长：国家案例研究的概
 念和衡量。巴基斯坦发展评论，42(4)，417-444。<http://dx.doi.org/10.30541/v42i4Ipp.417-444>
- [26] KIM, N. (2007)。汇款对劳动力供应的影响：牙买加案例。哥伦比亚特区华盛顿：世界银行。取自<https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/7152>
- [27] KUNCORO, M. (2015)。轻松理解和分析经济指标。日惹：UPP 兴奋剂YKPN。
- [28] LIU, Y., AMIN, A., RASOOL, S.F., & ZAMAN, Q.U. (2020)。农业和外国汇款在减轻农村贫困方面的作用：来自巴基斯坦的经验证据。风险管理和医疗保健政策，13，13-26。<https://doi.org/10.2147/RMHP.S235580>
- [29] MADITO, O., & KHUMALO, J. (2014)。经济增长-南非的失业关系：VECM方法。地中海社会科学杂志，5 (20)，79-84。<https://doi.org/10.5901/mjss.2014.v5n20p79>
- [30] MARJIT, S., & KAR, S. (2019)。贫穷国家的国际资本流动、土地转换和工资不平等。开放经济评论，30(5)，933-945。<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11079-019-09548-4>
- [31] NIZAR, C., HAMZAH, A. 和 SYAHNUR, S. (2013)。印度尼西亚投资和劳动力对经济增长的影响及其与贫困水平的关系。伊尔穆经济杂志，1(2)，1-8。
- [32] ÖZEL, H.A., SEZGIN, F.H., & TOPKAYA, Ö. (2013)。使用面板回归分析调查G7国家的经济增长和失业关系。国际商业与社会科学杂志，4(6)，163-171。取自<https://www.ijbssnet.com/journal/index/1932>
- [33] 帕瓦沃拉 (2012)。老挝人民民主共和国村庄发展基金对社区福利的影响。赫尔辛基大学博士论文。检索自<http://urn.fi/URN:ISBN:978-952-10-7610-7>
- [34] QUY, N.H. (2016)。经济增长、失业和贫困之间的关系：越南省级分析。国际经济与金融杂志，8 (12)，113-119。<https://doi.org/10.5539/ijef.v8n12p113>
- [35] RAVALLION, M., CHEN, S., & SANGRAULA, P. (2007)。全球贫困城市化的新证据。人口与发展评论，33(4)，667-701。<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1728-4457.2007.00193.x>
- [36] ROBERTSON, B., JOELENE, C., & DUNN, L. (2015)。缅甸地方发展基金：初步审查。取自<http://asiafoundation.org/wp->

- content/uploads/2015/10/Local-Development-Funds-in-Myanmar_ENG.pdf
- [37] SARKAR, A. (2007)。开发和迁移：西孟加拉邦的土地征用。经济和政治周刊，42 (16)，1435-1442。http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/4419496
- [38] SETIANINGSIH, I. (2016)。村级基金对美拉维摄政减贫的贡献。区域经济杂志(杰达)，5(3)，1-17。取自<https://jurnal.untan.ac.id/index.php/JEDA2/article/view/21437>
- [39] SUNU, M.K.K., & UTAMA, M.S. (2019)。村级基金对巴厘岛地区/城市贫困水平和社区福利的影响。乌达亚那大学经济与商业电子期刊，8(8)，843-872。https://doi.org/10.24843/EEB.2019.v08.i08.p02
- [40] SURYAHADI, A., SURYADARMA, D., & SUMARTO, S. (2009)。经济增长的位置和部门构成对贫困的影响：来自印度尼西亚的证据。发展经济学杂志，89 (1)，109-117。https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdeveco.2008.08.003
- [41] TEBAY, V. (2021)。巴布亚省以扶贫为目标的村庄发展政策分析。西南交通大学学报，56(4)，673-681。https://doi.org/10.35741/issn.0258-2724.56.4.57
- [42] TEGEP, J., SURATMAN, E., & INDRA, S. (2019)。外国直接投资未能解释失业率以及经济增长和最低工资的中介作用。国际经济与金融问题杂志，9(2)，154-161。https://doi.org/10.32479/ijefi.7524
- [43] THORBECKE, E. (2013)。撒哈拉以南非洲的增长、不平等和贫困之间的相互关系。非洲经济杂志，22(供应_1)，我15-我48。https://doi.org/10.1093/jae/ejs028
- [44] VARGAS-SILVA, C., MARKAKI, Y., & SUMPTION, M. (2016)。国际移民对英国贫困的影响。约瑟夫朗特里基金会。取自<https://www.jrf.org.uk/report/impacts-international-migration-poverty-uk>
- [45] VERBURG, P.H., KOK, K., GILMORE, R., & VELDKAMP, P.A. (2006)。土地利用和土地覆盖变化建模。在：LAMBIN, E.F., & GEIST, H. (编辑) 土地利用和土地覆盖变化。全球变化 - IGBP系列。柏林，海德堡：施普林格，第117-135页。https://doi.org/10.1007/3-540-32202-7
- [46] VIVERITA, V., ASTUTI, R.D., MARTDIANTY, F., & KUSUMASTUTI, R.D. (2022)。乡村基金管理、生活质量和社区福祉：来自印度尼西亚勒巴克摄政的证据。西南交通大学学报，57(3)，468-483。https://doi.org/10.35741/issn.0258-2724.57.3.38
- [47] VU, L., & RAMMOHAN, A. (2022)。食品安全中是否存在非正式就业处罚？来自越南农村的证据。欧洲发展研究杂志，34，2923-29475。https://doi.org/10.1057/s41287-021-00498-7
- [48] WAHYUDDIN, W., RAMLY, A., DJALIL, M.A. 和 INDRIANI, M. (2019)。纳甘拉雅摄政酒店瓜拉县利用村级基金扶贫的成效。暖莎：伊斯兰社会与宗教研究杂志，16(2)，181-193。https://doi.org/10.19105/nuansa.v16i2.2410
- [49] 向建、李鑫、肖润和王玉 (2021)。土地利用转型对中国贫困山区生态脆弱性的影响：一个复杂的网络方法。环境管理杂志，297，113206。https://doi.org/10.1016/J.JENVMAN.2021.113206
- [50] 杨德 (2008)。国际移民、汇款和家庭投资：来自菲律宾移民汇率冲击的证据。经济杂志，118 (528)，591-630。https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-0297.2008.02134.x
- [51] ZAMAN, K., & KHILJI, B.A. (2013)。撤回：巴基斯坦增长-不平等-贫困三角关系与扶贫增长政策之间的关系：双重失望。经济模型，30(1)，375-393。https://doi.org/10.1016/J.ECONMOD.2012.09.023