

# Food Security in Poor Families

*Study of Public Policy and Local Initiative at East Java*

1<sup>st</sup>FX Sri Sadewo

*Sociology Program of Social Science Department  
Universitas Negeri Surabaya  
Surabaya, Indonesia  
[fsadewo@unesa.ac.id](mailto:fsadewo@unesa.ac.id)*

2<sup>nd</sup>Sugeng Harianto

*Sociology Program of Social Science Department  
Universitas Negeri Surabaya  
Surabaya, Indonesia  
[sugengharianto@unesa.ac.id](mailto:sugengharianto@unesa.ac.id)*

3<sup>rd</sup>Herrukmi Septa Rinawati

*East Java Office of Research and Development  
Surabaya, Indonesia  
[septa27@yahoo.co.id](mailto:septa27@yahoo.co.id)*

4<sup>th</sup>Badrudin Kurniawan

*Public Administration Department  
Universitas Negeri Surabaya (UNESA)  
Surabaya, Indonesia  
[badrudinkurniawan@unesa.ac.id](mailto:badrudinkurniawan@unesa.ac.id)*

5<sup>th</sup>Martinus Legowo

*Sociology Program of Social Science Department  
Universitas Negeri Surabaya  
Surabaya, Indonesia  
[marleg@unesa.ac.id](mailto:marleg@unesa.ac.id)*

**Abstract**—Food security is a concern for government and society. It provides support for family productivity in achieving its welfare. Not only the government, every family will try to protect the availability of food. By taking studies in four regencies/cities, the research elaborates how local government strategies to overcome food insecurity. This strategy is related to limited land for food and climate change. Moreover, communities including rural and urban poor families, are developing initiatives to meet food security. Social networks and solidarity are the social capital of poor families to fulfill food security.

**Keywords**—Public Policy, Food Security, Poor Family

## I. INTRODUCTION

Food security becomes a concern to the world, mainly since the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Robert Malthus responded to it related to the acceleration of population growth. Increasing the amount of food is not in line with population growth. War, disease and natural disasters became the natural modus operandi to overcome the imbalance between food and population.[1] Food crises continue, particularly in Africa, especially Ethiopia. Terrible droughts resulted hunger and deaths in the 1980s and continued today. And, as if confirming Malthus's thesis, the crisis of drought and hunger goes hand in hand with the political crisis. The political crisis and ongoing civil war resulted in farmers failing to manage their fields. Then, climate change worsens it, farmers experience crop failure and land becomes dry.[2]

Nature is often regarded as the cause of food insecurity. Natural disasters lead to various food failures, such as the Tambora case and in turn result in political and war crises.[3], [4] However, Leeps notes that not entirely climate change causes crop failures and in turn experiences a food crisis and

so on. He said that climate is one of the myths of food insecurity. In addition to climate, there are 11 other myths about food insecurity, including about food availability which does not mean security, a large population to be linked to the country's market system and democracy.[5] In fact, the food surplus experienced by a number of countries does not mean that it will cause food security because of an unequal land distribution system. Meanwhile, to overcome inefficiencies in food production, the government often offered liberalization as a solution. Competition will force actors to optimize all potential in the production system. In fact, economic liberalization actually resulted in local farmers collapsing, unable to compete.

Apart from these problems, countries in the world have agreed to put forward the issue of hunger and food security into the direction of development. This was stated in MDG's (Objective 1. Eradication of Extreme Poverty and Hunger) (2000-2015) [6] and continued with SDG's (2nd goal) (2015-2030).[7] Therefore, since 2000, the issue of availability, sufficiency and food security has become a concern of world countries, including Indonesia. This is very important because in the historical records shows food insecurity in many countries result in hunger and death.[8]

In the MDGs and SDGs, poverty is always linked to hunger. Therefore, the SDGs place hunger in the second goal, after eradicating poverty. Poverty is one of the causes of the inability of a person or family to consume sufficient food. These things are the concern of the government and society to attain food security. Therefore, the Indonesian government has paid attention to this issue, especially during the Suharto regime and afterwards. The increase in per capita income is a measure of the success of development as well as observed by

international institutions, such as: UNDP and World Bank.[9]–[15]

Table 1. Poverty in Indonesia in 2016-2018[16]  
(in thousands)

PROVINCE	2016	2017	2018	%
ACEH	841,31	829,8	831,5	15,68
NORTH SUMATERA	1.452,55	1.326,57	1.291,99	8,94
WEST SUMATERA	376,51	359,99	353,24	6,55
RIAU	501,59	496,39	494,26	7,21
JAMBI	290,81	278,61	281,47	7,85
SOUTH SUMATERA	1.096,50	1.086,76	1.076,40	12,82
BENGGULU	325,6	302,62	303,55	15,41
LAMPUNG	1.139,78	1.083,74	1.091,60	13,01
BANGKA BELITUNG ISLAND	71,07	76,2	69,93	4,77
RIAU ISLAND	119,14	128,43	125,36	5,83
JAKARTA	385,84	393,13	372,26	3,55
WEST JAVA	4.168,11	3.774,41	3.539,40	7,25
CENTRAL JAVA	4.493,75	4.197,49	3.867,42	11,19
YOGYAKARTA	488,83	466,33	450,25	11,81
EAST JAVA	4.683,53	4.405,27	4.292,15	10,85
BANTEN	657,74	699,83	668,74	5,25
BALI	174,94	176,48	168,34	3,91
WEST NUSA TENGGARA	786,58	748,12	735,62	14,63
EAST NUSA TENGGARA	1.150,08	1.134,74	1.134,11	21,03
WEST KALIMANTAN	390,32	388,81	369,73	7,37
CENTRAL KALIMANTAN	137,46	137,88	136,45	5,1
SOUTH KALIMANTAN	184,16	194,56	195,01	4,65
EAST KALIMANTAN	221,24	218,67	222,39	6,06
NORTH KALIMANTAN	47,3	48,56	49,59	6,86
NORTH SULAWESI	200,35	194,85	189,05	7,59
CENTRAL SULAWESI	413,15	423,27	413,49	13,69
SOUTH SULAWESI	796,81	825,97	779,64	8,87
SOUTHEAST SULAWESI	327,29	313,16	301,85	11,32
GORONTALO	203,69	200,91	188,3	15,83
WEST SULAWESI	146,9	149,47	152,83	11,22
MALUKU	331,79	320,42	317,84	17,85
NORTH MALUKU	76,4	78,28	81,93	6,62
WEST PAPUA	223,6	212,86	213,67	22,66
PAPUA	914,87	910,42	915,22	27,43
INDONESIA	27.764,32	26.582,99	25.674,58	9,66

Source: BPS, 2019

Based on data from the Central Bureau of Statistics, the number of poor people in Indonesia is only 9.66% in 2019. This number has experienced a decline compared to previous years.[16] The highest percentage of poor population compared to the population is Papua, then followed by West Papua, East Nusa Tenggara and Maluku. In terms of quantity, East Java Province has 16.72% of all poor people in Indonesia, followed by Central and West Java Provinces.

When referring to theories about food security, these poor people are a group that is vulnerable to the food crisis. In Indonesia, the term food security is not only understood as security, but also resilience. The word “resilience” is used to

represent conditions of food fulfillment at the family and individual level which are affected by various conditions. Food security, by P. Hariyadi can be achieved if it fulfills aspects of food availability, affordability, food consumption and aspects of food independence.[17] It is in line with the concept developed by FAO on food security, namely: availability, access, stability and use [18]

Related to food security concept and the number of poor people, the question is how the condition of food availability, especially the ability to produce food and the strategy of regency/city government in avoiding and overcoming the threat of a food crisis. Furthermore, when the government is trying to overcome the problem, how does family or individual respond to unfavorable conditions, especially vulnerable poor families.

## II. RESEARCH METHOD

This study uses a qualitative approach by exploring data on food security policies in four regencies throughout East Java, namely: Kediri, Bojonegoro, Mojokerto and Lumajang. These four regencies represent a variant of cultural ecology with all the risks of food vulnerability. Kediri is inland area of East Java with Javanese Mataraman culture, Bojonegoro which is on the north coast of Java with coastal communities, and Mojokerto which is in the hybrid Javanese coastal culture area (“arek” culture). Lumajang is an eastern region with mountainous communities.

To obtain an overview of policies on food security, this research uses Rapid Assessment Procedure (RAP). The data collection technique uses Focus Group Discussions (FGD) activities with officials from the agencies related to food security and disaster, starting from Department of Agriculture to the Regional Disaster Management Agency (BPBD). Meanwhile, to gain an understanding how to poor people overcome the food crisis, the research team conducted observations and in-depth interviews with poor families in rural and urban areas, especially families with problems with malnutrition in their children.

From these findings, in the RAP, a number of analysis techniques in ethnographic methods are used, such as: domain analysis, categorical and constant comparisons. [19] The information obtained is mapped, then analyzed based on the distinguishing characteristic to examine the relationships among them.

## III. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

**Vulnerability and Food Security Policy.** From table 2, these four regencies actually have the potential for high food security. This is indicated by half of its area which is used as agriculture, especially Kediri and Mojokerto. Of the agricultural land that is cultivated, more than half is also used for rice fields, especially in Mojokerto (80.05%). Meanwhile, agricultural area in Bojonegoro is only 55.72% and only half

of it is for irrigated and non-irrigated rice fields (64.22%). The condition to be aware of is Lumajang, which only has 50.07% for agriculture area and rice fields, is only 40.55%.

Table 2. Land Use in Four Regencies.[20]

LAND TYPE	BOJONEGORO		KEDIRI		MOJOKERTO		LUMAJANG	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
<b>AGRICULTURE</b>	122.509	55,72	74.047	53,42	45.745	63,73	89.670	50,07
<b>WET FIELDS</b>	78.677	64,22	47.160	63,69	36.619	80,05	36.361	40,55
<b>1. IRRIGATED</b>	38.085	48,41	46.411	98,41	30.799	84,11	33.209	91,33
<b>2. NON-IRRIGATED</b>	40.592	51,59	749	1,59	5.820	15,89	3.152	8,67
<b>DRY FIELDS</b>	43.832	35,78	26.887	36,31	9.126	19,95	53.309	59,45
<b>1. DRY FIELD/GARDEN (TEGAL)</b>	23.555	53,74	26.887	100,00	8.677	95,08	53.309	100,00
<b>2. SHIFTING CULTIVATION LAND (LADANG)</b>	20.263	46,23	0	0,00	409	4,48	0	0,00
<b>3. NOT CULTIVATED</b>	14	0,03	0	0,00	40	0,44	0	0,00
<b>NON-AGRICULTURE</b>	97.370	44,28	64.558	46,58	26.038	36,27	89.420	49,93
<b>TOTAL</b>	219.879		138.605		71.783		179.090	

However, these four regencies have a number of problems that have an impact on food vulnerability. Part area of Bojonegoro which is located along Bengawan Solo River with the North Kendeng Limestone Mountains, is prone to flooding and drought. The flood disaster was caused by the overflow of Bengawan Solo River in rainy season. Meanwhile, drought occurred not only around the river, but in the North Kendeng Limestone Mountains. The land position that is higher than the surface of Bengawan Solo during dry season results in a part of the agricultural land experiencing drought.

Almost the same condition is also experienced by people of Mojokerto Regency passed by Brantas River. Some of the area is also located in the North Kendeng Limestone Mountains, namely: Jetis and Kemlagi Sub-District. Meanwhile, communities in the Penanggungan and Welirang Mountains, such as Pacet, experience drought in the dry season.

Community of Lumajang Regency lives in mountainous area of Ijen and Bromo-Semeru. The structure and slope of land cause landslide hazards. Moreover, they often experience a water crisis. Therefore, the farming system is more in the form of shifting cultivation land than rice fields. Rice fields are only in the lowlands. Because of the limited availability of water, they are more likely to plant less water, such as upland rice.

Community of Kediri Regency is far more fortunate because there is no vulnerability caused by ecology. The problem is that, like other regions, land ownership is narrow to disrupt the subsistence of the community. Following the concept of C. Geertz, they experience what is called agricultural involution.[21] This condition is exacerbated by the green revolution and the use of modern agricultural tools. Women can no longer rely on the agricultural sector. Those who are able to turn into traders [22] and there are also those who have to migrate as workers abroad, especially female migrant workers (TKW)[23]–[26]. Migration into female migrant workers is indeed not as massive as the surrounding regencies because they can also choose to become laborers in the industrial and trade sectors in Kediri City.

In order to overcome food crisis in the poor, there are a number of strategies. The central government provides rice assistance for poor/prosperous families (Raskin /Rastra) and non-cash food aid funds (BPNT). In addition, through the Ministry of Social Affairs along with Local Department of Social Affairs and related institutions in the regency, the government carried out Hope Family Program (PKH).[27], [28] The regency government, through Regional Disaster Management Agency (BPBD) always maps out the areas of vulnerability and forms of the threats. When experiencing drought, the BPBD distributes clean water to the affected areas. This was done by the four regency governments.

They also held an intensification and diversification program on agricultural land. That is, when the planting season is normal, they intensify to produce an increase in agricultural products. Meanwhile, the replacement of types of food crops is in line with the condition of water availability for agriculture. They switched to planting "pala pendhem" (cassava and sweet potatoes), and corn.

In addition, on unfavorable soil structure, slope and rainfall, they plant other commodity crops, such as: vegetables. Other options are livestock and fisheries. The structure of land is not possible for farming, then the agricultural business is diverted to livestock and fisheries. In Bojonegoro and Mojokerto, a number of residents do fish farming. They are fostered by Local Department of Agriculture and Fisheries. Meanwhile, Lumajang government develops beef cattle farms.

**The Poor in Overcoming Food Vulnerability.** In a number of studies on poverty, the ability to consume food is determined by limited income.[29], [30] However, under these conditions the poor families did not immediately give up.[31] From the informants who were observed and interviewed, fulfilling food needs depends on the location and objective conditions. In terms of location, there are differences between rural and urban poor families. In rural areas, land tenure is a key word related to the issue of food security, while in urban areas it depends on the family's ability to obtain cash.[30]

When malnutrition status in children under five is used as an indicator of food security, in fact, what is observed in four regencies, first, it occurs as an causes of other diseases, such

as child of Kus (36 years, Lumajang Regency) and child of SM (36 years old, Bojonegoro). The child of Kus suffers from a congenital heart (from birth), while a child of SM suffers from a brain nerve disease. However, congenital diseases from birth can not be separated from the economic condition of the family that is fairly poor. At the time of pregnancy, the mother is less concerned about nutritional conditions and check her womb.

Secondly, poor nutritional conditions also occur due to food intake after birth. With her busy looking for additional income, her mother is less concerned about the nutritional status of her child. His mother only thought as long as her stomach was full, as understood by AM's mother (26 years, Bojonegoro Regency). If the child is thin, he considers it natural. The same thing happened to other children. The same understanding was found in poor families in Bekasi City, Jakarta.[32]

**Table 3. Food Security and Strategy for the Poor.**

	Bojonegoro Regency	Kediri Regency	Mojokerto Regency	Lumajang Regency
Source of Vulnerability				
1. Ecological	Climate Change: Flood and Drought	Topography	Topography and Climate Change: Flood	Topography
2. Structural	Narrow land ownership	Narrow land ownership	Narrow land ownership	Transportation
3. Change in Rice Fields Ecosystem	Land-use Change		Land-use Change	Moor (non-irrigation)
Change in Social Structure	Industrialization of suburban and rural areas			Agriculture
Government Strategy	Land Intensification: Non-Rice Fishery	Land Intensification: Non-Rice Livestock	Land Intensification: Fishery Livestock	Land Intensification: Non-Rice Livestock
		Food Diversification		Food Diversification
	Rice for the Poor / Prosperous (Raskin/Rastra), Non-Cash Food Assistance (BPNT) and Hope Family Program (PKH)			
	Providing additional food for babies suffering from nutritional deficiencies.			
Community Strategy				
Rural Area	Utilization of empty land for alternative food crops;			
	Work in the agricultural and non-agricultural sectors to obtain cash as laborers, for example home-based businesses, construction workers, etc..			
	Migrate to the city or even abroad (indonesian migrant			

workers/female migrant workers)	
Urban Area	Involving all family members to obtain cash, for example: housemaids, washing workers, home-based businesses, shopkeepers, etc;
	Use social networks for access to health and food;
	Shipments of food aid from families in their original place.

In conditions of poverty, involvement in finding income is carried out by all family members, including housewives in both rural and urban areas. In rural areas, mothers work in the off-farm sector, namely micro-enterprises, such as snacks and other small-scale industries, or as housemaids in rich families (suburban areas). They do everything, including helping to cook (rewang) if there is a celebration. From "the rewang" activity, he will get food and money. "Rewang" is actually a social solidarity activity, but now there are changes. Those who have celebration are aware of the time and energy spent, so as to provide food and money as a substitute. This is the principle of social repositry which is part of social capital.[33]–[35]

To obtain food, aside from government assistance, poor families actually get it when working in other people's rice fields. In addition to getting wages, they are usually given unhulled rice as well, about twenty kilograms when processed into rice. It has become a tradition for owners of rice fields to share at harvest time. When they have a yard, they will plant cassava. The leaves can be used as vegetables, while the bulbs are eaten. Another way is by "ngramban", picking leaves for vegetables from other people's yards or along rice fields. They first requested permission from the owner, as was done by the JU family (40 years, Lumajang Regency).

"Ngramban" is also carried out by poor families on the suburbs, as did SM (36 years). "For vegetables, I do "ngramban"... Fortunately the neighbors are good. We don't have tap water yet. We were asked to take, even channelling (water) without paying. We are often given side dishes and rice ... "Aside from the results of their work, rice needs can also be obtained from their parents in rural areas. His parents sent most of his crop.

Efforts to obtain cash in rural areas are indeed more difficult than in cities. What is done directly gets cash. As experienced by Mr. Kus (36 years), he obtained money when the cattle or goats that were kept were sold by the owner. Half of the sale price is his. He can also get one of the two calves or goats raised. That is, new profits can be obtained after approximately one year.

If he raises dairy cows, then he will get a wage to squeeze milk. Wages are taken from part of the profits of milk sold. For calves that are born, they will be divided according to the agreement at the beginning. This system is called "ganduh". The pattern of agricultural profit sharing systems is applied to livestock. In paddy farming, this system pattern has various

variants, from "maro" (divided in two), "martelu" (one-third) and "mrapat" (quarter).[36]

The last choice for poor families to get cash is to migrate to the city. In Surabaya, Lumajang people are well-known as reliable construction workers and artisans. If he does not have the expertise and knowledge, he is sufficient to become a construction worker. [37], [38] During wandering, they save money by cooking themselves. Rice is brought from home, they just cook vegetables. They live at home or work on projects.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

Food insecurity of a society is actually caused by physical (natural) factors and social structure factors. Ecological, structural and paddy ecosystems changes in rural areas contribute to vulnerability for poor families. However, the government has predicted the incidence of food insecurity. Indicators on the vulnerability of food at the individual level have been easily recorded by Local Department of Public Health through the Public Health Center (Puskesmas) at the sub-district level and carried out in the "Posyandu" (Integrated Service Post) activities involving Puskesmas officers and members of the Family Welfare Empowerment (PKK) . Based on the routine mapping also, the government also prepared various strategies according to the causes of vulnerability.

However, the community has various strategies to overcome food vulnerability. Vulnerability can be caused by how they construct food intake. However, another cause is poverty. Poor people are able to get around by looking at their socio-cultural structure. The last option is to leave the area to get additional cash. The choices depend on the social structure in which poor families settle.

#### Acknowledgment

. Thank to the East Java Provincial Research and Development Agency. Through self-managed funding, research is conducted. Also, thank to the informants for their willingness to be observed and interviewed.

#### Reference

- [1] T. R. Malthus, "An essay on the principle of population, as it affects the future improvement of society," *Contemp. Sociol.*, vol. 2, no. 3, p. 134, 1798.
- [2] R. A. Bryson and T. J. Murray, *Climates of Hunger. Mankind and the World's Changing Weather*, 1st ed. Madison, Wisconsin: The University of Wisconsin Press, 1977.
- [3] G. D. Wood, *Tambora. The Eruption that Changed the World*, 1st ed. Princeton and Oxford: Princeton University Press, 2014.
- [4] D. Higgins, *British Romanticism, Climate Change, and The Anthropocene*, 1st ed. Leeds: Palgrave Macmillan, 2017.
- [5] F. M. Lappe, J. Collins, P. Rosset, and L. Esparza, "World Hunger. Twelve Myths." Grove Press, New York, p. 269, 1998.
- [6] United Nations, "The Millennium Development Goals Report," New York, 2015.
- [7] U. Nations, "The Sustainable Development Goals Report 2017," New York, 2017.
- [8] R. W. Fogel, *The Escape from Hunger and Premature Death , 1700 – 2100*, 1st ed. Cambridge, 2004.
- [9] G. Ranis, A. Ramirez, and F. Stewart, "Economic Growth and Human Development," *World Dev.*, vol. 28, no. 2, 1997.
- [10] M. D. Hanouz, S. Baller, and C. Browne, *The Global Competitiveness Report 2016–2017*, 1st ed. Geneva: the World Economic Forum, 2016.
- [11] R. Phillips and R. Pittman, *A framework for community and economic development*. 2009.
- [12] UNDP, *World development indicators*. New York: UNDP, 2004.
- [13] R. Indonesia, "Republik Indonesia Pembangunan Milenium Indonesia 2010," 2010.
- [14] J. Lundine, R. Y. Hadikusumah, and T. Sudrajat, "Indonesia's progress on the 2015 Millenium Development Goals," *Indones. 360*, vol. 3, no. 3, pp. 54–66, 2013.
- [15] J. K. van Donge, "Growing Apart: Oil, Politics and Economic Change in Indonesia and Nigeria," *The Journal of Development Studies*, vol. 44, no. 5. pp. 764–765, 2008.
- [16] H. Marhaeni, "Profil Kemiskinan Di Indonesia September 2018," *Berita Resmi Statistik*, no. 07, Jakarta, pp. 1–12, Jan-2019.
- [17] P. Hariyadi, "Penguatan Industri Penghasil Nitai Tambah berbasis Potensi Lokal. Peranan Teknologi Pangan untuk Kemandirian Pangan," *Pangan*, vol. 19, no. 4, 2010.
- [18] J. R. Anderson, "Concepts of Stability in Food Security," in *Encyclopedia of Food Security and Sustainability*, 1st ed., P. Ferranti, E. M. Berry, and J. R. Anderson, Eds. New York: Elsevier,inc, 2018, pp. 1–8.
- [19] J. P. Spradley, *The Ethnographic Interview*, 1st ed. Fort Worth, Philadelphia: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc, 1979.
- [20] BPS Jawa Timur, *Provinsi Jawa Timur dalam Angka 2018*, 1st ed. Surabaya: BPS Provinsi Jawa Timur, 2018.
- [21] C. Geertz, *Agricultural Involution. The Process of Ecological Change In Indonesia*, 1st ed. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1963.
- [22] C. Geertz, *Peddlers and Princes. Social Development and Economic Change in Two Indonesia Towns*. 1963.
- [23] M. Ford, *From Migrant to Worker. Global Unions and Temporary Labor Migration in Asia*, 1st ed. Ithaca and London: Cornell University, 2019.
- [24] B. Fernandez and M. de Regs, "Making a Home in the World. Migrant Domestic Workers in the Middle East," in *Migrant Domestic Workers in The Middle East*, 1st ed., B. Fernandez

- and M. de Regs, Eds. New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 2014, pp. 1–26.
- [25] N. Constable, *Maid to Order in Hong Kong. Stories of Migrant Workers*, 2nd ed. Ithaca and London: Cornell University Press, 2007.
- [26] I. B. Wirawan, “Migrasi sirkuler tenaga kerja wanita (tkw) ke luar negeri: studi tentang proses pengambilan keputusan bermigrasi oleh wanita pedesaan di Jawa,” Airlangga, 2006.
- [27] F. S. Sadewo, M. Legowo, S. Harianto, and Supriyanta, *Pembangunan untuk keluarga miskin*, 1st ed. Surabaya: Unesa University Press, 2012.
- [28] C. Mahoney, *Health , Food and Social Inequality. Critical perspectives on the supply and marketing of food*, 1st ed. Oxon: Routledge, 2015.
- [29] A. Sumner and P. Edward, “From Low Income, High Poverty to High-Income, No Poverty? An Optimistic View of the Long-Run Evolution of Poverty in Indonesia by International Poverty Lines, 1984-2030,” Jakarta, 2013.
- [30] J. Klugman, “Rural and Urban Poverty: Overview,” in *A Sourcebook for Poverty Reduction Strategies. Volume 2. Macroeconomic and Sectoral Approaches*, 1st ed., vol. 2, J. Klugman, Ed. Washington, D.C.: The World Bank, 2002, pp. 62–65.
- [31] F. S. Sadewo, M. Legowo, Supriyanta, and S. Harianto, *Pembangunan untuk keluarga miskin. Kearifan lokal dan program pengentasan kemiskinan pada masyarakat di Jawa Timur*, 1st ed. Surabaya: Unesa University Press, 2012.
- [32] R. Soerachman, D. Sulistiawati, and E. Purwanto, *Asal Perut Tidak Kosong pada Balita di Rawa Bogo*, 1st ed. Sleman: PT Kanisius, 2016.
- [33] F. M. Baye, “Rural Institutions, Access to Primary Assets and Poverty in Two Villages in Cameroon,” *Pak. Econ. Soc. Rev.*, vol. 40, no. 2, pp. 121–152, 2002.
- [34] J. Harriss, “Depoliticizing Development: The World Bank and Social Capital,” 2002.
- [35] C. Grootaert, D. Narayan, V. N. Jones, and M. Woolcock, “Measuring Social Capital,” Washington, D.C., 18, 2004.
- [36] T. Wahyuningsih, “Sistem Bagi Hasil Maro sebagai Upaya Mewujudkan Solidaritas Masyarakat,” *J. Komunitas*, vol. 3, no. 2, pp. 197–204, 2011.
- [37] F. S. Sadewo, “Buruh Bangunan di Kota Besar. Mekanisme Survival Kelompok Miskin Migran di Surabaya Tahun 1990-an,” in *Masalah-masalah Kemiskinan di Surabaya, Revisited.*, M. Legowo, Ed. Surabaya: Surabaya University Press, 2015, pp. 59–92.
- [38] J. Hanoman, *Hunger and Poverty in South Africa. The Hidden Faces of Food Insecurity*, 1st ed. Oxon: Routledge, 2018.