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Human Development Analysis on Poverty Alleviation in South Sulawesi During the Covid-19 Pandemic

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ABSTRACT

Poverty is one of the most fundamental issues in development. As a result, poverty reduction is one of the country's top priorities, not least for the administration of South Sulawesi Province. This is consistent with the first target of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which is to eliminate poverty in all of its manifestations everywhere. However, the poverty rate continues to fluctuate and even rises during the COVID-19 epidemic. Several studies have found that poverty is caused by social, economic, and cultural variables such as education, health, and money. As a result, the purpose of this research is to examine the impact of education, health, and the economy on poverty reduction in South Sulawesi. The data utilized is secondary data from the Central Statistics Agency's nationwide socioeconomic survey performed in 2020 and 2021. The SmartPLS program is used to do structural equation modeling-partial least squares (SEM-PLS) analysis on the data. The findings indicate that education, health, and the economy all have an impact on poverty in South Sulawesi. Health has a negative and considerable impact on poverty. The economy has a negative and considerable impact on poverty, but education has no such impact.

Volume 5 Nomor 1 April 2023

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journal homepage : : https://jurnal.fisip.untad.ac.id/index.php/JPAG

INTRODUCTION

Economics is frequently related with human development. The goal of development is to achieve high economic circumstances (Maulana et al., 2022). According to the Central Statistics Agency (CSA), economic growth is a set of actions and policies aiming at raising people's living standards, increasing employment possibilities, assuring equitable income distribution, and transferring economic activity from secondary to primary and tertiary sectors (Garnella et al., 2020). The Corona Virus (Covid-19) is presently spreading over the world. Social or physical distance is one method used to combat the spread of this epidemic. However, this has an effect on the overall drop in economic activity (Rizal & Mukaromah, 2021). Lower income, reduced investment in tourist, entertainment, arts and culture, travel, SMEs, and transportation sectors, as well as a fall in tax revenues and a delay in economic development, are the economic consequences (Surya et al., 2022).

In addition to economic growth, poverty is the oldest problem that all nations face, with varying levels of welfare, community clusters are classified by the human development index, and labor engagement is also required in production components that can promote economic growth (Prameswari et al., 2021). Poverty can worsen with negative economic development if the government does not deploy pro-growth resources properly spending on poverty alleviation (Rambe et al., 2022).

Poverty happens when an individual or group of people are unable to satisfy the fundamental needs of a given standard of living (Dharmmayukti et al., 2021). Poverty may be conceptualized using poverty theories such as cultural poverty, structural poverty, and natural poverty (Fadilla, 2018). This circumstance leads to a drop in human resource quality, which leads to a loss in production and income (Ristika et al., 2021). Poverty is defined as a person's inability to satisfy basic requirements such as food, clothes, housing, health, and education (Nafi'ah, 2021). The impoverished are often less capable of working and have limited access to economic activities, therefore they fall behind other populations with greater potential (Rimawan & Aryani, 2019).

Poverty is defined as the inability to satisfy basic requirements such as food, clothes, shelter, education, and health care (Fithri & Kaluge, 2017). The CSA employs a basic needs approach to measuring poverty. Poverty is defined as the inability to meet basic food needs on an economic level and non-food needs on an expenditure level. Residents who fall into the poor category have an average monthly per capita expenditure that is less than the Poverty Line as determined by the CSA (Baihaqi & Puspitasari, 2020). Poverty, among other things, is caused by the backwardness of humans and natural resources. Natural resource management is heavily reliant on human productive capacity (Y. Sari et al., 2020).

According to the Central Statistics Agency for 2020, the percentage of Indonesians living in poverty has fluctuated over the last 20 years and has been on the decline for the last five. However, it showed an upward trend in 2020, increasing by 0.97 percent over the previous year (Rohmi et al., 2021). Poverty is a multifaceted topic, as seen by the variety of viewpoints on it. However, according to the World Bank, poverty must still be quantified using certain characteristics in order to build poverty-reduction strategies (Budhijana, 2019). Poverty is another indication that can characterize the quality of human existence, namely the conditions for acceptable living (Nugraeni & Aji, 2021).

The percentage of Indonesians living in poverty was 9.78% in March 2020, grew to 10.19% in September 2020, and then fell marginally by 0.05 percentage points to 10.14 percent in March 2021. There are 16 regions with double-digit poverty rates among the 34 provinces. Eastern Indonesia has the five provinces with the greatest poverty rates. Papua Province has the greatest poverty rate in Indonesia, at 26.86%, while Bali has the lowest poverty rate, at 4.53%. Meanwhile, South Sulawesi ranked 18th, with poverty rates of 8.69%, 8.72%, and 8.78% in March 2019, March 2020, and March 2021, respectively. In reality, by September 2020, this proportion had risen to 8.99% (Badan Pusat Statistik, 2021).

According to data given by the CSA, the poverty rate in South Sulawesi has increased during the previous two years. The poverty rate increased by 0.5% points in 2013, from 9.82% to 10.32%, before falling back to 9.54% in 2014. Poverty grew by 0.01% in 2016, rising from 9.39% to 9.40%. Fluctuations in the poverty rate in South Sulawesi during the last few years demonstrate that the problem of poverty remains a homework

assignment for local governments. This is a fascinating study to examine what factors influence the poverty rate in South Sulawesi in 2020 and 2021, or during the covid-19 epidemic.

Poverty is no longer characterized as a restricted economic inability, but as the inability to fulfill basic rights and distinct treatment for a person or group of people, men and women, in living a dignified existence (Soleh, 2018). Poverty alleviation is a policy that the government must continuously implement. Poverty reduction as a development policy is the responsibility of all stakeholders, including the government, business, and the community (Rah Adi Fahmi et al., 2018). As a result, poverty alleviation activities need time, tactics, and resources that must be coordinated in order to be successful (Bieth, 2021).

This developing development paradigm is based on economic growth as assessed by human development, which is determined by each country's degree of quality of life (Diba et al., 2018). The Human Development Index (HDI) is one indicator that may be used to quantify human quality and economies of scale. HDI is an indicator that may be used to quantify the success rate of human quality development. The United Nations Development Program (UNDP) originally launched the HDI in 1990 (Ningrum et al., 2020). The human development index is a strategic indicator extensively used to assess development efforts and performance in a geographical area; in other words, the human development index is a summary of the results of development programs carried out by the government in the previous year. This chart depicts the development program's progress between the beginning and conclusion of the government term (Goni et al., 2022).

The Human Development Index (HDI) was introduced in Indonesia in 1996 and has since been incorporated into numerous development plans. The HDI has various advantages, including serving as a baseline indication of the efficacy of development initiatives in improving community quality of life, as well as a ranking or equal distribution of development in a country (I. P. Sari et al., 2020). The HDI strives to demonstrate human development achievements in terms of the fundamental components of quality of life. As a measure of quality of life, the HDI employs a basic three-dimensional method. This dimension has a long and healthy existence; wisdom and a wonderful life (Laili Rohmi & Reza Fahlevi, 2021). The notion of comprehensive human development entails enhancing the population's quality of life on all levels: physically, psychologically, and spiritually. It is even mentioned expressly that the development is focused on the development of human resources in tandem with economic expansion (Bernadette Nani Ariani & Arrafi Juliannisa, 2021).

Various studies on human development and poverty have been carried out. Todaro and Smith (2015) in (Adriana, 2020) believes that education and health are critical to a society's well-being According to Adriana's findings, productivity is positively influenced by health and education, whereas poverty is negatively influenced by productivity (Adriana, 2020). According to Jonaidi, education is one indicator that may offer an overview of human resources and has a negative influence on poverty (Jonaidi,2012) in (Zahra, A, Afuwu, & R, 2019). Economy, housing conditions, health, and education have a significant influence on poverty in Indonesia (Zahra, A, Afuwu, & R, 2019).

According to Nuryanti and Soebagijo (2021), economic variables have a substantial influence on poverty, health variables have a significant effect on education, and health and education variables have a significant effect on poverty (Nuryanti & Soebagijo, 2021). Other research states that education can improve welfare and reduce poverty (Bloom, Canning, & Kevin, 2006) in (Susanto & Pangesti, 2019). Riyanti's research (2018) states that the economic and health dimensions have a negative effect on poverty (Riyanti, 2018). Some of these studies indicate that education, health, and the economy all have an impact on poverty levels. Based on the preceding description of the poverty problem, this study will look at how human development (education, health, and economic factors) affects poverty reduction in South Sulawesi Province in 2020 and 2021.

Volume 5 Nomor 1 April 2023

Journal of Public Administration and Government

journal homepage : : https://jurnal.fisip.untad.ac.id/index.php/JPAG

RESEARCH DATA AND VARIABLES

This study relies on secondary data gathered from the Central Statistics Agency of South Sulawesi Province's publications. The publication in question is the National Socio-Economic Survey for the months of March 2020 and March 2021. This study's observational unit is South Sulawesi's 24 districts/cities. Four latent variables make up the research variables. Two exogenous latent factors (health and education dimensions) and two endogenous latent variables comprise the latent variables (poverty and economic dimensions). The following table shows the research variables:

Table 1. Latent Variables and Research Indicator Variables

Latent Variable	Indicator	
(1)	(2)	
Poverty	Y1	Percentage of poor people (P0)
	Y2	Poverty Depth Index (P1)
	Y3	Poverty Severity Index (P2)
Health	X1	Life Expectancy (UHH)
	X2	Residents who seek treatment
	X3	Women aged 15-49 years who have given birth in a health facility
	X4	Residents who have adequate drinking water sources
	X5	Residents who use latrines alone/shared
	X6	Percentage of population 0-59 months who have and can show an immunization card
	X7	Percentage of population with health insurance
Education	X8	Average length of school (RLS)
	X9	Old school hope (HLS)
	X10	Percentage of population who finished elementary/junior high school
	X11	Percentage of population who finished elementary/junior high school
	X12	Literacy rate of the population aged 15-55 years
	X13	School enrollment rates aged 13-15 years
	X14	Gross enrollment rate for 16-18 year olds
	X15	High school pure participation rate
Economy	Y4	Percentage of average non-food expenditure per capita per month
	Y5	Percentage of population working in formal activities
	Y6	Expenditure per capita adjusted (PPP)
	Y7	Percentage of poor households receiving Non-Cash Food Aid/Sembako

Volume 5 Nomor 1 April 2023

Journal of Public Administration and Government

journal homepage : : https://jurnal.fisip.untad.ac.id/index.php/JPAG

RESEARCH METHODS

The data analysis strategy employed in this study was structural equation modeling-partial least squares (SEM-PLS) with SmartPLS software. According to Mahmud and Ratmono (2013: 6), SEM was separated into two forms during its development, namely covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) and variance-based SEM (PLS) (SEM-PLS). Karl Joreskog, a Lisrel software engineer, pioneered CB-SEM in the 1970s. Meanwhile, Herman Wold pioneered SEM-PLS, which evolved after CB-SEM (academic supervisor of Karl Joreskog).

According to Mahmud and Ratmono (2013:7), SEM-PLS can operate effectively with limited sample numbers and sophisticated models. Furthermore, the assumption of data distribution in SEM-PLS is weaker than in CB-SEM. According to Mahfud and Ratmono (2013:8), the estimation findings of the two are not significantly different, suggesting that SEM-PLS can be a reasonable proxy for CB-SEM. Even with limited sample numbers and departures from the assumption of multivariate normality, SEM-PLS can nevertheless generate estimates (Sholihin & Ratmono, 2013).

The Partial Least Squares analysis findings may be divided into two stages: indicator measurement (outer model) and structural model testing (inner model). The outer model is a model that describes the link between latent variables and the variables that measure them (indicators). The Inner model, on the other hand, is a model that describes the link between latent variables. SmartPLS 3.0 software was used to analyze the data in this investigation.

Convergent validity, Construct Reliability, Average Variance Extracted-AVE, Discriminant validity, cross loading, and model undimensionality are used to measure indicators (Outer Model). During the inner model, the significance of the association between latent variables and the strength of the relationship between variables were determined. This step is completed using the bootstrapping approach. Furthermore, the inner model may be examined by examining the R2 value (Sarwono, 2018) .

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

South Sulawesi Province's poverty rate is 8.72% in 2020 and 8.78% in 2021, representing a 0.06% increase. Meanwhile, there was a 0.03% growth from 2019 to 2020. The rise in poverty in 2020 and 2021 cannot be isolated from the deterioration of economic conditions caused by the COVID-19 epidemic (Badan Pusat Statistik, Profil Kemiskinan Di Indonesia Maret 2021, Berita Resmi Statistik no.53, 2021). According to CSA statistics, Jeneponto Regency has had the highest poverty rate in South Sulawesi Province for the previous two years, with a percentage of 14.58% and 14.28% in 2020 and 2021, respectively (Badan Pusat Statistik, Data dan Informasi Kemiskinan Kabupaten/Kota, 2020). Meanwhile, Makassar City has the lowest poverty rate in the country, with 4.54% in 2020 and 4.82% in 2021. In 2021, Jeneponto Regency and Pangkajene and Islands Regency have the highest poverty rate because the values are the same, with a figure of 14.28%. The distinction is between the depth index and the poverty severity index. In 2021, Pangkajene and Islands Districts had the greatest poverty depth and severity indexes, with 2.78% and 0.78%, respectively.

North Toraja Regency has the greatest life expectancy in terms of health, with 73.39 years in 2020 and increasing to 73.41 years in 2021. Jeneponto Regency has the lowest life expectancy at 66.39 years in 2020 and 66.49 years in 2021.

Volume 5 Nomor 1 April 2023

Journal of Public Administration and Government

journal homepage : : https://jurnal.fisip.untad.ac.id/index.php/JPAG

Structural Equation Modeling Analysis with Partial Least Square (SEM-PLS)

This study model is made up of four latent variables and 22 indicator variables based on theories and past research. The poverty structure model looks like this:

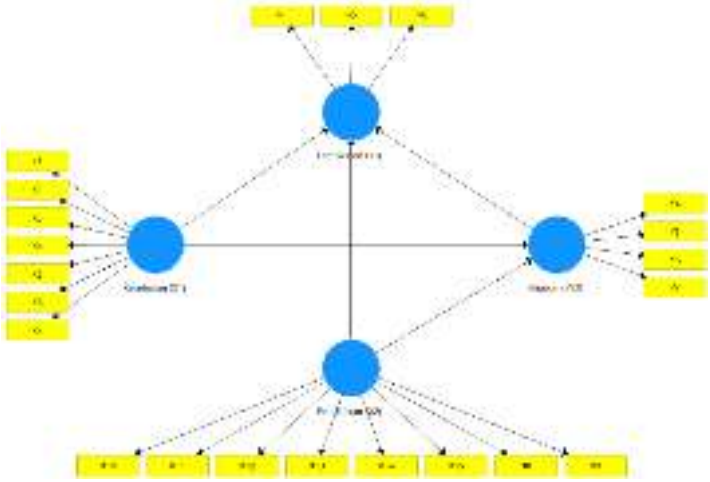

Figure 1. Initial Conceptual Model of Poverty Structure

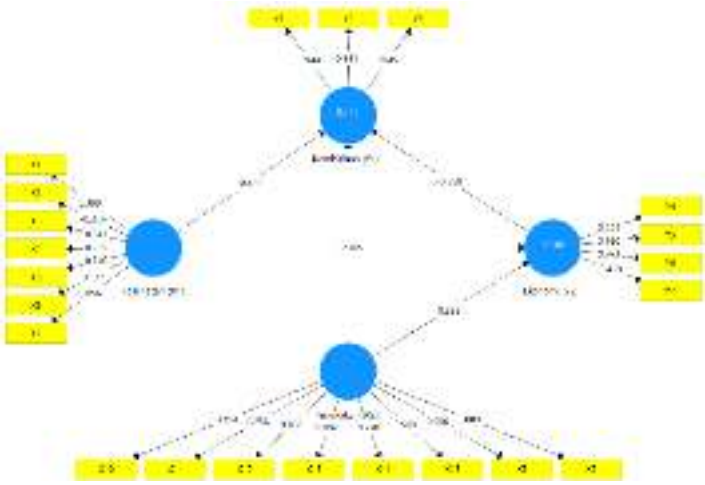

Figure 2. Poverty Structure Model of South Sulawesi Province

Volume 5 Nomor 1 April 2023

Journal of Public Administration and Government

journal homepage : : https://jurnal.fisip.untad.ac.id/index.php/JPAG

Outer Loading Evaluation

The goal of indicator reliability is to determine whether or not the indication of latent variable measurement is dependable. The secret is to compare the results of each indicator's outer loading. A loading value greater than 0.7 suggests that the construct can explain more than 50% of the variation in the indicator (Wong KK, 2013) ; (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011). When explained in more detail are as follows:

Table 2. Value of Loading factor and VIF Reflective Indicator on Poverty Measurement Model

Connection	*Loading Factor*	VIF	Information	Connection	*Loading Factor*	VIF	Information
X1<= Health	0.388	1.099	Invalid	X6<=Health	0.537	1.654	Valid
X10<=Education	0.194	1.739	Invalid	X7<=Health	0.056	1.135	Imvalid
X11<=Education	0.756	3.576	Valid	X8<=Education	0.956	13.254	Invalid
X12<=Education	0.702	2.692	Valid	X9<=Education	0.889	8.160	Valid
X13<=Education	0.002	1.446	Invalid	Y1<=Poverty	0.944	10.151	Valid
X14<=Education	0.720	2.300	Valid	Y2<=Poverty	0.991	55.406	Invalid
X15<=Education	0.540	1.811	Valid	Y3<=Poverty	0.945	27.854	Valid
X2<=Health	-0.329	1.322	Invalid	Y4<=Economy	0.381	1.165	Invalid
X3<=Health	0.843	1.331	Valid	Y5<=Economy	0.760	1.591	Valid
X4<=Health	0.295	1.379	Invalid	Y6<=Economy	0.923	1.903	Valid
X5<=Health	0.746	1.894	Valid	Y7<=Economy	-0.419	1.179	Invalid

Source: PLS Model

The outer loading value table above shows that all of the components or indicators of the outer loading value are > 0.7 (shown in green, which suggests it is genuine. Also indicated in red is 0.7, which signifies no valid). As long as the construct validity and reliability match the standards, an Outer Loading value limit greater than 0.5 is permitted. So, if it is determined that numerous items or indicators are not valid with convergent validity, for example, in the X1 construct, the next step is to delete elements that are 0.6.

The next step is to determine whether multicollinearity exists at the outer model level. The table above shows that there are indicators with VIF Outer Model values greater than 5, implying that multicollinearity exists at the outer model level. Then, one of the objects with a high VIF per variable must be removed from the model, allowing the Outer Stage 2 to execute.

Volume 5 Nomor 1 April 2023

Journal of Public Administration and Government

journal homepage : : https://jurnal.fisip.untad.ac.id/index.php/JPAG

Table 3. Value of Loading factor and VIF Reflective Indicators in Poverty Measurement Models After Invalid Indicators are Issued

Connection	*Loading Factor*	VIF	Information	Connection	*Loading Factor*	VIF	Information
X3<=Health	0.893	1.267	Valid	Y1<=Poverty	0.960	2.648	Valid
X5<=Health	0.799	1.799	Valid	Y3<=Poverty	0.929	2.648	Valid
X6<=Health	0.565	1.547	Valid	Y5<=Economy	0.848	1.527	Valid
X9<=Education	0.833	1.699	Valid	Y6<=Economy	0.927	1.527	Valid
X11<=Education	0.762	1.914	Valid				
X12<=Education	0.738	1.694	Valid				
X14<=Education	0.773	2.005	Valid				
X15<=Education	0.617	1.735	Valid				

Source: PLS Model

The table of outer loading values above shows that all components or indications of the outer loading value are > 0.7 (marked in green, which implies it is legitimate. Also indicated in red is 0.7, which signifies no valid). As long as the construct validity and reliability match the standards, an Outer Loading value limit greater than 0.5 is permitted. As a result, it is said that all items or indicators are valid with convergent validity depending on the validity of the outer loading. The table above reveals that there is no indication with a VIF Outer Model value greater than 10, implying that there is no multicollinearity at the outer model level.

Contruct Reliability

The next stage is to undertake a Construct Reliability study. Construct Reliability is a measure of the construct's dependability. The value considered dependable must be greater than 0.70. Cronbach Alfa is the same as construct dependability.

Table 4. Results of Latent Variable Reliability Analysis on the Poverty Measurement Model

	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	Information
Economy (Y2)	0.740	0.802	0.882	0.789	Reliabel
Poverty (Y1)	0.882	0.932	0.943	0.893	Reliabel
Health (X1)	0.707	0.843	0.804	0.585	Reliabel
Education (X2)	0.808	0.861	0.863	0.560	Reliabel

Taken from the PLS Model data

Volume 5 Nomor 1 April 2023

Journal of Public Administration and Government

journal homepage : : https://jurnal.fisip.untad.ac.id/index.php/JPAG

Internal Consistency Reliability

Internal Coherence The indicator's reliability evaluates its capacity to measure its hidden concept. Composite dependability and Cronbach's alpha are the techniques used to test this. Good reliability is defined as a composite reliability value of 0.6 to 0.7 (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011), and the expected value of Cronbach's alpha is above 0.7 (Ghozali & Latan, 2015).

Based on the table above, it is clear that all constructions have Cronbach's Alpha values more than 0.6, and even greater than 0.7, implying that all of these constructs are dependable. Cronbach's Alpha of the latent variable X1, for example, is 0.707 > 0.7, indicating that X1 is dependable.

Unidimensionality Analysis Model

The purpose of the unidimensionality test is to confirm that the measurement is error-free. The undimensionality test was performed using Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability indicators. The cut-value for these two indicators is 0.7. According to the table above, all constructions satisfy the unidimensionality requirements since the composite dependability value is greater than 0.7. For example, the composite reliability of the latent variable X1 is 0.804 > 0.7, indicating that X1 is trustworthy.

Convergent Validity

Convergent validity is determined based on the principle that the measures of a construct should be highly correlated (Ghozali & Latan, 2015). Convergent validity of a construct with reflective indicators was evaluated by Average Variance Extracted (AVE). The AVE value should be 0.5 or more. An AVE of 0.5 or more indicates that the concept can explain 50% or more of the item variation (Wong KK, 2013); (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011).

And, using the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) value to determine convergent validity requirements, all constructs have met convergent validity requirements because all AVE values are greater than 0.50. If the AVE of the latent variable X1 is greater than 0.585, then X1 is convergently valid.

Discriminant Validity Analysis Based on Fornell-Larcker Criterion

Table 5. Results of Discriminant Analysis Using Fornell-Larcker Criterion

	Economy (Y2)	Poverty (Y1)	Health (X1)	Education (X2)
Economy (Y2)	0.888			
Poverty (Y1)	-0.540	0.945		
Health (X1)	0.287	-0.500	0.765	
Education (X2)	0.542	-0.260	0.402	0.748

Taken from PLS Model data

According to the Fornell-Larcker Criterion table above, all of the roots of the AVE (Fornell-Larcker Criterion) for each construct are greater than their correlations with other variables, indicating that the discriminant validity requirements for this model have been met.

Cross Loading

Each construct's cross loading value was examined to ensure that its correlation with the measurement item was stronger than that of the other constructs. The predicted cross loading value exceeds 0.7 (Ghozali & Latan, 2015). Another way for determining discriminant validity is to examine the value of cross loading. If each item on the construct has a loading value larger than the cross loading value. A cross loading table is provided below:

Volume 5 Nomor 1 April 2023

Journal of Public Administration and Government

journal homepage : : https://jurnal.fisip.untad.ac.id/index.php/JPAG

Table 6. Cross Loading Value on the Poverty Measurement Model

	Economy (Y2)	Poverty (Y1)	Health (X1)	Education (X2)
X11	0.380	-0.042	0.353	0.762
X12	0.417	-0.059	0.269	0.738
X14	0.446	-0.154	0.106	0.773
X15	0.126	-0.231	0.360	0.617
X3	0.347	-0.500	0.893	0.327
X5	0.121	-0.369	0.799	0.357
X6	0.043	-0.109	0.565	0.278
X9	0.509	-0.402	0.439	0.833
Y1	-0.585	0.960	-0.520	-0.293
Y3	-0.414	0.929	-0.413	-0.186
Y5	0.848	-0.384	0.200	0.396
Y6	0.927	-0.553	0.297	0.547

Taken from PLS Model data

According to the table above, all loading indicators on the construct > cross loading. For instance, in the X2 construct, all loading indicator values exceed all cross loadings to other constructions. The X11 indication, for example, has a loading value of 0.762, which is more than the cross loading to other constructions, such as Y2 of 0.380. Similarly, for all other things when the value of loading to its construct is greater than the value of cross loading to other constructions.

As a result of all indicators, the loading value of the construct > cross loading, this model meets the conditions for discriminant validity. All items or indicators have passed the criterion for validity and reliability, and there is no multicollinearity among indicators. The inner model is then analyzed in the next stage.

Interpretation of Results (Inner Model)

Furthermore, path coefficients between constructs are measured to determine the relevance and degree of the link as well as to evaluate the hypothesis. The values of the route coefficients vary from -1 to +1. The greater the link between the two structures, the closer the value is to +1. A connection that is closer to -1 suggests that it is negative (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011). The total effect is the result of a combination or aggregate of direct and indirect effects. The entire consequences are shown below. They are as follows when stated in tabular form:

Table 7. Structural Model of Poverty in South Sulawesi in 2020 and 2021

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P Values
Economy (Y2) -> Poverty (Y1)	-0.523	-0.504	0.124	4.221	**0.000**
Health (X1) -> Economy (Y2)	0.083	0.106	0.111	0.745	**0.457**
Health (X1) -> Poverty (Y1)	-0.472	-0.489	0.123	3.836	**0.000**
Education (X2) -> Economy (Y2)	0.509	0.529	0.099	5.158	**0.000**
Education (X2) -> Poverty (Y1)	-0.071	-0.088	0.113	0.628	**0.530**

Taken from Bootstrapping Model data

Volume 5 Nomor 1 April 2023

Journal of Public Administration and Government

journal homepage : : https://jurnal.fisip.untad.ac.id/index.php/JPAG

Table 8. Values of R-Square Latent Variables in the Structural Model of Poverty

	R Square
Economy (Y2)	0.299
Poverty (Y1)	0.446

Taken from PLS Model data

Table 7 shows that economic factors have a negative and substantial influence on poverty, implying that as the economic level rises, so will the poverty level. The health variable has a negative and substantial influence on poverty, which means that increasing one's health will reduce the poverty rate. The education variable has a positive and significant influence on the economy, which means that as education levels rise, so will the economy. While the health variable has no influence on the economy, it does have an effect on poverty. The coefficient of determination (R2) measures how well an external construct can explain an endogenous construct. Chin classifies R2 values of 0.67, 0.33, and 0.19 as strong, moderate, and weak. Chin (1998) in (Ghozali & Latan, 2015). The R-Square value of the economic variable in Table 8 is 0.299, indicating that the health and education factors explain 29.9% of the economic variable. While the R-Square of the poverty variable is 0.446, this suggests that education, health, and economic variables explain 44.6% of the variance, while the remaining 55.4% is impacted by characteristics not included in this study model.

CONCLUSION

Economic factors have a negative and substantial influence on poverty, which means that as the economic level rises, so will the poverty level. According to the findings of this study, reducing poverty in South Sulawesi may be accomplished through human development in the health sector by providing excellent health services in order to enhance productivity. Furthermore, economic strategies must be implemented in order to eliminate poverty in South Sulawesi.

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