POVERTY AND MAKE LIVING STRATEGIES OF THE VILLAGERS IN BULUKUMBA REGENCY: A CASE STUDY

 $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{y}$

Sumrah A. P. INDONESIA

ABSTRACT

This study has the following objectives: (1) describing poverty characteristics in Bulukumba Village; (2) investigating strategies used by poor people to maintain their living; (3) explaining different strategies done by poor people in maintaining their living; (4) analyzing things that make poor people in Bulukumba survive. This study was conducted in Bulukumba Regency, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. By considering that it is the third poorest regency in South Sulawesi (Susenas, 2001). The findings find out that poverty characteristic is relative, in meaning that one area has different poverty characteristics with the other areas. Besides that, the strategies of living are more varied since every family has their own strategies to live. Since most family have limited production assets and low income, therefore they rely on the potential of household manpower. They apply double-earnings pattern, which facilitates family members to be actively involved in economic activities, to diverse both agriculture and non-agriculture works. The adjustment processes are by adapting family's financial condition, minimizing expenses based on the most primary needs, and prioritizing the fulfillment of food needs. Some of social assets owned by the people to live are familial relationship, helping each other, cooperative, and building trust between family members.

Keywords: Poverty characteristics, make living strategies, and familial relationship.

INTRODUCTION

Poverty in Indonesia has been exisiting for a long time, and it becomes a fundamental challenge in the country development. Specifically, the poverty of villagers is interesting to be investigated since it has relation with national poverty. The monetary crisis in 1997, which weakening national economic condition, made Indonesia ranked as one of the poor countries. This problem should get more serious attention from many parties, since it leads to complex social implication towards society. Therefore, it is crucial to be handled because its social excess influences the society lives.

Many parties, including governments, have tried many efforts to solve this problems and to build developmental strategies. In 1976, there were 40% poor people or 54,4 million poeple; in 1984 it became 22% or 35,5 million people, and in 1987 there were 17% poor people or 30 million people. In the late 1997, it raised to 34,5% or 69,466,820 people, and in 1998 raised to 48.5% or 101,174, 228 people, and went down in February 1999 into 37.5%, and went down again into 37.5% in the end of 2000 (Susenas Data 1997-1999). In 2002, there were 18.11% or 38,394,100 poor people, then in 2003, there were 37.3 million people (17.42%). The national distribution showed that 32.84% poor people were dwelling in urban areas, and the rest 67.16% were living in sub-urban areas (The Center of Statistical Bureau, 2003). In South *Sulawesi*, the data showed that in 2000 there were 1,198,000 poor people or 15.44%, then in 2002 it became 1,309,200 people or 15.88%, and went down into 15,44% or 1,301,800 people or 15.85% in 2003, and went down into 1,241,500 or 14.90% in 2004. To

conclude, there were 7.15% of poor people lived in urban areas, and 19.49% lived in suburban areas (The Center of Statistical Bureau, 2004).

According to Todaro (2000: 76), poor people in developing countries are concentrated in suburban areas, and most of them work in agriculture sector. Moreover, 2/3 of poor people are subsistence farmer or low-paid farmer. Subsistence farmers produce products that can be consumed only for their family, in meaning that one harvest products can only be used fto fulfill 2-3 months needs (Mubiyarto, 1994: 17). Besides that, the population growth in village keeps increasing, therefore the farming products are not equal. In their research, Singarimbun & Penny (1976: 96) found out that there was a high ratio between human and land in Java, which caused most villagers became poor.

In 2002, there were 47,400 people or 13.3% poor people in *Bulukumba* Regency. This number increased into 54,933 people or 14.79% in 2003, and went down into 53,200 people or 14.20% in 2004. Most of them worked in agricultural sector (Center of Statistical Bureau, 2004). Even tough there was a decreasing number of poor people in 2004, this number was still considered high.

Poverty can be defined as lack of human resources needed for consumption and production. The economy dimension is closely related to minimum primary needs to live well, in other words, poverty happens because the primary needs are not fulfilled with today's needs. The social dimension means lack of social network and supporting structures that support the opportunities to increase someone's productivity. The political dimension emphasizes on the access degree to power (Effendi, 1993: 203). Therefore, poverty problems are consequences of the limited resources, and limited access to get and fulfill primary needs.

This study focuses on the following research questions: (1) How are the poverty characteristics of the villagers in *Bulukumba*?; (2) What are the strategies used by poor people in *Bulukumba* Village to maintain their lives?; (3) Are there any different living strategies performed by several groups of poor people in *Bulukumba* Village?; and (4) What possibly makes poor people in *Bulukumba* Village able to sustain their living?

The objective of this study is to discover how poor people in village try to make living for their family. Specifically, this study seeks to investigate: (1) the description of poverty characteristics in *Bulukumba*; (2) the strategies used by poor people in Bulukumba village to maintain their living; (3) the description of different strategies performed by several groups of poor people on *Bulukumba* Village; and (4) the analysis of things that make poor people in *Bulukumba* Village able to maintain their living.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Conceptually, poverty can be identified from some point of views. Based on subsystem view, poverty defined as starvation wage which fulfill meal necessity only or even worst. According to Ajit Ghose, Keith Griffin, and Emil Salim, poverty is hunger, malnutrition, lack of clothes and inadequate house, low education level, lack of basic health service, etc (Bayo, 1981:4). Meanwhile, World Summit for Social Development (Kopenhagen, 1995) mentions, poverty has various manifestations, including lack of income and productive resources sufficient to ensure sustainable livelihoods; hunger and malnutrition, ill health; limited or lack of access to education and other basic services; increased morbidity and mortality from

illness; homelessness and inadequate house; unsafe environment; and social discrimination and exclusion.

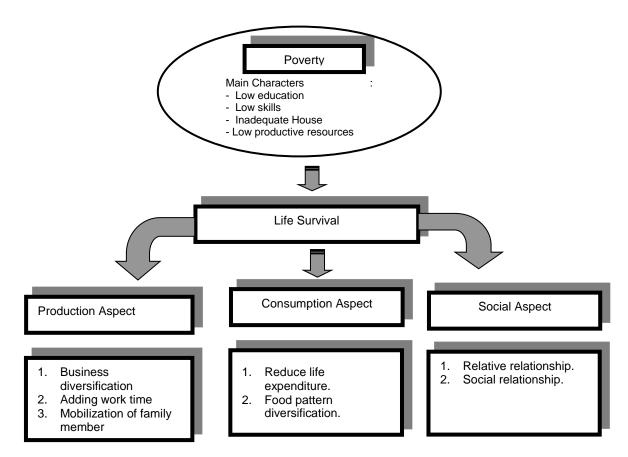
According to Suntoyo Usman (2004:125-126), poverty can be classified into three parts. Those are: (1) Absolute poverty. The concept of absolute poverty is formulated by certain concrete measurement (a fixed yardstick); (2) Relative poverty. It is formulated based on the idea of relative standard by considering time and place dimension; and (3) Subjective poverty. The concept of subjective poverty is formulated based on the feeling owned by the poor people. Sayogyo and Sam F. Poli affirm that poverty line can be defined from rice consumption equivalent per capita. The allocation of rice consumption for urban and rural area is 360 kg and 240 kg per capita per year (Sulistiyani, 2004:35). Meanwhile, Statistic Center Board (2000) defines poverty as consumption pattern that is in line with 320 kg/capita/year in rural area and 480 kg/capita/year in urban area. Based on survey done by Susenas (1999), poverty is equated with the expenditure of Rp 89.845,-/capita/month for food and Rp 69.420,-/capita/month for non-food. Nowadays, poverty level in Indonesia can be measured by regional minimal wage which is considered nearly poverty limit. Prayitno and Arsyad1987:35) state some aspects of poverty that need to be concerned. Those are: (1) Poverty is multidimensional, (2) The poverty aspects are related both directly and indirectly, and (3) Human are the poor aspect itself both individually and collectively. Sharp (1996) in Kuncoro (2004:47) identifies the cause of povertyfrom economy side as follow: (1) Based on micro point of view, poverty occurs due to unequal resources ownership that result in unbalanced income distribution level; (2) poverty raises due to the different of human resources quality; (3) poverty raises from different access of capital. According to Lawang (2005:145), poverty is resulted not onlyfrom economic factors, but also from non-economic factors, such natural resources, disaster etc. Sritua Arief (1990) in Abustam (1995:5) asserts that poverty and backwardness are not caused by the lack of dynamic factors. It is caused by the lack of chance for the poor people. The prominent factor can be observed from culture of poverty that is stated by Lewis (1960). He states that poverty can emerge as a result of culture values hold by poor people.

Poor society conducts good relationship with others in running their life. According to Suparlan (1995:39) social relationship is a group of people (at least 3 people) who are connected with identity and social relationship. Lawang (2005:77) says that social relationship concerns with the relationship of people or other group that possibly resolves the problem efficiently and effectively. Meanwhile, Mangkuprawira (1991) in Suharso (2002:85) states that life strategy chosen by rural society is related to the values system on the society, whether it is local strength (kinship) or social solidarity. Masri Singarimbun and DH Penny (1976) mention that the form and variation of survival strategy is influenced by class structure or farmer classification, moreover, class structure is influenced by land ownership. Sitorus (1999:74) affirms that low land ownership makes the limitation of output for poor family if they only rely on fishery and plantation sector. In response to this, Corner (1988:57) utters that the limitation of food necessity in a family prompts the women to take a part in raising the family. In other hand, economic factor is one of factors causing women to take a work. As said by Heraty (1984:176) that patriarchal society culture which show sexual hierarchy and distinction between man and woman in poor family should be reviewed since the existence of economic demands disguising the public-domestic part distinction and divergence, though in some certain scalesappear the masculine bias that shows the change position between husband and wife, in which the husband does the housework and the wife works in the farm, becomes labor or opens a stall. Malik (2000:271) says that wife and other family member have important part in supporting the income for the family. Sumodiningrat (1987:86) even states that little or poor farmer takes another side job to increase the income in order to fulfill their needs (off-farm).

One of the life strategies conducted by the poor household is forming social network and interpersonal relationship, such take a good neighborhood. Sayogyo (1991:108) and Sitorus (1999:65) state that the limitation of economic and social resources cause them not only to take side job, but also form social solidarity pattern to attain the economic prosperity by togetherness principle. Scott (1981:102) mentions that in stable social condition, the farmers tend to develop social system pattern from their surrounding as a strategy to put up with the life. Furthermore, Scott adds that there are some subsistence ethics that very useful for the poor farmers. These ethics are occurred from normative culture of the same feeling to help each other in the community. It shows culture of poverty as one of life strategies to hold out in any kind of situation that formed by take and give principles, good social relationship and moral obligation to share the resources in hard condition. Besides reducing the expenditure, poor people also form family relationship (Clark, 1986). Migdal (1971:57) proposes that good family and neighborhood relationship is the strongest social mechanical for survival strategy of the poor people to alleviate poverty. Such kind of survival strategy can beviewed from the study conducted by Mubiyarto, Loekman Sutrisno and Michael Dove (1979) in fisherman village in Jepara. The study showed that patron-client was very worked when there was a party in difficulty. The other rich group, in this case, helped the poor one without doing any exploitation. Diah (1995) conducted a study about the women from poor family who was acted as family head inurban area, a study of survival strategy in Sewu District, Solo. The study revealed following findings: informal social relationship was the survival strategy used in raising the family, flexible strategy of family composition and member of the family, also diversification subsidy study of remit and family assistance. Meanwhile, the study conducted by Maulida Y (1999) showed that 38, 57 Riau Family stands for survival strategy; 36, 43 % in consolidation, and 25 % in accumulation. Regarding this, Malik S (2000) states that three survival strategies of small seller: the existence of social life, business existence, and the existence of social life. According to Tindjabate (2000), the life survival of the fisherman in Labuan District is an attempt to maintain the subsistence of life from structural pressure. On his study, Sitorus (1992) showed that the expenditure strategy of poor fisherman referred to the allocation of national expenditure resources in production and non-production sector.

The life survival strategy of the poor society in rural area finds some obstacles, such as allocation of the resources, especially for the labor in production and non-production sector. In production sector, the poor society use side job strategy to fulfill their needs. In this pattern, some of the family members are involved to work in agriculture sector as well as non-agriculture sector. Besides, they also form social relationship in kind of social patron relationship (father-son), peer relationship, and relative relationship.

Life survival strategy of poor people in rural area can be conducted through some aspects. Those are: production aspect, including business diversification, adding work time, mobilization of family member to gain additional income; consumption aspect by reduce the life expenditure and food pattern and social aspect by tighten relatives system and social relationship in both of vertically or horizontally.



Picture 1.Conceptual Framework Model

Methodology

This research was a field research. The characteristic of this study was descriptive based on the survey. The investigation focused on a phenomenon that occurred in the real life. This study was micro sociology that attempted to understand the reality of poor households in rural area.

This research examined the social life of the households in rural area, especially which was related to the poverty and survival strategy. Specifically, this research was a case study of poor households at *Bulukumba* Village, *Mariorennu*, *Gantarang* Sub-District, *Ujung Loe* District. This site was chosen by considering it was the third poorest regency in South Sulawesi (*Susenas*, 2001).

Primary data was obtained from respondents by using questionnaire, interview, and observation, whilesecondary data was gained from Statistic Center Board and poor society in the village office. Regarding the respondents, it was randomly chosen. There were 382 of poor households of 53.200 populations chosen as the sample.

The Description of Research Site

Bulukumba Regency is located on 153 kilometers from the central of South Sulawesi. It has 1.154, 67 km² or about 1, 85 % from the total width of South Sulawesi. It is divided into ten sub-districts and 125 villages. The total resident of *Bulukumba* Regency in 2006 was 379.220

who spread in ten sub-districts. It has growth progress for 1, 97 % per year from 2003-2006. The total resident whoworks as farmer is 102.210 people or 68, 81 %.

Data of Statistic Center Board shows that the total of poor households is 23.001 family heads or 25, 8% of 90,681 family heads. The average and total of poor residents based on the range area can be seen on the following table.

Table: The Average Distribution and the Total of Poor People Based on Width of the District.

	Width	Total				Average		
Districts	(Km)				%	RTM	RTM/	RTM/
		Village	RT	RTM	RTM	Km	Desa	RT
Bt. Bahari	108.60	8	5.433	1.404	6,1	176	13	25,8%
Bt. Tiro	78.34	12	6.398	1.334	5,8	111	17	20,9%
Bulukumpa	171.33	16	12.851	2.588	11,3	162	15	20,1%
Gantarang	173.51	20	14.951	3.367	14,6	168	19	22,5%
Herlang	68.79	8	6.613	2.050	8,9	256	30	31,0%
Kajang	129.06	19	10.317	3.391	14,7	178	26	32,9%
Kindang	148.76	9	6.709	1.811	7,9	201	12	27,0%
Rilau Ale	117.53	13	8.640	2.292	10,0	176	20	26,5%
Ujung Bulu	14.44	9	9.692	2.376	10,3	264	165	24,5%
Ujung Loe	144.31	12	9.007	2.388	10,4	199	17	26,3%
Total	1.155	126	90.681	23.001	100,0	189	33	25,8%

Source: Statistic Center Board (2005)

The above table shows that *Bt. Tiro* has the smallest poor households for about 1334 or 5, 8 %, with average of 111 poor households per kilometer. In additional, *Kajang* District has the biggest poor households, for about 3,391 or 14, 7 % with average 178 poor households per kilometer. *Bulukumba* Region is the third poorest region family in South Sulawesi (*Susenas*, 2001S).

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

The limited production assets and low income owned by poor people in the research site, make poor people rely on the potential of household manpower by applying double-earnings pattern. It facilitates family members to be actively involved in economic activities, to diverse both agriculture and non-agriculture works, and also work independently and to be laborer.

The poor households maintain their living by performing some strategies. One of the strategies is by building neighborhood relationship pattern to help and trust each other as a manifestation of solidarity values between neighbors and one family tribe. The adjustment processes performed by poor household are by adapting their life with the family financial condition, minimizing expenses, prioritizing needs based on the vital needs and food needs.

The poverty characteristic is relative, since each area has different and varied strategies to maintain their living. Each household has their own strategies to sustain the their family life. Poverty problems are caused by a very complex aspects. One of the causes is the low quality of human resources and narrow lands ownership. Measuring poverty by the government as the foundation to help is not in line with social reality. Some grants are not delivered to

wealth people, since they are not eligible to receive it. The strategy performed by poor households in village area is by maintaining their lives by doing good living individually, with their own family, relatives and community.

The social relationship between individual in village area is very intimate, and most of them still have familial relationsip. This certain condition leads to a high solidarity between society members. It shows that neighborhood relationship pattern is characterized by helping and trusting each other as a manifestation of solidarity values. The familial, helping each other, being cooperative, and trusting are social values that are important to maintain the lives between family members. The local institutions have grown among the lives of villagers, they have helped many poor households maintaining their lives.

As effors to make their living, most poor families in village utilize the wealth institution to support their financial living. Even tough it is not regular, but it gives direct and indirect economical benefits. For example, a social gathering named *arisan*, has made poor household able to fulfill a quite high cost needs, like home renovation, school expenses, or business capital.

Suggestion

The findings find out that the poverty measurement done by government is not in line with the social reality. Therefore, the *Bappenas* is suggested to develop an accurate data of poor households. Some other suggestions are related to maintaining the lives of poor households, namely: giving skills that are suitable with their current job; strengthening local institutions to empower poor households, since they principally support the society lives, and as a social capital.

REFERENCES

- Abdullah, Irwan, et.al. 1995. *Kesempatan Kerja dan Perdagangan di Pedesaan*. Seri Laporan Nomor 49. Yogyakarta: PSK UGM.
 - Abraham, M.F. 1991. *Modernisasi di Dunia Ketiga, Suatu Teori Umum Pembangunan*. Yogyakarta: Tiara Wacana.
- Abustam, M. Idrus, 1995. *Konsep Kemiskinan di Indonesia*. Makalah Pada Pelatihan Perencanaan Pengembangan Manusia se-Sulawesi Selatan Makassar: PSK Universitas Hasannudin
- Arief, S. 1990. *Dari Prestasi Pembangunan Sampai Ekonomi Politik*. Kumpulan Karangan. Jakarta: Penerbit Universitas Indonesia.
- Asian Development Bank. t.t. Fighting Poverty in Asia and The Pacific: The Poverty Reduction Strategy.
- -----, 2003. Statistik Indonesia. Jakarta: Badan Pusat Statistik.
- -----, 2003. *Indikator Kesejahteraan Rakyat Sulawesi Selatan*. Sulawesi Selatan: Badan Pusat Statistik.
- Bayo, A. Ala, 1981. *Kemiskinan dan Strategi Memerangi Kemiskinan*. Yogyakarta: Liberty.
- Bambang, S. 1992. *Mobilitas Tenaga Kerja Dalam Pengolahan Sumberdaya Hayati Desa Pesisir*. Thesis. Bogor: Fakultas Pasca Sarjana Institut Pertanian Bogor
- Breman, J., Wiradi, G. 2004. *Masa Cerah Dan Masa Suram Di Pedesaan Jawa, Studi Kasus Dinamika Sosio-Ekonomi di Dua Desa Menjelang Akhir Abad ke 20.* Jakarta: Pustaka LP3ES.

- Buller, H., Wright, S. 1990. Rural Development Problems and Practices. Brookfield USA: Avebury Aldershot.
- Clark, Mari. H. 1986. Women Headed Household and Poverty. In Barbara C. Gelpi et al. Women and Poverty. Chicago: The University Press
- Chambers, Robert. 1988. Pembangunan Desa. Mulai Dari Belakang. Jakarta: Pustaka LP3ES.
- Corner, George, 1988. Kelangsungan Hidup, Saling Ketergantungan dan Persaingan Dikalangan Kaum Miskin di Philipina. Dalam: D.C. Korten dan Syahrir. Pembangunan Berdimensi Kerakyatan. Jakarta: Yayasan Obor Indonesia.
- Diyah, 1995. Strategi Mempertahankan Kelangsungan Hidup Wanita Kepala Rumah Tangga Miskin Di Kelurahan Sewu Solo. Thesis. Yogyakarta: Universitas Gajah Mada.
- Dillon, H.S. 1999. Pertanian Membangun Bangsa. Jakarta: Pustaka Sinar Harapan.
- Durkheim. E. 1933. The Division of Labor in Society. New York: The Free Press.
- Djayanegara, 1994. Evaluasi Gizi Sosial Ekonomi Masyarakat Kumuh Di DKI Jakarta. Jakarta: Lembaga Demografi Fakultas Ekonomi Univeritas Indonesia.
- Effendi, T.N. 1993. SDM Peluang Kerja dan Kemiskinan. Yogyakarta: PT. Tiara Wacana.
- Faturohman, 2000. Strategi Bertahan Hidup Di Tiga Wilaya, Populasi. Buletin Penelitian Kebijaksanaan Kependudukan. Vol. 11 No 4. Page 59-81.
- Frank, A., G. 1967. Capitalism and Underdevelopment in Latin America: Historical Studies of Chili and Brazil. Monthly Review Press. New York.
- Galbraith, J., Kenneth. 1983. Hakekat Kemiskinan Massa. Jakarta: Sinar Harapan.
- Garcia, Manuel B. 1985. Sociology of Development Perspectives and Issues. Manila: National Book Store.
- Gilbert, A., Gugler. J. 1996. Urbanisasi dan Kemiskinan di Dunia Ketiga. Yogyakarta: PT. Tiara Wacana.
- Hamsinah, 1995. Strategi Kelangsungan Hidup Eks Penderita Kusta di Perkampungan Jongaya Kotamadya Ujung Pandang. Thesis. Yogyakarta: Universitas Gajah Mada.
- Heraty, Toety. 1984. Studi Wanita Suatu Paradigma Baru Emansipasi. Kertas Kerja. Jakarta: Yayasan Ilmu-ilmu Sosial.
- Hoogvelt, Ankie, M.M. 1985. Sosiologi Masyarakat Sedang Berkembang. Terjemahan. Jakarta: CV. Rajawali.
- Ichromi. 1999. Bunga Rampai Sosiologi. Jakarta: Yayasan Obor.
- Jamasy, O. 2004. Keadilan, Pemberdayaan dan Penanggulangan Kemiskinan. Jakarta: Belantika.
- Kerlinger, Fred., N. 1992. Asas-asas Penelitian Behavioral. Yogyakarta: Gadjah Mada University Press.
- Kuncoro, M. 2004. Otonomi dan Pembangunan Daerah, Reformasi, Perencanaan, Strategi dan Peluang. Jakarta: Erlangga.
- Lawang, M., Z. 2005. Kapital Sosial Dalam Perspektif Sosiologik Suatu Pengantar. Jakarta: Fakultas Ilmu Sosial dan Ilmu Politik UI Press.
- Lewis, O. 1966. Kebudayaan Kemiskinan. Dalam: Parsudi Suparlan, 1995. Kemiskinan di Perkotaan. Jakarta: Yayasan Obor Indonesia
- Malik, S. 2000. Strategi Kelangsungan Hidup Migran Sirkuler di Kota Makassar. Disertasi. Yogyakarta: Universitas Gadjah Mada.
- Maulida Yusni, 1999. Rumah Tangga Melayu Riau dan Strategi Bertahan Hidup. Studi Kasus Kelurahan Kampung Bandar Kecamatan Senaapelaan. Thesis Pasca Sarjana. Yogyakarta: Universitas Gadjah Mada.
- Migdal, Joel., S. 1971. Peasant Politics and Revolution Pressures Towards Political and Social Change in The Third World. New Jersey: Prince stone University Press.

- Mubyarto, et.al.1984. Nelayan dan Kemiskinan. Studi Ekonomi Antropologi di Dua Desa Pantai. Jakarta: CV Rajawali.
- Mubyarto dan Kartodirdjo, S. 1988. Pembangunan Pedesaan di Indonesia. Yogyakarta: Liberty.
- -----, 1994. Keswadayaan Masyarakat Desa Tertinggal. Yogyakarta:P3PK Universitas Gadiah Mada.
- -----, 2002. Tentang Kajian Strategis Indikator Kemiskinan. Makalah. Jawa Tengah: Balitbang Propinsi Jawa Tengah.
- Penny, D.H dan Ginting K, 1984. Pekarangan Petani dan Kemiskinan. Yogyakarta: Gajah Mada University Press.
- -----,1990. Kemiskinan Peranan Sistem Pasar. Jakarta: Universitas Indonesia Press.
- Poloma, 1994. Sosiologi Kontemporer. Jakarta: PT. Raja Grafindo Persada Utama,
- Prayitno, H dan Arsyad, L. 1987. Petani Desa dan Kemiskinan. Yogyakarta: BPFE.
- Punch. Keith., F. 1998. Introduction to Social Research. Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches. London: Sage Publications.
- Sayogyo, 1978. Lapisan Masyarakat Yang Paling Lemah di Pedesaan. Jakarta: Prisma -----, 1992. Sosiologi Pedesaan. Yogyakarta: Gadjah Mada University Press.
- Sairin, S. 2002. Perubahan Sosial Masyarakat Indonesia: Persfektif Antropologi. Yogyakarta: Pustaka Pelajar.
- Scott, J., C. 1981. Moral Ekonomi Petani. Pergolakan dan Subsistensi di Asia Tenggara. Jakarta: LP3ES.
- Singarimbun, M dan Penny, DH.1976. Penduduk dan Kemiskinan Kasus Sriharjo di Pedesaan Jawa. Jakarta: Yayasan Obor .
- ----, 1996 Penduduk dan Perubahan . Yogyakarta: Pustaka Pelajar.
- -----, dan Effendi, S. 1983. Metode Penelitian Survai. Jakarta: LP3ES.
- Sitorus, M.T., Felix. 1999. Strategi Ekonomi Rumah Tangga Nelayan Miskin. Jakarta: Yayasan Obor.
- Srosrodihardjo, S. 1987. Aspek Sosial Budaya Dalam Pembangunan Pedesaan. Yogyakarta: Tiara Wacana.
- Suharso, P. 2002. Tanah, Petani, Politik Pedesaan. Solo: Pondok Edukasi.
- Suharto, E. 2005. Membangun Masyarakat Memberdayakan Rakyat , Kajian Strategis Pembangunan Kesejahteraan Sosial dan Pekerjaan Sosial. Bandung: PT Refika Aditama.
- Sulistiyani, A.T.2004. Kemitraan dan Model-Model Pemberdayaan. Yogyakarta: Penerbit Gaya Media.
- Sumardi, M. dan Evers, H.D. Kemiskinan dan Kebutuhan Pokok. Jakarta: Yayasan Ilmuilmu Sosial.
- Sumarjan, S.1997. Kemiskinan Suatu Pandangan Sosiologi. Jurnal Sosiologi Indonesia. No. 2/September/1997
- Sumodiningrat, G, 1987. Prospek Petani Kecil. Dalam Prospek Pedesaan. Yogyakarta: P3PK- Universitas Gajah Mada.
- Sunyoto, U. 2004. Pembangunan dan Pemberdayaan Masyarakat. Yogyakarta: Pustaka Pelajar.
- Suparlan, P.1995. Kemiskinan Di Perkotaan . Jakarta: Yayasan Obor Indonesia.
- Supriatna, T. 2000. Strategi Pembangunan dan Kemiskinan. Jakarta: Penerbit Rineka Cipta.
- Sutopo Y, 1985. Produktivitas dan Tenaga Kerja Indonesia. Seri II Lembaga Sarana Informasi Usaha dan Produktivitas. Jakarta.
- Tikson, D. T. 2005. Teori Pembangunan, di Indonesia, Malaysia dan Thailand. Makassar: Ininnawa

- Tindjabate, Ch. 2000. Kemiskinan Pada Masyarakat Nelayan, Studi Tentang Proses Pemiskinan dan Strategi Bertahan Hidup Masyarakat Nelayan Tradisional di Daerah Kabupaten Poso Propinsi Sulawesi Tengah. Disertasi. Yogyakarta: Universitas Gajah Mada.
- United Nation, 1995. World Summit for Social Development. Department of Public Information, New York.
- Vredenbergt, J. 1979. Metode dan Teknik Penelitian Masyarakat. PT. Gramedia, Jakarta.
- Wolf, R. Eric, 1983. Petani Suatu Tinjauan Antropologis. CV Rajawali, Jakarta.
- -----, 2004. Perang Petani. Insist Press, Yogyakarta.