Impact Analysis of Digital Divide on Food Security and Poverty in Indonesia 2015-2017

Nita Yalina*, Akbar Pratama Kartika, and Ana Toni Roby Candra Yudha
Fakultas Ekonomi dan Bisnis Islam, UIN Sunan Ampel Surabaya

Abstract. The purpose of this study is to analyze the impact of the digital divide on food security and poverty in Indonesia. The data were taken from the Indonesian Central Bureau of Statistics (Badan Pusat Statistik) from 2015 to 2017. This research used a quantitative method using Structural Equation Model (SEM). Digital divide, Food security and Poverty were the latent variables that were used in this research. The result of this study shows that the digital divide had a significant positive impact on food security while the impact of food security on poverty was negatively significant with the coefficient 0.894 and -0.616 respectively. There was no significant impact of the digital divide on poverty directly. It means that technology doesn’t have any significant contribution to Poverty reduction in Indonesia. However, when the reduction from the data was conducted, and only specific province who have good ICT development were used, the result was different. ICT development had a significant impact to reduce poverty in Indonesia.

Keywords: Digital divide, poverty, food security, SEM, Indonesia.

Abstrak. Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk melakukan analisis pengaruh kesenjangan teknologi terhadap ketahanan pangan dan poverty di Indonesia. Data yang digunakan untuk keperluan analisis adalah data sekunder yang didapatkan dari Badan Pusat Statistik (BPS) sejak tahun 2015 hingga tahun 2017. Penelitian ini menggunakan pendekatan kuantitatif dengan menggunakan metode Structural Equation Model (SEM). Variabel laten yang digunakan untuk analisis ini adalah Kemajuan Teknologi, Kemiskinan, dan Ketahanan Pangan. Berdasarkan hasil penelitian, Kemajuan Teknologi berpengaruh secara positif dan signifikan terhadap Ketahanan Pangan dengan nilai koefisien 0.894, sementara ketahanan pangan berpengaruh negatif dan signifikan terhadap nilai kemiskinan dengan nilai koefisien sebesar -0.616. Itulah ada pengaruh signifikan antara variabel kemajuan teknologi terhadap kemiskinan secara langsung. Hal ini berarti bahwa kontribusi teknologi masih belum berpengaruh secara signifikan terhadap pengentasan kemiskinan di Indonesia.

Kata kunci: Kesenjangan teknologi, kemiskinan, ketahanan pangan, SEM, Indonesia

*Corresponding author. Email: nityayalina@uinsby.ac.id
Received: July 22†, 2020; Revision: July 30†, 2020; Accepted: August 11†, 2020
Print ISSN: 1412-1700; Online ISSN: 2089-7928. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.12695/jmt.2020.19.2.3
Copyright© 2020. Published by Unit Research and Knowledge, School of Business and Management - Institut Teknologi Bandung (SBM-ITB)
Introduction

Poverty is one of the problems in Indonesia. Indonesian people below the poverty line are 25,144,720 people (Badan Pusat Statistik, 2018). One of the important components related to community welfare is food security, among other problems in the society such as job opportunity, purchasing power, and availability of products and services (Brauw & Suryanarayana, 2015). The Ministry of Agriculture (2018) divides food security into 3 aspects, namely 1) Availability, 2) Affordability, 3) Utilization (Toni, Candra, Rachmaning, Prayitno, & Maulana, 2018). This means that food security is not only about the availability of food commodities———""""(OConnor, Farag, & Baines, 2016), but also considers the quality of nutrition and equitable distribution at affordable prices for all levels of society (Ali, 2017).

Industrial Revolution 4.0 is an era in which the development of technology has an extraordinary impact on human life (Kumar & Prasad, 2004). This technology development presumably can strengthen food security and reduce poverty in Indonesia. For example, with quick access to communication and information (Biancone, Secinaro, & Kamal, 2019), projecting the amount of demand and supply of domestic food commodities will be easier. This can be seen if the amount of demand and supply of goods is provided by domestic industries and consumed by the domestic community as (Elseid, 2018). Technology development will also encourage new research studies to optimize the production of food commodities in Indonesia and with the internet access (Lenagala & Ram, 2010), the public will also find it easier to access various kinds of information needed to overcome the problems existed.

Technology developments also have a role in poverty reduction———""""(Chhibber & Nayyar, 2008), the presence of advances in information technology can be utilized to empower the community and income distribution""""(Zaki, Widiastuti, Yudha, Wijayanti, & Miraj, 2020).

The Government of Indonesia through the National Development Planning Agency (BAPPENAS) has created a system called the Integrated Poverty Planning""""(Sung, Leong, Sironi, O'Reilly, & McMillan, 2019), Budgeting——""""(Hazera, Quirvan, & Marin-Hernandez, 2016), Analysis and Evaluation System (SEPAKAT) which aims to manage data to map the problems that cause poverty in the community (Chamboko, Re, & Guvuro, 2017), with that system the government can determine what strategies are suitable for alleviating existing problems to reduce poverty (Wang, Liu, Yao, & Xin, 2009). The contribution of technological progress has an important role and is a solution to the problem of food security (Bastos, Fernandes, & Passos, 2004), and poverty in Indonesia———(Thomson Reuters and Dinar Standard, 2018).

However, Indonesia is a vast country with diverse geographical conditions, infrastructure and human resources———(Thomson Reuters and Dinar Standard, 2018). Therefore, there is a gap in the development of technology in Indonesia. To be able to obtain the benefits of these technological advancements, it takes quite a thorough preparation in various aspects (Habibi & Candra Yudha, 2017), ranging from the availability of infrastructure that allows the public to be able to access the internet ——(Tajerin, Sastrawidjaja, & Yusuf, 2017), experts in the field of technology and of course the people’s ability to be able to utilize the technology (Nastiti & Kasri, 2019). Regions that have access to adequate technology and infrastructure should be able to minimize poverty levels (Streukens & Leroi-Werelds, 2016).

The study that investigates the impact of technology on poverty and food security were scarce. This study tried to fill in the gaps and aims to provide empirical evidence of the influence of technological disparities on food security and poverty in Indonesia by the year 2015 to 2017.
**Digital Divide and Food Security**

Technology in agricultural industry has strategic roles to increase national food security. Agricultural technology has a significant role on increasing food productivity, increasing diversification in the type and quality of food, increasing added value, employment opportunities, and preserving natural resources and the environment. With the technology, production efficiency can be increased thereby increasing the competitiveness of food products in the country and in the international market (Suryana, 2014). This hypothesis was also supported by another study which proved that there is a relationship between the adoption of agricultural technological innovations with the level of resilience of farm households (Fatchiya, Amanah, & Kusumastuti, 2016).

**Hypothesis 1**: Digital Divide has a relationship with Food Security

**Digital Divide and Poverty**

Yekini considered that ICT had a positive impact on the rate of poverty reduction, with the confirmation of adequate infrastructure, the development of ICT made it possible to create innovations aimed at increasing income, access to education, community empowerment and public services. Internet and cell phone penetration also contributes to the rate of poverty reduction (Yekini, Rufai, Adetoba, Akinwole, & Ojo, 2012).

Litan & Alice in their empirical study stated, the internet has the potential to increase productivity in different sectors, but mutually reinforcing in various ways, namely: 1) reducing the transaction costs of production and distribution of goods and services, 2) increasing management efficiency in production chain communication from suppliers to consumers, and 3) increase competitiveness, transparency, expansion of market space (Litan & Rivlin, 2001). It is concluded that mobile phones contribute to improve rural livelihoods and reduce poverty by providing rural households with fast and easy modes of communication, thereby increasing their ability to access livelihood assets, undertake diverse livelihoods strategies, and overcome their vulnerabilities (Sife, Kiondo, & Lyimo-Macha, 2010). It is clear the deployment of mobile phones does have a multi-dimensional positive impact on sustainable poverty reduction (Bhatia, D., Bhavnani, A., Won-Wai Chiu, R., Janakiram, S., Silarszy, 2008).

**Hypothesis 2**: Digital Divide has a relationship with Poverty

**Food Security and Poverty**

According to Siregar, the increased consumption of food (mainly rice) in the poor households group will have a significant effect on their level of welfare, which is usually measured by the amount of food expenditure. Which means that with a higher level of food security, this gives an indication that the level of welfare will also be higher (Siregar, 2009).

At a macro level, food security can affect poverty levels. In Regmi and Meade's research, one aspect of food security is the price of food commodities and when there is an increase in the price of food commodities will cause a decrease in people's welfare which will affect global economic conditions. In the previous study, there was an empirical evidence that the welfare has a positive and real relationship with the level of food security of poor fishermen households in both the typology of poverty in urban and rural coastal areas (Regmi & Meade, 2013).**Hypothesis 3**: Food Security has a relationship with Poverty

**Research Methodology**

This study used a quantitative approach using Structural Equation Model (SEM) (Contreras Pinochet, Diogo, Lopes, Herrero, & Bueno, 2019). The variables that were used in this study were given in Table 1.
Table 1. Variables

| Variable      | Code  | Description                          | Unit   |
|---------------|-------|--------------------------------------|--------|
| Latent endogen Indicator η Poverty | X1    | Number of Poor people                | percentage |
|               | X2    | Poverty Depression Index P1          | percentage |
|               | X3    | Poverty Depression Index P2          | percentage |
| Latent endogen Indicator η Food security | X4    | Average community energy consumption | nominal |
|               | X5    | Average portion of community food expenditure | Percentage |
|               | X6    | the percentage of people who have access to electricity | Percentage |
|               | X7    | The average length of study for people with > 15 years of age | nominal |
|               | X8    | Percentage of people who have access to sustainable water | Percentage |
|               | X9    | Percentage of toddlers aged 0 – 59 months who are affected by malnutrition | Percentage |
|               | X10   | Life expectancy                      | nominal |
| Latent Exogen Indicator ξ ICT | X11   | Digital Divide Index                 | Index |
|               | X12   | Percentage of people who access the internet last 3 months | Percentage |
|               | X13   | Percentage of people who master computers | Percentage |
|               | X14   | Percentage of people who control cell phones | Percentage |

Data Gathering: The data used in this study is secondary data, where secondary data is data obtained indirectly or through intermediary media. In this study the data used is panel data at the provincial level in Indonesia and obtained from the publication of the Central Statistics Agency (BPS), the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Agriculture in the period 2015 - 2017. There are 34 provinces in Indonesia, therefore there are 34 sets of data for each variable.

Data Processing: After the data for each variable is collected then statistical analysis is performed to test the hypothesis and answer the formulated problem. The analytical method used is the Structure Equation Model (SEM) method and the software used was SmartPLS. There are two approaches in the Structure Equation Model (SEM) method (Hair, Sarstedt, Hopkins, & Kuppelwieser, 2014), namely covariance-based SEM (Covariance Based-SEM, CB-SEM) and SEM with variance approach (VB-SEM) with Partial Least Squares (SEM-PLS) techniques (Usakli & Kucukergin, 2018).

In this study, the SEM method used is the SEM-PLS method because it is more dynamic in analyzing economic data (Svensson, 2015). SEM-PLS is not only used to test the theory but can also be used to confirm the influence test that does not yet have a theoretical basis because in its application it is not necessary to scale up to large data and test statistical assumptions (Hanna, 2017).

The advantage of using SEM analysis is that it can test the relationship between variables in more than one direction (Pişirir, Uçar, Chouseinoglou, & Sevgi, 2019) because SEM is included in the multivariate statistical method that allows analysis of more than one independent variable in the form of latent variables (Hanna, 2017).

There are several steps in conducting an SEM-PLS analysis. The following are the steps in conducting the SEM-PLS test:
1. Determine the Inner Model
The inner model is the first step taken in conducting the SEM-PLS test—"Identification of indicator properties. For poverty and ICT variables, the nature of the indicator is reflective, while for the food security variable the indicator's nature is formative.

2. Determine the Outer Model
After determining the structural model the next step is to design a measurement model or Outer Model. The objective of determining this measurement model is to identify whether the indicator falls into the category of indicators: reflective or formative. Reflective indicator variables are variables that reflect latent variables. While formative indicator variables are variables that cause latent variables (Siswoyo, 2017).

3. Arrange a Path Diagram
After the process of identifying indicator variables, the next step is to refine the SEM-PLS model by compiling a path diagram, so that the flow of the analysis process is easier to understand. Next is the final model that already consists of inner model, outer model and is connected with a path diagram between variables.

![Path Diagram]

Figure 1.
Hypothesis Model
1. Converting a Path Diagram Into mathematical Modelling

To find out how significant the relationship between latent variables with indicators and latent variables with other latent variables, a measuring tool called the measurement model method is used. In carrying out the measurement model test, mathematical equations are needed. Following is the form of SEM-PLS model conversion in Figure 3.1 into mathematical equations:

\[ \eta_{\text{poverty}} = \beta_{\xi_{\text{ICT}}} + \gamma_{\text{food security}} \]
\[ \eta_{\text{food security}} = \beta_{\xi_{\text{ICT}}} \]
\[ \eta_{\text{poverty}} = \gamma_{\text{food security}} \times \beta_{\xi_{\text{ICT}}} \]

Description:
\( \gamma \) = the path coefficient of the exogenous to endogenous variable regression
\( \beta \) = pathway regression coefficient for endogenous to endogenous variables

2. PLS Testing Model

a). Outer model

In the PLS model, there are two methods used to measure the significance of indicators of their latent variables. The use of measurement methods must be adjusted to the nature of the relationship between the indicator and its latent variables.

Reflective

For the constructs which have a reflective relationship between the indicator and its latent variable, the value that needs to be considered are outer loading, composite reliability dan average variance extracted (AVE). The constructs will be stated significant if outer loading value > 0.7.

Discriminant validity is comparing the value of the square root of average variance extracted (AVE) latent variable to the indicator with the value of other latent variables if the square root of average variance extracted (AVE) latent variable to the indicator is greater than the correlation with all other latent variables in one model, it is said that the latent variable has good discriminant validity. Recommended measurement values must be greater than 0.50. Composite reliability is a reliability test in PLS which shows accuracy on choosing a measuring instrument. Latent variables are said to have good reliability if they have values > 0.70.

Formative

For formative indicators, the value that needs to be considered are outer weight dan collinearity statistic (VIF).
Outer weight value is used to compare which indicator has the biggest contribution in the construct. The requirement for indicators to be used in constructs that have the nature of formative relationships is that there is no high multicollinearity among the indicators used. Therefore the VIF value of the indicator in the formative construct must be <10 to be used in the model.

a). Inner model
Goodness of fit (GOF) on SEM-PLS was measured using R-Squared ($R^2$). R-Squared ($R^2$) value is used to test the impact value between these variables. If the value of $R^2 \geq 0.15$ then the relationship is not significant enough if the value of $R^2 \geq 0.33$ then the impact is moderate and if the value of $R^2 \geq 0.7$ then the impact is significant.

3. Hypothesis Test
The hypothesis was tested by bootstrapping resampling method. The value that must be considered in the bootstrap resampling method is the t-statistics value to find out whether the relationship between the variables tested is significant or not. If the value of t-statistics $> 1.59$ then there is a significant relationship between variables.

Furthermore, to see the value the relationship between the two variables can be seen in the path coefficient value column. If the coefficient value is positive then the relationship between the two variables is positive and if it is negative then the relationship between the two variables is negative.

Results

After calculating using the help of smartPLS software, the following results are obtained:

b). Outer Model
Validation of the measurement model on the outer model aims to determine whether the indicators that have been determined can explain the latent variables. There are two relationship indicators with latent variables in this study, namely formative and reflective. The method used to test the outer model in the SmartPLS application is to do the PLS Algorithm test. Here are the PLSAlgorithm test result

a. Reflective Measurement Model
Latent variables that have a reflective relationship with the indicators in this study are the latent variables of ICT and Poverty. The following are the results of outer model measurements on the ICT and Poverty variables

![Figure 2. PLS Algorithm Result](image_url)
Based on the measurement results in the table above shows that the number of poor people (X1), poverty depth level (X2) and poverty severity (X3) can be relied upon to explain latent poverty variables. The value of composite reliability and AVE in this study is 0.988 and 0.966, which means that each indicator is determined other than can reliable also has a high consistency to explain latent poverty variables. Here is a mathematical model for measuring the poverty variable construct:

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\chi_1 \\
\chi_2 \\
\chi_3
\end{bmatrix} =
\begin{bmatrix}
0.973 \\
0.998 \\
0.997
\end{bmatrix}
\eta_{\text{poverty}}
\]

Table 2.
Value of Loading the Indicator in The Poverty Variable

| Indicator                  | Loading | Information |
|----------------------------|---------|-------------|
| Number of poor people     | 0.973   | Valid       |
| Poverty depression index  | 0.998   | Valid       |
| Poverty depression index  | 0.977   | Valid       |

Table 3.
Value of Loading Indicators in ICT Variables

| Indicator                          | Loading | Information |
|-----------------------------------|---------|-------------|
| Digital divide index              | 0.974   | Valid       |
| Percentage of people who access the internet in the last 3 month | 0.961 | Valid |
| Percentage of people who master computer | 0.943 | Valid |
| Percentage of people who control cell phone | 0.909 | Valid |

Based on the measurement results in the table above shows that the index of IPTIK growth index (X11), the number of people who have accessed the internet (X12), the number of people who master computers (X13) and the number of people who control cell phones (X14) can be relied upon to explain latent variables poverty. The value of composite reliability and AVE in this study are 0.972 and 0.896, which means that each indicator determined is not only reliable but also has a high consistency to explain latent poverty variables. Here is a mathematical model for the IPTIK variable construct:

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\chi_1 \\
\chi_2 \\
\chi_3 \\
\chi_4
\end{bmatrix} =
\begin{bmatrix}
0.974 \\
0.961 \\
0.943 \\
0.909
\end{bmatrix}
\xi_{\text{ICT}}
\]

a. Formative measurement model

Latent variables that have a formative relationship with the indicators in this study are latent variables of food security. Following are the results of outer model measurements on the food security variable.
Based on the measurement results in the table above shows that the index of IPTIK growth index (X11), the number of people who have accessed the internet (X12), the number of people who master computers (X13) and the number of people who control cell phones (X14) can be relied upon to explain latent variables poverty. The value of composite reliability and AVE in this study are 0.972 and 0.896, which means that each indicator determined is not only reliable but also has a high consistency to explain latent poverty variables. Here is a mathematical model for the IPTIK variable construct:

\[ a. \text{Formative measurement model} \]

Latent variables that have a formative relationship with the indicators in this study are latent variables of food security. Following are the results of outer model measurements on the food security variable.

In the latent variable construct of food security, each indicator that has been determined has a VIF value <10, which means that in the construct, there are no high multicollinearity symptoms and it can be said that all indicators can explain the latent variable. Here is the mathematical calculation of the construct of the food security variable.

\[ \eta_{\text{food security}} = 0.298X_1 - 0.013X_2 + 0.087X_3 - 0.045X_4 + 0.203X_5 - 0.034X_6 + 0.441X_7 \]

2. Inner Model

The purpose of the inner model test is to test the structure and determine the relationship between the latent variables in the model. The method used in the SmartPLS application to determine the relationship between latent variables or test hypotheses was done by calculating Bootstrapping. Figure 3 is the results of structural tests with Bootstrapping calculations in the study of the influence of technological progress on food security and poverty levels.

| Indikator                                      | Weight | VIF   | Keterangan |
|-----------------------------------------------|--------|-------|------------|
| The Average community energy consumption      | 0.298  | 1.554 | Valid      |
| The Average portion of community food expenditure | -0.013 | 1.400 | Valid      |
| Average of people who have access to electricity | 0.087  | 2.481 | Valid      |
| The Average length of study for people with > 15 years of age | 0.405  | 1.445 | Valid      |
| Percentage of people who have access to sustainable water | 0.203  | 1.695 | Valid      |
| Percentage rate of toddlers aged 0-59 months who are affected by malnutrition | 0.034  | 1.202 | Valid      |
| Life expectancy                               | 0.441  | 1.947 | Valid      |

\[ \text{Figure 3. Calculation Results of the Bootstrapping Method} \]
The effect of food security and ICT on poverty
When testing the path coefficient of the relationship between the development of ICT it turns out that it is not as significant as that because the path of the ICT development variable relationship to poverty is removed. Here are the results of structural tests on poverty variables.

\[ \rho_{\text{poverty}} = -0.552 \rho_{\text{food security}} \]

Based on the measurement results above it can be seen that the t-statistic value is known to be greater than 1.59 with a value of 2,448 which means that food security influences poverty. The form of influence that was formed was negative at 0.552 and the value of R2 for the food security variable was included in the moderate influence category with a value of 0.38 indicating that the food security variable could explain 38% of the latent poverty variable.

The Impact of ICT on Food Security
Following are the results of structural tests between the development of IPTIK on food security

\[ \rho_{\text{food security}} = 0.894 \rho_{\text{ICT}} \]

Based on the measurement results above, it can be seen that the t-statistical value is 42.05 with a value of 0.000 which means that ICT can influence poverty through food security. The form of influence formed is negative at -0.552

Discussion
Based on data from 2015 to 2017, technological advances still do not have a significant contribution directly to poverty in Indonesia. However, the potential and opportunities for digital economic development in Indonesia are enormous. Based on data recorded from katadata.co.id, the value of digital economic transactions in Indonesia reached $133 billion, or around Rp 1,826 trillion in 2025, surging from the 2019 projection of US $21 billion(Jayani, 2019). The technology gap still occurs in most regions in Indonesia, only a small proportion have a fairly low level of the technology gap.

Based on data released by APJII, the growth of internet users is growing rapidly each year to reach 10%. In 2017 the number of internet users in Indonesia ranged from 171.17 million out of 264.14 million inhabitants. In 2018, the number of internet users will then increase to 199.6 million populations.
This figure is projected to continue to increase over the year. Seeing this potential, if it is utilized properly, the significant impact of ICT on food security and poverty is likely possible in the next few years. However, this must be followed by triggering ICT to incubate creative economy industry and make sure that the development of facilities and infrastructure are well performed in all areas. Therefore, the significant impact of ICT on food security and poverty is likely possible. The result align with previous study (Siregar, 2009) (Regmi & Meade, 2013).

The result of this study was align with previous study that there is a relationship between technology development and food security' (Suryana, 2014). Technology development in agriculture has an important role to increase the production as well as the farmers livelihoods. Therefore, it is considered both urgent and consequential (Bronson & Knezevic, 2019).

There is no significant direct impact was found between the level of the digital divide and poverty. This result wasn't align with previous study which prove that there was relationship between technology and poverty (Yekini et al., 2012) (Wang et al., 2009) (Chamboko et al., 2017). Technology was considered as the opportunity to gain compete advantage in the New Economic era (Greene, 2016).

From the second analysis, this might happened because the ICT development among different provinces in Indonesia was highly divided. One of the factors that caused technological progress cannot directly affect poverty levels in Indonesia is the high gap that exists in each region in Indonesia. The following is the ICT growth index data between the provinces that are in Java and the provinces outside of Java.

Based on the results of the data above, it can be seen that there is a large gap between the provinces in Indonesia in terms of technological growth, this is why technology does not have a major impact on poverty levels in Indonesia. To find out whether technology can affect poverty levels directly, an SEM-PLS test was carried out again with a predetermined model that is looking for the influence of technological progress on food security and poverty but using a narrower scale of data that only uses data on provinces in Java, since these provinces have a greater technological growth index and dominate among other provinces in Indonesia, the following are SEM-PLS test results for provinces in Java.

Table 6.
*ICT Growth Index Data in Indonesia*

| Province                     | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | Average |
|------------------------------|------|------|------|---------|
| Province on Java Island      | 5.67 | 5.85 | 6.18 | 5.90    |
| Province outside of Java Island | 3.63 | 3.99 | 4.54 | 4.054   |

Based on the results of the data above, it can be seen that there is a large gap between the provinces in Indonesia in terms of technological growth, this is why technology does not have a major impact on poverty levels in Indonesia. To find out whether technology can affect poverty levels directly, an SEM-PLS test was carried out again with a predetermined model that is looking for the influence of technological progress on food security and poverty but using a narrower scale of data that only uses data on provinces in Java, since these provinces have a greater technological growth index and dominate among other provinces in Indonesia, the following are SEM-PLS test results for provinces in Java.

Table 7.
*Results of SEM-PLS Bootstrapping Test in Java Island*

| Path            | Direct | t-statistic | P Values |
|-----------------|--------|-------------|----------|
| Food security → poverty | -1.854 | 4.202       | 0.000    |
| ICT → Food Security       | 0.934  | 21.91       | 0.000    |
| ICT → Poverty             | -1.022 | 3.782       | 0.000    |
Based on the bootstrapping test results above, it can be seen that if using data scale only in Java, technological progress can directly influence poverty levels without mediating other variables, because the t-statistic value and P Values meet the requirements that prove that the direct relationship between the two variables significant effect.

The data used in this study was very limited, which is from 2015 to 2017. Therefore, the panel data was used. For further studies, it is highly recommended to use wide range of data in time series. Individual analysis from various province in Indonesia would be very interesting to be explored and compared. The model could also be developed further by adding some other latent variables such as the Human Development Index or economic growth. Cross-sectional studies would be interesting to be done with various factor technology development.

Conclusions

Based on data from 20015-2007, there is a significant influence between technological progress and food security. Meanwhile, food security also had a significant negative impact on poverty. Poverty wasn't directly affected by technology development. However, when the calculation was modified only on the selected province which has a significant ICT development the result shows that the impact on poverty was significant and this align with those previous studies. Finally, from this study, it is concluded that bridging digital divide is important not only to increase food security but also expected to reduce poverty in Indonesia.

References

Ali, A. (2017). Pengaruh teknologi pertanian terhadap produktivitas hasil panen padi di kecamatan maritenggngae kabupaten Sidenreng Rappang. Jurnal Ilmiah, 14(3), 514–525.

Bastos, A., Fernandes, G. L., & Passos, J. (2004). Child income poverty and child deprivation: An essay on measurement. International Journal of Social Economics, 31(11–12), 1050–1060. doi: 10.1108/03068290410561168

Bhatia, D., Bhavnani, A., Won-Wai Chiu, R., Janakiram, S., & Silarszy, S. (2008). The role of mobile phones in sustainable rural poverty reduction.

Biancone, P. Pietro, Secinaro, S., & Kamal, M. (2019). Crowdfunding and fintech: business model sharia compliant. Crowdfunding and Fintech: Business Model Sharia Compliant, (12), 1–10. doi: 10.13135/2421-2172/3260

Brauw, A. D. E., & Suryanarayana, M. H. (2015). Linkages between poverty, food security and undernutrition: Evidence from China and India. China Agricultural Economic Review, 7(4), 655–667. doi: 10.1108/CAER-09-2015-0117

Bronson, K., & Knezevic, I. (2019). The digital divide and how it matters for Canadian food system equity. Canadian Journal of Communication, 44(2), 63–68. doi: 10.22230/cjc.2019v44n2a3489.

Chamboko, R., Re, A., & Guvuriro, S. (2017). Mapping patterns of multiple deprivation in Namibia. International Journal of Social Economics, 44(12), 2486–2499. doi: 10.1108/IJSE-01-2016-0031

Chhibber, A., & Nayyar, G. (2008). Pro-poor growth: explaining the cross-country variation in the growth elasticity of poverty. International Journal of Development Issues, 7(2), 160–176. doi: 10.1108/14468950810909123

Contreras Pinochet, L. H., Diogo, G. T., Lopes, E. L., Herrero, E., & Bueno, R. L. P. (2019). Propensity of contracting loans services from FinTech’s in Brazil. International Journal of Bank Marketing, 37(5), 1190–1214. doi: 10.1108/IJBM-07-2018-0174

Elseidi, R. I. (2018). Determinants of halal purchasing intentions: evidences from UK. 9(1), 167–190. doi: 10.1108/JIMA-02-2016-0013
Fatchiya, A., Amanah, S., & Kusumastuti, Y. I. (2016). Penerapan inovasi teknologi pertanian dan hubungannya dengan ketahanan pangan rumah tangga petani. *Jurnal Penyuluhan*, 12(2), 190. doi: 10.25015/penyuluhan.v12i2.12988

Greene, D. (2016). Discovering the divide: Technology and poverty in the New Economy. *International Journal of Communication*, 10, 1212–1231.

Habibi, M. L., & Candra Yudha, A. T. R. (2017). Membangun integrated takaful dan wakaf model dalam upaya meningkatkan kemanfaatan pemegang polis. *Al-Uqoud: Journal of Islamic Economics, 1(2)*, 139. doi: 10.26740/jie.v1n2.p139-155

Hair, J. F., Sarstedt, M., Hopkins, L., & Kuppelwieser, V. G. (2014). Partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM): An emerging tool in business research. *European Business Review, 26*(2), 106–121. doi: 10.1108/EBR-10-2013-0128

Hazera, A., Quirvan, C., & Marin-Hernandez, S. (2016). The impact of guaranteed bailout assistance on bank loan overstatement: The Mexican financial crisis of the late 1990s and early 2000s. *International Journal of Managerial Finance, 12*(2), 177–210. doi: 10.1108/IJMF-04-2014-0046

Jayani, D. H. J. (2019). Ekonomi digital Indonesia terbesar di asia tenggara. Retrieved from https://katadata.co.id/infografik/2019/10/16/ekonomi-digital-indonesia-terbesar-di-asia-tenggara

Kumar, S., & Prasad, B. (2004). Politics of race and poverty in Fiji: A case of Indo-Fijian community. *International Journal of Social Economics, 31*(5–6), 469–486. doi: 10.1108/0306829041052935

Lenagala, C., & Ram, R. (2010). Growth elasticity of poverty: Estimates from new data. *International Journal of Social Economics, 37*(12), 923–932. doi: 10.1108/03068291011083008

Litan, R. E., & Rivlin, A. M. (2001). Projecting the economic impact of the internet. *American Economic Review, 91*(2), 313–317. doi: 10.1257/aer.91.2.313

Nastiti, N. D., & Kasri, R. A. (2019). The role of banking regulation in the development of Islamic banking financing in Indonesia. *International Journal of Islamic and Middle Eastern Finance and Management, 12*(5), 643–662. doi: 10.1108/IMEFM-10-2018-0365

O’Connor, N., Farag, K., & Baines, R. (2016). What is food poverty? A conceptual framework. *British Food Journal, 118*(2), 429–449. doi: 10.1108/BFJ-06-2015-0222

Pişirir, E., Ucar, E., Chouseinoglou, O., & Sevgi, C. (2019). Structural equation modeling in cloud computing studies: a systematic literature review. *Kybernetes, 49*(3), 982–1019. doi: 10.1108/K-12-2018-0663

Regmi, A., & Meade, B. (2013). Demand side drivers of global food security. *Global Food Security, 2*(3), 166–171. doi: 10.1016/j.gfs.2013.08.001

Richter, N. F., Sinkovics, R. R., Ringle, C. M., & Schlägel, C. (2016). A critical look at the use of SEM in international business research. *International Marketing Review, 33*(3), 376–404. doi: 10.1108/IMR-04-2014-0148

Sifè, A. S., Kiondo, E., & Lyimo-Macha, J. G. (2010). Contribution of mobile phones to rural livelihoods and poverty reduction in morogoro region, Tanzania. *The Electronic Journal of Information Systems in Developing Countries, 42*(1), 1–15. doi: 10.1002/j.1681-4835.2010.tb00299.x

Siregar, H. (2009). Kerawanan pangan dan upaya penanggulangannya. makro-mikro pembangunan: Bogor: IPB Press. Kumpulan Makalah Dan Esai. IPB Press.

Streukens, S., & Leroi-Werelds, S. (2016). PLS FAC-SEM: An illustrated step-by-step guideline to obtain a unique insight in factorial data. *Industrial Management and Data Systems, 116*(9), 1922–1945. doi: 10.1108/IMDS-07-2015-0318
Sung, A., Leong, K., Sironi, P., O’Reilly, T., & McMillan, A. (2019). An exploratory study of the FinTech (Financial Technology) education and retraining in UK. *Journal of Work-Applied Management*, 11(2), 187–198. doi: 10.1108/jwam-06-2019-0020

Suryana, A. (2014). Menuju ketahanan pangan Indonesia berkelanjutan 2025: tantangan dan penanganannya. *Forum Penelitian Agro Ekonomi*, 32(2), 123. doi: 10.21082/fae.v32n2.2014.123-135

Svensson, G. (2015). Contemporary process to test the theory of a research model through covariance-based structural equation modeling in business research: Is it science, quasi-science or just non-science...? *European Business Review*, 27(4), 447–458. doi: 10.1108/EBR-08-2013-0104

Tajerin, T., Sastrawidjaja, S., & Yusuf, R. (2017). Tingkat kesejahteraan dan ketahanan pangan rumah tangga nelayan miskin: Studi Kasus di Kelurahan Marunda Baru, DKI Jakarta dan Desa Tanjung Pasir, Banten. *Jurnal Sosial Ekonomi Kelautan Dan Perikanan*, 6(1), 83. doi: 10.15578/jsekp.v6i1.5757

Thomson Reuters & Dinar Standard. (2018). *State of the global islamic economy report 2019/20*. Dubai International Financial Centre.

Toni, A., Candra, R., Rachmaning, A., Prayitno, D., & Maulana, A. (2018). Instrumen moneter Indonesia: penentuan arah kebijakan. *Journals of Economics Development Issues (JEDI)*, 1(2), 1–11.

Usakli, A., & Kucukergin, K. G. (2018). Using partial least squares structural equation modeling in hospitality and tourism: Do researchers follow practical guidelines? In *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management* (30). doi: 10.1108/IJCHM-11-2017-0753

Wang, X., Liu, J., Yao, S., & Xin, X. (2009). China’s rural poverty line and the determinants of rural poverty. *China Agricultural Economic Review*, 1(3), 283–300. doi: 10.1108/17561370910958864

Yekini, N. A., Rufai, M. M., Adetoba, B. T., Akinwole, A. K., & Ojo, O. (2012). Ict “tools” for poverty eradication and economic growth in Nigeria. *Greener Journal of Educational Research*, 2(1), 013–019. doi: 10.15580/gjer.2012.1.gjer1202

Zaki, I., Widiastuti, T., Yudha, A. T. R. C., Wijayanti, I., & Mi’raj, D. A. (2020). *Implementation of Islamic entrepreneurial culture in Islamic boarding schools*. *International Journal of Innovation, Creativity and Change*, 11(11), 452–469.