Community Adaptation in The Development of Villages in Indonesia

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Abstract:

This article aims to understand community adaptation to the sustainability development goals in rural areas. This research uses mixed methods with an explanatory design approach based on the follow-up explanation model. The research was conducted by looking at statistical data on village development throughout Indonesia classified by province. This study finds results through quantitative data and qualitative data as well. The results of the quantitative analysis show that 44% of the middle- class population in Indonesia have adapted very well, 35% have adapted well, and 21% have adapted passively. Based on qualitative data, quantitative data in the field is influenced by each village's knowledge of SDGs.
Keywords: *Village community, Adaptation, Sustainability Development Goals, Village.*

INTRODUCTION

Along with the efforts of every country under the auspices of the United Nations to prioritize progress (Obaideen et al., 2022), problems in various aspects arise as a result of setting aside the urgency (Shaw et al., 2016) of sustainable development in each country (Prof, et al. 2016). Departing from the development of problems in developing countries that are increasingly complex (Omer & Noguchi, 2020), a global sustainable development agenda or sustainable development goals (SDGs) on 25 September 2015 by the United Nations (UN) (UNNES, 2022). As one of the supporting countries SDGs (Santika et al., 2020), Indonesia has a slightly different state form from other UN countries, namely an archipelagic state (Wijaya & Furqan, 2018) so that in the implementation of the 17 objectives in SDGs need further mapping of the area.

The village is the smallest territory in a country (Creese, 2013) which has a social entity for the progress of the country, especially Indonesia (Iskandar, 2020). With the form of an archipelagic state consisting of tens of thousands of villages (C. Allen et al., 2018), Indonesia improvised in the implementation area SDGs be localized SDGs villages (Eakin et al., 2014). The aim is to ensure that the socialization process and the implementation of the SDGs are in accordance with its main motto, namely "No One Left Behind even in rural areas (Hák et al., 2016).

Society as a goal of sustainable development is bound by the label of social beings (SVD, 2019). Not only within the scope of the state, even within the village, there is social class stratification of society (Fargher et al., 2020) which is divided into three main classes, namely, upper, middle and lower class (Barone et al., 2022). Correlation with SDGs especially SDGs village is if this sustainable development (ONU, 2020) tends to focus on the development of the lower class (Nundy et al., 2021) with cross subsidies from the upper class (Ljunggren, 2016), then where is the position and what is the role of the middle class? (Trinh, 2022).

Indonesia's commitment to localization SDGs to village areas (ElMassah & Mohieldin, 2020) supported by the action of adding to its development goals (Iskandar, 2020), namely "Dynamic village institutions and adaptive village culture" to be the 18th goal (Reza, 2021). Unlike the SDGs in general, in village SDGs a more intense goal mapping is carried out into two sub-sections, namely, SDGs I and SDGs II. Village I's SDGs themselves include (1) Villages Without Poverty and Hunger (SDGs points 1 and 2), (2) Villages concerned with health (SDGs points 3, 6 and 11), (3) Villages concerned with Education (SDGs point 4), and (4) Women-friendly village (SDGs point 5). The SDGs for village II include (5) Economic village grows evenly (SDGs points 8, 9, 10, and 12), (6) Villages that care for the environment (SDGs points 7, 13, 14, and 15), (7) Networked villages (SDGs point 17), and finally (8) the culture of responsive villages (SDGs points 16 and 18) (Andari, 2021).

The 18 goals of SDGs in this village are quite interesting (Prayitno et al., 2021) because the Indonesian government itself is committed to seriously supporting its implementation with a special budget of IDR 72 trillion (Raharjo, 2020) for the "Village Fund" program. As the smallest area, in addition to its development program, further discussion is needed regarding how the community responds to village SDGs (Okitasari & Katramiz, 2022) through the adaptation process in their daily life. The first previous research that became the reference for this research was research with the title "Analysis of SDGs Alignment with the Seresam Village Development Program in Seresam Village, Indagiri Hulu Regency" (Surya, 2019). The second research is "Climate-based Village Program Strategybottom up participative in encouraging the achievement of SDGs targets in Hutadaa Village" (Yunginger & Dako, 2021).

The similarities between the two previous studies and this research are the interest in raising the topic of village SDGs (Saiu et al., 2021) along with its implementation from various perspectives (the village area itself and the community). What distinguishes it is that previous research has focused on how a village area adapts to the SDGs village program through a pre-existing village development program (Surya, 2019). And the second previous research focuses on how communities innovate to form new programs that can align themselves for adaptation to village SDGs goals (Yunginger & Dako, 2021). Thus, this research aims to fill the gap between the two by focusing on how communities adapt through existing programs to contribute to the success of the 18 village SDGs (Lena I. Fuldauer et al., 2021).

The second difference between the two previous studies and this research is also found in the research methods for assessing the results of each study. The first previous research used quantitative methods desk review with the results of the Seresam village development program positively aligned with innovations that support the achievement of village SDGs goals (Surya, 2019). The second previous research used descriptive qualitative methods with the results of the climate village program being able to positively support village SDGs goals in a sustainable manner (Yunginger & Dako, 2021). What distinguishes it from the two previous studies is that this research method uses a mixed method explanatory design by sequential analysis (Caroline, 2019) with results that can later be found in the results and discussion section.

The process of socializing the 18 goals to 34 provinces in Indonesia (Staff, 2021) inspired the formulation of the problem and purpose of carrying out this research regarding how the process of socialization (Moinuddin et al., 2021) to the 34 regions based on the time zone? How and what kind of adaptation pattern (Bosello et al., 2018) does the middle-class society in each province which is divided into three different time zones to village SDGs? From these two questions, a concluding question arises about what factors influence the results of community adaptation patterns (Dittmar et al., 2016) and whether indications of inequality are found in the implementation of SDGs (M. Haas & Ivanovskis, 2022) in villages in Indonesia. With a mixed method of explanatory design approach (a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods), it is hoped that it can provide guidance for this research to find results from how the pattern of adaptation of middle-class society in general to village SDGs programs in Indonesia (Nong et al., 2021).

Based on the Regulation of the Minister of Villages, Development of Disadvantaged Regions and Transmigration (Permendesa) No. 13 of 2020 concerning optimizing the use of village funds to achieve village SDGs goals (RI, 2020), all provinces in Indonesia are taking part in developing their respective regional work plans to align with the program (Rudiyanto, 2020). To facilitate the process of implementing the 18 goals in the village SDGs program (Sutrisna, 2021), the Indonesian government has given a mandate to a special agency, namely the National Development Planning Agency (Bappenas).

In the implementation of sustainable development goals (TPB)/SDGs in Indonesia, according to Bappenas, many results have been achieved both globally and nationally, including the best 2017 VNR category from 5 other countries (Rudiyanto, 2020). Realizing that the implementation of the 18 SDGs goals in this village can maintain its good achievements, Bappenas emphasizes the importance of strong cooperation between government officials, non-government stakeholders and the community itself (Panuluh & Riskia Fitri, 2016). Therefore, the role of various researchers in Indonesia is needed to examine it from a different perspective, namely the achievement of the SDGs down to the village level through the adaptation of the community (Chatzistamoulou & Koundouri, 2020).

Talking about adaptation patterns (Schlingmann et al., 2021), further studies are needed on the basic understanding of adaptation itself (Castro & Sen, 2022). According to the Big Indonesian Dictionary (KBBI), adaptation is defined as an adjustment to the environment (Fang et al., 2013), work or study (Smith & Griffin, 2015). In sociology itself, adaptation is a process born of social interaction (Midgley, 2020). When people are put together in the same environment and carry out social interactions (Gui et al., 2022), the next step is the process of adjusting to their environment, namely social adaptation (Jamaludin, 2016).

In the present study, the pattern of adaptation may emerge from two different processes, namely, community response (passive adaptation) (Lancione et al., 2018) and the role of society (active adaptation) (Chen et al., 2013). These two forms of adaptation are part of the four development paradigms (Jamaludin, 2016), namely: (1) The growth paradigm (growth paradigm); (2) Development paradigm of growth and equity (growth and equity strategy development); (3) The paradigm of sustainable development; and (4) development approach paradigm (human development) (Kiely, 2013).

The first paradigm is the growth paradigm which is the principle of thought that the process of struggle to increase state income is to catch up, of course in order to create a better society (Schmelzer, 2015). The second paradigm is the development paradigm of growth and equity (growth and equity strategy development), where the main orientation is the management and investment of human resources and social development, although the drawbacks tend to depend on other countries (Zagonari, 2018).

The next paradigm is sustainable development where the focus is of course on protecting the environment and pursuing development that is renewable and unrenewable (Ghatee & Zarrinpoor, 2022). Finally, the paradigm of the development approach (human development) which is usually echoed in democratic countries. This last paradigm tends to emphasize environmentally friendly development that favors the people, not the elites (Edewor, 2014). If discussed further, this last paradigm seeks to complement all previous paradigms into one paradigm that maintains a stable level of national income, optimizes human resources, sustainable and pro-people environmentally friendly development.

In the process of sustainable development (Schmidt-Traub et al., 2019), how the community adapts as an effort to support the program is very important (Kituyi, 2016). For example, according to the perspective of the growth paradigm (Yago, 2020), active community adaptation (Schober, 2019) in the form of an activist role in distributing social assistance to villagers to eradicate the goal of "No Poverty and Zero Hungry" greatly influences the poverty reduction rate (Smeeding, 2015). Or their response is a passive adaptation in the form of participating in mutual cooperation activities or other development assistance at the household scale (Mahadi & Zhafri, 2021).

The phenomenon of classifying society (Kim et al., 2021) into hierarchical (vertical) classes seems to have been a phenomenon that has existed for a long time (Nolte, 2015). If it is stated in terms of age, it may almost match the age of the appearance of sociology itself (Meer & Holmwood, 2016). Before being referred to as social stratification, this phenomenon of community classification has been applied in various circles of society, especially those that still exist today, namely the Hindu caste system (Bidner & Eswaran, 2015) and economic class (Brim, 2020).

Citing the views of Emile Durkheim (Bulgaru, 2013) regarding society itself, through structural theory he views society as a harmonization (Maunah, 2016). The community will be able to achieve a common goal (Y. S. Jeong, 2018) when they reach an agreement to know each other's functions and duties. Another opinion states that Durkheim's functional theory tends to emphasize the process of ensuring that the placement of class status in society (Nolte, 2015) should be filled with important and quality role holders. This means that in order to achieve the goal of harmonization earlier (Muñoz & Dick, 2015), the grouping of society into classes is determined by the society itself.

Even though it has disadvantages in ignoring disfunction, the function of Durkheim's theoretical views (K. Allen & O'Boyle, 2017) in this study is to describe the orientation of the formation of the SDGs of the village itself (Mwebesa et al., 2021). The 18 SDGs goals can run optimally when every social class in society knows and understands their status, function and role (Fuhrmann-Riebel et al., 2021) in supporting their implementation.

When discussing the phenomenon of stratification (Panayotakis, 2014), social scientists usually associate it with Marx's theory of class conflict (Ypi, 2014). However, this research will adapt the views of Weber which is a critique of Marx's theory. The origins of the multidimensional phenomenon for modern stratification (Liang et al., 2018) are usually credited to the work of Max Weber (Bowles, 2013). Much of Weber's view of social stratification (Zhao et al., 2020) is often associated with his long process of critique of Marx's class theory (Isaac et al., 2022). It can be said that Weber's opinion regarding stratification is quite corrective and varied in a number of ways related to Marx's theory (H.-W. Jeong, 2022), more details will be explained through the points below.

First, the process of separation with a "multidimensional approach" by Weber with Marx regarding "economic determinism" (Tomé, 2018), then replacing it with a multidimensional approach that emphasizes the dimensions of social status (Fuhrmann-Riebel et al., 2021) and politics (Fuhrmann-Riebel et al., 2021) and politics (power) class. Second, the process of replacing Marx's structural social analysis (Tairako, 2019) with Weber's analysis of stratification social action. Third, Weber emphasized the importance of attitudes, values and aspirations in his views (which were ignored by Marx in his emphasis on rationality). He argues that motivation that is irrational and non-logical is very important for studying stratification theory (Zhao et al., 2020). In other words, Weber's view of stratification is that this social phenomenon is not the product of economic factors alone but can also be caused by non-economic factors. Finally, Weber wants to correct Marx's explanation of the origins of capitalism and the moral and political superiority of present and future capitalists (Priporas et al., 2020).

In summary, stratification in sociology is seen as a process of systematically unequal distribution of power, wealth and status (Grusky, 2019). Although on the other hand, power, wealth and status are often considered as the main dimensions of stratification (Barone et al., 2022). Each of the societal figures who play a role in this view of stratification (Marx, Durkheim, and Weber) has a different opinion regarding this stratification (Gratitude, 2018).

The first difference is that for Marx, wealth in this stratification phenomenon is said to be the main dimension in which power (Baldwin, 2016) and social status (Anderson et al., 2012) are derivatives so that for Marx the relevant empirical domain here is structural property ownership (H. -W. Jeong, 2022). The second difference is in Durkheim's view that sees issues of social status (which are often associated with certain norms) as the main dimension in stratification (K. Allen & O'Boyle, 2017). The derivative is income in the form of wealth, so according to him the relevant empirical domain is work structurally (work structure) (WILLIAMS et al., 2020).

The main reason that correlates Durkheim's functionalist theory (Nolte, 2015) in looking at this stratification phenomenon (K. Allen & O'Boyle, 2017) is because as a precursor to the theory, Durkheim ignores the role of asymmetric social relations so that harmonization (Maunah, 2016) which was discussed earlier is more dominant for the stratification process to find social status based on certain occupations (WILLIAMS et al., 2020).

Unlike Weber, he views the differences in the views of Marx and Durkheim as a conclusion that the three dimensions of stratification are theoretically independent (Sukur, 2018). For him, any empirical specification of stratification for industrial capitalist society requires three empirical domains resulting from the three main dimensions of stratification, namely: wealth, power and status (Priporas et al., 2020).

METHOD

The research method used this time is a mixed method with an explanatory design – follow up explanation model approach (Iskandar et al., 2021). Explanatory design – follow up explanation model (Ramadhani & Bina, 2021) is a research design that directs a qualitative model to explain the findings of a quantitative model in the field. This method also combines two stages of research at once, namely the

quantitative stage (probability sampling–cluster sampling) to find primary data and a qualitative stage (in-depth interviews) for secondary data (Nong et al., 2021).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Presents The first quantitative stage is to determine the population to be studied (Samsu, 2017). Indonesia as the locus of this research has 267,157,059 million people (Indonesia, 2021) spread across 34 provinces. using technique probability sampling type cluster sampling as the data collection, then the research is determined margin of error of 5% (0.5) as the error tolerance limit for questionnaire data through formula calculations Slovin (Caroline, 2019).

Table I. Slovin's formula

	Slovin formula: $n = N/ (1+N \times e^2)$
N	106.862.824
n	$(1 + N \times e^2)$
	$(1 + 106.862.824 \times 0,5^2)$
	$(1 + 106.862.824 \times 0,0025)$
	$(1 + 267.157)$
	(267.158)
	$106.862.824/267.158$
n	$= 400$

Information:
N = Total Population
n = Number of samples

From the results above, the number of samples for this study was obtained by 400 informants who would become respondents in filling out a questionnaire in the form of a questionnaire (Ramadhani & Bina, 2021). After obtaining 400 samples, the next step is the calculationfraction sample per cluster (Caroline, 2019) to determine how muchcluster sampling per province. Here are the stages of the formula.

Formula name	Formula
Fraction Sample per Cluster	$fi = Ni/N$
Cluster Sampling	$fi \times N$

Information:
fi = fraction sample per cluster
Ni = number of middle class per province
N = the number of middle class in Indonesia

Table 2. Cluster Sampling Middle Class per Province

Provinces in Indonesia	Population	Middle Class Population	Fraction Sample per Cluster $fi = Ni/N$	Cluster Sampling $In =fi*N$
Aceh	5.274.871	2.109.948	0,02	8
North Sumatra	14.799.361	5.919.744	0,06	22
West Sumatra	5.534.472	2.213.789	0,02	8
Riau	6.394.090	2.557.636	0,02	10
Kep. Riau	2.064.564	825.826	0,01	3
Jambi	3.548.200	1.419.280	0,01	5
South Sumatra	8.467.432	3.386.973	0,03	13

Kep. Bangka Belitung	1.455.700	582.280	0,01	2
Bengkulu	2.010.680	804.272	0,01	3
Lampung	9.007.848	3.603.139	0,03	13
DKI Jakarta	10.562.088	4.224.835	0,04	16
West Java	48.274.160	19.309.664	0,18	72
Banten	11.904.562	4.761.825	0,04	18
Central Java	36.516.035	14.606.414	0,14	55
In Yogyakarta	373.589	149.436	0,00	1
East Java	40.666.000	16.266.400	0,15	61
West Kalimantan	5.414.390	2.165.756	0,02	8
Central Kalimantan	2.702.170	1.080.868	0,01	4
South Kalimantan	4.073.584	1.629.434	0,02	6
East Kalimantan	3.766.000	1.506.400	0,01	6
North Kalimantan	701.800	280.720	0,00	1
North Sulawesi	2.621.923	1.048.769	0,01	4
Gorontalo	1.171.681	468.672	0,00	2
Central Sulawesi	2.985.730	1.194.292	0,01	4
South Sulawesi	9.073.500	3.629.400	0,03	14
West Sulawesi	1.419.229	567.692	0,01	2
Southeast Sulawesi	2.624.875	1.049.950	0,01	4
Bali	4.317.404	1.726.962	0,02	6
West Nusa Tenggara	5.320.092	2.128.037	0,02	8
East Nusa Tenggara	5.541.394	2.216.558	0,02	8
Maluku	1.848.923	739.569	0,01	3
North Maluku	1.282.937	513.175	0,00	2
West Papua	1.134.068	453.627	0,00	2
Papua	4.303.707	1.721.483	0,02	6
Total	267.157.059	106.862.824	1,00	400

After doing the calculations fraction sample per cluster, found the amount cluster sampling. Because Indonesia is an archipelagic country with 34 provinces which are separated from one other island (Wijaya & Furqan, 2018), to collect data, a quantitative tool is needed in the form of a questionnaire (Samsu, 2017). Number of calculations cluster sampling earlier will represent the middle class in each province to fill out a questionnaire. In general, the questionnaire has three assessment criteria, along with the details.

Table 3. Questionnaire Assessment

Answer Type	Value Scale	Final Score
Very good	4	24
Good	3	18
Pretty good	2	12
Total Questions		6

Based on the diagram above, it can be analyzed descriptively (Samsu, 2017) that 44% of the middle-class population (15 provinces) in Indonesia have adapted very well to the village SDGs program, including: Aceh Province, Riau Islands, Jambi, Bangka Belitung, Lampung, DKI Jakarta, West Java, Central Java, East Java, West Kalimantan, South Kalimantan, East Kalimantan, Bali and West Nusa

Tenggara. Meanwhile, 35% of the middle class in Indonesia, spread across 12 provinces, have adapted well and the remaining 21% have only passively adapted (just fine).

To ensure the accuracy of the data obtained, a qualitative stage is needed (Hamilton & Finley, 2020) through in-depth interviews with a semi-structured type that is confirmative in nature. From these steps, the results show that the pattern of adaptation of middle-class communities in each province in Indonesia to village SDGs is influenced by: First, level of knowledge of each of the SDGs; second, the form of the role that is carried out to fellow citizens; third, opportunities for optimizing the adaptation of middle-class communities depend on the local government's village SDGs socialization process; and fouth, obstacles only appeared in a number of areas with the village SDGs socialization process being uneven

In this village's SDGs, as implementers of the 18 existing goals, sociologists describe social classes through geological metaphors about the layers of the earth's surface (Yuswohady & Gani, 2015). Society is divided into classes according to the theories of the three theorists above in terms of layers, social strata or structured hierarchies (Pattinasarany, 2016). For the stratification itself, the opportunity for people to move strata from one to another has existed for a long time. For example, the opportunities for people during the hunting and gathering era, which were divided into groups of tribal chiefs, shamans and so on, continued to exist (Yuswohady & Gani, 2015). On the other hand, pre-industrial society also experienced opportunities for stratification by the feudal system (Chilvers, 2020) that we know into the status of kings, nobles and slaves.

The drawback is that the phenomenon of ancient stratification tends to emphasize the permissibility of this by religion (Keister & Fulton, 2015) and the process of class transfer is something that is obtained based on natural selection (Maeso et al., 2022). From the thought of Durkheim, Marx and Weber we divide forms of stratification into two different forms based on the system of obtaining them (Barone et al., 2022).

First, the form of ascribed status (Tubergen et al., 2016) has long been implemented by agrarian society (Flachs, 2021) with a system we know today called the "caste system" (Bidner & Eswaran, 2015). Caste divides society into several professional groups and can only be obtained based on lineage, meaning that this system is not only acquired from birth and is maintained through marriage (Landeghem & Vandeplas, 2018), this system is also closed.

Second, the form of achieved status (Tubergen et al., 2016) which was introduced by industrial society as a grouping of people into classes based on their respective businesses. The correlation with this research is that the middle class (Trinh, 2022) as village implementers of SDGs (M. Haas & Ivanovskis, 2022) is part of the social class grouping of people based on their business for their economic income (Ravallion, 2012). As achieve means to be achieved or earned, this form of stratification (Panayotakis, 2014) is applied in every society whose classification process is based on economic class and is open in nature (Tubergen et al., 2016).

The question is, is there still a society that does not apply a class system? According to economic sociology, the answer is that only people who do not have economic strata do not apply a class system (Gudipati & Cha, 2021). Even though the hunting and gathering era society did not have a clear class system (Yuswohady & Gani, 2015), there is no pre-industrial or even industrial society today that is divided without class (Trinh, 2022). This is the background of the most common social stratification (Bowles, 2013) that occurs in Indonesia as an industrialized country, namely the division of its people into three main class groups based on their economic level, namely: upper class, middle class, and lower class (Song et al., 2016).

The classification of society into classes based on their economic level in Indonesia is based on socio-economic phenomena (Suyanto, 2013) in the community itself. Changes in the world and the generalization process of global trade resulted in an increase in tight economic competition. In sociology, a branch of science that examines this phenomenon before the stratification process can emerge is economic sociology (Faried et al., 2021). Community behavior economically (Schmelzer, 2015) is required in order to be able to maintain their life through efforts in the form of economic activities.

In Indonesia, the middle class is often interpreted as a group of people who have adequate housing and health services, a proper and adequate level of education for children, have a pension fund and a fairly stable job (Klinken & Berenschot, 2016). The middle-class label is also often associated with the possibility of having excess income (discretionary income) which gives them the opportunity to buy various electronic products, expenses for holidays to four-wheeled vehicles (Borraz et al., 2013).

However, which middle class (Herradi & Leroy, 2022) is meant by this definition? Why does this definition sound like the middle class (Ridho, 2017) has the opportunity to mobilize to the upper class?

Before discussing the correlation of roles and ways of adapting the middle class to village SDGs, we need to examine the definitions of various classes (Pattinasarany, 2016). The lower class (poor people) in absolute terms is defined based on their calorie needs as a group of people who are unable to meet their needs for clothing, food and shelter in a day (Toyib Daulay, 2017). Village SDGs also make indicators for the lower class (Sutopo et al., 2014) through three dimensions, namely health (child mortality and nutrition), education, and standard of living (ability to suffice raw materials for cooking, toilets, sanitation, electricity and so on) (Yunginger & Dako, 2021).

Even though each country has its own definition of what middle class means (Sumich, 2018), we can draw conclusions from the SDGs indicator regarding the lower class (Smeeding, 2015). The middle class in Indonesia (Ridho, 2017) is a group of people who are said to be able to fulfill Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs, namely: self-actualization, esteem, love and belonging, safety needs. , and psychological needs (physiological needs) (Bowen, 2021).

In scientifically defining the view of the middle class, it is necessary to take two approaches, namely absolute and relative approaches. Lester Thurow from MIT's Sloan School of Management (Herradi & Leroy, 2022) defines the middle class in the United States as a group of people with incomes ranging from 75% to 125% and median income per capita (Schettino & Khan, 2020). So, the lower limit for entering the lower-class category is 75%, while the upper limit for the upper-class category is 125%. This is also applied by the Center for Global Development (Glassman et al., 2012) to describe the income range of developing countries including Indonesia. Meanwhile, William Easterly (Borraz et al., 2013) defines the middle class by dividing society into four equal consumption expenditure groups (quintiles) from poor to rich. A society can be categorized as middle class if it excludes the lowest quintile (20% of the poor) and the top quintile (20% of the rich). That is, this middle class is a group of people with spending per capita in the second, third and fourth quintiles categories (Yuswohady & Gani, 2015).

Another opinion from Banerjee and Duflo regarding the notion of the middle class (Mejía & Meléndez, 2014) is described through an alternative of two absolute numbers, namely the range of per capita income per day of US$ 2-4 and US$ 6-10. Meanwhile for Ravallion and the World Bank (Ravallion, 2012), the lower limit is in the form of the median poverty line in 70 developing countries through per capita income per day of US$ 2 and US$ 30 for the upper limit of poverty in the United States. This upper limit of poverty (Ravallion, 2012) in the United States is what is deemed suitable to be applied in developing countries.

CONCLUSION

Indonesia is a UN country that has contributed to supporting the SDGs program, one of which is by localizing it to village areas by establishing a village SDGs program. The village is the smallest territory and potential social entity that can be used as a benchmark for development progress in developing countries. Because of its shape as an archipelagic country, besides consisting of hundreds of villages, Indonesia also has socio-cultural diversity, one of which is the caste system for Hindus and income-based classes.

Sociological figures such as Durkheim, Marx and Weber saw that even in rural areas, it is society that inevitably undergoes a process of stratification (upper, middle and lower classes). The middle class according to Weber is a potential class for village SDGs development because it is formed based on three empirical domains at once, namely wealth, power and status. Middle class status is obtained based on achieved status openly by the domain of wealth (business over the economy). Access to knowledge of the middle-class community towards the village SDGs program is obtained through power as the middle class itself. Meanwhile, the adaptation pattern is carried out based on their status as the middle class and the level of knowledge about village SDGs.

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