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HIID

HARVARD INSTITUTE FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

# INDONESIA:

# EAST JAVA FAMILY PLANNING AND NUTRITION-INCOME GENERATION PROJECT

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This case study was prepared by David F. Pyle under the supervision of the staff of the Harvard Institute for International Development Case Study and Training Project funded by the U.S. Agency for International Development. The purpose of the case is to serve as the basis for group discussions rather than to illustrate either effective or ineffective handling of projects.

After having been briefed at the BKKBN (National Family Planning Coordinating Board) headquarters in Jakarta, Ann Carter arrived in Surabaya, the capital of East Java, to meet with provincial-level officials. Dr. Pangestu, BKKBN chief for East Java, gave her a warm welcome and reviewed the remarkably successful family planning program he had supervised for the past four years. He related how the program had moved into a new stage which integrated nutrition and income-generating activities with the agency's already well-established population efforts. Having attained a high level of contraceptive prevalence, the BKKBN was concerned with achieving high continuation rates and making the promised "small, happy, prosperous family" norm a reality. Ann was scheduled to tour the province to observe the pilot phase of an income-generating credit project for women funded by USAID, referred to by its Indonesian acronym, P2K. Based on her findings, a decision would be made as to whether the approach should be expanded.

## I. Country and Project Context

Ann had several years of experience working in Indonesia and was familiar with the country and its problems. The basic facts and figures were well known to her (Table 1). Indonesia is the world's fifth most populous country. The country is made up of some 13,600 islands, 1,000 of which are inhabited. The archipelago is the western segment of the "Ring of Fire" and has over 400 volcanoes, approximately 75 of them still active. Java contains only 7 percent of the land area, yet is called home by 63 percent of the country's population, making it one of the most densely populated areas in the world. The province of East Java has almost 30 million people and a density of over 600 per square kilometer.

Although Ann had spent most of her time on Java, she had travelled extensively and had gained an appreciation for the ethnic and cultural diversity of the country. Over the centuries peoples from China, Arabia, Polynesia, Southeast Asia, the Subcontinent, Indochina and Europe have migrated to Indonesia. Indonesian history is made up of wave after wave of migrations of peoples who either absorbed earlier arrivals, killed them off or pushed them into less favorable regions (jungle, high mountains, remote islands). The Malays were followed by the Hindu believers, by the Islamic faithful, the Portugese, English and Dutch. When it achieved independence in 1948, Indonesia was an ethnological goldmine where 366 different groups could be identified. Some 250 distinct languages are spoken although Bahasa Indonesian is the official national language.

The country is really a collection of local nations reflected in the Indonesian expression "lain desa, lain adat" (other villages, other customs). Ann herself had seen some of the cultural variety - the devout matrilineal Minangkaban culture of western Sumatra to the syncretic

hierarchal Javanese; animist villagers versus orthodox Muslim landlords; religious minorities including Christians, Buddhists and Hindus. Despite this cultural variety country-wide, one can find considerable cultural consistency on Java.

Farming is the primary source of livelihood in rural Indonesia. Rice production has increased impressively over the last several years, from less than 18 million tons in 1979 to an estimated 20.6 million tons in 1983. The government has recently reported that the country has achieved self-sufficiency in rice. East Java, even with its population density, produces 120 percent of its needs and exports rice to other provinces. However, over three-quarters of all farmers own less than half a hectare; a typical wet rice farmer holds .15 hectare of land. The introduction of technological change (i.e., mechanized weeders and hullers) in the 1970s increased the productivity of the larger farmers and led to surpluses, enabling them to buy up smaller, weaker farmers and resulting in increased number of landless. Some estimate that the landless comprise up to half the population of Java.

Despite impressive improvements in per capita income over the last decade, poverty remains a major Indonesian problem. According to 1976 estimates, 57 percent of the population of Java were poor, 34 percent were very poor, and 17 percent were destitute. Although the annual per capita income in East Java was estimated (1982) at approximately $400, some 30 percent of the East Java population was considered to be below the poverty line ($90 per capita per year). A large portion of this low-income population consists of fishermen along the north coast.

There is a strong tradition of sharing and "communitiness" in Javanese villages. The best known is gotong royong, or mutual assistance in farming. In addition, there is the tradition of tanggung renteng, the principle of mutual responsibility in which villagers, male and female, look out for the well-being of their neighbors and expects the same in return. Another form of community action is the lumbung desa. A percentage of the crop harvested from land belonging to the village council (usually between 33 and 50 percent) is placed in a "paddy bank." This grain reserve is distributed to needy families if and when emergencies arise or is borrowed by those who run short of rice before harvest and is repaid with no interest after the new crop is in.

Although the traditional social system makes allowances for the poor, this is slowly being eroded. Farmers find it too expensive to share the harvest (one-sixth to one-eighth of what they harvest for neighbors to one-tenth to one-twelfth for those from outside) with a large number of gotong royong members. Smaller teams of men complete the job more quickly, for less money. In a labor surplus economy like Java, labor is cheap. Moreover, as the price of rice has risen, traditional harvest shares have become too costly.

Family planning has been a high priority of the Government of Indonesia since 1970, when the BKKBN was created as an independent agency reporting directly to the President. Until 1974 (Phase I), family planning services were offered only in health clinics in the six provinces of Java and Bali. (See Tables 2 and 3 for information on national health statistics and health coverage.) Village-level activities began in 1974 as part of Phase II. At the same time, family planning services through health clinics began in ten large provinces (Outer Islands I); by 1977 they were converted to the village family planning system. In 1979 the remaining eleven provinces started clinic-based family planning activities (Outer Islands II).

East Java, the third most densely populated of the 27 provinces, has consistently out-performed the country as a whole in family planning acceptance rates (Table 4) and by January 1983 had a current user rate of 67.6 percent. In the past year, special emphasis has been placed on increasing the percentage of accepters using IUDs in order to decrease dropout rates and the need for continuous, intensive program-client interaction. In early 1983, 49.4 percent of the contraceptive accepters in East Java were utilizing IUDs. The program had been run through the governmental structure with the appointed village headman (lurah) responsible for promoting family planning in the community. The deferential tradition of Java, particularly East Java, gives the lurah considerable power since villages follow his word with little questioning. As Dr. Haryono (National Chairman of the BKKBN) told Ann, this accounts for the family planning program in Java reversing what Westerners have traditionally accepted to be the normal sequence: people have adopted and practiced contraception before their knowledge and attitude changed.

Malnutrition is another major concern of the government. Approximately 30 percent of the children under five years of age in Indonesia are estimated to be malnourished; 3 percent suffer from severe protein-calorie malnutrition. In addition, 7 percent of the pregnant women and 3 percent of the lactating mothers are classified as malnourished. Iron deficiency anemia and iodine deficiency are two other nutritional problems. At least 63,000 cases of xerophthalmia (severe vitamin A deficiency) are reported in under fives each year in the rural areas.

In the past several years, the government, with international donor assistance, launched the Family Nutrition Improvement Program (UPGK) to address the malnutrition problem. The program devotes maximum effort to weighing all the under five children in the village to identify those who are not maintaining proper growth rates or are severely malnourished. Each child's progress is charted on a growth chart. The program is monitored by four figures which are placed on a bar chart each month: number of children in the village; number of children with weight charts; number of children weighed during the month; number of children gaining weight during the past month. Participation rates and nutritional status are calculated on a monthly basis. Nutrition education, home gardening as well as health activities (e.g., immunization, oral rehydration therapy, and massive dose

vitamin A capsule distribution) are integral parts of the UPGK Program. The Ministry of Health is responsible for administering the program and relies upon a corps of mostly female volunteers (kader) to oversee the weighing sessions.

According to USAID (1983b), the per capita daily consumption of calories in Indonesia in 1978 was approximately 2000; in East Java it was 1639. Protein intake was 51 grams for Indonesia compared to 42 in East Java. On the average 74 percent of a family's total expenditure is for food; the lowest income groups (40 percent of the population) spend more than 80 percent and nearly half of this for staple foods. Calories and protein intake by income group are given in Table 5. The primary source of calories (77 percent) and proteins (71 percent) are cereals and starch foods (rice, cassava, corn, sweet potatoes). The consumption of rice increases sharply as income increases (from 45 percent of staple food calories in the lowest income group to over 90 percent in the higher incomes); conversely, the consumption of cassava and corn decreases as incomes increase (from 25 to 30 percent for each to virtually nothing).

## II. Culture and Women in Indonesia and East Java

Because of the cultural diversity of Indonesia, it is difficult to generalize and describe a single Indonesian culture. One can find ways of life which are 5000 years apart, ranging from the Neolithic to the Nuclear Ages. Over three-fourths of the population still resides in the rural areas and, as has been the case for centuries, most of their lives revolve around rice cultivation. Village life has changed very little over the years. Most of people's actions are guided by the adat (common or customary law), which has evolved from ancient times when villages were largely self-governing. Although rooted in religion, Islam has been radically modified in many instances to fit with the law.

Ann was pleased that this assignment involved Java because she was not as knowledgeable on the cultures and women's position in the Outer Island societies. She felt comfortable in Rural Java where she was familiar with the customary law (adat). On Java, women's rights are generally the same as those of men with respect to marriage, divorce, inheritance and property rights. They have a considerable degree of economic independence and initiative. Women exercise significant social power and are not subordinate as in China and the subcontinent. Although the province of East Java is overwhelmingly Muslim, it has not been a negative influence on women's traditionally high status. Instead, religious beliefs have adapted themselves to the traditional women's role and position in Java. Female children are not considered a negative economic factor since a daughter brings a bride price from the husband. In addition, a married daughter may live for a short time with her family before she and her husband procure a house of their own. This may explain why there is no strong desire to have sons among Indonesian women; if there is a preference, it is to have children of both sexes.

The Javanese wife dominates or enjoys equal status in the household decision-making process regarding both production as well as consumption issues. The woman can be described as being the silent head of household (has the "informal" power). The husband is the family representative (has the "formal" power). All income is turned over to the wife, and she decides how it will be spent, consulting her husband only on major purchases. Many families, therefore, are dependent on the wives' financial capabilities.

Although women enjoy high status, they do not always share equally in opportunities in the development process. Ann reviewed recent census figures on women-related issues. In education, government efforts during the 1970s virtually eradicated the gap between male-female attendance rates in the primary school years. Women, however, are involved in household and family work from an early age. At seven years old they begin to tend animals and fetch water; by age ten, girls are helping to plant and harvest rice. Use of their labor contributes to higher female absenteeism and dropout rates in school. In addition, parents feel that girls will become "just housewives," thus see no need for as much schooling as boys. An additional educational disincentive is provided by the fact that many villages have no schools beyond the primary level. Children, therefore, are forced to leave the village and enter a boarding facility if they are to continue their education. Significantly lower school attendance rates among girls of higher age groups as well as lower educational attainment figures (Tables 6,7) are attributable to this situation. Employment opportunities very directly with educational levels achieved.

A higher percentage of women are economically active in the rural areas than in the cities, with from one-third to almost a half of all village women between the ages of 15 and 65 working (Table 8). The main employment for rural women is agriculture, either on the family's land or as hired labor. Men do the heavy work of field preparation and terrace construction; women plant, transplant, hoe, weed and harvest.

However, within the past decade, the employment opportunities for women in agriculture have decreased dramatically. As the price of rice has increased, the traditional mutual assistance (gotong royong) system (where neighbors help plant and harvest each other's crops for a share of the grain reaped) decreased. It became more profitable to hire laborers at low wages and sell the crop. Accordingly, instead of harvesting rice with light, hand-held knives, more productive, heavier steel sickles are used but only by men. This has drastically changed labor patterns--reducing 200 women days of harvest work to 70 men days. Moreover, new rotary weeders used only by men are replacing women who used to weed by hand, reducing 20 women days of work to 8 men days. (Babunakis et al, 1978)

Simultaneously, rice is now machine-milled instead of hulled by women hand-pounding. The proportion of rice hand-pounded fell from 80 percent in the early 1970s to 50 percent in 1973, and soon to less than 10

percent (Milone, 1978). The small Japanese rice-hulling machines, with government-assisted financing through decreased import duties and favorable credit, were faster, cheaper, and made the rice somewhat more decay-resistant during storage. An estimated 125 million women days of work were lost per year, involving an income of $55 million. This equals 8.3 months of half-time, relatively well-paying work for 1,000,000 women. (UNDP, 1980) The only alternative economic activity for women has been to become petty traders. An estimated 40 percent of women can be classified as small traders. Some say that currently there are more women traders than customers in some rural markets.

The other major source of income for rural women is in elementary processing. Food and drink preparation, preservation, sales are all common forms of income generation as are tapping palm trees and making brown sugar (gula) from it, extracting oil from coconuts, and collecting herbs and producing traditional remedies.

Alternative employment opportunities and sources of income for rural women are severely limited. While modernization in production is accepted, labor is treated and renumerated in a traditional manner. Skilled labor of both sexes, who are better educated and more aware of their worth, are able to command higher wages. Handicrafts and cottage industries have limited economic appeal since village women are largely unorganized and cannot compete with manufactured products in terms of either cost or quality. An exception is woven bamboo products like mats and hats which are utilized in the village itself (Table 9).

Javanese women tend to work longer hours and earn less for their labor than men. Ann remembered an early 1970 study carried out in Java which compared women's working hours with men's. Poor women put in longer hours than their wealthier counterparts since they cannot afford to hire anyone to assist them with the heavy burden of domestic work (e.g., food preparation and water fetching). In agriculture women do the lighter work and get paid 20 to 30 percent of men's wages for heavy work. Female wages remain at a low level as the labor-intensity of agriculture decreases. This has particularly serious consequences in the poorer families since women contribute a greater percentage of the household income. For families owning less than .2 hectares, females contribute one-third or more to the total family income; over .2 hectares the percentage falls to 15 percent; the figure is 4.4 percent in the highest income groups. (UNDP, 1980)

The problem is particularly acute for female-headed households. Family instability is a serious concern in Indonesia and especially in Java. Indonesia is noted for its high divorce rate. In 1974, 24 percent of all marriages were divorces, with East Java having 28 percent. Economic problems are the cause for a significant portion of the break-ups and desertions. It is estimated that 16 percent of all households are headed by women with slightly higher rates in rural areas. The marital status of female-headed households in rural Indonesia is 1 percent never married, 15

percent married but husband absent (deserted, migrated for work), 13 percent divorced, 71 percent widowed. Over 62 percent of all widows and 74 percent of all divorcees in a rural sample were found to be economically active. Thirty-two percent of the economically active were able to support a single person's need; 49 percent were unable to earn enough to support themselves. (Milone, 1978)

Currently about two thirds of rural women from low income households must contribute to achieve a minimum level of household income through income-generating activities. Poor women already have the longest working hours, spending most of their time searching for work and earning just enough for the next days meals while carrying out household responsibilities.

While both males and females technically have the same access to credit, in reality men receive credit from formal lending agencies and women depend on informal sources for theirs. Property is held in the man's name. This is the greatest constraint for a woman's gaining access to credit since land (i.e., rice field) is required as collateral. Additionally, social convention considers a man's actions more binding than a woman's. Consequently, women have relied upon such traditional sources as the arisan, a rotating savings association. Women meet on the basis of friendship, occupation or neighborliness, generally once a month. Each member contributes an agreed upon amount. Lots are drawn so that one member wins; no one can win twice. Once all had their turn, the group is disbanded. It has a social as well as economic function. It can be considered more a form of forced savings (without interest) than credit. Women are able to set aside money and receive a large amount at one time which enables them to invest to start or increase an income generating activity. One woman Ann met had purchased equipment to establish a small bakery with the proceeds.

Another informal savings and loan group at the village level is the simpan pinjam in which members contribute what they want which entitles them to borrow at low interest rates when in need. Any profits derived from the operation are divided among the members. Most often savings are put into such tangibles as jewelry, fine batik, chickens or even roof tiles, which can be sold in the event of need. Usually women operate on a very small scale due to limited capital; ones day's or market's earnings finances the next. One program (Chandak Kulak) makes small-scale loans (Rp.20,000 to 30,000) to women traders. Of course, there is always the traditional money lender who charges exorbitant rates but are preferred to formal lending institutions because they are accessible, require no forms be filled out, are more flexible about repayment, and do not insist on complete repayment before new loans are made.

The poor live in the social, economic, political, and geographical periphery of the village. Poor women generally do not have either the status or the time to involve themselves in formal women activities such as the PKK (Family Welfare Education). The PKK is the National Women's

Movement which, by law, must oversee all women's activities in a village. The wives of the administrative officials at each level head the PKK organizations. In each village, the PKK is under the direction of the lurah's wife. The organization has devoted most of its energies to teaching domestic arts (e.g., sewing). The lurah's wife is assisted by several of the most educated and economically advantaged women of the village, and she controls women's activities in the community. Thus, the social hierarchy for women parallels that for men through the wives of the administrative officials at the province, regency (kabupatan), country (kecamatan) and village levels and social power relates to social class.

## III. Integrated Family Planning - Nutrition - Credit Project

### A. Program Design

The program was designed to facilitate and promote integration of family planning, nutrition and income generating activities. Funders included the Government of Indonesia, UNFPA, World Bank, USAID, and ASEAN (Table 10). The amount of credit allocated to each village varies considerably from program to program as well as from village to village.

The National Family Nutrition Improvement Program (UPGK) was begun with UNICEF and USAID support in the late 1970s and was carried out in conjunction with the Ministry of Health infrastructure. By early 1983, that program had been started in some 21,000 villages of the approximately 60,000 villages in Indonesia. In East Java, almost 5,300 villages out of 8,340 had the UPGK Program. Beginning in 1980, the nutrition program activities were coordinated more closely with the BKKBN structure which had been so successful in reaching the village and achieving a high level of contraceptive practice. Village-level kaders (Ministry of Health volunteers for the weighing program) were supported and supervised by the BKKBN field worker. The fieldworkers were equally divided among male and female and each was assigned to two or three villages and a population of approximately 12,000 or more. They in turn are supervised by group leaders (one per county). The BKKBN staff were assisted in the program by the local health center personnel. In addition, the fieldworkers from the Agriculture Department helped with such activities as upgrading the nutritional quality of home gardens. The income generating aspect started at the same time the UPGK and family planning activities were combined.

In concept, the East Java, USAID-supported, integrated income generation program is similar in many respects to the other small loan projects elsewhere in Indonesia. However, a few variations are noted. First, in Central Java, the funds are allocated to sub-village administrative units called kelompoks. (Villages in Java usually have from three to six kelompok although Sidomulyo has 13.) The reason for this is to encourage small group formation and operation. The geographical dispersion of Javanese villages provided an incentive for program administrators to bring credit activities closer to the borrowers. A second

major difference is that the other loan programs are open to both men and women, and men received the disproportionate percentage of the loans. The USAID scheme is the only one designed explicitly and exclusively for female participants.

Contraceptive acceptance was one of the two principal criteria to become a borrower. The second was being a mother of a child under five years of age. Orientation and regular follow-up meetings for the loan project were to be coordinated with the monthly weighing sessions and thereby serve as an incentive for participation in the nutrition activities. Each sub-village administrative unit or kelompok was to have a women's group to discuss every loan application and vote on its acceptability (i.e., worthiness and ability of the borrower to repay the loan). Mutual responsibility for members' debts and peer pressure for repayment would eliminate the need for collateral. Moreover, accountability was to be established through open management which would help maintain the scheme's integrity once the BKKBN and USAID were no longer involved in supervision.

Maximum loans were fixed at Rp. 50,000. This is not an insignificant amount since most women in the village earn between Rp. 10,000 and 20,000 per month. During the first phase of the loan program, credit was directed at women with existing productive skills. New technical capabilities requiring outside training and/or equipment were to be introduced during Phase Two when cooperative formation also would be featured.

Loans were to be repaid according to an established schedule of three or seven months depending on the amount. Loans below Rp. 10,000 were to be paid back in six installments over a three-month period with a total interest of 20 percent. Loans over Rp. 10,000 were to be repaid over a seven-month period with a total interest of 40 percent. As the repayment schedule in Annex A demonstrates, half of the interest payment was designated as administrative costs (i.e., nutrition programming, program administration expenses and kader incentives). The exact amount allocated to each category was left to the discretion of the individual villages. The second half of the interest payment was termed compulsory savings which was credited to the woman's name but could not be withdrawn until the individual withdrew from the loan program. The money was to accelerate capital formation.

Each month each village was to pay Rp. 14,000 to the bank toward the repayment of the start-up capital. The money, when fully repaid, would be utilized to initiate the credit program in new villages. Repayment would be increased to Rp. 30,000 per month once the second installment was made to the villages.

B. Implementation and Operation

The USAID pilot integrated KB-Gizi credit program began in 1982 and became known as P2K. Twenty-four villages in five kabupatans and 15 kecamatans were selected based upon their high current contraceptive user rates and good performance in the UPGK Program. Eighteen of the villages received their first intallment of Rp. 700,000 ($700) during September 1982. The final six villages received their first "drop" in early June 1983. Three officers (leader, secretary, treasurer) of the village organized to administer the small loan program were brought to Surabaya for four days of training in mid-June 1982. The training consisted mostly of technical details relating to income generating activities and loan procedures/record keeping. The village women were informed that good performances (i.e., rapid capital accummulation, good repayment record, good program administration) would result in the second and final installment of Rp. 800,000 being given to each village.

The program was administered by the same infrastructure that was responsible for running the Family Planning-Nutrition Program and the BKKN programs, the volunteer kader in the village, and the BKKBN workers in the Kecamatans. The leaders of the P2K credit activities and organization on the village level were usually the same as the top PKK or women's movement officials.

C. Project Progress

After being in operation for slightly more than seven months, the credit program had accomplished a lot. Almost 4000 villages throughout the country had received funds for small loans. The most active province was Central Java which had over 3,300 villages with income generating activities. East Java will have almost 200 villages with credit programs by March 1984. A total of nearly Rp. 200,000,000 has been budgeted for the East Java small loan program over its four years of operation.

Ann Carter started her six-village visit by meeting with a group of kabupatan level officials from the various departments which played a role in the integrated program headed by the bupati, the top official in the regency. She then proceeded to the kecamatan in which the first two villages were located. The camat, the official responsible for overall administration and operations at the kecamatan or sub-agency level, and the BKKBN group leader briefed Ann on the program. To compare performance since the beginning of the credit project, she asked for and was provided with data on family planning program performance in the kabupatan, the kecamatan and on any of the villages having the integrated credit program (Tables 11-12). In addition, in each village she visited she collected performance figures for the nutrition program over the past year (Table 13) to establish progress since September.

At the first village Ann Carter visited, the performance of the loan program was very impressive. The same was found in the other five

villages as well. Capital had accumulated rapidly (more than doubled in one village). Loan repayments were virtually perfect. Only one case of inability to repay was reported, but the woman involved had requested and had been allowed to pay over an extended period and was doing so. Loan records were being maintained in a generally neat and orderly fashion.

When inquiring about who received loans, Ann was told that a large percentage of the PKK/P2K officials and kaders were among the first borrowers, often for the maximum amount. Loan applications were submitted to the women in charge of program operations at the kelompok level who, in turn, would pass them on to the head of the P2K. The decision to grant a loan was made by the three P2K officials and the lurah. In the six villages visited no case of a loan being turned down was reported.

The amounts of money being set aside for nutrition activities, administration and incentives differed greatly from village to village (Table 14). In several villages, no funds had been taken by the P2K leaders so that the capital would accumulate more rapidly. The money for the nutrition fund that had been spent was used for demonstration feeding at the weighing centers to educate the mothers in what to feed their balita and the proper way to prepare it so as to preserve nutritional value. This was in accordance with the guidelines from the provincial BKKBN office which stated that nutrition funds could be utilized for demonstration feeding, first aid, referral of seriously malnourished or supplementation of the diets of the severly malnourished. In fact, the exercise appeared to Ann to be a distribution program to encourage women to come to the weighing center each month.

From recent census figures, it was evident that the nutritional status of all children was not being monitored. In Sempu, for example, 430 children between 0 and 4 years were enumerated in March 1983, yet they used only 292 figures for the monthly nutrition report. Sumberoto had a similar case. The average participation rate in the project villagers ranged from 50 to 70 percent of the total number of under fives. The women who attended the weighing sessions appeared to be those who could afford the time and/or lived close to the weighing post. With the villages being so spread out, as much as six to seven kilometers from the village center, distance was often a concern, especially in the mountainous areas along the southern coast of East Java. There was little evidence that special attention was being paid to the children who were found either to be below 60 percent of standard (third degree malnutrition) or not gaining weight for three consecutive months.

The women who joined the P2K program were generally from the middle or upper socio-economic groups in the village. Several P2K officials explained that this was necessary at the early stages of the program to provide an example for others and reduce fear in the loan procedure. The number of households in the six villages ranged from approximately 1000 to almost 1700; the number women receiving loans ranged from 84 to 148. A high percentage of loans in all six villages were concentrated in or around the central kelompok:

| | |
|---|---|
| Sumboroto | - 68.5% of loans in the central kelompok; |
| Rejosari | - 55.4% of loans in the central kelompok; 90.4% in two of four kelompok; |
| Bandung rejo | - 83.7% of loans in the central kelompok; |
| Sidomulyo | - 57.5% of loans in the central kelompok and 94.3% in two of four kelompok. |

The further one got from the center, the fewer loans could be found. Some of the borrowers were over forty years of age but were considered good credit risks. In Rejosari, 27.7 percent of the borrowers were over 40 years old, the oldest being 55. In Nglaran, 36.4 percent of the borrowers were family planning acceptors, 12.8 percent had balita, 37.5 percent were both acceptors and had young children; 13.3 percent were neither. Few female heads of household received loans--four in Nglaran and three in Bandungrejo and none in the other four villages.

The women used the loans for a variety of activities--small business (production and marketing of such things as palm sugar, coconut oil, tempi), trading, handicrafts (e.g., bamboo mats and hat making), agriculture (purchase of fertilizer), livestock raising (rabbits, chicken, goats). Examples of how individual women utilized their loans and benefits derived are provided in Annex B. In the vast majority of cases the loan generated products which were sold in the village markets. No examples were found of women who hired other community members to work with them to increase production, hence profits. If extra labor were required, it was recruited from within the family unit (parents, in-laws, children). Moreover, no one provided instructions in skills to those in the village without a trade or skill. The early loans were now repaid and second, even a few third loans were being made to P2K members. A significant percentage of new loans were being made to women who had borrowed money before.

Observing a weighing session, Ann spotted a malnourished child and interviewed the mother. It was not difficult to tell that she was poor. She had not taken out a loan since she had no productive skill or anything to invest in. She expressed an interest to study a skill if it were made available in the village.

Three of the six villages contained health posts, and there was some evidence that immunization and vitamin A distribution were being carried out with varying regularity. In Sidomulyo, a very active and innovative nurse-midwife had mapped the village according to nutritional status (i.e., number of first, second, and third degree malnutrition cases by kelompok). Immunization and vitamin A distribution were also much more regular in Sidomulyo than in the other five villages. Ann did not encounter any agricultural extension officers during her village visits. The most active and involved person in the integrated credit program was inevitably and often exclusively the PLKB who maintained surveillance over the family planning, nutrition activities as well as ensured that the loan program was being administered properly and records were being kept accurately.

At the conclusion of her field visits, Ann returned to Jakarta to debrief the BKKBN and USAID officials and to draft her report on whether the credit program was achieving its objectives, whether the second installment should be made to the first eighteen villages, and finally, whether the program should be expanded on a larger scale in East Java and elsewhere in Indonesia.

## Table 1

## Data on the Republic of Indonesia

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Population (1981) | | | 153,000,000 |
| Area (sq. km.) | | | 144,000 |
| % of Population in Rural Areas | | | 77.6 |
| % of Eligible Couples as Active Contraceptive Users (1982) | | | 39 |
| | 1971 | 1981 | |
| Birth Rate | 46 | 32 | |
| Death Rate | 19 | 12.5 | |
| Infant Mortality Rate | | | 100+ |
| Population Growth Rate (1981) | | | 1.8% |
| Population Doubling Rate | | | 39 years |
| % of Population below 15 years old (1980) | | | 40.9 |
| Average Income/Capita (1981) | | | $520- |
| % of Children Enrolled in Primary School (7-12 years old) | | | 85 |
| Agriculture's Share of GDP (1980) | | | 26% |
| Agriculture's Share of Labor Force (1980) | | | 58% |
| Literacy Rate (>10 years old) (1980) | Female | | 63.8 |
| | Male | | 80.5 |
| Life Expectancy | Female | | 57.2 |
| | Male | | 54.5 |

Table 2

Communicable Diseases
as Causes of Death

| | |
|---|---|
| Respiratory Diseases | 19.9% |
| Diarrheal Diseases | 18.8% |
| Tuberculosis | 8.4% |
| Tetanus | 6.5% |
| Typhoid | 3.3% |
| Other Communicable Diseases | 3.0% |
| Other | 40.1% |
| Total | 100.0% |

Source: Health Sector Paper, Jakarta: USAID (January 1983).

Table 3

Health Coverage of Vulnerables
by Public Health Services (1980)

| | % of Infants Attended | Children 1-4 | Pregnant Women |
|---|---|---|---|
| All Indonesia | 42% | 10.8% | 35% |
| Province with Highest Coverage | 76% (East Java) | 23% (East Java) | 47% (Jakarta) |
| Province with Lowest Coverage | 18% (South Kalimantan) | 2% (Jakarta) | 14.5% (South Kalimantan) |

Source: Health Sector Paper, Jakarta: USAID (January 1983).

Table 4

Indonesia and East Java
Contraceptive Prevalence Rates (1971-82)

| | 1971 | 1972 | 1973 | 1974 | 1975 | 1976 | 1977 | 1978 | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ıdonesia | 1 | 2 | 6 | 9 | 13 | 17 | 19 | 23 | 27 | 31 | 36 | 39 |
| ıst Java | - | 4 | 12 | 20 | 28 | 31 | 34 | 40 | 50 | 57 | 60 | 65 |

ırce: Health Sector Paper, Jakarta: USAID (January 1983).

Table 5

Calorie And Protein Intake by Income Group (1976)

| Expenditure Group (Rp per capita per month) | % of total population | Per capita daily consumption | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | Calories (Kcals) | Protein (Grams) |
| Less than 2000 | 15.3 | 1381 | 22.2 |
| 2000-2999 | 23.8 | 1870 | 32.3 |
| 3000-3999 | 19.5 | 2034 | 40.2 |
| 4000-4999 | 13.6 | 2084 | 47.0 |
| 5000-5999 | 8.8 | 2280 | 52.7 |
| Over 6000 | 19.0 | 2760 | 69.2 |
| Average intake /a | 100.0 | 2064 | 43.3 |
| Minimum intake requirement | | 1900 | 39.2 |
| Average availability | | 2231 | |

Source: Hutabarat: Proyeksi Distribusi Konsumsi Kalorie Menurut Kelompok-kelompok Pendapatan di Indonesia Tahun 1990; Sekolah Pasca - Sarjana IPB 1979.

Table 6

Percentage of Persons who are Attending School by Age and Sex

1971 and 1980

| Umur Age | Laki-Laki / Male | | Perempuan / Female | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1971 | 1980 | 1971 | 1980 |
| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
| 5 | 0.0 | 10.5 | 0.0 | 13.1 |
| 6 | 15.2 | 32.1 | 15.8 | 35.9 |
| 7 | 39.9 | 70.6 | 39.9 | 73.2 |
| 8 | 57.7 | 84.2 | 56.0 | 84.0 |
| 9 | 68.3 | 88.4 | 64.8 | 87.8 |
| 10 | 70.1 | 89.2 | 65.9 | 88.3 |
| 11 | 74.8 | 89.4 | 68.9 | 89.3 |
| 12 | 66.0 | 83.8 | 57.8 | 80.8 |
| 13 | 61.5 | 77.1 | 57.1 | 69.8 |
| 14 | 51.0 | 66.7 | 39.0 | 57.9 |
| 15 | 37.2 | 54.3 | 26.2 | 42.8 |
| 16 | 34.6 | 49.6 | 22.1 | 35.3 |
| 17 | 28.3 | 38.8 | 15.8 | 25.0 |
| 18 | 21.9 | 28.9 | 10.1 | 16.2 |
| 5 - 6 | 7.6 | 21.0 | 7.9 | 24.3 |
| 7 - 12 | 61.7 | 83.9 | 57.9 | 83.5 |
| 13 - 15 | 49.4 | 65.6 | 38.7 | 56.3 |
| 16 - 18 | 27.9 | 38.8 | 15.4 | 24.7 |
| 19 - 24 | 12.1 | 12.6 | 4.1 | 5.5 |
| 25 + | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.2 | 0.4 |
| Tak terjawab Not stated | 21.8 | 8.9 | 13.4 | 1.5 |
| Jumlah Total | 21.2 | 28.4 | 16.4 | 24.1 |

Sumber: Ulasan singkat hasil Sensus Penduduk 1980.
Source: A brief note on 1980 Population Census results.

Table 7

Percent Distributions of the Surveyed Population Aged 15 and Over by Age, Sex, and Educational Attainment
East Java, 1980

| Age Group (1) | Percent Distribution by Educational Attainment | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | No Education (2) | Primary Grades 1-3 (3) | Primary Grades 4-6 (4) | Primary Complete (5) | Junior High + (6) | Totals (7) |
| | | | Both Sexes | | | |
| 15-19 | 13.0 | 15.2 | 23.4 | 22.2 | 26.2 | 100.0 |
| 20-24 | 16.6 | 15.2 | 22.1 | 25.7 | 20.4 | 100.0 |
| 25-29 | 22.9 | 16.2 | 21.0 | 23.6 | 16.3 | 100.0 |
| 30-34 | 30.5 | 16.3 | 18.7 | 20.1 | 14.4 | 100.0 |
| 35-39 | 42.5 | 16.7 | 14.0 | 16.5 | 10.4 | 100.0 |
| 40-44 | 54.2 | 16.7 | 10.5 | 11.4 | 7.1 | 100.0 |
| 45-49 | 60.7 | 16.6 | 8.9 | 9.4 | 4.4 | 100.0 |
| 50-54 | 64.5 | 14.7 | 7.5 | 9.5 | 3.7 | 100.0 |
| 55-59 | 67.5 | 13.6 | 5.7 | 10.1 | 3.1 | 100.0 |
| 60-64 | 78.0 | 10.3 | 4.3 | 5.7 | 1.7 | 100.0 |
| 65+ | 84.6 | 7.4 | 3.2 | 3.9 | 0.9 | 100.0 |
| Totals | 39.9 | 15.1 | 15.3 | 16.9 | 12.9 | 100.0 |
| | | | Males | | | |
| 15-19 | 9.7 | 14.8 | 23.7 | 21.6 | 30.3 | 100.0 |
| 20-24 | 11.2 | 12.6 | 21.0 | 28.3 | 26.9 | 100.0 |
| 25-29 | 15.4 | 13.6 | 21.8 | 28.7 | 20.5 | 100.0 |
| 30-34 | 19.3 | 16.0 | 21.1 | 25.2 | 18.5 | 100.0 |
| 35-39 | 27.7 | 17.8 | 17.3 | 22.0 | 15.2 | 100.0 |
| 40-44 | 36.9 | 20.5 | 14.9 | 16.3 | 11.4 | 100.0 |
| 45-49 | 44.0 | 21.7 | 13.7 | 13.6 | 6.9 | 100.0 |
| 50-54 | 46.2 | 21.8 | 11.7 | 15.0 | 5.4 | 100.0 |
| 55-59 | 49.0 | 20.9 | 9.5 | 15.6 | 5.1 | 100.0 |
| 60-64 | 60.1 | 17.5 | 8.1 | 11.2 | 3.1 | 100.0 |
| 65+ | 69.4 | 14.2 | 6.3 | 8.2 | 1.9 | 100.0 |
| Totals | 28.2 | 16.8 | 17.5 | 20.7 | 16.8 | 100.0 |
| | | | Females | | | |
| 15-19 | 16.3 | 15.6 | 23.2 | 22.9 | 22.1 | 100.0 |
| 20-24 | 21.0 | 17.4 | 23.0 | 23.6 | 15.1 | 100.0 |
| 25-29 | 30.0 | 18.7 | 20.3 | 18.7 | 12.3 | 100.0 |
| 30-34 | 41.0 | 16.6 | 16.5 | 15.3 | 10.6 | 100.0 |
| 35-39 | 56.1 | 15.6 | 10.9 | 11.3 | 6.0 | 100.0 |
| 40-44 | 69.6 | 13.4 | 6.6 | 7.1 | 3.3 | 100.0 |
| 45-49 | 76.3 | 11.7 | 4.3 | 5.5 | 2.1 | 100.0 |
| 50-54 | 83.5 | 7.5 | 3.1 | 3.9 | 2.0 | 100.0 |
| 55-59 | 86.7 | 6.1 | 1.8 | 4.4 | 1.0 | 100.0 |
| 60-64 | 92.1 | 4.7 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 0.6 | 100.0 |
| 65+ | 95.9 | 2.4 | 0.9 | 0.7 | 0.2 | 100.0 |
| Totals | 50.5 | 13.6 | 13.3 | 13.3 | 9.3 | 100.0 |

Source: 1980 Baseline Round of the East Java Population Survey: A Final Report (Chapel Hill: International Program of Laboratories for Population Statistics (POPLAB)), June 1982, p. 39.

Table 8

ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE WOMEN CLASSIFIED BY AGE FOR RURAL AND URBAN AREAS, 1971

| Age | Economically Active Women (%) | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Rural | Urban | Total |
| 10-14 | 15.3 | 6.9 | 13.7 |
| 15-19 | 33.8 | 19.2 | 30.8 |
| 20-24 | 35.8 | 24.2 | 33.4 |
| 25-29 | 37.2 | 26.1 | 35.3 |
| 30-34 | 40.8 | 29.6 | 39.0 |
| 35-39 | 43.2 | 31.9 | 41.4 |
| 40-44 | 46.6 | 34.6 | 44.7 |
| 45-49 | 47.0 | 34.2 | 44.9 |
| 50-54 | 44.7 | 33.1 | 43.0 |
| 55-59 | 42.3 | 27.9 | 40.0 |
| 60-64 | 36.3 | 24.9 | 34.7 |
| 65-69 | 31.6 | 20.4 | 29.9 |
| 70-74 | 25.3 | 16.2 | 24.0 |
| 75+ | 16.8 | 9.3 | 15.4 |
| Total | 35.3 | 23.2 | 33.1 |

Source: Pudjiwati Sajogyo, "The Integration of Rural Women in National Development in Indonesia." Home Economics and Social Programmes Service, FAO, 1977, p. 16; from UNDP, "Rural Women's Participation in Development" -Evaluation Study #3 (New York: June 1980), p. 137

Table 9

PERCENT OF WORKING-TIME DEVOTED TO VARIOUS ACTIVITIES BY ADULT MEN AND WOMEN (AGED 15 AND OVER) IN A SAMPLE OF 20 HOUSEHOLDS, NOVEMBER 1972 - OCTOBER 1973

| Activity | Percent of total working hours | |
|---|---|---|
| | Men (N=31) | Women (N=33) |
| 1. Childcare | 4.2 | 9.3 |
| 2. Housework | 0.9 | 9.4 |
| 3. Food Preparation | 1.2 | 24.5 |
| 4. Firewood Collection | 2.4 | 0.8 |
| 5. Shopping | 0.5 | 2.5 |
| 6. Handicrafts | 5.1 | 20.9 |
| 7. Food Preparation for sale | 3.9 | 3.7 |
| 8. Animal Care and Feeding | 15.2 | 1.3 |
| 9. Trading | 8.3 | 12.9 |
| 10. Garden Cultivation (own) | 8.4 | 0.9 |
| 11. Sawah Cultivation (own) | 21.7 | 3.7 |
| 12. Gotong Royong | 8.8 | 1.4 |
| 13. Wage or Exchange Labour (agricultural) | 3.4 | 6.9 |
| 14. Wage or Exchange Labour (non-agricultural) | 12.8 | 1.5 |
| 15. Other | 3.2 | 0.3 |
| Average hours of all work per day: | 8.7 | 11.1 |
| Average hours of directly productive work per day (no's, 6-15 only): | 7.9 | 5.9 |

Source: UNDP, Rural Women's Participation in Development - Evaluation Study #3 (New York - June 1980) p 132.

Table 10

Funding For
East Java Small Loan Program

| Year | Source | Number of Villages | Amount of Capital/Village (Rp) | Total (Rp) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1980-81 | GOI | 16 | 700,000 | 11,200,000 |
| 1981-82 | GOI | 21 | 6 x 300,000<br>4 x 450,000<br>11 x 900,000 | 13,500,000 |
| 1981-82 | UNFPA | 4 | 3 x 400,000<br>1 x 669,000 | 1,869,000 |
| 1982-83 | GOI | 18 | 6 x 500,000<br>12 x 1,000,000 | 15,000,000 |
| 1982-83 | GOI | 20 | 4 x 675,000<br>16 x 1,350,000 | 24,300,000 |
| 1982-83 | World Bank | 9 | 1 x 637,291<br>4 x 700,000<br>1 x 757,000<br>1 x 824,000<br>2 x 2,000,000 | 9,018,291 |
| 1982-83 | USAID | 24 | 18 x 7,000,000 | 12,600,000 |
| 1983-84 | ASEAN | 8 | 8 x 3,856,625 | 30,853,000 |
| 1983-84 | GOI | 75 | 75 x 1,000,000 | 75,000,000 |
| | Totals | 195 | | 193,340,291 |

Table 11

Credit Program Performance (as of end April 1983)

| | Villages | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Rejosari | Sumbercto | Bandungrejo | Sidomulyo | Nglaran | Sempu |
| Total number of loans | 177 | 130 | 104 | 113 | 209 | 120 |
| Number of individ. borrowers | 137 | 115 | 89 | 86 | 148 | 84 |
| Average amt. of loan (Rp) | 14,070 | 13,908 | 17,202 | 21,858 | 12,774 | 18,900 |
| Outstanding loans (Rp) | 1,216,545 | 1,035,700 | 1,061,000 | 1,314,000 | 1,255,900 | 1,113,450 |
| Current value (Rp) | 1,316,940 | 1,145,125 | 1,161,975 | 1,417,500 | 1,353,900 | 1,255,550 |
| Cumulative amt. loaned (Rp) | 2,490,400 | 1,808,000 | 1,789,000 | 2,470,000 | 2,669,800 | 2,268,000 |
| Inc. in Capital Fund (Rp) | 569,440 | 445,125 | 461,875 | 717,500 | 653,900 | 555,550 |
| (%)* | 76.2 | 63.6 | 66.0 | 102.5 | 93.4 | 79.4 |

* All villages received initial capital of Rp. 700,000 except for Rejosari which received an additional Rp. 47,500 from Kabupatan BKKBN funds.

Table 12

Kabupatan, Kacamatan, Village Family Planning Program Performance
March 1982 - March 1983

| | Kabaputan Malang | Kecamatan Bantur | Village Sumboroto | Kabupatan Pacitan | Kecamatan Village | Village Nglaran |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| March 1982 | | | | | | |
| CU* | 57.1 | 72.3 | 87.4 | 77.6 | 69.2 | n/a |
| IUD** | 37.2 | 20.7 | 83.4 | 96.2 | 98.6 | n/a |
| April 1982 | | | | | | |
| CU | 50.9 | 75.5 | 87.3 | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| IUD | 36.1 | 20.0 | 83.7 | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| May 1982 | | | | | | |
| CU | 54.4 | 78.7 | 86.8 | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| IUD | 39.1 | 19.5 | 83.7 | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| June 1982 | | | | | | |
| CU | 56.6 | 56.8 | 87.1 | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| IUD | 37.9 | 27.2 | 83.8 | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| July 1982 | | | | | | |
| CU | 56.9 | 72.0 | 86.5 | 76.3 | 68.3 | n/a |
| IUD | 37.7 | 21.6 | 83.9 | 96.3 | 98.8 | n/a |
| ust 1982 | | | | | | |
| CU | 50.8 | 65.8 | 87.0 | 76.2 | 68.2 | n/a |
| IUD | 38.9 | 23.5 | 84.0 | 96.3 | 98.8 | n/a |
| September 1982 | | | | | | |
| CU | 52.9 | 80.7 | 88.2 | 76.7 | 68.4 | 73.2 |
| IUD | 37.3 | 19.4 | 84.3 | 96.5 | 98.8 | 99.4 |
| October 1982 | | | | | | |
| CU | n/a | n/a | 91.3 | n/a | n/a | 73.4 |
| IUD | n/a | n/a | 85.0 | n/a | n/a | 99.4 |
| November 1982 | | | | | | |
| CU | 59.5 | 82.9 | 93.0 | 76.8 | 68.5 | 73.9 |
| IUD | 41.8 | 24.7 | 86.1 | 96.3 | 98.8 | 99.4 |
| December 1982 | | | | | | |
| CU | 62.6 | 88.7 | 93.8 | 77.8 | 69.3 | 77.3 |
| IUD | 41.5 | 27.1 | 86.7 | 96.5 | 98.8 | 99.4 |
| January 1983 | | | | | | |
| CU | 61.9 | 86.4 | 93.3 | 79.1 | 72.0 | 77.0 |
| IUD | 42.3 | 27.9 | 86.8 | 96.4 | 98.9 | 99.4 |
| February 1983 | | | | | | |
| CU | 63.5 | 88.1 | 93.2 | 79.2 | 72.3 | 77.1 |
| IUD | 41.6 | 27.4 | 86.8 | 95.6 | 98.9 | 99.2 |
| March 1983 | | | | | | |
| CU | 61.9 | 86.8 | 93.4 | 80.4 | 75.4 | 89.1 |
| IUD | 43.1 | 27.8 | 87.0 | 96.4 | 98.7 | 99.3 |

* CU = % of Eligible Currently Using Contraception
** IUD = % of Current Users using IUD as Method of Contraception

Table 13

Nutrition Program Performance - P2K Villages

| | Villages | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Kab. Malang | | | Kab. Pacitan | | |
| | Rejosari | Sumberoto | Bandungrejo | Sidomulyo | Nglaran | Sempu |
| **1982** | | | | | | |
| Baseline | | | | | | |
| W/N* | 85.8 | 23.9 | 62.6 | 98.4 | 51.0 | 53.1 |
| G/W** | 50.3 | 50.0 | 42.6 | 96.8 | 26.7 | 37.2 |
| September | | | | | | |
| W/N | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | 60.3 | 33.1 | 56.3 |
| G/W | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | 58.0 | 76.0 | 39.4 |
| October | | | | | | |
| W/N | 59.2 | 21.3 | 45.2 | 60.0 | 36.5 | 52.6 |
| G/W | 59.9 | 35.2 | 70.8 | 63.9 | 66.7 | 42.8 |
| November | | | | | | |
| W/N | 57.4 | 23.0 | 44.9 | 59.3 | 33.1 | 45.3 |
| G/W | 63.0 | 39.7 | 70.3 | 64.6 | 76.0 | 49.3 |
| December | | | | | | |
| W/N | 64.4 | 21.1 | 37.1 | 66.6 | 39.4 | 44.1 |
| G/W | 56.9 | 33.0 | 89.6 | 51.0 | 70.5 | 75.2 |
| **1983** | | | | | | |
| January | | | | | | |
| W/N | 25.0 | 18.6 | 37.2 | 43.2 | 69.9 | 56.9 |
| G/W | 25.0 | 44.6 | 50.2 | 64.5 | 72.5 | 51.8 |
| February | | | | | | |
| W/N | 27.1 | 19.9 | 39.7 | 42.7 | 68.5 | 55.9 |
| G/W | 27.1 | 34.3 | 50.8 | 62.4 | 74.5 | 53.3 |
| March | | | | | | |
| W/N | 17.1 | 25.9 | 45.9 | 55.9 | 70.8 | 56.9 |
| G/W | 17.2 | 34.7 | 52.0 | 54.9 | 74.1 | 58.9 |

* W/N = participation rate (number of children weighed over total number of under fives reported in village)

** G/W = nutritional status (number of children gaining weight overr total number of children weighed)

Note: Figures for Kabupatan Malang (Mar. 1983) are: W/N = 39.0; G/W = 41.1.
Figures for Kabupatan Pacitan (Apr. 1983) are: W/N = 46.0; G/W = 60.0.

Table 14

Use of Service Charge (Rps)

| | Villages | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Rejosari | Sumberoto | Bandungrejo* | Sidomulyo | Nglaran | Sempu** |
| **Nutrition Fund** | | | | | | |
| % | 50 | 50 | 15 | 60 | 60 | -- |
| utilized | 20,000 | 17,550 | 36,650 | 10,000 | -- | 12,900 |
| in acct. | 149,080 | 120,100 | 7,995 | 249,800 | 227,310 | -- |
| **Administration Fund** | | | | | | |
| % | 35 | 35 | 35 | 25 | 25 | -- |
| utilized | 10,350 | 65,200 | 69,375 | 37,750 | 11,600 | 35,700 |
| in acct. | 108,006 | 31,155 | 34,330 | 70,500 | 83,113 | -- |
| **P2K Official Incentive Fund** | | | | | | |
| % | 15 | 15 | 45 | 15 | 15 | 15 |
| utilized | -- | 54,000 | -- | 55,575 | 54,500 | 30,000 |
| in acct. | 50,724 | (12,705) | 133,335 | 9,375 | 2,327 | 26,445 |
| **Dues** | | | | | | |
| per meeting | 25 | 25 | 25 | 50 | -- | -- |
| total | 16,225 | 11,925 | 3,700 | 37,650 | -- | -- |
| **Compulsory Savings** | | | | | | |
| total | 299,210 | 233,100 | 215,350 | 366,000 | 356,850 | 281,100 |
| withdrawn | 48,500 | -- | -- | -- | -- | 2,000 |

* Set aside 5% for charity; nothing utilized and Rp. 14,815 in account.

** Set no percentage for Nutrition and Administration Fund -- together Rp. 319,555 are in account.

## Annex A

## P2K LOAN REPAYMENT TABLES

### 1. Loans Under Rp. 10,000

### 3 months

| Amount of Loan | Admin. Cost | Compulsory Savings | Principal Repayment | Prin. Repay. | Prin. Repay. | Prin. Repay. | Prin. Repay. | Prin. Repay. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | FIRST MONTH | | | | SECOND MONTH | | | |
| | 1st week | 2nd week | 3rd week | 4th week | 1st week | 2nd week | 3rd week | 4th week |
| 1,000 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| 2,000 | 200 | 200 | 200 | 200 | 200 | 200 | 200 | 200 |
| 3,000 | 300 | 300 | 300 | 300 | 300 | 300 | 300 | 300 |
| 4,000 | 400 | 400 | 400 | 400 | 400 | 400 | 400 | 400 |
| 5,000 | 500 | 500 | 500 | 500 | 500 | 500 | 500 | 500 |
| 6,000 | 600 | 600 | 600 | 600 | 600 | 600 | 600 | 600 |
| 7,000 | 700 | 700 | 700 | 700 | 700 | 700 | 700 | 700 |
| 8,000 | 800 | 800 | 800 | 800 | 800 | 800 | 800 | 800 |
| 9,000 | 900 | 900 | 900 | 900 | 900 | 900 | 900 | 900 |
| 10,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 |

| Amount of Loan | Prin. Repay. | Prin. Repay. | Prin. Repay. | Prin. Repay. | TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | THIRD MONTH | | | | |
| | 1st week | 2nd week | 3rd week | 4th week | |
| 1,000 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 1,200 |
| 2,000 | 200 | 200 | 200 | 200 | 2,400 |
| 3,000 | 300 | 300 | 300 | 300 | 3,600 |
| 4,000 | 400 | 400 | 400 | 400 | 4,800 |
| 5,000 | 500 | 500 | 500 | 500 | 6,000 |
| 6,000 | 600 | 600 | 600 | 600 | 7,200 |
| 7,000 | 700 | 700 | 700 | 700 | 8,400 |
| 8,000 | 800 | 800 | 800 | 800 | 9,600 |
| 9,000 | 900 | 900 | 900 | 900 | 10,800 |
| 10,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 12,000 |

Annex A (continued)

## 2. Loans over Rp. 10,000
## 7 months

| Amount of Loan | Admin. Cost FIRST MONTH 1st | Admin. Cost FIRST MONTH 2nd | Compulsory Saving SECOND MONTH 1st | Compulsory Saving SECOND MONTH 2nd | Principal Repay. THIRD MONTH 1st | Principal Repay. THIRD MONTH 2nd | Prin. Repay. FOURTH MONTH 1st | Prin. Repay. FOURTH MONTH 2nd |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 15,000 | 1,500 | 1,500 | 1,500 | 1,500 | 1,500 | 1,500 | 1,500 | 1,500 |
| 20,000 | 2,000 | 2,000 | 2,000 | 2,000 | 2,000 | 2,000 | 2,000 | 2,000 |
| 25,000 | 2,500 | 2,500 | 2,500 | 2,500 | 2,500 | 2,500 | 2,500 | 2,500 |
| 30,000 | 3,000 | 3,000 | 3,000 | 3,000 | 3,000 | 3,000 | 3,000 | 3,000 |
| 35,000 | 3,500 | 3,500 | 3,500 | 3,500 | 3,500 | 3,500 | 3,500 | 3,500 |
| 40,000 | 4,000 | 4,000 | 4,000 | 4,000 | 4,000 | 4,000 | 4,000 | 4,000 |
| 45,000 | 4,500 | 4,500 | 4,500 | 4,500 | 4,500 | 4,500 | 4,500 | 4,500 |
| 50,000 | 5,000 | 5,000 | 5,000 | 5,000 | 5,000 | 5,000 | 5,000 | 5,000 |

| Amount of Loan | Principal Repayment FIFTH MONTH 1st | Principal Repayment FIFTH MONTH 2nd | Principal Repayment SIXTH MONTH 1st | Principal Repayment SIXTH MONTH 2nd | Principal Repayment SEVENTH MONTH 1st | Principal Repayment SEVENTH MONTH 2nd | TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 15,000 | 1,500 | 1,500 | 1,500 | 1,500 | 1,500 | 1,500 | 21,000 |
| 20,000 | 2,000 | 2,000 | 2,000 | 2,000 | 2,000 | 2,000 | 28,000 |
| 25,000 | 2,500 | 2,500 | 2,500 | 2,500 | 2,500 | 2,500 | 35,000 |
| 30,000 | 3,000 | 3,000 | 3,000 | 3,000 | 3,000 | 3,000 | 42,000 |
| 35,000 | 3,500 | 3,500 | 3,500 | 3,500 | 3,500 | 3,500 | 49,000 |
| 40,000 | 4,000 | 4,000 | 4,000 | 4,000 | 4,000 | 4,000 | 56,000 |
| 45,000 | 4,500 | 4,500 | 4,500 | 4,500 | 4,500 | 4,500 | 63,000 |
| 50,000 | 5,000 | 5,000 | 5,000 | 5,000 | 5,000 | 5,000 | 70,000 |

## Annex B

## Examples of Women Taking Loans from P2K Income-Generating Program in East Java

| Name | Village | Amount (Rp) | Activity | Benefits |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ibu Kus (Head of PKK/P2K) | Rejosari | 50,000 | rabbit raising | Purchased 20 rabbits @ Rp. 500; spent several thousand more on cages and medicine to protect against skin disease; her children provided grass daily; got immunization from government paravet in nearby town; within 5 months had 120 rabbits and sold 100 large ones @ Rp. 1,000. |
| Ibu Sryant | Sumboroto | 10,000 | shop owner | Increased her stock so that daily sales increased from Rp. 1,000 to Rp. 1,500 each day; wanted second loan of Rp. 30,000 to add fruit to her stock. |
| Ibu Kaniem | Sumboroto | 10,000 | palm sugar processing/ selling | Previously had to deal with ijon (broker) who provided capital and bought blocks of processed sugar @ Rp. 250/Kg.; with loan there was no need to deal with ijon and she can now sell sugar @ Rp. 500/hg. in market. |
| Ibu Suhinah | Sumboroto | 20,000 | palm sugar processing/ selling | After taking loan no longer works through ijon and has increased production by an additional 40%. |
| Ibu Yatini | Sumboroto | 25,000 | chicken raising | Bought 50 chickens @ Rp. 500; none vaccinated and all died; repaid loan from husband's income. |

Annex B (continued)

| Name | Village | Amount (Rp) | Activity | Benefits |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ibu Misiah | Sumboroto | 15,000 | dress | Bought 16 pieces of material to make children's cloths, 1/4 meter in size, for total of Rp. 8,125; other supplies (thread, buttons, etc.) cost Rp. 4,875; made 13 children's garments which sold @ Rp. 1,500 at the end of 5-month period. |
| Ibu Jumiati | Sumboroto | 15,000 | bamboo mat maker | Was able to purchase twice as much raw material; thus she had to make only one trip to market each week rather than two as before; already working at optimal level so that she has been unable to increase her production. |
| Ibu Kati | Sidomulyo | 20,000 | tempe production | Used to produce only palm sugar; continues that and has begun to produce tempe (fermented soybean) when she got loan; she processes 10 kg. of soy (@ Rp. 400/kg.) at a time--this produces 110 packets of temps which she sells at Rp. 50; she does this 3 times a week; she recently took a 2nd loan for Rp. 25,000 and increased tempe production by 40%; she will use profits to educate her two children (pay for clothes and books). |
| Ibu Tamu | Nglaran | 15,000 | coconut oil production | She purchases coconuts at @ Rp. 80; needs 5 coconuts to produce 1 liter of coconut oil which she sells for Rp. 500; in addition, she sells byproducts for another Rp. 300; loan has enabled her to double production and income has increased from Rp. 1,000-1,500/market day to Rp. 2,000-2,500/market day. |

Annex B (continued)

| Name | Village | Amount (Rp) | Activity | Benefits |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ibu Parti | Nglaran | 10,000 | bamboo hat maker | She used Rp. 8,000 to purchase a goat for raising and Rp. 2,000 to purchase more hat-making material so that she has to go to the market less frequently; no increase in production since working at optimal level; she sells 10 hats every week (2 markets) but could sell up to 50 more if production could be increased. |

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