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Do Local Government Policies Lead to Inclusive Development? Evidence from West Nusa Tenggara Province, Indonesia

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Abstract

Economic growth does not by itself show who benefits from development. This article evaluates inclusive development in West Nusa Tenggara (NTB) Province, Indonesia, by comparing economic, social, and regional indicators across the terms of two governors, Dr. TGH. Zainul Majdi and Dr. Zulkieflimansyah, and asks whether the reported changes are consistent with a more inclusive direction of development.

A descriptive-comparative approach informed by capability, pro-poor growth, and spatial inequality theories is applied to secondary data from Statistics Indonesia (BPS) and related sources: GRDP, the Gini index, poverty, open unemployment, mean years of schooling, life expectancy, social assistance recipients, and GRDP per capita growth, covering 2008–2018 and 2019–2023 depending on availability.

Changes in the indicators are not uniform across periods and dimensions. The Zainul Majdi period shows a declining poverty trend and improvements in several indicators, while disparities among regencies/cities persist. In the Zulkieflimansyah period, several indicators fluctuated amid earthquakes and the COVID-19 pandemic, and regional disparities remained visible.

Development evaluation should not rely solely on aggregate growth but also examine the distribution of outcomes, access to basic services, and spatial inequality. Because the analysis is descriptive and uses no validated composite index or causal identification strategy, the results are not estimates of the causal impact of any leadership or program. Future research should build a consistent regency/city-year panel with transparent index construction and impact-evaluation methods.

INTRODUCTION

Economic growth is an important indicator for assessing development performance, but aggregate growth does not by itself show who enjoys the benefits of development. The inclusive development perspective emphasizes the distribution of benefits, equality of opportunity, participation, and the ability of different groups in society to access economic resources and basic services. Development evaluation should therefore consider not only the magnitude of output but also the distribution of results and changes in people's living conditions.

The development literature links inclusiveness to the capability approach and human development. Anand and Sen (2000) discuss the importance of the income dimension in measuring human development, while Sen (2000) places freedom and capabilities as substantive elements of development. Ali and Son (2007) developed an approach to measuring inclusive growth that pays attention to the distribution of the gains from growth. A multidimensional perspective also emphasizes the interrelationships among economic, social, institutional, and environmental aspects (Dörffel C. and Schuhmann S, 2022; and Scott C. and Talmage C, 2017)

This issue is relevant for local governments. A region may experience an increase in GRDP alongside persistent poverty, income inequality, or gaps in access to education and health. Spatial inequality also means that an increase in output in one regency/city is not necessarily reflected evenly in the welfare of other areas. In the Indonesian context, studies show that inter-regional inequality and fiscal disparities remain important problems in the decentralization process (Akita T, Riadi A. A., and Rizal A, 2021; and Akita T. and Miyata S, 2018).

West Nusa Tenggara (NTB) Province provides a context for examining these issues. Economic structures and social conditions vary across regencies/cities, while differences in production bases, infrastructure access, and exposure to shocks can produce uneven development outcomes. A change in regional leadership may be accompanied by different development priorities, but comparisons across periods must be made cautiously because indicators are also influenced by macroeconomic conditions and external shocks.

This article asks to what extent the dynamics of economic, social, and regional indicators in NTB are consistent with a more inclusive direction of development across two gubernatorial terms. Its contribution is empirical and diagnostic: it sets economic indicators alongside social and spatial indicators, pays attention to variation among regencies/cities, and identifies the need for more transparent measurement before a local inclusive development index is used for ranking or formal evaluation.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The concept of inclusive development

Inclusive development has no single universal operational definition. In a multidimensional approach, inclusiveness encompasses the distribution of development benefits, access to opportunities, public participation, and social and environmental sustainability. Dörffel and Schuhmann (2022) propose a multidimensional framework for measuring inclusiveness, while Gupta and Pouw (2017) and Pouw and Gupta (2017) emphasize a cross-disciplinary approach.

The concept has evolved from income-based notions of inclusive growth toward broader development frameworks. Rauniyar and Kanbur (2010) review the Asian Development Bank literature and show that inclusive growth is concerned mainly with the pace and pattern of growth and its effect on income poverty and inequality, whereas inclusive development extends the concern to non-income dimensions of well-being and to participation in the development process. Gupta, Pouw, and Ros-Tonen (2015) argue for an elaborated theory in which inclusiveness has social, ecological, and relational dimensions, and Gupta and Vegelin (2016) examine the extent to which the Sustainable Development Goals reflect inclusive development. These contributions justify evaluating regional performance through several dimensions at once rather than through output alone.

This framework distinguishes aggregate achievements from the distribution of achievements. An increase in average income, for example, does not guarantee that low-income households benefit proportionately. Likewise, improved basic services at the provincial level do not necessarily mean that access across regencies/cities is equal. Evaluating inclusiveness therefore requires indicators that capture economic outcomes as well as social and spatial dimensions.

The capability approach and multidimensional measurement

The capability approach provides the normative foundation for these multidimensional views. Sen (1999) conceptualizes development as the expansion of substantive freedoms, so that income is a means rather than the end of development, while Robeyns (2005) surveys how the approach can be operationalized through functionings and capabilities in empirical work. Anand and Sen (2000) discuss how the income component enters the measurement of human

development. Counting-based multidimensional poverty methods (Alkire and Foster, 2011; Alkire and Santos, 2014) further show that deprivations in education, health, and living standards can differ from monetary poverty, and that the choice of indicators, thresholds, and weights must be made explicit and tested for robustness. Dörffel and Schuhmann (2022), who propose a multidimensional inclusiveness index, illustrate why such constructions require explicit methodological choices; this article therefore does not construct a composite index.

Growth, inequality, and pro-poor growth

A long-standing literature asks how growth relates to distribution. Kuznets (1955) proposed that inequality may first rise and then fall as an economy develops, although this pattern is not an automatic law. Dollar and Kraay (2002) report that the incomes of the poorest fifth tend to rise proportionately with average income in cross-country data, whereas Ravallion (2001) emphasizes looking beyond averages because the poverty impact of growth depends on initial inequality and on how the distribution changes. Kakwani and Pernia (2000) define pro-poor growth as growth that benefits the poor proportionately more than the non-poor, and Ravallion and Chen (2003) propose measuring it through the growth experienced by the poor across the distribution rather than through the mean alone. Atkinson (1970) adds that every inequality measure embeds distributional value judgments, so the Gini index should be read as one summary among several. These contributions explain why this article reads GRDP, the Gini index, and poverty together.

Economic, social, and regional dimensions

The economic dimension in this study is represented by GRDP, the Gini index, the percentage of poor people, and the open unemployment rate. GRDP describes the scale of economic activity, while the Gini index and poverty provide different information about distribution and welfare. The social dimension includes mean years of schooling, life expectancy, and information on social assistance recipients. The social assistance indicator must be interpreted carefully because changes in the number of recipients may reflect changes in need, program coverage, eligibility criteria, or record-keeping.

The regional dimension focuses on variation among regencies/cities and on GRDP per capita growth. The presence of large-scale mining activity, for example, can produce high output values in certain areas. A high GRDP value is not sufficient to conclude that provincial development has been spatially inclusive.

Education and health are both ends of development in the capability approach and inputs to productivity. Hanushek and Woessmann (2008) emphasize that the quality of cognitive skills, not only years of schooling, is related to long-run growth, and Bloom, Canning, and Sevilla (2004) find that health has a positive effect on aggregate output in a production-function framework. Social assistance, in turn, depends on targeting: Alatas et al. (2012) show in a field experiment in Indonesia that the targeting method affects who receives transfers, and Hanna and Olken (2018) compare targeted and universal transfers in developing countries. These studies motivate reading the schooling, life expectancy, and social assistance indicators as complementary rather than interchangeable.

Spatial inequality and decentralization

Akita and Miyata (2018) examine Indonesia's spatial inequality through hierarchical decomposition, while Akita, Riadi, and Rizal (2021) discuss fiscal disparities in the context of decentralization. This literature is relevant because regional economic and fiscal capacities can differ, so the same policy does not always produce the same outcomes. A descriptive analysis of a set of indicators, however, is not equivalent to a composite index. An index for formal monitoring requires justification of indicators, normalization, weighting, treatment of missing data, and sensitivity testing.

Regional disparities have their own theoretical lineage. Williamson (1965) found that regional inequality tends to widen in the early stages of national development and narrow later, while Krugman (1991) shows how increasing returns and market access can cause economic activity to concentrate in particular locations. For Indonesia, Hill, Resosudarmo, and Vidyattama (2008) examine the regional concentration of economic activity and the role of resource-rich regions in the country's changing economic geography, and Yusuf, Sumner, and Rum (2014) examine the evolution of expenditure inequality over two decades. In resource-rich economies, output can be high without broad-based gains, a possibility discussed by van der Ploeg (2011). Decentralization may bring policy closer to local needs, but Prud'homme (1995) warns of risks, including unequal capacity among jurisdictions, which echoes the fiscal-disparity concerns raised by Akita, Riadi, and Rizal (2021).

METHODS

Research design and study area

The study uses a descriptive-comparative approach with quantitative secondary data for NTB Province, with attention to differences among regencies/cities. The analysis compares the terms of Dr. TGH. Zainul Majdi and Dr. Zulkieflimansyah. The report covers different time spans depending on data availability, including 2008-2018 for several indicators in the Zainul Majdi period and 2019-2023 for several indicators in the Zulkieflimansyah period. Because the observation periods are not entirely uniform, the comparison is treated as a descriptive reading, not a causal estimate of the influence of leadership.

The initial report also mentions plans for in-depth interviews and focus group discussions. However, details on informants, data collection procedures, coding, and qualitative data excerpts are not adequately available in the report materials on which this article is based. This article therefore does not claim to have produced a qualitative thematic analysis.

Data sources and operationalization

The data come from regional statistical indicators referenced in the research report, including Statistics Indonesia (BPS) and related government sources. In the final manuscript for the journal, the authors need to complete the publication title, year, tables, and primary source links for each indicator. Table 3.1 summarizes the indicators and their analytical functions.

Table 3.1 Inclusive Development Indicators Used

Dimension	Indicator	Analytical use and limits of interpretation
Economic	Regency/city GRDP	Describes the scale of economic activity; must be distinguished from GRDP per capita.
Economic	Gini index	Describes distributional inequality according to the source's definition; not a direct measure of poverty.
Economic	Percentage of poor people	Describes the proportion of the population below the official poverty line.
Ekonomi	Open unemployment rate	Provides a picture of the labor market but does not capture all forms of employment vulnerability.
Social	Mean years of schooling	Indicator of educational attainment; changes may be slow and are influenced by age structure.
Social	Life expectancy	A summary indicator of health and mortality conditions.
Social	Social assistance recipients	Describes program reach; influenced by need, criteria, and record-keeping.

Regional	GRDP per capita growth	Describes output relative to population, not evenly distributed household income.

Analytical Technique

The analysis was conducted in three stages. First, the indicators were grouped into economic, social, and regional dimensions. Second, indicator trends were read by year and by leadership period, and compared across regencies/cities where information was available. Third, cross-indicator patterns were synthesized to assess whether the reported changes were consistent with a more inclusive direction of development. This article does not compute a new composite index because the report does not present replicable normalization, weighting, and sensitivity-testing procedures. Nor does it estimate the causal impact of policies.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Overview of inclusive development in NTB

The research findings show that changes in development indicators in NTB differ across periods and dimensions. The GRDP of several regencies/cities increased in certain years, but the scale of output is not uniform. West Sumbawa Regency is reported to have a high GRDP, in line with large-scale mining activity, while Bima City has a lower GRDP scale than several other areas. This difference underscores that the province's aggregate performance can be influenced by the concentration of economic activity in particular areas or sectors.

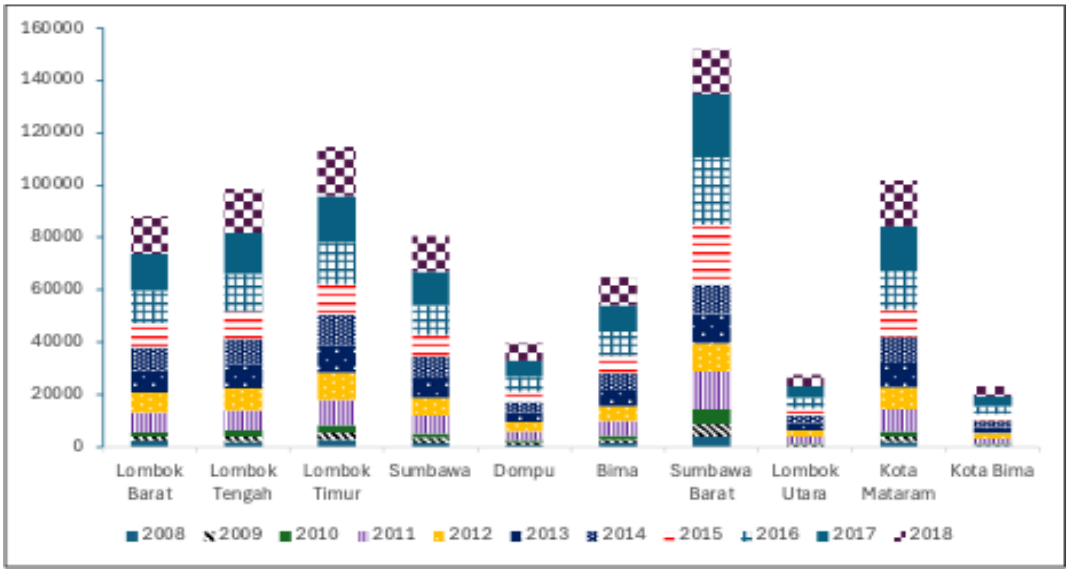


Figure 1. GRDP of regencies/cities during the period of Dr. TGH. Zainul Majdi (2008–2018)

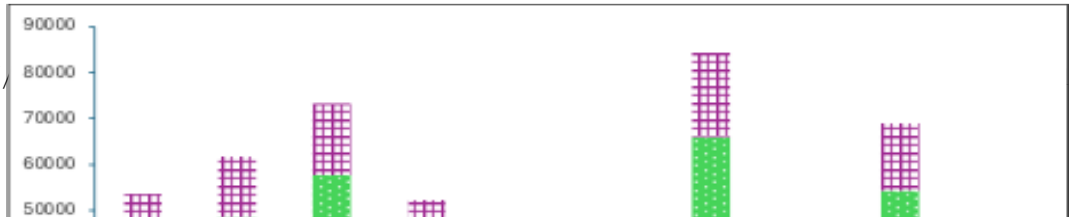


Figure 2. GRDP of regencies/cities during the period of Dr. Zulkieflimansyah (2019–2023).

Differences in GRDP scale do not by themselves indicate differences in residents' welfare. Interpretation must consider population size, income distribution, poverty, the structure of business sectors, and inter-regional economic linkages. GRDP must therefore be read together with distributional and social indicators. Analytically, the GRDP-by-regency/city chart should be read as a measure of the scale of production activity, not as a direct ranking of inclusiveness. The dominance of West Sumbawa's output is consistent with the importance of the large-scale mining sector, but without non-mining GRDP data, household income, and local linkages, the chart cannot show how widely the benefits of that activity spread to vulnerable groups or other regions.

From a theoretical standpoint, the concentration of output in particular regencies can be read through two lenses. First, in resource-rich regions such as West Sumbawa, high output may reflect an enclave pattern in which extractive activity raises GRDP without necessarily broadening income or employment locally (van der Ploeg, 2011). Second, new economic geography suggests that increasing returns and market access tend to reinforce concentration (Krugman, 1991), a process also relevant to Indonesia's wider regional landscape (Hill, Resosudarmo, and Vidyattama, 2008). Both readings are consistent with the pattern in Figures 1 and 2 but cannot be confirmed with the present data, which lack non-mining GRDP, household income, and inter-regional linkages. They are therefore treated as interpretive hypotheses for future testing, not as findings.

Economic dimension: output, inequality, poverty, and the labor market

GRDP and inter-regional inequality

During the Zainul Majdi period, the report describes an increase in GRDP in several regencies/cities, especially toward the end of the observation period. However, differences among regions remained prominent. Regencies with large mining activity showed high output values, while several other areas had lower output levels. During the Zulkieflimansyah period, GRDP development across regencies/cities was likewise uneven. Bima City, North Lombok Regency, and Dompu Regency are noted as not yet showing strong sectoral leverage in the indicators analyzed. The available data are not sufficient to conclude that these differences were directly caused by the continuity of particular programs or policy orientations. An important implication of this chart is

that provincial growth can coexist with the relative lag of some regencies/cities. Further analysis needs to separate sectoral growth from growth that is spread across regions, for example through real per capita growth, sectoral contributions to GRDP, and employment and poverty indicators for the same regional units.

Income inequality

The Gini index presented in the report shows that inequality remains a challenge, including differences between urban and rural areas. The report records relatively high urban inequality in several years during the Zainul Majdi period and values that remained high in the Zulkieflimansyah period. Because some figures and units in the report manuscript need to be verified against the original source tables, this article does not cite specific numerical values that cannot yet be confirmed.

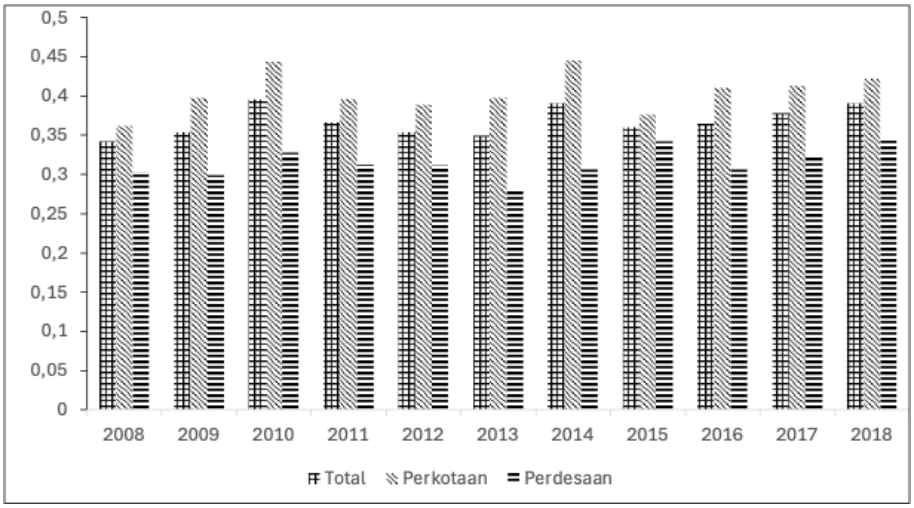


Figure 3. Gini index during the period of Dr. TGH. Zainul Majdi.

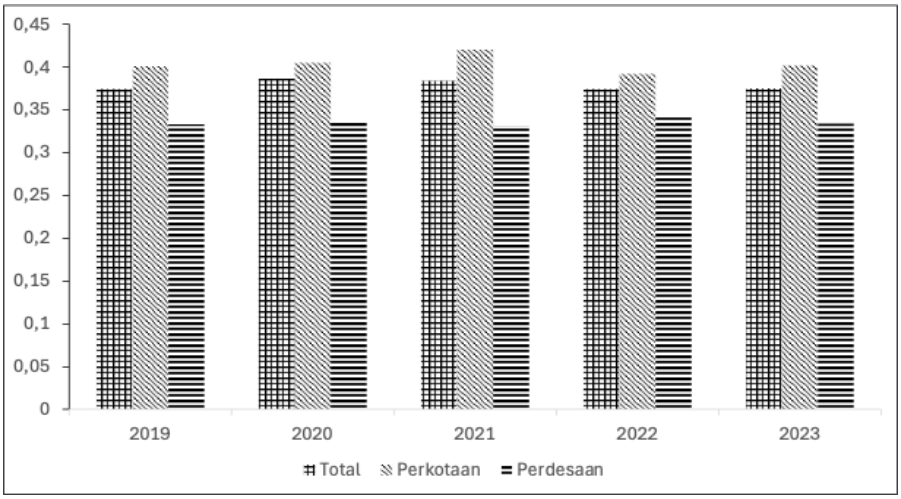


Figure 4. Gini index during the period of Dr. Zulkieflimansyah.

Persistent inequality means that an increase in output is not sufficient to state that the benefits of development are evenly distributed. The urban and rural Gini charts also remind us that provincial averages can mask different distributional patterns by type of area. However, the report narrative contains a figure that appears inconsistent for one rural observation (written as

3.43), so that figure should not be treated as a Gini index value before it is verified against the BPS source table. In the journal version of the article, this series needs to be presented with consistent area definitions, years, and scales. That said, the Gini index needs to be read together with poverty trends and social indicators. Inequality and poverty are different concepts: poverty measures the position of the population relative to the poverty line, whereas the Gini index summarizes the overall distribution.

Theoretically, persistent inequality alongside rising output is consistent with Kuznets's (1955) argument that the relationship between growth and inequality is not automatic, and it cautions against assuming that growth alone will reduce inequality (Ravallion, 2001). The national context matters as well: expenditure inequality in Indonesia changed over the two decades analyzed by Yusuf, Sumner, and Rum (2014), so NTB's Gini series should be read against national movements before any change is attributed to local policy. Because every inequality measure embeds value judgments (Atkinson, 1970), the Gini index should be complemented by distribution-sensitive measures, such as the expenditure shares of lower percentiles, once the source tables are verified.

Poverty and unemployment

The research results show that the percentage of poor people showed a declining trend during the Zainul Majdi period. The report links this development to development programs, including PIJAR. This pattern is consistent with improved economic conditions, but the descriptive analysis cannot identify the contribution of the PIJAR program separately from other factors such as changes in the national economy, employment structure, and long-term trends.

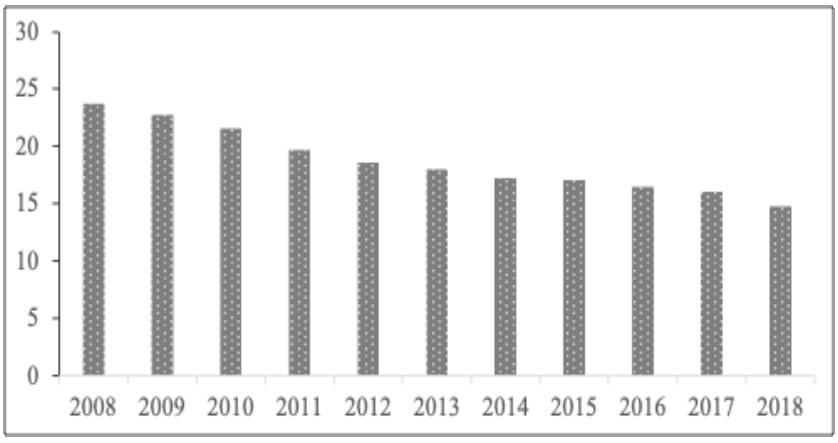


Figure 5. Percentage of poor people during the period of Dr. TGH. Zainul Majdi.

Figure 6. Percentage of poor people during the period of Dr. Zulkieflimansyah.

During the Zulkieflimansyah period, the poverty indicator is reported to have fluctuated. This pattern is important because it indicates that poverty reduction is neither automatic nor linear; achievements can change when households face income and employment shocks. Even so, the descriptive chart is not sufficient to separate the effect of the pandemic from other factors, and this attribution needs to be tested using consistent annual data and an appropriate comparison strategy. The report highlights the COVID-19 pandemic as one of the shocks that coincided with changes in poverty conditions. However, the magnitude of the pandemic's impact is not estimated separately. The open unemployment indicator is also included in the report, but a series of figures that can be reconstructed consistently is not available in the manuscript examined. This article therefore makes no quantitative claims about the magnitude of changes in unemployment.

In pro-poor growth terms (Kakwani and Pernia, 2000; Ravallion and Chen, 2003), a decline in the poverty rate is consistent with growth reaching the poor, but it does not by itself show that the poor gained proportionately more than the non-poor. Cross-country evidence suggests that growth is generally associated with rising incomes among the poor (Dollar and Kraay, 2002), while the extent of poverty reduction depends on initial inequality and on distributional change (Ravallion, 2001). Testing whether growth in NTB was pro-poor would require growth incidence curves or poverty-growth elasticities based on expenditure distributions for the same years, which are not available in the report. In addition, the fluctuation recorded in the Zulkieflimansyah period illustrates why monetary poverty should be complemented with non-monetary measures of deprivation (Alkire and Foster, 2011), since households close to the poverty line may remain vulnerable to shocks.

Social dimension: education, health, and social protection

Mean years of schooling and life expectancy are used to represent two aspects of human development. The report presents charts of these indicators by leadership period but does not provide complete tables of figures that can be verified from the report text. The conclusions are therefore limited to the importance of including the education and health dimensions in development evaluation; firmer quantitative comparisons require verified annual data. Substantively, mean years of schooling captures accumulated educational attainment, while life expectancy reflects aggregate health and mortality conditions. Both change relatively slowly compared with annual economic indicators. Reading differences across periods therefore needs to consider long-term trends, not just the start and end points of a term of office.

In capability terms (Sen, 1999; Robeyns, 2005), schooling and longevity are not merely inputs to growth but part of the freedoms people can exercise, which is why they enter an inclusiveness assessment in their own right. They are also productive assets, since cognitive skills and health are linked to long-run growth (Hanushek and Woessmann, 2008; Bloom, Canning, and Sevilla, 2004). Because both indicators change slowly and provincial averages can mask differences among regencies/cities, they are best read alongside poverty and inequality indicators, a joint reading to which the empirical literature on human development and poverty is relevant (Seth and Villar, 2018). Without regency/city-level series in the report, this article cannot assess whether education and health gains were evenly spread.

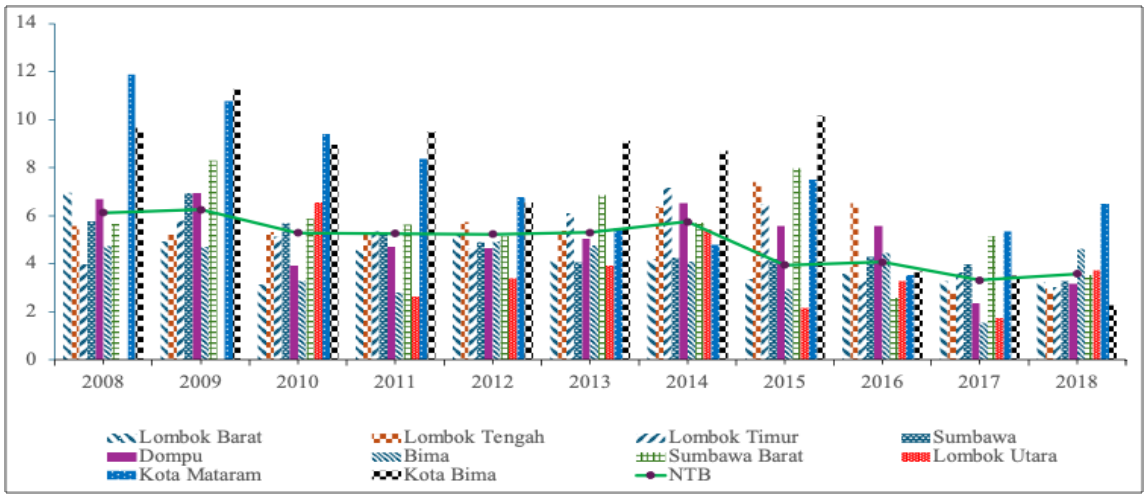


Figure 7. Open unemployment rate during the period of Dr. TGH. Zainul Majdi.

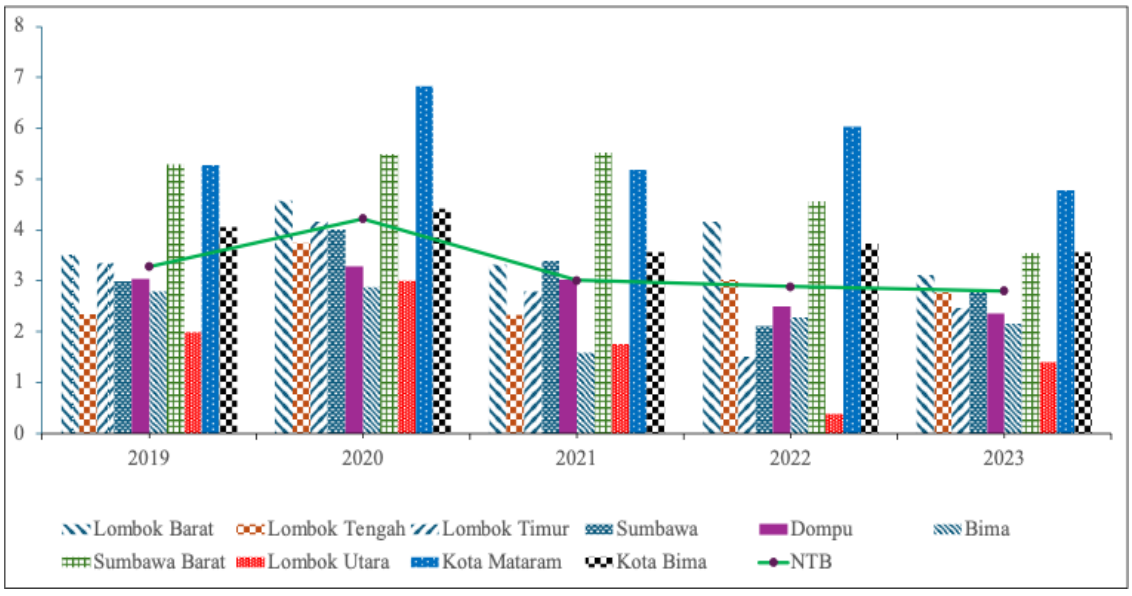


Figure 8. Open unemployment rate during the period of Dr. Zulkieflimansyah.

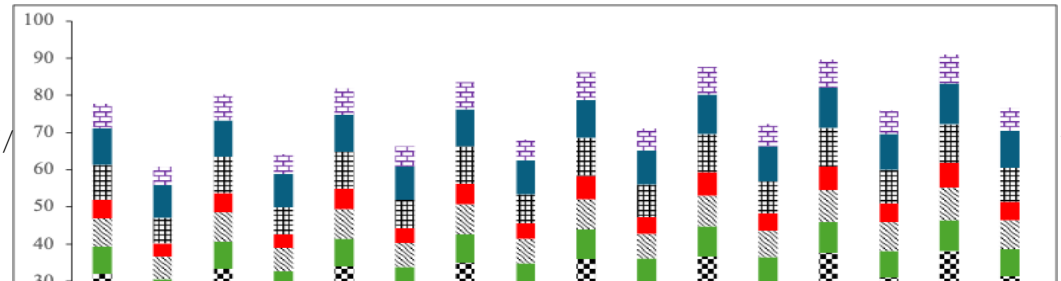


Figure 9. Mean years of schooling during the period of Dr. TGH. Zainul Majdi.

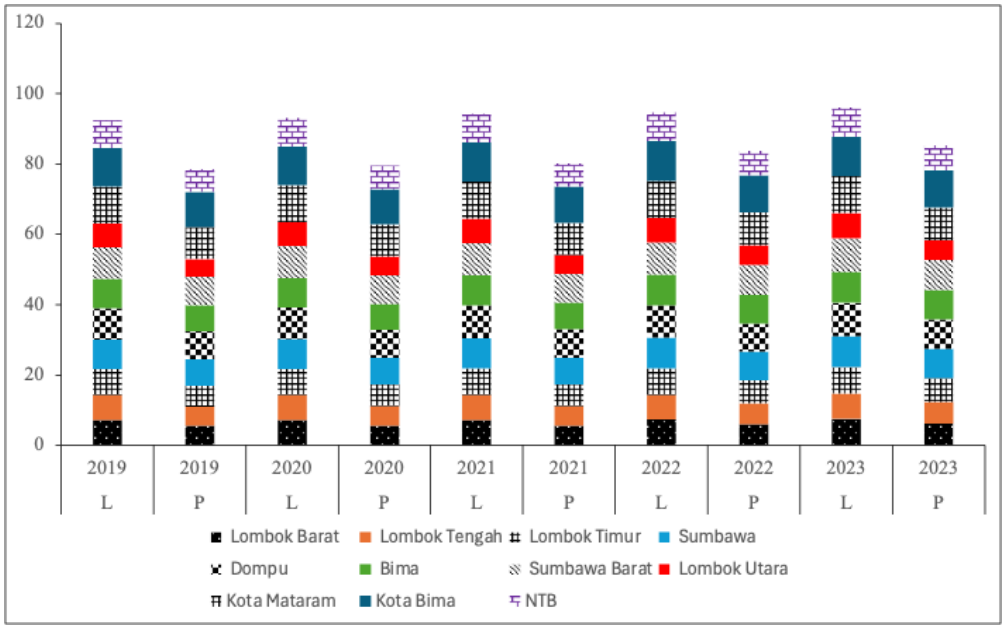


Figure 10. Mean years of schooling during the period of Dr. Zulkieflimansyah.

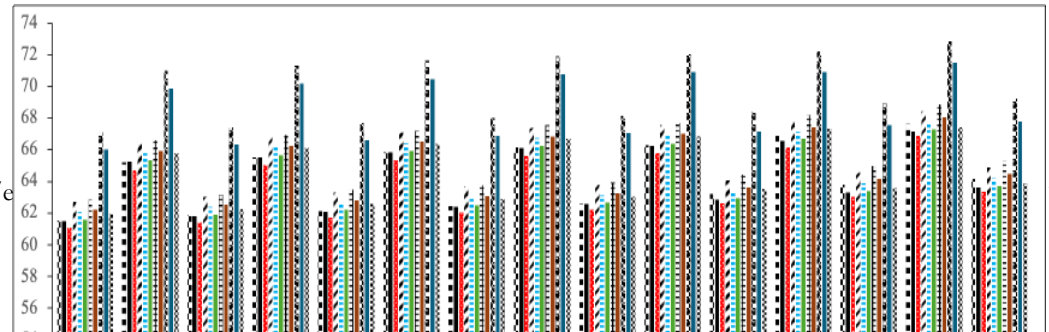


Figure 11. Life expectancy during the period of Dr. TGH. Zainul Majdi.

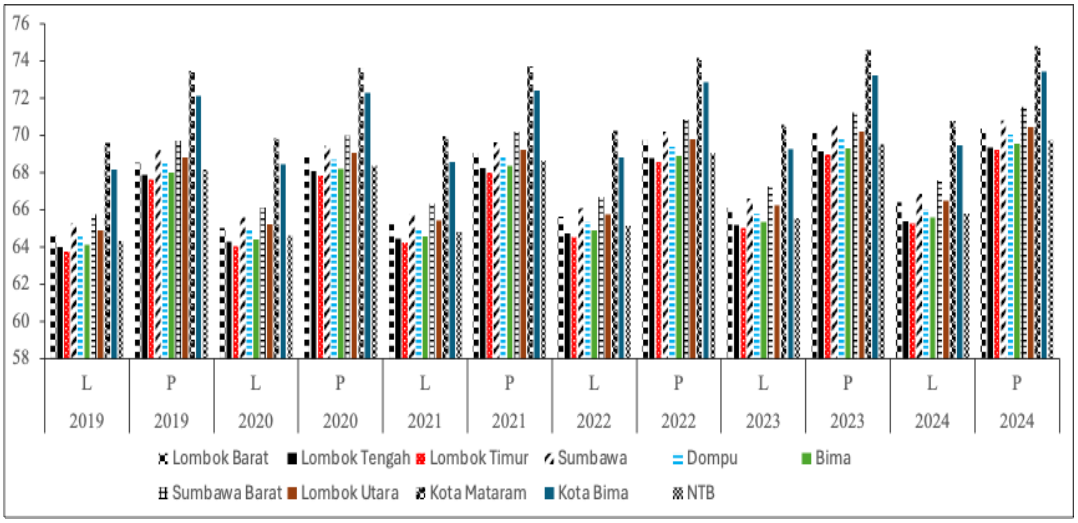


Figure 12. Life expectancy during the period of Dr. Zulkieflimansyah.

The research results also present the number of food social assistance recipients. This indicator can help assess the reach of social protection programs, but the number of recipients is not a direct measure of development success or failure. An increase in recipients may indicate an expansion of program coverage or an increase in household need. Interpretation must consider recipient criteria, assistance value, distribution period, and changes in the administrative system. The social assistance recipients chart is therefore more appropriately used as an indicator of administrative coverage or social protection response than as a measure of welfare outcomes. To assess effectiveness, the number of recipients needs to be compared with the number of poor or eligible households, targeting accuracy, benefit size, and changes in poverty among target groups.

From a social protection perspective, the interpretation of recipient numbers depends on targeting quality. Evidence from Indonesia indicates that the method used to identify beneficiaries influences who receives transfers (Alatas et al., 2012), and comparisons of targeted and universal transfers show that the trade-off between coverage and exclusion errors varies by context (Hanna and Olken, 2018). The recipient counts in Figures 13 and 14 should therefore be evaluated against the number of eligible households and against inclusion and exclusion errors before they are read as evidence of stronger or weaker inclusiveness.

Regional dimension: per capita growth and spatial disparities

GRDP per capita growth is used in the report to examine the regional dimension. This indicator distinguishes changes in output from changes in output relative to population, but it is

not a direct measure of income received by households. Income distribution, ownership structure, labor mobility, and cross-regional income flows can make the relationship between GRDP per capita and household welfare imperfect.

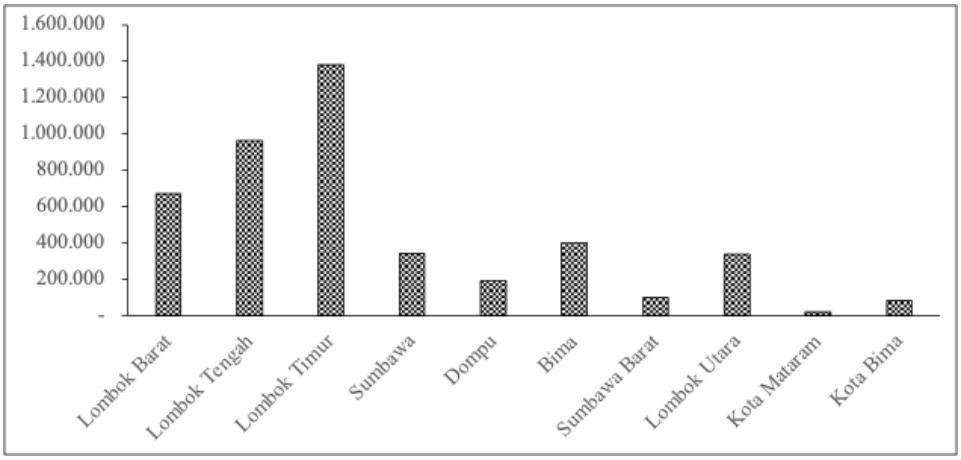


Figure 13. Number of food social assistance recipients during the period of Dr. TGH. Zainul Majdi (2018 data).

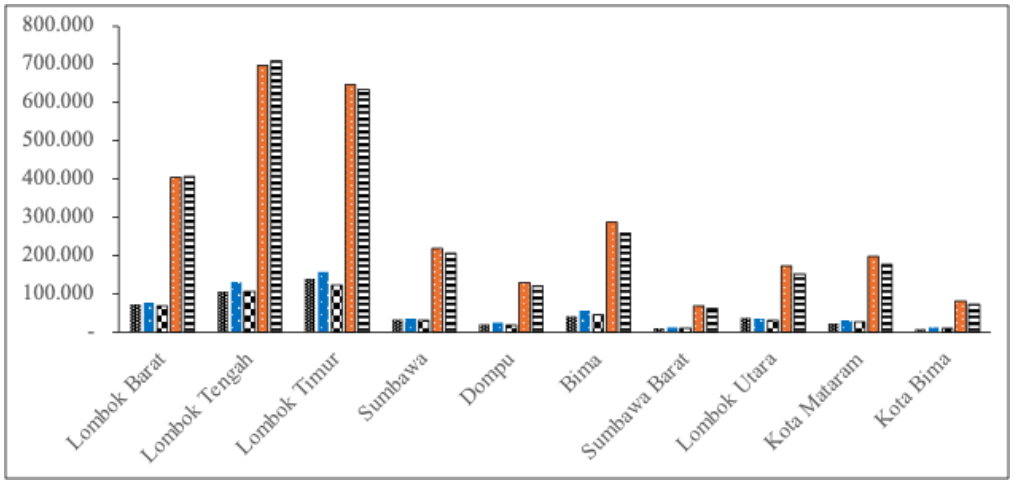


Figure 14. Number of social assistance recipients during the period of Dr. Zulkieflimansyah.

The descriptive results point to the conclusion that disparities among regencies/cities are a persistent challenge. GRDP per capita growth helps improve the reading because it accounts for population change, but it remains an average output indicator and not household disposable income. Cross-regional comparisons also need to establish whether the figures are annual growth, cumulative change, or an index; these three are not interchangeable. Differences in production bases and infrastructure access may contribute to differences in regional capacity to generate growth. Inclusive development policy therefore needs to assess whether infrastructure, connectivity, and basic services reach areas whose indicator achievements are relatively lagging.

Theoretically, persistent regional disparities are compatible with Williamson's (1965) hypothesis that spatial inequality can widen before it narrows, but the data in the report cannot determine whether NTB is before or after any turning point. Where fiscal capacity and infrastructure differ across jurisdictions, decentralization may leave lagging regions with less

capacity to convert policy into outcomes (Prud'homme, 1995; Akita, Riadi, and Rizal, 2021). This supports the policy emphasis on measured access gaps rather than on output potential alone.

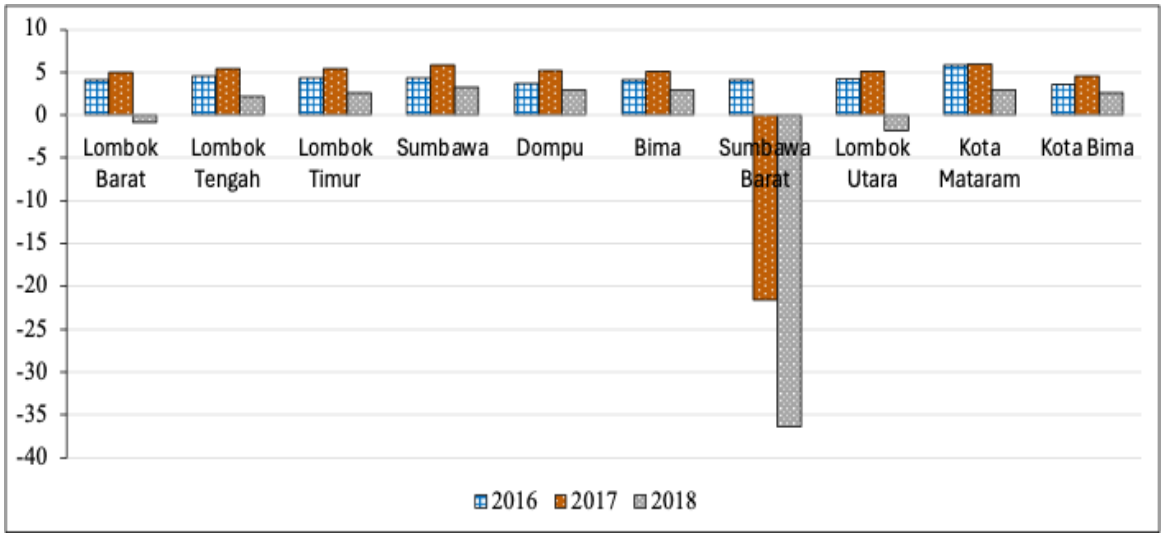


Figure 15. GRDP per capita growth during the period of Dr. TGH. Zainul Majdi.

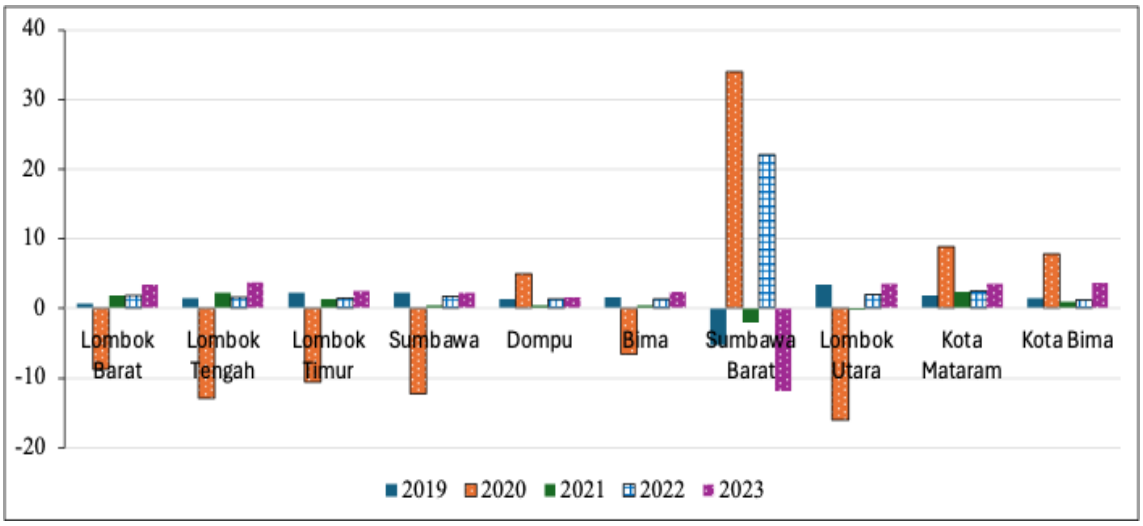


Figure. GRDP per capita growth during the period of Dr. Zulkieflimansyah.

Comparison between leadership periods and causal caution

Descriptively, the report interprets the Zainul Majdi period as one with improvements in several economic and social indicators, especially poverty reduction. The Zulkieflimansyah period shows more varied dynamics, with external shocks and regional inequality as challenges. This comparison gives an initial picture of changes in the indicators but is not sufficient to establish a causal ranking of leadership performance.

There are three reasons for caution. First, the time spans and data availability are not uniform across all indicators. Second, the leadership periods coincided with different external conditions, including the 2018 earthquakes and the COVID-19 pandemic. Third, this article does not use a comparison group or an econometric design to identify policy effects. Accordingly, changes in the indicators cannot be fully attributed to a particular governor or program. The reading most consistent with the evidence is that inclusive development in NTB shows uneven progress.

Taken together, the theoretical perspectives point in the same direction. Pro-poor growth theory asks who gains from growth; the capability approach asks whether people can convert income into valued education, health, and opportunities; and spatial inequality theory asks where growth occurs. Read descriptively, the NTB indicators are compatible with progress on some of these questions and with persistent gaps on others, but they are insufficient to confirm any single theory. This synthesis also clarifies why a validated multidimensional index (Alkire and Foster, 2011; Alkire and Santos, 2014; Dörffel and Schuhmann, 2022) should precede any ranking of leadership periods.

Policy implications

First, local governments need to develop an inclusive development monitoring system that combines economic, social, and spatial indicators. Such a system should publish indicator definitions, data sources, observation years, processing methods, and measurement limitations. Second, economic diversification needs to pay attention to the spread of value added across regions and business actors. Strengthening agro-industry, the maritime economy, and small and medium enterprises can be considered based on local potential, market connectivity, and their impact on the employment and income of vulnerable groups; this study itself does not estimate the impact of these sectors.

Third, social policy should combine social protection with capability enhancement, including education, relevant vocational training, and access to health care. Fourth, connectivity and infrastructure investment should be prioritized based on measured access gaps, not only on output growth potential. Fifth, program evaluation should involve civil society, academics, the private sector, and local communities so that inclusiveness is not limited to statistical indicators.

CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This article evaluated the direction of inclusive development in NTB by comparing economic, social, and regional indicators across two gubernatorial terms, using pro-poor growth, capability, and spatial inequality perspectives as interpretive lenses. The descriptive results show that changes in the indicators are not uniform across periods or dimensions: gains on some indicators coexist with persistent distributional and spatial challenges.

In the Zainul Majdi period, the report records a declining poverty trend and improvements in several indicators, while inequality among regencies/cities remained a problem. In the Zulkieflimansyah period, several indicators fluctuated in the context of external shocks, and spatial disparities remained prominent. The concentration of output in particular regencies, the persistence of inequality, and the variation in poverty are consistent with the theoretical expectations discussed above, although the data do not allow any of these theories to be tested directly.

The main finding is that economic growth alone is inadequate for assessing the inclusiveness of regional development. Assessment needs to combine indicators of output, poverty, inequality, the labor market, education, health, social protection, and regional disparities. Several recommendations for local government follow: build a transparent inclusiveness monitoring system with documented definitions and sources; pursue economic diversification that spreads value added across regions and business actors; combine social protection with capability enhancement; prioritize connectivity and infrastructure investment on the basis of measured

access gaps; and involve civil society, academics, the private sector, and local communities in program evaluation.

Because the study is descriptive and the data do not yet permit the construction of a validated composite index, the conclusions cannot be interpreted as causal evidence about the governors' performance or the effectiveness of particular programs. Three limitations should be noted. First, although the report planned a mixed-methods approach, auditable qualitative evidence is not available in detail in the materials on which this article is based. Second, complete procedures for constructing and validating a composite index are not yet available. Third, the descriptive design does not identify cause-and-effect relationships between gubernatorial policies and changes in the indicators.

Future research should compile a consistent regency/city-year panel, document the primary source of each indicator, and construct an inclusiveness index through transparent procedures with sensitivity tests. Further studies could add non-mining GRDP, household income or expenditure distributions, and growth incidence curves to test whether growth in NTB was pro-poor, and could compare NTB with other provinces to separate national trends from local effects. Qualitative work with documented procedures can complement the quantitative evidence. If the aim is to estimate policy impact, an appropriate identification strategy and controls for trends and external shocks are required.

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