

# Women and Girls in Indonesia: Progress and Challenges





UNFPA Indonesia  
Monograph Series:

**No.5**

# **Women and Girls in Indonesia:** Progress and Challenges

OCTOBER 2015





## Foreword

UNFPA, The United Nations Population Fund, has a strong mandate to promote women's empowerment and gender equality. Its core missions of furthering sexual and reproductive health and supporting high-quality and consistent national-level data collection are pillars of poverty reduction, gender equality and development. UNFPA works with partners in Government, the UN system and civil society to promote and work on gender equality and women's empowerment.

Addressing and promoting gender equality is at the heart of UNFPA's work. This has been especially marked since the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) held in Cairo in 1994, and the Fourth World Conference on Women held in Beijing in 1995, when Governments agreed that a gender perspective should be an integral and cross-cutting aspect of all development efforts. The ICPD Programme of Action identifies specific issues that involve complex gender and social relations, these include: sexual and reproductive health, family planning, youth and adolescents, population dynamics, human rights and gender-based violence.

Furthermore, the promotion of gender equality and women's empowerment is both a goal in itself and a central element to achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

One of the key activities of UNFPA Indonesia under its eight Country Programme (2011-2015) was to provide support to the Government in utilizing data collected from the 2010 Population Census, and other official statistics, to inform discussion and debate on key population issues of public policy concern. In order to understand the population dynamics and trends reflected in the recent data, UNFPA initiated the development of a series of monographs to analyse the information.

The gender monograph is the fifth monograph in this series. This monograph is comprised of five themes: the demographic characteristics of male and female population, education, employment, family formation, feminization of ageing, and housing. It provides policy makers, academicians, and practitioners with the most up to date information about gender related issues derived from analysis of the census and other relevant sources of data. The monograph will also be useful to inform gender-sensitive public policies and programmes that lead to the advancement of women in Indonesia. Additionally, the monographs are intended to be as user-friendly as possible, and thus readers will find the information useful for establishing a baseline against which the progress of Indonesian women can be measured.

I would like to thank Dr Soedarti Surbakti and Dr Theresa Devasahayam as the respective author and co-author of this monograph. I also would like to acknowledge the valuable contribution made by Dr Ghazy Mujahid as reviewer and Ms Ilana Tulloh as editor. I would like to extend my appreciation to colleagues from the UNFPA Country Office involved in the production of this monograph. In particular I would like to thank the Population and Development Unit, headed by Mr Richard Makalew, and the Gender Unit, headed by Ms Risya Ariyani Kori, and with the support of Mr Dikot Harahap, Mr Dedek Prayudi, Mr Elvince Sardjono and Ms Alice Garner. Thanks also to Ms Nur Aisyah Usman and Ms Vania Desiyanti for their technical assistance to the authors, and Ms Jumita Siagian, Ms Indah Alia and Ms Meilawati Mayadewi for their administrative

support. My gratitude also goes to Advocacy and Communications Unit, Mr Samidjo and Ms Satya Nugraheni for their timely support in ensuring the quality of the layout and printing of the monograph.

My special thanks also goes to the Population Census data processing team from BPS, Statistics Indonesia, especially staff in the Directorate of Population and Labor Force Statistics who contributed valuable materials and data, and to officials from the Ministry of Women's Empowerment and Child Protection (MOWECP) for contributing to the quality of this monograph. This monograph has also benefited from the valuable inputs and comments from the discussants and participants of the validation meeting conducted in Jakarta on 5 August 2015, and I wish to acknowledge Dr Omas Bulan Samosir and Dr Dwini Hariyanto, from the Demographic Institute, University of Indonesia; and Ms Budi Wahyuni, Commissioner of National Commission on Violence Against Women.

Jakarta, October 2015

**Jose Ferraris**

UNFPA Representative

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# Acknowledgements

In the past few decades, women and girls in Indonesia have made significant strides forward in various areas. Improvements have been recorded in health, education, labour force engagement and political participation. Credit must be given to the Indonesian Government for their commitment to addressing gender inequality. Yet gender-based discrimination continues to persist with rural women and girls doing worse off than their urban counterparts.

Based on data collected in the Population Census of 2010, and other relevant sources, and the contributions and inputs from population and gender experts, this monograph analyses the persistent gender gaps existing in Indonesia.

As authors of this monograph, we would like to express our appreciation to Dr. Ghazy Mujahid who acted as reviewer for the monograph and, in particular, for his insightful comments, and Ms. Ilana Tulloh for her fine editing to help bring the monograph up to scratch and ready for publication.

We also wish to recognize the contribution of Mr Jose Ferraris, UNFPA Indonesia Representative in shaping the monograph, in particular, his sharp intellect in helping us form our thoughts at the onset of the writing process. We would also like to take this opportunity to highlight his role in emphasizing gender as one of several important issues that needed to be featured in Indonesia's National Development Policy.

We would also like to thank the UNFPA team involved in the production of this monograph: the Population and Development Unit headed by Mr Richard Makalew, and the Gender Unit headed by Ms Risy Ariyani Kori, with the support of Mr Dedek Prayudi, Mr Elvince Sardjono, and Ms Vania Desiyanti.

Our special thanks also goes to the Population Census data processing team from BPS, and in particular the staff of the Directorate of Population and Labor Force Statistics, who contributed the relevant materials in writing the monograph; and to the officials from The Ministry of Women's Empowerment and Child Protection, for their input in enhancing the quality of this monograph.

This monograph has also benefited from the valuable comments received from the discussants and participants who had attended the Gender Monograph Validation Meeting held in Jakarta in August of 2015. In particular, we would like to acknowledge Dr Omas Bulan Samosir and Dr Dwini Hariyanto, from the Demographic Institute, University of Indonesia; and Ms Budi Wahyuni, Commissioner of National Commission on Violence Against Women.

Last but not least, we would like to express our appreciation to BPS for its support in providing access to the 2010 Population Census data files and other sources of data and BNP2TKI for the data on Migrant Workers, without which this monograph could not have been written.

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# Acronym & Abbreviation

|                 |  |
|-----------------|--|
| <b>Bappenas</b> | Ministry of National Development Planning/National Development Planning Agency ( <i>Kementrian Perencanaan Pembangunan Nasional/Badan Perencanaan Pembangunan Nasional</i> ) |
| <b>BKKBN</b>    | National Population and Family Planning Board ( <i>Badan Kependudukan dan Keluarga Berencana Nasional</i> )  |
| <b>BPS</b>      | Badan Pusat Statistik-Statistics Indonesia   |
| <b>CPR</b>      | Contraceptive Prevalence Rate  |
| <b>IDHS</b>     | Indonesia Demographic and Health Survey  |
| <b>FHH</b>      | Female Headed Households   |
| <b>GII</b>      | Gender Inequality Index  |
| <b>GMS</b>      | Gender Main-Streaming  |
| <b>GOI</b>      | Government of Indonesia  |
| <b>GPI</b>      | Gender Parity Index  |
| <b>GRBP</b>     | Gender responsive budget planning  |
| <b>HHM</b>      | Household Member   |
| <b>IFLS</b>     | Indonesian Family Life Survey  |
| <b>Inpres</b>   | Presidential Instruction   |
| <b>KPPPA</b>    | Ministry of Women's Empowerment and Child Protection ( <i>Kementerian Pemberdayaan Perempuan dan Perlindungan Anak</i> )   |
| <b>LFPR</b>     | Labour Force Participation Rate  |
| <b>MDGs</b>     | Millennium Development Goals   |
| <b>MHH</b>      | Male Headed Households   |
| <b>MICS</b>     | Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey  |
| <b>PC</b>       | Population Census  |
| <b>Podes</b>    | Village Potential ( <i>Potensi Desa</i> )  |
| <b>Prona</b>    | National Project for Land Reform ( <i>Proyek Nasional Agraria</i> )  |
| <b>SAKERNAS</b> | National Labour Force Survey   |
| <b>SLB</b>      | Special School for People with Disabilities ( <i>Sekolah Luar Biasa</i> )  |
| <b>SMAM</b>     | Singulate-Mean Age at Marriage   |
| <b>SUSENAS</b>  | National Socio-Economic Survey   |
| <b>TFR</b>      | Total Fertility Rate   |
| <b>UMP</b>      | Provincial Minimum Wage ( <i>upah minimum provinsi</i> )   |
| <b>UNFPA</b>    | United Nations Population Fund   |
| <b>Wajar</b>    | Compulsory Education ( <i>Wajib Belajar</i> )  |





Chapter I

# INTRODUCTION

## 1.1. Development in Indonesia: Where Are the Women?

In the last four decades, Indonesia's economy has grown by leaps and bounds. The most notable change in Indonesia's economy has been the expansion of sectors such as manufacturing, banking and tourism sectors, which has led the World Bank to classify the country as a Newly Industrializing Economy (NIE) (Lee, Simon, 2001). In fact, the surge in the manufacturing sector provided for the major source of export revenues and the key engine of growth after the end of the oil boom era in 1982, which in turn generated employment and reduced poverty. Moreover, high GDP growth rates as a result of macro policies stimulated the growth of rural small and medium enterprises.<sup>1</sup>

In terms of social indicators, Indonesia has also shown marked progress in reaching many development goals. Profits have been channeled into education and health services so much so that the country could boast of universal primary or basic education with nearly 97 percent school enrolment rates, as recorded in 2009.<sup>2</sup> The total adult literacy rate now stands at 92.8 percent.<sup>3</sup> Furthermore, the country's family planning programme has earned worldwide praise for its easing of demographic pressures.<sup>4</sup> As a result of a successful family planning programme, fertility rates were halved from 1971 to 2000 from 5.6 children per woman to 2.3 children per woman respectively,<sup>5</sup> freeing women to enter the labour force.<sup>6</sup> While the country has experienced greater success in its efforts to reduce infant and child mortality,<sup>7</sup> efforts to tackle maternal mortality has been sobering as rates have continued to persist above 200 per 1000 live births over the past decade with very little progress made. On poverty reduction, Indonesia has moved forward towards achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) although it has been fairly uneven with poverty rates in the rural and outer islands being much higher than in the cities.<sup>8</sup> Regional autonomy or "decentralization" which came into force in 1999 had the potential to improve the welfare of the people, especially the poor, with the assumption that this form of governance could ease service delivery at the local level. However, this would demand that civil society monitor the conduct of local administrative units, thereby bringing the concerns of the poor closer to the Government.<sup>9</sup>

- 1 Van Diermen, Peter (2004) "The Economic Policy Environment for Small Rural Enterprises in Indonesia". In *The Indonesian Rural Economy: Mobility, Work and Enterprise*, edited by Thomas R. Leinbach. Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies.
- 2 UNICEF (n.d.) "The Children: The School Years". Accessed 21 August 2015. [http://www.unicef.org/indonesia/children\\_2833.html](http://www.unicef.org/indonesia/children_2833.html)
- 3 UNICEF (n.d.) "Statistics". *At a Glance: Indonesia*. Accessed 21 August 2015. [http://www.unicef.org/infobycountry/indonesia\\_statistics.html](http://www.unicef.org/infobycountry/indonesia_statistics.html)
- 4 (Hull 1994)
- 5 UNFPA (n.d.) "Population Data for Development".
- 6 Khofifah Indah Parawansa (2002) "Institution Building: An Effort to Improve Indonesian Women's Role and Status". In *Women in Indonesia: Gender, Equity and Development*, edited by Kathryn Robinson and Sharon Bessell. Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies.
- 7 UNICEF Indonesia (2012) "Maternal and Child Health". Issue Briefs, October.
- 8 Asian Development Bank (2006) "From Poverty to Prosperity: A Country Poverty Analysis for Indonesia"
- 9 Sumarto, et al (2003) "Governance and Poverty Reduction: Evidence from Newly Decentralized Indonesia". SMERU Working Paper, SMERU Research Institute. Accessed 21 August 2015. <http://www.adb.org/documents/indonesia-poverty-assessment>

As Indonesia is the largest economy in Southeast Asia and the sixteenth largest in the world, it would be apt to ask the question of how girls and women have benefited from the progress the country has made in the last few decades, especially since women comprise almost half of the country's population at 49.7 percent based on 2010 Population Census figures (BPS Statistics Indonesia or BPS, 2012). When there are equal numbers of women and men, we would expect that women would have the potential of being a powerful driver behind the country's development, especially since the bulk of Indonesia's female population today belongs to the productive group of 15-64 years old (66.2 percent), followed by female children in the group of 0-14 year old (28.2 percent) and non-working age older population aged 65+ (5.6 percent). However, a close look at the Census data shows that women are lagging behind men in various arenas, as evidenced by the gender parity index<sup>10</sup> (GPI) series. The extent to which women have been lagging behind men in the field of reproductive health, empowerment and employment as measured by the gender inequality index (GII) indicates that things have been improving but progress has been slow. It is beyond doubt then that if the potential of women can be raised to the level of that of men, they can be agents of change and a potent force for development in the country.

The Government of Indonesia has been fervent in its pursuit of gender inclusivity as might be seen in its efforts to give women various opportunities to improve themselves, a notable step forward being that of the issuance of the Gender Mainstreaming (GMS) decree in 2000.<sup>11</sup> In order for the Government to design and implement efficient and effective policies to enhance access among women and girls to basic needs such as education, health, employment and social insurance, it needs relevant information on the characteristics and trends among women and girls.

In the early 1990s the GPI was used to measure gender equality and women's empowerment in the areas of education, employment and women's involvement in decision-making in legislative agencies. It showed significant gender gaps in all cases except in basic education, where there had been a modest achievement in reducing gender parity. In 1993, the GPI of women's participation in secondary education was 93.7, which means that here women lagged only slightly, about 6 percent below the ideal 100 percent, whereas in tertiary education, they lagged further behind with a score of only 74.7 percent. In 1990 the GPI of women contribution in wage employment of non-agricultural sectors and their participation in legislative agencies was much lower at 29.3 percent and 12.5 percent respectively, which means that here the problem was much worse.

More recently, in 2011, the gender gap in the field of education did narrow, although gender inequality continues to persist in the areas of employment and the decision-making processes in legislative agencies. By looking at the low figures of GPI in employment and public decision-making, which was 36.6 percent and 18.4 percent<sup>12</sup> respectively, it is clear that gender equality is far from having been achieved.

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10 Ministry of Woman Empowerment and Child protection and BPS (2012)

11 Presidential Instruction No. 9/2000 on Gender Mainstreaming

12 Kementerian PPN/Bappenas (2012), Laporan Pencapaian Pembangunan Milenium di Indonesia 2011



Gender gaps have persisted, in spite of the fact that in 2000 the Government launched a development strategy aimed at achieving gender equality and equity. Because of the Government commitment to gender equality, the Presidential Instruction No. 9/2000 on Gender Mainstreaming was drawn up to mandate that the entire cabinet ministries, the heads of other Government agencies, and the chiefs of military services at the central and regional levels had to integrate the interests, needs, concerns and characteristics of men and women in every stage of the nation's development activities, i.e., from planning and execution to monitoring and evaluation of development projects.<sup>13</sup>

GMS performance was slow, with many central and regional level agencies and ministries<sup>14</sup> failing to apply the strategy effectively. In the Ministry of Home Affairs Ordinance No. 15/2008 (later replaced by the Ministry of Home Affairs Ordinance No. 67/2001), it was decreed that all regional Governments were to perform gender responsive budget planning (GRBP).<sup>15</sup> By 2013 the provinces had formed their GMS

<sup>13</sup> KPPPA, Inpres No. 9 tahun 2000 tentang Pengarusutamaan Gender

<sup>14</sup> Kementerian PPN/Bappenas (2006) Evaluasi Pelaksanaan PUG di 9 Sektor Pembangunan

<sup>15</sup> Kemendagri, Permendagri No. 67 Tahun 2012

working groups to improve the quality of the GMS execution in the provinces, but all regency Governments had yet to form their own working groups.<sup>16</sup>

The effort to accelerate the GMS through the GRBP has also been reaffirmed by the Government through another national strategy championed by four ministries: the Ministry of National Development Planning/National Development Planning Agency (*Bappenas*), the Ministry of Finance, the Ministry of Home Affairs, and the Ministry of Women's Empowerment and Child Protection. Each of the four ministries declared their support in the following bulletins: National Programme Planning Bulletin No. 270/m. PPN/11/2012, Finance Ministry bulletin No. SE 73/MK.02/2012, Home Affairs Ministry bulletin No. 050/43791/SJ and the Women's Empowerment and Child Protection bulletin No. SE 461/MPP-PA/11/2012.<sup>17</sup>

## 1.2. Objectives

This monograph, in providing situation analyses of levels, differentials, patterns and recent trends of gender in Indonesia, based on data collected in the 2010 Population Census, is in effect an assessment of the impact of development processes on the lives of women and girls. Specifically, the analyses covers the following areas:

- a. Sex composition of population broken down by various characteristics;
- b. Gender gap in education such as school participation of children, level of education indicated by education attainment, literacy and ability to speak the national language;
- c. Gender gap in employment related to the labour market, such as working age population, labour force participation and unemployment;
- d. Family formation such as marriage, number of children and, gap on housing/dwelling condition by sex of household heads; and
- e. Feminization of ageing and the greater vulnerability of women in old age.

To measure the difference in the sex composition of the population, sex ratio (the number of males divided by the number of females) will be used; in this case, the sex ratio > 100 percent means that the number of males exceeds the number of females in the population and vice versa. In order to measure the gender dimension of the indicators, GPI (the value of indicator for females divided by the value of indicator for males) has been utilized;<sup>18</sup> in this case, the GPI > 100 percent indicates that the value indicator for females is more than that of the male population.

## 1.3. Data Sources and Limitations

The main data source used to compile this monograph is the 2010 Population Census as well as the preceding Population Censuses conducted in 2000 and 1990, when appropriate. In addition, the analyses in the monograph will use evidence obtained from the results of several large-scale data collection exercises available in BPS and other relevant sources of data where necessary.

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16 AIPD (2014) Profil Gender Kabupaten Lombok Utara; AIPD (2014) Profil Gender Kabupaten Merauke

17 Kementerian PPN/Bappenas, BPS, dan UNFP (2013) Proyeksi Penduduk Indonesia 2010-2035. Jakarta, BPS

18 Kementerian PPN/Bappenas dan UNDP (2007) Laporan Pencapaian Millenium Development Goals

This monograph will briefly look at recent trends in the condition of male and female populations, therefore it is important to present a concise summary on the execution of the past Population Censuses. The 1971, 1980 and 1990 Population Censuses were implemented in two stages: complete and sample censuses. In the complete enumeration, the items included were demographic characteristics such as sex, age, marital status, relationship to the head of the household, migration and housing or dwelling unit condition. Meanwhile, the items covered in the sample census were more detailed items regarding education, employment, migration, fertility and family planning. The sample census covered a large enough number of households so that tables can be estimated at district (*kabupaten/kota*) level (except for items with rare cases discovered). From the results of both the complete and sample censuses, national estimates and indicators were published. This national data was presented in the form of tables disaggregated by sex and urban/rural.

In both the 2000 and 2010 Population Censuses all data collected from the population was gathered using just one questionnaire. Although the two censuses differed in terms of coverage of MDGs and disabilities, they are relatively comparable. Other characteristics covered in the 2010 Population Census resembled those collected in the 2000 census and included sex, age, marital status, relationship to the household head, migration and housing or dwelling unit condition.

The questionnaire applied in the 2010 Population Census has been utilized as the basis in the gender monograph compilation. The 2010 questionnaire was less detailed and not as complete as those used in the 1980 and 1990 censuses when the combination of complete and sample census was applied (BPS, 2010). Published tables of the 2010 Population Census were also less comprehensive compared to those of the two earlier censuses. These will to some extent present a limitation on the analysis in the gender monograph. In spite of these drawbacks, the analyses in the gender monograph have been augmented with data from the results obtained from the large periodical surveys such as the socio-economic survey *Survei Sosial Ekonomi Nasional* (SUSENAS), the labour force survey *Survei Angkatan Kerja Nasional* (SAKERNAS) and the Indonesia Demographic and Health Survey/IDHS *Survei Demografi dan Kesehatan Indonesia* (SDKI).



Chapter II

CHARACTERISTICS OF MALE  
AND FEMALE POPULATION

Quantitatively, the share of males and females in the Indonesian population is more or less equal, the country's male population numbers are only slightly higher than the female population. Of the 238.5 million people in 2010, 119.7 million were male (or 50.2 percent) while the remaining 118.7 million (or 49.7 percent) were female. The almost equal proportion suggests that the two groups are equally important as contributors towards the country's economic development.

## 2.1 Age and Sex Composition of Indonesia's Population

In 2010, the sex ratio at national level was 101.4 percent. However, the sex ratio differed across the age groups. Sex ratio of population aged zero (Sex Ratio at Birth/SRB) was 105.7, which was not much different from the ratio in 1990 (104.9) and 2000 (106.3). In the 0-19 years age group, the figure was generally above 100 percent which means that the number of males to the females was greater; within the age range of 20-29 years, the figure decreased to below 100 percent although it climbed back to above 100 percent within the group of 35-59 years, but continually dropped as the age increased. During the past five Population Censuses, the sex ratio changed gradually by one percent or less over the ten years, increasing from 97.2 percent in 1971, to 98.9 percent in 1980 and

then to 99.4 percent in 1990. It then jumped to over 100 percent and became 100.6 in 2000, and finally to 101.37 percent in 2010.<sup>19</sup> See also Table 2.2 on the comparison of 1990 and 2000 Population Census results.

“  
*More males among children  
but more females among the  
older groups*”

Table 2.1 shows how the sex ratio in 2010, presented in five-year age groups, has been arranged in ascending order. There was a sharp decrease in sex ratio within the age range of 20-29 years. The suspected reason for this is rapid mobility of young males that caused

under enumeration.<sup>20</sup> Mobility among the young males is usually related to education and employment. Figure 2.1 shows that there were dents in the population bar chart for both men and women. The decrease in sex ratio at and beyond the age of 60 years (old aged females share 54 percent of the total old aged population) is very much related to the fact that the male life expectancy (67.5 years) is lower than that of women's (71.5 years) (BPS and KPPA, 2010).

The important indicator that can be derived from age composition of population is dependency ratio— the ratio of the number of non-productive population (aged 0-14 years and aged 65 years old and over) and the number of productive population (aged 15-64 years old). Table 2.1 presents the composition of the population by age so that it can be converted to non-productive and productive population. Based on data presented in this table, the 2010 dependency ratio for Indonesia is 51.3 percent, which means that every two productive persons should be responsible for providing the needs of around one non-productive person.

19 BPS (2011) Umur dan Jenis Kelamin Penduduk Indonesia: Hasil Sensus Penduduk 2010.

20 Bappenas, BPS, UNFPA (2013) Indonesian Population Projection 2010-2035.

**TABLE 2.1:**

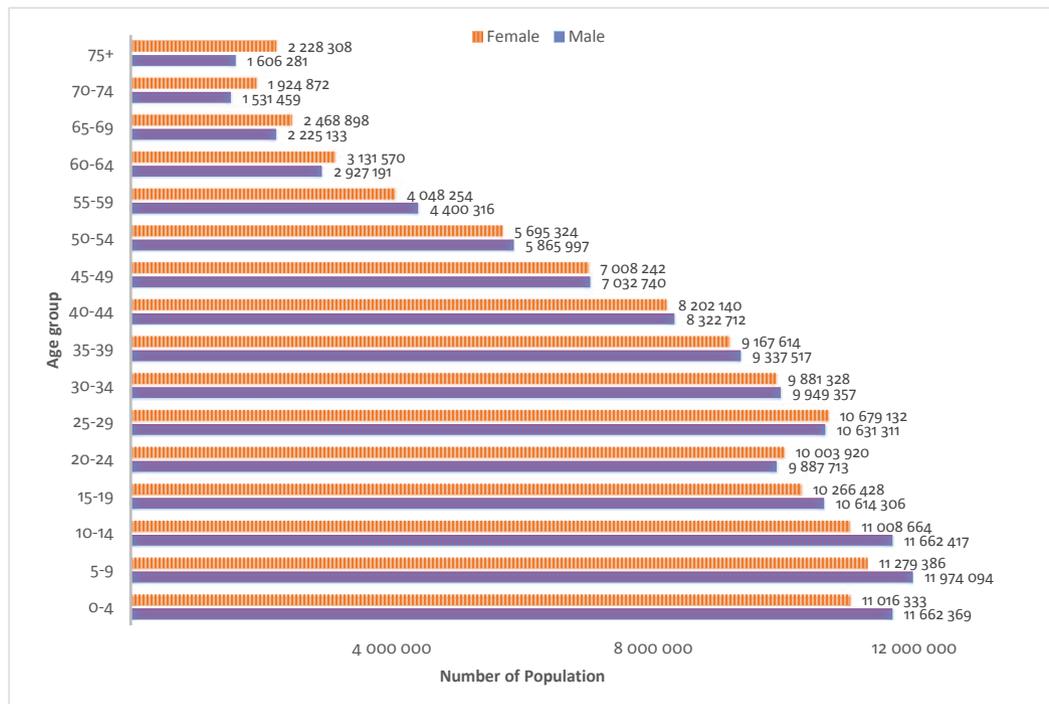
**Number of Population by Age Group and Sex, 2010**

| Age Group    | Male               | Female             | Total              | Sex Ratio   |
|--------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-------------|
| 0-4          | 11 662 369         | 11 016 333         | 22 678 702         | 94.5        |
| 5-9          | 11 974 094         | 11 279 386         | 23 253 480         | 94.2        |
| 10-14        | 11 662 417         | 11 008 664         | 22 671 081         | 94.4        |
| 0-14         | 35 298 880         | 33 304 383         | 68 603 263         | 94.4        |
| 15-19        | 10 614 306         | 10 266 428         | 20 880 734         | 96.7        |
| 20-24        | 9 887 713          | 10 003 920         | 19 891 633         | 101.2       |
| 25-29        | 10 631 311         | 10 679 132         | 21 310 443         | 100.5       |
| 30-34        | 9 949 357          | 9 881 328          | 19 830 685         | 99.3        |
| 35-39        | 9 337 517          | 9 167 614          | 18 505 131         | 98.2        |
| 40-44        | 8 322 712          | 8 202 140          | 16 524 852         | 98.6        |
| 45-49        | 7 032 740          | 7 008 242          | 14 040 982         | 99.7        |
| 50-54        | 5 865 997          | 5 695 324          | 11 561 321         | 97.1        |
| 55-59        | 4 400 316          | 4 048 254          | 8 448 570          | 92.0        |
| 60-64        | 2 927 191          | 3 131 570          | 6 058 761          | 107.0       |
| 15-64        | 78 969 160         | 78 083 952         | 157 053 112        | 99.0        |
| 65-69        | 2 225 133          | 2 468 898          | 4 694 031          | 111.0       |
| 70-74        | 1 531 459          | 1 924 872          | 3 456 331          | 126.0       |
| 75+          | 1 606 281          | 2 228 308          | 3 834 589          | 138.7       |
| 65+          | 5 362 873          | 6 622 078          | 11 984 951         | 123.5       |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>119 630 913</b> | <b>118 010 413</b> | <b>237 641 326</b> | <b>98.7</b> |

Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

**FIGURE 2.1**

**Number of Population by Age Group and Sex, 2010**



Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

It is projected that the dependency ratio will reach its minimum level in the decade of 2020-2030. When that happens, the productive population will have to shoulder a lesser burden (BPS, 2012). Consequently, the resources used to support the current non-productive population will be free, and may be channeled into funding for development. If the potential of the productive population, male and female, can be optimized, more funding can be made available for development. The economic benefit generated from this demographic shift is called the demographic dividend.

Based on the age composition of the population presented in Table 2.1, population aged 0-4 years, 5-9 years and 10-14 years will enter productive age group in the decade 2020-2030. Looking at the sex ratio of those three age groups, assuming that mortality and migration are similar, the increase in potential of the productive population, especially of the female population, will become an important issue.



TABLE 2.2

## Number of Population by Age and Sex, 2000 and 1990

| Age Group    | 2000               |                    |                    |              | 1990              |                   |                    |             |
|--------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------|-------------------|-------------------|--------------------|-------------|
|              | Male               | Female             | Male + Female      | Sex ratio    | Male              | Female            | Male + Female      | Sex ratio   |
| 0 - 4        | 10 295 701         | 10 006 675         | 20 302 376         | 102.9        | 10 760 859        | 10 224 285        | 20 985 144         | 105.2       |
| 5 - 9        | 10 433 865         | 10 060 226         | 20 494 091         | 103.7        | 11 928 095        | 11 294 963        | 23 223 058         | 105.6       |
| 10 - 14      | 10 460 908         | 9 992 824          | 20 453 732         | 104.7        | 11 044 127        | 10 438 014        | 21 482 141         | 105.8       |
| 0 - 14       | 31 190 474         | 30 059 725         | 61 250 199         | 103.8        | 33 733 081        | 31 957 262        | 65 690 343         | 105.6       |
| 15 - 19      | 10 649 348         | 10 500 169         | 21 149 517         | 101.4        | 9 520 440         | 9 406 543         | 18 926 983         | 101.2       |
| 20 - 24      | 9 237 464          | 10 020 637         | 19 258 101         | 92.2         | 7 583 305         | 8 545 057         | 16 128 362         | 88.7        |
| 25 - 29      | 9 130 504          | 9 510 433          | 18 640 937         | 96.0         | 7 457 150         | 8 166 380         | 15 623 530         | 91.3        |
| 30 - 34      | 8 204 302          | 8 195 418          | 16 399 720         | 100.1        | 6 584 325         | 6 661 469         | 13 245 794         | 98.8        |
| 35 - 39      | 7 432 840          | 7 471 386          | 14 904 226         | 99.5         | 5 788 441         | 5 395 776         | 11 184 217         | 107.3       |
| 40 - 44      | 6 433 438          | 6 034 410          | 12 467 848         | 106.6        | 4 010 254         | 4 071 381         | 8 081 635          | 98.5        |
| 45 - 49      | 5 087 252          | 4 568 753          | 9 656 005          | 111.3        | 3 723 922         | 3 841 742         | 7 565 664          | 96.9        |
| 50 - 54      | 3 791 185          | 3 593 783          | 7 384 968          | 105.5        | 3 289 190         | 3 398 396         | 6 687 586          | 96.8        |
| 55 - 59      | 2 883 226          | 2 795 438          | 5 678 664          | 103.1        | 2 321 621         | 2 510 076         | 4 831 697          | 92.5        |
| 60 - 64      | 2 597 076          | 2 723 943          | 5 321 019          | 95.3         | 2 219 069         | 2 307 382         | 4 526 451          | 96.2        |
| 15 - 64      | 65 446 635         | 65 414 370         | 130 861 005        | 100.0        | 52 497 717        | 54 304 202        | 106 801 919        | 96.7        |
| 65 - 69      | 1 666 191          | 1 898 735          | 3 564 926          | 87.8         | 1 329 162         | 1 420 562         | 2 749 724          | 93.6        |
| 70 - 74      | 1 368 190          | 1 468 847          | 2 837 037          | 93.1         | 945 876           | 1 083 150         | 2 029 026          | 87.3        |
| 75 +         | 1 257 526          | 1 459 459          | 2 716 985          | 86.2         | 867 636           | 1 104 720         | 1 972 356          | 78.5        |
| 65+          | 4 291 907          | 4 827 041          | 9 118 948          | 88.9         | 3 142 674         | 3 608 432         | 6 751 106          | 87.1        |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>100 929 016</b> | <b>100 301 136</b> | <b>201 230 152</b> | <b>100.6</b> | <b>89 373 472</b> | <b>89 869 896</b> | <b>179 243 368</b> | <b>99.4</b> |

Source: Derived from 2000 Population Census (BPS, 2002) and 1990 Population Census (BPS, 1992)

Looking at the result of the two previous Population Censuses as presented in Table 2.2 we can see that the decreasing trend of the dependency ratio started more than 20 years ago. In 1990 the dependency ratio was still as high as 67.8 percent and then decreased to 53.8 percent in 2000.

### 2.1.1 VARIATIONS IN AGE-SEX COMPOSITION OF THE POPULATION BY PROVINCE

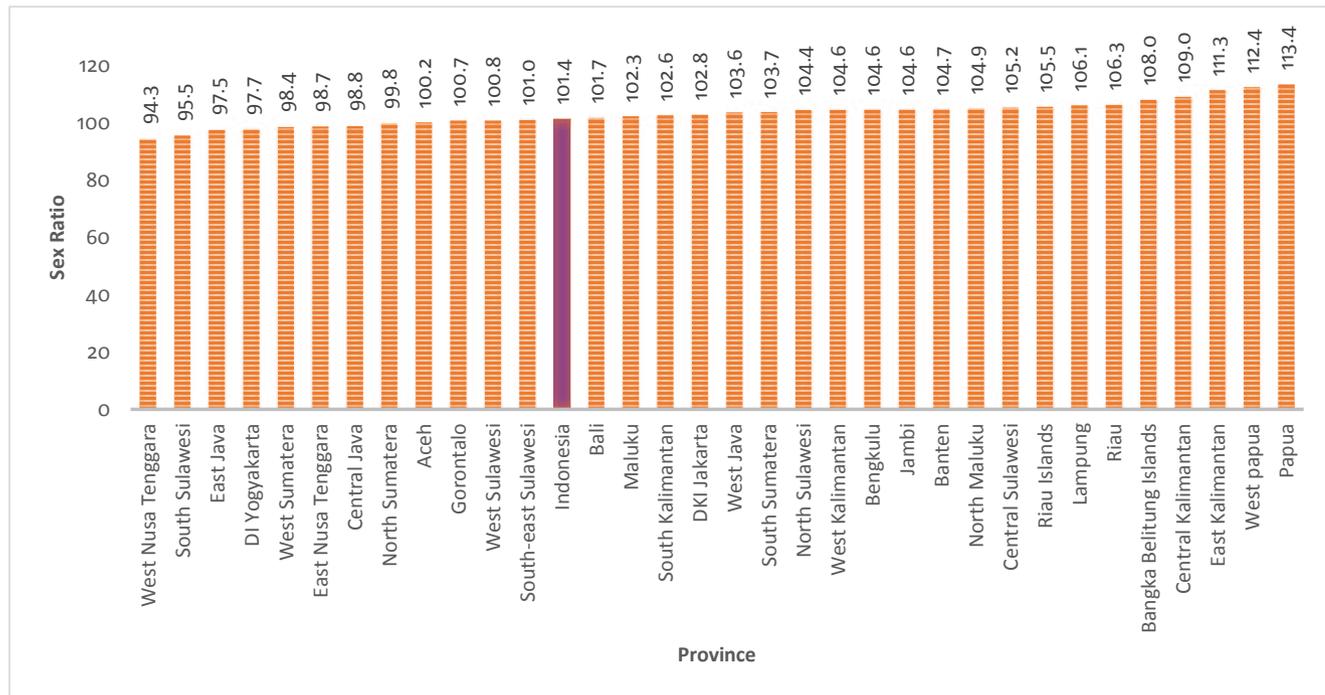
The sex ratio differed across the country (see Figure 2.2). From the lowest to the highest, it ranged from 92.3 percent in NTB province to 113.4 percent in Papua province. In the provinces where out migration was common such as NTB province and West Sumatera province, male migrants left their own provinces to find employment<sup>21</sup> outside the province or through *merantau*.<sup>22</sup> The provinces receiving the migrant workers are

21 In NTB province as well as in other provinces, many of the *Tenaga Kerja Indonesia* (TKI) go to work in other countries not without the consent of the regional Government.

22 *Merantau* is a term common amongst the Minangkabau community of West Sumatera province. *Merantau* means to go out to gain experience in other places to enrich one's knowledge in matters of way of living.

generally slow to advance and relatively sparsely populated. Male migrant workers are usually unaccompanied by family for reasons of lack of social as well as economic facilities, especially in regard to children's educational facilities. Besides NTB, other such provinces were Central Kalimantan, East Kalimantan, Papua and West Papua.

**FIGURE 2.2**  
**Sex Ratio by Province, 2010**



Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

### 2.1.2 GENDER DIFFERENCES IN MARITAL STATUS

Marriage is customarily important in Indonesian society. In 2010, among the population aged 30 years and over, only less than 3.8 percent were not married - 4.5 percent among males and 3 percent among females; and 4.8 percent among the urban population and 2.7 among their counterparts in rural areas.

Two categories of population by marital status could be distinguished (Table 2.3), namely, one where sex ratios are above 100 percent, which includes the group of not yet married whose sex ratio was around 127.4 percent, and the group of currently married with sex ratio of 101.9. The other category of population by marital status consisted of the divorced and widowed groups, with a sex ratio of less than 100 percent (44.5 percent and 19.6 percent, respectively). This means that in the first category, there were fewer females than males. In the second category, females were dominant. The larger number of females in the last category indicates that remarriage was more common among males than females. Even if the husband passes away, as the result of the lower life expectancy at birth for males, the wife is not likely to remarry.

TABLE 2.3

**Percentage of Population Aged 10 Years and Over  
by Marital Status and Sex, 2010**

| Marital Status    | Male | Female | Total | Sex ratio |
|-------------------|------|--------|-------|-----------|
| Not yet married   | 56.0 | 44.0   | 100.0 | 127.4     |
| Currently married | 50.5 | 49.5   | 100.0 | 101.9     |
| Divorced          | 30.8 | 69.2   | 100.0 | 44.5      |
| Widowed           | 16.4 | 83.6   | 100.0 | 19.6      |

Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

## 2.2. Households and Household Heads

Two types of households were distinguished in the 2010 Population census, namely, ordinary households and special households.<sup>23</sup> Special households, which included, among others, dormitories, hostels, residence halls, prisons, hospitals, are characteristically different from ordinary households and therefore, the present monograph excluded them from the analyses. The number of ordinary households, henceforth referred to as households, according to the 2010 Population Census list was 61.2 million units.

“  
*Widowed or divorced  
women are less likely than  
their male counterparts to  
be remarried*  
”

It is decreed by Law regarding marriage that in a family consisting of husband, wife and children, the household head would automatically be the husband<sup>24</sup>. Naturally, not all of the households to be listed in the 2010 PC consisted of only husband, wife and children so that to facilitate enumeration a working definition was used to appoint who among the household members was crowned as the head. The household head was defined

as the one member who was considered responsible for the provision of everyday needs of the household, or in case the criteria is not applicable, one that was regarded as the elder or assigned to become one by the rest of the members, therefore, anyone, a man or a woman could become household head if qualified according to the definition applied.

Table 2.4 shows the composition of household heads based on selected characteristics. According to the 2010 PC results there were 52.6 million of households (84.0 percent) headed by men, while 8.5 million households (14.0 percent) by women. Household heads, both males and females, were almost evenly distributed between urban and rural areas. There were also similar ratio – around 6 – found in those two types of resident, meaning that there were around 6 male heads in seven households. One aspect that seems to be of interest about the household heads was their marital status.

<sup>23</sup> BPS, 2012, Penduduk Hasil SP 2010

<sup>24</sup> Law No1 Year1974 On Marriage, Article 31(3)

Based on the composition in table 2.4, the number of female heads exceed the number of male heads among households headed by widowed and divorced people. Among household heads not yet married, male household-heads numbered more than female. Among household heads that were widowed there were five times more women than men, which might indicate that widowed women are far less likely to be remarried after their spouse has died. The same was also true for the divorced status. This evidence might find its roots in the traditional behavioural setting where bereaved men are likely to remarry by their own initiative or more often at the suggestion from relatives.

**TABLE 2.4**  
**Number of Household Heads by Sex and Other**  
**Background Characteristics, 2010**

| Background Characteristics | Male              | Female           | Male + Female     | Male/Female |
|----------------------------|-------------------|------------------|-------------------|-------------|
| Urban/Rural                |                   |                  |                   |             |
| Urban                      | 25 833 604        | 4 384 850        | 30 218 454        | 5.9         |
| Rural                      | 26 741 219        | 4 145 785        | 30 887 004        | 6.5         |
| Marital Status             |                   |                  |                   |             |
| Not yet married/single     | 1 688 077         | 1 019 130        | 2 707 207         | 1.7         |
| Currently married          | 49 326 502        | 1 226 625        | 50 553 127        | 40.2        |
| Divorced                   | 465 691           | 1 176 279        | 1 641 970         | 0.4         |
| Widowed                    | 1 094 553         | 5 108 601        | 6 203 154         | 0.2         |
| Age group                  |                   |                  |                   |             |
| 10-24                      | 1 861 149         | 656 859          | 2 518 008         | 2.8         |
| 25-59                      | 43 432 061        | 4 762 653        | 48 194 715        | 9.1         |
| 60 +                       | 7 281 613         | 3 111 123        | 10 392 736        | 2.3         |
| Family size                |                   |                  |                   |             |
| 1                          | 1 914 055         | 2 716 552        | 4 630 607         | 0.7         |
| 2                          | 6 540 277         | 2 032 763        | 8 573 040         | 3.2         |
| 3-5                        | 35 340 548        | 3 107 775        | 38 448 323        | 11.4        |
| 6-8                        | 7 855 475         | 568 655          | 8 424 130         | 13.8        |
| 9+                         | 924 468           | 104 890          | 1 029 358         | 8.8         |
| <b>Total</b>               | <b>52 574 823</b> | <b>8 530 635</b> | <b>61 105 458</b> | <b>6.2</b>  |

Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

When age was put into consideration, Table 2.4 shows that households were dominated by adult (aged 25-59 years) heads of house, both male and female. However, among the female household heads, there was relatively more youth (around 0.7 million out of 8.5 million or 8.2 percent) than among male household heads (around 1.9 million out of 52.6 million or 3.6 percent). The same was true for households headed by old people. Among female household heads there was a greater percentage of old women (around



3.1 million out of 8.5 million or 36.5 percent) than the percentage of old male household heads (around 7.3 million out of 52.6 million or 13.9 percent), but in absolute numbers old male household heads exceed the number of old female household heads.

The average household size of women headed households was less than that headed by men, but their value ranges between three and four.<sup>25</sup> The smaller size of women headed households might have resulted from the fact that the former male household head had died or left.

When welfare level was put into consideration, BPS (2013) found that among the rich female household heads (20 percent highest income) 21 percent were not yet married. This figure far exceeded the corresponding percentage for men, which was only one third of the female figure. The figure for the above group of women was much higher in urban areas (28.65 percent) than in rural areas (5.25 percent). Meanwhile, among the group with the lowest income (lowest 40 percent) and the middle income class (middle 40 percent) the percentage of the divorced women was not too different between rural/urban. The same was true for widowed women household heads.

For many years the Government has given special attention to vulnerable groups, including household headed by females. The Ministry of Women's Empowerment and Child Protection together with BPS regularly produce publications on gender issues covering female headed households from SUSENAS data. Using the SUSENAS sampling

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25 BPS (2013) SUSENAS 2012

method, the relatively smaller number of female household heads compared to male household heads, however, will result in a limited number of cases analyzed especially at local level. The 2010 Population Census listed more than eight million female headed households from which better estimates can be produced.

### 2.2.1 FIRST MARRIAGE

Traditionally a household was deemed to have formed when a man and a woman married. As time advance the household would grow through the presence of children and/or other household members who might join at a later date. It is customary that, within a household there existed, among others, an emotional relationship between its members, tied together in harmonious interaction and comfortable communication.<sup>26</sup> Although the unit of analysis of the 2010 Population Census was not family but a household where blood relationship was not considered, it was deemed important to state that marriage was usually at the core of the household. Early marriage occurs often in Indonesia, especially in rural areas. As has been stated previously although a girl cannot legally marry before the age of 16, many below that age were still recorded as married.<sup>27</sup>

“  
*Younger female generations,  
especially those residing in urban  
areas, tend to marry later than  
their predecessors*  
”

Information on marital status of population was asked in the 2010 Population Census, making it possible for us to estimate singulate-mean age at marriage (SMAM). Based on 2010 Population Census results, the SMAM for male was 25.7 years, which was older than for female (22.3 years).<sup>28</sup> More important measure used to illustrate aggregate data of marriage age of the population, among others, is median age at first marriage. Median age at first marriage is the age that lies in the middle of the range of ages below which 50 percent of women and men belonging to a certain group

got married, while the other 50 percent got married at the age above it. Median is used more often than mean as a central measure because unlike mean, median value is not affected by extreme values. Unfortunately, unlike the 1990 Population Census, the 2010 Population Census did not cover the question on individual age at first marriage; the recent information presented below will supplement the limited information gathered in 2010 Population Census.

BPS et al. (2013) through IDHS 2012 found that the positive trend of the median age at first marriage of ever-married women age 25-45 years. The figure in Table 2.5 shows that the median has an increasing trend for the younger cohorts. In 1991 the median age of marriage was 17.1 years and slowly increased to 20.1 years in the year of 2012. It has been mentioned previously that one of the factors responsible for the increase of women's age at first marriage was the increased education level.

<sup>26</sup> Herien Puspitawati (2012) Gender dan Keluarga: Konsep dan Realita Di Indonesia, p.621.

<sup>27</sup> Law No.1/1974 On Marriage, Article 7

<sup>28</sup> Calculated by Sub-Directorate of Demographic Statistics, BPS.

**TABLE 2.5:**

**Percentage of Ever Married Women by Age at First Marriage and Urban/Rural, 2013**

| Age at First Marriage | Urban        | Rural        | Total        |
|-----------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| <15 years             | 8.4          | 13.4         | 11.0         |
| 16-18 years           | 26.3         | 37.7         | 32.2         |
| 19-24 years           | 48.0         | 40.2         | 44.0         |
| >=25 years            | 17.3         | 8.7          | 12.9         |
| <b>Total</b>          | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> |

Source: Derived from 2013 SUSENAS (BPS, 2014)

The 2013 SUSENAS (BPS, 2014) in which information was gathered from ever-married women found that more than 11 percent of the group were first married at the age younger than 15 years. Moreover, it was found that more than 32.2 percent of the group member had been married for the first time at an un-recommended age from reproductive health point of view, which is 20 years for girls.<sup>29</sup>

Table 2.5 presents the complete data on the percentage of ever-married women by age at first marriage and urban/rural types. The table indicates that in 2013 women residing in urban areas married later than their counterparts in rural areas. It is shown there that in the urban areas ever-married women whose age at first marriage was 19 years was 48 percent, with marriage at an older age only 17.3 percent. In the rural areas the figures were 40.2 percent and 8.7 percent, respectively.

The fact that men have been exposed to education for a longer period of time than women is represented by the fact that their education achievements are higher than that of women. This has impacted on the median age of first marriage. For men, the median age of first marriage was as high as 22-23 years for those with lower education and 23-24 years for the group whose education was middle level or higher.

*“  
Younger female generations  
are refraining from sexual  
relationships longer than their  
older predecessors  
”*

Table 2.6 shows that there are large variation between the median age at first marriage of the population aged 25-49 years whether disaggregated by sex, Urban/Rural, educational level, or welfare status. For all of the variables mentioned, the male median age at first marriage was higher than that of females. In urban areas women married later than their rural counterparts. There was a positive relationship between the age at first marriage for both

males and females and their education level. The higher the education, the later the age at first marriage. A positive relationship was also found between their income level and their age of marriage.

<sup>29</sup> Law No. 10/1992, On Population Growth and Family Welfare Development.

TABLE 2.6:

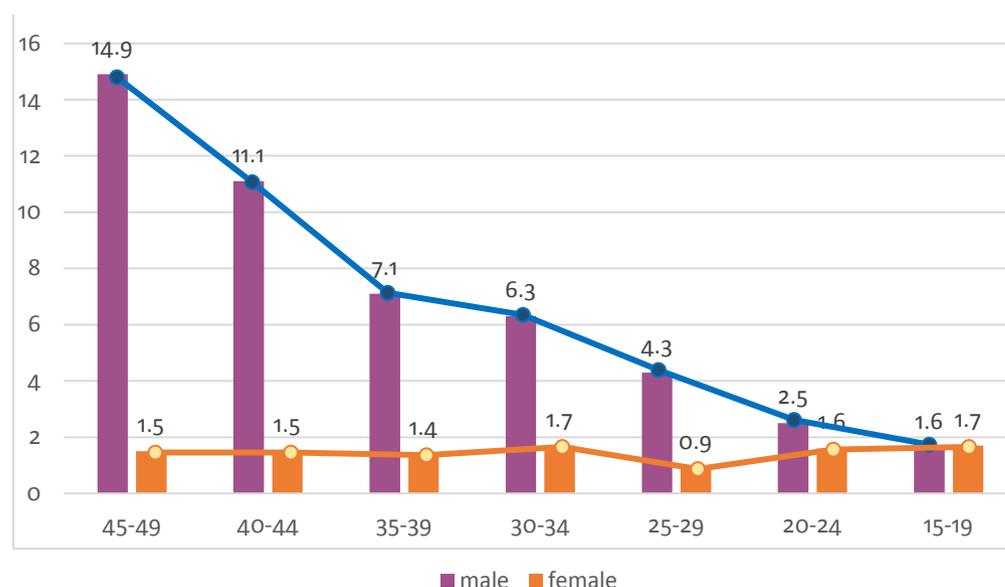
**Median Age at First Marriage by Background Characteristics, 2012**

| Selected Characteristics     | Ever-married women aged 25-49 | Married men aged 25-49 |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------|
| Urban/Rural                  |                               |                        |
| Urban                        | 21.2                          | a                      |
| Rural                        | 19.0                          | 23.4                   |
| Educational Attainment       |                               |                        |
| No schooling                 | 17.0                          | 21.8                   |
| Some primary school          | 17.3                          | 21.9                   |
| Primary school               | 18.3                          | 23.0                   |
| Some high school             | 19.6                          | 23.8                   |
| Senior high school or higher | 22.6                          | a                      |
| Welfare Status               |                               |                        |
| Lowest                       | 18.9                          | 23.4                   |
| Middle low                   | 19.2                          | 23.7                   |
| Middle                       | 19.5                          | 23.7                   |
| Middle high                  | 20.4                          | 24.6                   |
| Highest                      | 22.2                          | a                      |
| <b>Total</b>                 | <b>20.1</b>                   | <b>24.3</b>            |

Source: 2012 IDHS (BPS et al., 2013)

Indonesia is a predominantly Muslim country and it is Muslim custom that a person's first sexual relationship would correspond to the time at which they marry. In such a case, age at first marriage can also be used as an early indicator for a girl's likelihood of falling pregnant. In a society where most women first married at young ages, the birth rate would be higher than in one whose age at first marriage was higher. In Indonesia, most women give birth after marriage. Thus, knowing the trend of age at first marriage is very important when examining fertility changes in a certain area (BPS, et al., 2013). Figure 2.3 illustrates the percentages of each group of males and females conducting their first sexual relationship at different ages. The young cohort can be assumed as representing current behavior and older cohorts as representing past behavior. The figure shows that the percentage of women in early sexual relationships was high in people of older age but diminishing for younger people, while the percentage change for males of each age group was not significant. The figure also shows that male and female sexual behavior among the young people was largely indistinguishable.

**FIGURE 2.3:**  
**Percentage of First Sexual Intercourse at an Early Age (15 Years Old)**  
**by Age Group and Sex, 2012**



Source: 2012 IDHS (BPS et al., 2013)

## 2.2.2 FERTILITY

By collecting data on the number of children ever born and the number of children surviving in the 2010 Population Census, BPS can provide information on fertility. Table 2.7 shows the average number of children born to ever-married women (known as age-specific fertility rate), summarized from the results of the 2010 Population Census, broken down by age group and urban/rural. The table shows that the age specific fertility rates were always larger in rural areas than that of the urban areas. Until the age of 59 years, the average number of children born to rural women was 0.3 persons larger than that of urban women. The average number of children born to women age 15-49 years is known as total fertility rate.

**TABLE 2.7**  
**Average Number of Children Ever Born to Ever-**  
**Married Women by Age Group and Urban/Rural, 2010**

| Age Group    | Urban      | Rural      | Total      |
|--------------|------------|------------|------------|
| 10-14        | 0.03       | 0.06       | 0.04       |
| 15-19        | 0.4        | 0.5        | 0.4        |
| 20-24        | 0.8        | 1.0        | 0.9        |
| 25-29        | 1.3        | 1.5        | 1.4        |
| 30-34        | 1.9        | 2.2        | 2.0        |
| 35-39        | 2.4        | 2.7        | 2.6        |
| 40-44        | 2.8        | 3.9        | 2.9        |
| 45-49        | 3.1        | 3.4        | 3.2        |
| 50-54        | 3.3        | 3.6        | 3.5        |
| 55-59        | 3.9        | 4.1        | 4.0        |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>2.5</b> | <b>2.8</b> | <b>2.6</b> |

Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

Total fertility rate (TFR) is defined as the average number of children that would be born to women if they were to live to the end of their child bearing age and all experience the same age-specific fertility rates for a specified time period. Based on the results of 2010 Population Census, it was estimated that TFR in Indonesia was 2.4 persons (BPS, 2012). In 2012, TFR derived from IDHS/SDKI was slightly higher than that of 2010 Population Census, i.e. 2.6 persons. The figure varied according to women's background characteristics such as urban/rural category, education level, and welfare level (Table 2.8).

Table 2.10 shows that rural women have slightly more children than that of urban women - TFR for rural was 2.8 persons, while for urban women the figure was 2.4 persons. There was a strong negative relationship between TFR and welfare status. Women belonging to the lowest welfare group would bear 3.2 children until the end of their child bearing age, while their counterparts in the highest welfare group would only bear 2.2 children.

The relationship between TFR and education as shown in the table, is not very strong, however there was an indicative sign that highest education could promote less number of children ever born. The average number of children born to the highest educated women group was estimated around 2.4 persons, while the figure reached 3.0 persons for primary school graduates and 2.8 persons for those who never go to school. TFR also varied across provinces (Figure 2.4). In 2012, the low rates (lower than national rate) only occurred in Java, Bali and three other provinces. The range of TFR was between 2.1 persons (DI Yogyakarta) and 3.7 persons (West Papua). It is unlikely a coincidence that four out of five provinces having the lowest rate of contraceptive use are among the five provinces which have the highest TFR.

**TABLE 2.8**

**Total Fertility Rate by Background Characteristics, 2012**

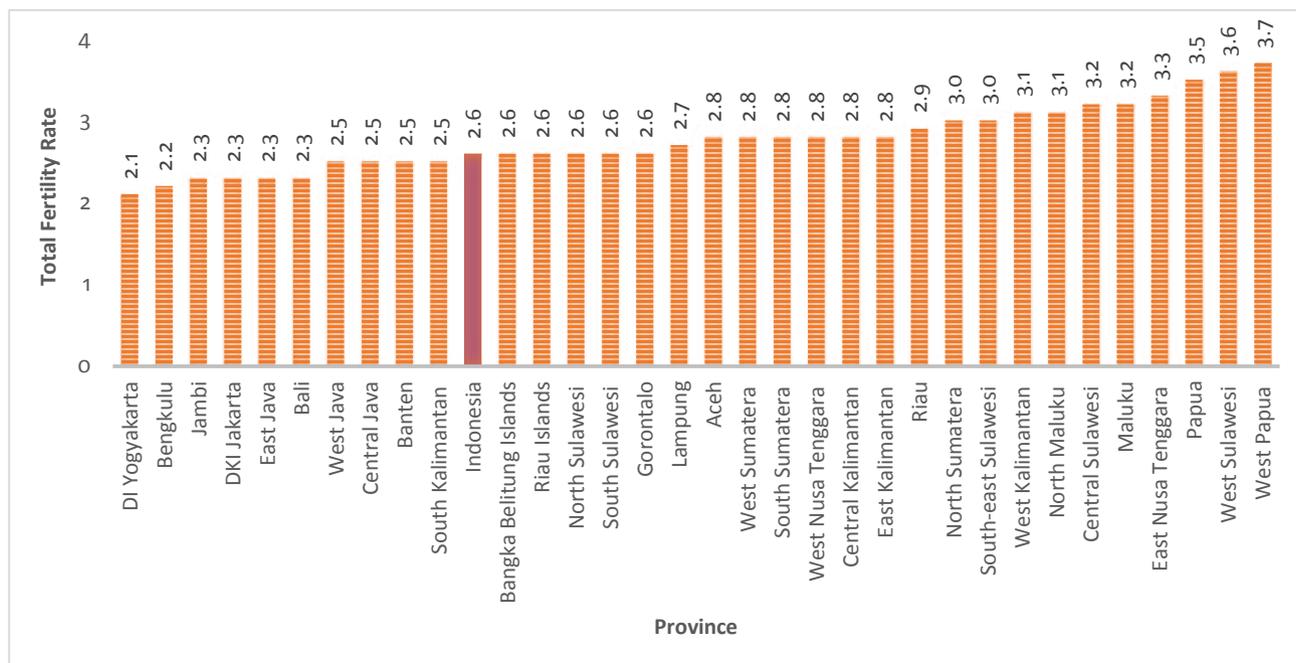
| Background Characteristics | Total Fertility Rate |
|----------------------------|----------------------|
| Urban/Rural                |                      |
| Urban                      | 2.4                  |
| Rural                      | 2.8                  |
| Educational Attainment     |                      |
| No schooling               | 2.8                  |
| Some primary school        | 3.0                  |
| Primary school             | 2.9                  |
| Some high school           | 2.6                  |
| Senior high school         | 2.7                  |
| Diploma or higher          | 2.4                  |

| Background Characteristics | Total Fertility Rate |
|----------------------------|----------------------|
| Welfare Status             |                      |
| Lowest                     | 3.2                  |
| Middle low                 | 2.7                  |
| Middle                     | 2.5                  |
| Middle high                | 2.4                  |
| Highest                    | 2.2                  |
| <b>Total</b>               | <b>2.6</b>           |

Source: 2012 IDHS (BPS et al., 2013)

FIGURE 2.4

Total Fertility Rate by Province, 2012



Source: 2012 IDHS (BPS et al., 2013)

Women who get married at young ages are likely to be sexually active at a young age, so that if they are unprotected by contraceptive devices they will soon get pregnant and give birth. The information regarding median age at first childbirth was acquired from women aged 25-49 years through IDHS/SDKI 2012 (BPS, et al., 2013). Median age at first childbirth is influenced by a few background characteristics, such as type of residential area, education and welfare status.

Based on the results of the survey, in 2012 the median age at first childbirth was 22 years. The figure differed between various groups, though not by a huge amount (see Table 2.9). In the urban areas, women give birth later than women in rural areas. The range within various educational levels was from 19.3 years for those having some primary school level, and 24.2 years for senior high school graduates or higher. Among the welfare groups the figure ranged from 21 years for the lowest status to 24.1 years for the highest level.

TABLE 2.9

Median Age at First Birth by Background Characteristics, 2012

| Selected Characteristics | Median Age at First Birth |
|--------------------------|---------------------------|
| Urban/Rural              |                           |
| Urban                    | 23.0                      |
| Rural                    | 21.0                      |
| Educational Attainment   |                           |
| No schooling             | 19.4                      |
| Some primary school      | 19.3                      |
| Primary school           | 20.3                      |
| Some high school         | 21.3                      |
| Senior high school       | 24.2                      |
| Welfare Status           |                           |
| Lowest                   | 21.0                      |
| Middle low               | 21.2                      |
| Middle                   | 21.4                      |
| Middle high              | 22.2                      |
| Highest                  | 24.1                      |
| <b>Total</b>             | <b>22.0</b>               |

Source: 2012 IDHS (BPS et al., 2013)

## 2.2.3 CONTRACEPTIVE METHOD/USE

“

*Few contraceptive users are men*

”

The number of children ever born to women at childbearing age is very much related to the use of contraception. The 2010 Population Census did not collect information on contraceptive use because it is considered taboo for census interviewers, who are usually male, to ask about contraception to female respondents. To present more fertility-related information, it is considered worthwhile to utilize IDHS, in which most interviewers were female.

Based on IDHS 2012 results (BPS et al., 2013), there were variations on the use of family planning method/devices among currently married women across certain background characteristics, except for residential types, where there was a similarity. The results indicated that there was almost no difference in accessibility of contraceptive methods/devices between urban and rural. Table 2.10 shows the similarity of contraceptive prevalence rate in the two types of residence. More than 60 percent of the total of currently married women were using any method contraceptives, while most of them were using a modern method (57.9 percent of the total). Broken down by user's education, it is shown in the table that a high percentage of users of family planning methods/devices were moderately educated: primary school, some high school and senior high school. By welfare status, the middle and lowest income groups were the more frequent users.

**TABLE 2.10:**

### **Contraceptive Prevalence Rate among Currently Married Women by Background Characteristics and Method, 2012**

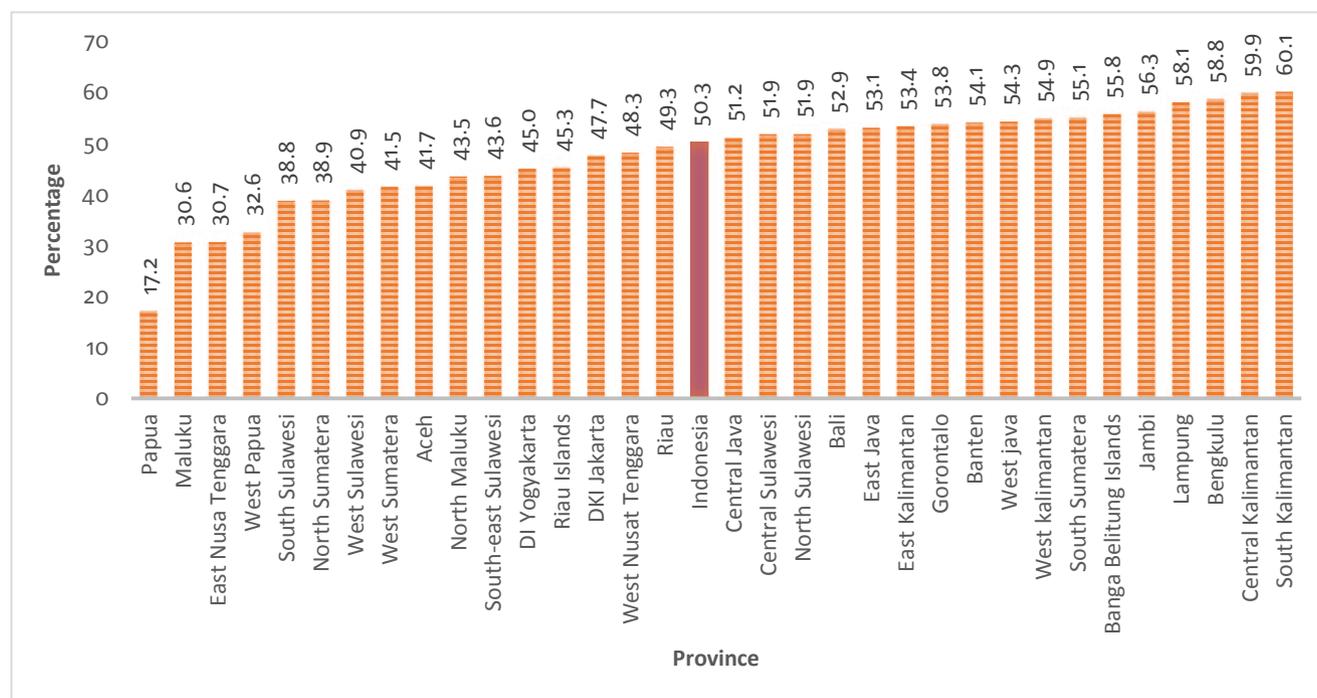
| Selected Characteristics | Any Method  | Any Modern Method |
|--------------------------|-------------|-------------------|
| Urban/Rural              |             |                   |
| Urban                    | 62.1        | 57.0              |
| Rural                    | 61.6        | 58.7              |
| Educational Attainment   |             |                   |
| No schooling             | 43.4        | 41.8              |
| Some primary school      | 53.4        | 50.8              |
| Primary school           | 65.7        | 63.7              |
| Some high school         | 67.4        | 63.9              |
| Senior high school       | 61.8        | 56.2              |
| Diploma or higher        | 55.8        | 46.6              |
| Welfare Status           |             |                   |
| Lowest                   | 56.2        | 53.0              |
| Middle low               | 64.3        | 61.4              |
| Middle                   | 63.9        | 60.2              |
| Middle high              | 63.0        | 58.7              |
| Highest                  | 61.3        | 55.4              |
| <b>Total</b>             | <b>61.9</b> | <b>57.9</b>       |

Source: 2012 IDHS (BPS et al., 2013)

The gender gap among contraceptive users should be very pronounced if they were broken down by sex; it could be identified from the methods/devices used. The suitable methods/devices made available for men are vasectomy and condoms. It appeared that in 2012 only few acceptors were men - less than 1 percent of the total acceptors chose vasectomy and less than 2 percent chose to use condoms (BPS et al., 2013).

**FIGURE 2.5:**

**Contraceptive Prevalence Rate (CPR) of Married Women Aged 15-49 Years (Modern Methods) by Province, 2012**



Source: Derived from the 2012 IDHS (BPS et al., 2013).

IDHS results on modern methods contraception used by currently married women broken down by province is presented in Figure 2.5. The CPR range was very wide, from 19.1 percent (Papua) to 66.4 percent (South Kalimantan). Five provinces with the lowest rate were Papua, East Nusa Tenggara (NTB), Maluku, West Papua and North Sumatera.

**2.2.4 DWELLING CONDITION**

Comparing the results of the 2000 Population Census<sup>30</sup> and 2010 Population Census, there has been quite a substantial increase in terms of the number of households in Indonesia between 2000 and 2010. While in 2000, it was found that there were 51 million households, in 2010 the number had increased to 61.2 million - an increase of about 10.2 million units or about 20 percent. Among the total number of households, there were approximately 6.2 million female-headed households (FHH), or 12.2 percent of the total number, in 2000. In 2010, this number increased to 8.5 million

<sup>30</sup> BPS (2012) Population of Indonesia, Result of The 2000 Population Census, Series L2.2.

“  
*Inferior dwelling units were more common in female than male headed households*  
 ”

units or 14 percent. This means that the number of the FHH alone increased by 23.2 million units or 37.2 percent, larger than the percentage increase of total households (since the increase in the number of male-headed households (MHH) was only 17.6 percent).

To reach the 2000 level of housing sufficiency, the Government must build an additional 10.2 million dwelling units, otherwise some of the new households would have to continue to operate with lower sufficiency. In 2010, the condition of FHH is described as follows.

**TABLE 2.11:**  
**Percentage of Dwelling Units by Characteristics, Urban/Rural and Sex of Household Heads, 2010**

| Dwelling Unit's Characteristics                                      | Urban |        |                      | Rural |        |                      |
|--|-------|--------|----------------------|-------|--------|----------------------|
|  | Male  | Female | Gender Parity Index* | Male  | Female | Gender Parity Index* |
| Soil/ground floor and others   | 3.7   | 5.5    | 148.6                | 16.4  | 21.7   | 132.1                |
| Floor area <30 m2  | 18.1  | 26.0   | 143.9                | 12.0  | 16.5   | 138.1                |
| No electricity for lighting  | 0.7   | 1.1    | 145.2                | 11.3  | 11.4   | 101.6                |
| Wood, charcoal and other for cooking                                 | 13.7  | 18.9   | 132.5                | 65.7  | 71.9   | 109.4                |
| Unprotected well/spring, river, rain water and other source of water | 6.1   | 6.3    | 104.0                | 27.0  | 25.9   | 96.0                 |
| No toilet facility   | 8.0   | 9.7    | 121.9                | 28.7  | 33.6   | 117.1                |
| No telephone   | 13.4  | 24.8   | 185.4                | 35.3  | 55.5   | 157.2                |
| No access to internet  | 77.4  | 76.8   | 99.2                 | 92.5  | 94.4   | 102.0                |
| Not having dwelling unit   | 31.9  | 33.1   | 103.9                | 13.0  | 11.0   | 84.7                 |
| No certificate of own dwelling units                                 | 17.2  | 17.8   | 99.7                 | 37.7  | 38.4   | 101.9                |

\*The Institute for Statistics of UNESCO also uses a more general definition of GPI: for any development indicator one can define the GPI relative to this indicator by dividing its value for females by its value for males (Koronkiewicz,2008)

Source: Derived from the 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

In Indonesia, a housing unit may be inhabited by one or more households. The part of the house used by a household is termed the dwelling unit. The area of the dwelling unit is made up of the space of the house occupied by the household, plus the area shared with other households, if any. In addition to information on floor material and floor area in residential buildings collected in the 2010 Population Census, other information includes the amenities installed in a home such as lighting facility, drinking water, fuel for cooking, toilet facilities, excreta disposal and the like. In addition, the 2010 Population Census also included communication facilities, such as telephone and Internet, as well as housing unit ownership.

The categorized items in Table 2.11 represent shortcomings in basic housing needs for households, with the corresponding urban and rural household percentages showing the lack of house materials and facilities in what may be considered as a non-monetary measure of poverty.

Comparing the proportion of MHHs and FHHs, FHHs are found to be poorer than MHHs. Generally, this percentage difference showed up in both the urban and rural areas. However, exceptions did exist. First, the percentage of FHHs appeared smaller than that of MHHs for access to Internet (GPI=99.1 percent) and home ownership without certificate (GPI=99.7 percent), in urban areas, although the difference was very insignificant. In terms of water facilities in rural areas, the percentage of FHHs was smaller than for MHHs, although the GPI was only 96 percent. Also for the component “not having dwelling unit”, it was found that the FHH percentage in rural areas was smaller than MHHs with a GPI of 84.7 percent. Overall, it could be concluded that based on the dwelling unit condition and home facilities, FHHs were poorer than MHHs and urban households are richer than rural households.

## 2.2.5 ECONOMIC STATUS

“  
*Female-headed households  
were poorer than those  
headed by males*  
”

The materials used to construct the dwelling units, the floor area occupied, and the kinds of facilities available within the dwelling unit can be used as a proxy measure of the wellbeing of the household. These indicators may be used as non-monetary measures of household economic status. BPS has used this as a tool to help the Government identify those who would be considered poor and in turn eligible for economic assistance. The composite index used at that time was a combination of 14 items of information on three

aspects of dwelling units, i.e. house materials, convenience facilities acquired, and the ownership of valuable items.<sup>31</sup> Suharyanto (2007) also used a non-monetary measure to identify poor agricultural households using the returns of the 2003 Agricultural Census.<sup>32</sup> Similarly, the 2010 Population Census results could also be arranged in such a way as to obtain a picture of the negative characteristics of the existing dwelling units at that time (Table 5.8).

Unlike the enumeration exercise conducted on poor people as decreed by the Presidential Instruction No. 12/2005 and the estimation of the number of poor agricultural households using the 2003 Agricultural Census results, both of which have been made available in the household database, this monograph attempts to present an analysis of the data obtained from publication and it is not calculated from raw data. By combining the percentage values of the 10 components included in the worst

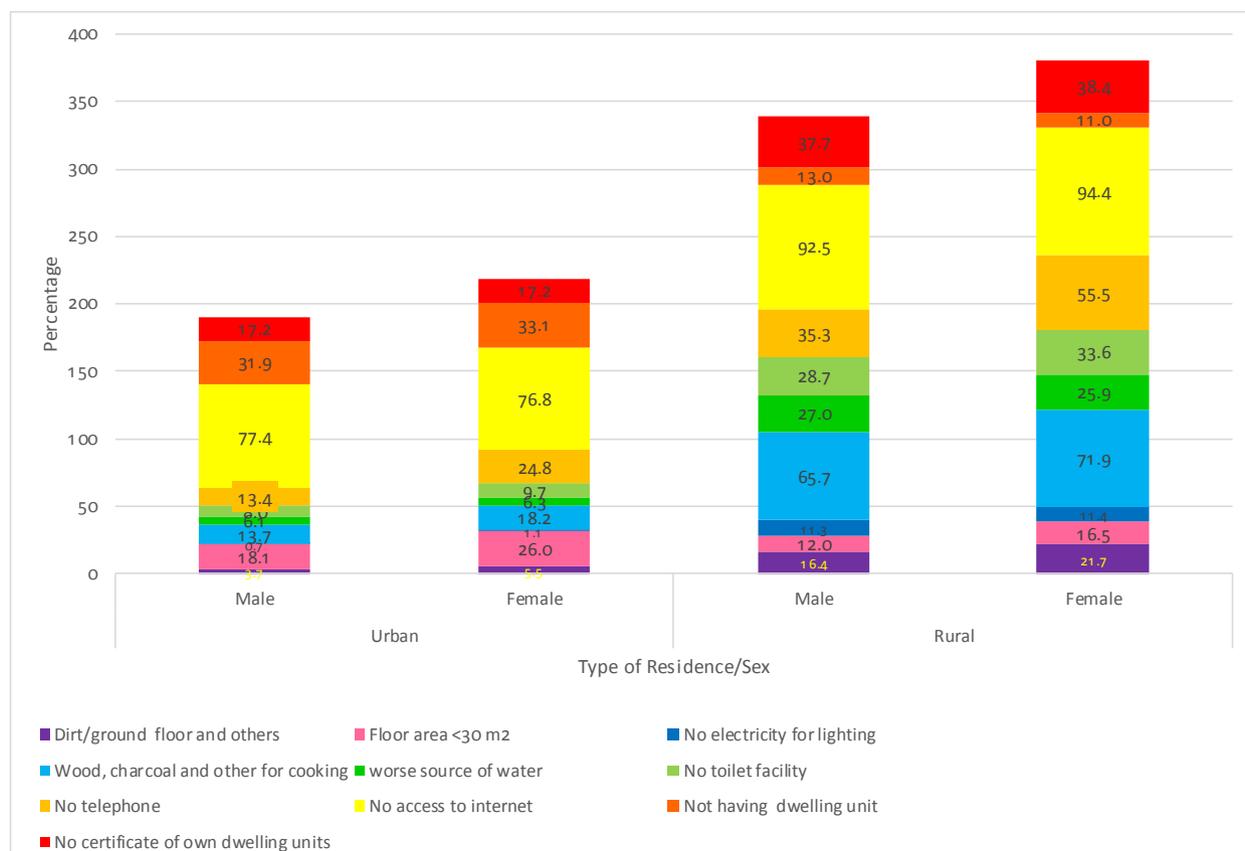
31 Badan Pusat Statistik, 2006, Pendataan Sosial Ekonomi 2005: Uraian Kegiatan dalam Rangka Pendataaa Rumah Tangga Miskin menurut Inpres 12/2005. BPS, Jakarta, 2006.

32 Suharyanto , 2007, Memantau Tingkat Kemiskinan di Perdesaan dengan Indikator dari Sensus Pertanian 2003.

category of housing, a diagrammatic analysis of poverty might be derived. Figure 2.6 shows that in ordinal sense, the percentage of rural poor households is larger than that of urban households and poor FHHs are greater in number than poor MHHs.

**FIGURE 2.6:**

**Ordinal Comparison of Poor Households by Urban/Rural and Sex of Household Head, 2010**



Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

## 2.3 Population Ageing

Population ageing refers to the increasing proportion of older persons in a country's total population. The Population Census 2010 found that 18.1 million or 7.6 percent of Indonesia's total population is 60+.<sup>33</sup> That the numbers of people joining the older-age cohorts are projected to increase over the coming years indicates that the country will experience a continued trend in population ageing in the coming decades. By 2025, the country is projected to have 33.7 million people age 60+ which accounts for 11.8 percent of its total population; and by 2035, the figure will rise to 48.2 million or 15.8 percent.<sup>34</sup> Because a greater proportion of the country's total population will live past 60+ years, it is expected that the dependency ratio, which stands at 13 working adults per one older person in 2010, will decline to 6.4 working adults per one older person in 2035.<sup>35</sup>

<sup>33</sup> Mujahid (2015)

<sup>34</sup> Ibid

<sup>35</sup> Ibid



### 2.3.1 FEMINIZATION OF AGEING

As in the rest of the world, older women in Indonesia have an obvious demographic advantage as they tend to live longer than men. According to the Gender Development Index, based on the sex-disaggregated Human Development Index documented in the 2014 Human Development Report, life expectancy at birth was 72.9 years for females and 68.8 years for males.<sup>36</sup> But not only are Indonesians living longer, larger proportions are joining the young-old cohorts, thereby lending to the country's ageing population.

According to the 2010 Population Census, 54 percent of Indonesia's population 60 years and above consists of women. While there are greater numbers of males in the younger age cohorts, starting from birth where the sex ratio has been recorded at 105.86, the older age cohorts consist of more women than men. For example, in the age cohort of 60-64, there are 93.5 men to 100 women. Women's demographic advantage continues into the later age cohorts starting from the age cohort of 60 years and above with the proportion of females remaining is consistently higher than the proportion of males because of women's longer life expectancy.

The pattern is slightly different in the 2000 Population Census data where females from the age cohorts of 20-39 years appear to have a survival edge over males. The trend in the age cohorts from 40- 59 is a pattern in which the proportion of women to men is in favour of women, and the trend lasts until the 75+ cohort. Curiously, in the age cohort of 70-74 years, there is a larger proportion of men (51.5 percent) compared with women (48.5 percent). This is in stark contrast to the 2010 Population Census data where the gap shows greater numbers of females (55.7 percent) compared with males (44.3 percent).

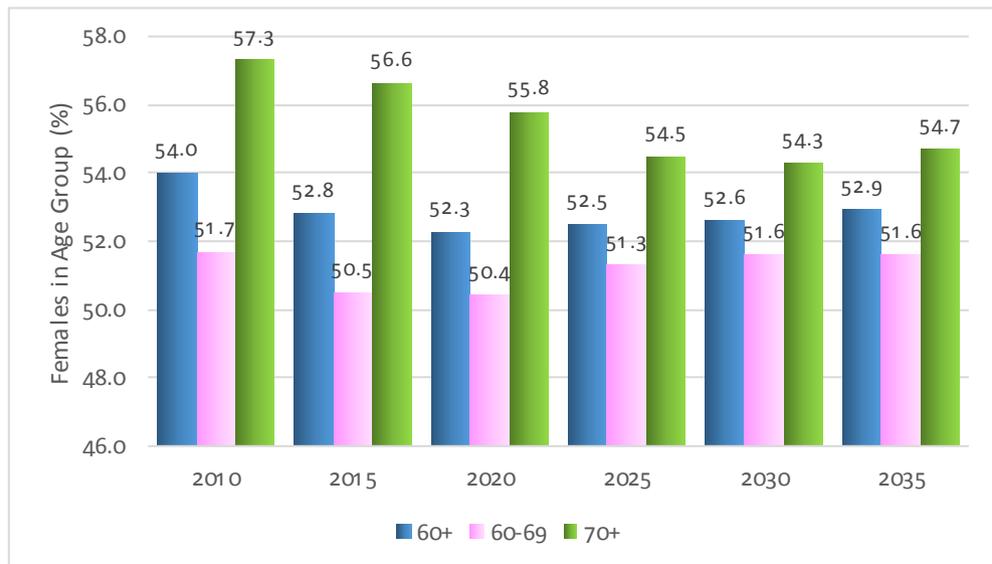
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<sup>36</sup> UNDP (2014) "Indonesia" In Sustaining Human Progress: Reducing Vulnerabilities and Building Resilience Explanatory Note on the 2014 Human Development Report Composite Indices. Accessed:29 August 2015 URL:<[http://hdr.undp.org/sites/all/themes/hdr\\_theme/country-notes/IDN.pdf](http://hdr.undp.org/sites/all/themes/hdr_theme/country-notes/IDN.pdf)

The 1990 Population Census data demonstrates a slightly different trend as compared to the 2000 and 2010 Population Census data in terms of proportion between the sexes of the different age groups. While the trend of a slightly larger proportion of males compared with females in the earlier age cohorts was found, the data for the age cohort 35-39 showed a slightly larger proportion of males to females. Moreover, from the age cohorts 40-44 and above right up to the 75+ age cohort, women have a distinct advantage in terms of sex ratio as their proportion gradually increases until the medium old and oldest old age cohorts.

In fact, projections based on 2010 Population Census data show that this trend will continue in the years to come in that the proportion of females compared with the males in the older population will remain consistently higher in the older cohorts. The proportion of females in the age group 70 years and above will be consistently higher than the age cohort of 60-69 years because of women living longer than men (see Figure 2.7) (cf. UNFPA 2014).

**FIGURE 2.7**  
**Projected Proportion of Females in Indonesia's Older Population, 2010-2035**



Source: Population Projection 2010-2035 (BPS, 2014)

A longer life expectancy compared with men means that women in all the older age groups are expected to live on average longer than men in that same age group. It was also found that in the cohorts 60-64 years and 60-69 years, women's life expectancy exceeds that of men's by 10 percent or more (see Table 2.12). Hence, the phrase "feminization of ageing" means firstly that the number of females exceeds that of males in the older population 60+ and above, while also indicating that older females live longer than their older males.<sup>37</sup>

<sup>37</sup> Kinsella, Kevin (2009) "Global Perspectives on the Demography of Aging". In *The Cultural Context of Aging*, edited by Jay Sokolovsky. Westport, Connecticut: Greenwood Publishing.

### 2.3.2. CAUSES OF FEMINIZATION OF AGEING

The factors for population ageing and feminization of ageing are twofold: the decline in fertility and the decline in mortality. Indonesia has embarked on a successful family planning programme, which steered couples towards smaller family size. Under the family planning programme, there was an increase in usage of modern methods of contraception among married women. With access to quality healthcare services becoming more widely available, life expectancy has gradually increased. As a consequence, Indonesia's age structure has been gradually shifting towards higher age groups with women's numbers being higher in these groups compared with men's.

### 2.3.3. GREATER VULNERABILITY OF WOMEN IN OLD AGE

Feminization of ageing is important for policy makers because it is related to greater vulnerability of the biggest proportion of the elderly, which is women in old age as reported by Sri Moertiningsih Adioetomo and Ghazy Mujahid (2014). The following male-female differentials were identified: (1) the difference of labour force participation rate of population aged 60+ is very high 70 percent for males and 35 percent for females, labor force participation rate of older cohorts is important for financial independence in developing countries; (2) Old females were also left behind in the level of education attainment; 23 percent of old males and 39 percent of old females reported not having any schooling experience; (4) More older women were widowed or divorced (61 percent) and therefore without support, while the figure for older men was lower (16 percent) because they were usually re-married.

Women in Indonesia face greater vulnerabilities than their male counterparts. In old age, these vulnerabilities faced by women become magnified as a result of various factors. Women in old age are more likely to have lost their husbands since women outlive their husbands. In losing their husbands, who would have been their main source of financial support, these women are more likely to become dependent on their children or the state. This dependence is caused because women would not have worked or would have spent fewer years in the labour force because they would have needed to provide care to their families. For most widows of civil servants or army personnel, they have been fortunate to have access to the pensions of their late husbands, there is also a smaller percentage who benefit from a pensions because they were civil servants themselves.<sup>38</sup> Among older cohorts of women who have not been actively participating in the labour force, regardless of marital status, it is critical that social security schemes apply to them as well so as to meet the financial needs of this group since pensions would guarantee a certain amount of stability and independence.<sup>39</sup>

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38 Marianti, Ruly. "You can bite it, but it's tough!" Pensions for Widows in Indonesia". IIAS Newsletter, #32, November 2003. Accessed on: 15 August 2015 URL:<[http://www.iias.nl/iiasn/32/Theme\\_ECL\\_pensions\\_of\\_widows\\_in\\_indonesia.pdf](http://www.iias.nl/iiasn/32/Theme_ECL_pensions_of_widows_in_indonesia.pdf)>(accessed 15 May 2015)

39 Theresa W. Devasahayam (2014) 'Growing Old in Southeast Asia: What do we Know about Gender?' In *Gender and Ageing: Southeast Asian Perspectives*, edited by Theresa W. Devasahayam. Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Perspectives.

TABLE 2.12:

**Age-Sex Differentials in Life Expectancy in Indonesia, 1971, 1990, 2010**

| Age  | 1971 |        |      | 1990 |        |      | 2010 |        |      |
|--|------|--------|------|------|--------|------|------|--------|------|
|  | Male | Female | F/M  | Male | Female | F/M  | Male | Female | F/M  |
| average number of additional years an individual is expected to live |      |        |      |      |        |      |      |        |      |
| 60-64  | 13.1 | 14.4   | 1.10 | 14.9 | 16.5   | 1.11 | 16.7 | 18.7   | 1.12 |
| 65-69  | 10.5 | 11.5   | 1.10 | 11.9 | 13.2   | 1.11 | 13.3 | 14.9   | 1.12 |
| 70-74  | 8.1  | 8.9    | 1.09 | 9.2  | 10.2   | 1.10 | 10.3 | 11.5   | 1.12 |
| 75-79  | 6.1  | 6.7    | 1.09 | 6.9  | 7.6    | 1.10 | 7.7  | 8.6    | 1.11 |
| 80-84  | 4.5  | 4.9    | 1.08 | 5.1  | 5.5    | 1.09 | 5.7  | 6.2    | 1.10 |
| 85-89  | 3.2  | 3.4    | 1.08 | 3.6  | 3.9    | 1.09 | 4.0  | 4.4    | 1.10 |
| 90-94  | 2.2  | 2.4    | 1.06 | 2.5  | 2.7    | 1.07 | 2.8  | 3.0    | 1.08 |
| 95-99  | 1.5  | 1.6    | 1.05 | 1.7  | 1.8    | 1.06 | 1.9  | 2.0    | 1.07 |
| 100+   | 1.0  | 1.1    | 1.03 | 1.1  | 1.2    | 1.04 | 1.2  | 1.3    | 1.04 |

Source: Derived from 1971, 1980, 1990 and 2010 Population Census and Indonesia Population Projection 2010-2035, (as cited in UNFPA 2014)

Living longer also suggests the onset of a range of health complications. The 2010 Population Census data reveals gender differences in the health conditions among Indonesians aged 60 and above. Gender differences in difficulties in seeing, hearing, walking and climbing stairs, concentrating and communicating, remembering and taking care of oneself were recorded. A close examination of the 2010 Population Census data shows that the gender differences are pronounced in the “some” category more than the “severe” category in the young-old age cohort (60-69 years) while in the medium-old and old-old age cohorts, the gender differences are more pronounced for the “severe” category. Thus, living longer is not necessarily an advantage to women since women, compared with men, tend to live greater number of years in disability and therefore enjoy shorter healthy life expectancies.

### 2.3.4 IMPAIRMENT IN SEEING

If we were to examine the data on impairment of sight across the age groups 60-69 years and above in the urban and rural areas, the proportion of females who suffer from this ailment exceeds that of males. While the gender difference is much larger among those who have reported to suffer “severely” from this disability at all the age cohorts, the difference is much less among those who have some form of difficulty in terms of eye-sight (see Table 2.13). In addition, among the elderly who have “severe” difficulties in seeing, the ratio of females to males tends to be consistently higher compared with the gender ratio in each age group. The same pattern follows for the elderly in the age groups 70-79, 80-89 and 90 and above where the ratios of females to males (63 percent versus 37 percent; 65 percent versus 35 percent; 70 percent versus 30 percent, respectively)



were much higher than the gender ratios in those age cohorts at the national level (56 percent versus 44 percent; 58 percent versus 42 percent; 64 percent versus 36 percent, respectively). This suggests that among all the males and females in those age cohorts, females fare worse off than their male counterparts in the area of sight. Among those with some form of disability in seeing, however, the proportion of females to males is much less for each age cohort from 60+ and above. In fact, the gender ratio among those with some form of difficulty in seeing is closer to the gender ratios in the age cohorts of 60-69, 70-79, 80-89 and 90 and above at the national level.

**TABLE 2.13:**  
**Percentage of The Elderly (60+) Population Who Have Difficulty in Seeing by Age, 2010**

|              | Age group |           |           |           |           |           |            |           |            |           |
|--------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|
|              | 60-69     |           | 70-79     |           | 80-89     |           | 90 & above |           | 60 & above |           |
|              | Male      | Female    | Male      | Female    | Male      | Female    | Male       | Female    | Male       | Female    |
| Severe       | 41        | 59        | 37        | 63        | 35        | 65        | 30         | 70        | 37         | 63        |
| Some         | 45        | 55        | 41        | 59        | 40        | 60        | 35         | 65        | 42         | 58        |
| None         | 48        | 52        | 45        | 55        | 43        | 57        | 38         | 62        | 47         | 53        |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>48</b> | <b>52</b> | <b>44</b> | <b>56</b> | <b>42</b> | <b>58</b> | <b>36</b>  | <b>64</b> | <b>46</b>  | <b>54</b> |

Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

Furthermore, a comparison of the elderly in the urban and rural areas shows that a higher proportion of older adults in the rural areas suffer from a severe disability in seeing compared to older adults residing in the urban areas. The difference in the urban and rural areas for older adults suffering from some difficulty in seeing is more or less in line with their population distribution within urban and rural areas. Gender differences in difficulty in seeing are evident in both urban and rural areas. The gender difference in both urban and rural areas (see Table 2.13) follows the same pattern of the gender difference in the older population aged 60 and above (see Table 2.14).

**TABLE 2.14:**  
**Percentage of The Elderly (60+) Population Who Have Difficulty in Seeing by Sex & Urban/Rural, 2010**

|              | Urban     |           | Rural     |           | Urban<br>(Male & Female) | Rural<br>(Male & Female) |
|--------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
|              | Male      | Female    | Male      | Female    |                          |                          |
| Severe       | 37        | 63        | 37        | 63        | 39                       | 61                       |
| Some         | 42        | 58        | 42        | 58        | 42                       | 58                       |
| None         | 46        | 54        | 47        | 53        | 43                       | 57                       |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>46</b> | <b>54</b> | <b>46</b> | <b>54</b> | <b>43</b>                | <b>57</b>                |

Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

### 2.3.5 IMPAIRMENT IN LISTENING/HEARING

In terms of difficulty in listening/hearing, while there is a gender difference with more females than males suffering from this disability across the age cohorts of 60-69, 70-79, 80-89 and 90 and above, it was found that overall, the gender ratio was not very different from the total population. The exception was those in the 60-69 year age cohort who have some form on disability. Among this cohort, the gender ratio was much higher in favour of males (39 percent versus 61 percent) compared with the gender ratio of the total population in that age group (48 percent versus 52 percent), indicating that some difficulties with listening/hearing tends to start in the young-old cohort for females more than males.

In regards to difficulties in listening/hearing between males and females living in urban or rural areas, it was found that in the urban areas a higher proportion of women (62 percent) have some difficulty in hearing/listening compared to men (38 percent) (see Table 2.16). The proportions among older women and men suffering from severe difficulty in listening/hearing are the same as for those who have some difficulty in this area. However among the population above 60 years and over in the entire country, the proportion who do not have any difficulties in hearing in the rural areas (57 percent) compared with the urban areas (43 percent) follows that of the population distribution in rural and urban areas. In terms of some and severe difficulty in hearing, this pattern no longer remains and those in rural areas tend to be worse off with a larger proportion in the rural areas.

TABLE 2.15:

**Percentage of The Elderly (60+) Population Who Have Difficulty in Listening/Hearing by Sex and Age, 2010**

| Age group    |           |           |           |           |           |           |            |           |            |           |
|--------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|
|              | 60-69     |           | 70-79     |           | 80-89     |           | 90 & above |           | 60 & above |           |
|              | Male      | Female    | Male      | Female    | Male      | Female    | Male       | Female    | Male       | Female    |
| Severe       | 44        | 56        | 40        | 60        | 38        | 62        | 32         | 68        | 39         | 61        |
| Some         | 39        | 61        | 38        | 62        | 39        | 61        | 35         | 65        | 39         | 61        |
| None         | 48        | 52        | 45        | 55        | 43        | 57        | 38         | 62        | 47         | 53        |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>48</b> | <b>52</b> | <b>44</b> | <b>56</b> | <b>42</b> | <b>58</b> | <b>36</b>  | <b>64</b> | <b>46</b>  | <b>54</b> |

Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

TABLE 2.16:

**Percentage of The Elderly Population Who Have Difficulty in Listening/Hearing by Sex and Urban/Rural, 2010**

|              | Urban     |           | Rural     |           | Urban (Male & Female) | Rural (Male & Female) |
|--------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
|              | Male      | Female    | Male      | Female    |                       |                       |
| Severe       | 38        | 62        | 33        | 67        | 35                    | 65                    |
| Some         | 38        | 62        | 39        | 61        | 38                    | 62                    |
| None         | 47        | 53        | 47        | 53        | 43                    | 57                    |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>46</b> | <b>54</b> | <b>46</b> | <b>54</b> | <b>43</b>             | <b>57</b>             |

Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

### 2.3.6 IMPAIRMENT IN WALKING AND CLIMBING STAIRS

The older population was also found to be impaired in the area of walking and climbing stairs. Comparing males and females, a higher proportion of females were found to have difficulty in walking and climbing stairs. Across the age cohorts of 60 years and above, there are larger proportions of females over males who have some and severe difficulty with walking and climbing stairs compared with the percentage of those age groups recorded at the national level (see Table 2.17). However, the reverse is true for males suggesting that there are fewer numbers of men in the older age cohorts who are suffering from this disability.

The 2010 Population Census data, however, records that a greater numbers of females (65 percent) in the urban areas have difficulty walking and climbing stairs compared with their male counterparts (35 percent) (see Table 2.18). In fact, females in the urban areas (65 percent) are slightly worse off in terms of this impairment compared with females in the rural areas (63 percent).

TABLE 2.17:

### Percentage of The Elderly Population Who Have Difficulty in Walking and Climbing Stairs by Age, 2010

| Age group |       |        |       |        |       |        |            |        |            |        |
|-----------|-------|--------|-------|--------|-------|--------|------------|--------|------------|--------|
|           | 60-69 |        | 70-79 |        | 80-89 |        | 90 & above |        | 60 & above |        |
|           | Male  | Female | Male  | Female | Male  | Female | Male       | Female | Male       | Female |
| Severe    | 44    | 56     | 36    | 64     | 33    | 67     | 28         | 72     | 36         | 64     |
| Some      | 37    | 63     | 36    | 64     | 37    | 63     | 34         | 66     | 36         | 64     |
| None      | 49    | 51     | 45    | 55     | 45    | 55     | 40         | 60     | 47         | 53     |

Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

TABLE 2.18:

### Percentage of The Elderly Population Who Have Difficulty in Walking and Climbing Stairs by Sex, Urban/Rural, 2010

|              | Urban     |           | Rural     |           | Urban<br>(Male & Female) | Rural<br>(Male & Female) |
|--------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
|              | Male      | Female    | Male      | Female    |                          |                          |
| Severe       | 35        | 65        | 37        | 63        | 41                       | 59                       |
| Some         | 35        | 65        | 37        | 63        | 41                       | 59                       |
| None         | 47        | 53        | 48        | 52        | 43                       | 57                       |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>46</b> | <b>54</b> | <b>46</b> | <b>54</b> | <b>43</b>                | <b>57</b>                |

Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

## 2.3.7 IMPAIRMENT IN REMEMBERING/CONCENTRATING/COMMUNICATING

Difficulty in remembering/concentrating/communicating was another impairment prevalent among older persons. As in the other impairments recorded in the 2010 Population Census, there were more females than males across the age groups 60 years and above who had severe or even some difficulty in this area. However, the proportion of females reporting severe or some difficulty in this area is consistently higher across the age groups compared with the proportion of females in the total population (see Table 2.18). The reverse trend is found among men: their proportions are consistently lower than the national rate in every age group.

Among those living in the urban areas, the same pattern as in the other impairments shows up where more females than males have been found to have either some or severe difficulty in remembering/concentrating/communicating (see Table 2.20). A similar trend was found in the rural areas. In addition, higher proportions of elderly in rural areas had some or severe difficulty in remembering/concentrating/communicating compared to elderly in the urban areas.

TABLE 2.19:

**Percentage of The Elderly Population Who Have Difficulty in Remembering/  
Concentrating/Communicating by Sex and Age, 2010**

|              | Age Group |           |           |           |           |           |            |           |            |           |
|--------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|
|              | 60-69     |           | 70-79     |           | 80-89     |           | 90 & above |           | 60 & above |           |
|              | Male      | Female    | Male      | Female    | Male      | Female    | Male       | Female    | Male       | Female    |
| Severe       | 42        | 58        | 35        | 65        | 32        | 68        | 27         | 73        | 35         | 65        |
| Some         | 37        | 63        | 35        | 65        | 36        | 64        | 33         | 67        | 36         | 64        |
|              | 48        | 52        | 45        | 55        | 44        | 56        | 40         | 60        | 47         | 53        |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>48</b> | <b>52</b> | <b>44</b> | <b>56</b> | <b>42</b> | <b>58</b> | <b>36</b>  | <b>64</b> | <b>46</b>  | <b>54</b> |

Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

TABLE 2.20:

**Percentage of The Elderly Population Who Have Difficulty in Remembering/  
Concentrating/Communicating by Sex and Urban/Rural, 2010**

|              | Urban     |           | Rural     |           | Urban<br>(Male & Female) | Rural<br>(Male & Female) |
|--------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
|              | Male      | Female    | Male      | Female    |                          |                          |
| Severe       | 34        | 66        | 35        | 65        | 38                       | 62                       |
| Some         | 35        | 65        | 36        | 64        | 40                       | 60                       |
| None         | 47        | 53        | 47        | 53        | 43                       | 57                       |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>46</b> | <b>54</b> | <b>46</b> | <b>54</b> | <b>43</b>                | <b>57</b>                |

Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

### 2.3.8 IMPAIRMENT IN TAKING CARE OF ONESELF

Older persons were also found to struggle with self-care in terms of activities of daily living such as feeding, bathing, dressing, grooming, working, homemaking and engaging in leisure activities. Here, the gender differences were as pronounced as in the case of health problems related to walking and climbing stairs and remembering, concentrating and communicating. Among those suffering from this disability, the proportion of females with severe and some problems in this area was consistently higher compared with the national rate across the age groups. The gender ratio is found to widen with every age cohort from 60-69 years to 90 & above for those recording severe difficulty in taking care of oneself (see Table 2.21).

Comparing urban and rural areas, there was no difference in the proportions of women to men in terms of difficulty of taking care of oneself. But if the rates across rural and urban areas are compared, a higher proportion of elderly (both men and women) in the rural areas were found to have difficulty in taking care of oneself compared to the elderly (both men and women) in urban areas (see Table 2.22).

TABLE 2.21:

**Percentage of The Elderly Population Who Have Difficulty in Taking Care of Oneself by Sex and Age, 2010**

|              | Age group |           |           |           |           |           |            |           |            |           |
|--------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|
|              | 60-69     |           | 70-79     |           | 80-89     |           | 90 & above |           | 60 & above |           |
|              | Male      | Female    | Male      | Female    | Male      | Female    | Male       | Female    | Male       | Female    |
| Severe       | 44        | 56        | 36        | 64        | 32        | 68        | 27         | 73        | 36         | 64        |
| Some         | 38        | 62        | 35        | 65        | 36        | 64        | 33         | 67        | 36         | 64        |
| None         | 48        | 52        | 45        | 55        | 44        | 56        | 40         | 60        | 47         | 53        |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>48</b> | <b>52</b> | <b>44</b> | <b>56</b> | <b>42</b> | <b>58</b> | <b>36</b>  | <b>64</b> | <b>46</b>  | <b>54</b> |

Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

TABLE 2.22:

**Percentage of The Elderly Who Have Difficulty in Taking Care of Oneself by Sex and Urban/Rural, 2010**

|              | Urban     |           | Rural     |           | Urban<br>(Male & Female) | Rural<br>(Male & Female) |
|--------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
|              | Male      | Female    | Male      | Female    |                          |                          |
| Severe       | 36        | 64        | 36        | 64        | 41                       | 59                       |
| Some         | 35        | 65        | 36        | 64        | 42                       | 58                       |
| None         | 46        | 54        | 47        | 53        | 43                       | 57                       |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>46</b> | <b>54</b> | <b>46</b> | <b>54</b> | <b>43</b>                | <b>57</b>                |

Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)



Chapter III

EDUCATION

“  
*Educational  
development  
brings females  
closer in reaching  
the achievements  
of their male  
counterparts*  
”

During the pre-independence era, especially prior to 1900, women were given fewer opportunities than men to develop themselves. In that period, women were generally not allowed to go to school. Furthermore, they were even prohibited to work outside the home, let alone occupy a communal position. Instead women would often aspire to marriage.<sup>40</sup> Records show that in 1897 in a two-year school available for the native population in Java-Madura, there were only 278 students, and none were female students; in 1898, in a school run by the colonial Government, there were only 11 female students in the entire Dutch Indies territory (Armijn Pane, 2009).

Education clearly empowers those who have access to it, as an educated person is more likely to be able to actualize a higher level of well-being. A person who has less education has a lower command in other areas of his or her life such as employment, salary and bargaining position in decision-making, both in the public domain and at the household level. Females have long been less successful than males both as actors as well as recipients of development.

After independence, the situation for women began to see a slight improvement because of the right to education for every citizen, as guaranteed in Indonesia's various constitutions, legislations and policies.<sup>41</sup> Being aware of how education impacts on national 'productivity', the Indonesian Government and the private sector have undertaken numerous measures to improve the country's educational level. There have been a series of policies implemented to remove various barriers to education. The outcome of these policies has been positive, with women showing an increased motivation to gain an education. Noteworthy education programmes include the Presidential Instruction (Inpres) on aid for construction of primary school buildings<sup>42</sup> and *Wajar* (Compulsory Education) 6 Years, 9 Years and 12 Years are the most important ones.<sup>43</sup>

### 3.1. School Participation

In Indonesia, one of the development pillars was equitable and accessible education.<sup>44</sup> While this needed to be strengthened, designers of policy and programmes had to bear in mind that geographically Indonesia covers a very large area; in many places, the conditions and geographical terrain are rough and difficult to reach, thereby hampering school-age children from participating in education programmes. It had to be recognized that only when these barriers are removed, can children, male and female, go to school, thereby realizing equitable and accessible education for all.

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40 Armijn Pane, 27<sup>th</sup> edition, Habis Gelap Terbitlah Terang

41 UUD 1945 Chater XIII Para.31 and Law No 4 1950 Jo.; Law No.12, 1954

42 Inpres No. 10. 1973; Inpres No.6, 1974; Inpres No. 6, 1975

43 Repelita III (1979/80-1983/84) tentang Wajar 6 Tahun; PP 38/1990 tentang Pendidikan Dasar 9 Tahun; UU No. 20/2003 tentang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional; Peraturan Presiden No. 47/2008 tentang Wajib Belajar

44 Law No. 20, 2003 on National Education System

### 3.1.1. SCHOOL ENROLMENT VARIATION ACROSS AGE GROUP

While primary, secondary and tertiary education has been long administered, the education for pre-school-age children has only recently started.<sup>45</sup> Therefore, the participation rate of the pre-school-age children is generally low. The participation rate of children aged 5-6 years was considerably low, that is, between 34.8 percent for boys and 37.4 percent for girls. Some of the children belonging to this age group would not participate in schooling because of the absence of pre-school-age schools close enough to their place of residence.

Despite the fact that not all pre-school age children were enrolled in pre-school age education, some of them might have gone to primary school. Some children, both boys and girls, belonging to the 7-12 year age group currently enrolled in primary school would preferably have gone to preschool but did not - whether they were boys or girls. Quantitatively, more girls than boys went to school, but in terms of percentage, the proportion of girls was much lower than that of boys. The older the children were the less chance they got to go to school because of, among other reasons, the absence of formal education institutions (BPS, 2014), as well as the higher cost associated with receiving a higher level education (BPS, 2012), and the tendency to become involved in income-earning activities. In 2010, only 95.3 percent of children aged 7-12 years and only 85 percent of children aged 13-15 actively went to school. Even lower were the participation rates of senior-secondary school-aged children and university-aged youth which were 52.8 percent, and 15.1 percent, respectively.

Gender gaps were found to favour females in the lower levels of education: pre-school, primary school and junior high school, but the opposite was true in the higher levels: senior high school, and university (Table 3.1). That fact that more girls were going to primary school indicates an interesting cultural shift: increasingly parents are not opposed to the girl child receiving an education. But in the older age cohorts there were more males than females in school, indicating that females are dropping out of school. In this case, the question of retaining girls becomes important in order to ensure gender parity in education in the older age groups.

Information on school enrolment in 2000 cannot be obtained from the complete enumeration census publication, but from the Population Module publication. The Population Module survey was done three months prior to the census and based on 203,008 household samples only. Therefore the monograph will leave out the discussion on school enrolment from the 2000 population census results.

Referring to the 1990 Population Census data, an interesting shift is seen as females have a higher school attendance rate compared with males in the age cohorts 5-9 years (Table 3.2). For the subsequent age cohorts, school attendance amongst males has always been higher than school attendance amongst females. This is in contrast to the 2010 Population Census data where school enrolment among females is higher compared to males until the 13-15 year age cohort, indicating that more girls would stay on in school in 2010 compared to 1990.

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45 Ibid



**TABLE 3.1:**  
**School Enrolment Rate By Age Group and Sex, 2010**

| Age Group    | Male        | Female      | Male + Female | Gender Parity Index |
|--------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|---------------------|
| 5-6          | 37.4        | 38.9        | 38.1          | 104.1               |
| 7-12         | 94.5        | 95.3        | 94.1          | 100.8               |
| 13-15        | 83.5        | 85.0        | 84.2          | 101.9               |
| 16-18        | 53.2        | 52.4        | 52.8          | 98.5                |
| 19-24        | 15.4        | 14.8        | 15.1          | 95.8                |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>24.7</b> | <b>23.8</b> | <b>24.2</b>   | <b>96.2</b>         |

Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

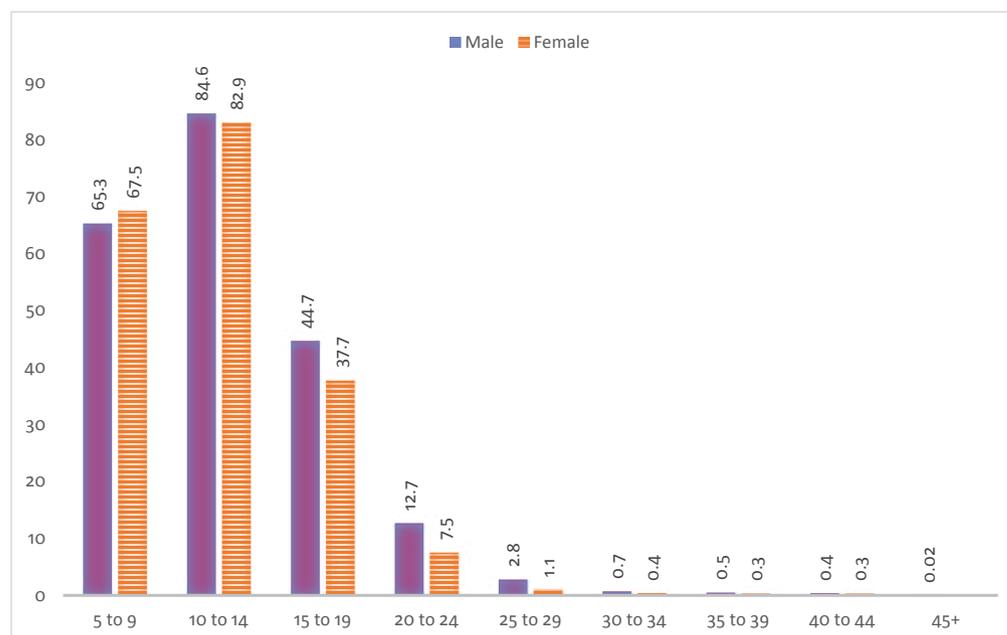
**TABLE 3.2:**  
**School Enrolment Rate by Age Group and Sex, 1990**

| Age Group    | Male        | Female      | Male + Female | Gender Parity Index |
|--------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|---------------------|
| 5-9          | 65.3        | 67.5        | 66.4          | 103.3               |
| 10-14        | 84.6        | 82.9        | 83.7          | 98.0                |
| 15-19        | 44.7        | 37.8        | 41.2          | 84.4                |
| 20-24        | 12.7        | 7.5         | 10.0          | 58.8                |
| 25-29        | 2.8         | 1.1         | 1.9           | 38.7                |
| 30-34        | 0.7         | 0.4         | 0.6           | 52.1                |
| 35-39        | 0.5         | 0.3         | 0.4           | 65.3                |
| 40-44        | 0.4         | 0.3         | 0.4           | 87.2                |
| 45 and older | 0.02        | -           | 0.01          | 0                   |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>28.7</b> | <b>26.8</b> | <b>27.2</b>   | <b>90.0</b>         |

Source: Derived from 1990 Population Census (BPS, 1992)

In 1990, as in the 2010 Population Census data, there was a distinct gender gap in favour of girls in the lower level of education especially in the age cohort of 5-9 years, that is, at the pre-school and primary school levels. While this gap continues into junior high school for females in 2010, the gap had shifted in favour of boys according to the 1990 Population Census data (Figure 3.1).

**FIGURE 3.1:**  
**School Enrolment Rate by Age Group and Sex, 1990**



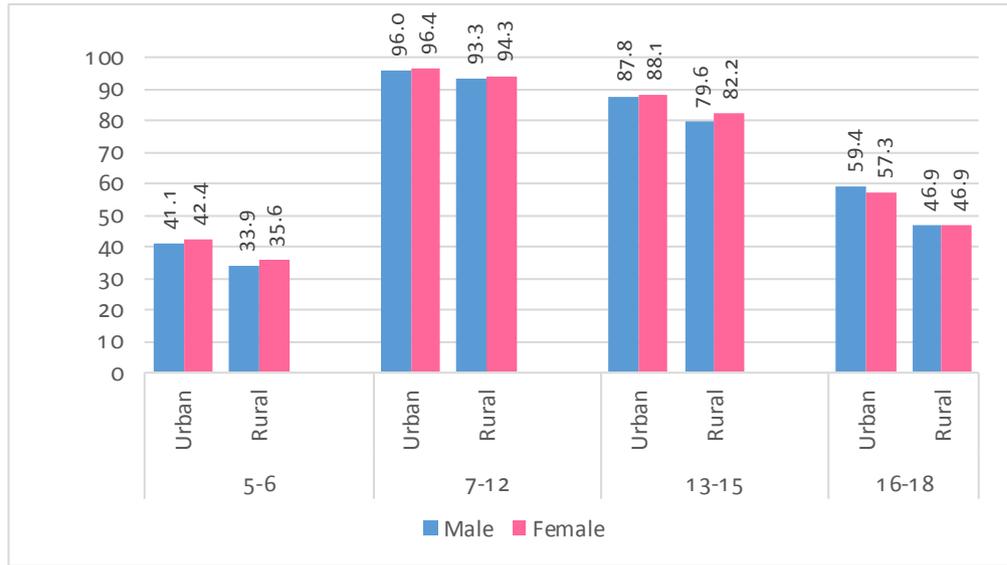
Source: Derived from 1990 Population Census (BPS, 1992)

### 3.1.2. SCHOOL ENROLMENT VARIATION ACROSS THE REGION

Both girls and boys suffer from inequality due to the geographical location of education facilities and there is particular disparity between urban and rural regions. Location of residence often becomes the reason a child does not go to school. Figure 3.2 shows how school participation rate varies between the urban and rural settings, and between males and females for children aged 5-6 years, 7-12 years, and 16-18 years, respectively. The rural/urban difference of participation rate of people aged 19-24 is not shown, because the individual's belonging to the group were supposed to have already enrolled in university either in a large town/city. In Figure 3.2, it is clearly shown that urban/rural variation is more dominant than male/female differentials. In age groups 7-12 and 13-15 years, attendance rates in urban and rural areas were almost equal, however a gap emerges among children aged 16-18 years who are generally enrolled in senior high school.

**FIGURE 3.2:**

**School Enrolment Rate by Urban/Rural, Age Group and Sex, 2010**



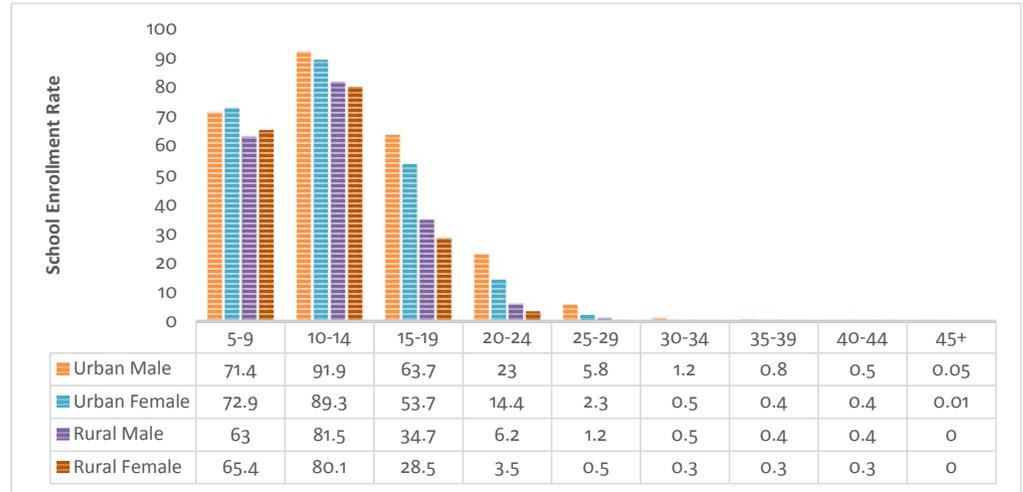
Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

Not all interprovincial variation is presented here, with the focus solely on the difference between urban and rural areas, especially for children aged 16-18 years, which showed the largest gap in school attendance. While school attendance among girls has been slightly higher in the urban and rural areas until the age cohort 13-15 years based on figures from the 2010 Population Census, the 1990 census data shows the same trend only in the 5-9 years cohort both in the urban and rural areas (Figure 3.3). In the cohorts ages 10-14 and above, there have always been a higher proportion of males attending school compared with females both in the urban and rural areas. It is also clearly shown that urban/rural variation is more dominant than male/female differentials in 1990 and the variation is greater than that in 2010.

At the national level, gender equality on school participation for the 16-18 year age group has almost been achieved, however it varies across provinces. Figure 3.4 shows the GPI on school participation by province. The worst gender gap indicated by GPI less than 90 percent and more than 110 percent was found in two different groups of areas. The first group constitutes DKI Jakarta and Bali where females had lower school participation rates, and the other part are Gorontalo and West Sumatra (barely North Sulawesi) where males had lower school participation rates.

FIGURE 3.3:

School Enrolment Rate by Urban/Rural, Age Group and Sex, 1990



Source: Derived from 1990 Population Census (BPS, 1992)

Three factors might influence the variability of the GPI condition: early marriage, the existence of a high school facilities and labour market opportunities that had opened up for the younger population. A discussion on these factors will be presented later. However, it is worthwhile to note that school enrolment and education attainment levels in Indonesia have been found to be lower than in the other ASEAN-6 countries, suggesting that Indonesian females are lagging behind their counterparts in the other ASEAN countries.<sup>46</sup> The gap in the levels of school enrolment and education attainment has been found to be most pronounced when urban and rural areas are compared, which would mean that females from rural areas in Indonesia are worse off when compared with other ASEAN countries than those from the urban areas. In this case, socio-economic background becomes a critical factor for explaining the gaps in enrolment ratios and educational performance.<sup>47</sup> Enhancing the chance for females to stay in school raises their income-earning capacity as they reach adulthood, thereby enabling them to find employment in the country rather than migrating for work,<sup>48</sup> as well as earn higher salaries should they decide to stay in Indonesia.

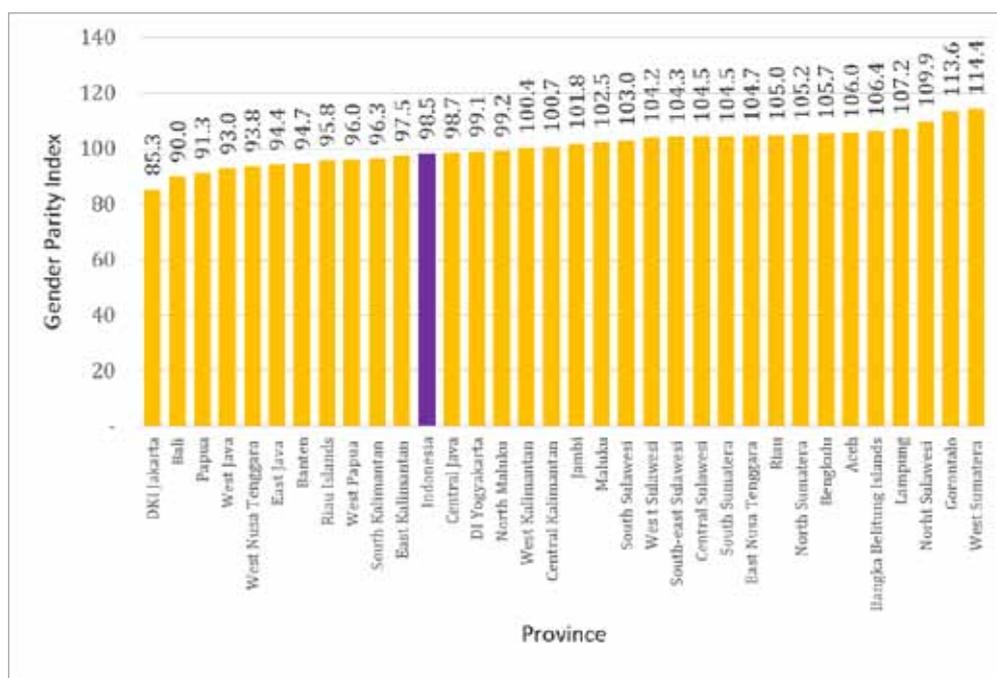
46 "Structural Policy Notes: Indonesia". Southeast Asian Economic Outlook 2013: With Perspectives from China and India. OECD, 2013. (accessed 26 June 2015)  
 URL:<<http://www.oecd.org/dev/asia-pacific/Indonesia.pdf>>

47 Jones, Gavin. "Education in Indonesia". Changing Family in Asia Cluster Research Brief Series No. 7, Asia Research Institute, September 2013. Accessed on 15 August 2015  
 URL:<<http://www.ari.nus.edu.sg/docs%5Cdownloads%5CReports-and- Proceedings%5CCF>>

48 Maruli Tobing, Maria Hartiningsih, AM. Dewabrata & Widi Krastawan, Perjalanan Nasib TKI-TKW: Antara Rantai Kemiskinan dan Nasib Perempuan, Jakarta: Gramedia, 1990, p. 85, as cited in Zakiah Hasan Gaffar (2008) "Deciding to Migrate: Factors, Influences, and Processes in the Experiences of Indonesian Women who Migrate to Malaysia as Domestic Workers", *Intersections: Gender and Sexuality in Asia and the Pacific*, Issue 17, July 2008. (accessed 28 June 2015) URL:<<http://intersections.anu.edu.au/issue17/gaffar.htm#n4>>

FIGURE 3.4:

**Gender Parity Index of School Enrolment Rate of Population Aged 16 -18 Years by Province, 2010**



Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

**3.1.3. SCHOOL ENROLMENT VARIATION ACROSS SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS**

Data on the school participation rates across socio-economic status could not directly be obtained from the 2010 Population Census. As a proxy, the GPI of net participation rate by socio-economic status was used and obtained from the 2012 SUSENAS presented below. Table 3.3 shows that in 2012 at the primary school level, educational equality has been achieved.

TABLE 3.3:

**Gender Parity Index on Net Enrolment Ratio by Educational Level and Economic Status, 2012**

| Education Level    | The Poorest (40% the lowest) | Middle Class (40% Middle) | The Richest (20% the highest) |
|--------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Primary School     | 100.3                        | 99.4                      | 99.5                          |
| Junior High School | 106.2                        | 103.3                     | 99.9                          |
| Senior High School | 104.0                        | 100.4                     | 90.1                          |
| University         | 116.0                        | 122.3                     | 95.8                          |

Source: MDGs Report (Ministry of National Development Planning/National Development Planning Agency (Bappenas), 2013)

Nevertheless, in groups belonging to the medium and low income classes, the value of GPI was always greater than 100 which means that within the same social groups of medium and low income, female participation was higher than that of male participation in the education level of junior high school or higher (Ministry of National Development Planning/National Development Planning Board/Bappenas, 2014). In an analysis of children belonging to poor households (BPS, 2013), it is also shown that the GPI favoured females more than males. The opposite was true in non-poor families.

### 3.1.4. WHY CHILDREN DON'T GO TO SCHOOL

The result of the 2012 SUSENAS shows that the reason more than 43.9 percent of children do not go to school was because of the lack of funds in the household. Other reasons given by the children were closely related to family economic condition, such as: (a) they had to work for payment and the shame around one's economic situation, which were the reasons given by male children, and (b) marriage and household responsibilities, which were the reasons that came from female children. Female children aged 7-18 years who were no longer in school were generally of the ever-married status. One way to keep children in school was to give scholarships to households which needed economic assistance. However, those children who are able to secure scholarships have



been found to be a very small group. Only 12 percent of the primary school students, 12 percent of junior high school students, 9 percent of senior high school students, and 7 percent of university students actually received scholarships.

At the primary school and junior high school the number of male and female students receiving scholarships was about equal. However at the higher levels, female recipients outnumbered male recipients marginally.

Distance is a reason given by around 1 percent of both male and female children for not attending school. According to BPS (2014), not all villages had an operational school. Of 78,736 villages in Indonesia, only 71,205 villages had the resources to offer residents an operating primary school. The average distance from home to the nearest primary school was 2.4 kilometers, 4.5 kilometers to a junior high school, and 7 kilometers to a senior high school (BPS 2013). BPS (2013) also asserted that around 2.8 percent of children who did not go to school were those with disabilities. According to the 2013 *potensi desa* or *podes* (complete enumeration activity to collect information on the socio-economic potential of all villages), facilities for disabled individuals were very limited. Only 1,505 villages managed to make *sekolah luar biasa* (schools provided for disabled children) available. Unfortunately, studies on multivariate analysis that are related to causes of children for not going to school are still lacking.

## 3.2. Educational Attainment

“  
*Knowledge, which is usually measured by educational attainment or diploma/certificate level of achievement, has a beneficial impact on the person and those living around the person*  
”

In the year 2010, the overall difference in average lengths of schooling between males and females aged 15 years and older was only around one year (KPPA and BPS, 2012). Examining the 2010 Population Census results on the type of diploma achieved, shows that the number of people who attained a primary school diploma (31.9 percent) was highest, with a GPI value of 104.8 percent, and the number with junior high school diploma was 17.6 percent, with a gender parity of 95.6 percent (see Table 3.4).

A salient figure is shown for GPI on Diploma I/II/III which equals to 129.7 percent. The case here might be related to the fact that more females than males had graduated from the nursing academy and midwifery academy while receiving tertiary-level health education.

Data from the 2000 Population Census shows a similar general trend. Similar to the 2010 Population Census data, the data from 2000 also found that of the entire population (35.3 percent) Females (37.6 percent) are more likely than males (33.1 percent) not to attend or complete primary school - although the data from 2010 showed a marked improvement in school attendance (Table 3.4). As in the 2010 Population Census data, in 2000, it was also found that females had better attendance in primary school but in secondary and

vocational school, males had an edge over females. A difference was found amongst diploma and university graduates; in 2010, it was found that more females had Diploma I/II/III qualifications compared with females in 2000. The 2000 Population Census data also shows a larger gender gap in university education.

**TABLE 3.4:**

**Percentage of Population by Education Attainment and Sex, 2010**

| Education Attainment                          | Male         | Female       | Total        | Gender Parity Index |
|---|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------------------|
| Never attended + Not Completed Primary School | 28.0         | 31.5         | 29.7         | 112.2               |
| Primary School                                | 31.1         | 32.6         | 31.9         | 104.8               |
| Junior secondary school                       | 18.0         | 17.2         | 17.6         | 95.6                |
| Senior Secondary + Vocational school          | 21.6         | 17.6         | 19.6         | 81.8                |
| Diploma I/II/III                              | 1.7          | 2.2          | 2.0          | 129.7               |
| Diploma IV/ Undergraduate + Postgraduate      | 3.8          | 3.1          | 3.6          | 80.7                |
| <b>Total</b>                                  | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> |                     |

Source: 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

**TABLE 3.5:**

**Percentage of Population by Education Attainment and Sex, 2000 and 1990**

| Education attainment                          | 2000         |              |              |                     | 1990         |              |              |                     |
|---|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------------------|
|   | Male         | Female       | Total        | Gender Parity Index | Male         | Female       | Total        | Gender Parity Index |
| Never attended + Not Completed primary school | 33.1         | 37.6         | 35.3         | 113.6               | 35.4         | 40.0         | 37.6         | 112.9               |
| Primary school                                | 33.5         | 34.9         | 34.2         | 104.2               | 35.3         | 36.5         | 35.9         | 103.4               |
| Junior high school                            | 14.2         | 12.9         | 13.6         | 90.6                | 13.5         | 12.1         | 12.8         | 89.7                |
| Senior high school                            | 15.8         | 12.2         | 14.0         | 77.1                | 13.4         | 10.0         | 11.8         | 74.6                |
| Diploma I/II                                  | 0.6          | 0.5          | 0.5          | 92.6                | 0.4          | 0.3          | 0.4          | 80.5                |
| Diploma III/Academy                           | 0.8          | 0.7          | 0.8          | 84.1                | 0.8          | 0.5          | 0.6          | 63.3                |
| University                                    | 2.0          | 1.2          | 1.6          | 61.5                | 1.2          | 0.6          | 0.9          | 51.2                |
| <b>Total</b>                                  | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> |                     | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> |                     |

Source: Derived from 2000 Population Census (BPS, 2002) and 1990 Population Census (BPS, 1992)

The 2000 Population Census data follows the pattern of the 1990 Population Census for educational attainment by sex. The percentage of females (40 percent) who had not completed or not yet completed primary school is higher than the percentage of males (35.4 percent), with a gap of 4.6 percent in 1990 (Table 3.5). While there was a slightly higher percentage of girls (36.5 percent) who finished primary school compared with



boys (35.3 percent), the gender gap expands again for those with junior high school (General + Vocational) and senior high school, while it closes again at Diploma I/II (General + Vocational). However, among those with Diploma III Academy / Diploma III and among university graduates, the gender gap widens and, is much wider than for those with all the other educational qualifications.

Generally since 1990, there has been a trend of larger proportions of Indonesians completing primary education then staying on to complete higher levels of education including vocational training. However, there appears to be a persistent trend that there is a higher proportion of girls than boys among those not completing or having not yet completed primary school, although the proportions among both sexes have been gradually decreasing since 1990.

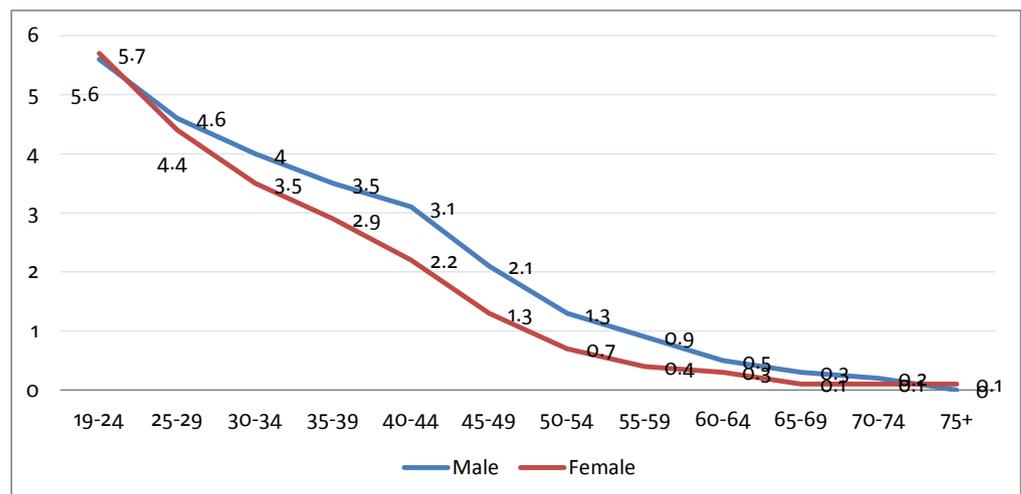
Comparing data on educational attainment in the year 1990, 2000 and 2010, it can be seen that females having a high school diploma or higher increased by almost double between 1990-2010 and its GPI also increased from around 72.4 percent to 83.8 percent.

### 3.2.1. EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT VARIATION ACROSS AGE GROUP

Based on age distribution, it can be seen that the younger generation are more likely to achieve the highest diploma in senior high school or above. The GPI value, which was negatively related to age, showed that the younger generation of females tended to rise to an education level approaching the educational level of males.

In Figure 3.5, it is seen that at young ages, the number of senior high school diploma holders was relatively equal between males and females. However, at the age of 30-60 years the gap has widened, and females lag behind males in terms of educational attainment. At the age range of 60 years and above, the gap has narrowed, which means that many surviving females of that age group tend to possess diploma level education similar to that of men.

**FIGURE 3.5:**  
**Percentage of Population Having Senior Secondary School Diploma or Higher by Age Group and Sex, 2010**



Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

The 2010 Population Census data shows that, in the age cohort of 19-24 years and above, more males (19.2 percent) than females (14.6 percent) had completed senior high school and higher education. Compared with the 2010 Population Census, the 2000 Population Census data shows a positive trend in the 16-18 age cohort as a slightly larger proportion of females (0.73 percent) compared with males (0.67 percent) had attained a senior high school education or higher. This trend from the 16-18 age group in 2000 might have been expected to show up in the 19-24 age cohort in the 2010 Population Census.

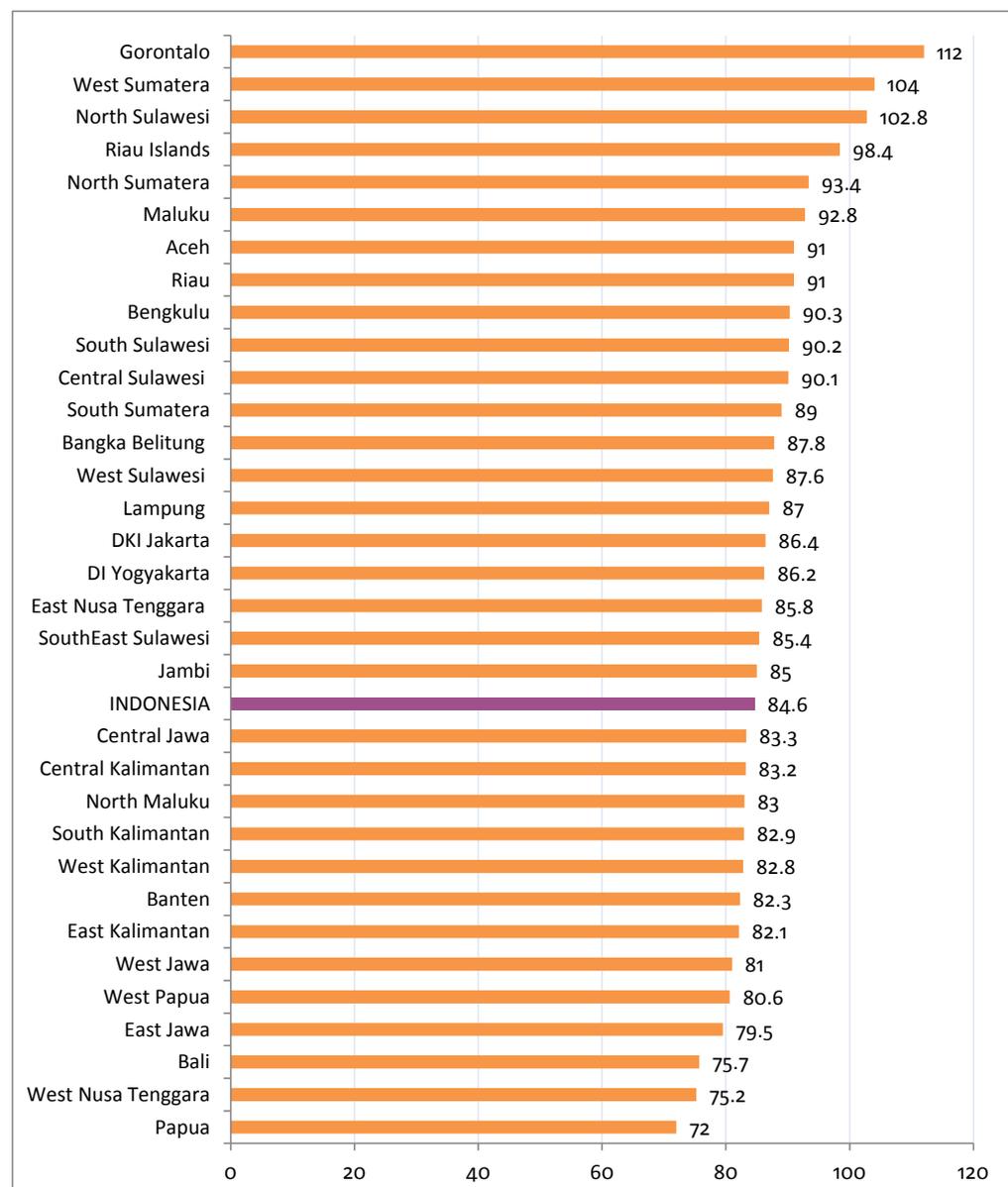
Data from the 1990 Population Census also shows a gender gap in favour of females in the 15-19 age cohort, while in the cohorts from 20-24 years and above, the gap is consistently in favour of males, indicating that males were more likely to have a senior high school education and above compared to females.

### 3.2.2. EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT VARIATION ACROSS PROVINCE

The GPI on educational attainment varies across provinces, as presented in Figure 3.6. There are three provinces where the percentage of females having at least high school diploma is higher than males from the same category: Gorontalo province (formerly part of North Sulawesi province), West Sumatera province, and North Sulawesi province. In this case, traditional practices tend to favour female education, as seen in the GPI among those having at least high school diploma, which is higher than 100 percent. The gender gaps in Gorontalo, West Sumatera and North Sulawesi are 112.9 percent, 104.1 percent and 102.8 percent respectively.

**FIGURE 3.6:**

**Gender Parity Index in Education Attainment (Having Senior High School Diploma or Higher) by Province, 2010**

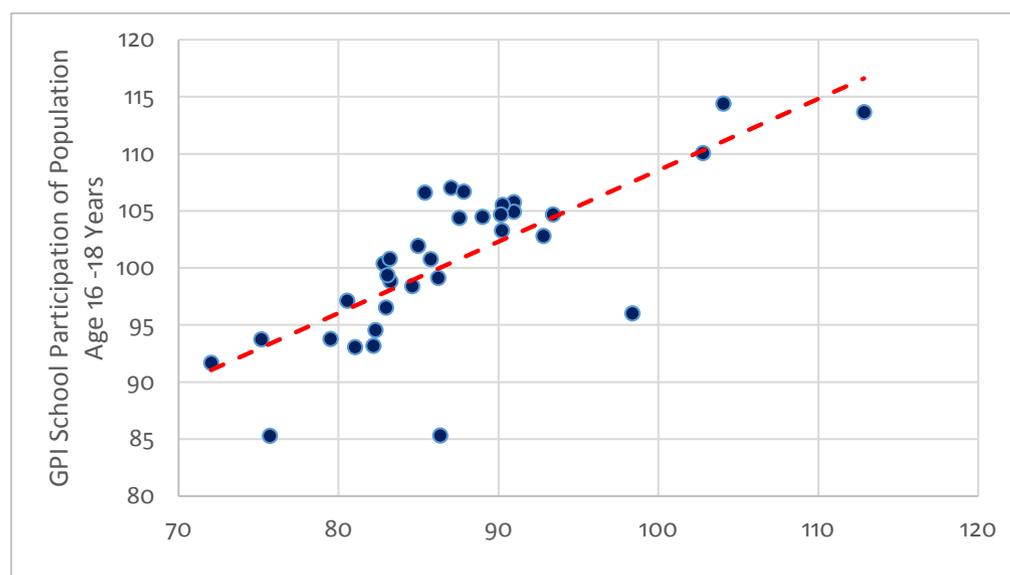


Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

and 102.8 percent respectively. Meanwhile, it was found that the GPI in four provinces is very low - less than 80 percent for female educational attainment, which was much lower than for males; this trend was found in the Papua province (72.1 percent), East Nusa Tenggara (NTB) at 75.2 percent, Bali (75.8 percent) and Jawa T imur (79.5 percent).

Comparing the GPI on education attainment (high school diploma and above) and school participation of children aged 16-18 years, it is reasonable to say that there is a positive relationship between GPI on education attainment and school enrolment of children aged 16-18 years old. This is supported by the coefficient (0.56). The data presented in Figure 3.7 shows a positive relationship between the educational attainment of the female population and the school participation of girls aged 16-18 years relative to males.

**FIGURE 3.7:**  
**Relationship between GPI on Education Attainment of Senior Secondary School or Higher and GPI on School Enrolment of 16-18 Age Group, 2010**



Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

The Indonesian Family Life Survey, a study based on a longitudinal survey done between the years 1993 and 2000, shows that the impact of the education level of the mother on the education of children starts to take effect when she engages in family planning to limit the number of wanted children and strives to improve the quality of household life.

Results from the SUSENAS 2012 show that education has a significant influence on the age of female first marriage (BPS, 2013). Among those who married at 15 years or below, there are only a few among them who have middle level of education - 5.9 percent having junior high school diploma, 1.1 percent percent having senior high school diploma and almost none of them (0.2 percent) have graduated from an academy or university. The rest of about 93 percent are distributed among those who never attended school

“

*Educational improvement in a region does not only impact school participation by girls, it also results in an increased age at first marriage, decreased number of children born, increased nutritional status of children and decreased infant mortality rate.*

”

(23.5 percent), have some primary school experience (35.2 percent) and have primary school diploma (34.2 percent). The data above suggest that keeping the children in education delays the age of marriage. The data also indicates that the implication of *Wajar* 9 years can significantly delay age of first marriage compared to that of *Wajar* 6 years. Those suggestions have been supported by the fact that there is an increase of female median age at first marriage during the period of 1991-2012 (BKKBN et al., 2013), while in the same period the trend of female education has also increased.

The fertility indicator derived from IDHS-Indonesia (BKKBN et al., 2013), namely average number of children born to ever married women aged 40-49 years old has a negative relationship with the education of mother. The average number of children ever born to mothers with no

education/few years in primary school is 3.7 while the figure is reduced to 2.3 for those having academy/university education.

BPS and UNICEF executed a large-scale multiple indicator cluster survey, or MICS, in six districts in the Papua and West Papua Provinces which revealed that education of the mother has reversed the correlation between low birth weight and infant mortality rate (BPS, 2012). The data in the Province of West Papua showed a weaker correlation than the correlation shown in the Papua Province.

### 3.3. Literacy

The effect of the *Wajar* programme was a swift increase of literacy, with females being the beneficiaries of the programmes. According to Ace Suryadi (2001) the percentage of female literacy rate increased from 63 percent in 1980 to 79 percent in 1990, increasing further to 86 percent in 1998; while in the same period male literacy increased less dramatically from 80 percent in 1980 to 90 percent in 1990 and to 93 percent in 1998. Briefly, in the 1980-1998 period the literacy rate for women increased by 23 points or 37 percent while men's only by 13 points or 16 percent. One of the consequences of delayed involvement of women in education before the independence was a high rate of illiteracy among the old population. The GPI trend, which is negatively correlated with age, proves that in terms of education, women have been left behind compared to men. Although in 2010 there was no difference between women's and men's literacy rates, aggregately speaking (GPI 96.2), among the old, fewer women were literate compared with men; 83.8 percent for men as compared to 67.5 for women (GPI = 80.5 percent). However a higher literacy rate among females compared to males was found among the young age group as was the case in the rural areas.



The gender gap for literacy has been different from province to province. Its values ranged from the lowest GPI of 91 percent in NTB to the highest value of 101.8 in Gorontalo. The GPI on school enrolment of children aged 16-18 years and the GPI on the percentage of population having senior high school diploma or higher also show that NTB has the lowest educational levels by sex compared with the national levels. Meanwhile, the reverse trend has been found in the provinces of Gorontalo and North Sulawesi, both of which were enjoying the relatively equal gender ratio in literacy.

**TABLE 3.6:**  
**Literacy Rate by Age Group and Sex, 2010**

| Age Group    | Male        | Female      | Total       | Gender Parity Index |
|--------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|---------------------|
| 5-14         | 84.8        | 85.7        | 85.3        | 101.1               |
| 15-24        | 98.5        | 98.6        | 98.6        | 100.1               |
| 25-49        | 97.0        | 94.8        | 95.9        | 97.7                |
| 50+          | 85.3        | 70.0        | 77.5        | 82.1                |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>92.6</b> | <b>89.1</b> | <b>90.9</b> | <b>96.2</b>         |

Source: 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

### 3.4. Ability to Speak National Language

Almost every ethnic group in Indonesia has its own language. Children, except those whose mother tongue is Malay - the roots of the national language, Bahasa Indonesia, only start speaking the national language at school. Before starting school they may have only been after being able to read and write. That is why illiteracy relates to the person's ability to speak the national language. After 65 years of independence, illiteracy rates continue to be high, especially among females, and those who do not speak Bahasa Indonesia.

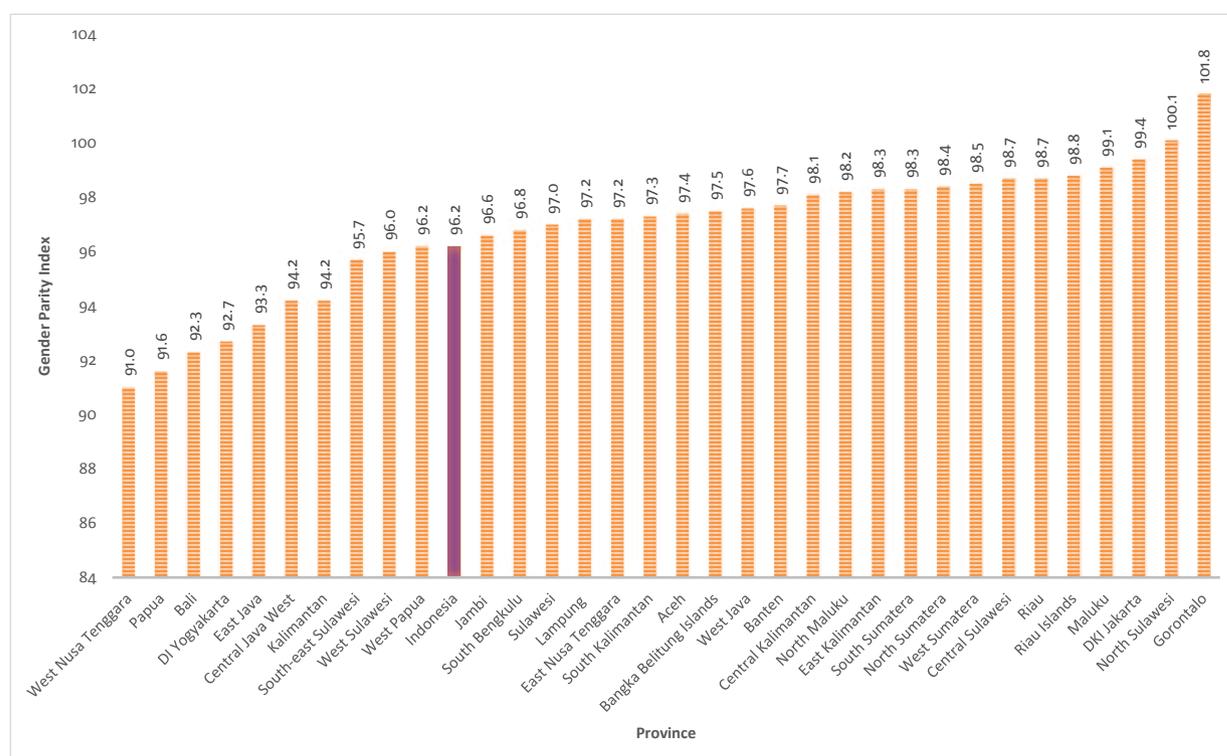
In terms of the ability to speak Bahasa Indonesia, a gender gap was almost non-existent among the young and middle-aged people. In contrast, among those age 50 years and older, especially women, there was a significant number who did not speak Bahasa Indonesia. Among them, the percentage of those who are able to speak Bahasa Indonesia was 85.78 percent for men and 72.88 percent for women.

Based on Table 3.7, the gender gap in ability to speak Bahasa Indonesia is very slight among the young and middle age generations. However, the gap increases in number



as age increases, and the increase is more pronounced among women than men. At the national level, the percentage of population that is able to speak Bahasa Indonesia is around 92.5 percent and the figure decreases among those aged 50 years and over to 79.2 percent, with the distribution being 85.8 percent for males and 72.9 females. Thus, the gender gap between males and females in ability to speak Bahasa Indonesia is not significant, except among those aged 50 years and over.

**FIGURE 3.8:**  
**Gender Parity Index on Literacy by Province, 2010**



Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

**TABLE 3.7:**  
**Gender Parity Index on Ability to Speak Bahasa Indonesia by Age Group and Sex, 2010**

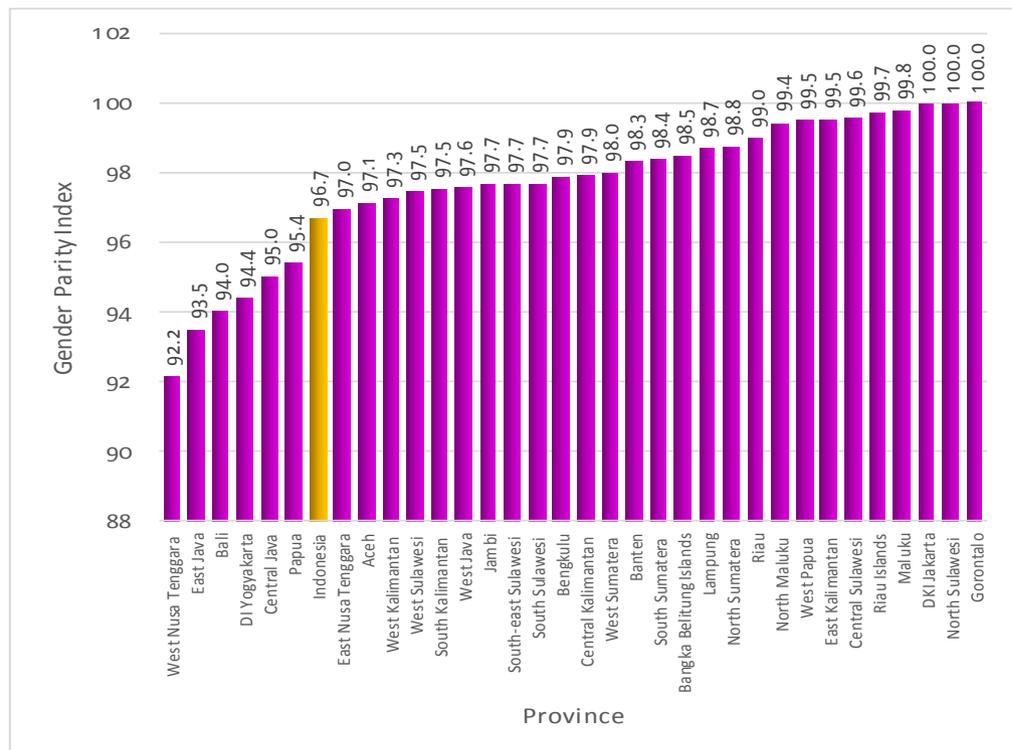
| Age Group    | Male        | Female      | Total       | Gender Parity Index* |
|--------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|----------------------|
| 5-14         | 90.1        | 90.9        | 90.5        | 100.9                |
| 15-24        | 98.6        | 98.6        | 98.6        | 100.0                |
| 25-49        | 97.3        | 95.3        | 96.3        | 97.9                 |
| 50+          | 85.8        | 72.9        | 79.2        | 85.0                 |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>94.0</b> | <b>90.9</b> | <b>92.5</b> | <b>96.7</b>          |

\*The Institute for Statistics of UNESCO also uses a more general definition of GPI: for any development indicator one can define the GPI relative to this indicator by dividing its value for females by its value for males (Koronkiewicz,2008)

Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

The variation of the GPI on ability to speak Bahasa Indonesia across provinces was different from the variation across the age groups. Based on the 2010 Population Census results, the range of GPI is not very wide, spanning from 92.2 percent (NTB) to 100.0 percent (Gorontalo). Besides NTB, five more provinces have a GPI lower than that of the national average: East Java, Bali, DI Yogyakarta, Central Java and Papua. It seems that in these provinces, people are still influenced strongly by traditional practices.

**FIGURE 3.9**  
**Gender Parity Index of Ability to Speak Bahasa Indonesia by Province, 2010**



Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)



Chapter IV

## EMPLOYMENT

The 1945 Constitution decreed that every citizen is entitled to employment and a decent living fit for humanity,<sup>49</sup> but this entitlement has not been fully realized. For example, instead of working to earn an income, many women have chosen to stay at home to manage the household or to raise the children, because society has posited that these tasks are the duties of women. It follows that the reasons a woman does not join the work force are that either a woman is not educated enough to meet the educational qualifications demanded of the job, or she has freely chosen to remain at home to fulfil her household obligations.

“  
*Gender Gap in Employment  
Still Exists*  
”

In the census, people were categorized into the following groups: the productive age group, if they are 15-64 years of age; and the non-productive age group, those aged 0-14 or 65 years, it was assumed that they were not working and therefore not earning an income. The relative ratio of the unproductive group is linked to the potential of the country to provide for the well-being of the citizens because a large ratio means relatively few people who produce income and vice versa. At the national level in Indonesia according to 2010 Population Census data, the ratio was 51.3 percent, with a slight difference between the rural and urban areas. The ratio for the rural area was 56.2 percent while the urban ratio was 45.6 percent.

## 4.1. Economic Activity

According to the kind of work engaged in, the working-age population might be broken into three groups. The first two are the working groups and the unemployed groups - both of which have been combined to be referred to as the labour force. The third group is termed as not in the labour force, comprising people whose activities were either attending school, managing the household, or were inactive. By definition, a person is considered as working if he or she was actively engaged in the labour force or helping others to earn an income at least for one hour continuously in the period of seven days prior to the data of enumeration.

At the national level, the number of people falling into the working age groups was 168.4 million, among which the employed consisted of 104.9 million while the unemployed consisted of 12.4 million. The unemployed group could be further broken down into three categories: 2.80 million people actively looking for work; 9.56 million willing to accept job assignments (available to work); and 51.1 million people not in labour force consisting of 13 million male and 38.1 million female.

The types of economic activity or non-activity engaged in by men and women were different. Men of the working age group were mostly employed (79.6 percent), whereas only less than half of the women (45.1 percent) of the same age were employed, with the other half engaged in household duties (Table 4.1). The table shows contradictory

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<sup>49</sup> 1945 Constitution, Chapter IX, Paragraph 27

GPI figures on daily activity between the employed group (far below 100 percent), on the one hand, and the unemployed groups and the groups doing household duties, on the other.

**TABLE 4.1:**

**Working Age Population by Type of Economic Activity and Sex, 2010**

| Type of Activity    | Male         | Female       | Total        | Gender Parity Index* |
|---------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|----------------------|
| Employed            | 79.6         | 45.1         | 62.3         | 56.7                 |
| Unemployed          | 5.0          | 9.7          | 7.3          | 194.3                |
| Not in Labour Force | 15.4         | 45.2         | 30.4         | 292.8                |
| <b>Total</b>        | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> |                      |

\*The Institute for Statistics of UNESCO also uses a more general definition of GPI: for any development indicator one can define the GPI relative to this indicator by dividing its value for females by its value for males (Koronkiewicz,2008)

Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

Looking at the 2000 Population Census data, there appeared to be a greater proportion of women (53.5 percent) in the labour force in 2000 than in 2010 with the GPI at 68 (Table 4.2). In 2010 there were more than twice as many men in the labour force than women. In 2000, the GPI was 68 which shows that there were more women in the labour force in 2000 compared with women in the labour force in 2010. Comparing persons not in the labour force, 2010 saw more women than men in this category at a GPI of 292.8 (Table 4.1) while there were more women not in the labour force in 2000 at a GPI of 252.4 (Table 4.2).

**TABLE 4.2:**

**Working Age Population by Type of Activity and Sex, 2000 and 1990**

| Age group/Type of Activity | 2000         |              |              |                      | 1990         |              |              |                      |
|----------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|----------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|----------------------|
|                            | Male         | Female       | Total        | Gender Parity Index* | Male         | Female       | Total        | Gender Parity Index* |
| Employed                   | 78.8         | 53.5         | 66.1         | 67.9                 | 69.1         | 37.7         | 53.2         | 54.5                 |
| Unemployed                 | 4.0          | 3.0          | 3.5          | 75.5                 | 2.0          | 1.5          | 1.8          | 76.1                 |
| Not in Labour Force        | 17.2         | 43.5         | 30.4         | 252.4                | 28.8         | 60.8         | 45.0         | 210.8                |
| <b>Total</b>               | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> |                      | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> |                      |

\*The Institute for Statistics of UNESCO also uses a more general definition of GPI: for any development indicator one can define the GPI relative to this indicator by dividing its value for females by its value for males (Koronkiewicz,2008)

Source: Derived from 2000 Population Census (BPS, 2002) and 1990 Population Census (BPS, 1992)

The 1990 Population Census data also showed a similar gender gap in labour force participation. In fact, the GPI is closer to 2010's figures compared to the figures from 2000, suggesting that there were more men than women in the labour force. However in regards to those who are unemployed, the gender gap in 1990 was closer to the gap in 2000. However, for those who are not in the labour force at all, the numbers in 1990 were much higher than they were compared with 2000 and 2010.



Looking back at the last 30 years, there are more women now than in 1990 engaged in wage work. The proportion of women who are not in the labour force has been relatively steady over the last 20 years. As in many countries across the world, men's participation is proportionately greater than women's participation in the workforce, principally because the prevailing gender ideology demands that men play the breadwinner role while women are expected to be the primary caregiver. Indonesia is no different in this respect.<sup>50</sup> About 74.7 percent, or 38.2 million out of 51.1 million, of women made up the non-economic work force.

Based on SAKERNAS 2011, among those women who made up the non-economic work force, some were attending school (15.9 percent), housekeeping (76.4 percent) or doing other kinds of non-economic activity (7.8 percent). This pattern was different from the group of non-economically active males which comprised of those doing schooling (49.2 percent), housekeeping (12.2) or other (38.7 percent). Such figures indicate that household chores are still considered a female responsibility.

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<sup>50</sup> Ananta, Aris (2014), *Gender and Ageing: Southeast Asian Perspectives*. Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies.

### 4.1.1. VARIATION OF DAILY ACTIVITY BY AGE GROUP

Dividing further the working age groups into three subgroups, youth (15-24 years old), adult subgroup (25-29 years old), and the older adult subgroup (65 years old or older), it was found that the activity pattern of men and women within each group was not similar.

Table 4.3 shows that working-aged men in the three groups - youth, adult and elderly - were generally involved in income-earning activities, while working-aged women were involved in a variety of activities. In general, only women belonging to the adult subgroups were involved in income-earning activities, while the women in youth and elder subgroups were doing household duties; with the percentage of adult females not in labour force shown to be more than 10 times that of males. The GPI figures in the table indicate that there were more working aged males who were employed, but more working aged females who were looking for a job or willing to work. In the youth subgroup the GPI figure was 113.1 percent, while in the adult subgroup, it was 344.7 percent (the largest) and in the elder subgroup, it was 144.9 percent.

**TABLE 4.3:**

**Percentage of Working Age Population by Type of Activity, Age Group and Sex, 2010**

| Age Group    | Type of Activity           | Male        | Female      | Total       | Gender Parity Index* |
|--------------|----------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|----------------------|
| 15-24        | Employed                   | 45.4        | 29.6        | 37.5        | 65.2                 |
|              | Unemployed                 | 12.8        | 14.5        | 13.7        | 113                  |
|              | Not in Labour Force        | 41.8        | 55.9        | 48.8        | 133.7                |
| 25-59        | Employed                   | 93.7        | 52.8        | 73.4        | 56.4                 |
|              | Unemployed                 | 2.7         | 9.4         | 6.1         | 344.7                |
|              | Not in Labour Force        | 3.6         | 37.8        | 20.6        | 1051.6               |
| 60+          | Employed                   | 69.2        | 34.3        | 50.3        | 49.5                 |
|              | Unemployed                 | 0.7         | 1.1         | 0.9         | 144.9                |
|              | Not in Labour Force        | 30.1        | 64.7        | 48.8        | 215.1                |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>Employed</b>            | <b>79.6</b> | <b>45.1</b> | <b>62.3</b> | <b>56.7</b>          |
|              | <b>Unemployed</b>          | <b>5.0</b>  | <b>9.7</b>  | <b>7.3</b>  | <b>194.3</b>         |
|              | <b>Not in Labour Force</b> | <b>15.4</b> | <b>45.2</b> | <b>30.4</b> | <b>292.8</b>         |

\*The Institute for Statistics of UNESCO also uses a more general definition of GPI: for any development indicator one can define the GPI relative to this indicator by dividing its value for females by its value for males (Koronkiewicz,2008)

Source: 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

This trend has shifted over time. In the 2000 Population Census data, while more men than women were working, there were proportionately far less women who were looking for a job in all the age groups except for those in the 60+ age group where there were slightly more women (0.5) than men (0.4) who were seeking work (Table 4.5). Based on the 2010 Population Census data, it could be assumed that more women are looking for employment because greater numbers of women are educated, and that the 'male as breadwinner' model is slowly being replaced by the 'dual-earner' model due to the increasing cost of living. However, unlike the 2000 Population Census data, the 1990 data shows that there were fewer women than men from the older generation (60+ group) who were seeking work (Table 4.5).

Overall, if the female labour force participation rate in Indonesia is compared to its neighbouring countries (see Figure 4.1) based on figures from 2008, Indonesia is falling behind Thailand (70 percent) and Singapore (60.2 percent) while only Malaysia's female labour force participation rate is lower (45.7 percent).<sup>51</sup> In fact, the low representation of women in employment occurs in Indonesia in spite of equal education opportunities accessible to both males and females. Interestingly, this trend of significantly lower representation of women in the workforce has also been observed in the other two predominantly Muslim countries in Southeast Asia - Malaysia and Brunei Darussalam. In comparison to OECD countries, labour supply in Indonesia among women is fairly low.<sup>52</sup> While there are cultural reasons for not wanting to work, it has also been argued that the lack of affordable childcare so as to facilitate work demands and family commitments is a contributing factor. However, among women with increasing education, their labour supply increases concomitantly.

**TABLE 4.4:**

**Percentage of Working Age Population by Type of Activity, Age Group and Sex, 2000 and 1990**

| Age group/Type of activity | 2000 |        |       |                      | 1990 |        |       |                      |
|----------------------------|------|--------|-------|----------------------|------|--------|-------|----------------------|
|                            | Male | Female | Total | Gender Parity Index* | Male | Female | Total | Gender Parity Index* |
| 15-24**                    |      |        |       |                      |      |        |       |                      |
| Employed                   | 45.7 | 38.9   | 42.3  | 85.1                 | 39.2 | 24.9   | 32.0  | 63.7                 |
| Unemployed                 | 9.7  | 6.7    | 8.2   | 68.4                 | 3.5  | 2.7    | 3.1   | 78.2                 |
| Not in Labour Force        | 44.5 | 54.4   | 49.5  | 122.2                | 57.4 | 72.3   | 64.9  | 126.1                |
| 25-59                      |      |        |       |                      |      |        |       |                      |
| Employed                   | 93.8 | 61.1   | 77.6  | 65.1                 | 95.0 | 49.6   | 71.9  | 52.2                 |
| Unemployed                 | 1.9  | 1.7    | 1.8   | 88.2                 | 1.0  | 0.8    | 0.9   | 75.2                 |
| Not in Labour Force        | 4.3  | 37.3   | 20.6  | 875.1                | 4.0  | 49.7   | 27.2  | 1239.5               |
| 60+                        |      |        |       |                      |      |        |       |                      |
| Employed                   | 67.4 | 30.2   | 47.8  | 44.8                 | 67.4 | 30.1   | 47.8  | 44.8                 |
| Unemployed                 | 0.5  | 0.3    | 0.4   | 60.7                 | 0.5  | 0.3    | 0.4   | 60.7                 |
| Not in Labour Force        | 32.1 | 69.5   | 51.8  | 216.4                | 32.1 | 69.5   | 51.8  | 216.4                |
| Total                      |      |        |       |                      |      |        |       |                      |
| Employed                   | 78.8 | 53.5   | 66.1  | 67.9                 | 78.8 | 53.5   | 66.1  | 67.9                 |
| Unemployed                 | 4.0  | 3.0    | 3.5   | 75.5                 | 4.0  | 3.0    | 3.5   | 75.5                 |
| Not in Labour Force        | 17.2 | 43.5   | 30.4  | 252.4                | 17.2 | 43.5   | 30.4  | 252.4                |

\*The Institute for Statistics of UNESCO also uses a more general definition of GPI: for any development indicator one can define the GPI relative to this indicator by dividing its value for females by its value for males (Koronkiewicz,2008)

\*\*Age group for 1990 census is 10-24 years

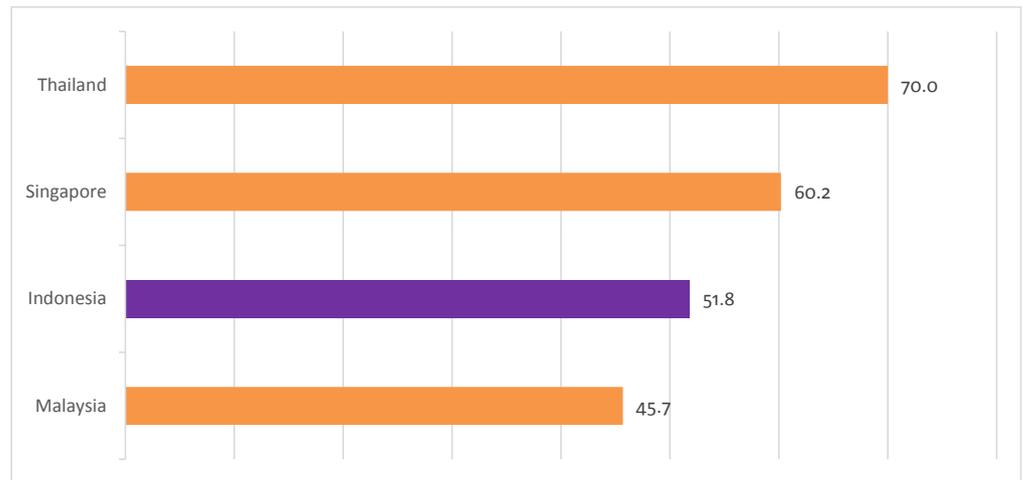
Source: Derived from 2000 Population Census (BPS, 2002) and 1990 Population Census (BPS, 1992)

51 Economic Planning Unit (2010) "Tenth Malaysia Plan 2011-2015". Putrajaya: Prime Minister's Department. URL:<[http://www.pmo.gov.my/dokumenattached/RMK/RMK10\\_Eds.pdf](http://www.pmo.gov.my/dokumenattached/RMK/RMK10_Eds.pdf)>(accessed 2 July 2015).

52 OECD (2008) *OECD Economic Surveys: Indonesia: Economic Assessment*. Vol 2008/17. Paris: OECD.

**FIGURE 4.1:**

**Percentage of Labour Force Participation of Women in Indonesia Compared to ASEAN Neighbouring Countries, 2008**



Source: Labour and Social Trends in ASEAN (Economic Planning Unit, Department of Statistics and International Labour Organisation, 2008)

## 4.2. Gender Gap in Labour Force Participation Rate

Labour force participation rate (LFPR) is one of the key indicators of labour market (KILM); it is indicative of the relative size of the labour input of work needed to produce goods and services.<sup>53</sup> Using the approach mentioned above, the national average of LFPR in 2010 was in the vicinity of 69.9 percent but there was a significant discrepancy between men and women: 84.6 percent for men and 54.8 percent for women. However, without including the population who were willing to work, the approach used in the 1990 and 2000 Population Censuses, the national level of LPFR in 2010 became 64 percent - 81.2 percent for males and 46.8 percent for females.

### 4.2.1. LFPR VARIATION ACROSS AGE GROUPS AND EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

The highest value of LFPR in 2010 was found for the 25-59 years age group, where the figure for men was 96.4 percent and for women 62.2 percent (or GPI value of 64.6 percent). There was a negative correlation between age group and GPI, suggesting that the older the age group, the smaller the level of women's participation in the labour force compared to men's.

The 2000 Population Census data shows a different trend from that of the 2010 Population Census data. In the 15-24 and 60+ age groups, there was a far greater proportion of females who were in the labour force compared with males. However, in the age group of 25-59 years, the GPI was relatively similar to 2010. Following the 2010 Population Census data among the 15-24 age group it is possible to infer that a greater number have decided to continue in school instead of entering the labour force.

53 54BPS, 2011 Indikator Tenaga Kerja

The 1990 Population Census data also displays an interesting trend. In every age group, there are nearly twice as many men than women in the labour force especially among the 25-59 and 60+ age groups. That aside, following the trends of the most recent Population Censuses (2000 and 2010), the 1990 census data shows that in the past, there was a greater proportion of men who were in the workforce compared with women, suggesting that generally over the three decades, there has been very little change in terms of gender role differentiation.

The pattern of labour supply between men and women across educational levels was similar, although men's LFPR was always higher than women's. The GPI value was lowest in the group having senior high school diploma (60.5 percent), while the highest was found in the group having postgraduate degrees. The value of the GPI was quite homogenous, between 60-68 percent, for the group with high school or lower but it steeply increased when the educational level increased from high school to college. This suggests that women with higher education are more likely to join men in the labour force compared to women with medium or lower educational levels. This is also not surprising since, "compared with previous generations, young men and women [of today] are [more] likely to be in school longer and experience a later entry into the labour market".<sup>54</sup>

That the more educated women join the labour force was a trend also found in the 2000 Population Census data. This was the case for Indonesian women with Diploma I, II right up to university although the gap widens slightly among those with DIII/Academy qualifications. Compared to the 2010 Population Census, the Population Census in 2000 found that there were more women (62.5 percent) than men (87.6 percent) from the "did not complete/not yet completed primary school" group who were found in the labour force at that time.

As in the Population Census data from 2000, the same trend was found in 1990. At the higher educational levels (vocational right up to university levels), the GPI tended to be much higher than in the lower educational levels, suggesting that as women were more educated or received more advanced training in a skill, they were more likely to join the labour force. However, in contrast to the 2000 Population Census data, in the 1990 Population Census data there were twice as many men than women in the "did not complete/not yet completed primary school" who worked. In 2010 Population Census data, there were fewer women in that same group who were in the workforce. However, in 2010, the GPI had improved amongst this group.

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54 Naafs, Suzanne (2013) "Youth, Gender, and the Workplace: Shifting Opportunities and Aspirations in an Indonesian Industrial Town". *ANNALS, AAPSS*, 646: 233-50.



### 4.3. Gender Gap in Employment

#### 4.3.1. VARIATION OF EMPLOYMENT ACROSS AGE GROUP

The distribution of employed males and females across the age classes - youth, adult, and elderly - as shown in Table 4.5, tend to be similar even though percentage-wise, they are a little different. At the national level, employed people, both males and females, were found to belong mainly to the adult group, followed by the youth group in second place and the elder group falling into third place. Apparently, a significant gender gap was found within the youth group (113.3 percent), when compared to the adult group (97.4 percent), and the elder group (102.0 percent).

In terms of age groups, those from ages 25-59 dominated the workforce in 2010 and this group had the highest GPI when compared with 2000 and 1990. This suggests that the gender gap for the working group aged 25-59 years has been closing since 1990 (see below for discussion).

TABLE 4.5:

## Percentage of Employed Population by Background/Characteristics and Sex, 2010

| Background/Characteristics                                       | Male         | Female       | Male+Female  | Male/Female Ratio |
|--|--------------|--------------|--------------|-------------------|
| <b>Age Group</b>   |              |              |              |                   |
| 15-24  | 13.8         | 15.6         | 14.4         | 113.3             |
| 25-59  | 77.7         | 75.6         | 76.9         | 97.4              |
| 60+  | 8.6          | 8.8          | 8.7          | 102.0             |
| <b>Marital Status*</b>   |              |              |              |                   |
| Not Married yet  | 20.8         | 15.8         | n.a          | 76.0              |
| Married  | 76.1         | 72.0         | n.a          | 94.6              |
| Divorced   | 1.7          | 3.6          | n.a          | 261.8             |
| Widow  | 1.7          | 8.6          | n.a          | 508.2             |
| <b>Work Status</b>   |              |              |              |                   |
| Self employed  | 24.4         | 20.7         | 23.1         | 84.7              |
| Self-employed assisted by unpaid temporary employees             | 17.2         | 7.2          | 13.6         | 42.1              |
| Employer assisted by paid permanent employees                    | 4.3          | 1.8          | 3.4          | 41.8              |
| Employee   | 34.3         | 31.1         | 33.1         | 90.5              |
| Casual Worker  | 14.1         | 8.6          | 12.1         | 61.0              |
| Unpaid Family Worker   | 5.7          | 30.6         | 14.7         | 541.1             |
| <b>Main Sector</b>   |              |              |              |                   |
| Agricultural, Forestry, afforestation, Fisheries                 | 39.5         | 42.3         | 40.5         | 107.3             |
| Mining and Quarrying   | 1.5          | 0.3          | 1.1          | 19.7              |
| Manufacturing  | 9.7          | 12.7         | 10.8         | 131.2             |
| Electricity, Gas and Drinking Water                              | 0.5          | 0.1          | 0.4          | 20.8              |
| Construction   | 8.1          | 0.3          | 5.3          | 4.0               |
| Wholesale, Retail trade, Restaurants and Hotels                  | 15.5         | 23.5         | 18.4         | 151.7             |
| Transportation, Storage and Communication                        | 7.7          | 0.7          | 5.2          | 8.8               |
| Financial, Insurance, Rent, Building, Land and Services activity | 1.1          | 1.1          | 1.1          | 99.0              |
| Public Services  | 16.5         | 19.0         | 17.4         | 115.4             |
| <b>Work Hours</b>  |              |              |              |                   |
| 0 Hour**   | 2.3          | 2.6          | 2.4          | 111.7             |
| 1 - 14 Hours   | 3.7          | 9.8          | 6.1          | 262.6             |
| 15 - 24 Hour   | 9.1          | 16.1         | 11.8         | 177.0             |
| 25 - 34 Hours  | 12.6         | 15.6         | 13.7         | 123.1             |
| 35 - 39 Hours  | 9.8          | 10.8         | 10.1         | 110.5             |
| 40 - 48 Hours  | 32.4         | 23.1         | 28.9         | 71.1              |
| 49 - 59 Hours  | 17.6         | 10.9         | 15.1         | 61.9              |
| ≥ 60 Hours   | 12.5         | 11.2         | 12.0         | 90.1              |
| <b>Total</b>   | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> |                   |

\*SUSENAS, 2012

\*\*for the time being, not working

Source: 1. Badan Pusat Statistik ( 2011), 2. Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

The same age group (25-59 years) dominated the workforce according to the 2000 Population Census data. But it was amongst those in the 60+ group that the GPI was the highest at 101.6, suggesting that the number of males and females in this age group who were working is nearly equal to that found in the entire population (Tables 4.6).

Amongst those younger (10-24 years), the GPI indicated that larger numbers of women were working when viewed in comparison with the larger population. This could be seen as problematic, because at a young age girls/women of this age group arguably should be in school rather than in the labour force, which would result in a positive long-term impact on these girls/women.

**TABLE 4.6:**

**Percentage of Employed Population by Age Group and Sex, 2000 and 1990**

| Age Group    | 2000         |              |              |                      | 1990         |              |              |                      |
|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|----------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|----------------------|
|              | Male         | Female       | Total        | Gender Parity Index* | Male         | Female       | Total        | Gender Parity Index* |
| 15-24**      | 16.55        | 21.26        | 18.46        | 128.42               | 23.91        | 27.35        | 25.14        | 114.38               |
| 25-59        | 73.37        | 68.51        | 71.39        | 93.37                | 68.09        | 65.55        | 67.18        | 96.26                |
| 60+          | 10.07        | 10.23        | 10.14        | 101.59               | 7.99         | 7.10         | 7.68         | 88.83                |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> |                      | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> |                      |

\*The Institute for Statistics of UNESCO also uses a more general definition of GPI: for any development indicator one can define the GPI relative to this indicator by dividing its value for females by its value for males (Koronkiewicz,2008)

\*\*10-24 age group for 1990 Population Census

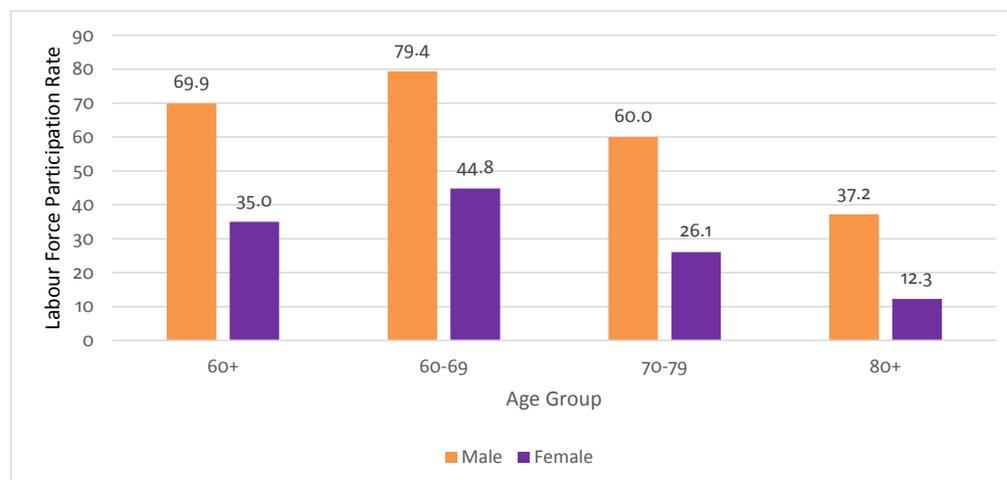
Source: Derived from 2000 Population Census (BPS, 2002) and 1990 Population Census (BPS, 1992)

### 4.3.2. EMPLOYMENT AMONG THE ELDERLY

The 2010 Population Census data also shows that among the older cohorts, a greater proportion of older males (70 percent) compared with older females (35 percent) was reported as being actively engaged in the labour force (see Chart 23). While it may be argued that the significant difference in labour force participation between the sexes may be because men have always worked throughout the life course in keeping with social expectations of being the breadwinner in the family, higher levels of morbidity amongst women would have also prevented them from engaging in wage work.

### 4.3.3. VARIATION OF EMPLOYMENT ACROSS MARITAL STATUS

The marital status distribution of the employed cohort of the population is no different for males and females, although the percentage was not exactly the same. The percentage of employed unmarried and married women was lower than for men. However, the percentage of employed divorced and widowed women was far higher than men. This fact corresponds to a very high GPI value which was 261.8 percent for divorced and 508.2 percent for widowed women (back to Table 4.5).

**FIGURE 4.2:****Labour Force Participation Rates of Older Age Group by Sex, 2010**

Source: 2010 Population Census (as cited in UNFPA, 2014)

## 4.4. Gender Gap on Employment Status

If the employed people were disaggregated based on their employment status, the pattern of employment distribution between men and women would be different. About one-third of men were earning income through their labour (34.3 percent), although many were self-employed (24.4 percent). The remainder, about 41.3 percent, was earning an income through self-employment as unpaid employees, employers, casual workers and unpaid family workers.

When comparing males and females with regard to their role in income earning, the percentage of women working as unpaid family workers far exceeds the corresponding percentage of men, with a GPI of 541.1 percent. Because this group of women (standing at 30.6 percent) is unpaid, the value of their work does not count as income and thus the value of the country's national income is lower than otherwise might be (Table 4.5).

That men were more likely employers or self-employed and assisted by others was also the trend in the 2000 Population Census data (Table 4.7), as it was in the 2010 Population Census data. In the employee group; women's proportions increased in 2010 and were approaching those of men, indicating that if women were to be employed, a greater proportion would be dependent on others for employment. In 2000 women were also likely to be unpaid workers (39.9) compared with men (7.6) with a GPI of 528.5 which is also a GPI similar to that in the 2010 Population Census.

The 1990 census data (Table 4.7) also showed that men were more likely to be employers or self-employed and assisted by others (family help/temporary help). This trend shows in both the 2000 and 2010 Population Census data. As in 2000, women's proportions in the employee category also showed a gap with a GPI of 78.9. In 1990, the GPI was slightly larger, suggesting that the proportion of women in comparison to men as employees in

the workforce is slightly larger than it was in 2000 (72.7). Women were also likely to be family or unpaid workers (34.3) more than men (10.9) with a GPI of 315.

**TABLE 4.7:**

**Percentage of Employed Population by Work Status and Sex, 2000 and 1990**

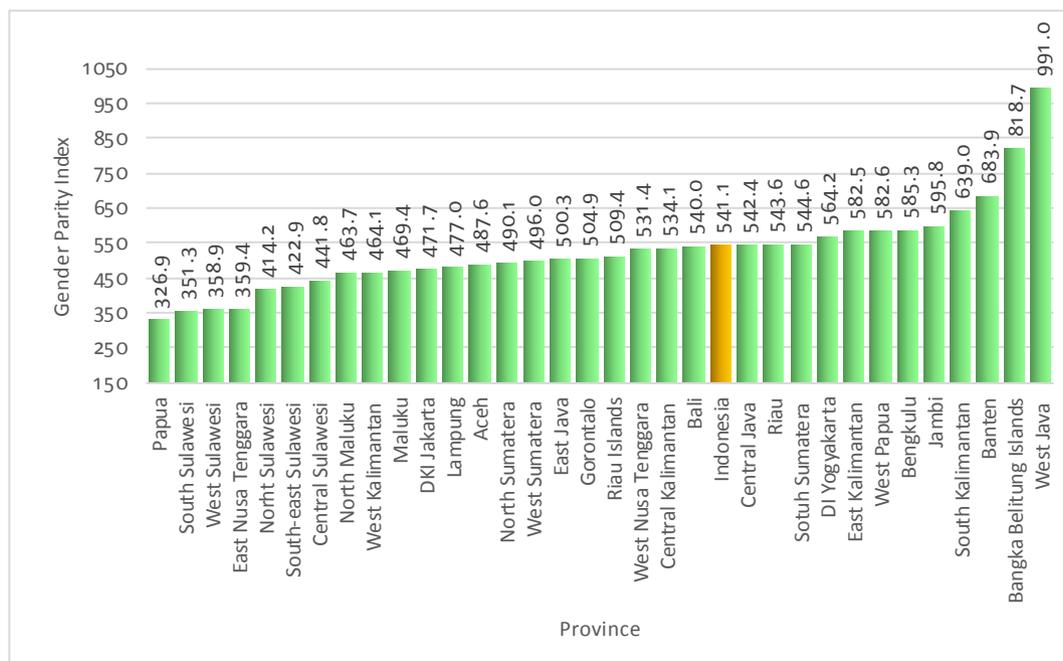
| Work Status                      | 2000         |              |              |                      | 1990         |              |              |                      |
|----------------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|----------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|----------------------|
|                                  | Male         | Female       | Total        | Gender Parity Index* | Male         | Female       | Total        | Gender Parity Index* |
| Self employed                    | 30.1         | 23.9         | 27.6         | 79.5                 | 21.3         | 16.7         | 19.7         | 78.7                 |
| Self-employed assisted by helper | 22.0         | 7.1          | 15.9         | 32.3                 | 28.0         | 17.22        | 24.1         | 61.6                 |
| Employer                         | 1.6          | 0.8          | 1.3          | 51.6                 | 1.8          | 0.9          | 1.5          | 52.7                 |
| Employee                         | 38.7         | 28.1         | 34.4         | 72.7                 | 37.6         | 29.7         | 34.8         | 78.9                 |
| Unpaid Family worker             | 7.6          | 39.9         | 20.7         | 528.5                | 10.9         | 34.3         | 19.3         | 315.0                |
| Not stated                       | 0.1          | 0.6          | 0.1          |                      | 0.5          | 1.2          | 0.7          |                      |
| <b>Total</b>                     | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> |                      | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> |                      |

\*The Institute for Statistics of UNESCO also uses a more general definition of GPI: for any development indicator one can define the GPI relative to this indicator by dividing its value for females by its value for males (Koronkiewicz,2008)

Source: Derived from 2000 Population Census (BPS, 2002) and 1990 Population Census (BPS, 1992)

**FIGURE 4.3:**

**Gender Parity Index on Unpaid Family Worker by Province, 2010**



Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)



The GPI of unpaid family workers across the provinces showed a great range. The fact that the value of GPI in all of the provinces was far more than 100 percent means that in all the provinces more women than men were employed as family workers. Figure 4.3 shows that the range of GPI is from 326.9 percent in Papua to 991.0 percent in West Java.

## 4.5 Gender Gap on Sectors of Employment

The questions on employment sector in the 2010 Population Census questionnaire were quite detailed. The employment sector was broken down into 19 sectors. However, for the purpose of intercensal comparison, the subdivision of the sectors used in the monograph will be a simplified. Reclassification is based on standard classification used by BPS not only for the census data but also for other large surveys, as well as the SAKERNAS and SUSENAS. That way, employment data can be easily compared across surveys.<sup>55</sup> In this monograph, employment sector classification has been reduced from 19 sectors to 9 sectors. A simpler classification is also often used, mostly based on the Revision 2 and 3 of the ISIC (International Standard Industrial Classification), which is as follows: primary sector, secondary sector and tertiary sector. The primary sectors include agriculture and mining, while the secondary sectors include the manufacturing and tertiary sector which also covers services.

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<sup>55</sup> BPS, 2009, Klasifikasi Baku Lapangan Usaha Indonesia (KBLI)

TABLE 4.8:

**Percentage of Employed Population by Main Sector and Sex, 2000 and 1990**

| Main Sectors  | 2000         |              |              |                      | 1990         |              |              |                      |      |
|---|--------------|--------------|--------------|----------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|----------------------|------|
|   | Male         | Female       | Total        | Gender Parity Index* | Male         | Female       | Total        | Gender Parity Index* |      |
| Food crops  | 33.1         | 37.0         | 34.7         | 111.6                | } 49.9       |              |              |                      |      |
| Plantations   | 6.2          | 6.26         | 6.2          | 101.0                |              |              |              |                      |      |
| Fishery   | 2.3          | 0.5          | 1.7          | 21.5                 |              |              | 48.1         | 49.3                 | 96.5 |
| Animal Husbandry  | 0.8          | 0.9          | 0.8          | 108.6                |              |              |              |                      |      |
| Others agriculture  | 4.0          | 3.6          | 3.8          | 90.8                 |              |              |              |                      |      |
| Manufacturing   | 8.3          | 8.0          | 8.2          | 96.7                 | 10.1         | 13.8         | 11.4         | 137.3                |      |
| Trade   | 11.6         | 14.1         | 12.6         | 121.9                | 11.7         | 20.2         | 14.7         | 172.6                |      |
| Services  | 20.7         | 14.7         | 18.3         | 71.0                 | 13.1         | 14.1         | 13.5         | 107.5                |      |
| Transportation  | 3.8          | 0.3          | 2.3          | 7.1                  | 5.7          | 0.2          | 3.7          | 2.9                  |      |
| Others including:   | 9.2          | 14.6         | 11.4         | 158.9                | 9.6          | 3.8          | 7.4          | 167.4                |      |
| Construction  |              |              |              |                      | 6.0          | 0.3          | 4.0          | 4.7                  |      |
| Financing, insurance, real estate & business services, not stated |              |              |              |                      | 0.9          | 0.5          | 0.7          | 60.5                 |      |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> |                      | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> |                      |      |

\*The Institute for Statistics of UNESCO also uses a more general definition of GPI: for any development indicator one can define the GPI relative to this indicator by dividing its value for females by its value for males (Koronkiewicz, 2008)

Source: Derived from 2000 Population Census (BPS, 2002) and 1990 Population Census (BPS, 1992)

There were differences in the employment sectors in which men and women were employed. Both groups contributed as much as 40 percent in the agricultural sector. But it must be noted that involvement in agriculture does not mean actually working in farms. There has been research showing that women have contributed less labour to agriculture especially in the more urbanized villages, but nonetheless continue to be involved in the decision-making about agriculture.<sup>56</sup> However, the remaining 60 percent of men worked in the following five sectors: services (16.5 percent), trade (15.5 percent) and manufacturing industry (9.7 percent), construction and transportation (8.1 percent); while the remaining 60 percent of women were employed in the following three sectors: trade (23.5 percent), services (19.0 percent) and manufacturing (12.7 percent).

As in 2010, the 2000 Population Census data found that 44.7 percent of those in the labour force were engaged in the food crops, plantations sectors and other agricultural sectors (Table 4.8). Men in the remaining labour force were employed in the following four sectors: services (20.7 percent), trade (11.6 percent) manufacturing (8.3 percent) and transportation (3.8 percent); while the remaining 60 percent of women were employed in the following three sectors: services (14.7 percent), trade (14.1 percent) and manufacturing (8.0 percent). Moreover unlike 2010, the 2000 census data showed that

<sup>56</sup> Kusujarti, Siti and Ann Tickamyer (2000) "Gender Division of Labor in Two Javanese Villages". *Gender, Technology and Development*, 4(3): 415-39.



there were slightly more women (37 percent) than men (33 percent) who were involved in the food crop or agricultural sector, while in the plantations, the gap was negligible (6.2 percent versus 6.3 percent). In manufacturing, the difference was also slight with more males (8.3 percent) than females (8.0 percent) employed in this sector. However, in comparison to the 2010 Population Census data, the gap in this sector in 2000 where it was significantly more dominated by females (12.7 percent) compared with males (9.7 percent).

According to the 1990 Population Census data, 49.3 percent of the workforce was employed in the agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishery sectors. As in 2000 and 2010, more women (13.8 percent) worked in manufacturing compared with men (10.1 percent). Men in the remaining labour force were employed in the wholesale trade, retail trade, restaurants and hotel sectors (11.7 percent) and public services (13.1 percent) although there were more women working in these work sectors at 20.2 percent and 14.1 percent, respectively (Table 4.8). However, men dominated the construction sector (6.0 percent) compared with women (0.3 percent) although this sector was much smaller than most of the other sectors.

## 4.6. Gender Gap on Work Hours

Generally men work more hours than women. Short working hours tend to be associated more with women than men as suggested by the fact that only 27.8 percent of men worked less than 35 hours weekly while a greater portion of women (44 percent) worked less than 35 hours a week. The employed population which spends less than average working hours at work, while still needing additional work or earnings, tends to be grouped as underemployed.

The working hours appeared to be the same for both men and women, that is, between 40 and 48 hours a week; however, there were more men than women who worked that long. The percentage of men working 10 to 48 hours weekly was 32.4 percent, which was 9.4 percent higher than women (23.1 percent). The percentage difference did not imply a work condition that women performed lighter jobs than men. On top of working to earn income, women had domestic duties such as taking care of children and maintaining the household. Even today Indonesian women are obliged to execute these multiple roles according to cultural norms.

## 4.7. Gender Gap on Wages and Salaries

People from the Indonesian business world today enjoy work conditions in which employers are obliged to pay each employee a salary not lower than the set minimum wage;<sup>57</sup> however, the regulation is yet to be extended to cover those in the informal sector. The value of the minimum wage has been set at different levels in the different provinces and the popular term for it is *upah minimum provinsi* (UMP). Examples of UMP are shown in Appendix 2.

If wages were disaggregated by educational attainment and sex, it appears that the higher the education attainment the less the wage difference, in relative terms, between men and women, other things held constant. Table 4.9 presents data on average monthly wages received by a worker, both in the formal and informal sector, by education attainment and sex. It was found that monthly wages/salary received by a worker below the minimum wage is almost positively correlated with the worker's educational attainment. That is, the higher the education the higher the income. The above was true all education groups except for junior high school graduates who received wages/salaries lower than that of females having lower education.

In general, the average wage received by women was lower than that received by men. The average wage of women was Rp. 1.4 million while that of men was Rp. 1.7 million. The lowest wage was that for workers who had no schooling, even in this group the average wage received by women was inferior to that received by men, the average women's wage was Rp. 547,000 while that of men was Rp. 960,000 or women's average wage was only 56.9 percent that of men's. Needless to say workers with no schooling only did manual work so that the amount of goods produced by women is different from that of men. Nonetheless, the wage received by female university graduates was also

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57 Peraturan Menteri Tenaga Kerja No. 1 Tahun 1990, Pasal 1; Sources: SAKERNAS 2012

lower than that received by their male counterparts at Rp. 2.5 million and Rp. 3.6 million, respectively. From the employment sector point of view, the result shows that both men and women received the highest salary in the mining and quarrying sector. Table 4.9 also shows that in the mining and quarrying sector, men receive a salary of an average of Rp. 2.8 million per month while women received Rp. 2.5 million.

In three other sectors, namely construction, transport and services/finance, women receive wages greater than men's generally, because in these sectors women were relatively better educated than men.

**TABLE 4.9:**

**Average Wage /Salary (Rupiah) per Month by Background Characteristics and Sex, 2012**

| Background  | Male             | Female           | Female/Male  |
|---|------------------|------------------|--------------|
| Urban/Rural   |                  |                  |              |
| Urban   | 1,881,459        | 1,147,160        | 61.0         |
| Rural   | 1,385,487        | 1,903,776        | 137.4        |
| Education Attainment  |                  |                  |              |
| No Schooling  | 962,737          | 547,634          | 56.9         |
| Not/ not yet Completed  | 999,746          | 621,639          | 62.2         |
| Primary School  | 1,072,273        | 683,204          | 63.7         |
| Junior High School  | 1,185,850        | 659,505          | 55.6         |
| Senior High School  | 1,737,907        | 1,198,453        | 69.0         |
| Vocational  | 1,665,206        | 1,273,023        | 76.5         |
| Diploma I,II, III and Academy                                     | 2,541,036        | 2,030,139        | 79.9         |
| University  | 3,592,315        | 2,574,337        | 71.7         |
| Main Industry   |                  |                  |              |
| Agricultural, Forestry, Afforestation, Fisheries                  | 1,175,105        | 762,632          | 64.9         |
| Mining and Quarrying  | 2,807,191        | 2,529,501        | 90.1         |
| Manufacturing   | 1,523,715        | 1,094,969        | 71.9         |
| Electricity, Gas and Drinking Water                               | 2,263,159        | 1,807,867        | 79.9         |
| Construction  | 1,510,263        | 1,960,298        | 129.8        |
| Whole Sales, Retails trade, Restaurants and Hotels                | 1,367,945        | 1,066,283        | 78.0         |
| Transportation, Storage and Communication                         | 1,863,177        | 2,550,789        | 136.9        |
| Financial, Insurance, Rent, Building, Land, and Services activity | 2,208,586        | 2,309,799        | 104.58       |
| Public Services   | 2,113,915        | 1,567,123        | 74.13        |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>1,724,478</b> | <b>1,368,546</b> | <b>79.36</b> |

Source: Derived from 2012 SUSENAS (BPS, 2013)



According to the 2011 SAKERNAS results, around 17.8 percent of female workers in the construction sector had senior high school or higher educational qualifications, while among male workers—who are generally blue collar workers—only 3.1 percent attained that level of education. In the transport sector, the proportion of women with higher than senior high school diploma was 26.8 percent while the proportion of men with that level of education was 4.5 percent, whereas in service/finance sector 40 percent of women and 26.1 of men had that level of education.

#### 4.8. Gender Gap in Unemployment

It was discussed earlier in this chapter that in 2010, the underemployment rate for the female population (44 percent) was much larger than that of males (27.8 percent); or GPI equal to 158.5 percent. There is also an important key indicator of labour market participation, which is the open unemployment rate (OUR). This indicator is the ratio of the number of working age population who are unemployed, which includes those who are looking for work and available to work, to the number in the labour force.<sup>58</sup> At the national level, the value of OUR in 2010 for women was 17.9 percent, which was almost three times higher than the value for men (5.9 percent); the GPI, in this case, was 299.8 percent.

58 59BPS,2011, Indikator Pasar Tenaga Kerja Indonesia

### 4.8.1. VARIATION ON UNEMPLOYMENT ACROSS SEX GROUP

Table 4.10 shows the distribution of the unemployed population by age group and sex. The figures suggest that in 2010 only a small percentage of older males and females in the population needed to work (less than 1.5 percent). It is also clear from the table that the distribution pattern of the unemployed in the female population differs from that of the unemployed males. There were more unemployed young males than young females, while the opposite was true for the adult population. This is of no surprise since male youth are under greater pressure than young women to earn a stable income, because following marriage they are expected to become the breadwinners of the family.

In fact, there have been several studies that have argued that “employment insecurity threatens young men’s abilities to take on the responsibilities that are associated with male adulthood”.<sup>59</sup> Almost two-thirds of young males needed employment and about the same percentage of adult women were forced to work. Two reasons might be related to the high percentage of adult females looking for work. First, they need the money to support the family; and second, they had ample time since there was no longer a small child to take care of.<sup>60</sup>

**TABLE 4.10:**  
**Percentage of Unemployed Population by Age Group and Sex, 2010**

| Age group    | Male         | Female       | Total        | Gender parity Index* |
|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|----------------------|
| 15-24        | 62.3         | 35.7         | 44.7         | 57.3                 |
| 25-59        | 36.3         | 63.1         | 54.0         | 173.9                |
| 60+          | 1.4          | 1.3          | 1.3          | 87.2                 |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> |                      |

\*The Institute for Statistics of UNESCO also uses a more general definition of GPI: for any development indicator one can define the GPI relative to this indicator by dividing its value for females by its value for males (Koronkiewicz,2008)

Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

The 2000 Population Census data showed that almost equal proportions of men and women in the age group 15-24 years were looking for employment. Amongst the 25-29 age group, there were slightly more women than men seeking work. The greatest difference was found in the 60+ age group: a much larger proportion of women compared with men were looking for employment and the GPI was 182.7 (Table 4.11).

In 1990, an equal number of males and females in the age group 10-24 were seeking employment. The GPI was similar for those in the age group 25-59. In contrast in the older cohort (60+), slightly more men than women were unemployed. Compared with 1990 and 2000, females in the 25-59 age cohort in 2010 were almost twice as likely to seek employment (with a GPI of 173.85). In contrast in the age group 15-24, males were twice as likely to be unemployed compared with females (Table 4.11).

59 Naafs, Suzanne (2013) “Youth, Gender, and the Workplace: Shifting Opportunities and Aspirations in an Indonesian Industrial Town”. ANNALS, AAPSS, 646: 233-50; p.235.

60 SAKERNAS (2013)

TABLE 4.11:

**Percentage of Unemployed Population by Age Group and Sex, 2000 and 1990**

| Age Group    | 2000         |              |              |                      | 1990         |              |              |                      |
|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|----------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|----------------------|
|              | Male         | Female       | Total        | Gender Parity Index* | Male         | Female       | Total        | Gender Parity Index* |
| 10-24        |              |              |              |                      | 72.9         | 73.3         | 73.1         | 100.5                |
| 15-24        | 69.5         | 64.5         | 67.4         | 92.9                 |              |              |              |                      |
| 25-59        | 29.5         | 33.6         | 31.7         | 113.9                | 24.9         | 24.8         | 24.9         | 99.3                 |
| 60+          | 1.0          | 1.9          | 1.4          | 182.7                | 2.2          | 1.9          | 2.0          | 86.1                 |
| Not stated   | 0.01         | 0.01         | 0.01         | 122.5                | 0.00         | 0.09         | 0.04         | -                    |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> |                      | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> |                      |

\*The Institute for Statistics of UNESCO also uses a more general definition of GPI: for any development indicator one can define the GPI relative to this indicator by dividing its value for females by its value for males (Koronkiewicz,2008)

Source: Derived from 2000 Population Census (BPS, 2002) and 1990 Population Census (BPS, 1992)

#### 4.8.2. VARIATION ON UNEMPLOYMENT ACROSS EDUCATION

The level of unemployment among educated males and females, that is, graduates of educational institutions higher than high school (diploma, academy, university and post graduate school) was very similar; both were at a little less than 7 percent. However, most of the GPI figures are higher than 100 percent among the low educated (which includes those with no education, not completed primary school, and primary school), Diploma I and II holders.

On the other hand, there were more unemployed males than females who graduated from junior high school, senior high school (including vocational school) and postgraduate school. This means that females with high school attainment, especially vocational school, and postgraduate school, could find jobs much easier than their male counterparts.

Difficulties in securing gainful employment among those with lower levels of education have led to Indonesians migrating temporarily to the more affluent countries in the Southeast Asian region or further away in search of wage work. Among this group are also those who migrate for employment because wages tend to be more attractive abroad than if they remained in Indonesia. Migration in search of paid employment is a viable option for many of the rural poor in Indonesia since the Indonesian Government has not been able to produce non-farm work quickly enough to absorb the “vast army of underemployed labour [especially] in its agricultural sector”.<sup>61</sup>

Thus, for Indonesia, international migration is dominated by labour migration. As a country, Indonesia has the fourth largest population in the world. It is a lower-middle income country and in 2008 was ranked 108 out of 210 countries in the world in terms of

61 Stahl, Charles W. (2003) 'International Labour Migration in East Asia: Trends and Policy Issues.' In *Migration in the Asia Pacific: Population, Settlement and Citizenship Issues*, edited by Robyn Iredale, Charles Hawksley, and Stephen Castles. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar, p. 39.



GDP per capita.<sup>62</sup> In spite of having been able to weather two economic crises (1998 and 2008), the country continues to battle unemployment.<sup>63</sup> It's rapidly growing population despite its fertility rate having declined over the recent decades means that the country has a huge surplus of workers.

### 4.8.3 INDONESIAN MIGRANT WORKERS

It is of little surprise then that Indonesia is one of the largest exporters of migrant labour in the world. However, in spite of significant numbers of Indonesians leaving the country for abroad in search of wage work, the country's trends in international migration were not captured in the 2010 Population Census. In order to analyze trends in international migration, the discussion utilizes data documented by BPN2TKI, the *Badan Nasional Penempatan dan Perlindungan Tenaga Kerja Indonesia* (The National Authority for the Placement and Protection of Indonesian Overseas Workers). The data from BNP2TKI on international migrants however does not state the length of stay of each respondent.

According to the data from BNP2TKI the major destination regions for Indonesian migrant workers in 2009 include the Middle East (Bahrain, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and United Arab Emirates) and East and Southeast Asia (Brunei Darussalam, Hong Kong

62 OECD (2010) *OECD Economic Surveys: Indonesia 2010*. Vol 2010/18.

63 "Youth unemployment needs serious attention". URL: <<http://www.thejakartapost.com/news/2010/08/20/youth-unemployment-needs-serious-attention.html>> (accessed 23 June 2015)

SAR, Japan, Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Singapore and Taiwan) (Table 4.12).<sup>64</sup> In 2015, Malaysia continued to be the most popular destination for Indonesians seeking work (Table 4.13). According to the Malaysian Ministry of Human Resources, 50 percent of the approximately two million migrant workers employed in Malaysia in 2008, were from Indonesia, reflecting the scale of Indonesian labour migration to Malaysia.<sup>65</sup> Moreover it has been reported that in 2004, more than 90 percent of domestic workers in Malaysia came from Indonesia.<sup>66</sup>

**TABLE 4.12:**

**Placement of Indonesian Labour Migrants by Major Destination Country in 2009**

| No. | Destination Country      | Total   |
|-----|--------------------------|---------|
| 1.  | Malaysia                 | 222,198 |
| 2.  | Singapore                | 37,496  |
| 3.  | Brunei Darussalam        | 5,852   |
| 4.  | Hong Kong SAR            | 29,973  |
| 5.  | Republic of Korea        | 3,830   |
| 6.  | Japan                    | 96      |
| 7.  | Taiwan Province of China | 50,810  |
| 8.  | Saudi Arabia             | 257,217 |
| 9.  | Kuwait                   | 25,756  |
| 10. | UAE                      | 28,184  |
| 11. | Bahrain                  | 2,267   |
| 12. | Qatar                    | 10,449  |
| 13. | Jordan                   | 12,062  |
| 14. | Oman                     | 7,150   |

Source: BNP2TKI - The National Authority for the Placement and Protection of Indonesian Overseas Workers (2009), as cited in International Organization for Migration (2010)

*Labour Migration from Indonesia: An Overview of Indonesian Migration to Selected Destinations in Asia and the Middle East.* Jakarta, Indonesia: International Organization for Migration.

The bulk of Indonesia's migrants tend to be semi-skilled or low-skilled, working in the agricultural, forestry, construction sectors (dominated by men) and the domestic work sector (dominated by women). In Malaysia, the labour sectors tend to be differentiated along gender lines as Indonesian male migrant workers have been absorbed into the

64 International Organization for Migration (2010) *Labour Migration from Indonesia: An Overview of Indonesian Migration to Selected Destinations in Asia and the Middle East.* Jakarta, Indonesia: International Organization for Migration.

65 International Organization for Migration (2010) *Labour Migration from Indonesia: An Overview of Indonesian Migration to Selected Destinations in Asia and the Middle East.* Jakarta, Indonesia: International Organization for Migration.

66 Human Rights Watch (2004) *Help Wanted: Abuses against Female Migrant Domestic Workers in Indonesia and Malaysia.* July Vol. 16, No. 9B. URL: <<http://www.hrw.org/sites/default/files/reports/indonesia0704full.pdf>>(accessed 16 July 2015)

plantation and construction sectors, while their female counterparts have been received into the domestic work and services sectors. Increasingly, migrant women from Indonesia are also employed in the manufacturing sector.<sup>67</sup>

**TABLE 4.13:**

**Placement of Indonesian Labour Migrants by Major Destination Country in 2015 (Until March)**

| No. | Destination Country | Total   |
|-----|---------------------|---------|
| 1.  | Malaysia            | 222,198 |
| 2.  | Taiwan              | 37,496  |
| 3.  | Saudi Arabia        | 5,852   |
| 4.  | Singapore           | 29,973  |
| 5.  | Hong Kong SAR       | 3,830   |
| 6.  | Oman                | 96      |
| 7.  | Brunei              | 50,810  |
| 8.  | South Korea         | 257,217 |
| 9.  | UAE                 | 25,756  |
| 10. | Bahrain             | 28,184  |

Source: BNP2TKI - The National Authority for the Placement and Protection of Indonesian Overseas Workers (2015)

URL:<[http://www.bnptki.go.id/uploads/data/data\\_15-07-2015\\_105713\\_Laporan\\_Pengolahan\\_Data\\_BNP2TKI\\_S.D\\_30\\_JUNI\\_2015.pdf](http://www.bnptki.go.id/uploads/data/data_15-07-2015_105713_Laporan_Pengolahan_Data_BNP2TKI_S.D_30_JUNI_2015.pdf)>(accessed 17 July 2015)

Yet in 2015 the domestic work sector has continued to be the largest labour sector into which Indonesians entered at 34,020 followed by the caregiver sector (12,516) and production operator sector (7,859).<sup>68</sup> It is little wonder that in recent years there were more women than men from Indonesia migrating for work abroad. Female migration has been a significant trend in the last few decades as growing numbers of women join the migration flows abroad. Especially since 2004 onwards, the numbers of women migrating for work has been gradually increasing (Table 4.14) up to a point where in 2006 and 2007, there were more than half a million of women migrating abroad for wage work.

In recent years, more Indonesian women have been migrating for work abroad than Indonesian men (Table 4.15) although their numbers have been gradually falling in recent years (Figure 4.4), possibly because of the rising prospects of finding employment within Indonesia. In fact in 2013, there were 168,318 women joining the domestic work sector while in 2014, the numbers dropped to 133,390. The same can be said of the caregiver sector and of male migrants (Figure 4.5). Nevertheless, the proportion of women migrating for work abroad has consistently exceeded that of men in recent years.

67 Azizah Kassim (2001) "Recent Trends in Migration Movements and Policies in Malaysia". In *International Migration in Asia: Trends and Policies*. Paris: OECD; Crinis, Vicki (2005) "The Devil You Know: Malaysian Perceptions of Foreign Workers", *Review of Indonesian and Malaysian Affairs*, Vol. 39 (2): 91-111.

68 BNP2TKI (The National Authority for the Placement and Protection of Indonesian Overseas Workers) (2015)

**TABLE 4.14:**

**Number of Indonesian Women in International Labour Flows, 2000-2007**

| Year   | 2000    | 2001    | 2002    | 2003    | 2004    | 2005    | 2006    | 2007    |
|--------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Number | 297,273 | 239,942 | 363,614 | 213,824 | 296,615 | 325,045 | 542,000 | 543,859 |

Source: BNP2TKI - The National Authority for the Placement and Protection of Indonesian Overseas Workers (2009), as cited in International Organization for Migration (2010)

<<http://www.bnp2tki.go.id/content/view/180/87/>>(accessed 25 July 2010)<sup>69</sup>

(BNP2TKI-Badan Nasional Penempatan dan Perlindungan Tenaga Kerja Indonesia (Indonesian National Authority for the Placement and Protection of Indonesian Overseas Workers)

**TABLE 4.15:**

**Number of Indonesian Men and Women in International Labour Flows, 2011-2015**

| Sex of Migrants | 2011    | 2012    | 2013    | 2014    | 2015 (until 31 March) |
|-----------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|-----------------------|
| Male            | 210,116 | 214,825 | 235,170 | 186,243 | 28,233                |
| Female          | 376,686 | 279,784 | 276,998 | 243,629 | 44,684                |

Source: Penempatan Tenaga Kerja Indonesia, Tahun 2011 - 2015 (s.d. 31 Maret), (BNP2TKI-Badan Nasional Penempatan dan Perlindungan Tenaga Kerja Indonesia (Indonesian National Authority for the Placement and Protection of Indonesian Overseas Workers, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015)

The economic impulse forms the primary factor for seeking out employment abroad.<sup>70</sup> Remittances have gone towards the education of children and younger siblings as well as health bills of ageing parents and buying land. In 2012, Indonesia received US\$7.2 billion worth of remittances from around 6.5 million migrants working abroad, making the country the third-largest recipient of remittances in Southeast Asia.<sup>71</sup>

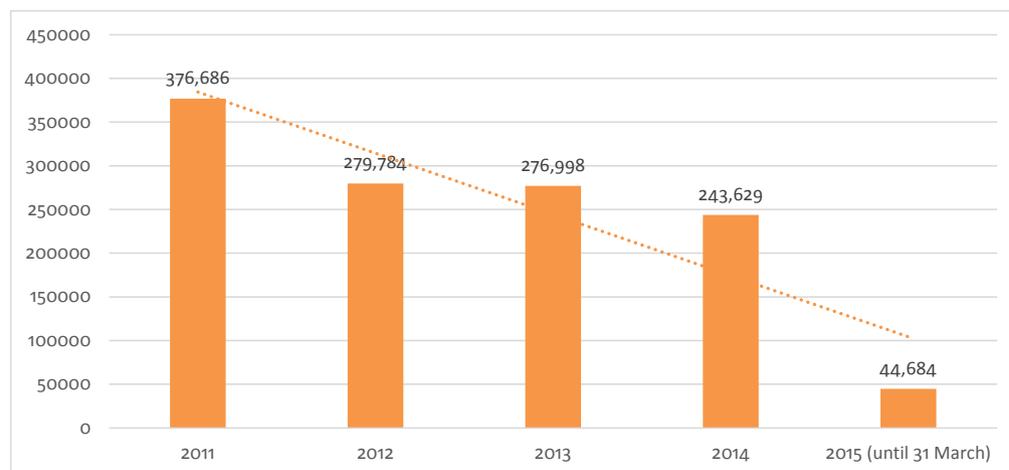
Migration has enabled migrants to seek out a better life for themselves and their families who remain in Indonesia. But because they are seeking higher wages in the destination economies, female and male migrants have become vulnerable to various labour and human rights abuses. In fact because the bulk of migrants are concentrated in low-paid and low-status jobs, many are vulnerable to labour abuses such as the withholding of wages and verbal and physical abuse.

69 As cited in Theresa Devasahayam and Ann Brooks (2011) *Gender, Emotions and Labour Markets: Asian and Western Perspectives*. London: Routledge.

70 Devasahayam, Theresa W. (2013) "Making the Most of Remittances: Obligations, Aspirations, and Precarity among Indonesian Women Migrants in Singapore", *Diversities*, 15(1): 21-36.

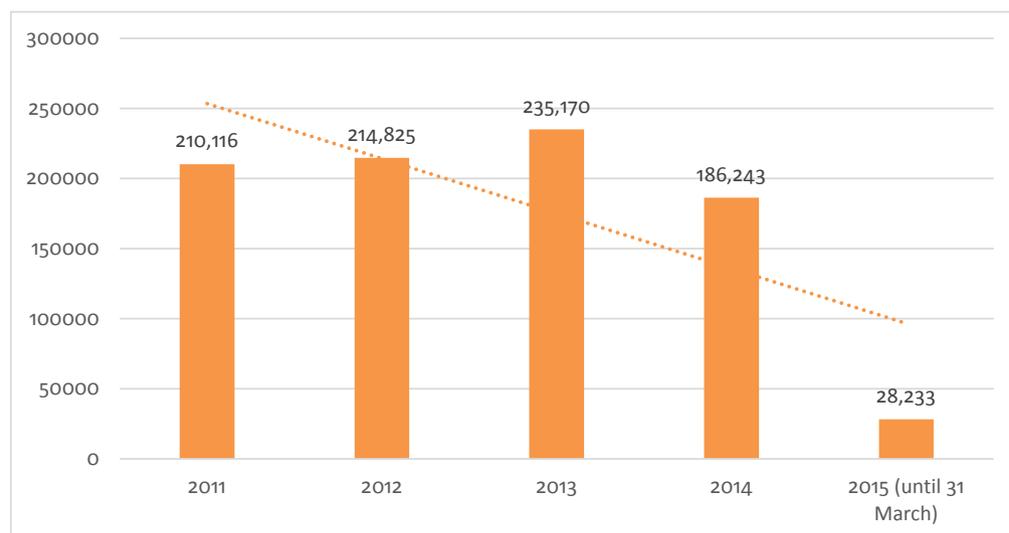
71 Veeramalla Anjaiah (2013) "RI ranks third on SE Asia remittance list", The Jakarta Post, April 29. URL:<<http://www.thejakartapost.com/news/2013/04/29/ri-ranks-third-se-asia-remittance-list.html>>(accessed 17 July 2015)

**FIGURE 4.4:**  
**Numbers of Women from Indonesia Migrating for Work Abroad, 2011-2015**



Source: Penempatan Tenaga Kerja Indonesia, Tahun 2011 - 2015 (s.d. 31 Maret), (BNP2TKI-Badan Nasional Penempatan dan Perlindungan Tenaga Kerja Indonesia (Indonesian National Authority for the Placement and Protection of Indonesian Overseas Workers, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015)

**FIGURE 4.5:**  
**Numbers of Men from Indonesia Migrating for Work Abroad, 2011-2015**



Source: Penempatan Tenaga Kerja Indonesia, Tahun 2011 - 2015 (s.d. 31 Maret), (BNP2TKI-Badan Nasional Penempatan dan Perlindungan Tenaga Kerja Indonesia (Indonesian National Authority for the Placement and Protection of Indonesian Overseas Workers, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015)

Women migrants, in particular, are vulnerable to a series of labour abuses, including health risks,<sup>72</sup> because of their gender identity. In Singapore, for example, while all workers are protected under the country's labour laws, including foreign workers, these laws do not apply to domestic workers since they work on short-term contracts.<sup>73</sup> Furthermore,

72 International Labour Organization (2007) *Hanging by a Frayed Rope*. Jakarta, Indonesia: International Labour Organization. URL:<[http://ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/---ilo-jakarta/documents/publication/wcms\\_1172](http://ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/---ilo-jakarta/documents/publication/wcms_1172)>(accessed 16 July 2015)

73 'Asia's Labour Migration Dynamics', Asia Development Outlook 2008. URL:<<http://www.adb.org/Documents/books/ADO/2008/part020303.asp>>(accessed 8 November 2009).

they are especially vulnerable to labour abuses and sexual exploitation because of the nature of the work they engage in. Their work cannot be closely surveyed since it occurs behind closed doors; they are confined to the household of their employers<sup>74</sup> as they are contracted to work as domestic workers and caregivers for the sick and elderly.<sup>75</sup> Moreover, because they are dependent on their employers as sponsors, this leaves them at the mercy of the employers who feel that they have full monopoly over the movement and activities of these women.<sup>76</sup>

Generally, the Governments of receiving destinations in the Asian region have been slow in reacting to the need to protect foreign nationals, including Indonesian migrants working on their shores, arguing that migrant workers are protected by national laws and labour policies, although in reality they are not because of their immigrant status.<sup>77</sup> Moreover, these Governments have argued that labour practices are private sector business practices for which Governments should not intervene in order to ensure a market-oriented system.<sup>78</sup>

Attempts to address migrant worker rights violations have occurred at various levels on the Indonesian side. Indonesia resorted to establishing pre-departure programmes to empower its migrant workers by providing information and increasing awareness on key issues related to labour practices.<sup>79</sup> Because of the limits to managing labour from the sending country Indonesia has pressured some labour-receiving Governments to address migrant worker abuses promptly, lest the situation lead to 'irritation' in bilateral ties.<sup>80</sup> Such is the case of Indonesia's ties with Malaysia.

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74 Yeoh, Brenda S.A., Shirlena Huang and Theresa W. Devasahayam (2004) "Diasporic Subjects in the Nation: Foreign Domestic Workers, the Reach of the Law and Civil Society in Singapore", *Asian Studies Review*, 28: 7-23; Brooks, Ann and Theresa Devasahayam (2011) *Gender, Emotions and Labour Markets: Asian and Western Perspectives*. London: Routledge.

75 Loveband, Anne (2004) "Positioning the product: Indonesian migrant women workers in Taiwan". *Journal of Contemporary Asia*, 34(3): 336-48.

76 Kaur, Amarjit (2007) "International labour migration in Southeast Asia: governance of migration and women domestic workers", *Intersections: Gender, History and Culture in the Asian Context*, 15. URL:< <http://intersections.anu.edu.au/issue15/kaur.htm>>(accessed 4 January 2010).

77 Yeoh, Brenda S.A., Shirlena Huang and Theresa W. Devasahayam (2004) "Diasporic Subjects in the Nation: Foreign Domestic Workers, the Reach of the Law and Civil Society in Singapore", *Asian Studies Review*, 28: 7-23; Piper, Nicola (2004a) "Gender and migration policies in Southeast and East Asia: legal protection and sociocultural empowerment of unskilled migrant women", *Singapore Journal of Tropical Geography*, 25(2): 216-31 & (2004b) 'Rights of foreign workers and the politics of migration in South-east and East Asia', *International Migration*, 42:71- 97.

78 Devasahayam, Theresa W. (2010) "Placement and/or Protection?: Singapore's Labour Policies and Practices for Temporary Women Migrant Workers", *Journal of the Asia Pacific Economy*, 15(1): 45-58.

79 Devasahayam, Theresa (2011) ""Say No to Seks Bebas!": Transnational Women Migrants and Indonesia's Strategies for HIV Prevention". *Intersections: Gender and Sexuality in Asia and the Pacific*, Issue 26, URL:<<http://intersections.anu.edu.au/issue26/devasahayam.htm>>(accessed 23 August 2015)

80 "Jakarta wants KL to settle maid abuse cases promptly", *The Malaysian Insider*, 29 January 2010.

#### 4.8.4 INDONESIAN MIGRANT WORKERS

While international migration fuelled by the aim of seeking employment abroad is a recent phenomenon in Indonesia, migration within the country has had a much longer history. In fact internal migration has been responsible for the growth of cities in Indonesia. Human flows into the urban areas are not uncommon in Indonesia, since it is the urban areas that afford more employment opportunities to those from the rural areas seeking wage work. Since urbanization is also occurring through transformations of rural areas into urban areas, it is likely that migration flows will begin to flow into traditionally rural areas as a result of the outward spread of large cities.<sup>81</sup> Interestingly, during the 1997 financial crisis, which hit Indonesia very badly, there was a “turnaround” in migration with many migrants returning to the villages and contributing to agricultural activities at least temporarily.<sup>82</sup>

The 2010 Population Census data shows that males are more likely to migrate compared with females. There is evidence that Indonesian men choose to migrate for economic reasons in keeping with the ‘male as breadwinner’ model. There are also cultural reasons for males to migrate more than females although female migration has been increasing in the last few decades. Among the Minangkabau, for example, young men are expected to leave the community for long periods to prove their worth and build their status based on *merantau* employment.<sup>83</sup>

Among the lifetime migrant population, the data reveals that for every 100 females, there have been 111 males who had migrated in their lifetime (see Table 4.16). Among non-migrant populations however there were equal proportions of males and females. This pattern does not change markedly among recent migrants. The 2010 Population Census data shows that for every 100 females who were a recent migrant, there were 110.3 males; indicating that as with lifetime migrants males are slightly more likely to migrate compared with females (see Table 4.16). Among the recent non-migrant population, a similar pattern as in the life-time non-migrant population was found: the ratio was 100.5 males to 100 females.

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81 Webster, Douglas R. (2004) *Urbanization Dynamics and Policy Frameworks in Developing East Asia*, The World Bank, East Asia Infrastructure Department, Washington D.C.

82 Jones, Gavin, Terrence Hull and Dennis Ahlburg (2000). “The social and demographic impact of the Southeast Asian Crisis of 1997-1999”. *Journal of Population Research*, 17(1): 39-62.

83 Indrizal E. Problems of elderly without children: a case study of the matrilineal Minangkabau, West Sumatra. In: Kreager P, Schröder-Butterfill E, editors. *Ageing Without Children: European and Asian Perspectives*. Oxford: Berghahn; 2004. pp. 49–76; Kraeger, P. “Migration, social structure and old-age support networks: a comparison of three Indonesian communities”. *Ageing and Society*, 26(1): 37-60.

TABLE 4.16

**Proportion of Population by Migration Status and Sex, 2010**

| Migration Status | Male        | Female      | Total        | Sex Ratio    |
|------------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|
| Lifetime migrant |             |             |              |              |
| - Migrant        | 52.9        | 47.3        | 100.0        | 111.3        |
| - Non-migrant    | 50.0        | 50.0        | 100.0        | 100.1        |
| Total            | 50.3        | 49.7        | 100.0        | 101.4        |
| Recent Migrant   |             |             |              |              |
| - Migrant        | 52.4        | 47.6        | 100.0        | 110.3        |
| - Non-migrant    | 50.1        | 49.9        | 100.0        | 100.5        |
| <b>Total</b>     | <b>50.2</b> | <b>49.8</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.7</b> |

Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

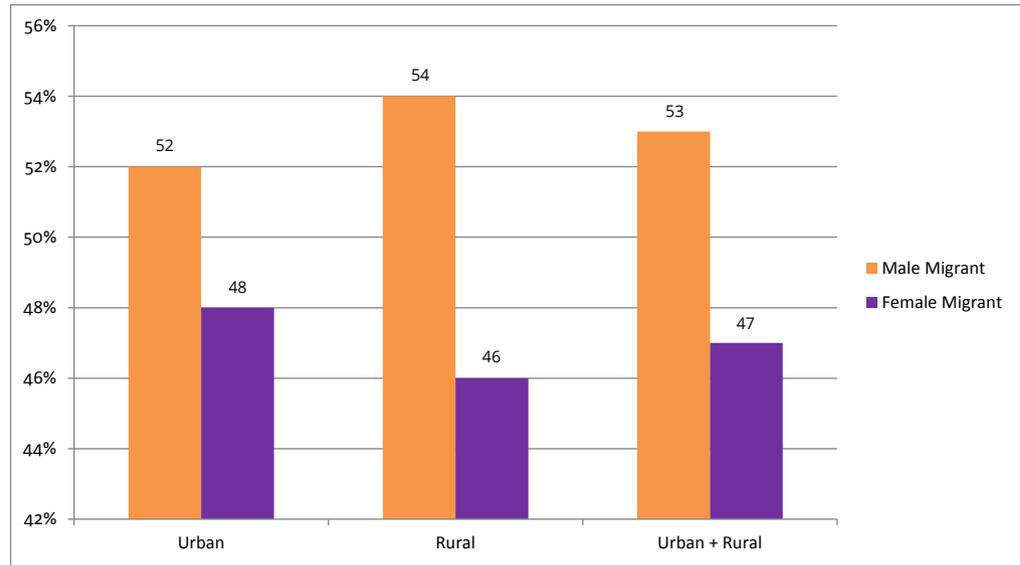
A closer look at the lifetime migrant population by gender presents an interesting picture. The 2010 Population Census data of the entire country shows that there is a gender difference in internal migration trends between males and females. For Indonesia as a whole, there were more men (53 percent) compared to women (47 percent) who migrated within the country (see Figure 4.6). The difference was slightly less among the urban population wherein men comprised 52 percent of migrants while women 48 percent of migrants. In the rural reaches of the country, however, the difference between male and female migrants was found to be the largest at 54 percent for males and 46 percent for females. In other words, the difference in internal migration patterns across the sexes was seen to be most pronounced in the rural areas.

By looking at the 2010 Population Census data from the most populous provinces such as West Java, East Java and Central Java in comparison to the least populous province such as West Papua, overall it appears that slightly more men than women have chosen to migrate (see Figure 4.7). But the percentage difference is largest for the least populous province of West Papua. In this case, it could be assumed that males were migrating for work such as to establish businesses since in 2010, the governors of West Java and West Papua signed an agreement to enable annually the establishment of 700 West Javanese farming households in West Papua. Furthermore, Indonesians from other provinces have been moving into West Papua to take on employment in the service sectors such as transport, trade, hotels, and restaurants or to set up small businesses.<sup>84</sup> But this may not be the only reason for migration into West Papua. Papua Barat is one of the less urbanized areas in the country with a less vibrant economy compared to other provinces. For this reason, Indonesia's transmigration policy has focused on encouraging immigration flows into the province in recent years.

84 Resosudarmo, Budy P., Mollet Julius A. and Raya, Uumbu R. and Hans Kaiwai (2014) "Development in Papua after Special Autonomy". In *Regional Dynamics in a Decentralized Indonesia*. Hal Hill (ed). Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies.

**FIGURE 4.6:**

**Percentage of Lifetime Migrants Comparing Urban and Rural Areas by Sex, 2010**



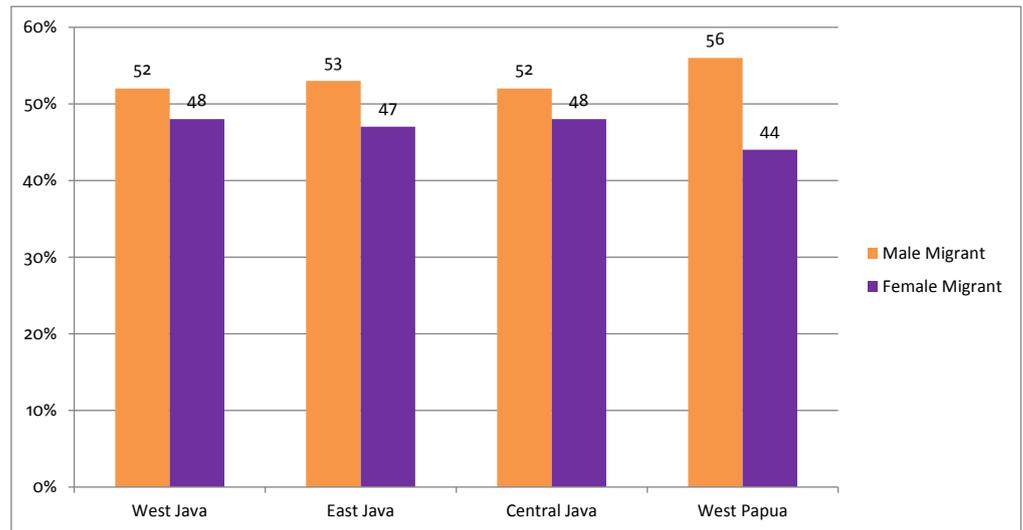
Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

The 2010 Population Census data also reveals another interesting gendered trend. Jakarta and the areas surrounding the capital including West Java continue to be a significant magnet for lifetime migrants.

The gender difference in the human inflow and outflow in the provinces with the highest number of lifetime migrants was most visible in West Java with men (52 percent) outnumbering women (48 percent) while the gender differential was only negligible (2 percent) for DKI Jakarta had (see Figure 4.8). However, DKI Jakarta had slightly more lifetime female migrants (49 percent) compared to West Java and Banten, although the number of lifetime male migrants was proportionally much less than that of West Java and Banten. In Gorontalo in North Sulawesi, a province with the lowest proportion of lifetime migrants, the gender differential was significant among its lifetime migrants; It was found that 47 percent of its lifetime migrant population was female while 53 percent were male.

**FIGURE 4.7:**

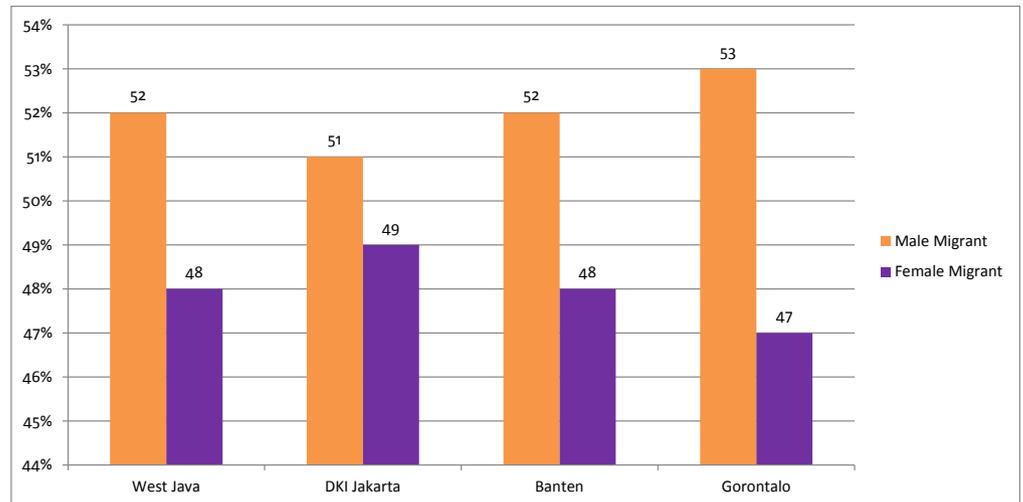
**Percentage of Lifetime Migrants by Sex, Comparing the Three Most Populous Provinces versus the Least Populous Province, 2010**



Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

**FIGURE 4.8:**

**Percentage of Lifetime Migrants by Sex, Comparing Three Provinces with the Highest Number of Lifetime Migrants versus the Province with the Lowest Number of Lifetime Migrants, 2010**

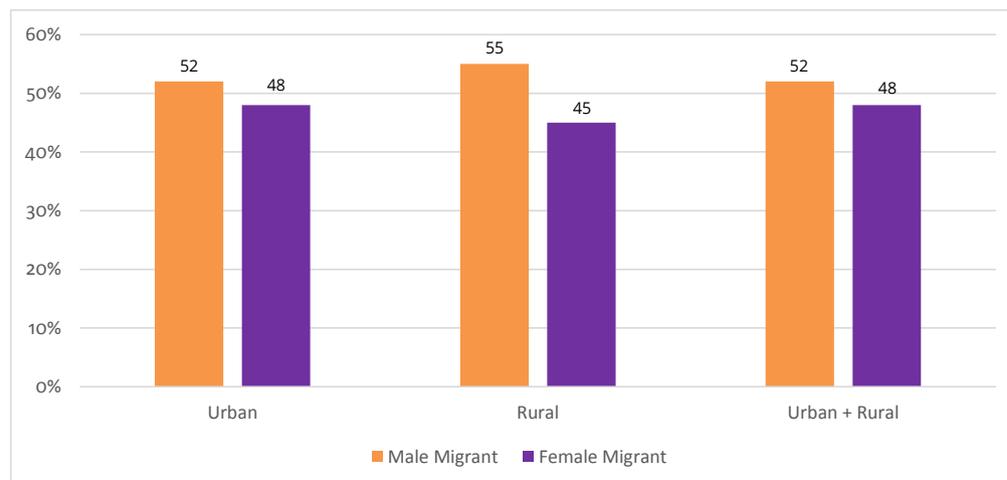


Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

Among the recent migrant population, the 2010 Population Census shows a greater gender difference between those in the urban and rural areas who have chosen to migrate. Among the rural migrant population, 55 percent were male while 45 percent were female (see Figure 4.9). This suggests that men tend to engage in migration more than women even in the rural areas. However, if the entire population of recent migrants in the country is taken into account, the difference is similar to that of the difference found in the urban areas, with slightly more males (52 percent) than females (48 percent) choosing to migrate recently. This suggests that overall in Indonesia, men are slightly more likely to migrate compared with women.

**FIGURE 4.9:**

**Percentage of Recent Migrants by Sex and Urban/Rural, 2010**



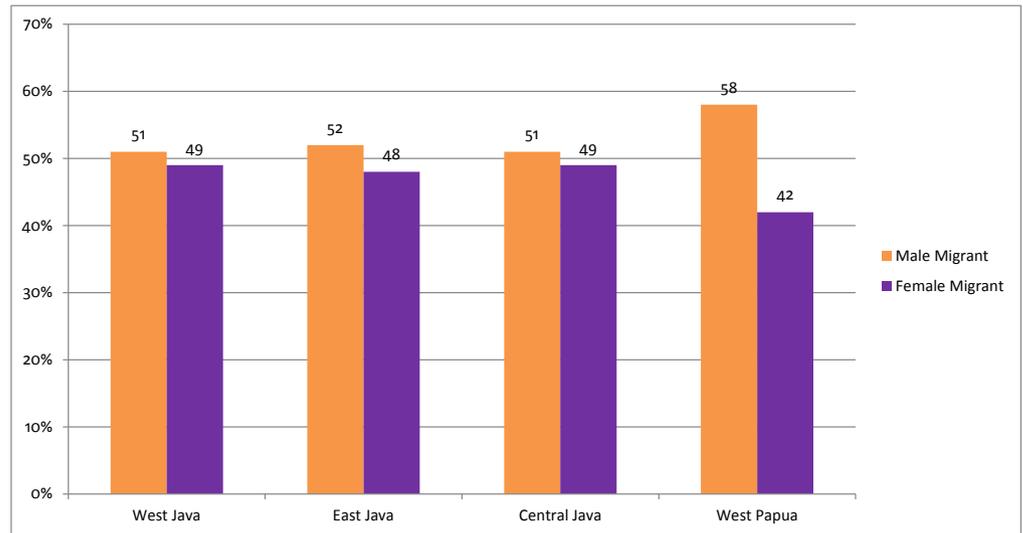
Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

Looking at the three most populous provinces in Indonesia, namely West Java, Central Java and East Java, there is only a slight percentage difference with more males than females being recent migrants (see Figure 4.10). In contrast in West Papua, which is the least populous province, the recent migrant population consists of a greater proportion of males at 58 percent over females at 42 percent. Thus in West Papua among the lifetime and recent migrants, males appear to outnumber females by a significant percentage. This might be explained by the fact that a proportion of the men may have migrated for employment purposes, as mentioned earlier.

Moreover, West Java, DKI Jakarta and Banten were the provinces with the highest proportion of recent migrants while North Maluku had the lowest proportion of recent migrants. In terms of recent migrants in these areas, the gender differential reverses only in DKI Jakarta where slightly more females (52 percent) than males (48 percent) were found among the recent migrants (see Figure 4.11). In North Maluku, the same pattern as in the other provinces was found: there were more males (56 percent) than females (44 percent) among the recent migrant population and the gender difference was significant.

**FIGURE 4.10:**

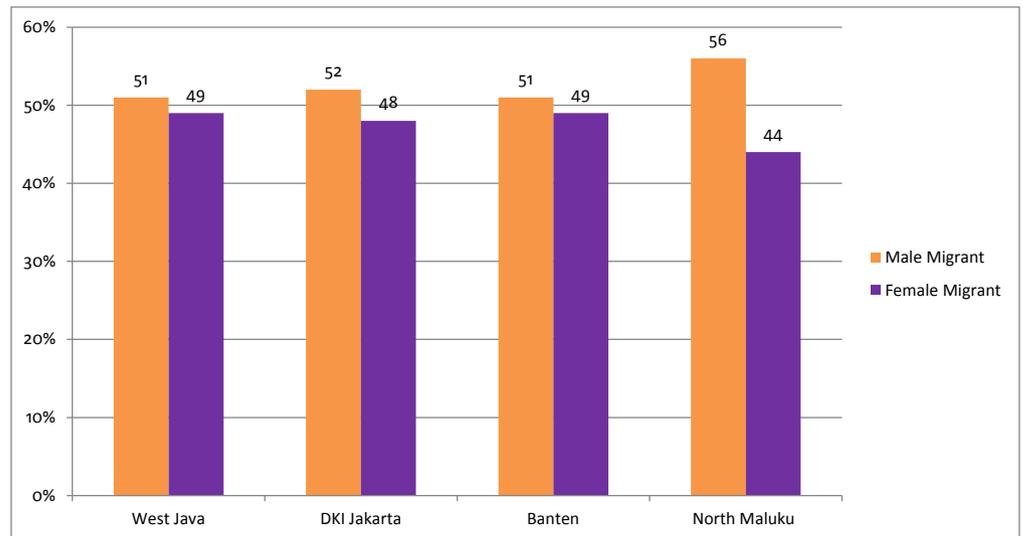
**Percentage of Recent Migrants by Sex in the Three Most Populous Provinces versus the Least Populous Province, 2010**



Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)

**FIGURE 4.11:**

**Percentage of Recent Migrants by Sex Comparing the Three Provinces with the Highest Number of Recent Migrants Versus the Province with the Lowest Number of Recent Migrants, 2010**



Source: Derived from 2010 Population Census (BPS, 2012)





## CONCLUSIONS

Although Indonesian women and girls have made some strides forward in the last decade or more, there are several areas in which they are consistently lagging behind men and boys. Gender gaps, for example, continue to be evident in education, employment and wages and will most likely persist unless there are robust policies put in place to address the gender inequalities and inequities in these areas.

In the 2010 Population Census, the percentage of males to females was almost the same as in the population as a whole. However, this pattern was not found in the subgroups: the proportion of young males was greater than young females while the reverse was found among the older cohorts of the population as female life expectancy was higher than that of males. Among the younger groups, early marriage was found among girls more than boys especially in the rural areas where the age at first marriage for females was lower than in the urban areas. In the 25-49 age cohort, age at first marriage was related to education and economic status.

Between 1990 to 2010, school enrolment among girls increased more compared with the previous decades. At the lower levels of education, girls have been found to be doing slightly better than boys. However, levels of enrolment among girls are still lower than that of boys, especially at the higher levels of education which is even more crucial to women's empowerment in the long run. Looking at the percentage of graduates of high school and above, there was a 4 percent difference between males and females. However, in terms of the overall rate of school enrolment, improvement has been larger for females than males, principally because of the successful implementation of various efforts made by the education system. These efforts included expanding and equalizing access to quality education - a development yardstick in Indonesia. The "Elementary School Presidential Instruction" pushed for elementary school development assistants along with the formulation of six years, nine years and twelve years compulsory education milestones, providing the bedrock for these efforts. Furthermore, the Presidential Instruction shortened the distance between school locations and children's residences, especially for females, thereby making it easier for girls to access education. Nonetheless, the problem of distance is still proving to be a challenge in some rural areas as not all rural areas have a primary school. Also to be noted is the fact that compulsory education has eased parents' burden in sending their children to school. In particular, girls benefited from the reduced competition for family resources since parents are obligated to allow their girls to attend school.

Among the old female cohorts, there were more widows and divorced women, while older males tended to be married. Because of the rise in the numbers of widows and divorced females, consequently there has been a rise in the number of female-headed households. Among the older cohorts, health is also a matter of concern, and because women live longer than their male counterparts, they live longer with disability. Overall, they are more vulnerable as they are less educated, less financially secure and living alone.

Generally, an Indonesian woman has her first child less than two years after marriage and the average number of children born at the end of the fertile period (total fertility rate) is 2.6. The delay may be explained by the ease at which contraception is now available to women which means that they have a choice to control the timing of their first child. In fact, a greater proportion of married women, about two thirds, are using contraception. Among men, however, the numbers who use contraception are very low, indicating that birth control use was a women's responsibility.

The results of the 2010 Population Census show that there is a correlation between female-headed households and poorer quality homes, compared with households headed by males which tend to be constructed with better quality materials. Since housing quality was also used as a non-monetary measure of household economic status, it could be asserted that female-headed households were poorer than male-headed households.

From a social point of view, the higher proportion of females now educated has lent to improvements in their well-being as well as that of their families, since there is a high correlation between "keeping the girl child in school" and delayed marriage and better health and nutrition outcomes. Subsequently, as they become mothers themselves, they tend to have a positive influence in the quality of their children's education as well as their nutrition and health.

From an economic point of view, improvements in female education had a positive impact on labour force participation as it enhanced female's bargaining position, especially in regards to wages/salaries. While assuming other factors remain the same, the higher the education, the smaller the difference between wages/salaries received by male and females. However, overall men receive higher wages than women with the exception of the construction and transportation sectors. The women who entered these sectors ended up in white-collar jobs as they took on administrative and clerical positions which demanded that they have a decent level of education, in contrast, the men in these industries commanded lower wages since they took on blue-collared jobs.





## RECOMMENDATIONS

To enhance the quality of the younger generation, female education should be one of the focuses of development, because it helps delay age at first marriage and enhances general knowledge for effective childcare. Consequently, educational facility enhancement especially at senior high school level in rural areas must receive great attention. However, this should not result in the neglect of male children's participation.

Reaching median age at first marriage around 20 years is a great achievement, however, it should not stop there. The Government should consider increasing the prevalence of contraceptive method/used, especially encouraging men to become active participants of family planning so that fertility stays low or continues to decrease.

As indicated by the lower quality of their dwelling units female-headed households were poorer than male-headed ones. It is imperative therefore that the participation of female-headed household heads be increased in income-generating activities in all regions. It is also necessary to monitor assistance to the poor so that female-headed households are not neglected, i.e. by administering receipts indicating the sex and the status of the household of assistance recipients.

Those with low income, especially females, generally earn their income from informal portions of agriculture, trade and public sectors. Workers in informal sectors do not usually enjoy security systems and workers' protection. It is suggested that the Government help them by, among other ways, (1) improving their life skills so that their income increases and (2) intensifying the motivation to the informal workers to participate in social security schemes.

Female educational improvement has motivated them to join the workforce. However, it does not free them from their reproductive function. Because society still considers raising children as the female responsibility, women would be greatly helped if the Government and other institutions develop widespread and easily accessed childcare facilities so that working females, both in the formal and informal sectors, can continue to focus on their jobs. This will also create work opportunity for job seekers.

As long as the gender gaps exists, gender analysis in various disciplines is essential in order to identify where action is needed. In addition, qualitative studies are also required to find out the factors causing the problems. To increase the utilization of data sources, secondary data analysis on gender issues is also warranted. Multivariate analysis for example, can identify gaps and causes of not going to school, factors influencing wages/salaries and female decisions to work. The Government and donor agencies should motivate women/gender study centers and research institutes to conduct these kind of studies.

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# Glossary

**Demographic dividend:** the economic growth potential that can result from shifts in a population's age structure, mainly when the share of the working-age population (15 to 64) is larger than the non-working-age share of the population (14 and younger, and 65 and older)., it is a boost in economic productivity that occurs when there are growing numbers of people in the workforce relative to the number of dependents. A country with both increasing numbers of young people and declining fertility has the potential to reap a demographic dividend.

**Dependency ratio:** A measure showing the number of dependents (aged 0-14 and over the age of 65) to the total population (aged 15-64). Also referred to as the "total dependency ratio".

Calculated by:

$$= \frac{\text{Number of Dependents}}{\text{Population (Ages 15 - 64)}} \times 100\%$$

**Education attainment:** The highest grade completed within the most advanced level attended in the educational system of the country where the education was received. Some countries may also find it useful to present data on educational attainment in terms of the highest grade attended.

**Employment status/status of work:** the status of an economically active person with respect to his or her employment.

**Gender:** the attitudes, feelings, and behaviors that a given culture associates with a person's biological sex. Behavior that is compatible with cultural expectations is referred to as gender-normative; behaviors that are viewed as incompatible with these expectations constitute gender non-conformity.

**Gender Mainstreaming:** the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in any area and at all levels. It is a strategy for making the concerns and experiences of women as well as of men an integral part of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres, so that women and men benefit equally, and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal of mainstreaming is to achieve gender equality.

**Gender Parity Index:** the ratio of the female-to-male value of a given indicator = (The value of indicator for female/the value of indicator for male) x 100%

**Industry/sector of work:** Goods-producing segment of an economy, including agriculture, construction, fisheries, forestry, manufacturing and services.

**Labour Force:** The total number of persons employed or employable in a country.

**Labour Force Participation Rate:** the percentage of working-age persons in an economy who are employed and unemployed but looking for a job.

**Literacy Rate:** The percentage of the population (usually 10 years old and over), who can read, write and understand simple messages in any language or dialect.

**School Enrolment rate:** The ratio of the enrolment for the age group corresponding to the official school age in the elementary/secondary or higher level to the population of the same age group in a given year.

**Sex Ratio:** (The number male/the number of female) x 100%

**Singulate Mean at Marriage:** the average length of single life expressed in years among those who marry before age 50.

**Total Fertility Rate:** Total fertility rate is defined as the average number of children that would be born to a woman if she experiences the current fertility pattern throughout her reproductive span (15-49 years).

**Unemployment:** The number of unemployed persons divided by the number of people in the labor force.

**Working Age Population:** people between the ages of 15-64. People in those age groups who are not counted as participating in the labor force are typically students, homemakers, and persons under the age of 64 who are retired.







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