

# Youth in Indonesia





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# Youth in Indonesia

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## Foreword

Indonesia's youth have the potential to contribute to an increasingly prosperous future for Indonesia and to make an impact on the world stage. Investing in youth education, health and wellbeing is an important focus for national development and the youth monograph provides data and evidence about the situation of youth that will be used for the development of a National Youth Strategy in Indonesia. It aims to contribute to informed discussion and debate about some of the key areas in which youth related policies are likely to be reviewed.

Making extensive use of data from the 2010 Population Census and other authoritative official statistics, the monograph provides a contemporary profile of the circumstances of youth in Indonesia today and how their circumstances have been changing over time. Major areas of concern covered include their historic and future growth in number, as well as their levels of educational participation and attainment, labour force activities, patterns of family formation and other aspects vital to their individual wellbeing and to Indonesia's future prosperity.

The theme of World Population Day in 2014 is 'Investing in Young People'. Adolescents and youth are central to the future development agenda. A safe and successful and healthy passage from adolescence into adulthood is the right of every child. This right can only be fulfilled if families and societies make focused investments and provide opportunities to ensure that adolescents and youth progressively develop the knowledge, skills and resilience needed for a healthy productive and fulfilling life.

It is with pleasure that we present this monograph, Youth in Indonesia. We hope that it will serve as a valuable reference for youth advocates, government, academicians, development partners, civil society, and other stakeholders in developing and implementing policies and programmes that will support Indonesia's youth and the country's future development.

Jakarta, July 2014.

**Jose Ferraris**

UNFPA Representative

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# Abbreviations And Acronyms

<b>ANU</b>	Australian National University
<b>ASFR</b>	Age Specific Fertility Rate
<b>BAPPENAS</b>	Badan Perencanaan Pembangunan Nasional (Indonesian Ministry of National Development Planning)
<b>BPS</b>	Badan Pusat Statistik (Statistics Indonesia)
<b>PD</b>	Population and Development
<b>ICPD-Po</b>	International Conference on Population and Development – Programme of Action
<b>ICT</b>	Information and Communication Technology
<b>IPUMS</b>	Integrated Public Use Microdata Series
<b>IDHS</b>	Indonesia Demographic Health Survey
<b>JJS</b>	Junior Secondary School
<b>MDGs</b>	Millenium Development Goals
<b>NEET</b>	Not Employment and Not in Education or Training
<b>NER</b>	Net Enrollment Ratio
<b>OECD</b>	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
<b>PISA</b>	Programme for International Student Assessment
<b>PT</b>	Perguruan Tinggi (Tertiary Education)
<b>SAKERNAS</b>	Survey Ketenagakerjaan Nasional (National Labour Force Survey)
<b>SDKI</b>	Survey Demografi dan Kesehatan Indonesia (Indonesia Demographic Health Survey)
<b>SMA</b>	Sekolah Menengah Atas (Senior Secondary School)
<b>SMP</b>	Sekolah Menengah Pertama (Junior Secondary School)
<b>SP</b>	Sensus Penduduk (Population Census)
<b>SUSENAS</b>	Survey Sosial Ekonomi Nasional (National Socio-economic Survey)
<b>TFR</b>	Total Fertility Rate
<b>UN</b>	United Nations
<b>UNFPA</b>	United Nations Population Fund



Chapter 1

# INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Background

The youth of today are generally healthier, better educated, more urbanized, enjoy greater access to knowledge, and are more connected with the rest of the world than the preceding generations. A growing body of research attributes this marked improvement in the life situations of young people to socio-economic development and the ensuing prolonged transition to adulthood.<sup>1</sup> Relative to their parents' generation, the youth of today tend to stay in school longer, postpone their entry into the labour market, and delay marriage and childbearing with the expectation of having fewer children.<sup>2</sup> However, this extended coming-of-age process presents new challenges, not only to youth themselves, but also to families and public institutions wanting to provide adequate support and resources for young people.<sup>3</sup> Strengthening the skills and capacities of youth in their prolonged transition to adulthood is an important concern for policy makers because today's youth are the future leaders and are key agents for economic growth, social change and technological innovation.<sup>4</sup>

The observation has been made that 80 per cent of technology becomes outdated within 10 years, while 80 per cent of the work force gained its qualifications more than 10 years ago.<sup>5</sup> In each wave of technology, therefore, it is young workers who assimilate new technology, playing a role that is complementary to older workers. Young, well-trained workers have been the conventional means by which economies have met their demand for workers skilled in the latest technology. For example, successful economic growth in the USA, Canada and Australia in the 19th century has been attributed to the dynamism of their young labour forces.<sup>6</sup>

In Indonesia, poverty, low rates of progression to the different levels of secondary schooling, premature entry into the workforce, restricted access to reproductive health services, and early marriage and parenthood are some of the challenges that continue to produce large disparities in the wellbeing of young people and in their life outcomes in adulthood.<sup>7</sup> These challenges are by no means unique to Indonesia. The UN General Assembly of Youth 2012 recognized the challenges associated with a high rate of unemployment of young people, and the persistent incidence of early marriage as well as adolescent birth.<sup>8</sup> Therefore, it is widely recognised that investing in the education

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1 See Lloyd, Cynthia B., ed. (2005). *Growing up global: The changing transitions to adulthood in developing countries*, National Academies Press; Furstenberg Jr, Frank F. (2010) "On a new schedule: Transitions to adulthood and family change," *The future of children* 20(1): 67-87; Yeung, Wei-Jun Jean, and Cheryl Alipio. (2013). "Transitioning to Adulthood in Asia School, Work, and Family Life." *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* 646 (1): 6-27.

2 UN Economic and Social Council, Commission on Population and Development Forty-Fifth Session, 2012. *Adolescents and Youth, Report of the Secretary General*.

3 Furstenberg Jr, Frank F. loc.cit

4 UN Assembly of Youth 2012. Resolution 2012/1 Adolescent and Youth.

5 Larsson, A. (2003). Director General for Employment and Social Affairs, European Commission, [www.jrc.es/projects/enlargement/FuturesEnlargement/Bled-01-11/Presentations/larsson.pdf](http://www.jrc.es/projects/enlargement/FuturesEnlargement/Bled-01-11/Presentations/larsson.pdf).

6 Hatton, Timothy and Williamson, Jeffrey (1998). *The Age of Mass Migration: Causes and Economic Impact*. New York: Oxford University Press.

7 Ibid.

8 Ibid.

and health of young people should be made a priority in developing policies geared towards facilitating their participation in the labour market.

The Government of Indonesia has announced that it is currently working towards a youth-focused development agenda<sup>9</sup>. This monograph aims to assist this work by providing a contemporary evidence-based profile of Indonesian youth in some key areas of policy concern. Using data primarily derived from the 2010 Population Census, the areas of concern in this monograph cover five general themes: i) the size, structure and growth of the youth population; ii) their distribution and patterns of movement within Indonesia, iii) their educational experience, iv) their involvement in the labour force, and finally v) their patterns of family formation.

While a large part of the analysis is based on the results of Indonesia's 2010 Population Census, supplementary information from other national data collections including the Indonesian Demographic and Health Surveys (SDKI), the National Socio-economic Surveys (SUSENAS) and the National Labour Force Surveys (SAKERNAS) are also used as appropriate in the respective areas of concern.

This introductory chapter starts by considering the statistical and conceptual definitions of youth. To follow, the chapter provides a brief outline of the data sources and limitations, and a summary of how the remaining chapters in this monograph are structured.

## 1.2 Defining Youth

There is no universal standard for defining the concept of youth, or the age range to which youth pertains. However, the common understanding is that youth represents the time in life involving transition from childhood to adulthood, from a state of dependence in childhood to adult independence, and that it is a life stage accompanied by specific transitions in the physiological, legal, psychological, economic and social dimensions of life.<sup>10 11 12</sup>

In physiological terms, puberty signals the beginning of the transition to adulthood but the onset of puberty occurs at different ages and also differs for girls and boys. There are also various laws and regulations which entitle young people with rights and responsibilities that are not afforded to children. These might also be used to define the end of childhood. However, the qualifying ages in these laws or regulations are not always consistent, as evidenced by differences in the qualifying age for voting, for

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9 The Republic of Indonesia, Minister of Youth and Sports (10 September 2013). Opening Statement of the Minister of Youth and Sports at the Round Table Meeting on the Strategic Approach for the Development of Indonesian Youth toward the Post-2015 Development Agenda. Delivered at the inter-agency and MOYS meeting coordinated by UNFPA.

10 UNESCO, What do we mean by 'youth?', <http://www.unesco.org/new/en/social-and-human-sciences/themes/youth/youth-definition/> (accessed August 2013).

11 UNFPA. 2007. Framework for Action on Adolescents and Youth: Opening Doors with Young People: 4 Keys, <https://www.unfpa.org/public/global/publications/pid/396> (Accessed August 2013).

12 UN Commission on Population and Development, Forty-Fifth Session on Adolescent and Youth (2012) Adolescents and Youth. Report of the Secretary General by UNFPA.

getting married, for obtaining a driving license or for holding a job. In psycho-social and economic terms, adulthood in many cultures often entails independence from parents and the ability to control one's own life. These many dimensions of adulthood often result in debate on the most appropriate chronological age for defining youth as opposed to childhood or adulthood, and these debates vary between nations and cultures.<sup>13</sup>

As such, the concept of youth cannot be constrained to a fixed age group and differs depending on the context.<sup>14</sup> For example, the Indonesian Law on Youth of 2009 defines 'youth' as including persons in the 16 to 30 year age range.<sup>15</sup> For the purpose of comparison across countries, the United Nations (UN) defines youth as those aged 15-24 years old.<sup>16</sup> United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) distinguishes between adolescents and youth for the purpose of developing its Framework for Action on Adolescents and Youth: Opening Doors with Young People, 4 Keys. Adolescents are defined as those aged 10-19 years and youth are defined as those aged 15-24 years.<sup>17</sup>

Unless otherwise specified, the term youth in this monograph will refer to people in the 15-29 year age range. This has been pragmatically chosen to most closely reflect the age range specified by the Indonesian Law on Youth (16-30 years). Official age-related population statistics from BPS-Statistics Indonesia and other sources on which this monograph depends, are routinely published in five year age groups that enable data the age range 15-29 years to be readily compiled. However, this is not that case for youth aged 16-30.

### 1.2.1 COUNTS OF YOUTH USING LEGAL AND STATISTICAL DEFINITIONS

Statistical Definitions Table 11 shows the census counts of youth in Indonesia using both the legal definition of youth, those aged 16-30 years, and the pragmatically chosen statistical definition referred to above, of persons in the 15-29 year age range. Clearly the overall difference (62.3 million compared to 62.1 million respectively) is small and the difference in counts by sex and urban/rural residence are also small.

TABLE 1.1.

**2010 Census counts of youth in Indonesia using alternative definitions**

Basis of Definition	Age range (years)	Sex		Area of residence		Total
		Males	Females	Urban	Rural	Youth
Indonesian Law of Youth 2009 <sup>(a)</sup>	16-30	31,244,215	31,099,540	33,378,741	28,965,014	62,343,755
Statistical definition <sup>(b)</sup>	15-29	31,133,330	30,949,480	33,106,899	28,975,911	62,082,810

Sources: a) BPS-Statistics Indonesia, 2011, "Statistik Pemuda", Indonesia 2010 (Katalog BPS: 4103008), and b) Population Census 2010, BPS-Statistics Indonesia [web] <http://sp10.bps.go.id>.

13 Ibid.

14 UNESCO, loc.cit.

15 See Government of Indonesia (2009). Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 40 Tahun 2009 tentang Kepemudaan, <http://kemenpora.go.id/pdf/UU%2040%20Tahun%202009.pdf>

16 UN General Assembly on Youth, loc.cit.

17 UNFPA, loc.cit.

With such small differences, it can be expected that other statistics about the youth population using either of these two definitions will generally be very similar. However, readers with specific interests in data for the 16-30 year old age group may be able to find relevant data in the youth related publications produced by BPS-Statistics Indonesia referred to in Section 1.3.1 on the following page.

## 1.2.2 AGE CLASSIFICATIONS OF YOUTH

Much of the analysis that follows in this monograph presents age-classified information for youth. The most commonly used classification is one that separates youth into the three five-year age groups mentioned above, namely 15-19, 20-24 and 25-29 years. The analysis of the circumstances of youth according to their age is important because youth are not a homogenous group with respect to the life transitions of interest. The common situations of youth aged 15-19 years with respect to school, work and family are obviously quite different to those aged 25-29 years who will have had more time to establish themselves in their adult lives. The following table presents a simple typology that aims to encapsulate the major transitional phases experienced by youth as they progress from the early to late stages of the 15-29 year age span. The descriptors that correspond with each life stage in this typology include 'transitional youth' for those aged 15-19 years, 'establishing youth' for those aged 20-24, and 'established youth' for those aged 25-29 years.

**TABLE 1.2.**

**Simple typology of youth aged 15-29: Stages of development towards adulthood**

Descriptors	Youth (age groups)	Life-stage characteristics	Life stage Issues / challenges
Transitional youth (Adolescent youth)	15-19	At school/ leaving school/starting postschool education, first time job seekers; single/living with parents/financially dependent/ nonautonomous decision makers/ sexually curious.	Inadequate schooling. Early marriage and parenthood. Knowledge about sexual and reproductive health.
Establishing youth	20-24	Completed/completing post-school education; exploring work opportunities, leaving home/seeking partners envisioning marriage/ getting married and having the first baby (especially females); financially semi-dependent/semi-autonomous decision makers	Job-search challenges/ unemployment. Growing independence. Housing/ accommodation.
Established youth	25-29	Completed/completing extended education; developing career paths, left home/married/raising children; financially independent, autonomous decision makers	Income security. Employment. Social pressure to marry and have children.

As may be seen from the account of life-stage characteristics given in the third column of the table, the incidence of various kinds of education, work, and family-related situations and transitions can be seen to differ at each life stage. Of course, the timing of these progressions can vary considerably between individuals. However, the classification provides a useful way to refer to youth according to their developmental stages rather than simply regarding them as a homogeneous group.

## 1.3 Data Sources and Limitations

### 1.3.1 DATA SOURCES

This monograph explores information on youth derived from the findings of the 2010 Population Census. It is written with the intention of complementing the information provided by two recent publications: the 2010 Census report on youth in Indonesia (*Statistik Pemuda Indonesia 2010*) and the annual series of youth statistics reports (*Statistik Pemuda*) published by BPS-Statistics Indonesia in 2012 and 2013.

The Indonesian 2010 Population Census which was implemented in mid-2010, collected information on background characteristics of the entire population from which profiles of the young population can be derived. These include characteristics of age and sex, marital status, place of residence, education, employment, living arrangements and disability status (functional limitation). Such information is useful for evidence-based policy making.

The analysis of the 2010 Population Census is enriched with information on past and future trends in the size of the youth population in Indonesia. This is done by making use of past censuses and the results of the official 2010-2035 population projections recently issued by BPS-Statistics Indonesia. Data from SUSENAS, SAKERNAS and the Indonesia Demographic and Health Surveys (SDKI) are also used at times to provide a more comprehensive picture of the life situations of youth in Indonesia. In addition, and in support of international comparisons, the monograph also draws on data from international organisations. These include data from the UN Population Division's World Population Prospects: 2012 Revision, and data from the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), provided through its Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA).

### 1.3.2 DATA LIMITATIONS

It is important to read the census-based time series data presented in this monograph, especially the older data, with some caution because there are questions about the accuracy of past census-taking operations. The population estimates for future years should also be used with some caution as they depend on the accuracy of the census counts on which they are based in addition to the assumptions about future demographic events. In regard to the censuses, it is well known that national censuses are never

completely accurate no matter where they are taken. This is mainly because some people are missed from the count, while others are double-counted. Characteristics of people may also be misreported as information is often not provided directly by the person to whom the information relates.

The post-enumeration survey for Indonesia's 2010 Census estimated an under-enumeration rate of 3.6 percent.<sup>18</sup> This may be regarded as a good achievement given the enormity of the census-taking task. However, the important point here is that the numbers and percentages of people counted in earlier censuses are most probably less accurate than those recorded in 2010 because census-taking procedures are likely to have been less developed.

The issue of data inaccuracies is especially problematic in regard to counts of the youth population because youth, and especially male youth, tend to be more mobile than older people and children and are more easily missed in a census.<sup>19</sup> One indicator of inaccuracies in census counts is the size of the difference in counts of males and females at young ages (which can be measured as sex ratios). The sex ratio for the age range would normally be expected to be around 103-104 males per 100 females. Table 1-3 shows that there were large imbalances in the counts of male and female youth in the early censuses but that these imbalances have reduced over time. In 1961 and 1971, there were only about 87 males per 100 females but in following censuses this ratio increased such that by 2010 the number of males per 100 females had almost reached the expected level. The most likely explanation for this change is that the census counts of young men have improved over time. As there is no information about the level of youth undercounting in previous censuses, the population numbers presented in this chapter must be taken for what they are, that is, unadjusted (or raw) census counts.

**TABLE 1.3**  
**Population census counts of male and female youth (aged 15-29) in Indonesia: Censuses, 1961-2010**

Census	Males	Females	Sex Ratio
	Million	Million	Males/100 females
1961	11.2	12.9	87.3
1971	13.2	15.1	87.1
1980	19.1	20.5	93.1
1990	24.6	26.1	94.0
2000	29.5	30.5	96.7
2010	31.1	30.9	100.6

Source: Multiple census data files from BPS-Statistics Indonesia

18 BPS- Statistics Indonesia (2013), 2010 Indonesia Population Census Evaluation, paper presented at "Workshop on Census Evaluation", Hanoi, Vietnam 2-6 December 2013. Available at: [http://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic/meetings/wshops/Viet\\_Nam/2013/docs/cp03-IDN.ppt](http://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic/meetings/wshops/Viet_Nam/2013/docs/cp03-IDN.ppt).

19 Shryock, H. S., Siegel, J. S., & Stockwell, E. G. (1976). *The Methods and Materials and Materials of Demography*. Condensed edition edited by EGE.G. Stockwell. New York.

In regard to projected population estimates presented in this monograph, the precise numbers should also be treated with caution as no one can accurately predict the future course of fertility and mortality, and net international migration. However, since the sum of all demographic events that shape population growth (births, deaths and long-term international movements) tend to change in predictable ways and since net international migration seems to have been small, the projections provide a reasonable foundation for policy initiatives.

The intent in highlighting these potential shortcomings of the data used in this monograph is not to negate the trends described in the following chapters of the monograph. Rather, readers should keep in mind that while the available data are indicative of the trends, the information presented is subject to error.

## 1.4 Structure of the Monograph

One analytical approach adopted in the subsequent chapters of this monograph is to describe the circumstances of youth according to their age-related life stage, be it 'transitional', 'establishing' or 'established' as described in section 1.2.2. However, it is important to note that the circumstances of youth are also often described through comparisons of youth with older generations. These comparisons help to reveal the social context in which youth are progressing into adulthood, and the progress that the youth of today have made relative to earlier generations. This sense of progress is most evident in the education chapter. Since a large part of formal education received by individuals occurs in childhood, comparing the educational outcomes of now older cohorts of youth (that is older people today) with current cohorts (the youth of today) gives a clear view of levels of progress in educational attainment in Indonesia.

The subsequent chapters in this monograph are structured as follows:

Chapter 2 describes the numbers, population share and sex composition of youth in Indonesia over time. The concepts of demographic transition, the demographic bonus, population ageing and dependency ratios are discussed in relation to the forecasted size and proportion of the youth population over the next decades.

Chapter 3 outlines the geographic distribution of the youth population. This includes their distribution across urban/rural and regional areas and, after highlighting their high levels of internal migration compared to other age groups, describes their patterns of inter-regional migration.

Chapter 4 reviews past achievements and current situations and challenges concerning education in Indonesia. Illustrating the rise in schooling participation over time and the effectiveness of past government policies, the chapter presents indicators showing improved trends in literacy and national language skills over age cohorts. Indicators of school progression across household expenditure quintiles and regional variation in educational attainment are examined to assess educational equity among the youth

population. Indicators on quality of learning, disability and access to education, and access to Information and communication technology are also presented to highlight contemporary challenges in the provision of quality education in the country.

Chapter 5 provides a contemporary view of the labour market circumstances of youth in Indonesia using data mostly derived from the 2012 SAKERNAS. The chapter begins with a brief discussion of the context of youth employment in Indonesia. The subsequent section present information on labour force participation rates, the distribution of youth employment by industry, urban/rural, and formal/informal sector categories. The chapter also outlines findings on the relationship between demographic characteristics such as gender, marital status, and education, and various labour force outcomes, including earnings.

Chapter 6 examines patterns of family formation related activities among youth in Indonesia by reference to various inter-related markers of family formation: current living arrangements, marriage, initiation of sexual activity and parenthood. It also highlights the incidence of teenage pregnancy and its prevalence among different groups of youth.

Chapter 7 concludes by summarizing the main findings of the analysis and discussing their implications for policy development. It also lists other aspects of youth development and wellbeing that warrant attention for further research and policy discussion.







Chapter 2

THE YOUTH POPULATION:  
SIZE AND GROWTH

## 2.1 Introduction

Statistics on the size, growth and distribution of Indonesia's youth population are important to governments, businesses and advocacy groups. This is because they provide information on the magnitude of demands for the many potential youth-related services and how those demands are likely to change in the future. For example, having reliable estimates of the numbers of youth of senior secondary school age (those aged 16-18 years of age) over the coming years is important to those concerned with the provision of additional schools and high school teachers. Anticipating this demand is especially important if the government's ambition to lift the proportion of youth with a completed senior secondary school education is to be realised. Forecasting the future size of the youth labour force is also vital in the development of plans to create new employment opportunities and schemes to counter the negative effects of youth unemployment. Aside from assessments of the needs of youth themselves, information about the number of youth relative to the numbers of children, adults and elderly people in the population is also important because of the implications for production and consumption and the allocation of available public and private resources.

This chapter describes the size and composition of Indonesia's population of youth in 2010, and how these are changing over time. By reviewing demographic trends in Indonesia over recent decades and into the future, it describes how the youth of today, and the youth of tomorrow, will be facing an increasingly ageing population. The chapter further describes the consequences of the changing age structure of Indonesia's population in terms of the relative burden it places on working age people. These changing demographics and the shifts in dependency from children to the elderly are relevant to both current and future cohorts of youth who will inevitably have a vital role in strengthening the nation's economy and supporting all those who depend on them. More information about the distribution of youth in different parts of the country is provided in Chapter 3.

## 2.2 Size and Sex Composition



*In 2010, Indonesia's 62 million youth represented one in four of Indonesia's total population.*



In 2010, there were a little more than 62 million youth aged 15-29 years enumerated in Indonesia's national census. This large cohort of youth represented 26 percent, or one in four, of Indonesia's total population.<sup>20</sup>

Table 2-1 shows similar numbers of males and females in the youth population in 2010. Among those aged 15-29 years there were 31.1 million males and 30.9 million females yielding a sex ratio of 100.6 males for every 100 females. The representation

<sup>20</sup> Table 2-1 shows that the size and share of the youth population is almost the same using the 15-29 year age group definition of youth and the legal 16-30 year age group definition of youth in Indonesia. As discussed in Chapter 1, this report uses the 15-29 year age group definition.

of male youth among Indonesia's total population of males and the representation of female youth among the total population of females was also very similar at around 26 percent. Each of the three five year age-groups that comprise the youth population was also fairly similar in size (between 19.9 and 21.3 million in number and between 8 and 9 percent of Indonesia's total population).

**TABLE 2.1**

**Youth in the population, numbers and percentages by age: Indonesia 2010**

	Males	Females	Total
Youth (by age)	Number ('000s)		
15- 19	10,614.3	10,266.4	20,880.7
20-24	9,887.7	10,003.9	19,891.6
25-29	10,631.3	10,679.1	21,310.4
Total 15-29	31,133.3	30,949.5	62,082.8
Total 16-30 <sup>(a)</sup>	31,244.2	31,099.5	62,343.8
Persons of all ages	119,630.9	118,010.4	237,641.3
Youth (by age)	% of the total population		
15-19	8.9	8.7	8.8
20-24	8.3	8.5	8.4
25-29	8.9	9.0	9.0
Total 15-29	26.0	26.2	26.1
Total 16-30 <sup>(a)</sup>	26.1	26.4	26.2
Persons of all ages	100.0	100.0	100.0

Notes: a) This age category is the one used in the legal definition of youth in Indonesia.

Sources: BPS-Statistics Indonesia, 2011, "Statistik Pemuda", Indonesia 2010 (Katalog BPS: 4103008), and BPS-Statistics Indonesia, 2010 Population Census [web] <http://sp10.bps.go.id>.

## 2.3 Past and Future Trends in the Size of the Youth Population

*“The number of youth is projected to grow to 70 million by 2035 but youth as a share of the total population will fall.”*

According to official population projections prepared by BPS-Statistics Indonesia, Indonesia's population of youth is projected to increase to 70 million by 2035. This is close to 8 million more than the 2010 Census count. Notwithstanding this growth in numbers, the share of youth in the total population is declining and will continue to do so through to 2035. These trends are apparent from the historical and future year data presented in Table 2-2. Up to the year 2000, past census counts indicated that the representation of youth had been growing, rising from about 25 percent of the total

population in 1961 to 27 percent in 1980 before reaching the peak of 29 percent in 2000. However, since then, the 2010 Census and Indonesia's official population projections for the 2010 to 2035 period show the proportion to be in decline. The proportion fell (from 29% in 2000) to 26 percent in 2010 and is projected to fall further to 23 percent in 2035.

TABLE 2.2

**Numbers of youth and the age distribution of Indonesia's population past, present and future (1961 to 2035)**

Age group (years)	Year										
	Census Counts(a)						Projections(b)				
	1961	1971	1980	1990	2000	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Percent (%)											
0-14	42.3	44.0	40.9	36.6	30.7	28.9	27.3	26.1	24.6	22.9	21.5
15-29	24.9	23.9	27.0	28.3	29.2	26.1	25.2	24.2	23.7	23.3	22.9
30-64	30.1	29.6	28.8	31.3	35.4	40.0	42.1	43.5	44.3	44.8	45.0
65+	2.7	2.5	3.3	3.8	4.7	5.0	5.4	6.2	7.5	9.0	10.6
All ages	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number ('000s)											
Total population	97,019	118,353	146,756	179,243	205,843	237,641	255,462	271,066	284,829	296,405	305,652
Youth aged 15-29	24,125	28,282	39,628	50,679	60,088	62,083	64,354	65,710	67,376	69,130	70,005

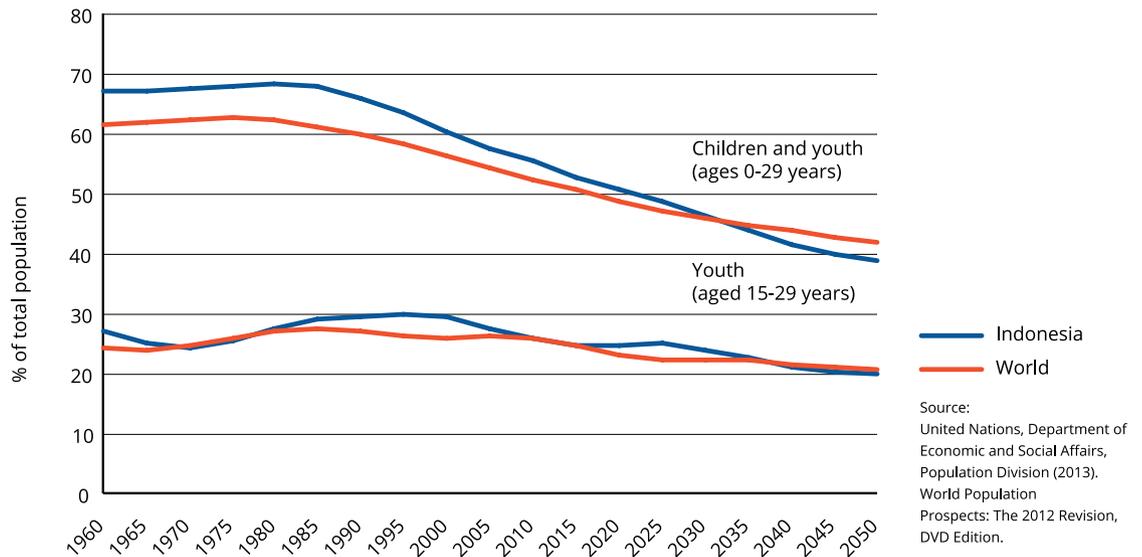
Sources: a) Census data files from BPS-Statistics Indonesia, and Indonesia Population Projection 2010-2035: (Katalog BPS, 2101018).



Using a separate set of internationally comparable estimates, Figure 2-1 shows that the decreasing representation of youth is not unique to Indonesia. Globally, the combined population of children and youth (those aged 0-29 years) has been in decline since the 1970s while the global share of the youth population has remained comparatively stable, falling only in the past decade. Into the future, it is expected that, with further falls in fertility and gains in life expectancy, the relative size of future cohorts of youth in Indonesia will continue to decrease slowly. Section 2.4 further elaborates on the mechanisms underpinning Indonesia's demographic transition and its effect on the youth population.

FIGURE 2.1

Representation of children and youth in the population: Indonesia and the World, 1960-2050.



## 2.4 Demographic Transition and Changing Age Structure

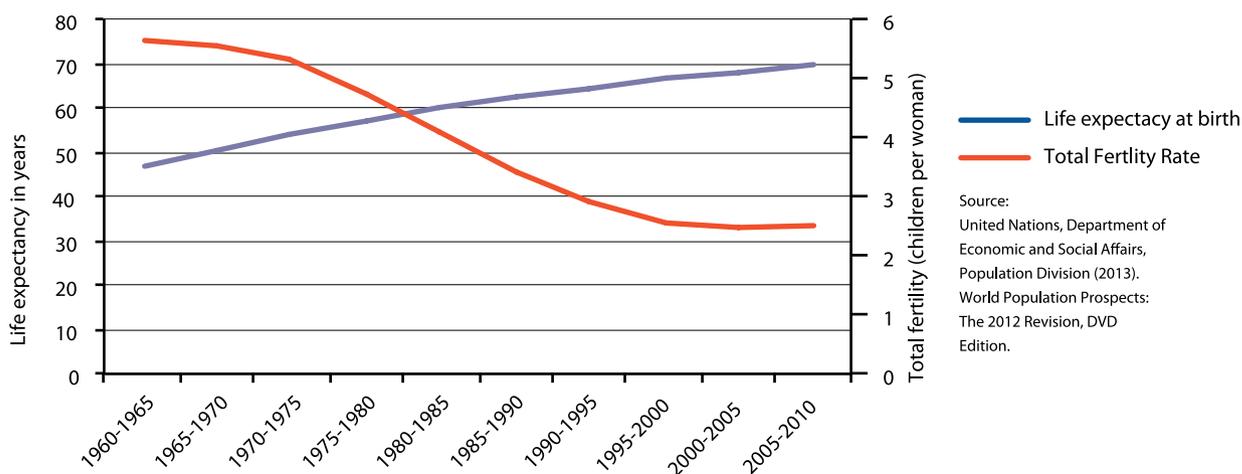
“  
Past decline in fertility  
and mortality:  
the drivers of change  
”

Both the absolute size of Indonesia's youth population and the size of the youth population relative to other age groups are products of Indonesia's recent demographic transition history. The falling share of the youth population in Indonesia is part of the process known as population ageing. Population ageing is an inevitable consequence of the demographic transition from a high fertility, high mortality situation to a low fertility, low mortality situation. It is reflected through the growing share of the elderly in the population as birth rates fall and life expectancy increases.

Much of Indonesia's demographic transition occurred through the latter decades of the last century (Figure 2-2). On one hand, mortality decline is evident through life expectancy at birth estimates which, using UN estimates, increased from 47 years in the early 1960s (1960-1965) to 70 years in the 2005-2010 period. The main drivers of this transition were improvements in hygiene, sanitation, the use of malaria control measures and the supply of many new health-related treatments and services. The average number of children born to Indonesian women, on the other hand, declined from around 5.6 in the late 1960s to 2.5 in 2005-2010. Much of the substantial fall in fertility has been attributed to the government's active family planning programs which promoted and supported the goal of smaller family sizes. A consequence of these trends has been a marked effect on the age distribution of the population which has become increasingly older.

FIGURE 2-2

Life expectancy at birth and total fertility rates: Indonesia, 1960-2010



BOX 2-1 2010 TO 2035 POPULATION PROJECTION ASSUMPTIONS

The official 2010 to 2035 population projections produced by Statistics Indonesia (BPS) are calculated by taking the base year population (derived from the 2010 National Census) for each sex by single years of age and advancing it year by year by applying assumptions about future fertility, mortality and migration. Assumed age-specific fertility rates are applied to females of child-bearing ages to provide the estimates of new births for each year.

The assumptions underlying the 2010-2035 projections draw on data from the 1997-2012 series of Indonesian Demographic and Health Surveys (SDKI) and reflect prevailing trends and expectations. These assumptions include:

A steady decline in infant mortality with the infant mortality rate (IMR) falling from 30 infant deaths per 1,000 live births in 2010 to 20 infant deaths per 1,000 live births in 2032 (the midpoint of the 2030-2035 period). In concert with this assumption, life expectancy at birth is projected to increase from 70 years in 2012 (the midpoint of the 2010-2015 period) to 72 years in the 2032 (the midpoint of the 2030-2035 period).

A fall in the total fertility rate (TFR) from 2.44 births per woman in 2012 (the midpoint of 2010-2015 period) down to 1.99 births per woman in 2032 (the midpoint of the 2030-2035 period). These projections assume that the TFR will have fallen to the replacement level (2.1 births per woman) in 2025.

Net overseas migration over the entire period is assumed to be zero.

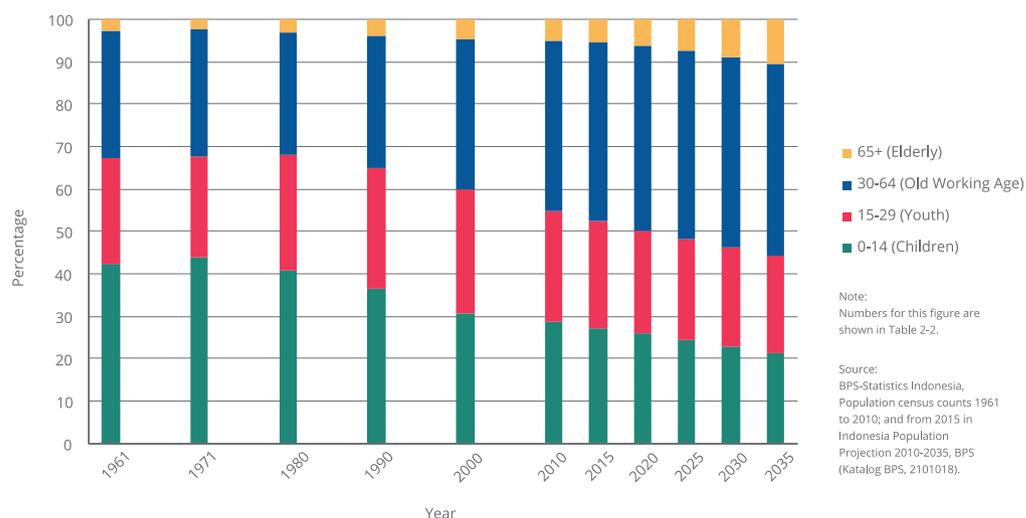
Source: Indonesia Population Projection 2010 – 2035: BPS (Katalog BPS, 2101018).

The changes in the age distribution of Indonesia's population can be seen from Figure 2-3. The most evident long-term changes are the decline in the proportion of children aged 0-14 years in the population falling from 44 percent in 1971 to 22 percent in 2035 and the growth in the size of the population aged 30 years and over increasing from 32 percent in 1971 to 56 percent in 2035. However, in absolute terms, the number of children under 15 years old increased from 41 million in 1961 to 68.6 million in 2010. This shows the echo effect of high birth rates in the past, where a large number of births in the past is translated to a large cohort of women in reproductive ages who would bear children in the future. From the projection, the number aged 0-14 years will start to decline only after 2020.

As outlined earlier in the section, the relative size of the youth population has fallen recently and is projected to fall into the future (falling from the 29 percent peak in 2000 to 23 percent in 2035). Further highlighting the population ageing trend, the estimates reveal an increase in the population aged 65 years and over from 5.0 percent in 2010 to 10.6 percent in 2035.

Looking to the future it has been projected that both fertility and mortality will continue to fall and thus continue to contribute to the population ageing process. The extent of the assumed reductions in fertility and mortality for the 2010 to 2035 period that underpin the population projections are based on the extrapolation of past trends and are explained further in Box 2-1. The assumed fall in fertility rates will be largely determined by the fertility of today's youth, which is an issue that has been the subject of detailed investigation.<sup>21</sup> Further analysis of these trends is given in Chapter 6 of this monograph.

**FIGURE 2-3**  
**Age distribution of Indonesia's population past, present and future (1961- 2035)**



21 McDonald, Peter. (2014). "The Demography of the Indonesia in Comparative Perspective", *Bulletin of Indonesian Economic Studies*, 50(1): 29-52. Available at <http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/00074918.2014.896236#.U12qoPmSxzd>

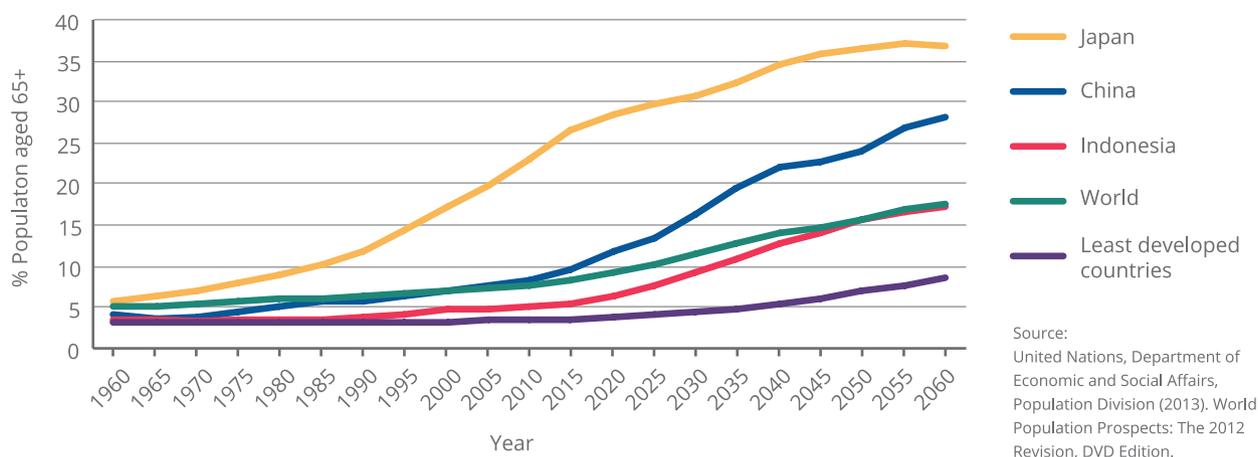
## 2.5 Youth, the Demographic Bonus, Dependency Ratios and Population Ageing

Population ageing has been a world-wide phenomenon but one that has varied in timing and pace among countries according to their stage of social and economic development, their implementation of population policies typically aimed at reducing family sizes, and their ability to improve their health care systems. Currently, developed nations are already facing the challenges presented by population ageing. In Japan for example, the proportion of the population aged 65 and over is projected to rise from 23 percent in 2010 to almost 37 percent in 2060 (Figure 2-4).<sup>22</sup> For the same period, the proportion of the population aged 65 and over in Indonesia is projected to rise from around 5 percent to 17 percent. In contrast, countries currently classified as belonging to the least developed regions are projected to have only 9 percent of their population in this age category in 2060.

FIGURE 2-4

### Population aged 65 years and over: selected countries

Based on medium variant projections. Data can be accessed through <http://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/unpp/p2k0data.asp>



One of the consequences of the shifts in the age composition of Indonesia's population is the greater economic burden that the growing elderly population will have for younger working age people, including Indonesia's youth, as the population ages. This is clearly a challenge to be faced in the future. However, as shown by the components of the dependency ratio measure presented below this challenge is one that for the next two or so decades will continue to be offset by the ongoing decline in the numbers of dependent children.

By convention, the dependency ratio considers children under the age of 15 and people above the age of 65 as dependents, and those aged 15-64 years as the working age population required to support the dependents. The measure provides a simple way of showing the 'load' the working age population faces in supporting the needs of those who are either too young or too old to be in the workforce.

<sup>22</sup> United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2013). World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision, DVD Edition.

When the birth rate falls, initially the dependency ratio also falls because of the relatively smaller numbers of children. Later, when the fertility rate levels off at a low level and death rates are falling, there is no further improvement in the dependency ratio because of the increasing numbers at older ages. Eventually, as the population ages, the dependency ratio increases. Thus, changes in the dependency ratio due to falling birth rates, falling death rates and the consequent population ageing usefully summarize how the demographic load on the working age population changes. The measure is not ideal in the sense that the idea of simply taking age as an indicator of dependency is very crude. For example, many young people above the age of 15 are still in school, not all people of working age go to work, and some people beyond the age of 65 are still employed. Changes in the dependency ratio are relevant to current and future cohorts of youth because they will have a role to play as future workers in supporting children and older people.

“  
Indonesia will continue to face an increasingly favourable situation in terms of dependency ratios over coming decades.  
”

The bottom row of Table 2-3 shows that the dependency ratio in Indonesia has been steadily falling over the last 40 or so years (down from 87 dependents per 100 persons of working age in 1971 to 51 dependents in 2010) and that the downward trend is expected to continue over the next two decades (falling gently down to a low of about 47 in 2030) before it begins to rise again thereafter. These changes have largely been driven by the long-term decline in fertility rates (which is expected to continue) that has caused a relative shift in Indonesia’s age structure away from dependent children towards adults in the working ages. This shift is

best highlighted by the very substantial falls in the dependency ratio for children seen in the first row of the table. However, seen in the second row of the table, the counteracting dependency ratio for older people, whilst relatively low, has been progressively rising and this trend will continue as more workers retire and survive to older ages in their retirement years.

TABLE 2-3

**Trend in dependency ratios by dependent age groups: Indonesia, 1971-2035**

Dependent groups	Year										
	1961	1971	1980	1990	2000	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Dependency ratio of children <15 years	76.9	82.2	73.3	61.5	47.5	43.0	40.6	38.5	36.2	33.6	31.7
Dependency Ratio of older persons 65+ years	4.9	4.7	5.8	6.3	7.2	7.6	8.0	9.2	11.0	13.2	15.6
Total dependency ratio <15 and 65+ years	81.8	86.8	79.1	67.8	54.7	51.3	48.6	47.7	47.2	46.9	47.3

Sources: Derived from population census counts 1961 to 2010 and Indonesia Population Projection 2010-2035 Jakarta: BPS-Statistics Indonesia (Katalog BPS, 2101018)

The important point about these changes is that Indonesia will continue to face a favourable situation in terms of dependency ratios over coming decades. The long-term decrease in dependency ratios, also seen in other countries, is often referred to as the 'demographic bonus' or the 'demographic dividend'. Now, given that the time at which the ratio reaches its lowest point can be seen to be approaching, this period of low dependency has been identified as representing a 'window of opportunity'. It presents an opportunity because the load on the working age population will start to increase after 2030. Boosting investments in the provision of education and training for today's cohorts of children and youth have accordingly been widely regarded as a means of making the most of the window of opportunity. This strengthening of the human capital of future generations of working age people will then help to support the needs of the increasing demographic load that will follow.

**FIGURE 2-5**

**The declining dependency ratio provides a demographic bonus and a window of opportunity, Indonesia 1960- 2060<sup>(a)</sup>**

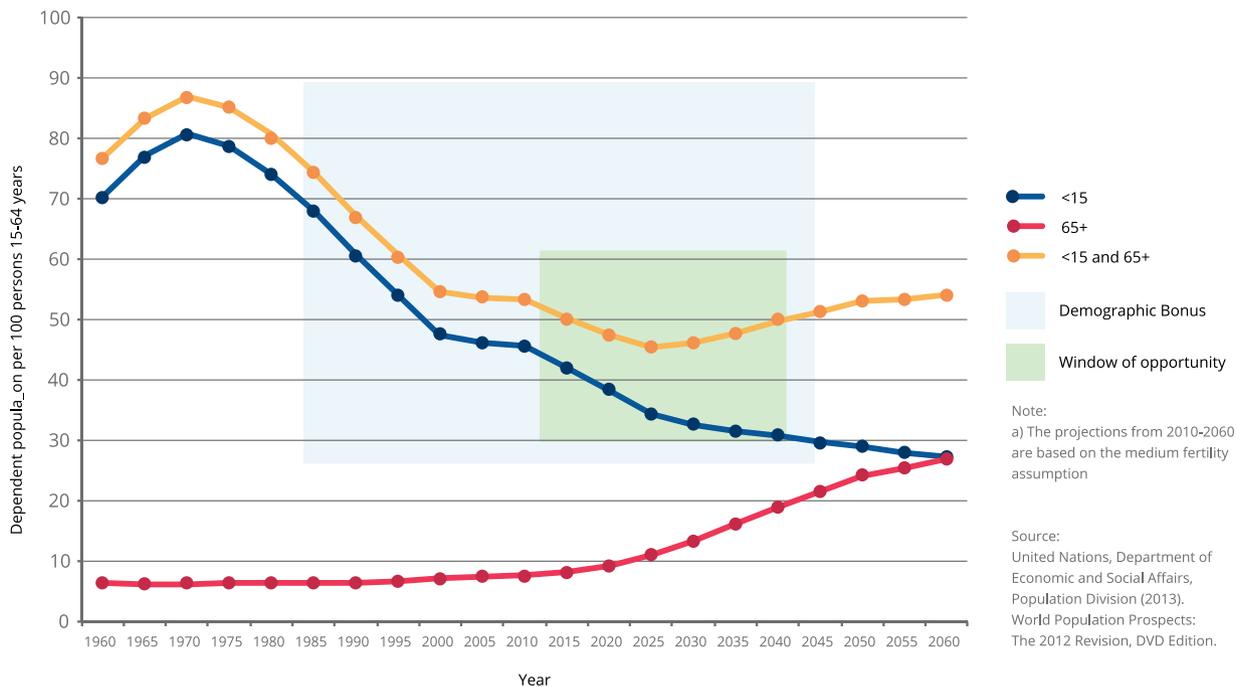


Figure 2-5 provides a graphical view of the demographic bonus now being experienced by Indonesia. Here using a longer series of data prepared by the UN in 2012, the fall in the dependency ratio to its lowest point over the coming decade or so represents the aforementioned 'window of opportunity'. However, as can be seen by the gentle rise in the dependency ratio after it reaches its lowest point, the window of opportunity will remain ajar for some time and enable the benefits of a relatively low dependency ratio to be reaped for some further years.

## 2.6 Summary

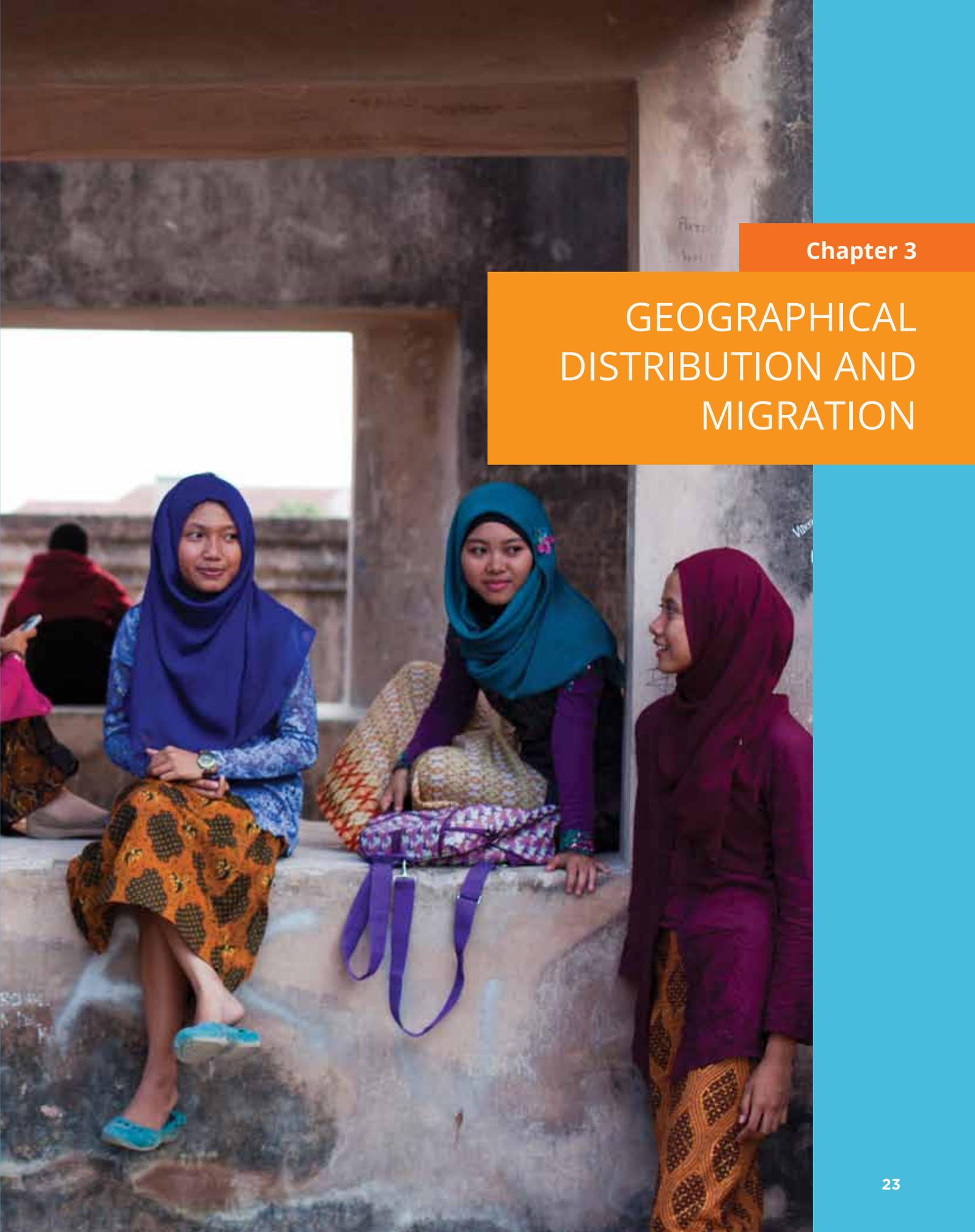
Data from the 2010 Population Census indicate a large population of 62 million youth aged 15-29 years in Indonesia. There were slightly more males than females in the youth population. Over time, the size of the youth population has been increasing and this is expected to continue such that by 2035, the size of the youth population is projected to reach about 70 million. However the momentum for growth of the youth population is slowing as women reduce their fertility.

While the youth population continues to grow in absolute terms, its share of the total population was smaller in 2010 than in 2000 and further declines are projected over the coming decades. These declines are a product of continued fertility decline and increasing life expectancy which together drive the ageing of the population. Available population projections indicate that Indonesia will continue to face a favourable situation in terms of dependency ratios over the coming two to three decades.





# GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION AND MIGRATION



## 3.1 Introduction

Similar to the patterns in the distribution of the total population, the youth population in Indonesia is also unevenly distributed across the vast archipelago. The proportions of the population that make up the youth cohort are also subject to a marked geographic variation. This chapter focuses on the geographic distribution of youth across urban, rural and regional areas of Indonesia, and the migration of youth between those areas.

The chapter begins by outlining the urban-rural and regional distribution of the youth population. The finding that youth are more likely to live in urban areas relative to any other age group leads to a discussion about youth's rural-urban, inter-provincial, and inter-district migration. This chapter uses the concept of recent migration (migration in the five years before the census) to describe patterns of youth migration across district government boundaries in Indonesia. The 2010 Census included a question that provided the province and district of residence five years before the census for each person aged five years and over. These data can be used to describe recent patterns of inter-district migration in Indonesia.

### 3.1.1 URBAN-RURAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE YOUTH POPULATION

“

*More youth living in urban  
than in rural areas*

”

A major feature of Indonesia's pattern of development over recent decades has been the rapid rate of urbanisation and the evidence suggests that successive cohorts of Indonesia's youth in search of education and jobs have been taking a leading role in this change. The 2010 Census enumerated 119.3 million and 118.3 million people in rural and urban areas respectively, meaning that just under one half of the population (49.8%) lived in urban areas. This is a much greater percentage than the 17.3 percent of the population living in urban areas observed in 1971.<sup>23</sup> Indicative of the preference for youth to live in urban areas, and seen in contrast to the slightly higher number of all people living in rural areas, the number of youth enumerated in urban areas in 2010 was 14 percent higher than the number in rural areas (33.1 million and 29.0 million youth aged 15-29 years respectively).

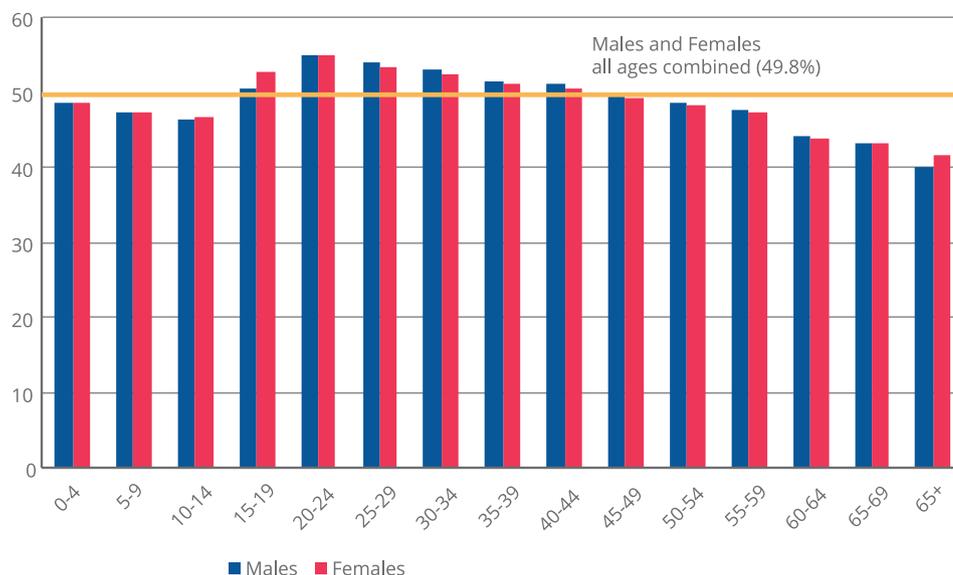
The extent to which youth of both sexes have a greater preference for urban living than older and younger males and females in the population is apparent in Figure 3-1 Age/sex specific percentages of people living in urban areas: Indonesia, 2010. In 2010, each of the five-year age groups associated with the 15-29 year old youth cohort was over-represented in urban areas when compared to the 49.8 percent national average. The highest proportion was for those aged 20-24 years among whom 54 percent lived in urban areas. This is in stark contrast to elderly people in Indonesia's population (those

<sup>23</sup> See also Firman, T. (2012) "Urbanization and urban development patterns" in The Jakarta Post, Opinion, Saturday May 12 2012. Available at <http://www.thejakartapost.com/news/2012/05/12/urbanization-and-urban-development-patterns.html>

aged 65 years and over) among whom less than 45 percent lived in urban areas and among whom the proportions decreased still further with increasing age.

**FIGURE 3-1**

**Age/sex specific percentages of people living in urban areas: Indonesia, 2010**



Source: Derived from Population Census 2010, BPS-Statistics Indonesia [web] <http://sp10.bps.go.id>.

**3.1.2 SHARE OF YOUTH IN URBAN AND RURAL POPULATION**

“  
*Urban areas have a proportionally larger population of youth than rural areas*  
 ”

The preference for youth to live in urban areas can also be seen by looking at the difference in the age-composition of both urban and rural areas as shown in Table 3-1 and graphically in Figure 3-2. In 2010, youth represented 28 percent of the urban population but only 24 percent of the rural population.

The relative overrepresentation of youth in urban areas, seen by the bulge in Figure 3-2, further highlights the difference. These different age structures strongly suggest a process of rural-urban migration with substantial numbers of youth moving to the cities in pursuit of education and work opportunities a process that is consistent with that seen to be underway in many developing countries.<sup>24</sup> The idea of many youth migrating to urban areas is supported by the fact that youth are the most geographically mobile group in the population (see section 3.3) and the fact that that they are overrepresented in industries that are more commonly located in urban areas (see Chapter 5).

<sup>24</sup> UN Habitat, (2012) *Harnessing the Dual Global Trends of Urbanization and the Demographic Youth Bulge*, [http://www.un.org/en/ecosoc/julyhls/pdf13/hls\\_issue\\_note\\_on\\_habitat.pdf](http://www.un.org/en/ecosoc/julyhls/pdf13/hls_issue_note_on_habitat.pdf) (accessed November 2013).

**TABLE 3-1**

**Number and share of youth to total population in urban and rural areas: Indonesia, 2010**

Age group (years)	Number in millions			Percent of total population		
	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total
15-19	10.8	10.2	20.9	9.1%	8.5%	8.8%
20-24	10.9	9.0	19.9	9.2%	7.5%	8.4%
25-29	11.4	9.9	21.3	9.7%	8.3%	9.0%
Total 15- 29	33.1	29.1	62.1	28.0%	24.3%	26.1%
Total all ages	118.3	119.3	237.6	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source: Derived from Population Census 2010, BPS-Statistics Indonesia [web] <http://sp10.bps.go.id>.

**FIGURE 3-2**

**Percentage distribution of the population by age in urban and rural areas: Indonesia, 2010**



Source: Derived from Population Census 2010, BPS [web] <http://sp10.bps.go.id>.

### 3.2 Regional Distribution of the Youth Population

Table 32 presents a summary of the provincial distribution of the population aged 15-29 in Indonesia, as well as the share and sex ratio of the youth population in each of the provinces. The data indicate that the provincial distribution of the youth population closely resembles the distribution of the total population. Provinces with the highest numbers of youth are not surprisingly those with the largest populations and vice versa. The top five provinces with the largest number of youth population are: West Java (11.4 million), East Java (8.9 million), Central Java (7.6 million), North Sumatra (3.5 million) and Banten (3.1 million). However, the picture is different when the relative sizes of the youth population in provinces are considered.

“

*Jakarta, Riau Islands and West Papua have higher shares of youth in their population than other provinces; Bali, Central Java and East Java have lower shares.*

”

Each province in Indonesia has a different population age structure, with some having higher proportions of children and youth than others. This is due to historic processes of fertility, mortality and migration in each respective area. Based on the data presented in the last column of Table 32, the map presented in Figure 3-3 shows how the provinces with relatively high and relatively low percentages of youth in their populations.

The five provinces with the highest percentages of youth in 2010 were Riau Islands and Jakarta (both 31%), West Papua (30%), and Banten and Aceh (both 29%). The attraction of education and work opportunities are likely to be important factors accounting for the high percentages in at least some of these provinces. Provinces with relatively low shares of youth in 2010 included East Java, Central Java, North Sulawesi and Bali (all with youth populations of less than 24%). Figure 3-4 reveals even greater variations in the relative size of the youth population at the district level of government. The districts with high youth shares (red areas) are almost without exception the main development areas in Indonesia today reflecting movement to these areas of young people for employment reasons.



TABLE 3-2

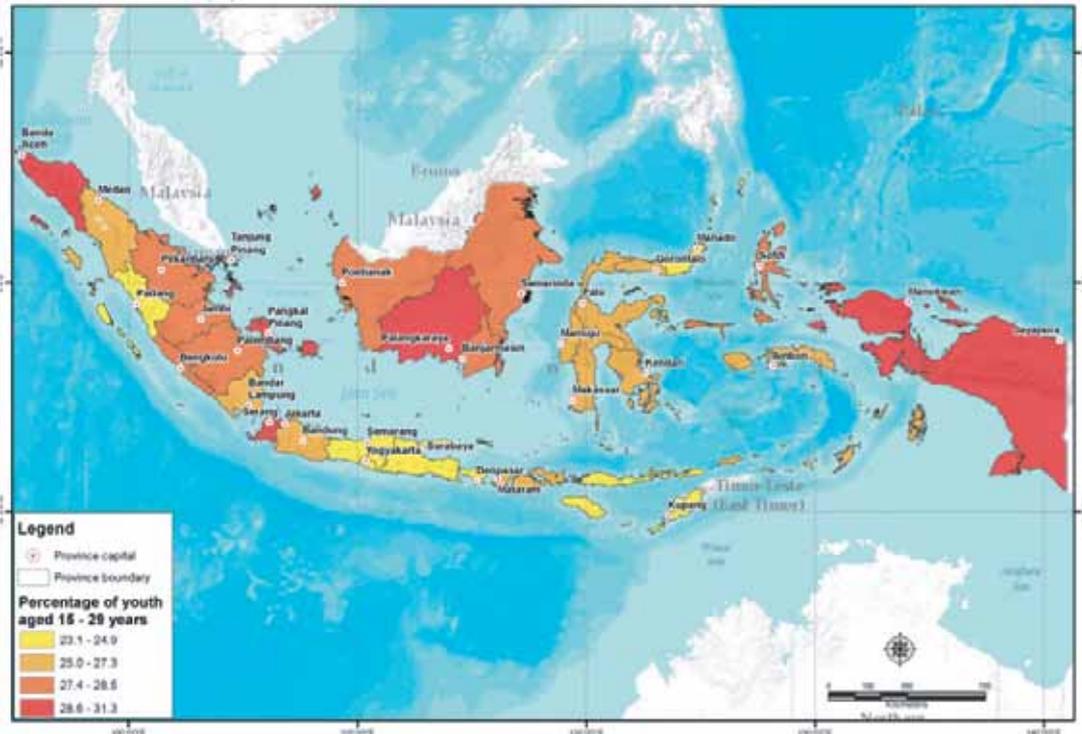
**Distribution of the youth population and youth share of the population by province:  
Indonesia, 2010**

Province	Youth aged 15-29		Total Population		Youth as % of total population
	Census counts	Percentage distribution	Census counts	Percentage distribution	
	('000s)	%	('000s)	%	%
Aceh	1,298.7	2.1	4,494.4	1.9	28.9
North Sumatra	3,479.9	5.6	12,982.2	5.5	26.8
West Sumatra	1,205.1	1.9	4,846.9	2.0	24.9
Riau	1,573.2	2.5	5,538.4	2.3	28.4
Jambi	862.5	1.4	3,092.3	1.3	27.9
South Sumatra	2,106.4	3.4	7,450.4	3.1	28.3
Bengkulu	477.6	0.8	1,715.5	0.7	27.8
Lampung	2,022.4	3.3	7,608.4	3.2	26.6
Bangka Belitung	350.4	0.6	1,223.3	0.5	28.6
Riau Islands	525.6	0.8	1,679.2	0.7	31.3
DKI Jakarta	2,971.1	4.8	9,607.8	4.0	30.9
West Java	11,392.7	18.4	43,053.7	18.1	26.5
Central Java	7,647.0	12.3	32,382.7	13.6	23.6
DI Yogyakarta	860.3	1.4	3,457.5	1.5	24.9
East Java	8,911.3	14.4	37,476.8	15.8	23.8
Banten	3,125.1	5.0	10,632.2	4.5	29.4
Bali	900.3	1.5	3,890.8	1.6	23.1
West Nusa Tenggara	1,219.6	2.0	4,500.2	1.9	27.1
East Nusa Tenggara	1,122.7	1.8	4,683.8	2.0	24.0
West Kalimantan	1,203.7	1.9	4,396.0	1.8	27.4
Central Kalimantan	633.9	1.0	2,212.1	0.9	28.7
South Kalimantan	994.1	1.6	3,626.6	1.5	27.4
East Kalimantan	997.8	1.6	3,553.1	1.5	28.1
North Sulawesi	535.3	0.9	2,270.6	1.0	23.6
Central Sulawesi	681.6	1.1	2,635.0	1.1	25.9
South Sulawesi	2,080.6	3.4	8,034.8	3.4	25.9
Southeast Sulawesi	609.2	1.0	2,232.6	0.9	27.3
Gorontalo	270.0	0.4	1,040.2	0.4	26.0
West Sulawesi	298.3	0.5	1,158.7	0.5	25.7
Maluku	402.6	0.6	1,533.5	0.6	26.3
North Maluku	283.9	0.5	1,038.1	0.4	27.3
West Papua	226.8	0.4	760.4	0.3	29.8
Papua	813.2	1.3	2,833.4	1.2	28.7
<b>Indonesia</b>	<b>62,082.8</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>237,641.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>26.1</b>

Source: Derived from Population Census 2010, BPS [web] <http://sp10.bps.go.id>.

FIGURE 3-3

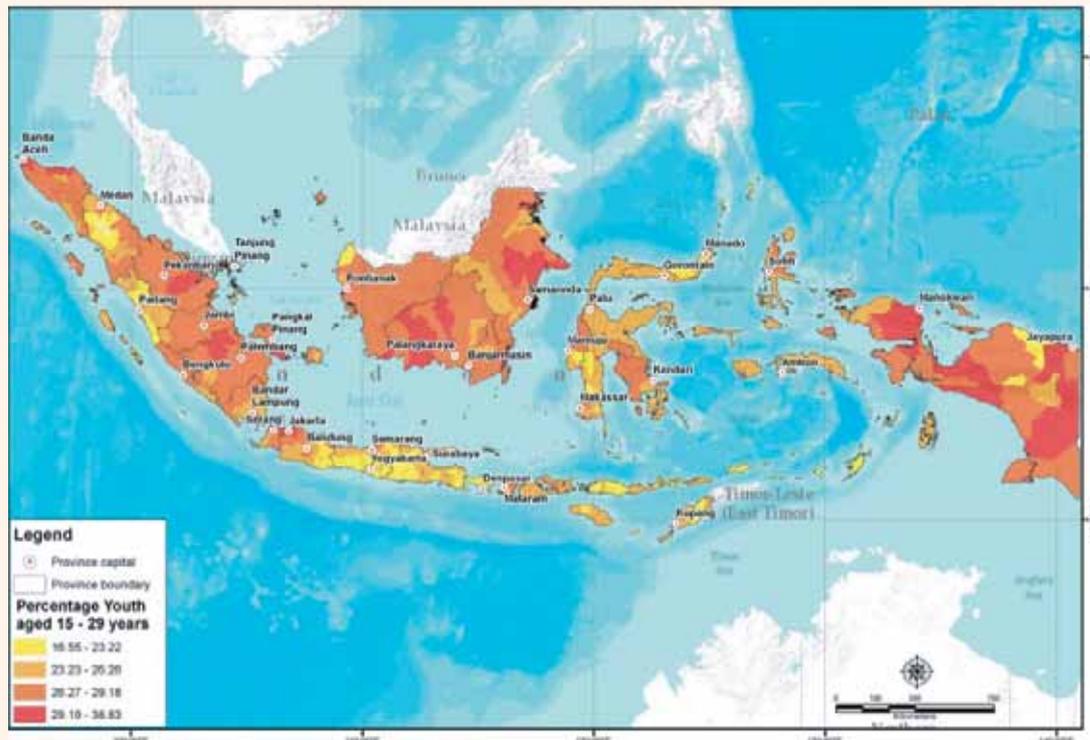
Figure 3-3 Provinces with high and low percentages of youth: Indonesia, 2010



Source: Derived from Population Census 2010, BPS-Statistics Indonesia [Data file].

FIGURE 3-4

Districts with high and low percentages of youth: Indonesia, 2010 Source: Derived



Source: Derived from Population Census 2010, BPS-Statistics Indonesia [Data file].

### 3.3 Youth on the Move: Inter-District Migration

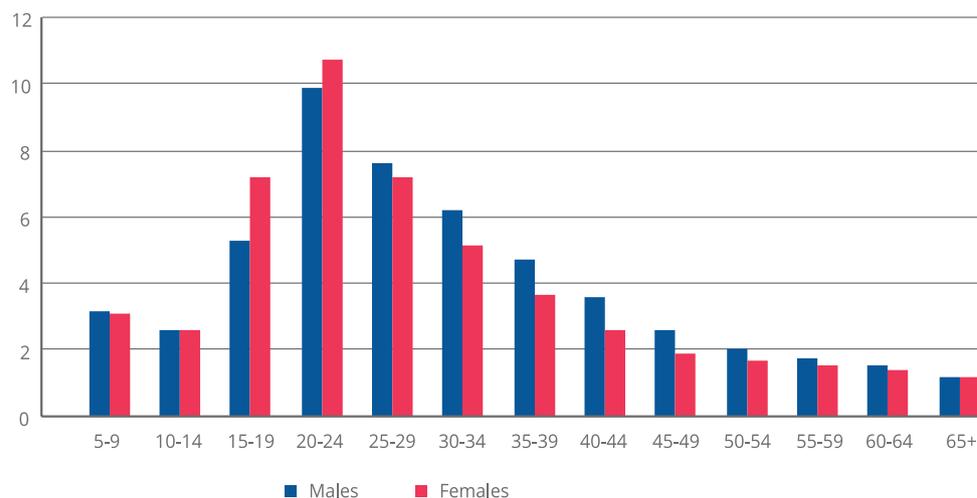
“  
*Youth made up over one half of all recent inter-district migrants.*  
 ”

Youth the world over are renowned for their mobility in pursuit of education and work opportunities which take them away from their family home. Marriage naturally also helps to ensure that at least one partner (if not both) moves to a new home. The act of moving away from one’s home in search of work, education, and to start a family is a rite of passage for young adults.

Recent academic literature has considered migration as an important element of transition to adulthood.<sup>3</sup> Youth migration away from their home community is largely dominated by employment-motivated movements towards geographic centres of education and economic development. The distance of these movements can range from short distance rural to urban area movements, to migration across districts, migration across provincial boundaries, and to a lesser extent, international migration. Youth represent the most mobile segment of the population.

Information on migration can be derived from the census by comparing an individual’s place of birth to his/her current place of residence (lifetime migration); and by comparing their place of residence five years prior to the census to their current place of residence (recent migration). The census revealed that 9.5 million people (4.4% of Indonesia’s five years and older population) had lived in a different district to the one that they had lived in 2010. Among youth aged 15-29, there were 4.85 million inter-district migrants. As such youth comprised just over one half (51%) of all migrants, a proportion which is much higher than their representation in the population aged five years and over (34%).

**FIGURE 3-5**  
**Inter-district migration rates<sup>(a)</sup> by age and sex: Indonesia, 2010.**



Note: a) Percent who in 2010 had moved to another district (Kabupaten or Kota) from the one they had lived in five years earlier. Excludes persons who did not state their place of usual residence five years earlier and persons who lived abroad five years earlier.

Source: Population Census 2010 [IPUMS 10% sample data file]

The inter-district mobility rate among youth (7.9%) was substantially higher than the population average noted above. And, as illustrated in Figure 3-5, youth had the highest mobility rate of all life-stage groups in the population with those in the 20-24 year age group having the highest mobility rate of all (10.3%).

Figure 3-5 Inter-district migration rates(a) by age and sex: Indonesia, 2010. also shows that females in the ‘transitional’ and ‘establishing’ youth age-ranges (that is, the 15-19 and 24-25 year age-ranges respectively) were more likely to have changed their place of residence than males in the same age-ranges. One reason for their higher mobility may be associated with the fact that young women marry at younger ages than men (see Chapter 6, section 6.3 on age at marriage) with the consequence that they are more likely to leave the family home at younger ages. However, another contributing factor may be that many young women move from their homes to live and work in other people’s homes as housemaids (pembantu) in urban centres.<sup>25</sup>

Table 33 Inter-district migration rates(a)(b) for youth by selected characteristics and migration rates for the total population: Indonesia, 2010 further shows that youth with higher levels of education and those who live in urban areas (many of whom will have lived in rural areas five years earlier) were more likely to have moved than those with lower levels of educational attainment and those living in rural areas. Since higher education institutions are typically located in large metropolitan centres, it is likely that the higher migration rates of both more highly educated youth and youth in urban areas will in some part be due to the migration of youth from other urban and rural areas in pursuit of higher education. However, the search for higher skilled jobs in urban areas (see Chapter 5 on youth at work) would also help explain the higher levels of migration among now urbanised youth especially among the more educated.

**TABLE 3-3**

**Inter-district migration rates<sup>(a)(b)</sup> for youth by selected characteristics and migration rates for the total population: Indonesia, 2010**

Population groups	Inter-district migration rates	Population groups	Inter-district migration rates
Youth by sex	%	Youth by area of residence in 2010	
Males	7.5	Urban	8.8
Females	8.3	Rural	2.7
Youth by age		Total youth population	7.9
15-19	6.2	Total Indonesian population <sup>(c)</sup>	4.4
20-24	10.3		
25-29	7.4		
Youth by highest level of educational attainment			
Less than primary	2.2		
Primary completed	3.4		
Secondary completed	8.9		
University completed	10.3		

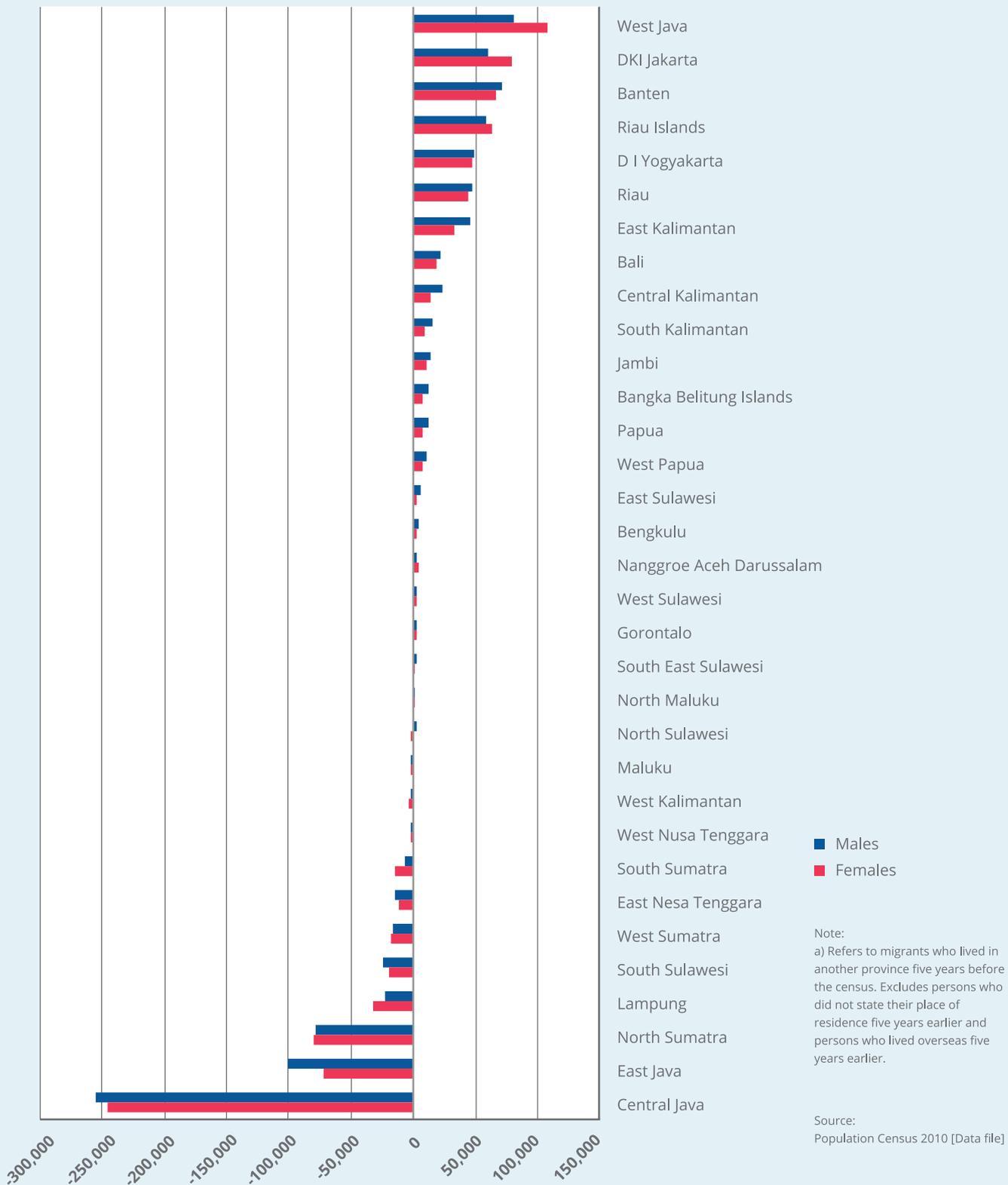
Notes: a) Percent who in 2010 had moved to another district (Kabupaten or Kota) from the one they had lived in five years earlier (in 2005). b) Excludes persons who did not state their usual place of residence five years earlier and persons who lived abroad five years earlier. c) Aged 5 years and over.

Source: Population Census 2010 [IPUMS 10% sample data file].

25 Utomo, Ariane, Anna Reimondos, Iwu Dwisetyani Utomo, Peter McDonald, and Terence Hull. “Female Migrants and the Transition to Adulthood in Greater Jakarta.” *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* 648, No. 1 (2013): 70-86.

FIGURE 3-6

Net recent migration gains and losses of male and female youth by province: <sup>(a)</sup> Indonesia, 2010



### 3.4 Interprovincial Youth Migration: Preferred Locations

A greater sense of the movement of youth across the archipelago and of their most preferred destinations can be seen from Figure 3-6 Net recent migration gains and losses of male and female youth by province:(a) Indonesia, 2010 which shows the provinces with the greatest net gains and the greatest net losses from youth migration. Once again these data are based on the counts of movers who had lived in a different place in 2005 to their place of residence at the time of the census. And, for each province, the counts show the outcome after all those who had moved away from the province have been subtracted from those who have moved into the province from elsewhere in the country.

Counting males and females together the five provinces with the greatest net gains of youth were West Java (188,400), DKI Jakarta (139,200), Banten (137,000), Riau Islands (121,000) and Yogyakarta (96,000). These provinces all have large cities associated with them (at least 65% of their populations lived in urban areas in 2010 and 100% in the case of Jakarta).

The three largest movements are all associated with the growth and development of the city of Jakarta. Most of those who moved to both West Java and Banten moved to the urban areas located close to Jakarta (such as Bogor, Bekasi and Depok in West Java and Tangerang and South Tangerang in Banten) which all form part of Greater Jakarta.

The provinces experiencing greatest net losses, on the other hand, were Central Java (500,500), East Java (174,000), North Sumatra (159,500), Lampung (55,500) and South Sulawesi (43,100). Geographic proximity to the provinces with the greatest net gains (described above) and having large rural segments (less than 50% of the population in each of these provinces lived in urban areas) helps to explain why these five provinces were among those realizing the greatest net losses.

### 3.5 Summary

More youth in Indonesia live in urban areas than in rural areas and the proportion of youth in urban populations is higher than in rural populations. These findings based on 2010 Census data support the proposition that the migration of youth has been a significant factor in promoting the urbanisation of Indonesia's population. The higher migration rates of youth compared to both children and older people also reaffirm that youth are in the forefront of the process of reshaping the spatial distribution of Indonesia's population.

The regional distribution of the youth population across provinces in Indonesia mirrors the general population distribution, with Java hosting a disproportionately large share. However, when analysing the share of youth in each province's population, a different ranking emerges. Provinces with the highest share of youth in the population were Jakarta, Riau Islands, West Papua, Banten and Aceh.

Patterns in recent migration of youth suggest a strong link between places of learning and migration as well as employment prospects and migration. Top destination provinces for youth migrants are West Java, Jakarta, Banten, and Yogyakarta. Central Java stands out as the province from which the largest share of recent youth migrant originates. Other provinces with relatively large youth outmigration include East Java, North Sumatra, Lampung, and South Sulawesi.

# EDUCATION



## 4.1 Introduction

Obtaining a good education helps young people to expand their life opportunities. Education improves the prospects for youth of enjoying wellbeing in various areas of life such as employment, income and health. It helps individuals to develop pathways to overcome poverty and dependence on others. Investing in education is also vital to community wellbeing and national development. From the 1970s when every village in Indonesia was provided with a primary school, planning in Indonesia has been based on the tenet that investment in the education and training of young people is a vital component of national development.

Since the 1970s, successive Indonesian governments have invested in extending the opportunities for young people to get a decent education in both the secondary and the tertiary sectors. Accordingly, substantial gains in the population's educational attainment have been realized over the last few decades. As a group, the youth of today represents a generation benefiting from a more inclusive spread of education and higher levels of formal schooling than preceding generations.

Young people today are spending more of their adolescence in school than ever before. Staying longer in school implies that young people are prolonging their transition to the responsibilities of adulthood. In itself, additional years spent in school effectively delay young people's entry into the workforce, marriage and parenthood. More importantly however, progression to higher levels of education equips young people with the human capital necessary to negotiate a successful transition to adulthood.

Despite the generational progress in young people's access to and attainment of education in Indonesia, a number of challenges remain. Contemporary issues pertaining to the education of young people in Indonesia include relatively low rates of participation in post primary schooling, low quality of education, persistent problems faced by the poor and marginalised youth in their access to education, regional disparities in schooling participation, challenges associated with disability and access to education, as well as those associated with an emerging problem of digital inequalities.

This chapter reviews the current situation and challenges related to education in Indonesia. The chapter begins with two broad indicators of the impact of learning across age groups: literacy and the ability to speak Bahasa Indonesia. Trends highlighting improved literacy and national language skills over age cohorts are indicative of the rise in schooling participation over time and the effectiveness of past government policies. Inter-cohort trends and contemporary schooling indicators are the focus of the subsequent three sections of the chapter: section 4.3 details trends in school participation; section 4.4 outlines available data on school progression; and section 4.5 presents data on highest level of completed education. Together, these sections highlight the equity of education, focusing on both the gender and urban/rural dimensions of access to education. To conclude, section 4.6 highlights the challenges and issues pertaining to education in Indonesia.

As with the preceding chapter in this monograph, the 2010 Population Census will be the primary source of data used in this chapter. In addition, the chapter draws upon other data sets and relevant publications, including BPS-Statistics Indonesia's Indicators of Education which is based on the SUSENAS, and the 2012 Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) data of the OECD. Data showing differences in various indicators of education participation by sex, urban/rural residence and among other sub-groups of concern draw attention to areas in which inequalities in access to education might be reduced.

## 4.2 Expansion of Education and Broad Indicators of Its Impact

A number of past government policies on education have been influential in expanding the educational opportunities and improving the educational outcomes of today's youth of whom the eldest were starting primary school in the late 1980s (those aged 29 in 2010 would have been aged seven, the official school entry age, in 1988). First, a large scale and concerted national effort to improve access to primary education took place in the early 1970s; about ten to twenty years prior to the birth of most of the youth cohort members aged 15-29 in 2010. Using the windfall gains from the oil boom, former President Soeharto issued an instruction to build at least one primary school in every village throughout Indonesia (1973 SD Inpres - Presidential Instruction for Primary School). The construction of primary schools was accompanied by the training and employment of large numbers of new teachers and government expenditures included the provision of much new school equipment to support the increasing number of schools.

Second, during the celebration of Education Day on 2 May 1984, the government declared that six years of primary school education was to be compulsory for all children. This was accompanied by the gerakan wajib belajar (mobilization of compulsory learning). Various analysts have observed that by the 1980s primary education was almost universal.

Third, ten years after the initiation of six years of compulsory schooling, the number of years of compulsory education was formally extended to nine years in 1994.

Given that these major policies were implemented in the years before the 2010 youth cohort was born (or during their formative years), it is expected that today's youth would have received substantial benefits from past efforts in education expansion. The following sub-sections examine two indicators that inform of the impact of that expansion, namely, current levels of literacy and the ability to speak Bahasa Indonesia.

## 4.2.1 YOUTH WHO COULD NOT READ AND WRITE LATIN CHARACTERS

“

*Less than two percent of youth are illiterate.*

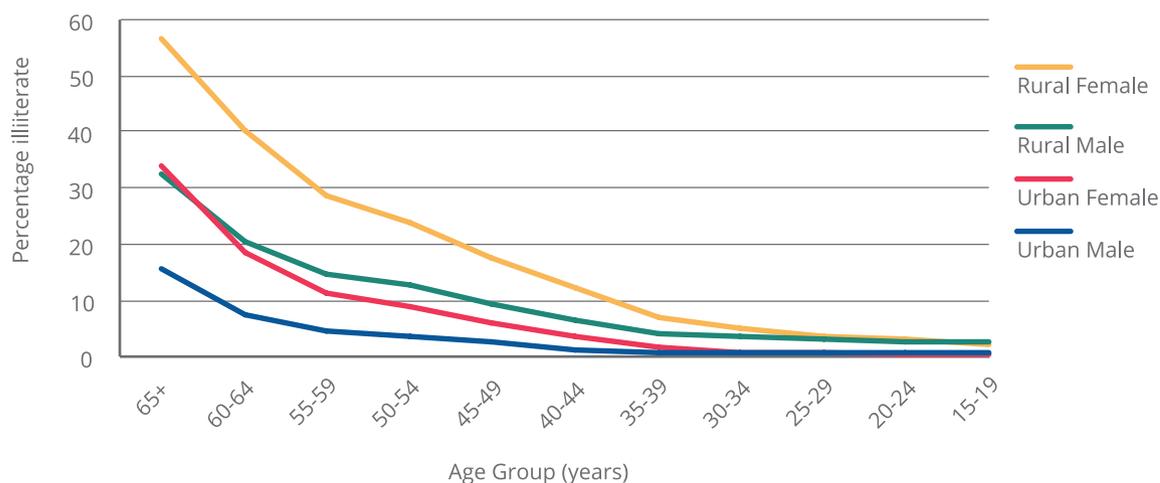
”

Figure 4-1 shows that most youth in the 15-29 year age range in Indonesia are literate, and there was virtually no difference in the literacy rates of male and female youth in 2010. With the large majority of youth now having attained basic primary school education, illiteracy rates among youth are very low. Less than two percent of all those aged 15-29 years could not read or write. Youth illiteracy rates were slightly higher in rural areas (close to 3% in rural areas compared to 0.5% in urban areas) but still very low compared to the levels seen among older generations of people. The extent of progress in reducing illiteracy, which has been associated with the expansion of access to education can be clearly seen from the reduction in illiteracy with decreasing age. The data for older generations also reveal a much greater male biased gender gap in literacy among the oldest age cohorts compared to those younger than themselves and that the gap has been progressively reduced with each new generation to a level that, in 2010, was no longer apparent.

illiteracy, which has been associated with the expansion of access to education can be clearly seen from the reduction in illiteracy with decreasing age. The data for older generations also reveal a much greater male biased gender gap in literacy among the oldest age cohorts compared to those younger than themselves and that the gap has been progressively reduced with each new generation to a level that, in 2010, was no longer apparent.

**FIGURE 4-1**

### Elimination of illiteracy: percentage illiterate by age and sex: Indonesia 2010



Source: Derived from Population Census 2010, BPS-Statistics Indonesia [web] <http://sp10.bps.go.id>

## 4.2.2 ABILITY TO SPEAK BAHASA INDONESIA

The Indonesian archipelago consists of thousands of islands and hundreds of ethnic groups each with their own local language. Bahasa Indonesia, while often used as a second language, is officially used as the nations' unifying language and has been the primary language of education, government and business for many decades.

“

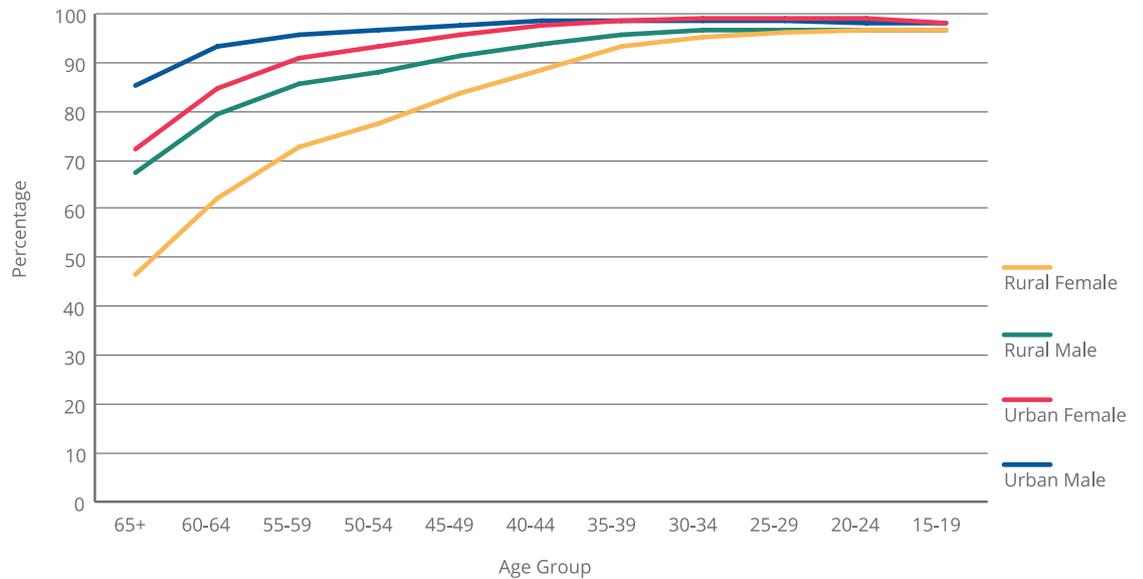
Most youth  
speak Bahasa  
Indonesia

”

Figure 4-2 demonstrates that most Indonesian youth are able to speak Bahasa Indonesia. Results from the 2010 Population Census demonstrate that there has been a significant increase in the uptake of Bahasa Indonesia among the younger cohorts of the population. Among the older cohorts, there is a substantial gap in the ability to speak Bahasa Indonesia across gender, and also across urban/rural residences. This is likely to reflect the relatively poor access to formal education for women in particular, and for those in rural areas in the past.

**FIGURE 4-2**

**Percentage able to speak Bahasa Indonesia, by age, sex and urban/rural residence: Indonesia, 2010**



Source: Derived from Population Census 2010, BPS-Statistics Indonesia [web] <http://sp10.bps.go.id>

Among women in rural areas aged 65 and older, less than 50 percent could speak Bahasa Indonesia. In contrast, about 98 percent of young women aged 15-19 in rural areas were able to do so. Today's achievement is a result of a long process that parallels education expansion in Indonesia. However, although most young people are able to speak Bahasa Indonesia, they also must have the capability to communicate what

they want. Language skills need to be accompanied by cognitive skills: knowing, applying and reasoning, which are prerequisites to the pursuance of rights to participate in the community.

Although almost all young people are capable of speaking Bahasa Indonesia nationally, quite a number of young people in the outer islands remain unable to speak the national language. Close to one in five

“

About 19% of  
youth in Papua  
cannot speak  
Bahasa Indonesia.

”

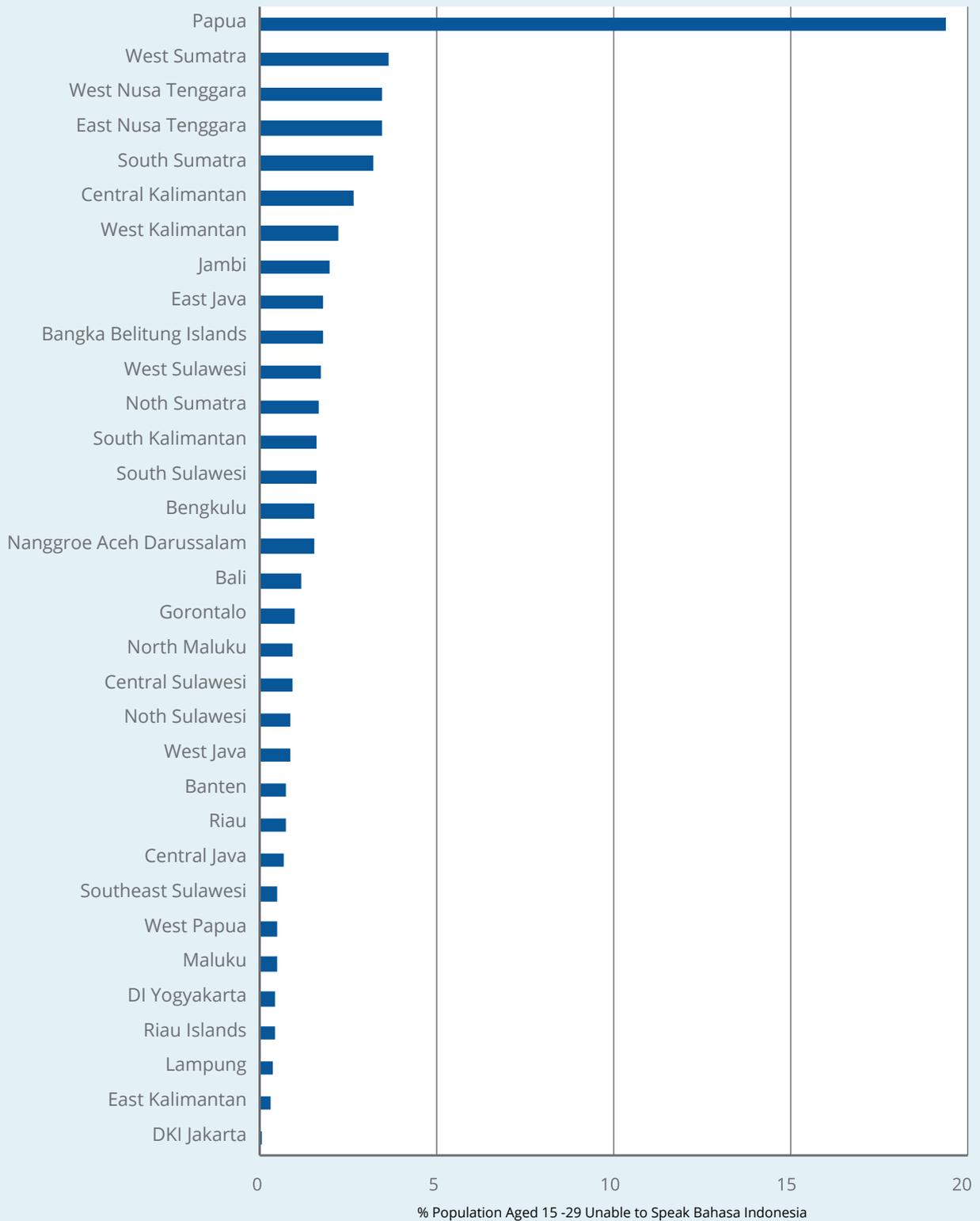


(19%) of 15-29 year olds in Papua were unable to speak Bahasa Indonesia. This is in line with data indicating that 30 percent of youth in Papua had never attended school (see section 4.5). Extension of education to all Papuans is a challenge to be addressed by the Indonesian Government.

According to linguistic research by SIL International, there are 265 languages in Papua. Although Bahasa Indonesia is taught and spoken in schools, 70 percent of indigenous children in Papua live in remote and isolated rural communities, and they need to travel long distances to school. Once they have succeeded in reaching schools, they face the problem of teacher absenteeism. In Papua, a recent estimate of the teacher absenteeism rate was 33.5 percent. Teacher absenteeism has been a chronic problem in the provision of basic education in Papua.

FIGURE 4-3

Percentage of 15-29 year olds unable to speak Bahasa Indonesia, by province: Indonesia, 2010



Source: Derived from Population Census 2010, BPS-Statistics Indonesia [web] <http://sp10.bps.go.id>

## 4.3 School Participation

“

*Participation in all levels of education has been increasing over time*

”

In Indonesia, school participation at all levels of education has been increasing over time. Trends in youth school participation can be seen through various measures. One such measure, the Net Enrolment Ratio (NER), is a widely used indicator and is one being used to measure progress towards the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) of universal access to 'primary school education' by the year 2015 (MDG15).

The measure can also be used for higher levels of schooling. To calculate this measure one must first determine the population of official school age for each level of school (primary, junior secondary and senior secondary). Then, the number of pupils attending a given level of school who are of the official age for that school is divided by the population for the same age-group and the result is multiplied by 100.

In Indonesia the official age groups for attending school are 7-12 years for Primary School (SD), 13-15 years for Junior Secondary School (SMP) and 16-18 years for Senior Secondary School (SMA). As there is no official age range for undertaking tertiary education the 19-24 year age group is taken to best represent the ages during which tertiary education is commonly undertaken.

Using the NER measure, Figure 4-4 Net Enrolment Ratios for primary, junior secondary, senior secondary and tertiary levels of education(a): Indonesia, 1994-2012 shows that while the primary school enrolment ratios have been high and rising until recent years, the goal of providing universal (100%) access to primary school education in Indonesia has yet to be achieved. Over the 16-year period between 1994 and 2010, the percentage of children aged 7-12 who were enrolled in primary school increased from about 92 percent to almost 95 percent. However this upward trend does not appear to have been sustained over more recent years for which data are available.

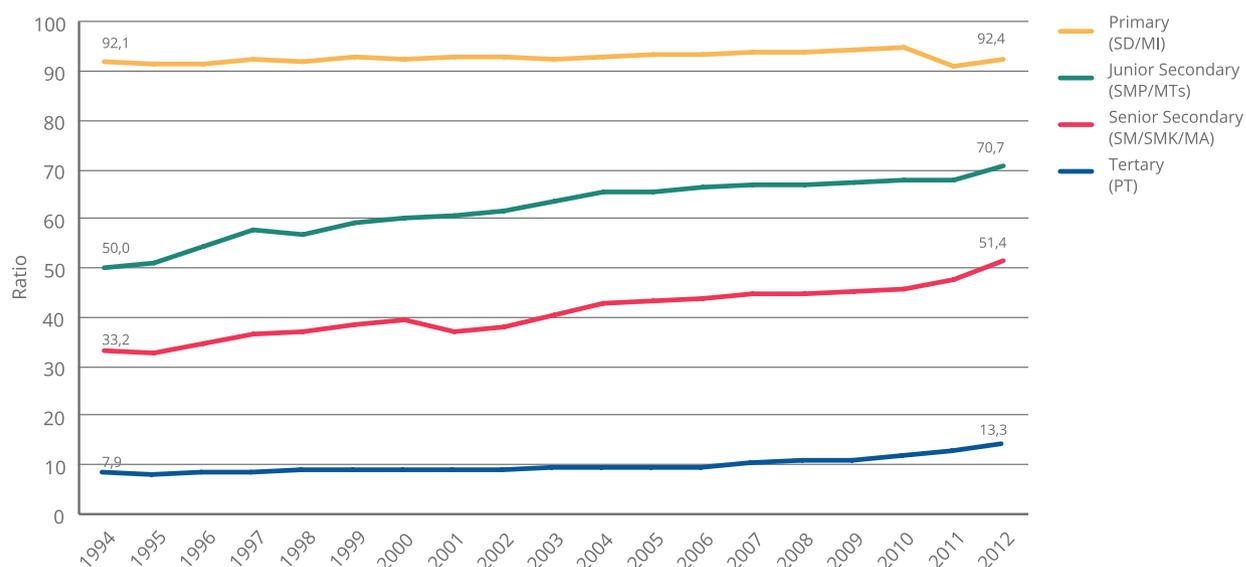
In 2012, the NER was close to 92 percent, which is much the same as that recorded in 1994. The recent fall in the primary school enrolment ratios seems a little improbable and should be treated with caution, especially since the other indicators that follow do not reveal the same turnaround. Nonetheless, even if the enrolment ratio in primary school had not declined over recent years, the data suggest that more than 1 in 20 children of primary school age in 2010 (that is, more than 5%) will not have had a primary school education, leaving them without a basic education as they mature into their teens and eventually into adulthood.

Figure 4-4 Net Enrolment Ratios for primary, junior secondary, senior secondary and tertiary levels of education (a): Indonesia, 1994-2012 also shows NERs for youth who could be attending higher levels of education, namely SMP, SMA and tertiary education. As would be expected, the percentages of youth enrolled in education decreases as the level of education increases. In 2012, the NER for junior secondary school (among 13-15 year olds) was 71 percent, for senior secondary school (among 16-18 year olds) it was 51 percent, and for tertiary level education (among 19-24 year olds) it was 13 percent.

Whilst these rates of participation in secondary and tertiary levels of education all appear as being low, the time series data for the 1994-2012 period show that there have been continuous improvements in enrolment rates over the 18-year period. At the junior secondary school level the NER increased by 21 percentage points (up from 50% in 1994 to 71% in 2012) and at the senior secondary school level, it increased by 18 percentage points (up from 33% to 51% over the same period). The NER for tertiary education increased from a little less than 8 percent in 1994 to 13 percent in 2012, a rise of five percentage points.

**FIGURE 4-4**

**Net Enrolment Ratios for primary, junior secondary, senior secondary and tertiary levels of education<sup>(a)</sup>: Indonesia, 1994-2012**



Notes: a) Percentage of the population aged 7-12 enrolled in primary school, those aged 13-15 enrolled in junior secondary school(SMP), those age 16-18 years enrolled in senior secondary school (SMA) and those aged 19-24 years enrolled at the tertiary level of education.

Source: Indicators of Education based on SUSENAS 1994-2012. BPS [web], <http://www.bps.go.id/>



Another measure commonly used to show the level of engagement in formal education is the Education Participation Rate. Unlike the Net Enrolment Ratio, the Education Participation Rate shows the extent to which youngsters in any age group of interest are attending school no matter what level of school they might be attending. It provides a more inclusive measure of education participation than the Net Enrolment Ratio when looking at the same age ranges. This is because children attending a higher or lower year of school than the ones to which the Net Enrolment Ratio measure is restricted are not excluded from the calculation. From 1994 to 2012, for children aged 7-12 years, participation increased from 94 to 98 percent, while for those aged 13-15 years it increased from 72 to almost 90 percent, and for those aged 16-18 years, the rate increased from 45 to 61 percent. For youth aged 19-24 years, the education participation rate (which mostly includes engagement in university level education) increased from 13 to 16 percent

“

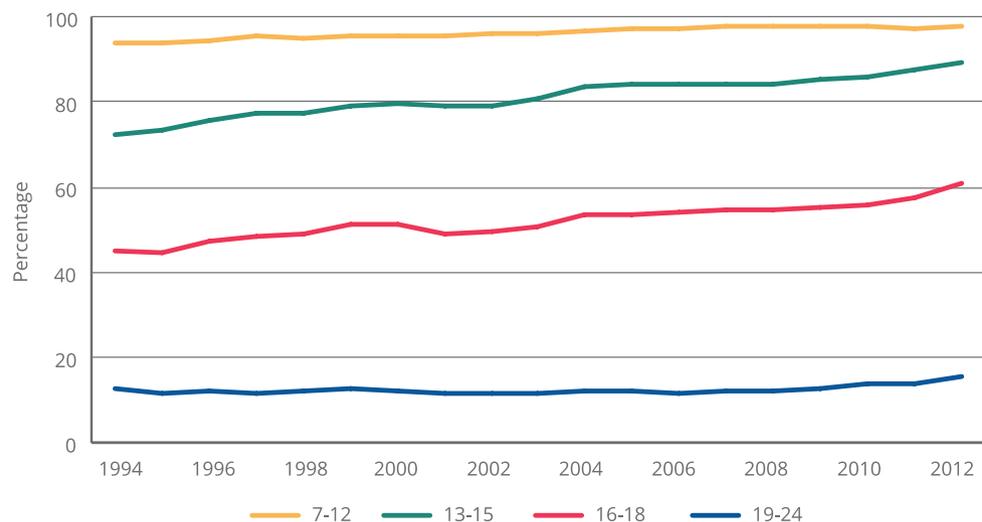
*A substantial proportion of school-age youth are not participating in post-primary schooling.*

”

Both the Net Enrolment Ratios and Education Participation Rates indicate that there has been significant progress in the school participation of young people in Indonesia over time. Still, there remain a significant percentage of primary-school aged children who are missing out on receiving a basic education. There is also much to be done to improve participation rates in the post-primary levels of schooling.

**FIGURE 4-5**

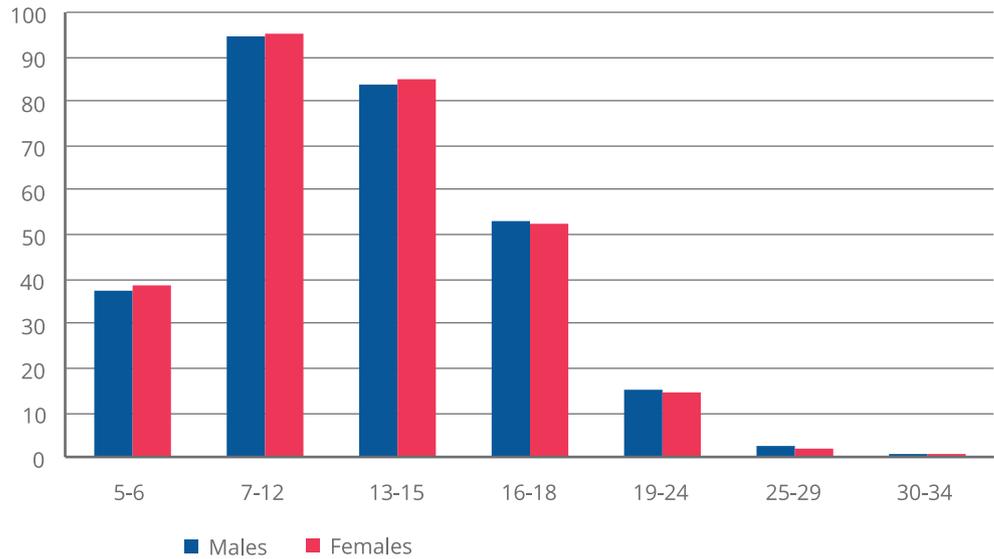
**Education Participation Rates of children and youth by age: Indonesia, 1994 to 2012**



Source: Source: Indicators of Education based on SUSENAS 1994-2012. BPS-Statistics Indonesia [web], <http://www.bps.go.id/> In particular: [http://www.bps.go.id/tab\\_sub-/view.php?kat=1&tabel=1&daftar=1&id\\_subyek=28&notab=1](http://www.bps.go.id/tab_sub-/view.php?kat=1&tabel=1&daftar=1&id_subyek=28&notab=1) (September 2013)

FIGURE 4-6

Education participation rates by age and sex: Indonesia, 2010



Source: Indicators of Education based on SUSENAS 1994-2012. BPS [web], <http://www.bps.go.id/>

“  
The gender gap in school participation has disappeared.  
”

Figure 4-6 Education participation rates by age and sex: Indonesia, 2010 shows the education participation rates of children and youth by sex in 2010. The data only shows school attendance and not the level of school being attended. Nevertheless, it is safe to assume that most of the children aged 7-12 years would be attending primary school; that most of those aged 13-15 years would be in junior high school, and so on.

In 2010, the large majority (94%) of formal primary school aged children, those aged 7-12 years, were at school. However, rates of school attendance dropped off significantly with increasing age. Among children in the 13-15 year age group, 84 percent were at school and among those aged 16-18 years the proportion at school was 53 percent. Among post-school aged youth aged 19-24 years, 15 percent were students most of whom would be attending a university, and for those aged 25-29 the proportion dropped to two percent. There was generally little gender difference in education participation in 2010. At the primary and junior secondary levels of school the participation rates for girls were slightly higher than that of boys while the reverse was the case at the higher levels of education.

#### 4.4 School Progression

The reductions in education participation with increasing age seen in the preceding charts, indicate that many children discontinue their schooling to the higher level after completing primary or junior secondary school. However, these data give an indirect view of school drop-out rates as they do not relate to the same cohorts of school entrants. The actual extent of ‘dropping out’ or conversely, of ‘progression to higher levels of school’ among different cohorts of school entrants has recently been studied by demography scholar Suharti, whose data is presented in Figure 4-6 and Figure 4-7.

“

*Progression from lower to higher levels of schooling has improved over the last two decades.*

”

First, looking back at primary school entrants who commenced school in 1988/1989 (when the older of the 2010 cohort of youth were starting school), Suharti's data show that for every 100 primary school entrants only 66 percent fully completed primary school, and that only 44 percent continued on to junior secondary school. However, when tracking a much more recent intake of primary school students, namely those who started primary school in 2003/2004, the progression rate to the stage of graduating from primary school had increased to 81 percent and two-thirds (66%) continued on to junior secondary school.

Suharti also observed substantial improvements in progression rates among more recent cohorts of junior secondary school students. Of the initial intake of junior secondary school students in 1988/89, 75 percent completed junior secondary school and 62 percent continued to senior secondary school. Among the more recent 2005/2006 intake of junior secondary school students, on the other hand, her data revealed that 87 percent went on to complete junior secondary school and 86 percent progressed to senior secondary school.

The preceding progression rate comparisons for the two cohorts of primary and junior high school entrants, the first starting school in 1988/89 and the latter starting less than a decade ago (2002/2003 for primary school students and 2005/2006 for junior high school students) reveal that government efforts to promote education have had a marked impact in reducing the numbers of drop-outs and improving the transition rate to the next level of education. Nonetheless, the data also indicate that much more needs to be done to enable all members of the upcoming cohorts of youth to at least complete the compulsory years of schooling.

An interesting aspect of Suharti's study is the finding that junior secondary school students had higher progression ratios than primary school students (Figures 4-7 and 4-8). Looking at 2002/2003 year student intakes, for example, 81 percent of the junior high school student intake actually went on to study at senior high school while only 66 percent of primary school enrolments went on to junior high school. This shows that once children have progressed from primary school to secondary school, they become more persistent in wanting to go on to higher levels of schooling. Alternatively, it suggests that once parents are able to send their children to secondary school, the likelihood of their children dropping out reduces. Indeed, previous studies on early school leavers in Indonesia suggest that dropping out of schools most commonly occurs in the transition from primary to junior high school (Year 6 to Year 7).

FIGURE 4-7

Flow of students at primary school, 1988/1989- 2008/2009

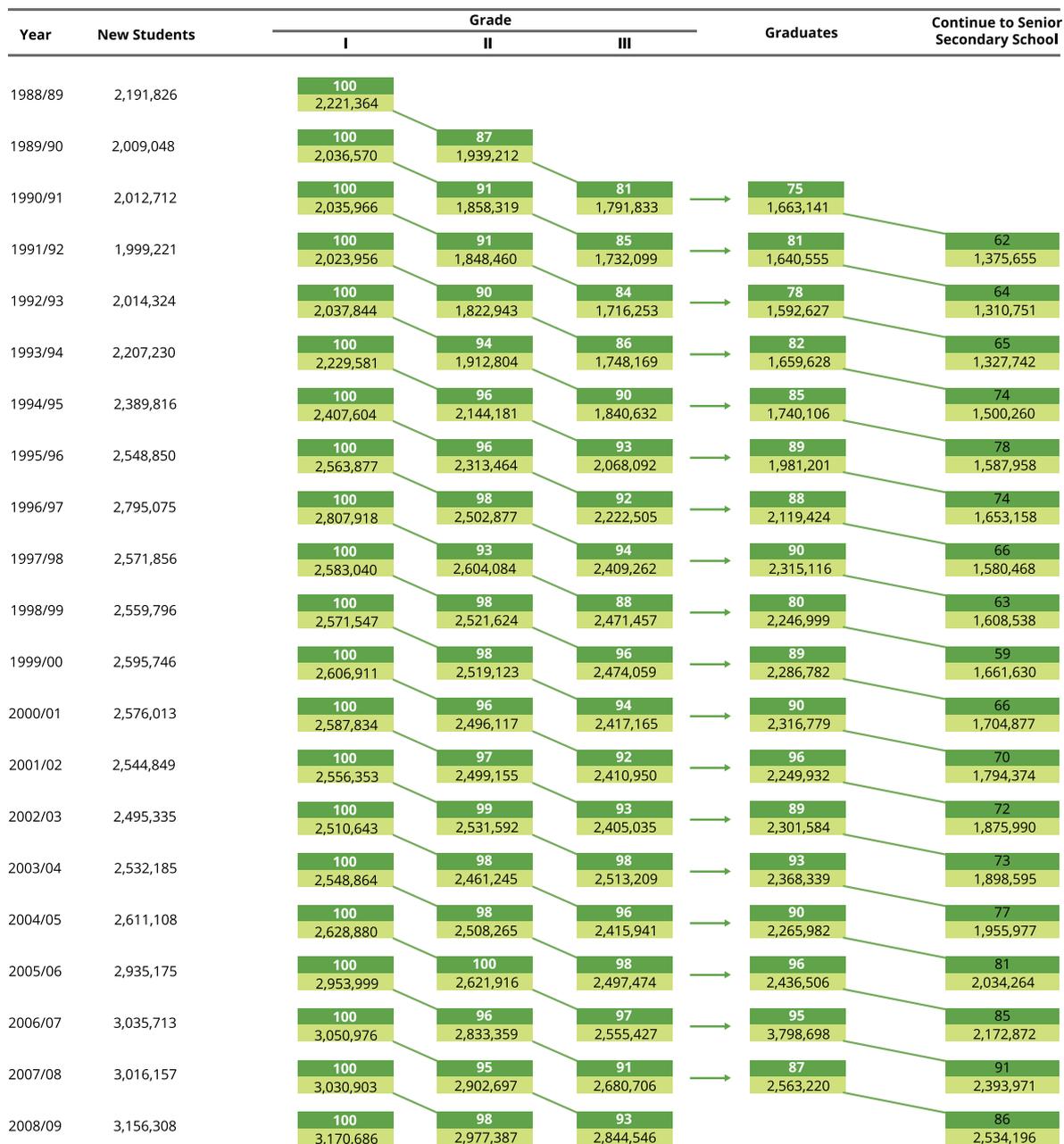


Note: School progression rates compiled from school statistics from the Center for Education Data and Statistics, Ministry of Education and Culture, various years.

Source: Suharti (2013), 'Trends in Education in Indonesia' in Suryadarma D., and G. Jones. Ed's.(2013) Education in Indonesia ISEAS, Singapore (see Figure 2.8 in page 28).

FIGURE 4-8

Flow of students at junior secondary school, 1988/1989-2008/2009



Note: School progression rates compiled from school statistics from the Center for Education Data and Statistics, Ministry of Education and Culture, various years.

Source: Suharti (2013), "Trends in Education in Indonesia" in Suryadarma D., and G. Jones. Ed's.(2013) Education in Indonesia ISEAS, Singapore (see Figure 2-9 on page 29).

## 4.5 Educational Attainment

Educational attainment data for a population provides an understanding of the level of human capital in the population at a point in time, an understanding of the skill level of the working-age population, and at the personal level is a key indicator of socioeconomic status. Like the participation measures discussed above, measures of educational attainment can also indicate the success or otherwise of government initiatives to improve educational outcomes. In the context of the economy, statistics on educational attainment inform the ability of youth to meet the expectations of industry and the labour market. A person's level of educational attainment, measured by his/her highest level of completed education, provides a useful indicator of his/her knowledge and capacity to handle matters involving higher levels of literacy and numeracy, which can be used to help solve personal and wider community problems. For adults, the level of education they have completed is often taken as a key measure of their socioeconomic status and as an explanatory variable for low or high levels of wellbeing in other areas of social concern such as income, health and housing.

“

*The youth of today  
are better educated  
than preceding  
generations.*

”

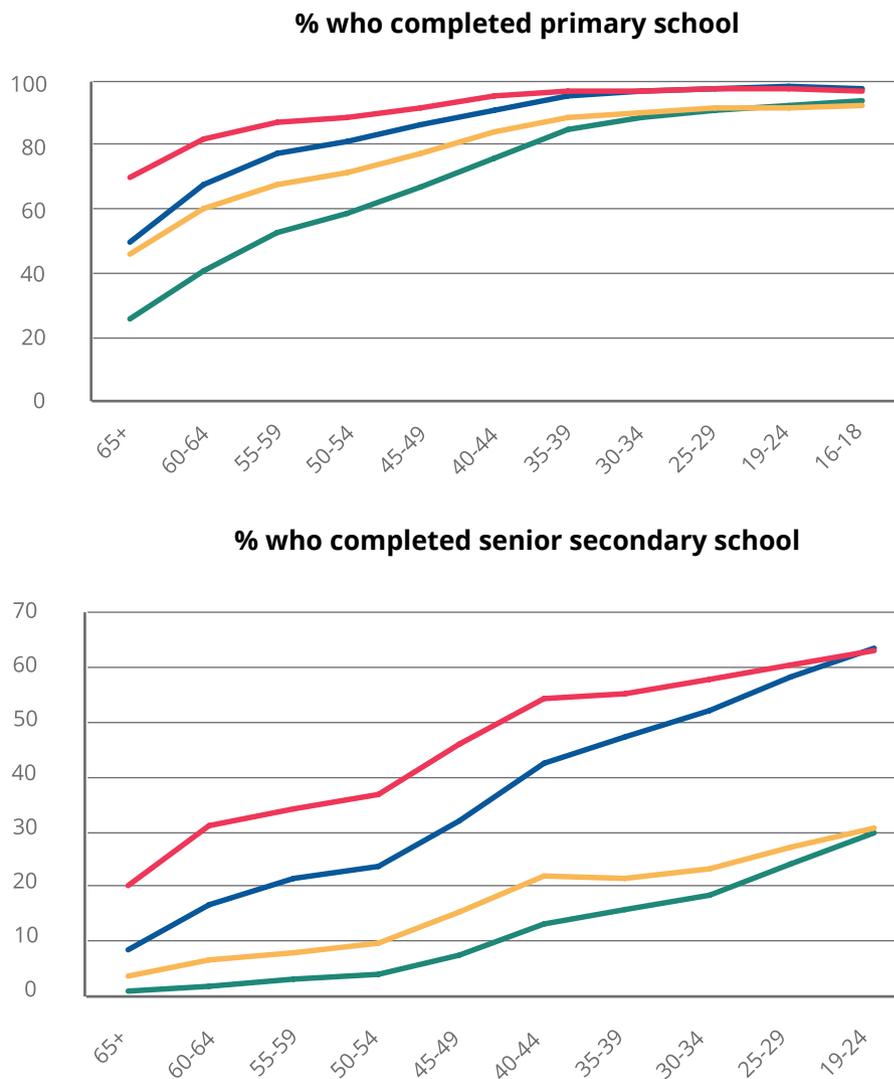
The group of charts presented in Figure 4-9 Percentages of youth and adults who had completed school by level of school by age, sex and urban-rural residence: Indonesia, 2010 show differences in levels of educational attainment of the youth of 2010 relative to those who were youth in previous years extending back for many decades. As such they provide an extended historical view of the provision of education in Indonesia. They usefully reveal shifts in access to different levels of education among men and women as well as differences for persons living in urban and rural areas.

The first chart in this series focuses on the percentages of youth and older people who had completed primary school. The large majority (around 95%) of both male and female youth aged in the 16-18, 19-24 and 25-29 year age ranges in 2010 had completed a primary school education. As can be seen, today's youth are far more likely to have had a primary school education than their parents and grandparents. Limited access to primary schools for now elderly people who were children some 50-plus years ago explain the low percentages of elderly people who had completed a primary school education. The data also reveal how the previous pattern of discrimination against girls going to school, a practice that was more pronounced among girls in rural areas, has been progressively eliminated. For instance, only 41 percent of females in rural areas aged 60-64 years in 2010 had received a primary school education whilst the proportion among rural males of the same age was almost 60 percent. Most of these older people would have been of primary school age throughout the 1950s. However, coming forward in time, it is apparent that equality in the proportions of girls and boys attaining a primary school education was reached sometime in the 1980s when those aged 30-34 years in 2010 were of primary school age.

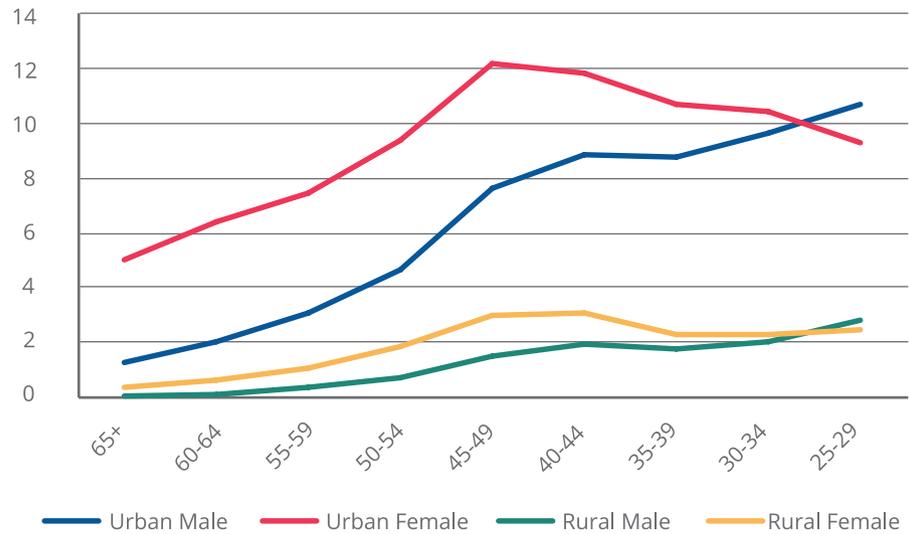
The second chart in the series looks at the attainment of senior secondary school certificates among youth compared to older people. In 2010, virtually the same proportion of 19-24 year old females had completed senior secondary school as males of the same age. The attainment of this equality has clearly been a more recent achievement than that observed for primary school education described above. As well as revealing the reduction in gender imbalances in regard to senior secondary school education, the second chart also shows steady intergenerational progress at this level of education among youth in both urban and rural areas.

**FIGURE 4-9**

**Percentages of youth and adults who had completed school by level of school by age, sex and urban-rural residence: Indonesia, 2010**



### % who completed a bachelor/undergraduate degree<sup>(a)</sup>



Notes: a) Includes Level IV Diplomas but not Diplomas below Level IV.

Source: Derived from Population Census 2010, BPS-Statistics Indonesia [web] <http://sp10.bps.go.id>.

A feature of the intergenerational progress made in both rural and urban areas is that it has not been as great for those living in rural areas where the attainment rates have always been lower. Among urban area residents, the proportion of males with a senior secondary school certificate increased by 33 percentage points when comparing the percentages for those aged 60-64 years to those aged 19-24 years (up from 31 percent to 64 percent respectively). The equivalent percentage point increase for rural area males was only 24 percentage points (rising from 7 percent to 31 percent for the respective cohorts).

The increasing gap in the educational attainment among progressively younger cohorts of urban and rural dwellers apparent from these figures, and a similar pattern is apparent for males and females, may have occurred for several reasons. One may well be that the supply of senior secondary schools has progressed less rapidly in rural areas thereby limiting the opportunities to attend high school for those in rural areas. However, a process of migrant selectivity may also be at play here. As outlined in the previous chapter on youth migration, young rural-urban migrants are likely to be more educated than their counterparts who stayed in the rural areas. The movements of young people with senior secondary school qualifications from rural areas to urban areas, typically in pursuit of better work and further education opportunities, would also help to explain the lower proportion of better educated youths located in rural areas.

Finally, the last chart of the series focuses on the percentages of 25-29 year olds and older people who had completed an undergraduate university degree or equivalent. This older age range for youth has been selected as many youth in the 15-24 year age range will not have had an opportunity to complete tertiary level studies.

“

*Well below 10%  
had obtained  
a university  
degree*

”

In 2010, 6.2 percent of males and 7.0 percent of females aged 25-29 had obtained a university degree (see Table 4.1). As is apparent from the data presented in the last of the three diagrams in Figure 4.8, this higher level of achievement among females is once again a recent phenomenon. Among older generations of Indonesians, starting with those in the 30-34 year age group, males were more likely to have a degree than females and the difference between the sexes increases with age. Unexpectedly, this last chart also shows that in urban and rural areas alike, the proportion of male youth aged 25-29 years holding a degree was lower than that recorded for males in older age groups. The age group with the highest proportion of highly educated males was the 45-49 year age group, a group who would have graduated from university more than 20 years ago. This finding, based on 2010 Census data, is consistent with data from the 2012 SAKERNAS survey. Nonetheless, the result is not consistent with the participation and progression statistics described above. This anomalous situation is a matter that deserves further enquiry.

“

*Less than half of  
19-29 year old  
youth in 2010  
had obtained a  
senior high school  
certificate*

”

Table 41 Educational attainment of youth by age and sex, Indonesia, 2010(a) details the percentages of youth in 2010 that held various types of educational qualifications, starting from primary school level school certificates through to undergraduate university degrees. This table has been prepared using the same variables and dataset as Figure 4-9, however, the data in this table are now presented for three youth age groups. One relates to upper secondary school aged youth, the next relates to the ages most commonly associated with the early years of post-school education and the final group rounds out the picture by including the older established youth that make up the 25-29 year age group.

Some cells in the table are blank because youth of the given age would not have had the opportunity to complete the particular qualification referred to by the indicator. For example, it is extremely unlikely that any 16-18 year old will have obtained a university degree.

There are a number of points to observe from this table. First is the low rate of attainment for post-primary school level qualifications. More than a quarter of youth aged 16-18 had not completed compulsory schooling (that is, junior secondary school) with the percentages being even greater for older youth. Second, there is a noted absence of inequality in the proportions of male and female youth in obtaining an educational qualification at any level. As mentioned earlier, among those aged 25-29 years, a higher proportion of female youth held a university degree than male youth.

TABLE 4-1

**Educational attainment of youth by age and sex, Indonesia, 2010<sup>(a)</sup>**

Education Attainment Indicator	Age Group								
	16-18 years			19-24 years			25-29 years		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
% with primary school certificate	94.7	96.1	95.4	94.9	95.5	95.2	94.7	94.5	94.6
% with junior high school certificate	72.1	76.6	74.3	73.1	73.6	73.4	69.2	66.6	67
% with senior high school or vocational school certificate	-	-	-	48.4	48.4	48.4	45.0	42.2	43.6
% with diploma (levels I/III)	-	-	-	1.8	3.3	2.5	3.2	5.1	4.1
% with university degree <sup>(b)</sup>	-	-	-	-	-	-	6.2	7.0	6.6

Notes: a) Data for each qualification are only given for age groups who had had a chance of completing the qualification. Data for younger age groups have been omitted for some of the indicators as many of the youth in those age groups would still have been students and not have had the opportunity to obtain the qualification. b) Diploma IV (or S1) and above.

Source: Derived from Population Census 2010, BPS [web] <http://sp10.bps.go.id>.

## 4.6 Current Challenges

Despite the progress attributed to the government's continuous investment in education, young people in Indonesia continue to face a number of issues in the access, progression, quality and equity of education.

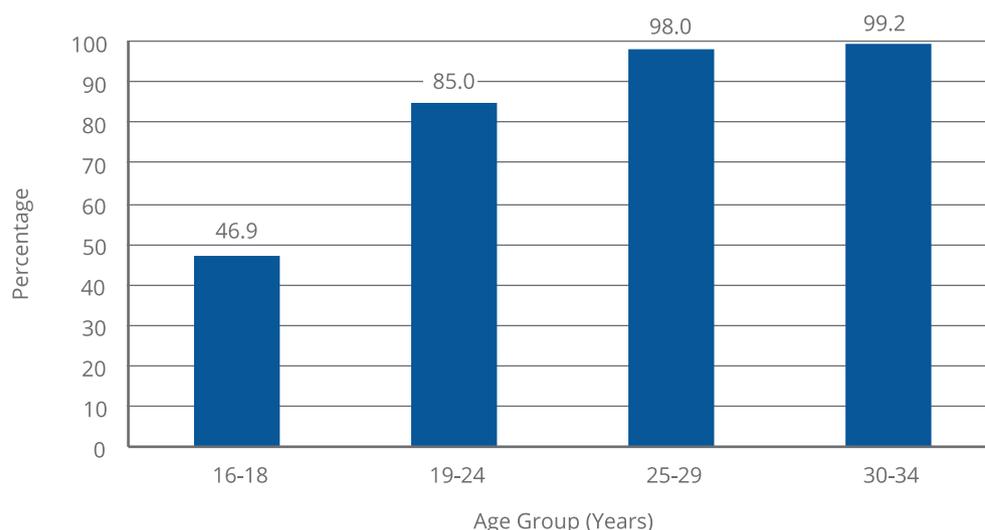
### 4.6.1 POST PRIMARY EDUCATION

“  
47% of youth aged  
16-18 no longer  
attending school  
”

A major challenge ahead is to increase education participation at the secondary school levels. As mentioned earlier in section 4.3, some 47 percent of youth aged 16-18 years in 2010 were not attending school. The much higher percentage of young people aged 19-24 years who were no longer participating in education (85% in 2010) is also unsatisfactory. Increasing the proportion of these youth in tertiary education, especially technical education, is vital to the achievement of the future skill base that will be required for national development.

FIGURE 4-10

**Population no longer attending an educational institution<sup>(a)</sup> by age: Indonesia, 2010**



Notes: a) As a percentage of those who had ever attended an educational institution.

Source: Derived from Population Census 2010, BPS-Statistics Indonesia [web] <http://sp10.bps.go.id>.

#### 4.6.2 QUALITY OF LEARNING OUTCOMES

While there has clearly been progress in the levels of education participation among young Indonesians over recent decades, there are concerns about the quality of their education and the ability of youth to meet the skill requirements of a modernising economy. Insight into the quality of education received by young Indonesians can be gained from international studies of the performance of students doing standardised tests. The most comprehensive study of this type is the PISA. First conducted among OECD member countries in 2000, this study, repeated at three-yearly intervals, has progressively included a greater number of non-OECD countries within its scope.

Indonesia and other neighbouring Southeast Asian countries have been among those included. Results from the 2012 PISA data collection for 15 year olds are shown in Table 4-2.

“  
*Indonesian students' performance in the 2012 PISA was well below student averages for Singapore, Vietnam, Thailand and Malaysia*  
”

The standardised tests administered in PISA 2012 covered three core subjects: mathematics, reading and science. Table 42 Mean student performance scores of 15 year old male and female students by subject: selected countries, PISA(a) 2012 shows that the mean test scores for Indonesian students were well below the OECD average in all three subject areas and the scores were also well below those recorded by the neighbouring Southeast Asian countries included in the study:

Singapore, Vietnam, Thailand and Malaysia. Among these countries Singapore and Vietnam stood out as being the best performers.

Contrasting Indonesia's situation with Vietnam in the area of mathematics, as just one example, highlights the difference in educational achievement. In Vietnam, the mean scores for mathematics for boys and girls were 517 and 507 respectively. In Indonesia, the corresponding mean scores were 377 and 373.

**TABLE 4-2**

**Mean student performance scores of 15 year old male and female students by subject: selected countries, PISA<sup>(a)</sup> 2012**

Country	Mathematics		Science		Reading	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Singapore	572	575	551	552	527	559
Hong Kong-China	568	553	558	551	533	558
Chinese Taipei	563	557	524	523	507	539
Korea	562	544	539	536	525	548
Japan	545	527	552	541	527	551
Viet Nam	517	507	529	528	492	523
OECD Average	499	489	502	500	478	515
Thailand	419	433	433	452	410	465
Malaysia	416	424	414	425	377	418
Indonesia	377	373	380	383	382	410
Indonesia's ranking among 65 participating countries	63	63	63	64	59	60

Notes: a) International assessment of performance undertaken by the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA).

Source: Compiled from OECD [web] <http://gpseducation.oecd.org/>

**TABLE 4-3**

**Percentage of 15 year old male and female students classified as being low achieving<sup>(a)</sup> by subject: selected countries, PISA<sup>(b)</sup> 2012**

Country	Mathematics		Science		Reading	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Hong Kong-China	8.5	8.5	6.0	5.1	9.1	4.1
Japan	9.2	9.1	7.6	5.6	10.4	4.5
Singapore	9.7	6.7	11.0	8.1	13.4	6.2
OECD Average	10.9	11.2	9.0	7.9	13.1	6.1
Viet Nam	14.2	14.3	7.8	5.8	14.0	5.4
Chinese Taipei	14.3	11.4	11.5	8.2	16.4	6.8
Korea	22.1	23.9	18.6	16.9	23.9	12.0
Thailand	54.1	46.3	39.7	28.8	48.6	20.7
Malaysia	54.1	49.6	48.7	42.5	62.9	43.2
Indonesia	74.6	76.9	67.2	66.0	62.6	47.7

Notes: a) Low-achieving students are students achieving a proficiency level of 2 or below in the ranking of levels from 1 (lowest) to 5 (highest). b) International assessment of student performance undertaken by the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA).

Source: Compiled from OECD [web] <http://gpseducation.oecd.org/>

Table 43 Percentage of 15 year old male and female students classified as being low achieving(a) by subject: selected countries, PISA(b) 2012 indicates the percentage of low-achieving students across the three subjects by sex. Here again, Indonesia stood out as having high proportions of low-achieving students in mathematics, but this was also the case in reading and science. In general, Indonesian girls performed better than boys in reading, but the proportions that scored poorly in the PISA tests were still relatively high for both sexes. Close to 63 percent of boys and 48 percent of girls were ranked as low-achievers in reading. For science, about 67 percent of boys and 66 percent of girls fell in the low-achievers category. Out of the 65 participating countries, Indonesia ranked 63rd in mathematics performance, 63rd in science and 59th in reading. Judging from these international standardised tests, the provision of quality education in all subject matter areas is a major challenge that needs to be addressed by Indonesia’s relatively weak education system.

### 4.6.3 THE POOR AND VULNERABLE

“  
Poverty remains a  
strong barrier to  
schooling.  
”

Access to education is one of the factors accounting for poor educational outcomes for many youth. While most youth in Indonesia have received basic schooling, barriers to participation remain for some, especially among those from poor families and in more remote parts of the country.

In the 2010 SUSENAS conducted by BPS-Statistics Indonesia, parents were asked why their children of primary and junior secondary school age were not attending school or had never attended school. Financial hardship was the most frequently cited reason although lack of access to a nearby school and disability were also important reasons for children

TABLE 4-4

#### Reasons for not attending or not continuing schooling among children by age and sex: Indonesia, 2010

Reasons	Never attended school				No longer at school			
	7-12 years		13-15 years		7-12 years		13-15 years	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Cannot afford/financial reasons	24.9	25.9	24.5	31.7	45.8	56.7	57.4	66.4
Work/to earn money	1.4	1.5	3.7	2.6	2.3	2.1	6.3	5.2
School far away	14.8	17.3	13.5	11.4	3.0	4.3	2.7	3.0
Disabled	22.3	19.8	33.4	32.6	4.5	1.9	1.2	1.1
Other reasons <sup>(a)</sup>	36.6	35.5	24.9	21.7	44.4	35	32.4	24.3
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Note: a) Includes married/housekeeping, education is sufficient, shame/embarrassed because of economic situation, disabled, and ‘other’ non-specified reasons

Source: BPS-Statistics Indonesia, 2011 Pendidikan Penduduk Indonesia. Hasil Sensus 2010. Pp 48. Figures are derived from the 2010 National Socio-economic Survey (SUSENAS)[Data file].

“

*The probability of completing compulsory schooling has increased for all children irrespective of their economic status, and the greatest gains in school completion rates over the 1993 to 2009 period were made by children from poor households.*

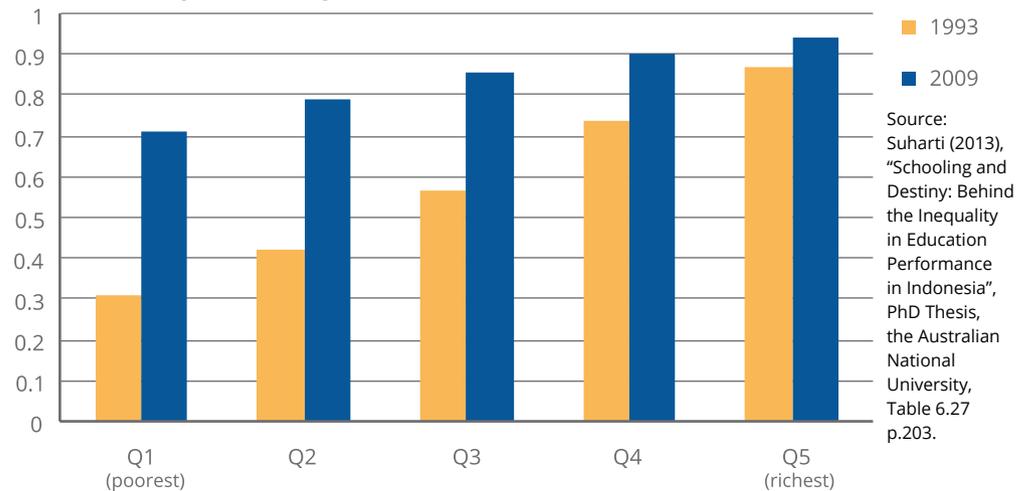
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who had never attended school (Table 4-4). The problem of not having enough money was given more frequently for girls that had discontinued school than was the case for boys. Other studies have also found this type of discrimination. During the monetary crisis in 1997-1998, when parents often faced financial difficulties, it was more often the case that girls, rather than boys, ended up dropping out of school.

Analysis undertaken by Suharti (2013) of the probability that children aged 13-15 who had enrolled in school would complete their compulsory years of schooling (that is, to the end of junior secondary school) according to their household's economic status, reveals a clear relationship between school progression and household economic wellbeing (Figure 4-11 Probability of ever enrolled 13-15 years olds completing junior high school by household expenditure quintile: Indonesia, 1993 and 2009).

**FIGURE 4-11**

**Probability of ever enrolled 13-15 years olds completing junior high school by household expenditure quintile: Indonesia, 1993 and 2009**



In 2009, only 71 percent of children from the poorest 20 percent of households (ranked on the basis of household expenditures) completed the final year of junior high school while the completion rate for those in the highest quintile was 94 percent.

There clearly remains much to do to ensure progress towards the goal of making compulsory education accessible to children and more effort is especially needed to reduce inequalities by assisting children from less affluent families to complete their basic schooling. Nonetheless, there has been progress in this regard. As shown in Figure 4-11 the probability of children from rich and poor households completing compulsory schooling was far less equal in the early 1990s and since that time the greatest advances were made for children from poor households. Suharti explains that the substantial

improvements for children from less advantaged households have been the result of pro-poor programs implemented by successive governments (which have included scholarship programmes and school subsidies) as well as the construction of additional schools in more remote areas.

#### 4.6.4 REGIONAL VARIATION IN PROPORTIONS WHO HAVE NEVER ATTENDED SCHOOL OR FAILED TO COMPLETE PRIMARY SCHOOL

“

*Papua, Gorontalo, And West Sulawesi Are The Top Three Provinces With High Proportions Of Youth With Low Levels Of Education*

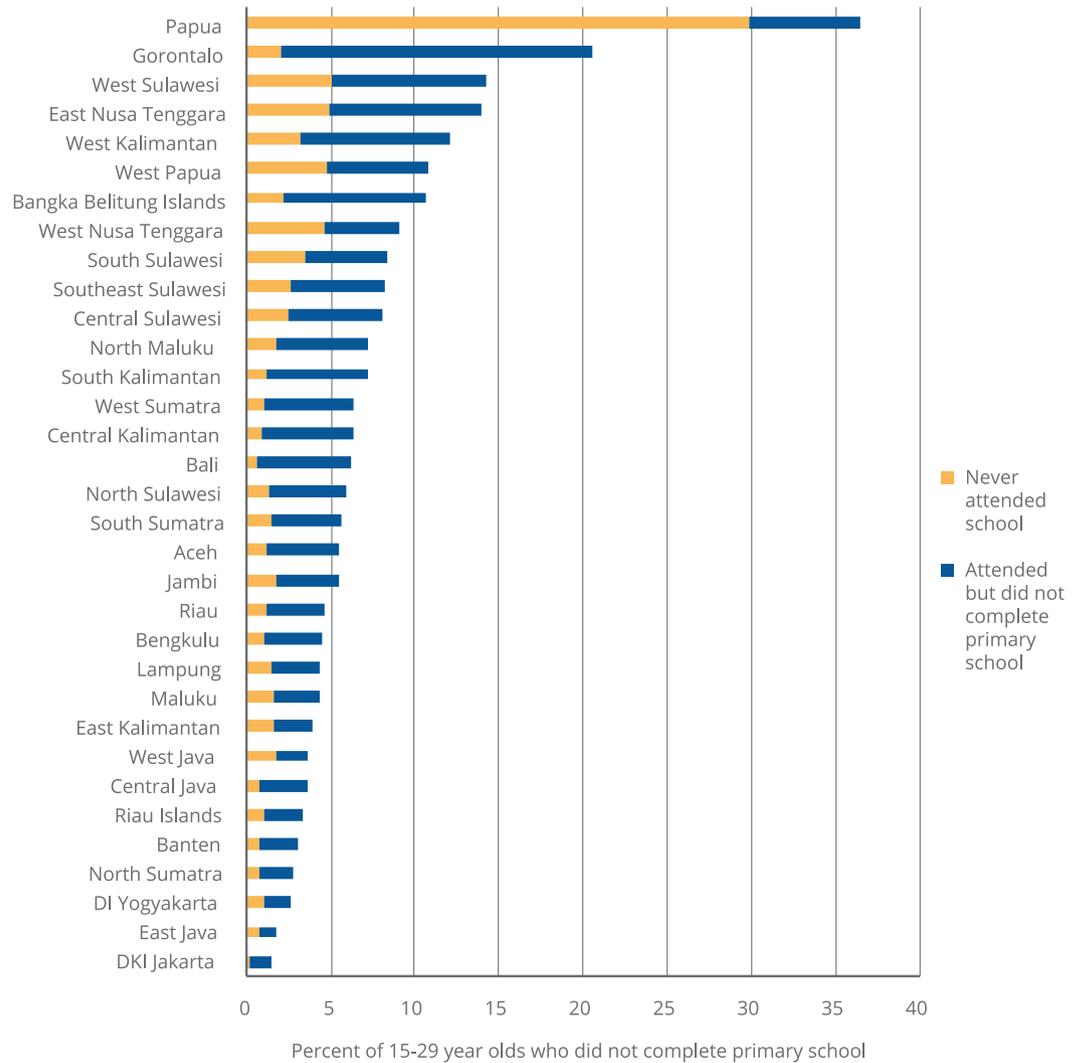
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Figure 4-12 indicates the regional variation in the percentages of youth who had not completed primary school. For each area, the chart also distinguishes between children who had attended primary school and those who had never attended primary school. We know from this distinction that children who had attended and dropped out definitely had had access to a primary school in the area in which they lived, whereas, access to a school may itself have been a problem for those who never attended. The data provides a good indication of the provinces in which greater investments must be made to ensure equitable access to basic educational services.

Youth in Papua were by far the least likely to have completed their primary school education (37%), followed by Gorontalo (21%), West Sulawesi (14%), East Nusa Tenggara (13%), West Kalimantan (12%) and West Papua and Bangka-Belitung (both 11%). In almost all regions most youth had attended primary school before dropping out of school but this was not the case in Papua. In Papua, 30 percent of youth had never attended primary school, representing 83 percent of all youth without a primary school education in that province. Other provinces where a significant proportion of youth never attended primary school included West Sulawesi, East Nusa Tenggara, West Papua and West Nusa Tenggara but in these provinces only five percent of youth had never attended, substantially lower than was the case for Papua.

FIGURE 4-12

**Percentage of 15-29 year olds who did not complete primary school by whether they had ever attended school or not, by province: Indonesia, 2010**



Source: Derived from Population Census 2010, BPS-Statistics Indonesia [web] <http://sp10.bps.go.id>

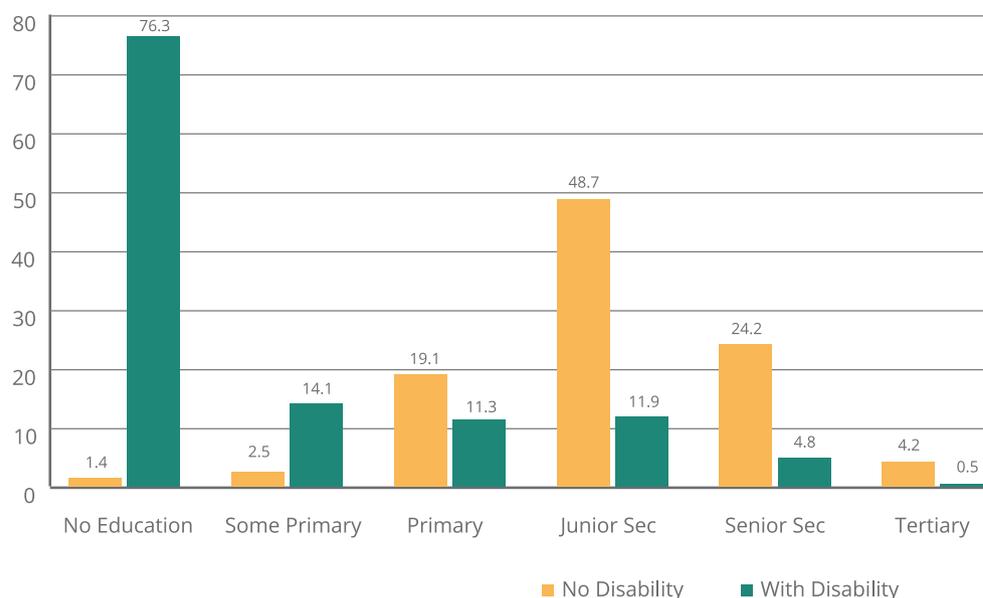
**4.6.5 DISABILITY AND ACCESS TO EDUCATION**

*“ Youth with disability have limited access to education ”*

The 2010 Population Census provided information on whether or not individuals had a disability. The overall disability rate was much lower than the level expected from other more specialised disability prevalence studies suggesting that the census only identified individuals with the more severe forms of disability. With this data constraint in mind, the data that follows reveals a significant relationship between disability and education among youth.

Figure 4-13 compares the percentage distribution of youth with and without disability by their educational attainment. Three quarters (76%) of youth aged 15-29 with a disability had had no schooling at all and a further 14 percent were not able to complete primary school. In stark contrast to these figures, less than 4 percent of youth without a disability had not completed primary school. Again, it is important to note that youth identified as having a disability in the census are most likely to be those with the most disabling types of disability, and more data is needed to assess how schools are responding to children with different levels and types of disability. Nonetheless, these statistics highlight the ongoing need to promote inclusive education, and indicate a substantial level of unmet demand for special education services in Indonesia.

**FIGURE 4-13**  
**Percentage distribution of the educational attainment of youth<sup>(a)</sup> with and without a disability: Indonesia, 2010**



Notes: a) Youth 15-29 years.

Source: Population Census 2010 [Data file].

Whether children were able to attend primary school or not, poverty, lack of access to a nearby school, and disability are among the factors preventing significant numbers of young Indonesians from completing the compulsory six years of school education that primary schools aim to provide. It is important for governments to continue poverty reduction programs, to increase access of inclusive education for the disabled, to improve infrastructure in remote locations, and therefore improve the access to education by youth in the provinces identified as having the poorest educational outcomes.

## 4.6.6 USE OF INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY (ICT)

“  
Young people are now connected, but digital inequalities present a unique challenge for achieving equity in education and information.  
”

Young people, compared to their seniors, are known to be relatively quick in the uptake of new technologies, including new forms of information and communication technology (ICT) such as mobile phones and the Internet. Globalization and the ensuing spread of ICT have created a new lifestyle for youth, and encouraged them to develop new ideas and new identities. The 2010 SUSENAS collected information on whether any member of a household used a mobile phone or had access to the Internet. Household access to these services is used here as a proxy indicator of the proportions of youth with access to a mobile phone and/or the Internet.

In general, about half of the Indonesian youth aged 15-29 years had the use of at least one of the aforementioned ICT facilities in 2010. The percentage of males with ICT access was only slightly higher than that for females. However, a digital divide is still evident between urban and rural youth. Close to two-thirds (64%) of urban youth had access to ICT facilities compared to only 37 percent of rural youth.

FIGURE 4-14

**Percentage of youth aged 15-29 years in households that had use of a mobile phone or access to the Internet by sex and urban/rural area of residence: Indonesia, 2010**

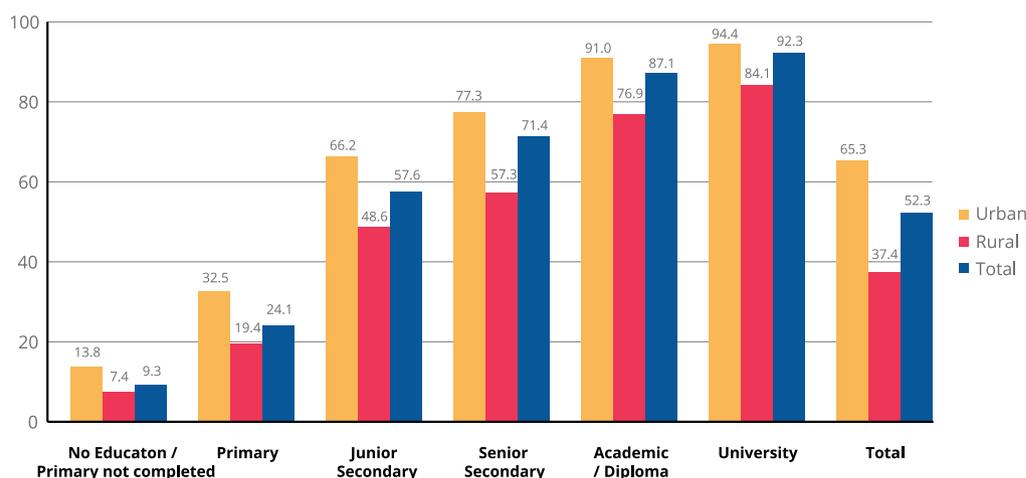


Source: Indonesia National Socio-economic Survey 2010 (SUSENAS) [data file].

The digital divide also occurs among youth with different levels of educational attainment. As seen in Figure 4-15 the percentage of youth with access to ICT increases with their level of educational attainment. In urban areas, almost every 15-29 year old with a tertiary education had access to ICT and the proportion among those in rural areas was also high. The Greater Jakarta 2010 survey found that smart mobile phones were the most commonly used means of accessing the Internet among youth in Greater Jakarta.

**FIGURE 4-15**

Percentage of youth 15-29 years in households that had use of a mobile phone or access to the Internet by educational attainment and residence: Indonesia, 2010.



Source: Indonesia National Socio-economic Survey 2010 (SUSENAS) [data file].

## 4.7 Summary

This chapter demonstrates how gains have been made towards the provision of more equitable access to education for Indonesian youth over time. Relative to the older generations, a larger proportion of school-aged youth today are participating across all levels of education. As a group, today's youth have higher levels of completed education than their parents' generation. The relative success of the public investment in education is supported by data on literacy, the ability to communicate in Bahasa Indonesia, school enrolment rates, school progression rates, and highest level of education completed as presented in this chapter. In general, progress in improving the equity of schooling provision is evident because the sex and urban-rural differentials in various measures of education are narrowing. The greatest improvement in junior secondary school completion rates between 1993 and 2009 was experienced by children in poor households. However, their completion rates still remain substantially below those of the children from well-off households.

Despite such gains, the chapter identified a number of significant challenges in the provision of equitable quality education for Indonesian youth. First, data from the 2010 Census suggest low levels of participation in higher levels of schooling. Almost half of all 16-18 year olds were no longer attending school. Among drop-outs, financial constraints were frequently cited as the reason behind their decision not to participate in education. Second, judging from a series of recently administered internationally standardised tests (PISA 2012), Indonesian students perform well below the average of their counterparts in neighbouring Southeast Asian countries, suggesting poor provision of quality education in the country. Third, a number of provinces stood out as having a high proportion

of young people who had never attended any formal schooling or who had failed to complete primary education. These provinces included Papua, Gorontalo, West Sulawesi and East Nusa Tenggara. Fourth, data from the Census highlight that disabled youth have very limited access to education. This suggests that future policies should cater for the provision of special education, address inclusiveness in general schools, and promote awareness to raise household and community demands for special education. Lastly, the chapter briefly outlines the need to address digital inequalities, particularly in the form of unequal access to ICT among youth in different socio-economic segments of the population. The challenges discussed in this chapter are by no means inclusive of all problems related to youth and education in Indonesia. These are, however, useful starting points for future efforts to improve the human capital of young people in the country.







Chapter 5

LABOUR FORCE  
ACTIVITIES

## 5.1 Introduction

A key marker of the transition to adulthood is achieving success in the labour market, that is, success in obtaining steady ongoing work and becoming self-sufficient. It also means success in avoiding long-term unemployment and in finding work that goes beyond providing the very basic needs for survival. However, the opportunities for success can vary widely for young people. With less experience and fewer on-the-job skills than adults, school-leavers can often encounter difficulties in competing in the job market, especially for more desirable well-paying jobs. Family financial hardship and the lack of educational opportunities may force youth to take work in low-value informal sector jobs while they are still very young with few prospects of career development and anything above a meagre living. However, for others in Indonesia's rapidly developing economy, opportunities abound. With the expansion of service sector and manufacturing industries over recent decades and the rising investment in education, young people are playing a vital role in helping to develop the nation's economy, which itself helps with the process of poverty reduction. This chapter provides a contemporary view of the labour market circumstances of youth in Indonesia.

Unlike the previous chapters, this chapter does not make use of 2010 Census data. Instead, it draws on data from Indonesia's National Labour Force Survey (known as SAKERNAS) a twice yearly collection of data by BPS-Statistics Indonesia. The SAKERNAS, first undertaken in February and then again in August with a larger sample size, is especially designed to track labour market conditions such as unemployment rates (a key economic indicator) over time. There are several reasons for choosing the SAKERNAS for this monograph. One is that it offers a greater range of labour force related variables, such as data on hours of work, duration of job search and earnings, than are available from the census. It also provides a more up-to-date source of information and its frequent and regular conduct makes it a valuable resource for following assessment of how the labour force circumstances of youth may have changed to those described in this monograph.

Before focusing on the labour force status of youth in Indonesia in section 5.3, section 5.2 sets the scene by describing the culture of going to work in Indonesia and how that culture differs for men and women across the life-cycle. In section 5.3, the report highlights the natural transition from education to work that occurs with age and the high rates of unemployment among youth, especially teenage youth. The associations between early marriage and work, and combining education and work, are also explored. Section 5.4 describes the make-up of Indonesia's economy in terms of the distribution of jobs by industry and by formal and informal sectors. This is followed by a description of how youth are fitting into this economic landscape and shows how youth are taking up more of the 'new economy' jobs. This is followed by a deeper discussion of youth work arrangements, which is presented in terms of access to more stable wage and salary jobs and full-time work vis-a-vis more precarious work situations. Section 5.6 looks at the important role that education plays in improving work arrangement outcomes as well as

earnings but also how it affects youth unemployment. The chapter concludes by looking at rates of long-term unemployment among youth and the extent to which youth are neither in education nor work.

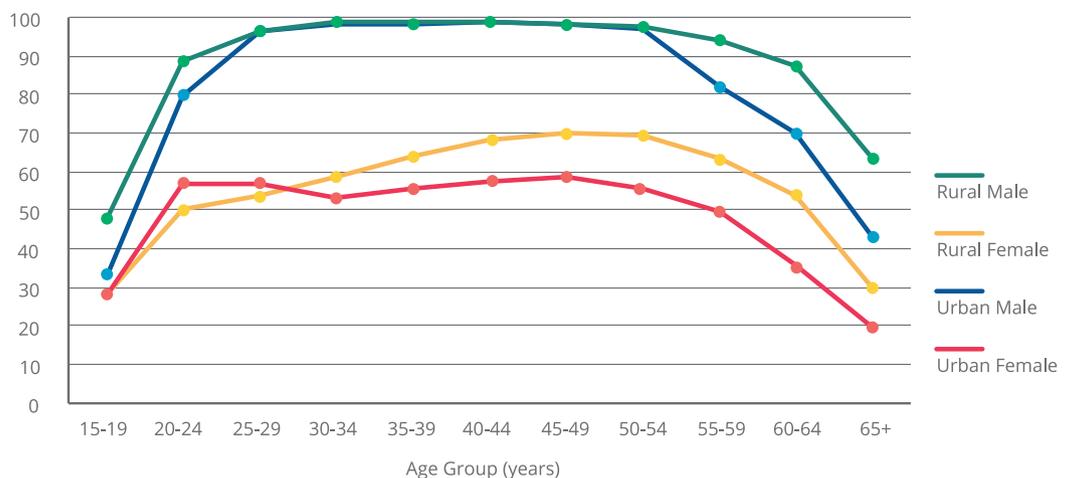
## 5.2 Going to Work: The Cultural Context

A young person’s view of their responsibilities in regard to work, be they a male or female or someone who lives in an urban or rural area, is to some extent shaped by the specific culture of workforce participation that surrounds them. Youth can observe this culture by seeing how their friends, parents and others in their surrounding communities engage in the world of work. While this ecological view of work responsibilities may differ between youth according to their immediate social milieu, Figure 5-1 provides a generalized view of what a young Indonesian might see others in Indonesia doing in regard to labour force participation.

“  
*Gender differences in labour force participation rates are persistent throughout all age groups.*  
 ”

As can be seen, participation in the labour force is a life-cycle related activity which increases with age as young people complete their education and after many years of work falls away again as people retire and become progressively less able to work. The figure also shows that the level of labour force participation differs markedly for males and females, with men having substantially higher rates of labour force participation than females. These gender differences are shaped by cultural norms that surround the roles and responsibilities of men and women as husbands and wives in relation to earning an income and the everyday tasks of looking after the welfare of family members, especially the children in the family home.

**FIGURE 5-1**  
**Labour force participation rates by age, sex and urban/rural residence:**  
**Indonesia, August 2012**



Source: National Labour Force Survey (SAKERNAS), August 2012 [data file].



*Women in urban and rural areas have distinctly different patterns of labour force participation across age groups. The current pattern of female labour force participation in urban areas is indicative of labour force interruption at the peak childbearing ages.*



Contrasting the labour force participation of people in rural areas with those in urban areas reveals some significant differences in the culture of work between rural and urban populations. The general picture is that men and women in rural areas (by joining the labour force earlier and finishing later) work longer throughout their lives than people in urban areas. This difference may be associated with the perpetual work associated with

farming on which large numbers of people in rural areas depend (see employment by industry in Table 5.2). Often involving husbands and wives working together,<sup>26</sup> the intensive farming of land as a livelihood for many rural families also helps to explain why mature aged women in rural areas have labour participation rates higher than those of women in urban areas. As well as being less economically active, females in urban areas also tend to adopt a bimodal m-shaped pattern of labour force participation by age long seen in Western countries<sup>27</sup> which is not seen among rural women. In urban areas, the dip in female

labour force participation most apparent for women aged in their early thirties reflects a period when mothers become more engaged in home-based work associated with looking after their children.

The main differences in participation between rural and urban youth occur among males in the 15-19 and 20-24 year age ranges. Those in rural areas are more economically active (start work earlier) than their counterparts in urban areas. This is consistent with the tendency for rural youth to leave school at an earlier age as described in the previous chapter. As will be discussed later in the family formation chapter, women in rural areas tend to marry and have children at an earlier age than those in urban areas. This difference may help to explain the slightly lower rates of labour force participation of 20-24 year old rural area females compared to their urban counterparts, since this is a time when many young mothers would be looking after their infant children.

### 5.3 Youth in the Labour Market

Indonesia has a large and youthful labour force. In August 2012, there were close to 36 million 15-29 year olds who were economically active. This large pool of youth represented 31 percent of Indonesia's total workforce involving some 118.1 million individuals aged 15 years and over (see Table 5-1). It is known from the population projections presented in chapter two that the proportion of youth in the working age population will tend to decline over the coming decades as the population ages. This will reduce the contribution of youth to the economy. However, their contribution will also change if their labour force participation rate changes. If youth stay in school longer (as might be expected if

<sup>26</sup> Ministry of Agriculture (2012) Gender Equality in Agriculture [web], retrieved on 11 June 2014: <http://www.pertanian.go.id/pug/detailartikel.php?id=45>

<sup>27</sup> Bogue, Donald, J. (1969) Principles of Demography, John Wiley and Sons, New York.

past trends continue) and the cultural norms in regard to women being home-stayers remain the same, it is likely that the contribution of youth to Indonesia's economy will decline yet further. The contribution of youth may be higher, however, if more females become economically active and expanded investments in the education of youth help to increase their productivity. It may also increase if youth unemployment can be reduced.

Table 5-1 provides baseline data on the labour force status of youth from August 2012 against which future trends might be assessed. As well as describing the progression from education to work and non-work related activities among youth by age and sex, it reveals the challenge of finding work experienced by youth.

**TABLE 5-1**

**Labour force status of youth by age and sex, older people and all persons age 15 years and over: Indonesia, August 2012**

Population groups	Labour force status of the population					Summary indicators		
	In the labour force			Not in the labour force		Total pop	Labour Force Participation Rate <sup>(d)</sup>	Un-employment Rate <sup>(e)</sup>
	Employed	Un-employed	Total	Attending school <sup>(a)(b)</sup>	Total <sup>(c)</sup>			
Numbers in millions						Rates		
Youth by age	million	million	million	million	million	million	%	%
15-19	6.0	2.1	8.1	12.0	15.4	23.6	34.5	26.3
20-24	10.7	1.9	12.6	1.9	5.8	18.4	68.3	15.2
25-29	14.2	1.1	15.3	0.2	4.8	20.1	75.9	7.3
Youth by sex								
Males	19.1	3.1	22.2	7.2	9.0	31.2	71.1	14.0
Females	11.8	2.1	13.8	6.9	17.1	30.9	44.7	14.9
All youth	30.8	5.2	36.0	14.1	26.1	62.1	58.0	14.3
Persons aged 30 + years	80.0	2.1	82.0	0.0	29.8	111.8	73.4	2.5
All persons aged 15+ years	110.8	7.2	118.1	14.1	55.9	173.9	67.9	6.1
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Youth as % of all persons aged 15 + years	27.8	71.3	30.5	99.9	46.7	35.7	-	-

Notes: a) Attending a school or post-school educational institution of any sort. b) Any student who had a job in the previous week or who said they were looking for work were counted as being in the labour force. Hence the counts of those 'attending school' will be smaller than the actual number of persons attending school. c) As well as those attending school the total includes housekeepers, those unable to work and retirees. d) Those in the labour force as a percent of the total population. e) Unemployed persons as a percent of all those in the labour force.

Source: National Labour Force Survey (SAKERNAS), August 2012 [data file].

Of all youth, those aged 15-19 made the smallest contribution to the labour force. This is because a large number were still attending school. Of the 35 percent of 15-19 year olds who were in the labour force, most were employed (74%) but the 26 percent unemployment rate among this group (involving 2.1 million unemployed individuals) was far higher than among any other age group in the population. As shown further ahead in Table 5-6, most of these youth (1.55 million in total) were first time job-seekers with no work experience.

Among the older youth, the labour force participation rates were much higher (at 68% and 76% respectively for those aged 20-24 and 25-29 years) than among those aged 15-19 as the numbers participating in education fell away. And, as already seen in Figure 5-1, the labour force participation rates for males and females separated further with increasing age. Among those aged 25-29 years, nearly all of the males (96 percent) were economically active compared to 56 percent of the females in this same age group.

### 5.3.1 YOUTH HAVE HIGH UNEMPLOYMENT RATES COMPARED TO OLDER PEOPLE

High rates of teenage and older-youth unemployment, relative to older people, are a common phenomenon throughout the world<sup>28</sup> and such large age-related differentials in levels of unemployment also occur in Indonesia. For Indonesians aged 30 years and over, the unemployment rate was 2.5 percent in August 2012. In comparison, the unemployment rate for youth was 14.2 percent with the rate being slightly higher for female youth than male youth (14.9% and 14.0% respectively). As a result of their high unemployment rates, unemployed youth represented 71 percent of the 7.2 million unemployed people in Indonesia in August 2012. The limited work experience of adolescent youth is one factor that accounts for the high rates of unemployment of youth and teenage youth in particular. Overcoming teenage unemployment by investing more in the education of adolescent youth may be one strategy to reduce this problem.

### 5.3.2 MARITAL STATUS AND LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

“  
*Marriage-related roles and responsibilities are an important factor in shaping the levels of labour force participation among youth.*  
”

The relationship between young people's transition into marriage on one hand and young people's entry into the labour market on the other is by no means straightforward. From one perspective, the transition from being single to being married provides a powerful incentive for young couples to have their own sources of income. As discussed in the following chapter, many young Indonesians marry at early ages. Figure 5-2 shows that Indonesia's youth quickly adopt the traditional gender roles of males going to work and females staying at home once they marry. These transitions are revealed by higher labour force participation rates of young married males compared to those who are single and by the reverse pattern for females (aside from those aged between 15 and 18). Thus we can

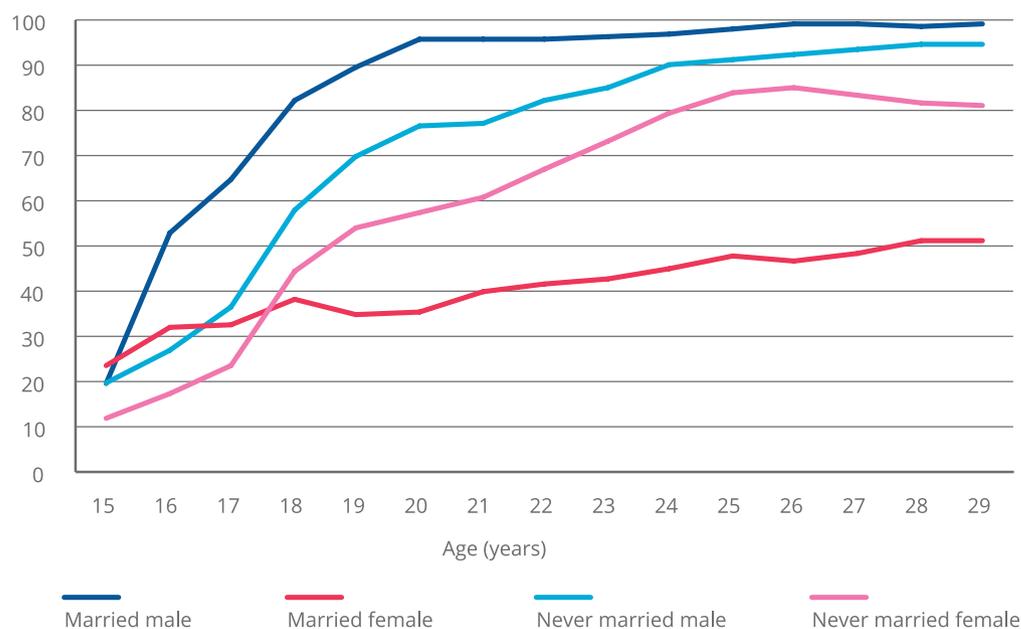
28 Fares, J., Montenegro, C. and Orazem, P. 2006. "How are youth faring in the labour market? Evidence from around the world". World Bank Policy Research Working Paper No. 4071.

see that married females aged 19 and over were less likely to participate in the labour force compared to those who remained single.

Conversely, though still related to the notion of traditional gender roles, marriage-market related selection effects provide an alternative explanation to the differences in the labour force participation patterns, particularly between married and never married men. For example, being employed and having a regular stream of income would make a young male more attractive in the marriage market.<sup>29</sup> As such, due to the cross-sectional and descriptive nature of the data presented in Figure 5-2, it is difficult to draw conclusions on the causal relationship between marriage and labour force participation of young people.

**FIGURE 5-2**

**Labour force participation of youth by age, sex and marital status: Indonesia, August 2012**



Source: National Labour Force Survey (SAKERNAS), August 2012 [data file].

29 The literature on men's marital wage premium goes further to explain not only the labour force participation differentials between married men and single men, but also the earnings differentials between them. On one hand, it is plausible that married men have higher earnings on average than single men because married men are more 'productive' as they adhere to the provider roles prescribed in marriage. On the other hand, men with higher earnings are relatively attractive in the labour market, hence the selection effects may explain the marriage- earnings differentials. For further reading, see Korenman, S. and Neumark, D. (1991) "Does marriage really make men more productive?" *Journal of Human Resources* : 282-307; Pollmann-Schult, Matthias (2011) "Marriage and earnings: why do married men earn more than single men?" *European Sociological Review* 27.2: 147-163, and; Ashwin, Sarah, and Olga Isupova (2014) Behind Every Great Man: The Male Marriage Wage Premium Examined Qualitatively." *Journal of Marriage and Family* 76, No. 1:37-55.

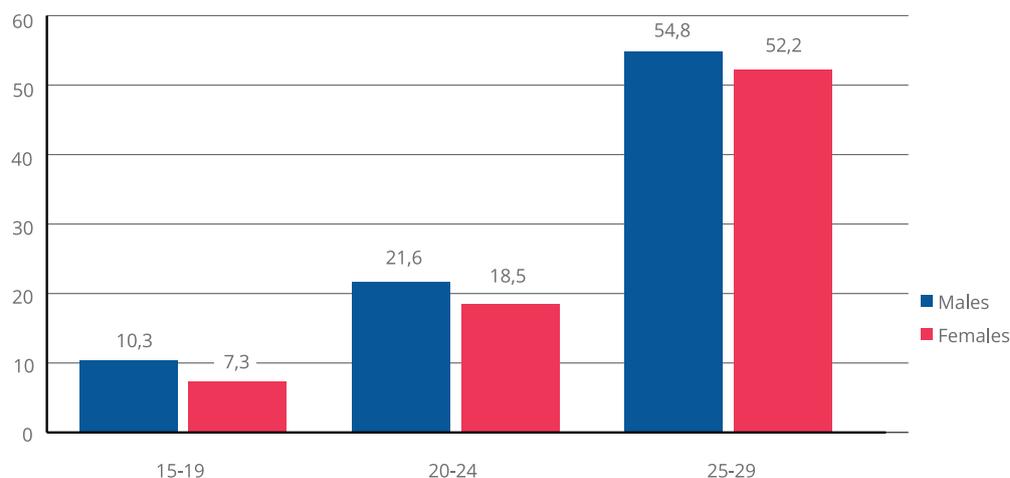
The pattern suggesting that never married males and females at the lower end of the youth age categories have lower participation rates than their married counterparts is consistent with the notion that never married youth in this age group are staying in school longer. For progressively older youth it appears that delaying marriage and delaying entry into the workforce until after completing one's education is a pathway similarly adopted by both sexes, at least for those who are afforded the opportunity of on-going educational development. Indeed, data from a study on the marriage and employment aspirations of tertiary educated youth in Jakarta and Makassar suggest that to graduate from university, get a job, and then get married remain the idealised path of transition to adulthood among respondents.<sup>30</sup>

### 5.3.3 COMBINING EDUCATION AND WORK

“  
*The proportions of students who combine work and study increase with age, and are generally higher for male than female students.*  
 ”

The costs of a student's ongoing education and everyday needs are commonly borne by parents in Indonesia. For youth in their teens attending secondary school and those in their twenties attending tertiary education institutions, including universities, these costs can be high.<sup>31</sup> One option for students to help meet these costs and reduce their dependence is to combine study with work. This combination can be highly stressful for some students but also highly valuable in providing work experience and networks which may help with career development. Figure 5-3 shows that close to 10 percent of male students aged 15-19 years were also working, while the rate for female students in this age group was slightly lower at 7 percent.

**FIGURE 5-3**  
**Percentage of students who combine study and work: Indonesia, 2012**



Source: National Labour Force Survey (SAKERNAS), August 2012 [data file].

30 Utomo, A.J. (2008) Women as secondary earners: The Labour Market and Marriage Expectations of Educated Youth in Urban Indonesia. Unpublished PhD. Thesis. The Australian National University. Available at: <http://hdl.handle.net/1885/10801>

31 Asian Development Bank (2012) Counting The Cost: Financing Asian Higher Education for Inclusive Growth [web], retrieved on 11 June 2014: <http://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/pub/2012/counting-cost.pdf>

Among 20-24 year old students, most of whom would be at a tertiary education institution, including university, the proportions were closer to 20 percent. Among 25-29 year old students, the corresponding proportion was a little over 50 percent. It would be expected that most of these students, especially the younger ones, would be doing part-time casual work in support of their studies. However, exactly how they split their study and work commitments requires further investigation.

## 5.4 Employment by Industry and Formal/Informal Sector of Employment

This section is concerned with describing the distribution of employed youth by industry and by the sector of employment be it in the formal sector or in the large informal sector of the economy. The analysis begins by describing the overall make-up of Indonesia's economy based on the distribution of total employment. This is followed by an analysis which shows how Indonesia's youth have been fitting into that structure. The data generally reveal that youth are less likely to work in the still dominant agriculture sector and in informal sector jobs but instead are more likely to seek work in urban areas and in a range of service and non-agricultural production industries, where formal work arrangements are more common.

### 5.4.1 OVERALL EMPLOYMENT PATTERNS

Table 5-2 firstly shows the distribution of total employment in Indonesia in August 2012 by industry and urban/rural location. Overall more than half (53%) of the 110.8 million people employed in Indonesia lived in rural areas (in numerical terms 58.3 million workers lived in rural areas compared to 52.6 million in urban areas) and the 'Agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing' industry was the single largest industry of employment. With 38.9 million workers, this industry absorbed 35 percent of all employment in Indonesia and 57 percent of all employment in rural areas. The table also shows that most (88%) of the workers in 'Agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing' worked in jobs classified by BPS-Statistics Indonesia as being informal sector jobs. These are jobs loosely defined as not involving a formal employer/employee type of working arrangement involving regular payments and work conditions. As is best described further ahead in Table 5-4, these informal sector jobs include self-employed workers who do not have any employees engaged as regular wage and salary earners, as well as individuals employed as casual employees and unpaid workers employed in a family business or farm.<sup>32</sup>

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<sup>32</sup> More detailed specifications of both formal and informal sector jobs are also presented in the Glossary.

TABLE 5-2

**Distribution of employment by industry by urban/rural area and the share of workers in formal and informal jobs by industry: Indonesia, August 2012**

Industry	Industry distribution of employment by area of residence <sup>(a)</sup>		Proportion of workers in each industry by sector of employment <sup>(b)</sup>		Total Number employed
	Urban %	Rural %	Formal %	Informal %	Million
Agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishery	11.0	56.9	11.6	88.4	38.9
Wholesale trade, retail trade, restaurant and hotel	29.4	13.2	31.9	68.1	23.2
Community, personal and social services	21.7	9.8	76.5	23.5	17.1
Manufacturing	18.8	9.4	68.7	31.3	15.4
Construction	7.0	5.4	43.7	56.3	6.8
Transportation, storage and communication	6.4	2.8	44.3	55.7	5.0
Financing, insurance, real estate and business services	4.3	0.7	86.7	13.3	2.7
Mining and quarrying	1.1	1.8	56.3	43.7	1.6
Electricity, gas and water	0.4	0.1	91.7	8.3	0.2
Total	100.0	100.0	39.9	60.1	110.8
Number employed (million)	52.6	58.2	-	-	110.8

Note: a) It is possible for a person to live in a rural area and work in an urban area, and vice versa. b) See further defined by 'Status of employment' categories in Table 5.5 and the Glossary.

Source: National Labour Force Survey (SAKERNAS), August 2012 [data file].

With some 23 million workers in August 2012, the 'Wholesale trade, retail trade, restaurant and hotel' industry was the second largest industry of employment in Indonesia. It was the largest industry in urban areas (29% of all workers) and the second largest industry in Indonesia's rural areas (13% of all workers). Like the 'Agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing' industry, a large proportion (68%) of the jobs in this industry was in the informal sector. These would include the food and small item traders, working from stalls, makeshift premises and family homes commonly seen throughout the country.

Much of the greater share of employment in the remaining set of industries listed in Table 5-2 occurs in urban areas and involves workers in formal (or non-casual) work arrangements. This is best illustrated by reference to the next two biggest industry sectors in Indonesia, namely the 'Community, personal and social services' and the 'Manufacturing' industries. These two industries employed 17.1 million and 15.4 million

persons respectively and made up 41 percent of employment in urban areas and 19 percent of employment in rural areas. The proportions of jobs in each of these two industries that were formal sector jobs (77 percent and 69 percent respectively) were well above the 40 percent average for all industries.

#### 5.4.2 YOUTH BY INDUSTRY AND SECTOR OF EMPLOYMENT



*Youth are less likely to work in the still dominant agriculture sector and in informal sector jobs, but instead are more likely to seek work in urban areas and in a range of service and nonagricultural production industries, where formal work arrangements are more common.*



The extent to which youth have been taking up jobs in particular industries and sectors of employment is presented in Table 5-3. In this analysis, the focus is upon youth aged 20-29 years (the 'establishing' and 'established' youth). Youth aged 15-19 years have been excluded because they represent a small proportion of all employed youth and as indicated in the following section on employment arrangements are less likely to have settled into a particular line of work.

Overall the 20-29 year age group represented 22.4 percent of all employed persons in Indonesia. If their work circumstances were the same as the total workforce as described in Table 5-2 then the proportion of youth in each industry would also be 22.4 percent. In fact, we would expect to see the same representation of youth in each of the industries after being classified by rural and urban area of residence and formal and informal sector. However, as shown in Table 5-3, there are some situations in which youth are under-represented (these being ones to which youth tend to have an aversion) and some in which they are over-represented (these being the jobs to which youth are most attracted).

**TABLE 5-3**

**Youth aged 20-29 years as a percentage of all workers in each industry by urban/rural area of residence and formal/informal sector of employment: Indonesia, August 2012.**

Industry	By area of residence		By sector <sup>(a)</sup>		Total
	Urban	Rural	Formal	Informal	
	%	%	%	%	%
Agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing	11.5	18.0	20.6	16.6	17.1
Wholesale trade, retail trade, restaurant and hotel	23.9	21.5	38.8	15.7	23.1
Community, personal and social services	23.2	28.1	26.4	19.6	24.8
Manufacturing Industry	30.3	26.7	34.0	18.0	29.0
Construction	20.5	24.4	22.8	21.9	22.3
Transportation, storage and communication	22.0	27.7	27.2	21.2	23.8

Industry	By area of residence		By sector <sup>(a)</sup>		Total
	Urban	Rural	Formal	Informal	
	%	%	%	%	%
Financing, insurance, real estate and business services	35.1	39.6	38.3	18.9	35.7
Mining and quarrying	23.9	30.7	29.7	26.4	28.3
Electricity, gas and water	20.2	25.0	20.6	30.0	21.4
Total (all industries)	23.7	21.3	30.2	17.3	22.4

Note: a) Sectors are defined on the basis of the status of employment responses as shown in Table 5.4

Source: National Labour Force Survey (SAKERNAS), August 2012 [data file].

When looking at the percentages in Table 5-3, it should first be noted that youth are fairly well represented in all industries but much more so in formal sector jobs than those in the informal sector. Youth aged 25-29 years represented 30 percent of all workers in formal sector jobs but only 17 percent of all those in informal jobs. In fact Table 5-5, further ahead, confirms their preference for formal sector jobs by showing that more than one half of youth aged 20-29 years (56% and 52% of those age 20-24 years and 25-29 years respectively) worked in formal sector jobs whereas the percentage for the working age population in general was only 40 percent.

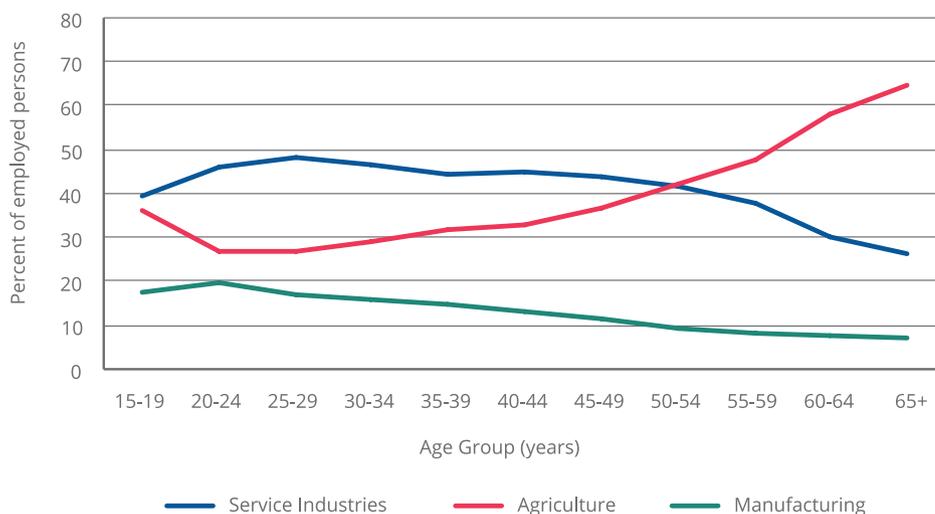
By industry, the jobs in which youth were least well represented were those in the 'Agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing' industry. Overall only 17.1 percent of those employed in this industry were in the 20-29 year age group. Within this industry, as was the case in almost every other industry, youth showed a preference for formal sector jobs. Youth represented 20.6 percent of all those in formal 'Agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing' industry jobs and just 16.6 percent of those in informal jobs in this industry.

Turning to the types of jobs in which youth are highly represented, the 'Financing, insurance, real estate and business services' industry and the 'Manufacturing' industry stand out as having high proportions of youth. Over one in three (36%) of all employees in the 'Financing, insurance, real estate and business services' industry were aged 20-29 and in 'Manufacturing' the proportion was 29 percent. The high representation of youth in these two industries was evident in urban and rural areas alike. However, as may be seen from Table 5-2, many more of the jobs in these particular industries were in urban areas. Consistent with their greater preference for formal sector jobs, the representation of youth in the formal jobs in these two industries (38% and 34% of employment in these industries respectively) was much higher than their representation in the informal jobs in these same two industries (19% and 18 % respectively).

As stated at the beginning of this section, the pattern that emerges from this analysis is that youth are more likely to be working in formal service and manufacturing industry jobs than is the case among older people. This pattern can also be seen from Figure 5-4 which shows employment by age among the three big broad industry groups shown in

the legend. As listed in the footnote below,<sup>33</sup> the 'Service industries' group represents a combination of service-related industries in the nine industry classification for which data are available, whereas the 'Agriculture' and 'Manufacturing' industries have not been combined with any of the other industry groups. Altogether, these three broad industry groups represented 93 percent of all employment in Indonesia in 2012.

**FIGURE 5-4**  
**Employment by broad industry types<sup>(a)</sup> by age: Indonesia, August 2012**



Note:a) Industries as described in footnote 60 below.

Source: National Labour Force Survey (SAKERNAS), August 2012 [data file].

With the exception of 15-19 year old workers, Figure 5-4 reveals a comparatively low representation of 'establishing' and 'established' youth (that is, 20-24 and 20-29 year olds) in agriculture and allied primary industries and a steady progression of levels of employment in this industry with increasing age. Conversely, and again with the exception of 15-19 year olds, the chart also reveals an inverse relationship between the age of workers and the level of employment in the services sector and the same for employment in the manufacturing sector. These progressive age-related patterns of employment by industry type indicate that the transformation of Indonesia's economy over the last half century has been associated with successive cohorts of youth (especially those aged in their twenties) taking up jobs outside the agriculture sector. The result for the economy has been a transformation away from a heavily agrarian-based economy to one that is now considerably more diversified. Since many of the jobs to which youth are attracted are likely to be found in urban areas, the data in Figure 5-3 also validate the propositions put forward in chapter three that youth have been at the forefront of Indonesia's rapid urbanisation process.

33 Based on the classification of industries shown in Table 5-3 the three industry types in Figure 5-4 have been grouped as follows. 'Service industries' include: Wholesale trade, retail trade, restaurant and hotels; Transportation, storage and communication; Financing, insurance, real estate and business services; and Community, social and personal services. 'Agriculture' refers to the 'Agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing' industry, and Manufacturing is the 'Manufacturing' industry as classified.

### 5.4.3 GENDER DIFFERENCES BY INDUSTRY OF EMPLOYMENT

Overall, the number of 15-29 year old males employed in August 2012 outnumbered the number of employed 15-29 year old females by a ratio of 1.6 to 1 (19.1 million and 11.8 million males and females respectively). However, as can be seen from Table 5-4, the inequality in numbers was less obvious in the 'Wholesale trade, retail trade, restaurant and hotel' industry where the numbers were close to 3.4 million for both sexes and 'Community, personal and social services' industry where the numbers were close to 2.5 million for both sexes. These two industries attracted a much higher proportion of females (28 and 22 per cent respectively) than was the case for males (18% and 13% respectively). In contrast, male youth were more highly represented in the industries where many of the jobs involve manual work. These included the 'Agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishery'; 'Construction'; 'Transportation, storage and communication' and 'Mining and quarrying' industries.

TABLE 5-4

#### Employed youth aged 15-29, industry distribution by sex: Indonesia, August 2012

Industry	Number ('000s)			Percent distribution (%)		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing	5,993	2,795	8,788	31.4	23.8	28.5
Wholesale trade, retail trade, restaurant and hotel	3,419	3,320	6,739	17.9	28.2	21.8
Manufacturing industry	3,061	2,454	5,515	16.0	20.9	17.9
Community, personal and social services	2,447	2,540	4,988	12.8	21.6	16.2
Construction	1,759	59	1,818	9.2	0.5	5.9
Transportation, storage and communication	1,213	144	1,357	6.4	1.2	4.4
Financing, insurance, real estate and business services	632	394	1,026	3.3	3.4	3.3
Mining and quarrying	515	43	558	2.7	0.4	1.8
Electricity, gas and water	51	7	58	0.3	0.1	0.2
Total	19,090	11,758	30,848	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: National Labour Force Survey (SAKERNAS), August 2012 [data file]

## 5.5 Employment Arrangements

As well as information about the industry of employment, the SAKERNAS asked a number of questions that provide information on the employment arrangements of employed youth. This includes information about their employment status, that is, whether they were a regular wage and salary earner (an indicator of job security), a casual worker or an unpaid family helper, or whether they were running their own business. It also included information about their hours of work and hence whether they worked full-time (35 hours or more per week) or part-time (less than 35 hours per week). The following sections describe differences in the employment arrangements of youth at different ages and how employment arrangements differ for male and female youth.

### 5.5.1 TRANSITIONAL YOUTH COMPARED TO OLDER YOUTH

“  
*Teenage youth were more likely to work in unpaid informal sector jobs and in part-time jobs than older youth.*

”

In the preceding section, it was observed that teenage youth workers (those aged 15-19 years) had higher rates of employment in agriculture and allied industries than those aged in their twenties and lower rates in the newer industry sectors. As shown in Table 5-5, the work arrangements of teenage workers differed from older youth in a number of other ways. More specifically, teenage youth were more likely to work in unpaid informal sector jobs and in part-time jobs than older youth. For instance, 40 percent of those aged 15-19 compared to 22 percent of those aged 20-24 worked as unpaid workers in a family business or farm, and only 62 percent of those aged 15-19 years worked in full-time jobs compared to 72 percent of those aged 20-24 years.

### 5.5.2 GENDER DIFFERENCES

“  
*Female youth are more likely to be employed in part-time jobs and in family businesses as unpaid workers but also more likely to work in the formal sector than male youth.*

”

Associated with their lower rates of labour force participation and the traditional role of women as homemakers, female youth in Indonesia were more likely to work on a part-time basis than male youth (33% and 27% respectively). They were also more likely than male youth to work as unpaid workers in a family business or farm (29% and 19% respectively). However, female youth were slightly more likely than male youth to work as regular wage and salary earner employees (53% and 48% respectively). This is largely because male youth were more commonly involved in working alone on their own account than females (12% and 8% respectively) and more commonly involved in working in temporary informal sector jobs than females (13% and 4% respectively).

TABLE 5-5

**Distribution of employed youth (by age and sex) and all employed persons by status of employment and full-time/part-time work arrangement: Indonesia, August 2012**

Status of employment/ work arrangement	Youth by age in years			Youth by sex		All employed persons
	15-19	20-24	25-29	Males	Females	
Formal sector	%	%	%	%	%	%
Employee	41.1	54.7	50.2	47.9	53.3	36.4
Employer assisted by on-going/ permanent worker(s)	0.2	0.9	1.9	1.6	0.7	3.5
Total	41.3	55.6	52.1	49.5	54.0	39.9
Informal sector						
Own account worker	6.1	8.7	13.2	11.7	7.9	16.6
Employer assisted by temporary/ casual worker(s)	3.2	5.0	8.7	7.3	4.7	16.9
Temporary/casual employee	9.7	8.8	9.8	12.8	3.9	10.4
Unpaid worker in family business/ farm	39.6	22.0	16.1	18.6	29.4	16.2
Total	58.7	44.4	47.9	50.5	46.0	60.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Full-time/part-time work						
Full-time (35+ hours per week)	61.7	72.4	72.1	73.5	67.5	74.0
Part-time (<35 hours per week)	38.3	27.6	27.9	26.5	32.5	26.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number employed (millions)	6.0	10.7	14.2	19.1	11.8	110.8

Source: National Labour Force Survey (SAKERNAS), August 2012 [data file].

## 5.6 Education Vital to Improving Work-Related Outcomes

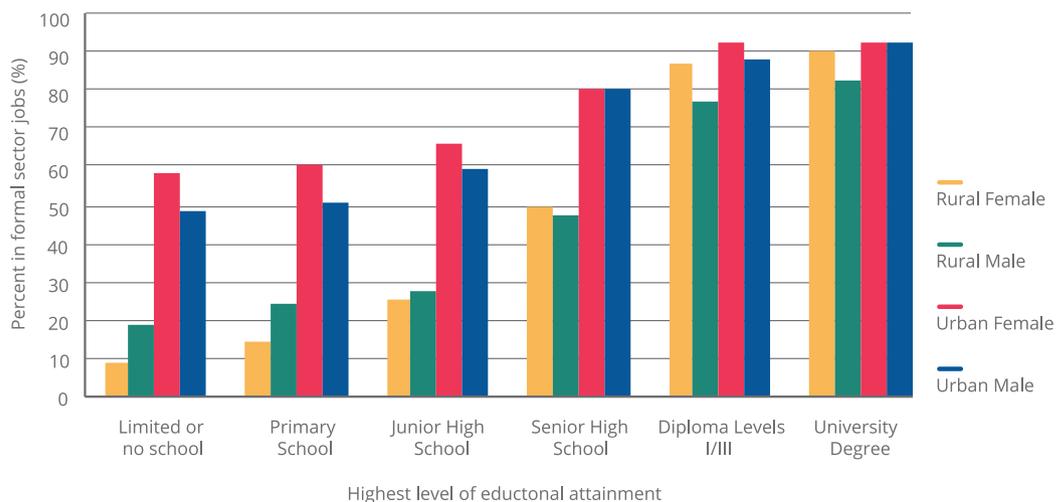
“  
As expected, there is a positive relationship between education and the likelihood of being employed in formal sector jobs, and similarly, between education and earnings.  
”

The following two charts reveal the value of human capital investments through education in enhancing the employment outcomes of youth in Indonesia. From Figure 5-5, it can first be seen that an increased level of educational attainment has a marked effect on employability in the formal sector of the economy and this was the case for males and females in urban and rural areas alike.

Among youth in rural areas, where informal jobs are far more common, less than 30 percent of those who had received an education below and including the junior high school level worked in formal sector jobs that characteristically offer regular pay. In other words, more than 70 percent of those with a low

level of education worked in informal jobs. In contrast, and at the other end of the educational attainment spectrum, it can be seen that the large majority of those with a university degree worked in formal sector jobs (89% of males and 82% of females in rural areas respectively). Much the same relationship between education and employment in formal sector jobs can be seen in urban areas where formal sector jobs are more common.

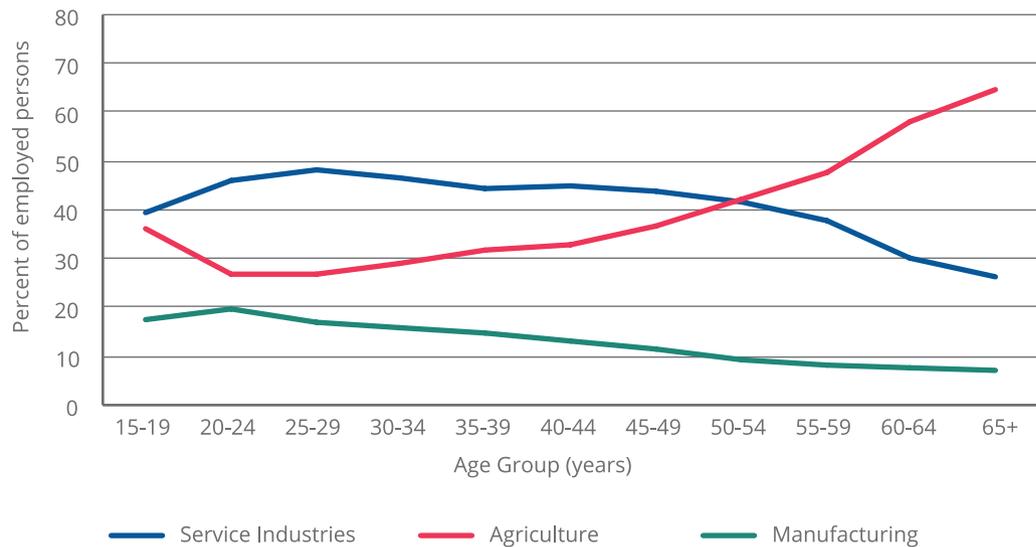
**FIGURE 5-5**  
**Employed youth: percentages in formal sector jobs by sex, urban/rural residence and level of educational attainment, Indonesia, August 2012.**



Source: National Labour Force Survey (SAKERNAS), August 2012 [data file].

“  
*On average, in every educational attainment grouping, young men with a full-time job in the formal sector earned slightly more than women in the same category. In general, better educated male and female youth are more likely to have similar outcomes in regard to i) the possibility of holding formal sector jobs and ii) the level of earnings they receive, than those with a more limited education.*  
 ”

As would be expected, Figure 5-6 demonstrates a positive relationship between youth earnings and their level of educational attainment. The comparisons of earnings provided in this chart have been limited to youth in formal sector full-time jobs to ensure the comparisons relate to youth in similar work situations. The median monthly earnings for both males and females with a university degree (1,950,000 and 1,850,000 rupiah respectively or around USD \$195 and \$185) in formal sector full-time jobs were well over twice those earned by youth with a junior high school certificate (900,000 and 775,000 rupiah or around USD \$90 and \$78)) and by yet further margins for those with lower levels of educational attainment.

**FIGURE 5-6****Median monthly earnings of youth employed in full-time formal sector jobs: Indonesia, August 2012.**

Note:a) Industries as described in footnote 60 below.

Source: National Labour Force Survey (SAKERNAS), August 2012 [data file].

The gender wage gap seen in many countries has long been an issue for governments and human rights advocates at national and international level. Among youth in Indonesia, the earnings of males in full-time formal sector jobs exceeded that of females in this same set of jobs, however, the difference in median monthly earnings was relatively small (1,050,000 and 1,000,000 rupiah or around USD 105 and 100 for males and females respectively). Based on these amounts the overall male to female earnings ratio was 105/100. Notwithstanding this relatively small gap, Figure 5-6 indicates that the differences in amounts earned were greater among those with low level qualifications than those with higher level qualifications. For those who had only completed primary school, the male/female earnings ratio was 133/100. This decreased to 116/100 for those in junior high school and 107/100 for those in senior high school. It was slightly less again for those with a university degree (105/100) while the median monthly earnings for males and females with certificate or diploma levels I/III was the same. At this point, it should be noted while the gender gaps in median monthly earnings are small, the data presented in section 5.2 has shown that the likelihood of being in the labour force was substantially lower for young women relative to young men.

The preceding analysis shows clearly that investment in education provides better outcomes for young Indonesians in terms of the likelihood of holding a regular paying job and in terms of the level of their work-related earnings. It also indicates greater gender equality for those with higher levels of education, that is, better educated male and female youth are likely to have more similar outcomes in regard to i) the possibility of holding formal sector jobs and ii) the level of earnings they receive, than those with lower levels of education.

## 5.6.1 YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT BY EDUCATION

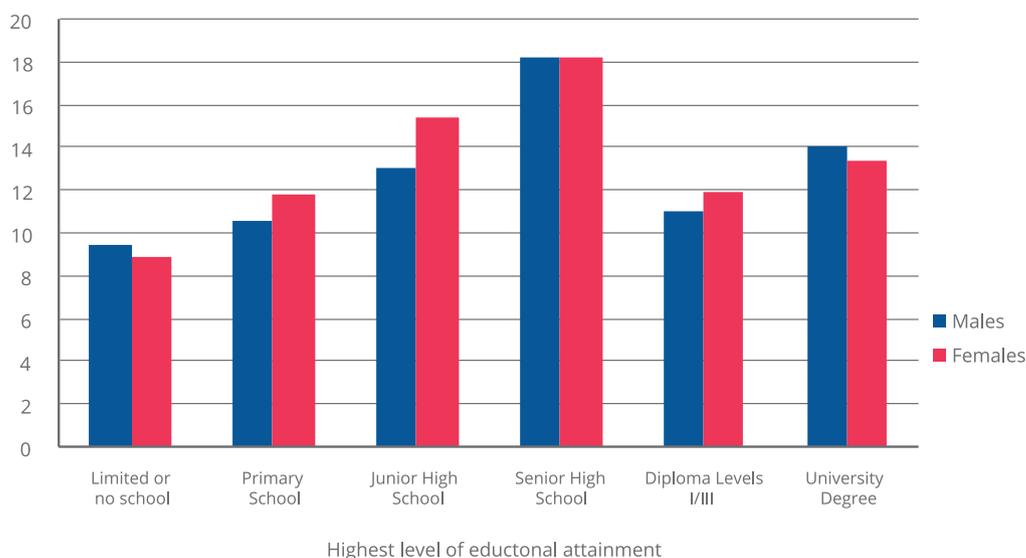
“  
Youth with very low levels of education have worse employment outcomes but are somewhat less likely to be unemployed.”

”

While youth with very low levels of education have worse job outcomes in terms of obtaining regular wage jobs and level of earnings than those with higher levels of educational attainment, they are somewhat paradoxically less likely to be unemployed. Figure 5-7 shows an inverse relationship between the level of educational attainment and unemployment for Indonesian youth with different levels of school education: senior high school students were more likely to be unemployed than junior high school students and so on. However, for those with a post-school qualification, unemployment rates were similar to, or below, the 14.3 percent national average for all youth.

FIGURE 5-7

### Youth unemployment rates by sex and level of educational attainment: Indonesia, August



Source: National Labour Force Survey (SAKERNAS), August 2012 [data file].

The lower unemployment rates for youth with limited schooling is most probably related to such youth coming from low-income families which necessitates them to take up any work (typically low-skilled informal sector work) that is available to them. This contrasts with the situation of more highly educated individuals who are likely to be seeking more skilled formal sector work where the competition for jobs is greater. Assuming all those with a senior high school certificate, a post school diploma or a university degree are in search of formal sector jobs, the differences in unemployment rates indicate that those with a post-school diploma have the best job search outcomes. However, the more general observation that can be made from the chart is that having a post-school education can help youth to reduce the probability of being unemployed in the formal market sector.

## 5.7 Long-Term Unemployment and Inactivity

“  
*In August 2012, there were 3.4 million youth who were unemployed first time job-seekers.*  
”

While many youth experience periods of unemployment in Indonesia (as shown above, one in seven youth in the labour force (14.3%) were unemployed in August 2012), long-term unemployment among youth is a more serious issue as it can have serious long-term consequences for youth, such as being unable to develop work skills or gain an income of their own. While the SAKERNAS does not collect information on the duration of unemployment for all unemployed people, some indication of the problem of long-term unemployment can be gained by looking at the job-search experience of unemployed youth who were looking for their first job.<sup>34</sup> As seen in Table 5-6, there were 3.4 million youth who were un-employed first time job-seekers in August 2012. These youth represented 9.4 percent of all youth in the labour force and 65 percent of all unemployed youth.

The 2012 SAKERNAS revealed that there were 1.78 million first time job-seekers who had been looking for a job for 12 months or more. These youth represented 4.9 percent of all youth in the labour force. Those in the 15-9 and 20-24 year age groups had a similar likelihood of being long-time, first-job, jobseekers (6.9% and to 6.3% respectively). However, along with the decline in age-specific unemployment rates by age, the likelihood of being a long-term, first-job job-seeker among those aged 25-29 years declined with the rate falling to less than half that of those younger than them (down to 2.7%).

The data also suggest that unemployed female youth find jobs a little more easily than their male counterparts. Male youth labour force participants were slightly more likely than female youth to be long-term first-job job-seekers (5.1% and 4.4% respectively) even though female youth had slightly higher unemployment rates than males (14.9% and 14.0% respectively).<sup>35</sup>

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34 Data about duration of unemployment was not collected for those who were classified as being unemployed but identified as being discouraged jobseekers, looking for their second or subsequent job or, as being about to start in a new job or business.

35 The real value of this long-term, first-job, job-seeker indicator in discerning population sub-group differences related to long-term unemployment is subject to some debate as it does not provide a comprehensive picture of all long-term unemployed youth due to the omissions described in the preceding footnote.

TABLE 5-6

**Unemployed youth: whether looking for first job and duration of looking for first job by age and sex: Indonesia, August 2012**

Youth by age/ sex group	Unemployed <sup>(a)</sup>					In the labour force
	Looking for first job			Not looking for first job <sup>(b)</sup>	Total	
	Less than 12 months	12 months or more	Total			
Age	Number (in millions)					
15-19	0.98	0.56	1.55	0.59	2.14	8.14
20-24	0.44	0.79	1.24	0.68	1.92	12.60
25-29	0.18	0.42	0.60	0.51	1.11	15.27
Sex						
Males	0.97	1.12	2.10	1.00	3.10	22.19
Females	0.63	0.65	1.29	0.78	2.07	13.82
Total	1.61	1.78	3.38	1.78	5.17	36.01
Age As a percentage of the labour force (%) in each group						
15-19	12.1	6.9	19.0	7.2	26.3	100.0
20-24	3.5	6.3	9.8	5.4	15.2	100.0
25-29	1.2	2.7	3.9	3.3	7.3	100.0
Sex						
Males	4.4	5.1	9.4	4.5	14.0	100.0
Females	4.6	4.7	9.3	5.6	14.9	100.0
Total	4.5	4.9	9.4	5.0	14.3	100.0

Notes: a) Includes those who did not work during the previous week who were looking for work, discouraged job-seekers, and those who have just found a job (or founded a business) which has yet to start. b) Includes those looking for their second or third job, discouraged job-seekers, and those who have just found a job (or founded a business) which has yet to start.

Source: National Labour Force Survey (SAKERNAS), August 2012 [data file].

## 5.8 Not in Employment, Education or Training

Measures of unemployment and long-term unemployment provide powerful indicators of economic stress among individuals. However, another measure increasingly being used by analysts concerned with the success of youth in the transition from education to work is the extent to which youth remain out of the education/employment loop. Being referred to as NEETS,<sup>36</sup> that is, Not in Employment, Education or Training, Table 5-6 uses this measure to show the extent of 'idleness' among youth in Indonesia.

<sup>36</sup> See, for example, Eurofound (2012), NEETS – Young people not in employment, education or training: Characteristics, costs and policy responses in Europe, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg. [available online].



*In August 2012, 4.3 million male youth (about 14% of all male youth) reported that they were neither studying nor working.*



The August 2012 SAKERNAS revealed that there were 15.6 million youth (25% of all youth) who were neither studying nor working. Most of these were females, among whom (as shown in the family formation chapter that follows) the majority would be wives with children and associated family and child-care responsibilities. However, at about 14 percent, the idleness rate of male youth remains at a concerning level. Altogether there were some 4.3 million male youth who were neither studying nor working. This involved progressively smaller numbers of male youth by age (1.8 million, 1.5 million and 0.9 million youth in the three five-year age groups, 15-19, 20-24 and 25-29 years respectively). Notwithstanding this decrease in numbers by age, the highest idleness rate among the three age groups was among those aged 20-24 years at 16.6 percent. Finding ways to engage these youth in further education or meaningful work is vital to their economic wellbeing and may help reduce a range of anti-social behaviours, often associated with uncommitted male youth.

**TABLE 5-7**

**Current employment and education activity of youth by age and sex: Indonesia, August 2012**

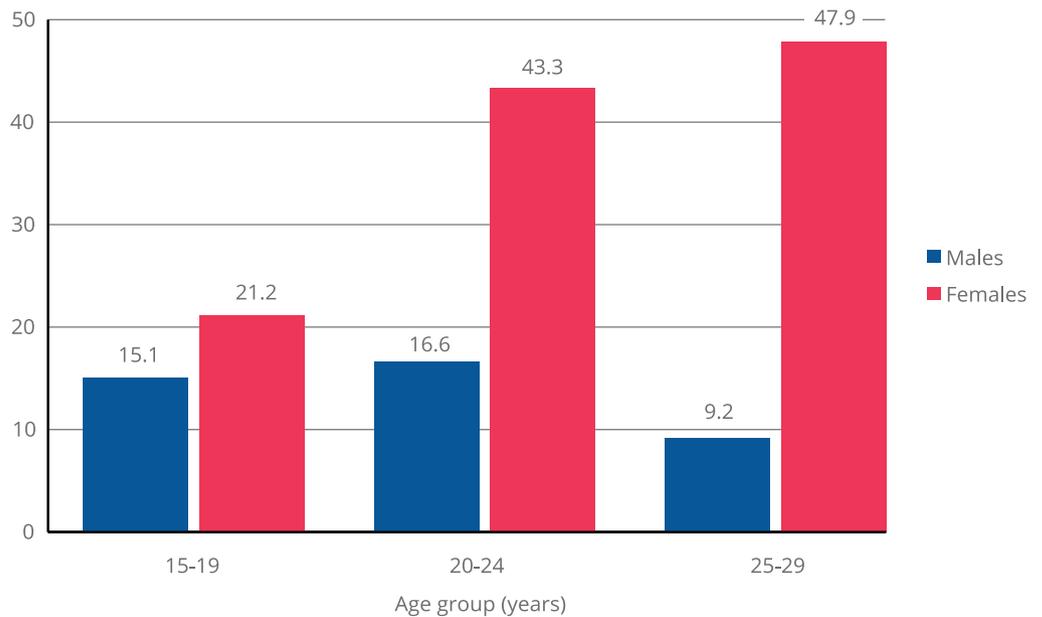
	Males			Female			All youth		
	15-19	20-24	25-29	15-19	20-24	25-29	Males	Females	Persons
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Studying only	54.8	12.0	1.2	58.2	11.6	1.0	25.2	25.4	25.3
Working only	23.7	68.1	88.1	16.1	42.5	50.1	57.3	35.2	46.3
Studying and working	6.3	3.3	1.5	4.6	2.6	1.1	3.9	2.8	3.4
Neither studying nor working (NEET)	15.1	16.6	9.2	21.2	43.3	47.9	13.6	36.6	25.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total numbers (million)	12.1	9.0	10.1	11.4	9.5	10.0	31.2	30.9	62.1
Number of NEET (million)	1.8	1.5	0.9	2.4	4.1	4.8	4.3	11.3	15.6

Note: NEET = Not employed and not in education or training.

Source: National Labour Force Survey (SAKERNAS), August 2012 [data file].

**FIGURE 5-8**

**Percentages of youth neither working nor studying by age and sex: Indonesia, August 2012**



Source: National Labour Force Survey (SAKERNAS), August 2012 [data file].

## 5.9 Summary

This chapter presents a contemporary snapshot of the labour force activity of youth in Indonesia. Data from the 2012 SAKERNAS indicated that about 36 million young people aged 15-29 were economically active, and represented 31 percent of Indonesia's total workforce.

The chapter further highlights a number of key findings on youth's labour force activity. As expected, among youth aged 15-29, the likelihood of being in the labour force increased in age. Overall, youth were less likely to work in the still dominant agriculture sector and in informal sector jobs, but instead were more likely to seek work in urban areas and in a range of service and non-agricultural production industries, where formal work arrangements are more common. Teenage youth were more likely to work in unpaid informal sector jobs and in part-time jobs than those older than them. Female youth were more likely to be employed in part-time jobs and in family businesses as unpaid workers, but were also more likely to work in the formal sector than male youth. There were also a considerable number of youth who combined work and study. The proportions of students who combined work and study increased with age, and were generally higher for male than female students.

Marriage related roles and responsibilities are important in shaping the labour force activities of youth in Indonesia, and likely to explain much of the divergence in the labour force participation patterns between young men and women. The gender gap is also evident, though not as pronounced in terms of monthly earnings.

Despite the progress made in schooling among recent cohorts of Indonesian youth relative to the older generations, the data to date suggest that youth in Indonesia continue to face challenges in managing a transition from youth to decent and productive work. In August 2012, the unemployment rate for 15-29 year old youth (14%) was close to five times higher than that recorded for older workers (2.5% for those aged 30 years and over) and youth made up 71 percent of the total number of unemployed persons in Indonesia at that time. The 2012 SAKERNAS also revealed that there were close to 1.8 million youth who had been looking for their very first job for 12 months or more. Compounding the challenge of youth unemployment, is the issue of youth 'idleness', especially among male youth who are more likely to become involved in anti-social behaviours of various kinds. The 2012 SAKERNAS found that about 14 percent of all male youth aged 15-29 were neither studying nor working.

Among young individuals in the labour market, attaining good quality education is clearly vital to ensure their employment success. Descriptive analysis from the SAKERNAS data suggested that there was a positive relationship between education and the likelihood of being employed in formal sector jobs, and similarly, between education and earnings. However, for policy makers, the challenge in helping youth to secure their labour market success goes beyond ensuring the provision of quality education. Various initiatives addressing youth employment are already in place, however, as also advocated by others, more effort is required to promote programs designed to create employment for youth, to foster entrepreneurship, and to ensure equal opportunities for young men and women in all segments of the society.<sup>37</sup>

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37 For an example of a recent initiative, see World Bank's Unlocking the potential of youth: Indonesia Youth Employment Action Plan 2004–2007. Available at: [http://siteresources.worldbank.org/NTEAPREGTOPSOCDEV/Resources/502632-1163365702511/indoneisa\\_youth\\_employ\\_plan.pdf](http://siteresources.worldbank.org/NTEAPREGTOPSOCDEV/Resources/502632-1163365702511/indoneisa_youth_employ_plan.pdf)





Chapter 6

FAMILY FORMATION

## 6.1 Introduction

Courting, getting married, moving out of the parental home, engaging in sexual activity and having children are all family formation related activities that have their beginnings among maturing youth. The actual ages and order in which young people proceed with these activities varies between individuals but important determinants are the interplay of biological and emotional urges, childhood-related laws that prescribe the age of consent to sexual intercourse and the age at marriage and the pressure to adhere to social customs and conventions.

In Indonesia, with parental consent, girls can marry legally at the age of 16 years and boys can marry at the age of 18 years.<sup>38</sup> However, as has been recorded in previous studies in Indonesia, in neighbouring Asian countries and in many other places around the world, the social values and conventions around the timing and sequence of these major life events have been changing. For instance, it has been common for the age of marriage and the age of giving birth to be delayed increasingly towards the mid-to-late twenties.<sup>39</sup> In many Western countries it has become increasingly socially acceptable for sex, marriage and having children to be disassociated from each other. Access to modern contraceptives since the 1960s, the increasing empowerment of women through greater participation in education and work and the increasing recognition of the human rights of women to have control over their own bodies have been among the many modernisation processes that have supported these changes.

It should be expected that the norms around sex, marriage and reproduction in Indonesia will, as elsewhere, continue to change with social and economic development. Drivers for such change include the emerging global culture most evident among youth living in large urban centres where the forces of globalisation and the information revolution are most evident. However, whether the types of changes seen in other countries will occur to the same extent in Indonesia cannot be clearly predicted. Certainly, strong cultural and religious values and traditions remain as forces against rapid change.

The purpose of this chapter is to examine actual patterns and trends in family formation related activities: marriage, sexual encounters, and giving birth among Indonesia's youth. The study of youth behaviour in regard to marriage and family formation is important for many reasons. These include:

concerns for the physical, emotional and economic wellbeing of youth themselves. This is especially a concern for the very young who are insufficiently prepared for the responsibilities of parenthood. Early age at marriage limits the capacity to invest in education and the capacity of mothers to meet the health

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38 Cammack, M., Young, L. A., & Heaton, T. (1996). "Legislating social change in an Islamic society-Indonesia's marriage law". *The American Journal of Comparative Law*, 45-73.

39 Jones, Gavin W. (2010) *Changing marriage patterns in Asia*. Asia Research Institute, National University of Singapore.

and development needs of their children.<sup>40</sup> Further, early pregnancy raises the risk of the child being unwanted and of pregnant mothers seeking access to unsanctioned abortions, increasing the risks of adolescent maternal mortality;

the fact that the emergence of new, more liberal attitudes and behaviours of youth towards sex, love and marriage can pose challenges to long-held and highly valued customs and beliefs which, when contested, may also bring challenges to social cohesion. Understanding the nature and causes of such changes can support the on-going national dialogue on preferred directions of change;

the family formation behaviours of youth greatly influence the annual birth rate and the annual rate of population growth. In view of the Government of Indonesia's concerns with managing population growth in a sustainable way this is a key issue of policy concern. When young families choose to delay marriage and have smaller families, birth rates and population growth rates will decline. Understanding differentials in patterns of marriage and fertility (giving birth) among subgroups of youth according to their education, geographic location and other characteristics is especially useful because it can help governments to better target programs that help to reduce birth rates and population growth.

The next two sections of this chapter explore the transition from the family home to living elsewhere and the formation of marriage partnerships with a focus on how the age at marriage has been changing over time. It follows with a discussion of the attitudes to and prevalence of premarital sex of young unmarried youth. As marriage ages increase, it is likely that young people's initiation into sex is becoming further separated from entry into marriage. The final sections look at fertility and motherhood among youth and provide a closer examination of teenage fertility.

The data for the analysis that follows come from two main sources. These are 2010 Population Census and the 2010 Indonesian Demographic and Health Survey (SDKI). However, reference is also made to earlier census and SDKI results to support the time series comparisons.

## 6.2 Leaving the Family Home

Leaving the parental home, which is often associated with significant life-changing events such as migration for further schooling, getting a job and getting married, is a significant marker in the transition to adulthood. There are currently no nationally representative data available on the actual age at which this important transition to adulthood occurs. However, as shown in Table 61 Relationship to head of household distribution of youth by age and sex: Indonesia, 2010, much about the timing of the transition from the family

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<sup>40</sup> World Bank. 2006. World Development Report 2007: Development and the Next Generations. Washington. World Bank, p. 144



*Female youth leave the parental home earlier than male youth.*



home to independent living can be learned from census data about the family relationship status of youth (relative to the household head) within the homes that they occupy.

With lower proportions of young females than young males living with their parents, the 2010 Census data indicate that young women progressed faster to leaving the parental home than young men. About 72 percent of 15-19 year old females were living with their own parents, compared to 80 percent of 15-19 year old males. A notable proportion of 15-19 year old females were already living in a household as a spouse (about 6%), most likely being married to an older male, and there was also a significant group who were living in other people's homes as domestic workers (about 231,000 or 2.3% of all 15-19 year old females).

By age 20-24, for the group classified as 'establishing' youth, family formation and independent living had begun to be more common, especially for females. Among males in this age group, the majority (over 60 percent) still lived with their parents. In contrast, only 43 percent of females lived with their parents. More than one-third of females in this age group were living as a spouse, and another seven percent were living as a daughter-in-law in the family. Among the so-called 'established' group of youth (those aged 25-29 years), 62 percent of females lived as a spouse while 44 percent of males were household heads and a further 9 percent were living with their parents-in-law, most likely along with their wife. There were more men than women in this age group still living with their parents (37% and 23% respectively).

**TABLE 6-1**

**Relationship to head of household distribution of youth by age and sex: Indonesia, 2010**

Relationship to head of household	Males			Females		
	15-19	20-24	25-29	15-19	20-24	25-29
Head of household	2.3	16.3	43.5	1.9	4.5	3.2
Spouse	0.0	0.0	0.0	5.5	33.6	62.0
Own child	80.4	61.4	36.5	71.9	42.5	23.2
Adopted/step child	1.3	1.0	0.5	1.2	0.6	0.3
Child in law	0.3	4.4	8.9	2.3	6.8	5.6
Grandchild	4.2	1.9	0.8	3.7	1.2	0.5
Other relative	6.7	9.6	7.0	6.4	6.1	3.6
Maid/driver/gardener	0.3	0.4	0.3	2.3	1.5	0.7
Others	3.3	3.9	1.8	3.6	2.7	0.7
Not stated	1.2	1.1	0.7	1.2	0.4	0.1
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100
Number ('000s)	10,614	9,888	10,631	10,266	10,004	10,679

Source: Population Census 2010 [data file].

## 6.3 Marital Status and Age at Marriage of Indonesian Youth

“  
Most male youth remain single until their mid-to-late twenties but female youth marry younger.  
”

Marriage remains the predominant norm for union formation for young couples in Indonesia.<sup>41</sup> Table 62 Marital status distribution of youth by age and sex: Indonesia, 2010 shows the marital status of both male and female youth in Indonesia in 2010. Overall, 66 percent of males and 47 percent of females aged 15-29 years were single.

However, as might be expected, the proportions who had married increased rapidly with age. Among male 15-19 year olds, close to 6 percent had married compared to 30 percent and 64 percent of those aged 20-24 and 25-29 years respectively. The pattern was the same among female youth. However, in each age group the proportion of females who had married was much higher than that for males. For example, among 15-19 year olds, the proportion of females who had married (14 percent) was more than twice the 6 percent figure for males. The large age-specific differences in the proportions of males and females married in 2010 indicate that males marry later than females and that males usually marry females younger themselves and vice versa. As might be expected, the information on the marriage patterns of youth presented here is very much in line with the living arrangement data described in the previous section.

TABLE 6-2

**Marital status distribution of youth by age and sex: Indonesia, 2010**

Sex and Age Group	Not yet married	Ever married				Total Youth <sup>(a)</sup>	
		Currently Married	Divorced	Widowed	Total	Percent	Number
Male	%	%	%	%	%	%	Millions
15-19	93.9	6.0	0.1	0.0	6.1	100.0	10.6
20-24	69.1	30.3	0.5	0.1	30.9	100.0	9.9
25-29	34.9	63.7	1.2	0.2	65.1	100.0	10.6
15-29	65.8	33.5	0.6	0.1	34.2	100.0	31.1
Female							
15-19	85.6	13.9	0.5	0.0	14.4	100.0	10.3
20-24	41.2	56.9	1.7	0.2	58.8	100.0	10.0
25-29	14.8	82.3	2.5	0.5	85.2	100.0	10.7
15-29	46.7	51.5	1.6	0.2	53.3	100.0	30.9

Notes: a) The total number includes those who did not state their marital status. Only those who stated their marital status were included in the percentage distribution calculations.

Source: Derived from Population Census 2010, BPS [web] <http://sp10.bps.go.id>

41 See Jones, G.W., and Gubhaju, B. (2011) "Regional differences in marriage patterns in Indonesia in the twenty-first century". In Jones, G.W., Hull, T.H., and Mohamad, M. (eds), *Changing Marriage Patterns in Southeast Asia: economic and socio-cultural dimensions*. Routledge: Oxon.

“

*Widowhood and divorce were not commonly found at young ages.*

”

Table 62 Marital status distribution of youth by age and sex: Indonesia, 2010 also shows the proportions of youth who were either widowed or divorced in 2010. As might be expected, widowhood affected a small proportion of youth (0.1% and 0.2% of males and females respectively). Divorce was also relatively uncommon. Among 20-24 year olds, close to 1 in every 200 males and 1 in 60 females were divorcees. However, these proportions increased with age, for example 1 in 40 females aged 25-29 years were divorcees.

“

*Up until 2000, Indonesian youth were delaying marriage to older ages.*

”

Attitudes to the timing of marriage have undergone a significant change over the last half-century. This change is confirmed by the data presented in Table 63 Percentage of females ever married by age and singulate mean age at marriage for both females and males: Indonesia, 1964-2010 which shows that the age pattern of marriage in 2010 was very different to that seen four to five decades ago. In the 1960s and 1970s close to 40 percent of 15-19 year old females were married and at that time up to 3 percent of younger girls (that is, girls in the 10-14 year age range) were married.

Coinciding with the significant increases in participation in school level education (see Chapter 4), the amendment of marriage laws in 1974, the implementation of the national family planning program through the 1970s and general social and economic development, teenage marriage has become far less common. By 1990 the proportion married among 15-19 year old females had fallen to 18 percent and in 2000 it stood at 13 percent. As was the case for younger females, marriage among females aged in their twenties also decreased over the last few decades of the 20th century. However, in more recent times, the tendency for younger people to defer marriage to older ages seems to have abated. In fact, the data from the most recent two censuses, 2000 and 2010, show a slight increase in the propensity to marry among younger aged females.

TABLE 6-3

**Percentage of females ever married by age and singulate mean age at marriage for both females and males: Indonesia, 1964-2010**

Sub-groups	Census year					
	1964	1971	1980	1990	2000	2010
Age-groups (years)	Females: percentages ever married					
	%	%	%	%	%	%
10-14	3.0	2.3	0.8	0.3	0.5	0.5
15-19	40.2	37.4	30.1	18.2	13.3	14.4
20-24	85.8	81.5	77.7	64.3	57.6	58.8
25-29	96.4	95.1	92.6	88.8	83.3	85.2
30-34	98.2	97.8	96.6	95.6	93.1	94.0

Sub-groups	Census year					
	1964	1971	1980	1990	2000	2010
35-39	98.6	98.6	98.1	97.3	96.5	96.2
40-44	99.0	98.8	98.6	98.0	97.6	97.2
45-49	99.0	99.0	98.8	98.5	98.0	97.9
Sex	Singulate Mean Age at Marriage (years)					
Females	n.a	19.3	20.0	21.6	22.7	22.2
Males	n.a	23.8	24.1	25.2	25.9	25.7
Difference between males and females	-	3.5	4.1	3.6	3.2	3.5

Sources: Derived from Population Census 2010, BPS [web] <http://sp10.bps.go.id> and; Jones, Gavin W. 2010 Changing marriage patterns in Asia. Asia Research Institute, National University of Singapore.

The pattern of change described above, can also be seen from the 'singulate mean age at marriage' measure presented in the lower part of Table 63 Percentage of females ever married by age and singulate mean age at marriage for both females and males: Indonesia, 1964-2010. For females, the mean age of marriage (measured by reference to the age distribution of married women aged less than 50 years) increased from a little over 19.3 years in 1971 to 22.7 years in 2000, an increase of 3.4 years. However, it then dropped again by about one half a year to 22.2 years in 2010. The table shows a similar change among males: their age at marriage increased from 23.8 years in 1970 to 25.9 years in 2000, but it too dropped again, albeit slightly, down to 25.7 years in 2010. Given the similarity in movements, the difference in the age in marriage between males and females has remained much the same over the entire period: a difference of around three to four years.

“  
*However, the trend to marry at older ages can be expected to continue.*  
 ”

The slight decline in the age at marriage seen in the most recent two sets of census data suggests that young people and their families may have reached a new plateau in thinking about the best age at which to get married. There has been some speculation that this may in some part be due to the weakened state of Indonesia's family planning program over the last decade and it may be that there has been a return to more conservative values.<sup>42</sup> However, there is other evidence to suggest that ages at marriages will continue to rise again.

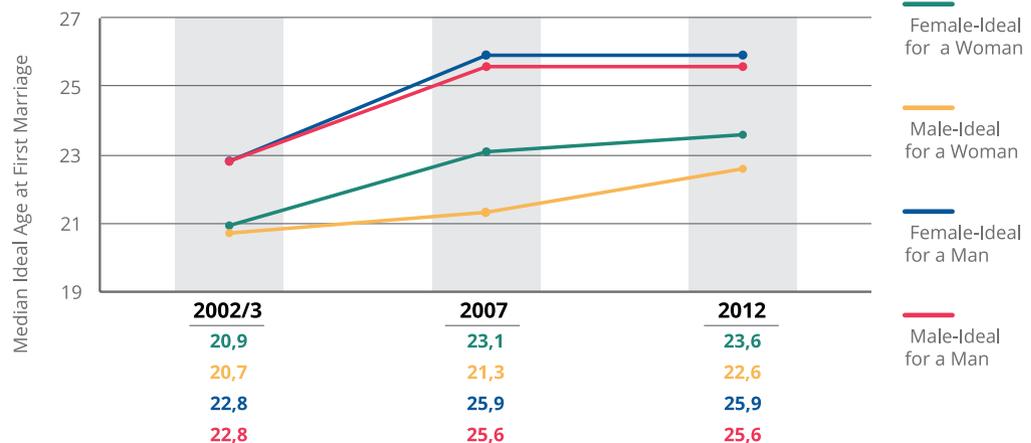
One piece of evidence comes from the apparent changes in views about the ideal age at marriage held among successive cohorts of unmarried 15-24 year olds. In 2012 both male and female youth said that they preferred an age of marriage that was two to three years older than their counterparts in 2002/2003 (see Figure 6-1 Median ideal age at marriage for men and women according to unmarried youth aged 15-24 years by sex: Indonesia 2002/3, 2007 and 2012.). For example, the median ideal age at marry for women given by young unmarried females in 2012 was 23.6 years which was 2.7

42 See Faizal, E. B. (2012). Faith campaigns prompt early marriages, The Jakarta Post, <http://www.thejakartapost.com/news/2012/01/02/faith-campaigns-prompt-early-marriages.html>.

years older than the median ideal age given by young unmarried females in 2002/2003. Similarly, young unmarried females in 2012 thought that the ideal marriage age for men was 25.6 years which was 3.1 years older than the answers given by young women a decade earlier.

**FIGURE 6-1**

**Median ideal age at marriage for men and women according to unmarried youth aged 15-24 years by sex: Indonesia 2002/3, 2007 and 2012.**



Source: a) MEASURE DHS, et al, 2013. Indonesia Demographic and Health Survey 2012: Adolescent Reproductive Health, Jakarta: ICF International, and; b) MEASURE DHS, et al, (2004) Indonesia Demographic and Health Survey 2002/03: Adolescent Reproductive Health, Jakarta: ICF International.

The other piece of evidence, albeit less direct, relates to compositional changes among the youth population in the direction of groups that prefer older ages at marriage. The sub-groups of youth who prefer older ages at marriage include those with higher levels of educational attainment and those living in urban areas. Direct evidence for this appears in the following chart.

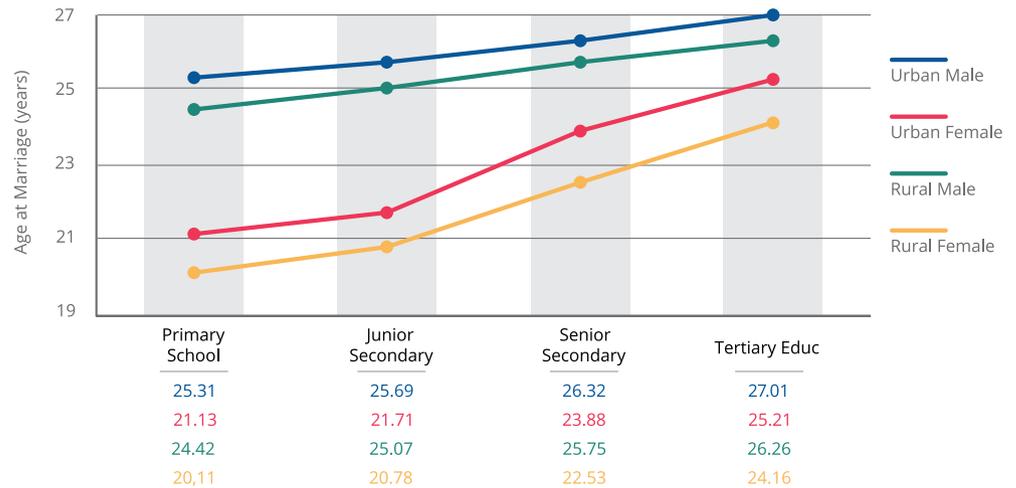
“  
*Better educated and urban youth tend to marry at older ages.*  
 ”

Based on 2010 Census data, Figure 6-2 Singulate mean age at first marriage by sex, urban/rural place of residence and level of educational attainment: Indonesia, 2010. indicates the tendency for both male and female urbanites (shown by the solid lines) to marry later than their rural counterparts (the dotted lines) and the better educated (those with a senior secondary and tertiary level education shown on the right hand side of the chart) to marry later than those who have lower levels of educational attainment. Since the proportions of Indonesian youth living in urban areas and the proportions with higher levels of schooling have been increasing over time (see these trends described in chapters 3 and 4), and because these trends are continuing, it can only be expected that the age at marriage will also continue to rise. Most literature about the timing of first marriage around the world, including that related to developing countries supports the view the delays in age at marriage will continue with development.<sup>43</sup>

43 See Jones, G. W. (1994) Marriage and divorce in Islamic South-East Asia; Lloyd, C. B. (Ed.). (2005). Growing Up Global: The Changing Transitions to Adulthood in Developing Countries, National Academies Press; and Jones, G. W., Hull, T. H., & Mohamad, M. (Eds.) (2011) Changing marriage patterns in Southeast Asia: Economic and socio-cultural dimensions, New York: Routledge pp. 29-46.

**FIGURE 6-2**

**Singulate mean age at first marriage by sex, urban/rural place of residence and level of educational attainment: Indonesia, 2010.**



Source: Derived from Population Census 2010 [Data file]

“  
*Having a higher education decreases the gender difference in marriage ages.*  
 ”

Figure 6-2 Singulate mean age at first marriage by sex, urban/rural place of residence and level of educational attainment: Indonesia, 2010. also shows that the age gap for marriage by gender is smaller among better educated Indonesian youth than those with lower levels of education (close to two years smaller when comparing the gap at the highest and lowest education levels shown in the chart for both urban and rural areas). The extra years of study and the extra resource commitments that completing higher levels of education entail must be a factor in lifting the marriage age of better educated females who are likely to marry men who have made

similar commitments to higher education. In other words, further schooling tends to reduce the prospect of early marriage and encourages closer-in-age partnerships and this is the case in urban and rural areas alike. The greater likelihood of being in an age homogenous marriage among couples where the wife has a higher level of education attainment than those where the wife is less educated has also been shown from the SUSENAS.<sup>44</sup>

## 6.4 Premarital Sex

With many youth delaying marriage until their mid to late twenties and the longer-term trend of a rising age at marriage that is expected to continue, it is likely that increasing numbers will be initiating sexual relationships outside of marriage. Nonetheless, it is clear from survey data that young people are very sensitive to the strong social values against premarital sex in Indonesia. When, in the 2012 national survey (the SDKI), youth were asked whether they supported premarital sex, the numbers who approved were quite

<sup>44</sup> See Utomo, A.J. (2014) "Marrying up?: Trends in age, education, and employment gaps among married couples in Indonesia." *Journal of Family Issues*, Forthcoming.

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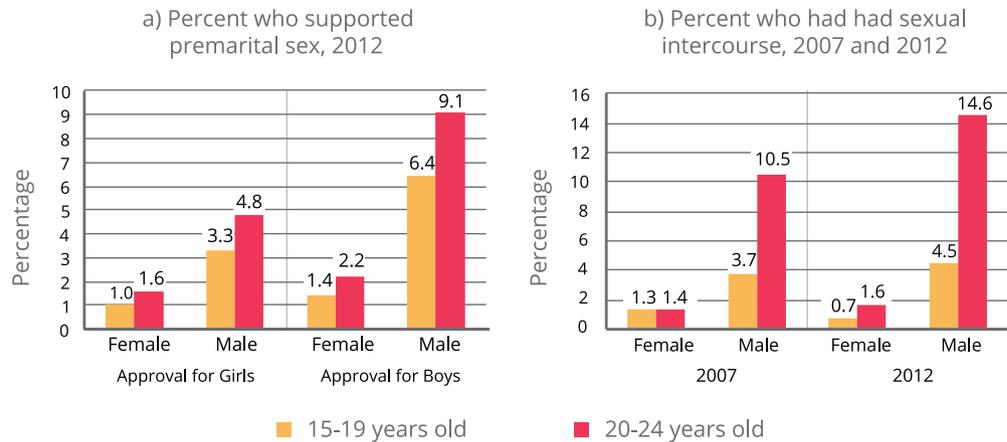
*Only a small percentage of unmarried youth support premarital sex, but a higher percentage admitted that they had already had sexual intercourse.*

”

small, especially among young women (Figure 6-3 Unmarried youth aged 15-24 years, a) support for premarital sex, 2012 and b) experience of sex by age and sex: Indonesia, 2007 and 2012.). Most approving of premarital sex were male youth: 6 percent of males aged 15-19 and 9 percent of males aged 20-24 years approved of males having sex before marriage. However, fewer males approved of females having sex before marriage.

**FIGURE 6-3**

**Unmarried youth aged 15-24 years, a) support for premarital sex, 2012 and b) experience of sex by age and sex: Indonesia, 2007 and 2012.**



Source: MEASURE DHS, et al, 2013, Indonesia Demographic and Health Survey 2012: Adolescent Reproductive Health, Jakarta: ICF International.

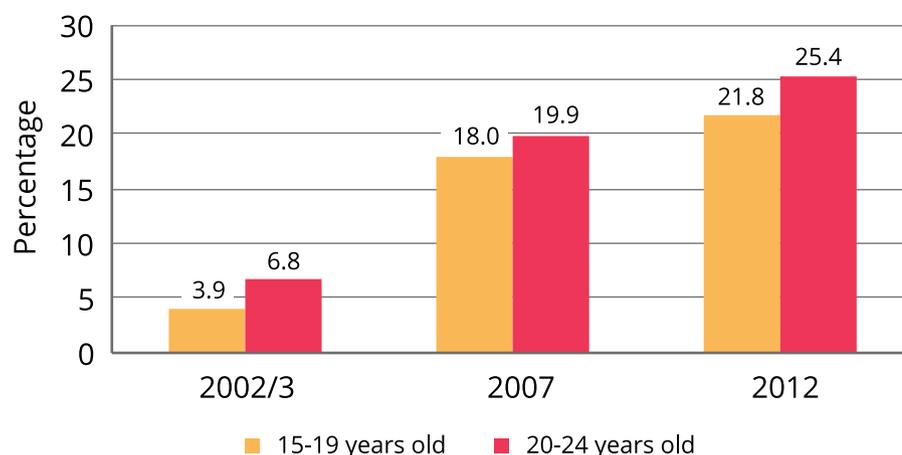
Much in accordance with the low levels of support for premarital sex apparent in Figure 6.1a, relatively few unmarried 15-24 year old females and relatively few unmarried 15-19 year old males said that they had already had sexual intercourse (see Figure 6.1b) with the incidence of sexual behaviour being a little higher than their levels of approval. In 2012, 9 percent of young males approved of premarital sex but almost 15 percent said that they had already had sexual intercourse. Comparable data from a 2007 survey suggest that premarital sex for unmarried males aged 20-24 years has been on the rise (up from just over 10.5 percent in 2007 to the 14.6 percent level in 2010). In reality, these rates could well be higher. As with other social survey questions on topics of a sensitive nature which tend to be underreported (such as gambling and domestic violence), it is to be expected that many youth are likely to have underreported their actual sexual experience.

Such underreporting would help to explain why the percentages of females who said that they had had sexual intercourse are so much lower than those for males (about 2% and 14% for those aged 20-24 years respectively). Nonetheless, the data thus far have demonstrated that for significant numbers of youth (especially for males in their early twenties), having sex is no longer necessarily equated with the intention of starting a family.

“  
*Condom use among sexually active unmarried youth is low but increasing.*  
 ”

The risks of having an unwanted pregnancy and contracting a sexually transmitted infection (STI) that may arise from premarital sex can be reduced if sexually active youth are aware of the risks and take preventative action. Figure 6-4 Percentage of unmarried youth who used a condom at first experience of sex by age: Indonesia, 2002/2003, 2007 and 2012. provides an indicator of youth responses to these risks. In particular, it looks at how the level of condom use among sexually active unmarried youth has been changing over the last decade. The data indicates a progressive increase in the level of condom use at first sex between 2002/03 and 2012. Among 15-19 year olds who had had sex the proportion increased from 4 percent to 22 percent in the respective years and for those aged 20-24 it increased from 7 percent to 25 percent. As the size of the sample on which these estimates are based are quite small, these data should be regarded with some caution. However, while the use of condoms at first experience of sex remains quite low, there are positive signs that youth are becoming more aware of preventative measures.

**FIGURE 6-4**  
**Percentage of unmarried youth who used a condom at first experience of sex by age: Indonesia, 2002/2003, 2007 and 2012**



Source: a) MEASURE DHS, et al, 2013, Indonesia Demographic and Health Survey 2012: Adolescent Reproductive Health, Jakarta: ICF International, and; b) Indonesia Demographic Health Survey 2012 [data file] <http://dhsprogram.com/data/available-datasets.cfm>

## 6.5 Fertility and Motherhood

Another major change in the transition to adulthood is parenthood. This section highlights three indicators of transition into parenthood: youth's fertility intention, adolescent/ teenage fertility, and fertility among young adults in general. It also looks at the proportions of youth who have become mothers and provides a special focus on the characteristics of teenage mothers.

### 6.5.1 FERTILITY INTENTIONS

“

*The average ideal number of children is between two and three.*

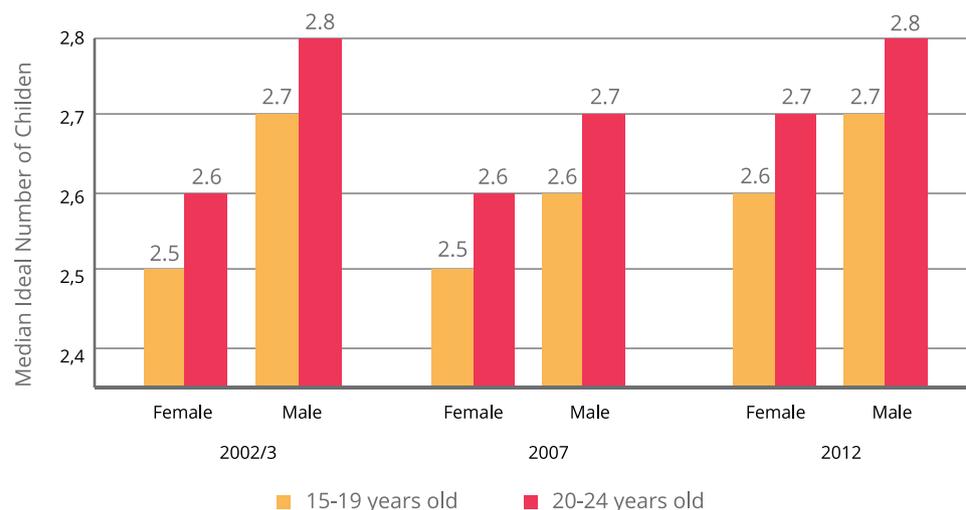
”

The fertility ideals of current generations of youth are important because they will influence future family sizes and the future growth of Indonesia's population. The series of Indonesian Demographic and Health surveys have consistently asked unmarried youth about their ideal family size. In 2012, the median number of children considered ideal by 15-19 year old unmarried females was 2.6 and for those aged 20-24 was 2.7 children. The ideal number of children given by males was slightly higher than for females (Figure 6-5 Median ideal number of children as reported by unmarried 15-24 year olds by age and sex:

Indonesia, 2002/03, 2007 and 2012). Over time, it can be seen that the family size ideals expressed by youth in 2012 were fractionally higher than those recorded by youth in 2002/2003 and 2007. These results suggest that the government's long promoted concept of 'two is enough' may need to be strengthened if young people's attitudes are to be changed in favour of having fewer children.

FIGURE 6-5

**Median ideal number of children as reported by unmarried 15-24 year olds by age and sex: Indonesia, 2002/03, 2007 and 2012.**



Source: a) MEASURE DHS, et al (2013) Indonesia Demographic and Health Survey 2012: Adolescent Reproductive Health, Jakarta: ICF International, and b) MEASURE DHS, et al (2008) Indonesia Demographic and Health Survey 2007: Adolescent Reproductive Health, Jakarta: ICF International

## 6.5.2 TEENAGE FERTILITY

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*Fertility rates of young women have fallen but there's been little change in more recent times.*

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While data on fertility ideals are available for both male and female youth, data on fertility history are generally only asked of females. Indonesia has experienced a substantial fall in fertility. The total fertility rate (TFR) has fallen from 5.6 children per woman as estimated from the 1971 Population Census, to 2.4 children in the 2010 Population Census<sup>45</sup>. Figure 6-6 Census-based 'age-specific fertility rates' (ASFRs): Indonesia, 1971- 2010(a) outlines the intercensal trend of 'age-specific fertility rates' (ASFRs) for women aged 15-49. A trend indicating delayed childbearing is one of the explanations of the fall in the TFR (BPS-Statistics Indonesia, 2011).<sup>46</sup> As can be seen from Figure 6-6, the general trend has been for fertility rates at all ages to fall with the greatest falls occurring for 20-24 year old females. ASFRs for 15-19 year old females fell from 155 to 41 births per 1,000 woman between the 1971 and 2010 Censuses. These changes are expected as a consequence of the increase in education for males and females, the delay in marriage described earlier, and the increased use of contraception. One of the consequences of these changes has been a shift in the peak age for childbearing from females aged in their early twenties (ages 20-24 years) to those aged in their mid to late twenties (ages 25-29 years).

Data from Indonesia's series of Demographic and Health Surveys undertaken since 1991 and last conducted in 2012 similarly indicate a fall in adolescent and youth fertility rates (see Figure 6-7). While fertility rates for all age groups have clearly fallen since 1991, it is important to note that most of the fall occurred between 1991 and 2002/2003 and there has been comparatively little change in age-specific fertility over the last decade. In fact, for those aged 15-19 years, the fertility rate remained at virtually the same level, that is, 48 births per thousand women in 2012 and 51 births per thousand women in 2007 and 2002/2003 alike. Among those aged 20-24 years, on the other hand, the rate actually increased from 131 to 138 births per thousand women and for those aged 25-29, after falling to 134 births per thousand women in 2007, the rate returned to the same level of 143 births per thousand women in 2012 as had been recorded in 2002/2003. The arrest in the decline of fertility rates over the last decade is consistent with the arrest in the decline in age at marriage over the last decade described in previous sections indicating a connection between the two.

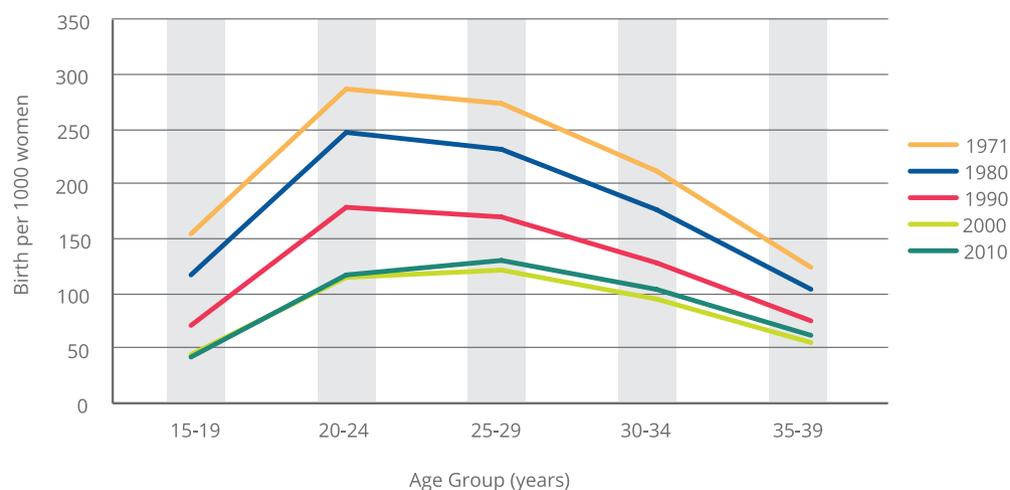
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45 BPS-Statistics Indonesia (2011a) Fertilitas Penduduk Indonesia. Hasil Sensus Penduduk 2010. (Fertility of Indonesian Population. Results from the 2010 Population Census), Katalog BPS 2102025

46 facilitating fertility decline in Indonesia, others have argued for a more holistic approach, pointing to socio-economic institutions 'that have created an environment conducive for fertility reduction' (Hull, 1987:90). Higher educational attainment and higher labour force participation for women, delayed marriage, changing ideals about family size and gender roles in marriage are examples of the broader social changes associated with economic development in Indonesia.

**FIGURE 6-6**

**Census-based 'age-specific fertility rates' (ASFRs): Indonesia, 1971- 2010(a)**

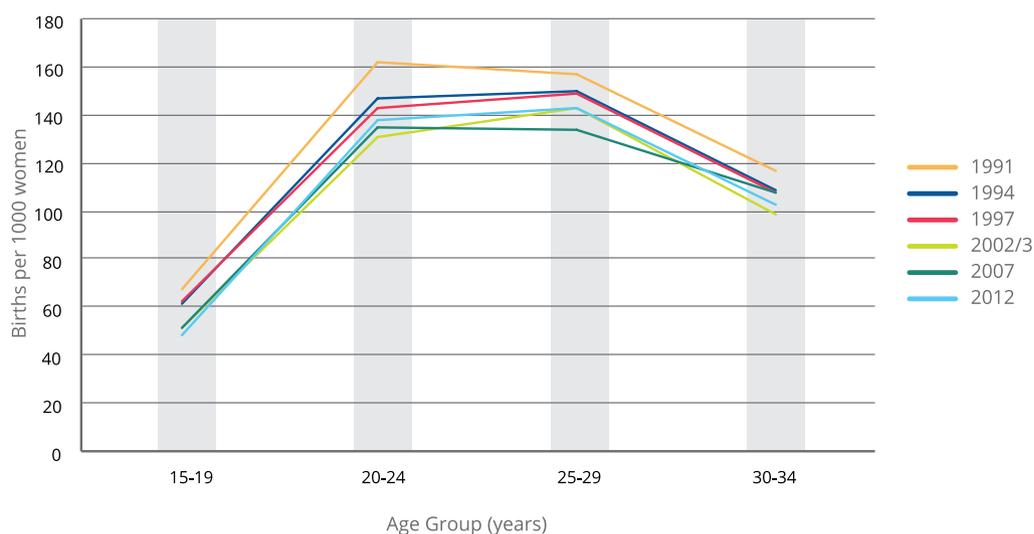


Note: a) See Appendix Table 7 for reference years to which the data relate and provincial level data.

Source: Adapted from Table L3: Angka Kelahiran Menurut Umur Ibu dan Angka Kelahiran Total Menurut provinsi 1971-2010. (Badan Pusat Statistik, 2011: 28-30) Fertilitas Penduduk Indonesia: Hasil Sensus Penduduk 2010.

**FIGURE 6-7**

**SDKI-based 'age-specific fertility rates' (ASFRs): Indonesia, 1991-2012**



Source: MEASURE DHS, et al (2013) Indonesia Demographic and Health Survey (SDKI), 2012, Jakarta: O ICF International

**6.5.3 TEENAGE FERTILITY BY PROVINCE**

As seen from Appendix Table 7 fertility rates differ among provinces in Indonesia. Among the very young, those aged 15-19 years, provinces with fertility rates well above the national average in 2010 included Central Kalimantan (the province with the highest adolescent fertility rate) at 69 births per 1,000 women along with Bangka Belitung, Central Sulawesi, West Sulawesi, Gorontalo, and Southeast Sulawesi, all with adolescent fertility rates above 60 births per thousand women. DKI Jakarta and DI Yogyakarta were the

two provinces with relatively low levels of adolescent fertility, with 17 and 20 births per thousand women aged 15-19 years respectively.

#### 6.5.4 MOTHERHOOD

“

*There were more than a half a million teenage mothers in 2010, and teen motherhood was more common in rural areas.*

”

For many couples, marriage is closely followed by the responsibilities of parenthood and for substantial numbers of females this occurs at an early age. Moreover, as seen in Table 6-4, early marriage and early parenthood is more common for women in rural areas than it is for women in urban areas. The top part of Table 6-4 shows that marriage was more common for young rural females (18% of 15-19 years olds in rural areas were married in 2010 compared to 11% of those in urban areas). This difference helps to explain why the proportion of 15-19 year old females who were already married with children was substantially higher for those who lived in rural areas (8.0%) than those who lived in urban areas (3.6%). More generally, Table 6-4 shows that a large proportion of females have reached the two markers of transition to adulthood pertaining to family formation by age 29. Among the current cohort of women aged 25 to 29, 8 in 10 were ever married, and 7 in 10 had given birth. Data for the 30-34 year age group show that marriage and motherhood ultimately remain as strong life-course norms for adult women in Indonesia.

As discussed above, the numbers of young women who had become married mothers are substantial. In 2010, the census counted close to 578,000 teenage girls who had married and given birth: this number included a relatively small number of girls (some 2,150) who were below the age of 15 years. Of those aged 15-19 years, the 576,000 females who had become mothers represented 5.7 percent of all females in that age group. More recent evidence from the 2012 SDKI which revealed that some nine percent of 15-19 year olds had commenced childbearing suggests that teenage motherhood is more common than the census data indicate. However, as noted in the special feature on the characteristics of teen age mothers that follows, the SDKI figure included women who were pregnant at the time of the survey along with those who had already given birth. There is also a reported tendency for the SDKI survey to miss single women.<sup>47</sup>

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47 Hull, Terry, and Wendy Hartanto (2009) "Resolving Contradictions in Indonesian Fertility Estimates". Bulletin of Indonesian Economic Studies 45 (1): 61-71.

TABLE 6-4

### Marriage and motherhood among young women by age and urban/rural area of residence: Indonesia 2010

Age group (years)	Urban	Rural	Total Indonesia	
Ever-married females <sup>(a)</sup> as a percent of all females <sup>(b)</sup>				Number ever-married
10-14	0.5	0.4	0.5	53,732
15-19	11.0	18.1	14.4	1,460,516
20-24	48.9	70.7	58.8	5,853,756
25-29	80.8	90.3	85.2	9,089,962
30-34	92.2	96.0	94.0	9,283,254
Ever-married females <sup>(a)</sup> who had given birth as a percent of all females <sup>(c)</sup>				Number ever-married who had given birth
10-14	0.0	0.0	0.0	2,153
15-19	3.6	8.0	5.7	576,138
20-24	31.5	53.5	41.4	4,125,344
25-29	66.8	81.0	73.4	7,828,805
30-34	83.7	90.9	87.1	8,592,368

Notes: a) Includes currently married females and those who were previously married but are currently widowed or divorced. b) Percent of all females who stated their marital status. c) Percent of all females who stated their marital status and who had stated whether they had given birth or not.

Source: Derived from Population Census 2010, BPS [web] <http://sp10.bps.go.id>

#### 6.5.5 CHARACTERISTICS OF TEENAGE MOTHERS

Teenage motherhood, especially among school-aged teenagers, can be a serious concern for the individuals involved, their families and for the wider community. This is because young girls are still developing their own life skills and are often not capable of taking on the many roles and responsibilities of motherhood without a great deal of extra support from others. Having children interferes with schooling and its related development opportunities, with life-long consequences for young women's personal well-being and the well-being of their children. Yet further, it is also known that very young teenagers and their babies face greater dangers than those faced by more mature women both before and at the time of birth. These dangers include the risk of babies being born with a lower birth weight and the increased risk of complications during the birth including an increased risk of death.<sup>48</sup> The data in Table 6-5 from the 2012 SDKI provides further details of the characteristics of females having babies at a young age.

In 2012, around one in every one hundred (1:100) girls aged 15 in Indonesia had begun childbearing seen on the basis that they had already given birth or were currently pregnant with their first child. After that the percentage of teenagers who had started to have children increased rapidly with age and by the age of 19 almost one in four young women had started childbearing. Teenagers in rural areas were more than twice

<sup>48</sup> UNFPA (2013) *Motherhood in Childhood, Facing the challenge of adolescent pregnancy*. State of World Population 2013. New York:UNFPA

as likely as those in urban areas to give birth (13% compared to 6%) and those who had not gone on to secondary school were close to six times more likely than those who completed secondary school to become pregnant (29% compared to 5%). There was also a strong inverse relationship between early childbearing and the wealth of the household to which the teenager belonged. Seventeen percent of teenagers living in households in the lowest wealth quintile had begun child bearing compared to just three percent of those in the highest quintile.

**TABLE 6-5**

**Percentage of 15-19 year old females who had begun childbearing<sup>(a)</sup> by age and other selected characteristics, Indonesia 2012**

Characteristics	Percentage who had begun childbearing
Age in years	%
15	1.2
16	4.1
17	7.3
18	13.1
19	24.1
Residence	
Urban	6.3
Rural	13.1
Educational attainment	
Did not commence secondary school	29.2
Some secondary	8.2
Completed secondary school	4.5
Wealth quintile <sup>(b)</sup>	
Lowest (poorest)	16.7
Second	13.7
Middle	9.8
Fourth	6.6
Highest (richest)	2.6
Total	9.5

Notes: a) Includes those who had had a live birth (7.0% of teenagers aged 15-19) and those who were pregnant with their first child (2.5 % of these teenagers). b) Based on household assets<sup>49</sup>

Source: MEASURE DHS, et al (2013) Indonesia Demographic and Health Survey 2012, Jakarta: ICF International Table 5.12 page 61.

49 Rutstein S.O. and Johnson K. (2004) The DHS Wealth Index, DHS Comparative Reports No. 6ORC Macro, <http://www.measuredhs.com/pubs/pdf/CR6/CR6.pdf>

Taken together the data suggest that teenage pregnancy is far more prevalent among poorly educated girls from poor households in rural areas as opposed to well-educated girls from wealthy households in urban areas. The large difference in childbearing rates between girls without any high school education and those who have completed high school suggest that encouraging girls to stay at school longer may be the best form of contraception for teenagers.

## 6.6 Summary

This chapter describes patterns of family formation among youth in Indonesia by reference to various interrelated markers of family formation: current living arrangements, marriage, initiation of sexual activity, fertility and parenthood.

In respect to marriage and parenthood, the general long-run trend in Indonesia is indicative of delayed marriage and parenthood. However, recent data suggest that many young women still marry and have children whilst in their teenage years. The data also suggest that the trend of delaying marriage and parenthood has stagnated over the last decade. Nonetheless, a preference for delaying marriage expressed by young unmarried youth along with social changes in favour of smaller families and later marriage (such as increased urbanisation and higher levels of education attainment) are likely to prompt further increases in age at marriage and reduce the extent of childbearing into the future.

Data from the SDKI suggest that relatively few unmarried youth approve of premarital sex. However, with close to 15 percent of unmarried males aged 20-24 reporting that they had already had sex in 2012 (up from 10% in 2007), and with the likelihood of some underreporting of having had sex, the data suggest that the traditional norm that 'one should wait to have sex until one is married' may be weakening.

This distancing between sexual initiation and entry into marriage is consistent with the idea that transition to adulthood in Indonesia, like in many other developing countries, is prolonged through the expansion of schooling. The protracted transition not only shapes the sexual practice of youth, but also exerts significant influence on consequent family formation patterns.

Data from both the 2010 census and the 2012 SDKI revealed that teenage pregnancy and motherhood was more prevalent in rural areas than in urban areas. The 2012 SDKI also showed that it was less educated teenagers from poor households who were the most likely to become young mothers.



Chapter 7

# CONCLUSION

The primary objective of this monograph is to provide policy makers, planners and other stakeholders with a contemporary view of the situations and challenges facing the current cohort of Indonesian youth. Indicators derived from the 2010 Population Census and other complementary sources have highlighted the characteristics of youth by life stage and key aspects of the demographic, economic, and social context in which their lives are being shaped and how their circumstances are changing over time. The diverse range of indicators obtained from authoritative sources of data also provide a valuable set of benchmarks against which future changes in the circumstances of youth may be evaluated and assessed.

The 2010 Population Census shows that the current cohort of 15-29 year old youth (some 62 million in number) represented 26 percent of the total population. In historical terms, this proportion is relatively high but projections show that the representation of this age group will slowly fall as Indonesia's population ages. By 2035, the population of youth is projected to increase to 70 million and to represent 23 percent of Indonesia's total population.

In addition to their large number, a striking feature of the current generation of youth relative to older generations is their prolonged transition to achievement of the traditional demographic markers of adulthood: completing education, leaving home, securing first job, getting married and becoming a parent. This protracted pattern of achievement of economic and social maturity among youth in Indonesia mirrors what is happening in the transition to adulthood worldwide. As illustrated in Chapter 4 of this monograph, one key driver of this change is the expansion of education, indicated by the rise in enrolment rates, and equity improvements in school progression trends in the last two decades.

Together, the sheer magnitude of the youth population and the changing context of their lives present a challenge for policy makers to better equip young people with the skills necessary for their journey to adulthood. Despite the gains in many facets of young people's life situations over time, the study highlights how wide socio-economic and regional disparities in youth outcomes remain persistent and the data provided in the Appendix Tables enable further exploration of these disparities at the provincial level of government.

This concluding chapter revisits the key findings within the five analytical themes addressed in each chapter. To follow, it canvases policy directions in the light of these findings. It finally outlines emerging issues and challenges pertaining to youth in Indonesia that warrant a closer look in future research and policy discussions.

## 7.1 Main Findings

### SIZE, SHARE, AND GROWTH OF THE YOUTH POPULATION

- The 2010 Population Census indicated that there were 62 million youth aged 15-29 in Indonesia, accounting for about 26 percent of the Indonesian population.
- Over time, the size of the youth population has been increasing and is projected to reach 70 million in 2035.
- While the youth population continues to grow in absolute terms, its proportion within the total population in 2010 had declined relative to the level recorded in 2000. The share of youth in the population is expected to continue to decline in the next 25 years, falling from 26 to 23 percent between 2010 and 2035.
- Because the relative size of the dependent population (children aged less than 15 years and older persons aged 65 years and over) to the working age population is relatively low and only changing gradually over the next few decades, there is a window of opportunity to invest more resources into the development of youth than will be the case in the longer term future when a much greater share of resources will be needed to support the ageing population.

### DISTRIBUTION AND MIGRATION

- More youth aged 15-29 in Indonesia live in urban areas (about 33 million) than in rural areas (29 million).
- The proportion in the youth ages in urban populations (28%) is higher than in rural populations (24%).
- The population of youth is generally distributed across the main islands and provinces of Indonesia in much the same way as the total population. Nevertheless, each province has a different age/sex composition such that some provinces have a higher share of youth than others. Provinces with the highest shares of youth were DKI Jakarta, Riau Islands, West Papua, Banten and Aceh.
- Top destination provinces for youth migrants are West Java, DKI Jakarta and Banten, all related primarily to the growth of work opportunities in the Greater Jakarta metropolis which extends into West Java and Banten, and DI Yogyakarta, where many youth move for study.
- Central Java stands out as the province from which the largest share of migrant youth originate. Other provinces with relatively large youth outmigration include East Java, North Sumatra, Lampung, and South Sulawesi.
- Of all age groups youth have the highest rates of internal migration in Indonesia and the evidence suggests the main flows are from rural to urban settings where education and work opportunities are greater. Youth with high levels of educational attainment were more likely to move to another district than those whose education was low.

## EDUCATION

- In 2010, less than two percent of youth aged 15-29 were illiterate.
- Most youth can speak Bahasa Indonesia, but the ability to communicate in the national language varied by region.
- In general, there has been a considerable improvement in the education participation and attainment of young people in Indonesia.
- In 2010, the large majority (94%) of formal primary school aged children, those aged 7-12 years, were at school. However, rates of school attendance dropped off significantly with increasing age.
- In 2010, 84 percent of children in the 13-15 year age group (junior secondary school age), were attending school, and among those aged 16-18 years (senior secondary school age), the proportion at school was 53 percent. Only 15 percent of youth aged 19 to 24 (the tertiary education age level) participated in education.
- There was no substantial gender gap in education participation in 2010. However, substantial disparities remain in the progression of children to higher levels of schooling depending on their socio-economic background. In 2009, when ranked by household expenditure, only 71 percent of children aged 13-15 from the poorest 20% of households had progressed through to the end of junior secondary school compared to 94 percent of those from the richest 20 percent of households.
- The relatively remote provinces of Papua, Gorontalo, and West Sulawesi are the top three provinces with high proportions of youth with low levels of education.

## LABOUR FORCE

- Gender differences in labour force participation rates are persistent throughout all youth age groups.
- Marriage-related roles and responsibilities are important factors that shape the levels of labour force participation among youth.
- Youth are less likely to work in the still prominent agriculture sector and in informal sector jobs, but instead are more likely to seek work in urban areas and in a range of service and non-agricultural production industries, where formal sector jobs that typically provide regular wages and salaries are more common.
- Teenage youth, as early entrants to the labour force, were more likely to work in unpaid informal sector jobs and in part-time jobs than those older than them. Female youth were more likely to be employed in part-time jobs and in family businesses as unpaid workers but also were more likely to work in the formal sector than male youth.
- There is a positive relationship between education and the likelihood of being employed in formal sector jobs, and similarly, between education and earnings.
- On average, at every educational attainment level, young men with a full-time job in the formal sector earned slightly more than women in the same category. In general, better educated male and female youth are more likely to have similar outcomes in regard to i) the possibility of holding formal sector jobs and ii) the level of earnings they receive, than those with a more limited education.

- While youth with very low levels of education have worse job outcomes in terms of obtaining regular wage jobs and in terms of earnings than those with higher levels of educational attainment they are somewhat paradoxically less likely to be unemployed. To a certain extent, these youth cannot afford to be unemployed.
- In August 2012, there were 3.4 million youth who were unemployed first-time job-seekers. Among those in the labour force, male youth were slightly more likely than female youth to be long-time firstjob job-seekers.
- There were also some 4.3 million male youth (14% of male youth) who were effectively idle, that is, neither studying nor working. While higher proportions of female youth reported that they were neither studying nor working relative to their male counterparts many were already married housewives with children requiring care.

## FAMILY FORMATION

- Indicators of family formation reveal a long term trend of delayed marriage and parenthood. However, recent data is suggestive of a stagnating trend in both the age at first marriage and in fertility rates.
- In 2010, the singulate mean age at marriage was 22.2 years for women and 25.7 years for men. The age at marriage was higher among youth in urban areas compared to those in rural areas and generally increased with increasing levels of educational attainment.
- Among 20-24 year old males, the majority (over 60%) still lived with their parents. In contrast, only 43 percent of females of the same age lived with their parents.
- Among young women, those living in rural areas and those with lower levels of education are experiencing relatively faster transitions to leaving the parental home, to marriage, and to parenthood.
- Results from the 2007 and 2012 SDKI suggest that the proportion of youth engaging in premarital sex had increased in the inter-survey period. Among sexually active youth, condom use had increased but remained low according to the latest survey data.
- In 2010, more than half (54%) of all rural women aged 20-24 had ever given birth. The corresponding percentage among all urban women was 32 percent.
- The prevalence of teenage motherhood was most common among those with a low level of education in rural areas and from relatively from poor backgrounds.

The key findings outlined above by no means provide a complete picture of the current situation of youth in Indonesia. As stated earlier, the scope of this monograph is limited by the availability of the variables included in the population census and other nationally representative data sets that can be used to analyse youth development and well-being. Having said that, the findings are important starting points for further policy discussion and research on youth development and wellbeing in Indonesia, as will be discussed in the following section.

## 7.2 Implications of Findings for Policy Development

### ON THE DEMOGRAPHIC WINDOW OF OPPORTUNITY

There is a limited window of opportunity to harness the demographic bonus. The analysis of population changes presented in Chapter 2 showed that Indonesia's population is both growing in size and ageing with the balance of those dependent on the working age population shifting from children to older people. These changing demographics will over the longer term mean that a greater share of available resources generated by the working age population will be required to support the elderly population. However, at this point in Indonesia's history, and over the next few decades, the overall dependency ratio (that is, the combined ratio of children and older people to the working age population) will continue to fall to a soon to be reached low point in the 2030s and then rise again, gently at first, as the population ages. It is this period of historically low dependency ratios that provides a 'window of opportunity' to capitalise on the efforts of the working age population in favour of investments in the education and welfare of children and youth before the balance of need shifts towards older people. Policy discussions should be geared to re-assess whether policies and programmes in favour of youth development can be improved and expanded to help develop their skills, productivity and overall wellbeing as they become the drivers of Indonesia's future prosperity.

### ON PROLONGED TRANSITION TO ADULTHOOD

The changing timeline for the transition to adulthood needs to be considered. As greater numbers of youth pursue higher education and delay marriage, their transition to adulthood is effectively prolonged. Considering this change in timing for the transition to adulthood, policies and social institutions supporting this age group need to be re-evaluated. For example, the family formation chapter in this monograph has shown that between 1971 and 2010, the singulate mean age at marriage (SMAM) rose from about 19 to 22 years of age for young women and from about 24 to 26 years of age for young men. The prolonged duration from the onset of puberty to marriage underlines the policy importance of young people's reproductive health needs.

### ON THE AGE DEFINITION OF YOUTH

The age typology of youth needs to be revised. The current legal age-based definition of youth is 16-30 years of age. However, analysis showed that this age range is too broad as it obscures the different needs, issues and challenges faced by youth of different ages within this age bracket. Patterns of youth participation in education, labour force outcomes and the transition to marriage and parenthood vary greatly within this group. Adopting more refined age-based classifications such as those used in this monograph, namely the age groups 15-19, 20-24 and 25-29, would assist in formulating policies that are specifically targeted to youth in different stages of transition.

## ON REGIONAL DISTRIBUTION AND YOUTH RURAL - URBAN MIGRATION

Policies on education and employment need to consider the needs of urban and rural youth, as well as those who transit between the two categories via migration and urbanisation. As outlined in Chapter 3, Indonesia's youth are highly mobile, with many moving from rural to urban areas (or even overseas) to pursue economic and educational opportunities. While their education and employment outcomes are mixed, the balance is very largely positive. However, rural to urban migration also presents challenges for youth in adapting to a new environment. They may not have the level of family support that they had while still living with their parents. There is generally a strong expectation that they will remit income to their family members remaining in the village and this can mean that they are often short of money. While many initially live with family members who live in the city, some will have problems finding housing that is safe, secure and hygienic. Some will get jobs with unsuitable employers who are exploitive and a small minority will engage in crime.

On the other hand, in rural areas, urbanisation and the migration of rural youth to urban areas has meant that youth have become underrepresented in the agricultural sector. Research needs to be undertaken on the future agricultural labour supply in the context of ever-new technologies. Another important issue is that, with the migration of youth to urban areas, older people in rural areas may be left without family support in a social and policy environment where alternative forms of support are inadequate. This has been a common occurrence in many Asian countries.

## ON EDUCATION

Policy focus is needed on improving the accessibility, quality, and extending the duration of secondary schooling, as well as expanding the enrolment and completion of higher education. Indonesia's future social and economic development will be greatly shaped by the educational attainment of today's children and youth and on how the education system is working to improve their education. There are challenges that need urgent responses: the educational level of the population is still very low, while large gaps in education levels among different groups in society still persist. On the supply side, education facilities at both the junior and senior levels of high school, are inadequate when compared with the increasing demand from youth. Most critical, as shown in Chapter 4 of this monograph, is that the quality of education is still low and is in urgent need of attention.

Government responses should be geared to address the question of why many young people do not continue from primary school to enroll in junior secondary school. It is widely recognized that youth in many developing countries are unable to continue to secondary education because of economic pressures. It is a difficult decision for poor parents whether to continue their children's schooling, or to allow their children to drop out of school to enter the labour market and bring additional household income.

## ON STARTING A PRODUCTIVE WORKING LIFE

Following investment in education, policy attention should be given to prepare youth to enter the labour market. Chapter 2 has shown how Indonesia is fortunate to be experiencing the current demographic bonus. The large share of youth in Indonesia's current population is an asset to contribute to social and economic stability. However, as shown in Chapter 5 of this monograph, many young people are struggling to find employment, and they spend a considerable amount of time in search of their first job. High rates of underemployment and unemployment among youth may have adverse consequences not only for the welfare and wellbeing of the young individuals themselves, but also for the community as a whole. Failure to harness the productive potential of a large cohort of young people may induce a range of social issues, including crime and conflict.

For many young people, the transition from school to work is hampered by skill deficiencies and a lack of employment opportunities. Poor and disadvantaged groups drop out of school prematurely and start work too early, working very hard for long hours but earning very little due to engagement in low productivity work. There are many cases in which young people who should be in school have prematurely entered the labour market. All available evidence suggests that this is due to the financial inability of their parents to support their continuation in education.

On this front, apart from ensuring higher completion rates of secondary schooling, the relevance of education and human capital to the needs of the labour force must also be considered by policy makers. School is not only important for the hard knowledge and skills that it imparts but also soft skills such as discipline, teamwork and problem-solving that young people need to become productive workers, good parents and responsible citizens. Young people must be equipped with the skills necessary to be adaptive to changing work environments, labour market demands, and technological changes. In addition, key strategies to help young people in starting a productive working life should include creating equal opportunities and meaningful employment in labour market for young men and women, and fostering entrepreneurship. Aside from the wealthy, who are able to afford domestic assistance, for married women with children in urban areas, employment is highly constrained by the need to care for their children. Family support policies like early childhood education and care would facilitate their employment while preparing their children for school.

In a global economy increasingly contingent upon high technology, Indonesia will be able to improve its competitive advantage by ensuring that as many young people as possible, both men and women, are educated to high levels and are able to make use their skills in a labour market that offers them genuine opportunities of advancement.

## ON REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH, EARLY MARRIAGE AND PARENTHOOD

Persistent early marriage and the trend of delayed marriage both pose policy concerns related to reproductive health. According to the data, about 6 percent of men and 14 percent of women aged 15-19 report that they are or have been married. Childbearing in the teenage years poses risks to the health of both mother and baby.

In addition, those who marry and have children early are very likely to be disadvantaged in the labour market and to have ended their education prematurely. Their opportunities to return to education are also almost non-existent. Young women who marry as minors are more likely to come from poor households and rural areas and to have relatively few years of schooling. Child marriage is a serious issue that should raise concern among policy makers and program implementers.

At the same time, many more young Indonesians are choosing to delay marriage in order to pursue higher education or employment opportunities. A policy shift is needed to reflect this change in attitudes, such as ensuring that the minimum ages at marriage are strictly enforced. This will reduce the prevalence of early marriages, which bear a high cost to women's and children's health and resulting in a low potential for the future human capital. However, delayed marriage also means a longer waiting time from puberty to marriage which increases problems of sexual and reproductive health among youth. Behaviours that young people adopt have critical implications for their future health and mortality.

Unprotected sex is one of the riskiest behaviours that young people can undertake, particularly given the risk of HIV/AIDS infection. However, the greatest risk is early unintended pregnancy and the great difficulties that this potentially involves primarily for single teenage girls. These difficulties include being ostracised from their families, forced to marry at an early age, poverty and insecurity, a resort to prostitution to support themselves and their child or, in desperation, procuring an unsafe abortion. The adolescent birth rate is decreasing, but is still high. The high adolescent birth rate is due to the absence of contraceptive use, among other factors. Young couples are not informed about the importance of delaying their first birth. If they are, they are not aware of contraceptive services to space births, therefore unmet need among young couples in general is high. In developing countries, early pregnancy and childbearing are also associated with higher risk of morbidity and mortality.

In Indonesia, the need for reproductive health services for youth must be addressed in a way that is sensitive to the predominant culture that holds that sexual relations and childbearing should only occur within marriage. The public health system needs to be improved in order to better reach and serve young people.

Policymakers are faced with a serious challenge in deciding how to reduce the incidence of early marriage while at the same time resolving the need for reproductive health services for unmarried youth. The secondary school education system has a potentially

important role to play in this regard especially since participation in education helps to delay early entry in marriage and since it provides a potentially effective means of providing authoritative information to young people about matters of sexual and reproductive health in ways that are considered and culturally sensitive.

### 7.3 Limitations and Areas for Further Research

As stated earlier, the scope of analysis in this study is limited and is subject to data constraints. First, while most of the analyses presented in this study are at the national and provincial levels, a comprehensive picture of youth can also be obtained from the population census across local government areas in Indonesia. There is scope for further analysis of the census data that may be of interest to those wanting a more detailed regional perspective.

Second, there are other important aspects of youth development and wellbeing that warrant further study, in-depth analysis and policy considerations. For example, due to data constraints, the report's conception of transition adulthood was limited, with youth participation in society mostly discussed in terms of their labour force participation. As important dimensions of transitions to adulthood, citizenship and other forms of youth participation in community engagement such as volunteerism and sports participation, were notably absent in this monograph. Similarly, topics around youth's risky behaviours, including smoking, drug use, HIV/AIDS are salient policy issues that would benefit from further data-driven research. More information on the health and psychological wellbeing of young people and on their attitudes and values would also be desirable.

The following is a list of some potential and inter-related research areas for future study, data collection, and policy discussions on youth in Indonesia:

1. **Youth and social change:** changing attitudes to gender roles; changing social values, practice and aspirations; family relationships; intergenerational relationships in the context of population ageing.
2. **Meaningful participation and community engagement:** friendship networks; the political aspirations and participation of youth; attitudes and practice of volunteering among youth; social capital.
3. **Youth and religion:** religious participation and identity; youth in informal Islamic boarding schools (pesantren salaf)
4. **Risky behaviours:** youth and violence, including inter-school conflicts; engagement in crime; prevalence and knowledge of sexually transmitted infections, including HIV/AIDS; prevalence and attitudes to smoking and drug use; reducing the number of accident-related injuries and deaths, and suicides among youth.
5. **Social inclusion:** data and analysis on vulnerable youth, including youth with disabilities, those neither studying or working, and other marginalised groups.
6. **Youth and migration:** brain drain/brain gain/brain circulation of skilled youth who migrate overseas; youth as migrant workers; implications of rural to urban migration on rural areas and the agricultural sector.

7. **Youth and the environment:** youth, climate change, and sustainability.
8. **Youth and technology:** youth and online social capital; youth and the digital economy ('digipreneurship').
9. **Young people and healthy life styles:** exercise, diet and food habits.
10. **Access of young people to adequate housing:** affordability; crowding, sanitation

# Glossary

**Adolescent fertility** rate the number of births per 1,000 women aged 15-19 years.

**Age-Structure** the composition of a population as determined by the number or proportion of persons in each age category. The age structure of a population is the cumulative result of past trends in fertility, mortality, and migration. Information on age composition is essential for the description and analysis of many other types of demographic data.

**Cohort** a group of people sharing a common temporal demographic experience who are observed through time. For example, the birth cohort of 1900 is the people born in that year. There are also marriage cohorts, school class cohorts, and so forth.

**Demographic Transition** the historical shift of birth and death rates from high to low levels in a population. The decline of mortality usually precedes the decline in fertility, thus resulting in rapid population growth during the transition period.

**Dependency Ratio** the ratio of the economically dependent part of the population to the productive part; defined as the ratio of children (those aged 0-14 years) and the elderly (those aged 65 years and over) to the working age population (those aged 15-64 years).

**Educational attainment** the educational level completed by a person, verified with the receipt of a diploma or a letter of completion/certificate.

**Education participation rate** the percentage of persons within a population group that are attending an educational institution to obtain a formal educational qualification.

**Employment status** is the status of a person at the place where he/she works. Categories include:

1. **Own-account worker**, is a person who works at her/his own risk without being assisted by a paid or unpaid worker
2. **Employer assisted by temporary workers/unpaid worker**, a person who works at her/his own risk and is assisted by temporary worker/unpaid worker.
3. **Employer assisted by permanent workers/paid workers**, is a person who does his/her business at her/his own risk and is assisted by at least one paid permanent worker.
4. **Employee** is a person who work permanently for other people or institution/office/company and gains some money/cash or goods as a wage/salary.
5. **Casual employee**, is a person who does not work permanently for other people/employer/institution and receives money or goods as a wage/salary either based on a daily or contract payment system.
6. **Family/Unpaid worker**, is a person who works for other people without pay in cash or goods. These unpaid workers could be:
  - Family members who work for another person in their family, e.g. a wife or child who helps their husband or father work in the fields and is unpaid.
  - A non-family member who works for another person but still has family relations, such as those who help their family relatives to sell goods in a minimarket and are unpaid.

- Other persons, who are not family members or family relatives but work for another person, such as a person who weaves hats for their neighbor's home industry business, and is unpaid.

**Formal sector workers** refers to employed persons whose 'employment status' (defined above) is either an Employee, or an Employer assisted by permanent workers/paid workers.

**Housekeepers** persons who were engaged in household duties in their own home, or persons who helped in managing household chores without payment, e.g. housewives and their children who are doing household work. However, an activity undertaken by a servant is considered as "work".

**Industry** refers to the activity of the place of work/company/office in which a person is employed, classified according to the Indonesian Standard Industrial Classification (KBLI) 2009.

**Informal sector workers** refers to employed persons whose 'employment status' (defined above) is one of the following: an own-account worker; an employer assisted by temporary workers/unpaid worker; a casual employee, or a family/unpaid worker.

**Labour force** persons of 15 years old and over who, in the previous week, were working, temporarily absent from work but had a job, or defined as being unemployed.

**Labour force participation rate** the proportion of the population aged 15 and older that is economically active: all people who supply labour for the production of goods and services during a specified period.

**Life Expectancy** the average number of additional years a person could expect to live if current mortality trends were to continue for the rest of that person's life. Most commonly cited as life expectancy at birth.

**Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)** the United Nations Millennium Development Goals are eight goals that all 191 UN member states have agreed to try to achieve by the year 2015. The United Nations Millennium Declaration, signed in September 2000, commits world leaders to combat poverty, hunger, disease, illiteracy, environmental degradation, and discrimination against women. The MDGs are derived from this declaration, and all have specific targets and indicators.

**Mobility** the geographic movement of people.

**Net enrolment ratios** (in primary education) the number of children of official primary school age who are enrolled in primary education as a percentage of the total children of the official school age population. This indicator is expressed as a percentage. For NER in other levels of education (junior secondary, senior secondary) adjust the numerator (number enrolled in specific school level) and denominator (number of children in the official school age population for that level of schooling). The Net Enrolment Ratio is considered to be a measure of the education coverage in a specific level of a country's education system.

**Net Migration** the net effect of immigration and emigration on an area's population in a given time period, expressed as an increase or decrease.

**Not in labour force** persons aged 15 years and over, who are neither employed or unemployed. Those not in the labour force typically include students, housekeepers, and those who are either unable or do not have a need to work.

**Part-time employment** employed persons who worked less than 35 hours a week.

**Population Projection** computation of future changes in population numbers, given certain assumptions about future trends in the rates of fertility, mortality and migration.

**Reproductive Health** reproductive health is a state of complete physical, mental, and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity, in all matters relating to the reproductive system and to its functions and processes.

**Sector of employment** refers to whether the worker is employed in either of two sectors namely the 'formal sector' or the 'informal sector'. Workers are deemed to be formal sector workers on the basis of their employment status (see also 'employment status' 'formal sector workers' and 'informal sector workers' described above).

**Singulate mean age at marriage** the singulate mean age at marriage (SMAM) is the average length of single life expressed in years among those who marry before age 50.

**Teenage mothers** females aged 15-19 who already have children. However, when measured in the Indonesian Demographic and Health Survey it also includes females aged 15-19 who are currently pregnant.

**Tertiary education** refers to the education associated with the attainment of post-secondary schooling qualifications, including Diplomas I to III, Diploma IV (Bachelor/undergraduate degree), and post-graduate qualifications (Masters and PhD).

**Total Fertility Rate (TFR)** the average number of children that would be born alive to a woman (or group of women) during her lifetime if she were to pass through her childbearing years conforming to the age-specific fertility rates of a given year. This rate is sometimes stated as the number of children women are having today.

**Unemployment** unemployment refers to the share of the labour force that is without work but available for and seeking employment.

**Unemployed persons** includes persons who are: without work but looking for work; without work but who have established a new business/firm; without work but who are not looking for work because they do not expect to find work; and those who are without work but have made arrangements to start work on a date subsequent to the reference period (future starts).

**Unemployment rate** unemployed persons as a percentage of the labour force.

**University degree** includes Diploma IV (Bachelor/ undergraduate degree), and post-graduate qualifications (Masters and PhD) or S1 to S3 awards.

**Young Population** A population with a relatively high proportion of children, adolescents and young adults, a low median age; and thus a high growth potential.

**Work** an activity done by a person who worked for pay or assisted others in obtaining pay or profit for the duration at least one hour during the survey week. Includes unpaid workers who help out with an economic activity/business.

**Working age** population unless otherwise specified persons aged 15 years and over.

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**Appendix Tables:**

# YOUTH IN THE PROVINCES

This appendix provides a set of summary statistics that indicate differences in the numbers and characteristics of youth in each of Indonesia's provinces. The chosen statistics are a subset of many indicators used throughout the monograph but as summarised below reflect key areas of concern covered in the preceding chapters.

Area of concern/indicator	Table number
<b>Number and distribution</b>	
Numbers of youth by sex and sex ratios	1
Numbers and per cent of youth by urban/rural place of residence	2
Youth recent net migration	3
Projected youth population 2015 to 2035	4
<b>Education</b>	
Percentage of youth aged 15-29 who did not complete primary school	5
Percentage of 16-18 years olds still attending school	5
Per cent of 19-24 year olds who had completed senior high school	5
<b>Labour Force Activity</b>	
Labour force participation rate by sex	6
Unemployment rate by sex	6
Sector of employment (formal and informal)	6
<b>Family formation</b>	
Females aged 15-19 currently married	5
Youth fertility rate (including adolescent fertility rate)	7
Total fertility rate	7

APPENDIX TABLE 1:

## Youth population by sex by province, Indonesia, 2010

Province	Numbers of youth aged 15-29 years			Sex ratio
	Males	Females	Total	Males per 100 females
	('000s)	('000s)	('000s)	%
Aceh	644.2	654.4	1,298.6	98.4
North Sumatra	1,741.5	1,738.3	3,479.8	100.2
West Sumatra	597.1	607.8	1,205.0	98.2
Riau	792.8	780.3	1,573.1	101.6
Jambi	433.1	429.3	862.4	100.9
South Sumatra	1,071.8	1,034.5	2,106.3	103.6
Bengkulu	240.8	236.7	477.5	101.7
Lampung	1,038.6	983.8	2,022.3	105.6
Bangka Belitung	182.6	167.6	350.3	108.9
Riau Islands	254.5	271.0	525.5	93.9
DKI Jakarta	1,476.0	1,495.1	2,971.0	98.7
West Java	5,780.8	5,611.8	11,392.6	103.0
Central Java	3,819.4	3,827.5	7,646.9	99.8
DI Yogyakarta	436.6	423.6	860.2	103.1
East Java	4,419.8	4,491.4	8,911.2	98.4
Banten	1,576.3	1,548.7	3,125.0	101.8
Bali	455.0	445.2	900.2	102.2
West Nusa Tenggara	572.2	647.2	1,219.4	88.4
East Nusa Tenggara	552.9	569.7	1,122.6	97.0
West Kalimantan	605.0	598.5	1,203.6	101.1
Central Kalimantan	323.9	309.9	633.8	104.5
South Kalimantan	500.3	493.6	994.0	101.4
East Kalimantan	518.3	479.4	997.7	108.1
North Sulawesi	276.5	258.8	535.2	106.8
Central Sulawesi	345.0	336.6	681.5	102.5
South Sulawesi	1,016.2	1,064.3	2,080.5	95.5
Southeast Sulawesi	300.7	308.4	609.1	97.5
Gorontalo	134.6	135.2	269.9	99.5
West Sulawesi	147.1	151.1	298.2	97.4
Maluku	202.6	199.9	402.5	101.3
North Maluku	143.2	140.6	283.8	101.9
West Papua	121.0	109.2	230.2	110.9
Papua	413.1	400.0	813.1	103.3
Indonesia	31,133.3	30,949.5	62,082.8	100.6

Source: Derived from Population Census 2010, BPS [web] <http://sp10.bps.go.id>

APPENDIX TABLE 2:

**Youth in rural and urban areas and percent of total population in urban areas by province, Indonesia, 2010**

Province	Youth aged 15-29 years			Total population
	Number in rural areas	Number in urban areas	Percent in urban areas	Percent in urban areas
	('000s)	('000s)	%	%
Aceh	390.1	908.6	30.0	28.1
North Sumatra	1,835.4	1,644.5	52.7	49.2
West Sumatra	525.6	679.4	43.6	38.7
Riau	646.1	927.1	41.1	39.2
Jambi	274.7	587.8	31.8	30.7
South Sumatra	788.2	1,318.1	37.4	35.8
Bengkulu	160.9	316.7	33.7	31.0
Lampung	562.7	1,459.8	27.8	25.7
Bangka Belitung	167.8	182.5	47.9	49.2
Riau Islands	450.7	74.9	85.7	82.8
DKI Jakarta	2,971.1	-	100.0	100.0
West Java	7,847.1	3,545.6	68.9	65.7
Central Java	3,774.6	3,872.5	49.4	45.7
DI Yogyakarta	640.7	219.6	74.5	66.4
East Java	4,516.6	4,394.7	50.7	47.6
Banten	2,154.8	970.2	69.0	67.0
Bali	591.9	308.4	65.7	60.2
West Nusa Tenggara	543.0	676.5	44.5	41.7
East Nusa Tenggara	300.1	822.6	26.7	19.3
West Kalimantan	385.2	818.5	32.0	30.2
Central Kalimantan	218.5	415.4	34.5	33.5
South Kalimantan	433.8	560.3	43.6	42.1
East Kalimantan	635.5	362.3	63.7	62.1
North Sulawesi	269.8	265.5	50.4	45.2
Central Sulawesi	196.6	485.0	28.8	24.3
South Sulawesi	878.4	1,202.2	42.2	36.7
Southeast Sulawesi	196.9	412.3	32.3	27.4
Gorontalo	97.2	172.8	36.0	34.0
West Sulawesi	77.8	220.4	26.1	22.9
Maluku	177.4	225.2	44.1	37.1
North Maluku	91.1	192.8	32.1	27.1
West Papua	72.8	157.5	31.6	30.0
Papua	234.8	578.4	28.9	26.0
Indonesia	33,108.1	28,978.2	53.3	49.8

Source: Derived from Population Census 2010, BPS [web] <http://sp10.bps.go.id>

APPENDIX TABLE 3:

**Net recent migration gains and losses<sup>(a)</sup> of male and female youth aged 15-29 years by province: Indonesia, 2010**

Province	Net recent migration gains/losses		
	Males	Females	Total
<b>Provinces with net losses</b>			
Central Java	-255,466	-245,054	-500,520
East Java	-101,530	-72,434	-173,964
North Sumatera	-79,067	-80,469	-159,536
Lampung	-22,679	-32,812	-55,491
South Sulawesi	-24,161	-18,925	-43,086
West Sumatera	-16,198	-17,988	-34,186
East Nusa Tenggara	-14,297	-10,895	-25,192
South Sumatera	-7,466	-15,298	-22,764
West Nusa Tenggara	-2,545	-2,528	-5,073
West Kalimantan	-335	-3,427	-3,762
Maluku	-1,456	-2,125	-3,581
<b>Provinces with net gains</b>			
North Sulawesi	2,106	-520 1,586	
North Maluku	1,875	995	2,870
Southeast Sulawesi	2,596	1,751	4,347
Gorontalo	2,046	2,367	4,413
West Sulawesi	2,999	2,704	5,703
Aceh	2,946	3,756	6,702
Bengkulu	4,228	3,307	7,535
Central Sulawesi	5,355	2,454	7,809
West Papua	11,488	7,896	19,384
Papua	11,755	8,206	19,961
Bangka Belitung Islands	12,794	8,194	20,988
Jambi	13,324	10,239	23,563
South Kalimantan	15,870	9,137	25,007
Central Kalimantan	23,961	13,839	37,800
Bali	21,886	19,426	41,312
East Kalimantan	45,812	32,239	78,051
Riau	47,924	44,097	92,021
DI Yogyakarta	49,689	46,744	96,433
Riau Islands	58,263	63,583	121,846
Banten	70,485	66,510	136,995
DKI Jakarta	60,306	78,879	139,185
Java West	80,946	107,471	188,417

Notes: a) Refers to migrants who lived in another province five years before the census. Excludes persons who did not state their place of residence five years earlier and persons who lived overseas five years earlier.

Source: Population Census 2010 [Data file].

APPENDIX TABLE 4:

## Youth population projections, by province, Indonesia, 2015-2035

Province	Year				
	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
	Population ('000s)				
Aceh	1,376.8	1,405.6	1,477.2	1,585.5	1,672.8
North Sumatra	3,628.2	3,735.2	3,906.8	4,062.1	4,101.7
West Sumatra	1,313.2	1,356.3	1,426.3	1,481.0	1,507.4
Riau	1,729.3	1,835.3	1,939.6	2,107.2	2,254.7
Jambi	904.4	930.4	952.9	973.4	973.3
South Sumatra	2,124.7	2,116.4	2,158.5	2,241.9	2,276.9
Bengkulu	498.7	507.4	521.2	536.2	546.3
Lampung	2,047.2	2,035.3	2,074.5	2,138.1	2,147.6
Bangka Belitung	363.9	377.1	391.4	413.0	433.1
Riau Islands	480.8	497.9	596.8	725.4	775.5
DKI Jakarta	2,640.2	2,356.5	2,274.8	2,449.6	2,568.2
West Java	12,013.4	12,301.8	12,505.6	12,720.6	12,868.7
Central Java	7,834.6	8,075.8	8,205.1	8,131.8	7,943.9
DI Yogyakarta	882.9	880.9	876.1	913.8	947.3
East Java	8,934.9	9,018.6	9,019.6	8,805.7	8,521.8
Banten	3,230.2	3,269.1	3,395.1	3,617.4	3,820.9
Bali	968.1	1,012.0	1,050.3	1,071.4	1,049.6
West Nusatenggara	1,255.3	1,291.5	1,343.9	1,389.0	1,412.7
East Nusatenggara	1,308.6	1,471.0	1,604.0	1,676.6	1,740.6
West Kalimantan	1,277.3	1,296.1	1,325.2	1,375.0	1,408.0
Central Kalimantan	671.7	697.6	723.2	756.5	784.0
South Kalimantan	1,006.0	1,034.5	1,094.8	1,173.7	1,216.6
East Kalimantan	1,074.7	1,129.6	1,196.9	1,282.1	1,347.9
North Sulawesi	591.8	602.4	608.8	616.7	612.0
Central Sulawesi	740.1	766.3	790.3	823.7	858.1
South Sulawesi	2,228.2	2,294.0	2,320.7	2,315.0	2,316.4
Southeast Sulawesi	658.6	710.0	782.1	833.6	878.3
Gorontalo	307.7	320.4	322.9	325.3	333.7
West Sulawesi	343.2	367.4	388.3	405.3	429.5
Maluku	457.8	485.5	509.9	535.8	562.9
North Maluku	305.5	330.0	361.6	386.9	403.6
West Papua	245.2	258.0	273.8	293.4	310.8
Papua	910.5	943.7	958.1	967.2	979.8
Indonesia	64,353.7	65,709.6	67,376.3	69,129.9	70,004.6

Source: Indonesia Population Projection 2010-2035: (Katalog BPS, 2101018) also available in softcopy format.

APPENDIX TABLE 5:

## Selected education and family formation related indicators by province: Indonesia, 2010

Province	Education Indicators			Family Formation Indicator
	Percent of 15-29 year olds who did not complete primary school	Percent of 16-18 year olds currently attending school	Percent of 19-24 year olds who had completed senior high school	Percent of 15-19 year old females who were currently married
	%	%	%	%
Aceh	3.3	68.7	61.1	6.1
North Sumatra	4.4	58.8	58.8	17.3
West Sumatra	6.4	66.4	56.5	5.9
Riau	4.5	58.0	50.5	10.3
Jambi	5.6	51.7	45.4	16.3
South Sumatra	6.0	49.5	44.1	14.0
Bengkulu	5.5	56.6	50.6	13.0
Lampung	3.6	48.4	40.7	11.8
Bangka Belitung	10.7	42.2	38.9	18.2
Riau Islands	4.4	54.4	68.9	7.3
DKI Jakarta	1.5	50.2	67.8	16.8
West Java	3.1	44.5	43.9	12.8
Central Java	2.9	50.0	43.0	13.1
DI Yogyakarta	1.7	70.3	77.2	6.0
East Java	3.9	53.9	47.4	15.0
Banten	3.6	46.5	46.5	22.2
Bali	3.7	66.4	61.2	10.3
West Nusa Tenggara	9.0	57.9	46.8	14.4
East Nusa Tenggara	13.9	58.4	36.4	7.1
West Kalimantan	12.1	48.8	35.7	15.4
Central Kalimantan	6.4	48.6	37.4	21.9
South Kalimantan	7.2	46.8	39.9	21.1
East Kalimantan	4.7	57.8	56.7	14.8
North Sulawesi	6.3	50.3	57.7	13.0
Central Sulawesi	8.1	49.2	43.5	16.2
South Sulawesi	8.3	54.7	49.8	12.6
Southeast Sulawesi	8.2	58.6	51.1	14.5
Gorontalo	20.6	50.6	39.7	15.2
West Sulawesi	14.2	52.9	36.2	14.3
Maluku	5.5	63.9	61.8	7.8
North Maluku	7.2	62.0	52.0	11.8

Province	Education Indicators			Family Formation Indicator
	Percent of 15-29 year olds who did not complete primary school	Percent of 16-18 year olds currently attending school	Percent of 19-24 year olds who had completed senior high school	Percent of 15-19 year old females who were currently married
West Papua	10.8	61.9	50.9	13.9
Papua	36.5	44.9	33.9	14.1
Indonesia	5.1	52.8	48.4	13.9

Source: Derived from Population Census 2010, BPS [web] <http://sp10.bps.go.id>

APPENDIX TABLE 6:

## Youth aged 15-29, labour force status related indicators by province: Indonesia, August 2012

Province	Labour Force Participation Rate <sup>(a)</sup>			Unemployment rate <sup>(b)</sup>			Sector of employment <sup>(c)</sup>	
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Formal	Informal
Aceh	62.2	35.6	48.8	19.2	27.9	22.4	48.2	51.8
North Sumatra	77.3	46.9	62.1	11.5	18.2	14.0	45.2	54.8
West Sumatra	65.0	39.0	52.0	16.2	20.4	17.8	44.2	55.8
Riau	68.8	35.4	52.3	7.4	16.0	10.2	57.4	42.6
Jambi	69.6	35.9	52.8	7.3	10.5	8.3	49.1	50.9
South Sumatra	75.9	42.7	59.8	11.4	14.8	12.6	43.5	56.5
Bengkulu	69.6	43.9	57.0	7.4	12.4	9.3	40.8	59.2
Lampung	71.8	37.0	54.9	8.9	17.7	11.8	34.6	65.4
Bangka Belitung	78.1	39.3	59.5	5.3	13.2	7.8	61.6	38.4
Riau Islands	73.9	41.5	57.4	11.1	10.9	11.1	82.6	17.4
Jakarta	71.3	62.5	66.9	17.1	12.8	15.1	85.7	14.3
West Java	69.8	43.4	56.8	21.8	19.6	20.9	60.7	39.3
Central Java	74.0	46.3	60.1	13.7	14.9	14.2	48.5	51.5
Yogyakarta	61.4	48.1	54.8	12.8	10.0	11.6	61.7	38.3
East Java	69.6	46.4	57.9	11.5	11.6	11.5	46.2	53.8
Banten	73.0	44.7	59.3	19.8	16.9	18.7	71.2	28.8
Bali	68.9	61.7	65.3	5.6	4.0	4.8	62.2	37.8
West Nusa Tenggara	65.1	43.1	53.4	12.8	12.2	12.5	29.8	70.2
East Nusa Tenggara	65.9	47.9	56.7	6.7	8.2	7.3	21.9	78.1
West Kalimantan	74.6	47.7	61.3	7.7	10.0	8.6	38.8	61.2
Central Kalimantan	75.1	40.4	58.1	6.5	10.6	7.9	46.4	53.6
South Kalimantan	77.5	47.7	62.5	9.7	12.0	10.6	43.4	56.6
East Kalimantan	77.3	36.2	57.7	21.1	19.3	20.6	67.0	33.0
North Sulawesi	64.5	31.7	48.5	16.1	24.8	18.9	52.8	47.2
Central Sulawesi	73.3	36.9	55.6	6.6	12.6	8.5	39.1	60.9
South Sulawesi	69.1	38.7	53.6	11.4	15.7	13.0	43.3	56.7
Southeast Sulawesi	68.8	39.5	53.7	6.1	14.2	9.2	37.1	62.9
Gorontalo	68.1	31.9	50.0	6.5	14.4	9.0	43.7	56.3
West Sulawesi	78.3	43.4	60.6	4.6	4.8	4.7	30.9	69.1
Maluku	61.6	35.3	48.6	17.1	22.1	18.9	28.1	71.9
North Maluku	68.1	41.5	54.9	9.3	12.1	10.4	31.6	68.4
West Papua	59.8	42.1	51.2	10.4	14.1	11.9	38.4	61.6
Papua	76.6	62.9	69.8	8.7	6.9	7.9	15.7	84.3
Indonesia	71.1	44.7	58.0	14.0	14.9	14.3	51.2	48.8

Notes: a) Those in the labour force as a percent of the total population. b) Unemployed persons as a percent of all those in the labour force. c) see employed youth whose status of employment was either as an employee or as employer assisted by on-going/permanent worker(s), c) see sector of employment defined in the Glossary: see also Table 5-4.

Source: National Labour Force Survey (SAKERNAS), August 2012 [data file].

APPENDIX TABLE 7:

## Youth, age specific fertility rates and total fertility rates by province: Indonesia, 2010

Province	Population Census	Period	Time Reference	Youth Specific Fertility Rates			TFR <sup>(b)</sup>
				15-19	20-24	25-29	
Aceh	2010	2006-2009	2007	29	125	157	2.8
North Sumatra	2010	2006-2009	2007	30	138	176	3.0
West Sumatra	2010	2006-2009	2007	28	123	166	2.9
Riau	2010	2006-2009	2007	44	136	156	2.8
Jambi	2010	2006-2009	2007	57	126	131	2.5
South Sumatra	2010	2006-2009	2007	51	126	137	2.6
Bengkulu	2010	2006-2009	2007	51	128	136	2.5
Lampung	2010	2006-2009	2007	43	124	128	2.5
Bangka Belitung	2010	2006-2009	2007	65	131	131	2.5
Riau Islands	2010	2006-2009	2007	20	91	144	2.4
DKI Jakarta	2010	2006-2009	2007	17	73	107	1.8
West Java	2010	2006-2009	2007	44	115	128	2.4
Central Java	2010	2006-2009	2007	39	111	122	2.2
DI Yogyakarta	2010	2006-2009	2007	20	90	117	1.9
East Java	2010	2006-2009	2007	41	108	107	2.0
Banten	2010	2006-2009	2007	34	104	124	2.3
Bali	2010	2006-2009	2007	39	117	127	2.1
West Nusa Tenggara	2010	2006-2009	2007	45	124	131	2.6
East Nusa Tenggara	2010	2006-2009	2007	45	161	189	3.8
West Kalimantan	2010	2006-2009	2007	58	130	135	2.6
Central Kalimantan	2010	2006-2009	2007	69	127	123	2.6
South Kalimantan	2010	2006-2009	2007	55	122	119	2.3
East Kalimantan	2010	2006-2009	2007	51	127	138	2.6
North Sulawesi	2010	2006-2009	2007	53	124	124	2.4
Central Sulawesi	2010	2006-2009	2007	66	146	145	2.9
South Sulawesi	2010	2006-2009	2007	43	117	132	2.6
South East Sulawesi	2010	2006-2009	2007	61	150	160	3.2
Gorontalo	2010	2006-2009	2007	62	147	136	2.8
West Sulawesi	2010	2006-2009	2007	67	156	161	3.3
Maluku	2010	2006-2009	2007	45	150	180	3.6
North Maluku	2010	2006-2009	2007	59	147	163	3.3
West Papua	2010	2006-2009	2007	53	137	151	3.2
Papua	2010	2006-2009	2007	56	131	130	2.9
Indonesia	1971	1967-1970	1968	155	286	273	5.6
	1980	1976-1979	1977	116	248	232	4.7

Province	Population Census	Period	Time Reference	Youth Specific Fertility Rates			TFR <sup>(b)</sup>
				15-19	20-24	25-29	
	1990	1986-1989	1987	71	179	171	3.3
	2000	1996-1999	1997	44	114	122	2.3
	2010	2006-2009	2007	41	117	130	2.4

Notes: (a) Age Specific Fertility Rate (ASFR): births per thousand women in the age group; (b) Total Fertility Rate (TFR): implied average number of children per woman over entire reproductive lifetime.

Source: Adapted from Table L3: Angka Kelahiran Menurut Umur Ibu dan Angka Kelahiran Total Menurut provinsi 1971-2010 (Badan Pusat Statistik, 2011: 28-30) Fertilitas Penduduk Indonesia: Hasil Sensus Penduduk, 2010.







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