Gender Equality of Women Workers in Development

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Development plays an important role in reducing gender inequality. This paper examines the role of women workers in development, to achieve a sustainable policy commitment for gender equality in Indonesia. This research uses descriptive qualitative research. The data collection techniques used are survey methods; namely interviews and document analysis. Researchers analysed data in stages, such as data reduction, data presentation, and data conclusion. This study found that the potential of women in development is very strategic. They are involved in heavy and light work in the formal and informal sectors. Women have the same opportunity to work. Women play a major role in development, through productive economic activities such as the service and manufacturing sectors. They aim to support households to survive and facilitate the economy.

Key words: Gender, Women, Development, Equality, Worker.

Introduction

The term gender inequality was first used by Amartya Sen in a classic article in the New York Review of Books, to capture the fact that the proportion of women is lower than would be expected, if young and adult women in developing countries were born and died at the same rate (Esther, 2012). The World Bank states that gender equality is a key development issue that could strengthen a country's ability in developing, and reduce poverty (Probosiwi, 2015). Gender equality is a multidimensional aspect used to improve a country's condition to be better through development. The changes that have occurred in some countries are often associated with economic conditions and development. The assumption is that if the economy of a country is strong, it may be able to support economic development.

The underlying problem of the implementation of development planning in Indonesia in 1970, is that it focused on economic growth that did not involve women. It turned out that the women population were inferior to men, although they outnumbered the men. In line with
this development, based on a normative view, there are no different roles between men and women which are often referred to as 'gender equality', meaning that men and women have equal opportunities for employment. This is guaranteed by the 1945 Constitution Article 27 paragraph 2, "Every citizen has the right to obtain decent works" (the Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia, 1945).

According to the feminist perspective, men employees in, for example, agriculture, industry, and public services jobs, dominate. Women, on the other hand, mainly work in the domestic sector. In the 1980s, socialist feminism ideology was initiated to consider gender in national development. It triggered a stream of gender priority around the world (Harahap, 2014) as part of the Millennium Development Goals. One of the main goals in Indonesia is to increase the number of female workers and job opportunities that can contribute to development. According to Covermen, labour market segmentation theory clearly shows that male and female workers do not compete on the same basis, because they do not have access to a job (Susilastuti Dewi, 1994).

In Indonesia, multiple labour markets and job segregation by gender are entangled with relatively low wages for female workers. The pay gap between male and female workers is more likely caused by the segregation of sex-based jobs, than by the focus of female workers in secondary sector jobs.

Labour market segmentation theory explains that the market and employer are not responsible for discrimination. It is because female workers have different work qualities in comparison with male workers, because of domestic responsibilities. Based on the Central Bureau of Statistics in the National Labour Force Survey, the number of working women is around 45.5 million. Agriculture, forestry, hunting, and fisheries sectors have the most female workers; around 13.7 million people or more than 30 percent of female workers. Following that, there is the wholesale and retail trade sector with 10.4 million female workers. Next is manufacturing with 6.9 million female workers. It is projected that the total population of Indonesia in 2010-2035, based on the population estimation in 2016, will be 259.23 million people, with the population of working age around 189.10 million people.

Concerning the labour issues above, a government contribution to women empowerment is needed, to improve national development in all employment sectors. By empowering women in development, gender equality could be achieved as a prerequisite for succeeding other Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), including reducing poverty, infant mortality, and achieving universal education by considering labour force participation and employment equal distribution (World Bank, 2001). To formulate policies to eliminate gender inequality in human rights, resources and votes are recommended. Policies could change the
in institutional structure to promote gender equality. Employment statistics illustrate that there are still some development issues occurred in Indonesia, especially for the female workforce.

The labour forces is comprised of working age citizens. According to Indonesian labour law No. 13 of 2003, a labourer is every person who can work in producing goods and/ or services, either to meet their own needs or those of society. In the 1970s, the Indonesian Central Bureau of Statistics decided that the minimum working age was 10 years old. Since the National Labour Force Survey has been implemented, the minimum working age has changed to 15 years old as recommended by the International Labour Organisation (ILO, 2012). Concerning the labour market, population behaviour is divided into two groups; the economically active group and the economically inactive group. The labour force is included in the economically active group. These groups consist of residents who apply for a job and successfully obtain it (employed), as well as those who apply but fail to obtain jobs (Law Number 13 of 2003 concerning Manpower).

The number of people in the female labour force in the last two decades in the industrial sector is increasing by around 4.3% per year. According to (Sajogyo, 1990), there might be two reasons for the increase. Firstly, the industrial sectors, (e.g. the cigarette industry, textiles, confection and food, and beverage industry) demand accuracy, diligence, and other traits that are generally associated with women's characteristics. Secondly, it is believed that female workers are more obedient and can be paid less so that they are economically more profitable for employers. Pearson (1984) states employing female workers for certain types of work is a strategy to obtain cheaper labourers. She further states that it is not true that the distribution of labour occurs because women are more suitable for certain jobs.

Unemployment is also part of the labour force that is unemployed but actively looking for a job (Tukiran, 2010). According to (the Central Bureau of Statistics, 2015), open unemployment is part of the workforce whose main activity is actively seeking a job regardless of whether they have a job-seeking card or not. The quantity of open unemployment is a comparison between the number of job seekers (unemployed), divided by the number of the workforce per year (the result is expressed in percentage).

The Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR) provides an overview of the economically active population in daily activities, during the survey period. The greater the number of residents classified as non-workforce, the smaller the number of the workforce, the smaller the LFPR (Mala, 2017). Many factors affected LFPR aside from the total population, such as education, gender, and age. (Mantra, 2009) states that the LFPR is the percentage of the labour force in the working-age population. LFPR evaluates the percentage of residents
actively working or looking for a job. He further explains that in labour force analysis, the measurements often used are the LFPR and the unemployment rate. The labour force participation rate is the percentage of non-institutional civilians aged above 16 years who are working or actively looking for a job (Hipple & Steven, 2016). This is an important measurement. It represents the relative amount of labour resources available for the production of goods and services. Although subject to several cycle effects, labour force participation is mainly influenced by long-term structural changes. These include changes in the population age, school registration and educational attainment, pensions provided by employers, and social security benefits.

Women in the development approach were primarily introduced by "liberal American feminists" who focused on egalitarianism, especially in terms of participation and economy access. This economic focus has brought women activists to overcome inequality in job opportunities between men and women. Women in development do not demand modernisation. It is responsible for the development and the evolution of women's economic capacity (Smyth, 2007).

Women in development are not dealing with differences and authority, between men and women, but dealing with gender inequality. Inequality is the most important issue to overcome, concerning women and poverty. Women in the development approach motivate women to get involved in development projects. This is women's integration into the global economy, by increasing their status and helping them to self-development (Rathgeber, 1990).

Materials and Methods

Types of Study

This research uses a descriptive qualitative approach, through library research, which involves collecting data or related scientific papers with the object of research or collection of data in the library. It may also be the study carried out to solve a problem that relies on a critical and in-depth study of relevant library materials. This research is supported by secondary data. It adopts appropriate statistical data or ready data obtained from a particular agency or institution, such as the Central Bureau of Statistics, departments, or educational institutions. Research with this qualitative method uses this type of descriptive approach, because it is research that analyses internal problems in research. It is conducted to describe the facts and problems that exist in the research area, then interpreted rationally so that conclusions can be drawn later (Sugiyono, 2011).
Data Collection Techniques

The data collection techniques used are survey methods; namely the interview method, and document analysis. The interview is data collection by way of interviews with respondents, based on research objectives. The document analysis method is that the researcher analyses secondary data research from documents.

Data Analysis

According to (Surakhman, 1990) data analysis carried out by researchers is through stages, as follows:

1. Data Reduction - Data reduction is the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and making transparent, rough data that arises from field notes. From the research location, field data are outlined in a detailed report. Data and field reports are then reduced, summarised, sorted out into main points focused on important matters, themes and patterns (through the process of editing, coding, and labelling). Data reduction is carried out continuously throughout the research. At this stage, after the data is sorted and then simplified, unnecessary data is sorted to make it easy to perform, present, and draw temporary conclusions.

2. Data Presentation - Data presentation is a process of organising data so that it is easily analysed and determined. The presentation of data in this study takes the form of narrative description. It can be interspersed with pictures, schematics, matrices, tables, formulas, and other presentations. This is adjusted to the type of data collected during data collection, both from the results of participant observation, in-depth interviews, and documentation. The presentation of data is intended to make it easier for researchers to see the overall picture or certain parts of the research data. This is organising data into a certain form so that the figure is more intact. The data is then selected and put aside to be grouped and arranged according to similar categories to be displayed, to make it consistent with the problems faced, including conclusions obtained when the data is reduced.

3. Data Conclusions / Verification - Data verification is the third step of analysis. Conclusions that were initially very tentative, vague, and doubtful, become more grounded as the data increases. This activity is a process of checking and verifying the data collected, so that the conclusions are obtained under the focus of the study.
Results and Discussion

Female Workers by Business Field

According to the National Labour Force Survey 2010, there is a difference in the ratio of the number of men and women in the agriculture, manufacturing, and services sector. This is shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Business Fields of Men and Women in Indonesia in 2019

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Business field</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage (%)</td>
<td>Amount</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>39.45</td>
<td>26.349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacture</td>
<td>26.78</td>
<td>17.885</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td>33.77</td>
<td>22.552</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>66.786</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 1 clearly shows that the percentage of male workers in the agriculture sector is 39.45% while women are 42.34%. The percentage of male workers in manufacturing is 26.78% while female workers are only 13.70%. Then, the percentage of men working in the service sector is 33.77%, while for women it is 43.96%. The figure shows that the number of male workers in Indonesia working in the agriculture and manufacturing sectors exceeds the female number. This is due to gender inequality, which is unable to encourage women's participation in the informal work sectors.

Furthermore, there are still gaps in the labour workforce related to productivity, work quality, gender, and disparities between provinces. In line with the research conducted by the International Labour Organisation (ILO, 2016) many workers are working with low productivity. It can be seen from the huge proportion of workers who do vulnerable work (30.6 percent). If the number is added to the number of non-permanent and casual workers, the number of vulnerable jobs increases to 57.6 percent. This percentage is higher among female workers (61.8 percent).

In comparison with conditions in 1996, the number of workers and job seekers who have a higher educational background is relatively large. But proportionately it remains low. Moreover, the number of women in the workforce is still fairly small. There is no significant change in women's participation in the labour market since 1996 (around 50.6 percent), in comparison with the figure in 2016 (around 50.8 percent) (ILO, 2016).
Despite the decline, the youth unemployment rate is still very high (19.4 percent). Also, the number of young people who do not work or attend training is worrying, although the proportion of those attending training in Indonesia is the highest in Asia (23.2 percent).

In the context of local culture in Indonesia, there are still female subordination in the public sector. This can be seen from the number of female workers working in the service sector exceeding that of male workers. It is because women are expected to be able to put themselves into a workplace that does not have any physical risks. Besides, culture also does not allow a woman to work in the public sector.

In line with research by Nofianti (Nofianti, 2016) women also face some conflicts, as they have to look after and to take care of their children. Furthermore, society expects working women who have a family and children to be able to socialise. Therefore, meeting all the familial and societal expectations is challenging for working women. Working women who work in the public sector do not have much time to take care of their husbands and children.

Naturally, women have their strategies to overcome such situations. For example, some working women hire maid services for domestic jobs. Another alternative involves extended families such as grandmothers taking care of children.

However, everybody must work professionally including women. Women are expected to comply with all company regulations because, in a company, there is an organisational culture that is an invisible social force and cultural dimension. It illustrates how individuals in the organisation perceive power, and the consequence of the role in decision-makers. A woman will be successful at work if she can handle her household job well. Besides, being religious also determines the success of the woman, both for life in this world and the hereafter.

**Open Unemployment Rate**

Data from analysis of the unemployment rate offers the percentage of people looking for a job in the workforce. The high numbers of people in the workforce causes a high proportion of unemployment in Indonesia, without corresponding to industrialisation. Accordingly (Erna, 2018) found that the workforce variable is significant for the unemployment rate in Indonesia. Industrialisation shows a positive and insignificant effect on the unemployment rate. This means that the industrial sector's ability to reduce unemployment is lower than the agricultural and service sectors. The unemployment rate may be influenced by the proportion of young workers (15-24 years old), and has a positive and significant impact on unemployment in Indonesia (see Table 2 for the level of open unemployment).
Table 2: Open Unemployment Rate of Population over 15 Years Old

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-19</td>
<td></td>
<td>28,9%</td>
<td>28,6%</td>
<td>30,1%</td>
<td>26,5%</td>
<td>26,6%</td>
<td>27,5%</td>
<td>28,5%</td>
<td>26,1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
<td></td>
<td>19,3%</td>
<td>17,8%</td>
<td>15,5%</td>
<td>15,5%</td>
<td>18,6%</td>
<td>17,2%</td>
<td>13,7%</td>
<td>15,1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
<td></td>
<td>11,1%</td>
<td>11,2%</td>
<td>8,4%</td>
<td>7,8%</td>
<td>9,4%</td>
<td>7,8%</td>
<td>6,8%</td>
<td>7,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-34</td>
<td></td>
<td>6,4%</td>
<td>6,9%</td>
<td>5,3%</td>
<td>5,3%</td>
<td>4,9%</td>
<td>3,8%</td>
<td>3,2%</td>
<td>3,5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-39</td>
<td></td>
<td>4,6%</td>
<td>5,1%</td>
<td>4,2%</td>
<td>3,8%</td>
<td>3,6%</td>
<td>2,3%</td>
<td>1,8%</td>
<td>1,9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-44</td>
<td></td>
<td>3,6%</td>
<td>4,0%</td>
<td>3,7%</td>
<td>3,0%</td>
<td>3,1%</td>
<td>1,9%</td>
<td>2,0%</td>
<td>1,9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-49</td>
<td></td>
<td>3,1%</td>
<td>3,5%</td>
<td>2,9%</td>
<td>2,5%</td>
<td>3,0%</td>
<td>1,7%</td>
<td>1,7%</td>
<td>2,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-54</td>
<td></td>
<td>2,3%</td>
<td>3,1%</td>
<td>2,5%</td>
<td>2,7%</td>
<td>2,8%</td>
<td>1,6%</td>
<td>2,3%</td>
<td>2,4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-59</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,9%</td>
<td>3,9%</td>
<td>3,0%</td>
<td>1,2%</td>
<td>2,9%</td>
<td>1,7%</td>
<td>2,5%</td>
<td>1,8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-64</td>
<td></td>
<td>0,8%</td>
<td>5,7%</td>
<td>4,1%</td>
<td>0,5%</td>
<td>0,9%</td>
<td>1,4%</td>
<td>3,2%</td>
<td>0,7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td></td>
<td>8,2%</td>
<td>9,0%</td>
<td>8,0%</td>
<td>6,9%</td>
<td>7,6%</td>
<td>6,7%</td>
<td>6,6%</td>
<td>6,2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 2 above shows an upward trend in 2016-2019 of female open unemployment in Indonesia. It reflects some economic issues that increase unemployment. In 2010, the number of unemployed women was higher than men (9.0% and 6.7% respectively) which is dominated by the younger age group; 15-24 years old. This finding is in line with research done by (Handayani & Herniwati, 2019) which also finds that open unemployment in Indonesia is dominated by young people (15-24 educated unemployed, female unemployed, and urban unemployed).

Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR)

The labour force participation rate is calculated as the number of labour force workers divided by the total working-age population. LFPR is an indicator of employment analysis in Indonesia. The results of this study indicate that the labour force participation rate fluctuates. It is assumed that the higher the LFPR rate, the better the employment conditions of an area. The LFPR rate in Indonesia is influenced by six factors: population structure, non-workforce groups, school age, income, wages, and education level. Socio-cultural situations also strongly influence the LFPR rate. Therefore, female LFPR data is used as the primary parameter. The LFPR rate in Indonesia can be seen in Table 3 below.
Table 3: LFPR Rate Based on Age Group and Sex in Indonesia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15-19</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-34</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-39</td>
<td>96%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-44</td>
<td>96%</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-49</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-54</td>
<td>94%</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-59</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-64</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65-69</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70-74</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75-79</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80-84</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85-89</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90-94</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95+</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In general, the proportion of women's participation in economic activities is lower than that of men. Women's LFPR is consistently lower than the men's LFPR in each age group. Also, the highest LFPR for the male group is at the ages of 40 to 44 years old, while the similar female rate is at the age of 45 to 49 years old. This means that the peak age for men participating in economic activities is between the ages of 40 to 44 years, while for women it is between 45 to 49 years.

The pattern of male LFPR continues to increase until the age group of 30 to 34 years. It is then fairly stable and declines again, starting in the age group of 55 to 59 years and older. For women, on the other hand, LFPR rose sharply until the age of 20 to 24 years old, then gradually increases until reaching its peak at the age of 45 to 49 years old. It began to decline again at the age of 50 to 54 years and over. In developing countries, the pattern of women labour cycles normally resembles the M curve, following.
Based on Figure 1 this indicates that many women leave their job when getting married and have children. They are more likely to go back to work when their children are getting older. Thus, (Tzannatos, 1989) explains that women comprise half of the human resources in any country. But in most countries, women contribute less than men to the production rate, labour force participation, and achievement and educational skills. Not to empower female workers has a profound effect on welfare and economic growth.

Both economic and non-economic factors are responsible for this. Women's participation in the workforce seems to depend on social comparisons with men. This dependence makes it difficult to observe the relationship between women's behaviour in the labour market, and economic variables such as wages and income. This finding is in line with research conducted by (Baharom & Kanapathy, 2013) They find a long-term relationship between unemployment and labour force participation in Sweden and the United States. The relationship is very strong because it uses gender data. It is the same as China's high rate and sustainable economic growth over the past 30 years, which was influenced by fast economic developments and supported by a reduction in labour force participation rates.

**Women Workers in Development**

Generally, in Indonesia, women have three key roles. Firstly, the reproductive role, such as pregnancy, childbirth, breastfeeding, and nurturing children. Secondly, the productive roles in which women do productive work within various professions. Lastly, they perform social roles to help the community. Women should be empowered to have a bargaining position that could expand their social network, increase self-confidence as well as becoming economically independent. Women's role is also crucial, considering that today there is the
so-called borderless world technology, communication, and information that invades family (Baden, 2000).

Women's potential in development is very strategic. They are involved in both heavy and light work in the formal and informal sectors. Many gender issues are related to job opportunities, participation in decision-making, control of resources, and benefits from development. Men and women have equal opportunities for employment. In the era of globalisation, women play a major role in development through productive economic activities such as the service and manufacturing sectors. This aims to support the household to survive and facilitate the economy. Women's involvement could be realised, if all sectors successfully provided opportunities for women to obtain education and accessible career opportunities.

What motivates women to work is generally the need to meet household economic demands or increase family income. Women make a meaningful contribution to household income. This finding is in line with the results of the study by (Pramuningtyas, 2007); it is known that the average contribution of women in rural income is around 48.22%. Even the income contribution of widows can reach 100%, because they have to meet the needs of their own lives and families. This means that women's income cannot be considered merely as additional income but also as the main source of family income. In reality, there is a flow of work by women who work between 6-8 hours per day. So it can be said that the dual role of women in the family and community is so large that, on average, women in rural areas contribute around 48.22% of income. Even for widows, their income contribution is up to 100%. This could probably be due to their need to fulfill their own needs and families. This means that it is not true that women's income is considered additional. Instead it is the main source of family income. As their working hours are around 6 to 8 hours per day, the dual role of women in the family and community is crucial.

Increasing the participation of the female workforce in Indonesia is a revolution in the lives and roles of women. At present, female workers are only under half of the workforce. Yet in the early 1960s, only one in three women worked full-time, compared to 86 percent of men. An additional 16 percent of women work part-time. Half of the women have no paid work at all. But the revolution has begun. Women move from working at home to working in offices or factories, slowly at first, and then faster. Women's full-time and part-time jobs are increasing. The shift from homework to part-time paid work is pretty much stopped, so that almost all the growth incomes from the rapid increase in women's full-time employment. Many countries have seen a similar expansion of women's work, with a very high proportion of women in the workforce in a number of developing countries, such as China, Vietnam, and Bangladesh. Islamic countries generally have low to moderate levels of female employment (20-50 percent). Compared to developed countries and Asian countries, the level is moderate
to high (50–80 percent) (United Nations, 2000). In Europe, Nordic countries show a fairly high level of economic activity among women (60-65 percent), and Southern European countries a fairly low level (30-40 percent). Married women - especially married mothers - are shocking forces in the revolution in women's work, dramatically changing their time allocation to work for wages and working at home. The work of single women without children has changed little in the past 30 or 40 years. Changes in women's work are driven by choices made by married women. That is because more women are married than not, and because the choices for married women's jobs change far more than the choices for unmarried women's work. Both married mothers and married women without children are far more likely to work to get paid and work full-time.

In the context of development, gender mainstreaming, and women's empowerment relates closely to improving the quality of the nation's next generation. Remember, women are the first educators in the family. Based on the predictions of the Central Bureau of Statistics in 2015, Indonesia's population in 2018 reached no less than 264.2 million people, of which 50.2% were men while 131.5 million people or 49.8% were women. Meanwhile, Indonesia's Gender Development Index (IPG) is known to have increased from 90.82 in 2016 to 90.99 in 2018. The IPG, which is close to 100, clearly indicates that the development gap is smaller between men and women. Meanwhile, Indonesia's Gender Empowerment Index (IDG) rose from 71.39 in 2016 to 71.74 in 2017. IDG is an indicator of whether women can play an active role in economic and political life. One thing that needs to be underlined, is that women’s level of education on average is higher than that of men. However, female labour force participation rates (TPAK) are, on the contrary, lower than men's labour force TPAK, which is only 55%.

According to the 2018 National Labour Force Survey released by the Central Bureau of Statistics, the proportion of men in the formal work sector is almost double that of women. Sadly, in the last 10 years, the proportion trend tends to be stagnant and even working women are still very vulnerable to exposure to economic shocks. Still, from the statistical data, about 26% of female workers are domestic sector workers. Also, most of the female workers are workers with medium to low skills whose proportion reaches 89%, or around 43.8 million people.

**Conclusions**

What motivates women to work is generally the need to meet household economic demands or increase family income. The potential of women in development is very strategic. They are involved in heavy and light work in the formal and informal sectors. Many gender issues are related to employment opportunities, participation in decision-making, controlling resources, and the benefits of development. Men and women have the same opportunity to work. In the
era of globalisation, women play a major role in development, through productive economic activities such as the service and manufacturing sectors. It aims to support households to survive and facilitate the economy. Women's involvement can be realised if all sectors succeed in providing opportunities for women to obtain education and accessible career opportunities.

The percentage of male workers in manufacturing is 26.78%, and 13.70% for female workers. The proportion of men in the service sector is 33.77%, and 43.96% of female workers. This figure shows that the number of male workers in Indonesia who work in the agriculture and manufacturing sectors exceeds that of female workers. The level of openly unemployed women in Indonesia increased from 2016 to 2019; the proportion of female unemployment (9.0%) was higher than that of men (6.7%). This was dominated by the younger age group, of 15 to 24 years old. The reason behind the increase may be due to economic issues in Indonesia. Women's LFPR was always lower than men's LFPR in every age group.

The highest LFPR value for both males and females is between the age of 40 to 44 and 45 to 49 respectively. This pattern also indicates the peak age for both genders to participate in the labour force. The pattern of women's labour cycle that resembles the M curve indicates that many women leave the labour market when they get married and nurture children. They normally go back to work when their children are getting older. Women play an important role in national development through productive economic activities, including in-service sectors and manufacturing to support the family income.
REFERENCES


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