

**National Assessment on
Gender Equality and the Knowledge Society
Indonesia**

Final Report

Wati Hermawati

Rina Saari

Centre for Science and Technology Development Studies

Indonesian Institute of Sciences

Jakarta, 31 January 2011

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
I Introduction	8
1.1 General Information About Indonesia	8
1.2 General Information about Women and Gender in Indonesia	10
1.3 Approach of the Study	12
1.4 Report Organization	13
II Knowledge Society Inputs and Outputs	14
A Health Status	14
A.1 Female Healthy Life Expectancy	14
A.2 Prevalence of rates of Malaria	15
A.3 Prevalence of rates of Tuberculosis	16
A.2 Prevalence of rates of HIV/AIDS	17
A.3 Physical Integrity (FGM)	19
B Social Status	21
B.1 Equity/Discrimination in Social Institutions	21
B.2 Sex Ratio at Birth	25
B.3 Prevalence of Violence Against Women	26
B.4 Time use/Work Load	28
C Economic Status	32
C.1 Women as Percentage of Economically Active Population	32
C.2 Earned Income Ration	34
C.3 Female by Category of Workers	35
C.4 Shares of Women in Poorest Quintile	39
D Access to Resources	39
D.1 Ownership Right to Land, Houses and other Property	39
D.2 Women's Access to Credit, Loans, Venture Capitals	41
D.3 Percent of Women Using Internet and Cell Phones	42
D.4 Use by Women of Railroads and other Transportation Infrastructure	43
D.5 Access of Women to Electricity, including Penetration and Reliability in Rural Areas	45
E Women's Agency	46
E.1 Shares of Women in Lower Houses of Parliaments	46
E.2 Shares of Women Ministries and Sub Ministries	48
E.3 Women in Senior Position in Political Parties, Trade Unions, Employers Association, Professional Organizations, NGOs and Community based Associations	50
E.4 Contraceptive Use	52
F Opportunity and capability	53
F.1 Men's/Women's Adult Literacy Rates	53
F.2 Net primary, Secondary and Tertiary Enrolments, M/W	55
F.3 Availability of On-the-job, Staff, Specialized Training for Women and Men	58

G	Enabling Policy Environment	59
	G.1 Knowledge Society Policy Environment	59
	G.2 Gender Specific Policies	59
	G.3 CEDAW Specific Policies	60
	G.4 Gender Budgets	61
	G.5 Institutionalization of Science and Engineering	62
H	Women in Knowledge Society Decision-Making	63
	H.1 Shares of Women as Legislators, Senior Officials and Managers	63
	H.2 Share of Businesses with 35 per cent or more Women in Decision-making Positions	63
	H.3 Share of Women as Decision Making at Research Institutionsn and Academy of Science	65
I	Women in Knowledge Economy	66
	I.1 Shares of Women in Professional and Technical Positions	66
	I.2 Shares of Women in Administrative and Managerial Positions	66
	I.3 Employment by Economic Activity (Occupation and Status) in Agriculture, Industry and Service in KS Areas	66
	I.4 Women with High-Level Computer Skills	69
	I.5 Shares of Women Along Information Technology Workers	70
J	Women in S&T and Innovation System	70
	J.1 Shares of Women Studying Science and Engineering at Tertiary Level	70
	J.2 Shares of Women Scientists And Engineers	72
	J.3 Shares of Women Researchers	72
	J.4 Comparative Rates and Trends of Publication, M/W	75
	J.5 Gender Trends in Brain Drain in Highly Skilled Fields	75
	J.6 Number of Women-run Enterprises in Sector Value Chain	76
	J.7 Women's Early Stage Entrepreneurial Activity	76
K	Women and Lifelong Learning	77
	K.1 Women as Users of (Village) Knowledge Centres	77
	K.2 Women as Managers of (Village) knowledge Centres	77

LIST OF TABLES

		Page
Table 1	Development of Indonesian Population by sex: 1971-2010	9
Table 2	Human Development Index Indonesia, 2000-2011	11
Table 3	Comparative Rank of HDI among ASEAN Countries, 2000-2005 and 2010 -2011	12
Table 4	Trend of Indonesian Life Expectancy at Birth for Female and Male	14
Table 5	Comparison of Healthy Life Expectancy for Females and Males among ASEAN Countries, 2007	15
Table 6	Malaria Inpatient by Sex, 2004-2009	15
Table 7	Outpatient Malaria by Sex, 2004-2008	16
Table 8	Tuberculosis cases by Sex, 2001- 2008	16
Table 9	Number of HIV Cases by Sex, 2008 – 2011	17
Table 10	Number of AIDS Cases by Sex, 2000-2011	17
Table 11	AIDS and AIDS/IDU Cases by Sex 2001 - 2011	18
Table 12.	Sex Ratio at Birth, Indonesia	26
Table 13.	Violence against Women (Number of Victims), 2001-2011	27
Table 14.	Employment by Employment Status, Work Week (distribution of hours usually worked) and Gender, Indonesia, 2003	29
Tabel 15.	Number of Employees by Work Time and Sex, 2008-2010	29
Table 16.	Average Work Week (Hours Usually Worked Employees) by Industry and Gender, Indonesia 2000 and 2008	30
Table 17.	The Average Time Spent Per Day of the Beneficiaries of IPTEKDA Program (24 Households) 2004	31
Table 18.	Gender Division of Labour in Domestic Work “Iptekda LIPI Program”, 1998-2004	32
Table 19.	Women as % of Economically Active Population, 2002-2011	32
Table 20.	Population 15 Years of Age and Over Who are in the Labor Force by Educational Attainment and Sex, 2001-2010	33
Table 21.	Earned Income Ratio, 2003 - 2007	34
Table 22.	Comparison Estimated Earned Income for Females and Males among Several Countries in Asia in 2003	34
Table 23.	Gender Gap in Average Monthly Wage (in Rupiah)	35
Table 24.	Females by Category of Workers 2001-2011	36
Table 25.	Shares of Women in Poorest Quintile, 2000-2008	39
Table 26.	Registration of Land Title by Marital Status and Type of Land (Java) 2002	40
Table 27.	Development of Internet Subscribers and Users in Indonesia	43
Table 28.	Households with Access to Telephone/Cell Phone by Sex of Head of Household 2007	43
Table 29.	Number of Passengers during IED MUBARAK Session Using all Means of transportation 2009 – 2011	44
Table 30.	Rural Electrification Ratio, 2003 - 2009	45
Table 31.	Representation of Women and Men in the House of Representatives in Indonesia	47

Table 32.	Percentage Members of Commissions of the Indonesian Parliament by Gender, 2005-2009 and 2009-2011	47
Table 33.	Share of Women Ministers and Sub Ministers in Indonesia 1998-2011	49
Table 34.	Number of Women Decision Makers in Ministries and Sub-Ministries, 2001-2008	50
Table 35.	Percentage of Female and Male Membership at the Central Board of Political Parties	50
Table 36.	Representation of Women in 13 National Commissions	51
Table 37.	Members of Trade Unions (June 2009)	51
Table 38.	Women as Heads of Government	51
Table 39.	Contraceptive Prevalence Rates Modern Methods Married Women 15-49 Year	52
Table 40.	Men and Women (Age 15-24) Literacy and Illiteracy Rates, 2001-2009	53
Table 41.	Female's Literacy Rate among ASEAN Countries	54
Table 42.	Net Enrollment Ratio Female to Male in Primary, Junior, Secondary and High Education, 2000-2007	55
Table 43.	Net Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Enrollment Among ASEAN Countries	57
Table 44.	Number of Specialized Training for Women and Men in 2008-2009	58
Table 45.	Number of Female Participants who Pursue Life Skills Education held by Vocational School	58
Table 46.	Shares of Women as Legislators Senior Officials and Managers, 2006-2010	63
Table 47.	Aggregate Percentage of Women on Boards in Emerging Asia, 2009-2011	64
Table 48.	Aggregate Percentage of Companies with at Least One Woman Director in Emerging Asia	64
Table 49.	Aggregate Percentage of Companies with a Female Chair in Emerging Asia	64
Table 50.	Number of Men and Women as Director, Vice Director, Executive Secretary and Deputy at Several Research Institutions, 2012	65
Table 51.	Members of the Commissions at the Indonesian Academy of Sciences, 2012	65
Table 52.	Members of the Commissions at the National Research Council, 2012	65
Table 53.	Shares of Female and Male in Professional and Technical Positions 2004 -2011	66
Table 54.	Shares of Women in Administrative and Managerial Positions 2004-2011	66
Table 55.	Employment by Economic Activity and Gender 2003-2011	67
Table 56.	Shares of Women among Transportation, Storage and ICT Industry Workers, 2002-2010	70
Table 57.	Percentage of Female Enrolled at University Level by Subject	70
Table 58.	Number of New Students at University level by Sex and Type of Program	71
Table 59.	Number of Graduates Students from University Level by Sex and Type of Program	71
Table 60.	Ratio of Female to Male Enrollments in Tertiary Education among ASEAN Countries	72
Table 61.	Number of Women and Men in Government R&D Institutions in Indonesia	73
Table 62.	Number of Women and Men Researchers in Government R&D Institutions in Indonesia based on Educational Attainment	73
Table 63.	Number of Women and Men Technicians in Government R&D Institutions in Indonesia based on Educational Attainment	73
Table 64.	Number of Women and Men Support Staff in Government R&D	73

	Institutions in Indonesia based on Educational Attainment	
Table 65.	R&D Personnel at Manufacturing Industries, 2008	74
Table 66.	R&D Personnel at Manufacturing Industries Based on Educational Attainment, 2008	74
Table 67.	R&D Personnel at Manufacturing Industries Based on Job Classifications, 2008	74
Table 68.	Shares of Highly Skilled Women and Men Who Work Abroad 2007-2009	75
Table 69.	Number of Big Companies in Indonesia	76
Table 70.	Prevalence Rate of Entrepreneurial Activity Indonesia	76
Table 71.	Comparison Prevalence Rate of Entrepreneurial Activity Among Countries 2006	76
Table 72.	Women as Users of (Village) Knowledge Centers, 2008-2009	77
Table 73.	Women as Managers of (Village) Knowledge Centre, 2008-2009	78

LIST OF FIGURES

		Page
Figure 1.	Map of Indonesia and its 33 Provinces	8
Figure 2.	Healthy Life Expectancy for Females and Males in Indonesia, 2000-2009	14
Figure 3.	Number of AIDS Cases in Indonesia 1987 - 2009	18
Figure 4.	Percentage of Victims of Violence Against Women by Type of Violence, 2006	28
Figure 5.	The Electrification Ratio in Indonesia	45
Figure 6.	Representation of Women and Men in Parliament, 2009	48
Figure 7.	Percentage of Women Ministers after 1998 in Indonesia	49
Figure 8.	Percentage of Married Women 15-49 Years of Age Using Several Contraceptive Methods	52
Figure 9.	Contraceptive Prevalence Rates of Various Methods for Married Women (15-49 years) 1991 - 2007	53
Figure 10	Illiteracy Rates among 15-24 Years Based on Sex 2000-2009	54
Figure 11	Development of NER for Primary School 1992 – 2009	55
Figure 12.	Development of NER for Junior High School 1992-2009	56
Figure 13.	Development of NER for Senior High School 1992 – 2009	56
Figure 14.	Development of Gender Parity Index NER for Primary Junior Secondary and High Educational School 1993-2009	57

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. General Information about Indonesia

Indonesia is the world's largest archipelago, consisting of five major islands and roughly 13,700 islands scattered over 5,120 kilometres. Fifty six percent of islands are unnamed and only seven percent of them are inhabited. There are more than 300 ethnic groups and more than 250 native languages. The total number of islands is divided into 33 provinces (Figure 1). The archipelago is on a crossroads between the Pacific and the Indian Ocean, and bridges two continents, Asia and Australia. This strategic position has influenced the cultural, social, political and economic life of the country. Figure 1 shows the Map of Indonesia.



Provinces in Indonesia

1. Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam	9. Bangka Belitung	17. Bali	25. Gorontalo
2. North Sumatera	10. Lampung	18. West Nusa Tenggara	26. West Sulawesi
3. Riau	11. Banten	19. East Nusa Tenggara	27. Central Sulawesi
4. Riau Archipelago	12. Jakarta	20. West Kalimantan	28. South Sulawesi
5. West Sumatera	13. West Java	21. Central Kalimantan	29. Southeast Sulawesi
6. Jambi	14. Central Java	22. East Kalimantan	30. North Maluku
7. Bengkulu	15. Yogyakarta	23. South Kalimantan	31. Maluku
8. South Sumatera	16. East Java	24. North Sulawesi	32. West Papua
			33. East Papua

Figure 1. Map of Indonesia and its 33 Provinces

Across its many islands, Indonesia consists of distinct ethnic, linguistic, and religious groups. The Javanese are the largest and most politically dominant ethnic group. As a unitary state and nation, Indonesia has developed a shared identity defined by a national language, ethnic diversity, religious pluralism within a majority Muslim population, and a history of colonialism and rebellion against it. Indonesia's national motto, "BhinnekaTunggal Ika" ("Unity in Diversity" literally, "many, yet one"), articulates the diversity that shapes the country.

Bahasa Indonesia (Bahasa) is the official language. Originally, it was the Malay language mainly spoken in the Riau islands. In its spread throughout the country, the vocabulary and idioms have been enriched by the great number of local languages, Sanskrit and Arabic. Many words or terms have been derived from other languages, such as Persian, Portuguese, Dutch and English. In fact, most Indonesians tend to mix aspects of some languages and dialects.

Indonesia has the largest Muslim population (88.58 per cent) in the world, while other religions include Protestant (5.79 per cent), Roman Catholic (3.07 per cent), Hindu (1.73 per cent), Buddhist (0.61 per cent), Kong Hu Chu (0.10 per cent) and other (0.11 per cent) (Source: Intercensal Population Survey, BPS-Statistics Indonesia, 2005). The Indonesian population has tended to increase every year and the number of females and males is almost equal. However population growth rate has declined in the last two decade, as shown in Table 1. Population growth per year in recent years is 1.49 per cent as compared to 2.3 per cent for the period 1971-1980. Based on the 2010 Census, the population was 237,556,363, with 119,507,580 males and 118,048,783 females, producing a sex ratio of 101. Indonesia is the fourth most populous country in the world (Source: Statistics Indonesia 2010).

Table 1 Indonesian Population by Sex: 1971-2010

Year	Number of Population (in thousands)			
	Female	Male	Total	% Female
1971	60,029.2	58,338.6	119,208.2	50.35
1980	73,825.1	72,951.7	147,490.2	50.05
1990	89,872.1	89,375.7	179,378.9	50.10
1995	97,824.8	96,929.9	194,754.7	50.22
2000	101,641.6	101,814.4	203,456.0	49.95
2004	108,196.2	108,876.0	217,072.3	49.84
2005	109,403.0	109,801.7	219,204.7	49.90
2006	111,174.6	111,560.8	222,735.4	49.91
2007	112,770.1	112,770.1	225,180.0	50.07
2008	114,124.1	114,399.2	228,523.3	49.94
2009	115,551.6	115,817.9	231,369.5	49.94
2010	118,048,8	119,507,5	237,556,3	49.69

Source:

- Central Bureau of Statistics, Population Statistics and Population Census, 2000, 2010
- 60 Years of Indonesia Independence (2005), CBS.

Other manifestations of diversity are variations in the kinship system: patrilineal, matrilineal and parental; in the marriage system: monogamy and polygamy (where religion, in this case Islam, allows it) and in the legal system (national, religious and customary law). There are also variations in residence –with rural households making up about 67 percent and urban about 33 percent – as well as in socio-economic status. This social and cultural heritage is viewed as a positive aspect of Indonesian society, although it is also realized that this diversity can be a liability, as attested by a number of events in Indonesia’s now 66-year history (since the Proclamation of Independence on 17 August 1945). The most serious threat to unity was the abortive coup of September 1965, which ended the Old Order era and ushered in the New Order government. From this deeply traumatic event emerged the realization that to prevent such incidents from reoccurring, careful maintenance and nurturing of the concept of unity is an imperative. It is this concept of unity and a deep sense of nationhood that are considered crucial factors for the continued success of development.

Although the New Order government under President Soeharto ended in 1998, the concept of unity and of a unitary state continues to exist. These are the basis for concerted efforts toward national development with particular focus on improving the quality of life and of society. This is in line with the now universally accepted notion that development should be people-oriented and economically and environmentally sustainable. Hence, development of a nation should be considered successful only when conditions and processes are such that all people have an equal opportunity to develop their optimal potential. The focus on people as the actors and beneficiaries of development has given rise to the recognition that people should not mean women subsumed under men, but explicitly women and men.

1.2 General Information about Women and Gender in Indonesia

Indonesia has made significant progress in improving the welfare of its citizens as well as in narrowing the gender gap between men and women and boys and girls across the country. The 1945 Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia grants equality to all citizens, in line with the Indonesian state philosophy Pancasila. Article 27 paragraph (1) of the Constitution stipulates: *“Every citizen enjoys equal status before the law and in government, and is obliged to uphold them without exception”*. Paragraph (2) stipulates: *“Every citizen shall have the right to employment and to conditions of life commensurate with human dignity”*.

In 1957, Indonesia ratified the Convention on the Political Rights of Women and the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1984, through the enactment of Law No. 7 of 1984, while the Agrarian Law of 1960

guarantees the right of women to own land. Furthermore, equality between men and women has also been consistently emphasized in the Broad Guidelines of State Policy (GBHN) consecutively in 1978, 1983, 1988, 1993 and 1999. The GBHN is issued by the People's Consultative Assembly, the highest legislative body in the nation, to provide the basis for policy formulation and planning for national development, and from 1999-2004 emphasized the improvement of the role and status of women in the family and society in order to achieve gender equality and equity.

To enhance the role of women in national development, the Indonesian government demonstrated its commitment to the advancement of women through the creation of a national mechanism, the State Ministry for the Empowerment of Women, to improve the status of women in the family and society and the participation of women in development. Much Indonesian legislation emphasises the importance of equal opportunities for men and women, but these secular laws co-exist with Islamic principles and traditional customs that affect the lives of Indonesian women. The situation of Indonesian women varies between regions and ethnic groups. Gender stereotypes and roles prevail in rural areas, where men are perceived as the breadwinners and women as mothers and wives. Although less than 50 per cent of Indonesian women are economically active, their level of protection within the economy also remains limited, particularly outside the agricultural sector where they constitute only 30 per cent of salaried employees (Atlas of Gender and Development, 2010).

In international assessments, the Human Development Index (HDI) is a composite index measuring average achievement in three basic dimensions of human development, namely a long and healthy life, knowledge and a decent standard of living. The HDI rank of Indonesia has been over 100 from 2000 to 2011, which puts Indonesia in the category of medium human development.

Table 2 Human Development Index Indonesia, 2000-2011

Year	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Value	0,684	0,682	0.692	0.697	0.711	0,728	0,729	0,734	0.728	0,607	0,600	0,617
Rank	110/173	112/175	111/177	110/177	108/177	107/182	111/182	111/182	107/177	111/182	108/169	124/187

Sources: UNDP, Human Development Report , 2002 – 2011

When we compare ASEAN Countries, Singapore is the highest ranked in the region and Myanmar, Cambodia and Lao PDR are the lowest. In 2011, the Indonesian position is 6th among ASEAN Countries, as shown in Table 3.

Table 3 Comparative Rank of HDI among ASEAN Countries, 2000-2005 and 2010 -2011

COUNTRY	YEAR							
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2010	2011
The Highest Rank	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

Singapore	25	28	25	25	25	25	27	26
Brunei	32	31	33	33	34	30	37	33
Malaysia	59	58	59	61	61	63	57	61
Thailand	70	74	76	73	74	78	92	103
Philippines	77	85	83	84	84	90	97	112
Vietnam	109	109	112	108	109	105	113	128
Indonesia	110	112	111	110	108	107	108	124
Lao PDR	143	135	135	133	133	130	122	138
Cambodia	130	130	130	130	129	131	124	139
Myanmar	127	131	132	129	130	132	132	149
The Lowest rank	173	175	177	177	177	177	169	187

Sources: UNDP, Human Development Report, 2002 – 2011

1.3 Approach of the Study

Due to limited time, the study involves scanning of national and international documents including national and international reports related to women and gender in national (include S&T) development according to the WIGSAT Gender Equality – Knowledge Society framework. Data were collected mostly up to 10 years from 2000-2010, however, not all data are available for every year.

To enrich ideas and findings from secondary data, field research and interviews were held among S&T and gender researchers in Jakarta. Sources of information and data for this report came from several institutions:

1. Government organizations involved in gender, science and technology
2. Government machinery on women: women's study centers
3. Non-Government organizations involved in gender, science and technology
4. Bilateral and Multilateral Aid Agencies – CIDA, ILO, ASEAN, UNICEF, and UNDP, World Bank.
5. Internet websites.

1.4 Report Organization

This report is structured as follows. Chapter I consist of Introduction and the Pprofile of Indonesia; Chapter II discusses indicators relating to the potential of women to participate in S&T arena and could be considered as an input into the knowledge society profile in Indonesia, as well as indicators of women's participation in the knowledge society as an outcome.

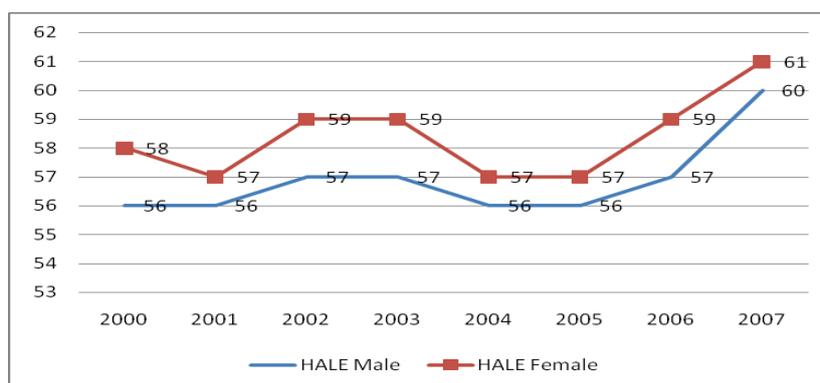
CHAPTER II

KNOWLEDGE SOCIETY INPUTS AND OUTPUTS

A. Health Status

A.1 Female Healthy Life Expectancy

According to WHOSIS¹, Healthy Life Expectancy (HALE) is an average number of years that a person can expect to live in "full health" by taking into account years lived in less than full health due to disease and/or injury. Indonesian female healthy life expectancy is higher than male healthy life expectancy, which has been increasing from 2000 to 2007 (Figure 2).



Source: Basic Healthy Indicators, Ministry of Health, Indonesia 2000-2005 and Indonesian health Statistics, Global Gender Gap report 2006-2007

Figure 2. Healthy Life Expectancy for Females and Males in Indonesia, 2000-2007

Life expectancy at birth indicates the number of years a newborn infant would live if prevailing patterns of mortality at the time of its birth were to continue throughout its life. The trend for Indonesia is increasing, where women enjoy a greater life span than men. Table 4 shows the trends of life expectancy at birth for women and men in Indonesia.

Table 4. Trend of Indonesian Life Expectancy at Birth for Female and Male (unit Years)

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Female	69.1	69.5	69.9	70.3	70.7	71.1	71.5	72.4	72.5	72.8	72.9	73.9
Male	65.1	65.5	65.9	66.3	66.7	67.1	68.9	68.4	68.5	68.7	68.9	68.9
Average	67.1	67.4	67.8	68.2	68.7	69.1	70.2	70.4	70.5	70.7	70.9	71.4

Source: Ministry of Health, published by Central Bureau Statistics (CBS) Indonesia, 2000-2011

¹ WH2005O Statistical Information System, <http://www.who.int/whosis/indicators/2007HALE0/en/> access: 13 December 2006 2011

International comparison of the healthy life expectancy between Indonesia, neighboring countries (ASEAN) and the world indicates that Indonesia ranks behind several countries in the region on health although is above the average for South-East Asia and at the world average for females.

Table 5. Comparison of Healthy Life Expectancy for Females and Males among ASEAN Countries, 2007

Country	Female	Male	Both Sexes
Singapore	75	71	73
Brunei	67	66	66
Malaysia	66	62	64
Thailand	65	59	62
Philippines	64	59	62
Vietnam	66	62	64
Indonesia	61	60	60
Lao PDR	54	53	54
Cambodia	55	51	53
Myanmar	52	48	50
South East Asian Region	57	56	57
World	61	58	60

Source: World Health Statistics 2009

A.2 Prevalence of Rates of Malaria

Malaria is a disease caused by infection of parasitic plasmodium through the bite of an infectious anopheles. Malaria control is a global commitment as part of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The main indicators to monitor malaria are Annual Parasite Incidence (API) for Java and Bali region and Annual Malaria Incidence (AMI) for outside Java and Bali region. Although malaria cases show a declining trend, it continues to be a public health burden in Indonesia. API in 2009 was 1.85 while AMI declined from 18.82 in 2008 to 10.59 in 2009. The national target for 2010 is 5 incidences of malaria per 1000 population.

Table 6. Malaria Inpatients by Sex, 2004-2009

	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total Cases	33,735	42,633	36,865	44,358	42,867	28,180
% Male	56.1	55.45	56.91	55.47	56.05	54.33
% Female	43.9	44.55	43.09	44.53	43.95	45.67

Source: Ditjen Bina Pelayanan Medik Depkes RI, 2009

Ministry of Health, 2011. Epidemiologi Malaria in Indonesia, Buletin Jendela Data dan Informasi Kesehatan, 1st Quarter

Data from all hospitals also shows that in 2004-2006, more men were infected with malaria while in 2007 – 2008 more women were infected with the disease (Table 7).

Table 7. Outpatient Malaria by Sex, 2004-2008

Unit: Persons and %

	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Total Cases	36,825	63,712	55,398	86,420	12,499
% Male	52.3	54.68	54.33	45.61	47.83
% Female	47.7	45.32	45.67	54.39	52.17

Source: Ditjen Bina Pelayanan Medik Depkes RI, 2009

Ministry of Health, 2011. Epidemiologi Malaria in Indonesia, Buletin Jendela Data dan Informasi Kesehatan, 1st Quarter

A.3 Prevalence of Rate of Tuberculosis

According to the World Health Organization (WHO) *Global Tuberculosis Control Report 2009*, there were an estimated 528,063 new TB cases and an estimated incidence rate of 102 new sputum smear-positive (SS+) cases per 100,000 population in 2007 in Indonesia. In the WHO Report 2009, Indonesia ranked fifth in total number of tuberculosis cases after India, China, South Africa, and Nigeria (WHO Global Tuberculosis Control 2010).

Based on the WHO Regional Report 2011 (reporting on 2009 data and estimates), the case-detection rate of all forms of TB was 67 per cent, while treatment success remained high at 91 per cent among sputum of new smear positive TB patients. The notification rate of all forms of TB and new smear-positive cases were 128 and 74 respectively per 100,000 population. With respect to age and sex distribution, the age-specific notification rates might suggest that the TB epidemic is slowly moving toward the older age groups (55-64 years) despite the fact that the majority of cases are still in the 15-54 age group. Sex disaggregated data on TB is available from 2005 only, as shown below.

Table 8. Tuberculosis Cases by Sex, 2001- 2008

Unit: Persons and %

Sex	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
TOTAL Cases (person)	259,969	277,589	275,210	298,329	298,329
New Cases (person)	158,640	175,320	160,617	166,376	169,213
% Male	58.7	59.1	57.3	58.8	59.06
% Female	41.3	40.9	43.7	41.2	40.94

Source: Ditjen Bina Pelayanan Medik Depkes RI, 2009

Ministry of Health, 2011. Epidemiologi Malaria in Indonesia, Buletin Jendela Data dan Informasi Kesehatan, 1st Quarter ; Ditjen PP-PL, Depkes RI, 2009 - Indonesia Health Profile, 2008, 2009. Ministry of Health.

A.4 Prevalence of Rates of HIV/AIDS in Indonesia

Indonesia's first case of HIV/AIDS was reported in 1987 in Bali. At present, an estimated 0.2 per cent of adults in Indonesia are HIV/AIDS positive, making it a low-prevalence country. There are, however, severe concentrated epidemics among Indonesia's injecting drug users (IDUs) and sex workers, with growing epidemics among their partners and clients. Due to the increasing number of IDUs, the number of new infections has grown rapidly since 2000. Among 33 provinces in Indonesia, the largest number of AIDS cases until

September 2011) was found in the Province of East Java (4,318 cases), Papua (4,005 cases), Jakarta (3,998 cases), West Java (3,804 cases) and Bali (2,331 cases). Mode of transmission among others is: heterosexual, homo-bisexual, IDU, blood transfusion, prenatal transmission, and others.

Table 9. Number of HIV Cases by Sex, 2008 – 2011 Unit: Persons and %

Year	Number of HIV Cases				Total
	Male	%	Female	%	
1987-2001	1,064	60.2	703	39.8	1,767
2008	6,797	65.6	3,565	34.4	10,362
2009	6,334	64.7	3,459	35.3	9,793
2010	13,231	61.3	8,360	38.7	21,591
2011	9,100	68.4	6,489	31.6	15,589

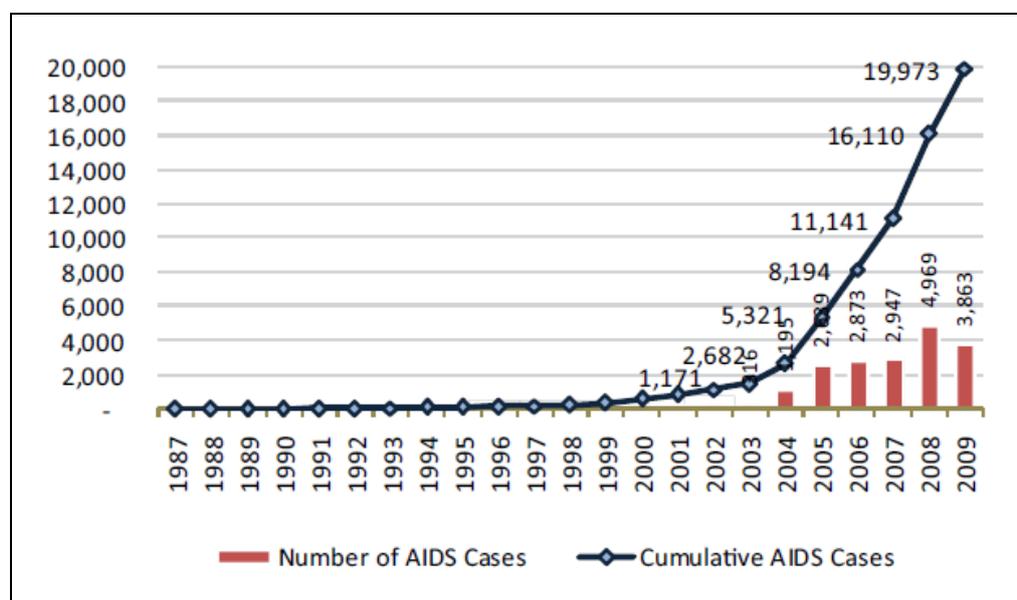
Source: Report on HIV/AIDS Cases in Indonesia, Ministry of Health, 2011

Table 10. Number of AIDS Cases by Sex, 2000-2011 Unit: Persons and %

Sex	2000**	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	Septem 2011
Male	355	176	251	289	1,122	2,112	2,299	2,260	3,197	2,659	3,238	1,118
Female	83	57	84	61	158	514	572	686	1,755	1,193	1,662	613
% F	17	24.4	25	17.4	12.3	19.5	19.9	23.3	35.3	30.9	33.8	34
Unknown	0	0	0	0	0	13	2	1	17	11	17	74
TOTAL	438	233	335	350	1,280	2,639	2,873	2,947	4,969	3,863	4,917	1,805

Note: ** figure is an accumulation from 1987 until 2000

Source: Indonesia AIDS cases Statistics, Ministry of Health Indonesia, 2000-2011



Source: MDG Progress Report 2010

Figure 3. Number of AIDs Cases in Indonesia 1987 - 2009

Since 2001, the Ministry of Health also reported sex disaggregated data on AIDS cases based on IDU mode of transmission (see Table 11).

Table 11 AIDS and AIDS/IDU Cases by Sex, 2001 – 2011

Unit: Persons

Sex	April 1987 to 31 Dec 2001		April 1987 to 31 Dec 2002		April 1987 to 31 Dec. 2003		April 1987 to 31 Dec. 2004		April 1987 to 31 Dec. 2005		April 1987 to 31 Dec 2006	
	AIDS	AIDS/ IDU	AIDS	AIDS/ IDU	AIDS	AIDS/ IDU	AIDS	AIDS/ IDU	AIDS	AIDS/ IDU	AIDS	AIDS/ IDU
Male	531	131	782	219	1,071	333	2,193	1,084	4,305	2,394	6,604	3,807
Female	140	9	224	14	285	23	443	73	957	171	1,529	274
Unknown	0	0	10	4	15	4	46	26	59	36	61	37
Total	671	140	1,016	237	1,371	360	2,682	1,183	5,321	2,601	8,194	4,118

Source: Cases of HIV/AIDS in Indonesia, Reported thru' December 2006, 2005;2004; Directorate General CDC & EH, Ministry of Health, Republic of Indonesia

Continuation of Table 11...

Unit: Persons

Sex	April 1987 to 31 Dec 2007		April 1987 to 31 Dec. 2008		April 1987 to 31 Dec. 2009		April 1987 to 31 Dec. 2010		April 1987 to 30 June 2011	
	AIDS	AIDS/IDU	AIDS	AIDS	AIDS	AIDS/IDU	AIDS	AIDS/IDU	AIDS	AIDS/IDU
Male	8,864	5,170	12,061	6,258	14,720	7,312	17,626	8,520	19,139	8,819
Female	2,215	347	3,970	509	5,163	605	6,416	661	7,255	685
Unknown	62	38	79	43	90	49	89	52	89	93
Total	11,141	5,555	16,110	6,810	19,973	7,966	24,131	9,233	26,483	9,597

Source: Cases of HIV/AIDS in Indonesia, Reported through December 2007; 2009; 2010; June 2011: Directorate General CDC & EH, Ministry of Health, Republic of Indonesia

The data in Table 11 show that AIDS is one of the fastest-growing epidemics in Indonesia. Injecting drug use (IDU) continues to be the primary mode of transmission among drug users. Numerous factors put Indonesia in danger of a broader epidemic. Risky sexual behaviors are common, and knowledge of HIV is limited. UNGASS (2010) reported that in 2007, only 67.8 percent of sex workers used a condom with their most recent client. While 88 percent of IDUs used sterile needles at last injection, only 33.9 percent of IDUs had used a condom with their most recent partner. Many IDUs are also sex workers or clients of sex workers, increasing the likelihood of HIV/AIDS spreading to the general population. A 2007 behavioral surveillance survey identified categories of high-risk men who frequent sex workers, including truckers, motor-taxi drivers, seafarers, and dock workers. Consistent condom use by these men is low, between 7 and 21 percent across groups. Truckers, who have the most frequent encounters with female sex workers, are also the least likely to use a condom. Comprehensive knowledge of HIV among most-at-risk populations (MARPs) is low; for example, the 2010 UNGASS report indicated only 27.1 percent of sex workers, 43.9

percent of men who have sex with men (MSM), and 58.6 percent of IDUs had comprehensive knowledge of HIV.

A.5 Physical Integrity (FGM)

The situation of Indonesian women varies amongst regions and ethnic groups. Stereotypes and traditional sex roles prevail in rural areas, where men are perceived as the breadwinners and women as mothers and wives. As the most populous Muslim country in the world, Indonesia has been practicing female genital mutilation (FGM) for many years. The practice of FGM or female genital cutting (FGC) derives from a mix of cultural, religious and social factors within families and communities of majority Muslims in Indonesia. In some parts of Indonesia, FGM is considered a necessary part of raising a girl properly, and a way to prepare her for adulthood and marriage. The practice of FGM is often motivated by beliefs about what is considered proper sexual behaviour, linking procedures to premarital virginity and marital fidelity, and in many communities believed to reduce a woman's libido. It is also believed that the practice of FGM makes girls "clean" and "beautiful" after removal of body parts that are considered "unclean", and the practice has religious support.

Although there are no data on numbers of males or females who practices FGM, USAID reports that 92 per cent of Indonesian families would choose to continue the practice of Female Genital Circumcision/Cutting (FGC) on their children and grandchildren.² In its guidelines on FGC, the Indonesian Ministry of Health uses the term 'female circumcision' to mean, "the procedure performed to cut the skin covering the outer part of clitoris, without damaging it"³. The WHO categorises the most common type of FGC performed in Indonesia as Type 4, meaning a pricking, cauterising or incision of the clitoris.

In April 2006, the Ministry of Health banned the practice of female genital mutilation (FGM), officially making it illegal for doctors and nurses to perform the procedure. However, FGM continued to be practised in some parts of the country by groups claiming the act is largely symbolic and not a real threat to women's health. As a result of this continuing practice, the Ministry of Health issued a Regulation on Female Circumcision in November 2010. This authorisation of FGC is regulated by strict medical guidelines⁴ under which only doctors, midwives, and nurses trained to MOH standards are allowed to carry out the procedure. According to Indonesia's Minister of Women's Empowerment, the high demand

² USAID, Population Council, September 2003. Female Circumcision in Indonesia: Extent, Implications and Possible Interventions to Uphold Women's Health Rights.

³ Ministry of Health Regulation on Female Circumcision, issued in Jakarta in November 2010

⁴ Regulation of The Minister of Health on Female Circumcision No 1636/ MENKES/PER/XI/2010

for FGC makes it hard to control the practice and therefore medicalisation is necessary in order “to avoid further harm.”⁵

The MOH guidelines do suggest that the risk of infection and complications will be rarer since FGC will be less likely to take place in unhygienic, back-street operating rooms. However, evidence shows that the 2006 ban did little to prevent FGC from being practiced in hospitals. The detached step-by-step wording of the procedure makes for chilling reading.

Practices show that FGC is a kind of social norm in Indonesia, where social change programmes have enabled communities to abandon the practice. What is different is the lack of awareness that FGC is an issue in Indonesia. There is a need to encourage the government to take positive action to tackle FGC (with community-based programmes, some legislation) as opposed to issuing guidelines which essentially condone the practice.

B. Social Status

B.1 Equity/Discrimination in Social Institutions

The complexity of economic, political, social and cultural problems that occur in Indonesia cannot be separated from a series of problems that impact on discriminatory action against women, including the process of pauperization that is caused by less access to justice, education, health, and decision making.

The situation of Indonesian women within the family context is difficult. The legal age of marriage is 16 years for women and 18 years for men. Although marriage patterns vary between regions and ethnic groups, early marriage is prevalent in rural areas and it is a common practice to marry 16-year-old girls to men who are much older. According to a 1998 National Social Economic Survey, as many as 16 per cent of girls in West Java were married before the age of 16. On the national scale, a 2004 United Nations report estimated that 13 per cent of all Indonesian girls between 15 and 19 years of age were married, divorced or widowed.

As Islamic law allows for polygamy, a Muslim man in Indonesia may take as many as four wives, provided that he treats them fairly and can provide adequate financial support. The Marriage Law of 1974 states that permission to have multiple wives can be granted if a man can provide evidence that his first wife is unable to carry out her responsibilities as a wife, is suffering from a physical disability or falls victim to an incurable disease, or is unable to bear children. However, Indonesian civil servants are prohibited from practicing polygamy. A recent government proposal to extend this restriction to all public servants led to protests by the country’s Muslim parties. Indonesia’s Marriage Law considers men to be the head of

⁵ Indonesia: Female genital mutilation persists despite ban , Spero News, September 2010, accessed at <http://www.speroforum.com/a/39103/Indonesia—Female-genital-mutilation-persists-despite-ban>

the house but parental authority is shared equally by men and women. Practical household duties, including child rearing, are generally carried out by women. Inheritance practices vary between different regions and ethnic groups. Islamic law and many traditional customs tend to favour male heirs over female heirs. Yet a recent study by Cunningham shows that some groups pass down land rights through matrilineal relations — i.e. from mothers to daughters.

The CEDAW working group of Indonesia (2007) noted that religious fundamentalism and cultural absolutism have become inspiration and a basis for the formulation of public policies at both national as well as local levels. Apart from this, religious and cultural leaders have systematically influenced the people's mindset (the pattern of thoughts) and behavior towards the direction of anti-tolerance and anti-diversity. The process of mainstreaming of Islamic laws and cultural practices in public policies and public life has, in fact, restricted women's freedom of movement and expression by prohibiting a woman to go out at night without being accompanied by a male who is a member of her family and by regulating the way a woman must dress in public. Propaganda that regards women as a source of immorality has been systematically promoted in both public private spheres.

The Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia declares that every person has equal position before the law. With this declaration, every person, be they man or a woman, shall have the constitutional guarantee to access justice through the process and decision of a court of law that are honest and equitable. However, in fact, the Indonesian Penal Code (*KUHAP*) and the Indonesian Civil Code (*KUH-Perdata*) that have so far been used as legal bases to try criminal cases and hear civil cases continue to adopt a "gender-neutral" paradigm.

The Indonesian Penal Code give a woman equal status to a boy child under several provisions, for example, provisions concerning the sale of persons. In civil cases such as divorce, it is difficult for women to execute the court's decision in terms of common possession of assets, child support, and alimony. Likewise, the Indonesian Law of Procedure and Evidence (*KUHAP*) has so far failed to address the procedure associated with the burden of proof that is sensitive to women.

When it comes to the making of decisions in public space, women have to face cultural challenges institutionalized in the entire political systems and mechanisms of the State, thus resulting in the negligible representation of women in public decision-making processes. As a result, various policies of the State are not responsive to the interests of women and in several cases even discriminate against women.

Discrimination against women that happens in peaceful times is replicated even worse in conflict situations in which women belong to the most vulnerable groups to be casualties. Women are often used as life shields for groups involved in conflicts. The position of women is often considered as a symbol of honor for a group or a community so that

aggression against and subjugation of women are often assigned with the meaning of attacking the honor of the opponent. Aggression against women often takes the form of sexual aggression.

In situations where natural disasters strike, women's fundamental rights are often ignored as a result of the politics of providing aid. Emergency aid is often provided to male household heads. A female household head or a woman who has lost her husband in the natural disaster must prove that she is entitled to the aid by showing official documents such as her family card. Women's practical needs in evacuation areas such as sanitary napkins, female undergarments/ underwear, and reproductive health services such as contraceptives are not addressed. As well, women and girls are often subjected to sexual violence in the refugee camps.

Since ratifying CEDAW in 1984, the Government of Indonesia has made efforts to eliminate discrimination against women, in particular through regulations that it makes or amends. Another effort that the government of the Republic of Indonesia has made is signing the Optional Protocol to CEDAW in February 2002, however, it has not yet ratified it. There is still a gap between written policies and their actual implementation. On the one hand, the State has been promoted many legal breakthroughs for women. On the other hand, the country has created numerous regulations both at national and local levels that paradoxically discriminate against women.

Cultural and structural constraints have become particular challenges in the implementation of CEDAW in Indonesia. Cultural constraints derive from a patriarchic culture that is deeply ingrained in both Indonesian society and state offices as materialized in stereotypical views of women, cultural norms, traditional practices and gender-biased interpretation of religious teachings. On the other hand, structural constraints include poor understanding of CEDAW on the part of state officials and society; the fact that women's rights have not become an institutional part of law-making and enforcement, court rulings, policies, program and budgetary planning; and weakness on the part of state institutions to apply human rights standards (as reflected in the deficiency of understanding, expertise, methodology, and capacity on the part of state officials).

Concerning the various discriminatory actions that have arisen, the CEDAW Working Group Initiative of Indonesia (CWGI) summarizes important notes:

1. There are a number of laws and regulations at national and local levels that are discriminatory against women and clearly against CEDAW.
2. The government has not earnestly integrated CEDAW and its principles contained in a number of policies it produces. It is proven that there are many legislative products that ignore the elimination of discrimination against women.

3. CEDAW has not become an integral part in the implementation of the existing policies and has not been institutionalized in state institutions. CEDAW is used as a mere legal basis and there is no earnest desire to give effect to it.

The women's movement in Indonesia has succeeded in driving each president to make a breakthrough initiative through policies that promote the interests of women. During the administration of President BJ Habibie, the National Women's Commission (Komnas Perempuan) was established through Presidential Decree (Keppres) Number 181 of the year 1998. During the administration of President Abdurrahman Wahid, the Presidential Instruction (Inpres) Number 9 of the year 2000 concerning Gender Mainstreaming was issued. The Presidential Instruction requires each institution in the government administration to integrate gender mainstreaming into their programs and budgets. During that period, the National Plan of Action on the Elimination of Violence against Women was formulated in 2000.

During the tenure of Megawati, the only woman president of Indonesia, several policies concerning women were issued, including the official adoption of Law Number 23 of the Year 2004 concerning the Elimination of Domestic Violence, Presidential Decree (Keppres), Number 87 of the Year 2002 concerning the National Action Plan (RAN) for the Elimination of Sexual and Commercial Exploitation of Children, and Presidential Decision Number 88 of the Year 2002 concerning the National Plan of Action on the Elimination of Trafficking in Women and Children.

In its struggle to have women represented in decision-making bodies at both central and local levels, civil society in Indonesia has succeeded in getting *affirmative action* put in place by having a quota of 30 per cent female representation formally introduced into legislative bodies. Even though the quota is not mandatory and does not immediately change the masculine and patriarchic political systems, it suffices to open up a political domain for women.

During the administration of the incumbent president, Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono (or his initials, SBY, as he is commonly known), several policies have been produced, including the amendment to the old Citizenship Law into Law Number 12 of the Year 2006. Law Number 12 enables an Indonesian woman who is married to a male foreigner to be referred to as a source of citizenship for their children, and also enables her to sponsor her foreign husband's change of citizenship. During this period, the Law concerning the Elimination of the Crime of Trafficking in Persons (PTPPO) Number 21 of the Year 2007 was also enacted.

Fundamentalist groups use the concept of regional autonomy to influence local policy makers to apply Islamic Sharia and introduce regulations that are discriminatory against women. The Central Government has rescinded 899 local government regulations that cause high cost to the economy and hamper investment. However, none of the local government

regulations that violate human rights and discriminate against women is included in this list of rescinded regulations.

After the reform movement, the pro-democracy movement has changed all aspects of life. The press, which was previously under the control of the government and used as a propaganda tool to maintain stability and the status quo, has been given broad freedoms to voice the aspiration of the people and to simultaneously serve as a means monitor government conduct. On the other hand, the press has explored violence excessively both visually and in print. It has also tended to ignore the journalistic code of ethics when covering victims of violence, especially women and girls.

B.2 Sex Ratio at Birth

From the 1971 census, the first population census of independent Indonesia for which full data are available, to the 1990 census, the sex ratio of males per females of the Indonesian population has been less than 100 (or very near to 100 in 1990), indicating a preponderance of females over males. However, the Population Census of Indonesia conducted in 2000, 2010 and 2011 shows a change in its sex ratio over 100 males for every 100 females, indicating a slight excess of males in the population. In 2010 and 2011, the sex ratio at birth is the highest score 105. Overall, the sex ratio of the Indonesian population for the period 1971 to 2011 can be seen in Table 12 below.

A ratio above 100 means there are more males than females, while a ratio below 100 means there are more females than males. A ratio of 100 means there are equal numbers of females and males. The global average at birth is approximately 105-107 males to females.

Table 12. Sex Ratio at Birth, Indonesia

Unit: person, %

	1971	1980	1990	2000	2002	2007	2008	2010	2011
M/F (Per 100 F)	97.2	98.8	99.4	100.6	95.2	95.2	95.2	105	105
Total Fertility Rate (Children born per Woman)	5.60	4.68	3.32	2.64	2.60	2.40	2.17	2.14	2.10

Sources: Population Censuses: 1971,1980,1990, 2000, 2010 – CBS Indonesia
Female and Children Profile of Indonesia, 2007, Ministry of Women Empowerment, Indonesia
BKKBN, 2011

In 2010 and 2011, more boys were born than girls, yielding a natural sex ration of 105. There is no study or research related to the increase in birth rate of boy children in Indonesia. Although some ethnic groups prefer boy children and some ethnic groups prefer girl children. Since the 70s the Government has succeeded in introducing family planning, so that many rural and urban people understand that a small family is a happy family. The

famous slogan for new families is "Two kids is enough, son or daughter is just the same", which is still prevalent today.

B.3 Prevalence of Violence Against Women

In Indonesia, violence against women and girls occurs both in the public and private domains. Women become victims of violence, be it physical, psychological, sexual or economic. Although documentation is very important, there is very little data on violence against women at the national level. Some surveys, such as the National Survey of Violence Against Women and Children (2006)⁶, have found that during 2006 3 million incidences of violence occurred, and of about 2.27 million, women were victims. The number compared with total women reached 3.07 per cent – of every 1000 women, there are 31 women who have experienced violence. This survey also found that married women experience a higher percentage of violence (68.6 per cent) compared with single (15.7 per cent) and divorced women (16.1 per cent). Based on the statements of victims of violence, most perpetrators of violence against women are close to the victim, such as husband (55.1 per cent) or neighbors (19.6 per cent), whereas other family members such as parents/parents in law, children/grand children and relatives make up the remaining perpetrators (11.7 per cent). Meanwhile, no official data are available from the Police, the Department of Health or the Minister of Women's Empowerment.

The Indonesian Commission on Violence Against Women (hereafter 'Commission') is an independent institution that was established in 1998 through a decree by former President Habibie. The Commission deals with basic human rights of women in Indonesia, notably all sorts of violence against women in conflict as well as peace situations. Together with social organisations, the Commission develops concepts, standards, instruments and mechanisms intended to prevent, handle, and abolish all forms of violence against women.

The Commission has initiated advocacy activities and has been involved in several human rights investigations. The major achievements have been the establishment of one-stop crisis centers for women and the set-up of special departments for female victims of violence in police hospitals. In addition, the Commission has made a start with the development of a data identification system, a library, and regular publications and thematic publications. The Commission has also helped build up networks of NGOs as a means to strengthen campaigning and lobbying capacity towards the government.

Recently, the National Commission for Women made an effort to compile data on victims of violence at the national level. Availability of data depends on reports made by victims to service providers (such as women crisis centers, religious courts, legal assistance,

⁶ Women and Men in Indonesia 2008, CBS, 2009

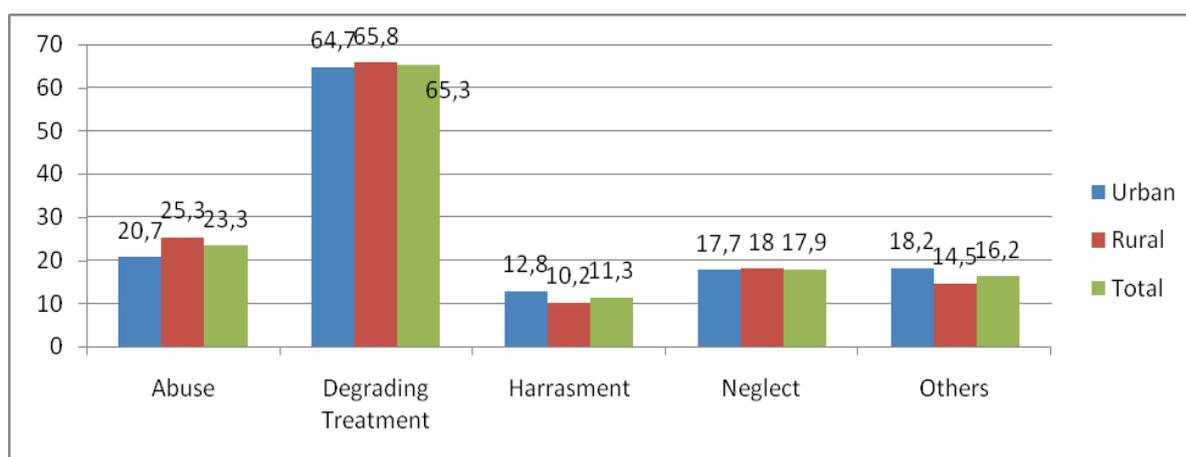
hospitals, and Women and Child Services Units). However in reality, many victims do not report directly to service providers or to the police. At the national level, research on the root causes of this problem are lacking. Social attitudes, including of women, tend to maintain belief in 'privacy of the family and the intimacy of marital relationships'. In certain instances, such as in cases of rape and other forms of violence against women, the police generally refuse to pursue the case to court unless there are witnesses. Many people are not aware of the relevant laws, the existence of institutions that provide assistance to victims after the experience, and reporting at the police station or medication by a doctor or at a hospital. Available trend data gathered by the National Commission for Women from service providers shows a significant increase in violence against women since 2000.

Table 13. Violence against Women (Number of Victims): 2001-2011

Year	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
No.	3,169	5,163	7,787	14,020	20,391	22,512	25,522	54,425	143,586	105,103

Source: Teror dan Kekerasan Terhadap Perempuan: Hilangnya Kendali Negara. Catatan Kekerasan Terhadap Perempuan (KTP), 2010, translated: "Terror and violence against women: loss of control of the country. A record of violence against women (KTP), 2010 www.komnasperempuan.or.id, 27 November 2011.

Cases of violence against women increased sharply from 25,522 cases in 2007 to 143,586 cases in 2009. However in 2010 the number of cases dropped to 105,103. The largest incidence (82 per cent) of violence occurs in the household.



Source: Women and Men In Indonesia, 2008, Central Bureau Of Statistics, Indonesia

Figure 4. Percentage of Victims of Violence against Women by Type of Violence, 2006

In conclusion, Indonesia has not yet made serious efforts to collect data on issues that are crucial to the well being of women, such as the prevalence of gender-based violence. The reason behind this may relate to limited political will, in that data collection is not seen as

a matter of priority. Other factors relate to the opinion that VAW is not a public issue and therefore should remain confined between individuals or within the family. VAW is also considered a sensitive issue.

B.4 Time Use/Work Load

Indonesian statistics provide rather good evidence on working hours for men and women, but hardly any adequate statistics concerning workload or working conditions. In Table 14 study by AIAS (2010)⁷ shows the distribution of hours usually worked by gender, for the total labour force, paid employees and the self-employed. Although the data is somewhat old, the picture to be derived is still relevant. It shows that over half of all males in the labour force (54 per cent) and females (41 per cent) work long hours, i.e. 45 hours a week or more; among employees, these shares were 55 per cent and respectively 44 per cent higher. In the total labour force, 11 per cent of both sexes usually worked 60 hours or more a week. The self-employed worked very long hours (55 hours up to 75+ hours), more than one in four male self-employed (27 per cent) did so and nearly one in four women (23 per cent). The most recent official figures for 2009 include 20.6 million men or 31.7 per cent of the male labour force working excessive hours, defined as more than 48 hours per week, against 9.4 million women, or 23.6 per cent. These shares were slightly less than those of 2008, which were 31.8 per cent and 24.5 per cent respectively (BPS 2010).

Table 14. Employment by Employment Status, Work Week (Distribution of Hours Usually Worked) and Gender, Indonesia, 2003 Unit: %

Working Hours	Total Labour Force			Paid Employees			Self Employed		
	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men
0	1	2	1	1	2	1	1	2	1
1-4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5-9	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1
10-14	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	3	1
15-19	2	4	2	2	3	2	3	4	3
20-24	5	7	3	4	7	4	6	9	5
25-34	11	15	10	10	13	8	14	18	12
35-44	28	28	29	30	29	30	26	27	26
45-54	32	24	35	37	30	40	21	13	24
55-59	8	6	8	7	6	7	9	7	10
60-74	9	8	9	6	6	6	13	11	14
75+	2	3	2	2	2	2	4	5	3
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
X Mln	48,94	14,69	34,25	32,04	9,69	22,35	16,90	5,00	11,90

⁷ An Overview of Women's work and employment in Indonesia, AIAS, 2010

Source: M. van Klaveren, K.G. Tjzens, M. Hughie-Williams and N.E. Ramos Martin, AIAI, p 81.

Meanwhile, data gathered from Ministry of Manpower shows the difference of time use or working hours between males and females as shown below.

Table 15. Number of Employees by Working Time and Sex, 2008-2010 Unit: person

Total Work Hours	August 2008			August 2009			August 2010		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
0	1,414,532	815,250	2,229,782	1,510,460	887,435	2,397,895	1,545,025	942,444	2,487,469
1-9	827,477	1,284,810	2,112,287	863,459	1,386,492	2,249,951	819,006	1,297,054	2,116,060
10-14	1,433,564	2,099,802	3,533,366	1,422,586	2,194,050	3,616,636	1,447,086	2,220,252	3,667,338
15-24	5,374,358	5,860,610	11,234,968	5,521,451	6,120,736	11,642,187	5,849,424	6,629,648	12,479,072
25-34	7,963,884	6,265,078	14,228,962	7,865,453	6,195,707	14,061,160	8,506,318	6,500,550	15,006,868
35-44	16,164,416	9,170,959	25,335,375	16,621,006	9,657,378	26,278,384	15,115,891	8,679,493	23,795,384
45-59	21,825,550	8,056,809	29,882,359	22,529,065	8,360,221	30,889,286	25,342,056	9,677,732	35,019,788
≥ 60	8,895,497	5,100,154	13,995,651	8,789,046	4,946,118	13,735,164	8,837,417	4,798,371	13,635,788
Total	63,899,278	38,653,472	102,552,750	65,122,526	39,748,137	104,870,663	67,462,223	40,745,544	108,207,767

Source: CBS National Survey on Population Workforce 2008, 2009, 2010.

*) 0, Temporary not working

Table 16 below presents average work week figures for employees detailed by industry and gender for 2000 and 2008. For both years the average hours women work were less than those of men and that was the case in all industries. Nevertheless, often the working hours of female employees were also quite long, with private households on top (51.4 hours in 2008) followed by wholesale and retail (49.2 hours) and hotels and restaurants (47.8 hours). What is more, between 2000-2008 in these three industries the work week of female employees was increased to a considerable extent. This was also the case in seven other industries. Six industries showed shorter working hours for females including finance and real estate. As a result the average work week of all female employees went up by no less than 4.2 hours, or over 12 per cent. Their male colleagues also saw their work week prolonged in more industries (13 of 16) but mostly to a lesser extent, which resulted in an average working week increase of 1.7 hours, or 4 per cent. This increase in work hours suggests that in the course of the 2000s also in the ranks of paid employees a growing number of Indonesians faced problems in making ends meet.

Table 16. Average Work Week (Hours Usually Worked by Employees) by Industry and Gender Indonesia 2000 and 2008 Unit: hours per week

Type of Industry	Total		Women		Men	
	2000	2008	2000	2008	2000	2008
Agriculture	30.0	32.9	25.0	28.7	33.4	35.6
Fishing	43.9	44.0	30.2	29.2	45.4	45.4
Mining	43.8	44.4	35.0	35.2	45.7	45.6
Manufacturing	43.1	43.8	39.2	40.3	45.9	46.5
Utilities	43.1	44.0	41.0	42.0	43.3	44.2
Construction	46.5	47.0	40.9	44.6	46.7	47.0
Transport storage and communication	50.9	49.1	48.3	42.6	51.0	49.9
wholesale and retail	46.5	49.4	44.0	49.2	48.4	49.6
Hotel and restaurant	46.2	50.0	44.0	47.8	49.7	52.6
Finance	42.5	43.7	41.5	41.0	42.9	45.0
Real estate renting business	42.0	42.3	39.1	37.7	43.0	43.9
Public administration defence	41.1	41.7	39.3	38.5	41.6	42.4
Education	34.3	34.5	32.2	32.5	36.1	37.1
Health social work	41.4	40.8	41.8	40.1	40.9	42.0
Other community social and personal Services	41.0	43.1	35.1	37.3	44.7	45.4
Private household	49.0	51.6	51.4	53.0	45.3	47.0
Total	38.4	41.0	34.0	38.2	41.1	42.8

Source: ILO Laborsta AIAS 2010.

Women work more hours compared to men in the household, particularly in rural areas. A study done Hermawati (2004)⁸ shows that domestic work tends to be fully the women's responsibility and considered as their main role, although they also engage in some economic activities outside of the household. In terms of working hours per day women who manage additional productive activities on average tend to work longer than men. The data collected showed that after adopting new technology, women remained dominant in almost all household responsibilities such as cooking, going to the market, taking care of the children, gardening, and caring for animals (as shown in Table 17).

Table 17. The Average Time Spent Per Day by the Beneficiaries of IPTEKDA Program (24 households) 2004

Activities	Women (wife) Hours per day	Men (husband) Hours per day
• Cooking food two times a day	3	--
• Cleaning the house and yard	2	--
• Washing Clothes	1	--
• Caring for small children	continues	--
• Caring for the elderly	continues	--
• Collecting Water	1	--
• Collecting firewood	1	--
• Going to the market	1	1
• Working for business	6	8
• Animal caring	1	Not daily
• Fixing the house	--	Not daily

⁸ Impact of Technology Transfer on Family Life From A Gender Perspective A Case Study From Iptekda Program In Central Lombok, West Nusa Tenggara, Indonesia, Proceeding, Sca Conference 2005

• Watching TV Talking	1	1
• Community gatherings	1 (Not daily)	2 (Not daily)
• Taking sick people to hospital	--	Not daily

Source: Hermawati, Field Survey conducted in July 2004

In almost all families participating in the project, women's workday was longer than men's due to the combination of self provisioning, income-generating, and family and household tasks. A tendency to continued gender stereotypes was seen: collection of data on gender division of labour in the household activities (domestic work) showed almost no change in responsibility for domestic work before and after adopting new technology from the project (as shown in Table 18).

Table 18. Gender Division of Labour in Domestic Work “Iptekda LIPI Program” (1998 -2004)

Type of Domestic Work	Before the Project				After the Project			
	M	W	M&W	Total	M	W	M&W	Total
	%	%	%		%	%	%	
• Child caring *)	0	57	43	23	0	65	35	23
• Cooking	0	88	12	24	0	92	8	24
• Cloth Washing	0	71	29	24	0	71	29	24
• Cleaning House	0	80	20	24	0	88	12	24
• Fetching Water	0	38	62	24	0	37	63	24
• Going to Market	0	38	62	24	0	67	33	24
• Cleaning Garden	0	4	96	24	0	17	83	24
• Animal Caring	8	50	42	24	0	58	42	24

Note: n = 24 respondents M: Man (Husband) ; W: Woman (Wife)

*) one family respondent has no children

Field Survey was conducted by PAPPIPTEK-LIPI Team in July 2004

C. Economic Status

C.1 Women as Percentage of Economically Active Population

Table 19 presents the percentage of women in the economically active population in Indonesia from 2002 to 2011. The percentage of women is less than 40 percent as compared to men in all periods.

Table 19. Women as % of Economically Active Population, 2002-2011 Unit: 1000 person; %

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	Feb 2011
Total	100,779	102,750	103,973	105,802	106,281	108,131	111,947	113,833	116,527	119,399
Male	63,311	64,600	65,927	66,222	67,672	67,945	69,144	70,409	71,882	72,260
Female	37,468	38,150	38,046	39,580	38,609	40,186	42,803	43,424	44,645	47,139
F (%)	37.17	37.12	36.59	37.41	36.33	37.16	38.23	38.14	38.31	39.48

Source: Sakernas 2002-2006 BPS, Keadaan Angkatan Kerja di Indonesia 2005,2006,2007 ; Ministry of Man Powers and Transmigration August 2008-2009- 2010 and Feb 2011

Table 20 indicates the population 15 years of age and over who are in the labor force, by educational attainment and gender, based on the 2000-2011 Labour Force Survey conducted by the Central Bureau of Statistics.

Table 20 Population 15 Years of Age and Over Who are In Labor Force by Educational Attainment and Sex, 2001-2010 (Persons)

Educational	Year									
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Male										
Primary school	22,129,570	23,317,415	23,812,702	23,358,312	23,443,972	23,856,021	25,314,342	24,089,980	19,667,727	20,486,633
Junior high school	11,434,220	11,966,406	14,371,680	14,625,212	14,494,839	14,343,923	13,920,848	13,693,168	13,884,339	14,072,405
Senior high school										
General	7,992,520	8,554,474	10,144,881	9,724,395	9,840,186	10,771,773	10,239,070	11,168,692	11,318,653	11,991,888
Vocational	4,935,003	4,870,797	4,255,846	4,929,995	5,266,674	5,284,755	5,065,308	5,657,299	6,707,953	6,910,529
Diploma I/II/III	1,231,241	1,193,822	1,122,507	1,236,085	1,275,855	1,422,911	1,461,568	1,499,102	1,469,389	1,606,768
University	1,785,813	1,785,243	1,818,836	2,095,757	2,146,913	2,342,373	2,481,756	2,812,034	3,100,985	3,377,530
TOTAL	49,508,367	51,688,157	55,526,452	55,969,756	56,468,439	58,021,756	58,482,892	58,920,275	56,149,046	58,445,753
Female										
Primary school	13,593,882	13,641,553	13,356,255	14,042,220	14,515,821	13,647,701	14,826,600	14,766,941	11,513,777	12,235,029
Junior high school	5,416,030	5,522,559	6,197,375	6,638,585	6,744,609	6,758,167	7,173,554	7,320,011	7,277,311	8,223,635
Senior high school										
General	3,496,214	3,657,081	4,010,975	4,102,532	4,406,739	4,998,852	5,040,163	5,631,565	5,735,722	6,071,520
Vocational	2,323,223	2,250,140	1,881,022	2,227,163	2,246,401	2,270,695	2,261,697	2,508,162	2,939,971	3,160,776
Diploma I/II/III	1,006,700	1,021,113	810,051	1,059,354	1,220,204	1,361,157	1,533,216	1,735,449	1,760,527	1,860,181
University	882,889	900,598	878,943	1,086,575	1,215,066	1,459,880	1,682,637	1,940,863	2,262,637	2,578,780
TOTAL	26,718,938	26,993,044	27,134,621	29,156,429	30,348,840	30,496,452	32,517,867	33,902,991	31,489,945	34,129,921
Male + Female										
Primary school	35,723,452	36,958,968	37,168,957	37,400,532	37,959,793	37,503,722	40,140,942	38,856,921	31,181,504	32,721,662
Junior high school	16,850,250	17,488,965	20,569,057	21,263,797	21,239,748	21,102,090	21,094,402	21,013,179	21,161,650	22,296,040
Senior high school										
General	11,488,734	12,211,555	14,155,856	13,826,927	14,246,925	15,770,625	15,279,233	16,800,257	17,054,375	18,063,408
Vocational	7,258,226	7,120,937	6,136,868	7,157,158	7,513,075	7,555,450	7,327,005	8,165,461	9,647,924	10,071,305
Diploma I/II/III	2,237,941	2,214,935	1,896,558	2,295,439	2,496,059	2,784,068	2,994,784	3,234,551	3,229,916	3,466,949
University	2,668,702	2,685,841	2,697,779	3,182,332	3,361,979	3,802,253	4,164,393	4,752,897	5,363,022	5,956,310
TOTAL	76,227,305	78,681,201	82,625,075	85,126,185	86,817,579	88,518,208	91,000,759	92,823,266	87,638,391	92,575,674

Source: Central Bureau Statistics, 2000-2011, processed from Labour Force Census.

The data show that the total female labour force was only 36.86 per cent in 2010. On the one hand a larger share of female workers had primary education (nearly 35.84 per cent from the total female economically active population), but the share of working females educated at the three highest levels was also higher than that of men (2.5 per cent for men and 7.5 per cent for female) in 2010, indicating that females tend to need higher levels of education to obtain the same level of employment as their male colleagues.

C.2. Earned Income Ratios

Table 21. Earned Income Ratio, 2003 - 2007

Year	FEMALE (US\$)	MALE (US\$)	FEMALE TO MALE RATIO
2007	2,263	5,163	0.44
2006	2,179	4,729	0.46
2005	2,410	5,280	0.46
2004	2,257	4,963	0.45
2003	2,289	4,434	0.52

Source: "Human Development Report 2007/2008 and Global Gender Gap Report 2010- WEF Geneva, p.163

Table 22. Comparison Estimated Earned Income for Female and Male among Several Countries in Asia in 2003

Country	Earned income Female (US,\$)	Earned income Male (US,\$)	Ratio of women's earnings to men's earnings (%)
Philippines	3,213	5,409	59
Sri Lanka	2,579	5,009	51
Indonesia	2,289	4,434	52
India	1,569	4,130	38
Singapore	16,489	32,089	51

Source: According to the UNDP Estimated earned income is roughly derived on the basis of the ratio of the female nonagricultural wage to the male non-agricultural wage the female and male shares of the economically active population total female and male population and GDP per capita (PPP US\$), UNDP "Definition of Statistical Terms" n.d, [online] <http://hdr.undp.org/docs/statistics/understanding/definitions.pdf>.

Results of the National Survey on the National Work Force show that the gender gap in the average monthly wage during 2008-2011 was nearly 23 per cent.

Table 23 Gender Gap in Average Monthly Wage (in Rupiah)

Year	Male	Female	Wage Gap (F/M gap)
2008	1,254,865	973,642	22.41
2009	1,191,059	927,745	22.11
2010	1,294.867	1,024,991	20.85
2011	1,406,317	1,099,322	21.83

Source: CBS. National Survey on Workforce 2008 – 2011

C.3 Female by Category of Workers

The reliable sources of data on the female category of workers come from the Ministry of Manpower. Since 2001, the data have been categorized into own account workers, self employed assisted by temporary workers, self employed assisted by permanent workers, regular employees, temporary workers in agriculture, temporary workers in non agricultural employment, and unpaid/family workers. In total, over 10 years, women's participation is 40 per cent less than men (Table 24) .

As of February 2011, more females (33.93 per cent of total female workers) work in the category of unpaid/family workers as compared to males (7.64 per cent of total male workers). This figure shows that among all categories, the unpaid /family worker category represents the largest employment sector for females. In the category of own account workers, the rate of participation of females is less than males. 15.61 per cent of the total female workers work in this category, while 20.04 per cent of male workers do.

The greatest representation of male workers is in the category of regular workers (32.87 per cent of total male workers), only 28.15 per cent of female workers are in this category.

Table 24. Female by Category of Workers 2001-2011

Unit: Persons

Category of Worker	Per August 2001			Per August 2002			Per August 2003			Per February 2004		
	Male	Female	Total									
Own Account Workers	11,714,311	5,737,393	17,451,704	12,188,866	5,444,043	17,632,909	12,011,005	4,643,883	16,654,888	12,844,876	5,464,412	18,309,288
Employers assisted with temporary workers	15,989,566	4,339,507	20,329,073	16,823,642	5,195,751	22,019,393	17,938,883	4,094,675	22,033,558	16,896,284	4,616,121	21,512,405
Employers assisted with permanent workers	2,425,710	363,168	2,788,878	2,429,544	356,682	2,786,226	2,388,660	319,173	2,707,833	2,505,297	363,596	2,868,893
Regular Employee	18,221,426	8,357,574	26,579,000	17,223,839	7,825,954	25,049,793	16,792,359	7,036,753	23,829,112	17,629,206	7,830,348	25,459,554
Temporary workers in Agriculture	2,122,804	1,510,322	3,633,126	2,811,021	1,702,579	4,513,600	2,981,245	1,574,003	4,555,248	2,841,687	1,608,234	4,449,921
Temporary workers in Non Agriculture	2,056,800	382,235	2,439,035	2,994,670	565,257	3,559,927	2,801,069	457,481	3,258,550	3,228,822	504,016	3,732,838
Un paid workers/Family workers	4,600,807	12,985,794	17,586,601	4,111,605	11,973,713	16,085,318	4,995,701	12,750,027	17,745,728	4,538,339	12,753,798	17,292,137
Total	57,131,424	33,675,993	90,807,417	58,583,187	33,063,979	91,647,166	59,908,922	30,875,995	90,784,917	60,484,511	33,140,525	93,625,036

Source: CBS - National Survey on Workforce August 2001 - 2011 processed by Ministry of Manpower.

Table 24. Female by Category of Workers 2001-2011 (Continuation)

Unit: Persons

Category of Worker	Per August 2005			Per August 2006			Per August 2007		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Own Account Workers	12,084,927	5,395,300	17,480,227	13,551,397	5,953,235	19,504,632	13,557,406	6,767,121	20,324,527
Employers assisted with temporary workers	16,733,500	4,505,614	21,239,114	15,669,243	4,277,489	19,946,732	15,890,034	5,134,263	21,024,297
Employers assisted with permanent workers	2,486,121	422,605	2,908,726	2,466,231	384,217	2,850,448	2,374,922	508,910	2,883,832
Regular Employee	17,551,791	8,189,298	25,741,089	17,934,753	8,887,136	26,821,889	18,911,566	9,130,824	28,042,390
Temporary workers in Agriculture	3,055,334	1,895,228	4,950,562	3,724,423	1,816,735	5,541,158	3,767,130	2,150,270	5,917,400
Temporary workers in Non Agriculture	3,494,554	595,521	4,090,075	3,868,884	749,396	4,618,280	3,713,835	744,937	4,458,772
Un paid workers/Family workers	5,332,360	13,205,965	18,538,325	4,762,358	11,411,438	16,173,796	4,933,045	12,345,954	17,278,999
Total	60,738,587	34,209,531	94,948,118	61,977,289	33,479,646	95,456,935	63,147,938	36,782,279	99,930,217

Source: CBS - National Survey on Workforce August 2001 - 2011 processed by Ministry of Manpower.

Table 24. Female by Category of Workers 2001-2011 (Continuation)

Unit: Persons

Category of Worker	Per August 2008			Per August 2009			Per August 2010			Per February 2011		
	Male	Female	Total									
Own Account Workers	13,536,283	7,385,284	20,921,567	13,761,401	7,284,606	21,046,007	13,839,393	7,191,178	21,030,571	13,555,462	7,593,849	21,149,311
Employers assisted with temporary workers	16,253,889	5,519,105	21,772,994	16,440,465	5,493,081	21,933,546	16,560,358	5,121,633	21,681,991	15,932,718	5,376,117	21,308,835
Employers assisted with permanent workers	2,486,057	529,269	3,015,326	2,516,447	516,773	3,033,220	2,704,395	557,469	3,261,864	2,915,253	679,315	3,594,568
Regular Employee	18,484,669	9,699,104	28,183,773	18,638,015	10,476,026	29,114,041	21,023,975	11,497,542	32,521,517	22,224,075	12,289,549	34,513,624
Temporary workers in Agriculture	3,827,136	2,164,357	5,991,493	3,739,483	2,139,411	5,878,894	3,790,321	2,024,789	5,815,110	3,496,113	2,079,812	5,575,925
Temporary workers in Non Agriculture	4,348,290	943,972	5,292,262	4,723,354	947,355	5,670,709	4,349,383	782,678	5,132,061	4,332,660	826,040	5,158,700
Un paid workers/Family workers	4,962,954	12,412,381	17,375,335	5,303,361	12,890,885	18,194,246	5,194,398	13,570,255	18,764,653	5,166,924	14,813,857	19,980,781
Total	63,899,278	38,653,472	102,552,750	65,122,526	39,748,137	104,870,663	67,462,223	40,745,544	108,207,767	67,623,205	43,658,539	111,281,744

Source: CBS - National Survey on Workforce August 2001 - 2011 processed by Ministry of Manpower.

C.4 Shares of Women in Poorest Quintile

Table 25. Shares of Women in Poorest Quintile, 2000-2008

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Women (million)	1,849	1,855	1,792	1,853	1,808	1,833	1,948	1,867	NA
Men (million)	1,877	1,856	1,776	1,881	1,807	1,847	1,982	1,860	NA
Total (million)	3,726	3,711	3,568	3,734	3,615	3,680	3,930	3,717	3,496
(% from total population)	18.95	18.40	17.60	17.42	16.66	16.69	17.75	16.58	15.42

NA – Not Available

Sources: Baknas 2002; BPS 2003 2004 2005 2006 2007, March 2008 taken from Women and Children in Indonesia 2008

The Centre Bureau of Statistics (CBS) notes that over a period of nine years (2000-2008), the number of women and men in poorest quintile have remained static (see Table 25).

D. Access to Resources

D.1 Ownership Rights to Land Houses and Other Property

Indonesia's Civil Code stipulates that men and women have equal ownership rights. Women in Indonesia have full rights concerning access to land, houses and other property, however most communities continue to follow patriarchal traditions and customs that limit women's access to productive resources. In the event of divorce both spouses retain whatever property they owned individually prior to the marriage and must equally divide any joint property. Women also have access to bank loans and credit and have the right to independently conclude contracts.

In rural areas, access to and control over land are basic assets for food production, income generation, and for the general well-being of households. Access to other productive resources, such as water, irrigation and forest products is also linked to rights to land tenure. For women, land tenure increases their bargaining power within the household and enhances their status as citizens in the community. Conversely, lack of rights to property may place constraints on women's ability to fulfill their productive roles and affect their power and influence in the household and community.

Land inheritance rights are governed by Islamic law in the case of Muslims and by Civil Code 48 (1847) in the case of non-Muslims. Islamic law has been codified in a "Compilation of Islamic Law (1991)"⁹ which is used as the basis for legal decisions made by religious courts. According to Islamic law, when a married person dies, half of any marital property becomes

⁹ Compiled in 1991 and formalized by the State through Presidential Instruction Number 1 of the Year 1991.

the separate property of the surviving spouse. The rules of dividing separate property are more complicated. A widow is entitled to one fourth of her husband's separate property if there are no children, and one eighth if there are children. Each son receives a share that is twice as large as each daughter's share, however, heirs can agree to ignore the rules or the provisions of a will and distribute the property along mutually agreed lines. The Civil Code which is applicable to non-Muslims provides that inheritance shares are equal. Customary laws add complexity to the situation as sometimes a number of different inheritance laws apply to some land, while traditional usage rights follow customary inheritance systems. There is, however, no customary law or tradition which requires that the land owned by a woman is to be passed only to her daughters or other female members of the extended family. The land owned by a woman is inherited by all of her children males and females alike.

Despite the fact that Indonesian law – specifically Article 35 of the 1974 Marriage Law – formally adopts the concept of joint ownership of property purchased during marriage, or marital property, few parcels of land are registered in the joint name of husband and wife. There is a strong tendency for such land to be registered in one name – that of the husband. Nationwide statistics on joint titling or registration by sex are not available. A study by SMERU (2002) shows that land in suburban areas of Java tends to be registered by women (wife) more often than land in urban or rural areas. Table 25 demonstrates the sex differences in registration of land title by marital status in Java.

Table 26. Registration of Land Title by Marital Status and Type of Land (Java) 2002

Type of Land	Wife	Husband	Joint Title
Urban	14.3	76.9	1.7
Suburban	27.4	67.4	2.8
Rural	20.4	66.7	1.0

Source: SMERU Research Institute, 2002, Land Administration Project.

The reason for the low number of joint titles is that registration officials do not explain adequately to couples that title certificates for marital property can be issued in the name of both spouses.¹⁰ Some registration officials believe these topics are outside the scope of the information meetings on registration of land titles. Others are not even aware of this possibility. These attitudes, even where customary norms grant women these rights, illustrate the difficulties that women face in exercising their legal status. Women's lack of awareness of the opportunity for joint titling also contributes to this situation. According to a study on land registration in Java, women and men alike felt confident that both spouses are owners of

¹⁰ Brown, Jennifer and Purwanti, Firliana. 2002. *Registration of Land and Women's Land Rights on Java: Why so Many Married Couples Register Marital Property in the Name of One Spouse and What has been the Impact on Women's Land Rights*. Washington, DC.

property purchased during marriage even if only one name is on the title certificate. Women may feel protected as co-owners in accordance with cultural and customary norms. Problems however may arise when land becomes a predominantly marketable asset and land rights are included in legal titles. Women in Indonesia are also disadvantaged in terms of access to and control over other key livelihood resources. In South Sulawesi men have *access to and control over* staple crops, perennial cash crops and large livestock. Women have *access to and control over* staple crops, *access to* perennial cash crops and *access to* large livestock.¹¹

D.2. Women's Access to Credit, Loans, Venture Capital

In Indonesia, women participate relatively actively in credit programs, particularly to support trading where women now dominate. Although there is no national quantitative data regarding women's access to credit, loans and venture capital, it is estimated that approximately 20 per cent of Indonesia's population depend on micro-and small-scale businesses to earn a living but that only 25 per cent of microenterprises have access to credit from formal financial institutions.¹² Although women are considered to be an important market for microfinance, targeting of women has never been a priority of the Indonesian microfinance industry: the average proportion of female clients served by major microfinance institutions has remained fairly constant over the last 20 years. Estimates from Bank Rakyat Indonesia units indicate that 25 per cent of both microcredit borrowers and micro savings customers are women. One of the main obstacles for women's access to credit is lack of collateral.

An additional form of discrimination is the bias against married women in access to credit. Article 108 of the Civil Code impedes married women from entering into contracts on their own behalf, requiring that husbands by their presence or permission assist women in formalizing contracts. There is also an inherent bias against the ability of married women to earn income from individual business activities. Tax regulations do not allow married women to be given a separate tax number, requiring them to use their husband's. This difficulty in engaging in formal financial activities such as opening a checking account will mitigate against application for credit.

Quantitative measurements of access to credit are insufficient to assess gender trends in access to credit. Income is only one indicator and it does not reveal whether microcredit for women actually implies that women have control over the loan. Additionally microcredit can add to women's workload. It is necessary to include measures of the extent of women's control over credit and income-generating activities specifically whether they have control over

¹¹Danya Hakim. 2002. *Gender Analysis Report*. Environmental Governance Program for the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA). Jakarta.

¹²Available: [www.bwtp.org/acrm/indonesia/I_Country_Profile/Indonesia-country profile htm](http://www.bwtp.org/acrm/indonesia/I_Country_Profile/Indonesia-country%20profile.htm). 3 July 2005.

income earned, how they use it, and whether or not women and men and boys and girls benefit equitably from increased household spending.

Lack of access to credit and financial services remains a major issue for women's access to economic opportunities. Credit could play an important role as part of a broader effort to raise women's awareness and mobilize their resources as an entry point toward strengthening women's networks and mobility. A means of increasing their knowledge and self-confidence it can also enhance their status within the family and community.

D.3 Percent of Women Using Internet and Cell Phones

Sex disaggregated data on using internet and cell phones in Indonesia are not collected regularly. Data on certain years show that women constitute only 20–30 percent of internet users in Indonesia.

Table 27. Development of Internet Subscriber and User in Indonesia

Year	Subscribers Both Sexes	Subscribers (Female)	Users Both Sexes	Users (Female)
1998	134	ND	512	ND
1999	256	ND	1,000,000	ND
2000	400	ND	1,900,000	ND
2001	581	ND	4,200,000	20%
2002	667,002	ND	4,500,000	ND
2003	865,706	ND	8,080,534	ND
2004	1,087,428	ND	11,226,143	24%
2005	1,500,000	ND	16,000,000	ND
2006	1,700,000	ND	20,000,000	ND
2007	2,000,000	ND	25,000,000	ND
2008	ND	ND	ND	ND
2009	ND	ND	31,000,000	43%
2010	ND	ND	45,000,000	35%

NA: Not Available

Source: APJII (2007-2010)

The National Socio-economic Survey (2007) compiled data on household access to information technology. It found that men have higher levels of access to telephone and cell phone (40 per cent) compared with women heads of household (32.9 per cent).

Table 28. Households with Access to Telephone/Cell Phone by Sex of Head of Household 2007

Head of Household	Percentage of Access
Men	40.7
Women	32.9

Source: National Socio Economic Survey CBS 2008

D.4 Use by Women of Railroads and Other Transportation Infrastructure

No sex disaggregated data related to transportation infrastructure are collected in Indonesia. Data exist on the number of passengers during IED Mubarak, when massive use of all mode of transportation occurs once a year – as shown below.

Table 29. Number of Passengers During IED MUBARAK Session Using all Means of Transportation 2009 – 2011

Mode of Transport	Total Passengers Men and Women		
	2009	2010	2011
Road (ground) transportation	5,904,691	5,447,046	5,246,320
Railroad transportation	2,187,018	2,232,550	1,894,028
Sea transportation	690,952	449,606	1,005,638
Ferry (short distance between islands)	1,783,976	2,845,890	3,214,965
Air Transportation	1,757,784	2,051,913	2,987,081

Source: Posko Angkutan Tingkat Nasional Angkutan Lebaran Terpadu Tahun 2011 (1432 H) – Ministry of Transportation Indonesia 2011

Introducing Gender Friendly Ground Transportation in Jakarta.

In August 2010, a new initiative of women-only train carriages was launched in Jakarta in an attempt to prevent sexual harassment on public transport. The government has announced plans to provide more transportation facilities geared toward women and children, aimed largely at tackling incidents of sexual harassment.

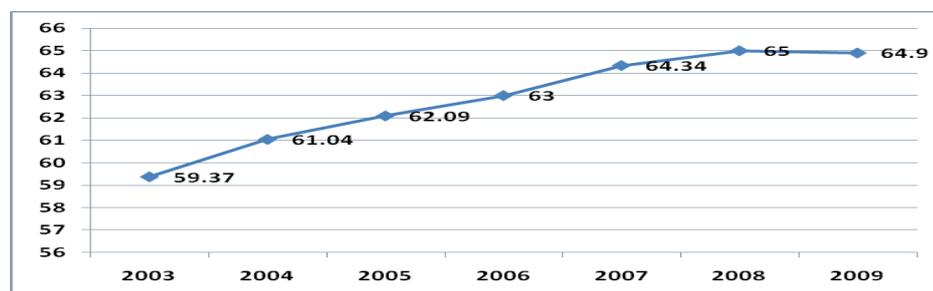
An agreement signed by the Ministry of Transportation and the State Ministry for Women's Empowerment and Child Protection on the gender issues of existing public transportation facilities and vehicles was modified to curb harassment, allow women to breast-feed their babies, and provide an all-round more comfortable commute. Among the measures to be taken under the agreement include the provision that bus terminals, train stations, air and sea ports will be required to provide nursing rooms.

In January 2012 the city's Trans-Jakarta rapid transit system (city buses) launched a pilot program to reduce sexual harassment, providing separate entry points and seats for women who travel alone, with other women, or with children and elderly.

D.5 Access of Women to Electricity including Penetration and Reliability in Rural Areas

The proportion of energy consumption for household use in Indonesia is the third largest (about 24 per cent) of total consumption. However, households at rural areas continue to depend on traditional fuel, requiring a great deal of time and physical energy to gather and tend. In rural areas, about 72 per cent of households use solid biomass fuel for cooking, such as wood, charcoal, and agricultural wastes. Collecting and managing these fuels is strictly women's business and unpaid work.

The electrification ratio is the ratio of households with electricity to total households. In 2009 this ratio reached 64.90 per cent compared to 59.37 per cent in 2003, as shown in Figure 5. 35.1 per cent of households have no access to electricity – these are mostly in rural areas.



Source: Energy and Electricity Statistics 2008

Figure 5. The Electrification Ratio in Indonesia

The rural electrification ratio is the percentage of villages with electricity to total villages. The number of villages on the grid to 2003 has been 66,520 villages of 70,993. Since 2008, the rate of increase has been decreasing due to changes in provincial management.

Table 30 Rural Electrification Ratio, 2003-2009

Year	Number of Village	Number of Customer	Village Electrified	
			Total	%
2003	62,937	29,997,554	53,622	85.20
2004	63,093	31,095,970	54,421	86.26
2005	63,093	32,174,485	55,213	87.51
2006	71,555	33,118,324	65,323	91.29
2007	71,557	35,629,804	65,776	91.92
2008	71,626	35,630,000	66,039	92.20
2009	70,993	36,714,000	66,520	93.70

Source: Energy and Electricity Statistics 2008, 2009 ; Strategic Planning, Ministry of Energy and Mineral Resources

E. Women's Agency

E.1 Shares of Women in Lower Houses of Parliaments

Under normal political circumstances general elections in Indonesia are held every five years. The 1955 election was recognized as democratically acceptable: several candidates came from women's organizations affiliated with the wide range of political parties which contested the election, and 17 women were elected to the legislature. The second election was not held because the Constituent Assembly which had been charged with amending the 1945 constitution was unable to complete its task and President Soekarno issued a decree in July 1959 that returned Indonesia to the terms of the 1945 constitution. At this point Indonesia became a 'guided democracy'.

The transition to the New Order of President Soeharto took place without an election. General elections were held in the New Order era in 1971, 1977, 1982, 1987, 1992, and 1997. In the New Order elections, with a single party system, women's representation was determined by the party's national-level elites.

The end of authoritarianism and the transition from the Soeharto government to that of B.J. Habibie in 1998 was followed by an early election in 1999. The electoral process underwent significant changes and the recruitment of party candidates for the legislature required approval of the regions, specifically regional party officials (although this did not apply to representatives from the armed forces and the police, who served as legislators until September 2004). The majority of the women elected in 1999 participated actively in the electoral process through community advocacy, discussions, speeches and other party activities associated with the election campaign.

After the 1999 election Abdurrahman Wahid was chosen as the new president by the Majelis Permusyawaratan (MPR People's Consultative Assembly) but was subsequently replaced by his deputy Megawati Soekarnoputri in 2001. During these two presidencies a major process of constitutional amendment took place. In this process Indonesia changed from an integrationist state in which the MPR was the single highest institution of the nation, to a conventional presidential system with separation of powers. As a result elections were held for the national legislature and for provincial and district legislatures in 2004, accompanied by the first election for the newly established second chamber of the legislature – the regional Representatives' Council. These elections were followed by Indonesia's first-ever direct presidential election in 2004 using a two-round system. Representation of women in the Parliament in the different periods can be seen in Table 31.

Table 31. Representation of Women and Men at the House of Representatives in Indonesia

PERIOD	FEMALE		MALE		Total Members of Parliament
	%	Total Female	%	Total Male	
1971 - 1977	7,8	36	92,2	424	460
1977 - 1982	6,3	29	93,7	431	460
1982 - 1987	8,5	39	91,5	421	460
1987 - 1992	13,0	65	87	435	500
1992 - 1997	13,0	65	87	435	500
1997 - 1999	10,8	54	89,2	446	500
1999 – 2004	9,0	45	91,0	455	500
2004 - 2009	11.27	62	89,3	488	550
2009 - 2014	18	101	82	459	560

Source: DPR RI Secretariat 2011

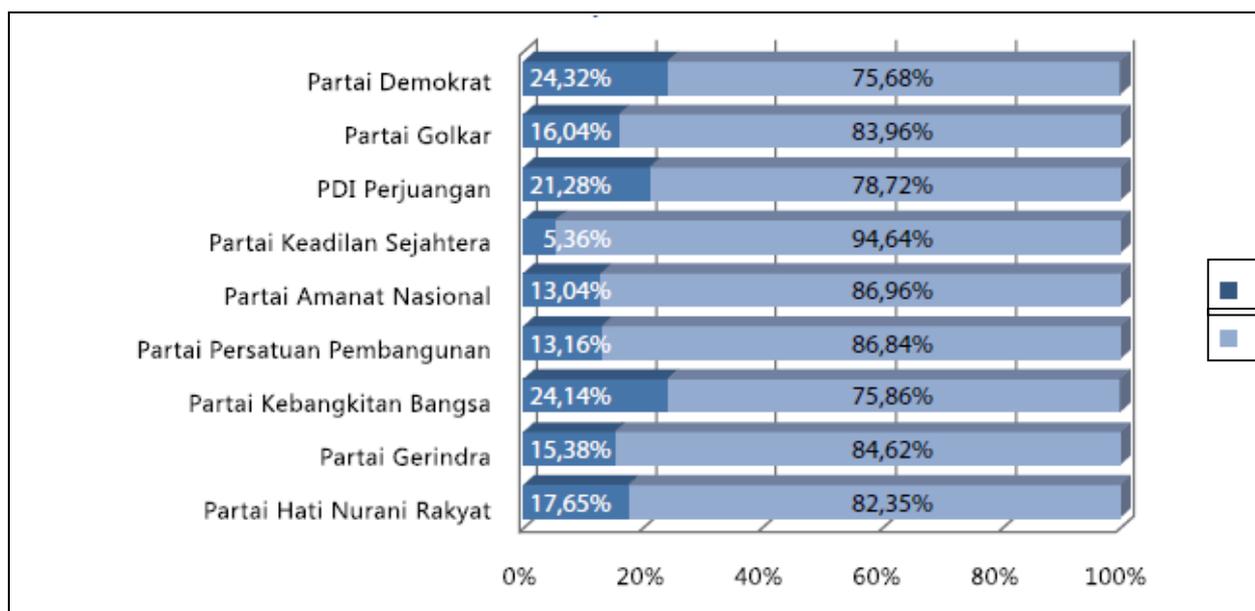
Although there is an increase in the number of female representatives, there continues to be a tendency for women to hold posts that are traditionally seen as 'soft' (i.e. relating to women's issues), so that the distribution of female members in the commissions of the national legislature reflects traditional patterns for dividing responsibilities between men and women (Table 32). Women's representation is relatively low in 'prestige' commissions which deal with economics, poverty and politics – all of which are significant in determining executive programmes and budgets.

Table 32. Percentage Members of Commissions of the Indonesian Parliament by Gender 2005-2009 and 2009-2011

Commission	2004-2009		2009-2014	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
I, Defence International Affairs and Information	2.1	97.9	15.56	84.44
II, Home Affairs Regional Autonomy Bureaucracy and Land Affairs	10.2	89.8	25.45	74.55
III, Constitution and Law Human Rights and Security	13.3	86.7	7.27	92.73
IV, Agriculture Estate Forestry Sea Resources Fishery and Food	4.0	96.0	10.91	89.09
V, Transportation Telecommunications Public Works Housing Village Development and Less Developed Region	3.8	96.2	10.91	89.09
VI, Trade Industry Investment Cooperatives Small and Medium-Scale Enterprises and Public Enterprises	9.4	90.6	12.00	88.00
VII, Energy Mineral Resources Research and Technology and Environment	3.9	96.1	9.09	90.91
VIII, Religion Social and Women Empowerment	31.1	68.9	22.92	77.08
IX, Population Health Manpower and Transmigration	20.0	80.0	42.55	57.45
X, Education Youth Sports Tourism Arts and Culture	20.8	79.2	26.00	74.00
XI, Finance and National Development Planning Banking and Non-bank Institutions	10.7	89.3	20.00	80.00
Total number persons	62	550	108	560

Source: DPR RI Secretariat 2011.

Representation of women and men from various parties in Parliament can be seen in Figure 6.



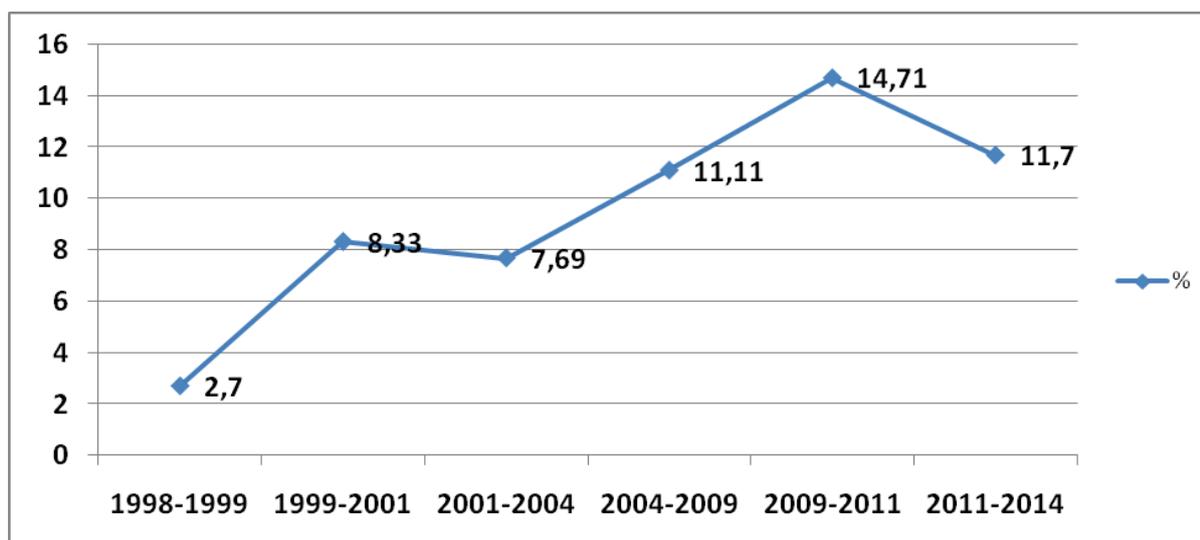
Source: DPR RI 2011 (Office of Parliament of Indonesia, 2011)

Figure 6. Representation of Women and Men in Parliament by Party, 2009

Further strategies to enhance the representation of women in Parliament include introducing a quota system in political parties and ensuring the accession of women to strategic decision-making positions; conducting advocacy with the leaders of political parties to enhance awareness of the needs of a significant voting block; enhancing women’s access to the media as a tool to rally public opinion; empowering women through education, training and increased access to information; and introducing a formal quota system with enforcement mechanisms to increase the number of female members of the legislature.

E.2 Shares of Women Ministers and Sub Ministers

The total cabinet members (Ministry Offices) in 2011 is 34. The number of female ministers is 4 (11.7 per cent), a decrease from 2009-2010 (14.7 per cent). The ministries currently led by women are the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Creative Economy, the Ministry of Women’s Empowerment and Child Protection, and the Ministry of National Development Planning. Of the total 18 (eighteen) vice ministers there were only two women during the period 2011-2014 – Vice Minister of Education and Culture and Vice Minister of Finance. Female representation in cabinet over several years is shown in Figure 7 and Table 33.



Source: Data processed from the President's Office and CBS 2011

Figure 7 Percentage of Women Ministers after 1998 in Indonesia

Table 33. Share of Women Ministers and Sub Ministers in Indonesia 1998 - 2011

	1998-1999	1999-2001	2001-2004	2004-2009	2009-2011	2011-2014
Total Ministry	36	37	33	36	34	34
Minister	1	2	2	4	5	5
%	2.7	5.4	6.06	11.11	14.71	11.7
Vice Minister	0	0	0	0	0	2

Sources: Data processed from President's Office and CBS 2011

Table 34 Number of Women Decision Makers in Ministries and Sub-Ministers, 2001-2008

Year	Number of Civil Servants by Occupation and Sex				
	1st Echelon	2nd Echelon	3rd Echelon	4th Echelon	5th Echelon
2008	63	506	6,088	43,203	3,023
2007	62	622	6,378	43,649	3,026
2006	62	709	7,156	45,240	2,815
2005	63	755	7,509	47,422	3,102
2004	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
2003	47	766	7,003	45,696	2,485
2002	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
2001	26	155	1,354	10,603	20,902

NA: Not Available

Sources: The Participation of Women in Politics and Government UNDP Indonesia 2010

E.3 Women in Senior Position in Political Parties, Employer Associations, Professional Organization, NGOs, and Community Based Association

The Political Parties ACT No. 2/2008 Article 2 Paragraph 5 stipulates that political parties must implement a quota of 30 per cent women on their Governing Board. Data collected from major political parties show that none has met this quota. Data available concerning the female membership on the Board of nine political parties in the 2004 election show that except for one party (PDI-P) which has a woman as its leader, not a single party has women as holders of the highest leadership position.

Table 35. Percentage of Female and Male Membership at the Central Board of Political Parties

Name of the Political Party	Before the General Election in 2008		After the General Election in 2009		
	Female	Male	Period	Female	Male
Demokrat	8.78	91.22	2005-2010	26.92	73.08
Golkar	31.82	68.18	2009-2015	29.79	70.21
PDI Perjuangan	37.04	62.96	2010-2015	14.81	85.19
Partai Keadilan Sejahtera	35.09	64.91	2005-2010	6.78	93.22
Partai Amanat Nasional	30.95	69.05	2010-2015	17.02	82.98
Partai Persatuan Pembangunan	31.25	68.75	2007-2012	18.92	81.08
Partai Kebangkitan Bangsa	33.33	66.67	2008-2013	31.88	68.12
Partai Gerindra	30.47	69.53	2009-2014	16.67	83.33
Partai Hati Nurani Rakyat	32.33	67.67	2010-2015	32.65	67.35

Source: Data processed from DPR RI 2010 ; Women's Participation in Politics in Indonesia UNDP. May 2010

Table 36. Representation of Women in 13 National Commission

No.	Commission	Period	Female		Male		Both Sexes No
			No	%	No	%	
1	National Commission on the protection of women	2010-2014	13	86.72	2	13.3	15
2	Anti Corruption Commission	2009-2014	0	0	5	100	5
3	Yudicial Commission	2002-2010	0	0	6	100	6
4	the commission superintendent of a business competition	2006-2011	2	18.2	8	81	10
5	National Commission on Human Rights	2007-2012	1	10	10	90	11
6	Ombudsman RI	2000- now	2	33.3	4	66.7	6
7	National Commission on Child Protection	2007-2012	5	46.5	6	54.5	11
8	The Indonesian Broadcasting Commission	2007-2012	2	25	6	75	8
9	Commission on the General Election	2007-2012	3	43	4	57	7
10	Board of Trustees elections	2008-2013	3	60	2	40	5
11	National Law Commission	2000- now	0	0	4	100	4
12	Public Information Commission	2009- now	1	14	6	85	7
13	National Police Commission	2009-2012	1	20	4	80	5

Source: Women's Participation in Politics and Government in Indonesia, UNDP, 2010

Table 37. Members of Trade Unions (June 2009)

Unit: Persons, %

Trade Union in Province	Number of Unions	Member			Total
		Female	Male	% Female of Total	
West Java	172	82,961	36,960	69.18	119,921
Banten	44	51,238	29,985	63.08	81,223
Jakarta	61	19,238	5,863	76.64	25,101
Central Java	123	112,695	52,846	68.07	165,541
Yogyakarta	13	2,472	3,572	40.9	6,044
East Java	44	29,325	7,278	80.01	36,603
Deli Serdang	4	1,596	543	74.61	2,139
Total	461	299,525	137,047		436,572

Source: Jurnal Kajian Perburuhan SEDANE Vol 6 No, 1, 2009 dalam Partisipasi Perempuan dalam Politik dan Pemerintahan, UNDP, 2010

Table 38. Women as Heads of Government

Institutions	Year	Women		Men	
		Total	%	Total	%
Governor (prov. level)	2009	1	3	32	97
Mayor/regent	2009	10	22.72	430	97.73
Head of the Village	2010	2,456	3.91	60,352	96.09

Source: Women's Participation in Politics and Governance, UNDP, 2010

E.4 Contraceptive Use

Modern contraceptives play an important role in reducing unwanted pregnancies and deaths from unsafe abortions. Data show that 57.4 per cent of married women aged 15-49 were using a modern method of contraception in 2007. This figure shows an increase from 2002 and 2004 (Table 39). Modern methods include oral contraceptives, IUDs, injectables, female and male sterilization, all emergency contraception, and barrier methods (diaphragm foam jelly male and female condom).

Table 39. Contraceptive Prevalence Rates Modern Methods Married Women 15-49 Years

Unit: %

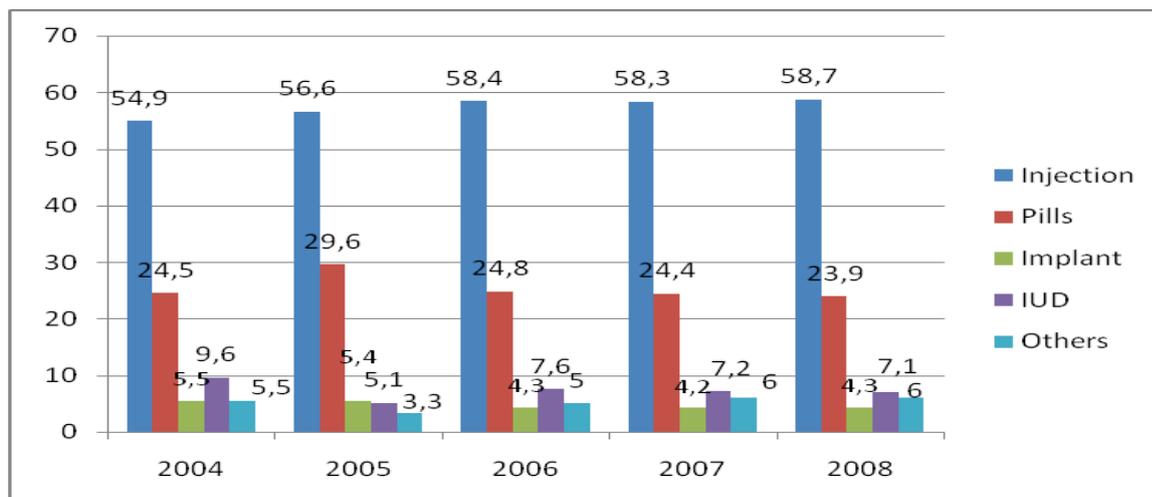
1987	1991	1994	1997**	2002***	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
43.9	47.1	52.1	54.7	54.19	54.54	56.71	57.89	57.91	57.43	56.62

Source: **Indonesia DHS (Demographic and Health Survey) Indonesia DHS - Preliminary Report

*** Statistik Indonesia tahun 2008

Source: http://www.searo.who.int/en/Section313/Section1520_13441.htm - 6 Dec 2011

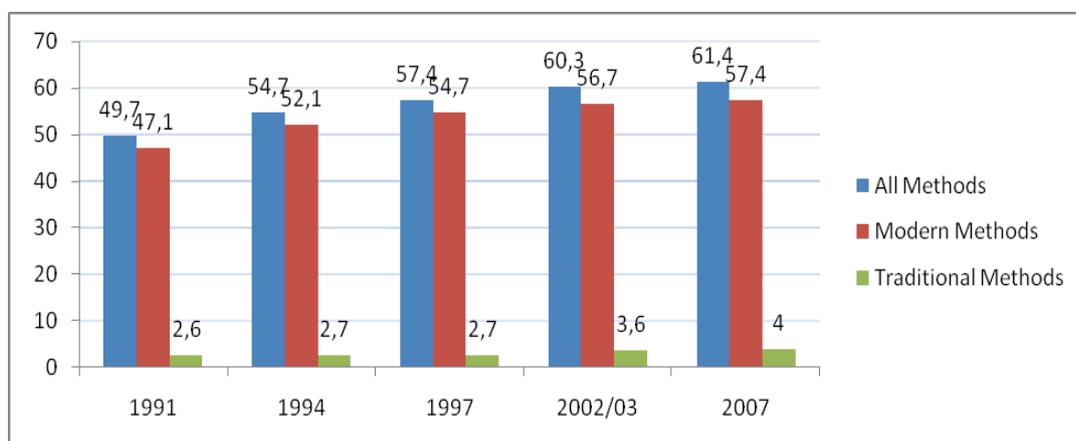
Data on certain years show that the most popular contraceptive methods were injectibles and the birth control pill. The percentage of injectibles tended to increase while use of the birth control pill decreased (Figure 8).



Source: Indonesian Statistics 2008 (from National Socio Economic Survey 2008) and Indonesian Health Profile 2008 Department of Health 2009

Figure 8. Percentage of Married Women 15-49 Years of Age Using Several Contraceptive Methods

Contraceptive prevalence rate for various methods tended to increase from 2001 to 2007 as shown in Figure 9.



Source: MDGs Progress Report 2010 Ministry of National Development Planning

Figure 9. Contraceptive Prevalence Rate of Various Methods for Married Women (15-49 Year) 1991 - 2007

The percentage of women using traditional methods also increased to 4 per cent in 2007. Traditional methods include periodic abstinence (rhythm) and withdrawal. In rural areas many women use traditional herbs to prevent pregnancy.

F. Opportunity and Capability

F.1 Men's/Women's Adult Literacy Rates

Table 40. Female and Male (Age 15-24) Literacy and Illiteracy Rates, 2001-2009

Year	Literacy (%)		Illiteracy (%)	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
2009	99.40	99.55	0.60	0.45
2008	99.38	99.54	0.62	0.46
2007	98.76	98.92	1.24	1.08
2006	88.40	94.60	11.60	5.40
2005	87.50	94.30	12.50	5.70
2004	86.80	94.00	13.20	6.00
2003	87.72	94.16	12.28	5.84
2002	87.31	94.15	12.69	5.85
2001	85.46	93.13	14.54	6.87

Source: MDG Report Indonesia 2010 and Ministry of Women's Empowerment

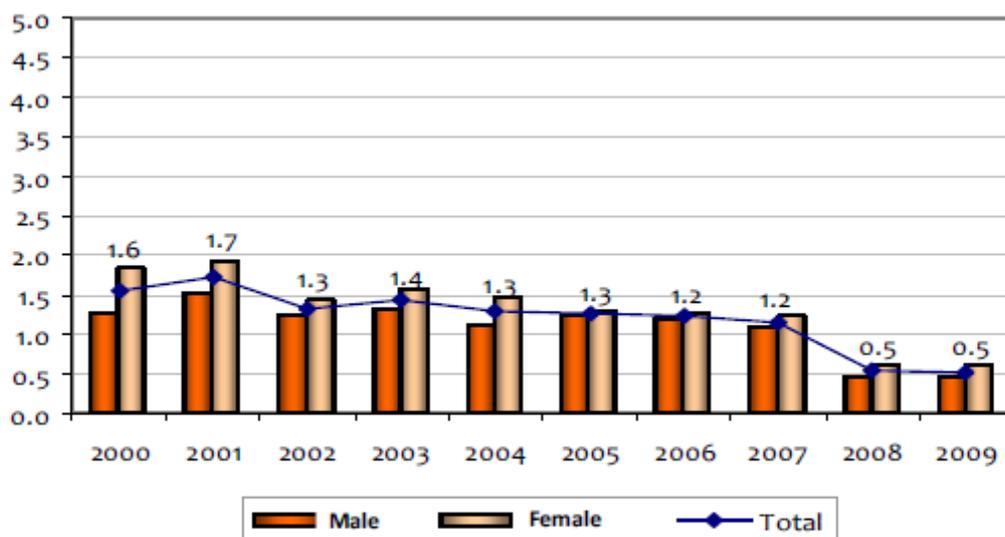
Among ASEAN Countries, Indonesia also made some progress in increasing the rate of female literacy. Comparison of female literacy rate among ASEAN Countries can be seen below.

Table 41. Female's Literacy Rate among ASEAN Countries

Country	Literacy Rate (%)		
	1990	2000	2004
Brunei Darussalam	79.5	88.2	99.3
Cambodia	48.0	57.0	60.1
Indonesia	78.7	82.1	86.8
Lao PDR	38.6	50.5	74.7
Malaysia	74.6	85.4	93.2
Myanmar	74.4	91.0	93.2
Philippines	92.0	95.7	95.7
Singapore	83.0	88.6	92.0
Thailand	91.2	94.0	97.8
Vietnam	84.5	91.5	91.5

Source: ASEAN Statistical Year Book 2006

Illiteracy rates tend to decrease from year to year as shown below.



Source: Susenas, BPS

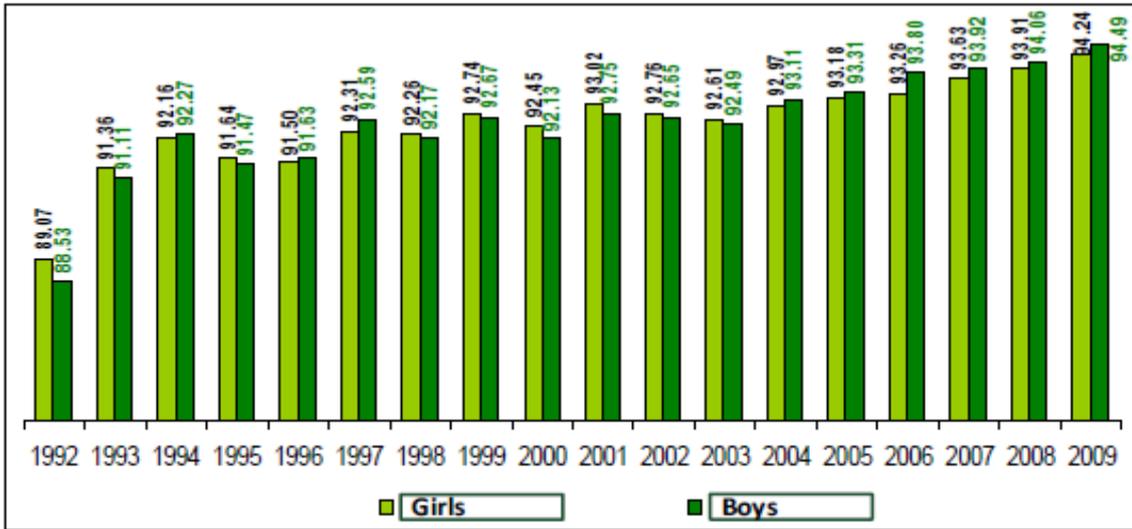
Figure 10. Trend of Illiteracy Rate among Ages 15-24 Based on Sex, 2000-2009

F.2 Net Primary, Secondary, and Tertiary Enrollments

Table 42. Net Enrollment Ratio Female to Male in Primary, Junior, Secondary and High Education, 2000-2007
Unit: %

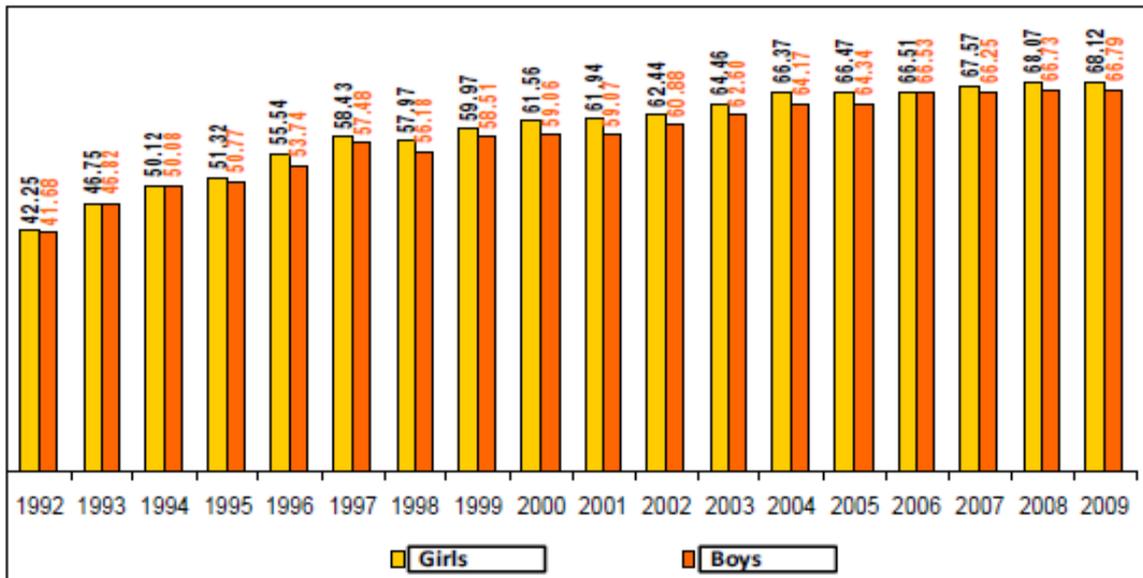
Year	Primary	Yunior	Secondary	High
2000	100.3	104.2	103.7	89.9
2001	100.3	104.8	100.1	87.1
2002	100.1	102.5	97.2	92.1
2003	100.1	102.9	100.4	94.9
2004	99.84	103.3	98.7	99
2005	99.86	103.3	100.1	103
2006	99.42	99.96	100	102.51
2007	99.69	101.9	98.8	107.9
2008	99.84	102	98.8	107.2
2009	99.73	101.99	96.1	102.95

Source: MDGs Report 2010, National Development and Planning Agency Indonesia



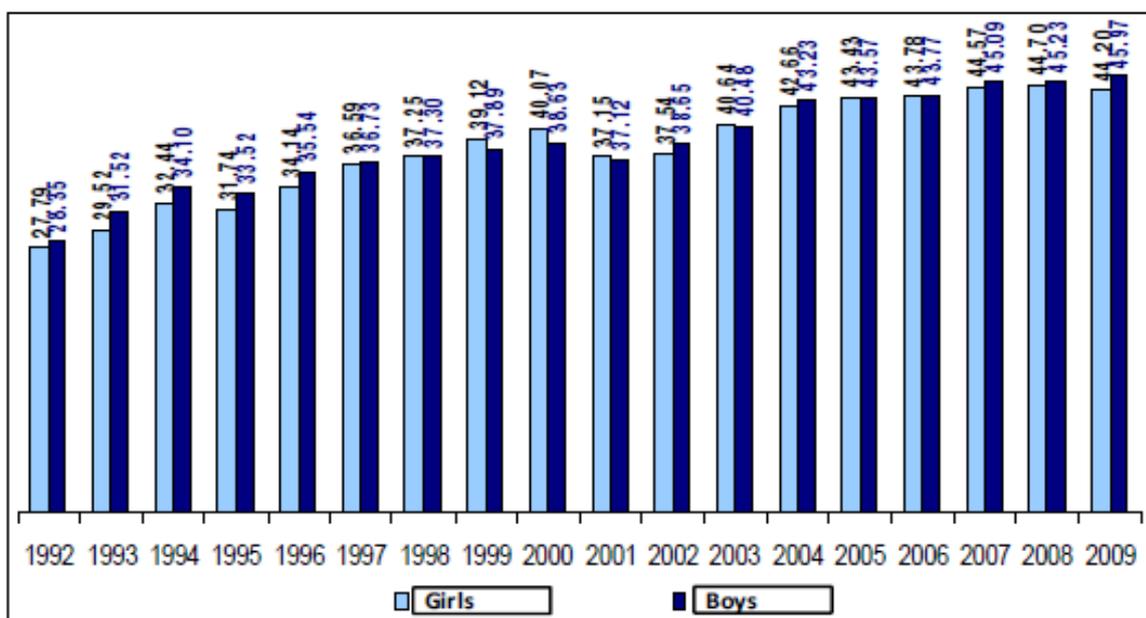
Source: Susenas, Central Bureau of Statistics (BPS)

Figure 11. Development of NER for Primary School 1992 – 2009



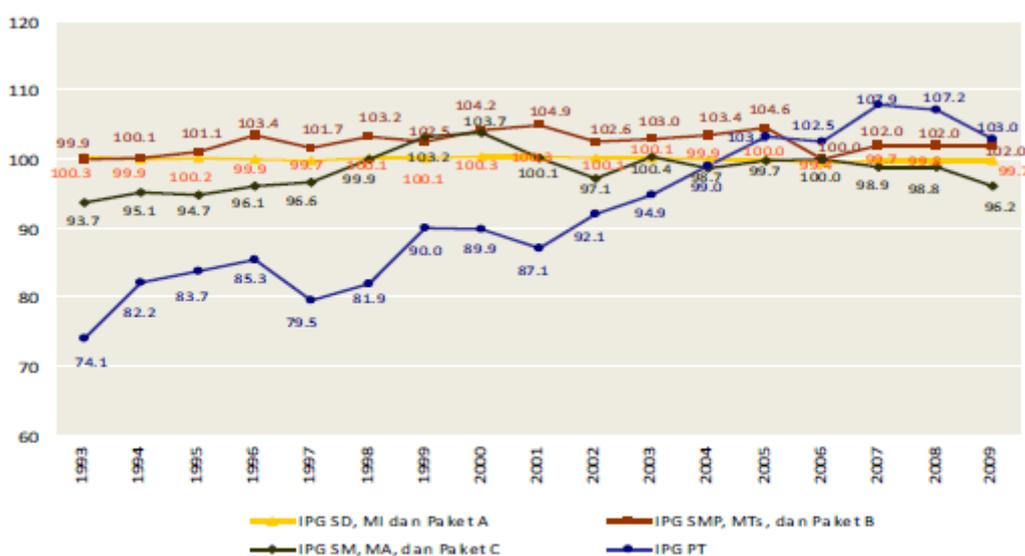
Source: Susenas, BPS

Figure 12. Development of NER for Junior High School 1992-2009



Source: Susenas, BPS

Figure 13. Development of NER for Senior High School 1992 – 2009



Source: Susenas, BPS

Figure 14. Development of Gender Parity Index NER for Primary, Junior, Secondary, and High School 1993-2009

Data available for comparison among ASEAN Countries are for 1990, 1995, and 2004, as shown in Table 43.

Table 43. Net Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Enrollment among ASEAN Countries Unit: %

Country	NER Primary School			NER Secondary School		
	1990	1995	2004	1990	1995	2004
Brunei Darussalam	87.2	-	-	74.0	-	96.0
Cambodia	-	89.9	95.6	-	-	24.0
Indonesia	95.0	94.0	93.3	-	-	64.0
Lao PDR	57.6	65.9	81.7	-	-	39.0
Malaysia	93.1	95.6	-	69.2	74.8	81.0
Myanmar	97.3	-	87.4	-	-	40.0
Philippines	96.3	93.4	95.0	-	62.8	90.0
Singapore	95.9	95.9	-	82.7	93.0	-
Thailand	74.6	86.0	-	-	50.0	74
Vietnam	86.5	-	-	-	-	72

Source: ASEAN Statistical Year Book 2006

F.3 Availability of on-the-job, staff, specialized training for women and men

Since most illiterates are adult females, the government has provided the following education programs targeting women:

- Supporting adult women to get access to literacy programs and equivalency education as needed;
- Providing life skill programs for women based on their needs and resource conditions;
- Conducting workshops and training for women on vocational skills to enable them to generate income ;
- Developing and extending independent entrepreneurship learning units at sub-district levels.

Table 44. Specialized Training for Women and Men in 2008-2009 (Unit: Persons)

Type of Training	2008		2009	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Literacy program for adults	245,908	353,831	221,388	291,014
Administrative and management Skills	461,750	359,177	528,843	396,639
Business/entrepreneurship skills	52,619	13,951	7,025	4,299

Source: Statistics of Non-Formal Education, Ministry of National Education, 2009-2010

Table 45. Number of Female Participants Who Pursue Life Skills Education Held by Vocational School (Unit: 1000)

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2009	2010
Total number	1,931.7	1,928	2,099.7	2,141.5	2,164	2,231.9	2,401.7	2,738.9	3,095.7	3,319
Female	835.6	871.5	907.2	890.8	917.8	936.1	995.5	1,130.7	1,271.3	1,376.7
% F	0.43	0.45	0.43	0.41	0.42	0.42	0.41	0.41	0.41	0.41

Source: Statistics of Vocational School, Center of Statistics of Education, Ministry of National Education of Republic of Indonesia, 2000-2011

Life skills education is categorized into English, Economics, Tourism, Art, etc. Unfortunately, there are no data on participants in each category.

G. Enabling Policy Environment

G.1 Knowledge Society Policy Environment

The amendment to the 1945 Constitution, in particular article 28D (1), states, “every person has the right to equitable legal recognition, guarantee, protection, and certainty and to equal treatment before the law.”

The Ministry of Women’s Empowerment and Child Protection issued a National Policy on Women’s Empowerment with the objective to achieve increased quality of life of women, the enhanced role of women, and child protection, including: (1) to ensure gender justice in various laws and regulations, development programs, and public policies; (2) to improve the the GDI and GEM ranking of Indonesia through the achievement of gender equality and justice, and increasing the position of women in public life; (3) to eliminate violence against women ; and (4) to improve the welfare and protection of women and increase child rights.

G.2 Gender Specific Policies

- (1) Presidential Instruction No. 9 of the year 2000 on Gender Mainstreaming in National Development
The President instructed all Ministers, Heads of State Institutions (including the Armed Forces), the Attorney General, Governors of all Provinces, chiefs of district and mayors of all cities to mainstream gender in implementing planning, formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and development programs. The State Minister of Women Empowerment is tasked with providing technical assistance to government agencies at the national and regional levels, and reporting to the President concerning the implementation of Instruction.
- (2) Law No 2/1989 on the National Education System of 9 years compulsory primary education initiated in 1994 – Parents are encouraged to send their children to school, both girls or boys, to complete Junior High School at least.
- (3) Presidential Decree (Keppres) Number 83 of the year 1998 concerning Ratification of ILO Convention No. 87 of 1948 concerning freedom for union/organization and protection for the right to organize.
- (4) ILO Convention No 29 of 1930 concerning forced labor which was ratified in 1950.
- (5) Law Number 19 of 1999 concerning the Ratification of ILO Convention No.105 on the Abolishment of Forced Labor.

- (6) Act No.20/1999 concerning the Ratification of ILO Convention No. 138 on Minimum Age for Admission to Employment.
- (7) Law Number 80 of the 1987 concerning the ratification of ILO Convention Number 100 on equal pay for men and women for work of equal value.
- (8) Law No 20 of 1999 concerning ratification of ILO Convention No. 138 of 1973 on Minimum Age of Work.
- (9) Law No 21 of 1999 concerning ratification of ILO Convention No. 111 of 1958 on Equal Remuneration.
- (10) ILO Convention No. 100 of 1951, which was ratified by Act No. 80 of 1987 on the Employment Accidents.
- (11) Law Number 19 of 1999 concerning the Ratification of ILO Convention No.105 on the Abolishment of Forced Labor.
- (12) Act No.20/1999 concerning the Ratification of ILO Convention No. 138 on Minimum Age for Admission to Employment.
- (13) Law Number 80 of 1987 concerning the ratification of ILO Convention Number 100 on equal pay for men and women for work of equal value.

G.3 CEDAW-Specific Policies

Several national laws that serve as an effort to protect human rights in Indonesia include, among others:

- Law No 7/1984 on Ratification of the Convention on Elimination of Discrimination Against Women.
- Law Number 5 of 1998 concerning the Ratification of Anti-Torture Convention
- Law Number 29 of 1999 concerning the Ratification of the Anti Racial Discrimination Convention, Act Number 39 of 1999 concerning Human Rights, Act No.1/2000 concerning the Ratification of ILO Convention No. 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labor, Act No.23/ 2002 concerning Child Protection and Presidential Decision No 36 of the Year 1990 concerning the Ratification on the Convention of the Rights of the Child. And lastly, the ratification of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights through Law No 12 of the year 2005 and the ratification of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights through Law No 11 of the year 2005.
- Law No 23/2004 on Elimination of Domestic Violence

The ratification of these various conventions can be seen as the commitment of the Government of Indonesia to international efforts to provide guarantee and fulfillment of human rights, women's rights and children's rights. However, even though Indonesia has committed

itself to several international legal instruments through the ratification of conventions, there remains a gap between policy and implementation.

There has been an effort to promote human rights in Indonesia through the formulation of a Truth and Reconciliation Commission. However the law that governs the Commission has ignored the survivor interests to the extent that a human rights group submitted the law to the Constitutional Court for withdrawal. The subsequent withdrawal of the Commission means that Indonesia now has no mechanism for handling gross human rights violation cases outside of formal court.

G.4 Gender Budgets

The tool of gender responsive budgets was introduced by the Ministry of Finance since 2010, through the Ministry of Finance Act No. 119/2009 and Ministry of Finance Act No. 104/2010. Gender responsive budgets are to be implemented in 2012 in eleven Ministries, such as Ministry of Energy, Ministry of Public Work, Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Transportation, etc. Gender responsive budgets are required to be supported by gender-impact assessments implemented by the Ministries in cooperation with universities and national research institutes.

G.5 Institutionalization of Science and Engineering

(1) Ministry for Research and Technology

The State Ministry for Research and Technology was established in 1973. One of its functions is to coordinate the research and technology development activities of all government agencies. The Ministry is also responsible for the coordination, monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of the Strategic Policy for National Development of Science and Technology. Under the Ministry of Research and Technology there are about seven R&D institutions, namely: Indonesian Institute of Sciences, National Agency for Atomic Energy, National Coordination for Survey and Mapping, Agency for the Application and Assessment of Technology, National Aerospace Agency, Agency for National Standardization. In each institution there is a gender working group that is responsible for gender studies in that institution.

The Vision of Science and Technology Development

"... a wealthy and dynamic Indonesian Society, based on the capability to utilize, develop and mater humane science and technology, to support the building of a just society, the improvement of the quality of life, the preservation of the environment and natural resources, to ensure their sustainable utilization".

(2) The Ministry for Women’s Empowerment and Child Protection

The State Ministry for Women’s Empowerment and Child Protection was established in 1978, with the primary task to formulate policies and initiate, coordinate, monitor and evaluate the implementation of programs and activities to enhance the status and role of women in the family and society. Currently the focus of the Ministry is formulation of government policies and to coordinate and integrate the planning, monitoring and evaluation of women’s empowerment programs in addition to initiating and coordinating programs and activities pertaining to the enhancement of the role and status of women to achieve gender equality and equity. Since 2003 the Ministry has also been tasked with monitoring and evaluating gender mainstreaming in development policies and programs. The implementation of programs for the advancement of women in different sectors and regions remains the responsibility of the line ministries and regions. Beside the empowerment of women, the Ministry is also responsible for policies and programs regarding the protection of the rights of the child. The **vision** of women’s empowerment is the achievement of gender equality and justice within the family, community and state.

KNOWLEDGE SOCIETY OUTCOMES

H. Women in Knowledge Society Decision Making

H.1 Shares of Women as Legislator, Senior Officials, and Managers

Table 46. Shares of Women as Legislators, Senior Officials, and Managers, 2006-2010

Year	Female (%)	Male (%)	F to M Ratio
2006	17	83	0.20
2007	17	83	0.20
2008	17	83	0.20
2009	22	78	0.28
2010	22	78	0.28

Source: WEF Gender Gap Report 2010

The ratio of female to male as legislators, senior officials and managers has seen almost no change in the last five years. The low participation of females in these positions is reflected in the equivalent rates of participation of women in higher education.

H.2 Shares of Businesses with 35 per cent or More Women in Decision Making Positions

There are no data available in the country regarding shares of businesses with 35 per cent or more women in decision making positions. However, the GMI reported that the percentage of women on Boards in Indonesia is increasing, as shown in Table 47 below.

Table 47. Aggregate Percentage of Women on Boards in Emerging Asia, 2009-2011

Country	Number of Companies Rated by GMI			Aggregat Percentage Women on Boards		
	2009	2010	2011	2009	2010	2011
Indonesia	15	17	23	3.7	4.1	4.5
Malaysia	26	27	28	4.8	5.9	6.3
China	66	78	97	6.7	7.2	8.5
India	54	53	61	4.2	4.8	4.8
Thailand	11	11	18	9.0	10.4	8.7
Philippines	4	6	9	25.0	19.0	11.6
South Korea	86	81	91	1.1	1.5	1.9

Source: Governance Metrics International (GMI), 2011 – Women on Boards Report www.gmiratings.com

Other Tables related to women on boards also reported by GMI are shown below. This data could give us a description of the situation in Asian emerging countries.

Table 48. Aggregate Percentage of Companies with at Least One Woman Director in Emerging Asia

Country	Number of Companies Rated by GMI			% of Companies with at least 1 Women Director		
	2009	2010	2011	2009	2010	2011
Indonesia	15	17	23	26.7	29.4	30.4
Malaysia	26	27	28	30.8	37.0	46.4
China	66	78	97	48.5	48.7	58.8
India	54	53	61	38.9	43.4	39.3
Thailand	11	11	18	72.7	81.8	66.7
Philippines	4	6	9	100	100	66.7
South Korea	86	81	91	9.3	13.6	15.4

Source: Governance Metrics International, 2011 – Women on Boards Report www.gmiratings.com

Table 49. Aggregate Percentage of Companies with a Female Chair in Emerging Asia

Country	% of Companies with a Female Chair		
	2009	2010	2011
Indonesia	-	-	4.3
China	1.5	1.3	3.1
India	3.7	3.8	3.3
South Korea	1.2	2.5	3.3

Source: Governance Metrics International, 2011 – Women on Boards Report, www.gmiratings.com

H.3 Shares of Women as Decision Makers at Research Institutions and Academies of Science

Shares of women as decision makers at all research institutions is less than 30 per cent, except for the National Research Council, where women serve as Executive Secretary and Vice Director.

Table 50. Number of Men and Women as Director, Vice Director, Executive Secretary and Deputy at Several Research Institutions, 2012 Unit: Person

Research Institution	Male	Female	Total	% F
Indonesian Institute of Sciences	6	2	8	25
The Agency for the Assessment and Application of Tech.	6	1	7	14.3
National Atomic Energy Agency	6	0	6	0
National Research Council	1	2	3	66.6
Agency for Coordination of National Survey and Mapping	5	0	5	0
National Standardization Agency of Indonesia	4	1	5	20
Indonesian Academy of Science	3	1	4	25
Indonesian Coffee and Cocoa Research Institute	5	0	5	0
Indonesian Palm Oil Research Institute	5	0	5	0

Source: Personnel Office from each institution (Primary data-Survey)

Table 51. Members of Commissions at the Indonesian Academy of Sciences, 2012

Commission	Male	Female	Total	% F
Basic Science	7	2	9	22.2
Engineering Science	11	0	11	0
Medical Science	9	2	11	18.2
Social Science	6	2	8	25
Cultural Science	7	2	9	22.2
TOTAL	40	8	48	16.6

Source: www.aiji.go.id

Table 52. Members of Commissions at the National Research Council, 2012

Commission	Male	Female	Total	% F
Food Security	13	1	14	7.14
Energy	10	1	11	9.0
Transportation	11	2	13	15.38
ICT	11	2	13	15.38
Security and Defence	14	0	14	0
Health and Medicine	9	3	12	25
Basic Science	8	1	9	11.11
Social Science and Humanity	8	3	11	27.27
TOTAL	84	13	97	13.40

Source: National Research Council, 2012

I. Women in Knowledge Economy

I.1 Shares of Women in Professional and Technical Positions

Table 53. Shares of Females and Males in Professional and Technical Positions 2004 -2011

Unit: 1000 Persons

	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	2,976	3,356	3,615	4,314	5,187	5,914	7,632	7,587
Female	1,491	1,724	1,885	2,113	2,472	2,804	3,680	3,931
% F	50.1	51.3	52.1	48.98	47.65	47.41	48.22	51.81

Source: CBS National Survey on Work Force August 2004- 2009 – 2010 and February 2011, Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration

The proportion of females in professional and technical occupations increased from 48.22 in 2010 to 51.81 in 2011. Due to an increase in health and educational participation, more female professionals are found in health and educational occupations.

I.2 Shares of Women in Administrative and Managerial Positions

Table 54. Shares of Women in Administrative and Managerial Positions 2004-2011

Unit: 1000 Persons

	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	148	240	319	446	947	1573	1657	1107
Female	18	36	75	56	180	305	351	219
% F	12.26	15	23.5	12.55	19	19.39	21.18	19.78

Source: CBS National Survey on Work Force August 2004 - 2009 – 2010 and February 2011, Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration

The percentage of females in administrative and managerial positions is very low compared to men.

I.3 Employment by Economic Activity

Table 55 shows data on men and women in economic activities based on nine categories of industry: (1) agricultural, fishing and forestry; (2) mining; (3) processing industry; (4) electricity, gas, and water; (5) construction; (6) wholesale, restaurant and retail; (7) transportation, storage and communication; (8) finance, insurance; (9) community, and social services. February 2011 data reveal that 38.16 per cent of all employed (38 per cent of all women and 38.27 per cent of men) were working in agriculture, which is considered the largest employer.

The second largest employment sector in 2011 was wholesale, restaurant and retail, at 20.88 per cent with 26.93 per cent of all employed females and 16.97 per cent of all males

found here. By contrast, the shares of both women and men employed in electricity, gas and water industry were relatively small (0.23 per cent). More detailed breakdowns of female labour market share are presented in Table 55.

Table 55. Employment by Economic Activity and Gender 2003-2006
(Unit: 1000 persons)

Category of Industry	Per August 2003			Per August 2004			Per August 2005			Per February 2006		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1. Agricul hunting fishing forestry	27,385	14,616	42,001	25,820	14,788	40,608	26,354	15,460	41,814	26,369	13,766	40,135
2. Mining	642	86	728	869	165	1,034	711	98	809	817	106	923
3. Processing Industry	6,539	4,388	10,927	6,660	4,410	11,070	6,860	4,792	11,652	7,005	4,885	11,890
4. Electricity, gas, and water	144	12	156	210	20	230	163	23	186	202	25	227
5. Constructn	3,977	130	4,107	4,428	112	4,540	4,299	117	4,416	4,574	123	4,697
6. Wholesale, restaurant, and retail	9,303	7,543	16,846	10,231	8,888	19,119	10,055	8,842	18,897	10,330	8,885	19,215
7. Transport storage communication	4,814	163	4,977	5,286	195	5,481	5,356	197	5,553	5,374	290	5,664
8. Finance insurance	953	342	1,295	843	282	1,125	777	266	1,043	953	393	1,346
9. Community social services	6,151	3,595	9,746	6,234	4,280	10,514	6,163	4,414	10,576	6,350	5,006	11,356
Total	59,908	30,875	90,783	60,581	33,140	93,721	60,738	34,209	94,943	61,974	33,479	95,453

Source: CBS National Survey on Work Force August 2003- 2009 – 2010 and February 2011, Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration

Table 55. Employment by Economic Activity Gender 2007-2008 - Continuation
(Unit: 1000 persons)

Category of Industry	Per August 2007			Per August 2008		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1. Agricul hunting fishing forestry	25,983	15,223	41,206	25,915	15,418	41,332
2. Mining	874	120	994	938	132	1,071
3. Processing Industry	7,119	5,249	12,368	7,129	5,421	12,549
4. Electricity gas and water	153	21	174	184	17	201
5. Real estate	5,119	133	5,252	5,311	128	5,439
6. Wholesale restaurant and retail	10,372	10,182	20,554	10,514	10,707	21,222
7. Transport storage communication	5,586	372	5,958	5,466	714	6,180
8. Finance insurance	995	404	1,399	1,028	432	1,460
9. Community social services	6,943	5,076	12,019	7,415	5,685	13,100
Total	63,144	36,780	99,924	63,900	38,654	102,554

Source: CBS National Survey on Work Force August 2007- 2008, Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration

Table 55. Employment by Economic Activity and Gender 2008-2011 Continuation

(Unit: 1000 persons)

Category of Industry	Per August 2009			Per August 2010			Per February 2011		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1. Agricul, hunting, fishing, forestry	26,195	15,417	41,612	26,173	15,322	41,495	25,881	16,594	42,475
2. Mining	1,017	137	1,155	1,105	150	1,255	1,208	144	1,352
3. Processing Industry	7,220	5,620	12,840	7,826	5,998	13,824	7,965	5,731	13,696
4. Electricity, gas and water	202	21	223	212	22	234	233	24	257
5. Real estate	5,355	132	5,487	5,455	138	5,593	5,454	137	5,591
6. Wholesale, restaurant, and retail	10,747	11,200	21,948	11,401	11,091	22,492	11,479	11,761	23,240
7. Transport, storage, communication	5,530	588	6,118	5,137	482	5,619	5,136	449	5,585
8. Finance, insurance	1,050	437	1,487	1,228	511	1,739	1,455	604	2,059
9. Community, social services	7,806	6,196	14,002	8,925	7,032	15,956	8,811	8,215	17,026
Total	65,122	39,748	104,872	67,462	40,746	108,207	67,622	43,659	111,281

Source: CBS National Survey on Work Force August 2009 – 2010 and February 2011, Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration

1.4 Women with High-level Computer Skills

There are no data and statistics related to women with high level computer skills in Indonesia. Examples of female high-level IT professionals in the country include:

1. **Anne Ahira**, CEO of Asian Brain, Limited Liability Company and PT. Asian Brain Internet. Member of Financial Freedom Society Indonesia (FFSI).

Business environment: Internet Marketing - Website www.suksesbersamaahira.com

Business Strategy Establish a system for marketing products on the internet, known as “Elite Team Marketing System”.

Product/services: Training, Internet Marketing

Ahira has been interviewed by Advance Vision Marketing in US, regarding “Internet Marketing Prophecies”. She is the only woman of the 8 “best internet marketer around the world”. She also publishes the “Affiliate Newsletter” on Internet Marketing Strategy and has been read by thousands of internet marketers from 124 countries.

2. **Lea Veronika**

Business environment Integrated marketing communications

Website	www.qbonk.com
Product/services	Marketing, communications services and multimedia.

3. **Erdini Enggar S.SP**, CEO of Indo Global Biz, Director of non-formal education (www.RabbaniSchool.com) and Director of Fashion Business (www.BisnisBusana.com).
Website www.bisniswanita.com

Product/services 'e-Book guidance' for women doing business; developing websites for online-business and consultation for SMEs, especially for housewives.

I.5 Shares of Women among Information Technology Workers

Although sex disaggregated data on workers are available at the Ministry of Manpower, ICT workers are included with the transportation and storage industries. Table 56 reveals that the number of females working in this sector is very small.

Table 56. Shares of Women among Transportation, Storage and ICT Industry Workers, 2002-2010
Unit: persons

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total	4,672,584	4,976,928	5,480,527	5,552,525	5,663,956	5,958,811	6,179,503	6,117,985	5,619,022
Male	4,508,431	4,814,302	5,285,517	5,355,565	5,373,961	5,586,530	5,465,585	5,529,935	5,137,338
Female	164,153	162,626	195,010	196,960	289,995	372,281	713,918	588,050	481,684
% F	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.06	0.11	0.09	0.08

Source: Labour Force Statistics, Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration, 2002-2010.

J. Women in S&T and Innovation Systems

J.1 Shares of Women Studying Science and Engineering at Tertiary Level

Available data on women studying science and engineering at the university level can be seen in Table 56. The participation of women is low in engineering and technology for the entire period. In math, natural sciences and medical science, the participation of women and men in 2001, 2002 and 2003 was almost equal until 2008/2009 when the participation of women increases to become greater than men.

Table 57. Percentage of Females Enrolled at University Level by Subject

	2001/2002		2002/2003		2003/2004		2008/2009	
	Total	% F	Total	% F	Total	% F	Total	% F
Math and Natural Science	88,728	50.18	92,455	43,3	312,905	56,2	86,912	65.62
Engineering & Tech	126,059	21.52	420,966	27,3	596,982	30,6	665,787	27.41
Agricultural Science	191,524	40.92	152,115	46,4	176,197	46,4	119,460	39.02
Medical Science	64,260	60	74,418	50,4	97,514	52,6	340,588	76.75

Source: Statistics for Higher Education, Ministry of National Education 2000-2004 ; Perspektif perguruan tinggi di Indonesia tahun 2009, Ministry of National Education, 2010.

In 2009/2010, the number of female and male new students enrolled in and graduating from universities tended to increase. The percentage of females at diploma (completed three years at higher educational programs) and graduate (completed four years at university level) levels shows an increase, whereas at the Master's level females continue to be underrepresented compared to males. The percentage of female graduates from universities lags behind males as shown in Table 58 below.

Table 58. Number of New Students at University Level by Sex and Type of Program

Unit: Persons and %

Type of Program	2000/ 2001	2002/ 2003	2003/ 2004	2004/ 2005	2005/ 2006	2006/ 2007	2007/ 2008	2008/ 2009	2009/ 2010
Diploma:									
Total	194,283	207,163	291,669	198,283	181,063	143,479	191,833	161,485	173,875
% Female	48.05	47.90	47.75	57.44	56.58	53.61	53.50	56.56	54.19
Graduate:									
Total	509,670	568,896	833,615	459,753	458,001	555,923	838,187	778,992	786,777
% Female	42.99	43.28	42.85	47.74	47.77	48.52	48.72	50.74	51.34
Master:									
Total	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	40,309	54,150	50,209	59,126
% Female	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	45.23	46.03	45.51	45.23

NA: Not Available

Source: Ministry of National Education, Statistics at Higher Education, 2000-2011

Table 59. Number of Graduates from University Level by Sex and Type of Program

Unit: Persons and %

Type of Program	2002/ 2003	2003/ 2004	2004/ 2005	2005/ 2006	2006/ 2007	2007/ 2008	2008/ 2009	2009/ 2010
Diploma:								
Total	171,628	205,134	121,354	101,373	38,079	61,218	150,216	174,967
% Female	54.67	54.61	55.38	56.20	52.92	54.63	56.99	65.08
Graduate:								
Total	281,070	478,242	231,820	222,529	147,189	212,521	458,083	434,551
% Female	44.48	47.43	49.46	49.90	47.03	45.95	46.90	54.55
Master:								
Total	NA	NA	NA	NA	11,109	17,059	40,082	43,729
% Female	NA	NA	NA	NA	44.53	44.22	44.36	43.04
Doctoral:								
Total	NA	NA	NA	NA	1,273	1,687	3,983	1,765
% Female	NA	NA	NA	NA	38.25	39.12	39.26	29.12

NA: Not Available

Source: Ministry of National Education, Statistics at Higher Education, 2000-2011

Comparison data among ASEAN Countries show that the highest ratio of female to male enrollments in tertiary education among ASEAN Countries are seen in Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines and Thailand.

Table 60. Ratio of Female to Male Enrollments in Tertiary Education Among ASEAN Countries

COUNTRIES	1995	2000	2005	2009
Cambodia	19	34	47	54
Indonesia	64	76	79	96
Lao PDR	41	53	71	78
Malaysia	-	106	129	138
Myanmar	159	158	137	137
Philippines	136	130	123	124
Thailand	117	117	113	124

Source: Gender Statistics, World Bank, 2011 at

<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/EXTGENDER/EXTANATOOLS/EXTSTATINDDATA/EXTGENDERSTATS/0,,contentMDK:21442585~menuPK:4851736~pagePK:64168445~piPK:64168309~theSitePK:3237336,00.html>

J.2 Shares of Women Scientists and Engineers

There are no data available for this indicator. S&T data published by the Center for Science and Technology Studies at the Indonesia Institute of Sciences since 1992, follow the Frascati Manual, which counts researchers in the S&T human resources groups.

J.3 Shares of Women Researchers

Data collection on the participation of males and females at R&D institutions are not collected regularly either by the government, private sector or NGOs in Indonesia. The only institutions that do collect data on R&D personnel are the Centre for S&T Development Studies (Pappiptek-LIPI) since 2000, and, starting in 2004, the Ministry of Research and Technology. The survey is highly dependent on government funding, with the last survey completed in 2008 for 2006. (A new survey was recently conducted in 2011 and data is being analysed by Pappiptek-LIPI.)

Data in Table 61 show that women have quantitatively made considerable progress working in government R&D institutes since 1998. Reasons include an improved economy and open opportunities for women to pursue their education in the S&T field. Tables 61, 62 and 63 show R&D personnel based on sex and educational attainment.

Table 61. Number of Women and Men in Government R&D Institutions in Indonesia
(unit: Persons)

R&D Personnel	2002*		2004**		2005**		2006**	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Researchers	648	1645	2238	7031	3101	8040	3343	7771
Technician	128	296	1298	6087	1438	5417	1715	5857
Others	1931	2592	1740	5372	2198	6025	2281	6294

Sources:

* Indonesian S&T Indicator 2004 PAPPITTEK-LIPI

** Survey Report of Government R&D 2004, 2005, 2006 Ministry of Research and Technology (MORT)

Table 62. Number of Female and Male Researchers in Government R&D Institutions in Indonesia Based on Educational Attainment
Unit: Persons

Education	2004		2005		2006	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Doctor	176	1279	251	1,147	296	1,057
Master	751	2,401	1,182	2,511	1,298	2,727
Under grad	1,311	3,351	1,668	4,382	1,749	3,987
TOTAL	2,238	7,031	3,101	8,040	3,343	7,771

Source: Survey Report of Government R&D 2004, 2005, 2006, Ministry of Research and Technology (MORT)

Table 63. Number of Female and Male Technicians in Government R&D Institutions in Indonesia based on Educational Attainment
Unit: Persons

Education	2004		2005		2006	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Under graduate	250	963	395	994	540	1,233
Diploma	213	965	305	854	348	873
Under Diploma	835	4,159	738	3,569	827	3,751
TOTAL	1,298	6,087	1,438	5,417	1,715	5,857

Source: Indonesian S&T Indicators 2004, 2005, 2006 PAPPITTEK-LIPI

Table 64. Number of Women and Men Supporting Staff in Government R&D Institutions in Indonesia based on Educational Attainment
unit: persons

Education	2004		2005		2006	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Under graduate	291	888	542	994	606	1125
Diploma	220	379	225	456	328	479
Under D3	1229	4105	1431	4575	1347	4690
TOTAL	1740	5372	2198	6025	2281	6294

Source: 2002 data based on Survey Report of Government R&D Institutions conducted by PAPPITTEK-LIPI; Data for 2004, 2005 and 2006 based on the Survey Report of Government R&D Institutions in Indonesia, Ministry of Research and Technology,

R&D in Manufacturing Industry

A survey on R&D manufacturing was conducted by Pappiptek-LIPI in 2009 in 1,341 enterprises. Results of the survey show that total R&D personnel is 6004 persons, classified

according to their functions, namely, researchers, technicians and support staff (administrators/others) as shown in Table 65.

Table 65. R&D Personnel at Manufacturing Industries (2008)

R&D Personnel	2008			
	Female	%	Male	%
Reseachers	551	42,7	1,938	41,1
Technicians	365	28,3	2,063	43,7
Administrators/Others	373	29,0	714	16,2
TOTAL	1,289	100	4,715	100

Source: Indonesia S&T Indicators, 2009, PAPPIPTEK-LIPI

Table 66. R&D Personnel at Manufacturing Industries (2008) Based on Educational Attainment

R&D Personnel	Percentage	
	Female	Male
Diploma	64,77	62,88
Undergraduate	33,66	35,30
Master	1,57	1,70
Doctorate	0	0,12

Source: Indonesia S&T Indicators, 2009, PAPPIPTEK-LIPI

Table 67. R&D Personnel at Manufacturing Industries (2008) Based on Job Classifications

Job Classifications	2008			
	Female	%	Male	%
1. Natural Resources	395	30,7	986	20,4
2. Health	235	18,3	101	2,4
3. Agriculture	104	7,8	307	6,5
4. Social and Humanities	68	5,3	198	4,4
5. Chemistry	173	13,5	558	11,8
6. Physics	7	0,6	58	1,2
7. Engineering	55	4,3	981	20,8
8. Electronics	39	3,0	534	11,4
9. Information (ICT)	29	2,2	112	2,4
10. Others	184	14,3	880	18,8
TOTAL	1,289	100	4,715	100

Source: Indonesia S&T Indicators, 2009, PAPPIPTEK-LIPI

R&D Personnel at Higher Educations (Universities)

A survey on R&D activities at higher institutions (universities) was conducted by Pappiptek-LIPI in 2010. About 75 public universities and 15 private universities were included in the survey. The results show 9,253 female and 15,911 male R&D personnel. Among researchers, 8,140 are female and 14,271 are male.

J.4 Comparative Rates and Trends of Publication M/W

No data available. The data on publications collected by Centre for Scientific Documentation and Information in Indonesia are not sex-disaggregated.

J.5 Gender Trends in Brain Drain in Highly Skilled Fields

Migration to other countries in search of employment is not a new phenomenon and has occurred in Indonesia for many years. But the recent movement of labour on a temporary basis, first to Asia Pacific and later to Middle East, has certain distinctive features. 55 per cent of migrant workers are in Asia and about 40 per cent are in Middle East. Globalization has made migration much easier through better communications, dissemination of information through mass media, and improved transport, among other factors. Increasing trade and investment flows in the Asian region are influencing interest and awareness in migration to countries such as Japan, the Republic of Korea, and Taiwan. A survey conducted by The New York Times¹³ of 35,200 Indonesian highly skilled workers in the USA, shows that most highly skilled women who work abroad are financial experts and accountants, nurses, administrators and architects. However, since 2007 the number of workers going abroad decreased significantly, as shown in Table 68.

Table 68. Shares of Highly Skilled Women and Men Who Work Abroad 2007-2009

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total	435,222	295,148	480,395	293,865	380,690	474,310	680,000	196,191	266,749	103,918
Female	297,273	239,942	363,607	213,824	296,615	325,045	541,708	63,436	NA	24,955
% F	68.3	81.3	75.6	72.7	77.9	65.8	79.6	32.3	NA	24

NA: Data - Not Available

Source: BNP2TKI dan Ditjen Binapenta , Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration, 2010

J.6 Number of Women-run Enterprises in Sector Value Chains

Table 69. Number of Big Companies in Indonesia, 2005-2009

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Number of Companies	5,022	4,577	4,463	4,372	4,677
Women run Enterprise	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

Source: CBS and Ministry of SMEs , 2009 –

http://www.smecda.com/deputi7/menu/files/12_2010_sandingan_data_umkm_th.%202005-2009.pdf

¹³ <http://indonesiacompanynews.wordpress.com/>

According to IWAPI (Women’s Business Association), the percentage of women who run enterprises in a sector value chain is less than 0.1 percent¹⁴.

J.7 Women’s Early Stage Entrepreneurial Activity

The only data available for this category is from the 2006 Report on Women and Entrepreneurship - “Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM)”.

Table 70. Prevalence Rate of Entrepreneurial Activity Indonesia

Year	Early Stage Entr, (Nascent + New)		Established Owners		Overall Business Owners (Nascent+New+Established)	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
2006	19.84%	18.73%	20.63%	14.61%	40.47%	33.34%

Source: Global Entrepreneurship Monitor 2006 p. 11

Table 71. Comparison Prevalence Rate of Entrepreneurial Activity among Countries 2006

Country	Early Stage Entr, (Nascent + New)		Established Owners		Overall Business Owners (Nascent+New+Established)	
	Male (%)	Female (%)	Male (%)	Female (%)	Male (%)	Female (%)
China	15.70	15.73	13.67	10.52	29.37	26.25
India	11.60	9.16	7.26	3.84	18.8	13.00
US	12.73	7.36	7.69	3.16	20.42	10.52
Indonesia	19.84	18.73	20.63	14.61	40.47	33.34

Source: Global Entrepreneurship Monitor 2006 p. 11

K. Women and Lifelong Learning

K.1 Women as Users of (Village) Knowledge Centers

The national literacy policy combined with income generating programmes initiated in 1974 became a high priority in mid-1997 when Indonesia was hit by economic crisis. A serious effort was conducted to educate out-of-school girls and boys related to the informal sector of the economy in order to minimize the negative effect of the crisis at the grassroots level. As part of this effort, previously scattered out-of-school skill formation programmes were consolidated into “Community Learning Centers”, with the establishment of the first CLC in 1998.

The CLC was dynamic in adapting itself to the changing needs of the community over time. Beside the functional literacy program, skills training, especially in areas useful for earning as a living like raising poultry, food processing, repairing cars, sewing and embroidery, came to the forefront. Marketing and networking courses, equally important for the start of new businesses, are also provided.

¹⁴Nita Yudi, Chairperson, Women Business Association (Ikatan Wanita Pengusaha Indonesia -IWAPI).

Although detailed data on users of CLCs and other types of knowledge centers are not easily available, we found reliable data for the users of village knowledge centers such as CRC and CLC, as shown in Table 72.

Table 72. Women as Users of (Village) Knowledge Centers

Type of Knowledge Center	2008		2009	
	Total	% F	Total	% F
Equivalency Education Center	863,454	45.22	512,402	43.2
Community Reading Center	531,778	60.6	207,458	52.0
Functional Literacy Centers	1,760,974	42.17	859,741	75.42
Community Learning Center	708,198	51.50	NA	NA
Life skills Education Centers	66,570	79.04	11,324	62.03
Early Childhood Education Centers	2,995,167	54.83	3,127,482	52.37

NA: Data Not Available

Source: Non Formal Education Statistics, Ministry of National Education, 2011

K.2 Women as Managers of (Village) Knowledge Centre

Four main departments coordinate the implementation of national and local level non-formal education: the Ministry of National Education, the Ministry of Religious Affairs (MoRA), the Coordinating Ministry for Social Welfare (Menko Kesra) and the Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration (MMT). MoNE coordinates taskforces for different non-formal education services – for instance, there is a taskforce on equivalency education. The members of this taskforce come from MoRA and Menko Kesra. The vocational training taskforce is made up of members from a variety of different ministries that provide vocational training, such as the Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration, Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Fisheries, etc. Each taskforce is chaired and coordinated by the Partnership sub-Directorate under each respective Directorate. Taskforces meet every other month to share information and discuss common issues that affect implementation of programs. Data gathered from the Ministry of National Education shows that women are represented in quite good numbers as managers of village knowledge centers, especially in functional literacy centers and early childhood education centers in 2008 and 2009.

Table 73. Women as Managers of (Village) Knowledge Centre Unit: Persons; %

Type of Knowledge Center	2008		2009	
	Total	% F	Total	% F
Equivalency Education Center	32,284	48.16	55,149	39.43
Community Reading Center	3,506	52.19	5,941	42.82
Community Learning Center	11,770	20.07	22,161	42.64
Life Skills Education Centers	4,133	60.70	2,068	58.85
Functional Literacy Centers	157,308	49.40	81,100	82.29
Early Childhood Education Centers	104,016	76.94	257,411	85.08

Source: Non Formal Education Statistics, Ministry of National Education, 2011