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MAMPU
Maju Perempuan Indonesia untuk Penanggulangan Kemiskinan

Australian Aid

Homeworkers in Indonesia

Results from the Homeworker Mapping Study in North Sumatra, West Java, Central Java, Yogyakarta, East Java and Banten

ILO MAMPU Project - Access to employment & decent work for women, 2015

Executive summary

Home work is not new and homeworkers are often referred as 'putting-out workers' in Indonesia. Home work is an activity undertaken by families, mostly women, for generations, with grandmothers, mothers and daughters being involved in home work. Despite their existence for a long time, they are largely invisible and not well understood. Some work have been done in the past to understand and improve homeworkers' conditions in Indonesia including research as well as advocacy work by home-based workers' groups supported by relevant international and civil society organizations. However, the issue of home work has not received sufficient attention from the policy makers, employers, trade unions and the general public, and homeworkers remain invisible in the official statistics and the labour laws and there is a lack of information on their working conditions. There is also no consensus and shared understanding on the status of homeworkers, and homeworkers are often confused with self-employed workers, domestic workers, or even someone who is doing some activities to pass time.

In order to have a better understanding on the issues of home work for policy and programme planning and formulation in Indonesia, the ILO/MAMPU project worked to increase awareness on home work and improve the availability of data on homeworkers. The project worked closely with the Indonesia's National Statistics Office to discuss the integration of additional questions that allow the identification of home-based workers in the regular labour force survey questionnaire. In addition, the project carried out a mapping of homeworkers in North Sumatra, West Java, Central Java, Yogyakarta, East Java and Banten to obtain information on the situations and working conditions of homeworkers, so that the information can be used by relevant stakeholders including policy makers, employers, trade unions, Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) and homeworkers' organizations in their work to improve the living and working conditions of homeworkers in Indonesia. The study used a stratified-random sampling approach to interview 3010 women homeworkers in 297 villages across six provinces in Indonesia.

This study found that homeworkers in Indonesia share several characteristics that are common to homeworkers across the world. They can be found in various industries and sectors carrying out different types of work at home or in the home of a friend. They tend to have a lower level of educational attainment than the general population, limited perception on gender equality, and over 80 per cent of the interviewed women are married with their husband having casual or short-term jobs in low skill or unskilled occupations. The study also found women with disabilities in all provinces except in Yogyakarta (1 per cent of the women interviewed). They enter home work through social networks such as friends and neighbours and home work is their primary source of income. The average years of work as a homeworkers is 5 years, and about half of the interviewed women stated that they would like to set up their own business if given a chance. Twenty per cent stated they would prefer to be a full time housewife and a small percentage of the sample expressed their preference to work in the formal sector or to study further.

Almost all women do not have written contract but 47 per cent of the women have verbal agreements. Nonetheless, the women work according to orders and specifications of their employers or intermediaries. While some are instructed on how to complete work by on-the-job training, the women workers rarely receive training. The majority of women receive raw materials but it is less common for the homeworkers to receive tools from their employers or intermediaries, and they do not receive compensation for the production-related expenses. Close to 60 per cent of the homeworkers have some knowledge of the company that hires them or gives original production orders. Eighteen per cent of the workers are producing for the international market.

The homeworkers are paid by piece-rate and the rate is determined by the employers without negotiation. Despite long working hours with more than 30 per cent of the women working more than 48 hours or more per week, earn just to rise above the poverty level and less than 50 per cent of the average wage. Most workers receive payment upon delivery of their products but many experience delays in receiving payment.

The main advantages of home work include the ability to earn income and that home work allows them to do other economic or caring activities. The main challenges included low income and unstable work order. Some see limited space at home due to home work as a challenge.

While most homeworkers reported good health, but still reported various health complaints including occasional fever, coughs and headaches. They reported that they continue working even with injuries or illness. The majority of homeworkers do not have access to the government's social assistance and social insurance programmes.

The homeworkers are not well connected with groups that supports rights at work and the most common group that homeworkers attend is a traditional religious group which typically doesn't provide a platform for discussion of work related issues. Homeworkers generally do not negotiate with their employers because of their fear of losing jobs.

The study shed light on the homeworkers' conditions which clearly indicate the need for improvements. Homeworkers are workers and they play an important role in supporting their family and maintaining their livelihoods. Homeworkers should no longer be invisible. Their existence and contribution should be recognized so that they can have improved access to legal and social protection and work towards decent work. In this regard, a strong commitment is required from all parties including policy makers, employers, trade unions, homeworkers' organizations and their support organizations. The key recommendations to promote decent work for homeworkers in Indonesia are listed below:

1. Collect data on homeworkers.
2. Recognize homeworkers as workers.
3. Empower homeworkers to address decent work deficits.
4. Extend social protection to homeworkers.
5. Promote responsible practices in supply chain.
6. Promote gender equality and non-discrimination among general public and the key stakeholders to create an enabling environment for women as well as men to access decent work.

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Acronyms

APINDO	Asosiasi Pengusaha Indonesia (The employers' association of Indonesia)
BPJS	Social Security Provider (Badan Penyelenggara Jaminan Sosial)
BPS	Badan Pusat Statistik (Statistics Indonesia)
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
IDR	Indonesian Rupiah
ILO	International Labour Organization
MOM	Ministry of Manpower
SMEs	Small and Medium Enterprises
Sakernas	Survei Angkatan Kerja Nasional (National Labour Force Survey)
Susenas	Survei Sosial Ekonomi Nasional (National Socioeconomic Survey)
USD	United States Dollar

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1. Introduction

1.1 Background

Home work is not new and homeworkers are often referred as 'putting-out workers' in Indonesia. Home work is an activity undertaken by families, mostly women, for generations, with grandmothers, mothers and daughters being involved in home work. There is a research stating that home work has existed since 1928 in the textile industry[1]. Despite their existence for a long time, they are largely invisible and not well understood but some argue that homework is a significant phenomenon in the labour market[2].

While home work is an important source of income for many, and homeworkers make important contribution to the well-being of the family and the community, they face multiple challenges in improving living and working conditions. Home work is characterized by low pay and long working hours. They work at home in isolation from others, so they have limited access to information and other resources and lack voice and representation to work towards decent work. They also have limited legal and social protection and they are amongst the most disadvantaged workers.

There have been efforts to increase their visibility and improve their working conditions in Indonesia since around the 1990s, but the attention to the issues of homeworkers has not always been sustained. From 1988-1996, the ILO implemented a regional project covering Indonesia, Philippines and Thailand targeting poor women workers in rural areas or migrants in urban areas engaged in home work with support from the Danish Government. The project aimed at having data and increasing the awareness and recognition of home work amongst concerned parties, promoting the effective application of relevant labour legislation and policies and promoting the organization of women homeworkers[3]. In 1996, NGOs[4] and academicians[5] founded Mitra Wanita Pekerja Rumahan Indonesia (MWPRI or the National Network of Friends of Women Homeworkers) in Malang, East Java with a view to improve the socio-economic situation of Indonesian home-based and informal economy workers. Since then, MWPRI has engaged in developing HBWs' organizations and represented HBWs at the local, national, sub-regional and international levels, though the scale of activities has depended on the availability of external resources[6]. Several studies related to homeworkers have been carried out in the past but they are mostly small-scale and they applied different definitions of a homeworker, including unpaid family workers or self-employed, and comprehensive data on homeworkers as defined in Home Work Convention No. 177 (1996)

[1] M. Oey-Gardiner, E. Suleeman, I. Tjandraningsih, W. Hartanto and H. Wijaya (2007), "Women and children homeworkers in Indonesia", S. Mehrotra and M. Biggeri (2007), "Asian Informal Workers. Global risks, local protection", (Routledge, USA and Canada).
[2] Ibid.
[3] ILO (1994), "Home work", (ILO, Geneva).
[4] Yayasan Pengembangan Pedesaan (the Rural Development Foundation), Bina Swadaya Yogyakarta Foundation, Yayasan Pemerhati Sosial Indonesia, and Lembada Daya Darma.
[5] LPM Merdeka University.
[6] N. Haspels and A. Matsuura (2015), "Home-based workers: Decent work and social protection through organization and empowerment. Experiences, good practices and lessons from home-based workers and their organizations", (ILO, Jakarta).

was not available to provide better understanding on the situations of homeworkers in Indonesia. Therefore, the issues of home work remained mostly invisible and different understanding on the situations and status of homeworkers have been common to this date in Indonesia.

In 2012, the ILO became part of the MAMPU (Maju Perempuan Indonesia untuk Penanggulangan Kemiskinan or Empowering Indonesian Women for Poverty Reduction), a cooperation programme of the Indonesian and the Australian Governments, to improve access to jobs and social protection and livelihoods for poor women in Indonesia in selected geographical areas. Based on initial assessments and consultations with various stakeholders, the ILO/MAMPU project in cooperation with the ILO's tripartite constituents (Ministry of Manpower, APINDO, and Trade Unions) started focusing on improving the working conditions of homeworkers, including women with disabilities in home-based work in 2014.

Recognizing the needs for data on homeworkers to increase their visibility and to have a clear understanding on their working conditions, the activities of the ILO/MAMPU project included increasing awareness on home work and improving the availability of data on homeworkers. For improving the data availability, the project worked closely with the Indonesia's National Statistics Office to discuss the integration of additional questions that allow the identification of home-based workers in the regular labour force survey questionnaire. In addition, the project carried out a mapping of homeworkers in the selected provinces to obtain information on the situations and working conditions of homeworkers, so that the information can be used by relevant stakeholders including policy makers, employers, trade unions, Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) and homeworkers' organizations in their work to improve the living and working conditions of homeworkers in Indonesia. This report presents the findings from the mapping study.

1.2 Scope of the homeworker mapping study

The ILO/MAMPU project teamed up with national researchers to carry out the homeworker mapping study in North Sumatra, West Java, Central Java, Yogyakarta, East Java, and Banten between late 2014 and early 2015. The focus of the study was to understand the situation and the working conditions of homeworkers, and it is useful to understand the distinction between self-employed own account home-based workers and dependent home-based workers (referred as homeworkers) (Box 1).

Box 1*:* Definitions of two categories of home-based workers

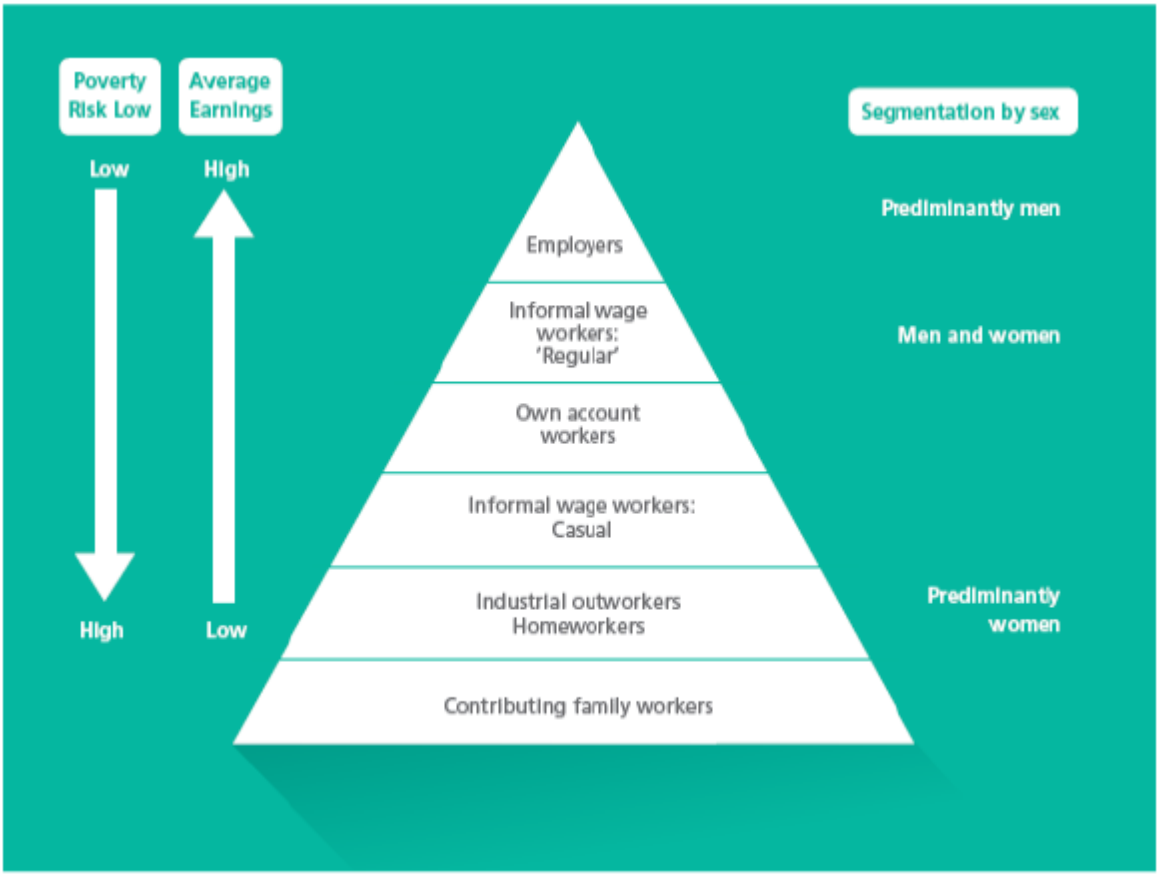
There are two basic categories of home-based workers. The distinction is important in understanding the challenges these workers face:

- Self-employed home-based workers assume all the risks of being independent operators. They buy their own raw materials, supplies, and equipment, and pay utility and transport costs. They sell their own finished goods, mainly to local customers and markets but sometimes to international markets. Most do not hire others but may have unpaid family members work with them.

- Sub-contracted home-based workers (called homeworkers) are contracted by an individual entrepreneur or a firm, often through an intermediary. They are usually given the raw materials and paid per piece. They typically do not sell the finished goods. They do, however, cover many costs of production: workplace, equipment, supplies, utilities, and transport. Homeworkers are not domestic workers who work in or for households carrying out household tasks. They also differ from home-based self-employed worker who work at home with autonomy.

Source: WIEGO, home-based workers, http://wiego.org/informal-economy/occupational-groups/home-based-workers (accessed November 2015); N. Haspels and A. Matsuura (2015), "Home-based workers: Decent work and social protection through organization and empowerment. Experiences, good practices and lessons from home-based workers and their organizations", (ILO, Jakarta).

Box 2: Informal employment: Hierarchy of earnings and poverty risk by employment status and sex



Source: L. Lim: *Extending livelihood opportunities and social protection to empower poor urban informal workers in Asia. A multi-country study: Bangladesh, Indonesia, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, and Thailand,* (Oxfam for Asia Development Dialogue, Thailand, 2015).

In reality, homeworkers and own-account workers share many common features, such as irregularity of work, low incomes, poor working and living conditions often in substandard

housing and lack of access to public or private support services[7]. Both groups also have little voice in decision-making about public policies and services that are crucial to their productivity, such as land allocation and housing policies, as well as basic infrastructure and transport services[8]. However, the study focused on sub-contracted home-based workers (homeworkers) to address the need to increase the visibility of homeworkers, who were often confused with self-employed own account workers who were regarded as having a control in managing their work, and being responsible for making improvements, while homeworkers in reality do not have the same level of control and are highly dependent and vulnerable.

1.3 Methodology and sample

The sample of this study drew upon a stratified random sampling approach and comprised of 3010 homeworkers in randomly selected villages across six provinces in Indonesia, including:

- North Sumatra: sample of 300 homeworkers.
- West Java: sample of 804 homeworkers.
- Central Java: sample of 780 homeworkers.
- Yogyakarta: sample of 80 homeworkers.
- East Java: sample of 710 homeworkers.
- Banten: sample of 336 homeworkers.

The survey population of this study refers to women homeworkers. As a first step in the sampling process, six provinces were selected due to their high incidence of women's employment in the manufacturing sector according to official statistics from Indonesia's labour force survey. Following this approach, districts within these provinces were randomly selected based on their high incidence of women's employment in the manufacturing sector according to data from the August 2014 labour force survey, resulting in the selection of 297 villages within 104 sub-districts that were located in 37 districts. An average of 10 homeworkers were interviewed per village. Based on estimates from the labour force survey, the sample size per district was set at equivalent to 0.1% of women's employment in the manufacturing sector within these districts.

As the labour force survey does not provide geographical information below the district level, sub-districts (and villages) within these districts were randomly selected using data from Statistics Indonesia's survey of large and medium and enterprises in the manufacturing sector. The database for this survey includes a list with the addresses of all formally registered companies across Indonesia and information on the number of workers that they hire and their classification according to the international standard classification of industry.

[7] N. Haspels and A. Matsuura (2015), "Home-based workers: Decent work and social protection through organization and empowerment. Experiences, good practices and lessons from home-based workers and their organizations", (ILO, Jakarta).
[8] Ibid.

The sample was prepared using addresses detailed in the survey of large and medium enterprises in the manufacturing sector from Statistics Indonesia. Enterprise data was disaggregated according to whether enterprises were a resource intensive, labour intensive or capital intensive industry within the manufacturing sector, as well as whether they were large (100+ employees) or medium (20-99 employees) sized enterprises.[9] Sub-districts were then randomly selected based on the presence of large enterprises in resource, labour and capital intensive industries with the assumption that homeworkers are part of the supply chains of large enterprises in those industries. Researchers were provided with a short list of enterprises with their addresses per sub-district which was used as a reference point to identify villages in the areas surrounding the sampled factories that would be approached to interview homeworkers. Once researchers were in target villages, they looked for homeworkers using various strategies. For example, researchers contacted local government, NGOs working with homeworkers or other informal economy workers and village leaders and explained about home work, and requested them to introduce villagers carrying out home work.

Taking into account that there were an inconsistent number of homeworkers in each village identified in the sample and that homeworkers were not found in every village included in the sample, the number of homeworkers interviewed per village was adjusted in situ. If no homeworkers are found, or the number of women homeworkers in one village is less than the required sample quota, the process of identifying and interviewing homeworkers continued in the nearest village within the same sub-district. Table 1 summarizes the description of sample by geographical location. It is worth noting that the areas included in the sample have a large number of companies that work in the manufacturing sector. Many of these districts also had higher rates of economic growth due to greater levels of business activity.

Table 1: Sample description by geography

North Sumatra	Sub-district	Village	Sample	Urban	Rural	West Java	Sub-district	Village	Sample	Urban	Rural
Deli Serdang	Percut Sei Tuan	Bandar Khalifa	26		1	Bogor Regency	Babakan Madang	Cipambuan	11	1	
		Sambirejo Timur	8		1			Kudu Manggu	9	1	
		Kenangan Baru	5		1			Sukaraja	10	1	
		Tembung	10		1		Cileungsi	Cileungsi	16	1	
	Sunggal	Purwodadi	11		1			Narogong	13	1	
		Payageli	7		1			Pasir Angin	8	1	
		Muliorejo	3		1		Citereup	Citeureup	3	1	
	Tanjung Morawa	Dalu	3		1			Gunung Sari	3	1	
		Tanjung Morawa	10		1			Luwinutuk	3	1	
		Dagang Gelambir	7		1			Pasir Mukti	2	1	
Medan	Medan Deli	Tanjung Mulia	12	1				Puspanegara	15	1	
		Mabar Hilir	13	1				Sanja	7	1	
		Mabar	12	1				Sukahati	10	1	
	Medan Johor	Kedai Durian	13	1				Tajur	3	1	
		Pangkalan Masyur	1	1				Tarikolot	3	1	
		Titi Kuning	9	1			Gunung Putri	Bojong Nangka	8	1	
Serdang Berdagai	Teluk Mengkudu	Bogak Besar	11		1			Cicadas	13	1	
		Sialang Buah	10		1			Gunung Putri	10	1	
		Pekan Sialang Buah	9		1			Nagrag	4	1	
Pematang Siantar	Siantar Marihat	Parhorasan Nauli	13	1				Tlajung Udik	7	1	
	Siantar	Nagori Sejahtera	10		1			Wanaherang	4	1	

[9] Some homeworkers associated with this study were linked with micro and small enterprises through subcontracting modalities, but the sample frame was determined using the statistics Indonesia survey of large and medium enterprises.

	Siantar Utara	Sigulang-gulang	7	1			Klapa Nunggal	Bojong	3	1	
Binjai	Binjai Utara	Jatinegara	6		1	Sukabumi Regency	Cicurug	Nanggerang	17	1	
	Binjai Selatan	Sukamaju	9		1			Tenjo Ayu	11	1	
Asahan	Tanjungbalai	Asahan Mati	5		1		Cidahu	Cidahu	15	1	
		Bagan Asahan Induk	11		1			Giri Jaya	19	1	
		Bagan Asahan Pekan	15		1			Jaya Bakti	18	1	
Tanjung Balai	Tanjung Balai Utara	Kuala Silo Bestari	30	1				Nanggerang	1	1	
Tebing Tinggi	Bajenis	Pelita	5	1		Bandung Regency	Cikancung	Ciluluk	17	1	
	Tebing Tinggi Kota	Badak Bejuang	10	1				Hegarmanah	19	1	
Central Java	**Sub-district**	**Village**	**Sample**	**Urban**	**Rural**			Tanjunglaya	11	1	
Banyumas	Ajibarang	Ciberung	11	1			Dayeuh Kolot	Cangkuang Wetan	10	1	
		Karang Bawang	10		1			Citeureup	9	1	
		Pandansari	9	1				Pasawahan	32	1	
	Karang Lewas	Karang Gude Kulon	10	1			Majalaya	Balekambang	1		1
		Pasir Wetan	10	1				Biru	45		1
	Purwokerto Selatan	Karang Klesem	6	1				Majasetra	1		1
		Purwokerto Kulon	2	1				Padaulun	5		1
		Teluk	22	1				Sukamaju	5		1
Cilacap	Cilacap Selatan	Cilacap	1	1				Sukamukti	1		1
		Tambakreja	8	1			Margahayu	Margahayu Selatan	4		1
	Karang Pucung	Cidadap	9		1			Margahayu Tengah	11		1
		Gunung Telu	11		1			Sayati	7		1
		Sindang Barang	10		1			Sukamenak	20	1	
	Kroya	Bajing Kulon	8	1		Karawang Regency	Klari	Duren	3	1	
		Pekuncen	10		1			Duren Kosambi	5	1	
		Pucung Kidul	11		1			Duseh	3	1	
		Pucung Lor	12		1			Gintung Kerta	15	1	
Jepara	Batealit	Bantrung	13		1			Pancawati	17	1	
		Samosari	9		1			Walahar	11	1	
	Jepara	Bandengan	6	1			Teluk Jambe Timur	Sukaluyu	6	1	
		Kedungcino	16	1				Wadas	24	1	
	Tahunan	Krapyak	15	1		Bekasi Regency	Cibitung	Cibuntu	15	1	
		Mantingan	10	1				CIbuntu	6	1	
		Tahunan	8	1				Wanasari	19	1	
	Welahan	Karanganyar	12		1		Cikarang Selatan	Cibatu	12	1	
		Kendengsidialit	11		1		Cikarang Utara	Karang Asih	11	1	
		Teluk Wetan	10	1				Karang Baru	17	1	
Kebumen	Karanganyar	Grenggeng	11		1			Mekar Mukti	13	1	
		Sidomulyo	11		1			Mekarmukti	1	1	
	Kebumen	Bandung	11		1			Pasir Gombong	9	1	
		Gemeksekti	12	1			Tambun Selatan	Jati Mulya	13	1	
		Jemur	10	1				Lambang Jaya	12	1	
	Kuwarasan	Kuwaru	11		1			Mangun Jaya	13	1	
		Lemah Duwur	11	1				Tambun	13	1	
		Pondok Gerbangsari	11		1	Bandung Municipality	Andir	Ciroyom	4		1
	Prembun	Prembun	10	1				Dungus Cariang	31		1
		Sembir Kadipaten	12		1			Garuda	1		1
Klaten	Karanganom	Kunden	12	1				Kebon Jeruk	4		1
		Ngabeyan	11		1			Maleger Utara	1		1
		Tarubasan	6	1			Bandung Kulon	Cigondewah Kaler	6		1
	Klaten Tengah	Buntalan	9	1				Cigondewah Rahayu	7		1
		Semangkak	12	1				Cijerah	11		1
	Prambanan	Bugisan	12	1				Warung Muncang	17		1
		Cucukan	5		1		Cinambo	Babakan Penghulu	20		1
		Kemudo	13		1			Cisaranten Wetan	20		1
Kudus	Dawe	Lau	10		1	**D I Yogyakarta**	**Sub-district**	**Village**	**Sample**	**Urban**	**Rural**
		Soco	10		1	Bantul	Piyungan	Sitimulyo	9	1	
	Gebog	Karang Malang	10	1				Srimartani	11	1	
		Klumpit	10	1			Sewon	Bangun Harjo	10	1	
		Padurenan	10	1				Panggungharjo	12	1	
	Kaliwungu	Banget	10	1				Timbulharjo	8	1	
		Blimbing Kidul	10		1	Sleman	Berbah	Jogotirto	9	1	
		Kedung Dowo	10	1				Kalitirto	5	1	
Purbalingga	Kaligondang	Brecek	10		1			Tegaltirto	16	1	
		Kalikajar	10	1		**East Java**	**Sub-district**	**Village**	**Sample**	**Urban**	**Rural**
		Penaruban	9	1		Sidoarjo	Taman	Sambibulu	10	1	
	Padamara	Bojanegara	11	1				Wage	12	1	
		Karanggambas	10		1			Kalijaten	8	1	
		Padamara	10	1				Kletek	5	1	
	Purbalingga	Purbalingga Wetan	10	1				Krembangan	15	1	
		Wirasana	10	1			Gedangan	Keboansikep	11	1	
Kabupaten Semarang	Bawen	Asinan	4		1			Punggul	10	1	
		Bawen	16		1		Waru	Wedoro	10	1	
		Doplang	10	1				Wadungasri	6	1	
	Bergas	Gondoriyo	13		1			Berbek	4	1	

		Karangjati	9	1				Tambakrejo	10	1	
		Waringin Putih	8	1			Jabon	Trompoasri	13	1	
	Pringapus	Derekan	9		1			Panggreh	7	1	
		Wonoyoso	11		1		Sidoarjo	Lemah Putro	10	1	
Kota Semarang		Banjardowo	10	1				Bluru Kidul	9	1	
	Genuk	Genuksari	11	1		Surabaya	Tandes	Manukan Wetan	10	1	
		Karangroto	9	1				Manukan Kulon	10	1	
	Ngaliyan	Bringin	8	1				Balongsari	10	1	
		Podorejo	17		1		Tambaksari	Gading	19	1	
		Tambak aji	5	1				Rangkah	11	1	
	Semarang Utara	Bandarharjo	10	1			Lakarsantri	Sumurwelut	10	1	
		Panggung Kidul	10	1				Lidah Kulon	10	1	
Banten	**Sub-district**	**Village**	**Sample**	**Urban**	**Rural**		Gunung Anyar	Rungkut Tengah	10	1	
TANGERANG Municipality	Batu Ceper	Batu Ceper	15	1				Gunung Anyar	10	1	
		Batu Jaya	17	1		Jember	Ambulu	Karanganyar	9	1	
		Batu Sari	16	1				Sabrang	14		1
	Cikupa	Bitung Jaya	5		1		Silo	Silo	24		1
		Bojong	2		1			Harjomulyo	3		1
		Cibadak	7		1		Ledokombo	Sumber Lesung	9	1	
		Cikupa	1		1			Slateng	11		1
		Pasir Gadung	5		1	Banyuwangi	Muncar	_	_	_	_
		Pasir Jaya	5		1		Kalipuro	Kalipuro	22	1	
		Sukamulya	9		1			Gombengsari	8		1
		Talagasari	16		1		Genteng	Genteng Kulon	7	1	
	Karawaci	Bugel	13	1				Genteng Wetan	20	1	
		Grendeng	11	1				Kembiritan	13		1
		Margasari	12	1		Gresik	Menganti	Gempolkurung	10	1	
		Pabuaran	14	1				Laban	10	1	
	Periuk	Periuk	5	1			Kebomas	Sidomukti	18	1	
TANGERANG Regency	Cikupa	Bitung Jaya	4		1			Kawisanyar	2	1	
		Sukamulya	1		1		Wringinanom	Kesamben Kulon	10	1	
		Talagasari	48		1			Mondoluku	10		1
	Curug	Binong	11		1			Soko	10	1	
		Cukangngalih	10		1	Pasuruan Kabupaten	Gempol	Randupitu	6		1
		Curug Kulon	15		1			Karang Rejo	14	1	
		Curug Wetan	2		1			Legok	22	1	
		Dukuh	2		1			Kejapanan	1	1	
		Kadu Sempur	13		1		Pandaan	Sebani	18		1
		Sukabakti	14		1			Kebonwaris	7	1	
	Pasar Kemis	Gelam Jaya	13		1		Purwodadi	Sentul	2	1	
		Kotabumi	7		1	Kediri Kabupaten	Plemahan	Mejono	14		
		Kuta Jaya	1		1			Puhjarah	3		1
		Pangadegan	9		1		Wates	Janti	5		1
		Pangadokan Kidul	5		1		Pare	Bendo	30	1	
		Pasar Kemis	7		1			Sumber Bendo	5		1
		Sindang asih	1		1			Pare	8	1	
		Sindang Jaya	1		1			Tertek	1	1	
		Sindang Sari	7		1			Pelem	4	1	
		Suka Asih	12		1	Malang Kota	Sukun	Pisang Candi	2	1	
								Tanjung Rejo	6	1	
								Bakalan Krajan	5	1	
								Cipto Mulyo	3	1	
							Blimbing	Bale Arjosari	24	1	
						Malang Kabupaten	Singosari	Gunung Rejo	9	1	
								Candi Renggo	13	1	
							Lawang	Ketindan	12		1
								Sumber Ngepoh	6		1
						Mojokerto Kabupaten	Ngoro	Kembangsri	10	1	
								Ngoro	20	1	
							Trowulan	Jatipasar	10	1	

Source: Survey data.

The method used to collect the data was through interview and focus group discussions. Enumerators were trained on key concepts related to this survey including the definition of homeworkers and value chains. To determine whether the identified person was indeed a homeworker or not, enumerators asked a few screening questions related to the respondent's work to verify their status as a homeworker before starting an interview. As homeworkers usually live close to each other, there were generally only 2 or 3 kinds of home work found within one village.

While several measures were taken to improve the robustness of research design, this study faces several limitations. In particular, no data exists on homeworkers including sampling

frames in Indonesia. This limited the use of a random sampling in the research design, with locations selected randomly while the individuals interviewed were selected randomly in situ. In addition, the study was not able to obtain information to clearly draw supply chain linkages as it was not possible to interview the intermediaries and employers who were engaging the interviewed homeworkers. The homeworkers generally had fear of losing jobs, and they did not want their intermediaries or employers to know about their participation in this survey.

The study had initially aimed to understand the situation of homeworkers with disabilities. However, due to technical difficulties to integrate internationally established methodologies to carry out a survey on disability into the mapping study, the study only identified the incidence of homeworkers with disabilities and it did not seek detailed information specific to homeworkers with disabilities.

The main instrument used for this study was a questionnaire developed by the ILO/MAMPU project, which consisted of 83 formulated questions across ten core topics. The 10 topics included geographic information, household information, household's possession, homeworkers' characteristic, income and expenses, backward and forward integration to the market, the reason for homework, social and economic access, health access, and gender equality. The survey instrument was developed based on existing materials including the ILO's model labour force survey[10], Indonesia's labour force survey[11], a guideline questionnaire for homeworkers from the survey on Asian informal workers from Santosh Mehrotra and Mario Biggeri[12], questionnaire for home-based workers (2013) and questionnaire on risk and vulnerability of home-based workers in South Asia 2014 shared by HomeNet South Asia, and a questionnaire from the World Health Organization (WHO) Multi-country study on women's health and domestic violence against women[13]. Focus group discussions were also carried out to obtain better understanding on the experiences and perceptions of homeworkers. For each province surveyed, one focus group discussion was conducted with between 10 to 15 female participants.

2. Regulatory framework in Indonesia

According to the ILO Convention on Home Work, 1996 (No. 177), home work is defined as work carried out by a person, referred as a homeworker, (i) in his or her home or in other premises of his or her choice, other than the workplace of the employer, (ii) for remuneration,

[10] ILO Department of Statistics (2010), "Model labour force survey questionnaire (version. A)", (ILO, unpublished, Geneva).
[11] BPS Statistics Indonesia (2014), "Labour force situation in Indonesia February 2014", (BPS Statistics Indonesia, Jakarta).
[12] Annex 2.1: Questionnaire guidelines for homeworkers (and control group), page 44, Asian Informal Workers: Global risks, local protection, Santosh Mehrotra and Mario Biggeri, Routledge Tayler & Francis Group London and New York (USA and Canada, 2007)
[13] Claudia Garcia-Moreno, Henrica A.F.M. Jansen, Mary Ellsberg, Lori Heise, and Charlotte Watts (2005), "WHO Multi-country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence against Women: Initial results on prevalence, health outcomes and women's responses", (WHO, Geneva)

(iii) which results in a product or service as specified by the employer, irrespective of who provides the equipment, materials or other inputs used".[14] In Indonesia, home work or homeworkers are not explicitly defined in the national labour regulations nor in national statistics and there are different understandings surrounding home work among policy makers, general public, and even sometimes among homeworkers themselves.

An ILO review[15] of the labour law indicates that homeworkers are implicitly covered by the Manpower Act No. 13 (2003) based on the following provisions:

- Article 1 (2): Manpower is every individual or person who is able to work in order to produce goods and/or services either to fulfill his or her own needs or to fulfill the needs of the society.
- Article 1(3): A worker/labourer is any person who works and receives wages or other forms of remuneration.

The review further establishes that homeworkers are in an employment relationship and entrepreneurs are under an obligation to observe various provisions of the Manpower Act No. 13 (2003) as follows:

- Article 1 (5): An entrepreneur is an individual or partnership or legal entity that operates a self-owned enterprise.
- Article 1 (6): An enterprise is every form of business, which is either a legal entity or not, which is owned by an individual, a partnership or legal entity that is either privately owned or state owned, which employers workers/labourers by paying them wages or other forms of remuneration.
- Article 1(15): An employment relation is a relationship between an entrepreneur and a worker/labourer based on a work agreement, which contains the elements of job, wages and work order.
- Article 51: Work agreements can be made either orally or in writing.
- Article 86: Every worker/labourer has the right to receive protection on a) occupational safety and health.
- Article 88 (1): Every worker/labourer has the right to earn a living that is decent from the viewpoint of humanity.
- Article 90 (1): Entrepreneurs are prohibited from paying wages lower than the provincial or district/city-based minimum wages or provincial or district/city-based sectoral minimum wages.

However, homeworkers are excluded from the coverage of the Manpower Act in practice due to the lack of consensus on the legal status of homeworkers as well as a general notion in Indonesia that the labour law is applicable only for workers in formal employment and not for workers in the informal economy.

[14] ILO (1996) Convention on Home Work (No. 177), International Labour Office, Geneva.

[15] M. Fajerman: *Review of the regulatory framework for homeworkers in Indonesia 2013*. (Jakarta, ILO, 2014). Fajerman, M. (2014) Review of the Regulatory Framework for Homeworkers in Indonesia, ILO Country Office for Indonesia and Timor-Leste, Jakarta.

At the local level, there have been some progress to recognize and extend legal and social protection to homeworkers as a result of continuing advocacy work to improve the conditions of women in some areas. For example the Women's Empowerment Department in Malang, East Java, issued a local regulation on vulnerable women in 2013 which recognized women homeworkers as part of the group of women who should have access to decent wage ,social protection, market, financial and other services, though there have been challenges in implementation. Therefore, the overall majority of homeworkers experience no or insufficient access to legal and social protection.

3. Economic and social context

The six provinces covered in this study have large populations, and account for over 50 per cent of the total population in Indonesia (Table 2). The provinces are generally characterized by strong economic performance with the provincial GDP growth rates above 5.4 per cent and the four provinces of North Sumatra, West Java, East Java, and Banten have a higher rate than the national average (Table 3). North Sumatra and East Java also has the higher provincial GDP per capita than the national average. These provinces have diversified economic structure which includes manufacturing, and large and medium firms in these provinces operate in various industries such as food, beverage and tobacco, wood processing, rubber processing, garment, electronics and automotive. The contribution of these six provinces to the national GDP amounts to 46.6 per cent.

Despite generally strong economic performance in the six provinces, there were 16.5 million poor people in these provinces, which is more than half the number of poor people in Indonesia (Table 2). The poverty line estimates for the provinces in this study ranged between IDR 256,368 and IDR 330,517 per month. The GINI index[16] of the provinces covered in this study ranged between 0.35 in North Sumatra and 0.44 in Yogyakarta. This indicates that the benefits of economic growth are not necessarily distributed to help reduce poverty.

Table 2: Population, poverty and inequality indicators, September, 2013

Province	Population, millions (2013)	Number of poor people (millions)	GINI index	Poverty line IDR per month (urban)	Poverty line IDR per month (rural)	Poverty line IDR per month (provincial)
North Sumatra	13.6	1.3	0.35	330,517	292,186	311,063
West Java	45.3	4.4	0.41	281,189	268,251	276,825
Central Java	33.3	4.7	0.39	268,397	256,368	261,881
D.I. Yogyakarta	4.0	0.5	0.44	317,925	275,786	303,843
East Java	38.4	4.9	0.36	278,563	269,294	273,758

[16] The Gini index summarizes the extent of inequality in a value, with zero referring to perfect equality and one referring to perfect inequality.

Banten	11.5	0.7	0.40	300,109	264,294	288,733
National	248.8	28.6	0.41	308,826	275,779	292,951

Source: BPS (2014) Selected trends of socio-economic indicators, August 2014, Badan Pusat Statistik, Jakarta.

Table 3: Regional GDP key indicators, 2013

Province	Gross Regional Domestic Product at 2000 Constant Market Prices (trillions)	Growth Rate of Gross Regional Domestic Product at 2000 Constant Market Prices	Per Capita Gross Regional Domestic Product Without Oil and Gas at 2000 Constant Market Prices (millions)	Percentage Distribution of Gross Regional Domestic Product at Current Market Prices
North Sumatra	142.5	6.0%	10.4	5.3%
West Java	386.8	6.1%	8.4	14.1%
Central Java	223.1	5.8%	6.4	8.2%
D.I. Yogyakarta	24.6	5.4%	6.8	0.8%
East Java	419.4	6.5%	10.9	15.0%
Banten	105.9	5.9%	9.2	3.2%
National	2661.1	5.9%	10.1	100%

Source: BPS (2013) Regional GDP, Badan Pusat Statistik, Jakarta.

In terms of labour market information, the trends in provinces covered in this study are generally similar to the national average condition. For example, women's labour force participation is generally low ranging from 42.3 per cent in West Java to 61.6 per cent in Yogyakarta compared to men's labour force participation rate ranging from 80.9 per cent in Yogyakarta to 83.8 per cent in East Java (Table 4). The rates of inactivity in all provinces are high among women mainly due to household responsibilities, and it was on average 48.5 per cent among the 6 provinces. The rate was highest in West Java (57.7 per cent). This shows that housekeeping is a significant factor limiting women's labour force participation, and the need to generate additional income for the household, especially among women who are engaged in full-time housekeeping activities, is likely to influence women's decision to work home-based.

Table 4: Key indicators of the labour market

Labour market indicator	North Sumatra			West Java		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Population 15 Years of Age and Over	4,611,630	4,739,411	9,351,041	16,906,222	16,559,154	33,465,346
Economically Active	3,838,460	2,433,623	6,272,083	14,000,986	7,005,153	21,006,139
- Working	3,630,703	2,250,668	5,881,371	12,871,114	6,359,829	19,230,943
- Unemployed	207,757	182,955	390,712	1,129,872	645,324	1,775,196
Not Economically Active	773,170	2,305,788	3,078,958	2,905,236	9,553,971	12,459,207

- Attending school	465,283	514,289	979,572	1,511,737	1,441,402	2,953,139
- Housekeeping	54,996	1,649,949	1,704,945	284,782	7,543,525	7,828,307
- Other	252,891	141,550	394,441	1,108,717	569,004	1,677,761
Labour force participation rate	83.23%	51.35%	67.07%	82.82%	42.3%	62.77%
Unemployment rate	5.41%	7.52%	6.23%	8.07 %	9.21%	8.45%
Inactivity rate	16.77%	48.65%	32.93%	17.18%	57.7%	37.23%
Labour market indicator	**Central Java**			**D I Yogyakarta**		
	Men	**Women**	**Total**	**Men**	**Women**	**Total**
Population 15 Years of Age and Over	12,348,319	12,833,648	25,181,967	1,392,750	1,455,004	2,847,754
Economically Active	10,240,302	7,306,724	17,547,026	1,127,120	896,341	2,023,461
- Working	9,671,796	6,878,886	16,550,682	1,083,433	872,610	1,956,043
- Unemployed	568,506	427,838	996,344	43,687	23,731	67,418
Not Economically Active	2,108,017	5,526,924	7,634,941	265,630	558,663	824,293
- Attending school	1,000,617	948,636	1,949,253	138,857	131,688	270,545
- Housekeeping	316,204	4,044,925	4,361,129	61,797	377,725	439,522
- Other	791,196	533,363	1,324,559	64,976	49,250	114,226
Labour force participation rate	82.93%	56.93%	69.68%	80.93%	61.60%	71.05%
Unemployment rate	5.55%	5.86%	5.68%	3.88%	2.65%	3.33%
Inactivity rate	17.1%	43.1%	30.32%	19.07%	38.40%	28.95%
Labour market indicator	**East Java**			**Banten**		
	Men	**Women**	**Total**	**Men**	**Women**	**Total**
Population 15 Years of Age and Over	14,435,358	15,143,324	29,578,682	4,258,134	4,103,471	8,361,605
Economically Active	12,098,291	8,051,707	20,149,998	3,546,825	1,791,220	5,338,045
- Working	11,577,438	7,729,070	19,306,508	3,226,730	1,627,262	4,853,992
- Unemployed	520,853	322,637	843,490	320,095	163,958	484,053
Not Economically Active	2,337,067	7,091,617	9,428,684	711,309	2,312,251	3,023,560
- Attending school	1,177,453	1,140,685	2,318,138	382,861	347,597	730,458
- Housekeeping	328,771	5,396,341	5,725,112	71,037	1,823,192	1,894,230
- Other	830,843	554,591	1,385,434	257,411	141,461	398,872
Labour force participation rate	83.81%	53.17%	68.12%	83.30%	43.65%	63.84%
Unemployment rate	4.31%	4.01%	4.19%	9.02%	9.15%	9.07%
Inactivity rate	16.19%	46.83%	31.88%	16.70%	56.35%	36.16%

Source: BPS (August 2014) Labour force situation in Indonesia, Badan Pusat Statistik, Jakarta.

4. Characteristics of women homeworkers in the sample

This chapter presents the characteristics of the women homeworkers including information on educational attainment, gender perceptions as well as their household information such as marital status and disability.

Educational attainment

Table 5 below presents information on educational attainment of the homeworkers. At least more than a quarter of the interviewed women had primary school education in all the targeted provinces and another quarter had junior high school education. Those who did not have any schooling or incomplete primary school education was less than 15 per cent, ranging

from 7.6 per cent in Yogyakarta to 14.7 per cent in North Sumatra). North Sumatra and Yogyakarta had a higher number of women with senior high school education (general and vocational) (33.4 per cent and 38.8 per cent respectively), while those who had completed senior high school (general and vocational) was less than a quarter in West Java (16.5 per cent), Central Java (16.3 per cent), East Java (21.9 per cent) and Banten (23.9 per cent). In comparison to the provincial average, the women homeworkers generally had lower levels of educational attainment.

Table 5: Educational attainment of homeworkers in comparison to provincial averages for women (per cent)

Educational attainment	North Sumatra		West Java		Central Java		D.I. Yogyakarta		East Java		Banten	
	Sample average	BPS average	Sample average	BPS average	Sample average	BPS average	Sample average	BPS average	Sample average	BPS average	Sample average	BPS average
No schooling	1.00	2.6	5.8	3.2	3.2	6.8	1.3	8.1	4.1	10.9	3.3	3.5
Not yet completed primary school	13.7	12.1	6.2	11.2	9.4	18.0	6.3	10.8	9.2	16.8	7.4	13.2
Primary school	27.0	22.0	33.6	33.8	39.4	32.1	26.3	19.6	36.5	28.8	27.4	21.7
Junior high school	24.0	19.0	36.9	16.7	31.0	17.6	26.3	15.8	27.3	15.4	37.8	18.4
Senior high school (general)	27.7	23.2	14.1	15.4	10.8	10.1	22.5	14.6	13.7	11.5	18.8	17.9
Senior high school (vocational)	5.7	9.2	2.4	8.6	5.5	7.6	16.3	14.0	8.2	7.6	5.1	11.2
Diploma I/II/III/ Academy	1.0	3.9	0.7	3.6	0.5	2.3	1.3	5.4	0.9	2.0	0.0	4.5
University	0.0	8.1	0.2	7.5	0.3	5.5	0.3	11.6	0.1	6.9	0.3	9.6
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Survey data; BPS (2014) Labour force situation in Indonesia, Badan Pusat Statistik, Jakarta.

Household information

Table 6 below presents marriage status and the age information of the respondents. Most of the women homeworkers, over 80 per cent, are married. While the rate of women as household head is generally less than 10 per cent in the surveyed provinces, the rate is higher in Central Java (31.6 per cent). The average age of the interviewed women is 40. However, the respondents' age varied widely with the youngest being 13 in West Java and the oldest being 83 in East Java which indicates women with all age groups are engaged in home work.

Table 6: Key sample characteristics

Variable	North Sumatra		West Java		Central Java		D.I. Yogyakarta		East Java		Banten	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Men	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Women	300	100.0	804	100.0	780	100.0	80	100.0	710	100.0	336	100.0

Female headed households	21	7.0	54	6.7	55	31.6	10	12.5	52	7.3	6	7.8
Marital status - single	13	4.3	49	6.1	41	5.3	3	3.8	29	4.1	21	6.3
Marital status - married	261	87.0	677	84.2	685	87.8	71	88.8	596	83.9	305	90.8
Marital status - divorced	7	2.3	23	2.9	13	1.7	3	3.8	24	3.4	3	0.9
Marital status - widowed	19	6.3	55	6.8	41	5.3	3	3.8	61	8.6	7	2.1
People with disabilities	4	1.3	7	0.9	10	1.3	0	0.0	4	0.5	3	0.9
Age	Youngest	Oldest	Youngest	Oldest	Youngest	Oldest	Youngest	Oldest	Youngest	Oldest	Youngest	Oldest
Youngest and oldest	13	74	13	80	15	76	15	76	19	83	-	-
Average age	40		38		40		40		40		-	

Source: Survey data.

The average size of the homeworkers' household was between 4 and 5 persons which was slightly higher compared to the national and provincial average as shown in Table 7. The husbands of homeworkers were typically found to work in low skill and unskilled occupations with precarious contracting arrangements.[17] For example, this study found that the spouses of homeworkers were predominantly employed as production workers, low skilled service workers or as agricultural labourers. In addition, the spouses of homeworkers tended to work as a casual workers not in agriculture or as employees on short term contracts. The data indicates that although their husbands earned income, the income may not be sufficient or stable, as over 75 per cent of the homeworkers' spouses worked as a casual workers not in agriculture and as employees on short term contracts, most likely without any access to social protection. The first marriage of the women within the provinces covered in this study tended to be within the age ranges of 16 to 18 years or 19 to 24 years.

Table 7: Average household size and age of marriage

Province	Population, millions (2013)	Average household size (2013)	Age of women's first marriage % (2012)			
			10-15	16-18	19-24	25+
North Sumatra	13.6	4.3	3.2	20.7	56.4	19.6
West Java	45.3	3.7	15.7	36.4	38.3	9.6
Central Java	33.3	3.7	11.5	34.8	42.3	11.3
D.I. Yogyakarta	4.0	3.3	3.8	22.4	53.8	20.0
East Java	38.4	3.6	15.0	36.7	39.1	9.2
Banten	11.5	4.1	13.8	33.2	41.2	11.4
National	248.8	3.9	11.1	32.1	44.0	12.8

Source: BPS (2014) Selected trends of socio-economic indicators, August 2014, Badan Pusat Statistik, Jakarta.

Attitudes towards gender equality

[17] Precarious employment refers to the employed population whose contract of employment, whether verbal or written, is of relatively short duration or whose contract can be terminated on short notice. See ILO (2012) Decent work indicators: concepts and definitions, International Labour Office, Geneva.

Awareness on gender equality may hold the key to improving the livelihoods and working conditions of homeworkers, as they themselves need to value and recognize their contribution to the family and the community and start making decisions and taking actions such as organizing and collective bargaining by mobilizing understanding and support from their family members including their husbands and in-laws. The study sought to understand attitudes of the homeworkers on gender equality.

Table 8 presents data on the general attitudes of the homeworkers on the role of women in the household and their degree of emancipation from their husbands. Seven out of ten respondents agreed to the statement that a good wife has to obey her husband even if she disagrees. This shows that the majority of women homeworkers have a tendency to remain quiet and follow what their husband say, even when it goes against their own wishes. On average, 40 per cent of the respondents agreed that all important decisions in the family should be made by the husband, indicating that their perception on decision making is not equal between women and men. However, the majority of homeworkers agreed that the wife has a right to express her opinion, even if it differs from the husband.

Perceptions on household tasks were slightly more in favour of shared responsibilities, however, this may be more of an aspiration rather than a reality. On a positive note, the majority of the respondents tended to view education of boys and girls to equally important, though close to a quarter of the women in West Java agreed to the statement stating that the investment for a boy to go to school is more important than the investment for girl to go to school. This data tells us that the husbands of homeworkers tend to have greater authority within households.

Table 8: Attitudes on gender equality (%)

North Sumatra	Agree	Disagree	Don't know
A good wife has to obey to her husband even if she disagrees	62.0	33.7	4.3
All important decisions in the family should be made by the husband	44.5	50.8	4.7
When the wife goes to work, the husband should help with housekeeping	75.0	20.0	5.0
The wife has the right to express her opinion even if the opinion differs from the husband's	92.0	3.3	4.7
The investment for a boy to go to school is more important than the investment for girl to go to school	9.3	87.7	3.0
West Java	**Agree**	**Disagree**	**Don't know**
A good wife has to obey to her husband even if she disagrees	66.2	26.4	7.5
All important decisions in the family should be made by the husband	42.4	51.2	6.3
When the wife goes to work, the husband should help with housekeeping	77.7	14.4	7.8
The wife has the right to express her opinion even if the opinion differs from the husband's	81.8	8.8	9.3
The investment for a boy to go to school is more important than the investment for girl to go to school	24.0	66.7	10.3
Central Java	**Agree**	**Disagree**	**Don't know**

A good wife has to obey to her husband even if she disagrees	73.7	24.9	1.4
All important decisions in the family should be made by the husband	47.6	51.2	1.3
When the wife goes to work, the husband should help with housekeeping	74.2	24.4	1.4
The wife has the right to express her opinion even if the opinion differs from the husband's	90.5	8.5	1.0
The investment for a boy to go to school is more important than the investment for girl to go to school	8.8	89.9	1.3
DIY	**Agree**	**Disagree**	**Don't know**
A good wife has to obey to her husband even if she disagrees	73.8	26.3	0.0
All important decisions in the family should be made by the husband	30.0	70.0	0.0
When the wife goes to work, the husband should help with housekeeping	85.0	15.0	0.0
The wife has the right to express her opinion even if the opinion differs from the husband's	96.3	3.8	0.0
The investment for a boy to go to school is more important than the investment for girl to go to school	10.0	88.8	1.3
East Java	**Agree**	**Disagree**	**Don't know**
A good wife has to obey to her husband even if she disagrees	64.1	33.8	2.1
All important decisions in the family should be made by the husband	36.9	62.0	1.1
When the wife goes to work, the husband should help with housekeeping	72.7	19.7	7.6
The wife has the right to express her opinion even if the opinion differs from the husband's	86.3	9.0	4.6
The investment for a boy to go to school is more important than the investment for girl to go to school	13.2	84.8	2.0
Banten	**Agree**	**Disagree**	**Don't know**
A good wife has to obey to her husband even if she disagrees	79.2	16.1	4.8
All important decisions in the family should be made by the husband	45.5	52.1	2.4
When the wife goes to work, the husband should help with housekeeping	64.3	28.3	7.4
The wife has the right to express her opinion even if the opinion differs from the husband's	83.0	12.5	4.5
The investment for a boy to go to school is more important than the investment for girl to go to school	7.4	87.8	4.8

Source: Survey data.

The relationship between homeworkers and their husband may impact upon the choice of work as well as the working condition of homeworkers. The degree of autonomy and the extent to which wives are supported by their husbands plays an important role herein. In general, most homeworkers reported that their relationship with their husband was good and that it allowed them autonomy. Homeworkers rarely refused work because their husband didn't want them to work. To illustrate, less than 15 per cent of the interviewed women indicated that they refused work because their husbands did not want them to work. However, many homeworkers mentioned that when they undertake activities outside of their normal routine, their husbands can be more controlling. For example, participants of the focus group discussion in Banten mentioned that they should consult their husbands when

they are undertaking tasks outside of their normal routine and update their husbands on their activities periodically by text message.[18]

Entry into home work

The entry of women into home work has different patterns across the provinces surveyed in this study. For example, in North Sumatra, homeworkers generally only commence home work once their children had started to attend school. While in East Java many homeworkers indicated that they had always engaged in home work and that it was "inherited" from their family. In Central Java homeworkers often commenced work once they were married and their first child had turned 2 years old.

Approximately 50 per cent of the homeworkers interviewed in this study were introduced into home work by their neighbour, who was also a homeworker or intermediary. A further 20 per cent were introduced to home work by their friend and 15 per cent were introduced into home work by their family. It was less common to be introduced to home work directly through employers or through government officials.

The majority of the homeworkers (88.2%) indicated that home work is their primary economic activity and the main source of income. When asked about their main activity during the previous month, the majority indicated 'work' either as home work or another type of work (88.5 per cent) (Table 9). Only a small proportion indicted that they focus on housekeeping or other activities as their main activity. Less than 10 respondents identified school as their main activity.

While the most common activity in which homeworkers engage is home work, they also indicated that they undertake economic activities such as laundry service, shopkeeping, gathering herbs and vegetables for sale, cleaning services, and animal husbandry. It is generally thought that homeworkers undertake a range of economic activities due to the precariousness of their work arrangements or due to the low level of compensation for their work, and the findings show that the homeworkers covered in the study are also undertaking a range of economic activities.

Table 9: Respondents' main activity during the previous month

Main activity	North Sumatra		West Java		Central Java		D.I. Yogyakarta		East Java		Banten	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Work (including homework)	294	98.0	682	84.8	738	94.6	76	95.0	664	93.5	202	60.1
School	N/A	N/A	2	0.2	2	0.3	1	1.3	3	0.4	1	0.3
Housekeeping	5	1. 7	98	12.2	30	3.8	1	1.3	12	1.7	114	33.9
Other activities	1	0.3	22	2.7	10	1.3	2	2.5	31	4.4	19	5.7

[18] This type of perception can also be found in women workers in EPZ Tanjung Priok, as documented by Aris Arif Mundayat [et al.], *Bertahan Hidup di Desa atau Tahan Hidup di Kota: Balada Buruh Perempuan*, Jakarta: Women Research Institute, 2008. p. 74.

Total	300	100	804	100	780	100	80	100	710	100	336	100

Source: Survey data.

On average this study also found that within the households of homeworkers, 1 to 2 household members are likely to be involved in homeworking activities. That is, in the households of homeworkers, there is likely to be someone who primarily works as a homeworker, as well as one other person who assists with home work activities. Homeworkers sometimes receive help from their children while undertaking home work, with less than 30 per cent of the homeworkers reporting that their children help with home work. Sometimes the husbands of homeworkers may help them complete work orders when they are struggling to meet deadlines. Several of homeworkers stated that their husbands help them with completing work orders, especially when they are fatigued.

Box 3: Why I started to be a homeworker

Mrs. Ida is a homeworker who trims excess threads from shirts. She chose to stop working in a factory after giving birth to her baby. She is reluctant to return to work at the factory as she needs to care for her children and her household. She finds that the demands of working in a factory do not allow her work and care for the household. However, she also needs an income to pay for the daily needs of the household. Homework is therefore a compromise.

In the morning from 05.00 to 09.00 she completes her housework. After that she starts her work as a homeworker. When undertaking her work as a homeworker she is able to take breaks to breastfeed her baby. If her baby cries, she momentarily stops working to take care of her baby. After her baby is calm, she continues to work until 12.00. Between 12.00 and 14.00 she cooks lunch, takes care of her baby, prays and rests. In the afternoon she starts working at 14.00 and finishes at 18.00. She cooks dinner, cares for her family and prays. After dinner she continues her work for approximately 2 hours while watching television.

Source: Focus Group Discussion (FGD), Yogyakarta.

Years of work as homeworkers

Table 10 below presents the average length of time the homeworkers have been working as homeworkers. The average length was 6.1 years. The average length increases with age which highlights that many of the interviewed homeworkers have been working continuously. The average lengths in Yogyakarta were particularly longer than other provinces with the average lengths for the age group of 50-54 and 55-59 recorded as 24.7 years and 18.0 years respectively. In East Java, many of the younger age groups also had longer average lengths compared to other provinces, and the average lengths for 20-24 age group and 25-29 age group were 6.7 years and 6.9 years respectively. The average length of the age group of less than 20 in North Sumatra was also relatively long, indicating that some of those women started home work at young age.

Table 10: The average number of years spent working as homeworkers

	Years					
Age groups	North Sumatra	West Java	Central Java	DIY	East Java	Banten
Less than 20	4.0	0	1.4	0	0	0
20-24	2.6	1.5	3.1	1.8	6.7	1.5
25-29	3.4	2.9	2.9	2.2	6.9	2.9
30-34	3.4	2.9	5.6	2.2	5.7	2.9
35-39	5.2	3	7.0	4.2	8.8	3.0
40-44	5.9	3.5	8.4	7.2	8.0	3.5
45-49	7.3	4.6	10.1	11.7	6.1	4.6
50-54	8.8	5.1	11.1	24.7	7.2	5.1
55-59	9.0	6.5	10.2	18.0	9.3	6.5
60+	11.2	4.5	10.4	14.0	3.2	4.5
Total	5.8	3.5	7.4	9.6	6.9	3.5

Source: Survey data.

If given a choice, 50 per cent of the homeworkers interviewed indicated that they would like to set up their own business. Twenty per cent stated that they would prefer to be a full time house wife. Only a small percentage of the sample were interested to become workers in the formal economy or to improve their education. Information shared in the focus group discussion highlighted that many women prefer to stay at home to fulfil their care responsibilities or to have employment that provides them with the same flexibility that they have as a homeworker.

5. Types of work of homeworkers

Homeworkers are generally thought to be concentrated in garment sector. However, the study found that homeworkers are not homogeneous group and they are in many different occupations, as also seen through the implementation of the ILO/MAMPU project. There were homeworkers engaged in various sectors and industries carrying out activities such as processing vegetables (e.g. onions, garlic, etc), seafood (e.g. shrimp, fish), sewing bags, removing threads from completed garments, making parts of electronics products, and producing sports equipment, and embroidery.

Table 11 below summarizes the incidence of homework by industrial sub-sector for the provinces covered in this study. In the four out of the six surveyed provinces, more than 40 per cent of the homeworkers were found in 'other manufacturing' sub-sector. In North Sumatra and Yogyakarta, the most homeworkers were found in 'food processing' and 'leather, leather goods and footwear' subsectors respectively, followed by 'other manufacturing' sector. The trends of concentration of homeworkers by sub-sectors were generally similar to the trends of concentration of employment by sub-sectors (capital intensive manufacturing sectors). For example, in North Sumatra, food processing is the most common sub-sector of employment in manufacturing.

Table 11: Employment by industrial sub-sector for homeworkers

Sub-Sector	North Sumatra	West Java	Central Java	D.I. Yogyakarta	East Java	Banten

	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Food processing	144	48.0	116	14.5	95	12.2	11	13.8	85	12.0	38	11.3
Drink processing	10	3.3	2	0.2	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	4	0.6	1	0.3
Tobacco processing	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	1	0.1	N/A	N/A
Textile (spinning, weaving, dyeing)	13	0.3	13	1.6	63	8.1	11	13.8	57	8.0	24	7.1
Wearing apparel (sewing / tailoring of clothes)	29	9.7	232	28.9	126	16.2	13	16.3	62	8.7	50	14.9
Leather, leather goods and footwear	13	4.3	36	4.5	70	9.0	29	36.3	44	6.2	60	17.9
Wood, bamboo and rattan processing	12	4.0	23	2.9	98	12.6	2	2.5	122	17.2	13	3.9
Furniture	N/A	N/A	15	1.9	9	1.2	1	1.3	41	5.8	4	1.2
Other manufacturing	79	26.3	367	45.6	319	40.9	13	16.3	294	41.4	146	43.5
Total	300	100	804	100	780	100	80	100	710	100	336	100

Source: Survey data.

When looking at the overall occurrence of home work within industry classification[19], 42.7 per cent of the homeworkers were in labour intensive manufacturing industries which include the manufacturing of textiles, wearing apparel, footwear, wood and wood products, and furniture. Only 16.9 per cent of the homeworkers were in the resource intensive industries which include the processing of food, beverages, tobacco and paper, as well as chemical, petroleum, pharmaceuticals and rubber, though almost half of the homeworkers in North Sumatra was in the resource intensive industries. Further, none of the homeworkers interviewed reported to work in the chemical, petroleum, pharmaceuticals or rubber manufacturing subsectors. The remaining portion of the sample (40.4 per cent) were in the capital intensive industries which include metal, electronics, machinery and automotive manufacturing. Examples of the activities per group are shown in Table 12 below.

Table 12*:* Examples of activities per industrial classification

Industrial classification	Labour Intensive	Resource Intensive	Capital Intensive
Examples of activities	• fastening the clasps of bras. • packaging toys. • stitching shoes. • sewing the padding on helmets. • making flowers out of ribbons. • creating batik fabrics. • craving wood figurines.	• peeling vegetables. • making snacks. • packaging other food items.	• folding electronic cords and placing them inside packaging. • polishing and sticking labels on utensils. • fastening the top of car batteries. • folding the card holders of cellular phones.

[19] Aswicahyono, Hill and Narjoko explains labour intensive manufacturing to include the manufacturing of textiles, wearing apparel, footwear, wood and wood products and furniture, and resource intensive industries to include the processing of food, beverages, tobacco and paper as well as chemical, petroleum, pharmaceuticals and rubber, and capital intensive industries to include metal, electronics, machinery and automotive manufacturing.

			• assembling electrical switches.

Source: Survey data.

While homeworkers are all engaged in production, homeworkers with specific skills such as handicraft workers generally have a stronger bargaining power as the employers, sub-contractors or intermediaries may not be able to find replacement workers with the required skills to produce for them easily, while the low-skilled production workers may be replaced easily. The homeworkers were also interviewed about their occupations to understand the portion of homeworkers as handicraft workers. According to Table 13 below, the portion of homeworkers working as handicraft workers was small in all provinces while the portion of handicraft workers in Yogyakarta was relatively higher (28.8 per cent). In North Sumatra, only 6.3 per cent of the homeworkers were working as handicraft workers.

Table 13: Homeworkers occupations

Occupation	North Sumatra		West Java		Central Java		D.I. Yogyakarta		East Java		Banten	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Handicraft workers	19	6.3	141	17.5	87	11.2	23	28.8	145	20.4	30	8.9
Textile, garment and leather production worker	50	16.7	284	35.3	221	28.3	37	46.3	119	16.8	134	39.9
Food and beverage production worker	149	49.7	118	14.7	96	12.3	11	13.8	81	11.4	39	11.6
Wood, rattan and bamboo production worker	12	4.0	15	1.9	80	10.3	N/A	N/A	68	9.6	13	3.9
Other production worker	59	19.7	243	30.2	251	32.2	9	11.3	278	39.2	119	35.4
Don't know	11	3.7	3	0.4	45	5.8	N/A	N/A	19	2.7	1	0.3
Total	300	100	804	100	780	100	80	100	710	100	336	100

Source: Survey data.

6. Work arrangements of homeworkers

6.1 Work agreement

Homeworkers are generally known to work under informal arrangements without written contracts or agreements. This study looked into the situation of the homeworkers in the six provinces and found that it was extremely rare for the homeworkers to have a written agreement. As Table 14 shows, only 2 per cent of the interviewed homeworkers had written agreements with their employers or intermediaries. The proportion of those with 'verbal agreement' was 53.4 per cent and those with 'no agreement' was 41.8 per cent. There was a small portion of the homeworkers who stated that they were unfamiliar with working agreements (2.8 per cent). When looking at the results by province, East Java had the highest

percentage of the homeworkers stating that they have a verbal agreement (93.5 per cent). The proportion of the homeworkers with no agreement was highest in Banten (71.1 per cent).

Since the Manpower Act No. 13 (2003) states that an employment relationship is a relationship between an entrepreneur and a worker/labourer based on a work agreement which contains the elements of job, wages and worker order (Article 1(15)), and that work agreements can be made either orally or in writing (Article 51), it can be argued that over 50 per cent of the homeworkers have an employment relationship and that they should be covered by various provisions such as the payment of minimum wages.

Table 14: Type of agreement of homeworkers

Province	Written agreement		Verbal agreement		No agreement		Don't know	
	No. in sample	% of sample	No. in sample	% of sample	No. in sample	% of sample	No. in sample	% of sample
North Sumatra	3	1.0	135	45.0	152	50.7	10	3.3
West Java	7	0.9	476	59.2	278	34.6	43	5.3
Central Java	37	4.7	230	29.5	507	65.0	6	0.8
D.I. Yogyakarta	2	2.5	25	31.3	53	66.3	0	0
East Java	9	1.3	664	93.5	30	4.2	7	1.0
Banten	2	0.6	78	23.2	239	71.1	17	5.1
Total/average	60	2.0	1608	53.4	1259	41.8	83	2.8

Source: Survey data.

6.2 Place of work

Analysis of data indicates that the workers interviewed in this study work within their own home (85%) or in the home of a friend (12%). A small proportion described their workplace as a structure attached to their home, such as a yard or garage. None of the respondents identified the workplace of their employer as their workplace. While this gives the homeworkers flexibility to manage both economic and caring responsibilities, this highlights the importance of promoting health and safety at workplace. Without sufficient attention and consideration to health and safety at workplace which is the home of the homeworkers, the health and safety of the homeworkers and their family members may be harmed if tools or equipment are not properly stored or raw materials include hazardous contents. In fact, some homeworkers complained about strong smell from raw materials that they use as they give health problems such as headache.

6.3 Specifications, instructions and training

The study further looked into the details of the specifications. In terms of the information on what and how to produce the products (designs, materials, etc), on average, 78.1 per cent of the homeworkers reported that they receive specifications from their employer (Table 15). The provision of specifications was most common in Banten (91.1 per cent). The high

percentage may indicate that the homeworkers may be producing goods linked to international markets (e.g. shoes, clothes, etc) where the products must pass certain quality and specification standards. The provision of specifications was least common in Yogyakarta.

Table 15: Homeworkers receiving specifications or instructions

Province	Receive specifications from the employers		Did not receive specifications from the employers	
	Number in sample	% of sample	Number in sample	% of sample
North Sumatra	220	73.3	80	26.7
West Java	650	80.8	154	19.2
Central Java	555	71.2	225	28.8
D.I. Yogyakarta	51	63.8	29	36.3
East Java	567	79.9	143	20.1
Banten	306	91.1	30	8.9
Total	2349	78.1	661	21.9

Source: Survey data.

Since the homeworkers produce according to the specifications by the employers, the study asked the homeworkers whether they received training from their employer to improve their skills and knowledge to appropriately complete the work order, and found that it was rare for the homeworkers to receive training. Table 16 summarizes the trends related to homeworkers' receipt of training. The study found that homeworkers generally do not receive training from the employers. This was particularly true in North Sumatra and only 17.3 per cent of the homeworkers received training from the employers. This may indicate that most homeworkers in North Sumatra are engaged in elementary tasks.

Where homeworkers received training, the training was mostly informal on-the-job training, with the employers visiting their home and giving some instruction on methods to produce the product according to specifications. The ratio of the homeworkers receiving training was the highest in Banten at (56.8 per cent), where the provision of the specifications by the employers was also highest.

In general, it is found that employers provide instructions to produce goods to quality standards, rather than training that is aimed at increasing the skills of homeworkers. This indicates limited or no opportunities for homeworkers to learn new skills to improve their employability and many are working without any scope for improving their income, even after working for many years.

Table 16: Homeworkers receiving training

Province	Receive training from the employers		Did not receive training from the employers	
	Number in sample	% of sample	Number in sample	% of sample
North Sumatra	52	17.3	248	82.7

West Java	398	49.5	406	50.5
Central Java	305	39.1	475	60.9
D.I. Yogyakarta	20	25.0	60	75.1
East Java	210	29.6	500	70.4
Banten	191	56.8	145	43.2
Total	1175	39.0	1834	61.0

Source: Survey data.

6.4 Cost of production

Having home as their workplace, homeworkers generally bear various costs of production themselves, including provision of a workplace and equipment, transport fees and utilities including electricity and water and other related inputs. According to the study, over 70 per cent of the respondents stated that they had never received compensation for the expenses related to their production processes associated with home work.

In terms of supply of raw materials, homeworker generally receive the raw materials from their employers, though there are cases where homeworkers buy part or whole of raw materials. In this study, the majority of homeworkers (95.0 per cent) stated that they receive raw materials from their employers (Table 17). Across the six provinces surveyed, approximately 50 per cent of the homeworkers stated that they collected the raw materials from their employers or intermediaries while most of the remaining stated that they had the raw materials delivered to them by their employers or intermediaries. Only a very small number of homeworkers purchased their raw materials from the market by themselves.

Table 17: Homeworkers receiving materials

Province	Receive materials from the employers		Did not receive materials from the employers	
	Number in sample	% of sample	Number in sample	% of sample
North Sumatra	291	97.9	9	3.0
West Java	717	89.4	87	10.8
Central Java	754	96.7	26	3.3
D.I. Yogyakarta	79	98.8	1	1.3
East Java	685	96.5	25	3.5
Banten	329	97.9	7	2.1
Total	2855	94.9	155	5.1

Source: Survey data.

Table 18 presents the results of the study in relation to the provision of tools. Compared to the provision of the raw materials, it was less common for the homeworkers to receive tools from the employers. On average, almost 40 per cent did not receive tools necessary for the

completion of products of the homeworkers. An exception was the case of homeworkers in Banten, where the majority of homeworkers (92.2 per cent) received tools from their employers which may be associated with the fact that the products produced among the homeworkers in Banten required more particular specifications necessary for meeting the standards for international market. On the other hand, more than half of the homeworkers (60 per cent) in North Sumatra did not receive the tools. The homeworkers in food processing in North Sumatra indicated that they normally use their own knives, cleavers, scissors which can be easily found within local markets. Further explanation from focus group discussions indicated that the choice of tools in food processing have little influence on the quality of the product, which is why they are rarely provided by the employer.

Table 18: Homeworkers receiving tools

Province	Receive tools from the employers		Did not receive tools from the employers	
	Number in sample	% of sample	Number in sample	% of sample
North Sumatra	120	40.0	180	60.0
West Java	503	63.3	301	37.4
Central Java	455	58.3	325	41.7
D.I. Yogyakarta	35	43.8	45	56.3
East Java	389	54.8	321	45.2
Banten	309	92.0	27	8.0
Total	1811	60.4	1199	39.6

Source: Survey data.

The project has heard of experiences in which homeworkers had to pay for a deposit to start working so as to guarantee for the materials given by the employers or intermediaries. Therefore, the study also checked about the incidences where the homeworkers were required to pay for a deposit prior to starting to work as a homeworker. In fact, the study found that 2 per cent of the homeworkers were required to pay a deposit for the materials and tools they received. While the requirement to pay a deposit was a minor incidence among the interviewed homeworkers, it is important to recognize the existence of this practice by the employers and intermediaries as this practice puts more burden on the side of homeworkers to enter into work to earn income and to try to earn and maintain decent income.

The study also found additional burden put on the side of the homeworkers. The homeworkers shared that they were generally responsible for working further on faulty products, e.g. putting more work hours to fix faulty products, so that the products can be accepted by their employers or intermediaries. Since they are paid by the amount of outputs they produce, and not by the number of hours work, they are not compensated for the extra hours worked to fix faulty products.

6.5 Links to the market

International research on homeworkers typically finds that homeworkers have very limited knowledge of their employers and the markets for which they produce,[20] because homeworkers often receive work from intermediaries who give raw materials and collects finished products, and these intermediaries may be working with sub-contractors that further supply the products to bigger companies. Therefore, the long length of the supply chain is one factor that often hampers the process of identifying the main employer giving production orders or where products come from. However, knowledge of their employers and the markets is necessary if homeworkers were to negotiate to improve their working conditions.

In the six provinces surveyed, there were various patterns in which the homeworkers were part of the supply chain. It was most common that when the products of the homeworkers are complete, an intermediary collects the products from the homeworkers and delivers the product to another company which may work with national and international companies. An exception was the case of West Java and Banten, where homeworkers tended to work in groups and the group leader would deliver finished products to the intermediary. In North Sumatra the enterprise often had a direct relationship with the homeworkers (no intermediary). While the study was not able to obtain a full picture of the supply chains to track where the products made by the homeworkers are delivered to and sold, it became clear from some of the interviews that some of the workers were engaged in the production of goods for companies that are well-known globally.

Table 19 presents homeworkers' knowledge of the companies which employ them. It shows that on average, 58.1 per cent of the respondents had some knowledge of the company that hires them or gives original production orders, though there were variations across the six provinces with a high percentage of the homeworkers knowing the employer in Central Java (87.6 per cent), while the percentage was low in Banten at 23.5 per cent. When asked the name of the companies for which they produce, several highly visible brands in global supply chains were mentioned in Central Java. While these homeworkers mentioning did not receive work directly from these internationally recognized companies, they were aware that they were producing for them because the company name was mentioned on the products that the homeworkers were working on.

The homeworkers tend to have a relationship with intermediaries rather than a direct relationship with a factory or a brand (See Box 4 for an example from Banten). Indeed, most employers engaging homeworkers are micro and small enterprises that act as suppliers, sub-suppliers, or intermediaries for larger factories, and homeworkers may not have knowledge of the factory with which the microenterprise trades. Those homeworkers that didn't have knowledge of the company for which they produce tended to have been recruited into homework through family or friends.

Table 19: Homeworkers knowledge of companies for which they produce

Province	Company known	Company unknown

[20] S. Mehrotra and M. Biggeri (2007), "Asian informal workers : Global risks, local protections", (Routledge, London and USA).

	Number in sample	% of sample	Number in sample	% of sample
North Sumatra	198	66.0	102	34.0
West Java	333	41.4	471	58.6
Central Java	683	87.6	97	12.4
D.I. Yogyakarta	62	77.5	18	22.5
East Java	371	52.3	339	47.7
Banten	79	23.5	257	76.5
Total	1726	58.1	1284	41.9

Source: Survey data.

Box 4: Supply chain linkages: a case of Ms. Dina, Banten

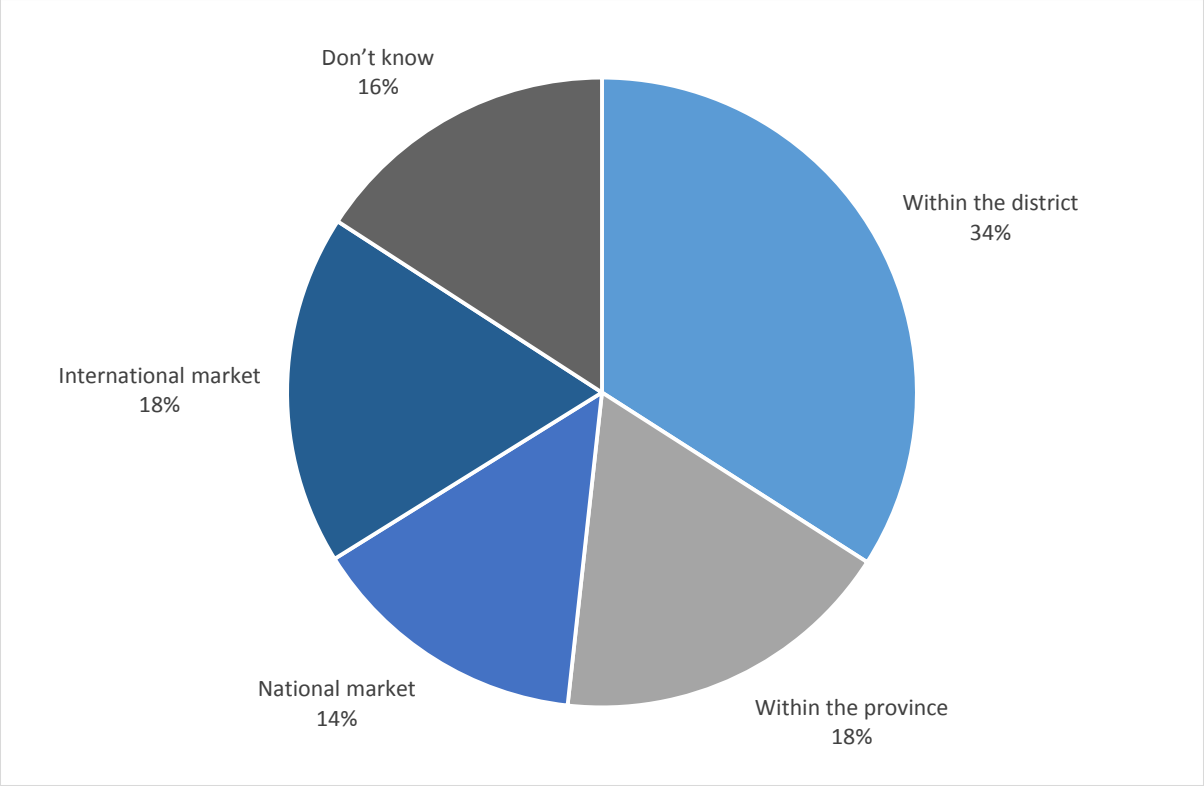
Ms. Dina works in the wearing apparel sector in Tangerang District, Banten. For her home work is a flexible type of work because she is indirectly supervised, works when she chooses and does not have to fill in any absentee forms. She chose to engage in this type of work because she can work at her own discretion while undertaking domestic work and child-rearing. She can also rest at her own discretion and is not pressured by a daily production targets.

The intermediary that Ms. Dina works for is her friend who provides her with raw materials and collects the finished products. She does not know which factory buys her finished products or to which market her finished products are sold. Her intermediary friend indicated that work orders are given by the owner of a garment apparel enterprise in the same district. However, according to her intermediary friend, this factory owner also receives materials from other parties whose origins she does not know.

Source: Focus group discussion, Banten.

In Indonesia, there are different understandings on home work and some assume that products produced by homeworkers are for self or local consumptions only and they are not considered to be contributing to national, regional and global economies. However, when asked about markets for the products produced by the homeworkers, 18 per cent stated that they produce for international markets, and 14 per cent stated they produce for national markets (Figure 1). This study confirms that global supply chains are linked to homeworkers in Indonesia through multi-layered subcontracting arrangements. Since the homeworkers generally have limited information, it is also possible that more products are sold at the international and national markets than claimed by the homeworkers in the study. A small portion of the homeworkers (16 per cent) stated that they did not know where their products are sold.

Figure 1: Markets for which homeworkers produce



Source: Survey data.

7. Working conditions of homeworkers

7.1 Working time

According to a small-scale study conducted by the ILO/MAMPU project in 2013, homeworkers generally work long hours and have large volumes of products to complete within a short period of time.[21] To give further insight on this situation, this section presents data on the average working hours of homeworkers.

Table 20 below shows variations on the average working time for the homeworkers in 6 provinces. Across the six provinces, on average, 45.6 per cent of the homeworkers worked part time (less than 35 hours per week) and 32.6 per cent of the homeworkers worked excessive working hours (48 hours or more). The portion of the homeworkers working excessive work hours was particularly high in East Java at 55.2 per cent and it was even higher than the provincial average. More than a quarter of the homeworkers also worked excessive work hours in North Sumatra (27.33 per cent), West Java (40.4 per cent) and Banten (33.7 per cent).

Table 20: Average working time of homeworkers in comparison to the provincial average

Province	Homeworker mapping (%)	Province (%)

[21] ILO (2015), "Indonesia: Homework in East Java - Findings from a qualitative study" (ILO, Jakarta).

	Part time hours (less than 35 hours)	Average working hours (35 to 47 hours)	Excessive work hours (48 hours or more	Part time hours (less than 35 hours)	Average working hours (35 to 47 hours)	Excessive work hours (48 hours or more
North Sumatra	40.33	32.33	27.33	37.6	24.9	37.5
West Java	51.7	3.4	40.4	28.8	28.3	42.9
Central Java	39.7	37.3	22.9	36.6	27.0	36.4
D.I. Yogyakarta	53.8	30.0	16.3	33.3	31.8	34.9
East Java	43.8	1.0	55.2	40.7	25.2	34.1
Banten	44.1	1.4	33.7	23.8	34.6	41.6

Source: Survey data; Sakernas (2014) microdata

The study also found that the average working hours of the homeworkers was longer than the average working hours of women in labour force as described in Indonesia's labour force statistics in almost all provinces (Table 21). The homeworkers worked between 6 to 7 days per week for an average of 6 to 7 hours per day. In Indonesia the average of working hours per month was 42, with workers working between 5 to 6 days per week for 8 hours per day. Therefore, in comparison to the average, homeworkers tend to work less hours per day, but more days per week.

Table 21: Average working hours for homeworkers and women in the labour force

Province	Average working hours for homeworkers	Average working hours for women in labour force
North Sumatra	39	35
West Java	45	39
Central Java	38	36
D.I. Yogyakarta	31	36
East Java	46	36
Banten	40	40

Source: Survey data; Sakernas (2014) microdata

The study also looked at working hours by different economic sectors. Table 22 summarizes the results. In general the homeworkers in leather, leather goods and footwear sector tended to have longer working hours than other sectors except in West Java and East Java. The longest working hours was 66 hours by a homeworker in Tobacco processing sector in East Java. The shortest working hours was 13 hours among the homeworkers in food processing in Yogyakarta.

Table 22: Average working hours per week by sector for homeworkers

Sector	North Sumatra		West Java		Central Java		D.I. Yogyakarta		East Java		Banten	
	No. of workers	Hours	No. of workers	Hours	No. of workers	Hours	No. of workers	Hours	No. of workers	Hours	No. of workers	Hours
Food processing	144	38.3	116	47.8	95	30.7	11	13.0	85	50.1	38	45.9
Drink processing	10	43.3	2	30.0	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	4	46.3	1	42.0
Tobacco processing	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	1	66.0	N/A	N/A
Textile (spinning, weaving, dyeing)	13	32.2	13	44.8	63	39.4	11	30.7	57	50.0	24	41.1
Wearing apparel (sewing / tailoring of clothes)	29	37.3	232	40.2	126	38.5	13	36.5	62	48.6	50	35.6
Leather, leather goods and footwear	13	56.5	36	36.5	70	57.6	29	38.6	44	40.2	60	43.3
Wood, bamboo and rattan processing	12	35.7	23	48.1	98	37.3	2	29.5	122	45.8	13	39.4
Furniture	N/A	N/A	15	55.1	9	31.2	1	N/A	41	43.6	4	28.8
Other manufacturing	79	40.7	367	37.5	319	33.6	13	32.0	294	46.6	146	39.8

Source: Survey data.

When the homeworkers were asked if they would like to work more hours for additional payments, 40 per cent of the respondents stated that they were willing, though many of these homeworkers were already working hours that exceeded normal working hours. This finding is indicative of low pay. Many homeworkers are willing to work excessive hours in order to provide an income for their family. For them, working more hours is often perceived to be the only option that they have for increasing their income. Working excessive hours can negatively impact their health and productivity. Although not covered in this study, the actual hours that the homeworkers are carrying out their work can also have impact on their health. As homeworkers generally juggles multiple tasks of household responsibilities and income generation, they may be carrying out home work late at night after completing household chores. In this case, the health of those homeworkers working part time may also be affected as their rest and sleep periods would be affected.

7.2 Wages of homeworkers

Low wage is often mentioned as one of the key challenges faced by homeworkers. As shown in Table 23 below, the average wage per month received by homeworkers ranged from IDR 377,331 to IDR 1.2 million per month across the 6 provinces surveyed with the most provinces having the monthly average wage between IDR 377,000 and IDR 569,000. Data from the labour force survey in August 2014 estimates that the average wage for regular employees in Indonesia was IDR 1.9 million, ranging between IDR 1.4 million and IDR 2.4 million in the provinces covered by this study. The average national minimum wage was IDR 1.5 million in 2014, ranging between IDR 0.9 million and IDR 1.5 million in the six provinces included in this study. Comparing with the average wage for regular employees and the average national minimum wage, it is clear that the wage received by homeworkers is much lower.

On average the level of wage received allowed homeworkers to rise above the provincial poverty line. However, the level of wage was normally less than 50 per cent of the minimum wage and less than 30 per cent of the average wage. The outlier was West Java where the average monthly wage of the homeworkers (IDR 908,489) was close to the provincial minimum wage (IDR 1million). In West Java, the average working hours of the homeworkers was longer than the other provinces (Table 21).

Table 23: Average monthly wage of homeworkers (IDR)

(1) Province	(2) Poverty line, per capita per month	(3) Average monthly wage for regular employees	(4) Minimum wage[22]	(5) = ((4)/(3))x100 Kaitz ratio (%)	(6) Average monthly wage for homeworkers
North Sumatra	311,063	1,730,339	1,505,850	87.0	377,331

[22] Minimum wages in Indonesia are determined through an annual process led by decentralized wage boards that consist of workers, employers and government, which estimate the amount needed for workers to achieve a "minimum decent standard of living" or the "kebutuhan hidup layak" (KHL) for a particular province or district.

West Java	276,825	1,950,345	1,000,000	51.3	908,489
Central Java	261,881	1,408,241	910,000	64.6	387,172
D.I. Yogyakarta	303,843	1,724,646	988,500	57.3	568,750
East Java	273,758	1,574,956	1,000,000	63.5	423,043
Banten	288,733	2,396,002	1,325,000	55.3	378,998
National	292,951	1,952,589	1,494,134	76.5	377,331

Source: Survey data; BPS (2014) Labour situation in Indonesia, August 2014, Badan Pusat Statistik, Jakarta.

When looking at the average monthly wage of homeworkers in comparison with the average wage for regular employees in manufacturing, women homeworkers are clearly at disadvantaged. Women are generally paid less than men in Indonesia, with the gender pay gap estimated at 77.8 per cent on average for regular employees across the country. Women in manufacturing also receive less wage than men (Table 24). Further, the income of homeworkers tended to be less than 50 per cent of the wages received by women regular employees in the manufacturing sector.

Table 24: Average wages in manufacturing sector for regular employees and homeworkers (IDR)

	Average wage for regular employees in manufacturing		Average monthly wage for homeworkers
Province	Men	Women	
North Sumatra	1,863,540	1,291,210	377,331
West Java	2,001,797	1,611,239	1,194,615
Central Java	1,228,142	826,709	387,172
D.I. Yogyakarta	1,317,739	919,364	568,750
East Java	1,711,444	1,161,389	423,043
Banten	2,433,929	2,033,729	378,998
Total	1,927,994	1,403,925	377,331

Source: Survey data; BPS (2014) Labourer situation in Indonesia, August 2014, Badan Pusat Statistik, Jakarta.

The wage of homeworkers varied by sector, working hours and province as show in Table 25. The highest average income of homeworkers was found in the food processing sector in West Java, while the lowest was found in the furniture sector in Banten. The furniture sector marked the lowest wage also in West Java and East Java. In West Java and East Java, all the average wages were above the minimum wage. In the remaining provinces of North Sumatra, Central Java and Yogyakarta, those working in food processing received the lowest wages. With the exception of West Java and East Java, the homeworkers interviewed in this study that worked in food processing did not earn enough to income to rise above the poverty line.

As Table 26 presents, there are large variations in average wage in different provinces even for the same sector, even taking into account difference in hours worked. For example, the

average monthly wage for food processing was IDR 1,222,112 in West Java, while that of Banten was IDR 200,395. The study was not able to explore factors contributing to the very large variations and further research may be conducted to identify the factors. Box 5 below provides an illustration of women homeworkers and their wages.

Table 25: Average wages by sector for homeworkers (IDR)

North Sumatra	Average wage (IDR) per month	Average hours of work per week
Food processing	**234,125**	38.3
Drink processing	294,980	43.3
Tobacco processing	N/A	N/A
Textile (spinning, weaving, dyeing)	478,400	33.2
Wearing apparel (sewing / tailoring of clothes)	563,103	37.3
Leather, leather goods and footwear	**1,023,153**	56.5
Wood, bamboo and rattan processing	552,500	35.7
Furniture	N/A	N/A
Other manufacturing	431,082	40.7
West Java	**Average wage (IDR) per month**	**Average hours of work per week**
Food processing	**1,222,112**	47.8
Drink processing	1,000,000	30.0
Tobacco processing	N/A	N/A
Textile (spinning, weaving, dyeing)	1,194,615	44.8
Wearing apparel (sewing / tailoring of clothes)	783,658	40.2
Leather, leather goods and footwear	916,857	36.5
Wood, bamboo and rattan processing	903,478	48.1
Furniture	**604,667**	55.1
Other manufacturing	642,523	37.5
Central Java	**Average wage (IDR) per month**	**Average hours of work per week**
Food processing	**267,121**	30.7
Drink processing	N/A	N/A
Tobacco processing	N/A	N/A
Textile (spinning, weaving, dyeing)	449,015	39.4
Wearing apparel (sewing / tailoring of clothes)	**480,163**	38.5
Leather, leather goods and footwear	430,728	57.6
Wood, bamboo and rattan processing	342,538	37.3
Furniture	445,888	31.2
Other manufacturing	294,749	33.6
D.I. Yogyakarta	**Average wage (IDR) per month**	**Average hours of work per week**
Food processing	**236,363**	13.0
Drink processing	N/A	N/A
Tobacco processing	N/A	N/A
Textile (spinning, weaving, dyeing)	527,272	30.7
Wearing apparel (sewing / tailoring of clothes)	750,769	36.5
Leather, leather goods and footwear	705,172	38.6
Wood, bamboo and rattan processing	**950,000**	29.5
Furniture	N/A	N/A
Other manufacturing	359,230	32.0
East Java	**Average wage (IDR) per month**	**Average hours of work per week**
Food processing	**556,259**	50.1
Drink processing	320,000	46.3
Tobacco processing	500,000	66.0
Textile (spinning, weaving, dyeing)	430,684	50.0
Wearing apparel (sewing / tailoring of clothes)	534,129	48.6
Leather, leather goods and footwear	411,454	40.2
Wood, bamboo and rattan processing	535,606	45.8
Furniture	**296,146**	43.6
Other manufacturing	343,142	46.6
Banten	**Average wage (IDR) per month**	**Average hours of work per week**
Food processing	200,395	45.9
Drink processing	250,000	42.0
Tobacco processing	N/A	N/A
Textile (spinning, weaving, dyeing)	318,000	41.1
Wearing apparel (sewing / tailoring of clothes)	370,408	35.6
Leather, leather goods and footwear	**859,704**	43.3
Wood, bamboo and rattan processing	444,154	39.4
Furniture	**125,000**	28.8

Other manufacturing	464,323	39.8

Source: Survey data.

Box 5: Cases of Mrs. Samiah and Mrs. Hani in Banten and Mrs. Sintha and Mrs. Lilis in North Sumatra[23]

Mrs. Samiah lives in Banten and is a homeworker in the wearing apparels sector who has never been to school. She trims excess thread from shirts for international renowned brands. According to her, the work of disposing threads is not complicated and does not require a lot of skills. She only has to cut excess threads on the seams of shirts. In one day, she undertakes these tasks for an average of 100 shirts over a nine hour period. She works for 6 days a week. She receives a maximum of IDR 500,000 per month for this work. This means that she receives an average earning of IDR 20,830 per day or IDR 2,975 per hour. Her earnings place her far below the district minimum wage (IDR 1.3 million) and only just above the poverty line (IDR 0.3 million).

Mrs. Hani has a high school diploma and is a homeworker in the furniture sector in Banten. She undertakes finishing tasks for the manufacturing of car seats, including cutting threads. She works on average for 4 hours a day and 7 days a week. For one car seat, she works for 2 hours with a piece rate of IDR 2,500 per unit. In one month she earns IDR 150,000. This means that she earns IDR 5,000 in one day or IDR 1,250 per hour.

Both Mrs. Samiah and Mrs. Hani complete work that is at the last stages of the production process, namely finishing tasks or cutting threads from leftover stitching. Mrs. Samiah works excessive working hours and Mrs. Hanoi works part time. Neither workers are able to earn a wage that is equivalent to the provincial minimum wage even if they work full time. It also highlights that educational attainment plays a limited role in earnings for homeworkers.

Mrs. Sintha is a homeworker in North Sumatra and her work is to cut onions. Although she works long hours (63 hours per week), her monthly wage is IDR 200,000 which is below the poverty line for North Sumatra (IDR 330,517 for urban areas). Mrs. Lilis, on the other hand, works 3 hours per day and 5 days per week (15 hours per week in total) by sewing clothes, and receives the monthly wage of IDR 400,000.

Source: Focus group discussions, North Sumatra and Banten.

7.3 Homework payment mechanism

This study found that the earnings of homeworkers are normally determined using a piece rate system. Of the respondents who were interviewed in this study, over 90 per cent stated that they are paid per unit they produce (See Table 26 for examples of piece rate). In general, the tendency was the shorter the time needed, the lower the piece rate, and vice versa.

Table 26: Examples of piece rate

Province	Piece rate examples
North Sumatra	- Cutting onions: IDR 125 per kg (Homeworkers can finish 1 kg in 15 minutes).

[23] All individual names that appear in the report have been changed to protect the identity of individuals.

	- Cleaning fish: IDR 3,000 per kg (Homeworkers can finish 10-15kgs in 4-8 hours per day, and receive IDR 30,000 – IDR45,000). - Peeling shrimp: IDR 2,700 per kg (Homeworkers can finish 1 kg in 2 hours).
West Java	- Sewing upper soles of shoes: IDR25,000 per 1 dozen pair of shoes (Homeworkers can finish 1 dozen pair of shoes per day). - Making dumplings in Bandung: IDR600 per pack (Homeworkers can finish 30-50 packs in a day, and receive IDR 18,000 – IDR 30,000). - Twisting cable fibers of cellular telephone charger: IDR 100 per 1 bundle of cables (each bundle contains 100 pieces of cable fiber). (Homeworkers can finish about 10-15 bundles per day, and receive IDR 10,000 – IDR 15,000).
Central Java	- Wrapping straws: IDR 5,000 per 5 packs (Homeworkers can finish 5 packs in 6 hours). - Making batik: IDR 5,000 per unit (Homeworkers can finish 1 unit in 3 hours).
Yogyakarta	- Working on industrial wood, articles of wood and cork (excluding furniture) and goods woven from bamboo, rattan and the like: IDR 500 per unit (Homeworkers can finish 1 unit in about 30 minutes) - Working on industrial clothes: IDR 1,500 per cloth (Homeworkers can finish 1 cloth in 45 minutes)
East Java	- Putting strings for badminton rackets: IDR2,500 per dozen (Homeworkers can finish 12 rackets in 2 hours). - Cutting sandal straps: IDR 7,000 per dozen pair (Homeworkers can 5-6 dozens per day, and receive IDR 35,000 – IDR 42,000). - Assembling pan lids: IDR 1,000 per sheet of pan lids (Homeworkers can finish 20-50 sheets of pan lids in 8-10 hours per day with help from family members, and receive IDR 20,000 -50,000).
Banten	- Thread disposal from shirts: IDR 115 per shirt (If homeworkers can finish 100 shirts in one day, they receives IDR 11,500). - Thread disposal from t-shirts: IDR 60 per t-shirt (Homeworkers receive 30-60 t-shirts in one day to finish, and receive IDR1,800 – 3,600 per day).

Source: Survey data; data from the ILO/MAMPU project.

This study found that the piece rate of most homeworkers was determined by their employers without negotiation. For example, in North Sumatra 97.67 per cent of the homeworkers interviewed reported that their employer determined their piece rate. In West Java, Central Java, East Java and Banten it was 76.9 per cent, 84.5 per cent, 89.7 per cent and 85.1 per cent respectively. Only a small portion of homeworkers determine their own rate or negotiate their rate. Information from the focus group discussions further explained that they accept piece rates without negotiation due to two factors, including i) the fear of losing their job and ii) the fear of competition from other workers. Homeworkers are clearly in a weak bargaining position.

The notification of piece rates prior to commencing work orders gives homeworkers some clarity in regard to their future income. According to this study, more than 80 per cent of homeworkers were generally notified of their piece rate prior to beginning work. In addition, the homeworkers reported that they are generally paid directly by the employer or intermediary for their work, with 90 per cent of the sample indicating that they are paid directly with no receipts. The exception was the case of Yogyakarta. In Yogyakarta only 72.5 cent of respondents stated that they are paid directly for their homework, the remaining respondents indicating that their spouses or other family members receive the payments. The

situation in Yogyakarta may indicate that some homeworkers may not have the total control of the wage they earn due to the engagement of their spouses or other family members in receiving the payment.

In terms of timeliness of payment, this study found that homeworkers are usually paid after they deliver products, but that the arrangements for payment can vary. For example, some of the homeworkers interviewed in this study were paid when they delivered products. There were also homeworkers who were paid only after the products they produced had been sold by their employers. Table 27 summarizes the timeliness of payment for home work. It shows that many homeworkers are paid either on delivery (40.9 per cent) or between 1 and 15 days after they deliver the product (42.2%). Approximately 17 per cent of the homeworkers receive their payments more than 15 days after delivery. It is worth highlighting that 59.1 per cent of the respondents experienced delays in receiving payments. This indicates that risks of production are placed on homeworkers. For homeworkers, delays in payment relates directly to various risks as they may not have extra income to protect them from sudden illness or injury, which would further affect their ability to earn income.

Table 27: Payment timing and homework

Province	Upon delivery		1 to 15 days after delivery		16 to 30 days after delivery		Over 30 days after delivery	
	Number in sample	% of sample	Number in sample	% of sample	Number in sample	% of sample	Number in sample	% of sample
North Sumatra	106	35.3	139	46.3	47	15.7	8	2.7
West Java	388	48.3	273	34.0	129	16.0	14	1.7
Central Java	318	40.8	335	42.9	84	10.8	43	5.5
D.I. Yogyakarta	31	38.8	40	50.0	8	10.0	1	1.3
East Java	313	44.0	300	42.3	60	8.5	37	5.2
Banten	81	24.1	180	53.6	54	16.1	21	6.3
Total /average	1228	40.9	1267	42.2	382	12.7	124	4.1

Source: Survey data.

7.4 Advantages and difficulties

The main advantages shared by the homeworkers were that they are able to earn income with some flexibility to schedule work while at home and the possibility to manage multiple tasks or activities related to income generation as well as household responsibilities. The majority of homeworkers reported that they engage in childcare while homeworking. The remaining portion of the sample reported that they either receive help from other family members in child minding or engage in homework while their children are attending school.

As shown in Table 28, the most common difficulty shared by the homeworkers was associated with low levels of remuneration (52.25 per cent), followed by the inconsistency in work orders (33 per cent). The other difficulties related to their inability to bargain with intermediaries and poor access to infrastructure. The main difficulties shared by the participants of focus group discussions were similar and they listed low wages, instability of work order, and supply of raw materials. While multi-tasking was raised as a key advantage by the many respondents, some homeworkers in the focus group discussions viewed it as a disadvantage as it requires a lot of energies to be effective in undertaking multiple tasks simultaneously. Other

homeworkers also pointed out another disadvantage of home work which makes their home untidy as raw materials and equipment take up the limited space they have at home. This can also affect the health of the homeworkers and their families as some raw materials or equipment may be dangerous. Other complaints included that home work intrudes family time, and they were not provided with working equipment or facilities in support of their work.

Table 28: Difficulties encountered by homeworkers

Occupation	North Sumatra		West Java		Central Java		D.I. Yogyakarta		East Java		Banten	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Poor access to basic infrastructure	28	9.3	147	18.3	65	5.8	2	2.1	52	4.5	7	2.3
Lack of education, training or skills	22	7.3	88	10.9	38	3.4	3	3.2	33	2.9	11	3.6
High transportation cost	8	2.7	58	7.2	97	8.7	4	4.2	69	6.0	20	6.5
Work orders not consistent	122	40.7	351	43.7	242	21.6	20	21.1	353	30.6	124	40.3
Remuneration too low	183	61.0	422	52.5	519	46.3	47	49.5	372	32.3	241	71.9
Costs of the materials and tools are too high	16	5.3	36	4.5	60	5.4	9	9.5	26	2.3	3	1.0
Inability to bargain with intermediary	41	13.7	84	10.4	99	8.8	10	10.5	112	9.7	5	1.6
Other	29	9.7	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	135	11.7	N/A	N/A

Source: Survey data.

8. Social protection and safety and health of homeworkers

Social protection

Indonesia has many social assistance and social insurance programmes that are designed to reduce poverty and protect the working age population. The question is whether homeworkers have access to these programmes. Table 28 shows that homeworkers have limited access to the Government's social assistance and social insurance programmes, with approximately 40 per cent of the sample without access to any form of social protection or social insurance. If homeworkers do have access to social protection programmes, it is most common to be either the health insurance programme or the rice for the poor programme. However, among the homeworkers that reported to be enrolled in health insurance or employment insurance, most were not active members paying contributions though they still had their enrolment card, which indicates that they were most likely qualified to access the scheme as they were categorized as a poor household. As seen from the average monthly

wage of homeworkers (Table 23), the average wage of the homeworkers was just above the poverty line, though it was 50 per cent of the minimum wage and less than 30 per cent of the average wage, and this explains that most of the homeworkers would not qualify to access schemes for the poor. The main reasons for poor access to social protection programmes were a low level of awareness, and that their husband's employment didn't provide access to health insurance, and cost of insurance seen as too high for their household (e.g. IDR 50,000 per month).

Table 29: Homeworkers receiving social assistance and insurance programmes

North Sumatra	Number in sample	Sample average (%)
Jamsostek / BPJS Ketenagakerjaan	24	8.0
Jamkesmas / BPJS Kesahatan	82	27.3
Membeli/mendapat beras miskin (RASKIN)	64	21.3
Program Keluarga Harapan (PKH)	4	1.3
Surat Miskin (SKTM)	7	2.3
Kartu Sehat	6	2.0
Program Nasional Pemberdayaan Masyarakat (PNPM)	11	3.7
Kredit Usaha Rakyat (KUR)	N/A	N/A
None	115	38.3
Other	25	8.3
West Java	**Number in sample**	**Sample average**
Jamsostek / BPJS Ketenagakerjaan	25	3.1
Jamkesmas / BPJS Kesahatan	123	15.3
Membeli/mendapat beras miskin (RASKIN)	275	34.2
Program Keluarga Harapan (PKH)	21	2.6
Surat Miskin (SKTM)	103	12.8
Kartu Sehat	12	1.5
Program Nasional Pemberdayaan Masyarakat (PNPM)	9	1.1
Kredit Usaha Rakyat (KUR)	8	1.0
None	339	42.2
Other	0	0.0
Central Java	**Number in sample**	**Sample average**
Jamsostek / BPJS Ketenagakerjaan	25	2.3
Jamkesmas / BPJS Kesahatan	299	27.7
Membeli/mendapat beras miskin (RASKIN)	325	30.1
Program Keluarga Harapan (PKH)	28	2.6
Surat Miskin (SKTM)	46	4.3
Kartu Sehat	44	4.1
Program Nasional Pemberdayaan Masyarakat (PNPM)	52	4.8
Kredit Usaha Rakyat (KUR)	14	1.3
None	247	22.9
Other	N/A	N/A
DIY	**Number in sample**	**Sample average**
Jamsostek / BPJS Ketenagakerjaan	N/A	N/A
Jamkesmas / BPJS Kesahatan	42	35.0
Membeli/mendapat beras miskin (RASKIN)	33	27.5
Program Keluarga Harapan (PKH)	5	4.2
Surat Miskin (SKTM)	N/A	N/A
Kartu Sehat	1	0.8
Program Nasional Pemberdayaan Masyarakat (PNPM)	4	3.3
Kredit Usaha Rakyat (KUR)	4	3.3
None	22	18.3
Other	9	7.5
East Java	**Number in sample**	**Sample average**
Jamsostek / BPJS Ketenagakerjaan	20	2.8
Jamkesmas / BPJS Kesahatan	123	17.3
Membeli/mendapat beras miskin (RASKIN)	247	34.8
Program Keluarga Harapan (PKH)	31	4.4

Surat Miskin (SKTM)	90	12.7
Kartu Sehat	12	1.7
Program Nasional Pemberdayaan Masyarakat (PNPM)	9	1.3
Kredit Usaha Rakyat (KUR)	8	1.1
None	307	43.2
Other	74	10.4
Banten	**Number in sample**	**Sample average**
Jamsostek / BPJS Ketenagakerjaan	13	3.8
Jamkesmas / BPJS Kesahatan	87	25.7
Membeli/mendapat beras miskin (RASKIN)	66	19.5
Program Keluarga Harapan (PKH)	1	0.3
Surat Miskin (SKTM)	6	1.8
Kartu Sehat	6	1.8
Program Nasional Pemberdayaan Masyarakat (PNPM)	1	0.3
Kredit Usaha Rakyat (KUR)	2	0.6
None	156	46.2
Other	N/A	N/A

Source: Survey data.

Article 99 of the Manpower Act No. 13/2003 states that all workers are entitled to social security, however, there is currently no flexible arrangement that adequately supports seasonal or casual workers to secure this entitlement. Moreover, only 1 in 4 regular wage employees in the formal sector are currently actively contributing to programmes such as the old age pension and the provident fund.[24] According to the data collected in this study, the coverage of homeworkers by employment insurance programmes is even lower, with only 1 in every 30 homeworkers having access to such programmes. The low level of coverage among homeworkers is not unexpected, as the far majority of contracts between homeworkers and their employers are informal.

In regard to pregnancy, the findings of this study among the women with children suggest that while pregnant the majority of homeworkers underwent check-ups with a midwife, nurse or obstetrician or gynecologist. Results were mixed for postnatal health. For example, in North Sumatra, West Java, Central Java and East Java, 67.3 per cent, 54.2 per cent, 69.6 per cent and 64.9 per cent of the sample respectively completed a follow up consultation six weeks after giving birth. In Yogyakarta and Banten, the result was higher, with 86.3 per cent and 85.7 per cent of the sample having postnatal consultations respectively, and it shows that postnatal health care was accessed or utilized much less by the homeworkers.

Occupational safety and health

While most homeworkers interviewed in this study stated that their health condition was at a fair or good level, the women interviewed still reported various health complaints, including occasional fever, coughs and headaches. The respondents generally reported that these afflictions did not interfere substantially with their work activities and that they rest from work at their own discretion when ill.

However, their behaviour and choice to take respite is influenced by a fear of reduced work orders from intermediaries if they can't complete work orders on time. They also could not

[24] BPJS Ketenagakerjaan (2014), "Annual report", (BPJS Ketenagakerjaan, Jakarta).

afford to take a rest as taking a rest and not working to complete orders directly affected their earnings of the homeworkers who were paid based on the quantity of the products completed. The homeworkers reported that as they work from their home, their work life is hard to separate from their home life, so they often continue to work when they are ill which may result in longer recovery times and lower productivity.

Focus group discussions revealed several issues related to health, particularly concerning stress and lack of adherence with occupational safety standards. For instance, homeworkers often reported to experience stress due to low levels of earnings and not being able to pay school fees or meet debt obligations. In addition, homeworkers who work in certain industries, such as gluing foam pads on helmets for motorbikes, report that the fumes often make them feel a shortness of breath and numbness in their hands and fingers.

Table 30 shows the relation between workplace injuries by economic sector. On average the respondents interviewed indicated that they had taken 2 days off due to occupational injuries in the last year. The data indicates that work activities with the longest recovery time also have the most frequent incidence of workplace accidents. For example, homeworkers in the garment and textiles sectors tended to have the highest incidence of occupational injuries and the longest recovery times. Provision of training, such as occupational safety and health training, would be important for ensuring health of workers and reducing work related injuries that could weaken the productive potential of homeworkers.

Table 30: Days lost from occupational injuries by homeworkers

North Sumatra	Minimum days lost	Maximum days lost	Average days lost
Food processing	0	14	0.89
Drink processing	0	2	0.40
Tobacco processing	N/A	N/A	N/A
Textile (spinning, weaving, dyeing)	0	15	3.23
Wearing apparel (sewing / tailoring of clothes)	0	7	1.31
Leather, leather goods and footwear	0	4	1.23
Wood, bamboo and rattan processing	0	7	1.17
Furniture	N/A	N/A	N/A
Other manufacturing	0	28	1.29
West Java	**Minimum days lost**	**Maximum days lost**	**Average days lost**
Food processing	0	7	2.0
Drink processing	N/A	N/A	N/A
Tobacco processing	N/A	N/A	N/A
Textile (spinning, weaving, dyeing)	0	7	2.2
Wearing apparel (sewing / tailoring of clothes)	0	7	1.8
Leather, leather goods and footwear	0	3	0.7
Wood, bamboo and rattan processing	0	7	2.9
Furniture	0	2	1.0
Other manufacturing	0	10	1.7
Central Java	**Minimum days lost**	**Maximum days lost**	**Average days lost**
Food processing	1	30	4
Drink processing	N/A	N/A	N/A
Tobacco processing	N/A	N/A	N/A
Textile (spinning, weaving, dyeing)	0	60	8
Wearing apparel (sewing / tailoring of clothes)	0	14	3
Leather, leather goods and footwear	1	31	6
Wood, bamboo and rattan processing	0	7	2
Furniture	1	14	5
Other manufacturing	1	90	5
DIY	**Minimum days lost**	**Maximum days lost**	**Average days lost**

Food processing	0	1	1
Drink processing	N/A	N/A	N/A
Tobacco processing	N/A	N/A	N/A
Textile (spinning, weaving, dyeing)	1	3	2
Wearing apparel (sewing / tailoring of clothes)	0	1	1
Leather, leather goods and footwear	1	3	2
Wood, bamboo and rattan processing	1	1	1
Furniture	2	2	2
Other manufacturing	1	3	2
East Java	**Minimum days lost**	**Maximum days lost**	**Average days lost**
Food processing	0	75	3
Drink processing	0	14	4
Tobacco processing	2	2	2
Textile (spinning, weaving, dyeing)	0	14	1.66
Wearing apparel (sewing / tailoring of clothes)	0	30	1.85
Leather, leather goods and footwear	0	30	1.70
Wood, bamboo and rattan processing	0	60	1.67
Furniture	0	7	2.24
Other manufacturing	0	65	1.21
Banten	**Minimum days lost**	**Maximum days lost**	**Average days lost**
Food processing	1	2	1.9
Drink processing	N/A	N/A	N/A
Tobacco processing	N/A	N/A	N/A
Textile (spinning, weaving, dyeing)	2	3	2.3
Wearing apparel (sewing / tailoring of clothes)	1	4	2.4
Leather, leather goods and footwear	0	3	1.1
Wood, bamboo and rattan processing	2	2	2
Furniture	N/A	N/A	N/A
Other manufacturing	0	7	1.5

Source: Survey data.

The study also asked the respondents about their awareness on HIV/AIDS, following the growing trend in the number of housewives with HIV infections in Indonesia.[25] When asked about their awareness, over 70 per cent of the sample stated that they had heard about HIV/AIDS from various sources. However, when asked whether they have ever been tested for HIV, the majority (over 97 per cent) said they have never been tested.

9. Association and collective bargaining

Since homeworkers work at home in isolation from others, they have limited or no access to information or other resources that support them in improving their working and living conditions. As an individual worker, homeworkers are in a weak position when negotiating with their employers or intermediaries for improving the working conditions, and organizing has been used as a successful strategy to improving the livelihoods of homeworkers in many parts of the world. The study looked at the homeworkers' involvement in groups, associations or organizations in the six provinces.

The majority of the homeworkers in Yogyakarta (90 per cent) were found to attend a group regularly. The proportions of the homeworkers attending a group in Central Java, East Java and North Sumatra were 58.0 per cent, 53.2 per cent and 47.67 per cent respectively. The

[25] Ministry of Health (2014), "HIV/AIDS situation report in Indonesia", (Ministry of Health, Jakarta).

proportions were low in West Java and Banten with 21.6 per cent and 16.7 per cent respectively. The reasons for not attending a group related to an absence of groups or organizations as well as a lack of time.

Most of homeworkers that were members of groups were involved in traditional village groups or in religious women's group, such as *perwiridan perempuan*. Such groups are part of traditional village structures and power hierarchies and they rarely talk about employment and working conditions. As such these traditional structures may not provide a platform for working collectively, particularly in relation to the realization of rights at work. However, the practice of going out for meeting with a group or organization may be used as a basis for homeworkers to start organizing to take collective actions.

Table 31 presents the homeworkers' responses related to negotiation and bargaining with their employers. It shows that 62.8 per cent of the homeworkers interviewed have never negotiated with their employers on wages or working conditions. This indicates that most homeworkers accept the terms of employment as provided by their employers and that they do not think the terms of employment are negotiable or they do not have the capacity to negotiate with their employers. Indeed, data from the focus group discussions indicates that the far majority of homeworkers are fearful of losing their jobs. In particular, they fear that employers will not give them jobs if they try to bargain for better working conditions and better wages.

Table 31: Homeworkers and bargaining

	Yes, bargained independently myself		Yes, collectively with other homeworkers		Yes, supported by a local NGO		No, have not negotiated	
Province	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
North Sumatra	89	29.7	38	13.0	0	0.0	172	57.3
West Java	128	15.9	168	20.9	0	0.0	508	63.2
Central Java	148	26.8	69	9.7	1	0.1	492	69.2
D.I. Yogyakarta	19	23.8	1	1.3	0	0.0	60	75.0
East Java	206	26.4	101	12.9	11	1.4	462	59.2
Banten	176	52.4	35	10.4	0	0.0	125	37.2
Total/average	650	22.5	412	14.3	12	0.4	1813	62.8

Source: Survey data.

Close to one-third of homeworkers stated that they had bargained with their employers independently or collectively with other homeworkers. This shows that a small number of homeworkers do organize themselves in order to negotiate with their employers. However, homeworkers are not yet supported by trade unions or other non-government organizations in negotiation. This is likely due to limited access to such organizations and/or a limited understanding of the role of organization and negotiation strategies. Some workers were previously employed in factories and were union members and only later on became homeworkers. They mentioned that the unions opposed home work as it is a form of outsourcing and they argue that labour exploitation is common among homeworkers. Some homeworkers have therefore been reluctant to approach labour unions for support.

In focus group discussions, homeworkers reported that they generally preferred collective bargaining over independent bargaining, as the latter can be seen to introduce competition

with other homeworkers. However, many homeworkers decide to negotiate individually as other homeworkers do not want to face a risk of losing their jobs through negotiation.

In addition, focus group discussions in West Java highlighted that the homeworkers were not well prepared in cases where homeworkers have negotiated collectively, and that they their organization tended to be spontaneous and based around a single issue. Once the issue had been resolved with the employer, the homeworkers returned to their normal activities and did not maintain the organization forum. Boxes 6 and 7 provide a further illustration of homeworkers' experience with negotiation.

Box 6: Homeworkers and negotiation in West Java

Women homeworkers in the Dayeuh Kolot Sub-district (Bandung Municipality) received orders to sew shoe soles onto shoe uppers for IDR 25,000 per dozen. The homeworkers in this sub-district accepted this offer and as these homeworkers did not have experience in sewing shoe soles, they received training from an intermediary on this for one week. Once the work commenced, the homeworkers discovered that they could finish 12 pairs of shoes (one dozen) in one day. They then felt that the piece rate offered was too low considering the time that they had to invest in completing the work and the needs of their family for additional income.

The homeworkers tried to negotiate with their intermediary to increase the piece rate for this work, but the intermediary informed them that the employer in the factory is the only one with the authority to adjust the piece rate. The intermediary suggested that the homeworkers to negotiate with the employer. This suggestion was taken up by the homeworkers. Together, they met the employer and negotiated for an increase in the piece rate. However, they did not agree on the amount that they would like to bargain for in nominal terms prior to the meeting, which put them at a disadvantage. In the meeting, the employer agreed to an increase of IDR 1,000 per dozen pairs of shoes, thus making the new piece rate IDR 26,000 per dozen pairs of shoes. The homeworkers accepted this offer.

Source: Focus group discussion, West Java.

Box 7: Homeworkers and negotiation in Banten

Ms. Mutia is an intermediary and homeworker from Batu Ceper Sub district, Tangerang City. She has two jobs because the income that she receives from her work as an intermediary is insufficient to cover her living expenses. As an intermediary, Ms. Mutia distributes work orders to her relatives who live in the areas surrounding her neighbourhood. As a homeworker, her main activity is to sew sleeves onto shirts for internationally known brands.

When Ms. Mutia began to work as a homeworker and intermediary, she received IDR 100 per piece for sowing sleeves onto shirts, as well as IDR 50 per piece for delivering the finished products to the factory. However, both Ms. Mutia, and the homeworkers she worked with, considered the piece rate for this work to be very low. They held a team meeting and decided that they would like to bargain for an increased piece rate for the products that they produced. They went as a group to talk to the employer. However, they did not jointly decide how much they would like to propose for the new piece rate before meeting the employer.

The factory that works with the homeworkers is a private company that is a subcontractor of a larger company in Jakarta. After having a discussion with Ms. Mutia and the homeworkers, the factory owner offered to increase the piece rate for sewing sleeves onto shirts by IDR 25, so that the homeworkers would receive IDR 125 per piece, while Ms. Muita would still receive IDR 50 per piece as an intermediary for the delivery of products. This offer was accepted by the homeworkers.

Source: Focus group discussion, Banten.

10. Conclusions and recommendations

Conclusions

The study shed light on the situations and working conditions of largely invisible women homeworkers in the six provinces of North Sumatra, West Java, Central Java, Yogyakarta, East Java, and Banten in Indonesia. The findings confirmed that these homeworkers are making important contribution to household economy and beyond. However, they work in substandard conditions and that efforts are needed by various stakeholders to improve the living and working conditions of these workers. The key findings are summarized below:

- The surveyed provinces have a relatively high number of poor people despite good economic performance. There is also a high number of economically inactive women due to housekeeping in these provinces, indicating that many women continue to be responsible for housekeeping and housekeeping is a key factor hindering women's labour force participation. The need for income among the economically disadvantaged families combined with women's responsibilities for housekeeping push many women to find ways to earn income, e.g. home work, for survival. Therefore, there may be many women engaged in home work in these provinces though there is no official data on the prevalence of homeworkers.
- The women homeworkers generally have lower educational attainment than the provincial average. At least more than a quarter of the interviewed women had primary school education in all the targeted provinces and another quarter had junior high school education.
- Over 80 per cent of the women are married. The average size of the homeworkers' household was between 4 and 5 persons which was slightly higher than the national and provincial average. The husbands of homeworker are typically found to have casual or short-term jobs in low skill and unskilled occupations, indicating that the homeworkers' household may not have stable income and income from home work is important.
- The study found women with disabilities among the homeworkers in all provinces except Yogyakarta. The proportion of women with disabilities in the 5 provinces was about 1 per cent on average.
- Many women homeworkers did not have gender equality perceptions especially in terms of decision-making in the household.

- Entry into home work is informal and through social networks such as friends and relatives. More than 50 per cent of the women were introduced into home work by neighbour.
- The majority indicated that home work was their primary economic activity and the main source of income. It was common that the women workers received help from other household family members including children to complete their work.
- The women homeworkers on average worked as homeworkers for about 6 years, though the years worked as homeworkers ranged widely with the longest being 25 years.
- Fifty per cent of the homeworkers indicated that they would like to set up their own business if given a choice. Twenty per cent stated they would prefer to be a full time housewife. Only a small percentage of the sample were interested to become workers in the formal sector or to study further. Focus group discussions highlighted that many women prefer to stay at home to fulfill their care responsibilities or to have work that provides them with the same flexibility that they have as a homeworker.
- The homeworkers were found in a variety of sectors and industries including food processing, textile, wearing apparel, leather, wood, etc, not requiring specific skills. A small proportion of the women worked in handicraft.
- Almost all the women worked without written contracts. Forty-seven per cent of the women stated that they work under verbal agreement and 53 per cent stated they have no agreement.
- The location of work for the most homeworkers was their own home or in the home of a friend. Only a small proportion indicated their workplace as a structure attached to their home such as yard or garage.
- The women worked according to orders and specifications by their employers or intermediaries but they rarely had training. The provision of specifications was most common in areas producing goods linked to international markets. In case training was provided, it was mostly informal on-the-job training to instruct how the work should be completed to meet the specifications, and not to improve the skills of the workers.
- The majority of women receive raw materials from their employers though there are also cases where homeworkers buy part or whole of raw materials. It was less common for the homeworkers to receive tools from their employers/intermediaries. Over 70 per cent of the workers stated they had never received compensation for the expenses related to production. Two per cent of the workers were required to pay a deposit for the materials and tools that they received.
- Close to 60 per cent of the homeworkers had some knowledge of the company that hires them or gives original production orders. The study also confirmed the presence of homeworkers in global supply chains with 18 per cent of the workers stating that their products are sold at international market.
- The number of work hours by the homeworkers was longer than women on average. They tend to work less hours per day, but more days per week compared to women on average. The homeworkers were mostly divided into two types, namely those working part-time and those working excessive hours (more than 48 hours per week). Many homeworkers

want to work more as they are paid by piece rate and they see it as the only way to increase their income.

- The homeworkers are paid by piece-rate and the determination of piece rate is commonly controlled by the employers without negotiation. Most of them were reluctant to negotiate because of the fear of losing jobs.
- The earnings of the homeworkers tended to just rise above the poverty line but below the minimum wage. They are among the lowest paid workers in the production chain, as evidenced from comparing the average wage of workers in the manufacturing sector.
- Many homeworkers experienced delays in receiving pay. The fact that homeworkers experience delays in payments indicates that they carry some responsibility for the cost of production, which could make them more vulnerable in interim periods.
- The main advantages of home work shared by the women were that they are able to earn income, and that home work allows them to do other economic or caring activities.
- The main challenges shared by the homeworkers were low income and unstable work order. Some shared that limited space at home is also a challenge. Their home being their workplace, their space may be intruded by raw materials and completed products. This can be dangerous as some materials may be hazardous. Since they do not have written contracts, they were also concerned that the work could cease to exist at any time. This also made the homeworkers reluctant to negotiate about improving their working conditions.
- While most of the homeworkers reported to be in good health, they still had health related complaints and shared that they often continue to work with injuries or illness and rarely take respite from work activities, as taking a rest results directly in loss of income. They fear that intermediaries may reduce or cut the work orders if they take a break from work. This raises a general concern over health of the homeworkers.
- The homeworkers had limited access to the Government's social assistance and social insurance programmes.
- Homeworkers were not well connected with groups that support rights at work. The most common group that homeworkers attend is a traditional religious group, which typically doesn't provide a platform for discussion of work related issues. Homeworkers are reluctant to negotiate for better working conditions due to high vulnerability. When homeworkers do negotiate they often do it as a single worker without adequate preparation. This leads to sub-optimal outcomes.

Recommendations

Since homeworkers work to support their livelihoods and the well-being of their family, it is important to recognize them as workers and work towards addressing decent work deficits faced by homeworkers. In promoting decent work for homeworkers, action needs to be taken by relevant stakeholders to bring positive changes at different levels including at policy level as well as at the community level. Since the majority of homeworkers are women, promotion of decent work for homeworkers is an important area of work in improving women's welfare in Indonesia. Improving homeworkers' working conditions can bring positive impacts as

Indonesia works towards poverty alleviation and socially sustainable development. In this effort, the following recommendations are provided in response to the challenges faced by homeworkers:

1. Collect data on homeworkers

There is a need to have data on homeworkers in order to better understand the prevalence and the working conditions of these workers in Indonesia. Homeworkers are currently invisible within statistics and collecting data on them can help increase the visibility of homeworkers and the contribution they make to the economy.

According to the National Statistics Office in Indonesia, the new labour force survey questionnaire to be used from 2016 will include several new questions including the place of work. This is a positive development as this is a necessary step to allow for the identification of the category of work including home-based work. Data collection on various categories of workers including home-based workers should be well-established so that the data can be available for policy and programme development and monitoring and evaluating the working conditions of these workers. Once data is collected, results should be widely disseminated for further use by relevant stakeholders, including policy makers and homeworkers.

In addition, other research may be carried out as needed to build an evidence base for promoting decent work for homeworkers.

2. Empower homeworkers to address decent work deficits through awareness raising, training, and group formation and management

Empowering homeworkers to take actions to improve their living and working conditions is an imperative part in promoting decent work for homeworkers. Since most homeworkers have low educational attainment and limited understanding on issues that affect them, it is important that homeworkers are supported to increase awareness and strengthen capacity to address substandard working conditions through:

- Awareness raising on:
    - Gender equality and non-discrimination.
    - Homeworkers as workers.
    - Workers' rights.
    - Importance of having a written contract and keeping record.
- Training on various topics such as:
    - Occupational safety and health and safe home.
    - Leadership and negotiation skills.
    - Financial literacy including calculation of piece-rate and production cost (e.g. labour, utilities, delivery of finished products, etc) so that they can use the information when negotiation with their employers.
    - Group formation and management so that homeworkers can share information, help each other, and work collectively to strengthen their voice and representation.
    - Advocacy skills.

- Training on vocational skills to improve their employability.
- Provide access to financial services (e.g. saving and loan) to support women in taking control in managing their own finance.

The above awareness raising and training topics have been used in many countries to empower home-based workers with positive results. Additional topics may be added as appropriate to contribute to the empowerment of homeworkers.

In this study, 50 per cent of the homeworkers indicated that they would like to set up their own business if given a choice. These women should have access to enterprise training and other support services (e.g. financial, legal, marketing, networking, etc) so that they can start, manage and improve their businesses.

3. Recognize homeworkers as workers through regulation

As a step to extend effective protection to homeworkers, it is important to formally recognize homeworkers as workers. This may be done through the formulation of a local and national policy on home work or the revision of the existing laws. It should be done in close consultation with the relevant stakeholders including representatives from homeworkers' groups. Various stakeholders should work together to secure political commitment to recognize homeworkers as workers. The ILO's Home Work Convention, 1996 (No. 177) which is yet to be ratified by Indonesia, and the Home Work Recommendation, 1996 (No. 184) provide basic principles and guidance in promoting decent work for homeworkers.

4. Extend social protection to homeworkers

Despite many social assistance and social insurance programmes designed to reduce poverty and protect the working age population in Indonesia, the majority of the homeworkers were found without access to these programmes. Since homeworkers are mostly paid by piece they complete, the loss of work days due to illness or injury has negative impact on their earnings. Recognizing that homeworkers earn low wages which are just above the poverty line but below the minimum wages, the loss of work days means that they immediately face a risk of falling into poverty. The study also showed that less homeworkers accessed postnatal care. Efforts should be made to ensure that essential social protection schemes are available and accessible by homeworkers to protect them from various risks.

5. Promote responsible practices in supply chain

Employers' associations and members as well as other multinational, national and local companies in Indonesia can play a key role in promoting decent work for homeworkers by raising awareness on homeworkers' issues and promoting responsible practices for engaging homeworkers. With globalization and increasing flexibility in the labour market, the production chain has become complex, and it has become more difficult to get a full picture of all parts of the supply chain. Homeworkers are often found working at the bottom of the supply chain, carrying out simple production work for products that go to local, national and international markets. Promoting decent work for homeworkers is not only the right thing to do but it is also necessary for sustainable supply chain. In this regard, the following actions are recommended:

- Call on multinational, national and local companies, international and other buyers, retailers and others to subscribe and adhere to the international standards on homeworkers through development and implementation of code of conducts or guidelines. The Ethical Trading Initiative (ETI), an alliance of companies, provides useful guidelines and case studies (http://www.ethicaltrade.org/).
- Take a proactive role in raising awareness on the homeworkers issues among business operators including intermediaries in Indonesia so that they can promote better compliance of labour standards among homeworkers.
- Implement various measures to improve the working conditions and productivity of homeworkers including but not limited to:
    - Payment of fair wages and timely payment of wages.
    - Availability of stable work orders.
    - Training on occupational safety and health for homeworkers.
    - Skills training for homeworkers.
    - Provision of materials, equipment and tools necessary for completing orders.
    - Regular payment of wages without delay.
    - Providing homeworkers' access to social protection.

6. Promote gender equality and non-discrimination among general public, policy makers, companies and employers' associations, trade unions, and other relevant organizations to create an enabling environment for women as well as men to access decent work

The study found that one of the main reasons for women to engage in home work is the flexibility of home work to allow women to take care of household responsibilities while earning income. In addition, in Indonesia, women's labour force participation is generally low with many women citing household responsibilities as the main reason for being economically inactive. The study also showed that the homeworkers generally lacked perception on gender equality, especially in terms of decision making. These findings indicate that gender equality perceptions and gender roles greatly influence how women work, limiting their potential. Therefore, raising awareness on gender equality and changing norms related to traditional roles of women and men for both women and men is needed in households, communities, and at the national level to create an enabling environment for women to access decent work.

Gender issues should be mainstreamed in local and national regulations. Where community groups exist, these groups may be utilized to discuss gender issues and promote gender equality at home as well as in the community.

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