ANALYSIS OF THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT IN INDONESIA

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Abstract

This study aims to analyze the impact of female labor force participation rate (FLFPR), women's representation in parliament (WRP), gender development index (GDI), women in professional employment (WPE), and fertility rate (FTR) on economic growth across Indonesian provinces, as measured by Gross Domestic Product (GDP) from 2019 to 2023. Drawing on human capital theory and gender economics, this research is grounded in the premise that gender inclusion enhances economic performance through broader talent utilization, higher productivity, and more equitable policy outcomes. The selected variables represent key dimensions through which gender equality can influence growth, labor participation, and professional employment, indicating women's direct economic contributions, political representation reflects institutional inclusivity, GDI captures structural gender disparities, and fertility rate reflects demographic and labor trade-offs. Using a panel data regression approach, the findings show that only FLFPR has a significant positive effect on GDP, highlighting the critical role of women's workforce participation in driving inclusive development. In contrast, WRP, GDI, WPE, and FTR do not exhibit statistically significant effects. These results underscore the importance of facilitating women's access to economic opportunities as a strategic pathway to enhance regional economic growth.

Keywords: Female Labor Force, Women's Involvement, Gender Development, Professional Labor Force, Fertility Rate

INTRODUCTION

Economic growth serves as a key indicator of national welfare, commonly measured by Gross Domestic Product (GDP) or, at the regional level, Gross Regional Domestic Product (GRDP). These indicators represent the total value of goods and services produced within a specific area and reflect the overall productivity of labor and capital. Among the drivers of sustained economic growth, labor productivity, particularly the efficient utilization of human capital, plays a central role. In recent years, increasing attention has been directed toward the role of women in labor markets and how their participation influences development outcomes.

Gender equality in labor participation has been shown to positively impact economic performance. A report by McKinsey & Company (2015) estimated that equal labor force participation between men and women could boost global GDP by up to USD 28 trillion by 2025. However, this potential is often hindered by systemic barriers, including social norms, limited access to education, and restrictive labor policies. These constraints persist despite laws and programs that promote gender inclusion, suggesting a gap between policy intent and practical implementation.

In Indonesia, the Female Labor Force Participation Rate (FLFPR) increased from 47.5% in 2019 to 49.6% in 2023 (BPS, 2023). While this trend is encouraging, women's participation is often concentrated in informal sectors or low-wage employment, limiting their economic agency and long-term advancement. Moreover, fertility remains a significant demographic factor affecting women’s labor supply. Research has found that higher fertility levels tend to reduce female labor force participation, especially in the absence of supportive childcare systems (Sulistyaningrum, 2018; Klasen & Pieters, 2015).

Gender, as a socially constructed concept, assigns roles and expectations based on cultural norms rather than biological attributes. Understanding gender as a social construct is crucial for analyzing disparities in labor outcomes and representation. The Gender Development Index (GDI) and Gender Empowerment Index (GEM) attempt to capture these disparities by evaluating women's access to economic and political power. However, these indices often fail to account for qualitative aspects of empowerment, such as autonomy in household decision-making or control over time and income.

Empowerment itself is not merely a statistical measurement but a transformative process that enables women to gain agency in both private and public spheres. Political participation such as female representation in parliament plays a critical role in shaping policies that promote gender equity. In Indonesia, Law No. 7 of 2017 mandates a 30% quota for women in legislative bodies, yet women’s actual influence remains limited due to structural and cultural obstacles. Education emerges as a key enabler of empowerment, not only improving women’s employment prospects but also enhancing their capacity to participate in governance and decision-making.

Fertility, as both a biological and socio-economic phenomenon, further complicates the picture. Countries with higher income levels tend to exhibit lower fertility rates, which allows women greater flexibility to pursue education and careers. Conversely, in lower-income settings, high fertility often correlates with limited female labor force engagement. Thus, understanding fertility dynamics is essential for designing inclusive labor and family policies that can balance economic growth with gender parity.

In sum, this study seeks to examine the multifaceted relationship between female labor force participation, fertility, and indicators of gender empowerment within the broader context of economic development. By exploring these variables in an integrated framework, the research aims to assess how women's involvement in economic and political domains contributes to national productivity and sustainable growth, while also identifying the barriers that limit their full potential.

RESEARCH METHOD

Types and Sources of Data

This study employs a quantitative research approach, emphasizing the use of numerical data to analyze the relationships between socio-economic indicators and economic performance across Indonesia's provinces. The key variables analyzed include Gross Domestic Product (GDP), Female Labor Force Participation Rate (FLFPR), Women's Representation in Parliament (WRP), Women in Professional Employment (WPE), Gender Development Index (GDI), and Fertility Rate (FTR).

The data were sourced from reliable and official institutions, including Statistics Indonesia (Badan Pusat Statistik/BPS), the National Population and Family Planning Board (BKKBN), and the World Bank. Data were collected through access to publicly available online statistical databases and annual reports for the period 2019–2023. To ensure consistency, all values were standardized to appropriate units (e.g., GDP in billion Rupiah, GDI on a 0–1 scale).

Before analysis, data preprocessing was carried out. This included data cleaning, such as checking for and addressing missing values using mean imputation and linear interpolation (where feasible), and identifying any outliers that might distort regression results. Variables were also examined for measurement consistency across provinces and years, particularly in survey-based indicators such as WRP and WPE. Any provinces with incomplete data across multiple variables were excluded from the final regression sample to ensure robustness of the panel data structure.

Data Analysis Method

This study covers all 38 provinces in Indonesia and uses a panel data approach, combining cross-sectional data (provincial level) and time-series data (2019–2023). This method allows the analysis to account for both spatial and temporal variations, capturing more nuanced dynamics than purely cross-sectional or time-series methods alone.

The relationships among the variables are analyzed using panel data regression models. The general equation used in the study is as follows:

$$GDP_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 FLFPR_{it} + \beta_2 WRP_{it} + \beta_3 WPE_{it} + \beta_4 GDI_{it} + \beta_5 FTR_{it} + \varepsilon_{it}$$

Information :

GDP : Gross Domestic Product (in billion Rupiah)
FLFPR: Female Labor Force Participation Rate (in percentage)
WRP : Women's Representation in Parliament (in percentage)
WPE : Women in Professional Employment (in percentage)
GDI : Gender Development Index (index score)
FTR : Fertility Rate (births per woman)
β_0 : Contant

$\beta_1..\beta_5$: Regression Coefficients
ε : Error Term
i : Cross-sectional unit representing Indonesia's 38 provinces
t : Time period spanning from 2019 to 2023 (time series data).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study employed panel data regression using three econometric approaches: Pooled Least Squares (PLS), Fixed Effect Model (FEM), and Random Effect Model (REM). The results of these estimations, along with model selection tests, are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1.
Results of Econometric Model Estimation of Panel Data Regression – Cross Section

Variable	Regression Coefficient		
	PLS	FEM	REM
C	17.15602	8.690813	8.979501
FLFPR	-0.031441	0.022615	0.020736
WRP	-0.049803	0.018803	0.016971
WPE	-0.029287	0.012774	0.012680
GDI	0.042896	0.025903	0.024506
FTR	-1.591973	-0.125071	-0.147258
R^2	0.149249	0.987336	0.193787
Adjusted R^2	0.123311	0.983662	0.169208
F Statistic	5.754167	268.7612	7.884051
F Statistic Prob.	0.000064	0.000000	0.000001

Model Selection Test

(1) Chow
Cross-Section F(33,131) = 262.700142; Prob.F = 0,0000.

(2) Hausman
Cross-Section Random = $\chi^2(5)$ = 9.285774; Prob. χ^2 = 0,0982.

Source: Data processed from BPS, World Bank, BKKBN, and Human Development Index

Based on the Chow test and the Hausman test, the Fixed Effect Model (FEM) is selected as the most appropriate method for this dataset. The Chow test yielded a highly significant F-probability value of 0.0000, indicating that FEM is preferable to PLS. Meanwhile, the Hausman test produced a Chi-square probability value of 0.0982.

Although the Hausman p-value slightly exceeds the conventional 0.05 significance level, it remains below the more relaxed threshold of 0.10, which is often accepted in applied econometrics when dealing with relatively small samples or when strict exogeneity is difficult to guarantee. Therefore, while the decision to use FEM is statistically defensible, it should be interpreted with some caution. To strengthen model validity, future studies may consider conducting robustness checks or applying alternative model specifications, such as

the Correlated Random Effects (CRE) model or Generalized Method of Moments (GMM), especially to confirm the stability of FEM over REM.

Table 2.
Fixed Effect Model (FEM) Estimation Model

$$logGDP_t = 8{,}69018 + 0{,}022615\ FLFPR_t + 0{,}018803 WRP_t$$
$$(0{,}000)^* \qquad (0{,}0098)^* \qquad (0{,}3541)$$
$$+ 0{,}012774 WPE_t\ 0{,}025903\ \mathrm{GDI}_t - 0{,}125071 \mathrm{FTR}_{it} + \varepsilon_t$$
$$(01862) \qquad (0{,}2034) \qquad (0{,}2286)$$

R2 = 0,987336; F. = 2687612; Prob. F = 0,00000

Data processed 2019-2023.

Table 2 shows the fixed effect regression output, where the model explains a very high proportion of variance in the dependent variable ($R^2 = 0.987336$), and the F-statistic of 268.7612 with a probability value of 0.000000 confirms the model's overall significance. Among the independent variables tested, only the Female Labor Force Participation Rate (FLFPR) has a statistically significant impact on log-GDP at the 1% level (p = 0.0000). The regression coefficient of 0.022615 suggests that a 1% increase in FLFPR is associated with a 2.2615% rise in GDP, indicating a strong and positive elasticity. This finding aligns with previous literature that underscores the economic contribution of female labor force participation to national output.

In contrast, the other variables Women's Representation in Parliament (WRP), Women's Professional Employment (WPE), Gender Development Index (GDI), and Fertility Rate (FTR) did not show significant effects at conventional levels, suggesting their direct impact on GDP may be either weak, indirect, or mediated through other socio-economic factors.

Table 3.
Region Effects and Constants for 2019 – 2023

Province	Effect Area (α)	Constant (β)
Aceh	0.130637	8.821450
North Sumatra	1.340574	10.031387
West Sumatra	0.317087	9.007900
Riau	1.369433	10.060246
Jambi	0.201504	8.892317
South Sumatra	0.484279	9.175092
Bengkulu	-1.131161	7.559652
Lampung	0.459497	9.150310
Riau Islands	0.713079	9.403892
DKI Jakarta	2.401577	11.092390
West Java	2.383270	11.074083

Central	1.586183	10.276996
DIY	-0.963326	7.727487
East Java	2.120471	10.811284
Banten	1.298247	9.989060
Bali	-0.416161	8.274652
West Nusa Tenggara	0.182152	8.872965
East Nusa Tenggara	-1.109258	7.581555
West Kalimantan	0.052749	8.743562
Central Kalimantan	-0.797288	7.893525
South Kalimantan	-0.331415	8.359398
East Kalimantan	1.351735	10.042548
North Kalimantan	-0.190358	8.500455
North Sulawesi	-0.858697	7.832116
Central Sulawesi	-0.288924	8.401889
South Sulawesi	0.576183	9.266996
Southeast Sulawesi	-0.632632	8.058181
Gorontalo	-1.937825	6.752988
Maluku	-1.805057	6.885756
North Maluku	-1.704005	6.986808
West Papua	-0.910815	7.780000
Papua	-0.202616	8.488197
Indonesia (average)	-3.287093	5.403720

Source: Data processed from BPS, World Bank, BKKBN, and Human Development Index

Furthermore, Table 3 details the regional effects (intercepts) for each province from 2019 to 2023. These fixed effects reflect unobserved heterogeneity across regions, influenced by local economic structures, policy implementation, social norms, and institutional capacities. For instance, DKI Jakarta shows the highest regional effect ($\alpha = 2.401577$) and constant ($\beta = 11.092390$), consistent with its role as Indonesia's economic center. In contrast, provinces such as Gorontalo and Maluku exhibit negative regional effects, indicating structural disadvantages or lower baseline productivity relative to the national average.

Taken together, the model reveals that while enhancing female labor participation is significantly associated with economic growth, regional disparities and structural differences must be accounted for in policy design. Future interventions should be tailored not only to promote gender-inclusive labor markets but also to address localized challenges that inhibit economic development across provinces.

Discussion

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is widely recognized as a key indicator of a country's economic performance and societal welfare. Among the various contributing factors, the Female Labor Force Participation Rate (FLFPR) emerges in this study as a significant positive determinant of GDP. The regression results indicate that a 1% increase in FLFPR correlates with a 2.26% rise in GDP. This finding reinforces global and national literature suggesting that increased involvement of women in economic activities boosts aggregate productivity. It also aligns with McKinsey & Company's projection that gender parity in the labor force could substantially expand global GDP (Woetzel, 2015). Women's inclusion in the labor market enhances the labor supply base and contributes to economic dynamism, especially when supported by access to decent employment and equitable labor policies.

In contrast, other gender-related variables Women's Representation in Parliament (WRP), Gender Development Index (GDI), share of female professionals, and Fertility Rate (FR) do not exhibit statistically significant impacts on GDP in the regression model. While initial interpretations attribute this insignificance to political and structural constraints limiting women's real influence, additional considerations merit attention. For instance, the effect of WRP on GDP may suffer from a lag effect, as the economic influence of political participation might materialize over longer periods due to the gradual nature of policy reform. Measurement issues could also be at play, especially if the mere percentage of women in parliament does not capture their actual legislative power or influence in economic policymaking. Similarly, GDI, while comprehensive, may obscure within-country inequalities or fail to reflect real shifts in power dynamics. The low impact of female professionals could stem from both skill mismatch and underemployment—where educated women are either excluded from formal labor or employed in roles not reflective of their qualifications (Yunita, 2024). As for the fertility rate, its insignificant influence contradicts studies like Doubke (2022), and may suggest buffering mechanisms (such as community-based child care or flexible work) that mitigate its economic cost—or could reflect limitations in how fertility interacts with labor dynamics across different socioeconomic strata.

The regional analysis adds crucial depth to the findings by revealing provincial heterogeneity in how gender-related variables influence economic outcomes. For example, provinces like DKI Jakarta exhibit strong positive effects on GDP, likely due to more inclusive labor markets, better infrastructure, and higher levels of female education and employment opportunities. In contrast, provinces such as Gorontalo, which show negative or weak economic effects, may reflect a combination of traditional cultural norms, limited industrial diversification, and low levels of female economic engagement. These regional disparities underscore the importance of tailoring gender-related economic policies to local contexts rather than applying a one-size-fits-all approach.

It is also important to note that the model yields an extremely high R-squared value (0.987), which is unusual for cross-sectional data. While this suggests a strong model fit, it may also reflect potential overfitting or omitted variable bias. The exclusion of variables such as infrastructure quality, education levels, or informal labor participation may lead to an inflated explanatory power. Future research should consider introducing control variables or interaction terms to improve model robustness and avoid misleading conclusions.

In summary, this study highlights the critical role of female labor force participation in driving economic growth, while also calling attention to the complex and often muted

influence of women's political and professional representation. A more nuanced model specification and regional sensitivity are needed to fully capture the multifaceted impact of gender dynamics on macroeconomic outcomes.

CONCLUSION

This study investigates the influence of Female Labor Force Participation Rate, Women's Involvement in Parliament, Women as Professional Workers, Gender Empowerment Index, and Fertility Rate on Indonesia's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) from 2019 to 2023. Based on panel data analysis using the Fixed Effect Model (FEM), the findings reveal that the Female Labor Force Participation Rate (FLFPR) significantly contributes to GDP growth, while the other variables did not demonstrate a statistically significant relationship within the observed period.

These results affirm the critical economic role of women's labor force participation, aligning with existing literature that links higher FLFPR with increased national productivity and household income levels. The findings suggest that enhancing women's access to employment opportunities is not only a matter of social equity but also a key driver of macroeconomic performance. For instance, increasing FLFPR even marginally could potentially translate into substantial GDP gains, as evidenced in studies from other emerging economies.

The lack of significance in variables such as women's representation in parliament or professional roles may reflect structural or cultural barriers that limit the economic impact of these indicators in the short term. It also highlights the need for not only quantitative increases but also qualitative improvements in women's empowerment especially in decision-making and high-impact economic sectors.

This study is limited by a relatively short time frame and a narrow set of variables, which may not fully capture the long-term or indirect effects of gender empowerment on economic outcomes. Future research should extend the time horizon and include broader social, institutional, and labor market variables to gain a more comprehensive understanding of gender's role in economic development.

Given the findings, policymakers should prioritize efforts to raise female labor force participation, particularly by investing in gender-sensitive policies such as skills development, flexible work arrangements, and protective labor regulations. Moreover, while women's parliamentary presence was not significantly associated with GDP, enhancing their substantive involvement in economic policymaking beyond numeric representation remains essential for inclusive growth.

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