



Adding a Gender Dimension to the Report of Project 2045



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Summary

Indonesia and Japan are two Asian countries that have undergone dramatic development that has brought about structural changes since the middle of the 20th century. The structural changes have not only transformed the countries' economies but also reshaped their social and political conditions. In anticipating the year 2045, when Indonesia will celebrate its 100 years of independence and Japan will commemorate 100 years of important events in its history that have changed the course of the country, the two countries look for shared pathways that make it possible for them to collaborate and work together to achieve their respective goals. Project 2045 has set three common targets for the two countries: first, the political target, to uphold democracy and become maritime global powers; second, the economic target, to rank amongst the world's top five economies; and third, the social target, to achieve a high quality of life beyond the 2030 Sustainable Development Goals.

This report is a companion to the Project 2045 main report and also an extension of it by looking at the gender dimension of the main report. Gender dimension is important for five reasons: (1) each male and female is half of the whole population; (2) inclusivity: to be inclusive, the participation of women is a must; (3) untapped resources: as human resources, women often have not been fully utilised; (4) development has affected women in different ways than it has men; and (5) achieving social, economic, and political parity between the two genders is part of human rights.

Democracy calls for the participation of every component of society. To achieve this, it is impossible for the two countries not to have women participate to the full possible extent. As the two countries build their maritime power in the international arena, women's roles in the maritime sectors have been limited. In 2016, only about 15% of Indonesian workers in the maritime sectors were women.

To rank amongst the world's top five economies, the two countries need to utilise all resources available to them. Both countries have similar female labour force participation rates in the neighbourhood of 50%. However, the economic areas in which females participate are different. While almost 8 out of 10 female Japanese women in the labour market are wage and salaried employees, the number for Indonesia is only 4 out of 10.

Achieving a high quality of life for a country is not only about having some segment of the population living in good conditions but also about guaranteeing that nobody is left behind. While in recent years, girls in Indonesia have been more than catching up with their male counterparts in educational areas, they may still find themselves in more disadvantaged situations.

The report ends with a discussion on one issue that has only been addressed indirectly in the main report, namely, the ageing issue. By 2045, around 15% of Indonesia's population will be aged 65 or above. As is the case around the world, there will be many more elderly women than elderly men. Japan's experience in dealing with ageing issues will be an area that Indonesia can learn from.

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Common Targets

Since the events of the mid-20th century, both Japan and Indonesia have undergone significant changes in their economic, social, and political situations. Anticipating the year 2045, each country has set some visions regarding where their respective countries will go. For Indonesia, the 2045 visions have been formulated by the National Planning and Development Agency (Bappenas), which consists of four pillars. Meanwhile, the Cabinet Office of the Government of Japan has formulated visions that are based on the use of technological advancement in serving all aspects of people's lives (see Table 1.1.1).

Table 1.1.1 Comparison of 2045 Visions by Indonesia and Japan

| Indonesia | Japan |
|---|--|
| Four Pillars: 1. Human resource development and science and technology advancement 2. Sustainable economic development 3. Equitable development 4. Strengthening national security and governance | Society 5.0: The use of big data, artificial intelligence, and the Internet of things to serve the needs of all aspects of life in society. |

Source: Bappenas (2019) <https://www.bappenas.go.id/id/berita-dan-siaran-pers/jakarta-menteri-ppnkepala-bappenas-bambang-brodjonegoro-berbicara-mengenai-pentingnya-penyelarasan-visi-indonesia-2045-dengan-vi/> and Cabinet office of Japan (n.d.) https://www8.cao.go.jp/cstp/english/society5_0/index.html

The two Asian countries have recognised the need to cooperate and collaborate with each other in realising their visions. In its report, Project 2045 has set three common targets for the two countries (ERIA and UNDP, 2018). First is the political target, to uphold democracy and become maritime global powers; second is the economic target, to rank amongst the world's top five economies; and third is the social target, to achieve a high quality of life beyond the 2030 Sustainable Development Goals. The current report is a companion to the main report that looks specifically at the gender dimension of the common targets and challenges set in the main report.

There are several reasons for us to look at the gender dimension.

1. Females and males each comprise roughly half of the population. For Japan, in 2015, there were slightly more females (51.2%) than males (48.8%) in the population. The opposite was true in Indonesia, however, where there were more males (50.4%) than females (49.6%).

2. Inclusivity: development should include the participation of all components of society. Including women in every step of development is, therefore, a necessity.
3. Untapped resources: as human resources, women have not been utilised effectively. For instance, both in Indonesia and in Japan, the female labour force participation rates are only about 50%. Female contributions to the economy are estimated to be around 29% of gross domestic product (GDP) for Indonesia and 33% of GDP for Japan, while gender parity would potentially increase GDP growth by 9% in Indonesia and 6% in Japan in the year 2025 (McKinsey Global Institute, 2018).
4. Development affects women and is affected by women in different ways than men. For instance, studies show that compared to men, women are more connected to their family members. If the government provides social assistance, for instance, it would be more effective if the money is given to the mother than to the father.
5. Achieving social, economic, and political parity between men and women is part of human rights. Just like men, women also need to receive acknowledgment, have decent lives, and be heard.

1.2 Gender in Indonesia and Japan

As in many Asian countries, Indonesia and Japan have traditionally patriarchal societies, where men hold more power over women in practically all aspects of life. In the Japanese context, we can look at the family system, which went back to the feudal period, at least to the Kamakura Period in the 16th century. The family system was built upon male superiority and authority, and female members were expected to submit and display filial piety. Women were expected to fulfil their duties and obligations, and, in return, the male family head would provide for them and other family members and maintain social standing and respect.

The family unit, known as *ie*, was led by a patriarch whose duty was to protect and perpetuate the family name. The system was based on the primogeniture concept, where the responsibility to maintain the *ie* fell to the oldest son. When other sons got married, they would establish another *ie* but often continued to show allegiance toward the previous family. The continuation of the lineage might also fall to an adopted son, not necessarily to a biological son.

Meanwhile, from infancy, female members of the *ie* would learn that they were 'only girls'. A girl's duties were to obey her parents; defer to her brother(s) without complaint; and learn gentleness, submissiveness, and self-sacrifice in suppressing her own desires for the interests of others. When she married, she would belong to her husband's family, not to her original family anymore. Even though such characteristics are considered as 'weaknesses' by Western standards, Japanese women found happiness even under such circumstances.

The family property, although registered under the head's name, was considered to be jointly owned, not just owned by the head. These practices were changed during the Meiji Revolution, which allowed individuals to have their own private properties. After World War

II, a new constitution was introduced. It contained many new concepts that have their roots in Western society. It gave all people equal rights under the law and forbade any discrimination in politics and social relations based on race, creed, sex, social status, or family origin. It affects the status of women and legally entitled them to work, to hold office, and inherit family property, etc.

Unlike Japanese society, which is relatively homogenous (save for the Ainu of Hokkaido and Ryukyu of Okinawa), traditional Indonesian society was varied. Although the base culture was similar to that of Austronesian culture, there have been other influences specifically affecting certain ethnic groups and areas. Hinduism, Buddhism, Chinese, Islamic, and Western/Christian influences can be seen in different areas with different level of influence. All of these shaped the family concepts held by different ethnicities. While most were patriarchal, which means men's status was almost uniformly higher than that of women's, there were some areas where the familial system was based on a matriarchal system; notably the Minangkabau of West Sumatra.

In Javanese culture, the largest ethnic group, gender expectations regarding economic activities were different in the domestic and market realms. In the domestic realm, the man was considered the head, but decisions regarding the household economy were often left to the wife. Dewey (1962) argues that this had something to do with the Javanese concept of *halus* (soft, refined) and *kasar* (hard, vulgar). Men were expected to maintain the *halus* notion; hence, they were involved in arts, philosophy, and similar cultural activities. Meanwhile, women did not have such expectations. Bargaining, for instance, where one had to go back and forth, was not considered to be a refined activity. For this reason, many activities in the market, especially those involving bargaining, were done by women.

While the two societies have developed since the end of World War II, there are still some remnants of their underlying cultures. According to the Global Gender Gap Index, an index produced by the World Economic Forum that measures the condition of gender parity in many countries in the world, Indonesia and Japan ranked 85 and 110, respectively. Asian countries (except for the Philippines) mostly had low scores in the index. The top scores were dominated by Scandinavian countries.

Table 1.2.1 Positions in the 2018 Global Gender Gap Index: Indonesia and Japan

| | Global index | | Economic participation and opportunity | | Educational attainment | | Health and survival | | Political empowerment | |
|-----------|--------------|-------|--|-------|------------------------|-------|---------------------|-------|-----------------------|-------|
| | Rank | Score | Rank | Score | Rank | Score | Rank | Score | Rank | Score |
| Indonesia | 85 | 0.691 | 96 | 0.629 | 107 | 0.967 | 79 | 0.974 | 60 | 0.193 |
| Japan | 110 | 0.662 | 117 | 0.595 | 65 | 0.994 | 41 | 0.979 | 125 | 0.081 |

Source: World Economic Forum (2018).

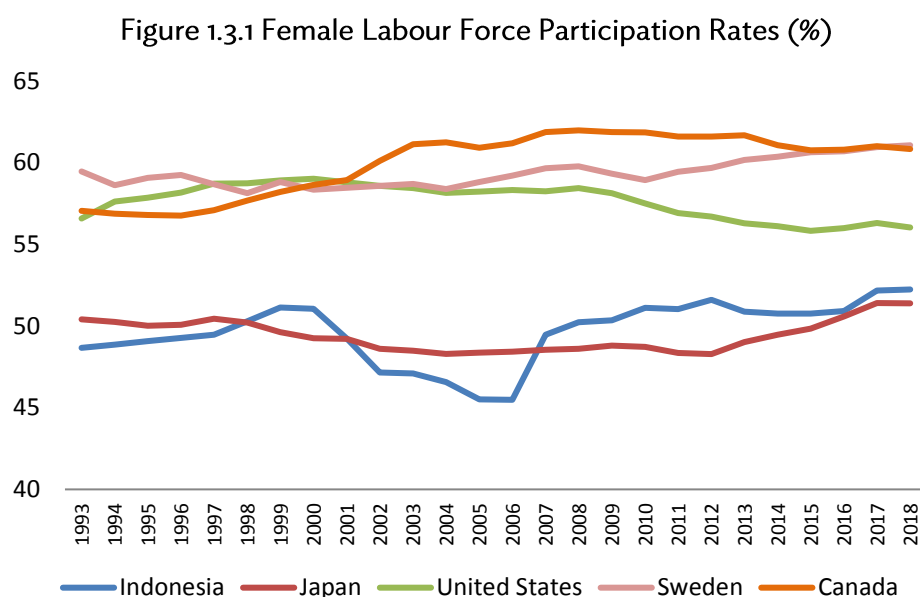
As shown in Table 1.2.1, Japan scored better than Indonesia in education and health, two variables that measure gender parity at the individual level. Indonesian women, however, had better scores in economic participation and political empowerment than their Japanese counterparts, two variables pertaining to social structure. This means that efforts that are limited to improving individual female conditions, such as better education and health, which are usually the focus of development programs, are not enough to erase the gender gaps in a country. Changes in economic, social, and political structures are also needed.

The gender parity issue seems to be unique in Indonesia–Japan relations. Unlike other issues, where Indonesia’s positions are typically below those of Japan’s so that the former can learn or receive assistance from the latter, in the issue of gender, Japan could learn something from Indonesia.

1.3 Gender Dimension in the Indonesian and Japanese Economies

The division of labour where men work in the market while women stay at home and raise children is considered the norm. Such a norm is apparent in economic participation. While the labour force participation rates for men in both countries are around 80%, the numbers for women are only about 50% (see **Figure 1.3.1**). Both in Japan and in Indonesia, only half of the female working-age population offer their services in the labour market. Their rates are lower compared those of Western countries, such as the United States, Canada, and Sweden, which have female labour force participation rates in the high 50s or low 60s. Acknowledging the untapped resources, in the Indonesian Visi 2045 document (November version), the Government of Indonesia set the target of increasing the female labour force participation rate from around 50% in 2015 to 65% in 2045.

One notable difference between Japan and Indonesia is the stability of the numbers. While the rates for Japan remained relatively flat from the early 1990s, Indonesia’s rates fluctuated – after slowly increasing in the 1990s, the rates dropped from 1999 to 2006, and only started to pick up again in 2007. The drop seems to be related to the Asian economic crisis in the late 1990s, and shows the sensitivity of the Indonesian female labour force to what happens in the economy.



Source: World Bank (2019). World Bank Indicators.

While the female labour force participation rates are similar, the structure of female workers in the two countries is different. Of all workers, the proportion of those who were wage and salary employees amongst female workers was high in Japan, reaching more than 91% in 2018. The proportion for Indonesia has been much lower, at only about 42% in 2018 (see **Figure 1.3.2**). The difference reflects the fact that large number of workers in informal sectors in Indonesia, which in 2015 accounted for about 57% of total workers. Of all female workers, about 51.5% worked in informal sectors, while the share for male workers was only 38.8% (**Table 1.3.1**).

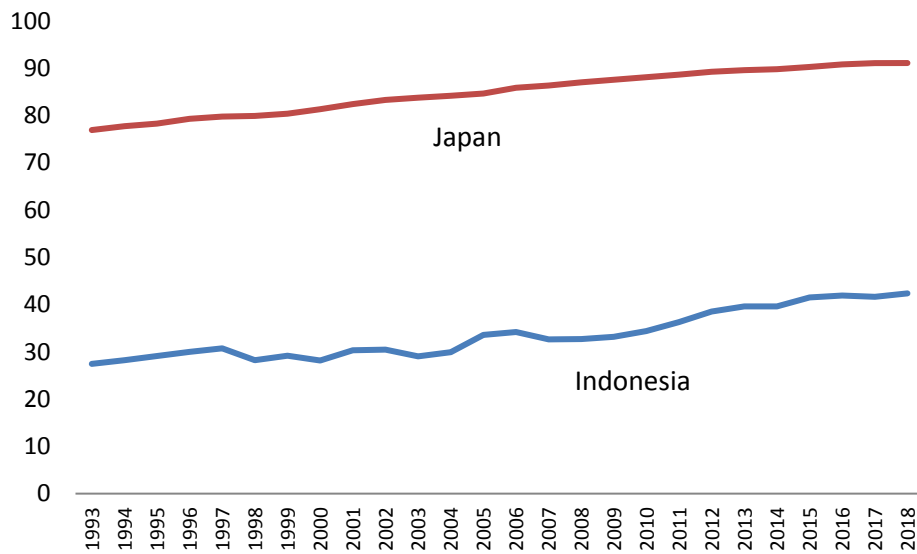
Table 1.3.1 Proportion of Male and Female Workers in the Formal and Informal Sectors in Indonesia, 2015

| | Formal | Informal | Total |
|--------|--------|----------|--------|
| Male | 61.2% | 38.8% | 100.0% |
| Female | 48.5% | 51.5% | 100.0% |
| | 56.5% | 43.5% | 100.0% |

Source: Calculated from Badan Pusat Statistik (2015).

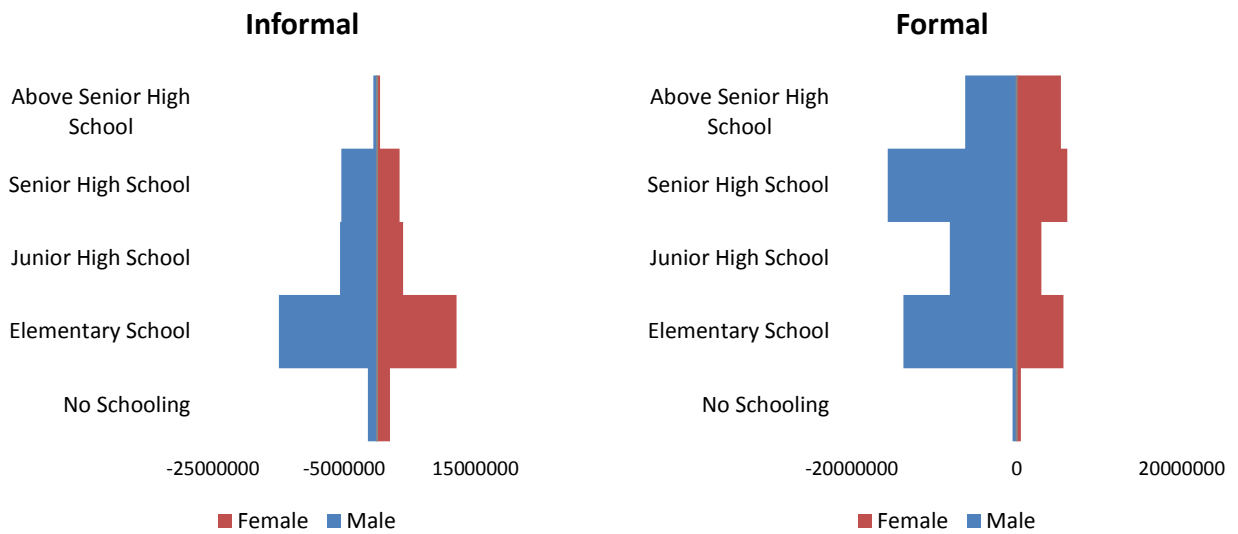
The difference in formal and informal workers can be traced to their education. Formal sectors often require workers with more formal education. While workers in the formal sector mostly finished high school or above, workers in the informal sector only finished elementary school (**Figure 1.3.3**). From the same figure, we also can see that females were lacking compared to their male counterparts. Men who worked in the formal sectors attained much higher education compared to both genders who worked in the informal sectors.

Figure 1.3.2 Share of Wage and Salary Employees amongst Female Workers (%)



Source: World Bank (2019). World Bank Indicators.

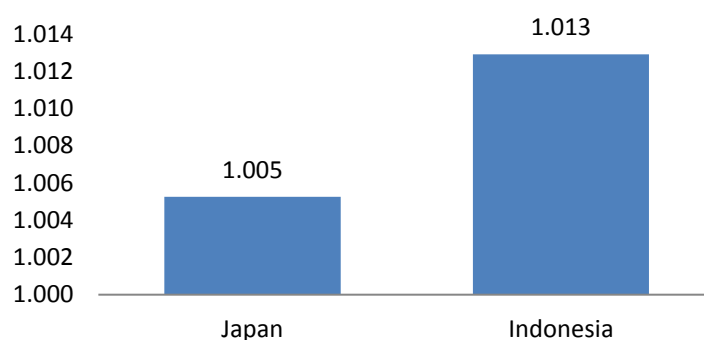
Figure 1.3.3 Informal and Formal Workers by Education, 2015



Source: Calculated from Badan Pusat Statistik (2015).

Fortunately, it seems the educational gender gap in Indonesia (and in Japan as well) will not last forever. Already, in 2016, there were more girls enrolled in elementary and secondary education compared to boys (Figure 1.3.4). In fact, the ratio was higher in Indonesia than in Japan. So, we can hope that the gender gap in other variables will start to disappear in the future.

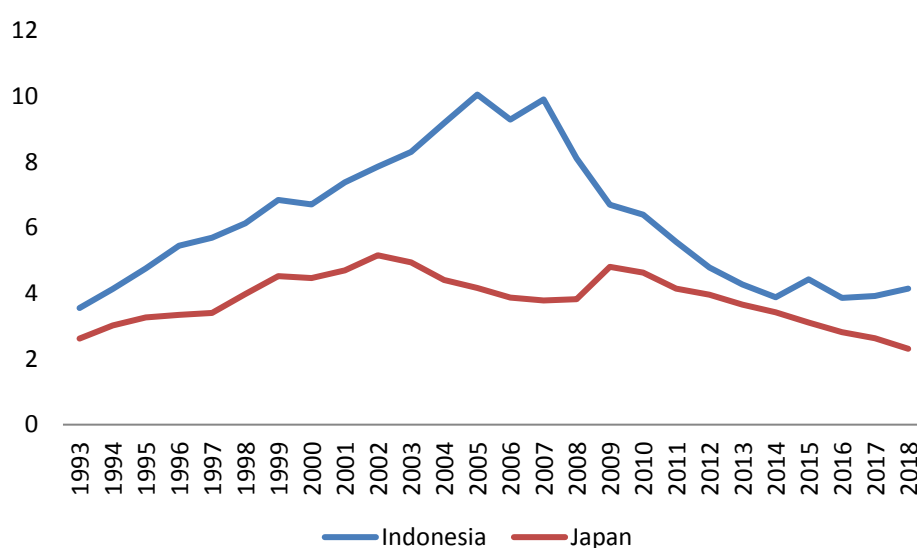
Figure 1.3.4 Ratio of Female to Male Students in Elementary or Secondary Education, 2016



Source: Badan Pusat Statistik (2016).

As mentioned before, labour market sensitivity in Indonesia has been higher than in Japan. Unemployment data also support the notion. Female unemployment rates, particularly following the Asian economic crisis in the late 1990s, increased in the 1990s and reached a peak in around 2005 at slightly higher than 10% (see Figure 1.3.5). Since then, unemployment rates have declined, although they have been flat in the past 4 years.

Figure 1.3.5 Female Unemployment Rates



Source: World Bank (2019). World Indicators.

From the discussion above, it is clear that while the female labour force participation rates in the two countries were quite similar, the structures were not. The large informal sectors that characterise the Indonesian economy are filled with female workers.

In general, informal sectors provide relatively less income and offer less protection to workers. Many of them are family workers and self-employed. The presence of social protection in the form of BPJS Health and BPJS Employment have been good for them. However, the programs have been burdened with increasing deficits that have partly come from the subsidies for poor members and unpaid members. The collaboration between Japan and Indonesia may need to cover this issue.

1.4 Japan and Indonesia Cooperation and Collaborations in Gender Issues

Collaborations and cooperation between Japan and Indonesia can take place in different forms. In general, it will involve the sharing or exchanging of one or more of the following: (1) people, (2) knowledge and technology, (3) capital, and (4) commodity trade.

When more people visit the other country and talk with people, they can learn about the other society in better and more concrete ways: their dreams, the social structure, the everyday practices, and so on. In terms of capital, technology, and trade, Japan can offer cooperation that would benefit both sides based on their comparative advantages.

When it comes to gender issues, both Indonesia and Japan have room for improvement. Gender parity in the two countries is below that of Western (particularly Scandinavian) countries and even some Asian (the Philippines) and Latin American countries. However, the development of gender-related issues in these two Asian countries does not necessarily follow the existing models, such as the ones from Western countries; rather, they both can develop their own models based on their historical and socio-economic contexts.

Chapter 2

The First Common Target: To Uphold Democracy and Become Maritime Global Powers

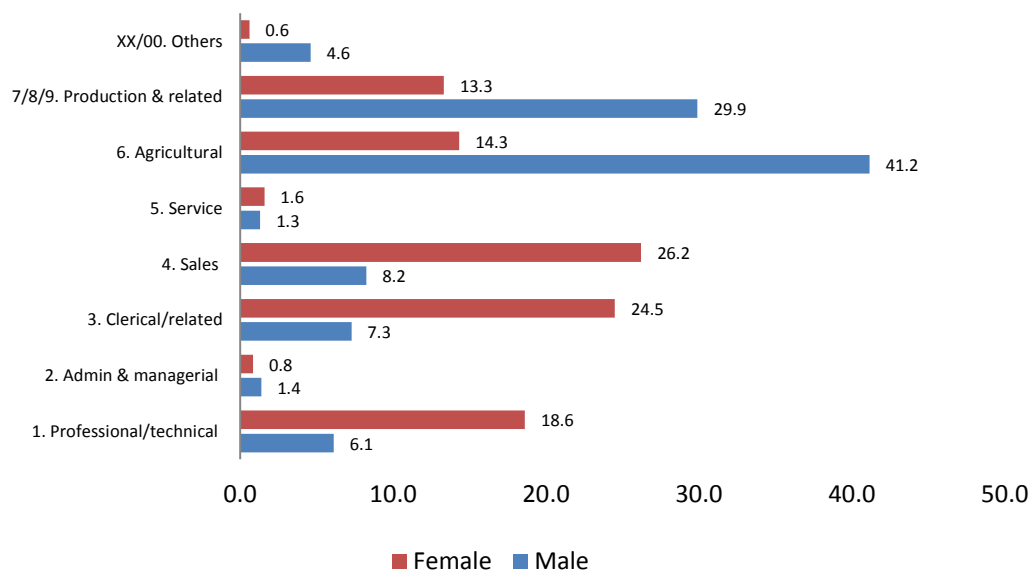
Indonesia is an archipelago country that is very diverse in terms of ethnicity, language, religion, and political beliefs and with a geographical length that span three time zones. These conditions require greater efforts to unify and at the same time maintain a peaceful, democratic society. One component of a democratic society is the participation of people, including women, in political and economic processes.

While the situation varies across regions, Indonesian women have participated in the political process in their own communities. In history, there have been many female leaders who led the fight against the Dutch physically or intellectually. After independence, the country already had one female president, Mrs. Megawati Soekarnoputri (r. 2001–2004), who is the daughter of the first president, Mr. Soekarno.

Being archipelago countries, most geographical areas of the countries are covered by water. For this reason, Indonesia and Japan have resolved to become global maritime powers by 2045. To a degree, Indonesia has been a major player in marine capture production, with production in 2016 at around 6,100 tons per year, while Japan produced about 3,700 tons per year (Food and Agriculture Organization 2018). The contribution of the maritime sector to the Indonesian economy, however, is still rather small. One estimate puts the contribution at around 6% of GDP. The contribution of the sector to total labour is even smaller at only around 3% (BPS 2016).

Similar to the general labour situation, there is a division of labour by gender in the maritime sector. In 2016, the proportion of female workers in the maritime sector was only 14.8% of all workers. If we look at the occupations of workers in the maritime sector, agricultural and production occupations were dominated by male workers, while sales, clerical, and professional occupations were dominated by female workers. Such division re-enforces the notion that men are better fit to work on jobs that require more physical strength, while women are better for jobs that involve administrative, indoor jobs.

Table 2.1 Workers in the Maritime Sector by Sex and Occupation, 2016 (%)



Source: Kementerian Koordinator Bidang Kemaritiman and Badan Pusat Statistik (2017).

2.1 Sustaining Democracy and a Diverse Society

Our dream for the people of Indonesia and Japan is to create a life of plenty, freedom, and safety in a society that is peaceful, diverse, and tolerant. (ERIA and UNDP 2019, p.1)

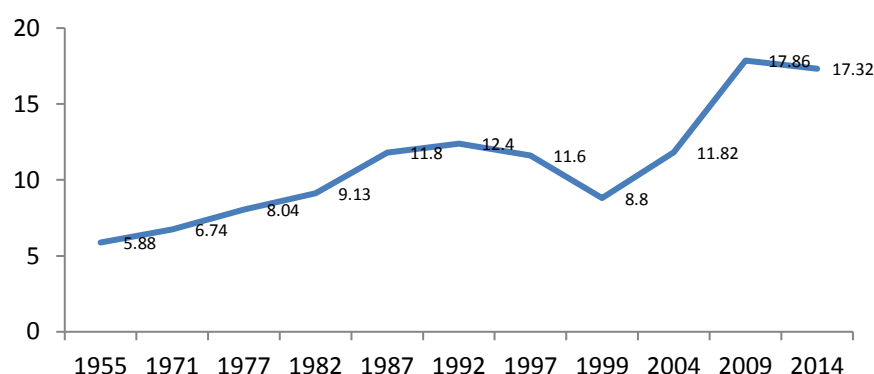
A country of about 255 million people, which consists of more than 300 ethnicities and sub-ethnicities, more than 500 distinct languages, and different religions and beliefs, Indonesia has continuously maintained a stable and peaceful society, albeit not without struggles. After experiencing several conflicts and changes in political systems following the fall of the New Order era under Soeharto in 1998, the country entered a new era that is often called ‘the Reform Era’. Since then, Indonesia has seen many peaceful transitions in the top leadership position through more open elections, and the country has established various laws and regulations that touch various aspects of life.

Since the beginning, the country’s constitution, the 1945 Constitution, has contained articles that hold that all citizens are equal before the law and in pursuing decent lives. After the Reform Era, there have been several amendments to the constitution, with many new articles related to human rights. Since then, several laws have been established that govern the treatment of women. One of them is Law No.10/2008, which has a requirement that women must comprise at least 30% of the officers in a political party. Such a requirement, however, does not necessarily translate to increasing female elected officers.

In the 2009 election, a year after the law was introduced, the percentage of women in parliament increased rapidly from 11.8% to 17.8%. The number, however, flattened in the subsequent election in 2014, suggesting that there had been no structural behavioural change toward women in politics.

Despite the improvement in numbers, one needs to be careful not to equate the increase in the proportion of female politicians with the advancement of women's interests. Some of the female politicians, in fact, hold conservative views on gender relations, so having them in parliament does not necessarily help in achieving gender parity.

Figure 2.1 Share of Women in Parliament in Indonesia, 1955–2014 (%)



Source: Badan Pusat Statistik (2016).

In the 2014 general election, only 97 out of 560 seats in parliament were filled by women, a share of 17.32%. If we look at the other offices, the figures varied. As of 2019, there are eight women serving as ministers out of 34 minister positions, which puts the share of women serving as ministers at only 23.5%. For governor positions, there is only one woman who serves as a governor (2.9%), while for regent/mayor, 46 positions out of 514 are filled by women (8.9%). Meanwhile, 11 women serve as ambassadors amongst 101 positions, a share of 10.89%. These numbers suggest that there is still a gap between what the law intends and the actual situation.

Table 2.1.1 Female Participation in the Government as Leaders in Indonesia, 2019

| Position | Total (number of people) | Number of women | Share of women |
|--------------|--------------------------|-----------------|----------------|
| Minister | 34 | 8 | 23.5% |
| Governor | 34 | 1 | 2.9% |
| Regent/Mayor | 514 | 46 | 8.9% |
| Ambassador | 101 | 11 | 10.9% |

Source: Various sources.

Similar to Indonesia, Japan aims for at least a 30% share of female members in its parliament (the Diet). So far, however, the number is still around 10%.

2.2 International Order

In strengthening our principles of democracy, a rule-based society, respect for human rights, and economic growth, we also need to shape the international and regional order to our principles. Our approach will be based on independence, non-intervention, and multilateralism without seeking domination over one another but rather the building of stability and openness. (ERIA and UNDP, 2019).

One of Indonesian's goals according to the 1945 Constitution is 'to contribute to the implementation of a world order based on freedom, lasting peace and social justice'. Stemming from this goal, Indonesia has been an active member in the international community, both in bilateral and multilateral ways. Part of this includes allowing Indonesians to openly contact people in other countries.

In President Jokowi's 2014–2019 cabinet, the position of Minister of Foreign Affairs was held by Mrs. Retno Marsudi, a career diplomat who was previously the country's ambassador to the Netherlands. This means that Indonesia's main person responsible for promoting the country's interests in the international arena was a woman.

Table 2.2.1 Annual Out-migration, In-migration, and Net Migration, 2010–2015
(Number of people)

| | Out-migration | In-migration | Net migration |
|--------|---------------|--------------|---------------|
| Male | 107,562 | 45,000 | –62,562 |
| Female | 105,356 | 43,439 | –61,917 |

Source: BPS (2019a).

As can be seen in Table 2.2.1, many Indonesians have been exposed to contact with people from other countries. Many have come to Indonesia from other countries, but more Indonesians have migrated abroad, which has resulted in negative net migration. The out-migration means that in the period 2010–2015 alone, there were close to 90,000 Indonesians in diaspora.

Anecdotal evidence shows that diaspora communities have worked well as 'ambassadors' to their mother countries. This is because in the daily-life setting, instead of formal diplomatic relations, people can really share their lives, traditions, and culinary diets, which can lead to better understanding of each other. In such a setting, women usually play greater roles in building friendships and relations with their new neighbours or community members.

Chapter 3

The Second Common Target: To Rank Amongst the World's Top Five Economies

3.1 Strengthening Global Value Chains in Japan and Indonesia

The conceptual framework of 'unbundling' is useful for understanding the evolution of regional and global value chains. (ERIA and UNEP 2019, p.21)

The evolution of unbundling for the international division of labour started industry-wise (where production and consumption are fragmented), then task-wise (where industries are fragmented), and is currently person-wise (where tasks are fragmented). Partly because of Indonesia's comparative advantage, many global value chain (GVC) sub-sectors have been labour intensive. In such conditions, many women played an important role.

Table 3.1.1 Workers in GVC-traded Goods by Gender, 2018

| GVC traded goods | Male | Female |
|---|--------|--------|
| Mining of hard coal | 95.70% | 4.30% |
| Extraction of crude petroleum and natural gas | 89.38% | 10.62% |
| Mining of iron ores | 99.05% | 0.95% |
| Processing fruit and vegetables | 52.01% | 47.99% |
| Manufacture of vegetable and animal oils and fats | 80.69% | 19.31% |
| Manufacture of bakery products | 39.25% | 60.75% |
| Manufacture of sugar | 60.30% | 39.70% |
| Manufacture of cocoa, chocolate, and confectionery | 69.69% | 30.31% |
| Manufacture of macaroni and noodles, etc. | 54.63% | 45.37% |
| Manufacture of prepared meals and dishes | 28.74% | 71.26% |
| Processing of coffee, tea, and herbal infusions | 58.93% | 41.07% |
| Manufacture of food seasonings | 55.40% | 44.60% |
| Spinning, weaving, and finishing of textiles | 40.45% | 59.55% |
| Manufacture of knitted and crocheted fabrics and articles | 33.93% | 66.07% |
| Manufacture of apparel | 35.73% | 64.27% |
| Manufacture of basic chemicals | 70.84% | 29.16% |
| Total | 47.36% | 52.64% |

Source: Calculated from Badan Pusat Statistik (2018a).

In 2018, 52.6% of the total workers in the economic sub-sectors that were part of global value chains were women. However, female participation varied within industries. There were some industries where female participation was more than male, such as the manufacture of bakery products; manufacture of prepared meals and dishes; spinning, weaving, and finishing textiles; and manufacture of apparel. In contrast, there were industries with a small proportion of female workers, such as the mining of hard coal, extraction of crude petroleum, mining of iron ores, manufacture of vegetables, and manufacture of basic chemicals.

Looking at the type of sub-sectors where women dominated, it is clear that the usual division of labour based on gender has been present. Female workers were dominating in sub-sectors that can be considered an extension of household tasks: preparing food and clothes for family members.

For 2045, with the increasing use of information technology and communications technology, Indonesia cannot simply rely on low-skilled labour. Indonesian workers need to familiarise themselves with information technology and communications technology, and it should go beyond users. In order to do that, there should be more Indonesians educated in disciplines related to sciences, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM).

Unfortunately, the proportion of Indonesian workers in STEM-related jobs has been quite low. In 2015, the figure was only about 1.9% of Indonesian workers, which may reflect the fact that many STEM-related jobs are capital intensive that do not require many people. Of those, about 58% were men, and about 42% were women.

Considering that the gender composition of the workers in STEM-related areas is almost equal, the increase in information technology and communications technology-related jobs in the future may affect the gender composition in general.

Table 3.1.2 Workers in STEM-related Jobs (%)

| | 2011 | 2015 |
|--------|--------|--------|
| Male | 57.21 | 57.82 |
| Female | 42.79 | 42.18 |
| | 100.00 | 100.00 |

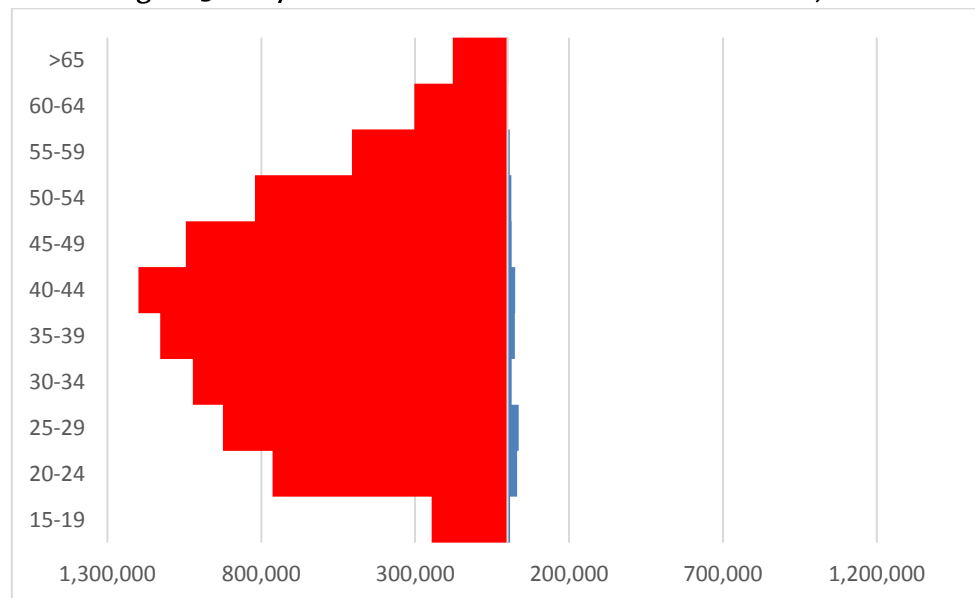
Source: Calculated from Badan Pusat Statistik (2015).

3.2 Strengthening Indonesia–Japan Cooperation in the Infrastructure Sector

Closing the infrastructure gap will help improve the productivity of the Indonesian economy, and, most importantly, it will also help promote economic growth to be more inclusive. (ERIA and UNEP 2019, p.41).

The construction of infrastructure is something that has a lasting and wide impact on the economy. The construction sector has been associated with men's jobs. Data on workers by gender support this notion.

Figure 3.2.1 Pyramid of Workers in Construction sectors, 2018



Source: Calculated from Badan Pusat Statistik (2018b).

Female participation in the infrastructure-related sector in 2018 was very small: it only counted for about 2% of all workers. Of the 8.3 million infrastructure workers, only 177 thousand were women. The situation applied across age groups: there were fewer female workers in every age-group. The larger proportion of female workers in infrastructure-related were there at young age, age group of 20–24 years old and 25–29 years old, where 30,000 workers were found in each group. In other age groups, the sector was basically devoid of female workers.

It should be noted that the development of infrastructure affects all segments in the society. Roads, ports, and airports would be utilised by both men and women. The effects on them, however, may be different.

In developing the infrastructure, a good analysis of social and economic impacts to the people surrounding the infrastructure needs to be done. Otherwise, there may be some unintended consequences of the development. One example is the creation of the Trans-Java toll roads that connects main cities in the western part of Java with the eastern part. The new roads were built through the middle parts of the island, replacing the existing roads in the northern part of the island. For long, the northern lane, better known as Jalur Pantai Utara because it passes the coastal area, was the main intercity connection in the island.¹

¹ The main part was built by the Dutch Governor General Daendels in the early 19th century, which connected the areas of Anyer in West Java and Panarukan in East Java.

As the main road, many travellers used the towns and areas surrounding the road as rest areas. The town and area economies flourished from the strength of hospitality sectors such as hotel, restaurant, or retail businesses. However, with the presence of the toll road that goes through the middle area of the island, the economy of the northern lane has been affected negatively. Many people that previously worked as waitresses, cooks, sales people, or even prostitutes, lost their jobs. It was women who were affected the most since the hospitality sector is dominated by them. This situation is similar to what happened to the famous Route 66 in the United States, where currently there are many ghost towns along the old road.

One study shows that the effects to the impacted area goes beyond people losing jobs (Wongkaren & Nainggolan, 2019). When there are no jobs anymore, people tend to leave their towns to try to find jobs elsewhere. Usually, it is the young men who go first, leaving the young women behind. If these women are single and do not work any longer, they may get married soon to cope with the economic pressure and have children at a relatively young age. If their husbands are working somewhere else, the situation may affect their young children.

Any Japan–Indonesia collaboration in infrastructure needs to pay attention to this issue. Every infrastructure project must start with a rigorous study of the socio-economic impacts of the construction on people in surrounding areas, and particularly on women.

3.3 Strengthening the Economy through Investment

FDI from Japan to Indonesia needs to increase significantly in the future, and the distribution of FDI across sectors must become more even to support the adoption of advanced technology by industries in Indonesia. (ERIA and UNDP 2019, p.61)

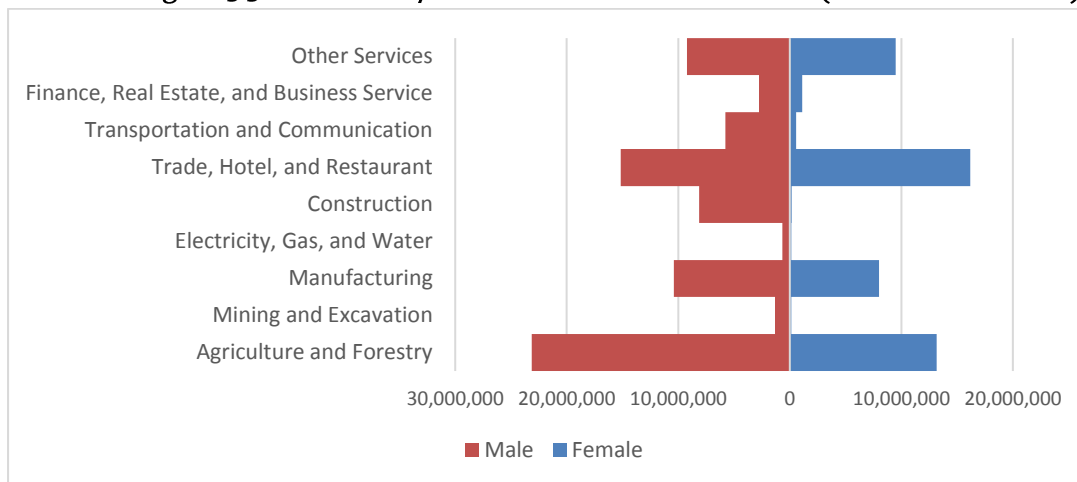
Foreign direct investment (FDI) is important for a developing country like Indonesia. The investment can go to manufacturing sectors as well as non-manufacturing sectors. It can also be used either to produce commodities for export purposes or for domestic purposes.

In general, more recently, FDI from Japan goes to non-manufacturing sectors, particularly to services sectors. The largest FDI inflows have been for the finance, insurance, and real estate sub-sectors. These are sectors where there were not many female workers compared to male workers. However, the next non-manufacturing sub-sector, wholesale and retail, does hire many women working in the industry. Although as a whole, the non-manufacturing sector is larger than the manufacturing sector, Japanese FDI to Indonesia still has a significant presence in the manufacturing sector. This sector absorbed a significant number of female workers (see **Figure 3.3.1**). In manufacturing sectors, women accounted for about 42% of workers, while in the services sector women comprised around 38% of workers.

In terms of workers in (internationally) tradable and non-tradable sectors, the proportion of female workers was slightly higher in non-tradable goods than in tradable goods. The trend

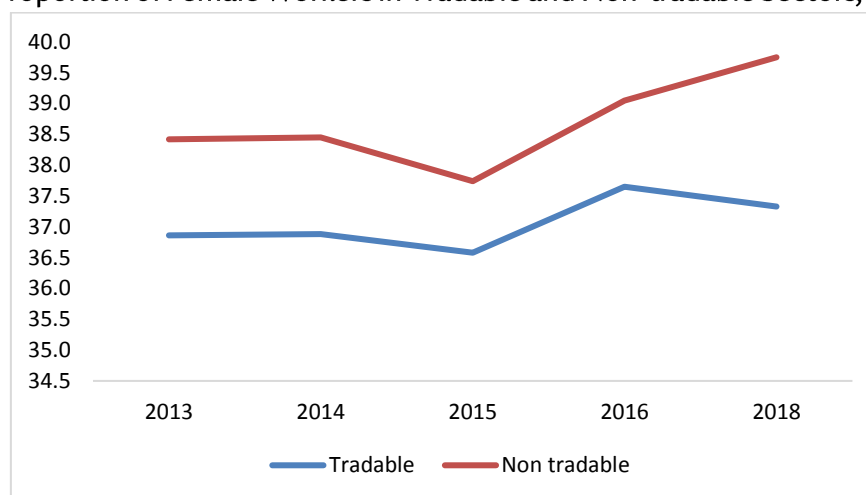
for the proportion of women working in non-tradable sectors has been increasing in recent years. As for the proportion in tradable sectors, after increasing in the early 2010s, it has decreased in the past 3 years (see Figure 3.3.2).

Figure 3.3.1 Workers by Gender and Economic Sector (number of workers)



Source: Badan Pusat Statistik (2018b).

Figure 3.3.2 Proportion of Female Workers in Tradable and Non-tradable Sectors, 2013–2018 (%)



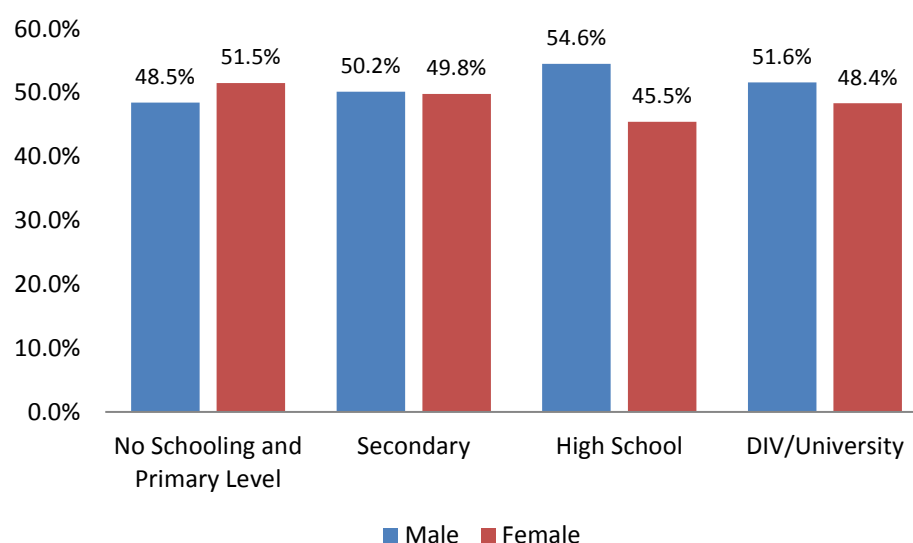
Source: Badan Pusat Statistik (2018a).

The FDI from Japan may affect the social and economic situations in Indonesia. Cooperation in the form of requirements for better working conditions in Japan-related companies may improve women's conditions in general.

3.4 Indonesia and Japan's Future Human Resource Development in Response to the Digital Revolution in Manufacturing and Services

The urgent issue in improving productivity to narrow the gap with Japan is for Indonesia to upgrade its innovation system and technological capacity, for which education is integral component. (ERIA and UNDP 2019, p.63)

Figure 3.4.1 Formal Education (Highest Educational Attainment) and Gender, 2017



DIV = Diploma IV (4 years non-degree)

Source: Badan Pusat Statistik (2018b).

In 2017, the highest educational attainment share for females was higher than for males at the no schooling and primary level (Figure 3.4.1). However, in all levels above primary level, the attainment shares for females were lower than for males. The attainments of males and females vary by age group at each level of education. In the no schooling and primary level, the attainment of females in the 15–24 age group was lower than for males, while it was higher in the older age group. In the secondary level, the attainment for females was higher than for males in the 20–39 age group, but lower in the older age group. There is a similar trend in the high school level and DIV/university level, which shows that the attainment of females is high in the younger age group and then decreases in the older age group. Even the attainment of females in Diploma IV/university is higher than males in the 20–39 age group. This means that even though in total we see the lower attainment of females in higher education, the attainment of the younger female group is higher in higher education.

Table 3.4.2 Proportion of Female Workers by Type of School (%)

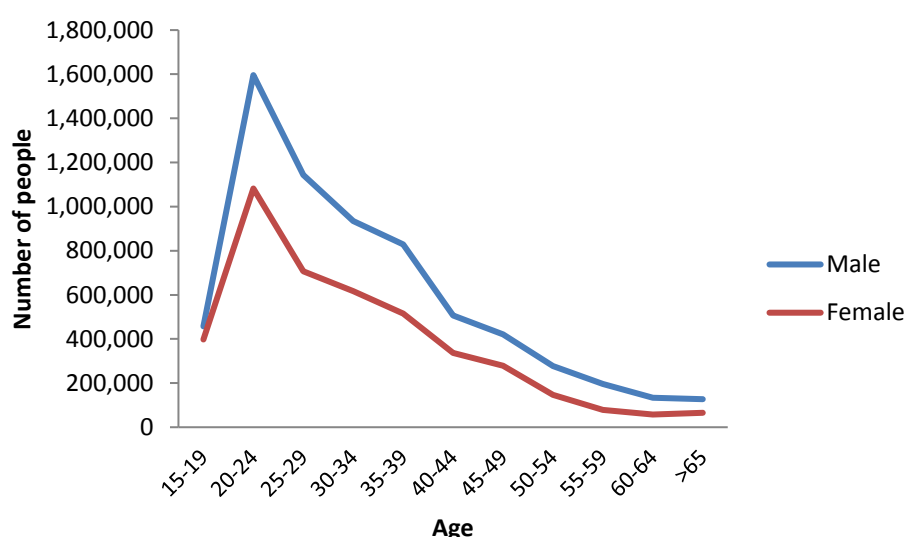
| | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 |
|------------|-------|-------|-------|
| Vocational | 39.34 | 40.66 | 39.36 |
| General | 49.18 | 49.28 | 49.43 |

Source: Calculated from Badan Pusat Statistik (2018b).

In general, vocational-school graduates are comprised of more men (60%) than women (40%). This is different from general-school graduates, which have a more equal distribution between men and women (Table 3.4.2).

Government policies have pushed for a bigger role for vocational schools in the education system, with the assumption that they would be more suitable in the current market situation. While we still have to wait for the output of such policies, the data show an increase in the number of graduates from vocational schools. As mentioned before, there have been fewer female graduates compared to male graduates (see Figure 3.4.3).

Figure 3.4.3 Educational Attainment for Vocational Schools by Age, 2018



Source: Calculated from Badan Pusat Statistik (2018b).

3.4 Rural Economic Revitalisation and Regional Development

Reducing inter-regional disparity in economic development will rely much on reducing the infrastructure gap. Less-developed regions, particularly those outside Java Island, are the focus of the Indonesian government's ambitious infrastructure development. (ERIA and UNDP 2019, p.77).

Table 3.4.1 Labour Statistics for Urban and Rural Areas, 2018 (number of people)

| | Urban | | Rural | |
|---------------------------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| | Male | Female | Male | Female |
| Not in the labour force | 10,598,327 | 27,131,802 | 6,161,419 | 19,783,203 |
| Labour force | 43,615,181 | 27,276,424 | 36,854,472 | 23,358,613 |
| Employed | 40,678,709 | 25,583,485 | 35,380,743 | 22,362,013 |
| Unemployed | 2,936,472 | 1,692,939 | 1,473,729 | 996,600 |
| Working age (>15 age) | 54,213,508 | 54,408,226 | 43,015,891 | 43,141,816 |
| Labour force participation rate | 80.45% | 50.13% | 85.68% | 54.14% |
| Unemployment Rate | 6.73% | 6.21% | 3.99% | 4.26% |

Source: Badan Pusat Statistik (2018b).

The labour force participation rates for females are lower than for males in both urban and rural areas (Table 3.4.1). However, the unemployment rate for females is also lower than males in urban and rural areas. The unemployment rate for females in rural areas is lower than in urban areas: 4.26% in rural areas and 6.21% in urban areas.

Table 3.4.2 Productivity of Workers in Urban and Rural Areas, 2018

| | Urban | | Rural | |
|-----------------------------|-------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| | Male | Female | Male | Female |
| Income (mean) | Rp1,642,497 | Rp750,836 | Rp977,887 | Rp335,981 |
| Income/Working Hours (mean) | Rp126,990 | Rp94,888 | Rp96,054 | Rp65,770 |

Source: Badan Pusat Statistik (2018b).

To measure productivity, the mean of income and the mean of income per (working) hour are used. The mean income for females was lower than that for males both in urban and rural areas. In urban areas, the mean income of females in 2018 was Rp750,836, which was only about 46% of the male mean income. In rural areas, the ratio is even worse. The mean income of females in rural areas was Rp335,981 per month, which was only 34% of the income for their male counterparts.

The numbers for productivity suggest that despite the improvements in education, Indonesian women still have a long way to go.

Chapter 4

The Third Common Target: To Achieve a High Quality of Life beyond the 2030 Sustainable Development Goals

4.1 Fighting Social Disparities in Indonesia

By 2045, Indonesia aims for zero poverty, a Gini coefficient of 0,36, low vulnerability, and a middle class comprising 80% of the population, up from 19% in 1990. (ERIA and UNDP 2019, p.91)

In order to reduce social disparities, people need to have good education and health. These two variables allow them to have wider choices to improve their lives. In education, girls seem to be catching up with boys. In health, the overall situation is not largely different between genders.

Table 4.1.1 School Enrolment Rates by Age Group and Gender

| Age | Male | Female |
|-------|--------|--------|
| 7–12 | 99.05% | 99.23% |
| 13–15 | 94.38% | 95.83% |
| 16–18 | 70.86% | 72.00% |
| 19–24 | 24.20% | 25.35% |

Source: Badan Pusat Statistik (2018c).

Female enrolment in schools is higher than male enrolment in every age group (*Table 4.1.1*).

Table 4.1.2 Prevalence Rate of Health Complaints by Gender, 2017

| | Male | Female |
|-------|--------|--------|
| Total | 27.44% | 29.81% |

Source: Statistik Indonesia (2017).

At 29.8%, the prevalence rate of health complaints for females is higher than for males (*Table 4.1.2*). This is seen in every age group, except the youngest age group of 0–9. The trend shows that the prevalence rate is high in the early age group, decreases until the 15–19 age group, then increases again until the oldest age group.

Table 4.1.3 Prevalence of Tuberculosis by Gender, 2018

| | Male | Female |
|-------|-------|--------|
| Total | 0.22% | 0.16% |

Source: Kementerian Kesehatan (2018).

The male population had a higher prevalence of tuberculosis than the female population (Table 4.1.3). This happens in every age group, except in the 15–24 age group. The higher age group has a higher prevalence of TBC in males and females. Part of the reason seems to be the higher proportion of smoking amongst men compared to women.

Table 4.1.4 Health Insurance Coverage Rate by Age

| Age group | Male | Female |
|-----------|--------|--------|
| 0–4 | 41.40% | 40.90% |
| 5–9 | 56.96% | 57.08% |
| 10–14 | 61.41% | 61.51% |
| 15–19 | 61.23% | 60.70% |
| 20–24 | 59.04% | 58.90% |
| 25–29 | 57.63% | 59.49% |
| 30–34 | 59.09% | 61.66% |
| 35–39 | 60.82% | 63.50% |
| 40–44 | 63.09% | 63.45% |
| 45–49 | 63.27% | 64.47% |
| 50–54 | 63.89% | 63.80% |
| 55–59 | 63.73% | 63.72% |
| 60–64 | 63.20% | 63.95% |
| >65 | 63.91% | 62.30% |
| Total | 59.10% | 59.72% |

Source: Badan Pusat Statistik (2018c).

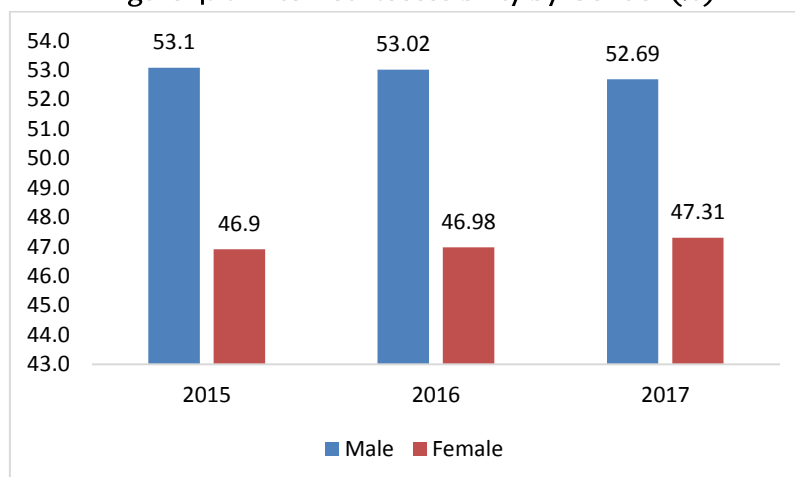
Since 2014, BPJS-Health has actively increased efforts to get everyone covered. The efforts can be seen in Table 4.1.4, which shows data on coverage rates. Note that the coverage rates are higher than the prevalence of complaints. Females, who have a higher prevalence rate than males, also have a higher coverage rate. In total, the coverage rate for females is 59.72%.

4.2 Making the Best Use of Digital Technology to Improve People's Quality of Life

Despite the vigorous state of e-commerce, Indonesia is plagued by the digital divide. (ERIA and UNDP 2019, p.112)

Digital technology has permeated to every aspect of our lives. Data show that about half of the Indonesian population has access to the Internet. This means that the other half do not. Data show that there is gender dimension in Internet access.

Figure 4.2.1 Internet Accessibility by Gender (%)



Source: Calculated from Badan Pusat Statistik (2018c).

Internet accessibility for females was lower than for males, although the trend had been increasing from 2015 to 2017 (Table 4.2.1). In 2017, about 47.3% of females had access to the Internet, which was not far behind their male counterparts.

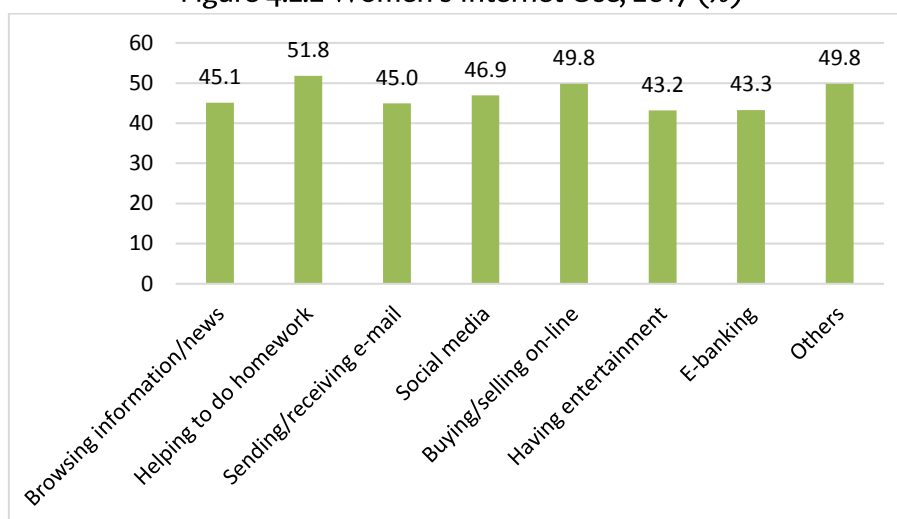
Table 4.2.2 Women's Internet Use (%)

| Function | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 |
|---------------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| Browsing information/news | 44.96 | 45.52 | 45.14 |
| Helping to do homework | 52.15 | 52.64 | 51.84 |
| Sending/receiving e-mail | 43.68 | 43.85 | 44.97 |
| Social media | 46.6 | 46.61 | 46.94 |
| Buying/selling online | 51.95 | 54.18 | 49.81 |
| Having entertainment | 41.13 | 41.03 | 43.16 |
| E-banking | 41.31 | 41.71 | 43.3 |
| Others | 42.31 | 42.39 | 49.77 |

Source: Calculated from Badan Pusat Statistik (2018c).

The most common use of the Internet by for was for help with homework, which suggests that most users were of school age (Table 4.2.2). Another common use was for buying/selling online, others, and then for social media. Note that browsing information and e-banking, which can be considered as productive uses of the Internet, are not far behind.

Figure 4.2.2 Women's Internet Use, 2017 (%)



Source: Calculated from Badan Pusat Statistik (2018c).

Beyond the use of the Internet as users, there are other venues in which women are participating in the economy. With the rise of several technological companies in Indonesia, women also increasingly took part in the process. For instance, women counted for about 70% of the providers/ talents for Go-Life in 2018, a series of services provided by a prominent unicorn company GO-JEK. Amongst those, 50% were breadwinners (Lembaga Demografi, 2019).

4.3 Strengthening Resilience to Natural Disasters, Tackling Climate Change, and Managing Natural Resources

Indonesia and Japan should consider three global commitments or pillars: the Sustainable Development Goals, the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction, and climate change adaptation and mitigation. (ERIA and UNDP 2019, p.121)

In dealing with natural disasters, better preparation and participation from every component of society is very important. To do so, a good leadership, especially at the local level is needed so that the response to a disaster can be fast and precise. At the local level, the head of the village holds important roles in the preparation or mobilisation of people in disaster situations.

Of all villages in Indonesia in 2017, about 6% had female village heads. They were spread in many areas in Indonesia, but most were found in Java Island. When it comes to natural disasters, one important thing is raising awareness about the possibility of a disaster. Despite their numbers being few, female village heads have been more active in this regard. Amongst those villages with female heads, 13.4% have done something to raise awareness about the issue. The percentage is higher than that for male village heads, which is only 10.9%.

Table 4.3.1 Village Heads by Gender

| Gender | Total | Percentage |
|--------|--------|------------|
| Male | 75,643 | 93.93% |
| Female | 4885 | 6.07% |
| Total | 80,528 | 100% |

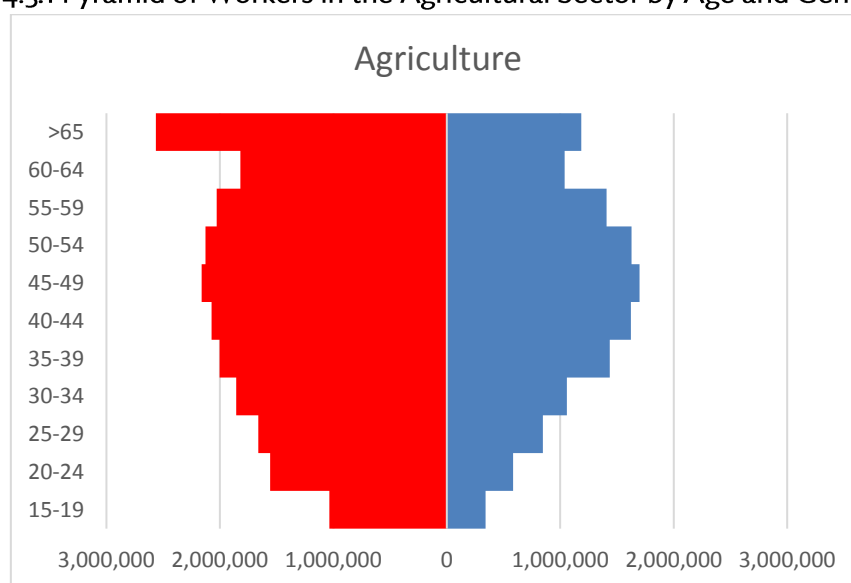
Source: Calculated from Badan Pusat Statistik (2019b).

Table 4.3.2 Empowerment Activities in Villages: Raising Awareness of Natural Conservation and Disaster Management, by Gender of Head of Village

| Gender | Yes | No | Total | % Yes |
|--------|-------|--------|--------|-------|
| Male | 8,257 | 67,386 | 75,643 | 10.9 |
| Female | 652 | 4,203 | 4,855 | 13.4 |
| Total | 8,909 | 71,589 | 80,498 | 11.1 |

Source: Calculated from Badan Pusat Statistik (2019b).

Figure 4.3.1 Pyramid of Workers in the Agricultural Sector by Age and Gender, 2018

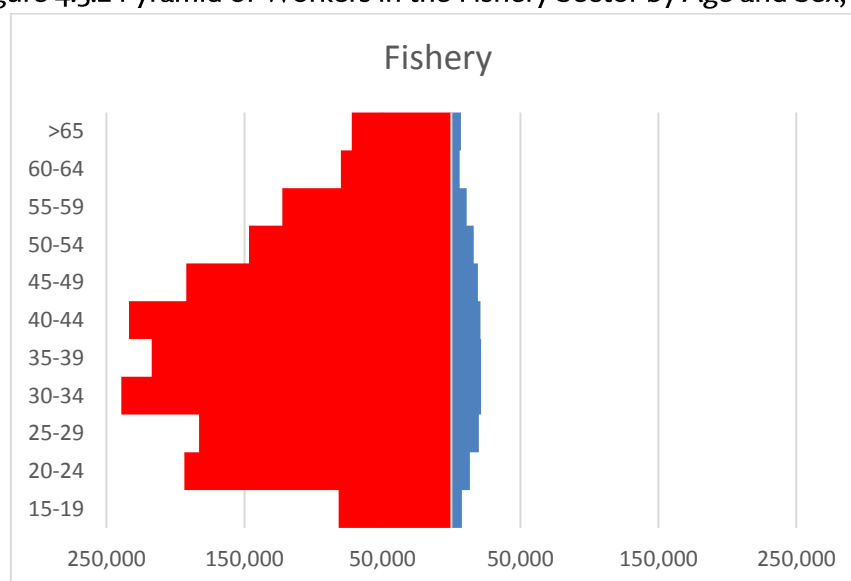


Note: Red = male workers, Blue = female workers.

Source: Calculated from Badan Pusat Statistik (2018b).

The number of female workers in agriculture is smaller than the number of males, but in each age group the number of female workers is greater than 1,000,000 (except for ages lower than 30) (Figure 4.3.1). The red shape represents the male workers, while the blue shape represents the female workers. The vertical axes shows the age group, while numbers on the horizontal axes refers to their number, respectively. The shape of the pyramid of female workers widens as age increases, reaching a peak in the 50–54 age group, indicating that the majority of female workers in agriculture are in old age.

Figure 4.3.2 Pyramid of Workers in the Fishery Sector by Age and Sex, 2018



Note: Red = male workers, Blue = female workers.
Source: Calculated from Badan Pusat Statistik (2018b).

The number of female workers in the fishery sector is very small compared to that for male workers. The shape of the pyramid for female workers increases at younger ages and then declines for older ages, with a peak in the 30–54 age group. Unlike the agricultural sector, the majority of female workers in the fishery sector are relatively younger.

Chapter 5

Ageing: Lessons from Japan

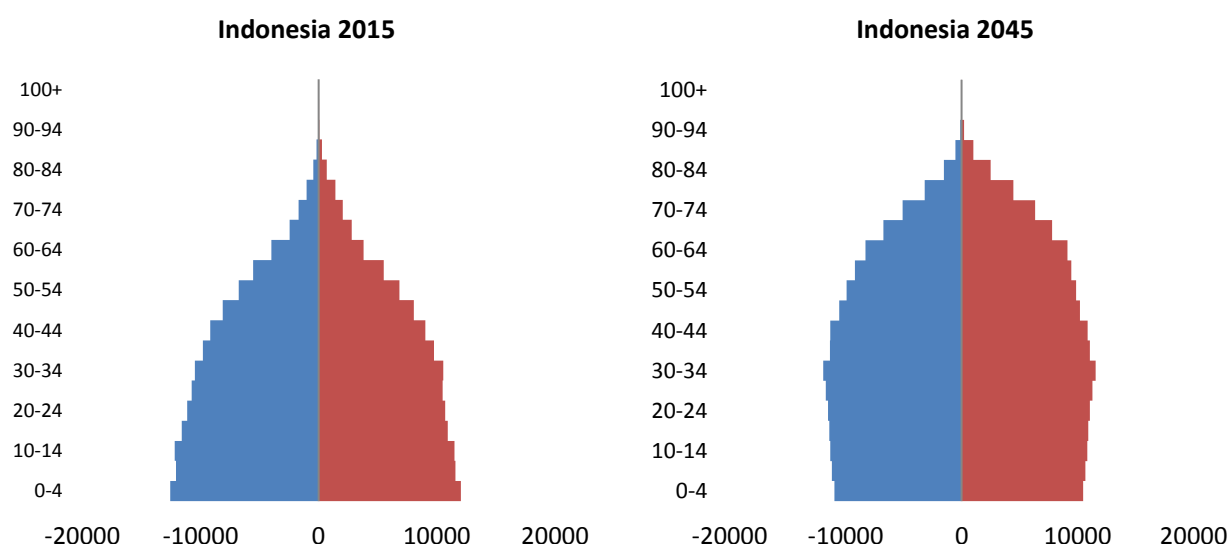
One distinct characteristics of Japanese society today is the high percentage of people aged 65 or above. Today, a 65-year-old woman in Japan can expect to live for another 27.5 years, while a 65-year old man can only expect to live another 22.3 years. The numbers for Indonesia are only 16.4 and 13.5 years, respectively.² The differences in life expectancy for men and women will have profound effects on society.

Table 5.1 Life Expectancy at Age Zero and Age 65, Japan and Indonesia

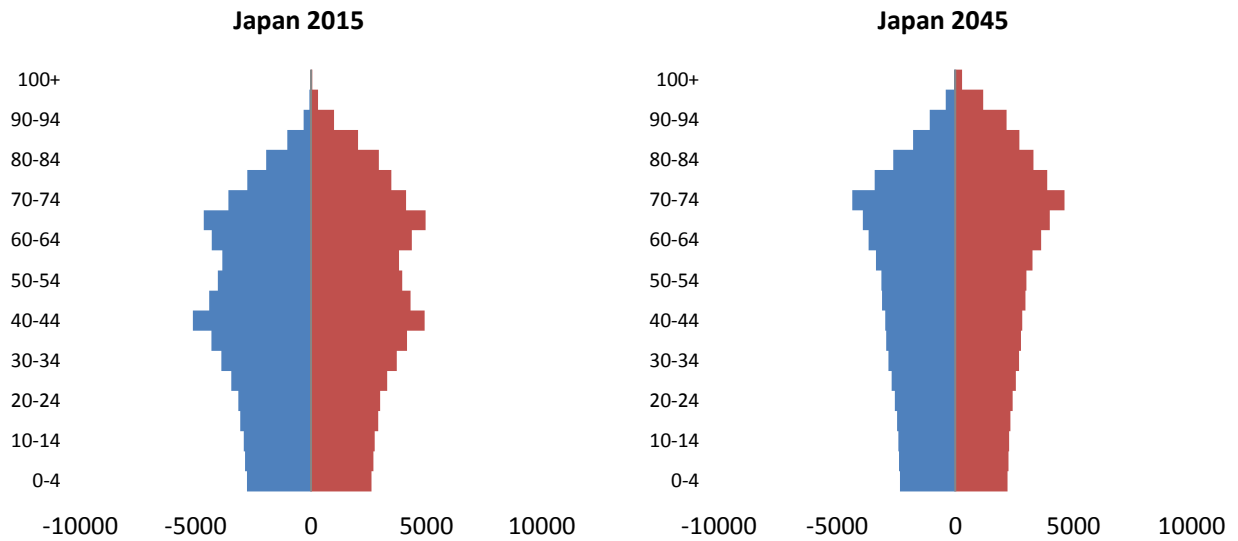
| | | Japan | | Indonesia | |
|-----------------------|--------|-------|-------|-----------|-------|
| | | eo | e65 | eo | e65 |
| Year 2015– 2020 | Male | 80.72 | 19.49 | 67.35 | 12.21 |
| | Female | 87.18 | 24.46 | 71.65 | 14.39 |
| Year 2045– 2050 | Male | 84.71 | 22.37 | 70.87 | 13.51 |
| | Female | 91.17 | 27.52 | 76.28 | 16.44 |

Source: United Nations (2017).

Figure 5.1 Population Pyramids of Indonesia and Japan, 2015 and 2045



² A baby boy who was born in Japan today can expect to live for 80.7 years, while a baby girl can expect to live for 87.2 years. In comparison, a baby boy and girl in Indonesia can only expect to live for 67.3 years and 71.6 years, respectively.

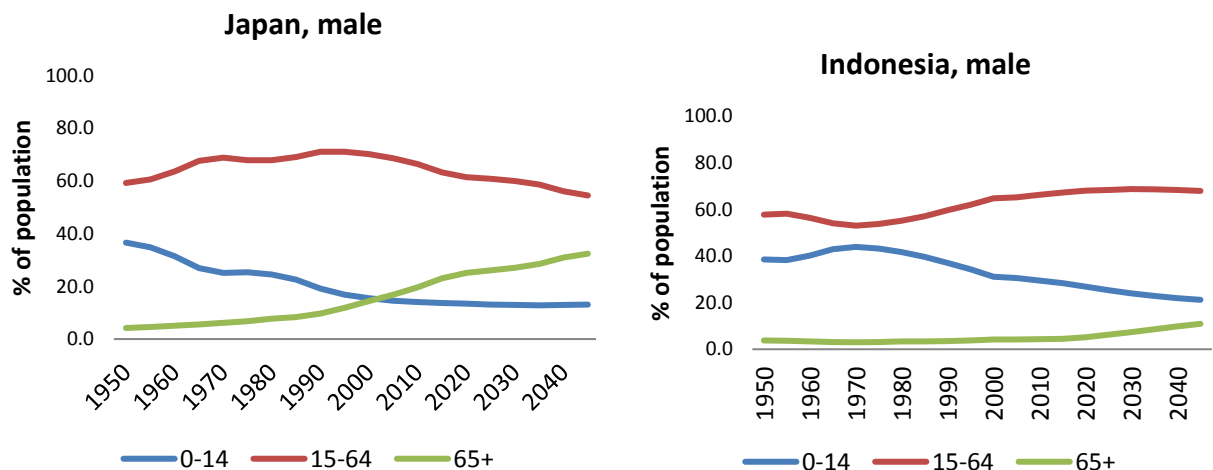


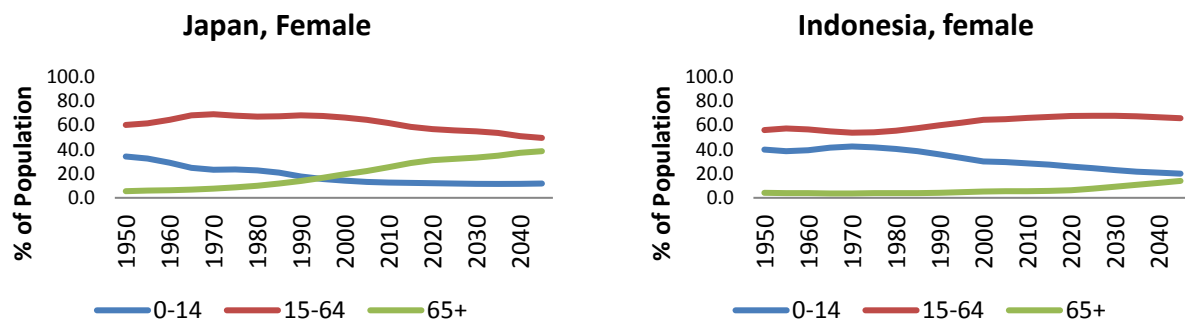
Source: United Nations (2017).

There are several stylist facts regarding the Japanese and Indonesian populations:

- (1) The growth of the Japanese population started to be negative during 2010–2015. This means that the Japanese population started to shrink. In 2015, at the peak of its population, Japan had around 128.5 million people, of which 51.1% were females. In 2045, the total population is projected to be only around 111.9 million people, of which 51.4% will be females. The Indonesian population will only experience a negative growth around the year 2060.
- (2) In 2045, the percentage of elderly (65+) will be 32% for men and 38% for women in Japan. For Indonesia, the number will be 10.9% for men and 14% for women.

Figure 5.2 Age Structure of Japan and Indonesia by Gender, 2015





Source: United Nations (2017).

The increasing number and percentage of the elderly will have many impacts on the economy:

From the fiscal side, the national health insurance has to provide enough money to finance their health expenditures. From the consumption side, companies need to take into account the preferences and purchasing power of the elderly. From the political side, the elderly people tend to vote collectively in a block for one candidate/party and they usually vote for candidates that promise to take care of them. From the labour side, the healthy elderly are also labour that may be tapped as potential workers. From the financial side, the anticipation of being elderly may affect people's saving behaviour. Aggregate-wise, it will create accumulative capital that needs to be invested. In addition, the elderly's tendency to be risk-averse means the type of investments will be of low risk that provide lower yields.

Japan has a lot of experience with the elderly that can be tapped. However, Japan can also still try to find the best way to deal with the increasing number and proportion of the elderly. As Indonesia is moving towards Japan's current situation, the two countries can learn together and from each other.

Chapter 6

Closing Remarks

6.1 Joint Flagship Programme

Based on the findings in the main report, the Indonesian and Japanese sides have agreed upon several suggestions on how to foster relationships between the two countries. The proposed programmes are as follows.

1. Promoting peace and prosperity through:
 - Co-hosting multilateral meetings
 - Capacity building
 - Strengthening coastal guard capacity
 - Enhancing connectivity and marine domain awareness
2. Enhancing moderate Islam
3. Donor-to-donor coordination
4. Enhancing systems for human resources development
5. Launching a joint study for boosting exports made in Indonesia
6. Making use of enhanced connectivity
7. Achieving clean and smart lives
8. Establishing safe and rich-food lives
9. Realising universal health care
10. Improving resilience to natural disasters

In each of these, the two countries need to pay attention to the gender dimension that will ensure that the cooperation and collaborations will be beneficial for all segments of the population.

6.2 Conclusion

As mentioned in Chapter 1, looking at gender issues will allow us to gain different perspectives on economic development. From the supply side, women are untapped human resources that can contribute more in upholding democracy and increasing economic growth. From the demand side, women are half of the population. Their preferences,

experience, and tendencies to affiliate more with families means that in improving people's quality of life, we cannot afford to gloss over the impacts of development on people.

The situation in 2045 will be different from today. Efforts in realising the three common targets, in politics, economy, and quality of life, need to take into account the gender dimension so that the efforts can be more efficient and on target.

The gender dimension of each country is contextual. For this reason, cooperation between Japan and Indonesia on improving and accommodating gender-related development issues needs to look at the cultural and historical contexts of both countries.

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