

Married Women Employment: Multinomial Logistic Regression Analysis of Marital Status, Education Level, and Age on Women Career

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Abstract. The high number of married women compared to those who are not is an important issue especially when related to the availability of manpower. The balanced composition of the population between men and women makes married women manpower occupy an important position in contributing to state income. Therefore, this study analyzes married women employment associated with the main variables, namely occupational category, education, age, and marital status. Moreover, we highlight the high number of married women choosing to become homemakers. Using survey data from WVS, this study presents crosstab analysis and multinomial logistic regression to estimate the likelihood of respondents in choosing a job category. The results showed that there was a pattern of relationship between women's job choices, especially those who were married, with education level and age category. Women with low and middle education levels tend to have the same pattern with high homemaker numbers, while those at higher education levels indicate a low homemaker number accompanied by an increase in job choices in the professional field. In addition, the older high educated married women are, the higher the percentage of working as professionals/higher administrative. From the results of the p-value calculation, higher education levels can support women's careers and reduce homemakers, especially in 2 types of work, namely professional/higher administrative and clerical. On the other hand, changes in women's career interests are seen at the age of 34 to 54 years compared to 18-24 years. The older married women are more interested in working in the sales/service and farmer fields rather than being a homemaker. Finally, the results of this study recommend to interested parties to provide the broadest possible opportunities for women in obtaining higher education. Thus, the participation rate of women can increase and support the country's economic growth.

Keywords: *Women employment, homemaker, married women.*

INTRODUCTION

Regarding the data from BPS- Statistics Indonesia (A non-ministry government agency directly responsible to the President), the percentage of women over ten years old in 2017 who never been married is 24.96%, while the rest are married (62.09%), divorce (2.42%), and widow/ widower (10.53%) (BPS-Statistics Indonesia, 2017, p. 21). This data shows that marriage is a matter for

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Indonesian women. Moreover, as part of the life phase, marriage happened to more than 75% of women and happened at the younger age of Indonesian women. It can be seen from the median of the first marriage age among 25-49 years old married women in 2007 that is at 19.8 years old (Ritonga, 2015). Most people do not settle on their carrier at this working age, and most Indonesian students just graduated from senior high school at around 18 years old. This median age is also in the range of a quarter-life time 18-30 years old. People usually experience a crisis of life such as instability and looking for self-identity at this period (Atwood & Scholtz, 2008). In 2017, the percentage of women over ten years old got married for the first time over 20 years old at 41.41%, while the rest got married at less than 21 years old (BPS-Statistics Indonesia, 2017, p. 135). This number confirms that marriage becomes a crucial stage of life in Indonesian women's lives and at a younger age where they have less possibility to settle in a career.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Marriage usually brings a distinctive life of women, especially on their role and activity. For example, women face the choice to continue their careers or to be full-time homemakers. Women are often influenced by factors such as family and community values to decide their preferences. Support from their family will probably help women decrease the mentality pressure, and the family also potentially become a role model to give an example of successful women careers (Yasmin & Husna, 2020). On the other hand, the family who holds traditional values believe that women are supposed to be a caregiver for their children and manage household tasks such as cooking and cleaning. This value leads the women to tend to be a homemaker and receive it as their life destination. BPS-Statistics Indonesia records homemakers reached 36 million from the population over 15 (BPS-Statistics Indonesia, 2017). The definition of homemaking based on BPS-Statistic Indonesia is the activity to handle household tasks without getting paid, such as housewife activity or their children who help manage household tasks. This definition indicates that homemakers could be men or women, married or unmarried. However, the data in 2018 shows that most homemakers are women, with the total number at 35,767,066 (90.2%), while the number of men homemakers only reached 3,880,624 (9.8%).

The high number of homemakers among women indicates gender inequality, especially in labor force participation. Globally, women have lower labor participation rates than men. World economic forum in 2016 recorded the score for the global gender gap by economic participation and opportunity subindex at 59% (World Economic Forum, 2016, p. 8). This subindex score is lower than the two other global gender gap scores: educational attainment subindex at 95% and health and survival subindex at 96%. Moreover, data from the world economic forum notes an indication of a relationship between economic growth in the European Region and a reduction in the gender gap (World Economic Forum, 2016, p. 26). The hampered economic growth is a cost that must be paid because of restrictions on women's labor force participation. From the explanation above, we can see that women's labor force participation is one of the keys to increasing the economic growth of a country. As with the phenomenon in Europe, the East Asia and Pacific Region also experienced a similar thing. The World Economic Forum reports that restrictions on access to women's employment opportunities have caused losses in the range of US\$42 billion to US\$47 billion annually (World Economic Forum, 2016, p. 27).

On the other hand, the low participation of the labor force is also driven by the wage gap in paid work. In the same type of work, women earn close to half of what men earn. Globally, the estimated income of women is around \$10,778, while the income of men is approximately \$19,873 (World Economic Forum, 2016, p. 46). In fact, in many countries, women do more work without getting paid, such as doing household task and caregiving for children and the elderly. This income inequality is often caused by the condition that women have lower capabilities than men. Different opportunities in accessing job opportunities cause women to get different treatment for a long time. Therefore, in many countries, they seek to maximize the potential of human resources by encouraging the improvement of women's capabilities (World Economic Forum, 2016, p. 27). Upgrading this capability can include ease in accessing opportunities in the form of education. In addition, the government can formulate appropriate regulations to make it easier for women to get more opportunities through labor policies.

Looking at the BPS-Statistics data, women's labor force participation in Indonesia is still low. Women even dominate the number of homemakers who do housework and take care of children or the elderly without getting paid. Most of these women are also identified as married women. Therefore, it

will be essential to research married women's occupation, including their activity as a homemaker. By doing this research, it can be easier to identify the pattern of Indonesian women's careers.

However, this research will emphasize two factors that potentially relate to women's opportunities in their careers. As previously mentioned, education is one of the facilities that can be provided to increase women's capabilities. A good education can optimize the potential of women who are ultimately expected to perform commensurate with men and earn equal income. The previous research mentions that education has a significant impact on women's opportunity to be hired, especially on a job that requires training (Miller, 1993). With better education, women are likely to have less risk of being dropped out and have more potential to complete the training. Unfortunately, BPS-Statistics data record that in February 2017, only 12.26% of workforces have a higher education, 28.1% of them have a senior high school education, and the rest have a lower education level. By having lower education, women are likely to be more challenging to find a job or have limited options.

This research will cover the second factor that is women's age. Age often becomes a limitation for women to get work opportunities. Older age is no longer portrayed to represent seniority from the work experience gained but is instead judged as less capable of adapting to advanced technology. In his research, Miller also mentioned that age tends to negatively affect women's careers, even though older people probably have more experience than the younger. It happens due to the perception that younger people are more capable and adaptable to advanced technology (Miller, 1993). Ministry of Women Empowerment and Children Protection in 2017 record that people aged 40 above are likely to have working hours less than 35 in a week at around 37-40% compared to younger at about 26-38% (Ministry of Women Empowerment and Children Protection and BPS-Statistics Indonesia, 2018). Meanwhile, young people tend to have worked hours more than 40 hours per week, especially for those aged 15 to 29. Looking at this data, younger seems more productive than elder and has better endurance. However, the duration of work can still not answer whether Miller's research results also apply in Indonesia. It still needs to be examined to be able to answer the relationship between age and employment opportunities for women in Indonesia.

Generally, the two factors mentioned in the previous research, education, and age, will be examined to portray how they will affect women's careers in Indonesia. This research also measures the relationship between age and education towards the number of homemakers. Regarding the previous research above, education tends to have a positive relationship with women's careers. It means that women with better education will also potentially get a better opportunity on the career. In contrast, women with lower education are likely to have less opportunity in various jobs. Otherwise, they will have an unskilled job or end up as a homemaker or unemployed. Meanwhile, age has opposite conditions by having negative relationship towards women career. The older the women, the more limited their chances of getting a job. Therefore, there are *two hypotheses* in this research. First, higher education level will probably support women's careers and decrease the number of homemakers. Second, age negatively affects women's careers and increases the number of homemakers. The results of examining these two hypotheses will give an idea of how much education involves promoting women's job opportunities. Also, examining job opportunities for older women can guide the government in responding to elders' limited access and consider the result in formulating employment policies in the future.

METHOD, DATA, AND ANALYSIS

1. Data source

The data source in this research is survey wave 7 data from the World Value Survey (WVS). WVS is an international research program that concerns various countries' social, political, cultural, economic, and religious issues (Who we are, 2020). In collaboration with SurveyMeter (a local research company), WVS researched Indonesia from June to August 2018. However, the University of Melbourne team also played a role in the auditing design project process, reviewed the pilot study, and attended directly at the pre-fieldwork for the validity of the questionnaire. The target of this survey is the Indonesian population aged over 18 years, with 3,200 respondents.

This survey seeks to represent conditions in Indonesia by providing the most comprehensive regional coverage. From 32 provinces in Indonesia, they selected 20 provinces based on the proportion of the population in BPS-Statistics Indonesia. Then, they also selected cities, villages, and finally, the administrative area under the village (RW). At the RW level, they use simple random sampling to determine respondents. This survey also covers the proportion of rural and urban areas,

age, and the proportion of men and women. Furthermore, this survey collects data by conducting face-to-face interviews using a tablet/laptop at the respondent's home. The interview is conducted during the day and in the morning and evening to be able to cover employed respondents. The questionnaire was translated into Bahasa Indonesia to make respondents understand each question easier.

Furthermore, this study will use several variables of the wave seven survey data from the WVS. These variables include sex, marital status, age, educational level, and occupational category. For the sex variable, this study will only use female data even though the survey data provides male data. Then, this study will use both married and unmarried status to compare careers before and after marriage. In the age variable, the working-age range is from 18 years to 54 years. This variable is divided into four categories, namely 18 to 24 years, 25 to 34 years, 35 to 44 years, and 45 to 54 years. Education has three levels, including low, middle, and high educational levels. Low education level includes respondents who have never attended school or only preschool, primary school, and lower secondary school. Middle education level includes respondents who have upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education. The third, high educational level includes respondents who have education in Short-cycle tertiary, Bachelor's or equivalent, Master's or equivalent, Doctoral, or equivalent.

In the occupational variable, this research groups respondents into ten categories. First, respondents have a higher manager and professional category with jobs such as a doctor, teacher, engineer, artist, accountant, nurse, banker, executive in big business, high government official, and union official. Second, the clerical category includes respondents with types of work such as secretary, clerk, office manager, civil servant, and bookkeeper. This third category includes sales and service that covers respondents with jobs such as sales manager, shop owner, shop assistant, insurance agent, buyer, restaurant owner, police officer, waitress, barber, caretaker. The fourth category is skilled workers covering foreman, motor mechanic, printer, seamstress, tool and die maker, and electrician. Furthermore, the semi-skilled worker category includes respondents with occupations such as bricklayer, bus driver, cannery worker, carpenter, sheet metal worker, baker. The sixth category is unskilled workers, including respondents with several jobs such as laborer, porter, unskilled factory worker, cleaner. The seventh category is respondents with jobs as farmworkers, farm proprietors, and farm managers. Furthermore, this study included housewife/homemaker in the eighth category and respondents with student status in the ninth category. Finally, respondents who never had a job became the 10th category.

2. Estimation strategy

This research uses several stages in processing survey data to produce insight. First, this paper presents data in the descriptive form to make it easier to see respondents' composition, including the number of respondents, age, level of education, and occupation. Furthermore, this paper also displays a chart containing the results of crosstab analysis of several variables to see the relationship pattern between the variables of marital status, education level, age category, and occupational category variables. This paper will also use multinomial logistic regression to estimate the likelihood of respondents in choosing a job category based on marital status, education level, and age category. By looking at the p-value in the analysis results, this study can determine which values are significant and which are not. Then, the part that has a significant p-value will be tested further by analyzing the relative risk ratio to estimate the likelihood of the respondent in choosing the occupational category.

3. Descriptive statistics

The following figures display a chart containing respondents' descriptive information, including the proportion of age categories, marital status, education level, and occupational categories. In **Figure 1**, the most significant number of respondents are in the age category of 25-34 years and 35-44 years, with 33.3% and 30.1%, respectively. Meanwhile, in the younger and older age categories, namely 18-24 years and 45-54 years, both have a lower percentage of 17.2% and 19.4%, respectively.

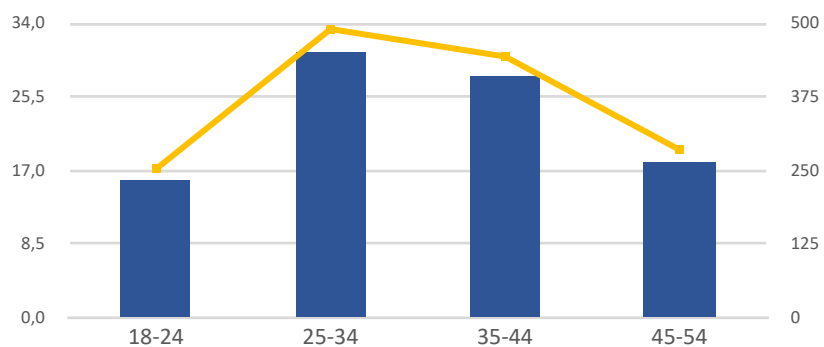


Fig. 1. Distribution of age category

Figure 2 shows that the distribution of respondents is mostly married with a percentage of 88.7%, while the rest are unmarried. This proportion matches the community's condition where the respondent's age range is 18-54 years, most of them are married. It has been mentioned earlier that the majority of women get married at the age of before 21 years.

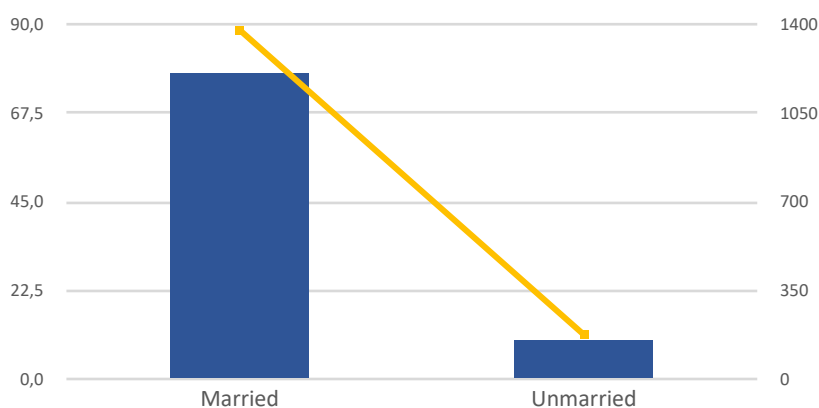


Fig. 2. Distribution of Marital Status

Following the proportion of the population in BPS-Statistics, **Figure 3** shows that most respondents have a low education at 53.8%, followed by respondents with low education at 35.2%. Meanwhile, respondents with a higher education level only had a proportion of 11.1%.

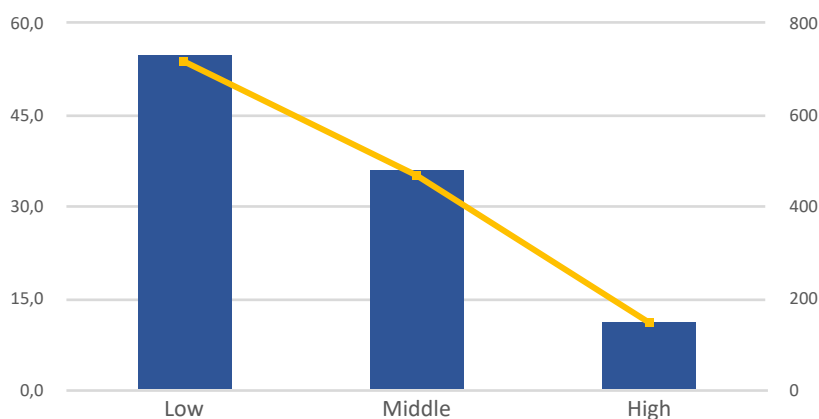


Fig. 3. Distribution of Education Level

Figure 4 shows that most respondents have activities as housewives/ homemakers at 36.3%. It is followed by the sales/service category, which has a percentage of 22.7%. The farmer category has 14.4% in the third position, and the other categories only have less than 10%.

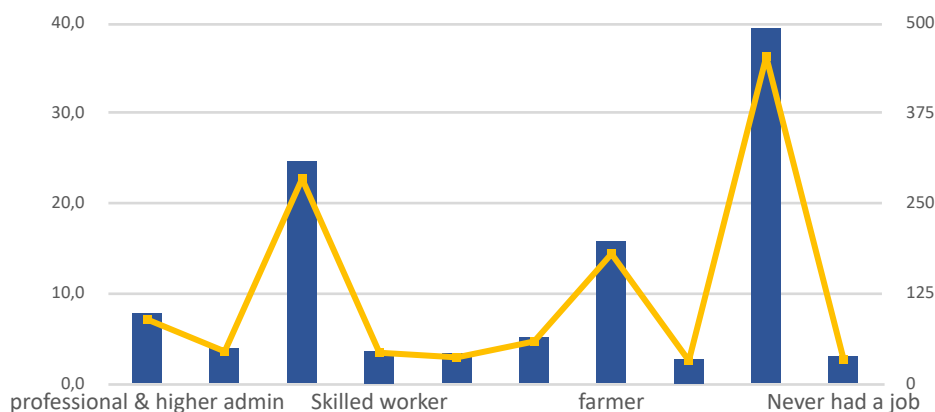


Fig. 4. Distribution of Occupational Category

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

1. Crosstab analysis occupational category - education level among married and unmarried women

This study seeks to see the relationship between occupational categories and the level of education of married and unmarried women. From the results of the crosstab test, we can see whether a certain level of education tends to choose a particular occupation category. Furthermore, this paper also divides the crosstab into two charts that are married and unmarried. This division aims to see if there are differences in the pattern of the two.

Figure 5 shows that married women with low education tend to have activities as housewife/homemaker, farmer, and sales/service at 41.8%, 24.5%, and 20.6%, respectively. Meanwhile, in other categories, each only has a percentage below 6%. Most married women at the middle education level also become housewives/homemakers and sales/service at 43.7% and 30.0%, respectively. However, the percentage of farmers at this level of education is only 8%, and others only have less than 5%. In contrast to the low and middle education level, married women with the high education level have the highest proportion in the professional & higher administrative category at 47.7%. Moreover, although the percentage of housewives/homemakers at high education level is also high at 21.2%, this figure is much lower than other levels of education. Different categories that are also high in high-level education are clerical and sales/service at 14.4% and 13.6%, respectively.

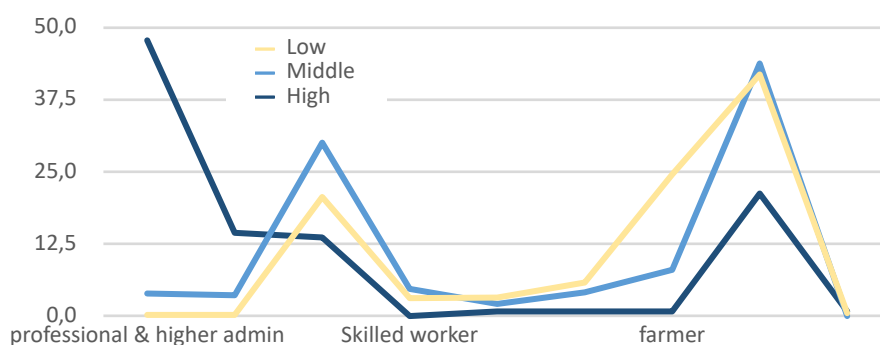


Fig. 5. Married Women - Occupational category by Education Level

One thing that distinguishes between married and unmarried is the housewife/homemaker category which only appears in married women, and the student category which only appears in unmarried women. Furthermore, a striking difference is also seen in the never had a job category. Figure 6 shows that at the low and middle levels of education, the never had a job category has the highest percentage compared to other categories, at 33.3% and 22.8%, respectively. Next, low and middle education levels have a high proportion in the sales/service category at 23.3% and 20.8%, respectively. The difference is that the third category for low educated unmarried women is farmers at 16.7%, and the second category for middle educated unmarried women is students at 28.7%. On the

other hand, unmarried women with a higher education level have jobs in the professional/higher administrative category at 57.7%, followed by the clerical category at the second position and sales/service at the third position with 15.4% and 11.5%, respectively. In the never had a job category, high educated unmarried women have a percentage of 7.7%, much lower than those with low and middle education.

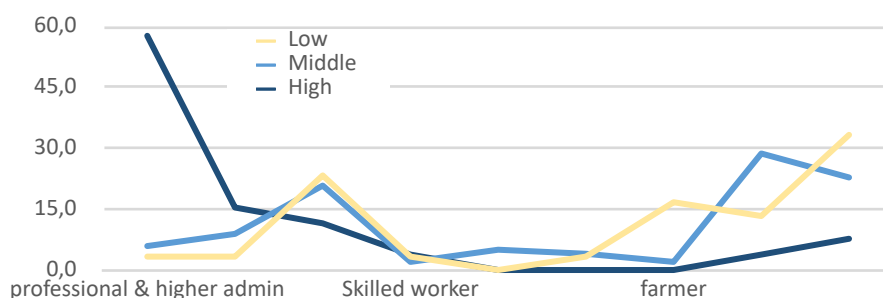


Fig. 6. Unmarried Women - Occupational category by Education Level

2. Crosstab analysis occupational category-education level-marital status among different age categories

The following crosstab analysis seeks more detail about the relationship between occupational category, education level based on marital status, and age category. However, the data for unmarried women is limited, especially at the age 35-44 years old and 45-54 years old at 0.2% and 0.5%, respectively. Therefore, this paper will not include these two-age categories on unmarried women analysis. Table 1 displays that most of the respondents are married at 88.7%, while unmarried is only at 11.3%. For the married women category, most are categorized at the age of 25-34 years old and 35-44 years old, while most unmarried are at the age of 18-24 years.

Table 1. Crosstab the percentage of age category & marital status

Age category	Married	Unmarried	Total
18-24	8.1	9.1	17.2
25-34	31.8	1.5	33.3
35-44	29.9	0.2	30.1
45-54	18.9	0.5	19.4
Total	88.7	11.3	100.0

The following figures from 7 to 10 show that married women with a higher education level tend to have jobs in the professional and higher administrative fields. However, the 18-24 age category has the highest number of married women with activities as housewives/homemakers, exceeding the percentage of married women with professional and higher administrative work categories. When observed further, the percentage of housewives/homemakers decreases with the increasing age of married women. On the other hand, the professional and higher administrative categories are increasing along with the age of married women.

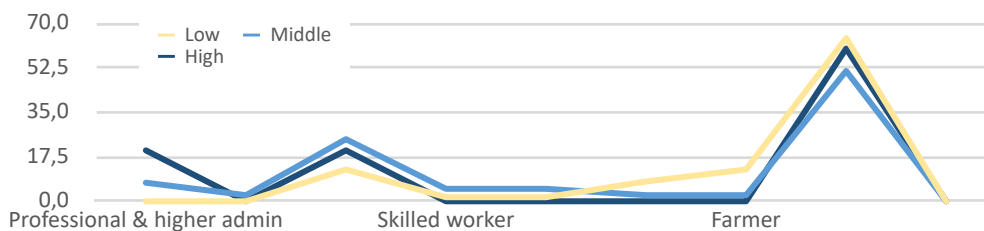


Fig. 7. Married Women - Occupational Category by Age 18-24 y.o.

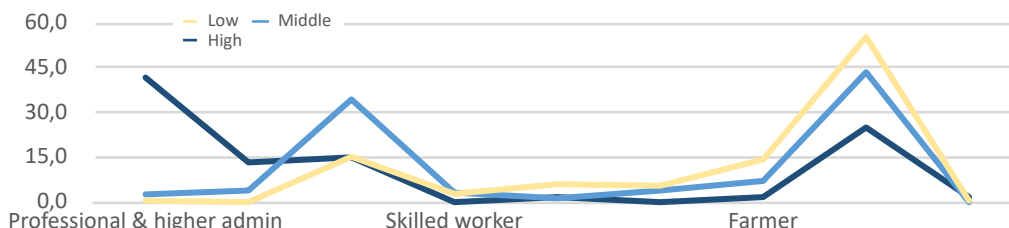


Fig. 8. Married Women - Occupational Category by Age 25-34 y.o.

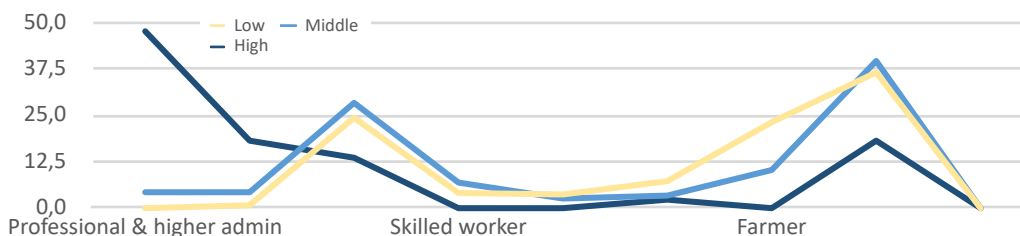


Fig. 9. Married Women - Occupational Category by Age 35-44 y.o.

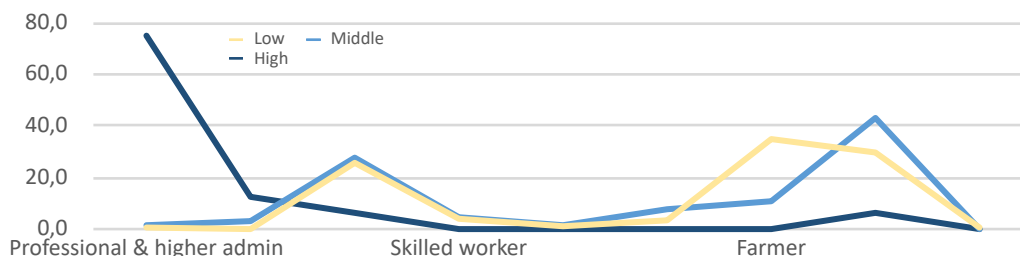


Fig. 10. Married Women - Occupational Category by Age 45-54 y.o.

From the crosstab analysis, unmarried women have a similar pattern to married women. Unmarried women with a high level of education have the most jobs in professional and higher administrative positions. Meanwhile, unmarried women with middle education levels dominated the student category. In addition, some things stand out in the never had a job category where the higher the education of unmarried women, the lower the number of unemployed. For the age category of 25-34, the pattern could not represent the unmarried women profile well due to the limited number of respondents, only 1.5%.

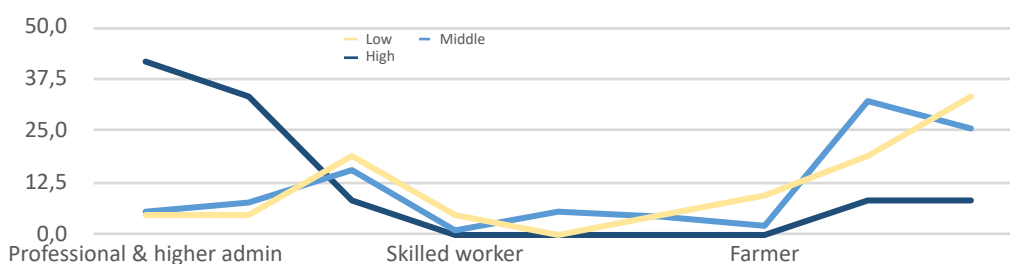


Fig. 11. Unmarried Women - Occupational Category by Age 18-24 y.o.

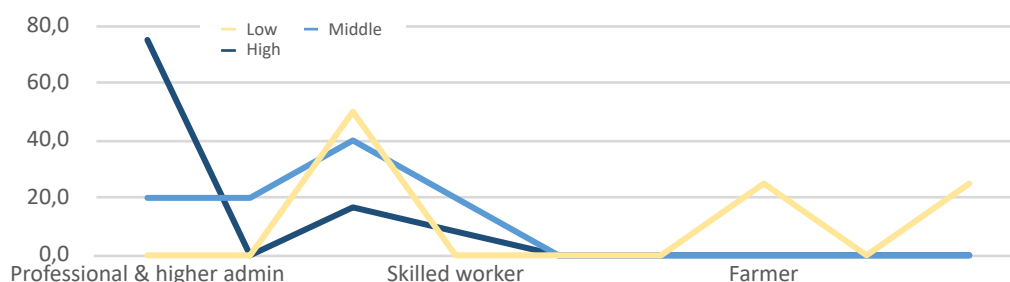


Fig. 12. Unmarried Women - Occupational Category by Age 25-34 y.o.

3. Multinomial logit model married women

This study uses the occupational category as the dependent variable and the age category and education level as the independent variable. Then, we examine the data with the multinomial logit model to see how significant the relationship between the variables is. We chose housewife/homemakers as the baseline for the dependent category. Meanwhile, for the independent variable, age 18-24 years is the baseline for the age category, and the high level is the baseline for the education level. At the initial stage, we calculate the p-value to determine which part has a significant result. The p-value used in this paper to reject the null hypothesis is $p < 0.05$, while the part with a p-value of more than 0.05 indicates a not significant result. Table 2 shows four significant results in the age category and eight significant results at the education level.

Table 2. (P value) Multinomial logistic regression of Occupational category towards age category, education level on married women

p-value		(Dependent variable)							
		Occupation category- baseline: homemaker/housewife							
		professional / higher admin	clerical	Sales / service	Skilled worker	Semi-skilled worker	Unskilled worker	Farmer / worker / proprietor	Never had a job
(Independent variable)	Age Category								
	25-34	0.99	0.35	0.12	0.75	0.37	0.99	0.21	0.3
	35-44	0.41	0.11	0.00***	0.10*	0.39	0.25	0.00***	0.78
	baseline: 18-24	45-54	0.14	0.25	8.01e-04***	0.13	0.74	0.5	1.22e-05**
Education level- baseline: high	Low	3.11e-15***	2.59e-09***	0.31	0.00***	0.38	0.23	0.02**	0.2
	Middle	0.00***	1.92e-06***	0.74	0.00***	0.74	0.35	0.12	0.00***

*** $p < 0.01$

Note: * $p < 0.1$; ** $p < 0.05$;

In the next stage, we only focus on the relative risk ratio (RRR) results in the part that has a significant p-value in the previous test. This section is marked with a grey area in table 3. The RRR

value in table 3 shows that the relative risk ratio of choosing sales/service rather than homemaker is 142% and 184% higher for people with 35-44 and 45-54 age category compared to those with 18-24 age category. Similarly, the RRR of married women who choose farming rather than homemaker is also much higher for the 35-44 and 45-54 age category than those with 18-24 age category. Meanwhile, the RRR of married women who work in professional/ higher administrative rather than homemakers are much lower for those with low education levels than those with a high education level. Likewise, married women with middle education levels also have lower RRR rates for the professional and higher administrative categories. Next, married women who choose clerical jobs over homemakers have a 99% lower RRR at the low educational level and 86% at the middle education level than highly educated married women. In contrast, the RRR skilled workers are much higher on low and middle educated married women, and farm workers are also higher on low educated married women.

Table 3. (RRR) Multinomial logistic regression of Occupational category towards age category, education level on married women

RRR		(Dependent variable)								
		Occupation category- baseline: homemaker/housewife								
		professiona l /higher admin	clerical	S a l e s / service	S k i l l e d worker	S e m i - s k i l l e d worker	Unskille d worker	F a r m worker/ propertior	N e v e r had a job	
(In de pe nd ent va ria ble)	Age	25-34	1.01	2.71	1.58	1.24	1.79	1.01	1.64	1.60E+2
	Category- baseline: 18-24	35-44	1.76	5.54	2.42	2.88	1.77	1.73	3.37	2.50E+1
		45-54	2.92	3.76	2.84	2.82	0.76	1.43	5.62	2.30E+2
		Education level- baseline: high	Low	2.57E-03	0.01	0.72	1.10E+57	2.48	3.46	11.76
		Middle	0.03	0.14	1.12	1.70E+57	1.44	2.66	4.93	8.30E-19

4. Discussion

The crosstab and multinomial logit model testing results above gives some insights that can be discussed further. First, the crosstab analysis results show that there is a pattern of relationship between the level of education and the percentage of homemakers. At the higher education level, the number of homemakers is far less than those with low and middle education levels. The number of higher education levels also coincides with the percentage of women who have professional/higher administrative jobs. On the other hand, the number of homemakers among married women who have low and middle education is relatively high. This shows that having a middle-education level is not enough to reduce the number of homemakers and increasing the work participation rate. Married women need to have a high level of education to reach professional and other careers. With a broader range of opportunities, the potential for women to be empowered is also higher. For unmarried women, higher education also can reduce the number of unemployed, as evidenced by the low percentage of never had a job compared to low and middle education levels. When viewed by age, apparently the older the married women, the lower the number of homemakers. An increase in other job categories accompanied the decrease in the number of homemakers. In the group of married women with low education, there is a prominent percentage increase in work as a farmer as their age gets older. Meanwhile, the older high educated married women are, the higher the percentage of working as professionals/higher administrative. In married women with middle-level education, the homemaker rate is still relatively high at all ages, and there is no significant change in other job categories.

However, from the results of the p-value calculation, higher education levels can support women's careers and reduce homemakers, especially in 2 types of work, namely professional/higher administrative and clerical. Married women who have low and middle education have a higher tendency to become homemakers than work in professional/higher administrative and clerical fields. However, compared to high educated married women, those with low education are interested in

being farmers rather than homemakers, and being skilled workers rather than homemakers for those with low and middle education. It shows that farmers and skilled workers can be an option for women with low and middle education to participate in work. On the other hand, changes in women's career interests are seen at the age of 34 to 54 years compared to 18-24 years. The older married women are more interested in working in the sales/service and farmer fields rather than being a homemaker. It shows that there is better participation of older married women. Thus, it can answer the hypothesis in this study that education can reduce the number of homemakers, especially by having a higher level of education. However, no evidence increasing age harms married women's careers and increases the number of homemakers. Finally, the results of this study recommend to interested parties to provide the broadest possible opportunities for women in obtaining higher education. Thus, the participation rate of women can increase and support the country's economic growth.

CONCLUSION

This study has two categories of respondents: married women and unmarried women. We highlight the high number of homemakers/housewives in the married women category. Meanwhile, for unmarried women, we highlight the number of women who currently studying and looking for work. However, most respondents belong to the married women category compared to unmarried women, so the analysis results on married women look more valid than unmarried women.

This research used crosstab analysis and multinomial logistic regression to examine the relationship between the dependent variable, namely the occupational category, and the independent variables, namely the educational level and the age category. In general, the results have answered the two research objectives, including to what extent higher education level will probably support women's careers and relate to decreasing the number of homemakers, and to what extent age negatively affects women's careers and increases the number of homemakers. First, the crosstab analysis suggests a relationship pattern between the high number of homemakers and the low and middle levels of education. Meanwhile, married women at a younger age tend to choose to be homemakers compared to older women. Secondly, the p-value test and multinomial logit regression results also showed significant results in specific occupational categories related to education level and age. However, this is contrary to the initial hypothesis, which assessed that old age negatively affects women's careers. Finally, this research provides evidence that women's career opportunities could be enhanced by giving women better education, particularly at a high level. The government or interested parties should be able to see the potential for additional income from married women who are currently homemakers. In addition, several job categories, such as sales/service and agriculture, have the potential to be maximized as potential opportunities for married women homemakers with lower and middle education.

IMPLICATION/LIMITATION AND SUGGESTIONS

The main limitation of this research is the number of respondents, especially unmarried women. The limited number of respondents makes it difficult for researchers to compare the relationship between the dependent and independent variables in the two categories of respondents. In addition, since a third party arranged the questionnaire, we cannot insert some fundamental questions to support the analysis, including the age of the first child. Therefore, we suggest that further research needs to be done to see if there are other factors, such as caring for young children/infants or the need for adaptation after marriage, which cause a high number of homemakers at a young age.

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