# Social Media Empowerment: How Social Media Helps to Boost Women Entrepreneurship in Indonesian Urban Areas

Ezmieralda Melissa, Anis Hamidati, Muninggar Sri Saraswati

#### Abstract

In Indonesia, there is a growing trend to open businesses through social media, especially by women. There are many reasons that account for this trend, the main reason being the flexibility that it affords businesses, allowing transactions to be done from anywhere, including one's own home. This paper argues that online business has great potential in empowering women by assisting them to become entrepreneurs. Online businesses can also be seen as a solution to the dilemma faced by women who must manage and balance their career and family life. Ultimately, social media entrepreneurship works well for women in Indonesia due to its unique characteristics that include: mobility and flexibility, social capital gained through social media interactions, the unequal distribution of products in Indonesian cities, the lack of time on the part of customers to visit physical shops and the confidence and satisfaction experienced by women as a result of this enterprise.

**Keywords:** Indonesia, social media, Internet, entrepreneurship, gender, development.

# **Background**

As with many other developing countries, Indonesia faces important issues in sustaining the well-being of its 242 million inhabitants. One issue that the Indonesian government has paid particular attention to is unemployment. At the current time, Indonesia has a problem providing jobs for its population. Current statistics report that the number of unemployed in Indonesia is 7.61 million people or approximately 6.3% of the potential working population (BPS 2012). Although this number may seem small, it does not reflect the fact that only a minority of workers are employed full-time. Additionally, of the 116.53 million people who can be categorized as employed, only 67.72% have permanent employment. As a result, it can be argued that Indonesia's economy is still in the pre-condition stage, which means that a large proportion of its citizens do not contribute actively to the country's domestic income. Hence, Indonesia needs to provide real solutions if it wants to address its unemployment problem.

There are many reasons behind the unemployment problem in Indonesia, which include unequal development between areas in Indonesia, low education standards, a lack of skilled workers, a general unwillingness on the part of people to find jobs in the less developed parts of the country, and so forth. However, the most common reason is the disparity between the number of job seekers and available job openings (Sholahuddin 2008).

In view of this obstacle, there is an urgent need for Indonesia to increase employment opportunities. One way to do this is by encouraging citizens to become job creators instead of job seekers. To this end, the Indonesian government – through the Coordinator Minister of Economy – aims to increase the number of entrepreneurs to 4.76 million, or 2% of the country's population, which is considered the ideal proportion for a developing country like Indonesia (Antara News 2012). Moreover, the government has developed several new programs to facilitate this agenda, such as loans for new entrepreneurs to open or expand their businesses, providing training to enhance entrepreneurs' business skills, and organizing exhibitions that showcase these entrepreneurs' products (Ardieansyah et al. 2011).

One of the main target audiences for these government programs is women. Women are seen to be a strategic target audience since they have great potential to boost the country's economy. Gender roles in Indonesia are changing, and nowadays, women play a much larger role in improving the economy of the family and society. The State Ministry of Cooperatives and Small and Medium Enterprise reported in 2006 that 60% of micro, small and medium enterprises were owned by women. This phenomenon is not restricted to Indonesia. Other parts of Asia also report a growing number of women as owners of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) (Chiam 2001).

Despite having great potential as entrepreneurs, however, women also face many obstacles when starting their own business. As in many other parts of the world, most Indonesians still see men as the primary breadwinners and women as the primary homemakers. Therefore, women are often required to quit their jobs and to dedicate their lives to taking care of the family after marriage (Wood cited in Griffin 2003: 482). Furthermore, when women decide to work outside the house, some have the extra burden of managing their duties in the home and at work – not only do they feel guilty about leaving their children under someone else's supervision, but they still have to take care of chores once they arrive home. Hence,

it is common for women to take on multiple roles in the family that consist of being a wife, a mother and a worker. The extra responsibilities result in increased stress for these women.

Female entrepreneurs face other problems related to economic and social capital. As women tend to stay at home as housewives, or take on lower-paid jobs, it becomes difficult for them to fund their own business. When they seek external sources of funding, such as loans from banks or other financial institutions, they can only be granted funding if their husbands agree. Hence, if their husbands do not allow them to work or apply for the loan, then they cannot get approval from these institutions. In addition, due to their limited social circles, women potentially face difficulties in expanding their businesses, as social networks are very important to support the growth of a new business. Furthermore, many women tend to have lower education than men as a result of Indonesia's cultural practice of favouring boys over girls due to their expected future role as the family's primary source of income. Thus, women might not have sufficient managerial and technological skills to start their business (Coleman 2000; Cromie & Birley 1992).

Gates (2000) argues that the Internet and its features create new possibilities for many people because it allows for a more efficient way to communicate. Not only is communication faster, it is also easier and relatively cheaper. A new kind of service made available by the Internet, which has gained tremendous popularity, is social media. Following its introduction, social media such as *MySpace*, *Facebook*, and *Twitter* have attracted millions of female users, many of whom have integrated these sites into their daily lives. With social media, personal and direct interactions increase because the account owner can communicate directly with those on her friend list. These social media platforms also contain useful and easy-to-use features, such as photo uploading, video uploading, instant messaging and photo tagging.

Women often take advantage of social media for reasons that go beyond merely finding friends. They can now use social media in order to achieve a measure of financial independence. There is a growing trend among women to open businesses through social media. For instance, in Indonesia, among the 549,740 users registered on *Facebook* as the owners of small and medium enterprises, 176,300 of them are women. As reported by most of our research participants, social media businesses have numerous benefits. Research participants have stated that they can use readily available technology, such as smart phones, while taking care of their children. Additionally, they do not require physical stores, which can be costly. Social media applications are also easy to use since business owners can tag pictures and provide information to potential customers in a single click. The growing interest of women in developing online businesses may also be supported by the more social nature of some women and the tendency of many of today's customers to prefer online shopping for its convenience.

This kind of entrepreneurship is seen to be an ideal option for women for several reasons: society's perception that women should stay at home and take care of the children, the flexibility offered by this kind of business and the relatively low costs involved in opening the business. However, one specific factor that attracted the attention of some researchers studying online women entrepreneurship is the need for flexibility in balancing family and work (see, for example, Lombard 2001: 216). This factor is most prominent in developing countries (van der Merwe & Lebakeng 2010; Nguyen 2005). In Vietnam, Nguyen (2005) found that most women did not hesitate to leave their corporate jobs if they could become entrepreneurs so as to manage their traditional role as wife and primary role as caregiver to their children.

These factors also apply to Indonesian women. Cukier et al. (1996) found in their research on Balinese women working in the tourism industry that women tend to have jobs in the peripheral, lower-paid sectors of the tourism industry because 'these occupations harmonise women's traditional roles in Bali,' which include managing household routines.

Based on the above-mentioned facts, this article argues that social media can help to boost entrepreneurship, especially amongst women in Indonesian urban areas. Furthermore, it proposes that certain unique factors contribute to the success of social media entrepreneurship in Indonesia. This article is a product of research conducted in five major cities in Indonesia, namely Jakarta, Bandung, Surabaya, Medan, and Makassar, with the aid of a SIRCA II grant from the International Development Research Centre (IDRC), Ottawa, Canada, and administrative support from the Singapore Internet Research Centre (SiRC), Nanyang Technological University, Singapore.

### **Entrepreneurship to Reduce Unemployment**

Entrepreneurship is seen as an alternative to paid work in formal institutions. Many people prefer being self-employed because it provides a certain level of freedom; these people are sometimes described as 'opportunity driven entrepreneurs.' Moreover, in many cases where people lack formal qualifications, informal employment and entrepreneurship may be the only way to make ends meet. In cases where getting paid work is not an available option, self-employment serves as the only means to generate income; this group of self-employed is described as 'necessity driven entrepreneurs.' The latter situation more often than not applies to those in the bottom stratum of society (OECD 2003). In his book New Firms and Free Enterprise (1949), Oxenfeldt pointed out that individuals facing unemployment and low prospects of salaried employment turn to self-employment as an alternative (cited in Audretsch, Carree & Thurik 2002). However, the quality of this type of venture is questionable since people who are unemployed for long periods of time tend not to have the entrepreneurial talent required to set up and maintain a business (Jovanovic 1982). In addition, the various motivations for entrepreneurship ventures lead to differences in growth aspiration. A study of twenty-nine countries in the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor in 2001 found that 14% of opportunity driven entrepreneurs expected their firms to produce over twenty jobs in a five-year period, while 99% of necessity driven entrepreneurs expect their ventures to produce less than five jobs within the same time period (OECD 2003).

Entrepreneurship is arguably an aspiration for a large portion of the working population. Many surveys conducted show that a large proportion of employees aspire to be entrepreneurs with the aim of achieving greater self-reliance and self-realization (OECD 2003). Moreover, entrepreneurs often have higher levels of job satisfaction compared to salaried employees (Blanchflower, Levine & Zimmerman 2002). Although it is evident that jobs generated by entrepreneurship lead to a reduction in a country's unemployment, the size of the impact on the labour market is questionable and depends on both regional considerations. Some findings suggest that in the short term, the promotion of entrepreneurship is found to have limited impact on employment growth. A 1992 evaluation of Australia's NEIS program, an incentive scheme given by the government of Australia for its citizens to open new enterprises, revealed that only 20% of the scheme's successful entrepreneurs had recruited an employee (Chapman, Gregory & Klugman 1998). In the case of the UK, researchers found that only about 3% of self-employed businesses created additional jobs during a five-year period (Cowling & Hayward 2000).

More positive statistics can be found in developing countries where self-employment in non-agricultural activities is encouraged (International Labour Organization 2002). In Nigeria, a study conducted between 1999-2005 found that government support in promoting entrepreneurship led to an increase in new enterprises, benefitting a total of 5% of the population (Ekpe 2010). In 2002, the International Labour Organization published statistics for the period 1990-2000 showing that while in developed regions self-employment in non-agricultural sectors only reached 12%, in Africa it reached 48%, followed by Latin America with 44% and Asia with 32%.

When entrepreneurs recruit, unemployment is further reduced. Most entrepreneurs tend to recruit locally as this has a number of benefits for both employer and employee. A survey conducted in the United States found that over a five-year period, one in every five jobs in the metropolitan area is typically given to a local resident (Bartik 1994). This is not universally the case, especially if the locale of the business is considered to be a bad neighbourhood. However, as found in research conducted in the US concerning employment of the urban poor, despite the negative perceptions by employers of hiring potential employees from the same area, local workers are not excluded from jobs located in their own neighbourhood. One of the reasons suggested for this are the obvious benefits of hiring employees who live in close proximity to the workplace (Ramsden et al. 2001).

As Indonesia is a developing country, the government is encouraging the growth of entrepreneurs. However, Indonesia's entrepreneurship ratio is still relatively low. Current statistics shows that the number of self-employed people in Indonesia only represents 0.18% of the total population (Antara News 2012), meaning that an additional 4.76 million entrepreneurs are required if the country is to meet the ideal target of 2%, cited previously. Efforts are underway to prioritise entrepreneurship support programs with the aim of reducing unemployment, ameliorating poverty, and improving the general welfare of the population.

The low number of entrepreneurs in Indonesia can be attributed to the fact that salaried employment is preferred over self-employment (Purwanto D. 2012). Public sector and civil service jobs in particular are seen as much more attractive options than becoming an entrepreneur. Generally, upon completing degrees, graduates prefer to be job seekers rather than job creators. Some argue that this stems from an education system that aims to create skilled workplace-ready graduates rather than job-creating graduates (Halim in Purwanto D. 2012). Unemployed graduates accounted for almost half of the 4.1 million unemployed in 2011 (Pikiran Rakyat 2012). The Ministry of Education addressed this issue by promoting entrepreneurship prior to graduation through scholarships and other efforts. Educational institutions are also increasing the promotion of entrepreneurship by integrating it into their curricula and even inscribing entrepreneurial education models into their vision and mission statements (Fitriati 2012).

Regulations favouring small-scale entrepreneurship have been implemented to boost the growth of this sector at the national level. Law no. 9/2003 on State Owned Enterprises, for instance, obliges SOE's to allocate 5% of their net profit to support the development of small and medium enterprises and cooperatives. This support is administered in the form of soft-loans to non-bankable SMEs through a partnership program, in addition to the provision of SME capacity building activities (OECD 2010). Despite the small percentage of entrepreneurs among the workforce, Indonesia actually imposes relatively

few barriers to starting up new businesses. A recent study by the OECD demonstrates this, indicating that Indonesia has lower administrative burdens, regulatory and administrative opacity and fewer restrictions on competition compared to other countries in the OECD (see Figure 1.1 in OECD 2010: 119). This suggests the large potential that Indonesia has for entrepreneurial activities.

# The Potential of Women Entrepreneurs

Women entrepreneurs make up a large proportion of the working population and their numbers are growing. During the period 1990-2000, the percentage of the global female workforce that was self-employed, excluding those in agricultural work, amounted to 34%, compared to 28% during the period 1980-1990 (ILO 2002). Moreover, this number could be higher since quite often businesses are not officially registered due to their casual nature. In Indonesia, the number of women entrepreneurs is high for the informal sector, where it is estimated that for the period 1994-2000, self-employed women amounted to 70%. This figure is more than double the salaried employment for the informal sector, which was 30% in the same period (ILO 2002). The number of self-employed women is higher than men, particularly in the informal sector, indicating that self-employment is a more important source of employment for women workers than for men (ILO 2002).

Despite the high number of female entrepreneurs, gender-based discrimination still occurs. Women are sometimes deprioritised as a group when it comes to receiving support for entrepreneurial endeavours from the government. A flagrant example of this is seen in Nigeria, where between 2004 and 2005, women were not given as much support as their male counterparts in both urban and rural poverty alleviation programs conducted by the government (Ekpe 2010). In the labour force, women are generally paid less than their male counterparts, and in the case of Indonesia, it can be as much as 50% less, according to the country's Statistic Bureau of 2009 (Sahabat Wanita 2012). Gender based discrimination is also found in the informal sector where in many cases women also have lower incomes than men (Williams 1998).

Today, regardless of their employment or marital status, women are still expected to do household chores after returning from their day of work. In Indonesia, it is estimated that the women still do over 90% of household tasks (Macionis 2010). There is the general expectation that women should prioritise working at home and child-rearing before deciding to seek employment. Despite some recent improvement in the share of family responsibilities and domestic chores between men and women, one cannot talk about equality, and women are undoubtedly put under pressure to leave work to raise a family (Tribun Jogja 2012). Entrepreneurial schemes, which grant more flexibility, are therefore seen as a viable alternative, allowing women to simultaneously accommodate work and child-rearing duties (Orhan 2005) and to juggle their professional and domestic roles. A survey of the members of the Indonesian Women Entrepreneurs Association (IWAPI), where the majority of the members are married women or over childbearing age, demonstrates the high appeal of entrepreneurship for this women group (Purwanto P. 2012).

The challenge of maintaining a business may be more difficult for some women. At the early stages of a new business, the entrepreneur may incur a significant reduction in earnings, causing her to return to salaried employment. The desire to return to salaried employment further increases for women who

initially start up a business as a means of generating income while they raise a family. Once the children start school, there is less necessity to be stay-at-home mother and therefore many women wish to end their self-employment and to return to salaried employment.

Last, the family is not the sole factor determining a woman's decision to start up a business. The 'push and pull' motivations for women entrepreneurs vary. In general, the push factors may include dissatisfaction with salaried work, the difficulty in finding a job, insufficient family income, and the desire to balance professional and family life. The pull factors may include the potential of the business concept and the prospective value of the enterprise. Values here include achieving independence and self-fulfilment (or self-achievement), and satisfying entrepreneurial drive, desire for wealth, social status and power, or social mission. Duchéneaut suggests an additional pull factor: the perception of participating in a social mission to create employment and to promote economic development (cited in Orhan 2005). These push and pull factors reflect the contribution of women entrepreneurs to the self, family and society.

# ICT Supports Women Entrepreneurship

As previously discussed, the development of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) has given a new impetus to women entrepreneurship (Ndubisi & Kahraman 2006; Duncombe et al. 2005). While the first generation ICT was limited to one-way communication, the updated versions offer more opportunities to boost interactivity among users. The invention of Web 2.0, for example, enables users to connect and interact with each other, thus forming and expanding their networks (O'Reilly 2009). In the business sector, entrepreneurs make use of Web 2.0 to support mainly marketing-related activities (Jones 2010).

Although the Internet has enormous potential for business-related activities, Internet penetration levels in Indonesia remain relatively low. It was reported in 2010 that only 9.1% of the population had access to the Internet. Meanwhile the neighbouring countries have achieved higher rates; for instance 55% in Malaysia and 27.6% in Vietnam (ITU 2011). Access to the Internet is also mostly centralised in urban areas of the country. Despite this poor performance, the International Telecommunication Union (2011) reported that there were 220 million mobile phone users in Indonesia and many of them subscribed to mobile Internet services. Hence, this new service increases Internet penetration in the country.

Revealingly, the majority of Indonesia users access the Internet for social networking purposes. Reports show that the country is home to around 43 million *Facebook* users and 19 million *Twitter* users (Abud 2012). Indonesian users have recently started to use the Internet, and specifically the online social networks, for more substantial and productive enterprises (Lim 2003; Nugroho 2011). For example, *Asosiasi Ibu Menyusui Indonesia* (AIMI), an association of Indonesian women, have made use of online social media to set up a support system for breastfeeding mothers from across the archipelago (Nugroho 2011). In addition, Indonesian social media users were very effective in utilising online networks to support victims of the Mount Merapi eruption (Nugroho 2011).

As discussed in the introduction, ICT, and social media in particular, has facilitated women's efforts in starting their businesses from home. This service provides women with the flexibility to manage their

businesses as well as to carry out their duties as wives and mothers. Nonetheless, it should be noted that this kind of entrepreneurship is not due to ICT *per se*. ICT facilitates and boosts entrepreneurship, but it is the women themselves who appropriate social media and use it as the main engine to drive their business.

### Characteristics of Women Social Media Entrepreneurship in Indonesia

The previous section has shown that social media entrepreneurship has the potential to provide a solution to the dilemma faced by women who aspire to balance their career and family lives. This section will further explore the contributing factors that have contributed to the success of social media entrepreneurship in Indonesia.

# Mobility/Flexibility Promoted by Social Media

The first contributing factor is related to the mobility and flexibility promoted by social media. As technology advances, with the advent of tablet computers and smart phones, social media business can now be conducted from practically anywhere and at any time, including from home. This results in a flexibility that allows women to take care of the family and children while simultaneously managing their business. Furthermore, these technologies also reduce the costs involved in opening a business, as social media businesses do not require the capital that is usually required in traditional businesses – to establish a physical store, for instance. Instead, most respondents report that they keep their supplies at home, take pictures of the products, and promote them through their social media accounts, which can be accessed using their tablets or smart phones. These technologies are also easy-to-use. As mentioned, social media provides simple ways to upload photos, write updates and to contact people.

An example of this flexibility can be seen in the following quotation from a research participant from Bandung. This respondent is a mother whose husband travels often as a result of his work responsibilities. She quit her former job after experiencing 'baby blues syndrome' following the birth of her son, who is now ten years old. At first she had difficulties in accepting the fact that she had to stay at home to take care of the baby. Fortunately, her friend encouraged her to work from home. She explains, 'I started this business because I was inspired by a friend. She has two kids but she still can sell food through the Internet. She is online 24 hours.'

Some of the participants are able to do exceedingly well thanks to the flexible nature of the business. Not only can they maintain their role as mothers, but they can also communicate, make sales and generate reasonably large profits through social media. One respondent from Jakarta says:

With this kind of business, it feels as if I am stealing time. I often update my [Facebook] page after midnight. It is easier to upload photos from my Blackberry to *Facebook*. Then I can communicate with my customers through Blackberry Messenger.

This young mother of three infants sells cupcakes through social media. She has never worked outside of the home as she always wanted to be fully involved in the development of her children. She never actually expected the business to generate a regular income and she started it simply as a hobby. At the present time, she reports that her income surpasses that of her husband.

Initial research demonstrates, therefore, that the main advantages of using modern technology and social media to start a business are increased mobility and flexibility. Social media entrepreneurship can be practised by women who desire to contribute to the household economy while continuing to fulfil their responsibilities in the home.

# **Social Capital Gained through Social Media Interactions**

Social media interactions address the lack of social capital commonly experienced by Indonesian women; this is the second contributing factor. By engaging in business through social media, the women are able to reach larger target audiences located outside of their locale. Many respondents report that with social media, they can attract customers from other areas in Indonesia and indeed internationally. Moreover, the people that they meet through social media not only function as their customers, but can also serve as potential mentors, business partners and friends, thus enhancing their support network. As mentioned, Indonesia is also known as a social media hub, with approximately 61 million people subscribing to at least one social media account. Consequently, Indonesia is a large target market for the business of social media.

According to one of the respondents from Jakarta who has been selling Indonesian traditional food online for almost ten years, many of her customers come from Australia or European countries. These customers do not actually order for themselves, but instead order the food to be delivered to their relatives in Jakarta. At the current time, she reports that she regularly caters for government functions while also serving individual customers. She states:

My customers come from many countries, not only from Jakarta or other parts of Indonesia. I think it is because they are actually interested in tasting traditional Indonesian foods after looking at the photos on my page, but unfortunately they cannot do that [in their country]. So, they order for their relatives who live in Indonesia.

Another respondent from Surabaya, the capital city of the Eastern Java province and the second largest city in Indonesia, said that the reason she stopped working was to take care of her only son. Despite receiving much criticism from family members, she felt that it was a right decision. She currently sells home-baked cakes and cookies to customers in Surabaya and its surrounding area, which has a population of approximately 3 million people.

I decided to leave my job, and my parents were really angry. Even more so when they found out that I was selling cakes. Then I shared this with my friends and I joined an online community. They were the ones that motivated and encouraged me to pick myself up and to show everyone that, even though this career is not based on what we learnt at school, we can still 'make it.' My husband also supported me all the way, and thank God, everything was provided for us.

Although there is still scepticism, and even resistance, to the idea of social media entrepreneurship, the advantages undoubtedly provide some women with opportunities that would not exist without the Internet. Social media entrepreneurship allows these women to reach out to larger audiences even if they have limited social capital.

# **Unequal Distribution of Products and Customers' Lack of Time**

Economic development in Indonesia is not equally distributed throughout the country. As a result, it is difficult to find some products in less urban areas of Indonesia, such as Kalimantan, Aceh and Papua. For that reason, there is a high demand for products sold by social media entrepreneurs in these parts of Indonesia. Moreover, many customers who live in urban areas have a working schedule that does not allow them to the time to shop. Consequently, they prefer to shop online, which can be done outside of standard working hours or indeed at any time that is convenient.

Aceh is one province that is particularly affected by unequal development. A respondent from Medan states:

My husband works in Aceh. There are very few stores in Aceh that sell popular products such as Happy Call [a frying pan brand from Korea that is very popular in Indonesia] and the price is usually very high. So, when I sell this product at a similar price to what you pay in Jakarta, many customers are interested in buying.

This respondent from Medan cleverly saw an opportunity to sell popular products in Aceh. She reported that apart from household appliances, she often sells makeup and women's fashion items. As Aceh is located in the Northern part of Sumatra Island, it is often difficult for consumers there to find products that are readily available in Jakarta. Moreover, if they are on sale, the price is usually substantially higher.

However, sales are not limited to provinces that are economically isolated. Buyers also come from the larger cities, such as Jakarta, where the convenience of making purchases online fuels many social media businesses. Another respondent in Jakarta says:

Actually, many people sell similar products in ITC [a large shopping mall in Jakarta]. However, our price is more competitive and our products are more varied. Moreover, the traffic jam is getting worse. Many people are too lazy to go out of their houses. Hence, they prefer to shop online.

This quotation reflects the challenges faced by today's customers. As traffic in big cities such as Jakarta means that residents are often stuck for hours on a daily basis, particularly in the city centre, many customers have switched to online shopping. The situation is therefore one of the supporting factors that accounts for the popularity of online shopping in Indonesian big cities.

### **Confidence and Satisfaction**

The last factor that characterises social media entrepreneurship in Indonesia is related to self-actualization. Social media businesses allow women to gain a degree of financial independence by having their own money. This has the effect of raising their self-esteem, giving them the self-confidence to deal with future financial transactions as well as the financial freedom to effectively carry out other duties. Most respondents reported that they can now use this money to spend on whatever they like, such as on children toys and recreational activities as well as to buy things for themselves. One respondent from

Surabaya states, 'Of course I am proud, because I am a housewife but earn my own money and I don't depend on my husband.'

Lastly, these women also reported that they did not consider their business activities to be a burden, as they receive support from family members (mainly their husband and children) and they feel fully able to work and take care of their families at the same time. Consequently, this business option gives them satisfaction and makes them more motivated to contribute to their family's financial capacity. A respondent from Makassar says:

At first, my in-laws were unhappy with me when I decided to quit my job. But I love my children so much. Then I proved that my business could generate income. Afterwards, other family members started to open online business after seeing my success.

As discussed throughout this article, many women in Indonesia tend to quit their jobs after they get married and have children. This decision can be made by themselves or by other family members, such as their husband and parents. This tendency is growing due to lifestyle changes occurring in many Indonesian big cities. Previously, most working mothers trusted their family members (parents and inlaws) or nannies to take care of their young children. However, many young families now live further away from their parents. Moreover, it is also becoming more difficult to find trustworthy nannies. As a result, staying at home is considered to be the best solution.

#### Conclusion

In conclusion, the research findings demonstrate that online business has great potential to empower women by assisting them to become entrepreneurs. In addition, social media entrepreneurship can be seen as a solution to the dilemma faced by women in managing and balancing their careers and family lives. Ultimately, social media entrepreneurship is a beneficial provision for women in Indonesia due to its unique characteristics that include mobility and flexibility, social capital gained through social media interactions, the unequal distribution of products in Indonesian cities, the lack of time on the part of customers to visit physical shops and the confidence and satisfaction experienced by women as a result of this enterprise.

### **Works Cited**

Abud, M. (2012), 'Indonesia: A New Digital Nation?' Internews, www.internews.org/sites/default/files/resources/Internews\_Indonesia\_DigitalNation\_2012-07.pdf. Viewed on 1 Oct. 2012.

Antara News (13 Oct. 2012), 'Indonesia butuh 4,76 juta wirausahawan,'

www.antaranews.com/berita/338483/indonesia-butuh-476-jutawirausahawan. Viewed on 21 Oct. 2012.

Ardieansyah et al. (2011), 'The Imperative of Training for Women Economic Empowerment – Statistical Evidence from Indonesia,' World Applied Sciences, vol. 13 (Special Issue of Human Dimensions of Development), pp. 39-45.

Audretsch, D.B., Carree, M.A. & Thurik, A.R. (Sep. 2002), 'Does Entrepreneurship Reduce Unemployment?' Tinbergen Institute Discussion Paper, http://repub.eur.nl/res/pub/6857/2001-0743.pdf. Viewed on 21 Oct. 2012.

Bartik, T. J. (1994), 'Jobs, Productivity and Local Economics Development: What Implications Does Economic Research Have for the Role of Government,' National Tax Journal, vol. 47, no. 4, pp. 847-861.

Blanchflower, D.G., Levine, P.B. & Zimmerman, D.J. (Aug. 2002), 'Discrimination in the Small Business Credit Market' (paper presented at the OECD/CERF/CILN International Conference on Self-Employment), http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.199.1666&rep=rep1&type=pdf. Viewed on 21 Oct. 2012.

Badan Pusat Statistik (BPS) (7 May 2012), Labor Force Situation in Indonesia: February 2012, Official Report No. 33/05/Th. XV, Badan Pusat Statistik, Jakarta.

Chapman, B., Gregory, B. & Klugman, J. (24-26 Sep. 1998), 'Self-employment in Australia: Description, Analysis and Policy Issues' (paper presented at the OECD/CERF/CILN International Conference on Self-Employment, Burlington), www.ciln.mcmaster.ca/papers/seconf/australia.pdf. Viewed on 21 Oct. 2012.

Chiam, V. (2001), 'E-commerce Technologies and Networking Strategies for Asian Women Entrepreneurs,' in Proceedings of the 2<sup>nd</sup> OECD Conference on Women Entrepreneurs in SMEs: Realizing the Benefits of Globalisation and the Knowledge-based Economy, OECD, pp. 199-210.

Coleman, S. (2000), 'Access to Capital and Terms of Credit: A Comparison of Men- and Womenowned Small Business,' Journal of Small Business Management, vol. 38, no. 3, pp. 523-541.

Cowling, M. & Hayward, R. (2000), Out of Unemployment, Research Centre for Industrial Strategy, Birmingham.

Cromie, S. & Birley, S. (1992), 'Networking by Female Business Owners in Northern Ireland', Journal of Business Venturing, vol. 7, no. 3, pp. 237-251.

Cukier, J., Norris, J. & Wall, G. (1996), 'The Involvement of Women in the Tourism Industry of Bali, Indonesia,' Journal of Development Studies, vol. 33, no. 2, pp. 248-270.

Duncombe, R. et al. (2005), Supporting Women's ICT-based Enterprises: A Handbook for Agencies in Development, Department for International Development, London.

Ekpe, I. (5-7 Jul. 2010), 'Poverty Reduction through Entrepreneurship Development in Nigeria' (paper presented at the 2<sup>nd</sup> International Conference on Technology and Operations Management, Langkawi).

Fitriati, R. (2012), 'Entrepreneurship Education: Towards Models in Several Indonesia's University', in Proceedings of the 4<sup>th</sup> International Conference on Indonesian Studies: 'Unity, Diversity and Future,' Universitas Indonesia, Jakarta, pp. 681-698, https://icssis.files.wordpress.com/2012/05/09102012-54.pdf. Viewed on 21 Oct. 2012.

Fuad, N. & Bohari, A.M. (2011), 'Malay Women Entrepreneurs in the Small and Medium Sized ICT-related Business: A Study on Need for Achievement,' International Journal of Business and Social Science, vol. 2, no. 13, pp. 272-278.

Gates, B. (1 Dec. 2000), 'Shaping the Internet Age,' Internet Policy Institute, Washington, www.microsoft.com/en-us/news/exec/billg/writing/shapingtheinternet.aspx.

Griffin, E.A. (2009), A First Look at Communication Theory, 7<sup>th</sup> edn, McGraw-Hill, New York. International Labour Organization (ILO) (2002), Women and Men in the Informal Economy: A Statistical Picture, International Labour Office, Geneva.

www.ilo.org/dyn/infoecon/docs/441/F596332090/women%20and%20men%20stat%20picture.pdf. Viewed on 21 Oct. 2012.

International Telecommunication Union (ITU) (2011), ICT Statistics, Geneva, www.itu.int/ITU-D/ict. Viewed on 1 Oct. 2012.

Jones, B. (2010), 'Entrepreneurial Marketing and the Web 2.0 Interface,' Journal of Research in Marketing and Entrepreneurship, vol. 12, no. 2, pp. 143-152.

Jovanovic, B. (1982), 'Selection and the Evolution of Industry', Econometrica, vol. 50, no. 3, pp. 649–670.

Lim, M. (2003), 'The Internet, Social Networks and Reform in Indonesia,' in Contesting Media Power: Alternative Media in a Networked World, eds N. Couldry & J. Curran, Rowman & Littlefield, Lanham, pp. 273-288.

Lombard, K.V. (2001), 'Female Self-employment and Demand for Flexible, Non-standard Work,' Economic Inquiry, vol. 39, no. 2, pp. 214-237.

Macionis, J.J. (2010), Sociology, Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, NJ.

O'Reilly, T. (30 Sep. 2005), 'What Is Web 2.0: Design Patterns and Business Models for the Next Generation of Software,' O'Reilly, http://oreilly.com/web2/archive/what-is-web-20.html. Viewed on 12 Aug. 2011.

Ndubisi, N.O. & Kahraman, C. (2006), 'Malaysian Women Entrepreneurs: Understanding the ICT Usage Behaviour and Drivers,' Journal of Enterprise Information Management, vol. 18, no. 6, pp. 731-739.

Nguyen, M. (2005), 'Women Entrepreneurs: Turning Disadvantages into Advantages, PreFlight Ventures,' www.preflightventures.com. Viewed on 1 Oct. 2012.

Nugroho, Y. (2011), 'Citizen in @ction,' University of Manchester's Institute of Innovation Research & HIVOS Regional Office Southeast Asia, Manchester, Jakarta,

 $www.cdi.manchester.ac.uk/news and events/documents/Citizens in action-MIOIR-HIVOSF in al\_Report.pdf.\\$ 

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2003), Entrepreneurship and Local Economic Development: Programme and Policy Recommendations, Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development, Paris.

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2010), SMEs, Entrepreneurship and Innovation, Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development, Paris.

Orhan, M. (2005), 'Why Women Enter into Small Business Ownership,' in International Handbook of Women and Small Business Entrepreneurship, eds S.L. Fielden & M.J. Davidson, Edward Elgar, Cheltenham, UK, Northhampton, MA, pp. 3–16.

Pikiran Rakyat (6 Mar. 2012), 'Sarjana Mendominasi Pengangguran,' www.pikiran-rakyat.com/node/179568. Accessed on 21 Oct. 2012.

Purwanto, D. (3 Sep. 2012), 'Jadi PNS lebih diminati daripada wirausaha', Kompas.com, http://bola.kompas.com/read/2012/09/03/14203195/Jadi.PNS.Lebih.Diminati.daripada.Wirausaha. Viewed on 21 Oct. 2012.

Purwanto, P. (2 Sep. 2012), 'Sulit cetak wirausaha wanita,' SuaraMerdeka.com, www.suaramerdeka.com/v1/index.php/read/news/2012/09/02/128748/Sulit-Cetak-Wirausaha-Wanita. Viewed on 21 Oct. 2012.

Ramsden, P. et al. (2001), The Competitive Inner City, New Economics Foundation, London. Sahabat Wanita (25 Apr. 2012), 'Pertumbuhan perempuan pengusaha UMKM dapat membantu mengurangi angka kemiskinan dan pengangguran di Indonesia,' SahabatWanita.org, www.sahabatwanita.org/news\_activity/detil/berita\_\_\_kegiatan/ruang\_pers/pertumbuhan\_perempuan\_pengusaha\_umkm\_dapat\_membantu\_mengurangi\_angka\_kemiskinan\_dan\_pengangguran\_di\_indonesia. Viewed on 21 Oct. 2012.

Sholahuddin, M. (2008), 'Apa penyebab pengangguran dan sulitnya lapangan kerja dalam perekonomian kapitalis,' Jurnal Ekonomi, vol. 7, no. 23, www.jurnal-ekonomi.org/apa-penyebab-pengangguran-dan-sulitnya-lapangan-kerja-dalam-perekonomian-kapitalis. Viewed on 27 May 2011.

Tribun Jogja (30 Jul. 2012), 'Ini lima keuntungan jadi wanita wirausaha,' http://jogja.tribunnews.com. Viewed on 21 Oct. 2012.

Van der Merwe, S.P. & Lebakeng, M. (25-26 Aug. 2010), 'An Empirical Investigation of Women Entrepreneurship in Lesotho' (paper presented at the African International Business and Management Conference, Nairobi, Kenya).

Williams, D. (24-26 Sep. 1998), 'Consequences of Self-Employment for Women and Men in the United States: Preliminary Results' (paper presented at the OECD/CERF/CILN International Conference on Self-Employment, Burlington, Canada), http://cerforum.org/conferences/199809/papers/us.pdf. Viewed on 21 Oct. 2012.