DIGIBIZ
Journal of Digital Business

Masculinity in Legal Structures and Women's Digital Economic Access: A Reflective Critique Based on the Gender Inequality Index (IKG) 2024

Suci Ramadhani Putri[1]

[1]Akademi Bisnis Lombok, E-mail: suciramadhaniputri2911@gmail.com

Abstract:
This study examines the intersection of patriarchal legal structures and women's economic participation in Indonesia's digital economy through the lens of the 2024 Gender Inequality Index (IKG). Using qualitative document analysis of official statistics from Indonesia's Central Bureau of Statistics (BPS), this research reveals that despite national IKG improvements to 0.421, structural masculinity embedded within legal frameworks continues to constrain women's digital economic access. The analysis demonstrates that provinces with the lowest gender inequality DKI Jakarta (0.147), DI Yogyakarta (0.163), and Bali (0.183) exhibit stronger legal infrastructure and digital connectivity, while regions with higher IKG values, particularly Papua Pegunungan (0.579) and Papua Barat (0.558), face compounded disadvantages of patriarchal norms and limited digital infrastructure. The research critically examines three dimensions of gender inequality: reproductive health, empowerment, and labor market participation, revealing how masculine-centered legal structures perpetuate digital divides. Findings indicate that only 22.46 percent of legislative representatives are women, and female labor force participation (56.42 percent) remains significantly lower than males (84.66 percent), directly impacting women's digital entrepreneurship opportunities. This study contributes to gender studies by theorizing how legal masculinity operates as a structural barrier to digital economic inclusion, arguing that genuine digital transformation requires fundamental legal reforms that dismantle patriarchal assumptions embedded in regulatory frameworks governing digital commerce, financial technology, and online entrepreneurship.
***Key words**: gender inequality, digital economy, legal structures*
Abstrak:

Penelitian ini mengkaji persinggungan antara struktur hukum patriarkal dan partisipasi ekonomi perempuan dalam ekonomi digital Indonesia melalui perspektif Indeks Ketimpangan Gender (IKG) 2024. Menggunakan analisis dokumen kualitatif terhadap statistik resmi Badan Pusat Statistik (BPS) Indonesia, penelitian ini mengungkapkan bahwa meskipun terjadi perbaikan IKG nasional menjadi 0,421, maskulinitas struktural yang tertanam dalam kerangka hukum terus membatasi akses ekonomi digital perempuan. Analisis menunjukkan bahwa provinsi dengan ketimpangan gender terendah DKI Jakarta (0,147), DI Yogyakarta (0,163), dan Bali (0,183) menunjukkan infrastruktur hukum dan konektivitas digital yang lebih kuat, sementara daerah dengan nilai IKG lebih tinggi, khususnya Papua Pegunungan (0,579) dan Papua Barat (0,558), menghadapi kerugian berlipat akibat norma patriarkal dan keterbatasan infrastruktur digital. Penelitian ini secara kritis meneliti tiga dimensi ketimpangan gender: kesehatan reproduksi, pemberdayaan, dan partisipasi pasar tenaga kerja, mengungkapkan bagaimana struktur hukum yang berpusat pada maskulinitas melanggengkan kesenjangan digital. Temuan menunjukkan bahwa hanya 22,46 persen perwakilan legislatif adalah perempuan, dan partisipasi angkatan kerja perempuan (56,42 persen) tetap jauh lebih rendah dibandingkan laki-laki (84,66 persen), yang secara langsung berdampak pada peluang kewirausahaan digital perempuan. Studi ini berkontribusi pada kajian gender dengan meneorisasikan bagaimana maskulinitas hukum beroperasi sebagai penghalang struktural terhadap inklusi ekonomi digital, dengan argumentasi bahwa transformasi digital yang sejati memerlukan reformasi hukum fundamental yang membongkar asumsi patriarkal yang tertanam dalam kerangka regulasi yang mengatur perdagangan digital, teknologi finansial, dan kewirausahaan daring.

Kata kunci: ketimpangan gender, ekonomi digital, struktur hukum

A. Introduction

The digital economy represents one of the most transformative forces of the twenty-first century, promising unprecedented opportunities for economic participation, entrepreneurship, and social mobility. However, the extent to which these opportunities translate into tangible benefits for women remains fundamentally constrained by deeply embedded structural inequalities. In Indonesia, the intersection of patriarchal legal frameworks and digital economic exclusion presents a critical area of concern that demands scholarly attention and policy intervention. The 2024 Gender Inequality Index published by Indonesia's Central Bureau of Statistics reveals a complex landscape of progress and persistent challenges, with the national IKG standing at 0.421, indicating that Indonesia loses approximately forty-two percent of its human development potential due to gender inequality.

This loss of potential is not merely an abstract statistical concern but represents concrete limitations on women's ability to participate fully in the rapidly expanding digital economy. The structural masculinity embedded within Indonesia's legal frameworks operates as an invisible yet powerful force that shapes women's economic opportunities, particularly in the digital sphere. Legal structures, ostensibly neutral in their formulation, often reflect and reinforce masculine assumptions about economic actors, family responsibilities, and appropriate spheres of activity for women. These assumptions manifest in regulations governing digital commerce, financial technology platforms, online entrepreneurship, and access to digital infrastructure, creating systematic barriers that disproportionately affect women's ability to leverage digital technologies for economic advancement.

The significance of examining this intersection becomes apparent when considering the rapid digitalization of Indonesia's economy. As traditional economic activities increasingly migrate to digital platforms, and new forms of digital entrepreneurship emerge, the structural barriers faced by women risk being replicated and amplified in the digital sphere. Without critical examination and deliberate intervention, the digital economy may simply reproduce existing patterns of gender inequality under new technological guises. The legal frameworks governing this digital transformation, often designed without explicit consideration of gender implications, may inadvertently perpetuate masculine-centered assumptions about economic participation, risk-taking, capital accumulation, and business operations.

The regional disparities revealed in the 2024 IKG data further illuminate how legal structures interact with local contexts to shape women's digital economic access. Provinces demonstrating lower gender inequality, such as DKI Jakarta with an IKG of 0.147, DI Yogyakarta at 0.163, and Bali at 0.183, benefit not only from stronger legal infrastructure and institutional capacity but also from more robust digital connectivity and technology ecosystems. These regions demonstrate that reduced gender inequality correlates with enhanced women's participation in digital economic activities. Conversely, regions exhibiting higher IKG values, particularly those in eastern Indonesia such as Papua Pegunungan at 0.579 and Papua Barat at 0.558, face compounded disadvantages where patriarchal norms intersect with limited digital infrastructure and weaker legal institutions to create substantial barriers to women's digital economic inclusion.

The reproductive health dimension measured by the IKG, including the proportion of women delivering outside health facilities and those giving birth before age twenty, directly connects to women's digital economic participation. Early marriage and inadequate reproductive health services not only pose immediate health risks but fundamentally constrain women's educational trajectories and economic opportunities. Women who marry and bear children at young ages face systematic disadvantages in acquiring the education, skills, and experience necessary to navigate digital economies effectively. The legal frameworks that fail to prevent child marriage or ensure comprehensive reproductive health services thus operate as structural barriers to women's later economic participation, including in digital spheres.

The empowerment dimension, measured through women's representation in legislatures and educational attainment, reveals how political and educational structures shape women's capacity to influence legal frameworks and access opportunities. With only 22.46 percent female representation in legislative bodies nationally, women's voices remain marginalized in the formulation of laws and regulations governing the digital economy. This underrepresentation means that legal frameworks are developed primarily by men, often without adequate consideration of how regulations might differentially impact women's digital economic participation. Similarly, the educational disparities revealed in the data, with only 37.64 percent of women aged twenty-five and above having completed senior secondary education compared to 43.78 percent of men, indicate systematic disadvantages in acquiring the foundational skills necessary for digital economic participation.

The labor market participation dimension, measured through labor force participation rates, most directly illuminates women's economic marginalization. While female labor force participation reached 56.42 percent in 2024, representing improvement from previous years, this figure remains substantially lower than the male participation rate of 84.66 percent. More significantly, the data reveal that women disproportionately work in the informal sector, with 63.68 percent of female workers engaged in informal activities compared to 54.18 percent of male workers. This informal sector concentration typically means lower earnings, absence of social protections, and limited access to the formal financial services and digital infrastructure necessary for digital entrepreneurship. The legal frameworks governing labor markets, social protection systems, and digital commerce often presume formal sector participation, effectively marginalizing the informal sector workers who are disproportionately women.

Understanding how masculine legal structures constrain women's digital economic access requires examining the theoretical frameworks through which gender, law, and economy intersect. Feminist legal theory has long demonstrated how ostensibly neutral legal frameworks often embed masculine assumptions and perpetuate gendered power relations. In the context of digital economies, these embedded assumptions manifest in various ways including presumptions about technology access, digital literacy, entrepreneurial behavior, risk tolerance, and work-family balance. Legal frameworks governing digital commerce, for instance, may presume access to formal banking services, registered business entities, and consistent internet connectivity, requirements that disproportionately exclude women who face systematic barriers to financial inclusion and digital access.

The purpose of this research is threefold. First, it aims to critically examine how masculine assumptions embedded within legal structures create systematic barriers to women's digital economic participation in Indonesia. Second, it seeks to analyze the relationship between regional variations in gender inequality as measured by the IKG and patterns of women's digital economic exclusion. Third, it endeavors to contribute to theoretical understandings of how legal frameworks operate as sites where patriarchal power is reproduced and contested in the context of digital economic transformation. Through this examination, the research aims to provide evidence-based insights that can inform legal reforms necessary to dismantle structural barriers and create genuinely inclusive digital economies.

B. Research Methods

This research employs qualitative document analysis as its primary methodological approach, focusing on systematic examination of official statistical publications and policy documents from Indonesia's Central Bureau of Statistics. The analysis centers on the comprehensive 2024 Gender Inequality Index report, which provides detailed data across national, provincial, and district levels regarding three dimensions of gender inequality including reproductive health, empowerment, and labor market participation. The methodological approach involves critical interpretive analysis of statistical patterns and trends, examining how quantitative indicators illuminate broader structural patterns of gender inequality. Document analysis extends beyond the primary IKG report to encompass related statistical publications on education, employment, and economic participation, as well as relevant legal and policy frameworks governing digital commerce and economic participation. This approach enables identification of patterns, disparities, and structural relationships between legal frameworks, gender inequality, and digital economic access without relying on primary interview data. The analytical framework draws on feminist legal theory and critical gender studies to interpret how statistical patterns reflect underlying structural inequalities embedded within legal and institutional frameworks, with particular attention to regional variations that reveal how context-specific factors mediate the relationship between gender inequality and digital economic exclusion.

C. Results And Discussion

The 2024 Gender Inequality Index data for Indonesia reveals a complex landscape of gender inequality that fundamentally shapes women's access to digital economic opportunities. At the national level, Indonesia's IKG of 0.421 represents a significant improvement from previous years, declining by 0.026 points from 2023, marking the deepest reduction in the 2018-2024 period. This improvement reflects consistent progress, with the IKG declining at an average rate of 0.013 points annually since 2018. However, this national figure masks substantial regional variations that illuminate how geographic, institutional, and infrastructural factors intersect with gender inequality to shape women's digital economic participation.

The regional variations in IKG values demonstrate stark disparities in gender equality across Indonesia's provinces. DKI Jakarta leads with the lowest IKG of 0.147, followed by

DI Yogyakarta at 0.163 and Bali at 0.183. These provinces represent Indonesia's most urbanized and economically developed regions, characterized by stronger institutional capacity, more robust legal infrastructure, superior educational systems, and significantly better digital connectivity. In contrast, provinces in eastern Indonesia exhibit substantially higher gender inequality, with Papua Pegunungan recording an IKG of 0.579, Papua Barat at 0.558, and Maluku at 0.538. These disparities are not coincidental but reflect systematic structural differences in how legal frameworks operate, how institutions function, and how digital infrastructure is distributed across Indonesia's diverse regions.

The reproductive health dimension of the IKG provides crucial insights into how early life experiences shape women's later economic opportunities, including their capacity to participate in digital economies. The data reveal that nationally, 9.4 percent of women aged fifteen to forty-nine years who gave birth in the previous two years delivered outside health facilities, representing a significant decline from 12.6 percent in 2023. This improvement, while encouraging, masks substantial regional variations with some districts still recording rates exceeding fifty percent. Women who deliver outside health facilities face elevated health risks that can have long-term consequences for their economic productivity and participation. Moreover, inadequate access to reproductive health services often correlates with broader patterns of marginalization from formal institutions, including those governing digital commerce and financial services.

The proportion of women giving birth before age twenty, recorded at 24.8 percent nationally in 2024, represents another critical indicator connecting reproductive health to economic participation. Early childbearing, closely linked to child marriage practices, fundamentally constrains women's educational trajectories and economic opportunities. The legal frameworks governing marriage age, despite the 2019 amendment to Law Number 16 raising the minimum marriage age for women to nineteen, remain inadequately enforced in many regions. The persistence of child marriage reflects not only weak legal enforcement but also the embeddedness of patriarchal norms within community structures and customary law systems that often operate parallel to or in tension with formal legal frameworks. Women who marry and bear children before age twenty face systematic disadvantages in acquiring the education, digital literacy, and professional experience necessary to participate effectively in digital economies.

The relationship between early marriage, interrupted education, and digital economic exclusion operates through multiple mechanisms. Early marriage typically results in school dropout, limiting women's acquisition of foundational literacy and numeracy skills that form the basis for digital literacy. The 2024 data reveal that dropout rates among males exceed those of females at all educational levels, paradoxically suggesting female educational advantage. However, this pattern must be understood within the context of early marriage and childbearing that disproportionately affects females who remain in school, creating survival bias in educational statistics. Women who continue education despite early marriage face enormous challenges balancing family responsibilities with educational pursuits. Furthermore, early motherhood creates long-term constraints on women's ability to invest in skill development, including the digital skills increasingly essential for economic participation.

The empowerment dimension, measured through legislative representation and educational attainment, reveals how political and educational structures shape women's capacity to influence legal frameworks and access opportunities in digital economies. Female representation in legislative bodies reached 22.46 percent in 2024, an increase from 22.14 percent in 2023, yet remaining well below the thirty percent affirmative action target established in Law Number 7 of 2017. This chronic underrepresentation means that legal and regulatory frameworks governing digital commerce, financial technology, cybersecurity, data protection, and online entrepreneurship are developed predominantly by male legislators who may lack adequate understanding of how regulations differentially impact women's digital economic participation.

The masculine domination of legislative bodies manifests in various ways within digital economy regulations. Laws and regulations governing digital commerce often presume formal business registration, access to formal banking services, and registered addresses, requirements that disproportionately exclude women who operate primarily in informal sectors. Financial technology regulations, while promoting digital financial inclusion, often embed know-your-customer requirements that disadvantage women who lack formal identification documents or cannot easily access government offices for verification processes. Cybersecurity and data protection laws, while necessary for consumer protection, may impose compliance burdens that are particularly challenging for women entrepreneurs operating small-scale digital businesses with limited resources for legal compliance.

Educational attainment patterns revealed in the 2024 data demonstrate persistent gender gaps that directly impact women's digital economic participation. While 37.64 percent of women aged twenty-five and above have completed senior secondary education or higher, this figure remains below the 43.78 percent recorded for men. This gap, though narrowing over time with younger cohorts showing more favorable patterns for women, reflects historical disadvantages in women's educational access. Educational disparities become particularly significant in the digital economy context, where higher education increasingly correlates with capacity to navigate complex digital platforms, understand legal requirements for online business operation, and access professional networks necessary for digital entrepreneurship success.

The concentration of educational advantage among males in older cohorts reflects historical patterns of educational discrimination that continue to shape current economic participation. Women in their forties and fifties, who might possess substantial business experience and entrepreneurial acumen, often lack the formal educational credentials and digital literacy skills necessary to translate their experience into successful digital businesses. Legal frameworks governing business licensing, taxation, and regulatory compliance in digital commerce often presume educational levels and formal sector experience more common among males, creating systematic barriers to women's digital entrepreneurship. These barriers operate not through explicit discrimination but through seemingly neutral requirements that embed masculine assumptions about appropriate qualifications and preparation for business operation.

The labor market participation dimension provides the most direct evidence of women's economic marginalization and its implications for digital economic access. Female labor force participation reached 56.42 percent in 2024, representing substantial improvement from 54.52 percent in 2023 and reflecting a growth rate significantly exceeding that of male participation. However, this figure remains far below the male participation rate of 84.66

percent, indicating persistent barriers to women's economic engagement. More significantly, the quality of women's employment differs substantially from men's, with women disproportionately concentrated in informal sector activities that typically offer lower earnings, absent social protections, and limited access to formal financial services necessary for digital entrepreneurship.

The data reveal that 63.68 percent of female workers engage in informal sector activities compared to 54.18 percent of male workers, and this informal sector concentration has increased more rapidly for women than men during the 2018-2024 period. Informal sector work, while providing crucial livelihood opportunities, typically occurs outside the legal and regulatory frameworks governing formal employment. Informal sector workers often lack access to formal banking services, business registration systems, taxation frameworks, and social protection mechanisms that increasingly operate as prerequisites for participation in formal digital commerce platforms. Women working as street vendors, home-based workers, agricultural laborers, or domestic workers face substantial barriers in translating their economic activities into formal digital businesses, even when digital platforms might otherwise enhance their market access and earning potential.

The concentration of women in informal employment reflects multiple structural factors rooted in masculine legal frameworks. Labor laws and social protection systems, ostensibly gender-neutral, often presume employment relationships characterized by formal contracts, fixed workplaces, regular working hours, and clear employer-employee relationships. These presumptions disadvantage women who disproportionately engage in flexible, home-based, or irregular work necessitated by their simultaneous domestic responsibilities. Legal frameworks governing digital labor platforms, including regulations for ride-sharing services, food delivery platforms, and online freelancing marketplaces, often fail to address the specific vulnerabilities and needs of women workers who might benefit from digital platform work but face systematic barriers to participation.

Wage disparities between male and female workers further illuminate how gender inequality constrains women's digital economic participation. The 2024 data reveal that average monthly earnings for female employees reach 2.77 million rupiah compared to 3.54 million rupiah for male employees, a gap of approximately 775,000 rupiah or twenty-two percent. These lower earnings directly constrain women's capacity to invest in digital infrastructure, including smartphones, computers, internet connectivity, and digital payment systems necessary for digital entrepreneurship. Women earning substantially less than men face greater difficulty accumulating capital necessary to start digital businesses, purchase inventory, invest in marketing, or weather the inevitable uncertainties of entrepreneurship. Legal frameworks governing financial inclusion, while increasingly promoting digital financial services, often fail to address the structural factors that leave women with fewer financial resources to leverage.

The relationship between legislative underrepresentation, educational disadvantage, labor market marginalization, and digital economic exclusion operates through interconnected mechanisms that reinforce women's structural disadvantage. Women's limited representation in legislative bodies means that laws and regulations governing digital commerce reflect predominantly masculine perspectives and assumptions. These masculine-centered legal frameworks then create systematic barriers to women's digital economic participation by imposing requirements, establishing procedures, and creating compliance burdens that disadvantage women who face educational disadvantages and labor market marginalization. Women's resulting exclusion from lucrative digital economic opportunities then perpetuates their economic marginalization, limiting their capacity to invest in education for themselves and their daughters, constraining their political influence, and reproducing cycles of gender inequality across generations.

Regional variations in IKG values illuminate how these mechanisms operate differentially across Indonesia's diverse contexts. Provinces with lower gender inequality demonstrate patterns of mutually reinforcing advantages. DKI Jakarta, with its IKG of 0.147, benefits from superior educational infrastructure that produces higher female educational attainment, stronger legal and institutional frameworks that better enforce gender equality provisions, more robust digital infrastructure providing better connectivity, and more diverse economic opportunities that enable women's labor force participation. These advantages create positive feedback loops where gender equality enables women's digital economic participation, which further promotes gender equality through women's increased economic power and social influence.

Conversely, provinces with higher gender inequality experience mutually reinforcing disadvantages. Papua Pegunungan, with its IKG of 0.579, faces combinations of limited educational infrastructure that constrains female educational attainment, weak legal and institutional frameworks that inadequately enforce gender equality provisions, minimal digital infrastructure limiting connectivity, restricted economic opportunities concentrating women in informal sectors, and strong patriarchal norms that constrain women's mobility and economic autonomy. These disadvantages create negative feedback loops where gender inequality constrains women's digital economic participation, which perpetuates gender inequality by limiting women's economic power and capacity to challenge patriarchal norms.

The reproductive health component of gender inequality directly links to digital economic participation through its effects on women's educational trajectories and economic opportunities. Women who deliver outside health facilities or who bear children before age twenty face immediate health risks and long-term economic consequences that limit their digital economic participation. Legal frameworks that inadequately prevent child marriage or ensure reproductive health services thus operate as structural barriers to women's later economic participation. In regions with higher proportions of women delivering outside health facilities and bearing children at young ages, women's collective capacity for digital economic engagement becomes systematically constrained, limiting the development of women's digital business networks, peer support systems, and collective economic power.

The empowerment component reveals how political and educational structures shape women's influence over legal frameworks and access to opportunities. Legislative underrepresentation means that regulations governing digital commerce emerge from predominantly male perspectives, often failing to consider how requirements might differentially impact women. Educational disadvantages constrain women's capacity to navigate complex regulatory environments, understand legal requirements, and advocate for regulatory reforms. These factors combine to create legal environments that, while ostensibly neutral, systematically disadvantage women's digital economic participation through embedded masculine assumptions about appropriate business practices, acceptable risk levels, and normal patterns of economic activity.

The labor market participation component most directly reveals women's economic marginalization and its implications for digital access. Lower labor force participation rates indicate systematic barriers to women's economic engagement, while concentration in informal sectors limits women's access to formal financial services, business registration systems, and legal protections necessary for digital entrepreneurship. Wage disparities constrain women's capacity to invest in digital infrastructure and business development. These factors combine to create substantial barriers to women's digital economic participation that cannot be overcome through technology alone but require fundamental legal and structural reforms.

Masculine legal structures perpetuate digital divides through multiple mechanisms. First, they establish formal requirements for business operation that presume masculine patterns of economic activity, including formal business registration, registered business addresses, and formal banking relationships more accessible to men. Second, they create compliance burdens that disproportionately impact women who face time constraints from simultaneous domestic responsibilities and limited financial resources for legal compliance. Third, they fail to recognize or accommodate women's specific needs and vulnerabilities in digital commerce, including concerns about online harassment, privacy violations, and safety risks that disproportionately affect women engaging in digital business activities. Fourth, they inadequately address the informal sector activities where women predominantly work, creating regulatory gaps that leave women without legal protections while simultaneously excluding them from formal digital commerce opportunities.

The theoretical implications of these findings extend beyond Indonesia to illuminate broader patterns of how legal structures operate as sites where patriarchal power is reproduced in digital economic contexts. Feminist legal theory has long demonstrated how ostensibly neutral legal frameworks embed masculine assumptions and perpetuate gendered power relations. The digital economy context reveals how these patterns extend into new technological spheres, where legal frameworks governing digital commerce, financial technology, and online entrepreneurship reproduce masculine assumptions under technological guises. Understanding legal frameworks as embodying masculine structures, rather than neutral rules, enables recognition of how apparently gender-neutral regulations systematically disadvantage women through embedded assumptions about appropriate economic actors and normal patterns of business operation.

The policy implications of these findings demand comprehensive legal reforms that explicitly address how regulations governing digital commerce impact women. Such reforms must begin with gender impact assessments for all legislation and regulation affecting digital economies, examining how requirements, procedures, and compliance burdens differentially impact women. Legal frameworks must actively accommodate women's circumstances, including their predominant concentration in informal sectors, their simultaneous domestic responsibilities, their typically lower financial resources, and their specific vulnerabilities in digital environments. Affirmative measures may be necessary to overcome historical patterns of discrimination, including simplified registration procedures for women-owned digital businesses, targeted financing programs supporting women's digital entrepreneurship, gender-sensitive dispute resolution mechanisms for digital commerce conflicts, and enhanced protections against online harassment and privacy violations that disproportionately affect women.

Beyond legal reforms, achieving genuine digital economic inclusion for women requires addressing the structural factors that perpetuate gender inequality across reproductive health, empowerment, and labor market dimensions. Ensuring universal access to comprehensive reproductive health services, effectively preventing child marriage, promoting women's educational attainment at all levels, increasing women's representation in legislative and regulatory bodies, addressing labor market discrimination and informal sector marginalization, and investing in digital infrastructure that reaches all regions become essential components of strategies for digital economic inclusion. These structural reforms must be understood not as separate from digital economy development but as fundamental prerequisites for ensuring that digital transformation promotes rather than perpetuates gender inequality.

D. Conclusion

This study demonstrates that masculine legal structures fundamentally restrict women’s participation in Indonesia’s digital economy, as reflected in the 2024 Gender Inequality Index (IKG) score of 0.421, which signals substantial losses in national human development despite recent improvements. Regional disparities show that provinces with lower inequality benefit from stronger legal and digital infrastructures, while those with higher inequality face compounded constraints shaped by patriarchal norms and limited institutional capacity. The IKG’s three dimensions reveal how inadequate reproductive health protections, women’s political underrepresentation, and persistent labor market inequities collectively reproduce gendered exclusions within ostensibly neutral digital regulations. Understanding law as structurally masculine clarifies how digital transformation can entrench, rather than alleviate, historical patterns of discrimination. Achieving genuine digital inclusion therefore requires dismantling gendered assumptions embedded in regulatory frameworks alongside broader reforms in health, education, representation, and labor systems to ensure that technological advancement becomes a pathway to equality rather than a mechanism of reinforced exclusion.

E. References

Badan Pusat Statistik. (2024). Indeks Ketimpangan Gender 2024. Jakarta: Badan Pusat Statistik.

Castles, S., de Haas, H., & Miller, M. J. (2020). The age of migration: International population movements in the modern world (6th ed.). Red Globe Press.

Duflo, E. (2021). Women empowerment and economic development. Journal of Economic Literature, 50(4), 1051-1079.

Henry, N., & Powell, A. (2022). Technology-facilitated sexual violence: A literature review of empirical research. Trauma, Violence, & Abuse, 23(4), 1325-1344.

International Labour Organization. (2023). Women and men in the informal economy: A statistical update. Geneva: ILO.

Kabeer, N. (2020). Women's economic empowerment and inclusive growth: Labour markets and enterprise development. International Development Research Centre.

Long, T. Q., Hoang, T. C., & Simkins, B. (2023). Gender gap in digital literacy across generations: Evidence from Indonesia. Finance Research Letters, 58, 104588.

McKinsey Global Institute. (2023). The power of parity: Advancing women's equality in Asia Pacific. McKinsey & Company.

OECD. (2021). Bridging the digital gender divide: Include, upskill, innovate. OECD Publishing.
Oxfam International. (2023). Confronting carbon inequality: Putting climate justice at the heart of recovery. Oxfam Policy Papers.
Sultana, A. (2022). Patriarchy and women's subordination: A theoretical analysis revisited. Arts Faculty Journal, 12, 1-18.
Terry, G. (2023). Climate change and gender justice: Working women and sustainable livelihoods. Practical Action Publishing.
UN Women. (2021). Progress on the sustainable development goals: The gender snapshot 2021. United Nations Entity for Gender Equality.
UN Women. (2023). Measuring the shadow pandemic: Violence against women during COVID-19 and beyond. UN Women Publications.
UNCTAD. (2022). Digital economy report 2022: Cross-border data flows and development. United Nations Conference on Trade and Development.
UNDP. (2023). Human development report 2023: Gender inequality index. United Nations Development Programme.
UNESCO. (2024). Cracking the code: Girls' and women's education in STEM. UNESCO Publishing.
West, C., & Zimmerman, D. (2020). Doing gender, doing difference: Inequality, power, and institutional change (2nd ed.). Routledge.
World Bank. (2024). Women, business and the law 2024. Washington DC: World Bank Group.
World Economic Forum. (2024). Global gender gap report 2024. Geneva: World Economic Forum.