



United Nations Development Programme
South East Asia HIV and Development Project

INDONESIAN OVERSEAS CONTRACT WORKERS' HIV KNOWLEDGE

A gap in information



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**INDONESIAN OVERSEAS CONTRACT WORKERS HIV KNOWLEDGE:
A gap in information**

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FOREWORD

International labour migration is probably the fastest growing movement between nations in the first decade of the twenty-first century. Indonesia has become one of the world's major sources of international labour over the last decade or so. Of all the types of international population movement, migrant labours are particular vulnerable to HIV if there are no systems to help them when they are abroad.

Recognising the need for more empirical knowledge and information to assist migrant workers, the UNDP South East Asia HIV and Development Project, in collaboration with the ILO Asia and Pacific Regional Office, decided to investigate the knowledge base of HIV/AIDS among Indonesian overseas contract workers and mechanisms if such knowledge and preparations were to be provided to them.

The survey reveals a major gap of information not only in terms of infectious diseases but also of a total lack of basic health care knowledge provided to both legal and illegal migrant workers. The implication of potential regional spread of HIV both at home and abroad is vast.

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The present paper is predominantly based on data derived from a survey undertaken for the International Labour Organisation's (ILO) Jakarta Office by the Centre for Population and Manpower Studies of the Indonesian Institute of Sciences (PPT-LIPI). This survey was directed toward establishing the information needs of overseas contract workers and a number of questions relating to HIV/AIDS. The input and support of Dr. Yulfita Raharjo, Director of PPT-LIPI and her staff especially Dr. Aswatini Roharto, Dra Haning Romdiati, Dra Mujiani and Dr. Sukobandijono in undertaking the survey and its analysis is gratefully acknowledged. The support of the ILO who funded the survey is also acknowledged as is the substantial scientific input into that project by Dr. Roger Bohning, ILO South-East Asia and the Pacific Multidisciplinary Advisory Team (SEAPAT) Manila. The support of Dr. Lee Nah Hsu, UNDP South East Asia HIV and Development Project, is also gratefully recognised.

INTRODUCTION

This paper reports on findings on the knowledge of HIV/AIDS held by overseas contract workers (OCWs) from Indonesia. It draws upon a study of recently returned migrant workers conducted in Indonesia in 1999. It is limited to the material drawn from this specific survey and does not attempt to review the total picture with respect to knowledge of HIV/AIDS among Indonesia's international migrants. It does need to be pointed out, however, that international population movements (both to and from Indonesia) have increased exponentially in the last two decades and this has implications for the spread of HIV/AIDS in the country. The present paper begins with a brief summary of recent trends in international labour migration in Indonesia to set the findings in context. The paper then outlines the methodology used in the survey reported here. This is necessary if the results of the survey are to be understood. It needs to be pointed out that the survey was primarily designed to assess the information requirements of intending OCWs in Indonesia by interviewing recent returnees. A question was attached to the questionnaire asking whether the respondents had knowledge of HIV/AIDS. The next section of the paper presents the findings of the survey relating to knowledge of HIV/AIDS among the respondents. There is then interpretation of these results.

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR MIGRATION IN INDONESIA

The sending of workers overseas to work as contract labourers for a fixed period of time has a long history in Indonesia extending back to colonial times (Hugo, 1980). However, in the burgeoning of global international labour migration in the 1970s and early 1980s (Castles and Miller, 1993) Indonesia was slower than other Asian labour surplus nations to enter the arena of labour export. This, however, has changed over the last two decades and now Indonesia ranks as one of the world's greatest emigration nations, although the bulk of the emigration occurring is on a temporary basis involving OCWs.

Indonesia, even before the onset of the economic crisis in 1997, was a quintessentially labour surplus nation with a high incidence of underemployment (exceeding 30%), low income (\$980 per annum in 1995 and substantially less since the onset of the crisis) and a rapidly growing workforce (2.4% per annum) among its 80 million workers (Hugo, 1995). Accordingly, it is not surprising that Indonesia became one of Southeast Asia's major emigration nations in the burgeoning of global

international population movements over the last two decades. However, the bulk of this movement out of Indonesia has not been of the traditional permanent settlement type.¹ Most has been of contract labour migrants who have worked temporarily at a number of destinations although eventual permanent settlement in those countries has been significant in the case of Malaysia. It is unfortunately not possible to provide an accurate picture of the scale of labour export from Indonesia because the statistics available only indicate a minor part of the totality of movement. The major source of such data is the Ministry of Manpower which monitors the movement of legal Overseas Contract Workers (OCWs) but has no information concerning the substantially larger numbers who either (1) leave the nation *legally* but do not register as OCWs with the Ministry of Labour, or (2) leave the nation without going through any official process.

Table 1 presents the official statistics relating to the deployment of Indonesian labour overseas and the increasing tempo of movement is apparent as is the dominance of the Middle East as the major destination and to a lesser extent, to neighbouring Malaysia and Singapore. Since most workers are on two years or more contracts the actual number of official OCWs overseas in any one year is substantially greater than the numbers deployed in an individual year. The increasing scale of the flow is evident in the table with the numbers being deployed during each national five-year plan more than doubling with each plan. The pattern of more workers being sent overseas each year is interrupted in two years by exceptional circumstances. The downturn in official migration in 1995-1996 is partly an artefact of the data since in 1994 the Minister of Manpower created a new government backed company, P.T. Bijak, which had several roles, among which was to compete with private recruiters to recruit workers directly and deploy them overseas (Hugo 1995, p. 295). The workers sent overseas by P.T. Bijak were not involved in the official Department of Labour data presented in Table 1 for 1994-1997 although they now are. To give an idea of the impact of this, the number of workers deployed by P.T. Bijak to Malaysia between October 1995 and September 1996 was 36,247 (Setiawati 1997, p. 91). This company also sent 9,000 Indonesian workers to South Korea and a slightly larger number to Taiwan around the same time. Similarly the figure of

¹ For example, the numbers in the main destination countries of permanent migration of Australia, Canada and the United States were 44,175 in 1996 (ABS 1996 Census), 7,610 in 1991 (Statistics Canada) and 64,376 in 1998 (US Census Bureau Current Population Survey, April 1998) respectively.

Table 1: Number of Indonesian Overseas Workers Processed by the Ministry of Manpower, 1969-2000

Year (Single Year)	Middle East		Malaysia/ Singapore		Other		Total	Percent Change Over Previous Year	Sex Ratio (Males/ 100 Females)
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%			
2000-2001*	9,588	25	23,602	63	4,520	12	37,710	n.a.	45
1999-2000	153,890	38	187,643	46	62,990	16	404,523	-2	44
1998-99	179,521	44	173,995	42	58,153	14	411,609	+75	28
1997-98	131,734	56	71,735	30	31,806	14	235,275	-55	20
1996-97	135,336	26	328,991	64	52,942	10	517,269	328	79**
1995-96	48,298	40	46,891	39	25,707	21	120,896	-31	48
1994-95	99,661	57	57,390	33	19,136	11	176,187	10	32
1993-94	102,357	64	38,453	24	19,185	12	159,995	-7	36
1992-93	96,772	56	62,535	36	12,850	7	172,157	15	54
1991-92	88,726	59	51,631	34	9,420	6	149,777	74	48
1990-91	41,810	48	38,688	45	5,766	7	86,264	3	73
1989-90	60,456	72	18,488	22	5,130	6	84,074	37	35
1988-89	50,123	82	6,614	11	4,682	8	61,419	1	29
1987-88	49,723	81	7,916	13	3,453	6	61,092	11	35
1986-87	45,405	66	20,349	30	2,606	4	68,360	23	61
1985-86	45,024	81	6,546	12	4,094	7	54,297	21	44
1984-85	35,577	77	6,034	13	4,403	10	46,014	57	79
1983-84	18,691	64	5,597	19	5,003	17	29,291	38	141
1982-83	9,595	45	7,801	37	3,756	18	21,152	18	
1981-82	11,484	65	1,550	9	4,570	26	17,604	11	
1980-81	11,231	70	564	4	4,391	27	16,186	56	
1979-80	7,651	74	720	7	2,007	19	10,378		
1977							3,675		

Five Year Planning Periods:		Target	Total Deployed
Repelita VII	1999-2003	2,800,000	
Repelita VI:	1994-99	1,250,000	1,461,236
Repelita V:	1989-94	500,000	652,272
Repelita IV:	1984-89	225,000	292,262
Repelita III:	1979-84	100,000	96,410
Repelita II:	1974-79	none set	17,042
Repelita I:	1969-74	none set	5,624

* 1 April 2000 only

** Year in which 300,000+ Malaysian labour migrants were regularised (194,343 males and 127,413 females).

Sources: Suyono, 1981; Singhanetra-Renard, 1986:52; Pusat Penelitian Kependudukan, Universitas Gadjah Mada, 1986:2; AKAN Offices, Bandung and Jakarta; AKAN (Antar Kerja Antar Negara); Departemen Tenaga Kerja, Republic of Indonesia, 1998:14

517,269 migrant workers being deployed in 1996-97 needs to be seen as anomalous since it includes more than 300,000 Indonesian workers in Malaysia who came forward in an amnesty for undocumented workers (Kassim, 2000). What is apparent in Table 1 is the substantial increase in the number of overseas contract workers deployed in Indonesia following the onset of the Economic Crisis in 1997. The crisis

has undoubtedly increased the pressure to engage in international labour migration so that the period between the onset of the crisis and the end of 1999 saw more workers deployed officially than was the case in all of the first five five-year plans.

It is clear that the crisis has led to increased official international labour migration out of Indonesia. A field study in Indramayu, West Java (Romdiati, Handayani and Rahayu 1998, 23) found that the crisis in this area has seen many locals use international labour migration as a coping strategy. Women are being sent to Saudi Arabia to work as domestic servants. One feature of the crisis more generally in Indonesia is the increasing participation of women in the workforce to expand the household's portfolio of income options (ILO 1999). It seems that part of this strategy may have involved more women being involved in international labour migration.

One of the features of this official movement is the dominance of women, mostly destined to be employed as domestic workers. For example among workers deployed over the Sixth Five-Year Plan period (1994-1999) 2,042,206 women were sent abroad compared with 880,266 males. Moreover, it would seem that during the Economic Crisis period the female proportion among the migrant workers has increased with the sex ratio reaching record low levels in the 1997-99 period (Table 1). The dominance of women in the movement has significant implications for programs relating to providing information to potential migrant workers.

Table 2 depicts the destinations of these workers in the Sixth Five-Year Plan and indicates the dominance of Saudi Arabia, Malaysia and Singapore. Over time Asian destinations have become more important destinations for OCWs from Indonesia although 1998-99 was a record year for the numbers of Indonesians sent to Saudi Arabia. This has significant implications for providing information since there are relatively small number of destination countries compared to some other major OCW sending countries such as the Philippines. Information programs detailing destination conditions can be restricted to a small number of countries.

Table 2: Indonesia: Destinations of Overseas Workers in the Sixth Five-Year Plan Period, 1994-99

Source: DEPNAKER

Destination	Number	Percent	Sex Ratio
ASIA PACIFIC	848,543	58.1	79.9
Malaysia	556,575	38.1	96.1
Singapore	146,427	10.0	22.9
Taiwan	44,851	3.1	152.9
South Korea	37,288	2.6	524.7
Hong Kong	35,140	2.4	1.7
Brunei	14,040	1.0	28.3
Japan	12,274	0.8	4620.7
Other Asia	1,943	0.1	16,091.7
AMERICA	12,833	0.9	40,003.1
EUROPE	5,204	0.4	7,667.1
MIDDLE EAST/AFRICA	594,656	40.6	8.3
Saudi Arabia	550,218	37.7	8.5
Arab Emirates	41,768	2.9	2.6
Other Middle East/Africa	2,670	0.2	74.2
TOTAL	1,461,236	100.0	43.1

The 'official' OCW movement briefly referred to above, however, is only part of the international labour migration out of Indonesia. Undocumented movement is more substantial in number than the documented movement but considerations of international labour migration in Indonesia almost totally focus on the latter. It is crucial in any consideration of providing information to potential migrant workers that groups who are considered to be potential undocumented workers be included as well as those who go through official channels.

Knowledge of undocumented migration in Indonesia is much more limited than that of documented movement but it is likely that it is significantly greater in scale than the documented movement. Undocumented migration out of Indonesia takes a number of forms including the following:

- (1) Migrants who clandestinely enter a country and do not pass through official border checkpoints. In Indonesia, for example, this includes large numbers who cross the Malacca Straits from Riau to the coasts of Johore in Malaysia.
- (2) Those who enter a country legally but overstay their visa. This applies to many who enter Sabah from East Kalimantan.
- (3) Those who enter a country under a non-working visa (such as an *umroh* or *haj* visa to enter Saudi Arabia or a visiting pass to visit Sabah) but instead work in the destination country.

Figure 1: Major Routes of Undocumented Migration From Indonesia to Malaysia



Source: Hugo, 1998

All three types of undocumented movement are significant in Indonesia. Although the migration occurs to many destinations, that to Malaysia and, to a much lesser extent, Singapore is especially substantial. This movement differs in many respects from the legal movement, being male dominated (although female involvement is increasing) and predominantly focused on Malaysia although illegal migration to other destinations such as Singapore, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Saudi Arabia and perhaps Australia is on the increase (*Jakarta Post*, 18 April 1995). Figure 1 shows that the undocumented movement of workers to Malaysia occurs along two major route systems:

- (1) From East Java, Lombok and North Sumatra through East Sumatra (especially Riau) to Peninsular Malaysia (especially Johore).
- (2) From Flores, and South Sulawesi to East Kalimantan and then in to East Malaysia, especially Sabah.

Illegal entry to Malaysia from neighbouring Indonesia is neither difficult nor excessively expensive and most Indonesians are ethnically similar to the Malay majority in Malaysia. Much of the movement involves syndicates and complex webs

of middleman, recruiters and other intermediaries (Spaan, 1994). Estimates of the numbers involved in the movement vary considerably. An amnesty in Peninsular Malaysia in 1993 saw some half a million Indonesian illegal migrants come forward (*Kompas*, 19 June 1995) of whom 180,000 worked in construction, 170,000 on plantations, 40,000 in manufacturing, 40,000 in services, 60,000 in hotels and 50,000 as household domestics. However, since coming forward meant that employers had to pay migrant workers award wages and conditions it is clear that not all illegal workers were detected in the amnesty. At the 1997 Indonesian elections some 1.4 million Indonesians residing in Malaysia voted (Kassim, 1997) so the Malaysian government Immigration Department in 1997 put the number of Indonesian workers resident in Indonesia at 1.9 million - a figure far in excess of most other estimates (see e.g. Hugo 1995a). In October 1998 the Malaysian government estimated that there were 200,000 wives and children of overseas contract workers in the country (*Asian Migration News*, 31 October 1998). Table 3 presents estimates from a range of sources and consultations with officials in the Indonesian Department of Labour of the stock of Indonesians working overseas in 1999. This represented over 3% of the Indonesian labour force. It is clear then that international labour migration is now having a discernible impact on Indonesia's labour force. The significance of the movement to Malaysia is evident in the fact that it was reported that in 1993 (*Kompas*, 23 September) 23 percent of Malaysia's workforce were Indonesian. The migration to Malaysia is dominated by males and is associated with the low paid, low status types of jobs which are eschewed by Malaysians creating a segmented labour market (Hugo, 1995).

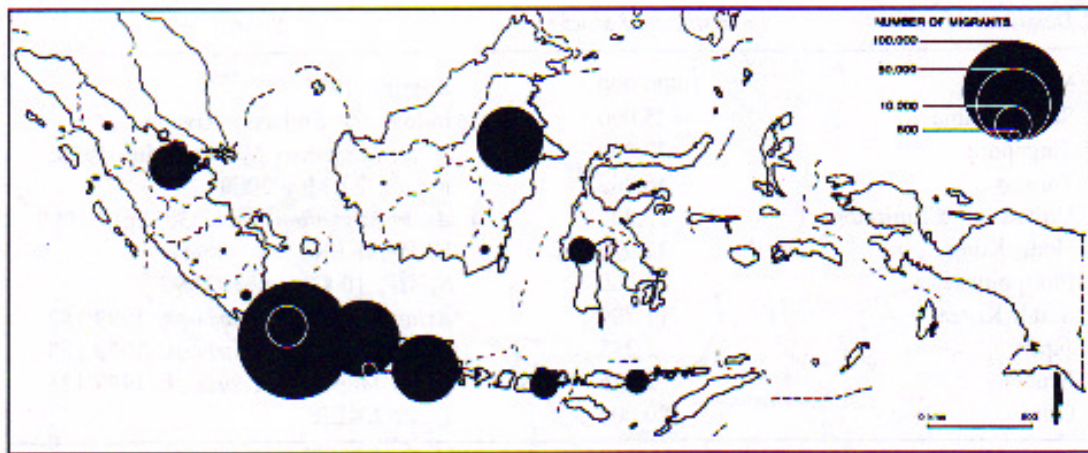
Table 3: Indonesia: Estimated Stocks of Overseas Contract Workers Around 2000

Destination	Estimated Stocks	Source
Saudi Arabia	425,000	Indonesian Embassy Riyadh
United Arab Emirates	35,000	<i>Asian Migration News</i> , 30 April 1999
Malaysia	1,900,000	Kassim, 1997
Hong Kong	32,000	DEPNAKER
Singapore	70,000	<i>Asian Migration News</i> , 5 May 1999
Taiwan	46,762	<i>Kyodo</i> , 24 May 2000
South Korea	11,700	<i>Asian Migration Yearbook</i> , 1999:182
Japan	3,245	<i>Asian Migration Yearbook</i> , 1999:128
Philippines	26,000	<i>SCMP</i> , 10 December 1998
Brunei	2,426	<i>Asian Migration Yearbook</i> , 1999:125
Other	20,000	DEPNAKER
Total	2,572,133	

In considering a program of information for potential and actual OCWs it is necessary to point out that in a large and diverse nation such as Indonesia migrant workers are not a random representative cross section of Indonesian workers. They are selectively drawn from particular groups and areas. This is predominantly due to the significance of chain migration and the fact that once a migration network is established it facilitates and encourages further movement along that network linking regions in Indonesia with regions in the destination country. As a result the effects of international labour migration are concentrated in particular regions of the country and as a result are amplified in those areas. Whereas the impact of international labour migration at the national level is limited in Indonesia, it is of major significance in some regions and many communities. Indeed, migrants tend not only to come from particular parts of Indonesia but also from particular villages within those parts. Moreover, this means that information programs can be targeted to particular parts of the country.

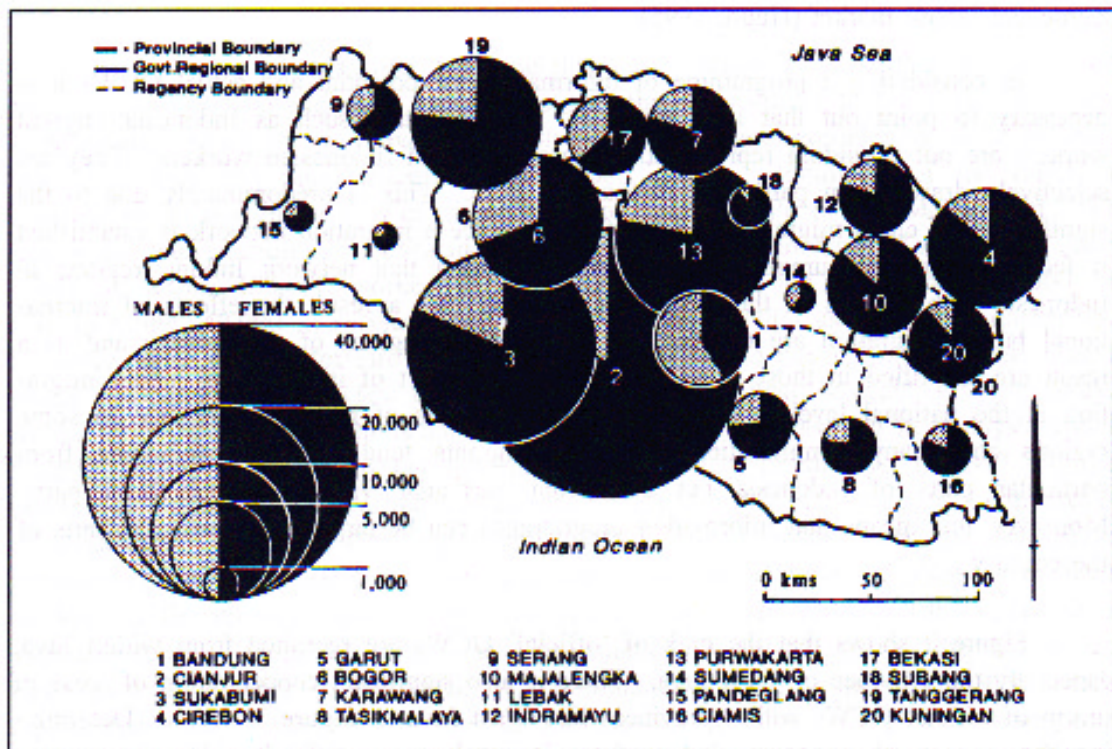
Figure 2 shows that the bulk of 'official' OCWs are recruited from within Java, especially the province of West Java. There is also significant concentration of areas of origin of official OCWs within provinces like West Java as Figure 3 shows. Determining the origins of undocumented workers is much more difficult. However, some indications can be gained from data on deported workers. For example, Figure 4 shows the distribution of the provinces of origin of Indonesian migrant workers detected in Sabah without the requisite immigration papers and deported into East Kalimantan. This shows the dominance of undocumented workers being from Southern Sulawesi and the two Nusa Tenggara provinces, especially East Nusa Tenggara. The main provinces of origin for undocumented migrants travelling to East and West Malaysia are East Nusa Tenggara, West Nusa Tenggara, South Sulawesi, East Java and Central Java, while the main transit points for passage into Malaysia are in North Sumatra, Riau and East Kalimantan (Jakarta Post, 18 April 1995). It is interesting that this pattern of distribution of migrant origins is quite different to that for legal OCWs. For example, on Java where West Java is the dominant origin of official migrant workers, East Java is undoubtedly the main area of origin of undocumented workers from Java (Spaan, 1999).

Figure 2: Indonesia: Province of Origin of Officially Registered Overseas Workers, 1989-92



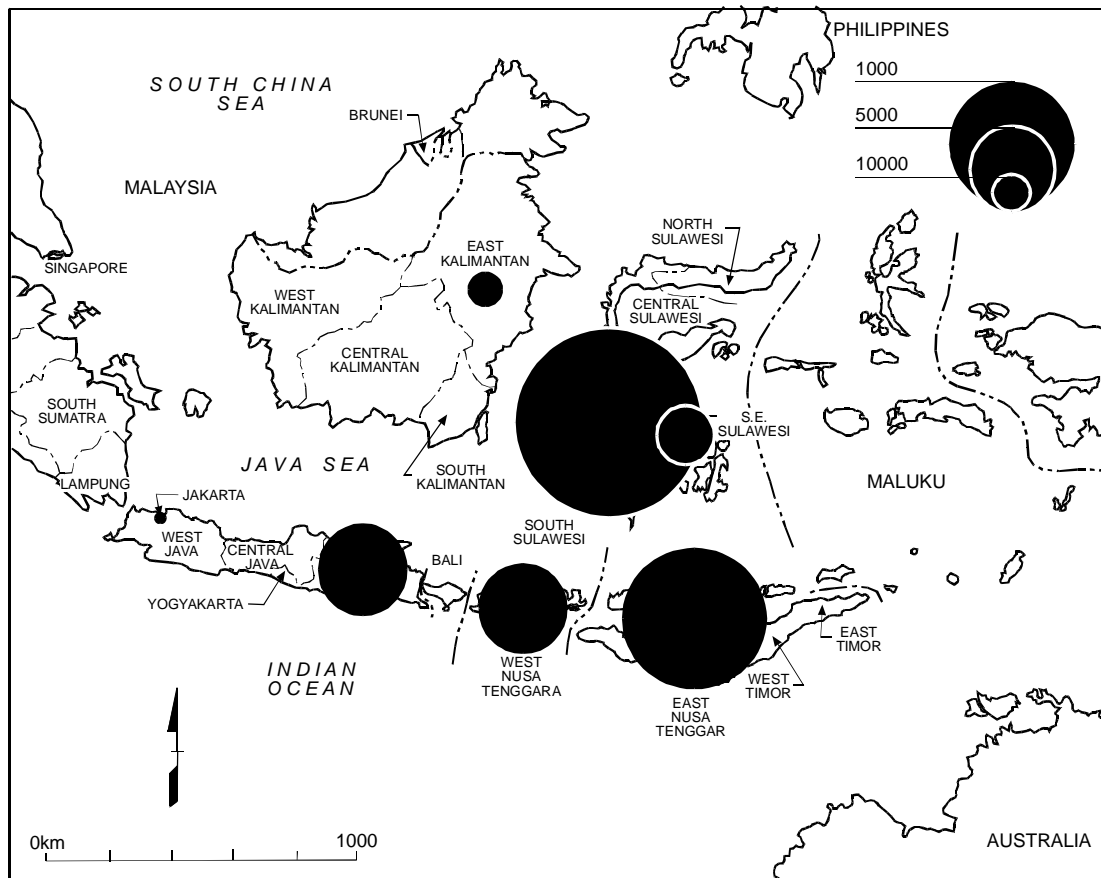
Source: Hugo, 1998

Figure 3: West Java: The Regency of Origin of Officially Registered Indonesian OCWs, April 1989-March 1992



Source: Adi 1996, p. 86

Figure 4: Indonesia: Areas of Origin of Workers Deported from Sabah to East Kalimantan, 1994 to 1998



Source: Provincial Development Office of the province of East Kalimantan Samarinda

METHODOLOGY OF STUDY ON INFORMATION NEEDS OF OCWs

The literature relating to international migration in Indonesia is extremely limited. There is a lack of empirical studies which detail the decision to migrate, the experience of migration, experience at the destination, the impact on the home area, etc. A major difficulty here is that in Indonesia a substantial amount of the movement is clandestine and hence is not easily studied. Nevertheless, there is also not the base of empirical evidence regarding OCWs who leave Indonesia under the official program to be confident in answering questions relating to migrant workers such as their information needs, their knowledge of health and their health status. Accordingly it was necessary to undertake some preliminary data collection to provide answers to these questions.

Primary information collection in this area is difficult since there are no sources which can be used as a sampling frame to select a representative sample of OCWs to

interview. Moreover, in the case of undocumented migration there is not even aggregate data of migrant workers departing from respective areas. It was decided that the following groups needed to be targeted to obtain background data on which to base a strategy relating to improving provision of information to prospective OCWs.

- (1) Returning OCWs who presumably would have fresh in their minds the types of information which they did not get before leaving but required in the process of migration and settlement at the destination. These were also the group who could best indicate the sources of information which are currently accessed by OCWs, the training they receive, etc.
- (2) OCWs in the process of leaving for overseas would be useful to talk to since they have recently gone through the process of deciding whether or not to migrate, where to go, etc. Hence they should be in a situation to indicate what sources of information were important to them in making the decision to migrate.
- (3) The *calo*/sponsor group are a crucial element in providing information to intending OCWs in Indonesia. Their role as being fundamental in much of the migration to Malaysia has been demonstrated (Hugo, 1993). However, they are probably even more important in the migration to Saudi Arabia. Spaan (1999, p. 293) has pointed out:

“In the rural areas they are pivotal in disseminating information on the Middle East and on recruitment agencies in Jakarta. They are knowledgeable on procedures and have the necessary network for sending candidate migrants. Their dominant position vis-a-vis the migrants facilitates exploitation. Almost without exception they demand fees for their services.”

The latter issue makes them one of the hardest groups to study not only when they are involved in undocumented migration.

- (4) The community leaders in the area of origin are important in the information process. There is little evidence thus far of the role that this group play in influencing migration decisions. However, these opinion leaders can play a role in the dissemination of information to prospective OCWs in the same way that they are important conduits of other information to communities.
- (5) The PJTKI are, of course, major players in providing information to prospective migrants. One such role is through their networks of *calo* and another is through

the information/training sessions which they provide to OCWs before their departure.

(6) DEPNAKER (Indonesian Department of Labour) is a central element in the system. According to the ILO Convention, DEPNAKER has part of the ultimate responsibility in providing sufficient accurate information to prospective OCWs. This includes the central offices as well as those down to provincial and *kabupaten* level as well as the Centre for Sending Workers Overseas which is an agency of the Department.

(7) NGOs with a major interest in OCWs. These NGOs have not as yet been able to work very much with the government on the information issue.

Accordingly study of the types of information needed, the appropriate means to disseminate, etc., has a large number of target groups and there are considerable difficulties in being able to identify all of these groups, and having done so, gain their cooperation to be involved in a study. Therefore a mixed methodology was adopted which incorporated both quantitative and qualitative methods and which sought to gain information from as many of the above group as possible. To some extent the methodology was experimental in that there are no existing studies in Indonesia which have attempted to investigate the information needs of migrant workers.

It was decided within the resource available it would be advisable to focus predominantly on interviewing migrants themselves and particularly those in the first group listed above - i.e. those who have recently returned from overseas. Accordingly it was decided that the following would be set to interview returning OCWs:

- 100 new arrivals at Cengkareng Airport, Jakarta.
- 100 recent female returnees from Saudi Arabia to villages in West Java, e.g. Cianjur.
- 100 recent returnees in East Kalimantan, e.g. in Nunakan on the border with Sabah.
- 100 recent returnees in Riau, e.g. Batam.

This strategy was designed to 'catch' newly returning migrant workers, both legal and illegal. It was also planned to interview 10 key informants in each area. These would be local leaders and other individuals with involvement in (e.g. *calo*), or deep knowledge of, the migrant worker situation and process. In addition, key stakeholders would also be interviewed in the Department of Labour, Department of Immigration and relevant NGOs.

A number of difficulties were encountered in the field which made it impossible to follow the methodology exactly as planned. It was not possible to interview people newly arriving at the Jakarta airport. After a long absence they were keen to meet up with their families. Interviewing was also difficult because they came back in a group. Interviewing would have been excessively intrusive and it proved very difficult to gain permission to interview in the special terminal dedicated to OCWs. Accordingly, since most returning migrant workers at Jakarta Airport were from West Java it was decided to interview a larger number of migrant workers in that province drawn from the main *kabupaten* of origin in that province - Indramayu, Cianjur and Sukabumi. Local informants indicated that many of the migrant workers came from the *kecamatan* of Sliyug (Indramayu) and Cibeber (Cianjur). In the other two areas it was difficult to identify returning migrant workers as they crossed back into Indonesia. There were substantial groups who were waiting to depart for Malaysia so these were interviewed rather than the original plan of interviewing returning OCWs.

It was not possible to meet the original targets of 100 interviews in each place because of difficulties in finding them and time limitations. Hence the following numbers were interviewed at each location:

- (1) 146 West Java
- (2) 58 Nunakan (East Kalimantan)
- (3) 76 Batam/Pekan Baru (Riau)

The questionnaire used for interviews with returning and intending migrants is included as Appendix A. This questionnaire probed the information sources utilised by OCWs, the training they received and the nature of their experience overseas. Some additional strategies utilised to collect data from OCWs included holding some focus group discussions with groups of ten or so migrants to probe the information issue. This was especially utilised in Nunakan where migrant workers are more comfortable talking in a group than utilising individual interviews. In addition, in Nunakan some migrant workers who were briefly returning from Sabah to get official documentation or to renew their visas were interviewed.

In addition to the structured interviews with OCWs, a number of in-depth discussions were carried out with stakeholders and others with a good knowledge of the migration process to acquire greater depth of knowledge on the migration issue. These detailed discussions were held in all the three regional locations as well as in Jakarta. The groups interviewed included the following:

(1) Government Institutions and Officials

These discussions were conducted in Jakarta with key officials as well as in the local area at the provincial and *kabupaten* level. They involved discussions with officials of AKAN (the agency of the Department of Labour involved in sending workers overseas). In many cases there was little correspondence between information received in these discussions with that from OCWs. DEPNAKER accepts the responsibility of supplying information to intending workers. For example, in Cianjur the *Kandepnaker* (provincial office of Department of Labour) has an information program supplying details of work opportunities to potential OCWs, has brochures to distribute and has distributed information over local radio. In some cases they cooperate with the PJTKI in this activity and distribute information regarding on the following:

- (1) the type of work OCWs are likely to take up;
- (2) formalities they must go through; and
- (3) conditions at the destination.

However, much of this does not appear to actually reached the intending OCWs. Moreover officials in Cianjur made several comments on this issue as follows:

- (1) The information material needs considerable development. It really lacks detail regarding work opportunities, conditions overseas and the rights and responsibilities of workers and employers.
- (2) There is no attempt to distribute the information widely.
- (3) There is a need to use both formal and informal means of spreading the information, however, the latter is rarely used. For example, there is no contacting of village heads to better inform them about working overseas so they can better give advice to villagers intending to go overseas.

Similarly in Indramayu, DEPNAKER officials indicated they distributed information. Again brochures are available. However, visits have not been made to all the villages sending migrants. When they do, only single visits have been made, so the DEPNAKER officials, as elsewhere, have little profile on the villages sending large numbers of OCWs.

In Sukabumi, 'socialisation' visits to villages by DEPNAKER staff were reported. In Nunakan, there is one of the few regional offices of AKAN. However, its functions are overwhelmingly administrative. It answers questions of potential OCWs who approach it but there is no active information program. In Riau, a

'socialisation' (information) program had been operating for a year. They use a DEPNAKER vehicle to bring information to sending villages.

Other government institutions interviewed included the Immigration Office. They did not have special programs to supply information to intending OCWs. Another group who are involved is the newly formed Ministry of Female Empowerment, given the high proportion of females among OCWs. Since 1998 the former Ministry on the Role of Women have had a cooperative program with other government agencies, especially DEPNAKER, in areas sending large numbers of TKI (e.g. Indramayu, Cianjur and West Nusa Tenggara). The material they distribute covers the following:

- (1) preparations needed before going overseas;
- (2) conditions in the destination countries;
- (3) warnings about the impact on families left behind - disruption of marriage, etc.; and
- (4) productive use of remittances using models of successful OCWs. For example, in Lombok, a women had purchased motorcycles which she rented to tourists.

However, these socialisation services were not routine and depended on the cooperation of DEPNAKER. It has been limited to only a few areas of origin of TKI.

The Ministry on the Role of Women has a pilot project at the Jakarta Airport among returning female OCWs to assist those returning but did not complete their contracts.

(2) PJTKI (*Perusahaan Jasa Tenaga Kerja Indonesia*)

Their main role is to assist OCWs in completing all the necessary formalities before migrating and they do have a responsibility in supplying information regarding the following:

- (1) the type of work overseas;
- (2) recruitment process; and
- (3) procedures for returning to Indonesia.

Most PJTKI interviewed reported that they worked with DEPNAKER in this function. However, it was clear that in many cases the required information was not presented and, if so, not in a way in which it could be clearly understood by

OCWs. There is insufficient detail given about the responsibilities and rights of workers and employers.

Joint information activities of PJTKI and DEPNAKER in Indramayu were reported as not being successful because the potential OCWs didn't pay attention and seemed to trust and rely more on *calo*.

Clearly the sponsor/*calo* are located in the villages and have more chance to talk one on one with potential OCWs and over a longer period of time. They are also known and trusted local residents. However, the sponsor/*calo* are not necessarily well informed or have access to useful information. In interviews, it was suggested that training of *calo*/sponsor was needed as was the need to keep them supplied with relevant information.

The complexity of the recruitment process is a problem here. There is a complex system of agents and sub-agents operating so it is not a simple process to supply information to *calo*.

There are consortiums of PJTKI that do joint advertising, share internet recruiting sites, etc. which might be considered as potential avenues.

(3) NGOs (*Lembaga Suradaya Masyarakat*)

These agencies have done a great deal to raise public consciousness of the problems of TKI. A consortium of NGOs concerned with migrant workers has been formed (KOPBUMI-Konsusium Pembela Buruh Migran Indonesia). This involves 58 NGOs and 6 individuals. The main roles are protection of migrant workers, advocating for them, negotiating for them and they have information posts in regions as well as centrally. Hence they have the information which OCWs need but their activities in disseminating this information to potential OCWs are limited. There are some successful operations by KOPBUMI members in disseminating information to TKI and their families but as yet the numbers are limited. The field worker base of NGOs is clearly an effective means of distributing information at the grass roots level.

A number of detailed interviews were held with groups in each of the above categories. Hence a mixed methodology was adopted to establish both the information needs of OCWs and the existing pattern of dissemination of information.

The material collected in the study relating to HIV/AIDS was extremely limited due to the fact that the main thrust of the study was to establish the information needs of potential OCWs. The Appendix A provides the questions asked of migrant

workers. The questionnaire was applied by skilled interviewers from the Indonesian Institute of Sciences. The questions of relevance to HIV asked OCWs if they had undertaken a medical test before leaving for overseas, asked if they knew anything about HIV/AIDS and whether they had any knowledge of other sexually transmitted infections (STIs). Respondents were also asked about where they obtained the bulk of their information relating to health issues.

SURVEY RESULTS

The first issue of relevance relates to the proportion of OCWs who underwent a health examination before going overseas. These health tests involve a general health examination but do not contain a test for HIV/AIDS. In fact, in several of the countries to which the Indonesian OCWs are sent they are required to undergo a further, more detailed medical examination which often includes a test to establish if they are HIV positive. If they are found to be HIV positive they are compelled to return to Indonesia but they are usually not told why other than that they have failed the medical. Hence neither the OCWs themselves nor the authorities processing them on their premature return to Indonesia are aware that they are HIV positive.

One feature of international labour migration out of Indonesia is that many OCWs in fact do *not* have a medical test before their departure overseas. These include firstly the large number of workers who go overseas on auspices other than those of the government's official program. However, it is also apparent that among those who do go overseas under the official program that a significant number are not given a medical examination in Indonesia; and among those who are examined the examination is often limited and perfunctory.

This was borne out in this survey. Table 4 shows that there was considerable variation between the three study areas in the extent to which OCWs had medical tests before leaving for overseas. This is especially the case in East Kalimantan and reflects the fact that medical tests are more common among OCWs leaving from Western Indonesia, especially Java. Most female OCWs going legally to the Middle East have a medical examination.

Table 4: Indonesian Overseas Contract Worker Information Study: Respondents Who Reported Having a Medical Examination Before Being Sent Overseas

Study Sample	Yes		No		No Answer	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
West Java	142	97.7	4	2.7	97	3.0
East Kalimantan	24	41.4	34	58.6	-	-
Riau	61	80.3	9	11.8	6	7.9

Source: ILO/LIPI OCW Information Study

It is important to note, however, that despite the health checks made before migration, health problems are a significant cause of Indonesia having a very high rate of premature return of its OCWs. This high level of early return is especially true of women going to Saudi Arabia to work. Table 5 shows that in several surveys of returned Indonesian OCWs from the Middle East, substantial proportions return within one year while most contracts are for at least three years. This high rate of premature return is undesirable from a number of perspectives. Most importantly from the viewpoint of the migrant workers themselves who not only have suffered negative experience at the destination but it is likely that they would also suffer substantial financial losses. In a majority of cases, first time migrant workers borrow large sums of money to finance their travel overseas. Given the high interest rates charged and the fact that they have worked for only short periods, they are likely to retain large debts which will take a long period to pay off. From the perspective of Indonesia's reputation as a reliable supplier of labour and the recruiting agencies' credibility with their employer and clients it also is negative.

Table 5: Studies of Returned Overseas Contract Workers: Percent Returning to Indonesia Within One Year

Origin	Destination	Year	Reference	Away Less Than One Year	
				Percent	Number
Central Java	Middle East	1986	Mantra <i>et al.</i> , 1986	18.1	167
Yogyakarta	Middle East	1986	Mantra <i>et al.</i> , 1986	63.4	93
West Java	Middle East	1986	Mantra <i>et al.</i> , 1986	21.0	100
West Java	Middle East	1992	Adi, 1996	12.2	90
Java	Middle East	1999	Pujiastuti, 2000	60.0	40

Table 6: West Java Migrant Worker Survey: Reasons for Return

Reason	Number	Percent
Completed contract	78	53
Salary wasn't high enough	2	1
Work was too hard	4	3
Missed family	26	18
Sick	13	9
Evil influences	1	1
PJTKI brought them home	5	3
Deportation	1	1
Other	16	11

The reasons for premature return are, of course, not all entirely a function of information issues. The inadequacy of training provided to migrant workers, the lack of protective mechanisms and the unethical practices of some employers and recruiters all contribute to the high rate of premature return. Table 6 shows the reasons given for premature return by respondents in the West Java study quoted earlier. In this survey only 53 percent of respondents returned home because they had completed their contract. It will be noted that 9 percent of those returning did so because they were sick and these included several who failed the medical test at the destination. It is, of course, not known what proportion of these were people who had been identified as HIV positive. Most of the destination countries where Indonesians go, requires HIV screening test upon arrival 3 months after and later every year.

Further evidence of the high rate of premature return of OCWs in Indonesia is provided by government data collected in Jakarta airport upon the return of migrant workers. In 1998 the government established a special terminal at Jakarta airport purely for OCWs (Terminal 3). All returning OCWs are required by the Department of Labour to answer a questionnaire which asks their name, home location, passport number, work, the PJTKI which sent them overseas, their dates of leaving and returning, country of destination and employer. They also are requested to indicate any problems which they experienced. There are also a number of other formalities to complete and costs to pay.

Data collected for the months September – October 1999 and December 1998 are presented in Table 7. These indicate that most OCWs processed in Terminal 3 in Jakarta are women from Java who had worked in the Middle East. Of these more than one-third are returning prematurely. Indeed more than one-quarter returned in less than a year and *more than one-tenth within three months*. This represents a very

high rate of premature return. It will be noted that less than 60 percent indicated that they were returning due to completing their contract. Of all migrants returning, 4.8 percent in 1998 and 2.4 percent in 1999 indicated that there were health reasons for their premature return. It is almost certain, too, that some of those in the large ‘other’ category were people who had failed a medical test at the destination. All in all the evidence is that there is a significant number of Indonesian OCWs, mainly women, who fail the medical examination at the destination and have to return home.

Table 7: Reports of Returning OCWs at Jakarta Airport December 1998 and September – October 1999

	December 1998	September – October 1999
Total Number	8,690	32,483
% Female	99.2	96.7
% Middle East	93.4	70.2
Period of Working (%)		
<3 months	15.6	11.4
4-11 months	12.3	14.2
12-23 months	12.7	19.9
24+ months	59.4	54.5
Reasons for Returning (%)		
End of contract	59.4	55.5
Holiday	2.9	4.7
Sick	4.8	2.4
Problems experienced	15.6	12.9
Other	17.3	24.5
Area of Origin (%)		
West Java	-	49.2
Central Java	-	23.6
East Java	-	18.1
Outside Java	-	9.1

Turning to their knowledge of HIV/AIDS, Table 8 indicates that less than one-half of the OCWs interviewed had any knowledge of the disease. Indeed, among the predominantly female group going to Saudi Arabia from West Java only one-tenth of respondents had any knowledge of HIV/AIDS. This indicates a very low level of understanding of this disease and perhaps points to the need for awareness raising among the OCWs perhaps as part of their compulsory pre-departure training. In many cases respondents who indicated that they had heard of HIV/AIDS, had no knowledge of what it actually was and how it was transmitted. There was little or no effort on the part of PJTKI and *calo* to provide any information about HIV/AIDS.

In the case of Nunakan (East Kalimantan), it is mandatory for official migrant workers to undergo a medical check up before entering Malaysia. The Labour Office

in Nunakan indicated that there was an emphasis in the medical check up on taking blood and urine tests to detect whether the prospective migrants have HIV/AIDS or other sexually transmitted infections or communicable diseases.

Table 8: Indonesian Overseas Contract Worker Information Survey Respondents Knowledge of HIV/AIDS, 1999

	Yes		No		No Answer	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
West Java	16	11.0	130	89.9	-	-
East Kalimantan	21	46.6	31	53.4	-	-
Riau	35	46.1	38	50.0	3	3.9

Source: ILO-LIPI OCW Information Study, 1999

Migrant workers were asked what sources of health information were accessed to gain information about health and Table 9 indicates the results for the West Java Study. The most striking feature here is the fact that more than half had not obtained health information from anywhere and less than one-tenth obtained it in the course of their training to go overseas. Clearly there is little or no health information being given to OCWs before they leave. There is a substantial and urgent need to provide OCWs leaving Indonesia with comprehensive information on health issues generally and especially on HIV/AIDS.

Table 9: Indonesia: West Java Overseas Contract Worker Information Study: Respondents Source of Health Information

Source	Number	Percent
Printed media	9	6.2
Electronic media	8	5.5
Training location	10	6.8
NGOs	1	0.7
Friends/family	8	5.5
Other	27	18.5
None accessed	83	56.8

Source: ILO-LIPI OCW Information Study, 1999

CONCLUSION

International labour migration is probably the fastest growing type of movement between nations in the first decade of the twenty-first century. Indonesia has become one of the world's largest sources of international labour migrants over the last decade

or so. Moreover, it has the world's largest population and high rates of underemployment which makes it one of the world's largest labour surplus nations and most substantial sources of labour migrants. Moreover, it is clear that as the number of Indonesian workers with overseas working experience increases so does the community knowledge about international labour migration. There is no doubt that this has meant that the possibility of engaging in international labour migration is now within the calculations of choice of a much greater proportion of Indonesians than was the case in the past. Moreover, this proportion will continue to increase. Hence international labour migration will continue to increase substantially.

Of all the myriad types of international population movement that involving labour migration is of particular importance to the spread of sexually transmitted infections (STIs) including HIV/AIDS. This is not just because migration has been shown to be one of the major ways in which infectious diseases diffuse (Prothero, 1977). It is also associated with some of the specific features of international labour migration. These include the following:

- The movement rarely involves the movement of family units and usually involves either single males or females or married people whose partners stay at home. Hence they are a prime target of the commercial sex industry.
- Young males agricultural workers who move are often housed in barracks of one kind or another and are an easy target for the commercial sex industry.
- The migrant workers usually are at least two years away from home and this also makes them an easy target for the commercial sex industry.
- Young women are an increasingly important element in the movement and they are especially vulnerable to becoming carriers of infectious disease in a number of ways. Firstly some become involved in the commercial sex industry at the destination. This can be a conscious choice on their behalf but they are often duped into this activity (Jones, 1996). As such they are greatly exposed to the risk of infection. In many cases the women become domestic workers and the incidence of sexual abuse in this area is high. In many cases the women were abused by the male householders in the places where they work and they can be infected since such men also often are habitual visitors to the brothels.

- The fact that a large part of the international labour migration occurring in Indonesia is undocumented is of significance. It has been shown that the health information provided to official OCWs in Indonesia is extremely limited. However, those moving illegally receive none hence their vulnerability to being infected is increased since they are not provided with any information at all.
- The fact that virtually all of the movement is temporary means that the migrant workers return to Indonesia and if infected can spread the disease in their home areas.

APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE
ENGLISH TRANSLATION OF QUESTIONNAIRE APPLIED TO
RETURNING OVERSEAS CONTRACT WORKERS

Background of Respondents

1. Name
2. Sex
3. Age
4. Birthplace
5. Marital status
6. Family status
7. Educational level achieved
8. Ownership of electronic media
9. Use of mass media
10. Migration history

Process of Recruitment

11. Source of information regarding work opportunities overseas.
12. Source of information regarding bureaucratic requirements for going overseas.
13. Mode of registering as an overseas migrant worker.
14. If registered through a *calo* (middleman/recruiter), why?
15. Perception of the *calo*.
16. Procedure of registration as an overseas contract worker.
17. Location of registration.
18. Level of knowledge of required documents for registering as an OCW.
19. Who assisted in meeting those requirements?
20. Level of knowledge of other requirements.
21. Knowledge regarding the passport.
22. Whether a passport was obtained and used in migration.

Preparation

23. Source of information regarding costs of going overseas as a migrant worker.

24. Source of information regarding administrative requirements.
25. Source of information of the migration process.
26. Source of information of work opportunities at destination.
27. Source of information of wages at destination.
28. Source of information of work conditions at destination.
29. Who was involved in the decision to migrate?
30. How much was spent by the OCW in going overseas?
31. What was the breakdown of these costs?
32. Source of these funds.
33. Training received before departure.
34. Who gave the training?
35. How satisfactory was the training?
36. Ability to speak and understand language at the destination.
37. *Whether a health check was made before departure.*
38. *Knowledge regarding illnesses (including HIV/AIDS).*
39. *Source of information on health (including HIV/AIDS).*

Process of Leaving

40. Type of visa obtained
41. Problems encountered while travelling to the destination.

Work Overseas

42. Number of times travelled overseas to work.
43. Countries worked in and when.

Regarding the last migration

44. Length away from Indonesia.
45. Reasons for returning to Indonesia.
46. Reasons for seeking to work overseas.
47. Type of work while overseas.
48. Place of work.
49. Salary.
50. Method of payment.
51. Preferred method of payment.
52. Was the salary up to expectations before migrating?

53. Was the work experience up to expectations?
54. Positive aspects of experience of working overseas.
55. Negative aspects of experience of working overseas.
56. Was the experience the same as expected?
57. Were problems experienced at the destination?
58. Problems experienced.
59. Who was approached to assist in overcoming these problems?
60. Linkages with fellow Indonesian workers while overseas.
61. Were there meetings with fellow Indonesian workers while overseas?
62. Relationships with Indonesian embassy/consulate while overseas.
63. Did the embassy/consulate help with problems?

Relationship with Area of Origin

64. Was money remitted?
65. How much?
66. Method of sending.
67. Use of remittances.
68. Money brought back.
69. Use of that money.

Future Plans for Migration

70. Intention to go overseas again.
71. Reasons for going overseas again.
72. Reasons for not going overseas again.

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