Where are we now? The State of Self-employment and Entrepreneurship for People with Disabilities in Indonesia

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Abstract There are more entrepreneurs from the community of people with disabilities than people without disabilities in Indonesia. However, many are working in informal sector, which lead to lower income gain. As a country that has ratified CRPD, Indonesia is required to promote entrepreneurship and self-employment among people with disabilities while ensuring equal opportunity to participate in employment. What has been done so far? How has the condition changed since CRPD ratification in 2011? What are the challenges faced by entrepreneurs with disability in Indonesia? This paper presents a review of existing literature to understand the current state of research on self-employment and entrepreneurship of people with disabilities in Indonesia. The review suggests that national and regional law created to ensure promotion of entrepreneurship for people with disabilities have not yet been implemented optimally.

Keywords: self-employment, entrepreneurship, disability, literature review

1. Introduction

As per year 2015, there are 650 million people with disabilities (PWDs) in Asia Pacific (ESCAP, 2015). Although the categorization of disability may vary in each country, a disability survey done by Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) of United Nations in 2015 shows that people with disabilities are consistently less likely to be employed.

This phenomenon does not only occur in Asia Pacific, as a study among the country members of Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) in 2010 reveals a gap in workforce participation between people with disabilities and people without disability (PWODs). The study stated that people with disabilities are three times less likely to participate in the labor market than people without disabilities. In addition to that, the more disabilities that a person have, the less likely he/she will participate in the workforce (Mizunoya & Mitra, 2013).

The gap in workforce participation and employment opportunities pushes PWDs, especially in developing countries, to be self-employed or to work in informal sector (Mizunoya & Mitra, 2013). Indonesia is no exception to this circumstance, although the acknowledgment of disability rights as human rights in Indonesia is seen to be on the rise.

Indonesia became one of the first countries in Southeast Asia to sign United Nations Convention on the Rights for Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) and ratified it on November 30th, 2011 (Irwanto & Thohari, 2017). The ratification is then established into national law, Law No. 19 of 2011, which created an obligation for the country to implement rights stated on CRPD in every aspect of life (Indonesia Disability Convention Team, 2017).

One of the rights, as stated on article 27 of CRPD, is the right to work and employment. The article stated that “State parties recognize the rights of persons with disabilities to work on an equal basis with others” (UN General Assembly, 2007). The article requires the ratifying state to create an inclusive labor market that can provide equal opportunity for PWDs (Ferraina, 2012).
As a country that has ratified CRPD, Indonesia is taking measures to prevent persons with disabilities from being subjected to discrimination including in all forms of employment (Asrianti, 2011). The House of Representatives has officially legislated the Law of Persons with Disabilities (PWD) on March 2016. In order to tackle high unemployment rate of PWD, the law specifically encouraged companies and organizations to employ people with disabilities. This Law No. 8/2016 states that private companies have to accommodate PWD to make up 1% of their employees and government bodies has to accommodate PWD to make up 2% of their employees (Indonesia Ministry of Trade, 2016). Additionally, the quota system is implemented as a way to increase the demand for PWDs employees (Barnes, 2000).

However, the implementation still faces challenges. Shadow Report for CRPD implementation in Indonesia wrote that the enactment of Law no. 8 of 2016 is still limited to state-owned enterprises and regional government-owned enterprises. The limitation confines PWDs to only very few types of jobs. Additionally, the implementation of this law still depends on local regulation at the provincial or district level. Irwanto and Thohari (2017) argued that currently there are two provinces, seven cities and seven districts that have local regulations on the rights of PWD, as an extension of CRPD and national law.

Furthermore, there are some regional laws and national laws that contradict the content of CRPD and violates the rights of PWD (Edwards, 2014). Jakarta Provincial Regulation No. 8 of 2007 stated that persons with “illness that causes community unrest” are not allowed to be in public places. Colbran (as cited in Edwards, 2014) explained that such illness can include disability such as schizophrenia or leprosy, thus the regulation limits social interaction of PWDs in public places. National law no. 36 of 2009 on health prolongs the stigma on disability by using the term “physic and mental health”, which then utilized by agencies and institutions in public and private sectors to inspect their prospective employees (Indonesia Disability Convention Team, 2017). These laws, among others, hinder PWDs from meeting criteria set by employers, and exclude their participation in the labor force (Rosdianti, 2018).

Looking at those challenges, scholars argued that self-employment and entrepreneurship are viable options to encourage more PWDs to participate in the labor force (Gouskova, 2012; Halabisky, 2014; Hwang & Roulsstone, 2015; Jones & Latreille, 2011). Entrepreneurship breaks down barrier faced by PWDs and offers new opportunities that are previously not considered in conventional employment scheme (Maritz & Laferriere, 2016). Having their own business also increases the independence of PWD (Castillo & Fischer, 2019).

2. Research Methodology

This paper examined existing literature on disability employment in general and specifically in Indonesia. The research was conducted from September to October 2019, using electronic databases such as Sage Journal, Taylor & Francis (Social Sciences & Humanities Subjects) as well as ProQuest. Through filtering the abstracts and content of the literature, the research was able to observe the current condition on disability entrepreneurship and self-employment in Indonesia.

3. Results and Discussion

Generally, there is still limited research on the subject of disability in Indonesia, especially regarding disability self-employment and entrepreneurship. However, ratification of UNCRPD followed by national and regional law establishment are seen as a way that the acknowledgement of disability rights in Indonesia is on the rise (Irwanto & Thohari, 2017).
This paper explained how self-employment, entrepreneurship and disability are defined by scholars in the literature. It will continue to specifically highlight the condition of people with disability in Indonesian labor force. A review of why entrepreneurship of people with disability is important, and challenges faced by PWD entrepreneurs in the country are also presented here. Then, the paper argued about what has been done so far by state and non-state actors to promote entrepreneurship and self-employment of people with disability. Finally, it concluded with recommendations of policy and future research to strengthen the knowledge and accomplish national objectives in regards to the rights of people with disability.

3.1 Definition of Self-Employment and Entrepreneurship

The terms self-employment and entrepreneurship are often used interchangeably in literature, especially in regards to employment opportunity for people with disability (Castillo & Fischer, 2019). Self-employment represents individuality, as it focuses on performance of an individual to fulfil his/her economic needs or to gain income independently, rather than through conventional means of earning wage from employment (Le, 1999). Scholars argued that this individuality limits the scope and impact of self-employment (Parker Harris, Caldwell & Renko, 2014).

On the other hand, entrepreneurship offers something original, creative and innovative to the market (Schumpeter, 2000). Entrepreneurship offers more than just starting up a business (Maritz & Laferriere, 2016). Thus, scholars argued that entrepreneurship creates more job opportunities than self-employment, offering greater socio-economic benefits for society (Parker Harris, Caldwell & Renko, 2014). Additionally, ‘inclusive entrepreneurship’ targets disadvantaged and under-represented minorities, such as people with disability, to be given equal opportunities to start their own business (OECD, 2010).

Although self-employment and entrepreneurship have slightly different definition, both terms represent activities that lead to economic independence (Yamamoto, Unruh & Bullis, 2011), and are often overlapped in the literature (thus are used interchangeably in this paper (Castillo & Fischer, 2019).

3.2 Definition and Prevalence of Disability in Indonesia

UN CRPD stated that persons with disabilities include “those who have long-term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairments which in interaction with various barriers may hinder their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others” (UN General Assembly, 2007). Under CRPD, disability is seen as an aspect of social diversity, not as a medical condition that requires assistance (Harpur, 2012). Thus, scholars argued that the convention adopts the social model of disability and introduces a new paradigm (Harpur & Bales, 2010).

The Law No. 8 of 2016 has defined persons with disability as “all people who experience physical, intellectual, mental, and/or sensory limitations in the long term that in interacting with the environment can experience obstacles and difficulties to participate fully and effectively with other citizens based on equal rights”. This definition is consistent with the social model-based definition adopted by the UN CRPD.

In regards to prevalence of disability in the country, data from Indonesia Bureau of Statistics (BPS) shows that the prevalence of people with disability in Indonesia has doubled between 2015-2016. Data from Intercensal Population Survey (SUPAS) 2015 shows there are more than 17.79 million people with disability in Indonesia, or equivalent to 6.8% of the overall population. However, in 2016, Indonesia Labor Force Survey (SAKERNAS) stated that the prevalence of people with disability in Indonesia has reached 12.15% of its population, which is equivalent to more than 31.7 million people.

3.2.1 PWDs in Indonesian Labor Force

Given the two-fold increment in numbers, workforce participation of people with disability in Indonesia is still considerably low. A study done by The Institute for Economic and Social Research Faculty of
Economics and Business, University of Indonesia (LPEM FEB UI) illustrates that only 51.12% of people with mild disability participate in the workforce, and only 20.27% of people with heavy disability works.

The low workforce participation is also proven by high level of inactivity among people with disability. Many of them are discouraged to work, yet they are neither housewives nor studying at school. Therefore, they do not have any daily activity or financial income (Halimatussadiah, Agriva & Nuryakin, 2015). While inactivity level among Indonesians without disability is only 1.73%, the level differs highly among people with disability, with 20.49% inactive people with mild disability and 57.4% inactive people with heavy disability (LPEM FEB UI, 2016).

In addition to that, youths with disability are more prone to be inactive, as the data shown that the highest relative probability of becoming inactive for PWD is between the age of 15 to 44 years old (Halimatussadiah, Agriva & Nuryakin, 2015). The inactivity of PWDs in that age range is 5 to 6 times more than PWOD of the same age, which creates large population of youths who do not attend school nor have a proper job.

With quota enforced by the law and the condition of high number of PWD in Indonesia without stable income and activity, one may conclude that it is easier now for PWD in Indonesia to find jobs as there is a high supply of PWD and they are very demanded by the companies due to the recent passed law. Unfortunately, that is not the case. The theory of supply and demand of economy seems to not work in this case of disability employment in Indonesia. Shadow report on CRPD implementation in Indonesia showed that PWDs in Indonesia still faced with difficulties to secure employment (Indonesia Disability Convention Team, 2017).

Based on existing literature, this paper argued that the reasons are as followed:

a. Stigma

Stigma and discrimination attitudes towards persons with disability can create barriers and prevent full or equal participation of PWD in society, including in employment (ESCAP, 2015). Unfortunately, in Indonesia, stigma associated with disability still highly occurs, especially in rural areas. Stigma often hinders children with disability to access formal education, which limps the opportunity of those children to obtain decent work opportunity in the future. Schools in South Sulawesi for example, are reported to not welcome children with mobility disabilities due to belief that the school would lack status if they admitted disabled children, or that disabled children are not capable of learning. In the other hand, inclusive schools in Yogyakarta reported that the students with disability in their school are happy and had friends, however stigma and attitudinal barrier are faced upon leaving school and seeking employment (Adioetomo, Mont & Irwanto, 2014).

b. Charity Reliance

When a large portion of society believes that a person with disability is an object of charity and unable to work, it imposes a risk of charity mindset occurring among the population of people with disability itself. ESCAP survey among countries in Asia Pacific shows that often times PWD feel shameful of their conditions; that they will burden their family members if they participate in the workforce. Thus, many of PWD, especially in rural areas, are not working but relying their lives on government subsidies and charity programs of Non-Governmental Organizations (LPEM FEB UI, 2016).

In addition to that, historically, under the regime of President Soeharto, organizations of persons with disability were established as platforms to receive philanthropic support, based on the needs to support the implementation of government programs, rather than on the basis of disability rights. (Purwanta as cited in Irwanto & Thohari, 2017).

c. Low Education Level of PWD

In Indonesia, children with disability are one third less likely to complete their primary education, in comparison with those without disability (Adioetomo, Mont & Irwanto, 2014). This statistic shows that in comparison to their non-disabled counterparts, people with disability have lower education level. This
statement is also supported by a research done by LPEM FEB University of Indonesia in 2016 that 45.74% of PWD in Indonesia never graduated from or even enrolled in primary school. With almost half of the disabled population has low education level, the competition for more decent and higher paying jobs is becoming more competitive.

d. Weak Enforcement of the Law

The passing of Law No. 8/2016 about the rights of PWD in Indonesia does not guarantee that PWD can easily find jobs. In many areas in Indonesia, the implementation of the law and local policies rely heavily on the goodwill of the local government (Adioetomo, Mont & Irwanto, 2014). There are neither strict warnings nor penalties for companies that discriminate, nor there are incentives for companies that encourage disability employment. This circumstance makes it difficult to standardize the process, thus employers are left free to discriminate with impunity (ESCAP, 2015).

e. Low Employment Sustainability

A research conducted by the LPEM FEB UI in 2016 shows that the PWD who work, do not earn fixed salary, but weekly or monthly wage based on the output produced, which hinders them from having income stability. Furthermore, due to nonpermanent worker status, they are often denied fringe benefits such as health insurance or pensions. The research also shows that PWD workers have lower average wage than non-PWD, which pushes PWD workers to work additional jobs to sustain their living.

Due to the above challenges faced in labor market, scholars argued that people with disability are more likely to be self-employed in comparison to people without disability (Halimatussadiah, Agriva & Nuryakin, 2015).

3.2.2 Self-Employment among Indonesian PWD

Studies have found that PWDs are more involved in self-employment and entrepreneurship rather than their PWODs counterpart. Gouskova (2012) explained that participation rates for PWD in self-employment and entrepreneurship are higher than for those without disabilities, as entrepreneurship creates more flexibility.

This argument resonated with the condition in Indonesia. Adioetomo, Mont and Irwanto (2014), found that among people with mild disability in Indonesia, 63% of them are self-employed. Recent data from Halimatussadiah, Agriva & Nuryakin (2015) strengthened this argument by stating that most of PWDs in Indonesia work as entrepreneurs, and only 6% of them work as employees.

However, self-employed PWDs in Indonesia still generate low economic return. In comparison to PWOD, Halimatussadiah, Agriva & Nuryakin (2015) argued that PWD are more likely to have less access to education, fewer formal qualifications and limited access to job training. Thus, although they work as entrepreneurs, the barriers prevented them to enter formal sector, hence they still work in informal sectors, which resulted to gaining lower income.

A recent study of PWD entrepreneurs in Yogyakarta province showed that businesses run by PWD entrepreneurs are still in the category of micro enterprise (Suwarti & Hindasah, 2018). A micro enterprise or business has maximum sales turnover of IDR 300 million and its assets are below IDR 50 million (Indonesian Banking Development Institute, 2015). Suwarti and Hindasah (2018) further explained that the sectors are varied from processing industry, agriculture, trade, transport to services. More details on specific motivations, challenges and barriers for PWD entrepreneurs in Indonesia are examined in following chapters.

3.3 Factors Motivating Entrepreneurship for PWDs

Extensive research on disability entrepreneurship have classified reasons of PWDs involvement in entrepreneurship into two factors, ‘pull’ and ‘push’ factors that refers to internal and external motivations respectively. Some of the pull factors include material benefit, independence and liberty in exploring own’s ideas and creativity (Kitching, 2014).
Entrepreneurship offers flexibility in allocating work task, hours and worksite, which allows PWDs to adjust their disability status and working life better (Prescott-Clarke, 1990; Callahan et al. 2002; Doyel, 2002; Pagán, 2009; Jones & Latreille, 2011).

On the other hand, push factors include employer discrimination, limited access to vocational information and perceived social barriers. Pagán (2009) explained that PWDs, especially with severe mental and physical disability, are subject to more prejudice by employment. Additionally, limited information on jobs and stigma imposed by society on PWDs affected PWDs to choose self-employment and entrepreneurship as their means to earn income (Parker Harris, Renko & Caldwell, 2014; Smart, 2008).

3.4 Challenges of Entrepreneurship for PWDs in Indonesia

Given the viability of entrepreneurship as a career option, there are still challenges for PWDs to enter and sustain their entrepreneurship. Maritz & Laferriere (2016) categorized them into three: financial, societal and personal challenges.

Financial challenges associated with PWDs entrepreneurs are lacking of capital to start up the business, and lacking of financial management knowledge to sustain the capital (Maritz & Laferriere, 2016). As many PWDs are faced with unemployment or underemployment, they have fewer personal savings to serve as capital to launch their business (Boylan & Burchardt, 2003; De Klerk, 2008; Halabisky, 2014; Renko, Parker Harris & Caldwell, 2015). Lower education level, discrimination from financial institution and limited ability to access information about available funding options heightened their inability to gain more capital (Kitching, 2014).

Suwarti and Hindasah’s (2018) finding from case study of PWD entrepreneurs in Yogyakarta province showed that PWDs were not able to separate personal finance from their business, which was due to their lack of financial management skill. In addition to that, the study explained that most of PWD entrepreneurs in Yogyakarta do not have access to banking due to mobility problems, and that condition hinders them from having a proper business license. Furthermore, the study specifically highlighted that in general trading sector, limited access to capital and financial management led the entrepreneurs to have limited production capacity.

Societal challenges faced by PWD entrepreneurs include negative attitudes given by stakeholders, such as discrimination by consumer (Boylan & Buchardt, 2003; Jones & Latreille, 2011), as well as suppliers and other stakeholders (Rizzo, 2002).

Opportunities to excel can also be hindered by limited chances to receive business creating training by vocational counselors (Colling & Arnold, 2007), lack of tailored training and inadequate types of training available (Halabisky, 2014). Agribusiness sector in Yogyakarta proves this argument. The sector has a wide market, but there are less entrepreneurs involved due to insufficient training to master the technology (Suwarti & Hindasah, 2018).

Another societal challenge comes from government workers who often discouraged PWDs to involve with entrepreneurship and self-employment due to their misconceptions of PWDs abilities and concerns for the risks imposed by entrepreneurship (Doyel, 2002; Maritz & Laferriere, 2016). Those support service workers are found to encourage PWDs to find employment, which made entrepreneurship as the second choice (Wehman, Griffin & Hammis, 2003)

In addition to that, society also imposes barrier in entrepreneurship by lacking connection of various support programs and infrastructure to support PWDs engagement in entrepreneurship (Conroy, Ferris & Irvine, 2010; Yamamoto & Alverson, 2013). This condition resonated with the PWD entrepreneurs in transport service industry in Yogyakarta. The market of catering the needs of PWDs with modified vehicle seems promising, yet the infrastructures to support the business, such as vehicles and technology, are still limited (Suwarti & Hindasah, 2018).

Lastly, Maritz & Laferriere (2016) argued that barriers for PWD entrepreneurs are created by their personal limitations. PWDs are
often found to have less relevant business knowledge and skills (Enabled4Enterprise as cited in Kitching, 2014). Suwarti and Hindasah (2018) affirmed this view by showing that PWD entrepreneurs in Yogyakarta province often changed their business sector but did not seem to have entrepreneurial spirit or resilience.

For example, in food processing sector, entrepreneurs seemed to have difficulties in standardizing their product quality, design and type. Their inability to conduct cost and benefit analysis resulted to less profitable pricing (Suwarti & Hindasah, 2018). Additionally, in service industry, PWD entrepreneurs in Yogyakarta took more time to finish their product and were less punctual, that resulted to reduced trust from the community, hence lessened the number of repeating customers (Suwarti & Hindasah, 2018).

Lack of confidence and limited aspirations are also personal barriers faced by PWD entrepreneurs, and are heightened when there is no support from family or friends (Rizzo, 2002).

3.5 What has been done so far?

CRPD recognizes that many people with disability, especially in developing nations, have self-employment as their career choice, and states are encouraged to promote that as stated in article 27 (f):

Promote opportunities for self-employment, entrepreneurship, the development of cooperatives and starting one’s own business.

The above article shows the obligation of states to support the creation of diverse choices for people with disability to exercise their right to work (Rosdianti, 2018). As the implementation of CRPD in Indonesia does not only depend on the national law, but also depends on the regional law of each province and municipality, this paper examined the role of the state in promoting self-employment of people with disability and what have been done so far specifically in the province of Yogyakarta based on the research of Surwanti & Hindasah (2018).

The local regulation of Yogyakarta province no. 4 of 2012 stated the obligations of the government to promote self-employment and entrepreneurship of people with disability through three different stages:

1. Training and Guidance

The regulation article 17-20 stated that every person with disability has the right and opportunity to receive job training, which is conducted in stages from basic to advance, to ensure the improvement of his/her competencies. The providers of the training are not only limited to government, but also by community organizations and companies from private sector (Article 18, PERDA DIY, 2012).

Furthermore, it is compulsory for the training providers to provide certificate of completion that contains the level of competency achieved at the end of the training. The failure to provide the aforementioned certificate will result to administrative sanction (Article 19, PERDA DIY, 2012).

Despite what stated on the regulation, the implementation is still considerably low. Suwarti & Hindasah argued that trainings provided in different level of government have different standards. The vocational training in provincial level is done by Integrated Rehabilitation Center for Persons with Disabilities (Balai Rehabilitasi Terpadu Penyandang Disabilitas/BRTPD) and consists of wide range of skill, such as massage, arts & crafts and graphic design. Meanwhile, the types of training offered in district level are only cellphone repairment and catering. Moreover, instead of having a continuous training, people with disability in Yogyakarta are faced with more short-term trainings without any certificates given after their completion.

Suwarti and Hindasah (2018) argued that this is due to minimal budget allocation for training and empowering people with disability through self-employment. Government does not allocate specific budget for this effort, as it is still
integrated with educational and rehabilitation-related programs, which hinders optimum result achieved for self-development of PWDs.

2. Accessing capital

As stated in article 29 of the regulation, it is a duty of local governments to enable access to financial loan or capital from financial institution. The regulation also emphasized that publicly or privately-owned banking and non-banking financial institutions must provide capital access to people with disability according to the procedures. However, government has not been doing this intensively, which created more challenge for PWD entrepreneurs to start up their business (Suwarti & Hindasah, 2018).

3. Cooperation and Partnerships

Government is also required to encourage and facilitate the partnership between people with disability and other business actors to strengthen the enterprises owned by people with disability (Article 19, PERDA DIY, 2012). The partnership and cooperation can be achieved through sub contract or supplying raw materials to improve the quality of products created by entrepreneurs with disability (Suwarti & Hindasah, 2018).

In practice, Suwarti and Hindasah (2018) found that there have not been enough actions from government to facilitate such cooperation, which made private companies offer some type of partnerships directly to organizations or community of people with disability instead. However, due to lack of monitoring and supervision from private companies, the partnership usually does not last long.

4. Conclusion

Based on the results of the study, the conclusion is interactive multimedia has an influence on the loud reading skills in English subjects for the child with mental on 7th grade of SLB Panca Bakti Mulia Surakarta in the academic year of 2018/2019.

4. Recommendations

Indonesia has national and regional law in place in regards to the fulfillment of rights of persons with disabilities. However, the enforcement of the laws needs to be strengthened. In order to increase the number of PWD entrepreneurs, financial accessibility to grants, business loans and banking services are important, and Indonesia is required to provide equal access as specified in CRPD (Rosdianti, 2018). Access to business networking, start up competition and sharing session with successful PWD entrepreneurs not only can improve access to capital, but can also increase the awareness of entrepreneurship among PWD communities.

Sustainable training with measurable competencies is important to widen the choices of industry for PWDs entrepreneurs. We shall not be confined with traditional ideas that visually impaired people can only work as masseurs or Deaf people can only sew clothes (Suwarti & Hindasah, 2018; Irwanto & Thohari, 2017). Training for program advisors is also necessary to instill the entrepreneurship mindset among support workers. The training can increase the ability to exploit business opportunities to encourage more self-employment among PWDs (Maritz & Laferriere, 2016).

Public and private sectors also need to provide technology access to assist PWD entrepreneurs in expanding their business and acquire more customers. The utilization of assistive technology will also reduce the societal barriers imposed upon PWD entrepreneurs (Maritz & Laferriere, 2016).

Future research on PWD entrepreneurs in Indonesia shall include more comprehensive data from various parts of the country. Types of barriers and factors that affect entrepreneurship may vary in different city or province. Different areas in Indonesia may also present different types of business with PWD entrepreneurs. Additionally, case studies of successful PWD entrepreneurs can support the analysis of entrepreneurship and self-employment of PWDs in Indonesia.

5. Conclusion

This paper examined the state of entrepreneurship and self-employment among persons with disabilities (PWDs) in Indonesia. Although there are still limited literatures on the issue, existing studies have shown that Indonesia do have national and regional laws to
promote self-employment of PWDs. There are different reasons as to why PWDs choose entrepreneurship as their careers. This paper also reviewed scholars’ views on general challenges faced by PWD entrepreneurs and connected them with specific condition of Indonesian entrepreneurs with disability in Yogyakarta province. Additionally, this paper highlighted state’s effort to promote entrepreneurship among PWDs in Indonesia.

The implementation of national and local laws is still considerably weak. Lack of access to capital, technology and training have impeded PWD entrepreneurs’ chance to excel. Personal barriers resulted from social stigma and lower education level also play a role in limiting the competitive advantage of PWD entrepreneurs. Thus, this paper recommends more sustainable training with measurable competencies to be provided by both government and private sectors. Additionally, opening access to technology will also improve the business of PWDs entrepreneurs. Further research is also needed to understand the condition faced by PWD entrepreneurs in different areas of Indonesia.

References


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