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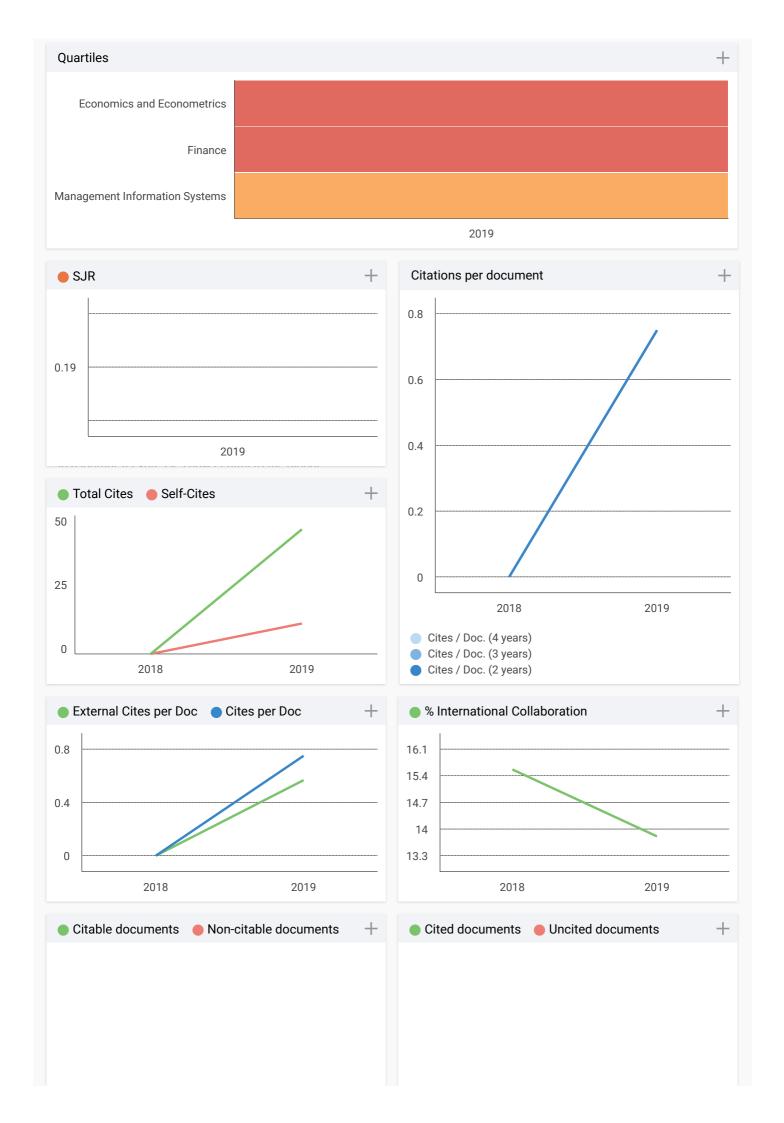
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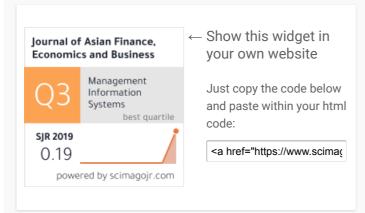
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Both the reviewer and the author are anonymous in this model. Some advantages of this model are listed below.

- Author anonymity limits reviewer bias, for example based on an author's gender, country of origin, academic status or previous publication history.
- Articles written by prestigious or renowned authors are considered on the basis of the content of their papers, rather than their reputation.
- Bear in mind that despite the above, reviewers can often identify the author through their writing style, subject matter or self-citation it is exceedingly difficult to guarantee total author anonymity. The reviewers of KODISA Journals exemplify best practices in a given review situation.

#### THE PEER REVIEW PROCESS

The peer review process can be broadly summarized into 8 steps, although these steps can vary slightly between KODISA Journals. See below

#### 1. Submission of Paper

The corresponding or submitting author submits the paper to the journal. For Korean contributors, this is usually via an online system such as JAMS or ACOMS. For international scholars/contributors, KODISA Journals accept submissions by email, which is indicated on the submission information.

#### 2. Editorial Office Assessment

The journal checks the paper's composition and arrangement against the journal's Author Guidelines to make sure it includes the required sections and stylizations. The quality of the paper is not assessed at this point.

#### 3. Appraisal by the Editor-in-Chief

The Editor-in-Chief checks that the paper is appropriate for the journal and is sufficiently original and interesting. If not, the paper may be rejected without being reviewed any further.

#### 4. Invitation to Reviewers

The Editor-in-Chief sends invitations to individuals he or she believes would be appropriate reviewers. As responses are received, further invitations are issued, if necessary, until the required number of acceptances is obtained – commonly this is 3, but there is some variation between journals.

#### 5. Review is Conducted

The reviewer sets time aside to read the paper several times. The first read is used to form an initial impression of the work. If major

problems are found at this stage, the reviewer may feel comfortable rejecting the paper without further work. Otherwise they will read the paper several more times, taking notes so as to build a detailed point—by—point review. The review is then submitted to the journal, with a recommendation to accept or reject it — or else with a request for revision (usually flagged as either major or minor) before it is reconsidered.

#### 6. Journal Evaluates the Reviews

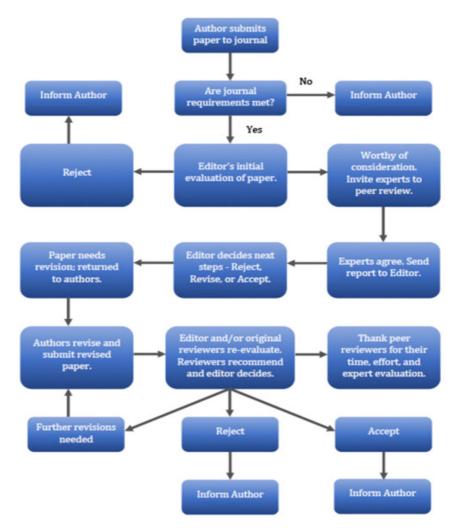
The Editor-in-Chief considers all the returned reviews before making an overall decision. If the reviews differ widely, the Editor-in-Chief may invite an additional reviewer so as to get an extra opinion before making a decision.

#### 7. The Decision is Communicated

The Editor-in-Chief sends a decision email to the author including any relevant reviewer comments. Whether the comments are anonymous or not will depend on the type of peer review that the journal operates.

#### 8. Last Steps

If accepted, the paper is sent to production. If the article is *rejected* or sent back for either major or minor *revision*, the Editor-in-Chief may include constructive comments from the reviewers to help the author improve the article. At this point, reviewers should also be sent an email or letter letting them know the outcome of their review. If the paper was sent back for *revision*, the reviewers should expect to receive a new version, unless they have opted out of further participation. However, where only minor changes were requested this follow-up review might be done by the Editor-in-Chief.



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Peer review, for the purposes of these guidelines, refers to reviews provided on manuscript submissions to journals, but can also

include reviews for other platforms and apply to public commenting that can occur pre- or post-publication. Reviews of other materials such as preprints, grants, books, conference proceeding submissions, registered reports (preregistered protocols), or data will have a similar underlying ethical framework, but the process will vary depending on the source material and the type of review requested. The model of peer review will also influence elements of the process.

#### FINAL CHECK-LIST BEFORE SUBMISSION

Please ensure that:

- · Manuscript has been 'spell checked' and 'grammar checked'
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- Please prepare the manuscript for blind review; whenever possible, please use author names and references for self-citations but make sure that you use third person to discuss the work (see "Review Policy" above)
- · All references mentioned in the Reference List are cited in the text, and vice versa
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#### Submission Declaration

Submission of an article implies that the work described has not been published previously (except in the form of an abstract or as part of a published lecture or academic thesis), that it is not under consideration for publication elsewhere, that its publication is approved by all authors and tacitly or explicitly by the responsible authorities where the work was carried out, and that, if accepted, it will not be published elsewhere including electronically in the same form, in English or in any other language, without the written consent of the copyright—holder. In instances where authors prepare multiple submissions using the same dataset or sue partially overlapping variables in two or more articles, this needs to be declared upfront in the letter to the editor. Masked reference(s) to previous studies based on the same dataset need to be included in the manuscript itself so the reader can understand the novelty of new study in relation to the previous articles. Please consult the APA—manual on piecemeal publications. In cases where the manuscript is part of a larger project (e.g., prospective longitudinal study, an intervention study with numerous arms, etc.) in which other partly overlapping publications already exist, or are planned in parallel to the submitted manuscript, need to be declared in the accompanying letter to the Editor—in—Chief. Authors are asked to be upfront declaring such manuscripts. A manuscript may be returned if the degree of overlap is found to be too large.

KODISA Journals are committed to upholding the highest standards of publication ethics and takes all possible measures against any publication malpractices. All authors submitting their works to the journal for publication as original articles attest that the submitted works represent their authors' contributions and have not been copied or plagiarized in whole or in part from other works. The Similarity Check process can be broadly employed by use of CrossCheck software, although these steps can vary slightly between KODISA Journals.

For example, per JAFEB "Code of Ethics" authors are expected to adhere to the guidelines outlined: JAFEB may consider submitted manuscripts for possible publication only if the following two conditions are satisfactory: (1) a maximum overall acceptable similarity index must be less than 25 % (< 25% in total), excluding the citations and references and the bibliography. (2) a maximum acceptable similarity index from any single source must be less than 2 % ( < 2% per source).

#### SUBMISSION-REVIEW-ACCEPTANCE-PRODUCTION-PUBLICATION-INDEXING PROCESS

The submission-review-acceptance-publication process can be broadly summarized into 7 steps, although these steps can vary slightly between KODISA Journals. See below.

#### Step 1: Desk Editor's decision on the article submitted

For example, check Submission Consent Form, APC agreement, APA style format, Publication Ethics and Publication Malpractice, and CrossCheck screening: the iThenticate software to detect instances of overlapping and similar text in submitted manuscripts. Authors can be assured that KODISA Journals are committed to actively combating plagiarism and publishing original research.

[Editorial Board and Selection Policy: Please note that Editorial Board of the KODISA Journals will be very selective, accepting only the articles on the basis of scholarly merit, research significance, research integrity and compliance with the journal style guidelines (APA). KODISA Journals and Editorial Board respect and promote all authors and contributors on the basis of research ability and experience without considering race, citizenship, or any of narrow frames of reference.]

#### Step 2: External Reviewers Board's decision on scholarly merits of the content of the article.

If the article successfully passes the requirements of submission and the first round of screening and Plagiarism checking, then the paper goes to external reviews, which will take another 2 to 8 weeks from then.

[Important: After the external reviews completed if the paper gets accepted in favor of publication on the journal then an invoice of APC will be followed. Based on an invoice the author should make a payment for APC. Before the paper finally gets accepted any payment does not count any credit toward its acceptance for publication.]

#### Step 3: Editorial Copy Editor's decision on editorial copy editing

For example, double check citations in text and references, tables and figures, heading and subheadings, etc. If the article finally gets accepted for publication and the author has paid APC for their publication on the journal, then the paper goes to Copy Editor and Typesetter, which will take another 2 to 4 weeks from then.

#### Step 4: Production Editor's decision on the full information of the article

For example, check DOI number, authors' name, affiliation, contact information, pagination, etc. If the article has been checked and edited by Copy Editor and Typesetter and then finally has approved for Production and Printing, then the paper goes to Production Editor, which will take another 2 to 4 weeks from then.

#### Step 5: Printing Editor's decision on printed hard copies

For example, check mailing address of printed hard copies to the authors. This process takes another 2 to 4 weeks from then.

#### Step 6: Online Publishing Editor's decision on online XML (HTML) and PDF attachments.

This process takes another 2 to 4 weeks from then.

#### Step 7: Indexing Editor's decision on Web of Science indexing and Scopus indexing.

This process takes another 2 to 8 weeks from then, although these steps can vary slightly between indexing agencies.

Overall, it takes at least 2 to 10 weeks from submission to acceptance. In addition, it takes at least another 4 to 10 weeks from APC payment to online DOI publication. Then, it takes at least another 4 to 10 weeks from online DOI publication to having indexed on Web of Science and Scopus. For example, due to an increasing number of submissions since 2018 and a limit of publication space in each journal, the average overall time from submission to publication and print from now on takes 3-6 months. KODISA Journals accept submissions on a rolling basis, and publish accepted articles on the first-in first-out method.

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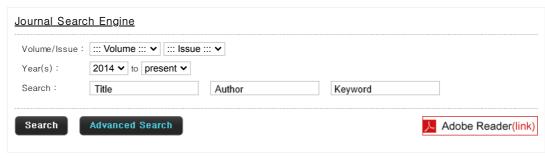
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#### Critical Factors Affecting Construction Price Index: An Integrated Fuzzy Logic and Analytical **Hierarchy Process**

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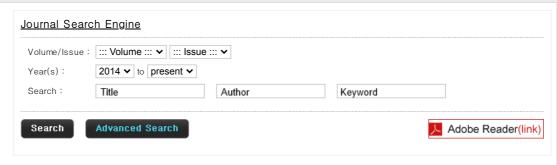
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#### **How Indonesia Economics Works: Correlation Analysis of** Macroeconomics in 2010 - 2019

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Abstract

Other Sections

The purpose of this study is to provide benefits and ethically-rooted managerial implications based on theoretical underpinnings through an empirical study using correlation between wages, bank credit, government expenditure on economic growth, and employment via a case study in Indonesia. Besides that, managerial implications strive to provide benefits to the government regarding the importance of establishing effective and pro-development regulations to realize economic growth and employment through the efficient role of wages, bank credit, and government spending. This study uses secondary macroeconomic data from the period 2010-2019 with analysis using the correlation test with the Pearson correlation method. Out of eight hypotheses tested, two hypotheses do not have a significant correlation. The details of the statistical results obtained the following correlations: the correlation between bank credit and wages has a significant, but indirect (negative) correlation. However, the correlation between bank credit and economic growth has a direct and significant (positive) correlation. Government expenditure correlates positively with wages, but correlates negatively with bank credit. Wages are positively correlated with economic growth, but have no significant effect on employment. Finally, economic growth has a positive correlation with government expenditure, but does not have a significant correlation with employment.

JEL Classification Code: H1, H5, J1

Key Words: Bank Credit, Wages, Government Expenditure, Economics Growth, Employment

#### 1. Introduction

Other Sections

The issue of wages is a fundamental element of economic principles in the world. In Indonesia alone, the government increases wages from year to year to improve people's living standards, evidenced by statistical data in the post-reform period, rising from IDR1,134,963 in 1997 to IDR2,455,716 in 2019. On the one hand, efforts to increase wages instantly eliminate the main problems that become the polemic of the national economy. The pros and cons of efforts to raise salaries are still alive. Government efforts in maximizing the level of community welfare through wage increases are still considered small to meet the needs of people's lives. An increase in wages is undoubtedly a hope for workers. Where the delivery of wage increases will be in line with the fulfillment of a decent standard of living needs, an increase in public consumption is also considered. There is recognition of the achievements, skills, and abilities of workers in terms of competence and capability.

Increasing wages can also be considered as a simple solution to a problem. The impact of wage increases can harm the development of the business climate where one of the adverse effects caused after the determination of the minimum wage increase is the staff retrenchment (PHK) which can macro-impact on high unemployment and sluggish macroeconomic growth, including the growth of the economic sector, which will in turn have an impact on the consumption by the community itself (Böhm, 1978; Sasaki et al., 2013; Du & Wang, 2019; Greiner et al., 2004; Lankisch et al., 2019; Okudaira et al., 2019). Several studies have made the variable wage a hot issue discussed among researchers who link wages and employment (e.g., Ariga & Kambayashi, 2010; Baek & Park. 2016; Dickson & Fongoni, 2019; Holtemöller & Pohle, 2019; Li et al., 2018; Perugini & Pompei, 2016). From the economic theory and wage theory, there is causality between wages and labor absorption. Labor issues in Indonesia must receive serious attention from various parties, both government and private. Labor issues are the main problems that must be faced by the state and the people of Indonesia. So, it is suggested that the government should embrace the private sector to reduce and resolve labor problems jointly. The limited employment triggers some of the main issues of employment in Indonesia low quality of labor, high unemployment, wage factors, and social security factors that are considered inadequate.

The influence between wages and labor absorption can be realized as long as regulatory factors are seen to be flexible by the government; job security factors and aggregate demand for labor can take place in a positively environment (Ariga & Kambayashi, 2010). But different opinions are expressed in research by Baek and Park (2016), which states that the increase in the minimum wage does not affect employment in the energy sector. Sasaki et al. (2013) states that a high wage rise will affect the economic balance and employment. Of course, the increase in wages is expected to be in line with the quality and quantity of production and labor factors, including the absorption of workers who are capable of both education and performance. Yamamoto et al. (2019) point out the information asymmetry factor towards employment in the Southeast by different levels of education. Yamamoto et al. (2019) show that education is a sub-factor that is very important in terms of employment other than wages.

In Indonesia, there is still a gender gap between male and female workers. The wage gap based on gender is assumed to be linked to the highest education level that has been completed in addition to socio-cultural issues that traditionally consider and view women as having a lower position than men. Apart from that, the wage gap between male and female workers is caused by differences in occupational and demographic characteristics, including work experience (www.tirto.id, 2018). Furthermore, the relationship between wages and economic growth is also clarified in several previous studies (e.g., Du & Wang, 2019; Greiner et al., 2004; Lankisch et al., 2019; Okudaira et al., 2019). Causality is driven by macroeconomics where Grieben and Şener (2017) and Lingens (2007) revealed the bargaining power factor in international trade. Zagler (2005) says there is an impact on employment, which is correctly identified by the role of industry and innovation.

Furthermore, in the government's effort to increase economic growth in all investments, another way to look at is the effectiveness of state expenditure (government expenditure). Reflecting on the State Budget in Indonesia in 2018, total state expenditure allocated a budget of 2,220.7 trillion rupiahs, where the most significant state expenditure category was budgeted for ministry and agency (K / L) expenditure of 847.4 trillion rupiahs, regional transfers and village funds amounting to 766.2 trillion and non-K / L expenditure of 607.1 trillion rupiah (www.kemenkeu.go.id, 2018). The purpose of the state expenditure is to implement social protection programs and sharpen social assistance, one of which is in education and health.

However, several aspects of the study state that government spending has a significant role in economic growth (Fizaine & Court, 2016; Dahliah et al., 2020; Dinh, 2020; Luong et al., 2020), so is the causality between economic growth and employment, which must be bridged with government policy (Rosoiu, 2015), thereby increasing the level of community welfare (Sangha et al., 2019) and the level of acceptance of a country (Lukman et al., 2018). The correlation between bank credit growth and economic growth is in line with several research results including thereby increasing the level of community welfare (Bordo et al., 2016; Chi & Li, 2017; Ketteni & Kottaridi, 2019), which concluded that the intermediary role of banking institutions is very influential in a country's economic growth. When there is a decrease in the amount of credit extended due to caution from the bank, indirectly, there will be a slowdown in economic growth in the country concerned. There are different results regarding the relationship between bank credit and economic growth, Restrepo (2019) and Mandel and Seydl (2016) stated that the bank credit factor, which was bridged between economic and tax policies, did not affect economic growth.

The tricky problem with the issue of bank credit in Indonesia is the failure of a loan identified in the debtor identification procedure based on the principle of appropriateness. In addition to that, the problem of global economic instability is also a trigger, which also influences economic growth in Indonesia. Objectively, in several aspects, this current study differs from previous studies regarding the impact of minimum wages on the labor market in Indonesia, the effect of wages on economic growth, the impact of bank credit, and government spending both on economic growth and employment. Empirically, this study is expected to provide a picture, especially for the Indonesian government, of future macro and micro-economic strategies.

#### 2. Literature Review and Hypotheses Development

Other Sections

Taylor et al. (2016) found that there was a significant positive effect between economic growth driven by an increase demand growth (see also Inchausti-Sintes, 2015), investment and investment implementation, distribution of goods, productivity, and a balance in the financial capital market and employment. It is in line with the results of studies (e.g., Auricchio et al., 2020; Bohlmann et al., 2019) from the standpoint of equilibrium theory, which adds to the variables of trade, household income, consumption and the level of exports and imports (Jin & Rafferty, 2017). Then, the influence on employment will also be balanced by the existence of a remuneration system, as well as the development of environmental aspects (loan, 2014). The study is complemented by research (i.e., Kim et al., 2019; Soto, 2009; Sasaki, 2015), which states that a link between economic growth and employment can be realized when the factor of education, fiscal policy (Doménech et al., 2018), and the balance between job seekers based on gender can be realized ideally. This is also recognized by improving the quality of services and the effect of dollarization on state policy. However, different opinions are expressed by loan (2014) and Moutinho et al. (2015), who suggest that market demand, research and development from the government and universities have no significant effect on employment. loan stated in his study that investment is a counterweight to the short-term economic growth strategy and technological capacity advancement as a new strategy in terms of

Several researchers have found the influence and relationship between wages and labor absorption (e.g., Ariga & Kambayashi, 2010; Baek & Park, 2016; Dickson & Fongoni, 2019; Holtemöller & Pohle, 2019; Li et al., 2018; Perugini & Pompei, 2016). The influence between wages and employment can be realized as long as regulation, job security, and aggregate demand for labor can take place positively. Whereas optimal wages and remuneration factors provide a real impact that bridges between wages and positive employment (Baek & Park, 2016; Vazzana & Bachmann, 1995; Clemens & Wither, 2019; Caliendo et al., 2018; Bauducco & Janiak, 2018), the factor of discrimination in terms of wages will harm employment (Borowczyk-Martins et al., 2017; Cheng et al., 2013; Perugini & Pompei, 2016; Wang et al., 2019). Conversely, other studies (e.g., Lee & Wolpin, 2010; Säve-Söderbergh, 2019; Schober & Winter-Ebmer, 2011; Xu et al., 2015) found that differences between wages by gender did not affect employment.

Sasaki et al. (2013) states that a high rise will wage affect the economic balance and employment. Then from the aspect of wage theory and asymmetric approach says that the loss aversion factor of a worker and wages become contradictory. Dickson and Fongoni (2019) and Su et al. (2019) state that the loss aversion factor and asymmetric information bridge the relationship between wages and labor absorption, low loss aversion person, and the high level of asymmetry of personal details of a worker ignores the role of the minimum wage received. Yamamoto et al. (2019) states the information asymmetry factor towards employment in the Southeast by differences in educational levels. Yamamoto et al. (2019) make it clear that education is a sub-factor that is very important in terms of employment other than wages.

The link between wages and economic growth is shown in previous studies (e.g., Du & Wang, 2019; Greiner et al., 2004), which state that there is a significant influence between low wages, the quality of labor skills and the mastery of technological factors. Lankisch et al. (2019) and Okudaira et al. (2019) stated that there was a significant influence, including low wages on the quality of the company, so that it had an impact on economic growth. In macroeconomics, Grieben and Sener (2017) and Lingens (2007) revealed the factor of bargaining power in international trade. Zagler (2005) also agrees, stating that low wages would have an impact on employment, correctly identifying industry and innovation. Palokangas (2009) suggests that employment can be realized as long as there is wage optimization and research and development support to produce innovation, especially for industry, The relationship between government spending and employment has been echoed by several previous studies (e.g., Barrow, 2004; Polo et al., 2008), which justify the fact that there is a significant influence on the tourism sector by government spending on employment which is bridged by the level of education as well as government policy (Wu et al., 2010). Sangha et al. (2019) states that labor capability contributes to the high level of employment. From the military sector, the opposite facts are revealed by a few studies (e.g., Dunne & Smith, 1990; Alptekin & Levine, 2012; Manamperi, 2016; Yildirim & Sezgin, 2003). They found an opposite fact where they considered that government spending on the military and defense had no effect on labor absorption from the military defense sector in developed countries, but has a significant impact on government spending on the military industry on economic growth for developing countries (Chen et al., 2014; Islam, 2015) including government spending in the forestry sector (Whiteman et al., 2015). However, for the energy sector and energy policy, government spending in this sector has a significant role in terms of economic growth (Fizaine & Court, 2016), as well as government policy (Roşoiu, 2015), public welfare (Sangha et al., 2019) and level of national income (Lukman et al., 2018).

In developing the conceptual framework in the third path analysis, which states the relationship between bank credit and employment, for example, Benmelech et al. (2019) states that there is a significant relationship between bank credit and employment from the viewpoint of economic theory by linking the relationship between confidence, taxation that is coercive, short-term compensation, and foreign debt. It is also in line with what has been disclosed (e.g., Cornille et al., 2019; García-Posada Gómez, 2019; Haltenhof et al., 2014; Popov & Rocholl, 2018). However, different opinions were expressed by Degryse et al. (2019) and Han and Hare (2013). They revealed that bank credit did not have a significant impact on employment rates. Apart from that, several studies state the relationship between bank credit and economic growth is primarily influenced by several factors such as financial institutions and bank factors as well as business turnover and economic policy (Bordo et al., 2016; Chi & Li, 2017; Hasanov & Huseynov, 2013; Soedarmono et al., 2017; Ketteni & Kottaridi, 2019), but a surprising point was made by Mandel and Seydl (2016), who argue that there is no significant relationship between bank credit and economic growth; other studies (i.e., Restrepo, 2019; Saksonova & Koleda, 2017) suggest that industrial growth factors are a bridge between bank credit and economic growth. Based on the previous research matrix, and the relationship between the variables that have been presented, the following hypotheses are developed:

H1: Bank credit has a significant correlation with wages.

H2: Bank credit has a significant correlation with economic growth

H3: Government expenditure has a significant correlation with wages

H4: Government expenditure has a significant correlation with bank credit

H5: Wages have a significant correlation with economic growth

H6: Wages have a significant correlation with employment

H7: Economic growth has a significant correlation with government expenditure

H8: Economic growth has a significant correlation with employment

#### 3. Research Methods and Materials

Other Sections

#### 3. 1. Samples

The data used in this research are descriptive quantitative data. This study's data sources are secondary data obtained from Indonesian macroeconomic data from 2010 to 2019, which includes data on wages, bank credit, government spending, economic growth, and employment.

#### 3. 2. Measurement

The measurement value equalization model requires several stages, such as variable investment and government expenditure, namely, data transformation using SPSS's Log-10 compute variable. The next step is testing the normality using the asymptotic/Kolomogorv-Smirnov method to determine the correlation test, using the Pearson correlation method. After transforming the value variable, the trial is continued by testing the hypotheses through the correlation testing method with significance (p <0.05). The secondary data sample of the study is illustrated in Appendix 1.

Illustrations of recapitulation of the minimum wage variable data are calculated based on the average value of 34 provinces in Indonesia. Variable bank credit (i.e., average credit from the instruments of agriculture, hunting, fisheries, mining and quarrying, processing industry, gas and water electricity, construction, wholesale and retail trade, provision of accommodation and provision of food and beverages, transportation, warehousing and communication, financial intermediaries, real estate, rental business, and company services, government administration, defense and compulsory social security, educational facilities, health services, and social activities, community services, social culture, entertainment, and other individuals, individual services were serving households, international agencies and other international extra bodies, events which have unclear boundaries). The average variable of government expenditure is based on function (i.e., public services, defense, order and security, economy, environment, housing and public facilities, health, tourism and culture, religion, education, social protection). Complete economic growth variable and employment variable data are in Appendix 2.

#### 4. 1. Results

The statistical test referring to Section 3.2 is first to homogenize data values using the logmethod10 described in Appendix 6. Then, in normality testing, the Asymptotic significance method with unstandardized residual values of XY (Res-1) obtained a value of 0.928> 0.05, which confirms that the data are normally distributed/parametric. The coefficient of determination (R-Square) predictors obtained a value of 0.691 and a value of R = 0.831, so it can be concluded that all predictors are strongly related by 69.1%. Cronbach's alpha predictor value produced a value of 0.735, so the reliability of the predictor of the dependent variable is robust, which is equal to 73.5%. Based on the results of hypothesis testing as well of the eight hypotheses developed in the previous section, two hypotheses do not support the variables that explain the relationship between wages on economic growth and economic growth on employment.

#### 4. 2. Discussion

We have demonstrated through the analysis of the correlation of each variable, that a reciprocal relationship posited in several hypotheses proves a significant influence both positively and negatively. On the other hand, there is also a hypothesis that shows no significant effect at all. The factor of bank credit recorded during the years 2010 to 2019 on a micro-scale in banking in Indonesia is predominantly channeled to the gas and water electricity sector, while government spending is more dominant in the general public service sector, including; employee wages and others. The relationship that describes a significant negative correlation is assumed that the relationship between these variables requires an intermediate variable as an intervening relationship.

We highlight some of the results of studies that have a significant negative correlation, and we can conclude that significant negative means indirect correlation. Examples include the correlation between variables of bank credit on wages and the correlation between government expenditure on bank credit. This means that there is a significant result on the increase in wages driven by the rise in bank credit, so, there must be a connecting variable. We tried to simulate some variables as intervening variables in this study, for example, by modifying the model between bank credit as independent, economic growth as an intervening variable, and wages as the dependent variable with the regression model, but the results were not significant. An essential aspect in the discussion is how bank credit is directly linked to economic growth. This means that the community's outstanding bank credit assumes that it can increase economic growth and the velocity of money in the community. Economic activity that runs in the community will trigger significant state tax revenue, so that government expenditure will also increase primarily to raise wages so that rising wages will also trigger economic growth. In other words, economic stimulus in Indonesia does require debt in the form of bank credit to turn the wheels and the economic cycle, and finance several sectors for the needs of the people (see Figure 1). This statement is fundamental and rational. Given the economic growth in Indonesia over the last few years to 5% before the coronavirus pandemic, economic growth is also in line with the increase in Indonesia's foreign debt, which also continues to increase (See.

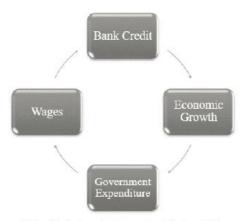


Figure 1: How the Indonesia Economics Works (Authors, 2020)

It is very rational to see how the role of government and private debt or credit banks have a significant impact on the economic wheels of the Indonesian economy because the most prominent government spending is the expenditure allocated to ministries/institutions or non-K/L and the financing of tactical funds again governmental needs. The dominant source of income comes from the tax sector and natural resource income. The natural resource income sector is not all owned by Indonesia, but still belongs to foreign companies (i.e., Vale, Chevron Pacific, Newmont, Freeport, PetroChina, Conoco Philips, BP, Niko Resources, etc). The positive side of bank credit can be a stimulus to increase economic growth. But of course, in a fair way, bank credit or macro debt will also have a negative impact, for example, it will put pressure on the tax sector that is increasingly large and massive to balance the debt position, and is feared to have an effect on fiscal, monetary, and state strategic policies. Wisely and ideally to overcome the adverse effects of the high debt burden in the form of credit banks in Indonesia, the government regulation policy is sought and maximized so that the debt function becomes effective as suggested in the study (Roşoiu, 2015; Sangha et al., 2019; Lukman et al., 2018).

Our study has also provided a comprehensive picture for academics and macroeconomic practitioners, specifically about the role of bank credit in increasing economic growth and its cycle, both at the macro and micro levels. This study also supports the assertion that there is a significant correlation and influence between government spending and bank credit on economic growth (e.g., Fizaine & Court, 2016; Bordo et al., 2016; Chi & Li, 2017; Ketteni & Kottaridi, 2019; Cornille et al., 2019; García-Posada Gómez, 2019; Haltenhof

et al., 2014; Popov & Rocholl, 2018). It also provides differing opinions from Mandel and Seydl (2016), which suggested the role of government and private R&D and the development of human capital form a bridging variable between government spending and economic growth; this study focuses more on the urgency of credit banks to increase economic growth and reflect increased government spending. Benmelech et al., (2019) revealed that there was a significant correlation between bank credit and employment. In contrast, in our study, the relationship can exist, but after passing through several stages, the implications are explained in Figure 1.

#### 5. Conclusions

Other Sections

This study has provided a broad picture on the vital role of bank credit in triggering effects on micro and macroeconomic growth to the stages where the contribution of bank credit can increase the value of wages. The existence of a negative correlation gives a significant signal that our assumption that the role of government regulations related to credit bank management professionally and ethically can be a good bridge in promoting economic growth. On the other hand, in addition to regulations regarding the optimal management and use of credit banks, it is also expected that our findings inform strategic economic policy. Further research could modify the model with variations in the intervening causality.

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## How Indonesia Economics Works: Correlation Analysis of Macroeconomics in 2010 - 2019

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#### **Abstract**

The purpose of this study is to provide benefits and ethically-rooted managerial implications based on theoretical underpinnings through an empirical study using correlation between wages, bank credit, government expenditure on economic growth, and employment via a case study in Indonesia. Besides that, managerial implications strive to provide benefits to the government regarding the importance of establishing effective and pro-development regulations to realize economic growth and employment through the efficient role of wages, bank credit, and government spending. This study uses secondary macroeconomic data from the period 2010-2019 with analysis using the correlation test with the Pearson correlation method. Out of eight hypotheses tested, two hypotheses do not have a significant correlation. The details of the statistical results obtained the following correlations: the correlation between bank credit and wages has a significant, but indirect (negative) correlation. However, the correlation between bank credit and economic growth has a direct and significant (positive) correlation. Government expenditure correlates positively with wages, but correlates negatively with bank credit. Wages are positively correlated with economic growth, but have no significant effect on employment. Finally, economic growth has a positive correlation with government expenditure, but does not have a significant correlation with employment.

Keywords: Bank Credit, Wages, Government Expenditure, Economics Growth, Employment

JEL Classification Code: H1, H5, J1

#### 1. Introduction

The issue of wages is a fundamental element of economic principles in the world. In Indonesia alone, the government increases wages from year to year to improve people's living standards, evidenced by statistical data in the post-reform period, rising from IDR1,134,963 in 1997 to IDR2,455,716 in 2019. On the one hand, efforts to increase wages instantly eliminate the main problems that become the polemic of the national economy. The pros and cons of efforts to raise

salaries are still alive. Government efforts in maximizing the level of community welfare through wage increases are still considered small to meet the needs of people's lives. An increase in wages is undoubtedly a hope for workers. Where the delivery of wage increases will be in line with the fulfillment of a decent standard of living needs, an increase in public consumption is also considered. There is recognition of the achievements, skills, and abilities of workers in terms of competence and capability.

Increasing wages can also be considered as a simple solution to a problem. The impact of wage increases can harm the development of the business climate where one of the adverse effects caused after the determination of the minimum wage increase is the staff retrenchment (PHK) which can macro-impact on high unemployment and sluggish macroeconomic growth, including the growth of the economic sector, which will in turn have an impact on the consumption by the community itself (Böhm, 1978; Sasaki et al., 2013; Du & Wang, 2019; Greiner et al., 2004; Lankisch et al., 2019; Okudaira et al., 2019). Several studies have made the variable wage a hot issue discussed among researchers who link wages and employment (e.g., Ariga &

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Kambayashi, 2010; Baek & Park, 2016; Dickson & Fongoni, 2019; Holtemöller & Pohle, 2019; Li et al., 2018; Perugini & Pompei, 2016). From the economic theory and wage theory, there is causality between wages and labor absorption. Labor issues in Indonesia must receive serious attention from various parties, both government and private. Labor issues are the main problems that must be faced by the state and the people of Indonesia. So, it is suggested that the government should embrace the private sector to reduce and resolve labor problems jointly. The limited employment triggers some of the main issues of employment in Indonesia low quality of labor, high unemployment, wage factors, and social security factors that are considered inadequate.

The influence between wages and labor absorption can be realized as long as regulatory factors are seen to be flexible by the government; job security factors and aggregate demand for labor can take place in a positively environment (Ariga & Kambayashi, 2010). But different opinions are expressed in research by Baek and Park (2016), which states that the increase in the minimum wage does not affect employment in the energy sector. Sasaki et al. (2013) states that a high wage rise will affect the economic balance and employment. Of course, the increase in wages is expected to be in line with the quality and quantity of production and labor factors, including the absorption of workers who are capable of both education and performance. Yamamoto et al. (2019) point out the information asymmetry factor towards employment in the Southeast by different levels of education. Yamamoto et al. (2019) show that education is a sub-factor that is very important in terms of employment other than wages.

In Indonesia, there is still a gender gap between male and female workers. The wage gap based on gender is assumed to be linked to the highest education level that has been completed in addition to socio-cultural issues that traditionally consider and view women as having a lower position than men. Apart from that, the wage gap between male and female workers is caused by differences in occupational and demographic characteristics, including work experience (www.tirto.id, 2018). Furthermore, the relationship between wages and economic growth is also clarified in several previous studies (e.g., Du & Wang, 2019; Greiner et al., 2004; Lankisch et al., 2019; Okudaira et al., 2019). Causality is driven by macroeconomics where Grieben and Şener (2017) and Lingens (2007) revealed the bargaining power factor in international trade. Zagler (2005) says there is an impact on employment, which is correctly identified by the role of industry and innovation.

Furthermore, in the government's effort to increase economic growth in all investments, another way to look at is the effectiveness of state expenditure (government expenditure). Reflecting on the State Budget in Indonesia in 2018, total state expenditure allocated a budget of 2,220.7 trillion rupiahs, where the most significant state expenditure

category was budgeted for ministry and agency (K / L) expenditure of 847.4 trillion rupiahs, regional transfers and village funds amounting to 766.2 trillion and non-K / L expenditure of 607.1 trillion rupiah (www.kemenkeu.go.id, 2018). The purpose of the state expenditure is to implement social protection programs and sharpen social assistance, one of which is in education and health.

However, several aspects of the study state that government spending has a significant role in economic growth (Fizaine & Court, 2016; Dahliah et al., 2020; Dinh, 2020; Luong et al., 2020), so is the causality between economic growth and employment, which must be bridged with government policy (Rosoiu, 2015), thereby increasing the level of community welfare (Sangha et al., 2019) and the level of acceptance of a country (Lukman et al., 2018). The correlation between bank credit growth and economic growth is in line with several research results including thereby increasing the level of community welfare (Bordo et al., 2016; Chi & Li, 2017; Ketteni & Kottaridi, 2019), which concluded that the intermediary role of banking institutions is very influential in a country's economic growth. When there is a decrease in the amount of credit extended due to caution from the bank, indirectly, there will be a slowdown in economic growth in the country concerned. There are different results regarding the relationship between bank credit and economic growth, Restrepo (2019) and Mandel and Seydl (2016) stated that the bank credit factor, which was bridged between economic and tax policies, did not affect economic growth.

The tricky problem with the issue of bank credit in Indonesia is the failure of a loan identified in the debtor identification procedure based on the principle of appropriateness. In addition to that, the problem of global economic instability is also a trigger, which also influences economic growth in Indonesia. Objectively, in several aspects, this current study differs from previous studies regarding the impact of minimum wages on the labor market in Indonesia, the effect of wages on economic growth, the impact of bank credit, and government spending both on economic growth and employment. Empirically, this study is expected to provide a picture, especially for the Indonesian government, of future macro and micro-economic strategies.

### 2. Literature Review and Hypotheses Development

Taylor et al. (2016) found that there was a significant positive effect between economic growth driven by an increase demand growth (see also Inchausti-Sintes, 2015), investment and investment implementation, distribution of goods, productivity, and a balance in the financial capital market and employment. It is in line with the results of studies (e.g., Auricchio et al., 2020; Bohlmann et al., 2019)

from the standpoint of equilibrium theory, which adds to the variables of trade, household income, consumption and the level of exports and imports (Jin & Rafferty, 2017). Then, the influence on employment will also be balanced by the existence of a remuneration system, as well as the development of environmental aspects (Ioan, 2014). The study is complemented by research (i.e., Kim et al., 2019; Soto, 2009; Sasaki, 2015), which states that a link between economic growth and employment can be realized when the factor of education, fiscal policy (Doménech et al., 2018), and the balance between job seekers based on gender can be realized ideally. This is also recognized by improving the quality of services and the effect of dollarization on state policy. However, different opinions are expressed by Ioan (2014) and Moutinho et al. (2015), who suggest that market demand, research and development from the government and universities have no significant effect on employment. Ioan stated in his study that investment is a counterweight to the short-term economic growth strategy and technological capacity advancement as a new strategy in terms of optimal employment.

Several researchers have found the influence and relationship between wages and labor absorption (e.g., Ariga & Kambayashi, 2010; Baek & Park, 2016; Dickson & Fongoni, 2019; Holtemöller & Pohle, 2019; Li et al., 2018; Perugini & Pompei, 2016). The influence between wages and employment can be realized as long as regulation, job security, and aggregate demand for labor can take place positively. Whereas optimal wages and remuneration factors provide a real impact that bridges between wages and positive employment (Baek & Park, 2016; Vazzana & Bachmann, 1995; Clemens & Wither, 2019; Caliendo et al., 2018; Bauducco & Janiak, 2018), the factor of discrimination in terms of wages will harm employment (Borowczyk-Martins et al., 2017; Cheng et al., 2013; Perugini & Pompei, 2016; Wang et al., 2019). Conversely, other studies (e.g., Lee & Wolpin, 2010; Säve-Söderbergh, 2019; Schober & Winter-Ebmer, 2011; Xu et al., 2015) found that differences between wages by gender did not affect employment.

Sasaki *et al.* (2013) states that a high rise will wage affect the economic balance and employment. Then from the aspect of wage theory and asymmetric approach says that the loss aversion factor of a worker and wages become contradictory. Dickson and Fongoni (2019) and Su *et al.* (2019) state that the loss aversion factor and asymmetric information bridge the relationship between wages and labor absorption, low loss aversion person, and the high level of asymmetry of personal details of a worker ignores the role of the minimum wage received. Yamamoto *et al.* (2019) states the information asymmetry factor towards employment in the Southeast by differences in educational levels. Yamamoto *et al.* (2019) make it clear that education is a sub-factor that is very important in terms of employment other than wages.

The link between wages and economic growth is shown in previous studies (e.g., Du & Wang, 2019; Greiner et al., 2004), which state that there is a significant influence between low wages, the quality of labor skills and the mastery of technological factors. Lankisch et al. (2019) and Okudaira et al. (2019) stated that there was a significant influence, including low wages on the quality of the company, so that it had an impact on economic growth. In macroeconomics, Grieben and Sener (2017) and Lingens (2007) revealed the factor of bargaining power in international trade. Zagler (2005) also agrees, stating that low wages would have an impact on employment, correctly identifying industry and innovation. Palokangas (2009) suggests that employment can be realized as long as there is wage optimization and research and development support to produce innovation, especially for industry.

The relationship between government spending and employment has been echoed by several previous studies (e.g., Barrow, 2004; Polo et al., 2008), which justify the fact that there is a significant influence on the tourism sector by government spending on employment which is bridged by the level of education as well as government policy (Wu et al., 2010). Sangha et al. (2019) states that labor capability contributes to the high level of employment. From the military sector, the opposite facts are revealed by a few studies (e.g., Dunne & Smith, 1990; Alptekin & Levine, 2012; Manamperi, 2016; Yildirim & Sezgin, 2003). They found an opposite fact where they considered that government spending on the military and defense had no effect on labor absorption from the military defense sector in developed countries, but has a significant impact on government spending on the military industry on economic growth for developing countries (Chen et al., 2014; Islam, 2015) including government spending in the forestry sector (Whiteman et al., 2015).

However, for the energy sector and energy policy, government spending in this sector has a significant role in terms of economic growth (Fizaine & Court, 2016), as well as government policy (Roşoiu, 2015), public welfare (Sangha et al., 2019) and level of national income (Lukman et al., 2018).

In developing the conceptual framework in the third path analysis, which states the relationship between bank credit and employment, for example, Benmelech et al. (2019) states that there is a significant relationship between bank credit and employment from the viewpoint of economic theory by linking the relationship between confidence, taxation that is coercive, short-term compensation, and foreign debt. It is also in line with what has been disclosed (e.g., Cornille et al., 2019; García-Posada Gómez, 2019; Haltenhof et al., 2014; Popov & Rocholl, 2018). However, different opinions were expressed by Degryse et al. (2019) and Han and

Hare (2013). They revealed that bank credit did not have a significant impact on employment rates. Apart from that, several studies state the relationship between bank credit and economic growth is primarily influenced by several factors such as financial institutions and bank factors as well as business turnover and economic policy (Bordo et al., 2016; Chi & Li, 2017; Hasanov & Huseynov, 2013; Soedarmono et al., 2017; Ketteni & Kottaridi, 2019), but a surprising point was made by Mandel and Seydl (2016), who argue that there is no significant relationship between bank credit and economic growth; other studies (i.e., Restrepo, 2019; Saksonova & Koleda, 2017) suggest that industrial growth factors are a bridge between bank credit and economic growth. Based on the previous research matrix, and the relationship between the variables that have been presented, the following hypotheses are developed:

H1: Bank credit has a significant correlation with wages.

**H2:** Bank credit has a significant correlation with economic growth

**H3:** Government expenditure has a significant correlation with wages

**H4:** Government expenditure has a significant correlation with bank credit

**H5:** Wages have a significant correlation with economic growth

**H6:** Wages have a significant correlation with employment

H7: Economic growth has a significant correlation with government expenditure

**H8:** Economic growth has a significant correlation with employment

#### 3. Research Methods and Materials

#### 3.1. Samples

The data used in this research are descriptive quantitative data. This study's data sources are secondary data obtained from Indonesian macroeconomic data from 2010 to 2019, which includes data on wages, bank credit, government spending, economic growth, and employment.

#### 3.2. Measurement

The measurement value equalization model requires several stages, such as variable investment and government expenditure, namely, data transformation using SPSS's Log-10 compute variable. The next step is testing the normality using the asymptotic/Kolomogorv-Smirnov method to determine the correlation test, using the Pearson correlation method. After transforming the value variable, the trial is

continued by testing the hypotheses through the correlation testing method with significance (p <0.05). The secondary data sample of the study is illustrated in Appendix 1.

Illustrations of recapitulation of the minimum wage variable data are calculated based on the average value of 34 provinces in Indonesia. Variable bank credit (i.e., average credit from the instruments of agriculture, hunting, fisheries, mining and quarrying, processing industry, gas and water electricity, construction, wholesale and retail trade, provision of accommodation and provision of food and beverages, transportation, warehousing and communication, financial intermediaries, real estate, rental business, and company services, government administration, defense and compulsory social security, educational facilities, health services, and social activities, community services, social culture, entertainment, and other individuals, individual services were serving households, international agencies and other international extra bodies, events which have unclear boundaries). The average variable of government expenditure is based on function (i.e., public services, defense, order and security, economy, environment, housing and public facilities, health, tourism and culture, religion, education, social protection). Complete economic growth variable and employment variable data are in Appendix 2.

#### 4. Results and Discussion

#### 4.1. Results

The statistical test referring to Section 3.2 is first to homogenize data values using the logmethod10 described in Appendix 6. Then, in normality testing, the Asymptotic significance method with unstandardized residual values of XY (Res-1) obtained a value of 0.928> 0.05, which confirms that the data are normally distributed/parametric. The coefficient of determination (R-Square) predictors obtained a value of 0.691 and a value of R = 0.831, so it can be concluded that all predictors are strongly related by 69.1%. Cronbach's alpha predictor value produced a value of 0.735, so the reliability of the predictor of the dependent variable is robust, which is equal to 73.5%. Based on the results of hypothesis testing as well of the eight hypotheses developed in the previous section, two hypotheses do not support the variables that explain the relationship between wages on economic growth and economic growth on employment.

#### 4.2. Discussion

We have demonstrated through the analysis of the correlation of each variable, that a reciprocal relationship posited in several hypotheses proves a significant influence both positively and negatively. On the other hand, there is

also a hypothesis that shows no significant effect at all. The factor of bank credit recorded during the years 2010 to 2019 on a micro-scale in banking in Indonesia is predominantly channeled to the gas and water electricity sector, while government spending is more dominant in the general public service sector, including; employee wages and others. The relationship that describes a significant negative correlation is assumed that the relationship between these variables requires an intermediate variable as an intervening relationship.

We highlight some of the results of studies that have a significant negative correlation, and we can conclude that significant negative means indirect correlation. Examples include the correlation between variables of bank credit on wages and the correlation between government expenditure on bank credit. This means that there is a significant result on the increase in wages driven by the rise in bank credit, so, there must be a connecting variable. We tried to simulate some variables as intervening variables in this study, for example, by modifying the model between bank credit as independent, economic growth as an intervening variable, and wages as the dependent variable with the regression model, but the results were not significant. An essential aspect in the discussion is how bank credit is directly linked to economic growth. This means that the community's outstanding bank credit assumes that it can increase economic growth and the velocity of money in the community. Economic activity that runs in the community will trigger significant state tax revenue, so that government expenditure will also increase primarily to raise wages so that rising wages will also trigger economic growth. In other words, economic stimulus in Indonesia does require debt in the form of bank credit to turn the wheels and the economic cycle, and finance several sectors for the needs of the people (see Figure 1). This statement is fundamental and rational. Given the economic growth in Indonesia over the last few years to 5% before the coronavirus pandemic, economic growth is also in line with the increase in Indonesia's foreign debt, which also continues to increase (See. www. databoks.katadata.co.id, 2020).

It is very rational to see how the role of government and private debt or credit banks have a significant impact on the economic wheels of the Indonesian economy because the most prominent government spending is the expenditure allocated to ministries/institutions or non-K/L and the financing of tactical funds again governmental needs. The dominant source of income comes from the tax sector and natural resource income. The natural resource income sector is not all owned by Indonesia, but still belongs to foreign companies (i.e., Vale, Chevron Pacific, Newmont, Freeport, PetroChina, Conoco Philips, BP, Niko Resources, etc). The positive side of bank credit can be a stimulus to increase

economic growth. But of course, in a fair way, bank credit or macro debt will also have a negative impact, for example, it will put pressure on the tax sector that is increasingly large and massive to balance the debt position, and is feared to have an effect on fiscal, monetary, and state strategic policies. Wisely and ideally to overcome the adverse effects of the high debt burden in the form of credit banks in Indonesia, the government regulation policy is sought and maximized so that the debt function becomes effective as suggested in the study (Roşoiu, 2015; Sangha et al., 2019; Lukman et al., 2018).

Our study has also provided a comprehensive picture for academics and macroeconomic practitioners, specifically about the role of bank credit in increasing economic growth and its cycle, both at the macro and micro levels. This study also supports the assertion that there is a significant correlation and influence between government spending and bank credit on economic growth (e.g., Fizaine & Court, 2016; Bordo et al., 2016; Chi & Li, 2017; Ketteni & Kottaridi, 2019; Cornille et al., 2019; García-Posada Gómez, 2019; Haltenhof et al., 2014; Popov & Rocholl, 2018). It also provides differing opinions from Mandel and Seydl (2016), which suggested the role of government and private R&D and the development of human capital form a bridging variable between government spending and economic growth; this study focuses more on the urgency of credit banks to increase economic growth and reflect increased government spending. Benmelech et al., (2019) revealed that there was a significant correlation between bank credit and employment. In contrast, in our study, the relationship can exist, but after passing through several stages, the implications are explained in Figure 1.

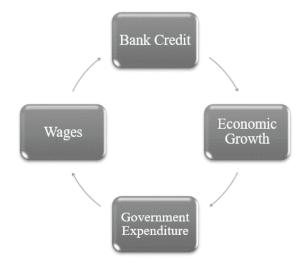


Figure 1: How the Indonesia Economics Works (Authors, 2020)

#### 5. Conclusions

This study has provided a broad picture on the vital role of bank credit in triggering effects on micro and macroeconomic growth to the stages where the contribution of bank credit can increase the value of wages. The existence of a negative correlation gives a significant signal that our assumption that the role of government regulations related to credit bank management professionally and ethically can be a good bridge in promoting economic growth. On the other hand, in addition to regulations regarding the optimal management and use of credit banks, it is also expected that our findings inform strategic economic policy. Further research could modify the model with variations in the intervening causality.

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Appendix 1: Wages of 34 Province in Indonesia (In billion rupiah)

D		Year											
Province	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019			
Aceh	1.300	1.350	1.400	1.550	1.750	1.900	2.118	2.500	2.718	2.917			
Sumatera Utara	965	1.035	1.200	1.375	1.505	1.625	1.812	1.961	2.132	2.303			
Sumatera Barat	940	1.055	1.150	1.350	1.490	1.615	1.800	1.949	2.755	2.289			
Riau	1.016	1.120	1.238	1.400	1.700	1.878	2.095	2.538	1.888	2.662			
Jambi	900	1.028	1.142	1.300	1.502	1.710	1.906	2.358	2.074	2.424			
Sumatera Selatan	927	1.048	1.195	1.630	1.825	1.974	2.206	2.266	2.464	2.804			
Bengkulu	780	815	930	1.200	1.350	1.500	1.605	2.063	2.596	2.040			
Lampung	767	855	975	1.150	1.399	1.581	1.763	1.737	2.244	2.240			
Bangka Belitung	910	1.024	1.110	1.265	1.640	2.100	2.341	2.388	2.119	2.976			
Kep. Riau	925	975	1.015	1.365	1.665	1.954	2.178	1.908	2.563	2.769			
Dki Jakarta	1.118	1.290	1.529	2.200	2.441	2.700	3.100	1.931	1.544	3.941			
Jawa Barat	671	732	780	850	1.000	1.000	2.250	3.355	2.099	1.668			
Jawa Tengah	660	675	765	830	910	910	-	1.420	1.454	1.605			
Di Yogyakarta	746	808	892	947	988	988	-	1.367	1.486	1.571			
Jawa Timur	630	705	745	866	1.000	1.000	-	1.337	1.508	1.630			
Banten	955	1.000	1.042	1.170	1.325	1.600	1.784	1.388	3.648	2.268			
Bali	829	890	967	1.181	1.542	1.621	1.807	1.956	2.127	2.298			
NTB	891	950	1.000	1.100	1.210	1.330	1.483	1.631	2.543	2.012			
NTT	800	850	925	1.010	1.150	1.250	1.425	1.525	2.560	1.793			
Kalimantan Barat	741	802	900	1.060	1.380	1.560	1.739	1.883	2.454	2.211			
Kalimantan Tengah	986	1.134	1.327	1.553	1.724	1.896	2.057	2.258	2.047	2.663			
Kalimantan Selatan	1.024	1.126	1.225	1.337	1.620	1.870	2.085	2.227	2.421	2.652			
Kalimantan Timur	1.002	1.084	1.177	1.752	1.886	2.026	2.161	2.354	2.648	2.747			
Kalimantan Utara	-	-	-	-	-	2.026	2.175	2.359	2.193	2.765			
Sulawesi Utara	1.000	1.050	1.250	1.550	1.900	2.150	2.400	2.030	2.824	3.051			
Sulawesi Tengah	777	827	885	995	1.250	1.500	1.670	2.598	1.965	2.123			
Sulawesi Selatan	1.000	1.100	1.200	1.440	1.800	2.000	2.250	1.808	2.177	2.860			
Sulawesi Tenggara	860	930	1.032	1.125	1.400	1.652	1.850	2.002	2.222	2.352			
Gorontalo	710	762	837	1.175	1.325	1.600	1.875	2.435	2.207	2.400			
Sulawesi Barat	944	1.006	1.127	1.165	1.400	1.655	1.864	2.017	-	2.369			
Maluku	840	900	975	1.275	1.415	1.650	1.775	1.925	1.825	2.400			
Maluku Utara	847	889	961	1.200	1.440	1.577	1.681	1.975	1.660	2.508			
Papua Barat	1.210	1.410	1.450	1.720	1.870	2.015	2.237	2.663	2.667	2.934			
Papua	1.316	1.403	1.585	1.710	2.040	2.193	2.435	2.421	2.895	3.240			

Appendix 2: Data on Bank Credit in Indonesia Conducted by Function (in billions of rupiah)

F	Year										
Function	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019		
Agriculture, Hunting	1.584	3.106	2.943	2.922	2.812	2.651	3.759	4.191	6.874		
Fishery	133	106	103	101	102	100	99	112	109		
Mining and excavation	321	2	1.265	1	159	2	27	3	3		
Processing industry	2.868	3.756	4.356	3.276	3.373	248	249	852	41		
Gas and water electricity	9.999	8.127	8.581	7.093	7.048	4	4	4	108		
Construction	766	804	1.002	1.037	1.133	31	36	16	15		
Wholesale and retail	529	481	804	844	715	584	597	579	511		
Provision of accommodation and Provision of food and drink	3.689	40	16	91	39	39	35	36	46		
Transportation, warehousing, and communication	2.822	1.916	2.002	1.741	1.819	34	32	40	340		
Financial intermediaries	20	408	346	355	453	480	601	540	469		
Real estate, rental business, and company services	205	175	171	600	222	176	160	160	157		
Administration of government, defense, and social security	198	200	197	199	178	40	40	40	40		
Educational services	0	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	38		
Health services and social activities	70	80	73	90	96	93	93	96	93		
Community services, social culture, entertainment	578	539	550	529	535	516	526	525	523		
Individual services serving households	25	21	189	13	13	12	12	12	11		
International Bodies and other international Extra Bodies	82	85	-	80	79	77	74	83	82		
Activities that have no clear boundaries	5.536	4.702	4.747	4.300	4.253	4.326	4.048	4.754	4.463		

Appendix 3: Government Expenditures Based on Function (In Billion rupiah)

Function	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Public service	495.320	517.167	647.998	705.724	797.763	624.497	275.123	307.147	375.196	440.928
Defense	20.968	47.419	61.226	87.510	86.113	105.907	98.248	117.506	106.832	107.426
Order and security	14.926	22.067	29.096	36.120	34.856	52.941	113.349	135.748	143.305	140.660
The economy	57.359	101.414	105.574	108.082	97.140	177.105	288.344	307.787	382.420	384.134
Living environment	7.889	11.070	8.814	10.590	9.326	9.874	8.941	10.613	13.709	14.031
Housing and public facilities	20.907	23.425	26.440	33.790	26.244	16.981	27.816	27.277	32.198	21.596
Health	18.002	13.649	15.181	17.577	10.893	23.225	59.639	57.225	61.869	59.675
Tourism and culture	1.416	2.901	2.516	1.818	1.469	3.166	4.379	5.770	10.700	3.891
Religion	913	1.397	3.419	3.872	4.001	5.097	8.463	8.870	9.379	10.027
Education	84.086	91.483	105.207	114.969	122.697	143.638	131.974	138.507	145.941	149.877
Social protection	3.457	4.586	5.081	17.107	13.070	20.867	137.737	148.905	173.771	194.903

Appendix 4: Economics Growth (In Percentage)

Province	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Aceh	-5,51	2,74	3,28	3,85	2,61	1,55	-0,73	3,29	4,18	4,61
Sumatera Utara	5,07	6,42	6,66	6,45	6,07	5,23	5,1	5,18	5,12	5,18
Sumatera Barat	4,28	5,94	6,34	6,31	6,08	5,88	5,53	5,27	5,29	5,14
Riau	2,97	4,21	5,57	3,76	2,48	2,71	0,22	2,18	2,68	2,34
Jambi	6,39	7,35	7,86	7,03	6,84	7,36	4,21	4,37	4,64	4,71
Sumatera Selatan	4,11	5,63	6,36	6,83	5,31	4,79	4,42	5,04	5,51	6,04
Bengkulu	5,62	6,1	6,85	6,83	6,07	5,48	5,13	5,28	4,98	4,99
Lampung	5,26	5,88	6,56	6,44	5,77	5,08	5,13	5,14	5,16	5,25
Kep. Bangka Belitung	3,74	5,99	6,9	5,5	5,2	4,67	4,08	4,1	4,47	4,45
Kep. Riau	3,52	7,19	6,96	7,63	7,21	6,6	6,02	4,98	2	4,56
Dki Jakarta	5,02	6,5	6,73	6,53	6,07	5,91	5,91	5,87	6,2	6,17
Jawa Barat	4,19	6,2	6,5	6,5	6,33	5,09	5,05	5,66	5,35	5,64
Jawa Tengah	5,14	5,84	5,3	5,34	5,11	5,27	5,47	5,25	5,26	5,32
DI Yogyakarta	4,43	4,88	5,21	5,37	5,47	5,17	4,95	5,05	5,26	6,2
Jawa Timur	5,01	6,68	6,44	6,64	6,08	5,86	5,44	5,57	5,46	5,5
Banten	4,71	6,11	7,03	6,83	6,67	5,51	5,45	5,28	5,73	5,81
Bali	5,33	5,83	6,66	6,96	6,69	6,73	6,03	6,33	5,57	6,35
Nusa Tenggara Barat	12,14	6,35	-3,91	-1,54	5,16	5,17	21,76	5,81	0,12	-4,56
Nusa Tenggara Timur	4,29	5,25	5,67	5,46	5,41	5,05	4,92	5,12	5,11	5,13
Kalimantan Barat	4,8	5,47	5,5	5,91	6,05	5,03	4,88	5,2	5,17	5,06
Kalimantan Tengah	5,57	6,5	7,01	6,87	7,37	6,21	7,01	6,35	6,72	5,64
Kalimantan Selatan	5,29	5,59	6,97	5,97	5,33	4,84	3,82	4,4	5,28	5,13
Kalimantan Timur	2,28	5,1	6,47	5,48	2,76	1,71	-1,2	-0,38	3,13	2,67
Kalimantan Utara	-	-	-	-	-	8,18	3,4	3,55	6,79	6,04
Sulawesi Utara	7,85	7,16	6,17	6,86	6,38	6,31	6,12	6,16	6,31	6,01
Sulawesi Tengah	7,71	8,74	9,82	9,53	9,59	5,07	15,5	9,94	7,1	6,3
Sulawesi Selatan	6,23	8,19	8,13	8,87	7,62	7,54	7,19	7,42	7,21	7,07
Sulawesi Tenggara	7,57	8,22	10,63	11,65	7,5	6,26	6,88	6,51	6,76	6,42
Gorontalo	7,54	7,63	7,71	7,91	7,67	7,27	6,22	6,52	6,73	6,51
Sulawesi Barat	6,03	11,89	10,73	9,25	6,93	8,86	7,31	6,01	6,62	6,23
Maluku	5,44	6,47	6,34	7,16	5,24	6,64	5,48	5,73	5,82	5,94
Maluku Utara	6,07	7,95	6,8	6,98	6,36	5,49	6,1	5,77	7,67	7,92
Papua Barat	13,87	28,47	3,64	3,63	7,36	5,38	4,15	4,52	4,01	6,24
Papua	22,22	-3,19	-4,28	1,72	8,55	3,65	7,35	9,14	4,64	7,33

**Appendix 5:** Employment (In Percentage)

Drawinas	Tahun											
Province	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018			
Aceh	63,17	62,53	61,72	62,24	63,06	63,44	64,26	63,74	64,24			
Sumatera Utara	69,51	67,62	69,27	70,62	67,07	67,28	65,99	68,88	71,82			
Sumatera Barat	66,36	65,33	64,42	62,92	65,19	64,56	67,08	66,29	67,27			
Riau	63,66	63,21	62,52	63,44	63,31	63,22	66,25	64,00	65,23			
Jambi	65,78	65,48	64,92	62,68	65,59	66,14	67,54	67,52	68,46			
Sumatera Selatan	70,23	68,30	69,61	66,75	68,85	68,53	71,59	69,50	68,69			
Bengkulu	71,86	70,22	70,14	67,59	68,29	70,67	72,69	69,30	70,06			
Lampung	67,95	65,27	66,30	64,84	66,99	65,60	69,61	67,83	69,67			
Bangka-Belitung	66,53	64,19	65,58	65,38	65,45	66,71	68,93	66,72	67,79			
Kepulauan Riau	68,85	65,71	66,92	65,92	65,95	65,07	65,93	66,41	64,72			
DKI Jakarta	67,83	69,30	71,47	67,79	66,61	66,39	66,91	61,97	63,95			
Jawa Barat	62,38	61,34	63,64	62,82	62,77	60,34	60,65	63,34	62,92			
Jawa Tengah	70,60	70,15	71,26	70,43	69,68	67,86	67,15	69,11	68,56			
DI Yogyakarta	69,76	70,15	71,37	69,29	71,05	68,38	71,96	71,52	73,37			
Jawa Timur	69,08	68,06	69,60	69,78	68,12	67,84	66,14	68,78	69,37			
Banten	65,34	65,61	65,17	63,55	63,84	62,24	63,66	62,32	63,49			
Bali	77,38	75,19	76,58	74,93	74,91	75,51	77,24	75,24	76,78			
Nusa Tenggara Barat	66,63	65,71	65,93	65,42	66,63	66,54	71,57	68,49	65,91			
Nusa Tenggara Timur	72,77	68,58	69,98	68,15	68,91	69,25	69,18	69,09	70,17			
Kalimantan Barat	73,17	72,41	71,40	69,53	69,93	69,68	69,32	68,63	68,65			
Kalimantan Tengah	69,86	70,14	69,88	68,50	68,56	71,11	71,30	67,74	70,03			
Kalimantan Selatan	71,26	71,94	71,95	69,31	69,46	69,73	71,57	70,06	70,27			
Kalimantan Timur	66,41	66,56	66,37	63,50	64,10	62,39	67,79	63,75	64,99			
Kalimantan Utara	-	-	-	-	•	63,45	62,40	68,24	67,81			
Sulawesi Utara	63,31	62,66	61,54	59,41	59,99	61,28	65,11	60,85	63,01			
Sulawesi Tengah	69,22	68,65	65,92	65,56	66,76	67,51	72,28	67,14	69,52			
Sulawesi Selatan	64,14	63,43	62,71	60,32	62,04	60,94	62,92	60,98	63,02			
Sulawesi Tenggara	71,86	66,73	67,30	65,91	66,87	68,35	73,47	68,70	69,78			
Gorontalo	64,42	64,06	62,57	61,46	62,84	63,65	67,89	64,78	67,34			
Sulawesi Barat	71,46	69,87	71,71	66,83	71,06	70,27	71,90	66,96	68,46			
Maluku	66,48	67,21	62,94	61,93	60,92	64,47	64,51	60,18	62,90			
Maluku Utara	65,11	64,57	66,05	64,35	63,88	66,43	66,19	63,65	65,21			
Papua Barat	69,29	66,87	67,20	66,69	68,30	68,68	70,05	67,47	67,88			
Papua	80,99	77,75	78,18	77,70	78,67	79,57	76,70	76,94	79,11			
Indonesia	66,55	65,44	65,65	64,28	64,87	66,85	68,46	66,94	67,95			

Appendix 6: Statistical Analysis

			Transforma	tion Log10					
Wages	Wages Bank Credit Government Expenditure			nics Emplo	yment	Unstandardized Residual			
5.96	3.21	4.82	5.88	65	.69	0.0829			
6.0	3.21	4.88	6.83	66	.55	0.90478			
6.04	3.14	4.96	6.08	65	.44	-0.0990			
6.11	3.21	5.01	6.26	65	.65	0.4530			
6.18	3.11	5.04	6.1	64	.28	-1.4242			
6.23	3.11	5.03	5.52	64	.87	-0.8967			
6.3	2.72	5.02	5.71	66	.85	-1.1136			
6.32	2.76	5.06	5.34	68	.46	0.9139			
6.36	2.83	5.12	5.24	66	.94	-0.0638			
6.39	2.89	5.14	5.27	67	.95	1.2427			
			Normal	ity Test					
				Unstandardiz	zed Residua	I			
N			10						
Normal Parar	neters <sup>a,b</sup> Mean Standard	Deviation	.0000000 .00733673						
Most Extreme	Differences								
Absolute	Positive Negative		.172 .172 107						
Kolmogorov-S	Smirnov Z		.545						
Asymp. Sig. (	2-tailed)		.928						
		R = 0.831, I	R Square = 0.691. Cronbach Alpha = 0.735						
		Hypoth	esis Test with Pe	earson Correlation Test					
	Model		Pearson Correlation	p-value		Result			
Bank Credit -	→ Wages		-0.854	0.002 < 0.05	N	legative Significant			
Bank Credit -	→ Economics Gro	owth	0.726	0.017 < 0.05	1	Positive Significant			
Government Expenditure → Wages			0.928	0.000 < 0.01	ı	Positive Significant			
Government	Expenditure $ ightarrow$ B	ank Credit	-0.661	0.038 < 0.01	N	legative Significant			
Wages → Ec	onomics Growth		-0.811	0.004 < 0.05	ı	Positive Significant			
Vages → Em	ployment		0.548	0.101 > 0.05		Insignificant			
Economics Growth → Government Expenditure			-0.691	0.027 < 0.05	ı	Positive Significant			
Economics G	rowth  o Employ	ment	-0.462	0.179 > 0.05		Insignificant			