

To cite this article: Sirilius Seran, and Yuliana Sengkoen (2024). SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC FACTORS ON DOMESTIC VIOLENCE IN INDONESIA, International Journal of Education and Social Science Research (IJESSR) 7 (4): 119-131 Article No. 958, Sub Id 1498

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC FACTORS ON DOMESTIC VIOLENCE IN INDONESIA

Sirilius Seran, and Yuliana Sengkoen

Development Economics Study Program-Faculty of Economics-University of Timor.
Kefamenanu Timor-NTT-Indonesia

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.37500/IJESSR.2024.7407>

ABSTRACT

Domestic violence is a social problem experienced by some married women. Victims of domestic violence can experience health and mental problems and even lose hope for the future. This research aims to prove the influence of average years of schooling, economic growth, poverty, and age at first marriage on domestic violence. The number of subjects studied was all provincial areas and national data (Indonesia). The type of quantitative data (cross section) was obtained from the Central Statistics Agency, and the profile of Indonesian women in 2021. The highest level of domestic violence was experienced by 12 provinces, 19 provinces in the medium category, and 4 other provinces in the low category. The results of statistical tests (path analysis) prove that poverty can increase domestic violence, while average years of schooling, economic growth and age at first marriage have the potential to reduce domestic violence. Average years of schooling has the highest influence, followed by poverty, age at first marriage, and economic growth on domestic violence. The Government's policy priority to reduce domestic violence is to implement a 12-year compulsory education program, in addition to poverty alleviation programs

KEYWORDS: Education, Economy, Marriage Age, Domestic Violence

INTRODUCTION

Domestic Violence (DV) is deviant behavior experienced by a group of women in the household. Forms of deviation can include violence: physical, sexual, psychological/mental, and neglect of the future. Nationally, the trend of domestic violence in Indonesia has decreased in the last 3 (three) years. In 2019 it was 63.83 percent, decreasing to 61.19 percent in 2020, and from January to November 2021 it decreased again to 59.35 percent. In 2020, several provinces had higher domestic violence rates than the national level, including West Papua Province, Central Java and Papua Province, respectively: 76.53 percent, 72.77 percent and 72.34 percent, (Kementrian Pemberdayaan Perempuan dan Perlindungan Anak, 2021)

There are social, economic and demographic factors that have the potential to cause domestic violence, is: 1) education, 2) economics and 3) demographic factors. Education is a way not only to improve

academic abilities and insight but also as a forum for character formation. Character can be defined as behavior or habits that characterize or distinguish one person from another. Honesty, discipline, hard work, responsibility and compassion are some examples of good character. Mapoma, et al., (2022) in their research in Zambia, found that wives who had a higher education than their husband experienced relatively more domestic violence, compared to both having the same low/high education or the husband having a higher education than the wife.

Education takes time; The higher the level of formal schooling, the longer it takes. For women who decide to continue formal schooling to university, the risk of getting married at a young age is smaller than those who attend middle school or elementary school. Laksono, et al (2023) found that women who first married at a young age (AFM) had a relatively greater risk of experiencing domestic violence compared to the older AFM group.

Education can produce a qualified workforce, mastering technology so that it has the potential to produce relatively higher output compared to low education. Susanto, (2014) in his research found a positive relationship between education and productivity, resulting in a parameter coefficient (positive) value of 0.790, and Sign (000), while the determinant (adjustment) coefficient value was 0.946. Reza and Tri Widodo (2013) found a similar trend that for every 1 percent increase in education, output will increase by 1.56 percent.

Indonesia's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth has increased from 3.70 percent in 2021, to 5.31 percent in 2022 (BPS.2023. Berita Resmi Statistik No.: 15/02/Th.XXVI). The higher economic growth, the greater job opportunities. In South Africa, Australia and Canada, every additional 1 percent of GDP will increase employment opportunities by 0.6 percent (IMF, 2016). Job opportunities have the potential to reduce unemployment and poverty. The percentage of poor and unemployed people has continued to decline in recent years. In March 2022 there were 9.54 percent of poor people in Indonesia, decreasing to 9.36 percent in March 2023. The majority of people in rural areas experienced this, 12.22 percent higher than urban areas, 7.29 percent, (BPS.2023. Profil Kemiskinan di Indonesia). A similar trend was also experienced by unemployment, in the first quarter of 2021 there was 6.26 percent and in 2022 it decreased to 5.83 percent (BPS.2022).

Poor families have limited ability to meet all household needs. The types of clothing, food and housing needs that are consumed do not take into account aspects of nutrition and suitability but are simply for sustaining life. This condition is often a contributing factor to domestic violence between husband and wife. Mapoma, et al. (2022) found that 47 percent of housewives from poor families experienced domestic violence, while domestic violence experienced by housewives from middle class and rich communities was 49.1 percent respectively. and 41.2 percent. Laksono, et al, (2023), obtained similar results that the poorest married women were 1.382 times more likely to experience violence (domestic violence) from their partners than the richest married women. The group of married women who come from middle class families is 1.262 times more likely to experience domestic violence than the richest

group of married women, while the richest married women are 1.132 times more likely to experience domestic violence than the richest married women.

RESEARCH METHODS

Data

The total subjects that were the focus of the research were all 34 provinces in Indonesia and national data (Indonesia). This research uses quantitative secondary (cross section) data obtained from 2 (two) main sources: 1) profiles of Indonesian women in 2021, and 2) Central Statistics Agency in 2021. Data about: 1) education, 2) average age at marriage first, and 3) domestic violence, obtained from the first source, while data on economic growth and population poverty were obtained from the second source. The type, source and scale of data for each research variable can be modified according to the analysis tool (Table 1).

Research variables

There are 5 (five) types of variables studied: 1) education (X1), 2) economic growth (X2), 3) poverty (X3), 4) average age at first marriage (X4), and 5) domestic violence (Y). The first four variables mentioned are treated as independent variables, while the fifth variable is called the dependent variable (Y). The variable average age at first marriage has 2 (two) roles: 1) independent variable (X4), and 2) intermediate variable. It is called an intermediate variable because it is a bridge to connect the independent variables: education (X1), economic growth (X2), and poverty (X3) with the domestic violence variable (Y), while the variables X2, and X3 have a dual role besides being independent variables, but at the same time it can be a dependent variable (Y). The theoretical relationships between the research variables in question are explained in the Informal model figure (Figure 1).

Table 1: Treatment of Research Variables and Data Scale

No	Variables	Indicators	Data Scale	Data Source
1.	Education (X1)	The average number of years of schooling of marriage women each province in 2021	Ratio (long years)	Profil perempuan Indonesia tahun 2021
2.	Econ. Growth (X2)	Economic growth for each province in 2021	Ratio (%)	BPS-Indonesia
3.	Poverty (X3)	Percentage of poor people In each provinsi in 2021	Ratio (%)	BPS-Indonesia
4.	Age at First Marriage(X4)	Percentage of women at first marriage before the age of 17 for each province in 2021	Ratio (%)	Profil perempuan Indonesia tahun 2021
5.	Domestic Violence(Y)	Percentage of domestic violence cases each provinsi in 2021	Ratio(%)	Profil perempuan Indonesia tahun 2021

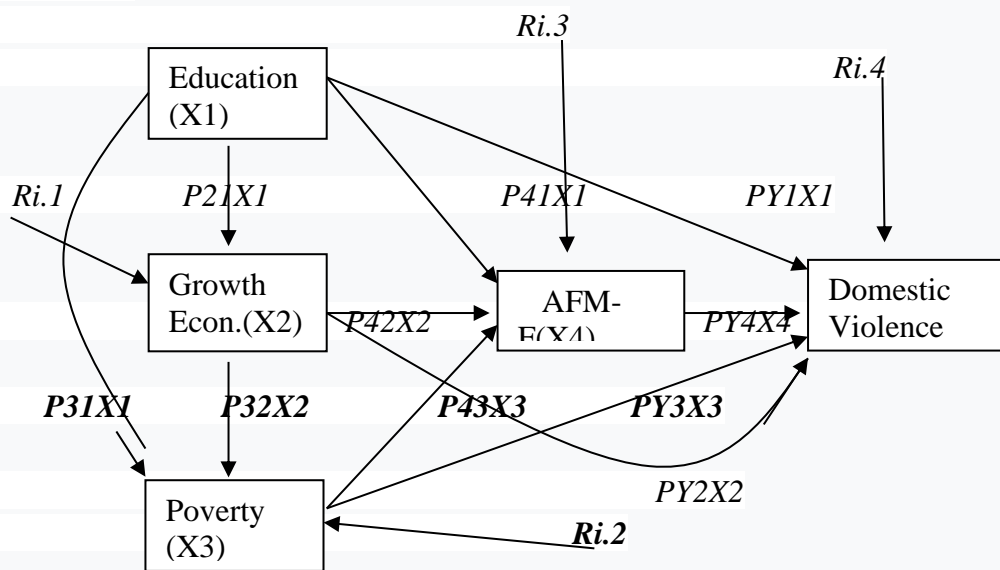
Analysis tools

There are 2 (two) types of analysis approaches: 1) descriptive analysis, the aim is to analyze descriptive relationships between research variables. Descriptions of the relationships between variables are displayed in tables and graphs including some appropriate descriptive statistical analysis, 2) inferential analysis, intended to analyze path and cause and effect relationships between research variables. The appropriate analysis tool is path analysis. Path analysis models are grouped into: 1) informal models, and 2) formal models, as follows:

Informal model

The informal model is in the form of a picture equipped with arrows, explaining the cause and effect relationship between variables as follows:

Figure 1: Informal model



Formal model

The symbols in the informal model, which become input for creating a formal model in the form of equations, are:

1. $X2 = P21X1 + Ri.1$
2. $X3 = P31X1 + P32X2 + Ri.2$
3. $X4 = P41X1 + P42X2 + P43X3 + Ri.3$
4. $Y = PY1X1 + PY2X2 + PY3X3 + PY4X4 + Ri.4$

Note.: $Ri.1$, $Ri.2$, $Ri.3$, and $Ri.4$ are residual values, explaining the magnitude of the values not explained by every model

ANALYSIS RESULTS:

1. Descriptive analysis results

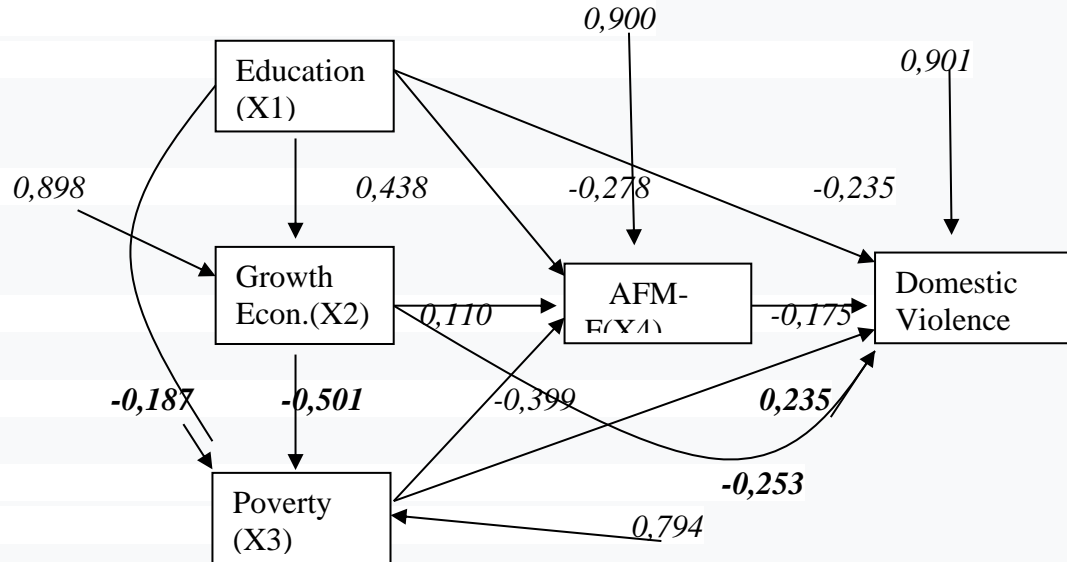
Table 2: Descriptive Statistics Among Research Variables

		(Educ/AYS)	GE	Poverty	AFM	DV
N	Valid	35	34	35	34	35
	Missing	0	1	0	1	0
Mean		8.7191	4.6829	10.2774	25.7544	62.0314
Std. Error of Mean		.17422	.65248	.88051	1.29279	1.34958
Median		8.7300	5.2600	8.6600	26.7100	61.1900
Std. Deviation		1.03073	3.80458	5.20918	7.53821	7.98422
Variance		1.062	14.475	27.136	56.825	63.748
Range		5.30	24.57	22.27	33.28	34.36
Minimum		5.59	-15.74	4.53	12.12	42.17
Maximum		10.89	8.83	26.80	45.40	76.53

2.Results of inferential analysis

A summary of the results of inferential statistical analysis is displayed in the informal model and formal model as follows:

Analysis results in the informal model :



Analysis results in the formal model:

Table 3: Summary of Path Analysis Results

Models	Path Coeff.	R	R ²	Residu
$X2 = P21X1 + Ri.1$	$0.438X1(0,010)$	0,438	0,192	0,898
$X3 = P31X1 + P32X2 + Ri.2$	$-0,187X1(0,247)$ $-0,501X2(0,004)$	0,607	0,369	0,794
$X4 = P41X1 + P42X2 + P43X3 + Ri.3$	$-0,278X1(0,153)$ $0,110X2(0,614)$ $-0,399X3(0,050)$	0,435	0,189	0,900
$Y = PY1X1 + PY2X2 + PY3X3 + PY4X4 + Ri.4$	$-0,235X1(0,249)$ $-0,253X2(0,264)$ $0,235X3(0,224)$ $-0,175X4(0,444)$ Sign. F.: 0,005	0,434	0,188	0,901

Table 4: Effective Contribution of Each Independent Variable (X) to the Dependent Variable (Y)

Variab.	Zero Order	Coeff Corelation	Effec.Contrib.of Each Indep.Variab.
Education(X1)	-0,302	-0,258	0,078
Growth Econ.(X2)	-0,205	-0,201	-0,041
Poverty (X3)	0,261	0,261	0,068
AFM (X4)	-0,023	-0,034	0,001
Total(=R ²)			0,19%

The education variable has the greatest contribution to domestic violence (DV) : 0.078 percent, following poverty at 0.068 percent, while the smallest contribution to DV comes from the economic growth variable and the average age at first marriage, respectively: -0.041 and 0.001 percent (Table 4).

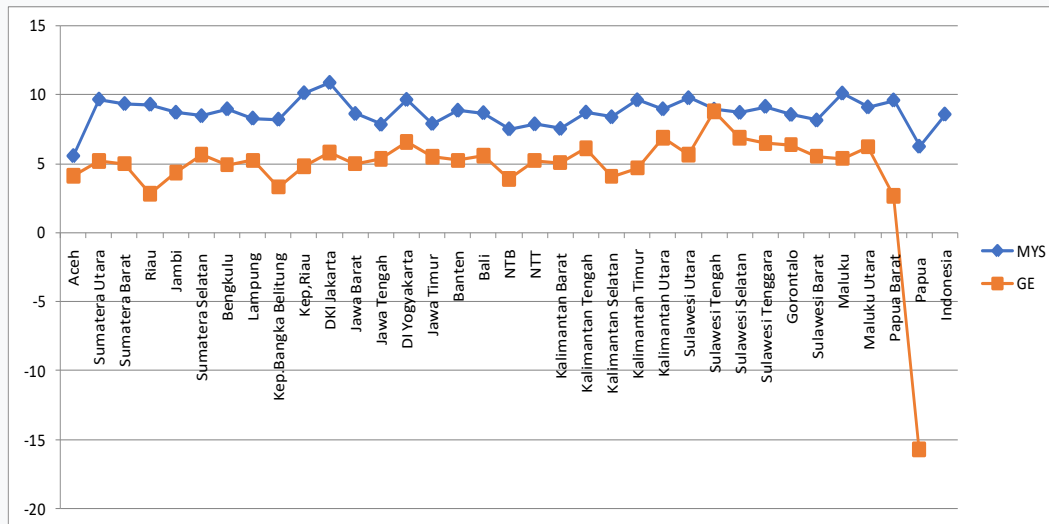
DISCUSSION

Spending on education is an investment in the future. The rate of return on educational investments continues to increase with increasing years of schooling (Psacharopoulos and Patrinos, 2018). In his research, Valero, (2021) found that education can increase individual income and economic growth. Education not only has a positive relationship with income and productivity but also increases self-awareness and happiness (Stryzhak, 2020).

The average length of schooling for each country is different, due to differences in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita of the country concerned. In 2022, Singapore will have the highest GDP per capita: 127,563 USD, while Myanmar will experience the lowest GDP at 4,846 USD (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_ASEAN_countries_by_GDP). The average length of schooling experienced by Singapore is 11.7 years, the highest in the Asean region, while the lowest average length of schooling is experienced by Myanmar at 6.4 years (World Bank, <https://ourworldindata.org/grapher/mean-years-of-schooling-longrun?time=1925>).

This description explains that the quality of human resources has a positive effect on economic growth. In Ireland, every increase in human resource investment increases GDP growth by 2 percent per year (FitzGerald, 2019). Kiani, (2021) found that women's literacy can increase women's participation in development by 0.109, while Hassan, (2017) using secondary data found that in Pakistan every 1 year increase in education for women will be able to generate GDP of 22 percent. This research obtained positive results, and it is significant that every increase in 1 year of schooling will increase economic growth in Indonesia by 0.438 percent. Graph 2.1 explains a similar trend, a descriptive positive relationship between average years of schooling and economic growth.

Graph 2.1: Descriptive relationship between the average number of years of schooling for women and economic growth in Indonesia



Source : 1) BPS-2021: Groeth Econ. (GE)
 2) Profil perempuan Indonesia, 2021: MYS/AYS (Average length years of schooling)

Purnomo, et al (2019) found a positive and significant relationship between economic growth and employment opportunities. Every 1 percent increase in growth will increase employment opportunities by 0.453 (Sign.0.009). The level of labor force participation of women in development has increased. In 2019 it was 55.07 percent, increasing to 56.55 percent in 2020 (BPS.2019, & 2020). Women's busyness at work (prioritizing their career) can extend the age at first marriage. This research found that every additional 1 percent of economic growth will increase the average age at first marriage by 0.110 percent.

Education (average length years of schooling/AYS) has a positive relationship with income. The longer (years) of schooling the better the quality, resulting in relatively high income. Every additional year of schooling will increase income by 4 percent (Vu, 2020). Heads of households who received formal Bachelor's (University) education received 16 percent higher per capita income than those with lower education (Vu, 2020). Income is a proxy for poverty, every increase in income due to educational factors will reduce population poverty (Awan, 2020). A similar trend was found in this research that every additional year of schooling will reduce population poverty by 0.187 percent, although this relationship is not significant.

Poverty is a condition of disability of a group of people whose average monthly per capita expenditure is lower than the Poverty Line (GK). GK includes food GK (GKM) and non-food GK (GKNM). Poverty is also defined as the inability to meet minimum needs due to limited material resources (Davis and Sanchez-Martinez, 2014). Poverty is experienced by all countries. Rank (2004), reported that in

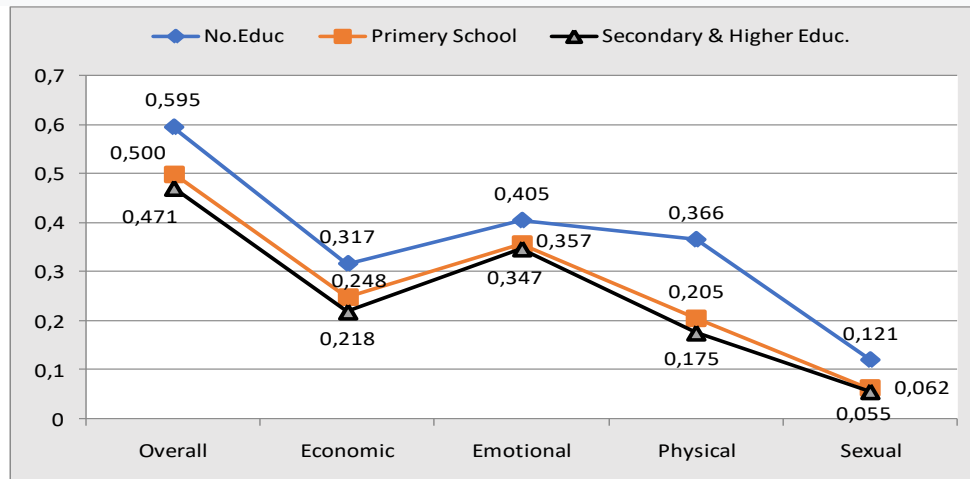
2002, an estimated 12.1% of the entire population of the United States was classified as poor. The percentage of poor people in Indonesia shows a downward trend, from 9.57 percent (March 2022) to 9.54 percent in September 2022. This symptom can be the result of economic growth which continues to improve, from 3.70 percent in 2021, increasing to 5.91 percent in 2022 (<https://menpan.go.id/site/berita-terkini/berita-region/economic-indonesia-tahun-2022-tumbuh-5-31-persen>). The results of research from Purnomo et al (2019), found a negative and significant relationship between economic growth and population poverty, that every 1% increase in growth will be able to reduce poverty by 0.027 percent (Purnomo et al), the same as found in research This means that every 1 percent increase in economic growth will be able to reduce poverty by 0.501 percent.

Economic growth has the potential to increase welfare and happiness, which in turn can influence domestic violence (Farmer 1997, Ozer 2023, & Setiawan et al, 2018). This study found a negative relationship between economic growth and domestic violence. Every 1 percent increase in economic growth will be able to reduce domestic violence by 0.253 percent. Meanwhile, poverty factors tend to exacerbate domestic violence (Aizer, 2014). This research found a similar trend that domestic violence would increase by 0.235 percent if poverty increased by 1 percent.

Domestic violence is deviant behavior from a husband or other family members, in the form of violence experienced by especially women which causes misery or suffering. Dahlberg, et al (2002), and Waters, (2004) group the impacts of domestic violence as: 1) death, 2) illness, 3) disability, 4) decreased quality of life, and 5) increased economic burden. Furthermore, Waters, (2004) classifies economic aspects into 2 (two) parts: 1) costs and direct benefits are all costs arising from domestic violence, while direct benefits are related to economic benefits arising from efforts to prevent domestic violence. 2) Indirect costs and benefits are related to the costs and economic benefits lost due to domestic violence.

Types of violence can be: physical (beating/physical torture), sexual (harassment), psychological, and/or neglect (not being supported). In 2020, domestic violence in Indonesia varied by province, the highest was experienced by Papua Province, 76.53 percent, followed by Central Java and West Papua, respectively: 72.77 percent, and 72.34 percent, while the lowest was experienced by Lampung Province, 46.51 percent (Indonesian Women's Profile, 2021). Ozer, et al (2023) report that husbands with low education commit more domestic violence against their wives than husbands with higher education (Graph 2.2).

Graph 2.2: Types of Domestic Violence Based on Husband's Education (%)



Source: Ozer, et al(2023)

The results of the inferential analysis show a similar trend that for every 1-year increase in education, domestic violence will be reduced by 0.249, whereas what was found by Ozer, et al (2023) is significant, with a parameter coefficient value of -0.016 (0.014).

Age at First Marriage (AFM) is the average age at which a person/group of women gets married for the first time. 1 from 7 girls in developing countries has their first marriage before the age of 15 and 38 percent of girls are married before the age of 18 (Ahonsi et al., 2019). Education and income (= poverty) factors are proven to influence women's decisions to marry in certain age groups. Wirasaba, et al, (2023) found a positive relationship, every 1-year increase in education will increase AFM by 0.514 percent. A similar incident occurs that for every 1 percent increase in income, AFM will increase by 0.238 percent. In contrast to what was found in this study, education and/or income (=poverty) had a negative relationship with AFM (Table 2, 3rd Equation).

CONCLUSION

The results of simultaneous analysis of inferential statistics prove that average years of schooling, economic growth, and Age at First Marriage (AFM) have a negative relationship with the incidence of domestic violence, while poverty has a positive relationship with domestic violence, although the relationship is not significant. Overall, the contribution of the four independent variables to domestic violence is 18 percent. The largest contribution comes from the variables average length of schooling, following, poverty, while the variables AFM and economic growth have the lowest contributions, respectively 0.001 and -0.041. These findings emphasize that efforts to reduce or eliminate domestic violence must involve interventions through education, economics and age at marriage. It is urgent to implement the 12-year compulsory education program, while the program to eradicate (economic) poverty is carried out by empowering the Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises sector. It is

recommended that further research focus more on non-economic variables, for example the environment, culture and laws regarding domestic violence.

REFERENCES

1. Aizer, Anna. (2014). Poverty, Violence and Health: The Impact of Domestic Violence During Pregnancy on Newborn Health. *Journal of Wisconsin Press*. Vol.46, Vo.3 Summer 2011.518-538. doi: [10.1353/jhr.2011.0024](https://doi.org/10.1353/jhr.2011.0024)
2. Ahonsi, Babatunde., Kamil, Fuseini., & Dela, Nai. (2019). Child Marriage in Ghana: Evidence From a Multi-method Study. *BMC Women's Health*.19(126),1-15. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12905-019-0823-1>
3. Awan, Abdul, Ghafoor., & Asma, Malik. (2020). Impact of Female Education of Poverty Reduction: An Evidence from Pakistan. *Global Journal of Management, Social Sciences and Humanities*. Vol 6 (2) April-June, 2020, pp. 320- ISSN 2520-7113 (Print), ISSN 2520-7121 (Online).www.gjmsweb.com.Doi : <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5767-6229>.
4. Borooah, Vani., & Colin, Knox. (2015). The Economics of Schooling in a Divided Society: The Case for Shared Education. *London. Palgrave Macmillan*. 138-154. https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1057/9781137461872_7
5. Dahlberg, L.L. & E.G. Krug. (2002). Violence: A global public health problem. Dalam *International World Report on Violence and Health*. (Eds). E.G. Krug, L.L. Dahlberg, J.A. Mercy, A.B. Zwi, & R. Lozano. Geneva: World Health Organization, pp. 1-21.
6. Davis, P.; Sanchez-Martinez M., (2014) A review of the economic theories of poverty, (435) National Institute and Social Research. Discussion Paper, No. 435. <https://ideas.repec.org/p/nsr/niesrd/435.html>
7. Farmer, Amy., & Jill, Tiefenthaler. (1997). An Economic Analysis of Domestic Violence. *Review of Social Economy*. The Association for Social Economics. 337-358. Vol.55. No.: 3 Fall 1997. ISSN.: 0034-6764. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/29769903>.
8. FitzGerald, John. (2019). Investment in Education and Economic Growth on the Island of Ireland. Symposium: The Economies on the Island of Ireland. *Journal of the Statistical and Social Inquiry Society of Ireland*. 195-210. <http://www.tara.tcd.ie/bitstream/handle/2262/91641/fitzgerald%20195-210.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>
9. Hassan, Syeda, Anam., & Nazish, Rafaz. (2017). The Role of Female Education in Economic Growth of Pakistan: A Time Series Analysis from 1990-2016. *ISSN(P) 1849-7020, ISSN (online) 1849-7551*.83-93. DOI:[10.18775/ijied.1849-7551-7020.2015.35.2007](https://doi.org/10.18775/ijied.1849-7551-7020.2015.35.2007)
10. Ilze Slabbert. (2016). Domestic Violence and Poverty: Some Women's Experiences. *Stellenbosch University. Research on Social Work Practice*.1-8. DOI:[10.1177/1049731516662321](https://doi.org/10.1177/1049731516662321)
11. Kiani, Adiq, Kausar. (2021). Determinants of Female Labor Force Participation. *Asean*

- Marketing Journal: Vol. 1 : No. 2. 117-124. <https://scholarhub.ui.ac.id/amj/vol1/iss2/5>. DOI: 10.21002/amj.v1i2.1986.*
12. Laksono, Agung, Dwi., Ratna, Dwi, Wulandari., Ratu, Matahari., & Suharmiati. (2023). Socioeconomic Differences of Intimate Partner Violence among Married Women in Indonesia: Does Poverty Matter? *Indian Journal of Community Medical*. doi: 10.4103/ijcm.ijcm_254_22
13. Mapoma, Chabila C., Gift, Masaiti., Muyapekwa, Sikwibele., and Mwewa Kasonde. (2022). The Relationship between Spousal Violence and Levels of Education: An Analysis of the Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2013/14. *vol. 9 No.1(2022): International Journal of African Higher Education*. 1-20 / DOI: <https://doi.org/10.6017/ijahe.v9i1.15229>
14. Ozer, Mustafa., Jan, Fidrmuc., & Mahmet, Ali, Eryurt.(2023). Education and domestic violence: Evidence from a natural experiment in Turkey. *International Review for Social Science*. 436-460. <https://doi.org/10.1111/kykl.12334>.
15. Purnomo, Dwi, Sodik., & Istiqomah. (2019). Economic Growth and Poverty: The Mediating Effect of Employment. *JEJAK. Journal of Economics and Policy*. Jejak Vol 12 (1) (2019). 238-252. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.15294/jejak.v12i1.19518>.
16. Rank, M. (2010) One nation underprivileged: Why American poverty affects us all. New York, NY: Oxford Press. DOI:10.1093/acprof:oso/9780195101683.001.0001
17. Reza, Faizal. & Tri, Widodo. (2013). The Impact of Education on Economic Growth in Indonesia. *Journal of Indonesian Economic and Business*. Vol.28 No.1 (2013). 23-44 ISSN: 2085-8272(Print), 2338-5847 (online). <https://jurnal.ugm.ac.id/jieb/article/view/6228/17458>
18. Satria, Wisnu., & Muhammad, Syahrul, Mubarak. (2019). The Effect of Economic Growth and Wage on Employment Opportunities at Samarinda City. *International Summit on Science Technology and Humanity (ISETH2019)*. 467-478. p-ISSN: 2477-3328. e-ISSN: 2615-1588. [file:///C:/Users/Administrator/Downloads/467-478%20\(3\).pdf](file:///C:/Users/Administrator/Downloads/467-478%20(3).pdf)
19. Setiawan, Cynthia, Nathania., Sigid, Kirana, Lintang, Bhima., & Tuntas, Dhanardhono. (2018). Faktor-faktor Yang Mempengaruhi Kejadian Kekerasan Dalam Rumah Tangga dan Pelaporan Pada Pihak Kepolisian. *Jurnal Kedokteran Diponegoro*. Volume 7, Nomor 1, Januari 2018. 127-139. ISSN Online: 2540-8844. <https://ejournal3.undip.ac.id/index.php/medico/article/view/19356/18362>
20. Stryzhak, Olena. (2020). The relationship between education, income, economic freedom and happiness. The International Conference on History, Theory and Methodology of Learning (ICHTML 2020). Vol.75.2020. <https://doi.org/10.1051/shsconf/20207503004>.
21. Susanto, Joko., & Purwiyanta.(2014). Education, Labour Productivity and Industrial Performance: Evidence of Indonesia. 17-24. *Conference: International Conference on Contemporary Economic Issues 2014 At: Kualalumpur*. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/335135946_Education_Labour_Productivity_and_Industrial_Performance_

Evidence_of_Indonesia

22. Valero, Anna. (2021). Education and Economic Growth. Centre for Economic Performance. Discussion paper. ISSN. 2042.2695. <https://cep.lse.ac.uk/pubs/download/dp1764.pdf>
23. Vu, Hung, Van. (2020). The Impact of Education on Household Income in Rural Vietnam. *International Journal of Financial Studies*.1-9. DOI: [10.3390/ijfs8010011](https://doi.org/10.3390/ijfs8010011)
24. Waters H., Hyder, A., Rajkotia, Y., Basu, S., Rehwinkel, J.A., & Butchart, A. (2004). The economic dimensions of interpersonal violence. Geneva: Department of Injuries and Violence Prevention, World Health Organization.
25. Wirasaba, Anak, Agung., Sagung Dinarmahari Akasasabda., & A.A. Ketut, Ayuningsasi. (2023). Pengaruh Tingkat Pendidikan, Pendapatan dan Status Ketenagakerjaan Terhadap Fertilitas Melalui Usia Kawin Pertama di Kecamatan Mengwi. *E-Jurnal Ekonomi dan Bisnis Universitas Udayana*. e-ISSN: 2337-3067. Index Vol. 12 No. 07, Juli 2023, pages: 1410-1420 <https://ojs.unud.ac.id/index.php/EEB/index>
26. BPS.2022. Tingkat Pengangguran Terbuka. <https://www.bps.go.id/id/pressrelease/2022/05/09/1915/ebruari-2022-tingkat-pengangguran-terbuka--tpt--sebesar-5-83-persen-dan-rata-rata-upah-buruh-sebesar-2-89-juta-rupiah-per-bulan.html>
27. Badan Pusat Statistik.(2023). *Berita Resmi Statistik No.: 15/02/Th.XXVI, 6 Feb.2023*. <https://www.bps.go.id/id/pressrelease/2023/02/06/1997/ekonomi-indonesia-tahun-2022-tumbuh-5-31-persen.html>
28. Badan Pusat Statistik.(2023). Profil Kemiskinan di Indonesia,- <https://www.bps.go.id/id/pressrelease/2023/07/17/2016/profil-kemiskinan-di-indonesia-maret-2023.html>
29. International Monetary Fund.(2016). *The Evidence that Growth Creates Jobs: A New Look at an Old Relationship*. <https://www.imf.org/en/Blogs/Articles/2016/11/09/the-evidence-that-growth-creates-jobs-a-new-look-at-an-old-relationship>.
30. Kementerian Pemberdayaan Perempuan dan Perlindungan Anak. (2021). Profil Perempuan Indonesia. 185-186. ISSN 2089-3515. <https://www.kemenpppa.go.id/page/view/MzgxNA>
31. List of ASEAN countries by GDP.2022. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_ASEAN_countries_by_GDP.
32. World Bank, 2020. Average Years of Schooling. <https://ourworldindata.org/grapher/mean-years-of-schooling-long-run.849-7020> (Print) ISSN 1849-7551 (Online)