
GLOBAL FRAMEWORK

Key Concepts Definition and Literature Review

Table des matières

A.	Key Concepts Definition	3
1.	Violence	3
a.	Types Of Violence According To The Characteristics Of Those Who Commit the Violent Act	5
b.	Types of Violence According to the Nature of the Constraint Exercised	5
2.	Economic Opportunity	9
a.	Definition	9
b.	Measuring Economic Opportunity	9
B.	Theoretical and Empirical Literature on Violence and Economic Opportunity	11
1.	Theory on Violence	11
2.	Theory on Economic Opportunity	12
3.	Empirical review on Violence and Economic Opportunity	12
C.	Gender Literature	13
1.	Definition	13
2.	Violence and Gender	14
3.	Gender Indicators	14
a.	Gender Development Index (GDI)	14
b.	Gender Inequality Index (GII)	14
c.	World Gender Gap Index (GEMI)	14
d.	Gender Equality Index (GEI)	15
e.	African Development and Gender Inequality Index (AGDI)	15
f.	The Women's Status Index (WSI)	15
g.	Le Tableau de bord de la promotion de la femme en Afrique (TBPFA)	15

A. Key Concepts Definition

1. Violence

The scope of the word violence is very broad. Its spread is considerable and probably defies any exhaustive census: from incivility to massacres, from swearwords to terrorism, from passionate crime to torture, from pedophilia to revolution, violence has a multifaceted character. For a long time, this multiplicity of forms of violence has made it difficult to define, but over the past two decades the international community has reached a consensus on what violence is. According to WHO, violence is the intentional use of physical force, threats to others or to oneself, against a group or community, that results in or is highly likely to result in trauma, psychological damage, developmental problems or death. In general, dictionaries define violence as a physical or moral constraint exercised against a person or group (Larousse dictionary and universal dictionary). Thus, depending on the nature of the coercion exercised, a distinction is made between physical and moral violence. Depending on the number of people involved, a distinction is made between interpersonal violence and collective violence. But these four types of violence do not summarize the different forms of violence that exist even if they include other forms. Depending on the context in which the violence occurs or the relationship between the perpetrator and the victim, we talk about spousal violence, sexual violence, economic violence, police violence, political violence, legitimate violence, domestic violence, to name a few. There are two (02) different classifications of violence:

- Classification according to the characteristics of those who commit the violent act (WHO's classification presented in the World Report on Violence and Health);
- Classification according to the nature of the constraint.

WHO classification divides violence into three broad categories corresponding to the characteristics of those who commit the violent act:

- Self-Inflicted violence;
- Interpersonal violence or violence against others;
- Collective violence.

This initial categorization differentiates between violence inflicted by one person against himself, violence inflicted by another person, or by a small group of people, and violence inflicted by large groups, such as States, organized political groups, militias, terrorist organizations, etc. These three broad categories are further subdivided to reflect more specific types of violence (see Figure 1).

a. Types of Violence According to the Characteristics of those who Commit the Violent Act

i. *Self-Inflicted Violence*

Self-inflicted violence is subdivided into suicidal behavior and self-inflicted abuse. The first category includes suicidal thoughts, suicide attempts - also called "para suicide" in some countries - and successful suicides. In contrast, self-inflicted abuse includes acts such as self-harm.

ii. *Interpersonal Violence*

Interpersonal violence can be divided into two categories:

- Family and intimate partner violence - in other words, violence between family members and between intimate partners in general. This type of violence usually but not exclusively occurs at home. These are generally child abuse, intimate partner violence and elder abuse;
- Community violence or violence between people who are not related and who may not know each other. This type of violence usually occurs outside the home. It includes youth violence, random violence, rape and sexual assault by strangers, and violence that occurs in institutional settings, such as schools, workplaces, prisons and retirement homes.

iii. *Collective or Public Violence*

Collective violence is subdivided into economic, social and political violence. Unlike the other two broad categories, the subcategories of collective violence suggest possible reasons for violence committed by larger groups of people or by States.

- The social violence that some people engage in to achieve particular social objectives includes hate crimes committed by organized groups, terrorist attack and violence committed by crowds;
- Political violence includes war and related violent conflicts, state violence and similar acts perpetrated by large groups;
- Economic violence includes attacks by large groups motivated by economic gains such as attacks to disrupt economic activity, denial of access to essential services or economic division and fragmentation. Obviously, large groups act for many reasons. This collective economic violence is different from interpersonal economic violence. In this category, structural violence can also be classified. Structural violence is a concept used for the first time in 1969, and generally attributed to Johan Galtung. The term refers to a form of violence caused by institutions of a given society, which prevents individuals from achieving their full potential. It is defined as any form of constraint on an individual's potential due to political and economic structures. These constraints result in unequal access to resources, political power, education, health or justice. It is therefore this form of violence produced by state institutions (a discriminatory political system) or social practices (an excluding social norm) that prevent individuals or groups from meeting their basic needs. This violence is expressed, for example, in attitudes of xenophobia, homophobia, sexism, nationalism, or elitism. The institutionalization of inequality, elitism, ethnocentrism, racism, sexism, classism, nationalism, heterosexism, ageism and generational racism are examples.

b. Types of Violence According to the Nature of the Constraint

i. *Physical Violence*

Physical violence is defined as "the threat or deliberate use of physical force against oneself, others or a group or community that results in, or is likely to result in, trauma, death, psychological harm, developmental harm or privation" (National Institute of Public Health, Québec). Physical violence is the use

of violent acts against another person (interpersonal violence) or against oneself (self-inflicted violence). Physical violence includes:

- Slapping or other blows;
- Threat with a weapon;
- Threat of strangulation or death;
- Lock or prevent from leaving;
- Abandon roughly on the road by car;
- Prevent from going home;
- Other physical brutalities, homicides, armed robberies, pinch and shake;
- Squeeze arm;
- Bite, push and grab;
- Kick, hit;
- Sequestration;
- Attempt murder;
- Spit in face,
- Throw objects,
- etc.

ii. Moral or Emotional abuse

Moral violence, also known as psychological violence, mental violence, mute violence or emotional violence, is a form of violence or abuse towards others without physical violence being directly implemented. It is manifested mainly through words or actions that influence the other person's feelings of being loved or hated. Moral violence is any act, deed, word, allusion, writing, drawing, etc. that results in outrage, slander, stigmatization, defamation, discrimination, denigration, humiliation. When moral violence manifests itself in words, it is called verbal violence. Verbal abuse is used to intimidate, humiliate or control another person. It can be used in a subtle way or in a very direct way. Here are some examples:

- Insult using coarse and offensive language;
- Shout and raise one's voice;
- Blame and reproach;
- Criticize and use mockery or humiliating remarks;
- Threaten directly or indirectly.

Emotional abuse is mainly related to a person's attitudes and behaviors. It targets the psychological integrity of the human being. As verbal abuse, it can be used in subtle or more obvious ways. Here are some examples:

- Create social and/or emotional isolation around a person by denigrating their family and loved ones;
- Control the comings and goings of a person;
- Use different forms of implicit or explicit threats: kidnapping or killing children, committing suicide, breaking expensive objects, making false accusations;
- Use mental cruelty: sulking, indifference, silence, excessive demands on tasks, making decisions for the other;
- Look with disdain;
- Make a person think they're stupid, good for nothing.

Another type of moral violence is economic violence. This type of economic violence is interpersonal violence. It is to be distinguished from collective economic violence. Economic violence is an act of domination and control that consists of depriving a person of money or preventing him from meeting his needs or controlling and monitoring his economic activities in order to prevent him from achieving financial autonomy. It can be exercised by a partner or a relative. Economic violence meets the definition of financial abuse. Economic violence aims to restrict the partner's financial autonomy in order to better control it. Economic violence can take the following forms:

- Control expenses or revenues;
- Restrict access to money or give an insufficient amount of money;
- Limit access to basic resources (food, medicines, clothing, etc.);
- Prevent from working or studying outside home or interfere with employment or studies;
- Prevent from earning money or engaging in any activity that allows financial autonomy;
- Put all household assets in one's name;
- Steal a person's identity, money, credit or possessions;
- Check one's partner's budget and/or seize all or part of one's partner's income or important documents (passport, identity card, etc.);
- Not sharing the family budget fairly and/or refusing to spend money on special occasions;
- Control expenses for basic needs: clothing, food, expenses necessary for the wellbeing of children.

Economic violence occurs differently depending on the victim's situation.

- When the victim is not an employee:
 - Forcing the victim to beg for money by the piece;
 - Require penny-penny accounts for the slightest purchase;
 - No more giving money for the household or insufficient amounts;
 - Refuse any expenditure for personal maintenance;
 - Keep the victim in ignorance of the couple's financial situation;
 - Prevent the victim from working outside.
- When the victim is an employee:
 - Control the family budget so that the victim does not know the real assets;
 - Do not contribute to household expenses according to resources;
 - To appropriate his money, his property, without his consent;
 - Forcing her to quit her job.

The consequences of economic violence can be:

- Financial dependence;
- Economic losses;
- Debt;
- Impact on physical (stress and anxiety) and mental (depression) health;
- Decreased confidence in oneself and in one's ability to be autonomous.

Moral violence can also take the form of cyber violence:

- Create a web page about the victim;
- Infiltrate the victim Facebook account and control his friendships;

- Break the victim's reputation on Facebook;
- Steal the victim's identity;
- Spy on the victim's e-mails;
- Spy on the victim's travels;
- Call or text the victim repeatedly.

Spiritual violence is also another form of moral violence (control of religious practices, denigration of beliefs, forced adherence to religious rituals or practices).

iii. Sexual Violence

Sexual violence represents all forms of sexual acts, with or without physical contact, committed by an individual without the consent of the victim, including children, through emotional manipulation or blackmail. It is an act aimed at subjugating another person to his or her own desires, either by an abuse of power, or by the use of force or coercion, or by implicit or explicit threat. Here are some examples:

- Sexual assault or coercion of a person to have sex;
- Sexually harassing a person (at work, at school, on the street, etc.);
- Making sexual touching against a person's will;
- Making obscene calls;
- Have sexual relations (or sexual touching) with a child (pedophilia) and/or with a minor or adult member of the family (incest);
- Sexual exploitation of a person for pornographic purposes;
- Forcing a person to engage in unwanted sexual practices (swinging, anal, oral, fetishism, use of sexual objects, etc.);
- Sexually denigrating a person

iv. Deprivation and neglect

Neglect, or deprivation, refers to the failure of a parent or a caregiver to ensure the development of the child, the care of elderly or vulnerable person - if in a position to do so - in one or more of the following areas: health, education, emotional development, nutrition, home and safe living conditions. Neglect is therefore different from poverty in that it only occurs in cases where the family or guardians have reasonable resources. Parental neglect takes many forms. Thus, parents do not comply with health care recommendations, deprive their children of food, causing them to go hungry, and do not ensure their physical development. They may also expose him to drugs and poorly protect him from environmental hazards. In addition, abandonment, inadequate supervision, poor hygiene and being deprived of education are all considered evidence of negligence.

These four forms of violence (physical, moral, sexual, deprivation) occur in each of the broad categories (self-inflicted violence, interpersonal violence, collective violence) and in their subcategories described above, with the exception of self-inflicted violence. For example, violence against children in the home can be physical, sexual or psychological, and it can also be neglect. Community violence can include physical assaults between young people, sexual abuse in the workplace and neglect of older adults in long-term care facilities. Political violence can include acts such as rape during conflicts and physical and psychological warfare.

2. Economic Opportunity

a. Definition

The definition of the concept varies from one study to another. From a general point of view, sociologist Niklas Luhmann (1927-1998) finds that social inclusion is the opposite of social exclusion. Social inclusion actually allows everyone to feel valued and respected and to contribute to their community. Social inclusion takes into account all economic, social, cultural and political sectors of a society. The focus of our study is economic inclusion. Erika Poethig et al. (2018) define economic inclusion as the ability of all residents, particularly those who have been historically excluded, to benefit from and contribute to shared economic prosperity. But an important factor is whether opportunities are seen as factors over which the individual has control, or factors beyond the individual's responsibility, whereas UNESCO understands economic inclusion as any measure taken by a government to ensure the right to work for all regardless of nationality (OHCHR, *The Rights of Non-citizens*, New York and Geneva, 2006). It is also important to distinguish between fair and unfair inequalities. John Roemer (1993) and Marc Fleurbaey (1996) were the forerunners of this demarcation. On the one hand, just inequalities are those that result from the exercise of a responsibility, "effort" in the terminology proposed by Roemer (1993). In other words, it is the set of actions undertaken by an individual to improve his or her economic situation. This inequality caused by a difference in effort is acceptable to society. On the other hand, unjust inequalities are the result of social determinism or chance (all factors beyond the individual's responsibility), described by Roemer as "circumstances". This form of inequality is unacceptable and must be absolutely reduced if not excluded from society. Thus John Roemer (1998) defines equal opportunities as the situation in the distribution of economic wellbeing among groups of people with identical circumstances that does not vary within these groups. In this study we will use John Roemer's (1998) definition that considers the inclusion of economic opportunities as the process by which all individuals have access to things called "circumstances". The advantage of this definition is that it takes into account several dimensions including accessibility, availability and use, which can be assessed separately.

b. Measuring Economic Opportunity

Just as there is no single definition of inclusive economic opportunity, so there is no universally accepted standard measure of the concept. The empirical implementation of economic inclusion measures remains a problem. Thus, the measurement of economic inclusion often varies across studies. For example, an approach to measuring opportunity inequality began with the seminal work of John Roemer (1998) who developed a theoretical model called the "Advantage model". In this model, the economic opportunity available to an individual depends essentially on "efforts", "circumstances" and other random factors. Erika Poethig et al. (2018) adopted a different approach to construct the indicator. First, they calculated four sub-indicators for each dimension of economic inclusion: income segregation, the percentage of the population burdened by rent, the percentage of 16-19-year old not in school, and the percentage of poor workers. A number of studies have developed the measurement of inequality of opportunity in practice. But the HOI differs in how it quantifies inequality of opportunity. This index (HOI) was considered as a composite measure used to assess inequality of opportunity in basic services (education and housing services). It focuses in particular on the coverage and unequal access of children to these services for many reasons. Unlike adults, children generally do not have access to these essential goods; access can therefore be considered in the case of children as an opportunity that is highly dependent on the family's situation. In addition, interventions aimed at eliminating inequalities between subgroups at the beginning of an individual's life cycle (children) are considerably more cost-effective and relevant than interventions

made later in life. Basic variables related to education (primary school attendance of children aged 6 to 11 and secondary school attendance of children aged 12 to 17) and housing conditions (access to drinking water, sanitation and electricity) are used to measure the degree of inequality in the country. The methodology places particular emphasis on inequality of opportunity related to basic education and infrastructure. The analysis includes five outcome variables: primary school attendance among children aged 6 to 11 years; secondary school attendance among children aged 12 to 17 years; access to electricity; access to safe drinking water; and access to sanitation. The circumstantial variables used are sex (0 if female and 1 if male), region of residence of the household (1 if urban and 0 if rural), education of the head of household (1 if the head of household has a secondary or higher level of education and 0 if not), household expenditure per capita, age of the head of household (in years), sex of the head of household (0 if female and 1 if male) and household size. This study will follow the World Bank methodology using the Human Opportunity Index for two reasons. The first is related to the flexibility of the index. It is possible to add other circumstance variables than the one used above, to refine the calculation of the inequality index (HOI) if the data are available. The second is related to the particular emphasis it places on measuring accessibility to basic infrastructure. The latter is perfectly in line with the objective of our study.

i. Construction of the World Bank's Human Opportunity Index

Let the variable z_i defined such that it takes the value 1 if the i^{th} individual has access to an opportunity (such as education) and 0 if not. We have:

$$E(z_i) = \pi_i = P(z_i)$$

With π_i the probability that the i^{th} individual will have access to a given opportunity.

The HOI measures the contribution of economic inequalities through circumstantial variables. Thus, z_i is estimated with the Logit model using a set of circumstance variables: $x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{iK}$. We obtain the following model:

$$\pi_i = \frac{e^{\sum_{j=1}^K (\beta_j x_{ij})}}{1 + e^{\sum_{j=1}^K (\beta_j x_{ij})}} \quad (1)$$

The model can be estimated using the maximum likelihood method. $\hat{\pi}_i$, is the probability of access to a given opportunity as a function of circumstance variables. The World Bank uses the average deviation as the "Dissimilarity index" which is:

$$D = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{i=1}^n w_i (\hat{\pi}_i - \bar{\pi}) \quad (2)$$

Where n is the number of households sampled, w_i the weight of the population associated with the sampled households and $\bar{\pi}$ the proportion of the population that has access to a given opportunity.

D measures the degree of opportunity inequality that depends on the individual's circumstances. Thus $(1-D)$ could be interpreted as equality of opportunity. The HOI is therefore defined as:

$$HOI = \bar{\pi} (1 - D) \quad (3)$$

B. Theoretical and Empirical Literature on Violence and Economic Opportunity

1. Theory on Violence

McMurtry and Curling (2008) discuss theories that underlie the causes of youth violence. The paper discusses 14 theories: biosocial theory, psychological theories, rational choice theory, social disorganization theory, economic deprivation theory, tension theories, social learning theory, violence subculture, social learning, media and violence, perceptions of injustice, crime and violence, social regulation theory and self-control theory. Biosocial theory explains that the propensity to be violent could be genetic or from an individual's diet. Psychological theories link learning, intelligence, personality and aggressive behavior. They stipulate that a child has a propensity to be violent when violence is common in the household to which he or she belongs. The theory of rational choice explains that each individual is free to choose to avoid suffering and this could well be done through the exercise of violence. The channel through which social disorganization would affect crime and violence is the reduction of social capital and collective efficiency. The theory of economic deprivation is based on self-esteem and states that a decrease in self-esteem (absolute or relative) can lead to crime. Tension theories allude to external factors that put pressure on an individual. These factors give rise to negative emotions that can lead to crime. The theory of social learning states that an individual who lives in an environment where violence is practiced has a very high propensity to be violent. Similarly, media learning is a theory that shows that violent content exposes individuals to violent practices.

Pax Christi Wallonie-Bruxelles in his article "What is Violence, 2006", defines violence as a murder process, even if this process does not end and does not result in the physical elimination of the person or the group targeted. Violence is distinct from aggressiveness, force and conflict. In this article, Pax presents need, desire and frustration as the factors that lead people to be violent. However, three observations underlie Mr. Longneau's theory on violence: First, violence has always existed. Secondly, today's world is no more violent than yesterday's. Finally, we talk a lot about prevention. We can see that violence prevention sometimes takes the form - and in a roundabout way - of legal violence that does not address the root cause of *violence*. (LONGNEAU, Jean-Michel, "Attention à la démagogie", in *Le Vif l'Express*, 2006). In addition, Georges Navet and Patrice Vermeren in their paper "Theories of Violence, Politics of Memory and Subjects of Democracy" present violence in three models: the legal-state model, where only the state holds legitimate violence (Max Weber, Habermas); the revolutionary model, where violence is thought of as a response to previous class violence (Hegel's Critique); the neo-liberal model, where violence has no assignable cause, other than the inability of "victims" to adapt (Hayek). Since then, Rebecca Littman and Elizabeth Levy Paluck in "The Cycle of Violence: Understanding Individual Participation in Collective Violence, *Advances in Political Psychology*, Vol. 36, Suppl. 1, 2015" demonstrate why "ordinary" people engage in collective violence, hurting others on behalf of their group. In this article, the group itself and the identity it confers on participating members are a fundamental source of motivation for an individual's participation in collective violence. According to the Psychology of Individual Violent Behavior, the participation of an ordinary person in violence is often an aversive and painful experience, yet violent behavior leads to more violence in the future. A better understanding of the dynamics of collective violence allows us to give meaning to this paradox. Being violent in groups can promote violent behaviour among members by increasing their motivation to engage in violence, including through the identification of groups and deliberate strategies, and by removing psychological barriers to violence (i.e., by making violence less

aversive). However, Mukesh Eswaran and Nisha Malhotra in their evolving theory of violence argue that domestic violence stems from jealousy caused by paternal uncertainty in the past (Domestic Violence and Womens Autonomy in Developing Countries: Theory and Evidence by Mukesh Eswaran and Nisha Malhotra; June 2009, Revised March 2010, Revised November 2010).

2. Theory on Economic Opportunity

There is little evidence of a correlation between specific economic variables (poverty, unemployment, education level) and violence and instability. While violent extremism is more prevalent in poor countries, there is no evidence that disadvantaged groups in these countries are more likely to join violent groups than the most favored; nor is there any evidence that poor regions within the same country are more violent and unstable. Similarly, neither unemployment nor lack of education explain the phenomena of violence (Hafez Ghanem (2015)). In addition, the authors associate inequality of opportunity with different outcomes that can be morally explained by predetermined, not necessarily relevant circumstances, such as race, gender, place of birth and family history. A natural approach to measuring inequality of opportunity would begin with the distinction made by Roemer (1998) between the "circumstance" and "effort" variables. The relationship between economic opportunity and young people's propensity to be violent is intuitive (Fox S. and Hoelscher K. (2010)). Indeed, the authors explain that poverty creates a motivation to use any means, including violence, to acquire resources. Also, inequalities perceived as unfair may inspire individuals or groups of individuals to commit acts of violence either among themselves or against their leaders. In short, the creation of economic opportunity is associated with collective well-being and could therefore reduce the likelihood that an individual will rely on violent strategies.

3. Empirical review on Violence and Economic Opportunity

In the literature, the focus is on the link between the economic exclusion of young people and political violence. Indeed, various analyses show that the decline in youth employment has a direct impact on political violence and collective violence. For example, Boudarbat B. and Ajbilou A. (2007) revealed that there are three (03) main consequences of economic exclusion in Morocco: the delay in family formation, the increase in emigration, and the increase in social tensions. Social tensions are perpetrated by educated young people who are not present on the labor market and terrorist attacks in Morocco are seen as an expression of the dissatisfaction of economically excluded young people. In the same vein, the World Bank conducted a study in 2013 and the results show that 40% of young people recruited by violence groups cite lack of employment as the main reason for their demonstration. According to Robert Gurr (1970), violence does not take root in absolute frustration, but rather comes from a feeling of relative frustration that generates anger that leads to aggression. Thus, violence is generated when there is a gap between what individuals think they deserve (employment, salary, standard of living, etc.) and what they actually get in their society. They engage in political violence not because they live in poverty, but because they feel that they are not in their rightful place, that their socio-economic situation is unfair. As a result, young people do not join violent extremist groups just because they are unemployed or because they are ignorant. They do so because, given their high level of education, they expect a better standard of living. But when they are hit by unemployment or if they only manage to get a precarious job, their frustration is all the greater, making them more sensitive to the sirens of violent networks of all kinds. In other words, young graduates may feel more dissatisfied with unemployment than those with less education, because their level of expectation is higher. Therefore, we can say that it is the combination of a high level of education and a lack of economic opportunities that leads young people to engage in violence. The literature strongly supports the hypothesis that in developing regions such as sub-Saharan Africa, Latin America and South-East Asia,

youth unemployment is a factor leading to both criminal acts and youth participation in political violence and armed groups (Ali, 2014; Cramer, 2015). Especially young people between 15 and 30 years of age are the most affected but also the actors of violence and crime in cities (Ali, 2014; Cramer, 2015). In Africa, for example, Sommers (2007b), cited in McLean Hilker (2009), describes that a large proportion of the urban youth who rebelled in Liberia in 2004 were unemployed veterans. It should be noted that the youth unemployment rate in Liberia is estimated at between 85 and 88%. In another example, De Jong (also cited in McLean Hilker, 2009) suggests that the regional uprising in Casamance (Senegal) could be the result of discontent and unemployment among young people. A US Agency for International Development (USAID) report on youth and conflict identified unemployment as a risk factor for young people, stating that "young people participate in violence because membership in extremist organizations provides longer-term economic benefits and options, for example, through sponsorship if their ethnic or religious groups come to power". A study conducted in the United States of America shows that reducing the gender pay gap leads to a reduction in domestic violence (Anna Aizer, 2010). The literature has also identified election periods and electoral processes as drivers of discontent and violence in the event of system failure, and divergence in electoral standards (OECD-DAC, 2008). Under these conditions, some parties, through promises or through a counterpart, could use young people involved in violence to claim their cause, which could encourage young people to become much more involved and persist in violence (Abbink 2005). This phenomenon is manifested through election promises to excluded or vulnerable young women and men by giving them false hope that once in power, the candidate or party will look to find a solution to the problems of these young people. The report of the African Union's group of wise men produced in 2012 supports this position by stressing that people deprived of their economic rights are giving in a lot to manipulation to commit acts of political and electoral violence. Fox S. and Hoelscher K. (2010) showed using OLS regression that hybrid political regimes, political-institutional volatility, poverty, inequality and ethnic diversity are associated with higher rates of social violence. Koenig et al (2006) in turn used multimodal modelling to explore the results of domestic violence in a sample of 4520 married men. The results showed that high economic status protects against physical violence and that the risk of physical violence is higher in households with low economic status. It is important to note that the authors used the number of assets owned to measure the socio-economic status of a household.

C. Gender Literature

1. Definition

According to the report of the Emile du Chatelet Institute IEF (2016), the concept of "gender" was developed to study how societies think, organize and prioritize gender differentiation and normalize sexual behaviour. It is clearly different from the concept of "sex" which is a static concept while gender is a constructed concept. According to the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization course material published by UNESCO in 2017, the word gender has entered the vocabulary of French-speaking sociology to designate what concerns social differentiation between the two sexes. He stressed the need to separate social and biological differences. According to the analysis report of the Data Collection Mechanism on Gender-Based Violence Indicators in Niger, gender aims to reduce social, economic, political and cultural gaps between men and women. Two concepts emerge when we talk about gender. These are the concepts of "femininity" and "masculinity". The concepts of femininity and masculinity represent characters or behaviours preestablished by society that are associated with women and men respectively.

2. Violence and Gender

Gender-based violence is simply, violence perpetrated against an individual against his or her gender. Both men and women are victims, but the largest proportion of victims are women and girls. Thus, the definition of gender-based violence is often confused with that of violence against women. This is clearly perceived in the UN General Assembly definition (1993) which defines gender-based violence as acts aimed at physically, psychologically or sexually harming women or even an intention such as coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty. According to the analysis report of the Data Collection Mechanism on Indicators of Gender-Based Violence in Niger, gender-based violence is any act of violence directed against a woman, man, boy or girl as a result of the unequal social relations governing the society from which the individual comes.

3. Gender Indicators

a. Gender Development Index (GDI)

The Gender Development Index (GDI) is a composite statistical indicator, introduced by UNDP in 1995. It is also known as the Gender-Specific Human Development Index (GDDI). The GDI aims to refine the Human Development Index (HDI) by integrating gender inequalities into it. It therefore incorporates the same variables as the HDI (life expectancy at birth, literacy and schooling rates, standard of living estimated on the basis of per capita income), but taking into account gender inequalities for each variable. The GDI uses the same methodology as for the HDI, it corresponds to a gender-adjusted HDI. To calculate the GDI, the HDI must be calculated separately for women and men using the methodology used to calculate the HDI. The same ranges of variation as for the HDI must be used to transform the indicators into a scale from zero to one. The only exception is life expectancy at birth, for which the ranges of variation are adjusted according to an average biological advantage for women aged 5 years compared to men.

b. Gender Inequality Index (GII)

The Gender Inequality Index (GII) is a composite indicator created in 2010 by UNDP. It highlights the loss of economic development benefits due to gender inequalities. This index, designed along the same lines as the HDI and GDI, measures the lack of progress in three dimensions of human development resulting from gender inequalities: reproductive health, empowerment and the labor market. According to the 2010 Human Development Report, the GII is the only index that takes into account educational attainment, economic and political participation and gender-specific health issues, and also the only one that takes into account concomitant inequalities at the national level. The GII is composed of variables such as reproductive health as measured by the maternal mortality rate and adolescent fertility rate; empowerment, as measured by the share of parliamentary seats held by women and the share of adult women and men aged 25 years and over who have attained at least a secondary level of education; and economic status as measured by labor market participation and the labor force participation rate among women and men aged 15 years and over. It is calculated using the same methodology as the Inequality-adjusted Human Development Index (IHDI).

c. World Gender Gap Index (WGGI)

The Global Gender Gap Index (more commonly used) is an index developed by the World Economic Forum in 2006. This index was designed primarily to measure gender inequalities in access to resources and opportunities in a given country, rather than to describe the levels of resources and opportunities that men and women already have in a country. This index is also based on an assessment of socio-economic inequalities between men and women. The aim is to provide an overview of the disparities between men and women in the exercise of certain human rights. The variables that make up the Global Gender Gap

Index are: economic participation and opportunities: wages, participation and highly skilled employment; education: access to elementary and secondary levels of education; health: life expectancy and gender ratio and political participation: representation in decision-making structures. The data from these variables are converted into gender ratios. When aggregated, these data make it possible to give a score to a country according to its level of gender equality achievement.

d. Gender Equality Index (GEI)

The Gender Equality Index (GEI) is an index created by the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) in 2005. The Gender Equality Index was developed by the EIGE to assess the impact of gender equality policies implemented in the EU and its Member States. The ISEE Gender Equality Index is based on six central themes: work, money, knowledge, time, power and health; and two cross-cutting themes: violence against women and cumulative inequalities. The selection of initial indicators is carried out on a theoretical basis, based on more than 200 variables from different sources. The selection of initial indicators is carried out on a theoretical basis, based on more than 200 variables. The results of the multi-variate analysis provide the final set of twenty-seven indicators, grouped into six domains, each subdivided into two sub-domains (a total of twelve sub-domains). The aggregation of these indicators makes it possible to give a score to each State in terms of gender equality.

e. African Development and Gender Inequality Index (AGDI)

The African Development and Gender Inequality Index (AGDI) is a composite index created as part of the Beijing +10 review process. The AGDI aims to measure the gender gap in Africa, and to assess the progress made by African governments in implementing the gender policies they have developed. The AGDI has two components: the first, the Gender Status Index (GSI), which measures gender inequalities using available quantitative indicators on education, health, income, time use, access to resources, formal and informal political representation and employment; the second component is the African Women's Progress Report (AWPS), which covers qualitative issues related to the performance of African governments' gender policies.

f. The Women's Status Index (WSI)

The GSI reports on gender equality aspects that can be quantified in various areas: social, political and economic (for example, it will not include a maternal mortality index because there is no equivalent for men). The GSI has three sections: "Social Power or Capacities" which includes indicators on education and health; "Economic Power or Opportunities" which includes indicators on income, time use, employment and access to resources; and "Political Power or Power of Action" which includes indicators on formal and informal political power. For each variable, the gender equality indicator is calculated in the same way: Comparison of results obtained by women and men. The closer the indicator gets to the value 1, the better the gender equality results. The indicator is also calculated for each sub-component, component and heading. The index is then calculated to reflect the general profile of the country.

g. Le Tableau de bord de la promotion de la femme en Afrique (TBPFA)

The AWPS qualitatively assesses the effectiveness of national policies for the advancement and empowerment of women. It monitors the progress of African governments in ratifying and effectively implementing the conventions on gender equality and women's empowerment in 4 areas:

- Women's rights", focusing on CEDAW and the Women's Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights;
- Social power or capabilities;

- Economic power or opportunities;
- Political power or the ability to influence the decision-making process.