

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

**THE IMPACT OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AS EXPERIENCED BY WOMEN IN THE
GREATER ACCRA REGION OF GHANA**

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GREATER ACCRA REGION OF GHANA

BY

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of Master of Philosophy Degree in Guidance and Counseling

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or the like in any university. To the best of my knowledge and belief, this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgement has been made.

Student's Signature.....Date

Name:

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature.....Date

Name:

Co-Supervisor's

Signature.....Date.....

Name:

ABSTRACT

This is a study into the impact of domestic violence as experienced by women in the Greater Accra region. The main purpose of this study was to assess the emotional, health and economic impact of domestic violence on women. This study used the feminist and victimological theories to explain gender inequality and patriarchy which enable gender violations to thrive. Descriptive survey design was used to guide the study. Data were gathered using questionnaire. Purposive sampling procedure was employed to identify 11 women's groups for the study with a sample of 110 respondents. Descriptive statistics and the Independent t test were used in analysing the data. The main finding of the study was that domestic violence negatively impacts on women's emotional, health and economic well-being and that women with higher level of education were less likely to experience or report domestic violence. The study recommended that programmes on domestic violence should be tailored to meet the needs of all women irrespective of their educational levels. In addition, the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection should work with all District Assemblies to create safe shelters for women across the country.

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Being able to recognise and thank people and institutions that have assisted me in any undertaking always brings me a lot of joy and satisfaction. Research work can be best described as a product of collaboration with others. In this vein, I recognise individuals who have assisted me in undertaking my research on *The Impact of Domestic Violence on Women: A Study in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana*.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my late father, Alhaji Abdul Karimu who died as a result of one of the two armed robbery attacks against my family and I.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS: Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome

CDC: Centres for Disease Control

CEDAW: Convection on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against
Women

FGM: Female Genital Mutilation

NVTI: National Vocational Training Institute

O Level: Ordinary level certificate

SSSCE: Senior Secondary School Certificate Examination

UNHCR: United Nations High Commission on Refugees

UNFPA: United Nations Population Report

UDHR: Universal Declaration on Human Rights

US: United States

WHO: World Health Organisation

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Violence is a phenomenon that has lived with man since the evolution of the world. One of the earliest forms of violence documented was a fraternal one between Cain and Abel (Genesis chapter 4). After this incident, the world has experienced so many forms of violence up to date. For example, World Wars 1 and 2. Again most knights and some medieval warriors who lived from the dark ages to the renaissance era conveniently used force and violent acts to topple indigents and others. These medieval warriors wanted to gain power, possess lands, be prestigious or get treasures (Andrus, 2008). Violence is a difficult thing to define. As a result, many authors tend to describe violence rather than give a definite definition. Violence is described as any act that involves the use of strength or compelling to injure a person physically or psychologically (Prah, 2000). Violence against women has also been defined as “any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women including threats of such acts as, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life” (General Assembly Resolution, 1993).

Violence is about controlling power to subdue or dominate others. According to Cusack and Appiah (1999), violence can injure an individual and includes

certain explicit behaviours that psychologically affect an individual. Violence is continual and has many strands (Garcia-Moreno, 1999; Oyekenmi, 1997). Violence occurs in all cultures and in all settings (Morrish, Horsman & Hofer, 2002). It also manifests in work environments as sexual harassment and intimidation; in the community as rape and assault and also in the home as sexual, emotional and physical violence. There is also violence approved by states such as; racism, war and police brutality as noted by Garcia-Moreno and Oyekenmi. These forms of violence committed by states against individuals or groups can manifest in the following:

- i. Stripping indigenous people of their land;
- ii. Obstructing other people (especially minority groups) from practicing their harmless traditions with the view that those traditions are inferior;
- iii. Restricting the free movement or mobility of people (such as the witches camp at Gambaga in the northern region of Ghana);
- iv. Arbitrary arrest and detention without the right to defence and totally cut off from the rest of the world and/or are blatantly violated (Ardayfio-Schandorf, 2005 & Garcia-Moreno, 1999).

In addition, other forms of violence are only carried out to certain sex or gender especially females simply because they are either female or male and woman or man. These include but not limited to: sexual violence, women trafficking, dowry-related deaths, female genital mutilation or cutting and injurious customary practices (Coomaraswamy, 2000; Garcia-Moreno, 1999).

According to a UNICEF report released in 2000, in some districts of Nepal, women have to engage in illegal sex trade for income to sustain their families. For instance, men require their wives or female family members to participate in commercial sex work in India or Thailand (Benninger-Budel & Lacroix, 1999).

It is reported that, similar situation exists in northern Ghana and parts of Togo where girls have been given out to shrine priests. They become wives to these priests in return for spiritual protection for male members of their families who have offended the gods. Another violation of women in parts of the Middle East and Asia is the killings in the name of honour. Honour killings involve the putting to death or murder of women to simply justify and defend the principles of families. Honour killings have been reported particularly in Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Pakistan, Turkey and Bangladesh. A woman can be killed in the name of honour ranging from sexual or nonsexual premarital relationships, rape, perceived or actual infidelity and loving or marrying a man a woman's family dislikes (Coomaraswamy, 2000). Even though killing women in the name of honour is on the ascendency in the parts of the world where it is practised, they are often disguised and rather labelled and reported as suicide as well as survivors prohibited and forbidden to discuss it.

Minority groups and individuals often are the victims of violence. These minority groups include indigenous groups, migrant women, refugee women, and women in conflict zones, women in detention, women with disabilities and elderly women (WHO, 1996, Amnesty International, 2000). According to Morrish, Horsman and Hofer (2002), and Garcia-Moreno, (1999), the various

forms of violence are interconnected affecting women and young people irrespective of age.

Nevertheless, the effects of violence on men and women differ markedly in the form, nature and the consequences. Again, the response of society to the varied forms of violence faced by people also differs. For example, whereas violence meted out openly is regarded as an offense by almost all social systems and supported by laws, violence especially against women is viewed a secret (private) issue (Garcia-Moreno, 1999 and Ofei-Aboagye, 1994).

The United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Violence against Women (CEDAW) describes violence against women as “a manifestation of historically unequal power relationship between men and women which have led to domination over and discrimination against women by men and to the prevention of the full advancement of women...” Violence against women sometimes is viewed mainly as wife beating. However, it goes beyond this. Violence against women involves emotional, verbal, economic and sexual abuses. Also it includes those cultural practices that are detrimental to women such as Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) and wife inheritance (passing in a widow and all she owns to brothers of her deceased husband (Coomaraswamy, 2000 and Cusack & Appiah, 1999). It is these same types and forms of violence that are enacted in terms of gender-based violence. According to Garcia-Moreno (1999), gender-based violence is situated in social and cultural norms that result in disparity between women and men and support discrimination against women. It is also made possible by beliefs of sexism. This asserts that, women are less in

value than men. This devaluation is shown in the sense of powerlessness, low status, freedom and access to resources (Campbell, 1990). Policies and practices have been developed out of sexism that tends to hinder women's development, rationalise inequality and low wages of women. This has makes women more susceptible to sexual abuse and other forms of domestic violence (Roopnarain, 2006).

Violence against women and girls continues to be a worldwide problem tormenting physically, psychologically, sexually and economically as well as causing disability and killing (WHO, 1996). The commonest type of violence against women everywhere is domestic violence which includes physical, emotional and sexual abuse of women by their current intimate partners or former partners (Heise, Ellsberg & Gottemoeller, 1999). Domestic violence has been defined by Ghana's Domestic Violence Act as: "an act which constitute a threat or harm to a person under that act, threats to commit, or acts likely to result in physical abuse, or use of physical force against another person including the forcible confinement or detention of another person and the deprivation of another person of access to adequate food, water, clothing, shelter, rest, or subjecting another person to torture or other cruel, inhuman, or degrading treatment or punishment" (Act, 732, 2007 p.5). Domestic violence takes place within the ideology that recognises the home or family as a secret (private) sphere. The "private" in this context refers to the Patriarchal family system (Roopnarain, 2006). The family set up is often believed to be one of the most essential and secure groups into which a child is born. However, literature on the family proves

that, the closeness or intimacy in there is responsible for all the negative treatment meted out to its members. The perpetrators of the mistreatment in the family system often go scot-free or receive lenient punishment (Coomaraswamy, 2000; Garcia-Moreno, 1999).

Violence against women irrespective of where it happens and the method used breaches their fundamental human rights. This is affirmed by international human rights instruments such as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), adopted in 1948 and CEDAW adopted in 1979. These support the various principles of fundamental rights and freedoms of every human being including women. CEDAW recognises the right to protection from gender-based abuse and neglect as well as requires that, all harmful practices to women including those deeply entrenched in cultural norms be eliminated. In the same vein, Article 18 of the African Charter on Human and People's Rights calls on all state parties to eliminate all kinds of discrimination against women and to guarantee the protection of the rights of women. The African Platform for Action and the 1994 Dakar Declaration, have called on all member states, which have signed onto these instruments to fully commit to implementing all the tenets therein, and to take concrete steps to give greater attention to the human rights of women in order to eradicate all forms of discrimination and gender-based violence against women.

Historically, it is regarded as a taboo to report domestic violence incidences to law enforcement officials since it occurs in the home or private sphere (Prah, 2000; Cusack & Appiah, 1999). However, the growing gender awareness

globally has resulted in many women becoming willing to talk or report gender-based violations in order to uphold their Fundamental Human Rights guaranteed by international and regional human rights instruments (Garcia-Moreno, 1999). Existing data on incidence and prevalence of domestic violence as highlighted by studies indicate that, between twenty to fifty percent of women in every country are victims of gender-based violence and especially domestic violence. Differences only exist in the manner and nature as expressed in the various regions and countries of the world (Oyekenmi, 1997; WHO, 1996).

The table 1 shows lifetime prevalence of physical and/or sexual intimate partner violence among ever-partnered women by WHO region.

Table 1-*Prevalence of Physical and/or Sexual Violence in WHO Region*

WHO Regions	Prevalence rate	95%
Low and middle-income regions		
Africa	36.6	32.7-40.5
Americas	29.8	25.8-33.9
Eastern Mediterranean	37.0	30.9-43.1
Europe	25.4	20.9-30.0
South- East Asia	37.7	32.8-42.6
Western Pacific	24.6	20.1-29.0
High Income	23.2	20.2-26.2

(WHO, 2013 p17)

Domestic violence is an age old problem but was swept under the carpet for centuries. However, CEDAW (1979), and the Beijing Platform for Action in 1995 among others have succeeded in pushing domestic violence onto the global

political platform which has further led to a growing consciousness and recognition of the occurrence of domestic violence in our society and the urgent need to stamp it out. Conspicuous in the campaign on violence against women /domestic violence are women's rights activists whose work has equally led to the continuous creation and raising of awareness on domestic violence. Domestic violence is known by many names including: spousal abuse, domestic abuse, domestic assault, battering, partner abuse, marital strife and marital dispute. Domestic violence can take the form of physically abusing a woman such as: slapping, hitting, arm pulling, stabbing, strangling, burning, choking, kicking and threatening with object or weapon (Prah, 2000; Cusack & Appiah, 1999 and Ofei-Aboagye, 1994). Domestic violence also involves traditional practices that are harmful to women. These include: FGM, dowry-related deaths, honour killings and coerce prostitution (Amnesty International, 2004 and Garcia-Moreno, 1999). The abuse can also be sexual such as compelling women to have sex, undesirable sexual acts and advances and many others (Amnesty International, 2004). Emotionally it involves all acts or behaviours to scare and harass. It also involves threats to abandon or abuse, restriction, threats to seize the woman's children or items with significance and frequent humiliation (Morrish, Horsman & Hofer, 2002). Also, domestic violations can take the form of economic domination involving, withholding funds from the woman, withdrawing all financial commitments to the woman and children and forbidding women to work (Amnesty International, 2004 and Garcia-Moreno, 1999).

Domestic violence has affected many families for centuries now and it is still prevalent in our society today. For example, in Ghana, over two thousand new cases of various forms and types of violations are reported every year and this figure does not include those who do not report domestic violence for fear of further abuse or isolation and stigmatisation (Prah, 2000; Cusack & Appiah, 1999; Ofei-Aboagye, 1994). The American Women's Medical Association (2002), reported that, one-third of American women have been physically abused or violated sexually. In addition, a 1998 Commonwealth Fund Survey report indicated that, the 25 percent of American Women who have been forced into sex or physically beaten have suffered these at the hands of a current or former spouse. Again, it is estimated that, at least 30% of cohabiting or married couples will be exposed to a form of domestic violence during the time of their relationship (Ellison, Trinitapoli, Anderson & Johnson, 2007). Domestic violence statistics are often disturbing wherever in the world one examines (Coomaraswamy, 2000).

The WHO reports that, the total deaths and disability resulting from cancer, malaria, traffic injuries or war are less than deaths and disability resulting from gender-based violence especially for women aged 44 and below. In other words, women are highly prone (five to eight times) to gender-based victimisation than men by a lover.

Statement of the Problem

Examining existing literature on domestic violence has brought to light that, it is a huge global problem with hard to quantify consequences and a major issue

in Ghana. A study of Ghanaian women by Ofei-Aboagye cited in Cusack and Appiah (1999) revealed that violence was a problem for women but women could not discuss or talk about it easily. They further indicated that, violence against women was exceptionally difficult to openly mention due to traditional, social and legal practices that label it as a private issue. Additionally, most researchers suggest that wife abuse is found equally in all societies and cultures and that variation in figures are as a result of people refusing to talk about it or report to law enforcement officials (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000 and Bachman & Saltzman, 1995). In recent times, there has been a lot of discussions and better understanding on the problem of domestic violence, its causes and consequences. There has also been an international consensus and interest in the need to deal with the issue. For instance CEDAW, The Beijing Platform for Action in 1995, and the Nairobi Forward Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women all reflect these and have outlined specific actions to combat violence against women. The Beijing Declaration and the Beijing Platform for Action urged states to take the lead in addressing the issue through effective preventive, legal and protective measures. Article 4-2-a of the African Charter also requires state parties to “enact and enforce laws to prohibit all forms of violence against women” whether the violence takes place in private or public.” Beijing Plus 5 also recommended actions to treat all forms of violence against women and girls as a criminal offense punishable by law and also eradicate harmful customary or traditional practices including FGM, child and forced marriages.

The Ghana draft report for Beijing plus 5 had as part of its strategies to combat domestic violence, the promotion of research, collection of data, compilation of statistics and the wide dissemination of findings on domestic violence. In the light of these international and regional actions to combat violence against women as well as the passing of the Domestic Violence Act in the country, it is incumbent on persons interested in the welfare of women and girls and those in institutions of higher learning to investigate all aspects of violence against women and girls. This will increase statistics and provide evidence for domestic violence campaigns and programming nationally. In view of this, the researcher sought to study the impact of domestic violence as experienced by women in the Greater Accra region of Ghana.

Purpose of the Study

This study looked at the impact of domestic violence as experienced by women in the Greater Accra region of Ghana. The study further discussed implications for counselling in order for counsellors to adequately support clients who are victims of domestic violence. The study specifically:

1. Assessed the emotional, health and economic impact of domestic violence as experienced by women in the Greater Accra region of Ghana.
2. Identified the socio-cultural practices enhancing domestic violence in the Greater Accra region.
3. Examined societal attitudes promoting domestic violence in the Greater Accra region.

4. Established whether the impact of domestic violence on educated women is the same as on uneducated women.
5. Established whether the emotional impact of domestic violence on working women is the same as on non-working women.

Research Questions

The research questions for this study are as follows:

1. What is the emotional impact of domestic violence on women in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana?
2. What is the health impact of domestic violence on women in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana?
3. What is the economic impact of domestic violence on women in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana?
4. What are the various socio-cultural practices that promote domestic violence in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana?
5. What attitudes in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana promote domestic violence?

Hypotheses

1. H_0 : There is no statistically significant difference between the impact of domestic violence on women with high level of education and women with low level of education.

H_1 : There is no significant difference between the impact of domestic violence on women with high level of education and women with low level of education.

2. Ho: There is no statistically significant difference between the level of emotional impact of domestic violence on working women and non-working women.

H1: There is a statistically significant difference between the level of emotional impact of domestic violence on working women and non-working women.

Significance of the Study

This study determined the emotional, health and economic impact of domestic violence on women in the Greater Accra region of Ghana. It further,

1. Adds on to the knowledge and alertness of counsellors on the diverse nature of the impact of domestic violence on women.
2. Also, the findings of the study bring to light the attitudes of law enforcement officials in the Greater Accra region that hinder women from reporting domestic violence.
3. This study makes recommendations to government through the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection to create domestic violence information centres in all districts. This will enable Non-Governmental Organisations as well as civil society organisations to partner government in providing support and care for domestic violence victims and also help in educating women on domestic violence.
4. The results of this study serve as a guide for policy makers in developing appropriate framework and mechanisms for combating and supporting domestic violence victims and programmes.

5. Advocates can use the outcome of this study in addition to international and regional human rights frameworks to lobby various governments to create domestic violence campaigns (where none exists) or intensify on-going ones.

Delimitation of the Study

A research delving into the impact of domestic violence on women in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana is vital and should have covered the whole scope of violence against women. However, this study considered specifically, examined the psychological/ emotional, economic, physical and health impact of domestic violence on women. It also focused on the societal attitudes and cultural practices that promote domestic violence.

It also examined whether the impact of the domestic violence is the same on all women irrespective of their level of education and employment status.

Limitations of the Study

Every effort was made in this research to ensure that the information gathered in this study was a reliable and valid reflection of those surveyed. However, there were some limitations to the amount of information that could have been collected for this research. In relation to the survey data, though the response rate was considered high enough to be a valid sample, additional responses from for example, the Domestic Violence and Victim Support Unit of the Police Service may have generated additional perspectives. Another significant issue was the distribution process of the surveys.

First, there were difficulties reaching membership of the women's organisations used in the survey due to the different ways in which they are organised and with some, the broad nature of their service beneficiaries.

Second, even though some organisations of women with disabilities participated in the survey, the researcher did not specifically analyse the results taken into considerations minority groups (such as women with disabilities) among the overall women's group.

Third, using self-report to measure any human situation can be problematic. Since this survey relied on self-reported domestic violence, it is possible that some respondents might not have done full self-disclosure in order to avoid embarrassment. Fourth, the survey focused only on one region in the country (Greater Accra) which has a number of nongovernmental organisations and civil society groups that engage in some educational campaigns on domestic violence. In view of this, the population in the region might have been much sensitised on domestic violence and have access to support services. However, this research remains consistent with findings of similar studies by Kishor and Johnson (2004), Human Rights Watch, (1998; 1999). Despite these limitations, this study contributes to the much needed body of research on the impact of domestic violence on women.

Definition of Terms

Domestic violence: This is defined as actions employed by any of the persons in an intimate relationship with the view to subdue and limit the behaviour of the other (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). Domestic violence for the purpose of this study

is any form of physical, psychological/emotional and economic abuse a woman endures from her male partner.

Partner: In this study refers to an intimate male counterpart (husband or boyfriend) (Jackson, 2007).

Organisation of the Study

The chapter one focuses on the background, the statement of the problem, the purpose of the item and the as well as the second chapter focuses on the review of relevant literature to the study, impact of domestic violence; it examines the theoretical and empirical evidence. This chapter contributes to the thesis by identifying assumptions, myths, theories and specifically the emotional, economic health impact of domestic violence on women.

The chapter three deals with the methodological aspect of the study and this includes the study design, population and sampling and tools and techniques used for data collection, data collection procedure and methods of analysis. Chapter 4 presents, analysis and discussion or the result of the study. Chapter five presents summary, conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter presents the related literature reviewed for the study. The review covered the theoretical frame work followed by the review on the key themes raised in the research questions such as:

1. The emotional and psychological impact of domestic violence.
2. The health impact of domestic violence on women.
3. The economic impact of domestic violence on women
4. Socio cultural practices that enhance domestic violence.
5. Attitudes that promotes domestic violence on women.

Theoretical Framework

Theories on aggression

Theories on violence and aggression are normally classified as confusing and conflicting or not very clear due to the fact that, aggression is so abstract or too theoretical a construct. Again, the subject itself is shrouded in confusion and surrounded with numerous theoretical discussions from diverse fields of study. For instance, the field of psychology frames the explanations to aggression using psychological causes and processes whereas ethologists in describing the phenomenon of aggression employ biological foundations (Brennan, 1998). In view of this, the section that follows will attempt to draw meaning from the

different concepts on aggression and describe the various theories underpinning them.

Ethology

According to Brennan, (1998), in order to adequately explain behavioural phenomena using biological processes, one needs to look into the parallels and variations between organisms or groups with the method of experimentation and natural observations. The reason to engage in such experimentations and natural observations would be that, using organisms lower than humans on the evolutionary ladder will offer important information into human actions. Ethologists in examining patterns of behaviour focus on four questions (Brennan, 1998). These are:

- a. What is the immediate trigger of the behaviour? That is, the direct (specific) stimuli referred to as releasers; which is responsible for activating the instinctive patterns of behaviour. These are also known as Fixed Action Patterns (FAPS).
- b. How has such behaviour flourished over the organism's lifespan? (Ontogeny).
- c. What are the consequences of the behaviour? (Function). And
- d. How did the behaviour thrive within the organism? (Phylogeny) (Brennan, 1998).

For example, Lorenz's study in 1966 on fish, birds and some mammals revealed that aggression is a drive common to most animals and man. Aggression was then described as an accumulating force requiring to be discharged usually in

reaction to a specific stimulus. Lorenz argued that human beings are more aggressive than any other mammals because of intra specific aggression (killing of own species). For Lorenz, aggression is a driving power, which is a natural response of organisms to protect or preserve life, as well as to equally distribute territory among themselves, to identify the strongest and to protect the young (Lorenz, 1966). Lorenz envisaged three ways to help avoid aggressive acts. The first of these requires knowing oneself especially through one's biological disposition (ethology and psychoanalysis). Self-knowledge will help human beings devise mechanisms for redirecting aggression rather than blame it on alcohol use, lack of education, employment or low income in relation with men who batter women. On the other hand, examining oneself in the lenses of ethology and psychoanalysis has the tendency to lay the motive of intimate partner abuse on the victims who are almost always women. Some ethological explanations can be readily linked with the Intra-individual theories of violence. The Intra-individual theories deal with violence by focusing on the emotional and behavioural dysfunction associated with mental disorder or social deviations particularly that of the aggressor. This includes hostility, emotional imbalance, low self-control, alcohol use and drug abuse (Natarajan, 2002).

The second of Lorenz's ways to dealing with aggressive acts is to cultivate friendships across groups. The building of these friendship lines will enable bonds to be developed between people from diverse backgrounds and eventually support or nurture acts to inhibit aggression (Lorenz, 1966). The third of Lorenz's proposition requires aggression to be passed onto alternate objects or channelled

into rigorous exercises such as sports and athletic activities (Scott, 1973). Another study conducted on aggressive behaviour in primates concluded that, fighting occurs among animals for two reasons. First, to dominate others in their social hierarchy and second, to occupy a territory and express territorial rights over a particular piece of land (Brennan, 1998). Brennan indicated that these hierarchical domination and territorial occupation are also common to human beings. This can be adduced to the notion of women being the property of men in some cultures who must be beaten, subdued or dominated (Puri, 1999; Isiugo & Abanihe, 1994; Ofei-Aboagye, 1994 Shurei, 1997; and Gangrade & Chander, 1991).

Psychoanalytical Views on Aggression

Freud is heralded as one of the pioneers of psycho-analytical explanations of aggression. In 1908, Adler published the theory that, aggression is a very high drive that controls movement patterns, awareness and the coming together of all other drives. Aggression according to Adler is intrinsic and can turn on one's characteristics or identity, creating varying degrees of manifestations (Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1956). According to Ansbacher and Ansbacher, this drive was classified as a male-related objection that which can be used to offset feelings of inadequacy or inferiority complex as well as the craving for perfection or completeness. They further indicated that, Freud at the beginning ignored Adler's view on aggression as a result of his belief that aggression did not represent any unique instinct or drive. He however refreshed his views on aggression after World War I. This was discussed in the *Beyond the Pleasure Principle* but further advanced the concept in his later works (Storr, 1968).

Freud's earlier theory depicted humans as being controlled by self-preservation and sexual instincts (the ego instinct and eros) (Rummel, 1976). Rummel explained that, aggression in itself had no place as a unique or stand-alone instinct but was an integral part of eros which is a facet of human sexuality and that; it was an instinct to release tension. This means that, tension accumulates in human beings and this stored up tension must be let out or released. The process of this release is referred to as (catharsis) which in fact is pleasurable. According to Freud, two competing instincts move all living things. The first being the life instinct (eros) which generates, maintains and bring together living things into a broad system. Next is the death instinct that gravitates toward destroying living systems and dissolving them into nothingness (Rummel, 1976).

As the ultimate stage of the pleasure principle, death is the state of closure of all tension, that is, the perfect state (Rummel, 1976). The death instinct is however directed inwardly aimed at snuffing out an organism. In order to preserve an organism, the libido struggles with the death instinct and pushes it out of the organism where it results in physical aggression or manifests as the desire to dominate and control others and command power. Aggression can therefore be described as a pushing away the death instinct from the body. Rummel argued that, Freud always viewed aggression as harmful or destructive to the self. Considering the Freudian views on aggression and drawing from the literature on violence against women such as the works of Coomaraswamy, (2000), Walby and Allen, (2004) and Women's Aid Federation of England, (2004), it is evident that

violence against women is likely to result in negative physical, health, economic and emotional or psychological outcomes for women.

From revised Freud's death instinct notion in order to incorporate ethological and psychological findings that ensued (Fromm, 1973). He identified two independent sources of aggression namely instinctual and uninstinctual. Instinctual aggression is thought to be less harmful and defensive but instinctual aggression which is embedded in human character is cruel and destructive. Fromm further asserted that, human beings are naturally programmed to instinctually protect themselves against perceived threats to survival, freedom and other basic values. Harm or destructiveness resulting from this defence is often not deliberate but rather wholly instrumental. This thinking is consistent with aspects of survey findings that seem to suggest that, abused women constantly act in ways to avoid being abuse (Women's Aid Federation of England, 2004).

The aim is to overcome threat and the activity ends when the threat does. Thus, instinctual or benign aggression is spontaneous or reactive but not deliberate or pondered over. It is caused by external stimuli not internally generated by an increase in tension (Fromm, 1973). "Malignant aggression according to Fromm results from specific human passions seated in human character. Human organic needs and emotions are integrated and organised according to major goals. This structure of organisation is human character. It is a "human phenomenon" enabling us to adapt to multiple environments and challenges" (Fromm, 1973, p253). Malignant aggression can be rancorous or explosive, hateful and destructive and vicious with the desire to have absolute control over

others or masochistic in desiring pain and suffering as well as a passion to destroy and tear apart human beings. These forms are flagged as social categories that have evolved as a consequence of history and the growth of institutions (Rummel, 1976).

May (1972), also analysed aggression employing Power and innocence or virtuousness. May regarded power as a basic drive and that aggression is associated with or a form of this drive may be classified power into five levels. The first is the power to be, to survive and the portrayal of oneself. Second, is that power related to self-affirmation (the state of being significant and being acknowledged by others beside oneself) and the third; the power to self-assert or, pushing against opposition? Aggression is the fourth requiring exercising power to surmount restricted self-assertion with the fifth being violence, (those acts we perpetuate when serene acts prove futile or fruitless. For example, aggression can occur in intimate relationships, attempt to manipulate or possess the thoughts of someone, in self-defence and in sharing intimacy. “The truth is that practically everything (human beings) do is a mixture of positive and negative forms of aggression” (May, 1972, p.152).

Cultural Anthropological Theory

This theory postulates that, aggression is seated within a culture and learned in the same way as a language (Rummel, 1976). Rummel further asserted that, aggression is not found in all cultures and therefore one can be sure to be relatively free from some forms of aggressive acts and these cultures seldom manifest interpersonal violence and destructiveness. In this regard, even though

human beings have the some kind of innate propensity to behave aggressively, aggression can only manifest itself when one uses culture as a justification for the show of aggression. This is because, human beings are not aggressive but cultures are.

In sum, with the exception of the cultural anthropological theory, ethology and psychoanalysis theories on aggression examined above consider much of the effects of aggression rather than it causes. However, a close examination reveals that, aggression is common to all mammals especially to dominate others and to occupy territories. But the cognitive structure of human beings and the advanced levels of societies equip individuals either directly or indirectly to rechanneled aggressive tensions into positive acts.

Theories of Violence against Women

Family Violence/Power Theory

The main proponent of this theory is Murray Strauss and the theory started becoming popular sometime in the 1970s when people began interrogating violence in the family setup. This theory argues that, the family is a set of connections capable of responding to diverse social and structural circumstances that result in stress and conflict. Thus, stress results from violent socialisation and where community support mechanisms are unavailable, aggressive acts become the norm. This means that, the family structure which is mainly dominated by men, perpetuate violence against women. This theory recognises inter-generational violence. However, Women's Aid Federation of England (2004),

believe that, it is possible for individuals and their relations experiencing domestic violence to live violence free lives irrespective of their past with violence.

Feminist Theory

This theory situates violence against women in the political and historical settings where women are allowed to be systematically dominated (Lenton, 1995). Feminist theories further argue that most domestic violence in families result from the inequity of power between men and women (Anderson, 1997; Sugarman & Frankel, 1996; McCloskey, 1996; Lenton, 1995; Hansen, 1993; Yllear & Straus, 1990). The theory further suggests that, the existence of the nuclear family is to enforce patriarchic systems that equip men with enormous power than women. Patriarchic societies believe and condone the superiority of men to women and this is drawn upon to justify why women are subjected to violence in intimate relationships (Straus, 1994).

This theory again argues that men's' use of violence in families is a means to control women which is male supremacy and female subordination (Straus, 1994 and Dobash & Dobash, 1979). Natarajan (2002), in reviewing Indian cultures found them to be highly patriarchic. She further asserted that domestic violence especially women abuse, was common in Indian societies because women are considered subordinate "second class" to men with women's value dependent on the status their husbands hold in society . Ofei-Aboagye (1994), also found the Ghanaian society to be highly patriarchic where men are regarded more than women. Again, Narayan reviewing feminist studies of various societies concluded that domestic violence stem from male supremacy and the subordinate position of

women (Narayan, 1997). According to Natarajan (2002), women have been socialised into accepting abuse as normal facet of their daily lives. Again, socialisation processes in patriarchic societies further makes Women to believe that every family issue should be kept within the walls of the home and that respect must be accorded their husbands irrespective of how they (husbands) treat them (Ofei-Aboagye, 1994). This stems from the patriarchic belief that husbands always do what is best for the family. However, men are socialised to be authority figures at home that must sometimes physically punish their wives (Natarajan, 2002 and Ofei-Aboagye, 1994).

Feminist theory has become popular in the discourse on violence against women because it strives to evaluate the experiences of women as well as avoids blaming women for their abuse. By so doing, Feminist theorists seek to discover approaches or interventions that can adequately equip women to exit abusive relationships since it lays the blame of abuse on the perpetrator.

Victim-logical Theory

Two concepts can be employed to discuss the occurrence of domestic violence under this theory (Fattah, 1991). The first concept is one's vulnerability to victimization or abuse. This refers to all possible or likely factors that enhance the vulnerability to domestic violence. Natarajan (2002) mentioned these to include: removing a woman from her supportive social network, domestic incompetence, infertility and the lack of a job. When these factors are present in a woman's life, she is likely to be more dependent on her man or his family thereby increasing her susceptibility to domestic abuses either emotionally or physically.

The second victim-logical concept is that of the cultural legitimate victim. This draws on cultural provisions to justify, rationalise and neutralise domestic violence in order for husbands to abuse their wives. For example, Ofei-Aboagye asserts that, in parts of Ghana: physically abusing a wife is a man's way of instilling discipline into his wife (teaching the wife a lesson) and other women cannot openly express sympathy for these women. According to Nguyen, (2005), in parts of Asia, physical abuse is an acceptable way of disciplining a woman also. In this vein, young people in Africa and Asia grow up with the erroneous view that physical violence or beating especially women is an acceptable practise. Customary practices embedded in culture have been used to rationalise violence against women so much so that they are now regarded as the norm. Though these are changing in the large cities and towns, same cannot be said for smaller towns and villages.

Empirical Framework

According to Morrish, Horsman and Hofer, (2002), violence is ubiquitous and to better understand the various forms in which violence manifests, one needs to look at it holistically. These authors further indicated that, all types of violence build upon each other in a person's experience. For instance, a woman is made vulnerable by one form of violence (emotional abuse) which results in another (economic abuse). Also, each additional violence has increased impact and deepens the first violation. A research carried out by Dodd, Nicholas, Povey and Allison (2004), proved the existence of recurrent violation and that 44 % of all women experiencing domestic violence are victims of more than one incident.

They added that domestic violence is the only crime with the highest rate of repeat victimisation or violation.

Domestic abuse or violence against women has been viewed fundamentally as a recurring phenomenon in gender relations. Feminist analysis of violence against women reveals how violence reflects the subordinate nature of women which is depicted in violent acts against women (Roopnarain, 2006). Roopnarain further stated that, employing aggressive behaviour within the family is socially sanctioned as well as regarded as legitimate in relation to specific positions.

It is a commonly held view that, domestic violence is rooted in poverty and illiteracy of men. However, this assertion has been found not to be correct since domestic violence occurs at all levels of society, whether rich or poor (Keltosová, 2002; Morrish, Horsman & Hofer, 2002). They also asserted that, domestic violence is experienced by women from all strata of society and ethnic groups. Findings of Jackson, (2007), also seem to suggest that, domestic violence is present among women of middle and upper classes of society. Keltosová however suggested that, perhaps the reason for the prevalence of domestic abuse among poor women could be the fact that it is much easier to cover up violence when the abuser is affluent or his circle of friends include influential personalities in society. Available evidence does not augment the notion that uneducated or poor people are more likely to abuse their wives or partners than are more educated and affluent people (Bennett, 1997; Bunch, 1997). On the contrary, Keltosová (2002), indicated that, about half of all those men who commit violence against women are university degree holders. Consequently, one might, rather assert that the

incidence of domestic violence seems to increase with income and the level of education. Again, it is also believed that alcohol and drug use cause domestic violence. Even though historically alcohol and drugs have been often associated with domestic violence, they do not necessarily cause the violence. Sixty-two percent out of a study of 336 convicted offenders of domestic violence found out that, the abusers used alcohol and 48% of offenders were alcohol dependent (Gilcrist, Johnson, Takriti, Weston, Beech & Kebbell , 2003). Many men who beat their wives are not alcoholics. Men who drink and physically abuse their wives would often not beat anybody they meet parents or their bosses but aim their violence only at their intimate partners (Women's Aid Federation of England, 2004; Keltosová, 2002; Morrish, Horsman & Hofer, 2002).

Women's Aid research indicates that, abusers with a history of alcohol or drug use have the tendency to blame the alcohol or drugs for their behaviour. But blaming something else does not remove responsibility for abusers' actions. It further stated that, there can never be a shift in blame for domestic violence and that the causes of domestic violence are deeply rooted than just being a result of intoxication or drug dependency. There is the need to separately deal with domestic violence and substance abuse and view these as independent of each other (Bennett, 1997; Bunch, 1997). On the other hand, abused women may also fall on alcohol or use drugs to aid them cover up or hide their abuse (means of escape) (Women's Aid Federation of England, 2004).

Another myth worth considering about domestic violence is the assertion that women experiencing domestic violence never leave their abusers and when they

go away, they end up in similar or worse relationships (Women's Aid Federation of England, 2004; Keltosová, 2002). Keltosová further asserted that, women experiencing domestic violence cannot just simply quit seeing an abusive intimate partner or relationship though their lives are threatened, because leaving is not a firm security or guarantee that the violence will end with their departure. On the contrary, a British crime survey of 338 women showed that, majority of women who left their violent partners did not experience further abuse but 37% said violations persisted. For 18% of those who left their abusers, victimisation continued through stalking and other forms of intimidation. Almost seven percent of those that left indicated that their violations increased significantly after they stopped living with their intimate partners (Walby & Allen, 2004). In fact, the space between when an abused woman decides to leave the abusive relationship up to a year of her departure are often regarded as the most perilous time for the woman and her dependents (Women's Aid Federation of England, 2004). In a survey on separated women by Humphreys and Thiara, (2002), 76% of 400 respondents acknowledged having to deal with after separation violence. Seventy-six percent of the women persistently experienced ongoing verbal and emotional abuse, with 41% receiving life-threatening intimidations towards themselves or their dependents. They further assert that, 23% were subjected to physical abuse, six percent to sexual abuse (Humphreys & Thiara, 2002).

According to Keltosová, (2002), abused women have many legitimate reasons for staying in a violent relationship. These include but not limited to social, economic and cultural. Fattah (1991), postulated that, whatever reasons women

assign for staying with abusive partners, those reasons are justified. For example, in almost all the cases where a woman had to leave a violent home, normally, she had nowhere (shelter) to go to, did not have any or sufficient funds to adequately support herself and her dependents, felt humiliated about her abuse and blamed those consequences on herself. Again she dreaded blame and accusations that will emanate from her friends, family and community (Women's Aid Federation of England, 2004). For instance, having to answer the question what did you do to be beaten? When women find themselves in situations like these, they are unable to take any decisions which lead them into isolation. Additionally, an abused woman might not reach out for help or reject any form of assistance entirely as a result of her low self-esteem brought about by the abuse (Women's Aid Federation of England, 2004; Keltosová, 2002). For example, Natarajan (2002), indicated that in Hindu norms if a girl divorces or separates with her husband and goes back to her parent's house as a result of misunderstanding in their marriage, it is considered as a very shameful act which leads to disgrace on her parents' family. This purported disgraceful act further hinders any of her siblings from marrying. In addition, leaving her husband's house is a dangerous adventure and enough reason for her to be killed or further abused. A survey carried out on more than 400 women by YouGov (2004) revealed that, 52% of the respondents indicated that they would be very uncomfortable and ashamed to tell their friends about their abuse, while further 59% would not discuss or talk about the abuse with family. This is because the woman feared that the abusive partner would fulfil his threats to harm her, dependents, friends or family (Humphreys & Thiara, 2002).

Therefore, abused women were the only persons who can fairly judge when it is safe for them to leave their abusers (Lees, 2000).

It is recommended for women to be supported and/or have safe options to enable them take decisions for themselves and whoever depends on them. The support and safe options abused women require to move out of their violent homes include: funds, shelter, transportation, continuous police protection, legal aid and above all, emotional support or counselling (Women's Aid Federation of England, 2004). When abused women are not certain of these or not in the position to provide for them, it is unlikely they would quit the abusive relationship. Some women also ask for support from close family members or friends and the nature of help these people put at their disposal facilitate their decision-making (YouGov, 2004). According to YouGov (2004), notwithstanding the decision an abused woman makes about her relationship with her abuser, the support and safe options she gets must enhance her overall safety. It is highly important that women have continuous support at the times that she is still living with her abuser. If support becomes conditional or tied to her leaving or quitting, she might recoil and continue to suffer abuse needlessly.

Yet another myth about domestic violence is that, an abused woman deserts her husband often. Contrary to theories of domestic violence that portray battered women as helpless and powerless, women who continue to stay in abusive relationships leave a number of times and regularly take conscious steps to try to reduce their abuse as well as put in place mechanisms to protect their dependents (Bennett, 1997 and Bunch, 1997). Women's Aid report revealed that, women

cohabiting with violent men or quitting violent relationships indicate that they desire their abuse to stop and constantly engaged in trying to protect themselves from it.

They may also act in different ways to deal with the violence. The measures they employ include modifying own behaviour. For instance avoiding certain situations or appeasing the abuser by complying with his demands and in some cases offering presents or gifts to the abuser (Women's Aid Federation of England, 2004). Researchers Dobash, Dobash, Cavanagh and Lewis (2000), in their study titled "Changing Violent Men" stated that, the women in their study sought for help from outside to deal with their violence. Taking this into consideration, it can be argued that these women were neither helpless nor hopeless. In spite of the negative effects of having to live with violent men, majority of the women had great strengths and held positive views about themselves.

In the 1970s, men who abused their wives were thought to be suffering from some form of mental illness that could be healed by medication (Women's Aid Federation of England, 2004; Keltosová, 2002). These researchers however, found, that the demeanour of perpetrators of domestic violence did not tally with the profiles of people who had mental illnesses. This stems from the fact that, violent men assault only their intimate partners (women). In contrast people who have mental illnesses are unable to select whom to violate or just restricting their aggressive acts to their intimate partners only.

Some earlier studies also characterised abused women as mentally unsound or ill. However, the results of these earlier studies were found to be distorted. This stemmed from the fact that, the studies examined only women who were in psychiatric institutions or hospitals. Then, the violent men were rather interrogated about the cause of their partners' condition. This afforded them the free space to ravage the account of those abused women in psychiatric institutions or hospitals (Bennett, 1997; Bunch, 1997). In fact, a significant number of abused women do not have any mental illness. It was further discovered that, many of the abused women who were hospitalised were misdiagnosed because of the limited knowledge and understanding of the physical and emotional effects of domestic violence (Zorza, 2002).

A research carried out by the Women's Aid Federation of England (2004), found out that, the vast majority of people with mental health problems do not abuse other people. However, there are a minute number of people who suffer from some form of mental illness who may behave abusively. But this does not necessarily correlate with their mental health status. Again, if an abuser cautiously chooses when and where they to abuse an intimate partner, then, they are highly alert or aware of their actions (Women's Aid Federation of England, 2004).

It is also believed that, men are equally victims of domestic violence. Research however shows that women are victims in 95% of domestic violence cases and that globally, at least one-third of women have been physically abused, forced into sex or abused in other ways most often by someone she knows such as a husband or another male family member (Women's Aid Federation of England,

2004; Keltosová, 2002). Findings from a New Zealand study for example revealed that out of a total of 961 women experiencing domestic violence, 37% reported to have been physically abused from partners, father or stepfather constituting 15%, with brother or step-brother accounting for 11%, four percent from mother or stepmother and other family members occupying three percent (Kazantzis et al, 2000).

In situations where women have employed violence against men, it is largely to protect themselves. It is believed that reports of incidences of violence against men in most circumstances blown out of proportion because violent men use accusations against their partners as a means to escape or reduce their own responsibility (Women's Aid Federation of England, 2004; Keltosová, 2002). In addition, a number of resources exist for men who genuinely experience domestic violence to leave the violent relationships than women (Bennett, 1997; Bunch, 1997).

Worldwide, between one in four and half of all women experience some form of violence in their intimate relationships (Violence Manual, 2003). For example, Coomaraswamy, examining domestic violence reported the following incidences of abuse from selected countries: Canada: 29% of women (a nationally representative sample of 12300 women) reported physical abuse by an existing or former partner from age 16.

- 1) Japan: 59% of 796 women were assaulted physically by their partners.
- 2) Switzerland: 20% of 1500 women reported assault.

- 3) Britain: 25% of women randomly sampled from a single district had been abused.
- 4) Thailand: 20% of married men (a representative sample of 619 married men) confirmed physically abusing their wives.
- 5) Israel: 32% of women reported partner abuse and 30% reported being coerced sexually.
- 6) Kenya: 42% of 612 women surveyed in one district had been abused, with 58% of those surveyed having been physically abused.
- 7) Mexico: 30% of 650 women surveyed in Guadalajara reported abuse.
- 8) Nicaragua: 52% of women (representative sample of women) reported ever being abused.
- 9) Poland: 60% of women who were divorced reported having been ever hit and an additional 25% reported continuing violence.
(Coomaraswamy, 2000).

Victims of domestic violence keep silent about their abuse because of embarrassment, fear of being blamed or the danger of repeat victimisation from the abuser (Keltosová, 2002). The perception is also held that, those men who abuse women do so because they have lost control of their anger, are frustrated and stressed out because they are unemployed. However, domestic violence has been proven to be intentional conduct and abusive men are not out of control. Their violence is carefully targeted to specific people at certain times and places

(Dobash et al, 2000; YouGov, 2004 and Women's Aid Federation of England, 2003).

Abusers tend to regulate their abusive acts. They normally abuse their partners in secret or in the comfort of their homes and endeavour to erase visible signs of the abuse or evidence. Violent men also choose their method of abuse wisely. Some destroy partner's property, use threats and some threaten their kids (Keltosová, 2002). Studies also indicate that in fact, some abusive men become gentlemanly and very composed while being aggressive (YouGov, 2004). Since domestic violence cuts across all cultures and socio-economic lives, domestic abuse cannot be attributed to unemployment or poverty.

Another myth that is worth examining is that, domestic violence is a problem only in villages and remote rural areas and those victims like to be beaten (Richard, Letchford & Stratton, 2008). Nonetheless, domestic violence has been documented in both rural and urban communities. Domestic violence is a universal problem (WHO, 2002). Domestic violence victims would very much like the abuse to end. As a result, they adopt various strategies to survive as well as protect their dependents such as reporting to or calling the police, asking for assistance from family members and friends (Dutton, 1994). The section above explored some myths used to justify violence against women in societies as well as provided facts to dilute and render meaningless such myths. Over the years, these myths have crept into various cultures and belief patterns and have been accepted as truth. The acceptance of these myths reinforces women's subordinate positions to men but ensure men's control over women.

Types of Domestic Violence

Around the world, at least one-third of women have been physically abused, forced into sex or abused in other ways, most often by someone she knows very well (Violence Manual, 2003). Morrish, Horsman and Hofer (2002), have asserted that, violence is everywhere and takes many forms and that the different forms of violence are interrelated and affects all aspects of the woman's life. The 1993 World Conference on Human Rights in Vienna concluded that violence against women and girls occurs in varied forms. Heise (1994) examined gender violence throughout a woman's life and outlined the varied types of violence inflicted on women throughout the different phases of their lives as can be seen from table 2.

Table 2-*Gender Violence throughout a Woman's Life*

Phase	Types of violence
Prenatal	Sex-selective abortions, battering during pregnancy, coerced pregnancy (rape during war)
Infancy	Female infanticide, emotional and physical abuse, differential access to food and medical care.
Childhood	Genital mutilation; incest and sexual abuse; differential access to food, medical care, and education; child prostitution
Adolescence	Dating and courtship violence, economically coerced sex, sexual abuse in the workplace, rape, sexual harassment, forced prostitution
Reproductive	Abuse of women by intimate partners, marital rape, dowry abuse and murders, partner homicide, psychological abuse, sexual abuse in the workplace, sexual harassment, rape, abuse of women with disabilities
Old Age	Abuse of widows, elder abuse (which affects mostly women)

Source: Violence Manual, (2003, p.26-28).

According to the WHO (2002), in every country where reliable data exist on violence against women, findings indicate that, between 10% and 69% of women report intimate partners have abused them.

Physical Abuse

Physical abuse is defined as the process of physically causing harm to another person (Mills, 2008). Physical assault is the most visible type of domestic

violence and also the most deadly (Violence Manual, 2003). Physical abuse normally begins with little arguments, a small push during an argument to forcefully grabbing the woman's hand Violence Manual, 2003. However, with time, the abuse (battering) aggravates, becomes recurrent and sometimes makes the woman die out of her injuries Walby & Allen, 2004; Violence Manual, 2003 and Coomaraswamy, 2000).

Physical abuse involves: hitting any part of the woman, pushing, strangling, pinching, and hair pulling, burning with fire or heated materials, restraining (Human Rights Watch, 1998). For example a Human Rights Watch survey found out that a significant proportion of women had experienced repeated physical assaults by their husbands or intimate partners while living as refugees in camps. Victims had been assaulted with different things like hands, bottles, shoes, sticks and cutlasses. Some of these women have had to be treated in clinics and hospitals for their injuries. The women interviewed by Human Rights Watch had bodily marks (scars), lacerations or had broken bodily parts such as fingers, teeth or toes (Human Rights Watch, 1998). Sam (1999), Gender Studies and Human Rights Documentation Centre indicated that, 1 in every 3 Ghanaian woman has been physically abused. For example, Ofei-Aboagye asserts that, in parts of Ghana: physically abusing a wife is a man's way of instilling discipline into his wife (teaching the wife a lesson) and other women cannot openly express sympathy for these women. Culturally, these battered women should learn to be submissive.

Some Ghanaian customs and traditions permit men to apply or use some form of discipline (physical abuse) even on wives whenever required to bring peace into their households (Ofei-Aboagye 1994). As a result of this tradition, women are socialised to accept physical and emotional abuse as a man's reserved right. In addition, some cultural ideologies in some countries provide legitimacy for violence against women in certain circumstances. Coomaraswamy (2000) asserts that, religious and historical traditions in the past have approved the flogging of wives. Wife beating has been justified by the notion of men owning women. This is evident in males overseeing family wealth and property which automatically hands down the power to make and unmake decisions to them. This in effect leads to male having power and control over women's bodies and sexuality. Again, another old tradition that justified the use of physical violence against women was the British common law in the seventeenth century that allegedly permitted husbands to chastise their wives on condition that the cane to be used was not bigger than the thumb of one's husband (Garcia-Moreno, 1999).

The table 3 summarises the number of victims of domestic violence by type of act in the United Kingdom.

Table 3-*Number of Violence Victims by type in the United Kingdom*

Types of domestic violence (violence from intimate partners)	Number of female victims	Number of Male victim	Total Number
Domestic homicide	102	23	125
Non-Sexual severe domestic force	242,000	186,000	420,000
Within which			
Choked or tried to strangled	65,000	6,000	71,000
Used a weapon	13,000	11,000	24,000
Kicked, bit, hit with fist	205,000	177,000	382,000
Threat to kill	82,000	13,000	95,000
Threat with a weapon	36,000	16,000	52,000
Non-sexual minor domestic force (pushed, held down or slapped)	410,000	174,000	584,000
All serious penetration sexual assault	37,000		37,000
of which rape	28,000		28,000
Sexual assault (Non - penetration)	26,000		26,000
Stalking	446,000	71,000	517,000

(Walby, 2004, p.30).

Sexual Abuse

Sexual abuse can be defined as any sexual interaction without approval and includes undesirable touching, forcing sex or rape, deliberately making sex painful and photographing sexual encounters (CEDAW, 1979). It can also be defined as forcefully having sex with a woman contrary to her wish and/or inducing someone to perform sexual acts which contravene their beliefs (WHO,

2013). Threats to manipulate the victim into succumbing or employing a wide variety of emotional abuse to make the victim unwillingly allow unwanted sexual acts out of fear or shame (Human Rights Watch, 1999). Again, women submit to unwanted sexual demands when men threaten them with physical abuse, abandonment or punish her in some other way. (Violence Manual, 2003) Sexual abuse involve but not limited to any of the following: display of excessive jealousy, using sexually derogatory names, criticising sexually, forcing unwanted sexual activity (vaginal, anal or oral), forced to undress against will, withholding sex and affection, forcing sex after physical assault, taking unwanted sexual photographs and forcing sex while tired or sick (Coomaraswamy, 2000).

The Human Rights Watch in (1998) interviewed a woman in a refugee camp who was a typical victim of this tactic and she indicated that, her husband physically and verbally assaulted her with offensive words about her feminine nature. He rudely compared her to his past women in the presence of their children. She added that after the beating, the husband had sex with her against her will (Human Rights Watch, 1998). But according to CEDAW (1979), whatever form in which or however sex occurs whether by employing physical strength, financial or emotional bonding or manipulation, every sexual act devoid of mutual agreement results in sexual violations. For example, another woman told the Human Rights Watch in (1999), about her ordeal when she was unwell and could not satisfy her husband's sexual desires because she had an epileptic attack. She asserted that, the husband physically abused her. The husband screamed at her using abusive language, referred to her as an ugly and worthless

woman, twisted her fingers till one broke and kicked her countless times on the face and stomach (Human Rights Watch, 1999).

According to United Nations Population Fund report (2000), forced sex and other forms of sexual violence are increasing but many incidences of rape are not reported because of the stigmatisation linked to it. The report further indicated that, estimates of the percentage of rape cases reported range from below three percent in South Africa to just around sixteen percent in the United States. Table 4 examines the lifetime prevalence of domestic violence that is, physical and/or sexual or non-partner sexual violence or both among all women (15 years and older) by WHO region.

Table 4-*Prevalence of Physical and/or Sexual or Non-partner Sexual Violence among Women*

WHO Regions	Proportion of women reporting intimate partner violence and non partner sexual violence %
Low and middle-income regions	
Africa	45.6
Americas	36.1
Eastern Mediterranean	36.4
Europe	27.2
South- East Asia	40.2
Western Pacific	27.9
High Income	32.7

(WHO, 2013, p.20).

Marital Rape

When sex is forced on a married woman by her husband, she is plunged into confusion as to whether or not she has been “actually raped” and even majority of men do not also recognise this fact. For instance, there seem to be an unwritten universal agreement that when rape occurs outside the home by an unknown person, then, rape has indeed been committed and is wrong (Morrish, Horsman & Hofer, 2002). However, when rape occurs within marriages or between co-habiting partners, none of the parties involved would normally want to flag it as an illegal act or crime (Human Rights Watch, 1998).

The assumption is that, once a woman accepts to marry a man, the husband has the right to unlimited access to her body (Report of the Special Rapporteur on Violence Against Women, 1996). The report further indicates that, marital rape is an intentional act and used to punish, frighten and control the identity and behaviour of women. When women have been raped by their husbands, they take responsibility for the violations (Coomaraswamy, 2000).

This blame-taking is further exacerbated by the abuser's justifications especially when no actual physical harm was caused or could be immediately observed (Human Rights Watch, 1998). This scenario affords many men a good opportunity to deny using force to get sex from their wives or that rape has actually occurred. This makes it very hard for women to bring charges against men since before rape is prosecuted; one requires proof of rape by most legislation. This affords men the opportunity to declare the violation as a joint act (Garcia-Moreno, 1999). Marriage, however, is a contract based on mutual love,

respect and consideration. Each party has a right to their own body and while considerations for each person's sexual needs is normal, imposing sex or forced sexual acts are not an expression of love, but a purposeful betrayal of the trust which form the foundation of marriage (Violence Manual, 2003 and Coomaraswamy, 2000). For instance, in countries where legislation on marital rape is in place, an average of 10 to 15% of women report to having been raped by their intimate partners (Heise, Pitanguy & Germaine, 1994). Violence Manual (2003), citing various population-based studies have mentioned between 12 and 25% of women experiencing some kind of forced sex from an intimate partner or ex-partner.

Withholding Sex

Another form of sexual abuse is male partners avoiding sexual contact or encounters with their partners (Mills, 2008). Mills indicates that, sexual denial leaves women demoralised which makes them more likely to engage in debasing sexual acts to please their partners. This according to Mills results in women's lowered sense of worth.

Threats

Men who abuse women also employ threats to further subdue women (Violence Manual, 2003). Threats have been found to be as debilitating as violence itself (Walby & Allen, 2004 & Violence Manual, 2003). Abusers normally portray their intent to harm or show ability to carry-out threats by punching walls or furniture, kicking pets or using aggressive acts.

Even though threats are part of physical forms of abuse, they are often part of emotional/psychological abuse. Abusers normally threaten to take away the children, harm a dependent, leave or commit suicide (Violence Manual, 2003). Whether the threats are of physical, sexual or emotional in nature, threats are employed by abusers to have absolute power over the victim by instilling fear and ensuring compliance of his orders and demands Violence Manual, 2003; Coomaraswamy, 2000 and Human Rights Watch, 1999 & 1998).

Verbal Abuse

Verbal abuse involves the use of very key and real insulting and humiliating remarks about the woman. (Violence Manual, 2003; Human Rights Watch, 1999 & 1998) Verbal abuse affects the woman's self-worth and self-concept. These are realised by the abuser playing down the woman's ideals, opinions or belief systems (Human Rights Watch, 1999 & 1998). Verbal abuse include: yelling or shouting, using insulting or embarrassing words in private or public, name calling, laughing at or poking fun at the woman and leaving mean or nasty messages.

Financial Abuse

Financial abuse can take many forms, from the abuser denying the woman all access to funds, to making her solely responsible for all finances while handling money irresponsibly himself (Violence Manual, 2003; Human Rights Watch, 1999 & 1998). The man endeavours to make the woman financially attached to him or shifts entirely the housekeeping responsibilities onto the woman and at the same time denying the woman employment opportunities or obstructing her from working (Tolman & Rosen, 2001; Coomaraswamy, 2000; Human Rights Watch,

1999 & 1998; Sachs, 1999). Financial abuse involve: preventing the woman from getting or keeping a job, accounting for any funds spent, denying her access to cheque book, bank account and other financial assets, requesting the woman to perform unwanted sexual acts for money and not allowing money to be spent on the children or herself (Violence Manual, 2003).

Emotional or Psychological Abuse

Psychological abuse is the continuous perpetration of harmful and overt nonphysical acts against an intimate partner, child, or dependent adult. It involves the use of threats against the woman or dependents, curbing the woman's freedom as well as consciously destabilising or isolating the woman. All forms of abuse and violations are debilitating. But the subtle and intangible nature of emotional or psychological abuse renders it harder to delineate and report than the other types (Mills, 2008; WHO, 1999).

In view of this, emotional abuse is not easily discovered and the abused woman often times does not even know that she is being abused. This is affirmed by Lachkar that, "when a woman is sexually harassed or physically abused, she has some rights and legal recourse, but when she is emotionally abused, that recourse is generally undermined" (Lachkar, 1998 p. 14). Coomaraswamy (2000), examining violence against women in the Family reported identifying a close connection between domestic violence and suicide. This she notes has been documented from studies in the United States, Fige, Papua New Guinea, Peru, India, Bangladesh and Sri Lanka. Coomaraswamy again points out that, suicide is more probable (12 times) to have been tried by a woman experiencing domestic

violence than a woman who is not experiencing domestic violence. In the United States for example, 35 to 40% of abused women have ever tried committing suicide. The WHO asserts that, men dominate and/or limit the behaviours and social interactions of women by restricting their family and social activities and involvement, by demanding to know at all times and on all occasions where she had been, blaming or making comments to suggest unfaithfulness, extreme jealousy among others (WHO, 2013).

Isolation

Isolation is another tactic of emotional or psychological abuse employed by abusers. This manifests itself when abusers control whom women can meet or talk with, where they can and cannot go, who to speak with or shake hands with and what can or cannot be done with or without him (Violence Manual, 2003 and Human Rights Watch, 1999 & 1998). The WHO asserts that, male partners attempt to control and/or limit the behaviours and social interactions of their female partners by limiting social and family interactions, insisting on knowing where she has been at all times, suspicion or jealousy, angry when the woman is social (especially speaking with another man) and must request permission for medical care (WHO, 2013).

Men justify their control over women with the explanation that, their controlling behaviour is as a result of their deep affection or just concerned about their wellbeing when they are out (Human Rights Watch, 1999 & 1998). With this behaviour, the abuser justifies his isolation tactics whereas in actual sense, they perceive any relationship be it family, friend or colleague, can weaken their

authority and take their partner away from them (Coomaraswamy, 2000). The effect of isolation is that, women feel very alone as well as ultimately become more dependent on the abuser (Human Rights Watch, 1999 & 1998). Isolation tactics involve: frequent checking up on female partners, accusing unfaithfulness, moving to isolated areas where public transport is difficult to come by and no telephone access, not permitting female partners to leave the house without their company, demanding facts on all the woman's actions and conversations, prevents the woman from working and finding fault with all friends and family members (Violence Manual, 2003).

Below is a synchronised list from the literature on acts perpetrators of domestic violence employ to subjugate women

1. Destructive criticism and verbal abuse:

Shouting at, mocking, accusing, name calling, verbal threats.

2. Pressure tactics:

Showing temper tantrums, threatening to withhold money, disconnect the telephone, take the car away, take the children away, commit suicide, lying to friends and family concerning the woman, telling the woman she has no choice in decisions.

3. Disrespect:

Consistently putting the woman down in front of other people, not paying attention when the woman talks, interrupting the woman's telephone calls, taking money from the woman's purse without asking, not supporting with the children's upkeep or with domestic chores.

4. Breaking trust:

Lying to the woman; withholding information from the woman; being jealous; having other relationships; breaking promises and shared agreements.

5. Isolation:

Monitoring or blocking the woman's telephone calls; dictating where the woman can or cannot go; preventing the woman from seeing friends or and relatives.

6. Harassment:

Following the woman by checking up on the woman (with suspicion); opening her mails (and/or letters); repeatedly checking to see who has called and embarrassing the woman in public.

7. Threats:

Making angry gestures; using his physical size to intimidate; shouting the woman down; destroying the woman's possessions; breaking things; punching walls; wielding a knife or gun; threatening to harm the woman, the children or pets.

8. Sexual violence:

Using force, threats or intimidation to make the woman perform sexual acts; forcing sex on the woman when she doesn't want to have sex; any degrading treatment based on the woman's sexual orientation.

9. Physical violence:

Punching, slapping, hitting, biting; pinching; kicking; pulling hair out; pushing; shoving; burning and strangling.

10. Denial:

Saying the abuse doesn't happen; saying the woman caused the abusive behaviour; being publicly gentle and patient; crying and begging for forgiveness and saying it will never happen again or blaming the devil or a substance for his behaviour. (WHO, 2013; Violence Manual, 2003; Coomaraswamy, 2000; Human Rights Watch, 1999 & 1998).

Impact of Domestic Violence

Emotional

In spite of the fact that emotional impact of domestic violence is not easily seen and identified, studies are unearthing the disturbing consequences that this has on women's overall well-being (Women's Aid Federation of England, 2004). Engel (2002), in describing the emotional impact of domestic violence states that: "emotional abuse cuts to the very core of a person, creating scars that may be longer lasting than physical ones" (p13). Emotional impact affects the entire well-being of the woman and may be manifested in a variety of social, emotional or mental and physical symptoms (Orava, McLeod & Sharpe, 1996). These signs include: depression, anxiety, anger, avoidance or isolation, drug use and low self-esteem (Women's Aid Federation of England, 2004; WHO; 2000; Hill, 1995). Prospero (2008) and Tjaden & Thoennes (2000) further identified some of these emotional or mental health problems to include depression, posttraumatic stress Disorder and susceptibility to suicide.

According to Wilson, Johnson and Daly (1995), women surviving in abusive relationships indicate that emotional abuse to which they were subjected was more hurting than the physical or sexual attacks they were forced to endure.

Evans (1993) further describes it as a crumbling process in which one endures a continuous degradation of spirit. Emotional abuse frames a context for other forms of violence to thrive (Marshall, 1996). Psychological abuse increases whenever a woman is abused physically and sexually (Calson, 2002). Ninety-five percent of all perpetrators (men), of physical abuse against their intimate partners have been found to also employ psychological abuse (Henning & Klesges, 2003). Lachkar (2000) asserts that: “the dance of emotional abuse is an intense interrelationship between victim and perpetrator, between guilt and shame, between envy and jealousy, between omnipotence and dependency needs” (pp.89-90).

A study by Marshall (1996), provides evidence to suggest that a specific consequent of emotional abuse on a woman influences her overall fitness, help-seeking behaviour and relationship perceptions. According to Lachkar (2000), women who experience emotional abuse often respond in ways that are devastating just like the abuse itself. These are withdrawal, hopelessness, guilt, shame and depression-related illnesses. These emotional disturbances and symptoms combined further result in post-traumatic stress disorders (Gondolf, 1998; Roberts, Williams, Lawrence & Raphael, 1998).

The Health Impact of Domestic Violence on Women

According to WHO (2000), the impact of violence on a women’s well-being is huge and has many consequences. In relation to the above statement, a testimony by Blue Cross Blue Shield of Tennessee, also affirmed the fact that domestic violence heavily weighs on healthcare systems, both public and private

(Tennessee Economic Council on Women, 2006). The health consequences of domestic violence can be examined from various angles and three of these are: non-fatal, mental and fatal.

Non-fatal consequences: These include: constant pain; gynaecological infirmitudes; unplanned pregnancies; low birth-weight children; pelvic diseases; bodily pains; palpitations; seizures; numbness of limbs and tingling sensations (Coid, 2000; Grisso, Schwarz, Miles & Holmes, 1996; Handwerker, 1993; Stewart & Sotland, 1993). It may also result in irreversible impairment, contracting sexually transmitted diseases and risky behaviours such as smoking; abusing alcohol and engaging in unprotected sexual activities (WHO, 2013 and Tennessee Economic Council on Women, 2006).

The WHO further indicated that, some of these women have attempted to deal with these negative health outcomes of abuse by using other harmful substances such as alcohol, tobacco or drugs (WHO, 2013). For example, Tolman and Rosen, (2001) found abused women to have significant problems with alcohol and drugs. That is, 12% of seriously abused women were reliant on alcohol or drugs as compared to 6% of women reporting no abuse (Tolman & Rosen, 2001).

Mental Consequences

Mental consequences range from anxiety; fear; depression; low self-esteem; eating disorders; and post-traumatic disorders (Grisso, Schwarz Miles & Holmes, 1996; Stewart & Sotland, 1993). According to WHO (2013) prolonged exposure to stressful situations results in mental health issues. Certain aspects of the brain like the hippocampus, amygdala and prefrontal cortex go through needless

alterations which bring about negative outcomes. These negative outcomes affect the proper health and cognitive functioning as well as can end up in physical and chronic illnesses including cancers. For instance, women suffering from posttraumatic stress disorders find it difficult to learn useful everyday skills required to make them autonomous or self-reliant (Helfrich, Fujiura, & Rutkowski-Kmitta, 2008). They further revealed that, 35 to 70% of women experiencing domestic violence stand the chance of developing depression. Depression is said to affect women experiencing domestic violence in a number of ways. These include inability to find and nurture good social relationships which invariably push them into isolation and make them over financially dependent on their male counterparts (Helfrich, Fujiura, & Rutkowski-Kmitta, 2008). Aside from these findings, abused women have also been rated to have a higher propensity to experiencing poor health. They conducted a study in Massachusetts in the United States reported that 32% of abused women had physical, psychological or mental health problem and concerns as compared with 21% of women who experienced no abuse. Again, Tolman and Rosen, (2001) further reported that 18% of abused women indicated having poor health as compared to a little over 9% of women not experiencing abuse in their study in Michigan State. In addition, 59% of seriously abused women had mental health problems with 20% for those women who reported negative or no abuse (Tolman & Rosen, 2001).

The table 5 summarises the effect estimates for selected health outcomes of domestic violence.

Table 5-*Health Effects and Outcomes of Domestic Violence*

Domain	Disease/injury resulting from violence
Sexual Health	HIV & AIDS, Syphilis infection, Chlamydia or Gonorrhea
Reproductive health	Induced abortion
Prenatal	Low birth weight, Premature birth Small for gestational age
Mental Health	Unipolar depression disorders, Alcohol use disorders
Injuries	Any injury inflicted by partner
Death	Homicide, Suicide

(WHO, 2013 p.29)

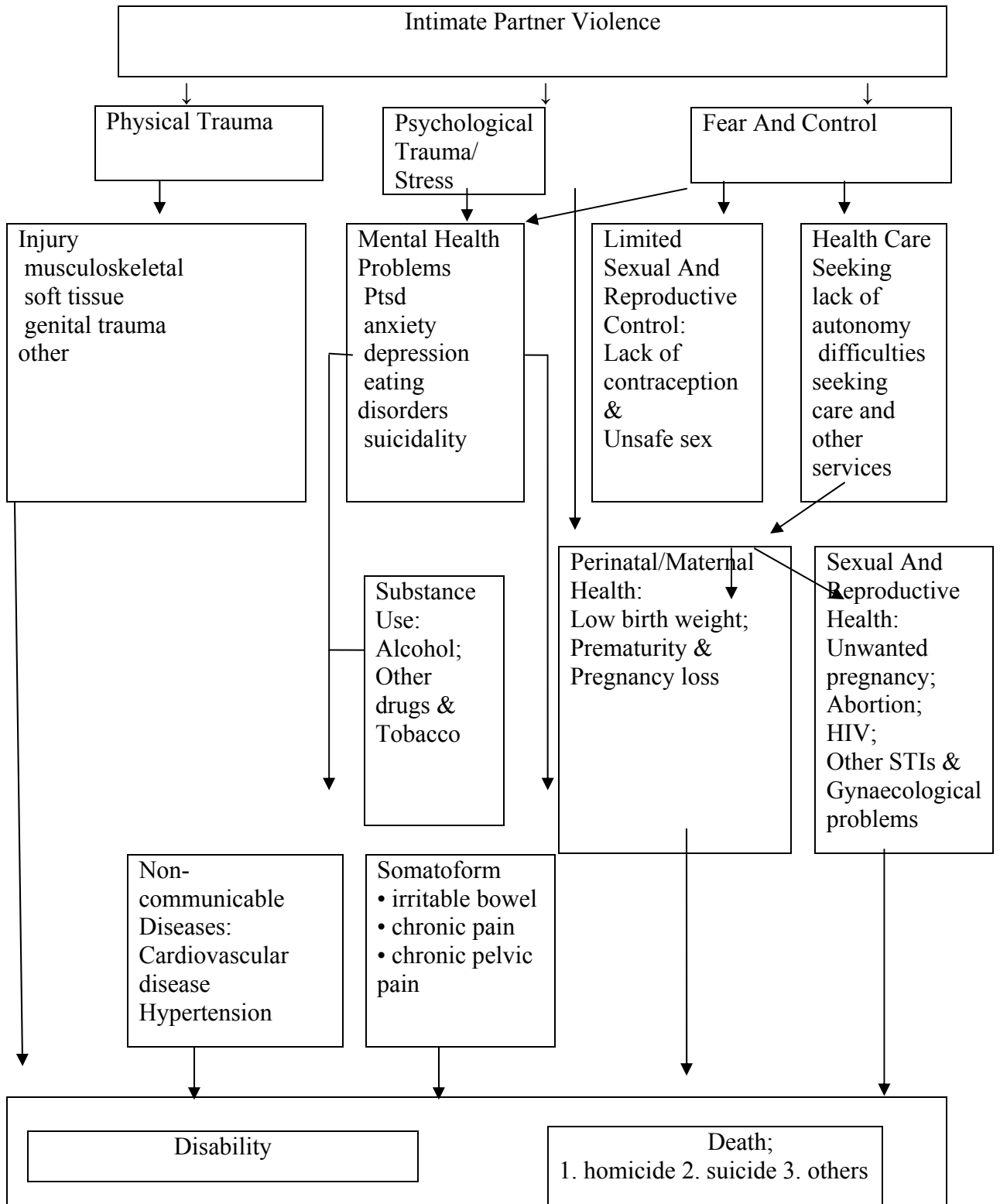
Fatal Consequences

This manifests through suicide; maternal mortality; homicide and strangulation (Women's Aid Federation of England, 2004 & WHO, 2000). Domestic violence is deadly since abused women are deliberately killed by their partners or may lose their lives as a result of injuries sustained from the abuse (Women's Aid Federation of England, 2004; Keltosová, 2002).

A number of studies have examined strangulation in current times. This refers to the method of choking a woman till she is unconscious and passes out. This normally would not leave behind any traceable marks thereby removing the need for urgent medical attention (Zorza, 2002). Zorza indicated that injuries resulting from strangulation are more often not very fatal at the onset because such injuries appear casual or harmless initially but kill the women within 36 hours.

The literature on the health impact of domestic violence also reveals a direct cost to health services. Keltosová (2002), reports that, in Norway with its population of 4 million people, 10,000 women go for medical treatment yearly as a result of domestic violence. Similarly, the National Center for Injury Prevention and Control in the United States estimated that, annually 1.8 billion dollars is used to treat battered women. Another study by UNICEF estimated the direct cost in the United States to be between five and ten billion dollars annually (Coomaraswamy, 2000). The WHO (2013 Global Report on Violence identified several ways through which domestic violence can be detrimental to women's health.

The figure 1 shows three of these ways and how they bring about negative health outcomes for women. The figure further illustrates the interconnectedness between physical and psychological abuse or trauma and fear and control.



(WHO, 2013 p8).

Figure 1: Interconnectedness between physical and psychological abuse or

trauma and fear and control

It is difficult to get reliable data on the emotional and health impact of domestic violence in Ghana to compare with the data discussed above since processes for compiling this kind of data are now developing. However, statistics in this country may not be very different if not worse compared with some of these countries.

The Economic Impact of Domestic Violence on Women

Economic abuse refers to all behaviours aimed at limiting women's economic advancement (Weaver, Sanders, Campbell & Schnabel, 2009; Adams, Sullivan, Bybee & Greeson, 2008). Limiting the economic advancement of women brings with it some negative effects on women's employment and their overall ability to fully function in their society (Sachs, 1999). Many studies have shown that finding and maintaining employment or paid jobs is very hard for abused women. For instance, studies on male perpetrators of domestic violence have shown that, men who abuse women employ a number of measures to frustrate women from searching for work, going to work, maintaining the work and even receiving an education. These involve restricting access to transportation, preventing women from getting good sleep, destroying or hiding clothes for work (Riger, Staggs & Schewe, 2004; Moe & Bell, 2004; Brandwein & Filiano, 2000).

Again, it was found that, severe quarrels or intense fighting preceded important events such as job interviews for women who were abused. For instance, one study found that, 46% of women seeking employment reported their partners dislike for their job prospects since they could meet new people, 36%

received messages from their partners that they will fail in order to discourage them, 12% were told employed women become “bad mothers”, 21% were pestered during or at work by partners and 8% were required to perform all household chores in tandem with their work without any assistance (Brush, 2000).

Another study found that, 46% of women still experiencing abuse and those with immediate past abuse history reported never feeling secure at work because of their partners and 30% lost jobs as a consequence of domestic violence. Over 84% were sleep denied, 58% did not dare to go to their workplace, partner declining at the eleventh hour to take care of the children 47%, repeated phone calls from partners at work 41.5%, with 34% denied transport to work by partners and 34% physically abused to the point that they could not go out to work. Another study focusing on low-paid women found that women experiencing domestic violence did not get into jobs that they could even work 30 hours a week (Browne, Salomon & Bassuk, 1999). In addition, an internet-based survey associated women’s high absences from work with domestic violence (Reeves & O’Leary-Kelly, 2007).

Sachs (1999) further indicated that, domestic violence is connected to regular absence from work and lateness to work which ended up in appointment terminations. Other studies have also found domestic violence to be closely correlated with the lack of concentration during working periods and low turnout for work (Brush, 2000; Swanberg & Logan, 2005; Swanberg, Logan & Macke, 2005; Wettersten, Rudolph, Faul & Gallagher, 2004). The table 6 estimates the lost of economic productivity due to domestic violence

Table 6-*Estimate of Cost of Economic Productivity due to Domestic Violence*

Type of injury	Type of crime	Cost per type of crime	Number of women	Cost for women	Number of men	Cost for men	Number of victims	Cost based on victims
Fatality	Domestic homicide	393,580	102	40,145	23	9,052	125	49,197
Serious	Serious wounding (choked)	15,150	65,000	984,750	6,000	90,900	71,000	1,075,650
Serious	Serious wounding (weapon used)	15,150	13,000	196,950	11,000	166,650	24,000	363,600
Serious	Rape and assault by penetration which of rape	15,150	37,000	560,550			37,000	560,550
Slight	Other wounding (kicked, hit with fist, common assault pushed held)	1,600	205,000	328,000	177,000		382,000	611,200
Slight	Slapped	20	410,000	8,200	174,000	382,000	584,000	11,680

Slight	Non penetrative sexual assault	20	26,000	500	3,480	26,000	520
Total				1,6949	553,282		2,248,197

(Walby & Allen, 2004 p.91).

In addition, the signs of emotional abuse on women such as low self-esteem, depression, anxiety, anger and other behaviours, hinder their productivity at work (Women's Aid Federation of England, 2004 and Sachs, 1999). It has also been noted that, abused women regularly seek for permission from employers to attend medical appointments and their high dependency on drugs and alcohol make finding and keeping a job a tough task (Sachs, 1999). For example, a survey of women on violence in Canada revealed that 30% of abused women stopped daily activities because of the violence and 50% had to take sick leave from work because of their injuries (WHO, 2000). The table 7 categorises domestic violence in order to quantify the health costs.

Table 7-*Health Cost of Domestic Violence*

Types of domestic violence	Type of crime	Severity	Additional injury information
Domestic homicide	Homicide	Fatal	
Severity domestic force used a weapon, choked or strangled	Serious wound	Serious	
Severe domestic force kicked bit, hit with a fist	Other wound	Slight	
“Threat to kill”, “threat with weapon”	Other wound		No physical injury
Stalking	Other wound		No physical injury
Minor domestic force pushed pinned, slapped	Common assault		No physical injury
Rape	Rape is treated as equivalent to serious wounding	Treated as equivalent to slight	Intense psychological trauma, slight physical injuries
Assault by penetration	Treated as equivalent to serious wounding	Treated as equivalent to slight	Intense psychological trauma, slight physical injuries
Sexual assault	Sexual assault is treated as equivalent to other wounding		No physical injury

(Walby, 2004 p.48)

Even though Walby's estimates are for the United Kingdom, they provide insights into the overall cost of domestic violence on a society. Domestic violence increases the chances of abused women becoming poor and also stays in poverty for long. For instance, a Nicaraguan study also found after controlling factors that influenced income, women who were abused received 46% lower than women who were not abused (WHO, 2000).

Research on Homelessness found that domestic violence is the most cited reason for becoming homeless (Sachs, 1999). This study also found that 40% of all homeless women assigned domestic violence as a factor to their homelessness. Again, a number of studies have found a correlation between homelessness and violence (Metraux & Culhane, 1999; Browne & Bassuk, 1997; Toro, Bellavia, Daeschler & Owens, 1995; Dail, 1990). Homelessness can be seen as an inadequate housing' means not having as a minimum standard 'a small rental flat, with a bedroom, living room, kitchen, bathroom and an element of security of tenure, because that is the minimum that most people achieve in the private rental market. Further homelessness can be categorised into three levels that is, primary, secondary and tertiary. In discussing homelessness and its association with domestic violence, Tually, Faulkner, Cutler and Slatter (2008), explained primary homelessness as referring to "people who are 'roofless'. That is people without conventional accommodation including people living in improvised dwellings, on the streets, sleeping in parks, squatting, living in cars or railway carriages for temporary shelter" (p15). According to them, secondary homelessness also account for "people in stop-gap housing or people who move frequently from one

form of temporary shelter to another. Includes people using crisis or transitional accommodation such as a refuge or a shelter within SAAP, those residing temporarily with other households who have no accommodation of their own, and those using boarding houses on a short-term basis (i.e. for less than 12 weeks” (Tually, Faulkner, Cutler & Slatter, 2008 p15). Finally, third form of homelessness known as tertiary homelessness is where “people who live in boarding houses on a medium to long-term basis (for more than 13 weeks) (Tually, Faulkner, Cutler & Slatter, 2008 P15).

When a woman quits an abusive relationship, she normally finds herself without adequate funds to enable her take care of her needs (Tolman, Danziger & Rosen, 2001). Comparing a group of housed low-income women to homeless low-income women revealed that, the homeless women suffered domestic violence, abused drugs, received even lower wages and had smaller support networks (Bassuk, Weinreb, Buckner, Browne, Solomon and Bassuk, 1996; Toro, Bellavia, Daeschler and Owens 1995).

Abused women who cannot work or maintain stable employment have little or no food (Tolman; Danziger & Rosen, 2001). Researchers Tolman, Danziger and Rosen found that, in the United States, domestic violence resulted in food shortage for women because one-third of homes to single mothers reported having no food (Tolman; Danziger & Rosen, 2001). This situation occurred when violent men limited women’s movement and expenditure (Tolman; Danziger & Rosen, 2001).

Socio-Cultural Practices that Enhance Domestic Violence

Domestic violence is inflamed by existing societal norms and social relations that reflect gender disparities and promote male control over women (YouGov; 2004). Many people have been socialised to regard the home as a secluded place where no external authority can meddle in their affairs except that which emanates from inside there. This is because, the privacy of homes is guaranteed by various national constitutions (Keltosová, 2002 and Natarajan, 2002).

The social attitude that a woman is a man's property and that it is a man's prerogative to subdue his wife's behaviour has been imbedded in patriarchic societies (Violence against Women in Relationships, 2007). One such society is the Nigerian society which is highly anchored in patriarchal structures. For instance, the practice of paying bride prices or dowries by men has been used to justify harassment and abuse of women (Jekwes, Peniskekanna, Ratskaka & Schriebe 1999; Issuing & Abanihe, 1994). Men have used their payment of these dowries or bride prices as an indication of their purchase which in turn certifies women as their properties (Jekwes, Peniskekanna, Ratskaka & Schriebe 1999 and Issuing & Abanihe, 1994).

These researchers observed that, payment of dowries in many African societies reinforces the perception that women are properties that have been acquired as such must satisfy the sexual urges of their husbands and husbands can treat them the way they want. Another study by Ardayfio-Schandorf (2005) found wife beating to be widespread in Ghanaian communities. Seventy-two percent of the women surveyed revealed having been ever beaten in their husbands, 23% of

the men agreed ever beating their wives with 5% of the men admitting raping their intimate partners.

Among the reasons men cited for beating and raping their intimate partners included correcting wrongs committed, resolving disputes and paying back for acts of omission (Ardayfio-Schandorf, 2005). Again, studies of women in Indian societies reveal its patriarchal nature. Women are viewed and treated as secondary citizens to men (Johnson & Johnson, 2001; Gangrade & Chander, 1991). In order to reinforce the notion of subordination, females need to remain in their fathers' homes or the home of the patriarch until they are married then; they are transferred to their husbands as properties and are required to serve them (Johnson & Johnson, 2001; Puri, 1999; Shurei, 1997; Gangrade & Chander, 1991).

It has also been reported that, some police and social workers in parts of the world show a certain amount of acceptance for domestic abuse especially in families with children (Keltosová, 2002). In this regard, some women desist from reporting their abusive partners to law enforcement officials because they do not want to separate family (Keltosová, 2002 & Human Rights Watch, 1995).

Many women have also learnt to cover up their abuse and continue to live in violent relationships since those with the task to protect them have their own biases. Other women may also continue to live in abusive relationships because some society perceives being married equates to higher status in society, taking into consideration religious prohibitions, children's welfare or emotional attachments (Womens Aid Federation of England, 2004 and Keltosová, 2002). Domestic violence offenders are sometimes mildly prosecuted in relation to

offenders of similar crimes outside the home (Human Rights Watch, 1995; 1999 & 2000).

Culture

Research has indicated that, characteristics of certain cultures and societies such as the subordinate position of women, customary marriage and family arrangements influence domestic violence (Natarajan, 2002). Traditional patriarchal societies are perceived to be a place where domestic violence thrives. This is because, women are considered inferior to men (Natarajan, 2002 and Ofei-Aboagye, 1994). As such, women's acceptance of and refusal to report abuse are the consequences of the socialisation process (Keltosová, 2002).

Additionally, women are socialised to accept that family matters should remain within the confines of the home and that, respect needs to be accorded their husbands at all times since husbands know and do what is right for the family (Natarajan, 2000). On the contrary, men on the other hand are socialised to be authority figures capable of punishing (beating) their wives (Natarajan, 2002). Natarajan in examining determinants of wife abuse among Indian cultures listed the following as playing a pivotal role. Dowry, caste system, arranged marriages, extended family system, wife and husband compatibility, level of education, age discrepancy, social class, sexual incompatibility and gender-role socialisation among others (Natarajan, 2002).

The Extended Family Structure

This family structure is very common in parts of Africa and Asia and it is a well-established institution of society spanning over centuries. In an extended

family household, more than two generations of family members can be living together. They include: brothers, sisters, uncles, aunts, first, second or third cousins, fathers, mothers, grandparents, grandsons/daughters, wives, children, (Natarajan, 2002; Johnson & Johnson, 2001; Jekwes, Peniskekanna, Ratskaka & Schriebe 1999; Issuing & Abanihe, 1994 and Gangrade & Chander, 1991). The extended family structure promotes collective support among its members in such a way that the weak are protected by the strong and the poor assisted by the rich (Fernandez, 1997). Again, the extended family structure offers parental control and guidance to children with or without biological parents. Nevertheless, there are disadvantages associated with the extended family structure especially women married into it. These women are required to adapt totally to the norms of their new families including loyalty to the new family head or elders. As Natarajan noted, these newcomers encounter difficulties such as mistrust, dislike and even mocking on acts of omissions or petty quarrels on trivial issues (Natarajan, 2002). Under these circumstances, newly married women become confused and depressed (Fernandez, 1997). The state of these women irritates their husbands who resort to emotionally and physically abusing them (Natarajan, 2002).

In conclusion, in spite of the fact that domestic violence by men against women is a consequence of the inequalities between men and women which is rooted in patriarchal traditions (a context of traditional power relations) that encourage men to believe they are entitled to power and control over their partners. The responsibility for the violence must lie with the perpetrator of that

violence despite any societal influences that may be drawn on in order to understand the context of the behaviour.

Attitudes in Ghana that Promote Domestic Violence

Through its research into the problem of domestic violence in a number of countries around the world, Human Rights Watch has found that the actions of law enforcement officials support abusers (Human Rights Watch, 2000 and 1999). Women encounter obstructions when seeking legal protection from domestic violence. These obstructions may be systemic or due to one's process of socialisation and belief patterns. For instance, rape laws excuse marital rape from criminal sanction (Human Rights Watch, 2000 and 1995).

Women often experience extreme violence in their homes such as assault and rape which result in death and permanent impairment. The above meet criteria for criminal trial however, these are tolerated by law enforcement officials as the norm in certain countries and ignored even in situations where there are laws to deal with the offenders (Morrish, Horsman & Hofer, 2002; Human Rights Watch, 2000).

Domestic Violence, Education and Employment of Women

Education has been proven to be a tool of empowerment for women thus, facilitating their ability to receive and understand information, effectively interact and engage with the world (Kishor, 2000). It is assumed that women who are highly educated have more resources to fall back on in times of domestic abuse (Kishor & Johnson, 2004). In their Multi-Country Study of domestic violence, it was revealed that, in Cambodia, Colombia, India and Nicaragua, there was no link

between experiencing violence and education. This means that, women with more education were unlikely to report ever experiencing violence. Specifically, in Cambodia, 21% of women without any form of formal education reported experiencing violence compared with 17 and 12% of those with primary, secondary and higher education respectively.

Their findings further showed that, in the Dominican Republic, Egypt, Peru and Zambia, women who received education up to the primary level had the highest rates of violence and those women with secondary or higher levels of education had the lowest rates of domestic abuse. On another note, a woman's educational attainment might be a good enough reason for her not to suffer especially emotional abuse and control from her man only when they are both on the same educational level. However, if the woman is more educated than her man, then, that increases her likelihood of control and emotional abuse (Zavala & Spohn, 2010).

Studies by Macmillan and Gartner (1999), and Kaukinen (2004), demonstrate how significant to examine economic contributions, power and control in relation to domestic abuse. Examining a sample of Canadian women, these authors argued that, a woman's risk for abuse hinges on her employment and the employment of her partner. Women were at risk of domination and emotional abuse when their partner was not working because women's employment status threatened men's position as breadwinners and had the tendency to trigger controlling behaviours and emotional abuse in order to gain back their authority at home (Kaukinen, 2004). According to Kishor and Johnson (2004), women involved in formal

employment were more likely to experience domestic violence than those who were not in formal employment. In Peru for instance, they found that 46% of women experiencing domestic violence were working in comparison to 36% of non-working women. However, in Egypt, 21% of employed women were less likely to have ever experienced violence compared to 36% of those without employment.

Interventions for Counsellors

A number of tried and tested interventions have been used to deal with the impact of domestic violence globally. Notable among these are those proposed by the World Report on Violence and Health, (2002). These are: the universal, selected and indicated interventions. However, the universal and selected interventions as espoused by the World Report on Violence and Health 2002 will be examined here. In designing and adopting various interventions and programmes to deal with domestic violence, adequate considerations must be made in order not to endanger the lives of both victims and perpetrators.

Universal Interventions

Universal interventions focus on distributing violence information to the general public or groups. For example, giving out violence prevention information materials to students at school or targeting children at specific ages determined by the intervention or programme. Making people aware of how and when to get assistance or support on violence-related issues and services. This can be accomplished through the use of posters, fliers and using information vans in neighbourhoods, supermarkets and marketplaces (Natarajan 2002). The

information on the flyers and posters could be in various languages and dialects explaining how abused women or (anyone suffering from violence) can find support services and assistance from the police (Natarajan 2002).

The media: local radio and television stations and newspapers should also be used to advertise and publicise initiatives aimed at combating domestic violence in neighbourhoods (Natarajan 2002). In view of the fact that literature on domestic abuse and violence against women increasingly show that law enforcement officials act in various ways that sometimes promote the interest of perpetrators of domestic abuse (Keltosova 2002; Human Rights Watch, 2000 & Coomaraswamy 2000), it has been indicated that there should be in-house training for police officers. Police assigned to various neighbourhoods need to be aware of how various cultures treat domestic abuse. Natarajan proposes that, law enforcement officials should know and understand how women are treated in many traditional settings in order to be alert in identifying disguised violence in large towns and metropolitan areas.

Using women law enforcement officials: victims of domestic violence normally have lost their self-confidence as a result of the violence suffered as well as too scared to discuss their domestic feuds with an unfamiliar male officer. As a result it is important that the abused women speak with female officers who for example can empathise better with them or identify with their stories (Natarajan 2002).

Collaboration between the police and other women organisations: police and women organisations complement each other's efforts in tackling violence against

women in society. While the police refer victims to these organisations for emotional support, overnight or temporary shelters, organisations that work with or for women should have an open door with law enforcement agencies in order to easily tap into their professional skills whenever the need to protect a woman from abusive situations arises (Natarajan 2002).

Selected Interventions

These are aimed at those considered to be at a heightened risk or violence and then provide resources they would need to cope with their situations (World Report on Violence and Health 2002). Intervention for this group includes round the clock (twenty-four hour) telephone service or helpline. This telephone service provides direct human support, needed information and someone to listen non-judgementally to particularly abused women and children witnessing domestic violence. This service takes a central part in assisting women and children experiencing domestic violence to access immediate shelter and food in a protected centre (Women's Aid Federation of England 2004). Aside from these, the helpline also offers support and information to people including friends, family members and external agencies that may be seeking to ascertain available services on behalf of a woman (Women's Aid Federation of England 2004). All helplines are manned 24 hours, seven days a week, by fully trained female support workers and volunteers (Women's Aid Federation of England 2004).

Summary of Related Literature Review

In order to develop a better understanding of domestic violence, theories that sought to explain the phenomenon of aggression (one of the underlying stimulus

of violence) were explored. This chapter has examined the viewpoints of ethology, psychoanalysis and cultural anthropological theories which all affirm the fact that aggression is common to man. The only seeming divergent view is the cultural anthropological theory. However, since it focuses on culture and human beings are those at the centre of it, then invariably, it shares from a different angle the fact that aggression is common to man. Insights into some theories on violence against women including feminist and victimology theories also revealed that domestic violence within families is due to the imbalance of power between men and women and that it is common in patriarchic societies. The impact of domestic violence on women's overall well-being has also been explored. Irrespective of where one focuses, domestic violence has detrimental effects on women and all efforts need to be harnessed to root it out of our societies.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter discusses the method that was adopted to carry out the study. The chapter is divided into sub-sections such as the research design, population, sample size and sampling procedure, research instruments, validity, reliability, data collection procedures and data analysis.

Research Design

The researcher employed the descriptive survey design for the study. A survey commonly applies to research methodology designed to collect data from a specific population or a sample from that population and typically utilises a questionnaire or an interview as the survey instrument (Robson, 1993). Surveys are used to obtain data from individuals about themselves, households or about larger social institutions such as women's groups in this study. They are important tools for collecting and analysing information from selected individuals. In view of these, the researcher chose a descriptive research methodology and designed a questionnaire survey instrument to assess the impact of domestic violence as experienced by women in the Greater Accra region of Ghana.

Population

The target population for the study was all women in the Greater Accra region. The accessible population comprised women in non-governmental

organisations, religious women's groups and professional women's associations in the Greater Accra region that attend the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection's Department of Women's monthly meetings.

Sampling Procedure

Purposive sampling was employed to identify 11 women's groups to constitute the sample of the study. According to Lewis and Sheppard (2006) and Bernard (2002), this sampling procedure permits the user to identify or select knowledgeable people who have experience relating to the subject under study. In view of this, 11 groups that have some exposure into domestic violence and attend the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection women's monthly meetings were selected. The selected organisations were: Action for Self-Reliance, Adenta Zonal Council, Department of Rural Housing, Evangelical Presbyterian Church Women, and Ghana Society for the Physically Disabled Women's Wing, Muslims Waa, Ghana Registered Midwives Association, Ahmadiyya Muslim Women, Chorkor Reform, SICLA and Christian Mothers Association. Appendix A lists the 33 frequent attendees (organisations).

Using Gay's suggestion of ten percent for large populations and 20% for small populations as minimums, the researcher used 110 respondents from 11 groups since the total population for all the groups was over 1000. Each of the selected groups had ten questionnaires for their members or service recipients and additional five extra copies in case of misplacement.

Data Collection Instrument

The researcher used questionnaire as the instrument for data collection. According to Leary (1995), the use of questionnaire has certain distinct advantages over interview. Leary indicated that they are less expensive and easier to administer than personal interviews; they lend themselves to group administration; as well as allow confidentiality to be assured. In view of these, the researcher opted for the questionnaire instrument to assess the impact of domestic violence as experienced by women in the Greater Accra region of Ghana.

The questionnaire instrument was divided into two sections. Section A focused on personal information, educational and employment status of respondents. Items 1-2 measured these. Section B addressed the three remaining purposes as follows:

Emotional/psychological impact items 1 – 7. Health impact: 8 – 14. Economic impact was addressed with items 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21 and 22. Items 23--27 addressed the various socio-cultural practices that enhance domestic violence. Finally, items 28 and 29 were used to address societal attitudes that promote domestic violence.

For the study, eleven women's groups out of a monthly average of 33 attending the Department of Women monthly meetings were selected using the simple random sampling method.

Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

To ensure the validity and reliability of the instruments, a pilot test was carried out to ensure the effectiveness of the questions. This was carried out on

selected women M.Phil students in the graduates hostel and Apewosika a suburb in the Cape Coast Municipality. Five M.Phil women were selected to represent the educated and working as well as five from Apewosika to represent the uneducated and non-working women respectively. The pilot group was similar to the actual sample because they were all women and also featured educated and non-educated as well as working and non-working women. The reliability of the set of questionnaires was established by computing the reliability co-efficient using Cronbach Alpha. The pilot test produced coefficient of 0.82.

Data Collection Procedures

Before data were collected the researcher collected introductory letter from the university of Cape Coast and presented it to the Department of Women and an announcement was made prior to the data collection. The researcher who also used to attend the Department of Women's monthly meetings was given the opportunity in May of 2010 to briefly explain the purpose of the study to fellow women. Two research assistants were involved to help the researcher in the distribution and collection of the instruments. These assistants took note of the names and phone numbers of the women leaders as well as handed them their copies of the instruments. The entire distribution and collection of data took four meeting sessions that is four months beginning from June till September, 2010. The instruments were distributed in June and most of the filled out instruments received in July. However, three of the groups did not attend the monthly meeting in July so, their questionnaire were collected in August and September respectively.

Data Processing and Analysis

Data collected from the various respondents were sorted, cleaned, edited and coded to identify errors, omissions and non-completion of some questions as well as identifying general gaps in the data collected to ensure quality control. The analysis of the data was done with the Statistical Product and Service Product (Version 16) software.

The analysis of the research questions were undertaken using descriptive statistical tools as frequencies, percentages, means as well as standard deviation. Testing of the Hypotheses was also done using the Independent t-test which is essentially a parametric test at alpha level of 0.05.

Hypothesis 1

1 Ho: There is no statistically significant different between the impact of domestic violence on women with high level of education and women with low level of education.

H1: There is statistically significant difference in the impact of domestic violence on women with high level of education and women with low level of education.

Hypothesis 2

2 Ho: There is no statistically significant difference between the level of psychological impact of domestic violence on working women and non working women.

H1: There is a statistically significant difference between the level of psychological impact of domestic violence on working women and non working women.

The independent t-test was employed to do this analysis principally because there were two groups of interest (working women and on non-working women). This statistic was appropriate for comparing the groups with reference to a particular variable (Sarantakos, 1998). The variable for comparison in this study was level of impact of domestic violence among women.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter discusses the results of the study. The chapter is divided into sub-sections and looks at each research question and hypotheses based on the analysis of the data presented in tables. Table 8 presents the results on the level of education of respondents. This is significant for the study since the researcher sought to test whether domestic violence and abuse impact more negatively on uneducated women than on educated women in Ghana.

Table 8-*Educational Background of Respondents*

Level of Education	F	%	Cumm %
Never had Formal Education	29	26.4	26.4
Class one To six	5	4.5	30.9
Middle School Level	20	18.2	49.1
Junior Secondary School	9	8.2	57.3
O Level	19	17.3	74.6
SSSCE	5	4.5	79.1
NVTI	4	3.6	82.7
Tertiary Education	19	17.3	100.0
Total	110	100.0	

Source: Findings from field visit (2010).

The level of formal education among respondents in the study area was low. Up to 26.4% of respondents in the study had no formal education at all with 18.2% and 17.3% of respondents were holding of the Middle school leaving and

O'Level certificates respectively. Only 17.3% of respondents had tertiary education background.

Occupational Status of Respondents

Table 9 presents the results on the occupational background of respondents and categorises them into five different working groups in order to take care of the varied work that women normally engaged in. This is vital in order to determine whether domestic violence impacted more on working women or non-working women.

Table 9-Occupational Status of Respondents

Status	F	%	Cumm. %
Unemployed	14	12.7	12.7
Petty trading	53	48.2	60.9
Other businesses (Menial jobs)	19	17.3	78.2
White colour jobs.	20	18.2	96.4
Others including (Apprentiship)	4	3.6	100
Total	110	100.0	

Source: Findings from field visit (2010).

From table 9, it could be observed that majority of the respondents (87%) had some form of work that is employment.

Research Question One

What is the emotional/psychological impact of domestic violence on women in the Grater Accra region of Ghana?

Table 10 presents the data used to analyse this research question one.

Table 10-*Emotional/Psychological Impact of Domestic Violence on Women*

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Abused Women withdraw from active social life	110	3.55	0.63
Abused women feel depressed, have anxiety and sorrowful	110	3.56	.61
Abused women feel rejected and not loved	110	3.40	.77
Abused women lose self-confidence and easily angered	110	3.24	.81
Abused women lose autonomy and lowered sense of self-worth	110	3.25	.80
Abused women avoid social activities	110	3.62	.62
Abused women lose their community respect	110	3.55	.66
	110	3.45	.471

Source: Findings from field visit (2010)

From table 10, women who avoided social activities after being abused had the highest (M= 3.62, SD= .62), followed by abused women who felt depressed, experienced anxiety and sorrowful with (M=3.56, SD= .61). Abused women who were withdraw from active social life and abused women who lost their community respect had their (M= 3.55) to be the same, but with different (SD= .63, SD= .66) respectively. Then, women felt rejected and not loved (depressive thoughts) after abuse had (M= 3.40, SD=.77). Abused women who lost autonomy and lowered sense of self-worth and abused women lose self-confidence and were easily angered had (M= 3.25, SD=.80) and (M=3.24, SD=.81) respectively. The

low standard deviations indicated that the women respondents were consistent in their responses.

Research Question Two

What is the health impact of domestic violence on women in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana?

Table 11 specifically deals with the health impact of domestic violence on women in the Greater Accra region of Ghana. Table 11 presents the data on impact on health as used to answer this research question. The Table 11 shows the mean health impact on abused women. It could be observed that there was strong agreement among respondents that abused women had increased drug usage. This factor received a mean of 3.91 and a standard deviation of 0.91 indicating the strength and consistency in the agreement of respondents. The respondents were however, inconsistent in their response to the statement that abused women do not always fall sick. This factor received a mean response of 2.59 and a standard deviation of 1.15. This could be interpreted that respondents think that abused women are more likely to fall sick than women who have not been abused. The overall health impact showed a strong agreement and consistency among the subjects (mean = 3.43, SD = 0.789).

Table 11-*Impact on Health*

Health impact	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Abused women normally suffer from different injuries and pain	110	3.55	.70
Abused women do not always fall sick	110	2.59	1.15
Abused women can die from their injuries	110	3.45	.74
Abused women have increased hospital visits	110	3.46	.73
Abused women have increased drug usage	110	3.91	0.92
Some abused women depend on alcohol	110	3.55	.74
Some abused women lose their pregnancies	110	3.48	.83
	110	3.43	.79

Source: Findings from field visit (2010).

Research Question three

What is the economic impact of domestic violence on women in the Greater Accra region of Ghana?

Table 12 shows the data on the economic (financial) impact of domestic violence on women in Ghana which is used to answer the research question. It examines the extent to which women spent funds on treatment of injuries suffered

from male partners as well as how domestic violence affected their overall productivity.

Table 12-*Economic Impact of Domestic Violence on Women*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Abused women are normally financially dependent on their male partners	110	3.15	.91
Domestic violence affects women's productivity	110	3.31	.80
Abused women spend funds on hospital visits	110	3.47	.73
Domestic violence carries great cost to health care systems	110	3.54	.71
Abused women cannot work effectively	110	3.56	.68
Abused women are sometimes absent from work	110	3.47	.71
Abused women spent more on drugs	110	3.91	3.92
Men restrict the movement of women when they abuse them	110	3.59	.71
	110	3.50	.72

Source: Findings from field visit (2010).

The table 12 shows that there is high incidence of spending more on drugs by abused women (M= 3.91, SD= 3.92), while lower (M= 3.15, SD=.91) was found with those abused women who were normally financially dependent on their male

partners. The intermediaries are restriction in movement had the second highest with (M=3.59, SD=.71), followed by inability to effectively work with (M=3.56, SD=.684), then domestic violence carries great cost to health care systems (M=3.54, SD=.71), high spending on hospital visits and absence from work had the same (M=3.47) but with different (SD=.73, SD= .71) respectively. And then finally, domestic violence affects women's productivity had (M= 3.31, SD= .80).

Research Question Four

What various socio-cultural practices promote domestic violence on women in the Grater Accra Region of Ghana?

Table 13 presents the data on the social and cultural practices that promote domestic violence. This is where culture and gender roles are employed to provide justification and rationalisation for male violence against women in order to neutralise and condone it. This stretches from table 13 to 16. Table 13 deals with the perceived private nature of the home; table 12 with the reasons why abused women normally fail or are reluctant to report perpetrators of domestic violence; table 16 with abused women's economic (financial) dependency on their male partners and table nine with the notion that women are the property of men.

Table 13-*Domestic Violence Increasing in Homes because they are viewed as Private*

Level of agreement	F	%
Strongly disagree	2	1.8
Disagree	9	8.2
Agree	43	39.1
Strongly agree	56	50.9
Total	110	100.0

Source: Findings from field visit (2010).

Table 14-*Reasons Why Women Fail to Report Abusive Partners*

Factor	Frequency	Percent
Being abused again	69	62.7
Denied access to friends	13	11.8
Denied access to information	24	21.8
All the above	4	3.6
Total	110	100.0

Source: Findings from field visit (2010).

From Table 14, it could be observed that about 63% of women do not report their abusive partners because of fear of being abused again.

Table 15-*Women do not Leave Abusive Relationships because they are Economically Dependent on their Male Partners*

Level of agreement	Frequency	Percent
Strongly disagree	6	5.5
Disagree	20	18.2
Agree	36	32.7
Strongly agree	48	43.6
Total	110	100.0

Source: Findings from field visit (2010).

From Table 15, it could be observed that more than 76% of women sampled agreed that some women are compelled to stay in an abusive relationship because they are economically dependent on their male partners.

Table 16-*Men Feel Women are their Property so they can beat them*

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Strongly disagree	4	3.6
Disagree	13	11.8
Agree	36	32.7
Strongly agree	57	51.8
Total	110	100.0

Source: Findings from field visit (2010).

It could be observed from Table 16 that most women sampled (32.7% and 51.8%) agreed/strongly agreed that men feel women are their property so they can beat them.

Research Question Five

What attitudes in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana promote domestic violence?

The section below discusses the attitudes of law enforcement officials that often serve the interest of men than women.

Table 17-*The Attitude of Law Enforcement Officials Frequently serves the Interests of the Abuser (man) not those of the Woman*

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Strongly disagree	7	6.4
Disagree	12	10.9
Agree	23	20.9
Strongly agree	68	61.8
Total	110	100.0

Source: Findings from field visit (2010).

It could be observed from Table 17 that most women perceived law enforcement officials to frequently favour the perpetrators of domestic violence (mostly men). That is 61.8% strongly agreed compared with only 6.4% who strongly disagreed. Cumulatively, about 82.7% of respondents agreed that the attitude of law enforcement officials favour male abusers.

Table 18-*Women have Difficulty in Obtaining Convictions against Male Perpetrators of Domestic Violence*

Level of Agreement	Frequency	%
Strongly disagree	4	3.6
Disagree	13	11.8
Agree	46	41.8
Strongly agree	47	42.7
Total	110	100.0

Source: Findings from field visit (2010).

Table 18 indicated that majority of respondents (85%) agreed that women had difficulties in obtaining convictions against male perpetrators of domestic violence as a result of the cultural justifications of violence against women.

Hypothesis 1

Relationship between Educational background and domestic violence

Table 19 deals with the hypothesis that looks at whether there is a relationship between a woman's educational background and domestic violence.

Table 19-*Correlations between Educational background and Domestic Violence*

Variable	educational background	overall impact
educational background	1.0	-.341**
overall impact	-.341**	1.00

Source: Findings from field visit (2010).

There is a moderate and significant correlation between a woman's educational background and the likelihood of experiencing domestic violence.

Table 20-Test of Mean Difference between Employed and Unemployed

<i>Women</i>				
Variable	occupation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
overall impact	Unemployed	14	3.25	.58
	Employed	96	3.49	.60

Source: Findings from field visit (2010).

From Table 20 it could be observed that, respondents who were unemployed were 14 with (M= 3.25, SD= .58), while employed women were N=96 with the highest (M= 3.49, SD=.60).

Hypothesis 2

Ho: There is no significant difference in the level of psychological impact of domestic violence between employed and unemployed women.

H1: There is significant difference in the level of psychological impact of domestic violence between employed and unemployed women.

Table 21-Independent Samples Test between employed and unemployed

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t-value	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
overall impact	Equal variances assumed	1.082	.301	-1.40	108	.165
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.43	17.26	.171

Source: Findings from field visit (2010). *p < 0.05

The independent t-test results between employed and unemployed women in terms of overall impact showed no difference ($t = -1.40$, $p = 0.165$). Consequently, the hypothesis that, there is no significant difference in the level of psychological impact of domestic violence between employed and unemployed women holds.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter summarises the study, conclusions and recommendations drawn from the study. The summary consists of the outline of the entire study and the key findings with regards to the research questions, followed by the conclusions and recommendations. This chapter further presents areas for further research hinging on the findings.

Summary

The summary of this study comprises two parts. The first part focuses on the overview of the study while the second part is on the key findings that came out of the study in regards to answering the research questions and the testing of the hypotheses.

Overview of the Study

The main purpose of this study was to assess the impact of domestic violence as experienced by women in the Greater Accra region of Ghana. The study specifically examined the emotional, health and economic impact of domestic violence on women, established whether impact of domestic violence on educated women is the same as on uneducated women as well as whether emotional impact of domestic violence is the same on working and non-working women. The others were to determine the socio-cultural practices enhancing domestic violence and societal attitudes promoting domestic violence in Ghana.

Five research questions and two hypotheses were formulated and used. This study aimed at revealing how domestic violence affects women's emotional, health and economic well-being.

Descriptive survey design was adopted for the study in order to determine impact of domestic violence as experienced by women in the Greater Accra region of Ghana. The target population for this study was all the women in the Greater Accra region. Purposive sampling was employed to select 11 women's groups attending the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection Department of Women's monthly meetings to participate in the study.

The instrument for data collection was questionnaire. The questionnaire was pilot tested on a population with similar characteristics. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was computed and a reliability coefficient of 0.82 realised. The analysis of the research questions were undertaken using descriptive statistical tools as frequencies, percentages, means as well as standard deviation. Testing of the Hypotheses was also done using the Independent t-test.

Key Findings

Impact of Domestic Violence on Women: Emotional/Psychological Impact

Findings from the study showed that, women avoided social activities when they were abused, felt depressed, experienced anxiety and were sorrowful because of their abuse. Similarly, Orava, McLeod & Sharpe, (1996) reported that, Emotional or psychological impact of domestic violence affects the entire well-being of a woman and can be manifested in a variety of social, emotional or mental and physical symptoms. These symptoms include: depression, anxiety,

anger, avoidance or isolation, drug use and low self-esteem (Women's Aid Federation of England, 2004; WHO; 2000; Hill, 1995).

Another study by Helfrich, Fujiura, and Rutkowski-Kmitta, (2008) revealed that, 35 to 70% of women experiencing domestic violence stand the chance of developing depression. Depression is said to affect women experiencing domestic violence in a number of ways. These include inability to find and nurture good social relationships which invariably push them into isolation and make them over financially dependent on male counterparts.

Again, the study found that, abused women withdrew from active social life. According to Lachkar (2000), women who experience emotional abuse often respond in ways that are devastating just like the abuse itself. These are withdrawal, hopelessness, guilt, shame and depression-related illnesses. These emotional disturbances and symptoms further result in post-traumatic stress disorders (Gondolf, 1998; Roberts; Williams; Lawrence & Raphael, 1998). Women surveyed further indicated that, the abuse made them lose their community respect. The findings of a study on Hindu societies reported similar findings. According to Natarajan (2002), in Hindu norms if a girl divorces or separates with her husband and goes back to her parent's house as a result of misunderstanding in their marriage, it is considered as a very shameful act which leads to disgrace on her parents' family. This purported disgraceful act further hinders any of her siblings from marrying. In addition, leaving her husband's house is a dangerous adventure and enough reason for her to be killed or further abused.

Health Impact

This study found that, abused women had increased drug usage. Similarly, Women's Aid of England found abused women to be drug dependent. They indicated that, abused women go down to alcohol use or use drugs to aid them cover up or hide their abuse (means of escape) (Women's Aid Federation of England, 2004). The 2013 WHO Global Health Report on Violence against Women findings indicate that, in order for women to deal with some of the negative health outcomes of abuse, women resorted to using other harmful substances such as alcohol, tobacco or drugs (WHO, 2013). Findings of Tolman & Rosen, (2001) found abused women to have significant problems with alcohol and drugs. That is, 12% of seriously abused women were reliant on alcohol or drugs as compared to 6% of women reporting no abuse (Tolman & Rosen, 2001).

Economic impact

The study found women suffering domestic violence spent more on drugs. Similarly, Sachs also found abused women relied highly on drugs and alcohol which made finding and keeping a job a tough task for them (Sachs, 1999). Again, women suffering domestic abuse in this study were financially dependent on their male partners. A Nicaraguan study also found even after controlling factors that influenced income, women who were abused received 46% lower than women who were not abused (WHO, 2000).

Furthermore, a study focusing on low-paid women found that women experiencing domestic violence did not get into jobs that they could even work 30 hours a week (Browne, Salomon & Bassuk, 1999). A closely related survey on

abused women in Canada revealed that 30% of abused women stopped daily activities because of the violence and 50% had to take sick leave from work because of their injuries (WHO, 2000).

Other studies have also found domestic violence to be closely correlated with the lack of concentration during working periods and low turnout for work (Brush, 2000; Swanberg & Logan, 2005; Swanberg, Logan & Macke, 2005; Wettersten, Rudolph, Faul & Gallagher, 2004). Women's Aid of England have argued that, the consequences of emotional abuse such as low self-esteem, depression, anxiety, anger and other emotional behaviours, hinder women's productivity (Women's Aid Federation of England, 2004). Sachs (1999), also affirmed that, domestic violence is linked to regular absence from and lateness to work which end up in the termination of job appointments. When abused women earn less and cannot work effectively either in paid jobs or on their own, they obviously become financially dependent on their male partners.

Socio-Cultural Practices Promoting Domestic Violence

Findings from this study revealed that, 90% of the women surveyed agreed that domestic violence was increasing in homes because they are viewed as private places. Cusack and Appiah (1999) also found that, domestic violence was increasing in homes because homes were viewed as private. Their study of women in Ghana revealed that, violence against women was hard to openly talk about because of the traditional and social practices that labelled it as a secret (private) issue.

Again, socialisation processes in various societies inculcate into individuals the notion of the private nature of the home. According to Keltosová, (2002) and Natarajan, (2002), people have been socialised to regard the home as a secluded place where no external authority can meddle in their affairs except that which emanates from inside there. This is because, the privacy of homes is guaranteed by various national constitutions. Additionally, women are socialised to accept that family matters should remain within the confines of the home and that, respect needs to be accorded their husbands at all times since husbands know and do what is right for the family (Natarajan, 2000).

Findings from this study showed 63% of respondents do not report their abusive partners because of fear of being abused again. A survey on separated women by Humphreys and Thiara, (2002), also reported after-separation violence. Seventy-six percent of 400 women persistently experienced ongoing verbal and emotional abuse, with 41% receiving life-threatening intimidations towards themselves or their dependents. Humphreys & Thiara further asserted that, 23% suffered physical abuse with six percent sexual abuse.

The study further found that, majority of the women surveyed (84.5%) said that men beat women because they felt women were their property. The findings here are in tandem with studies that have confirmed the practice of wife beating situated in the belief that women are the property of men. In view of this, men have the liberty to beat women in order to make them conform to what they want (Violence against Women in Relationships, 2007). Coomaraswamy (2000), indicated that, some past religious practices and traditions approved physical

abuse or caning of wives because of the notion of entitlement. In addition, the payment of dowries in Nigerian society has been noted as one of the major reasons why men batter women. Men feel paying dowries for women before or during marriage equals to a certificate of ownership therefore, they can be beaten (Isiugo & Abanihe, 1994 and Jekwes et al, 1999). Again, Ofei-Aboagye (1994) and Ardayfio-Schandorf (2005), asserted that, in some Ghanaian communities, physically abusing a wife is a man's way of instilling discipline into his wife (teaching the wife a lesson) and other women cannot openly express sympathy for these women.

According to Nguyen, (2005), in parts of Asia too, physical abuse is an acceptable way of disciplining a woman. Other studies of women in Indian societies also affirm the notion of men's ownership of women. Women are viewed and treated as secondary citizens to men (Johnson & Johnson, 2001 and Gangrade & Chander, 1991). In order to reinforce the notion of subordination, females need to remain in their fathers' homes or the home of the patriarch until they are married then; they are transferred to their husbands as properties and are required to serve them (Johnson & Johnson, 2001; Puri, 1999; Shurei, 1997; Gangrade & Chander, 1991).

Attitudes Promoting Domestic Violence

The study findings further suggest that, law enforcement officials frequently favour the perpetrators of domestic violence (mostly men). Over 82% of the women surveyed indicated that the attitude of law enforcement officials favour men than women. Morrish, Horsman & Hofer, (2002) and Human Rights Watch,

(2000) have also found that women often experience extreme violence in their homes such as assault and rape which result in death and permanent impairment. Even though the above meet criteria for criminal trial these are tolerated by law enforcement officials as the norm in certain countries and ignored even in situations where there are laws to deal with the offenders. Similarly, Human Rights Watch has found that the actions of law enforcement officials support abusers (Human Rights Watch, 2000 and 1999).

Again, women encounter obstructions when seeking legal protection from domestic violence. These obstructions may be systemic or due to one's process of socialisation and belief patterns. For instance, rape laws excuse marital rape from criminal sanction (Human Rights Watch, 2000 and 1995).

Educational Background and Domestic Violence

The overall findings of this study showed that domestic violence impact negatively on women's emotional, health and economic well-being. Furthermore, the three levels of impact examined in this study namely emotional/psychological, health and economic impact overlapped.

Level of Education and Domestic Violence

The results showed that, there was a moderate but significant correlation between a woman's educational background and the likelihood of her experiencing domestic violence. The women with tertiary educational background (17.3%) reported less domestic abuse than those with lower educational background (26.4%).

These findings are consistent with those of Kishor and Johnson (2004). In their Multi-Country Study of domestic violence, they found that, in Cambodia, Colombia, India and Nicaragua, there was a relationship between women's experience of violence and their level of education. That is, the highly educated a woman was, the less likely she was to report violence. For example in Cambodia, 21% of uneducated women reported violations as compared with 29% of women with primary, secondary or tertiary forms of education. The findings can be explained by the assertions of Kishor and Johnson, (2004) and Kishor, (2000) that education is a tool for empowerment and a mechanism to enable someone to effectively influence institutions. In this vein, women with higher education have more capacity to deal with an abusive partner than a woman with little or no education.

The results further revealed that, there was no significant difference in the level of psychological impact of domestic violence between employed and unemployed women. This finding is contrary to other studies especially by Zavala and Spohn (2010), Macmillan and Gartner (1999) and Kaukinen (2004). Zavala and Spohn asserted that, the employment status of women was the main reason for male emotional abuse of females in intimate relationships. However, the finding in this study can be readily explained with the arguments put forward by Nock (2001). Nock argues that, the increase in single working mothers headed-households have contributed to men and young boys accepting non-traditional gender roles such as women working and being breadwinners. In addition, Zavala and Spohn (2010), also argued that, since society generally nowadays is accepting

of working mothers, men do not feel their social status is threatened when their wives engage in employment ventures. As a result, have reduced tendency to abuse them emotionally in order to assert their masculinity.

Conclusions

This study concluded that domestic violence negatively affects women's emotional, health and economic well-being in the Greater Accra region and that, the more educated a woman is the less likely she is to experience domestic abuse. Based on the findings one can infer that, the woman's educational level directly influences whether she would experience domestic violence or not. This is in line with findings of most research on this topic. However, the emotional/psychological impact of domestic violence on working women was the same as on non-working women.

Implications for Counselling

Findings from this study raise important counselling avenues for counsellors and clients. Since domestic violence impacts negatively on women's emotional, health and economic well-being as well as highly educated women are less likely to experience domestic violence, counselling on intimate relationships need to be introduced or increased at all post-secondary as academic and training institutions for especially women and young ladies.

This would open them up to future issues on intimate partner abuse and/or violence in the domestic setting. These early counselling programmes would also equip women and young ladies with skills to identify signs of abuse exhibited by their partners to enable them leave or adjust in those relationships early.

Counsellors, institutions, Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection and relevant nongovernmental organisations need to develop domestic violence information booklets handbills that can be easily carried around even in very small purses.

The finding of this study has shown that, emotional impact of domestic violence on working women is the same as on non-working women. In view of this, counsellors should endeavour to examine female clients for potential signs of emotional abuse when they present other issues.

Recommendations

The following recommendations have been made based on the results of the study.

1. Increase access to information on domestic violence and violence in general for women. Domestic violence programmes should be tailored to meet the needs of all women irrespective of their educational levels.
2. The government should commit resources into developing Women's Information Services Centres across the country where every woman can get basic information on all aspects of violence and safety strategies. The information on all forms of violence and safety strategies should be in accessible formats and easy to carry in very small purses. For example, it should be made accessible in large print, audio (for those with print disabilities) and translated into commonly spoken languages in the various districts centres of domestic violence across the country. The Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection should work with all District

3. Increase and improve service provision and economic empowerment of women. The Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection should work with all District Assemblies to create women safe shelters across the country. Maximum security should be accorded to these shelters and they must fulfil all international safety standards. The security/safety features should include but not be limited to 24-hour active police line, security and fire alarms, counsellors/psychologists, basic food rations and clothes. The Domestic Violence and Victim Support Unit of the Police Service should be equipped with a 24 hour telephone helpline to provide information on counselling, available services in one's locality and guidance to women and children experiencing domestic violence at all times.
4. Women should be economically empowered through income generation ventures where none exists. More young women and women should be placed on employment programmes in all sectors than young men and men.
5. Intensified education on domestic violence. The Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection as well as various women's groups should enhance awareness on all forms of violence in general. This can be done through the use of posters, fliers and using information vans in neighbourhoods and marketplaces. A comprehensive and systematic

domestic violence awareness programme should be developed and rolled out. The Ministry should take the lead and the programme should have monitoring mechanisms.

6. Considering the fact that Ghanaian society is highly patriarchic, government and responsible agencies should periodically review the curriculum and training content of law enforcement officials to reflect contemporary thinking in domestic violence prevention. This will enable them develop and maintain critical minds that will challenge social norms that support male control of women and condone domestic violence.

Suggestion for Further Research

For future study, the researcher suggests two routes.

1. In order to understand more completely the impact of domestic violence on women, more attention should be paid to how violence impact minority groups within the larger women's group. This includes women with disabilities, highly educated and employed women.
2. Also further study needs to be done on the current state of psychological/emotional impact of domestic violence on employed and unemployed women in Ghana. This stems from the fact that, there is an overwhelming amount of literature on physical, economic and health impact of domestic violence on women but not much on the emotional/psychological impact and how it affects women's employment.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX A
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS

Questionnaire

This study that is being conducted to find out the impact of domestic violence on women in the Greater Accra region. I entreat you to answer the following questions objectively as you might have witnessed, experienced or read. I assure you of confidentiality of the information you provide.

Part one

Section a

Please tick the box (✓) corresponding to your choice of response or supply the requisite information in relation to each of the following statements. Thank you.

1. Educational background

- | | |
|--------------------------------|-----|
| Never had formal education | [] |
| Class 1 to 6 | [] |
| Middle school leaver | [] |
| Junior secondary school leaver | [] |
| O level | [] |
| SSSCE | [] |
| NVTI | [] |
| Tertiary institutions | [] |

Occupational background

2. What is your current state of employment?

- | | |
|--------------------------|-----|
| Unemployed | [] |
| Petty trading | [] |
| Other work (menial jobs) | [] |
| White collar jobs | [] |

Others including (Apprentice) please specify.....

Part 2

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statement by circling your preferred choice.

	Strongly Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Agree
Beating a woman leaves marks on her				
Abused women withdraw from active social life				
Abused women feel shy and very sad always				
Victims of domestic violence do not always fall sick				
Victims of domestic violence loose self-confidence				
Women do not leave abusive relationships because they are economically dependent on their male partners				
There is difficulty in obtaining convictions against male perpetrators of domestic violence				
Domestic violence is increasing in homes because homes are viewed as private				
Men feel women are their property so they can beat them				
Domestic violence affects women autonomy				
Domestic violence affects women's productivity				
Domestic violence affects women's capacity to care for their children and self				
Domestic violence puts women at risk of negative outcomes like death				
Domestic violence carries great financial cost to the				

woman				
Domestic violence carries great cost to the health care systems that have to respond to its consequences				
Women are not able to freely mingle with friends and co-workers after a day of abuse				
Women loose respect from members of their community when they are abused by male partners				
Women are not able to work effectively at their workplaces after a day of abuse				
Women tend to visit the hospital most when they are abused				
Domestic violence reduces women's opportunities to work outside the home				
In a month of abuse, women buy a lot of drugs to cure their pain				
Abusive male partners normally restrict women's movement				
Some women have taking to alcohol use because of abusive male partners				
The attitudes of law enforcement officials frequently serve the interests of the abuser (men) not those of the woman				

Appendix B

List of Abbreviations

AIDS: Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome

CDC: Centres for Disease Control

CEDAW: Convection on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women

FGM: Female Genital Mutilation

NVTI: National Vocational Training Institute

O Level: Ordinary level certificate

SSSCE: Senior Secondary School Certificate Examination

UNHCR: United Nations High Commission on Refugees

UNFPA: United Nations Population Report

UDHR: Universal Declaration on Human Rights

US: United States

WHO: World Health Organisation