

**REGIONAL INSTITUTE FOR POPULATION STUDIES**

**UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON**

**DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN IN GHANA**

**BY**

**RUBY DAMENSHIE-BROWN**



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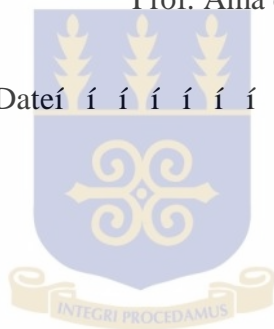
## ACCEPTANCE

Accepted by the Faculty of Social Studies, University of Ghana, Legon, in partial fulfillment of the requirement of the degree of M.A. (Population Studies).

Supervisor í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í

Prof. Ama de-Graft Aikins

Date í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í ..



## DECLARATION

I RUBY DAMENSHIE-BROWN, do hereby declare that except for duly acknowledged citation of references and ideas, this is the result of my original work undertaken at the Regional Institute for Population Studies, University of Ghana, Legon, from August 2012 to July 2013 and that neither part nor whole of this work has been presented elsewhere for another degree.



Signed í í í í í í í í í í í .

Ruby Damenshie-Brown

Date í í í í í í í í í í í í

## DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my father, Mr. Brown-Damenshie, and my mum Diana Sedor for the love and support they gave throughout my education.



## AKNOWLEDGEMENT

I am most grateful to God Almighty for His guidance and grace throughout my study successfully. I am greatly indebted to my supervisor Prof. Ama de-Graft Aikins for taking the pain to go through my work -line by lineø and guiding me throughout this work. My profound gratitude is also extended to all lecturers of RIPS for their immense contributions which made this work a success.

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## ABSTRACT

Domestic violence against women has been recognized globally as a major violation of a woman's human rights. Women's socioeconomic and demographic characteristics have made some women subject to abuse than other women. This study primarily examined women's socioeconomic and demographic characteristics and their experience of domestic violence. The study also examined the regional differentials of domestic violence against women in Ghana. A total number of 1671 women aged 15-49 made up the study sample. The study used data from the 2008 Ghana Demographic and Health Survey. The relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variables was analyzed using bivariate techniques. Binary logistic regression was computed to examine the effect of some demographic and socio-economic characteristics of respondents and domestic violence. Findings from the study indicated that women's characteristics (region, type of place of residence, and marital status, male dominance, and the educational status) were significant predictors of domestic violence against women at both the bivariate and binary logistic regression model. This suggests that women who are less empowered are often subject to DV. Attention should therefore be focused on encouraging

women to attain higher education thereby enabling them to be more empowered. Also, further research is needed on domestic violence especially focusing on both partners characteristics. Again more qualitative research must be encouraged in this area to be able to unearth the lived experiences of women on domestic violence since this could not be shown using quantitative method

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.0 BACKGROUND OF STUDY

Violence against women is a global phenomenon and has over the past three decades occupied a central position in international discourse (UNICEF 2006). According to Heise (2002), it is the most pervasive yet least recognized human rights violation in the world. Violence against women is a worldwide problem, which transcends culture, geographic, religion, social, age, and economic boundaries (Kerr 1994, Osam 2004, Person et al 2005, Dugar et al 2006, Kishor and Johnson 2006). It has become the subject of a substantial amount of research in recent decades (Person, 2005). It has been recognized as a human right issue and also a development issue because of the link between poverty, human insecurity and violence (Warrington 2001, Osman 2004, Takyi and Mannn 2006). Domestic violence includes physical, sexual, or psychological aggression or coercion employed by one person in a relationship to control the other (PRB, 2000).

The most common type of violence against women is violence perpetrated by intimate partners or ex-partners (PRB 2000, Takyi and Mann 2006, NRCDV 2007).

Domestic violence is a worldwide problem (Huss et al 2006) that increasingly draws the attention of people, countries, and the international community (Koenig et al 2003). Due to this the Beijing platform for action affirmed that "violence against women" both violates and impairs women of their human rights and fundamental freedoms. Research on violence against women has exploded in the past 20 years, particularly in the areas of intimate partner violence and sexual

assault. Despite this outpouring of research many gaps exist in our understanding of violence against women.

### **1.1 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

Often the family is seen as a place where one seeks love, safety, and shelter (UNICEF 2000). However there is evidence which indicates that it is also a place that imperils lives and breeds some of the most drastic forms of violence perpetrated against women and girls (UNICEF 2000). Violence against women can be devastating and long lasting and particularly dangers a woman's reproductive health (PRB, 2000). Violence against women harms families (UNICEF, 2000) and communities and has emerged as major cause of death and disability among women (Takyi and Mann, 2006).

Violence against women has been recognized internationally as a major violation of a woman's human's right and is also a serious health and development concern (Ellsberg, 2006). Violence in the domestic sphere is usually perpetrated by male who have been in position of intimacy and power against women (Walby and Allen, 2004). This violence against women manifests itself in many forms throughout their lives. A girl may be the target of sex selective abortion or female infanticide in cultures where son preference is prevalent example in China and India. Other forms of violence against girls during childhood may include enforced malnutrition, lack of access to medical care and education, incest, female genital mutilation, early marriage and enforced prostitution (UNICEF 2000, Osman 2004). Most women suffer battering, rape, forced abortion or sterilization, other harmful traditional practices such as dowry and widowhood related violence and even murder. The impact of physical abuse may be visible than psychological frightening, such as repeated humiliation and insults, forced isolation amongst many.

Violence against women in Africa can be conceptualized for instance within the general poverty and deprivation that the broad masses of the populations live in. In common with many other African states, Ghanaian women play multiple roles in their homes, communities, societies and economy as a whole. However, Violence against women is deeply rooted in Ghanaian society (2009). The Ghanaian media have been flooded with reports of intimate partner violence particularly of men killing and injuring their partners due to reasons such as suspected infidelity, or women's failure to what are claimed to be culturally-prescribed roles such as cooking and cleaning. Between February and March 2012, four married women were killed by their husbands on suspicion of infidelity (Chronicle 2002; Ghanaian Times 2002). In April 2004, a male student at the University of Cape Coast (UCC) strangled to death his ex-girlfriend also a student in the school. There have been several media reports on intimate partner violence, (GSHRDC 2009).

Domestic violence has been a difficult issue to tackle in Ghana because of the traditional cultural ideas that surround it. In traditional cultural society, spousal abuse is considered a private matter to be kept within a family alone (GSHRDC, 2009). Some see such abuse as part of marital progression, and some men even regard beating one's own wife as right that comes with marriage (GSHRDC 2009).

Other studies published by the Gender Studies and Human Right Documentation Centre (2009), revealed alarming rates of physical, psychological and emotional abuse towards Ghanaian women.

Women who are often battered or raped will often not want to report due to some form of stigma and shame that is attached. Others also believe that it does not constitute a crime and see a man

justified of wife battering. Gilbert also argued that it is reasonable to assume that current statistics on domestic violence is much higher in Ghana (Gilbert, 2005).

Government as well as civil society group has committed a lot of time and resources into the fight but the statistics still keep on rising. The 2005 Ghana Country Report reveals that Ghana is among the countries that records high level of gender based violence in West Africa including physical, psychological, economic and sexual abuse.

### **1.1.1 The economic and social cost of violence**

The costs of violence against women are widespread throughout society. According to Day et al this could be referred to as direct or indirect. He also said the direct cost includes capital, labour and material inputs while the indirect cost stems from effects of violence against women that have an imputed monetary value even though they do not involve an actual monetary exchange such as lost incomes or reduced profits.

These types of costs can be borne by individuals, including victims, perpetrators, or other individuals affected by violence such as businesses; governments at all levels; and by the society in general.

### **1.1.2 Social cost**

According to Day et al (2005), this type of cost stems from the provision of public service to both victims and perpetrators of violence against women and can be privately or publicly funded. They added that such social services include social welfare agencies offering help to abused women, abusive men and their children. Services may be provided by community center, social worker, religious leader, church, private agency or even the police. Each agency incurs the direct cost of capital, labour and material inputs. Similarly government directly bear many cost related

to violence against women such as time in creating laws, administration of ministries responsible, policy analysis research initiative and public information programs (Day et al, 2005). In the United State the cost of intimate partner violence surpass \$5.8 billion each year, almost \$4.1 billion of which is for direct medical and mental health care services. Similarly in 2006 1.3 billion Ghanaian cedis was allocated towards the compensation of victims in Ghana according to the National Reconciliation Commission. In 1995 Canada spent over 1 billion Canadian dollars annually on domestic violence services, including police, criminal justice system, counseling and training.

It is estimated worldwide that rape and domestic violence account for 5-10% of healthy years lost by women (Rumbold, 2008). Psychological violence on the other hand saps women's energy, undermines their confidence and inhibits their participation in the development of their economies.

### **1.1.3 Health effect of violence against women**

Domestic violence is associated with serious health problems affecting both women and children including injuries, gynecological disorders mental health problems, adverse pregnancy outcomes and so on. According to Ellsberg (2006) violence can have direct consequences for women's health, and can increase women's risk of future ill health.

Ringheim (2001) also mentioned that, physical and sexual violence increases women's risk for many common gynecological disorders, including vaginal bleeding, painful menstruation, vaginal discharge, sexual dysfunction, pelvic inflammatory disease and painful intercourse. Similar studies have revealed that, violence increases women's risk of future ill health. A wide range of studies shows that women who have experienced physical or sexual violence whether in

childhood or adulthood are at greater risk of subsequent health problems. Women who have been victimized have 1) reduced physical functioning, 2) more physical symptoms, 3) worse subjectivity, 4) higher health care utilization and so on compared to women who have not been abused. The more severe the abuse, the greater the number of symptoms and the more the severe the effect on women's physical and mental health (Ringheim, 2001, Rumbold, 2008).

Violence also leads to adverse pregnancy outcomes. Literature shows that violence during pregnancy is associated with late entry into prenatal care, 2) increased smoking and substance abuse during pregnancy, 3) bleeding during pregnancy 4) miscarriage and abortion (Kishor and Johnson 2006, PRB 2000).

According to the Population Reference Bureau report on gender-based violence (2000), boys who witness battering in their homes are more likely to become batterers themselves, while girls are more likely to become victims of battering.

In spite of the negative impact violence has on women, it is unfortunate that women who are experiencing violence rarely reveal their situation spontaneously as they may be ashamed to admit what is happening or fear that the provider will not believe them or blame them for the violence. Similarly, women do not speak for fear that their husbands will be put to jail and then no money will come into the household and also because they are afraid of them (Ringheim, 2001).

Women who may suffer such victimization may even be bread winners in their families and adverse effect such as loss of productive hours, psychological effect may hamper their contribution to supporting their families. If this woman goes to the extent of losing her life it is a great loss to her family and the society as a whole.

## **1.2 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY**

In Ghana, like many other African countries, traditional and cultural norms appear to bestow a low status on the Ghanaian women. To effectively integrate Ghanaian women into the main stream of the development process, it is necessary to spot the incidence of act and circumstances which dehumanize their status and find measures to curb it.

The rationale of the study is to understand the underlying factors that lead to domestic violence in terms of the demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of the woman. This understanding can help know the appropriate and effective measures to adopt in dealing with the problem.

## **1.3 JUSTIFICATION**

Domestic violence against women is a serious health development concern which has many negative impacts on women and children. It has also been considered as a serious violation of women's human rights. It has destructive effect on women's sexual and reproductive health and rooted in gender inequality (Ellsberg, 2006). Pregnant women who are victims may be severely affected thereby leading to maternal mortality. It also an indication of how women are less empowered. Violence against women is considered as an obstacle to the achieving of the Millennium Development Goals (MDG). Reducing violence against women is hence a key strategy for the achievement of the MDG. The MDGs are time-bound development targets that address many dimension of poverty, such as hunger, disease, inadequate water supply and lack of education (UN, 2008). MDG 3 is to promote gender equality and empower women. While MDG 4 to 6 are largely concerned with health outcomes- reducing infant and child mortality, and reversing the spread of HIV/AIDS, malaria and other disease. However among these goals reducing domestic violence against women is therefore a key strategy for the achievement of some areas of the Millennium Development Goals. Though much has been done in Ghana to

minimize the incidence, statistic from the Domestic Violence and Victims Support Unit (DOVVSU) confirms the rising nature of the incidence. Similarly, there are very few studies that have been done in Ghana concerning the issue and this study will contribute to the growing literature.

#### **1.4 OBJECTIVES**

The research is organized around three objectives. The main objective of the study is to investigate the relationship between demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of a woman and her experience of domestic violence.

The specific objectives include the following:

- I. To identify the causes of violence against women in Ghana
- II. To examine the socioeconomic and demographic differentials of domestic violence against women in Ghana.
- III. To measure the level of domestic violence against women across regions in Ghana.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.0 INTRODUCTION

Violence against women is a manifestation of historical unequal power relations between men and women, which has led to domination over and discrimination against women by men to the prevention of the full advancement of women (UNICE, 2000).

#### 2.1 SCOPE OF THE PROBLEM

The Global Dimensions of this violence are alarming. No society or country can claim to be free of such violence. While reliable statistics are hard to come by, studies estimate that from country to country, between 20 to 50 percent of women have experienced physical violence at the hands of an intimate partner or family member. In everyday speech and even in most social discourse, "domestic violence" is about men beating women. It is estimated that in the United States, millions of women are terrorized by husbands or other male partners who use violence as one of the tactics by which they control "their women." Most literature on domestic violence is about men controlling women in intimate relationships (Johnson and Ferraro, 2000). Violence in the domestic sphere is usually perpetrated by males who are or have been in the position of trust and intimacy with husbands, boyfriends, fathers, brothers etc. Domestic violence is in most cases perpetrated by men against women. Women can also be violent however their action accounts for a small percentage.

Violence against women is often a cycle of abuse that manifest itself in many forms throughout their lifetime. Even at the beginning of her life, a girl may be the target of sex selective abortion or female infanticide in cultures where son preference is prevalent. In childhood, violence against girls can be in a form of lack of access to medical care, education, incest, female genital mutilation, early marriage and forced prostitution or bonded labour. This may go on in their adult lives being battered, raped and even murdered (UNICEF 2006).

Domestic violence is a global problem of enormous proportions. Although men are sometimes victims, the vast majority are women. At least one in every three women globally has been beaten, coerced into sex, or abused in some other way-most often someone she knows, including by her husband or another male family member. One woman in four has been abused during her pregnancy (UNICEF, 2006).

Domestic violence has been linked to individual, household and demographic characteristics, socioeconomic status, adverse reproductive health outcomes, context consideration etc (Azie 2006; SCI 1999). Economic difficulties has been viewed as leading to a rising levels of gendered conflict and violence now observed (Oppong, 2004).

DV seems to happen anywhere but certain factors seem to increase its likelihood. This include age of the mother (the younger the mother the more likely she will become a victim), poverty, unemployment, alcohol and substance abuse .A number of studies revealed a strong relationship between the risk of domestic violence and household wealth and husband's education while others reveals the opposite.

Often the prevailing social and religious norms are the main obstacles from women on their way to achieve a higher level of autonomy and independence. The more distressing fact is that for

many people wife-beating is an acceptable form of punishment if the wife is not performing household chores properly and/or if she is considered to be disobedient or suspicious of committing any unacceptable thing (Schuler et al 1996, 1998).

## **2.2 COMBATING VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN**

Over the years domestic violence has been a pertinent problem in both developed and developing worlds. The 1990s in particular witnessed concentrated efforts to dealing with the problem. The World Conference on Human Rights in Vienna (1993) accepted that the Right on Women and Girls are ñan inalienable, integral and indivisible part of universal human rightsö.

The United Nations General Assembly in December 1993 adopted the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against women. It is the first International Human Right instrument to deal exclusively with violence against women.

In 1994 the Commission on Human Right appointed the first UN Special Rapporteur on Violence against women, entrusting her with the task of analyzing and documenting the phenomenon, and holding governments accountable for violation against women.

The fourth World Conference on women in Beijing 1995, included elimination of all forms of violence against women as one of the twelve strategic objectives and listed concrete actions to be taken by governments, the United Nations, International and nongovernmental organizations.

In Ghana, the government has acknowledged and taken significant actions in combating the problem. Most importantly it triggered the creation of the Women and Juvenile Unit (WAJU) which is now known as Domestic Violence and Victims Supports Unit (DOVVSU) of the Ghana police service. This was in full commitment to ensuring effective implementation of the law. The 1992 Constitution of Ghana outlines fundamental human rights and freedoms for all citizens and

specifically outlines rights to equality and freedom from discrimination. Similarly, Domestic Violence Act of Ghana (Act 732) was established to provide protection from domestic violence particularly for women and children and for connected purposes. Other civil society groups in Ghana that are helping to fight against domestic violence are the Ark Foundation, Bantu, and Sisterø Keeper. These groups played a very significant role in implementing the Domestic Violence Bill and contributed in undertaking research in that area. All these are evidences that women enjoy their fundamental human rights in Ghana .The government as well as other civil society groups has committed a lot of time and resources into this fight but the statistics keeps on rising every year. Progress has been minimal and women worldwide continue to suffer because attitudes are deeply entrenched and to some extent and also effective strategies to address DV are still being defined. Violence is perpetrated when legislation, law enforcement and judicial system condone or do not recognize domestic violence as a crime (UNICEF; Innocent Digest 2000).

### **2.3 WORLDWIDE STATISTICS**

Statistics from the National Coalition Against Domestic Violence reveal that one in every four women will experience domestic violence in her life time. Similarly, statistics indicates that 1.3 million women are victims of physical assault by an intimate partner each year. Also, 85% of domestic violence victim women have been abused by someone they knew. In addition, females who are within the ages of 20-24 years are at the greatest risk of nonfatal intimate partner violence. Reports indicated that most case of domestic violence is never reported to the police. Studies also show that boys who witness domestic violence are twice as likely to abuse their own partners and children when they become adults. Almost 7.8 million women have been raped by an intimate partner at some point in their lives.

Literatures reviewed by Rumbold (2008) also signified that in Zambia, DHS data indicate that 27% of ever-married women reported being beaten by their spouse or partner in the past years; this rate reaches 33% of 15-19 years-olds and 35% of 20-24 year-olds and in all, 59% of Zambian women have ever experienced any violence by any one since the age of 15 years.

In South Africa, 7% of 15-19 years-old had been assaulted in the past 12 months by a current or ex-partner while 10% of 15-19 years-old were forced or persuaded to have sex against their will (South Africa DHS, 1998). In Kenya, 43% of 15-49 year old women reported having experienced some form of gender based violence in their lifetime with 29% reporting an experience in the previous year; 16% of women reported having ever been sexually abused (Kenya DHS, 2003). World Health Report shows that in the rural part of Tanzania, 47% of ever-partnered women have ever experienced physical violence by an intimate partner while 31% have ever experienced sexual violence. Similar reports by the WHO also show that among forty-eight surveys from around the world, 10 -60% of women stated that they have been physically assaulted by an intimate partner at some point in their lives. Further studies from a range of countries show that 40-70% of female murder victims were killed by an intimate partner (WHO, 2005). Statistics from South Africa illustrates that a woman is raped every 17 seconds and one in 36 rapes is reported. Although violence against women occurs in all socioeconomic classes, there is strong evidence that wife abuse is more common in families with low incomes and unemployed men. Totaling and Sugar man (1986) demonstrates that in 9 out of 11 case-comparison studies, family income was found to be a consistent risk factor of wife assault.

An in-depth study on violence against women conducted by the Gender studies and Human Right Documentation Centre determined that one in three Ghanaian women suffer from physical violence at the hands of past or current partner (GSHRDC,2009)

## 2.4 DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

According to Khan (2000), there is no universally accepted definition of violence against women. Some human rights activists prefer a broad based definition that includes "structural violence" such as poverty, and unequal access to health and education while others have argued for a more limited definition in order not to lose the actual descriptive power of the terms.

The UN Declaration defines Violence against women as:

"Physical violence, sexual and psychological violence occurring in the family, including battering, sexual abuse of female children in the household, dowry-related violence, marital rape, female genital mutilation and other traditional practices harmful to women, non-spousal violence related to exploitation"

It further states that violence against women encompasses but not limited to;

"Physical, sexual and psychological violence occurring within the general community, including rape, sexual abuse, sexual harassment and intimidation at work in educational institutions and elsewhere, trafficking in women and forced prostitution;

Physical, sexual and psychological violence perpetrated or condoned by the state, where it occurs."

According to the Ghana Domestic Violence Act, DV means engaging in the above mentioned act in the context of a previously existing domestic relationship which means family relationship in a domestic situation that exists or has existed between a complainant and respondent. This includes a relationship where the complainant is or has married, lived, engaged, courting, or in a perceived romantic, intimate, or cordial relationship not necessarily including a sexual relationship with the

respondent. In this case the respondent may share same resident or are co-tenants, or may be a parent, an elderly blood relation, or house help in a household of the respondent (Ghana Domestic Violence Act 2007). It is no news that violence against women is often perpetrated by males who are or have been in a position of trust, intimacy and power.

Women suffer from all these forms of violence as mentioned. For the purpose of the study, Domestic Violence will focus on physical violence. The study focuses on physical violence, referring to any act of hitting; slapping, punching, or any form of physical punishment because, this is the easiest form of violence that can be measured and also because it is often the type of violence usually reported.

## **2.5 CAUSES OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE**

Domestic violence against women is not caused by a single factor. Some researchers have focused on the inter-relation of various factors that was made to improve our understanding of the problem. It has been argued that several complex social and cultural factors have kept women in the position of being vulnerable to the violence directed at them. Socio-economic forces, family institution with high enforcement on power relation, beliefs of inherent superiority of males, are also contributing factors (UNICEF 2000). However in some countries, women's increase in economic power and independence is viewed as a threat leading to increased violence by their male partners.

Studies have also linked childhood experience, such as witnessing domestic violence with experiencing physical and sexual abuse. The reason may be that violence may be learnt as a process of resolving conflict (UNICEF 2000). Similarly, excessive alcohol consumption and

other drugs have been noted as a factor breeding violent behavior by male towards women and children (UNICEF 2000).

## **2.6 INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE**

Intimate partner violence (IPV) has been said to be a complex social phenomenon cutting across all socioeconomic categories. Some research on intimate partner violence has shown that intimate partner violence decreases with age. However, others also suggest that a significant number of middle and older women experience intimate partner violence (Teaster et al, 2006). Saltzman et al (1999) also defined it as the actual or threatened physical, sexual, psychological, or emotional abuse by a current or former spouse (including common-law spouse), dating partner, or boyfriend or girl friend. Studies by the National Violence Against women indicated that IPV is very common among women (22.1%) compared to men (7.4%) who had experience physical IPV at some point in their lifetime (Tjaden and Thoennes 2000).

A growing number of studies indicate that IPV often occurs behind closed doors and not much can be done to prevent it. Most studies indicate that women suffer more injuries and burden from IPV than do men. According to Coker et al (2000) and Rivara (2007) the impact of this violence on their health is substantial and may result fatal and nonfatal injuries as well as a wide range of adverse health implications ns economic burden on society.

Intimate partner violence (IPV) is also known as intra-family or domestic violence is referred to as physical, sexual or psychological violence (Takyi and Mann 2006, Yigzaw et al 2010).

According to the 2001 Ethiopia Demographic and Health Survey (EDHS), reports indicate that 85% of women believe a husband is justified in beating his wife for at least one reason.

## **2.7 TYPES OF VIOLENCE**

Intimate partner violence can be in many forms such as;

### **2.7.1 Psychological violence**

Follingstad and Dehart (2000) defined psychological abuse as the systematic preparation of malicious and explicit nonphysical acts against an intimate partner, child, or dependent adult. This may include threatening the physical health of the victim and the victim's loved ones, controlling the victim's freedom, and effectively acting to destabilize or isolate the victim. Some literatures mention that psychological abuse can often occur prior to or at the same time with physical or sexual abuse (Carlson 2002). This type of abuse is said to increase the trauma of physical and sexual abuse and independently causes long-term damage to its victim's mental health. According to Henning and Klesges (2003) 95% of men who abuse their intimate partners psychologically also abuse them psychologically. Other studies have indicated that an employed woman with an unemployed partner is more than twice as likely to be psychologically abused by her partner (Kaukinen, 2004). Examples of psychological violence include; 1) denying the victim access to money or economic support. 2) not allowing the victim to eat or sleep 3) threatening to harm or kill the victim or loved one 4) damaging the victim's property and so on. The effect of psychological violence may lead to poor physical health, lack of concentration, mental and emotional impairment, poor work or school performance, thoughts or attempts of suicide among many.

### **2.7.2 Sexual violence**

According to Osam (2004), sexual violence encompasses prevalent forms of offences such as sexual harassment, incest, rape and defilement. She described incest as sexual intercourse between two persons who are regarded to be closely related by blood, through marriage or

adoption. Adjetey (1999) also defined sexual harassment as a form of violence that involve unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favours, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature, whether or not directly linked to the grant or denial of an economic consideration where such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance or creating an intimidating, hostile or offensive working environment. Studies in a nationally representative survey of adults have indicated that nearly one in five (18.3%) of women and one in seventy-one men (1.4%) reported experiencing rape at some point in their lives (Black et al, 2010).

### **2.7.3 Physical violence**

According to Loue (2001), researches across various disciplines have studied the etiology of family violence especially intimate partner violence. He referred physical violence to an act of being punched, slapped, hit, bitten, pinched, kicked, pushed, shoved, strangled, burnt and beaten. It can also involve the use of weapons and objects, which may be household items like knives, scissors, and so on. According to Pra (1999) physical violence include inflicting pain or causing harm to somebody with the help of a knife, stick, belt or rope. He also added that physical violence to women and children could be categorized as forced labour, cruel punishment, death and assault with weapon. An International Statistical Survey reported the following figures of reports by women who have been abused by a male partner in the years 1986-1993: Tanzania:60%, Uganda: 46%, Kenya: 42%, Zambia:40%, United State: 28% (Neft and Levine, 1997). Extensive survey on DV in 1998 reveal that on in three respondents had been beaten, slapped, or physically punished by a current or most recent partner, more than half within the previous years (Coker-Appiah and Cusack, 1999). Similar studies by the GSHRDC (2009)

also showed that about one in three women in Ghana admitted to have been beaten, slapped or physically punished by a current or most recent partner.

#### **2.7.4 Cultural violence**

In her book, Osam (2004) outline some cultural practices which constitute violence against women in Ghana. These were Female Genital Mutilation, Trokosi (customary servitude), and Violence against Witches, Widowhood Rites, and Child Marriage.

#### **2.7.5 Female Genital Mutilation**

Female Genital Mutilation/Genital Cutting (FGM/C) refers to several types of traditional cutting operations performed on women and girls. It is estimated that between 100 and 140 million girls and women alive today have undergone FGM/C, mainly in Africa and some Middle Eastern countries. It is a traditional practice carried out on females. It is also known as female circumcision (UN, 2011).

#### **2.7.6 Trokosi**

This is a cultural practice that involves the enslavement of young female virgins given away by families to shrines to compensate for crimes that were supposed to have been committed by family members. The girls live with the fetish priest for several years as his concubine. These girls are made to work for the priest and children born to the priests as well as their upkeep remain the sole responsibility of the young girl. These girls are usually abandoned by their families.

#### **2.7.7 Widowhood right**

This stems from spiritual traditional beliefs and has been applied in cruel and punishing ways. It is also regarded as purification rites, removal of what religion deems as impure. This stems from

the belief that the dead spouse's ghost needs to be pacified so it can depart forever. They may also be practiced to show grief and mourning. Women in these situations often face harmful endurance rituals when they are in the hands of adversaries rather than friends. Women may be required to shave their heads and endure the application of pepper in their eyes. In some cases the women are made to have sex with a stranger in order to complete the widowhood rites.

### **2.7.8 Child marriage**

This is when a young girl below the required age of marriage is forced into marriage either by parents, other family members or guardian. This is often done against the will of the child. Some men force their children into marriage with other men in payment of their debt.

## **2.8 DOMESTIC VIOLENCE VARIABLE**

The variables below are the independent variables used in this study.

### **2.8.1 Age and domestic violence**

Age plays a significant role in relation to women when it comes to who experiences violence the most. Most reports indicate that intimate partner violence decreases with age.

According to Teaster et al (2006), women aged 15-44 are more at risk from rape and domestic violence (WHO, 2005). Similarly, it has been estimated that younger women, especially 15 to 19 years were at higher risk of current physical or sexual violence by a partner in all settings except Japan and Ethiopia (WHO 2002). Similar studies have indicated that 48% of 15-19-year-old women reported physical or sexual violence, or both, by a partner within the past 12 months, versus 10% of 45-64-year-olds. In urban Peru, the difference was 41% among 15-19-year-olds versus 8% of 45-64-year-olds, which indeed indicate that younger women than older women are more likely to experience violence by their intimate partners. Again in some settings, older

women have greater status than young women, and may therefore be less vulnerable to violence (WHO, 2005). In Ghana, media analysis of reported cases of domestic violence against women indicated that among the victims whose ages were recorded, 50% fell into 10-20years, this confirming that young girls aged 20 and below are often victims of domestic violence (Osam, 2004).

Studies in the U.S also attested that younger women experience significantly more violence with women between the ages 20 and 24 (Teifenthaler, 1997). Teaster et al (2006) contrarily suggested that, although information available implies that the nature and consequence of violent relationships is similar for all women of all ages, ageing women face unique personal and family issues and obstacle within the community that may influence their decision to leave or stay in abusive relationships. They further added that older women whose husbands rely on them for physical care may be more reluctant to leave an abusive relationship. Similarly, ageing women often have less employment options available to them should they decide to leave the relationship.

### **2.8.2 Marital Status**

According to, feminist have argued that intimate relationships are explicitly gendered. This is because the structure of the husband-wife relationship tends to define wives as lesser partners in any marriage. In this case, marriage institutions tend to be controlled by men from a structural standpoint.

Studies on violence show that, women who are separated or divorced, or cohabiting report a higher lifetime prevalence of all forms of violence.

In Egypt about one third of ever married women have reported being beaten since marriage (Youngt, 2005). Life time and recent physical domestic violence against women have been similarly high in parts of Asia (Koenig et al 2003, Youngt, and Carrera, 2006).

Similarly estimates in Zambia indicates that half of all ever married women experience some form of violence from their partner, 46% of women in Uganda, 42% in Kenya, 60% in Tanzania and 81% in Nigeria (Heise, Ellsberg and Gottemoller 2002; Takyi and Mann 2006).

### **2.8.3 Education**

Education is one of the significant factors that influence one's behavior and response. Through education one is able to acquire knowledge, influence and skills. The influence attained through education can boost the confidence of a woman and strengthen their ability to resist violence. Education helps improve women's status and open them to wider opportunities of employment (GSHRDC 2009).

Some literature holds differing opinions on the relationship of education to domestic violence. While some literature indicates an inverse relationship between education and domestic violence, other also confirms a positive relationship some also indicates no relationship.

Additionally female empowerment confers greater risk of physical violence only up to a certain level, after which it confers protection. This theory is supported by evidence from the WHO multi-country study which found that the protective effect of education started when women's education progressed beyond secondary school (Rumbold, 2008). The World Report on Violence and Health mention South African and Zimbabwean studies that show a correlation between higher levels of female education and increased vulnerability to sexual violence (Rumbold, 2008).

In the same vein, women who are more educated tend to have greater range of choice in partners and have more freedom to choose whether to marry or not and are also able to negotiate greater autonomy and control of resources within marriage (WHO, 2002).

The WHO (2005) Study found that higher education was associated with less violence in many settings. However, in some settings like urban Brazil, Namibia, Peru, Thailand, and the United Republic of Tanzania, the protective effect of education appears to start only when women's education goes beyond secondary school. Previous research also suggests that education for women has a protective effect, even when controlling for income and age. Reasons were that women with higher education may have a greater range of choice in partners and more ability to choose to marry or not, and are able to negotiate greater autonomy and control of resources within the marriage (WHO, 2005). Similarly, studies in Uganda using the 2006 Uganda Demographic and Health Survey, reveals that higher levels of education were associated with decrease in domestic violence. The decrease in domestic violence as educational attainment increases were attributed to an increase in one's autonomy and economic power (Kisaakye, 2012).

Similar studies of domestic violence against married women in Cambodia revealed that women with fewer years of schooling than their husbands more often experience physical domestic violence and justified beating (Yount and Carrera, 2006 ).

#### **2.8.4 Ethnicity**

According to the culture of violence theory suggest that violent societies are more likely than nonviolent societies to permit domestic violence partly because where violence is used for

conflict resolution generally, it is likely to be accepted as a means of conflict resolution within the household as well (Arthur and Clark, 2009).

Ethnicity often provides the cultural background to the customs pertaining to the relationship between women and men in the social, economic and political spheres (GSHRDC 2009). Each ethnic group has certain cultural traits that define it. Culture is an effective tool that affirms and maintains male authority across all races, religion and ethnic groups. It still remains a powerful tool (Bassadien and Hochfeld; 2005). Some culture sees it as right if the husband perceives that the wife has transgresses her culturally prescribed gender roles, such as having extra-marital affairs or being disobedience. In many part of Africa issues of domestic violence have often been dealt with by the elders of the community or traditional authorities, where punishment is meted out for what is considered out for what is considered unacceptable behavior in that community. Most Ghanaian societies, ethnicity is the source of customs and family laws that regulate among others. Some aspects of customary norms are used to justify violence against women in and out of marriage and to legitimate male control of women (GSHRDC, 2009). Further studied by the GSHRDC in the analysis of ethnicity revealed that, Guans and ethnic groups from the Northern Ghana are more accepting of a man hitting his partner than Ga-Danmgbes, Akans, and Ewes.

### **2.8.5 Type of place of residence**

The type of place of residence was categorized ad urban and rural. Usually urban women are more likely to be educated than rural women. However, a study in Bangladesh revealed that about 19% of urban women compared to 16 percent of rural women reported experiencing physical abuse. Studies have consistently shown that compared to women in the urban areas, rural women have less education and lower economic security compared to women in the urban

areas (Teaster et al 2006). Studies from focused group discussion by Teaster et al (2006) provided insight into broader ideological values and norms of the rural culture in which the women lived thus influencing their perception of situations and their willingness to end the relationship. The studies further indicated that because of the intimate nature of rural surrounding, they are often inhibited from seeking help. Some often stay because of their connection to family members who often live in the same hood. Members from the focused group discussion also noted that because violent relationships have been prevalent from generations, the women perceived it as acceptable.

### **2.8.6 Religion**

Battering still exist across religious and faith systems varying in all forms of abuse and coercive behaviors intimidation fear and maintaining power in the relationship and control over their partners. Religious beliefs, traditions and teachings have been used both to justify and to condemn the use of violence against women throughout history. The use of religious teachings to justify domestic violence becomes a toll by which perpetrators assume and maintain power and control over their partner. In the same way, some interpretations of interpretations of these religious texts imply that husbands have absolute control and authority over obedient and submissive wives.

Patriarchic structures have also been considered a historical, and contribution to the complex nature of domestic violence against women. According to Rokoczy (2004) patriarchy means the ñrule of the fatherö that has been in past and present societal structures. In Patriarchy, the male is superior and women are understood to be inferior in every way. That mean inherently women are inferior to every man (Rakockzy 2004). He further emphasized that religion and patriarchy are

intertwined. Some religion endorses chastisement of a wife or female partner, and often sends survivors back to the abusive relationship (Bassadien and Hochfeld, 2005).

Faith leaders and advocates of domestic violence each play significant and unique roles in the effort to eliminate domestic violence against women and children. Their ability of each to take appropriate action on the experience of a battered woman of faith can be significantly impaired by lack of sensitivity and education relative to the dynamics of domestic violence and to her faith and role it plays in her life.

Presently, very few studies exist measuring the extent and nature of intimate partner violence within particular religious and spiritual groups. However, the National Resource Center on Domestic Violence (NRCDV), reports that, estimates by the organization Jewish Women International indicates that 15 to 25% of all Jewish households experience domestic violence. On the other hand, estimates by Muslim activists in the United State, approximately 10% of all women are abused psychologically, emotionally and/or physically by their husbands (NRCDV, 2007). In a study on wife abuse among Christians, wives were abused by their husbands, who were ministers and 28% of 350 battered women sought counsel from the clergy. However, the top responses the women received were a reminder of their wifely duty and instructions to forgive and forget, impractical advice based on their needs, and so on. Others to were reminded of their vows "for better or worse" and were encouraged to pray more (Rzepka, 2002).

According to the GSHRDC (2009), it was mentioned that religion often provides the ideological justifications that are used to legitimate acts of violence against women. It was further explained that these justifications often keep many women trapped in unequal power relationships between

women and men. In most religious doctrines women are made to be submissive to their husbands and are discouraged from seeking divorce even in abusive relationships (GSHRDC,2009).

ØIn Christian religion, popular quote in the bible are often referred to by religious practitioners such as, Genesis 2 to inform members that women are made from the rib of man defining women status in marriage and society. Other popular quote among pastors is the ‘submission to husband’ where in the book of Ephesians, the author was advising women to be submissive to their husbands and teaches men that they are entitled to respect from their wives and justify any violence when their wives break the rules. Some pastors in reinforcing these norms make reference to Genesis 3:17 to advice men not to listen or obey their wivesö (GSHRDC, 2009). It was mentioned that battered women are often sent back onto the death trap of their marriages to endure because divorce is abhorred. Anecdotally, it is said that church leaders and counselors teach virtues such as sacrifice, patience, tolerance, forgiveness and often women are advised to ‘give everything to God’ and pray that God changes their husbands. Among Muslim communities in Ghana, Men are the protectors and maintainers of women because they have been given extra strength. ØIn the Quran righteous women are women who are devotedly obedient but as for women who are disloyal, they ought to be first admonished, second is to refuse to share their beds and lastly be beaten lightlyö (Qawama, chapter 4:3) (GSHRDC,2009).

It is said that the Quran justifies discrimination against women in public life and often perceived that men have the right to multiple marriage partners and guarantees them the right to exercise complete control over them during marriages, to punish or divorce them (GSHRDC, 2009).

Analysis of prevalence of violence in Ghana by Amiwa (1999) among Muslim women, illustrate high levels of abuse in all ramifications. Her results indicated that 33% of women admitted

having being beaten, slapped, or physically punished by a current or most recent partner, while the other 43% suffered verbal abuse. She explained that several factors such as infidelity, inability of men or husbands to maintain the family well, disobedience to the man's authority and refusal to comply with sexual demands, were all reasons that precipitated abuse (GSHRDC, 2009).

### **2.8.7 Employment status**

The widening of a strong labor force participation of women today has opened a room for more women to be independent and empowered. However the presence of a strong gender ideology defining men as breadwinners has still contributed to the high dependence of women on their male partners. The employment status of women and men is particularly an important factor in considering violence against women.

One of the issues that have been unresolved in numerous literatures on domestic violence is the effect that women's employment or socioeconomic status has on their risk of violent victimization.

Different theoretical traditions have suggested that women's employment reduces rather than increases the incidence of intimate partner violence and violently. According to Strouse (1990), a large number of research examining the relationship between household socioeconomic conditions and intimate partner violence have found higher incidence of physical abuse among economically disadvantaged groups. Some basis given for the finding was that economic deprivation leads to stress and frustration among couples, which may definitely lead to violence (Strouse 1990). Studies by Farmer and Tiefenthaler (2000) also indicated that household income is also a significant predictor of the likelihood that the woman is a victim of domestic violence.

This indicated that household income is likely to be significant both because women are more likely to have earnings and therefore, income power, in households with higher incomes and because men's income (and educational attainment) increases, they are less likely to abuse partner (Famer and Tiefenthaler, 2000).

Similar theories have predicted lower risk of domestic violence when either or both partners are employed (Villarreal 2007). Marital dependency theory has also argued that employed women are less economically dependent on their partners and are therefore not likely to tolerate abuse. The resource theory pioneered by Goode, argues that violence is as a result of power derived from an imbalance in access to resources (Goode 1971). This means that male partners who cannot derive greater economic resources will use violence to assert their dominance in the relationship. However some critics of Goode claim poverty in men alone cannot explain domestic violence against women and that women's socioeconomic dependence on partnerships may better explain this abuse (Blumberg 1984; Kalmuss and Straus 1982).

Feminist scholars on the other hand have argued that men's larger economic contribution to the household is tied to the construction of their masculinity. This explains that men in intimate relations will therefore perceive their female partners' employment as a threat to which they might respond violently (Villarrel, 2007). Data from the 40 U.S families have shown that unemployed and poorly educated women seek outside interventions after spousal beatings less often than those who are employed with more schooling (Yount and Carrera, 2006).

Johnson (1998) in a national population study assessing the dimensions of violence against women in Canada, found employment provided women the opportunity to access information, support and networks outside the family setting. Conversely the study indicated that unemployed

women are cut off from potential attachments to colleagues and diverse opinions and may also contribute to stress in low income families.

Employment status of women and men is particularly an essential factor in considering violent against women. Some research in South Africa found that women who are economically independent are less likely to be abused by male partners.

### **2.8.8 Male dominance**

According to Rumbold (2008) gender issues are increasingly gaining recognition as a significant factor underlying and keeping maternal and fertility high. According to Person (2005), factors that have been found to have an effect on violence include socioeconomic status, family structure, male dominance and control.

In some part of the world, women are expected to be submissive and sexually available to their husbands at all times, and it is considered both a right and an obligation for men to use violence in order to correct or chastise women for perceived wrongdoing (Ellsberg, 2006). In most Ghanaian society women are subject to discriminatory cultural practices that expose them to the tendencies of violent act by their male counterpart. Such correction may take a form of beating, although is expected that a reasonable man would exercise moderation in beating his wife so as not to injure her. Among most cultures in Ghana, husband's right to sexual satisfaction relations may be termed as paramount. Women's refusal to submit to the demands of husbands or partners may lead to physical chastisement and or emotional abuse. Such a position is reinforced by the provision of 42(g) of Ghana's criminal code, 1960 (Act 29), inherent from British jurisprudence, which accepts the use of force in marriage on the basis of the supposed consent given upon marriage.

## 2.9 DOMESTIC VIOLENCE IN GHANA

Ghana is not an exemption, from the global widespread of domestic violence which has begun to be acknowledged by the government of Ghana. An in-depth study on violence against women conducted by the Gender studies and Human Right Documentation Centre (2009) determined that one in three Ghanaian women suffered from physical violence at the hands of past or current partner. The government as well as other civil society groups has committed a lot of time and resources to resources into this fight but the statistics keeps on rising every year. Ghana Country Report 2005 reveals that, Ghana is amongst the countries that records high levels of gender based violence including physical, psychological, economic and sexual abuse. Though Ghana Rank high on the development indicator in Sub Saharan region, records available to the Domestic Violence and Victim Support Unit (DOVVSU) of the Ghana police service indicated that, 109 784 cases of domestic violence were reported between the period of 1999 to May 2010 of which a greater fraction was perpetuated against women.

According to Ellsberg violence within the family is considered a private matter in which outsiders, including government authorities, should not intervene. For unmarried women sexual violence is stigmatizing, this has made most women to prefer suffering silently than to risk the shame and discrimination that would result from disclosure (Ellsebeg, 2006). Several lines of research also indicate that adherent to rigid gender roles either at the societal or individual level increases the likelihood of violence against women. Similarly a number of researches have posited a link between violence against women and men's sense of ownership or entitlement over women.

Ghana is no exception, these practices within marriage that subordinate women to men have remained a challenge in Ghanaian society, such that when women are physically assaulted or

sexually abused within conjugal relations, it is not regarded as unusual (Osam, 2004). Consequently many women tolerate and remain in abusive relationships and do not complain publicly about their ordeals because such issues are considered "private"

According to cross-cultural literature, one of the most enduring macro system factor that promote violence towards women is a cultural definition of manhood that is linked to male dominance, toughness, or male honor (Heise, 1998). It is no wonder that Chi et al (2006) in their book; "Domestic violence in Ghana: The open secret" also highlighted on some of these cultural factors that have promoted women abuse in Ghana. They discovered that, the wide spread belief that DV is a private family matter in Ghana have deterred many women from seeking help outside and even to send their husbands to court. They also argued that economic dependence of women on men perpetuates DV. In their interview with a CHRAJ official, he stated that "women who are economically dependent on their husbands are often beaten". A woman's anxiety about money and resource and her objection to their husband's failure to provide sufficiently have made women to be seen as "provoking", and hence, abused. From their study, the prevalence of such cases in Ghana, (as described by their interviewees) suggested that economic abuse is widespread and has kept many women from seeking help or leaving their husband. Finally, they added that infidelity, polygamy and other marriage practices promote abuse in Ghana. From their findings, one of the ways infidelity contributes to abuse is: Either because a man suspects his wife of being unfaithful and uses her spouse infidelity as an excuse to beat or kill her. They expanded that polygamy may also contribute to DV by amplifying the unequal distribution of power between husbands and wives and by exacerbating competition and animosity between the wives. Some specific consequences of polygamy for Ghanaian women they added were sexual and emotional neglect, violence between rival wives, or abuse by

husband who takes sides between rivals. Marriage practices such as forced marriage were also seen as a form of DV which takes place in Ghana.

## CHAPTER THREE

### CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND METHODOLOGY

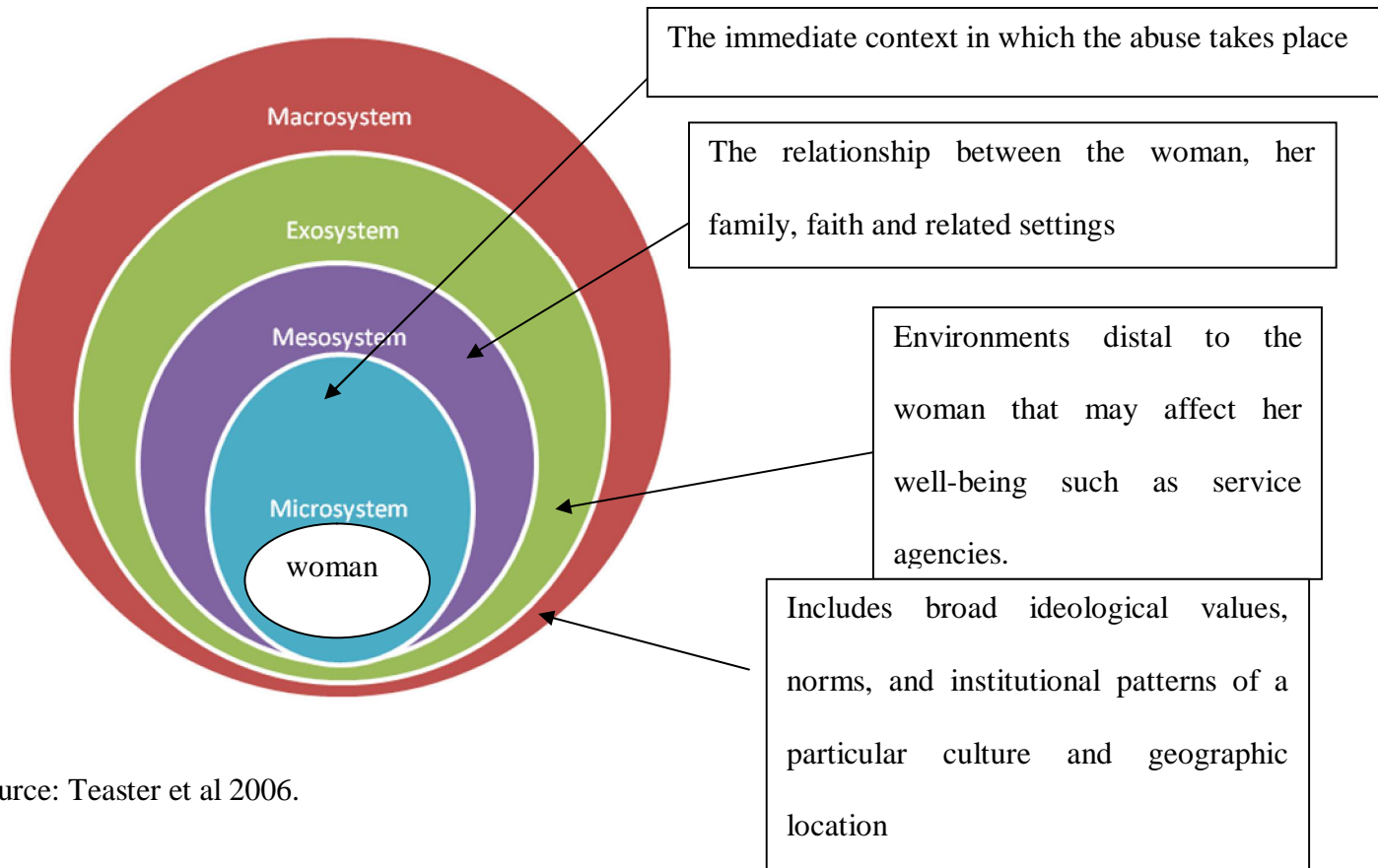
#### 3.0 INTRODUCTION

The first part of this chapter describes the conceptual framework guiding the work. This will be followed by the methodology.

The conceptual model guiding the research is the ecological community framework. Below is a framework from which the conceptual framework for the study was derived. The framework was constructed for understanding the origins of gender-based violence. It conceptualized violence as a multifaceted phenomenon grounded in interplay among personal, situational, and sociocultural factors. This means that no single aspect can explain why some people or groups are at higher risk of interpersonal violence, while others are more protected from it. The framework focuses on the women and their informal relationships (such as children, partners, other family relations, friends, neighbours etc.); formal support (ex: Community/victim support services); and wider ideological values, norms, and institutional patterns of rural communities in which they live.

### 3.1 THEORETICAL/CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Fig 3.1: An Ecological Community Organization Model of Intimate Partner Violence



Source: Teaster et al 2006.

#### 3.1.1 The Ecological framework

According to Teaster et al (2006), for us to understand the influence of micro and meso systems in the women's lives, it is important to examine the women's personal histories, family relationships and also in social and historical contexts. They further stated that personal resource for instance education, employment (income), age, family and other relationships coalesce into an explanation of their experience of physical violence. They added that, how people in the community relate, inter-relate, socialize, collaborate and provide mutual support (which includes social support norms, social controls) that regulate behavior, interaction patterns

and the networks that operate in a community. The framework further explains that, members in a community share the same norms that govern their behaviors and expectations, and this can be provided for both lawful and unlawful activities. However, some activities which are considered unacceptable by the general population might be more tolerable among certain subgroups of individuals. These subgroups may be typified by particular demographic characteristics such as geographical location and by psychographical characteristics such as gender, beliefs about others etc. The variation and complexity of social organization is reflected in the structure and processes or actions engaged in by its members and families.

This study looks at women in intimate relationship and their experience of domestic violence. It was from this framework the conceptual framework for the study was adopted.

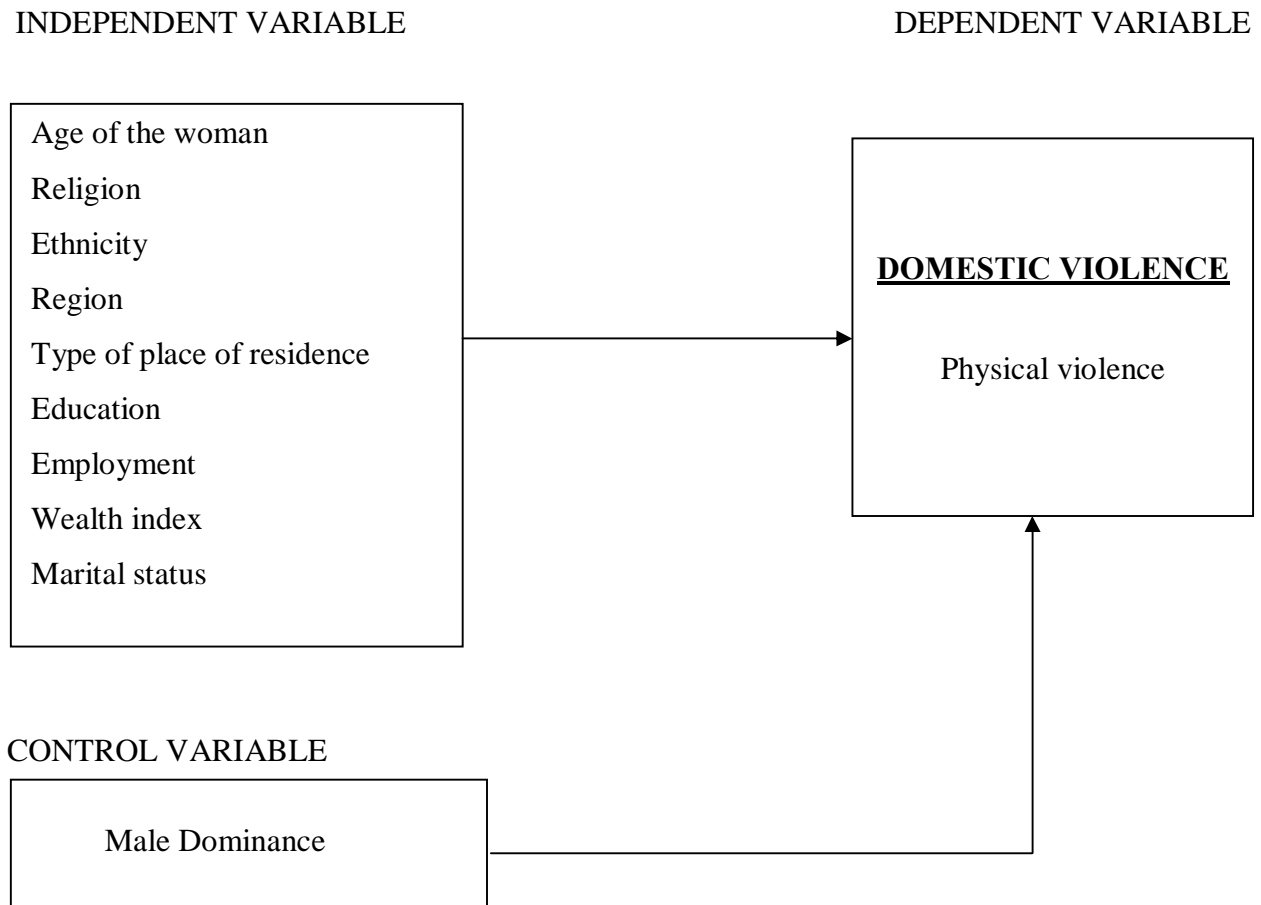
The conceptual framework in Fig 3.2 was constructed from ecological community organization model. From the model we were made to understand that there are various levels in environment that puts one at risk or makes one protected from DV. The model identified four stages. These were the Microsystems, Mesosystem, Exosystem and Macrosystem. The models make us to understand that;

The microsystem tabs into the personal characteristics of the women which includes the age of the woman, education, and wealth quintile and employment status

**The Mesosytem** has to do with the kind of relationship that exists between the victim and the abuser. Hence variables like marital status and male dominance tabbed into that aspect. Here since the study looked at intimate partner violence the question on marital status looked at whether the woman is currently married or formerly married. On the other hand the study also

wanted to find out whether the kind of relationship that existed between the woman and her former or current husband was male dominated

Fig 3.2 Conceptual framework showing the relationship between domestic violence and women's socioeconomic and demographic characteristics



Source: Author's construct.

**The Exosystem** focuses on the type of environment in which the woman found herself. As earlier, the type of environment a woman found herself may affect her well-being. This is because some environment has service agencies that abhor violence act and this will deter many from engaging in violent behavior. However, in other places such services are rare to find and many who engage in violence act manage to go scot free, this encourages many to engage in such

behaviours. Having this in mind, the study used variables such as 'type of place of residence' and 'region' to tap into this aspect.

**The Macrosystem** looked at ideological values, norms and institutional patterns of a particular culture. All these are embedded in the kind of ethnic background and beliefs of the woman. Hence the study used variables such as the 'ethnicity' and 'religion' of the woman to in understanding that aspect in the model.

### **3.2 HYPOTHESIS**

From the reviewed literatures, the following hypothesis was made and will be tested; women who have educational attainment beyond secondary level are less likely to experience violence than women who have educational attainment below that level.

Middle age women are more likely to experience physical violence than the other age groups.

Women who are formerly married are more likely to report physical abuse than women who are currently married.

### **3.3 METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.3.1 Sources of Data**

Data from the 2008 Ghana Demographic and Health Survey (GDHS) was used for the study, specifically the women's file. The GDHS is a national representative survey which is conducted in Ghana every five year interval since 1988. It covers all ten regions of the country. The survey was designed to collect, analyse, and disseminate information on household characteristics, education, maternal health etc, and for the first time a model on domestic violence was introduced as one of the topics of investigation. The 2008 GDHS is the fifth DHS survey to be

undertaken in Ghana since 1988. The purpose of the GDHS was to provide policy makers, planners and researchers with reliable current information on many key indicators of social development.

The GDHS was conducted jointly by the Ghana Statistical Service and the Ministry of Health/Ghana Health Service management team. Other technical support was provided by ICF Macro during the preparation and finalization of the survey instruments, training of field workers, and monitoring of field data collection. The GDHS was a household-based survey which is a representative probability sample of more than 12,000 households selected throughout the country. A two stage sample design was utilized. The first stage involved selecting sample points from an updated master sampling frame constructed from the 2000 Ghana Population and Health Census. While the second stage of selection involved the systematic sampling of 30 of the households listed in each cluster.

### **3.3.2 Sample design**

The GDHS makes use of different kinds of questionnaire: the Household questionnaire which is administered to all households, for all women aged 15-49 and all men 15-59 if they were either residents of the households or visitors present in the household on the night before the survey. On the other hand the men and women's questionnaire is administered to all women aged 15-49 and all men aged 15-59 respectively, who were either resident of the household or visitors present in the household on the night before the surveys.

In all, the number of eligible women aged 15-49 who were interviewed was 1671 women out of 4916. The 1671 women included currently married women and ever married women (consisting of women who are separated, divorced or widowed). Since the study was looking at intimate

partner violence, the question was only asked to women who were currently married/have partners and women who formerly had partners/ formerly married.

### **3.4 LIMITATION OF THE STUDY**

Even though the GDHS 2008 has data on domestic violence against women, the measures adopted in the survey are not without limitations. Questions dealing with domestic violence are sensitive and respondents may be unlikely to give the right responses. This may be due to some level of fear or shame that is associated with the incidence.

### **3.5 MEASUREMENT OF VARIABLES**

#### **3.5.1 Dependent variable**

**Domestic Violence:** The 2008 GDHS measured physical violence committed by spouses and by other household members. Spousal/partner violence was measured in more detail. Spousal violence was measured using the following set of questions for women:

In the analysis, the dependent variable is women's experience of physical violence by a man or intimate partner since age 15-49 and in the past 12 months, by background characteristics.

Definition of physical violence was based on the following questions;

Does/Did your last husband/partner ever do the following things to you:

Pushed you, shook you or threw something at you?

Slapped you?

Twisted your arm?

Punched you with his fist or something that could hurt you?

Kicked you, dragged you or beat you up?

Tried to choke you or burn you on purpose?

Threatened or attacked you with a knife, gun, or any other weapon?

The original responses to the five items were coded into 'Yes' and 'No'. Respondents who said yes were further asked how often it happened during the last 12 months: often, only sometimes or not at all. These questions were recoded as one variable, 'physical violence' and responses were also regrouped as 'yes' and 'no' however this study was not interested in the frequency of the act.

### 3.5.2 Independent variables

The socio demographic variables included the respondent's age, type of place of residence, ethnicity, region, education, employment status and so on.

**Age:** Ages of the respondents were grouped in five years thus from 15-19, 20-29, 25-29, 30-39, 40-49.

**Type of place of residence:** Type of place of residence of women was categorized as urban or rural.

**Educational Status:** Education is said to provide people with knowledge and skills that can lead to a better quality of life. The educational status was measured based on their reported level of formal education. This was measured as no education, primary, middle/JSS, Secondary and Higher education.

**Marital status:** There are various types of marriage in Ghana, ranging from customary to ordinance marriage. In the survey, the women were asked of their current marital status. This

was categorized into "Currently married", and "formerly married". The formerly married included women, who were divorced, separated or widowed.

**Employment:** With employment the women were asked if they had done any work within the past 12 months prior to the survey. The original responses to the question were coded into "No", "in the past year", "currently working", and lastly "have a job but on leave". The responses to the questions were dummy-coded (yes, no). This was done by recoding those who said "No" and those who said "In the past year" as "Not employed". On the other hand those who said they were currently working and those who said they have a job but are on leave were categorized as "employed".

**Region:** Region considers all ten regions in Ghana. They are Western, Central, Greater Accra, Eastern, Ashanti, Brong Ahafo, Volta, Northern, Upper East, and Upper West Region.

**Ethnicity:** The cultural variables used in the models are religion and ethnicity. Ethnicity was defined in terms of affiliation to the six major groups in Ghana: Akan, Ga-Adangbe, Ewe, Mole-Dagbani, Grussi, Gruma, Mande and others. However Grussi, Gruma and Mande were recoded into one variable as Grussi/Gruma/Mande.

**Religion:** Religion was coded into the following categories: Catholic, Anglican, Methodist, Presbyterian, and Pentecostal and other Christians were recoded into one variable as "Christian" against "Moslem", "Traditional/Spiritual", and "others".

**Wealth quintile:** The wealth index was constructed using information on household ownership of consumer items. These ranged from a television to a bicycle or a car, as well as characteristics of dwellings such as source of drinking, sanitation facilities, and type of flooring material. Each asset was assigned a weight (factor score) generated through principal components analysis, and

the resulting asset score was standardized in relation to a normal distribution with a mean of zero and standard deviation of one. Each household was then assigned a score for each asset, and the scores were summed for each household; individuals were ranked according to the total score of the household in which they resided. The sample was then divided into quintiles from one (lowest) to five (highest). A single asset index was developed for the whole sample; separate indices were not prepared for the urban and rural populations.

### **3.6 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY**

The study is structured in seven chapters. Chapter one contains the introduction consisting of a brief background to the study, followed by the statement of the problem, the rationale for the study and the objectives for the study. Chapter two consists of the literature review which highlights the results from related studies. This is followed by the conceptual framework and the hypothesis, the methodology, limitation of the study and the operational definitions of the concepts and the variables in chapter three. In chapter four, bar graphs and charts were used for the basic descriptions of the background characteristics of the respondents. Cross tabulation was also used to examine the relationship between the background characteristics and their experience of domestic violence in chapter five. A binary logistic model was computed to examine the effect of some demographic and socio-economic characteristics of respondents on domestic violence. The Pearson's Chi Square will be used to test the significant level of the relationship between the demographic and socioeconomic variables and women's experience of domestic violence. Chapter six presents discussion of the results. Chapter seven consists of the summary, conclusion and recommendation of the study.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF WOMEN

#### 4.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents descriptive summary of the relevant demographic and socio-economic profile of female respondents in the Ghana Demographic and Health Survey (GDHS), 2008. The demographic and socioeconomic characteristics, is essential for the understanding and interpretations of the findings within the context of women's experience of domestic violence. It will also help to examine the differential experiences of violence among population subgroups. The first section of this chapter is a brief history and demography of Ghana while the next section shows the distribution of women age 15-49 by selected background characteristics including age, marital status, urban-rural residence, region, religion, educational attainment, ethnicity and wealth quintile.

Fig 4.1 Profile of Ghana

Map of Ghana



The Republic of Ghana is located in West Africa and it is bounded by Ivory Coast to the west, Burkina Faso to the north, Togo to the east and the Gulf of Guinea and Atlantic Ocean to the south. Ghana is a Middle Income Economy and is ranked as a Lower-Middle Income Economy by the World Bank and is an Emerging Economy. Ghana has a reported population of about 25 million people. Ghana's population is made up of several ethnic groups. The largest ethnic group is the Akan consisting of 49% followed by the Mole-Dagbon (17%), Ewe (13%) and the Ga/Dangbe (8%) (GSS, 2002).

Ghana has ten regions. The Greater Accra and Ashanti region are the regions with the most urban population 87% and 51.3% respectively.

The officially spoken language in Ghana is English; however, most of the population also speaks at least one local language. English is the country's official language and predominates in government and business affairs. It is also the standard language used for educational instruction

Christianity is the country's largest religion, and predominates in areas of south Ghana and parts of northern Ghana, while Islam is more widespread in parts of the northern regions. Christianity is practiced by 71.2% of the population, according to the 2010 Ghana census. Christianity was introduced by Europeans in the Gold Coast in the 14th century. Islamic religion constitute 17.6% of the population, and was introduced to northern Ghana in the 15th century, Christian-Muslim relations in Ghana are peaceful, tolerant and bilateral.

The adult literacy rate in Ghana was 71.5% in 2010, with males at 78.3% and females at 65.3%. Ghanaian children begin their education at the age of three or four starting from nursery school to kindergarten, then elementary school (primary school), high school (junior high school and

senior high school) and finally university. The average age at which a Ghanaian child enters primary school is 6 years (Quartey et al, 2006).

Ghana's sex ratio as in 2000 was 97.9. About 41% of the population is under 15 years and the proportion of 65 years and over constitute a little over 5% as at 2000.

Ghana attained independence from the British Colonial rule on the 6<sup>th</sup> of March 1957. Accra is its administrative and political capital with population of 1.7 million (GSS, 2002). Ghana operates as a multi-party democratic presidential system of government. Election of a president takes place every four years.

Ghanaian women are known to play a multiple role in homes, communities, society and economy as a whole. In Ghana, women constitute 52% of the labour force. Similarly, the agriculture sector is an important source of employment for 57% of women. However women face unequal access to land, labour and credit. Women dominate in the informal sectors in the urban areas (GSHRDC 2009).

#### **4.1 DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIOECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS**

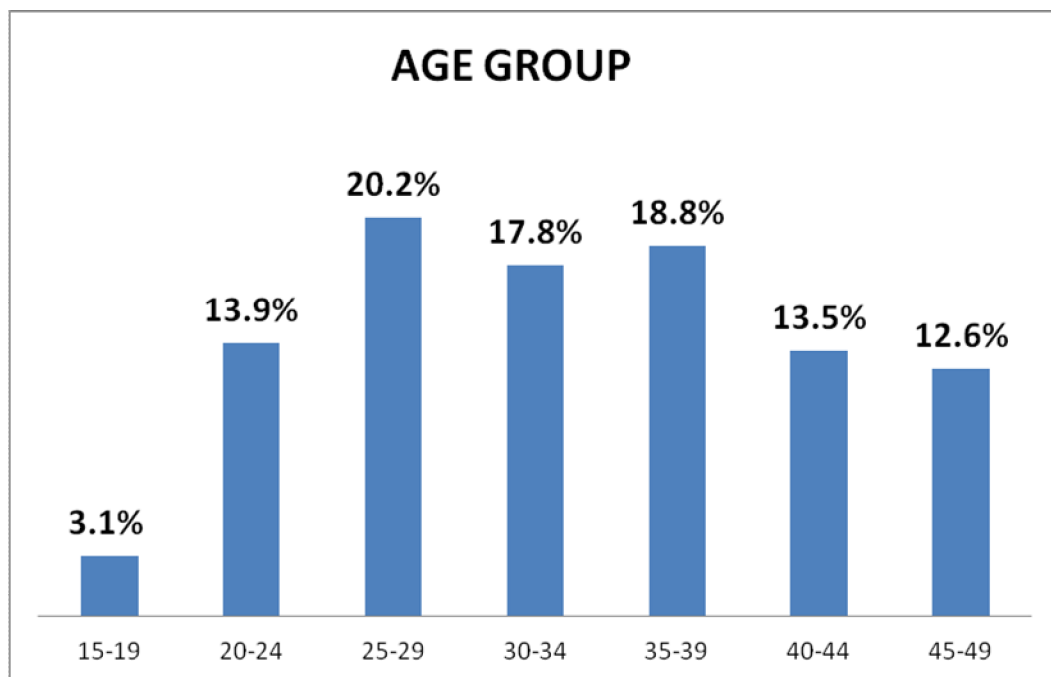
In this section the background characteristics of the sample population are examined. The relevant demographic background characteristics include age, sex, type of place of residence, level of education, marital status, religion, wealth quintile and region.

##### **4.1.1 Age distribution**

The age of a woman is a very important indicator as to whether she is likely to experience violence or not. Culturally women who are older tend to receive greater respect (in Africa specifically) compared to younger women. Table 1.1 reflects the age distribution of respondents

in five-year age groups. From the table, more than half of the women (55%) are 34 and below, while 45% are within the ages of 35-39. Women in age group 40-44 and 45-49 constitute 19.4% and 8.7% respectively. All women in these age groups are assumed to be currently married/having partners or formerly had partner/husband. This explains the relatively smaller percentage among women in age group 15-19 because it is assumed that most women marry or have partners after 18 years old.

Fig 4.2 percentage distribution of women by age



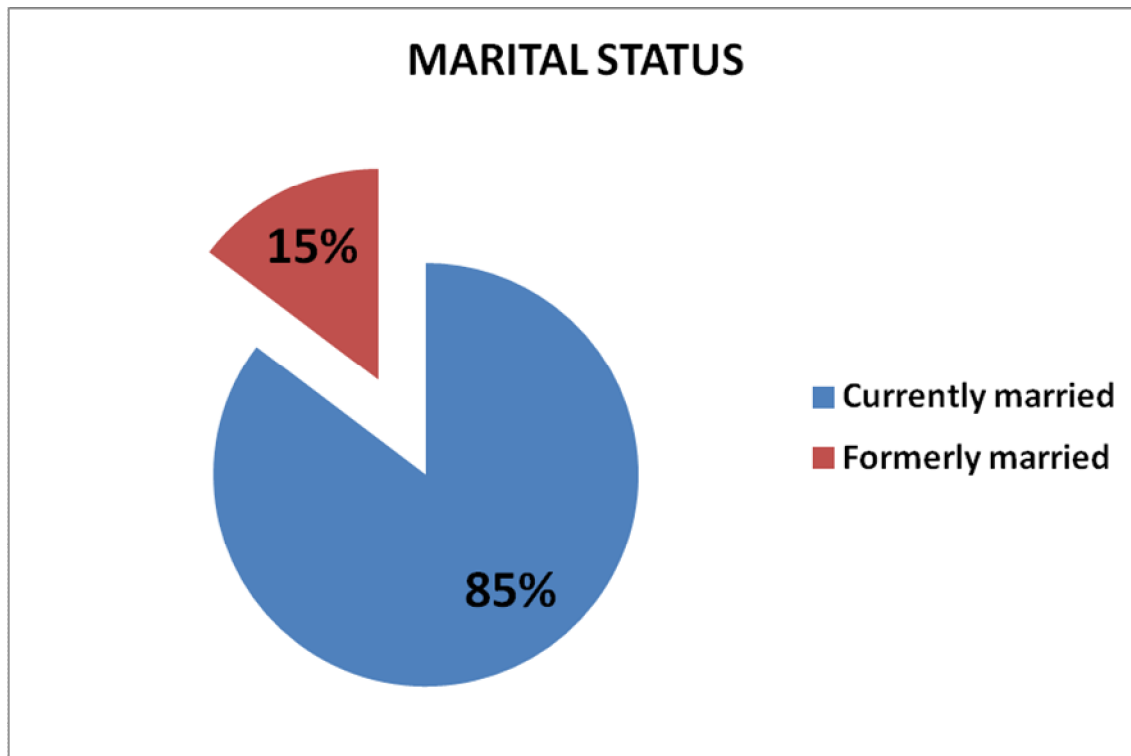
**Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008**

#### 4.1.2 Marital statuses

Marriage is a desirable social status in the Ghanaian society. At certain age in one's life it is expected by society that one marries. Marriage is a major form of creating families. This union tends to bring not only the man and a woman together but also kin group of both partners.

Results from the survey as indicated from table 4.2, shows that more than half of the women (85%) are currently married or living together while 15% are widowed, divorced or separated.

**Fig 4.3 Percentage distribution of women by marital status**



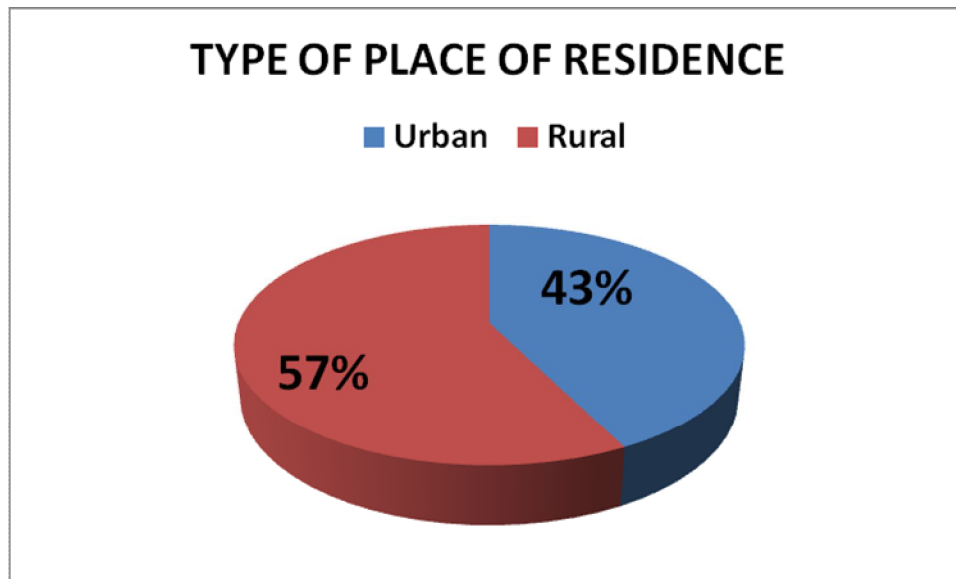
**Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008**

#### **4.1.3 Type of place of residence**

Type of place of residence has increasingly been recognized as one of the important variables that influences a woman's experience of domestic violence. Regions with higher urban residence are modernized with better infrastructural facilities and services while regions with higher rural communities have less of these services. This means that women in urban residence are more likely to have access to education and services agencies that deal with DV than women in the

rural areas. From table 4.3, the number of women by urban-rural residence shows that more than half of the respondents (57%) lived in urban areas while 43% lived in rural areas.

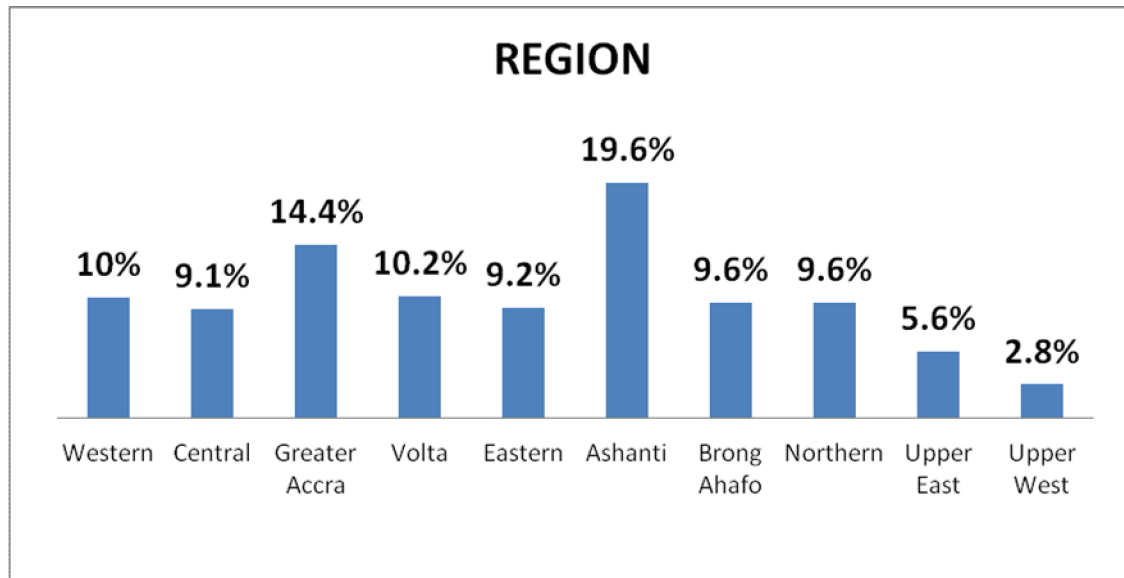
**Fig 4.4 Percentage distribution of respondents by type of place of residence**



**Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008**

#### **4.1.4 Region**

There are a number of literatures arguing that domestic violence cuts across region. However its intensity may vary from region to region. In Ghana almost every region is dominated by a particular culture that makes them different from another. Women in regions are dominated by cultures that perceive domestic violence against women as acceptable are more likely to report the abuse compared to regions that do not perceive it as acceptable.. From table 4.4, a greater percentage of respondents were from Ashanti region (19.6%) followed by Greater Accra region (14.4%) which is the most populous regions in Ghana. Upper East (5.6%) and Upper West (2.8%) constituted a smaller percentage.

**Fig 4.5 Percentage distribution of women by region**

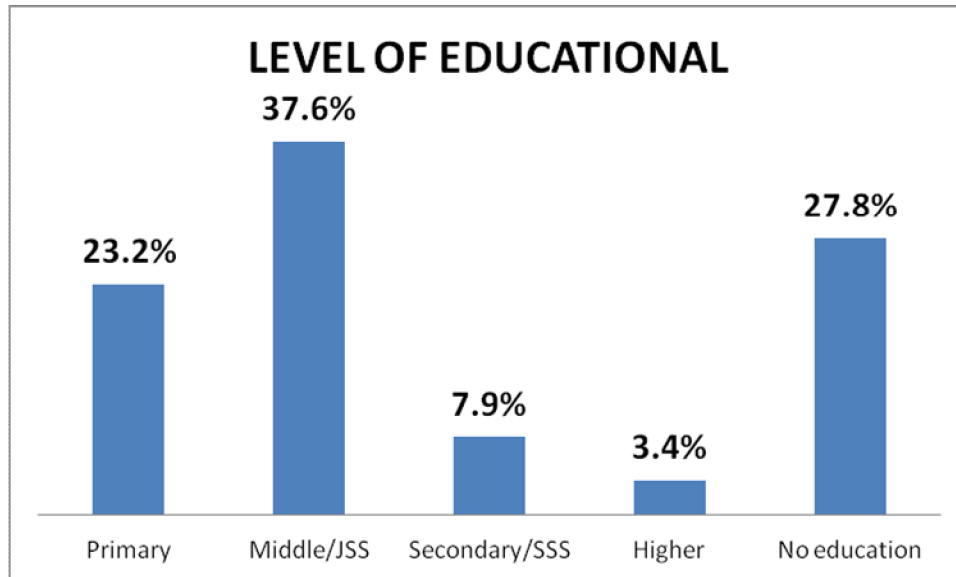
**Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008**

#### 4.1.5 Education

Education is one of the significant factors that influence an individual's behavior and responses. It is also an indicator for empowerment and represents an area in which women can potentially increase their options and opportunity. Knowledge, skills, influence attained through education can boost the confidence of women and strengthen their ability to resist violence. Education helps to improve women's status especially when they are able to acquire paid works hence making them less dependent on others. On the contrary lack of education is said to limit women's opportunities for employment and are left with the option of low paying jobs and unskilled laborers. From Table 4.5, majority of the respondents have attained primary (23.2%) and middle/JSS educational level (37.6%) constituting about half of the population. Very few of the women have higher education (3.4%). This may be due to the younger age at which women

marry, they may be unlikely to continue their education to either the Secondary school or tertiary level.

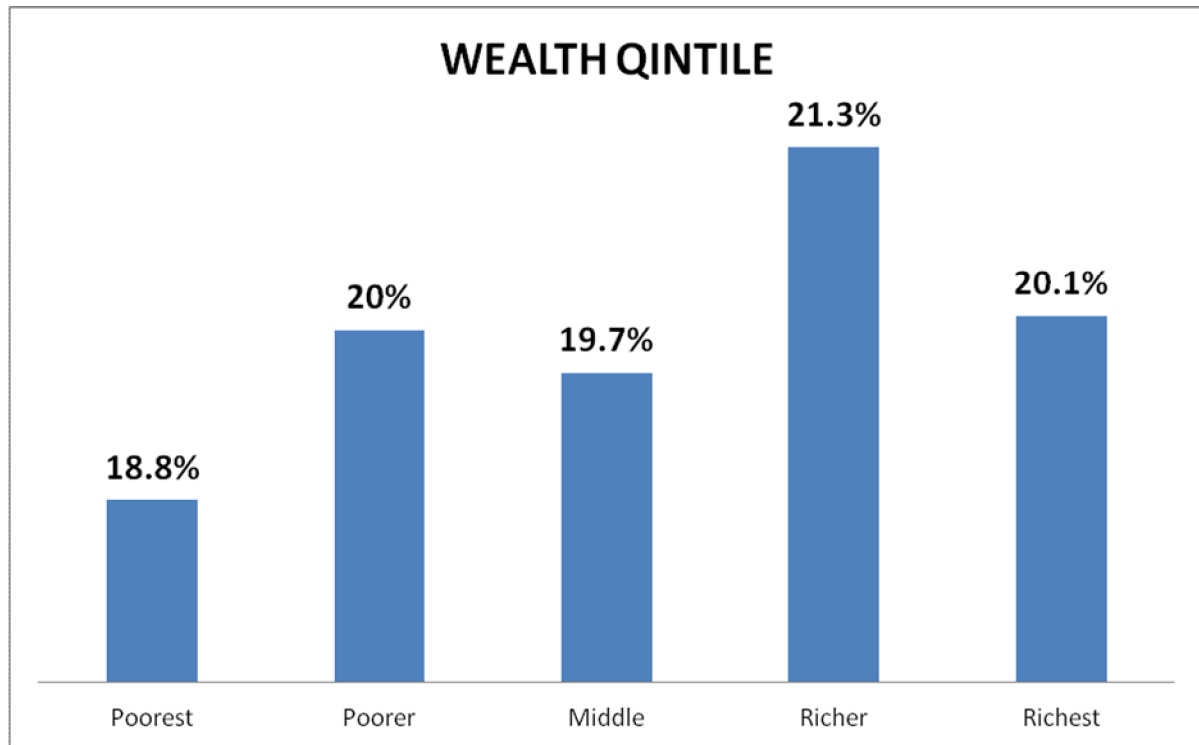
**Fig 4.6 Percentage distribution of women by educational attainment**



**Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008**

#### **4.1.6 Wealth quintile**

Wealth quintile may be a very important indicator of domestic violence. Many literatures have rarely isolated poverty as a sole indicator of violent behavior. It is therefore important to know the wealth status of our respondents in the status to give a vivid picture. Table 4.6 is a percentage representation of the wealth index of the participants. As shown in the table, the percentage of women who were rated as having the poorest wealth index was 18.8%, followed by 19.7% which represents those rated as having middle wealth index. The number of women constituting that of the poorer (20%), richer (20.1%), and richest (21.3%) categories were almost of the same percentages.

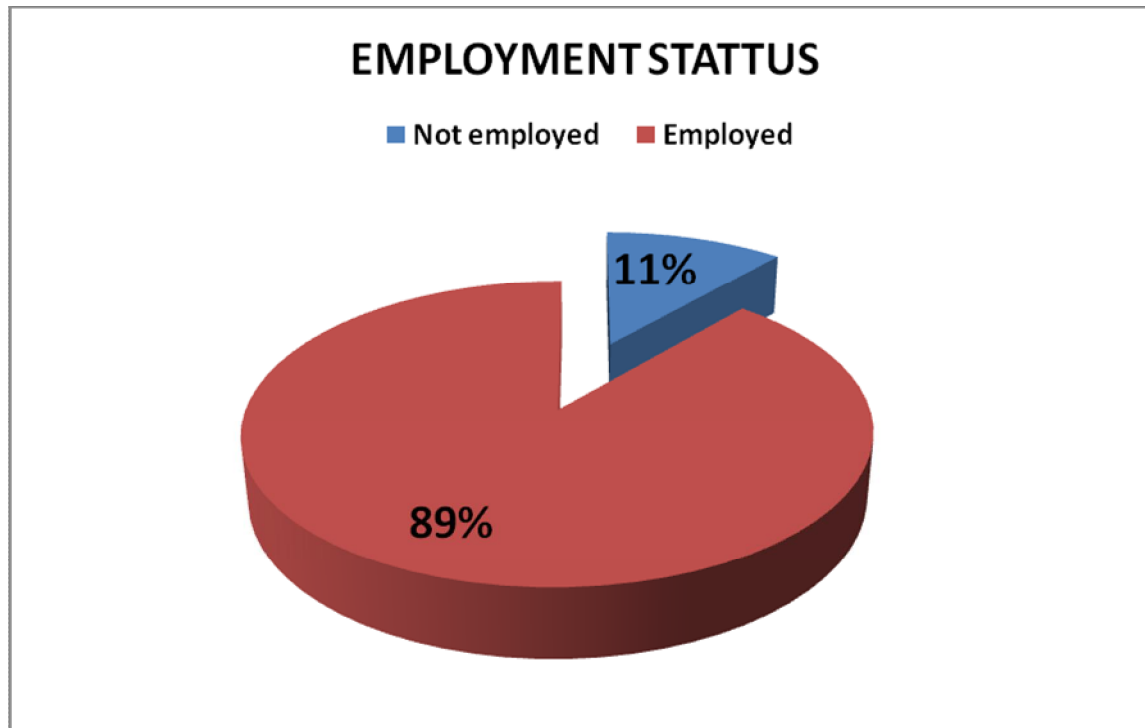
**Fig 4.6 Percentage distribution of women by their wealth quintile**

**Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008**

#### **4.1.7 Employment**

Employment is closely related to income and is often an indicator of a regular source of income and also an ability of one to afford some essentials and luxuries of living. Women who are not employed may depend largely on their partners for financial support. They may often expect their partners to purchase items for them. Often when there is too little money in the pocket the incidence of domestic violence is thought to increase. Women who are employed maybe less likely to experience domestic violence and also have high autonomy.

**Fig 4.8 Percentage distribution of women by employment status**

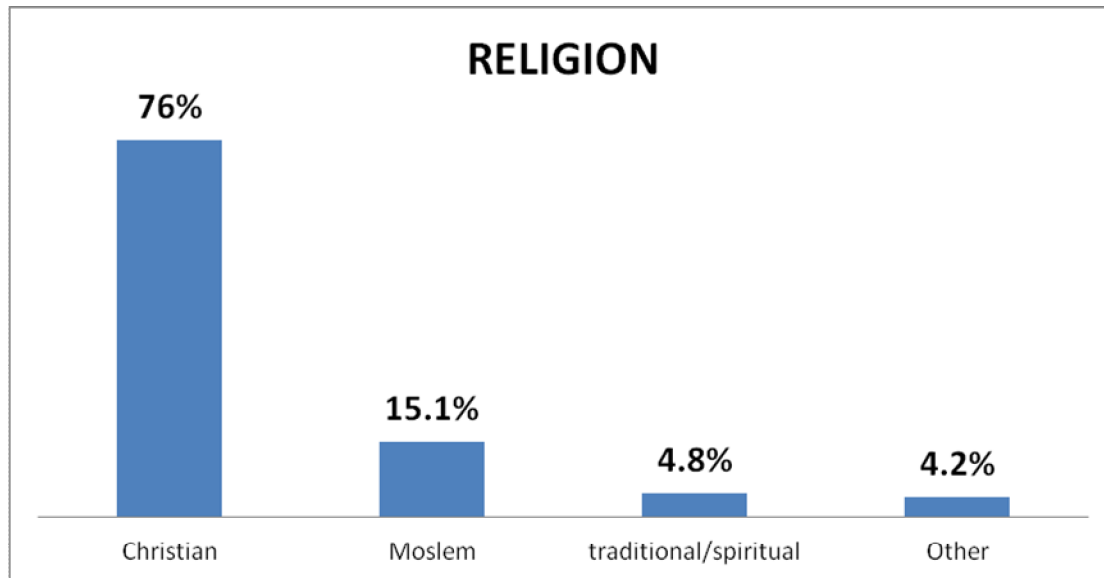


**Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008**

#### **4.1.8 Religion**

Battering exist across religious and faith system varying from abuse, intimidating fear and maintaining power in the relationship. Religious beliefs, traditions and teaching have been used to justify and condemn the use of violence against. There is also abundant evidence that religion can trigger violence (GSHRDC, 2009).

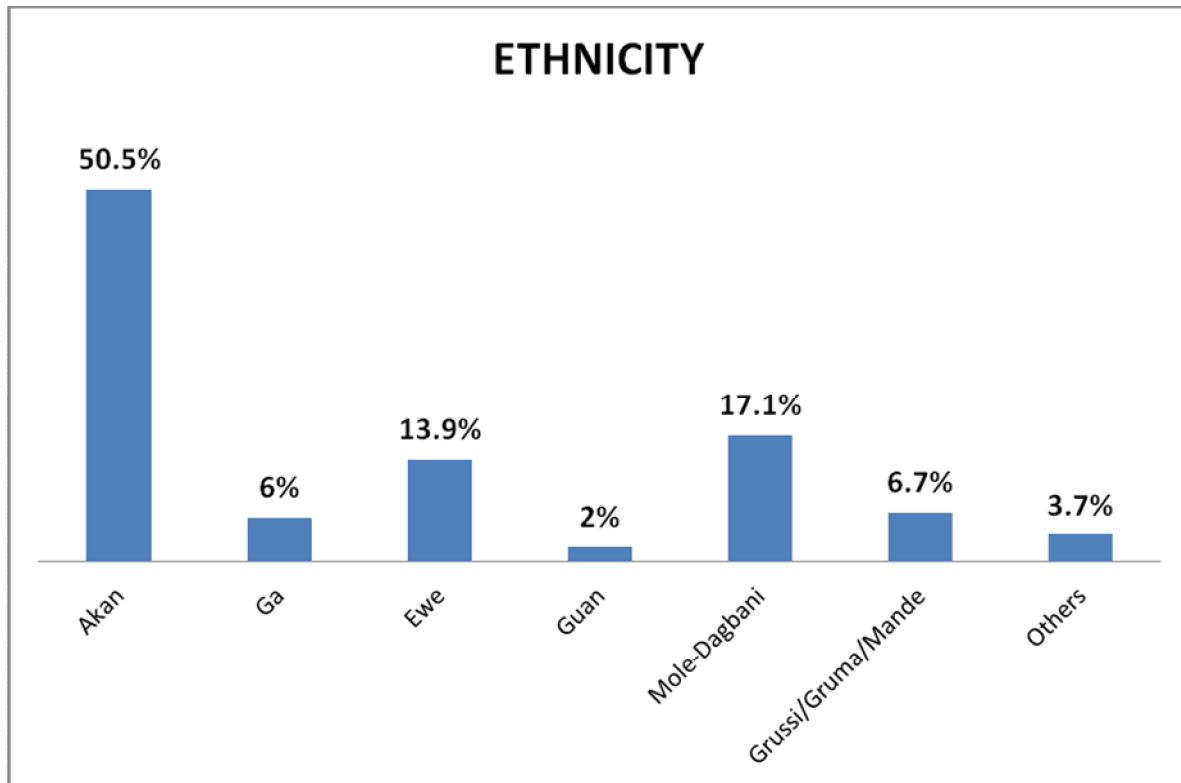
From the table 4.7 it is clear that majority of respondents were Christians constituting more than three quarters (76%). This is a reflection that majority of the population of Ghana are Christians. However 15.1% of the women were Muslims while the Traditional/spiritual (4.8%) and other religion (4.2%) constitute a smallest percentage.

**Fig 4.9 Percentage distribution of women by religious background**

**Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008**

#### **4.1.9 Ethnicity**

Many Ethnic groups in Ghana have many cultural practices that condone women's subordinate role within marriage and the society in general. However it is more predominant among some ethnic groups (such as the Grussi, Gruma) than others. This is as a result of cultural ideals about women and men that shape the expectations which act as pathways to violence. Among some cultures a level of violence is accepted for certain act committed by the woman. Below is a table showing the distribution of the respondents by their ethnic groups. From table 4.7, majority of the women who were interviewed were Akans constituting about half of the respondents (50.5%). The Ga and Ewe constituted only 6% and 13.9% respectively while the Northern part of Ghana including the Mole-Dagbani constituted 27.5%.

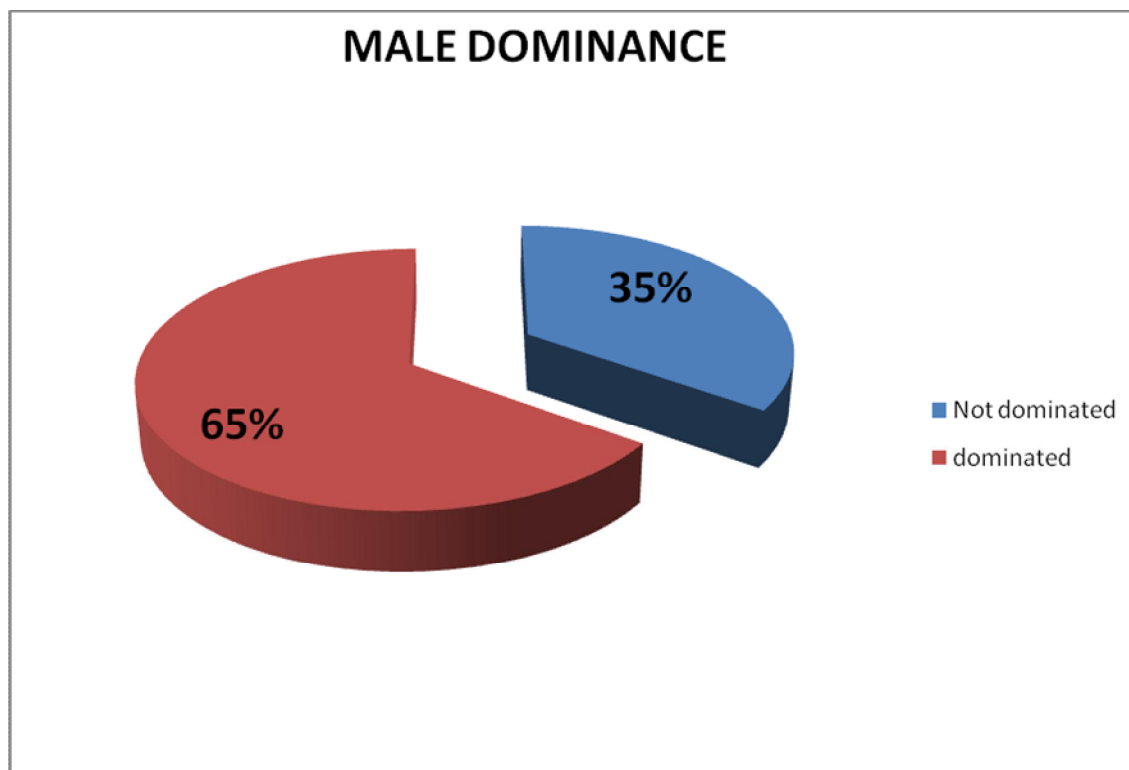
**Fig 4.10 Percentage distribution of respondents by ethnic groups**

**Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008**

#### **4.1.10 Male Dominance**

According to Yigzaw et al (2010), men have the right to control their wives behavior and women who tend to challenge that right are punished in many counties. They further added that, studies in several countries found it as a husband's right to correct their wife through violence. From the table more than half (65%) of the women experience any form of male dominance. Only 35% of the women said they do not experience any form of male dominance by their former or current partner. This means that most of the women in the study reported that they had experience any form of male dominance such. Such dominance may include husband/partner not allowing her to visit friends, families, going out without her permission etc.

**Fig 4.11 Percentage distribution of respondents by male dominance**



**Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008**

## CHAPTER FIVE

### THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WOMEN'S BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS AND DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

#### 5.0 INTRODUCTION

Domestic violence against women is determined by various social and demographic characteristics of the woman such as religious affiliation, age, employment status and so on. This chapter looks at the association between some demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of the woman and her experience of intimate partner violence.

#### 5.1 ANALYSES OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLES AND DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

The selected background characteristics of respondents have a direct effect on domestic violence. This section therefore examines the relationship between the independent variables and respondents experience of domestic violence.

##### 5.1.1 Current age of a woman and domestic violence

Evidence from the table has shown that there is no correlation between current age of a woman and domestic violence. In the Ghanaian society often respect is given to older women. However, when it comes to intimate relationships the situation may not be the same. Some research and reports indicated that younger women within the same age group 15-24, were most likely to experience physical violence (WHO 2002; Teifenthaler 1997; Osam, 2004). Table 3.1 shows the percentage distribution of physical violence by the age of the woman. From the table there is no significant association between physical violence and women's age. Women's age 45-49 experienced physical violence (24.2%) more than any other age group. While the least

percentage (16.8%) are experienced by women's age 30-34. This could be that women at that age may be more empowered and have fewer children.

**Table 5.1 woman's age and physical violence (% distribution)**

Age	Physical Violence %		Frequency
	Yes	No	
15-19	17.3	82.7	52
20-24	22.4	77.6	232
25-29	21.7	78.3	337
30-34	16.8	83.2	298
35-39	20.7	79.2	314
40-44	20.8	75.8	226
45-49	24.2	79.2	212
<b>Total</b>	<b>79.2</b>	<b>20.8</b>	<b>1671</b>
<b>Pearson Chi-Square= 24.292</b>	<b><math>\chi^2 = 5.290</math></b>	<b>df= 6</b>	<b>Sig= .507</b>

**Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008**

### 5.1.2 Employment status

The employment status of a woman may be an important factor that determines a woman's experience of domestic violence. When a woman is employed she may be less dependent on her husband. She may also contribute to increases household income. Some researchers have confirmed that household income is significant because women who tend to have earnings have income power and are less likely to be abused by their partner (Famer and Tiefenthaler 2000,). Similar research in South Africa also confirms that women who are economically independent are less likely to be abused (Bassadien and Hochfeld, 2005). The underlying assumption present in many theoretical arguments is that, women who are economically empowered tend to be less abused by their partners. This is because such women are not afraid to walk out of abusive relationship since they can do not depend on the man solely for financial support. From Table 3.2, 18.6% of the women who were employed compared to 21.1% who were not employed said they have experienced any form of physical violence before by their former husbands/current partners. This means that women who were not employed were 3% more than those who were employed to have admitted having experienced physical violence by an intimate partner. However the Pearson Chi-Square test did not indicate any significant relationship between the employment status of the woman and her experience of intimate partner violence (physical violence). This is contrary to what some literatures have deemed as a significant contributor to intimate partner violence.

Table 5.2 Percentage distribution of women by employment status

<b>Employment Status</b>	<b>Physical Violence (%)</b>		<b>Total</b>
	<b>Yes</b>	<b>N0</b>	
<b>Employed</b>	18.6	81.4	188
<b>Not Employed</b>	21.1	78.9	1671
<b>Total</b>	20.8	79.2	1671
<b>Chi-Square test</b>	$\chi^2 = 0.627$	<b>df= 1</b>	<b>Sig=0.429</b>

**Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008**

### 5.1.3 Ethnicity

Each ethnic group has values and cultures which may influence one's behavior and thoughts. According to the Population Reference Bureau's report on gender-based violence (2000), the complex nature of violence against women is deeply rooted in the way society is set-up; cultural beliefs, power relations, economic power imbalances, and the masculine ideal of male dominance. Domestic violence is wide spread but differs in cultural interpretations (Kerr, 1994).

Studies from focus group discussions in Ethiopia revealed that wife beating is most acceptable in most of their culture and done once in a while. Some reasons that were given to that were; 1)

their culture dictates that a man is above the woman and should discipline her, 2) some women intentionally annoy their husbands to test their strictness and love for them. If the husband does not beat or quarrel with them (the wives) they feel unimportant (UNFPA 2004).

According to Kerr (2004), culturally girls and boys are assigned to distinct social and cultural roles. However, girls' roles at the household level are usually major and often infringe on their rights. Often, girls are overburdened with household work such as collection of firewood, water and food as well as preparation and serving food.

From table 5.3, the Chi-Square test indicates that there is no significant relationship between the ethnicity and physical violence. Even though, studies done by the Gender Studies and Human Right Documentation Center, 2009, indicated that the Guans and ethnic groups from the Northern Ghana are more accepting of a man hitting his partner than the Ga-Damgbe, Akans and Ewes. However, the research result proves contrary which may be due to the small sample size of 1671 of women aged 15-49 and partly because the chi square test indicates that there was no significance. These finding from the GSHRDC 2009, differ from that which was used in this research in terms of context and in the kind of research method that was employed to yield such information.

Among the women who reported having experienced physical violence, the Akan women reported the highest percentage (22.6%), followed by the Ga (21.2%) and Guan (20.6%) accordingly. The Grusi/Gruma/Mole constitutes the least percentage (17.9%) of women who reported physical violence. However, there was no great disparity among the various categories of respondents who reported physical violence.

Table 5.3 Percentage distribution of respondents by ethnic affiliation

Ethnicity	Physical violence %		Frequency
	Yes	No	
Akan	22.6	77.4	844
Ga	21.2	78.8	99
Ewe	19.3	80.7	233
Guan	20.6	79.4	34
Mole-Dagbani	19.9	80.1	286
Grusi/Gruma/Mole	17.9	82.1	112
Other	9.7	90.3	63
<b>Total</b>	<b>20.8</b>	<b>79.2</b>	<b>1671</b>
<b>Chi-Square Test</b>	$\chi^2 = 7.422$	<b>df= 6</b>	<b>Sig=0.284</b>

Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008

#### 5.1.4 Type of place of residence

Type of place of residence refers to where respondents were staying at the time of the interview; either rural or urban which is a crucial factor in determining a woman's experience of domestic violence. Urban dwellers have easy access to educational and health facilities while rural communities have less provision of such services. Urban dwellers are therefore more informed

and have easy access to education and skills which intend are likely to make them more empowered. Lack of such opportunities for rural areas may make them less empowered and highly at risk of violence.

From the table 5.4, 22.2% of the women from the urban areas reported having experienced any form of physical violence within the past 12 months of the study compared to 19.8% in the urban area. This means that urban women compared to rural women are more likely to experience physical violence by their past husbands or current partners. However, from the chi-square test there is no significant relationship between the type of place of residence and a woman's experience of domestic violence.

Table 5.4 Percentage distribution of respondents by type of place of residence

<b>Residence</b>	<b>Physical violence %</b>		<b>Frequency</b>
	<b>Yes</b>	<b>No</b>	
<b>Urban</b>	22.2	77.8	712
<b>Rural</b>	19.8	80.2	959
<b>Total</b>	20.8	79.2	1671
<b>Chi-Square</b>	$\chi^2 = 1.402$		<b>Sig=.236</b>
		<b>df= 1</b>	

Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008

### 5.1.5 Region

Regions have characteristics according to the culture, tradition and norms of the people who occupy them. Region with a single ethnic group may have uniform culture and tradition. A region with ethnic group may exhibit different culture and tradition, attitudes norms and practices.

Table 5.5 is a table showing a percentage distribution of respondent by region to their experience of physical violence. From the table, women from the Western region constituted the least percentage (10.8%) of women who reported having being physically abused by their former or current partner. The region which constituted the highest percentage is that of Central region constituting 28% followed by Ashanti region (25.3%). The Chi-square significant test indicated that there is a very significant relationship between the regional location and physical violence. This may be due to the different cultural characteristics that differentiate one region from the other and hence may affect one behavior to be violent or not. Hence, women in regions which condone violence by men against women are more likely to report higher percentages than regions which do not.

Table 5.5 Percentage distribution of respondents by region

Region	Physical violence %		Frequency
	Yes	No	
Western	10.8	89.2	166
Central	28.3	71.7	152
Greater Accra	20.4	79.6	240
Volta	15.8	84.2	171
Eastern	18.3	81.7	153
Ashanti	25.3	74.7	328
Brong Ahafo	19.4	80.6	160
North	21.7	78.3	161
Upper East	21.7	78.7	94
Upper West	21.3	71.7	46
<b>Total</b>	20.8	79.2	1671
<b>Chi-Square</b>	$\chi^2 = 24.292$	df=9	<b>Sig=0.04</b>

Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008

### 5.1.6 Religion

Most religious communities have made public statement condemning domestic violence and the use of religious teachings to justify it (GSHRDC, 2009). However, religion and faith are part of the deeply held belief systems for many people and can play significant role in one's experience as a victim or survivors of domestic violence (NRCDV, 2007).

Table 5.6 also shows the respondents who have ever experienced any form of physical violence by religion of affiliation. From the table, 23% of the women from the traditional/spiritual religion constituted the highest percentage of women reporting physical violence by a former or current partner. This is followed by the Christian religion (21.3%). The least among them is that of the Muslim religion constituting 17.1%. This may be because of most of the Moslem women are in polygamous relationships and may be in competition with other women for their husband. Anecdotally, it is assumed that it make women in such relationships comport themselves towards their husband to win their love and attention however the men may not care how he treats the women anyhow because he has many wives. Due to this they are less likely to be abused by their husband. However, women in the Christian religion reported more violence probably because most of them are likely to be the only wife/partner of their husbands and are therefore more likely to be abused by their partners. The test did not show any significant relationship between religion and physical violence.

**Table 5.6 Percentage distribution of women by religion**

<b>Religion</b>	<b>Physical violence %</b>		<b>Frequency</b>
	<b>Yes</b>	<b>No</b>	
<b>Christian</b>	21.3	78.7	1269
<b>Moslem</b>	17.1	82.9	251
<b>Tradition</b>	23.8	76.2	80
<b>Others</b>	21.4	78.6	70
<b>Total</b>	20.8	79.2	1670
<b>Chi-Square</b>	$\chi^2 = 2.666$	<b>df= 3</b>	<b>Sig=0.446</b>

Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008

### 5.1.7 Marital Status

Table 5.6 shows the experience of physical violence by last husband/partner in relation to women's marital status. As expected, marital status shows a strong association with experience of physical violence. From the table 5.6, women who were formerly married reported the highest percentage (33.1%) of physical abuse than women who are currently married (18.7%). The reason could be that the women who are formerly married are women who have experienced conjugal stress including domestic violence which may have led to their separation or divorce with their partners/husbands. The chi-square test indicates that there is a significant relationship between domestic violence and the marital status of a woman.

Table 5.7 Percentage distribution of respondents by marital status

Marital status	Physical violence %		Frequency
	Yes	No	
Currently married	18.7	81.3	1425
Formerly married	33.1	66.9	246
<b>Total</b>	20.8	79.2	1671
<b>Chi-Square</b>	$\chi^2 = 26.004$	<b>df= 1</b>	<b>Sig=0.000</b>

**Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008**

### 5.1.8 Male dominance

From table 3.7, it interesting to know that majority of the women who reported having experienced any form of male dominance by their husbands reported the highest percentage of physical abuse. On the other hand only 8.6% of the women who did not experience any form of male dominance reported their experience of the abuse. It is clear from the table that there is a significant positive relationship between women who experience of violence and male dominance. This indicates that majority of women whose husband dominated them are more likely to abuse them maybe because some of them may go contrarily to the rules of their husbands/partners and therefore fall victim to the violence.

Table 5.8 Percentage distribution of respondents by male dominance

	Male dominance	Physical violence %		Frequency
		Yes	No	
	Not experienced male dominance	8.6	91.4	1353
	Within male dominance	27.4	72.6	1089
<b>Total</b>	% within male dominance	20.8	79.2	2442
<b>Chi-square</b>	$\chi^2= 81 .073$	<b>df= 1</b>	<b>Sig=0.000</b>	

**Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008**

### 5.1.9 Wealth index

From table middle income women reported the highest percentage (24.5%) of physical violence compared to the richest women reporting the least percentage (17.3%). However, there is no significant association between the wealth index of women and domestic violence.

Table 5.9 Percentage distribution of respondents by wealth Index

Wealth index	Physical violence %		Frequency
	Yes	No	
Poorest	20.4	79.6	314
Poorer	19.2	80.8	334
Middle	24.5	75.5	330
Richer	22.4	77.6	357
Richest	17.3	82.7	335
Total	20.8	79.2	1671
Total	20.8	79.2	1671
Chi-Square Test	$\chi^2 = 1.402$	df= 1	Sig=0.236

Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008

### 5.1.10 Education

Education is one of many tools for empowerment and represents an area in which women can potentially increase their options and opportunities.

From table 5.10 it is clear that there is a significant relationship between education and women's experience of domestic violence. Women with no education (19.4%), primary education (26%) and JSS (21.9%) experience the greatest percentage of domestic violence. On the other hand women with secondary (13.5%) and tertiary (3.4%) experience less violence. There is an inverse relationship between a woman's age and domestic violence. This indicates that women with higher educational status are less likely to experience domestic violence than women with no or primary education. This may be because women who are highly educated are well informed, attain influence, skills, resource and networks which enable them to increase their confidence to participate in decision-making. This in turn makes them to reject violence (GSHRDC, 2009).

**Table 5.10 Percentage distribution of respondents by their educational status**

Educational status	Physical Violence%		Frequency
	Yes	No	
No education	19.4	80.6	464
Primary	26	74	389
JSS	21.9	78.1	627
Secondary	13.5	86.5	133
Tertiary	3.4	96.6	58
Total	20.8	79.2	1671
Chi-square	$\chi^2=22.159$	df=4	Sig=0.00

**Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008**

## 5.2 Summary of chapter five

In this chapter, the relationship between women's socio-economic and demographic characteristics was examined. The variables used in this study included the marital status, education, employment status, wealth quintile, ethnicity, religion, region, male dominance, and the type of place of residence of the women. However, not all the variables were significantly related to domestic violence. There was a significant relationship between region and domestic

violence. Similarly, the marital status and male dominance and the level of education of a woman were also significantly related to domestic violence.

At the bivariate level education, marital status, region of residence and male dominance were significant predictors of domestic violence. Women with higher educational status (secondary and beyond) were less likely to be abused as confirmed in the first hypothesis. Studies by Rumbold (2008), also confirmed the study results. Rumbold also said, the protective effect of education starts when women's education progress beyond secondary school. Similar studies by the WHO (2002) also confirmed the study results. Male dominance also confirmed what other literatures that have linked women who experience male dominance to be likely to experience domestic violence (Heise, 1998).

## CHAPTER SIX

### BINARY LOGISTIC ANALYSIS

#### 6.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, not all the socio-economic and demographic variables were significantly associated with domestic violence. However, it is important to examine the extent to which these variables together relate to domestic violence and the effect of the controlled variables.

In this chapter, further investigation would be made of the extent to which each independent variable will predict a woman's likelihood of experiencing domestic violence when other variables are controlled. Binary logistic model was employed in the analysis. The binary logistic model was employed because the dependent variable which is the domestic violence is grouped into two categories; Yes and No. For each independent variable, one sub category was selected as the reference categories. The results are presented in odds ratios which expresses the magnitude of the effect of each category on domestic violence.

- The first table 6.1 shows the odd ratios for independent variables with the exclusion of the control variables to domestic violence
- The second table (Table 6.2) shows only the odds ratios of the control variable (male dominance) to the dependent variable.
- The last table (Table 6.3) shows the odds rations of the independent variables with the inclusion of the control variable to the dependent variable.

Table 6.1 Binary Logistics regression of independent variable and domestic violence excluding MD (control variable).

<b>INDEPENDENT VARIABLES</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>S.E</b>	<b>EXP(B)</b>
<b>Urban (RC)</b>			<b>1.000</b>
Rural	-.414	.174	.661**
<b>15-19 (RC)</b>			1.000
20-24	.537	.411	1.711
25-29	.558	.403	1.747
30-34	.127	.413	1.135
35-39	.353	.407	1.423
40-44	.306	.417	1.358
45-49	.444	.420	1.560
<b>Poorest (RC)</b>			<b>1.00</b>
Poorer	-.204	.231	.815
Middle	.019	.243	1.019
Richer	-.168	.269	.846
Richest	-.227	.316	.797
<b>No education (RC)</b>			<b>1.000</b>
Primary education	.324	.200	1.382
JSS	-.022	.206	.978**
Secondary	-.657	.324	.518***
Higher education	-2.197	.806	.111
<b>Not employed (RC)</b>			1.000
Employed	.147	.210	1.158

\*=P< 0.1 \*\*=P<0.05 \*\*\*=P<0.001 RC= Reference Category,

Nagelkerke R square=.094

Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008

Continuation of table 6.11 í í .

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	B	S.E	EXP(B)
<b>Christian</b>			<b>1.00</b>
Muslim	-.395	.249	.674
Traditional\Spiritual	.166	.311	1.180
Other	-.129	.316	.879
<b>Akan (RC)</b>			<b>1.000</b>
Ga	-.101	.297	.904
Ewe	.039	.260	1.040
Guan	-.096	.478	.909
Mole- Dagbani	-.423	.308	.655
Grussi\Gruma\Mande	-.598	.347	.550
Other	-.828	.472	.437
<b>Currently married (RC)</b>			<b>1.00</b>
Formerly married	.696	.167	2.006***
<b>Western (RC)</b>			<b>1.00</b>
Central	1.274	.316	3.574***
Greater Accra	.900	.327	2.460***
Volta	.508	.387	1.662
Eastern	.689	.337	1.992**
Ashanti	1.089	.287	2.972***
Brong Ahafo	.844	.331	2.326**
Northern	1.604	.406	4.971***
Upper East	1.334	.459	3.795***
Upper West	1.948	.486	7.012***
<b>Constant</b>	-2.393	.559	<b>.091***</b>

\*=P< 0.1 \*\*=P<0.05 \*\*\*=P<0.001 RC= Reference Category,

Nagelkerke R square=.094

Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008

<b>Table 6.2 Binary Logistic regression of male dominance and domestic violence</b>			
<b>CONTROL VARIABLE</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>S.E</b>	<b>EXP(B)</b>
<b>Male dominance</b>	-1.409	<b>.088</b>	<b>.244***</b>
<b>Constant</b>	.433	<b>.056</b>	<b>1.543***</b>

\*=P< 0.1 \*\*=P<0.05 \*\*\*=P<0.001 RC= Reference Category,

Nagelkerke R square=.142

Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008

<b>Table 6.3 Binary Logistics Regression of Independent Variables with the Control Variable and Domestic Violence</b>			
<b>INDEPENDENT VARIABLES</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>S.E</b>	<b>EXP(B)</b>
<b>Urban (RC)</b>			<b>1.000</b>
Rural	-.393	.178	.675**
<b>15-19 (RC)</b>			1.000
20-24	.487	.416	1.628
25-29	.535	.408	1.707
30-34	.062	.419	1.064
35-39	.329	.413	1.390
40-44	.351	.424	1.420
45-49	.603	.427	1.828
<b>Poorest (RC)</b>			<b>1.000</b>
Poorer	-.271	.236	.763
Middle	-.069	.249	.933
Richer	-.238	.277	.788
Richest	-.330	.326	.719
<b>No education (RC)</b>			<b>1.000***</b>
Primary education	.205	.207	1.227
JSS	-.111	.213	.895
Secondary	-.715	.329	.489**
Higher education	-2.090	.813	.124**
<b>Not employed (RC)</b>			1.000
Employed	.196	.214	1.217

Continuation of Table 6.31 í í í í .

<b>Variables</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>S.E</b>	<b>EXP(B)</b>
<b>Christian (RC)</b>			1.000
Muslim	-.465	.255	.628
Traditional\Spiritual	.156	.318	1.169
Other	-.150	.325	.860
<b>Akan (RC)</b>			<b>1.000</b>
Ga	-.079	.308	.924
Ewe	.244	.272	1.277
Guan	-.078	.490	.925
Mole- Dagbani	-.371	.319	.690
Grussi\Gruma\Mande	-.55	.355	.597
Other	-.685	.480	.504
<b>Currently Married (RC)</b>			<b>1.00</b>
Formerly married	.664	.172	1.943***
<b>Western (RC)</b>			<b>1.00***</b>
Central	1.010	.322	2.745***
Greater Accra	.801	.332	2.229*
Volta	.343	.400	1.409
Eastern	.689	.345	1.992*
Ashanti	.971	.292	2.642***
Brong Ahafo	.546	.337	1.727
Northern	1.268	.416	3.554**
Upper East	1.046	.475	2.846**
Upper West	1.374	.498	5.682***
MD(1)	-3.201	.171	3.952

Continuation of Table 6.3í í í ..			
	<b>B</b>	<b>S.E</b>	<b>EP(B)</b>
<b>Constant</b>	-3.201	.583	.041

\*=P< 0.1 \*\*=P<0.05 \*\*\*=P<0.001 RC= Reference Category,

Nagelkerke R square=.164

Source: Computed from the GDHS 2008

## 6.1 DISCUSSIONS

Binary logistics is employed in order to examine the extent to which the independent variables are associated with the dependent variable (domestic violence).

The output above shows the odds ratio, Standard error and confidence interval for all the independent variables

The first model was without the control variable (MD) as shown in Table 6.1. In this model the significant variables which were identified were 1) education, 2) type of place of residence, 3) marital status and 4) regional locations. In the second model (as shown in Table 6.2), the control variable (male dominance) was included in the model. Here, variables which were significant in the first model were still significant at this level including the control variable. However the Nagelkerk R square increased from .093 to .164. Indicating that for the first model 9% of the variation in the dependent variable was explained by the independent variables compared to 16% in the second model. Since in the second model, thus the inclusion of male dominance did not significantly change the independent variables, it is prudent to consider the second model.

From Table 6.3, the age of a woman whether older or younger, does not influence the probability of her experiencing domestic violence. Again, wealth quintile, employment status, religion and the ethnicity of a woman also does not significantly predict a woman's experience of domestic violence. Variables which were significant were the education, region, marital status, type of place of residence of a woman as well as their experience of male dominance.

### 6.1.1 Education

The educational status of a woman was significantly associated with domestic violence. This was significant at a P-Value of 0.003 ( $P < .001$ ). From Table 6.3, it is clear that, women who have educational status up to secondary school and higher are less likely to experience intimate partner violence. However, Women with primary education are .322 more likely to experience domestic violence compared to women with no education. On the other hand women who have attained educational status up to the Junior Secondary (JSS) level are .895 times less likely to experience domestic violence. Similarly, women who have attained secondary and tertiary/higher level are .489 and 0.124 less likely to experience domestic violence compared to women who have no education.

Studies by the GSHRDC (2009) have also demonstrated that there is a significant relationship between educational attainment of a woman and her experience of domestic violence. Their studies also confirmed that women who have educational status secondary and above are less likely to experience domestic violence compared to women with no education. The WHO (2005) multi country study on women's health and domestic violence against women, also found that higher education was associated with less violence in many settings (such as urban Brazil, Namibia, Peru, Tanzania etc). Some research also suggests that women's education has a protective effect even when controlling for income and age. Some possible explanations could be that women with higher education have greater range of choice in partners and more ability to choose to marry or not. In the same way they are able to negotiate greater autonomy and greater resource within marriage. Similarly, such women are less dependent on their partners for financial needs. Since poverty has been rarely left out in the study of DV it is important understand that women who have higher education are able to secure themselves with a more

formal and well paid job. According to GSHRDC (2009), education is one of the tools for empowerment. Women in this category are able to acquire skills, resources, networks. Additionally, education can facilitate women's participation in the economy and in part determines their status. However, some studies have found otherwise. Women with no education or educational status up to only the primary level limit their opportunities to be employed in well paid jobs in the formal sector. Their subsequent low economic status makes them vulnerable to domestic violence. It is evident that the educational status of a woman is inversely related to DV. This is consistent with other findings in other studies.

### **6.1.2 Type of place of residence**

The type of place of residence was significantly associated with domestic violence at a p-value of .027 (Sig=.05). Women who lived in rural areas were .675 times less likely to be abused by their partners compared to women in the urban areas. This was not consistent with a study by Treaster et al (2006). They found that in Kentucky, women from the rural areas are more likely to be abused and still stay in such abusive relationships compared to urban areas. According to them, because violent relationships have been prevalent across generations, the women perceived it as acceptable and part of life. In the same way, they stated that rural women often adhere to traditional gender roles and expectations which may allow them to overlook or accept controlling actions of their partners that others might deem it inappropriate or abusive. Findings were contradicting what Treaster et al found. This could be because, rural women as said earlier find some abusive act as normal and part of life and hence are not likely to report that. However because urban women tend to be more empowered they are more likely to report any abusive act compared to rural women.

### 6.1.3 Marital status

Marital status of woman significantly ( $\text{sig}=0.00$ ) related to their experience of domestic violence. Women who were formerly married were about 1.943 less likely to experience domestic violence than women who are currently married. This suggest that women who are formerly married may have escaped out of abusive relationships and therefore will be less likely to report any violent act by a partner. Studies have shown that women who are separated report higher lifetime prevalence of all forms of violence (Youngt, 2005).

### 6.1.4 Region

Again, the regional location of a woman was significantly ( $\text{Sig}=.008$ ) associated with domestic violence. Women who lived in Greater Accra Region, Volta Region, Eastern region and Brong Ahafo were less likely to experience domestic violence compared to women who lived in the Western Region of Ghana. On the other hand women from Ashanti, Northern, Upper East and Upper West are more likely to experience domestic violence compared to women in the Western Region. Eastern Region were about 30% ( $p<0.05$ ) less likely to experience domestic violence compared to Western Region while women from Greater Accra were 10% ( $p<0.01$ ) less likely to experience domestic violence compared to women from the Western Region. Again, women from Brong Ahafo were 20% ( $p<0.05$ ) less likely compared to women from the Western Region to experience domestic violence. On the other hand regions like Northern, Upper East, Upper West were 60%, 90% 30% more likely to experience domestic violence compared to women who lived in the Western Region at a significant level of about .00. However, women from the Volta region were 9% more likely to experience domestic violence compared to women from the Western region. The reason for the high prevalence of DV among the Northern, Upper East and Upper West region may be because women in such regions are mostly Muslims. The Muslim

religion practice polygamy and most women may not be the only wife/partner of their husbands. Anecdotally it is said that women who find themselves in such marriages are often not treated well by their husbands because the husband has other wives who are competing for his attention.

The reason why women from Greater Accra region may have reported the least could be because the region is highly urbanized, and more women in this part of the country have more opportunities to be educated and employed in the formal sectors. Such women are therefore more empowered and their status gain them respect from their spouse.

#### **6.1.5 Male dominance**

From the table we can see clearly that there is a positive relationship between male dominance and domestic violence. Male dominance was significant at (Sig=.000). Women who experience male dominance by their former or current husbands are more likely to experience domestic violence. These findings were consistent with studies by the GSHRDC (2009). They also found that most women required permissions from their partners before they undertake any responsibilities outside the home. In the same way, report by the WHO Multi-country study (2005), (using similar questions that was used in the study) affirmed that men who physically abuse their partners also exhibited higher rates of controlling behavior than men who do not. Their studies reported that the proportion of women reporting one or more of these form of dominance varied from 21% in Japan to 90% in Urban United Republic of Tanzania. This suggested the varying degree to which such behavior is acceptable in different cultures. In Ghana, similar studies have revealed that there significant relationship between male dominance and DV (GSHRDC, 2009).

## CHAPTER SEVEN

### SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATION AND CONCLUSION

#### 7.0 SUMMARY

The aim of this study is to explore the association between women's socio-economic and demographic characteristics and their experience of domestic violence. The study employed Binary logistic regression model using the Ghana Demographic and Health Survey 2008. The study used secondary data from 1671 number of women who were currently or formerly married/in union. Literature reviewed indicated that some background characteristics such as education, marital status, age, employment, etc. were related to domestic violence. The Ecological Community Organization model adapted in my framework also suggested that studies on intimate partner violence tabs into various levels in the environment in which the individual finds him/herself. These were categorized into Microsystems, Mesosystem, Exosystem, and Macrosystem. For the purpose of the studies the Microsystems consisted of the woman's **age, educational status, and employment status and wealth index**; the Mesosystem looks at the relationship between the woman and the abuser and the study focused on women who were abused by their intimate partners however the precise variable that was used to examine this was their **marital status** either currently or formerly married and secondly **male dominance**; the Exosystem comprised of the **region and type of place of residence** of the woman; Macro system included variable such as **ethnicity and religion**.

The relationship between women's characteristics and domestic violence was investigated through the following hypothesis; 1) women with higher educational status are less likely to be abused by their partners compared to women with no education 2) middle age women (30-39yrs)

are more likely to experience DV than the other age groups. 3) Women who are formerly married are more likely to experience DV than women who are currently married. However, only the first and third hypotheses were consistent with the findings in the study at both the bivariate and Multivariate level.

Percentage distribution of women showed that 57% of the women were from the urban areas and 85% were currently married. Again, among women aged 15-49, more than half (55%) were 34 and below. Women from the Ashanti region (19.6%) and Greater Accra region (14.4%) constituted the greatest percentage. 37% of the women had education up to the JSS level and about 3% had higher education. Similarly, 89% of the women said they were employed and 65% of the women claim to have experience any form of male dominance by their current or past partners. About three quarters of the women were Christians and about 50% were Akans.

Bivariate analysis using cross tabulation ascertained the relationship between domestic violence and background characteristics of women. The Chi-square was used to determine the level of significance of each Independent variable in association with the dependent variable. At a 95% Confident interval the educational status of the woman, Type of place of residence, region, marital status and male dominance were significant. 22.2% of women in the urban areas reported that they had been abused compared to 19% of rural women. Again, women from the central region reported the highest (28%) percentage of abuse among the regions. Similarly, 33% of formerly married women reported the abuse compared to 18.7% of currently married women. Also, 27% of women who said they had experienced any form of male dominance reported the abuse compared with 8.6% women who did not experience male dominance. Women who had attained primary education reported the highest (26%) level of the abuse compared to Tertiary educated women who reported the least (3.4%)

The multivariate logistic regression revealed that women's educational status, region and type of place of residence, marital status and their experience of male dominance was significantly associated with domestic violence. Women with secondary school level and above were less likely to experience domestic violence compared to women with no and primary education. Women in the rural areas were less likely to experience domestic violence compared to women in the urban areas. Again, domestic violence is high among women in the Northern, Upper East and Upper West region compared to women in the Western region.

### **7.1 RECOMMENDATION AND CONCLUSION**

There are a number of policy recommendations that could be drawn from the results of the study. Educational attainment of women is found to one of the most important factors that are associated with domestic violence. Lack of education is a factor that accounts for the higher probability of domestic violence against women in Ghana. Thus, promoting higher education among women is central to addressing problems of domestic violence in Ghana. Secondary and higher education was found to be of paramount importance in reducing DV. It is therefore prudent for policy makers to intensify the already started educational policies such as the school feeding programmes, free uniforms, etc. In the same way, adult literacy and education should be intensified.

Finally, from the Binary logistics/Multivariate regression, the Nagelkerke R square was .164 signifying that only 16% of the variation in the dependent variable was explained by the independent variables used in the model. This suggests that there are many more factors than can explain the cause of domestic violence (physical violence) in Ghana. These factors may include one's childhood experience of violence, or witness of such violent act among partners, infidelity, as well as alcohol and substance abuse amongst many.

Similarly, the widely shared perceptions that women are inferior to men and are obligated to submit to and remain subordinate to men perpetuate domestic violence in Ghana. Hence gender role stereotyping has been used to justify DV based on one's sexual construction (Chi et al, 2006).

Politically, Ghana has a long way to go to fully address domestic violence. Some pressing problems that were highlighted according to Chi et al, 2006, include: deficiencies in the Criminal Code; under- or discriminatory enforcement of existing laws; the influence of traditional attitudes about domestic violence on state officials such as police, judges and other government employees; and insufficient resources in the primary agencies.

This suggests that further research is need on domestic violence especially focusing on socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of both partners. Again, qualitative research must be encouraged in this area to be able to unearth the lived experiences of women on DV since this could not be shown using the quantitative method.

## **7.2 CONCLUSION**

The study has revealed that there is an important association between educational attainment of women and domestic violence. This is because education is one of the significant factors that influence an individual's behavior and responses. Female education equips women with skills, knowledge and makes them productive. Consequently, the higher the educational attainment of a woman, the less likely she is to experience DV. The study also revealed that the type of place of residence, region, marital status and male dominance were significantly associated with DV. The result upheld two of the three hypotheses. Women's educational status was inversely related to DV and women who are formerly married are more likely to report DV by their former husbands/partners than women who are currently married. However the study did not confirm one of the hypotheses that middle age women (30-39) are more likely to report being physically abused than women who are older. However, age was not significant in the test.

Domestic violence is a very crucial and complex issue in Ghana. From the study it is clear that more research need to be done using diverse indicators to identify certain characteristics of women that make them prone to DV. This study has done justice in contributing towards this goal.

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