Domestic Violence Incidence Impacting Socio-Economic Development of Rural Areas in Rwanda

Dr. Isaboke Peter Kennedy Nyataya, PhD
Senior Lecturer and Director of Academic Affairs and Quality Assurance, University of Tourism, Technology and Business Studies, Rwanda

*Corresponding Author: Dr. Isaboke Peter Kennedy Nyataya PhD, Senior Lecturer and Director of Academic Affairs and Quality Assurance, University of Tourism, Technology and Business Studies, Rwanda.

Abstract: The present study focused its attention on assessment of the impact of the incidence of domestic violence on the socioeconomic development rural areas in Rwanda, selecting Mwogo Sector of Bugesera District as the case study. The objectives of the study were to find out the causes of domestic violence in Mwogo Sector of Bugesera District, to analyse the setbacks in socioeconomic development of area selected for the study, as result of incidence of domestic violence and to investigate the impacts of the steps taken in combating domestic violence in the area. The study analysed the impact of domestic violence on the development of socioeconomic lives of the selected covering the period between 2012 and 2017. It targeted the total population of 4471 of the residents in the area, from whom 369 informants (households) and 1 cell officer were drawn to make the sample size of 370 respondents. Two other informants were purposively included: one from the Duhunurizanye Iwacu Community Sociotherapy whose daily concern was family conflict management and the social affairs officer from the sector level. As a descriptive study, interview guides and questionnaires were used collecting the required data for the study. Descriptive statistics as well as SPSS version 18 were used in data analysis process. The contribution of the present study to the existing body of knowledge is clearly noted, for the previous studies had focused on the impact of violence to the development of an area in general terms, the present study focused on the negative contribution of domestic violence to the welfare of the rural citizens. It also paved way for further researches to explore more on the issue. Besides, the study has provided vital information on the incidence of domestic violence drawn clear conclusions and put forwards suggestions that the government of the day, Community Based Organisations and other interested parties that can be made use of in the course seeking measures directed towards the control and prevention of the incidence of domestic violence in the selected area for the present study and its environs more so in rural areas.

Keywords: Domestic Violence, Impacting, Socioeconomic Development, Rural Areas

1. INTRODUCTION

Domestic violence is one of the human right transgressions that has ever existed in all societies around the world since time immemorial. Historically, domestic abuse has been viewed as normal behavior in marriage setting. It was not until towards the end of 1970 when domestic violence came to be defined as a crime, calling for interventional measures and mechanisms from criminal justice systems.

Domestic violence can be take shape of physical, verbal, emotional, economic and sexual abuse, which can range from complex and coercive forms to marital rape, violent physical abuse that can results into deformity or death. Studies have shown that about eighty five per cent of the offenses subsumed under the category of domestic violence, is violence between intimate partners, present or past husbands or boyfriends in which the victim is typically a woman and the offender typically a man, the rest of the parties include parents, siblings, in-laws, or roommates as Erez and Kessler (1997), observed.

According to the World Health Organisation (WHO), domestic violence is a global issue which affects innumerable people especially women and children. The UN Population Fund (2000) in their report, it was noticed that in Africa and Asia, beating or intimidating a woman by a husband is a deep socially held belief. Even in societies where women look to be enjoying the life they live, they tolerate some amount of violence against them from their husbands. The WHO (2005) in their study on
women’s health and domestic violence, found that 50% of women in Tanzania and 71% of women in Ethiopia’s rural areas reported that they experiences different forms of domestic abuse from their husbands or intimate partners.

In the East African region, domestic violence seems to be more bound to the culture than any other factor. US-Based Humana Right Watch (2004), in a study on domestic violence carried out in Uganda, noted that families treated women as domestic property through justifying that act of widows being compelled to be inherited by other males in the family due to the fact that dowry was paid to her family. In the case where a woman’s family is unable or unwilling to refund the paid dowry, she had to be beaten up by the relatives and forced her back.

In Rwanda, in general, domestic violence has been in existence for long and to some extent taken as cultural practice. In traditional Rwanda, it was strongly believed that, for example, a woman (wife) had to be beaten by her husband as a way of harmonising and strengthening the household. This is clearly highlighted by some Kinyarwanda proverbs such “Ntazibana zidakomanya amahembe (cohabiting cows must collide with their horns), uruwaze umugore ruvuga umuhoro (if a woman talks at home, expect a machete fight), just to mention a few, (Kananura, 1975). The Ministry of Gender and Family Promotion (2011) observed that other forms of domestic violence such as beating and physical injury of spouses, denial of property rights, verbal insults and psychological harassment are often viewed as normal part of family life. However, with the development of culture alongside with the evolution of human rights, the aforementioned cultural practice has turned to a legal issue ratified and supported by the Government of Rwanda and legal partners.

Waite (2009) conducted a study on domestic violence in Rwanda that revealed that domestic violence is worrisome issues in Rwanda though the present statistics do not indicate for a number of incidents good go unreported for various unmentioned reasons. Hence, the numbers may be significantly higher than shown by the data despite the degree of the incidence has been on an increasing trending ever since the 1994 genocide. The Rwandan Parliament had not put any law in place forbidding the incidence of gender-based violence until October 2008. Hence, is against that said backdrop that the present researcher decided to conducted the present study with a view to finding out the nature of impact that can be brought about by domestic violence incidence on the development agenda of the residents of Mwogo Sector, a rural area of Bugesera District, that can lead to the generalisation of the results obtained to the rest of the country. Besides, the researcher took noted of the initiatives the Government of Rwanda has made so far aimed at mitigating, controlling and preventing the incidence of domestic violence in the selected area covered in the study.

1.1. Statement of the Problem

(Kruegar and Maleckova, 2002), have pointed out that the incidence of domestic violence may come into being as a result of economic or non-economic factors or the combination of the two depending on the character or type of violence Manifestations of domestic violence may be comprise gender based violence, rape, sexual assault and harassment, exploitation, women and girls trafficking, exclusion from social participation and other denial of rights and discrimination that might have harmful implications to the victims, the majority of whom are found to be women and children. Demographic Health Survey (2010), noted that the number of women who had gone through physical abuse was between 35% and 46% in Kigali City and Eastern Province respectively. Rwanda National Police Report, (2016) noted that over hundred and forty two (142) victims of domestic violence: 78 of them being women whereas the remaining were men. Again, noted was the fact that out of the aforementioned number, 45 women and 19 men were killed by their spouses whereas eight men and two women had committed suicide. Rwanda National Police Report (October 2017, Bugesera District), indicated that there were forty three incidents of domestic violence which were reported and recorded, out of which 12 of them were women, 28 girls, 2 men and 1 boy. The report, too, show that 565 girls aged between 12 and 18 conceived through the incidents of domestic violence in the first nine month of the year 2017.

It is worth noting here that a number of researches have been conducted in the present field, however, not many have been carried out with a view to establishing the impact the incidence of domestic violence has had on communities in Rwanda particularly those living rural areas. Therefore, it is against the mentioned background the researcher chose to conduct the present study.
1.2. Objectives of the Study

The present study was conducted mainly to assess how the incidence of domestic violence has impacted social and economic lives of the residents of Mwogo Sector of Bugesera District. The specific objectives were: to find out the types and causes of incidence of domestic violence in the selected area for the study; to identify the nature of setbacks the incidence has had on socioeconomic lives of the residents of the area, besides, seeking to know measures that have been taken by various agencies with a view to preventing and controlling the incidence in the area covered under the study.

1.3. Significance of the Study

The findings of the present study may serve as eye-opener not only to various stakeholders in understanding the socioeconomic impact the incidence of domestic violence has had on the residents of Mwogo Sector in particular and its surrounding environs in general, Bugesera District and beyond. Too, both the Local Government and National Government of Rwanda and respective partners may benefit from the contents of the study. Besides, facilitating and providing guidance to future researchers, scholars, planners and the would-be development partners on their intervention efforts. The findings, may also serve as conscious-awareness raising approach to the residents of the area on the incidence of domestic violence, its causes and on how it can effectively be controlled and prevented through collective efforts.

1.4. Limitation of the study

The finding of the present study are mainly applicable to the Mwogo sector of Bugesera District, however, the effects of spill-overs may not be ruled out for those who live in the area may not necessarily be area permanent residents. Moreover, as Philosopher Aristotle put it, “Man is a social animal”.

1.5. Scope of the study

The study was conducted with a view to understanding of the impact of the incidence of domestic violence on socioeconomic lives of residents of Mwogo Sector of Bugesera District. Its main focus on women and children and observed in terms of social and economic aspects of their life, for almost in all the patriarchal societies of the world, Rwanda inclusive, women are noted to be loyal to their husbands and children are often under the authority of their parents. Domination and praise of incidence of domestic violence are some of the key characteristics of patriarchal societies in which women and children depend on men who are entrusted with all power and take full control of all the available resources. Women and children are taken as the objects and men as subjects. In such a relationship full of domination and submission, there is no true mutual care, only the dominants’ needs are attended by the subordinates, Carolyn (1993), observed. The reference period of the study was fours, 2012-2017, selected due to the fact that it is a period in which Government of Rwanda was seen to have increased its efforts directed towards the prevention and control of the incidence of domestic violence with increased care, initiatives and measures such as the the birth of Parents’ Evenings Forum in 2013 (Umugoroba W’Ababyeiyi) and Isange One Stop Center in 2014 in Bugesera District. Besides, the incidence of domestic violence was included in the District Performance Contracts (Imihigo) in 2015, among others.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Domestic Violence

Montgomery (2010) noted that domestic violence is the practice of abuse against someone especially an intimate partner, children and/or any other family member in a domestic setting where victims are criticised by their partners or spouses for the small things, the victim is forced to have sex against her will, the blame for the violent outbursts is placed on the victims and the victims are controlled by their spouses or partners. Montgomery, further, adds that the uses of medications are monitored by his or her abusers, property of value to the victim is spoilt by the abuser, and threats are made against the victim and other members of their family. To WHO (2012), the term ‘domestic violence’ is used to refer to partner violence but it can also encompass child or elder abuse or abuse by any member of a household. WHO (quoted in Heise and Garcia-Moreno, 2012), views domestic violence as Intimate Partner Violence and takes it as any behavior within a present and/or former intimate relationship that causes physical, psychological (emotional), sexual or economic harm.
2.1.1. Forms of Domestic Violence

Domestic violence may take different forms depending on how it is exercised. These include physical abuse, sexual abuse and marital rape, emotional abuse and economic abuse.

a) Physical Abuse

Physical abuse is that kind of abuse which involves contact intended to cause pain, injury and/or other physical suffering. (Chhikara et al., 2013) mentioned types of contact that result in physical injury to the victim like slapping, choking, beating, punching, burning, pushing and others as part of domestic violence. He further argued that physical abuse can also include behaviors such as refusing the victim access to medical care, depriving them of sleep or other functions necessary to live, or forcing the victim to engage in drug or alcohol use without their consent.

b) Marital Rape (Sexual Abuse)

According to Russell (1990), marital rape is when a husband forces his wife to engage in sexual activity against her will where intimidation or physical violence may be used. Sexual abuse or Marital rape has been a global problem which affected family members especially women and children worldwide since time immemorial. Marital rape often coexists with other violent forms of control in marriage: beatings, torture, sexual abuse and psychological control, which generally implies that marital rape will be found more often in relationships that are also physically abusive as pointed out by Bennice and Resnick (2003).

c) Emotional Cum Psychological Abuse

Emotional abuse (psychological or mental abuse) can include shaming the victim privately or publicly, taking full control over the victim, denying access to information, doing something to make the victim feel diminished or embarrassed intentionally, isolating the victim from friends and family, implicitly blackmauling the victim by harming others when the victim expresses independence or happiness (Chhikara et al., 2013). Further, they added that women or men experiencing emotional abuse often suffer from depression, which puts them at increased risk for suicide, eating disorders, and drug and alcohol abuse. Absolutely, this type of violence has impact on the development of the household since one of the partners is psychologically disturbed and undoubtedly, the other side cannot also function because he or she is busy maltreating the partner.

d) Economic Abuse

Economic abuse is that type of abuse when one intimate partner has control over the other partner's access to economic resources. It leads the victim to financially depending on the perpetrator. Weaver et al.(2009) argued that it is a type domestic violence that impacts a person financially and weakens his/her efforts to become economically impeccable. This implies that the victim is likely to end in a poverty trap. All these studies undoubtedly implicitly reveal the truth that the victim suffering of economic abuse is fully dependent, too, introverts suffers of psychological abuse or other types of abuse as seen above.

2.1.2. Development

Sen (1999) pinpoints that development should be justified through the impacts it makes on people, in terms of changes in their income and more so, in their choices, capabilities and freedoms. Sen, further, adds that development has to be more striving to enhance the lives we lead and help us enjoy the freedoms we deserve. Myint (1980) considers development as a two-fold approach in that it should fight against poverty as one approach, and analyze long-term economic and social change as the second approach. This means changes should be sustainable not just for one day or a limited time. Todaro and Smith (2011) identified three objectives of development: uplifting people’s living standards (income, eating, levels of food, medical services, good education); creating favourable conditions to the growth of people’s self-confidence through putting in place social-economic and political systems, besides, institutions which promote human dignity and respect and then increasing peoples’ freedom to choose by expanding the range of their choices.

a) Socioeconomic Development

Socioeconomic development is the process of social and economic development which aims at putting people in a position to enjoy the life they are meant to live. Morris (2010) states that social development is
the combination of basic needs, organizational, technological, and cultural achievements through which people eat, dress, shelter and produce hence helping them understand the world around them, solve problems within their societies, and defend themselves against others’ attempts to extend power. On the other hand, economic development refers to growth together with qualitative changes in the structure of production and employment generally known as structural change. Fitzgerald and Leigh (2002) notes that economic development protects and lifts the community’s standard of living through developing human and physical infrastructure based on principle of equity and sustainability. So, these two processes are interrelated in nature and always go hand in hand.

When it comes to the combination of the two, Madan (2002) affirms that socioeconomic development is made of access to resources, health, education and greater income equality. In brief the quality of life is justified by the level of socioeconomic development of people. Socioeconomic development brings about sustainability to society, that is, promotes human worth by empowering marginalised groups to carry out their own development and improve their living standards hence taking their rightful place in society (Bilance, 2007). The World Bank compliments with Mynt’s (1980) previous affirmation that poverty should not only looked at in the angle of low income but also vulnerability, discrimination, lack of accountability, and exposure to violence. Taking into account the meaning of socioeconomic development according to all these theories, social development is all about having freedom to make right choices of how one wants to live within the society that is being independent without compromising with the rights of others.

2.1.3. Causes of Domestic Violence

UNICEF Innocent Research Center (2000) notes that domestic violence is multi factorial not just one factor; these include social and economic forces, the family where power relations are, belief in patriarchy and laws and cultural sanctions that have traditionally deprived women and children of an independent legal and social status.

WHO in their Cross-National Report quoted in García-Moreno (2013), stated that many of the factors influenced domestic violence including alcohol abuse, cohabitation, as well as childhood history of abuse across cultures and nations Gass (2011), and viewed low socioeconomic status as one of main factor of committing domestic violence by either men or women. Factors at the individual level include childhood abuse in either the perpetrator’s or the victim’s experience as Herrenkohl (2004), pointed out, which leads to the embrace of social norms of patriarchy hence tolerating violence in close relationships.

2.1.4. Impacts of Domestic Violence

Family wellbeing is a multidimensional, dynamic and highly complex concept (Wollny, Apps and Henricson, 2010). Domestic violence has significant economic costs in terms of expenditures on service provision, lost income for the victim and their families, decreased productivity, negative impacts on future human information (WHO 2013) as quoted in (Duvvury et al., 2013). According to the report by WHO (ibid.), Intimate Partner Violence has immediate impacts in terms of missing work, poor physical and mental health status, out of pocket expenditures for accessing services, and replacement costs. It equally has long-term impacts on outcomes such as accumulation of education, skills and experience within the workforce. Victims with abusive partners most of the time face enormous threats to their financial well-being hence banning them from realizing their personal financial potential. With this, it appears to be hard for the family to develop since one of the partners is not productive enough hence the family being caught in the poverty trap (Adams 2013).

African women manifest lots of psychological disorders resulting from domestic violence. In Rwanda, women suffering from domestic violence meet criteria for psychiatric disorders, the most prevalent being depression (Umubyeyi, Mogren, Ntaganira and Krantz 2014). Reproductive health is also another concern as it can be affected negatively by domestic violence in several ways ranging from raising the risk of sexually transmitted infections to threatening a pregnancy (Hathaway et. al, 2005). Domestic violence is associated with sexually transmitted infections which are seen as potential gateways to HIV infections (Abu-Raddad et al. 2008). Perry (2005), observed that a growing evidence that infants and young children are at high risk of negative impacts to their emotional, cognitive and attachment development. Further, added that when exposed to environment of violence, signs of stress, long lasting fear and physical threat which may lead them to responding with a hyper-arousal response that may lead to behavioural problems.
2.1.5. Efforts Made Towards the Control and Prevention of Domestic Violence

The incidence of domestic violence has been observed experienced in all cultures worldwide and hence, efforts have made at different levels directed towards its control and prevention as noted below.

a) International Efforts

The World Conference on Human Rights held in Vienna in 1993 recognised that the rights of women and girls are part and parcel of universal human rights. The United Nations General Assembly, in December 1993, adopted the Declaration on Elimination of Violence against Women. It was the first international human rights instrument to deal exclusively with violence against women, a breaking document that became the basis for a number of other parallel processes which cover the incidence of domestic violence, too.

The World Conference on Children’s Rights (1990, Article 49) stated clearly that recalling that, in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the United Nations has proclaimed that special attention, care and assistance should be taken for children; the family, as the fundamental and natural environment for the right growth of children, should be afforded the necessary protection and assistance so that they can fully assume their responsibilities within the community. Further, added that for the full and harmonious development of their personality, should grow up in an atmosphere of happiness, love and understanding. Hence, this means that a child should be fully prepared to live individual life in society and be brought up in the spirit of peace, dignity, tolerance, freedom, equality and solidarity.

b) Regional Efforts

The African Union (2002) adopted gender equity principle in its first summit that places gender equality as one of its fundamental principles with a condition that one in five members of the Pan-African Parliament should be a woman. In 2003, African Governments adopted a protocol to the charter on Human and People’s Rights in which they committed themselves to ending discrimination and violence against women, which was viewed as fight against domestic violence which victims are mainly women and children. The African Gender Equality and Women’s Right Monitor (AGM) initiative was established by gender activists in Africa supporting the fight for women emancipation and eradication of all forms of discrimination and abuse in order to raise women’s rights as part of human rights. On the realisation that, the majority of the victims of domestic violence are women followed by children, the African Union (AU) in 1990 started the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child which came into force in 1999. Article11 of the charter on children’s education as one of the rights where personality and talents, intellectual and physical abilities have to be developed to their fullest. It is further noted that the education should be directed towards safeguarding and reinforcing positive African morals, values and cultures. Member countries were encouraged to take necessary steps to ensure that female, gifted and vulnerable children in all sections of communities are provided with equal opportunities with a view to developing themselves.

c) Sub-Regional Efforts

It is worth noting that the East African community (EAC) has made tremendous progress towards promoting gender equality, equity and women’s empowerment as enshrined in Articles 5, 3 (e); 6 (d); 121 and 122 of the Treaty for the establishment of the community. It highlights gender mainstreaming and respect for women’s rights as one of the fundamental principles to govern the EAC integration process. The treaty emphasises on the role of women on social and economic development as core issue to effective cooperation and development of the Partner States (EAC Report 2012). In December 2010 the EAC Council established the Sectorial Council on gender, youth, children, social protection and community development to spearhead actions in relation to problems affecting social welfare, including children’s rights (EAC Council, 2010). In 2012, the EAC held its first Child Right Conference in Bujumbura and the conference emphasised on the strengthening of EAC Child Rights policy (EAC Report, 2012).

d) National Government of Rwanda’s Efforts

The Government of Rwanda (Vision 2020) identifies gender inequality as a key cross-cutting issue and commits Rwanda’s policy-makers to integrate gender into all development policies and strategies (MINECOFIN, 2002). In 2007, the Constitution of the Republic of Rwanda put in place Gender...
Monitoring Office (operationalised in 2009) with a view to monitoring gender mainstreaming in all public, private, civil society and religious-based institutions and organisations. Today, as observed, the gender mainstreaming witnessed across the country can be directly related to the work of this institution that is dedicated to ensuring that the laws and policies are effectively implemented. As regards to the incidence of domestic violence committed against children, the Government has established national legislation promoting children’s rights and prohibiting child labour and they include: Rwandan Constitution of 2003 as amended to date which puts particular emphasis on children’s protection; (Rwandan Constitution, 2015); Law no 13/2009 of 27/05/2009 regulating labor in Rwanda which prohibits employment for children under the age of 16; (Rwandan Constitution, ibid.); Ministerial order no 06 of 13/07/2010 determining the list of worst forms of child labor, their nature, categories of institutions that are not allowed to employ children and preventive mechanisms. (Rwandan Constitution, ibid.); Law no 27/2001 of 28/04/2001 determining the rights of the child and protection of children against violence. (Rwandan Constitution, ibid.). Besides, the Government’s commitment is seen its efforts towards the elimination of child labour in its national development plans such as 2020 Vision, Economic Development Poverty Reduction Strategy (EDPRS 2008-2012) and various Ministries’ policies. Noting that Rwanda’s innovative approaches to gender equality have transformed the socioeconomic and political lives of Rwandan men and women, EDPRS 2 also recognises that despite the progress made so far, women, still, as compared to their men counterparts, have not yet been given equal opportunities to actively participate and be fully involved economic development processes of the country. Hence, committing the Government to mainstream gender in planning, budgeting, and project development at the national and local level (MINECOFIN 2013).

2.1.6. Centre for Domestic Violence Support (Isange One Stop Centre)

Isange One Stop Centre was established with a view to providing services to victims of domestic violence. The centre has a toll-free hotline for domestic violence victims’ support, protection from further violence, investigation of crimes, medical and psychosocial support and collection of clear and tangible evidences (RNP, 2016). It is noted that so far 43 centres have been instituted countrywide, which, are, too, helping in addressing family issues especially those related to violence and rape.

a) Integration of Domestic Violence in Local Government Performance Contracts (Imihigo)

The Government of Rwanda, in its view, in order to strengthen the mechanisms of fighting domestic violence, found it fit to integrate the issue to its local government performance contracts. According to the report by GMO in its report of 2013-2014 for accountability and transparency purposes, as response to domestic violence it became necessary for it be included in performance contracts (Imihigo) as one of the criteria to be used in the evaluation criteria.

b) Parents’ Evening Forum (Umugoroba W’Ababyeyi)

‘Umugoroba w’ababyeyi’ which literary means “Evening of Parents” is where parents, both men and women from the same village come together to discuss and solve their identified problems. According to the MIGEPROF in its National Policy against domestic violence (2011), the Umugoroba w’Ababyeyi is a platform through which mechanisms to control and prevent the incidence of domestic violence are discussed and translated into action. Further, the Ministry has highlighted that Umugoroba w’Ababyeyi strengthens the understanding of gender, positive social norms and attitudes within the community; actively engages men and boys in the fight against domestic violence; provides appropriate sensitisation to parents and guardians and actively engaging them in a gender based violence hostile family environment. The MIGEPROF, in its Integrated Child Right Policy (2011), defined Umugoroba w’Ababyeyi as a forum for educating parents, guardians and foster parents to provide care to children thereby preventing their abandonment and neglect.

Barbanti (2004) advanced the idea that the development field helps to surmount human rights abuses, protect the environment and empower women. Depetris (2009) finds that conflicts lower the share of the manufacturing sector in the GDP, increases the exploitation of some simple natural resources (forestry) and affects the production from crops. Further, finds great facts on the effects of violence on the agricultural and service sector share in GDP. Women with abusive partners mostly face lots of menaces to their financial well-being and hindrances to the realisation of their personal financial potentials. With this, it appears to be hard for the family to develop since one of the partners is not productive enough hence the family being caught in the poverty trap as Adams (2013), noted.
2.1.7. Causes of Domestic Violence

In their study conducted in 2010 Tripura in India, Brewer et al., as regards to the incidence of domestic violence, found out that rural areas suffer more as compared to urban areas. Phillips and Vandenbroek, (2014) noted that it is not easy to determine correct rates of domestic violence in any context as many victims do not disclose it. Domestic violence is even less likely to be uttered out in rural and remote areas than in urban contexts as observed by Ragusa (2013). In a study done by Sarkar (2010) on domestic Violence against adult and adolescent females in a rural area of West Bengal in India, 72.73% were men perpetrators and issues of low education (31.9%), low economic production (31.9%) and insufficient family income (23.4%) were reported as the root-causes. Agaba (2017) in his study carried out in Otukpo Local Government Area of Benue State, Nigeria, on the Effect of Domestic Violence on Women’s Health and Agricultural Activities, 108 were the respondents. The study indicated that, out of 108 respondents sampled to identify the causes of domestic violence against women in the study area, 31.5% affirmed that alcoholism as the major causes of domestic violence against women. Also 29.6% of the population also identified extra marital affairs as another major cause of violence against women in the study area. 11.1% affirmed that lack of finance or poverty also contributed to frequent violence against women by perpetrators. Furthermore, the data also indicated that 16.7% of the studied population identifies forced sex or sex refusal as another reason behind violence against women while 11.1% also ascertain that marital infidelity also resulted to domestic violence against women in the study area and 13% submitted that the violent is caused by disrespect to husband and in-laws by the victims. Koenig (2003) in his study on Domestic Violence in Rakai, rural Uganda, found out that alcoholism may play a direct precipitating role in domestic violence. Women, whose partners take alcohol before sex, experienced risks of violence almost five times higher than women with non-drinking partners. Koenig, further, noted that 52% of women who reported the most recent incidents of domestic violence, their partners had consumed alcohol while 27% of them had frequently consumed alcohol. The study by Kanchiputu and Mwale (2016) in Mpemba in Blantyre, Malawi, indicated that 40% of the 60 respondents pointed out low social status in the hierarchy of power in the society, poor living conditions in the families, drinking alcohol and drug abuse by the parents or guardians as the major causes of domestic violence whereas 5% also reported children’s misbehaviour as the other possible cause.

2.1.8. Consequences of Domestic Violence

Domestic violence, as like any other form conflict or violence, puts its sufferers at risk and leaves them with different consequences. Alubo (2006) maintains that several women suffer from series of injuries, disabilities, wounds and casualties from the clashes and many ended up dying due to domestic violence committed against women. A study done by African Child Policy Forum (ACPF) in 2011 shows the prevalence of violence against children take the forms of physical, psychological and sexual violence. Too, the study found out that fathers or male relatives to be the most perpetrators of domestic violence. A study by Kanchiputu and Mwale (ibid.) the highest percentage reported that risks of domestic violence on schooling-going children is loss of interest in education and the least reported effect is early marriage representing by 41.2% and 5.9%, respectively. The study also reveals that situations ranging from late arrival due to some home chores they do before going to school, absenteeism, dropouts and changing schools are major effects of domestic violence on children. Agaba (ibid.) in his study in Nigeria found out that from the mental effects responses, the data indicates that 40.7% of the study population revealed that domestic violence leads to mental depression, 35.2% reveals that the said violence creates panic/phobia disorder, 10.2% of the study population submitted that victims of domestic violence faces psychological trauma, and while 13.9% of the study population affirmed that women who experience violence usually faces stress and anxiety and that 34.3% of the study population reveals that the violence creates strained relationship or interaction between partners or couples. According the World Bank Group (2012), domestic violence imposes an economic burden on individuals, households, private sector through the cost of health care services used to treat victims, a loss of productivity and reduced income for women due to missed work. This WBG study estimates the productivity loss due to absences from domestic violence in Uganda and Bangladesh with 87.76 million dollars and 262 million dollars respectively as examples which is worth approximately 1.3% for either country. According to the UN, the cost of domestic violence exceeds 5.8 billion dollars per for direct medical and health care services and nearly 1.8 billion dollars for productivity losses. Day (2005) states that some costs of violence impact not only
individuals or business but also the larger economy. Domestic violence, therefore, has a significant negative influence on GNP and national economic status.

2.2. Research Gap and the Present Study

Ravneet and Suneeela (2008) noted that Domestic violence is a global issue crossing national boundaries as well as socioeconomic, cultural, racial and class distinctions. WHO (2013) in their Status Report on violence prevention, found that beyond the deaths, millions more children, women, and men suffer from the far reaching consequences of domestic violence in homes, schools and communities. The Violence more often than not tend to cause damage people’s lives for years, leading to alcohol and drug addiction, depression, suicide, school dropout, unemployment and recurrent relationship difficulties. Researchers around the world did their researches in this area but the focus was general. Most of those researches were limited to the impact of domestic violence against women, the effects of domestic violence: the male victim perspective, the economic cost of violence containment mention a few but no study has put its focus on the impact of domestic violence on the socioeconomic lives of rural areas in Rwanda. Hence, the present researcher decided to undertake the present study.

2.3. Theoretical Framework

2.3.1. Social Learning Theory

Social Learning Theory is one of the most known theories in the literature of domestic violence. It states that individuals reproduce behaviours that they have been exposed to as children. Violence is learnt by copying examples from models available in the family like parents, relatives and others, either directly or indirectly. It is reinforced in the childhood and proceeds in adulthood as a method of conflict resolution (Bandura1967). Further, emphasises that individual human beings learn by observing, considering the consequences encountered by their role models, practicing the acquired behaviour and reaching a point of self-efficacy where they are confident and in control of outcomes of their actions. Parents who abuse their spouse give a bad example for children; they grow up knowing that intimate partner abuse allowed, legal and is the best strategy to overcome conflicts in the wedlock or in a relationship. Children who experience domestic violence are more likely to abuse or tolerate the abuse by their boyfriends and girlfriends respectively; or even practice domestic violence in adulthood relationships. Girls who are exposed to domestic violence are likely to fail to set strategies to fight the violence in case it happens to them since they take it normal. In addition, they find themselves tolerating cruel, violent, bad intentions and actions from their partners (Swerdlow-Freed, 2015).

2.4. Feminism

Domestic violence against women and violence against children have emerged as distinct fields of research with a growing number of studies demonstrating the extent to which the two overlap in the same household (Namy et., al 2017). They strongly confirm that both acts co-occur in the same households and that women use violence against children is considered as an acceptable way to control behaviour in line with parents’ role to enforce discipline as a normative and important function. In this line, other feminists state that domestic violence is resulted from patriarchy and the super power entrusted to men more than women in homes and in society. When it comes to domestic violence especially against women, feminists say that men in men-dominated societies, with all power, have to use all means to protect their status especially when their dominance seems attacked. On his side, Potter (1995) affirms that ideologies of patriarchy and the practice of violence are closely related as the only reason given in patriarchy system for violence is male domination and female subordination. Dutton (1994) responded in this line saying that men’s violence derives from feelings of powerlessness that originates from early childhood. Hence, for these men to keep and sustain their sense of fragile of masculinity, they abuse their wives to cause them remain in the position of subordination. Therefore, this kind of insecure and weak men who use force to take full control over their wives is a good explanation of recurring domestic violence. Namy et al, further, added that after experiencing abuse from their husbands, mothers show some kind of displaced aggression towards their children and that this cannot be separated from women’s systematic operation and their relational power in the family.

2.4.1. Types of Feminism

a) Liberal Feminism

This type of feminists argues that gender differences are not biological based, the reason why men and women should not be treated differently since they are all humans. Women should have same rights as
men, given equal opportunities and treated equally before the law (Lorber, n.d). According to Annandale and Clark (1996), Liberal feminists argue that there is no intrinsic relationship between sex/biology and gender. Emphasis is placed on women's access to positively valued 'male roles' and male experiences which are associated with good health.

b) Radical Feminism

Radical feminists argue that sex differences and the associated roles are the basis for violence whereby women spend time during their maternity leave resulting in missing work. This, according to them, limits a quick promotion at work as it is for men and other work incentives. They complement this by rooting this as far back in the traditional society where women are meant at home caring for children and cleaning houses and men outside the home setting which ends up making men economically powerful over women (Mackay, 2105).

c) Cultural Feminism

It is closely linked to the radical feminism in that cultural feminists praise what women do such as feeding, caring and, attending to bodies and minds. They argue that women should be exalted for the work they do for the holistic development of the mankind; values such love, affection, caring and sharing; and the behaviors that women manifest in their everyday hands-on experiences with their own and their children’s bodies and with the work daily living (Lorber, n.d).

d) Socialist and Marxist Feminism

Marxist and socialist feminism is against the family accusing it of being the source of women’s violence. They argue that a woman does double work which should be recognised especially when employed outside the home. It becomes worse, according these feminists, when she works for her family in the home where she becomes fully economically depended on the husband. (Winkler, n.d).

2.5. Conceptual Framework

A good scientific research should be crowned by a conceptual framework justified through logically related variables. The conceptual framework of this study relates the independent variables to the depend variables.

![Conceptual Framework](image)

Source: Researcher

The conceptual framework relates the independent variables, domestic violence (depression, lack of access to resources, divorce, death, school dropout and many others) to the dependent variables, socioeconomic development (decreased or absence of social interaction, poverty, children are psychologically affected, orphanage and widowing, illiteracy and ignorance). The researcher wants to show that in domestic violence, there is depression, a variable which may put the sufferer at high risk.
of suicide, eating disorders and drug and/or alcohol abuse. Lack of access to resources reduces the income in the household and prevents the person from being economically independent. Further, the domestic violence perpetrator likely to spend extravagantly the resources as long as he or she is the only one that controls those resources, hence, leading the family into the poverty trap. Divorce, as another variable, affects mainly the children since they no longer enjoy a sense of parental care; they may be affected psychologically and may not feel stable in their lives since they will be compelled to make choices between their two parents(mother or father) to belong to. Therefore, their degree of social interaction with their peers is likely to reduce and their performance at school affected, among others. Death as another variable in domestic violence (killings among partners) may create orphanage to the children and the remaining partner will be a widow/widower without ruling out life imprisonment sentences for murder. Besides, school dropout will leave children uneducated and illiterate which may end up serving as source of illiteracy for them. In addition, domestic violence is likely to be intergenerational as children may copy their parents’ behaviours and take them to their own homes when they become old. It is against the aforesaid backdrop the researcher brought into picture the intervening variables such as the Government, laws and regulations that have been put in place to alleviate the incidence of domestic violence in the area covered under the study. Besides, the role played by others such as Non-Governmental Organisations, other interested parties and media who have remained advocating for people suffering of domestic violence.

3. RESEARCH METHODS, DESIGN AND DATA COLLECTION

3.1. Research Design

Descriptive research was adopted for the present study.

3.2. Target Population and Representative Sample Size

The target population of the present study was the residents of Mwogo Sector who might have been members of families experiencing or who at one time or the other experienced domestic violence in their homes as the sample was randomly chosen, that, then provided the researcher an opportune time to obtain full and credible information from them for families that could share their own experiences on the incidence of domestic violence witnessed in the area. The sample was derived from 4471 households drawn from the 25 villages making up Mwogo Sector of Bugesera District. Systematic random sampling techniques were used to select 370 households from the 4471 households in total. Hence, the researcher took 30% of the villages to arrive at 7, 5 ≈ 8 villages which were then selected randomly. The respondents of the study were arrived at through using the Formula by Yamane (1967).

The Formula assumes 95% confidence level and the maximum variance (p = 0.05).

The formula is \( n = \frac{N}{1+Ne^2} \)

Where:

\( N \): is the sample size, \( N \) is the population size, \( e \) specifies the desired level of precision, where precision \( e = 1 \)-precision, \( p = 0.95 \)

In this study, \( N = 4471 \), \( e = \) margin of error =1-0.95=0.05

Thus, \( n = \frac{N}{1+Ne^2} \)

\( e \) is equal to 0.05

Thus \( n = \frac{4471}{1+4471(0.05^2)} = \frac{4471}{12.1} = 369.5 \approx 370 \) respondents.

\( n \): Total Population under study of 370 respondents,

\( n \): The proposal infinite sample by the formula estimated to 369.5

Then, using calculation becomes: 370 respondents.

This means that this study used the sample of 370 informants.

3.3. Sample Size Selection Technique

The researcher used systematic random sampling technique and purposive sampling technique. The researcher used the interval of 4 homes between the respondents and from the sample of 369 informants in 8 villages randomly selected, it means in each village around 47 people were the
Domestic Violence Incidence Impacting Socio-Economic Development of Rural Areas in Rwanda

respondents. The researcher also worked with village chiefs who introduced him to the households and identifying also some houses with domestic violence. Lastly, 1 administrative staff at the sector level and 1 administrative staff from Duhamurizanye Iwacu Community-Based Socio-therapy were purposively selected with a view to providing more clarification on the information from the respondents during data collection.

3.4. Methods of Data Collection and Data Analysis Procedures

Interview method and Questionnaire method were used in collecting the required data from the informants of the study. Logical Analysis/Matrix Analysis and Microsoft Excel 2010 were utilized in description and interpretation of results via tables. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) application was used in analysing the collected data.

4. SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1. Summary of Major Findings

The study found that poverty, isolation, drug abuse, low income, men’s superiority and power, refusal of sex, alcoholism and culture constraints as the main causes of the incidence of domestic violence in Mwogo Sector. It was noted that 30.5% of the selected respondents strongly agree that afore mentioned were the causes of domestic violence in the area; 23.9% agreed, 15.1% disagree and 9.2% strongly disagree while 21.8% remained in neutral on the causes of the vice. Drug abuse and alcoholism were identified as the domineering causes with 53% and 42% of the respondents strongly agreeing. The aforementioned figures are high enough to influence the neighbourhood. It was too, noted that main challenges posed to the development of socioeconomic lives of the residents of the area covered in the study included long separation of families after years and years of quarrelling (64%); poverty (93% ) and those who identified trauma, ulcers, autism and other chronic diseases resulting from domestic violence were 67% of the respondents. 48% of the respondents revealed that domestic violence caused problems and challenges related to the socioeconomic development of Mwogo Sector while 30% did not see any challenge, while 22% of them took a neutral position on the same. Hence, this is a clear indication, in general, that Mwogo Sector faced different challenges in its socioeconomic development endeavours. Drawbacks such as poverty, separation and chronic diseases were at high level which were calling for efforts and careful attention from all the concerned.

The study established that a number efforts geared towards the control and prevention of the incidence of domestic violence in the area, have been made by different agencies, though, more is needed. One of them made was to facilitate women to participate and be involved in income generating projects as confirmed by 59% of the respondents, however, more is needed in order to mobilise people to the forum and help them use it effectively in combating domestic violence. As regards to Isange One Stop Centre as supporting the victims of the domestic, it was revealed that it is never known nor accessed by all the residents of Mwogo Sector as confirmed by 77.3% of the respondents; only 12.3% confirmed positively the high use of the toll free line by the victims. 78% of the respondents agreed that the neutral or those who knew not the use of the centre is due to fact that the residents have limited knowledge about it. It was noted, too, that the desired impact from the centre is critical to the residents of the area. The majority (82.6%) were found to be comfortable with the idea of integrating domestic violence into the performance contracts (imihigo) as 90% of them claimed to have witnessed the reduction of domestic violence in the area and hence had a good image in their mind on the importance of imihigo.

4.2. Conclusion

The study assessed the impact of domestic violence on socioeconomic development of residents of Mwogo Sector Inspite of intervention efforts routed through agencies such as Parents’ Evening Forum, domestic violence support centres, Isange One Stop Canter and the integration of domestic violence into the District Performance Contracts, that, still, domestic violence bearing challenges to the socioeconomic development of the sector. Hence, it can conclusively be stated that the incidence of domestic violence negatively impacted the socioeconomic development of lives of the residents of Mwogo Sector despite huge efforts that have been made by different agencies directed towards the prevention of the incidence of domestic violence in the area Hence, this calls for strengthening and increase of more collective actions from all the concerned.
4.3. Recommendations

The Government of Rwanda through its implementing agencies such as the Ministry of Gender and Family Promotion, Gender Monitoring Office and Ministry of Local Governance has a huge responsibility of ensure that the existing agencies in support of the prevention and control of the incidence of domestic violence is strengthened and provided the needed support with a view to implementing the existing programmes and policies directed towards the fight domestic violence, particularly in rural areas using Mwogo Sector role model.

The NGOs that are operating in the field, in collaboration with the Government of Rwanda should increase their initiatives and direct more of their funds towards combating domestic violence in Mwogo Sector it was noted that more need to be done in order to wipe out the vice in the area. Community Based Organisation should not be left behind in this important voyage for domestic violence is an epidemic that can easily wipe away the social and economic fabric of families, communities and societies as well.

REFERENCES

[1] Abu-Raddad, Lj. Et. Al., (2008). Genital herpes has played a more important role than any other sexually transmitted infections in Driving HIV Prevalence in Africa. PLoS ONE. 3 (5):e2230
[2] Adams AE. (2013). The Impact of intimate partner violence on low-income women’s economic well-being: The mediating role of job stability. Violence Against Women 2013;18 (12): 1345-67.
[3] African Child Policy Forum [ACPF]. (2011). Violence Against Children in Africa: A Compilation of the main findings of the various research projects conducted by the African Child Policy Forum (ACPF) since 2006.
[4] African Union (2002). Women, Peace and security: Translating Policy Into Practice.
[5] African Union. (1990). The African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the child: Article 11 (into force 1999), Addis Ababa.
[6] African Union. (2003). African Charter on Human and People’s Rights, Addis Ababa. Retrieved from www.un.org/en/africarenewal/vol21no2/212-violence-against-women.html.
[7] Agaba, A. (2017). The effects of domestic violence on Women’s Health and Agricultural Activities in Otukpo Local Government Area of Benue State, Nigeria.
[8] Alubo. O. (2006). Nigeria Ethnic Conflicts and Citizenship Crisis in the Central Region. Ibadan. Programme on Ethnic and Federal Studies. PEFS.
[9] Annandale E. and Clark J. (1996). ‘What is gender? Feminist theory and the sociology of human reproduction’. Sociology and illness, 18 (1):17-44
[10] Bandura, A. (1973). Social Learning Theory of Aggression, In. J. F. Knutson (Ed.), The control of aggression: implications from basic research. Chicago: Aldine.
[11] Barbanti, O. (2004). Development and Conflict Theory. In Burgess, G and Burgess, H (eds.) 2004 Beyond Intractability. Conflict Research Consortium: University of Colorado, Boulder.
[12] Bennice, J. and Resick P. (2003). Marital Rape: History, Research, and Practice. Trauma Violence Abuse.
[13] Bilance. (1997). A world in Balance – Balance stands for Social Development Policy paper. Oegstgeest, September.
[14] Brewer, G., Roy, M., Smith, Y. (2010). Domestic Violence: the psychosocial impact and perceived health problems. The journal of Aggression, Conflict and Peace Research. 2(2):4-15.
[15] Brodsky, A. and Hare-Mustin, R. (1980). Women and Psychotherapy: An Assessment of Research and Practice. Guilford, New York.
[16] Brown, J.D. (2001). Using Survey in Language Programs. Cambridge, UK, Cambridge University Press.
[17] Carolyn. (1993). Female well-being: Toward a Global theory of social change. USA, University of Chicago Press.
[18] Chaleunvong, K. (2009). Data Collection Techniques. Vientiane.
[19] Chhikara, P. et., et. Al. (2013). Domestic violence: The Dark Truth of Our Society. Indian Academic Forensic, Med. 35(16).
[20] Corbetta, P. (2003). Social Research: Theory, Methods and Techniques. London, SAGE.
[21] Day, T., Mckenna, K. and Bawlus, A. (2005). The Economic Cost of Violence Against Women: An evaluation of the Literature. Western Ontario.
[22] Duvvury, N. ,M. Nguyen and P. Carney (2012). Estimating the cost of domestic violence against women in Vietnam. HaNoi, Vietnam.
Domestic Violence Incidence Impacting Socio-Economic Development of Rural Areas in Rwanda

[23] Duvvury, N. Callan, A. Carney, P. and Raghavendra, N. (2013). *Intimate partner violence: economic costs and implications for growth and development*,

[24] Duvvury, N., C. Grown, et al. (2004). *Costs of Intimate Partner Violence at the Household and Community Levels. An Operational Framework for Developing Countries*. ICRW International Center for Research On Women.

[25] East African Community. (2012). *East African Community Treaty*, Art 121, Uganda.

[26] Erez, E. (2002). Domestic Violence and the Criminal Justice system. 7(1):4

[27] Fitzgerald, J. Leigh, G. (2002). *Economic Revitalization: Cases for City and Suburb*. Sage Publication.

[28] Garcia-Moreno, C. and C. Watts (2000). *Violence against women: its importance for HIV/AIDS*, (London, England).

[29] García-Moreno, C., H. A. F. M. Jansen, et al. (2005). *WHO Multi-country study on women’s health and domestic violence against women initial results on prevalence, health outcomes and women’s responses*, World Health Organisation.

[30] Gass, J. D., D. J. Stein, et al. (2011). Gender Differences in Risk for Intimate Partner Violence Among South African Adults. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 26 (14): 2764-2789.

[31] Gender Monitoring Office (2010). *Gender baseline and key indicators in four sectors: decision making, agriculture, infrastructure, and private sector*.

[32] Gender Monitoring Office, *Assessment of Intervention Programs for Gender-based Violence Prevention and Response*, Kigali, 2010.

[33] Guo et al., (2013). Selecting a sample size for studies with repeated measures. BioMed Central Ltd.

[34] Hathaway, J.E. (2005). *Impact of Partner Abuse on Women’s Reproductive Lives*. *Journal of the American Medical Women’s Association*, 60(1):42-45

[35] Heaton, J. (2004). *Reworking Qualitative Data*. London, SAGE.

[36] Heise, L. Garcia-Moreno, C. (2002). *Violence by intimate partners. In: Krug EG, Dahlberg L, Mercy J, Zwi A, Lozano R, editors: World Report on violence and Health, Geneva: World Health Organization; 2002.*

[37] Herrenkohl, T.O., Sousa, C., Tajima, E.A. (2004). *Intersection of Child Abuse and Children’s Exposure to Domestic Violence*.

[38] Human Right Watch Report. (2004). *Immigration and Refugee Board of Canada, Uganda: Prevalence of forced marriage in Uganda and availability of state protection (2000-2004)*, Canada.

[39] Kanamura, J. (1975). *Imigani y'imigenurano y'imfasha abarezi (proverbes Rwandais expliques a l’usage des educateurs)*, Butare.

[40] Kanchiputu, PG , Mwale, M. (2016). *Effects of Domestic Violence on Children’s Education: The case study of Mbemba*, Blantyre District, Malawi.

[41] Kaur, R., Garg, S. (2009). *Domestic Violence Against Women: A Qualitative Study in a Rural Community*, SAGE.

[42] Koenig, M.A, Lutalo, T., Zhao, F., Nalugoda, F., Wabwire, Mangen, F., Kiwanuka, N., …Gray, R. (2003). Domestic Violence in Rural Uganda: Evidence from a community-based study. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 81(1), 53-60.

[43] Kruegar, B.A, Maleckova, J. (2003). *Education, Poverty and Terrorism: Is There a Causal Connection*. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 17(4) :119-144.

[44] Mackay, F. (2015). *Radical Feminism: Feminist Activism in Movement*, SAGE.

[45] Madan, A. (2002). *The Relationship between Economic Freedom and Socioeconomic Development*. *University Avenue Undergraduate Journal of Economics*, 7(1):6

[46] MIGEPROF. (2011). *National Policy against Gender Based Violence*, Kigali.

[47] MINECOFIN. (2002). *Vision 2020*, Government of Rwanda, Kigali.

[48] MINECOFIN. (2013). *EDPRS2: Social Protection Strategy*, Kigali.

[49] Morris, I. (2010). *Social Development*, Stanford University, London

[50] Myint, U. (1980). *The Economics of Developing Countries*, Hutchinson University Library, USA.

[51] Namy, S, et al., (2017). Towards a feminist understanding of intersecting violence against women and children in the family. *The journal of Social Science and Medicine, 184*:40-48

[52] National Institute of Statsitics of Rwanda, Ministry of Health [MOH] (Rwanda) and ICF International. (2015). *Rwanda Demographic and Health Survey 2014-15*. Rockville, Maryland, USA.

[53] National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda, Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (MINECOFIN) [Rwanda], (2012). *Fourth Population and Housing Census: Thematic Report, Population size, structure and distribution*, Kigali.
Domestic Violence Incidence Impacting Socio-Economic Development of Rural Areas in Rwanda

[54] Perry, BD. (2005). Maltreatment and the developing child: how early childhood experience shapes child and culture. Paper presented to The Margaret Mcain Lecture Series, London, Ontario, Canada.

[55] Phillips, J., and Vandenbroek, P. (2014). Domestic, family and sexual violence in Australia: an overview of the issues. Department of Parliament Services, Parliamentary Library.

[56] Potter, M.E. (1995). Historical theology and violence against women: Unearthing a popular tradition of just battery. In C.J. Adams and M.M. Fortune (Eds), Violence against women: A Christian sourcebook. New York: Continuum.

[57] Ragusa, A.T. (2012). Women Intimate Violence Victim Survivors’ Perceptions of Criminal Justice Support Services. SAGE.

[58] Russell, D.E.H. (1990). Rape in marriage (Exp. and rev. ed.). Bloomington, IN, US: Indiana University Press.

[59] Rwanda National Police. (2016). Hatangijwe amahame y’imikore y’ibigo bya Isange One Stop Center, RNP, Kacyiru. Retrieved from www.police.gov.rw/detail-view

[60] RWANDA. (2015). Constitution of 4th June 2003 as amended to date, Kigali.

[61] Sarkar, M. (2010). A study on Domestic Violence against adult and adolescent females in a rural area of Bengal, Indian Journal of Community Medecine 35(2):311-5.

[62] Sen, A (1999). Development as Freedom, Oxford University Press.

[63] Set, P, Raiford, JL, Robinson, L, Wingood, GM. (2010). Intimate partner violence and other partner-related factors: correlates of sexually transmissible infections and risky sexual behaviors among young adult African American women. Sex Health, (7):25-30.

[64] SID and EASSI. (2013). Tracking Gender Equality Commitments in the East African Community. Monitoring and Evaluation Framework. Kampala, Uganda.

[65] Sith, M.S., Smith, D.B., Penn, C.E, Ward, D.B, and Tritt, D. (2004). Intimate Partner Physical Abuse Perpetration and Victimization Risk Factors: A Meta-Physical Review, Volume 10 (1).

[66] Swerdlow-Freed, I. (2015). Abusive Adolescent Dating Relationship. Retrieved from www.drswerdlowfreed.com/abusive-adolescent-dating-relationships

[67] Todaro, M. P, Smith, S.C. (2011). Economic Development, 11th Edition, Prentice Hall.

[68] Umubyeyi, A. Person, M, Mogren, I, Ntaganira, J, Krantz, G. (2016). Gender inequality Prevents Abused Women from seeking care despite protection given in gender-based violence protection: A qualitative Study from Rwanda. PLoS ONE 11(5).

[69] UNICEF (2000). Interventions: An Integrated Approach in Combating Domestic Violence: Obligation of the State. Innocent digest, Research Center No.6.

[70] United Nations General Assembly, (2006). In-depth study on all forms of violence against women: Report of the Secretary-General, New York.

[71] United Nations Populations Fund. (2000). The state of World Population Report.

[72] United Nations. (1990). The World Conference on Children’s Rights: article 49.

[73] United Nations. (1993). Declaration on Human Rights, Vienna.

[74] United Nations. (1993). Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women, Article 11, Copenhagen.

[75] Waite, R. (2009). Domestic violence in Rwanda: Global Grassroots, Kigali, Rwanda.

[76] Weaver, L.T., Sanders, C.K., Cambell, C.L., and Schnabel, M. (2009). Development and Preliminary Psychometric Evaluation of the Domestic-Related Financial issues Scale (DVFI), Journal of interpersonal Violence 24 (4), 569-858.

[77] Wollny, I, Apps, J. and Henricson, C. (2010). Can government measure family wellbeing?: A literature review, London.

[78] World Bank. (2000). World development report: The state in a changing world. New York, Oxford University Press.

[79] World Bank. (2001). Endangering development. New York, Oxford University Press.

[80] World Health Organization and Pan American Health Organization. (2012). Understanding and addressing violence against women: intimate partner violence. Retrieved from www.who.int/iris/handle/10665/77432

[81] World Health Organization. (2001). Putting women first: Ethical and Safety Recommendations for Research on Domestic violence Against Women. Department of Gender and Women’s Health. Geneva, Switzerland.

[82] World Health Organization. (2005). A multi-country study on Women’s Health and domestic violence against women: Summary Report of initial results on prevalence, health outcomes and women’s response. Geneva, Switzerland.
Domestic Violence Incidence Impacting Socio-Economic Development of Rural Areas in Rwanda

[83] World Health Organization. (2012a). Intimate partner and sexual violence against women. Factsheet No.239. Geneva.

[84] World Health Organization. (2013). Global and regional estimates of violence against women: prevalence and health effects of intimate partner violence and non-partner sexual violence. Switzerland.

[85] Yamane, T. (1967). Statistics: An Introductory Analysis. 2nd ED., New York, Harper and Rao 886.