IMPLICATIONS OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN IN POLICE HOUSE HOLDS IN BURUBURU POLICE DIVISION IN NAIROBI COUNTY, KENYA

Andrew Munuve Makuti, Hadija Murenga[1], Samson W. Mwangi[2]

[1] Department of Peace, Security and Social Studies, Egerton University

[1] Department of Peace, Security and Social Studies, Egerton University

Abstract

This study focused on investigating domestic violence within police households in BuruBuru Police Division. The motivation behind the study was the need for new interventions to address the persistent and increasing violence against women in these households, which was attributed to a lack of information on the issue. The study aimed to explore the forms and nature of domestic violence against women in police households, examine the factors contributing to such violence, and assess its effects on police families in the BuruBuru Police Division. The study utilized a cross-sectional descriptive study design and employed both probability sampling and purposive sampling techniques to select a sample size of 133 respondents from partners of male police officers. Additionally, eight key informants were interviewed to gather further insights. The collected data was analyzed using descriptive statistics in the SPSS software package for quantitative data, while qualitative data underwent content analysis. Correlation analysis was used to test for associations and dependencies between study variables. The study found that domestic violence does occur in police households. The major forms of domestic violence identified were physical violence (48.5%), sexual abuse (56.6%), controlling or domineering behavior (42.4%), economic deprivation (41.4%), and intimidation (38.4%). Socio-economic factors were found to significantly contribute to domestic violence in police households (63.6%), impacting the mental health of police officers and the quality of their work. The study also highlighted that existing police disciplinary procedures may not be adequate to address this problem. Based on the findings, the study recommends implementing policies that incorporate conflict resolution mechanisms such as mediation, counseling, and outreach programs by government and non-governmental organizations (NGOs). These interventions should specifically target the challenging task of reaching the population residing within police houses or police lines.

---

[1] Department of Peace, Security and Social Studies, Egerton University

[2] Department of Peace, Security and Social Studies, Egerton University

Key words: Domestic violence, physical violence, sexual abuse, gender-based violence

Introduction

According to figures from the UNHCR, instances of gender-based violence (GBV) have increased globally. One in three women worldwide experience GBV, which is defined as acts committed against individuals based on their gender (UNHCR, 2021). GBV is thought to affect 730 million women and girls annually and is encouraged by gender norms and power disparities (UNHCR, 2021). Threats, coercion, and physical, emotional, and psychological abuse directed towards a particular gender are all included in GBV. Gender-based domestic violence (GBDV) is the term used to describe GBV that takes place in intimate relationships. This type of violence violates people's rights and is inhumane (Adebayo, 2014). According to the UN Population Fund (UNPF, 2021) at least 137 women are reportedly killed every day as a result of gender-based domestic abuse. Domestic violence is a serious problem among police households, where it occurs more frequently than in non-police households. Due to fear of their abuser, who is a police officer, and the apparent lack of legal repercussions, many victims of domestic violence within police families are hesitant to report their abuse. Police departments' inadequate reactions to the issue and the special challenges associated to their jobs that police officers experience contribute to the high rate of domestic violence (UNPF, 2021). Physical violence, endangerment, coercion, kidnapping, imprisonment, trespassing, harassment, and stalking are just a few of the different ways that domestic abuse can emerge. It happens in close friendships, marriages, cohabitations, dating relationships, and families. Physical aggressiveness, sexual assault, emotional abuse, controlling conduct, intimidation, stalking, passive/covert abuse, and economic deprivation are further examples of domestic violence (Jaswal, 2000).

Due to the financial effects of lockdown measures, the COVID-19 pandemic has led to an increase in domestic violence incidents around the world. This is especially true for women and girls. One in three women experienced domestic violence during the COVID-19 era, mostly at the hands of their intimate partners, according to the UNPF (2021). In relationships, 27% of women between the ages of 15 and 49 have experienced physical or sexual abuse at the hands of their partners (UNPF, 2021). The global prevalence of intimate partner homicide is higher among women, with 33% of incidents occurring in the African region (WHO, 2021). However, only 10% of women who do seek aid for domestic violence go to the police; less than 40% of women do so (WHO, 2021). According to Kimuna et al. (2018), 40% of married women in Kenya are said to have suffered domestic violence, particularly sexual abuse. This statistic mirrors the global trend. The continuation of domestic violence in Kenya is attributed to a number of factors, including sexual coercion, gender norms, and underreporting (Palermo et al., 2014). With rates ranging from 28% to 49% in various studies, research suggests that police personnel may commit domestic violence at a higher rate than the general population (Sgambelluri, 2000). Studies revealing that a sizable proportion of male officers acknowledged to abusing their spouses in the 1990s have raised awareness of this issue since then (Johnson, 1991; Neidig et al., 1992). Domestic violence is 2-4 times more prevalent among police households than in the general population, and police departments frequently miss or insufficiently address the issue (Sgambelluri, 2000).

Women face a substantial fraction of nonfatal violent crimes that are committed by men, with additional effects that also include young witnesses. The police face difficulties while responding to domestic violence complaints since they frequently witness repeated assault against the same victims who may be hesitant to leave their abusers. Police caution has historically been influenced by overstated perceptions of threat in such situations (Migliaccio, 2001). Attempts to solve the issue are further hampered by society's unwillingness to accept women as victims and the popular culture's role in trivializing domestic violence (Perilla et al., 1988). The abuser's demand for dominance over their partner is one of the primary reasons of domestic violence. Abuse is influenced by a number of factors, including low self-esteem, intense jealously, difficulties controlling one's anger, feelings

of inferiority, and established gender norms (Miller, 2006). According to research, abusers may have once been victims themselves and learn aggression from cultural, familial, and social pressures (Miller, 2006).

The scourge of violence against women and girls persists around the world and takes many different forms. The most frequent form of violence against women and girls is domestic abuse, which is also frequently concealed and disregarded (Mutiso et al., 2010). Violence against women is pervasive at all societal levels in Kenya (Amos, 1999). International and domestic legal systems have backed efforts to address domestic abuse. People are now more protected against domestic abuse thanks to the ratification of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) and the Kenyan Constitution of 2010 (UNIFEM, 2011). To provide relief and help to victims of domestic violence, Kenya has passed legislation like the Protection Against Domestic Violence (PADV) Act of 2015. The statute highlights the social obligation of reporting such situations to the police and gives police officials the authority to address domestic abuse cases (Kenyan Legislation, 2015).

One of the main causes of violence against women has been highlighted as the pervasiveness of unequal power relations in society. The complete execution of legislation has been hampered, particularly in situations where male victims of domestic violence are involved, by cultural shame and adherence to traditional gender norms. This calls into question whether Kenya's laws are still relevant in light of the country's rapid social change and the requirement for effective safeguards for all domestic violence victims (DEVAW, Steinmetz, and Lucca, 1999). Women frequently refrain from reporting domestic violence because of societal expectations that they behave submissively and powerfully in intimate relationships. Women are reluctant to contact law enforcement because of their shame and fear of coming out with domestic abuse, as well as the police's adherence to established gender roles (Murray, 1999). The distribution of domestic violence cases among the several police divisions in Nairobi City County is shown in Table 1.1 below.

Table 1: *Divisions in Nairobi County and number of Domestic Violence cases*

Division	DV cases		
	2015	**2016**	**2017(up to April)**
BuruBuru	15	17	12
Dagoretti	6	4	1
Embakasi	3	1	-
Gigiri	-	2	-
Kajiado north	1	4	-
Kasarani	12	11	5
Kayole	4	7	1
Kilimani	1	-	1
Langata	3	4	-
Makadara	4	2	-
Ngong	-	2	2
OngataRongai	6	2	3
Starehe	2	5	1

Source: Crime and Incident Reports, (2017)

Problem Statement

The PADV Act covers men, women, and children who are in domestic partnerships and offers victims of domestic violence crucial protection and affirmative action. However, in a predominantly male nation like Kenya, cultural barriers and biases frequently restrict the enforcement of laws and stereotype males ds the only ones who commit domestic abuse. It is imperative to assess the efficacy and inclusiveness of current laws to guarantee equal protection for all victims without regard to gender. The police in particular must play a contribution in safeguarding all victims and preventing social prejudice. The number of domestic abuse cases against women reported to the BuruBuru Police Division in Kenya has increased, underscoring the necessity for actions to address this problem within police families. Due to the persistence of domestic abuse and the lack of knowledge around it, BuruBuru Police Division must implement new interventions to stop violence against women in the homes of police officers.

Objectives of the Study

The broad objective of this study was to explore the implication of domestic violence against women in police households in BuruBuru division in Nairobi County, Kenya. This study was guided by the following specific objectives;

i. To explore the forms and nature of domestic violence against women in police households in BuruBuru Police Division.
ii. To examine the factors that lead to a rise in domestic violence against women in police households in BuruBuru Police Division.
iii. To assess the effects of domestic violence on police families in BuruBuru Police Division.

Literature review

Forms and Nature of Domestic Violence

Studies largely concentrate on defending the rights of women who are domestic abuse victims (Ali, 2017), making domestic violence a problem that affects the entire world. Due to societal conventions, men frequently justify their conduct in domestic violence, which is a result of cultural variables (Adebayo, 2014). Domestic violence is significantly encouraged by gender inequality and unequal power dynamics between men and women (Ali, 2017). According to Ganley (2011), domestic violence includes physical, sexual, psychological, and property abuse. Victims of domestic violence feel helpless, vulnerable, and horrified (Ganley, 2011). Kenya has a long history of domestic violence, and police officers' use of domestic violence is a growing area of discussion (Neidig, Seng, & Russell, 1992). According to some researches, police officers' high-risk lifestyle and personal struggles may be to blame for the same or even greater rates of abuse inside police households (Neidig et al., 1992). Regardless of the precise frequency rate, police personnel engaging in domestic abuse is still a severe problem that calls for zero-tolerance (Neidig et al., 1992). Such aggression might also make using excessive force while on duty more likely (Neidig et al., 1992).

Domestic violence against women in Kenya frequently goes unreported and takes the form of a series of coercive actions taken by capable partners to win and keep control (Mutiso et al., 2010). These actions consist of non-consensual sexual behavior, physical assault, and psychological abuse (Mutiso et al., 2010). In police households, victims may be afraid to disclose instances, which encourages abuse because they know no action will be taken (Moraa, 2018). Due to insufficient deterrence and a failure to address the historical understanding of violence, the effectiveness of the current Act in addressing domestic violence in Kenya is called into doubt (Moraa, 2018). To reduce the long-term vulnerability to violence, especially among women, empowerment of both men and women is required (Moraa, 2018). According to study (Moraa, 2018), the use of protection orders has not been

successful in Kenya in preventing domestic violence. Domestic violence frequently takes the form of psychological abuse, which includes intimidation, denigration, threats, and humiliation (Vic-Health, 2009). In abusive relationships, insults and harsh language are used to exert control and win the upper hand (Nicolson et al., 2010). The BuruBuru Police Division's study aims to investigate the types and patterns of domestic violence exclusive to police households.

Factors that Give Rise to Domestic Violence

Women are the primary targets of domestic violence, and the majority of study on the subject focuses on them as victims (Tomison, 2000). Male dominance, power structures, and cultural norms that support male control are all elements that have an impact on violence against women (Azam & Irma, 2008). To assert authority and uphold a sense of power, men frequently start fights in partnerships (Niaz, 2003). Intimate partner violence is also influenced by factors like age, education, income, and childhood exposure to violence (Azam & Irma, 2008). Women under 50 may encounter lower levels of violence, but younger women are more vulnerable (Abramsky et al., 2011; WHO, 2013). Women are more susceptible to violence when they are poor and unable to support themselves (Terry, 2004). Education empowers women and lowers their risk of violence, acting as a protective factor (Deyessa et al., 2010). Studies have demonstrated a stronger association between alcohol usage and domestic violence, with a higher prevalence among those who drink (Pernanen, 1976). Alcohol affects mental processes, decision-making, and problem-solving, which makes it more likely that a disagreement would escalate (Nordlicht, 1979; Malcolm, 1995). In a considerable number of cases of intimate partner violence, substance abuse co-occurs, enabling and aggravating violent tendencies (Abbey et al., 1995). Workplace harassment, restrictions on where one can work, and a lack of respect for divorced women and those who speak out against violence are other variables that contribute to abusive attitudes (ibid). Fear of escalation, societal expectations, despair, stigma, and economic dependency may all have an impact on victims' silence (Madhani et al., 2015; Monk, 2011). Due to a number of variables, including perceptions of the incident as trivial, humiliation, fear of the perpetrator, cultural obstacles, and unwillingness to recount the incident, reporting rates of domestic violence incidents to the police continue to be low (Marcus & Braaf, 2007; NCRVWC, 2009a). In order to create successful mitigation programs, the study aims to provide a thorough understanding of the causes and risk factors of domestic violence.
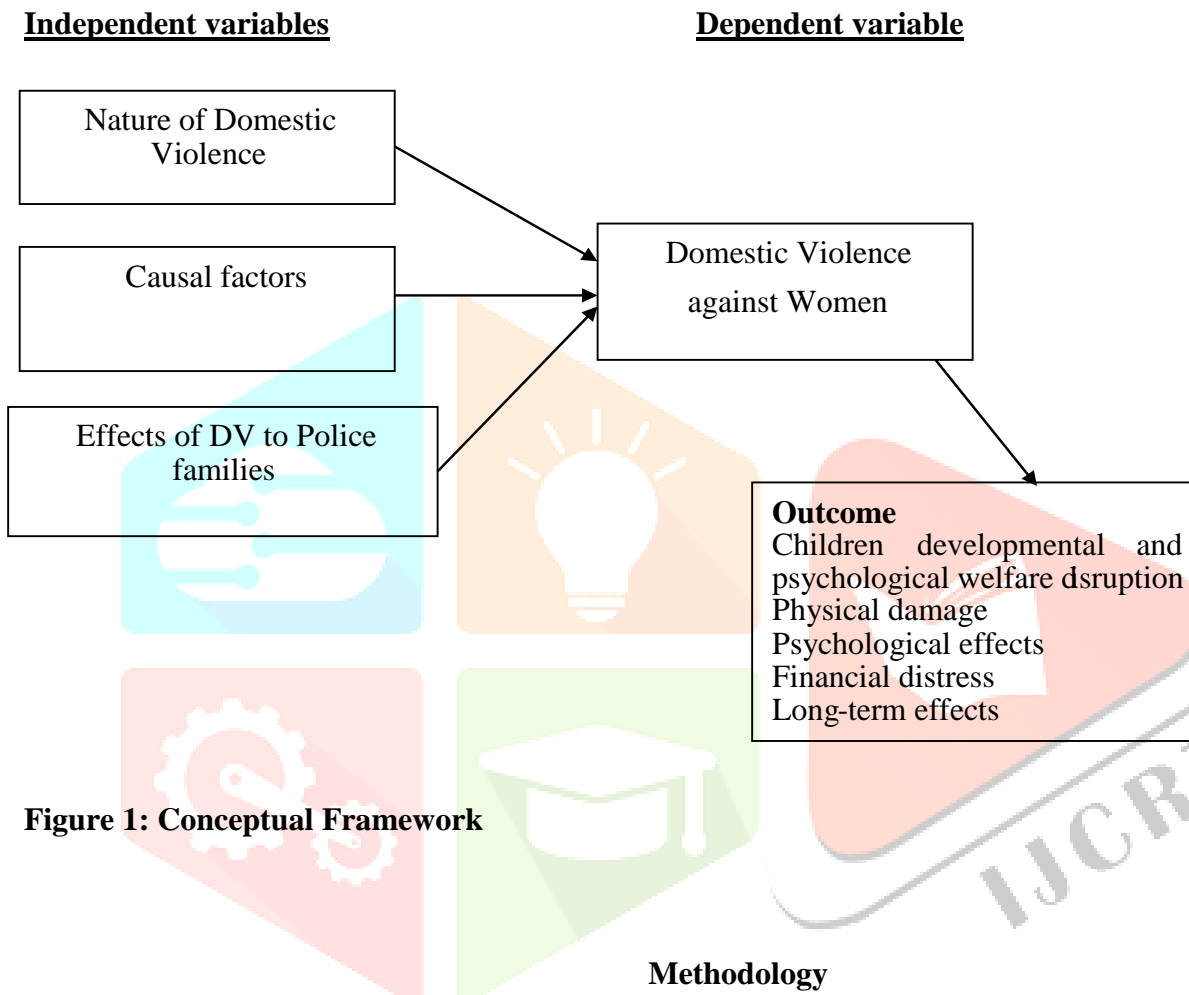
Theoretical underpinning

The feminist theory and the social learning theory served as the foundation for this investigation. The feminist approach to criminology stresses how women have historically been treated as property and in an inferior position (Smart, 1973; Smart, 1976). It emphasizes how patriarchy, male aggressiveness, and attempts to control women have an impact on how we perceive crime (Mouzos & Makkai, 2004). By focusing on women's social roles and lived experiences, feminist philosophy seeks to overcome gender inequity (Smart, 1973; Smart, 1976). Power disparities and societal norms of male dominance in the context of domestic violence contribute to violence against women (Mouzos & Makkai, 2004). The social learning theory, on the other hand, asserts that behavior is learned through reinforcement and observation (Bandura, 1977). Children pick up knowledge through seeing and copying role models in their surroundings (Bandura, 1977). They also pick up lessons from praise and criticism (Bandura, 1977). By focusing on the internal mechanisms involved in learning, this theory goes beyond conventional behavioral theories (Bandura, 1977). According to Sutherland's 1938 Social Learning Theory of Differential Association, people associate with close-knit groups in order to learn about and get drawn to particular crimes. People depart from social standards and learn to view criminal behavior favorably (Sutherland, 1938). Individuals reinforce behavior that is advantageous to them and reject painful stimuli, according to the theory of differential reinforcement (Akers & Burgess, 1966). The theories of feminist theory and social learning are complementary in the situation of domestic violence among police personnel. Domestic

violence is characterized by control and power disparities, according to feminist theory (Mouzos & Makkai, 2004). According to Bandura (1977), social learning theory explains how people pick up on and promote violent conduct. These theories work together to shed light on why domestic violence happens in society.

Conceptual Framework

The relationship between various independent variables, moderating variables, and the dependent variable is explained by the conceptual framework in Figure 1 below. It was created by looking at the connections and coordination between the problem, significance, and study's purpose, as well as the literature review.

Independent variables   **Dependent variable**

Nature of Domestic Violence

Causal factors

Effects of DV to Police families

Domestic Violence against Women

Outcome
Children developmental and psychological welfare dsruption
Physical damage
Psychological effects
Financial distress
Long-term effects

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Methodology

In order to investigate domestic violence in police households, this study used a cross-sectional descriptive research design that included qualitative research methods. A set of factors that affect the dependent variable are the main focus of a cross-sectional survey. Descriptive study designs are particularly useful when attempting to understand the interrelationships of multiple responses that are present in a given situation and make it challenging to understand the individual factors in isolation (Cooper & Schindler, 2000). The research area was the BuruBuru Police Division, which is located in Nairobi County's Nairobi East District's Makadara division. BuruBuru, Dandora, Shauri Moyo, and Jogoo Road are the division's four police stations. The organization is staffed by people of various ages and genders who have various positions within the organization. All 413 police houses in BuruBuru Division and all female domestic violence survivors who sought help at the Gender Based Violence Recovery Centre (GBVRC) were included in the research population.

To choose 30% of the respondents for this survey, a stratified random sampling technique was utilized. Since there is a defined selection process, this enables all respondents in the target group to have an equal opportunity of taking part in the study. According to Chandran (2004), the stratified proportionate random sampling technique assures that a more representative sample is obtained from a reasonably homogeneous population

and produces estimates of overall population parameters with more precision. Stratification attempts to lower standard error by giving some variance control. A total of 99 participants were selected as the sample size because it is the right number for the study and because the groups were fairly represented in the responses to the researcher's queries. Six senior police officers, two in control of the division, two in charge of a police station, and two in charge of the police lines or staff quarters were the study's major informants. This is due to the fact that they are the ones who are aware of domestic violence cases at their workplaces. Three Federation of Women Lawyers representatives were also consulted.

The primary data collecting tool for the study was a questionnaire, which made it possible to gather data on individuals' experiences with domestic abuse and so contribute to a comprehensive picture of the researchers' circumstances. Information from key informants was gathered using the interview schedule method. Data analysis for the study included both qualitative and quantitative methodologies. In order to profile sample characteristics and identify key trends in the data, descriptive statistics including frequencies, percentages, mean scores, and standard deviations were used to analyze the quantitative data gathered from the closed-ended questions. SPSS software package version 25 was used to do this. Thematic content analysis was used to process the qualitative data from the open-ended questions. Thematic content analysis, according to Creswell (2003), is a method for drawing conclusions by methodically and objectively identifying particular characteristics of messages and using the same methodology to relate trends. Additionally, a Pearson's correlation analysis was used in the study. The analysis aimed to clarify the link between the study variables and provide answers to the research questions. Tables and figures were used to display the outcomes of the descriptive statistics, while prose and verbatim quotes were used to display the findings from the qualitative data.

Results
Forms and Nature of Domestic Violence against Women
The purpose of the study was to determine the frequency of different types of domestic violence against women residing in police houses. They were questioned about whether they had experienced physical abuse or been denied rights. In police households, at least one out of every 10 women had experienced some kind of domestic abuse. The outcomes are shown in Table 2.

Table 2:
Prevalence of various forms of Domestic Violence against women

		Yes	No	Total
Have you ever been physically abused within the household	n	65	34	99
	%	65.7	34.3	100
Have you ever been psychologically abused within the household?	n	72	27	99
	%	72.7	27.3	100
Have you ever experienced abuse in the form of social isolation	n	73	26	99
	%	73.7	26.3	100
Have you ever experienced abuse in the form of financial control	n	69	30	99
	%	69.7	30.3	100
Have you ever been sexually abused within the household	n	79	20	99
	%	79.8	20.2	100

In contrast to 34.3% of the respondents who said they had never suffered physical abuse, the majority of respondents (65.7%) said they had been physically assaulted at home. In addition, 69.7% of the respondents reported experiencing financial abuses, such as not being given enough money to cover household food needs.

In addition, sexual abuse, social isolation, and emotional/psychological abuse affected 72.7%, 73.7%, and 79.8% of the respondents, respectively. Similarly, 70.7% of respondents said their spouse or partner had refused to help them improve their means of subsistence. These included the denial of support for starting a business endeavor and the unwillingness to pay their school fees to continue their education after paying them only for the first two children's education. Furthermore, two thirds (66.7%) of the respondents said they had encountered this type of violence when asked whether they had ever been refused what they believed to be their right. Support for the family, money to purchase property, denial of property, as well as denial of association with friends and coworkers, were some of the things they believed had been denied.

On the other hand, respondents were questioned about whether they knew other women who had been subjected to either physical or emotional abuse or both. Regarding this, 68.7% of the respondents said they knew individuals who had experienced either physical or emotional abuse at the hands of their spouses. Only 31.3% of respondents said they knew of no one who had ever been subjected to either physical or emotional abuse in a relationship, or both.

Frequency of Various Incidences among the Police Community

The study needed to determine how frequently different types of domestic abuse occur because a large percentage of women said they had experienced them.

Table 3:

Frequency of Various Incidences among the Police Community

	Very Rare	Rare	Once in a while	Frequent	Very Frequent	Total
Physical aggression or assault (hitting, kicking, biting, shoving, restraining, slapping, throwing objects)	4	48	47	0	0	99
	4.0%	48.5%	47.5%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Sexual abuse	0	0	36	56	7	99
	0.0%	0.0%	36.4%	56.6%	7.1%	100.0%
Controlling or domineering	0	0	26	31	42	99
	0.0%	0.0%	26.3%	31.3%	42.4%	100.0%
Intimidation	0	0	38	26	35	99
	0.0%	0.0%	38.4%	26.3%	35.4%	100.0%
Stalking	0	0	25	37	37	99
	0.0%	0.0%	25.3%	37.4%	37.4%	100.0%
Passive/covert abuse (e.g., neglect)	0	0	47	29	23	99
	0.0%	0.0%	47.5%	29.3%	23.2%	100.0%
Economic deprivation	0	29	41	29	0	99
	0.0%	29.3%	41.4%	29.3%	0.0%	100.0%

According to the data, nearly half of the respondents (48.5%) said that physical abuse or assault—including hitting, kicking, biting, shoving, restraining, slapping, and hurling objects—occurs infrequently, with 47.5% of the respondents saying that it occurs occasionally. In addition, the respondents (56.6%) said that sexual abuse happened frequently, 36.4% said it happened occasionally, and only 7% said it happened extremely frequently. Additionally, it was said that dominating or controlling behavior was a fairly common kind of violence in houses with police. Few days go by without them being the target of male control, according to 42.4% of respondents. Furthermore, 26.3% of respondents said that domineering or dominating behavior occurs

occasionally, compared to 31.3% who said it occurs frequently. On the other hand, intimidation was experienced regularly by 26.2%, usually by 35.4%, and occasionally by 38.4% of the respondents. 52.5% and 74.8% of the respondents, respectively, reported that passive/covert abuse and stalking happened frequently. According to the respondents, economic hardship occurs occasionally for 41.4% of them and frequently for 29.3% of them. This suggests that other types of interpersonal violence were more common than physical hostility or assault (hitting, kicking, biting, shoving, and restraint, slapping, and throwing things). Controlling or dominating behavior, passive/covert abuse (such as neglect), economic hardship, stalking, and intimidation were the most frequent types.

Factors Contributing to Domestic Violence against Women

According to reports, a number of factors have a role in domestic violence against women. In the Buruburu Police Division, the study aimed to determine the extent to which these characteristics contributed to domestic violence against women in police households (*see Table 4*).

Table 4:

Factors contributing to domestic violence against women

	Not at all	Little extent	Moderate extent	Great extent	Very great extent	Total
Economic factors	0	0	0	36	63	99
	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	36.4%	63.6%	100.0%
Socio-Cultural factors	0	0	32	53	14	99
	0.0%	0.0%	32.3%	53.5%	14.1%	100.0%
Individual factors	12	32	55	0	0	99
	12.1%	32.3%	55.6%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Situational Factors	0	1	56	34	8	99
	0.0%	1.0%	56.6%	34.3%	8.1%	100.0%

Economic reasons were the main causes of domestic violence against women, as shown by the results above, and all of the respondents reported that these factors significantly contributed to domestic violence in their households. The spouses' ability to meet the demands of the household and their level of income are both considered economic factors. More than two thirds (67.6%) of the respondents agreed that peer pressure, growing up witnessing domestic violence against women, and drinking were socio-cultural variables that significantly contributed to domestic violence against women. Furthermore, 42.4% of the respondents claimed that situational factors, such as stress at work and pressure from superiors (including senior police officers and bosses in other professions), significantly influenced domestic violence, while the majority believed that these factors only slightly affected violence against women. Individual factors, on the other hand, were assessed to have a moderate influence on domestic violence (55.6%), with 32.3% of respondents saying they have little influence on domestic violence against women.

Consequences of Domestic Violence

Victims of domestic violence as well as other dependents like children bear irreparable scars. The purpose of this study was to determine the degree to which domestic violence against women affects different parties, including victims and their children (*see Table 5*).

Table 5: *Effects of Domestic violence against women*

	Not at all	Little extent	Moderate extent	Great extent	Very great extent	Total
Children developmental and psychological welfare disruption (Depression, emotional insecurity and mental health disorders)	0	1	52	38	8	99
	0.0%	1.0%	52.5%	38.4%	8.1%	100.0%
Physical damage (Bruises, broken bones, head injuries, lacerations, and internal bleeding)	0	0	47	44	8	99
	0.0%	0.0%	47.5%	44.4%	8.1%	100.0%
Psychological effects (stress, fear, anxiety, Depression)	0	0	19	20	60	99
	0.0%	0.0%	19.2%	20.2%	60.6%	100.0%
Financial distress (lacking financial resources)	0	0	70	23	6	99
	0.0%	0.0%	70.7%	23.2%	6.1%	100.0%
Long-term effects (psychological/mental health issues and chronic physical health problems)	6	11	61	4	17	99
	6.1%	11.1%	61.6%	4.0%	17.2%	100.0%

According to the results, 46.5% of the respondents indicated that domestic violence had a significant impact on children's development and disrupted their psychological well-being (depression, emotional insecurity, and mental health illnesses). Additionally, 52.5% said that youngsters were affected in a moderate way. Similar to this, slightly more than half of those surveyed (52.5%) said that domestic violence causes significant physical harm (bruises, broken bones, head injuries, lacerations, and internal bleeding), while 47.5% said that the effects were only mild. In addition, eight out of ten respondents (80.8%) said that domestic violence significantly contributes to psychological impacts (stress, fear, worry, and depression). But 19.2% of people said that the consequences of stress, worry, fear, and despair were only mild. However, only 29.3% of respondents said that domestic violence significantly contributes to financial distress, while 70.7% said that it has a relatively negative impact on financial distress (lack of resources). Additionally, there were a variety of responses to the long-term repercussions of domestic abuse (psychological/mental health problems and persistent physical health concerns). The majority of respondents (61.6%) said that domestic violence had a mildly negative impact on their long-term emotional, mental, or physical health. However, 17.2% of respondents believed that domestic violence had a significant negative impact on their long-term psychological, mental, or physical wellbeing.

Strategies for Addressing Domestic Violence

The majority of abuse incidents (71.7%) were not reported, and some of the reasons included fear of more violence, threats from the abuser not to divulge their marital problems, and warnings from others to the abuser not to repeat the abuse. However, a number of approaches to combating the issue of domestic abuse were proposed, including by the police department, gender-based violence treatment centers, and families. To both the victims and the offenders, they all applied a counseling and guiding strategy. The greatest and most efficient way to prevent domestic violence at the individual home level, according to experts, is to try to foster and improve dialogue about important issues within the family structure. Additionally, it was recommended that parents work together to solve problems and adopt a more inclusive attitude toward one another.

Discussion of the Findings

Sexual abuse (79.8%), social isolation, such as refusing to associate with friends and coworkers (73.7%), psychological abuse (72.7%), abuse in the form of financial control (69.7%), and physical abuse, such as hitting,

kicking, biting, shoving, restraining, slapping, and object throwing (65.7%), were the most common types of domestic violence among police households in the Buruburu police division. Sadik (2000) claims that because isolation prevents you from seeing yourself reflected in anyone else, you can start to think that what he says about you is accurate. Men who exercised financial control over women were denying them of things they believed they were entitled to, including financial support for the family, funds to purchase property, and real estate. This result is consistent with King's (2011) research, which indicated that financial abuse can take many different forms, such as limiting access to money or making the victim accountable for all household finances while engaging in reckless financial behavior himself. Money turns into a tool the abuser uses to further control the victim, either by maintaining her financial dependence on him or by putting the burden of providing for the family onto the victim. In addition, Pence and Paymar (1993) found that one method of financial control used by violent perpetrators is to physically take away women's salary or social security benefits where they work or earn their own money. Intentional harassment of women at work can also be done to cause them to lose their jobs and the level of financial independence that comes with it. Further, King (2011) noted that depriving the woman of opportunities to make money or from keeping it, denying them access to sufficient funds for housekeeping, making the victim responsible for all expenditures, denying access to resources, and putting all debt in the victim's name.

Physical aggression or attack, such as striking, kicking, biting, shoving, restraint, slapping, or hurling things, was reported to occur frequently (47.5%), and sexual abuse was reported to occur frequently by 56.6% of the respondents. King (2011) asserts that many married women do not view forced sex as rape if they are married to or living with the offender. They believe that once they join into a marriage contract, their husbands have the legal right to unrestricted sexual access to their wives (Sexual Offences Act, 2006), and it is their obligation to offer their bodies and satisfy their husbands' sexual needs. In addition, 42.4% of respondents reported that controlling or domineering behavior occurred very frequently in police households, 35.4% reported that intimidation happened frequently, 74.8% and 52.5% reported that stalking and passive/covert abuse occurred frequently, and 41.4% said that economic hardship occasionally occurs. The inference is that physical assault or aggression—such as striking, kicking, biting, shoving, and restraint—was less common than other types of domestic violence. Controlling or dominating behavior, passive/covert abuse (such as neglect), economic hardship, stalking, and intimidation were the most frequent types. This supports Saltzman's findings from 2002, who highlighted that the behavior is meant to frighten and persecute and takes the form of threats, desertion, verbal abuse, ongoing humiliation, and threats to revoke parental rights. Victims of psychological abuse suffer devastating effects. It deprives the individuals of their self-worth, capacity for reason, and lack of confidence.

The second goal was to investigate the causes of domestic violence in the BuruBuru Police Division. Economic factors, such as income level and spouses' ability to provide for the needs of the home, were the main causes of domestic violence against women (100%); socio-cultural factors, such as peer pressure, growing up witnessing domestic violence on women, and alcoholism, were also significant contributors, accounting for more than two thirds (67.6%); and situational factors, such as stress at work and pressure from superiors. Generally speaking, the respondents said that poverty, illiteracy, drug and alcohol abuse, infidelity between partners, which causes disrespect between partners, miscommunication, financial status, poor working conditions, uncontrolled men's egos and masculinity, and a sense of insecurity in marriage were the main causes of domestic violence. For fear of retaliation from the offenders, many of these incidents go unreported. He (the offender, a police officer) might constantly remind you that you are a police officer's wife and that, as Saltzman (2002) pointed out, who you hang out with reflects on both him and his department. He might inform you that since you are a part of the police family as well, it is your responsibility to maintain the good name of the family in the eyes of the public. Azam and Irma (2008) claim that male dominance, control, and power structures are

some causes of violence against women in societies where male power, domination, and control are regarded as honorable.

The final goal was to evaluate how domestic violence affected police families in the BuruBuru Police Division. Basically, the respondents indicated that divorce, financial hardship, injuries, homicide, destruction of property, and depression were the main effects of domestic violence for those groups of people. Domestic violence against women was found to have a significant negative impact on children's development as well as disruptions to their psychological well-being, including depression, emotional instability, and mental health disorders (46.5%), as well as physical harm like bruises, broken bones, head injuries, lacerations, and internal bleeding (52.5%). Additionally, it was revealed that domestic violence causes psychological effects (stress, fear, anxiety, and depression) to a great extent (80.8%); financial distress to a great extent (29.3%); and respondents' opinions on the long-term effects of domestic violence varied, with 61.6% indicating moderate effects on psychological/mental health issues and chronic physical health problems, while 17.2% reported domestic violence causing long-term effects to a great extent.

Conclusions

The analysis of gender and crime places a focus on how women are historically seen as property, how men attempt to control women, and how women are in a submissive position. The use of physical violence, psychological abuse, and non-consensual sexual behavior are all examples of coercive behaviors used by police officers to gain and keep control over their spouses. Physical aggressiveness, sexual abuse, psychological abuse, and financial control were common types of marital violence. Since it was considered to be a right associated with marriage, many instances of sexual abuse went undetected. Economic issues, sociocultural factors, and situational variables including stress and pressure at work were among the factors causing marital violence. The study looked at how domestic violence affects families as well. Consequences included divorce, financial hardship, harm, murder, property destruction, despair, and detrimental effects on children's psychological and developmental wellbeing. Due to the threat of revenge, the majority of domestic violence occurrences were unreported, but some organizations offered advice and counseling to victims. Victims of violent crimes frequently got counseling and stern warnings to stop.

Recommendations

i.   Psychoeducation and awareness-raising are needed to help people notice abusive behaviors given the high prevalence of verbal, physical, and sexual violence against women in police households. All facets of society should be addressed by comprehensive government policy against domestic violence.

ii. Mechanisms for resolving disputes: Domestic violence in houses of police officers was found to be highly influenced by socioeconomic factors. It's possible that conventional police disciplinary measures are insufficient to resolve this problem. The report recommends putting conflict resolution techniques into practice, including as mediation, counseling, and outreach programs run by the government and non-governmental organizations that are specially designed to target the population residing in police areas.

iii. Programs for holistic intervention: Women and their children are both impacted by domestic abuse. Intervention programs should adopt a comprehensive strategy, educating and supporting victims, offenders, and children. These initiatives ought to work to end the vicious cycle of abusive actions and stop them from being passed on to future generations. Counseling is one of the support services that therapists and organizations that work with abused women should provide to help victims deal with the fallout after a divorce or separation.

iv. Reforming the judicial system will make it more understanding of how domestic abuse affects women. Government, non-governmental organizations, and women's organizations should make plans to train

and assist state officials. This would ensure that women's concerns are effectively handled within the legal system and assist improve attitudes about domestic abuse.

A longitudinal study should be conducted in the future to examine the effects on women when they leave an abusive relationship. Last but not least, additional research might concentrate on men as perpetrators in order to advise intervention programs on the kind of assistance they may need.

References

Adebayo, A. (2014). Domestic Violence against Men: Balancing the Gender Issues in Nigeria. American Journal of Sociological Research.

Ali, F. (2017). *Women's agency and violence against women: The case of the coalition on violence against women in Kenya*. African Conflict and Peacebuilding Review.

Amos, P. (1999). Childhood victimization and lack of empathy as predictors of sexual offending against women and children. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, *17*(12), 1291-1307.

Bagshaw, D. and Chung, D. (2000). *Women, Men and Domestic Violence*, Partnerships Against

Domestic Violence, Commonwealth of Australia, Canberra.

Bandura, A. (1977). *Social Learning Theory*. Oxford, England: Prentice-Hall.

Bostock, J. A. N. (2003). Domestic violence against women: Understanding social processes and women's experiences. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, 19(2), 95110.

Brinkerhoff, M. B. (1992). Religious Involvement and Spousal Violence: The Canadian Case, *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion*. Vol 3: 27.

Burgess, R. L., & Akers, R. L. (1966). A differential association-reinforcement theory of criminal behavior. *Social problems*, *14*(2), 128-147.

Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, 2000: 14

Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, 2002: 8

Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Family Violence in Canada: A Statistical Profile 2002 Ottawa: Canada.

Chandran, K. (2004). Endocytosis by random initiation and stabilization of clathrin-coated pits. *Cell*, *118*(5), 591-605.

Chiorri, C. et al. (2015). Personality Traits Moderate the Effect of Workload Sources on Perceived Workload in Flying Column Police Officers. Frontiers in Psychology, 6(1835), 1-14.

Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2000). Business research model.

Cooper, D. R., Schindler, P. S. (2003). Business research methods.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). Advanced mixed methods research designs. *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research*, 4(3), 209-240.

Examining Workplace Problems, Stress, Job Satisfaction and Consideration of Career Change. International Journal of Police Science and Management, 13(1), 37-53.

Family Violence, Sage, Newbury Park, CA, FIDA Kenya (2008). *Gender-Based Domestic Violence in Kenya. Nairobi:* FIDA Kenya.

Flanzer, J. P. (1993). Alcohol and other drugs are key causal agents of

Ganley, I. G. (2011). *Distinct autophagosomal-lysosomal fusion mechanism revealed by thapsigargin-induced autophagy arrest. Molecular cell,* 42(6), 731-743.

Gelles, R. J., and Loseke, D. (eds.), (1993). Current Controversies on

Goetz, A. & Dore-Weeks, R. (2018). What about the men? Frankly, it depends on whyyou're asking. *The Guardian.*

Grandin, E., Lupri, E. & Brinkerhoff, M. B. (1998). *Couple Violence and Psychological Distress,* Canadian Journal of Public Health.

Hassell, K. D., Archbold, C. A., &Stichman, A. J. (2011). Comparing the Workplace Experiences of Male and Female Police Officers:

Headey, B., Scott, D., & De Vaus, D. (1999). Domestic violence in Australia: are women and men equally violent? *Australian Social Monitor*, 2(3), 57-62.

James, K. M., Seddon, E. I., & Brown, J. (2002). *Using it or losing it: Men's constructions of their violence towards female partners*. Australian Domestic and Family Violence Clearinghouse, UNSW.

Jaswal, 2000, K. (2000). Crime, Criminals, Treatment, and Punishment: An Exploratory Study of Views among College Students in India and the US. *Crime and Justice in India*, 74.

Johnson, L. B. (1991b). On the front lines: Police stress and family well-being. Hearing Before the Select Committee on Children, Youth, and Families House of Representatives: 102 Congress First Session May 20, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC, pp. 32–48

Johnson, L. B., Nieva, V., and Wilson, M. (1985). Police Work-Family Stress Study: Interim Report, Westat, Maryland.

Johnson, M. P. (1991). Patriarchal terrorism and common couple violence: Two forms of violence against women. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 283-294.

Johnson, M. P. (1995). Conflict and control: Symmetry and asymmetry in domestic violence. *Couples in conflict*, 95-104.

Brooks, G. R., Deitch, I., & Howell, C. W. (1997). Missing fathers: Aging traditional men and familial estrangement. *Counseling the aging and their families. The family psychology and counseling series*, 73-85.

Kimuna, S. R., &Djamba, Y. K. (2008). Gender based violence: Correlates of physical and sexual wife abuse in Kenya. *Journal of family violence*, 23, 333-342.

Vullnetari, J., & King, R. (2011). *Remittances, gender and development: Albania's society and economy in transition*. IB Tauris.

Kotler, P. (2011). *Marketing insights from A to Z: 80 concepts every manager needs to know*. John Wiley & Sons.

MarcuS, G., &Braaf, R. (2007). *Domestic and family violence studies, surveys and statistics: Pointers to policy and practice*. Australian Domestic and Family Violence Clearinghouse.

Migliaccio, T. A. (2001). Marginalizing the battered male. *The Journal of Men's Studies*, 9(2), 205-226.

Miller, K. E., Kulkarni, M., & Kushner, H. (2006). Beyond trauma-focused psychiatric epidemiology: Bridging research and practice with war-affected populations. *American journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 76(4), 409-422.

Mills, L. G. (2008). Shame and intimate abuse: The critical missing link between cause and cure. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 30(6), 631-638.

Makkai, T., &Mouzos, J. (2004). Women's experiences of male violence: findings from the Australian component of the International Violence Against Women Survey.

Straus, M. A., Kantor, G. K. K., & Moore, D. M. (1994). Trends in cultural norms approving marital violence from 1968 to 1968 in relation to gender, class, and other social characteristics. In *annual meeting of the American Sociological Association, Los Angeles*.

Straus, M. A. (1999). The controversy over domestic violence by women. *Violence in intimate relationships*, 17-44.

Mutiso, M. M., Chessa, S. R., Chesire, M. A., &Kemboi, L. (2010). Factors leading to domestic violence in low-income residential areas in Kenya: A case study of low-income residential areas in Kisumu City. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies*, 1(2), 65-75.

Neidig, P. H., Cantos, A. L., & O'Leary, K. D. (1992). Injuries of women and men in a treatment program for domestic violence. *Journal of Family Violence*, 9(2), 113-124.

Neidig, P. H., Russell, H. E., & Seng, A. F. (1992). FOP marital aggression survey. *National FOP Journal, Fall/Winter*, *1*, 15.

Newton, K. (2001). Trust, social capital, civil society, and democracy. *International Political Science Review*, 22(2), 201-214.

Nicholson, H., & Carroll, B. (2010). Identity undoing and power relations in leadership development. *Human Relations*, 66(9), 1225-1248.

Nordlicht, S. (1979). Effects of stress on the police officer and family. NY State J. Med. 79(3): 400–401

Owens, L. K. (2002). Introduction to survey research design. In *SRL fall 2002 seminar series* 5(1), 78-105.

Palermo, T., Bleck, J. & Peterman, A. (2014).Tip of the Iceberg: Reporting and Gender-Based Violence in Developing Countries. *American Journal of Epidemiology*, 179 (5): 602–612.

Parker, K. (1999). *Stereotypes in the News Media Hurt Us All*, Orlando Sentinel.

Pence, E., & Paymar, M. (1993). *Education groups for men who batter: The Duluth model*. Springer Publishing Company.

Perilla, S. L., Bakeman, R., and Norris, F. H. (1988). Culture and domestic violence: The ecology of abused Latinas. *Violence and Victims*,9, 325-339.

Sadi, M. (200o). Socioeconomic, psychosocial, behavioural, and psychological determinants of BMI among young women: differing patterns for underweight and overweight/obesity. *The European Journal of Public Health*, *16*(3), 324-330.

Saltzman, L. E. (2002). *Sexual violence surveillance: Uniform definitions and recommended data elements*. Atlanta, GA: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Injury Prevention and Control.

Sgambelluri, R. (2000). Police culture, police training, and police administration: Their impact on violence in police families. In *Domestic violence by police officers: A compilation of papers submitted to the Domestic Violence by Police Officers Conference at the FBI Academy, Quantico, VA* (pp. 309-322).

Siegel, K. (2003). Empirical research methods in software engineering. In *Empirical methods and studies in software engineering* (pp. 7-23). Springer Berlin Heidelberg.

Sikweyiya, Y., Addo-Lartey, A. A., Alangea, D. O., Dako-Gyeke, P., Chirwa, E. D., Coker-Appiah, D., ... &Jewkes, R. (2020). Patriarchy and gender-inequitable attitudes as drivers of intimate partner violence against women in the central region of Ghana. *BMC public health*, *20*, 1-11.

Steinmetz, H. N., & Lucca, M. (1999). Domestic Violence in the Vietnamese Immigrant Community An Exploratory Study. *Violence against women*, *5*(7), 769-795.

Sutherland, G. B. (1938). The relation between the force constant, the inter-nuclear distance, and the dissociation energy of a diatomic linkage. *Proceedings Mathematical Sciences*, *8*(5), 341-344.

Taft, A., Hegarty, K., & Flood, M. (2001). Are men and women equally violent to intimate partners? *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Public Health*, *25*(6), 498-500.

Tomison, A. M. (2000). *Exploring family violence: links between child maltreatment and domestic violence*. Australian Institute of Family Studies.

Vic Health (2009). *National Survey on Community Attitudes to Violence Against Women 2009: Changing Cultures, Changing Attitudes—Preventing Violence Against Women*. Melbourne: Victorian Health Promotion Foundation.

Violanti, J. M. (1996). Police suicide: An overview. Police Stud. 19:77–89

WHO (2021). *Global and regional estimates of violence against women: prevalence and health impacts of intimate partner violence and non-partner sexual violence*. WHO: Gene