

DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AND HOUSEHOLD INCOME POVERTY IN BABATI

DISTRICT, MANYARA REGION, TANZANIA

REVOCATUS ALOYCE SETEMBO

**A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN RURAL
DEVELOPMENT OF SOKOINE UNIVERSITY OF AGRICULTURE.**

MOROGORO, TANZANIA.

2016

ABSTRACT

Gender Based Violence and income poverty are the major social and economic problems affecting women in African countries including Tanzania. Cultural factors are believed to exacerbate the problem. The study from which this dissertation is based was conducted to explore the link between domestic violence and household income poverty in the district. Specifically, the study assessed the extent of domestic violence against women and women's perception about domestic violence. The study also examined the extent of income poverty, and determined relationships between domestic violence and household income among communities. A cross-sectional research design was employed whereby a questionnaire was administered to 100 respondents. SPSS Version 16 was used to analyse the data descriptively and inferentially. The results showed that the extent of domestic violence against women was high as slightly more than half (57.8%) of the women interviewed reported to be affected by domestic violence. However, the results also showed that 54.0% of the women had positive perception towards domestic violence. Also, it was found that 31.0% of the respondents were poor, while 43.1% of the respondents had an income below TZS 50 000 per year, which is far below the national poverty line of TZS 437784 per adult equivalent per year, indicating that they were experiencing high income poverty. Domestic violence had no significant relationship with household income at $p > 0.05$, which means that domestic violence was not necessarily a cause of income poverty. That means domestic violence can occur to women of all levels of all economic statuses. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted and the alternative hypothesis was rejected. The recommendations from the study are the communities through Government and NGOs should create awareness to both men and women on the negative consequences of domestic violence. They should also be in a position to dispel customs and beliefs that nurture and condone domestic violence.

DECLARATION

I, REVOCATUS ALOYCE SETEMBO, do hereby declare to the Senate of Sokoine University of Agriculture, that this dissertation is my original work done within the period of registration and that it has neither been submitted nor being concurrently submitted in any other institution.

RevocatusAloyceSetembo
(MA Rural Development Candidate)

Date

The above declaration is confirmed

Dr. A.N. Sikira
(Supervisor)

Date

COPYRIGHT

No part of this dissertation may be reproduced, stored in any retrieval system, or transmitted in any form or by any means without prior written permission of the author or Sokoine University of Agriculture in that behalf.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to thank the Almighty God who gave me good and free health. It is the Almighty God who helped me in every step of my work through cooperating with others. I express my heartfelt thanks and gratitude also to my parents Mr. and Mrs Mbisa, Dr. Helli and Prof. Kim Abel Kayunze for their material, financial and psychological support. Furthermore, my profound gratitude goes to my supervisor, Dr. A. N.Sikira for her guidance, patience, moral support and understanding from the initial stages of writing the proposal up to the time of production of this dissertation.

My special thanks also go to my relatives, friends and neighbours who, in one way or another, supported me financially and morally to accomplish my studies successfully. Also, my sincere gratitude is extended to my fellow students at Sokoine University of Agriculture (SUA) for their advice, reactions and re-interpretations that encouraged me to delve deeper into the study and come up with this useful piece of work.

My special thanks also go to Staff members of the Development Studies Institute of Sokoine University of Agriculture, for their constructive comments during the entire period from research proposal to dissertation writing. I am sure, it is not easy to mention everyone for his or her support, but I wish to express my sincere thanks to all my colleagues and friends who helped me in one way or another at different stages of my studies. I really acknowledge their moral support. However, any mistakes or omissions in this dissertation should be directed to me.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my parents Mr. And Mrs Mbisa for their encouragement and support from the beginning up to the end of my studies. I also, dedicate the work to Beatrice Charles my Wife and Beatus Revocatus Kunambi my Son for their psychological support; may God bless them abundantly.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	ii
DECLARATION	iii
COPYRIGHT	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
DEDICATION	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii
LIST OF TABLES	xi
LIST OF FIGURES	xii
LIST OF APPENDICES	xiii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xiv
CHAPTER ONE	1
1.0 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background Information	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem	3
1.3 Justification of the Study	4
1.4 Objectives of the Study	4
1.4.1 General objective	5
1.4.2 Specific objectives	5
1.4.3 Research questions	5
1.4.4 Research Hypothesis	5
CHAPTER TWO	6
2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW	6
2.1 Definitions of the Key Terms and Concepts	6
2.1.1 Domestic violence	6

2.1.2 Household.....	6
2.2 Measurement of Poverty	7
2.2.1 The “Head Count Ratio” Index	8
2.2.3 The poverty gap index.....	8
2.2.4 Composite index.....	8
2.3 Social Indicators of Poverty	9
2.3.1 Household assets	10
2.3.2 Housing condition	11
2.4 Poverty in the World	13
2.5 Poverty Status in Tanzania.....	13
2.5.1 Assets and poverty	14
2.6 Perception of Women towards Domestic Violence	14
2.6.1 Perceptions and experiences of spousal violence.....	14
2.6.2 Perception towards spousal violence.....	15
2.6.3 Societal acceptance of domestic violence	17
2.7 Domestic Violence and Income Poverty	18
2.7.1 Contribution of poverty to violence	20
2.7.2 Contribution of violence to poverty	21
2.7.3 Economic violence	22
2.8 Extent of Domestic Violence	23
2.9 Conceptual Framework	24
CHAPTER THREE	27
3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	27
3.1 The Geographical Location	27
3.2 Justification of the Study Area	29
3.3 Research Design.....	29

3.4 Sampling Procedure	29
3.5 Population and Sample Size	30
3.6 Data Collection.....	31
3.6.1 Primary data	31
3.6.2 Data collection from key informants.....	32
3.7 Data Analysis	32
3.7.1 Quantitative data analysis.....	32
3.8 Reliability and Validity of the Measurements.....	33
3.7.5 Limitations of the study.....	34
CHAPTER FOUR.....	35
4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION.....	35
4.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents.....	35
4.1.1 Age	35
4.1.2 Marital status	35
4.1.3 Occupations of the respondents.....	36
4.1.4 Level of education.....	37
4.2 Extent of Domestic Violence against Women	38
4.2.1 Common forms of domestic violence in the study area	38
4.2.2 Rate of occurrence of domestic violence	41
4.2.3 Domestic violence occurrence over a period of time	42
4.2.4 Perpetrators of domestic violence	43
4.2.5 The extent of domestic violence against women	44
4.3 Socio-demographic Characteristics and Domestic Violence	47
4.3.1 Age and domestic violence.....	47
4.3.2 Marital status and domestic violence	48
4.3.3 Occupation of the respondents and domestic violence	49

4.3.4 Level of education and domestic violence	50
4.4 Perception of Women towards Domestic Violence	52
4.5 Extent of Income Poverty among the Respondents	56
4.5.1 Possession of livestock	56
4.5.2 Possession of other assets.....	57
4.5.3 Income of the respondents.....	57
4.7 The link between Domestic Violence and Household Income	58
CHAPTER FIVE.....	62
5.0 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	62
5.1 Conclusions	62
5.2 Recommendations	63
5.3 Areas for Future Research.....	64
REFERENCES	65
APPENDICES	81

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Sampling Scheme.....	30
Table 2: Ages of the respondents	35
Table 3: Marital status for the respondents	36
Table 4: Distribution of respondents according to their occupations.....	37
Table 5: Distribution of respondents according to the level of education.....	37
Table 6: Common forms of domestic violence in multiple response.....	40
Table 7: Responses on the rate (1 year) of occurrence of domestic violence	42
Table 8: Occurrence of domestic violence over a period of time	43
Table 9: Responses on perpetrators of domestic violence	44
Table 10: The extent of domestic violence	45
Table 11: Domestic violence and their categorization	46
Table 12: Level of domestic violence and age of respondents.....	48
Table 13: Level of domestic violence and marital status	49
Table 14: Level of Domestic violence and occupation	50
Table 15: Level of domestic violence and education	51
Table 16: Perception of women towards Domestic Violence	53
Table 17: Distribution of Respondent by Possession of Livestock.....	57
Table 18: Distribution respondents by assets owned	57
Table 19: Income of the household per year	58
Table 20: Link between domestic violence and income of the respondents.....	61

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Conceptual frame work on domestic violence and household income poverty in
Manyara region, Babati District.....26

Figure 2: Map of Babati District showing the study areas28

Figure 3: Index of Extent (level) and their categorization46

Figure 4: Perception of women towards Domestic Violence.....54

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Operational definitions, indicators, and measurement levels of key variables
.....81

Appendix 2: Checklist for key informants82

Appendix 3: Questionnaire of the households heads (spousal).....83

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
BDHS	Bangladesh Demographic Healthy Survey
CHR	Commission on Human Rights
CI	Care International
CRHRP	Country Report on Human Rights Practices
CSA	Community Supported Agriculture
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
DV	Domestic Violence
EDHS	Egypt Demographic and Healthy Survey
EDHS	Ethiopia Demographic and Health Survey
FGDs	Focus Group Discussion
GBV	Gender Based Violence
GBVR	Gender Base Violence Report
HHBS	Household Hold Budget Survey
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HRCP	Human Rights Commission of Pakistan
ILFS	Integrated Labour Force Survey
ILO	International Labour Organization
ILRF	International Labour Rights Forum
IPV	Intimate Partner Violence
LHRC	Legal and Human Rights Centre
MDGP	Millennium Development Goals Programme
NBS	National Bureau of Statistics

NCVS	National Crime Victimization Survey
NIPORT	National Institute of Population Research and Training
NSGRP	National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty
NY	New York
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategic Paper
SSA	South Saharan Africa
TAMWA	Tanzania Media Women's Association
TAWJA	Tanzania Women Judges Association
TDHS	Tanzania Demographic and Household Survey
TPHA	Tanzania Public Health Association
UN	United Nations
UNDFW	United Nations Development Fund for Women
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNF	United Nation Foundation
UNFPA	United Nation Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VAW	Violence against Women
VEO	Village Executive Officer
WEO	Ward Executive Officer
WHO	World Health Organizations

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background Information

Income poverty is a predominant problem among rural women worldwide, whereby women are about 70% of the world's poor (NBS, 2009). Similarly, approximately 60% of women in Tanzania are estimated to live in poverty in spite of being the major actors in production process (USAID, 2005). Nevertheless, experience shows that women at the household level are likely to encounter more with income poverty since they have low access to land and other production resources as compared to men (Saffitz, 2010). Moreover, women lack time to engage in other income generating activities due to high workload and violence, mainly domestic violence (Williams and Mickelson, 2008).

Furthermore, Tanzanian women and girls experience widespread of domestic violence in both household and public institutions. For example, it is estimated that about 41% of women in Dar es Salaam and 56% of women in Mbeya who are married or live in intimate relationships with men have experienced physical or sexual violence in the hands of men they live with (TAWJA, 2011).

Additionally, women working in the informal sectors are restricted from doing income generating activities due to domestic violence. Women traders may not be able to travel far from their homes. In view of this, women farmers in rural settings may find it safer to go to the fields and all women who need to collect water, rations, or firewood may feel compelled to restrict these activities because of violence. Domestic violence can also drive a woman into poverty by preventing her from participating fully in education and economic activities (Commission on Human Right, 1995).

Moreover, victims of domestic violence often have related difficulties such as limited or inconsistent work experience, poor education, physical and mental health problems, and substance abuse issues (Lloyd and Talus, 1999; Raphael, 2000; Logan *et al.*, 2007; Mickelson and Williams, 2007). Such problems pose serious barriers in escaping violence and achieving self-sufficiency, and present a challenging situation for social services programmes (Renzetti, 2009). There are many forms of domestic violence including physical, sexual, economic and emotional violence (UNICEF, 2000). Furthermore, the causes of domestic violence include political, legal, institutional, lack of education, excessive alcohol consumption behaviour among men and women, and economic factors (Martin, 2004).

The relationship between domestic violence and income poverty is complex. This is because; it presents complex challenges for policy development, crossing a broad range of substantive issues, including crime, family formation, employment and economic opportunity (Davies, 1998). In some situations, income poverty may exacerbate the likelihood of experiencing domestic violence for women, but in other situations, domestic violence may result into income poverty for women in previously financially sound situations. This is because; women who escape violent relationships are often left with no financial resources (Goetz *et al.*, 2010).

Despite the fact that Tanzania Government has enacted various laws to address gender violence, there is no specific punishment provided for domestic violence perpetrators. Established laws addressing gender violence include Sexual Offences Special Provision Act (SOSPA) of 1998 to address rape cases, Female Genital Mutilation and sexual harassment (TAWJA, 2011), and the Marriage Act of 1971, Section 66, which condemns spousal violence. Although, the problem of domestic violence has been prevalent in

Tanzania, many studies conducted in Manyara Region such as by WHO (2005), USAID (2008) and URT (2011) concentrated just on domestic violence without integrating it with household income poverty. Therefore, the study was conducted in Manyara Region, specifically Babati District, to link domestic violence and household income poverty.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The Tanzanian government adopted a National Plan of Action to Combat Violence against Women and Children (2001-2015). In 2008, the government took further steps to address spousal and non-spousal batter by endorsing the United Nations Development Fund for Women “Say No to Violence” campaign, and also women were encouraged to speak out about spousal battery and be proactive in protecting their rights (Kipobota, 2009). However, although there are plans and campaigns to reduce domestic violence, incidences of domestic violence are increasing in the society. For example, in 2007, statistics indicate that about 6531 cases of violence against women were reported in Tanzania (Kipobota *et al.*, 2009). Sexual violence is increasing; for example 5.1% of sexual violence cases were reported in 2002, while 4.6% and 6.6 % cases were reported in 2003 and 2004, respectively. In 2005, it was 6.4% and in 2006, it was 6.9% while in 2007, it was 10.7% in Tanzania (URT, 2010). Furthermore, in 2008, over 40% of Tanzanian women reported to have experienced physical violence (Rugira, 2015).

Despite the fact that the laws have been formulated by the Government, the cases of violence have been increasing in the society, especially among married women and intimate partners, leading to many families to be poor in terms of income poverty and assets, as a result of disintegration of families. Domestic violence has increased instead of decreasing; therefore, this study intended to assess the linkage between domestic violence and household income poverty in the study area.

1.3 Justification of the Study

Physically injured or traumatized women have less energy to carry out income generating activities and household chores. In that case, violence ultimately affects the contribution of women to the development of household income as well as the national development at large (WHO, 2002). On the other hand, Tanzania Public Health Association (URT, 2011) reported that women in Manyara are abused through battering, raping, deserting, intimidation, depriving widows of property ownership and inheritance, early marriage for girls, depriving girls of their right to education, forced sex, insults, and denying women of engaging in any income generating activity.

The study is in line with Goal 4 of the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty that is about women empowerment and reduction of crime, including domestic and gender based violence (URT, 2011). This study gives empirical information to various stakeholders including planners, policy makers, implementers of various development interventions, women and men about domestic violence and its impact on the process of reducing income poverty at the household level among women, especially in rural areas. However, the study helps women to understand the problem of domestic violence in their life as it was regarded to be one among the possible causes of income poverty, poor health and death. The findings from this study raise awareness among women concerning their rights at the household, community, society and national levels.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study were divided into two main categories: general objective and specific objectives as itemized hereunder.

1.4.1 General objective

The general objective of the study was to assess the relationship between domestic violence and household income poverty.

1.4.2 Specific objectives

- (i) To assess the extent of domestic violence against women in the study area.
- (ii) To assess women's perception toward domestic violence.
- (iii) To examine the extent of income poverty among communities in the study area.
- (iv) To determine relationship between domestic violence and household income among women.

1.4.3 Research questions

- i) What is the extent of domestic violence among women in Babati District?
 - a) What are the forms of domestic violence practised in Babati District?
 - b) What is the rate of occurrence of domestic violence per year?
 - c) Who are the perpetrators of domestic violence?
- ii) How do women perceive domestic violence?
- iii) What is the extent of income poverty in Babati District?

1.4.4 Research Hypothesis

H₀, There is no significant relationship between domestic violence and household income poverty.

H₁, There is significant relationship between domestic violence and household income poverty.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Definitions of the Key Terms and Concepts

2.1.1 Domestic violence

Domestic violence (DV) can be defined as a pattern of behaviour in any relationship that is used to gain or maintain power and control over an intimate partner. Domestic violence includes sexual, emotional, economic or psychological actions or threats of actions that influence another person. They include any behaviour that frightens, intimidates, terrorizes, manipulates, hurts, humiliates, blames, injures or wounds someone (Peggy, 2011). But also, DV can be defined as any harmful act, that is perpetrated against women's wishes and that is based on socially ascribed (gender) differences between males and females (World Bank, 2003; Heise *et al.*, 1999).

2.1.2 Household

Household can be defined as a group of persons who usually eat and share some common living arrangements (Havilland, 2003). The household is the basic residential unit in which economic production, consumption; inheritance, child rearing, and shelter are organized and carried out. The household is the basic unit of analysis in many social, microeconomic and government models. The term refers to all individuals who live in the same dwelling. In economics, a household is a person or a group of people living in the same residence (Shettin and Sullivan, 2004). In this dissertation the household is considered because most of the individuals are found to live within households. The individuals concerned in the household in this research were women. The concentration on women as individuals was targeted to the household because they are the main producers, caretakers of the

family, controllers of the income of the family, and also, they are the most sufferers of domestic violence compared to any individual in the household.

Income poverty describes a family or person who lives below the minimum acceptable way of life. It is most likely to occur in people who have low income. Women, disabled and single parents are at a higher risk of being in income poverty. Changes in the economy, employment being terminated and low income can have negative effects on income poverty (Bagachwa, 1994). The most commonly way used to measure poverty is based on income. A person is considered poor if his or her income level falls below some minimum level necessary to meet basic needs. This minimum level is usually called the “poverty line”. What is necessary to satisfy basic needs varies across time and societies. Therefore, poverty lines vary in time and place, and each country uses lines which are appropriate to its level of development, societal norms and values (UNDP, 2004). Income poverty could be measured in different ways, but in this study, it was measured in terms of income, and possession of assets and livestock.

2.2 Measurement of Poverty

Measurement of poverty uses various concepts of both primary and secondary income. Primary income accrues in the form of primary claims on resources and arises directly out of the productive process of work and accumulation. These include results of the labour process that is employment (self/hired), returns on rental property and from investments or productive assets (Jazairy *et al.*, 1995). On the other hand, secondary incomes are results of transferring and social actions or interventions, which empower the recipients to actively engage in productive work such as investments in education, health, food security, sanitary facilities and environmental protection (Jazairy *et al.*, 1995). Some ways of measuring poverty are explained in sub-sections 2.2.1, 2.2.2 and 2.2.3.

2.2.1 The “Head Count Ratio” Index

The “head count ratio” index measures the incidence of poverty and is a simple proportion of the population whose income is below the poverty threshold or poverty line to the whole population or sample. The measure makes no distinction between the poor who may be close to the poverty line and those who may have no income at all (the really destitute, paupers and survivalists). Moreover, this index is sensitive to a decrease in the income of the poor, to income transfer among the poor and from the poor to the rich, and also to the degree of poverty (Jazairyet *al.*, 1995).

2.2.3 The poverty gap index

The poverty gap index measures the depth from the poverty line. This is the average gap between the actual income-expenditure of the poor and the poverty threshold as a proportion of that threshold (David, 1996). The average gap of the whole of the poor population can be calculated and expressed as a percentage of the poverty threshold that is income gap ratio (David, 1996). This measurement is also insensitive to the income distribution within a group of the poor people.

2.2.4 Composite index

Composite index is defined by the simple product of the head count and poverty gap indices, measuring incidence and intensity (Kigodaet *al.*, 1995). The head count ratio remains the most commonly used measure of poverty in large-scale (national/regional) studies which lack necessary specific details and is relevant for other indices. Thus, using the concept, the World Bank estimates have revealed a worldwide decrease of the absolute number of poor people living below the international poverty line of 1USD per capita per day from 1.4 billion in the 1980s to 1.2 billion in the 2000s (World Bank, 2003). However, the average income in 20 richest countries is 37 times higher than that in the poorest

20 countries; the ratio has doubled mainly because of lack of economic growth in the poorest countries (World Bank, 1993; 2003).

2.3 Social Indicators of Poverty

In sub-Saharan African countries, most of the people are poor; hence the monetary measures of poverty become less meaningful (Oputa, 1994). Therefore, other indicators have been developed to describe the poverty situation in Africa. Various social indicators that have been used include high rates of infant and child mortality, inadequate food intake, a substandard housing situation, household situation, household possessions and child malnutrition (Tyler, 1993). Nevertheless, the use of infant mortality rate and under five mortality rates as social indicators of poverty should be treated cautiously since they are, in fact, demographic factors that may be influenced by socio-economic factors (Tyler, 1993).

The advantage of using social indicators is that, assuming adequate data, the extent to which the population is deprived of basic needs of direct relevance for the planning of programmes to redress the situation that can be easily determined (Tyler, 1993). Yet, critics of this approach have noted the difficulty in the aggregation of various indicators into a single welfare indicator that may complicate the classifications of households into the poor and the non-poor categories (Semboja, 1994). Regardless of the problem, Cohen *et al.* (1994) recommended household surveys to collect information on all major aspects relevant to the policies.

Rodgers *et al.* (1989) used general indicators of welfare to assess the relationship between population growth and poverty in India. The indicators include two measures of assets (land owned and domestic possession), adult schooling, food quality, anthropometric

status, and child mortality. Since these indicators do not all coincide, the authors combined them into a single composite index of poverty. Cohen *et al.* (1994) used a similar approach in their study which they conducted in southern Sudan by combining asset holdings, adequacy of food intake, water and sanitation and household income as components of the poverty sector. In another study in Pakistan, Havilland(2003) used calorie deficiency and infant mortality as indicators of poverty, though these were not combined into composite index. The following two subsections are about the social indicators of poverty used in this study.

2.3.1 Household assets

In order to understand poverty creation in rural areas and its effects on different groups, the assets owned by the household and those which they have access to, should be examined for their links to the economy (Jere, 1993). The economic hardship faced by the rural poor are influenced by a variety of assets (and their return to them) held at the household community and supra-community levels (Jere, 993).

The quantity and quality of household possessions have sometimes been considered to be indicators of wealth and poverty (URT, 2003). For instance, valuable domestic possessions, such as television or a cooker could be an indicator of wealth and economic status of the household. This is influenced by education status, occupation and level of effort which, when taken together, makes up the level of living and the quality of life to be high (URT, 2003).

However, in agro pastoral communities in Tanzania, possession of assets like television, bicycles, radios, mosquito net and houses is regarded as sign of wealth. On the other hand, although they possess some valuables assets, their levels of education are generally low,

mostly secondary and primary education levels. Therefore, the argument that possession of assets is influenced by education is applicable to a low extent in Babati District.

The household's ability to acquire consumer durable assets correlates with its level of income. From a study which was conducted in Sudan, Cohen *et al.* (1994) noted a strong correlation between ownership of individual assets and household's position along the income ladder. Large disparities in large and small household holdings are a good indicator of the extent of poverty in the rural areas. In most cases, large and small households differ in availability of consumer goods. For example, Ayadet *al.* (1997), in a comparative study of developing countries, found radio owners to be 50- 100% higher among smallholders compared to large ones. A similar trend was observed in possession of other assets such as refrigerator, means of transport and television. A countrywide study in Tanzania indicates that ownership of domestic assets is higher in small household than in large households (URT, 1993). Bicycles were the common means of transport owned by about 25% of small households and 34% by large households. Only 1% of the households owned a car, mostly in small households. About 50% of large households and 29% of small households did not own any of the above durables.

However, ownership of valuable domestic assets does not depend on the household size, large or small households. For example, a pressure lantern as source of light during the night is owned almost in every household. Also, sofa sets, motorbikes, clocks and water pumps are owned in many households regardless of their sizes.

2.3.2 Housing condition

Some researchers seeking simple indicators of poverty and wealth in developing countries have found that the quality of housing is a good indicator (Tyler, 1993; URT, 1993). It is

argued that the poor are identified not only by low expenditure level but also by distinct limited access to amenities (World Bank, 2004). These include electricity, sources of drinking water, type of toilet facility, floor and roofing materials, and the number of rooms used for sleeping (World Bank, 2004). Information on household amenities is said to be more useful than direct questions on income in evaluating the welfare status of households (Ayadet *al.*, 1997).

Moreover, such data are easier to collect than data on household income. Additionally, information on housing characteristics is useful from a public health point of view. It is also provides an indirect indicator of household's socio-economic status (URT, 2003). Besides, some of these amenities may be a product of household's own effort and /or may be provided by the government or community (Tyler, 1993). Various studies indicate that possession of these amenities varies according to the place of residence and its socio-economic status. For example, in a study conducted in Sudan, Cohen and House (1994) observed a tendency for various indicators of housing quality to correlate very well with households' defile of income per adult equivalent. On the other hand, Ayadet *al.* (1997) found that in most sub-Saharan Africa availability of electricity is concentrated in urban areas. Also, the people in urban households are more likely to have better dwelling structures than female headed households. Moreover, a World Bank (2003) study done in Tanzania found that 68% of the poor lived in the houses without metal roof and about 80% in houses with mud walls. Further, the study found that only 26.6% of the poor had tap water as the main source of water. A higher proportion of these were found in the rural areas.

2.4 Poverty in the World

Of the world's 6 billion people, 2.8 billion(almost 50%) live on less than USD 2 per day, and 1.2 billion, which is 20% of the World's Population, live on less than USD 1 per day(World Bank, 2003). About 44% of the world's poor are living below USD 1 per capita per day lives in South Asia (World Bank, 2003). In East Asia, the number of people living on less than USD 1 per capita per day fell from around 420 million to 280 million between 1987 and 1998, despite the setbacks of the financial crises (World Bank, 2003).

2.5 Poverty Status in Tanzania

Income poverty is still high in Tanzania.About 35.7% are below the national basic needs poverty line and 18.7% live below the national food poverty line (URT, 2002). Poverty in Tanzania is linked with dependence on agriculture, household size, level of education and those living in rural areas (URT, 2002). In 2011/12 HBS, about 28.2% of the Tanzanian Mainland population was below the national basic needs poverty line, while in 2007 HBS about 34.4% lived below the national food poverty line. This is about 6.2% point decline in five years. The decline is more apparently in Dar es Salaam (10.0%) than in rural areas (6.1%) and other urban areas (1%).

Illiteracy remains high; about 28.6% of Tanzanians can't read and write in any language (URT, 2002). Women are more illiterate 36.0% than men 20.4%. Dar es Salaam has the lowest proportion of illiteracy (8.7% of the Population) (Mmari, 2008). The highest levels of illiteracy are found among the rural population (33.1%).Rural women are the population group with the highest incidence of illiteracy (41.2, compared to 23.9% for rural men) (URT,2002).

2.5.1 Assets and poverty

Assets provide people with opportunities and options in the face of impoverishing forces. Thus, being asset poor limits people's capacity to improve and safeguard their well-being (Rutasitara, 2002). However, Narayan *et al.* (2000) supported that the poor rarely speak about income, but do speak extensively about assets that are important to them. The poor manage a diverse portfolio of assets: physical, human, social, and environmental. These assets include a broad range of tangible and potential resources, both material and social, from which those individuals, households, and communities draw from in times of need or crisis. Power differences among individuals and groups shape how such assets are controlled and used.

2.6 Perception of Women towards Domestic Violence

2.6.1 Perceptions and experiences of spousal violence

Types and degrees of violence may vary from family to family, but almost, spousal violence is rampant in the society. The following acts are instances of intimate partner violence: beating with or without an object, use of weapons, burning, forced sex, insults, undermining, intimidation, withholding money, extramarital affairs and annexing/selling. Moreover, destroying property of a partner, monitoring movements, preventing from learning/working, forcing a woman to become pregnant, to have many children and abandoning a woman could be acts of violence. Generally, spousal violence was seen to be expression of male dominance (Tegbar, 2010).

Commonly, occurring types of gender based violence included slaps, punches, kicking, beating with a stick, burning, and use of weapons which are believed to exist in many families. Survivors of violence were slapped, punched, kicked and beaten with an object

as other perpetrators broke even their wives' teeth with stones whereby, wives were taken to hospital due to the beating that caused difficulty to eat (Tegbare *al.*, 2010).

According to Tegbare *al.* (2010) men failed to provide money for the family and squandered their property. Men also used the fact that they are the breadwinners to shut women up when they asked them for money. Another dimension of the problem was said to be men transferring/selling property to a third party without the knowledge or consent of their spouses (Tegbare *al.*, 2010).

2.6.2 Perception towards spousal violence

Tegbare *al.* (2010), in their study, said that domestic violence is part of almost all marriages. Disagreements are expected, since, marriage is a union of two people with differing thoughts and backgrounds. Moreover, the interaction existing between two people like a husband and a wife are filled with emotions, and hence there are times when such emotions override between any two persons resulting in conflict. Conflicts are expected in marriage. It is not possible to say there won't be arguments and conflicts in a family. However, in Tanzania domestic violence is accepted by the majority of women to be part of marriage as well. Cultural norms are believed to be the cause for domestic violence and it is part of marriage.

However, it is observed that no one is after violence as all forms of violence are generally not accepted. It is preferred that a husband and a wife should live in peace, do everything in agreement and resolve their differences patiently and carefully. The attitude of people on domestic violence can be based on two perspectives: According to WHO (2005) majority of people affirmed that wifebeating was acceptable because conflicts were expected in marriage and a man could beat his wife when he is angry, especially if he is

young. Further,condemning beating was denying reality as long as it was mild and did not inflict injury, it was said to be acceptable. Even the police would decide to prosecute the offence mainly based on the severity and would go for reconciliation for otherwise mild attacks (Tegbaret *al.*, 2010).This can be observed also in Tanzania,in some regions such as Mara where living there a myth that wife battery is a sign of love (Maria, 2013).

Additionally, beating is culturally regarded as a part of love hence acceptable. It is said that men who love their wives would beat them, and women who recognize beating to be a sigh of love would even try to trigger it (Yigzaw, 2010). Also, it is said that husbands do beat their wives because they love them. There are other situations when a woman deserves to be beaten, when a woman is unfaithful to her husband or cannot be corrected by reprimand, she should be beaten as far as her husband is responsible for disciplining his wife when she makes a mistake (Tegbaret *al.*, 2010).

However, Tegbaret *al.* (2010) alsoasserted that physical violence is not acceptable as no one has the right to beat anyone else; and beating could result in injury and death, and might sour the relationship resulting in divorce. It was emphasized that a loving husband would not beat his wife. The person cannot be corrected by being beaten, but ratherby dialogue and patience which are better options to manage conflicts.

The attitude towards forced sex also varied as majority of women disapproved marital rape. It is thought that once a man and a woman have entered into marital contract, which they said is a legitimate and voluntary institution, it would be difficult to talk about coerced sex, since the involved parties have the obligation to provide sex to each other. Thus, sex is the major reason a man and a woman would get married and added that it is difficult for men notto have sex while sleeping in one bed with their wives (Dahlberg,

2002). However, although that is the case but there are some reasons which can lead a woman not necessarily to have sex while sleeping with her husband in the same bed. The reasons include tiredness, sickness and menstrual period.

2.6.3 Societal acceptance of domestic violence

Societal acceptance of domestic violence is widely spread in Tanzania. A recent assessment of gender base violence (GBV) policies and services in Tanzania found that several forms of GBV, including partner physical and sexual violence and rape are seen as normal and meet with acceptance by both men and women. Similarly, the 2010 Tanzania Demographic and Household Survey (TDHS) report (URT, 2011) found at least one justification for wife beating. However, among many women domestic violence seems to be acceptable within the social and cultural norms of their communities. This does not imply that individuals condone these acts. The normative environment suggests that violent behaviours are common and largely accepted as part of relationship in marriage, or the social roles played by men and women. But also, physical violence is largely viewed as part of marriage; women explained that they accept this violence because of prevailing community norms (Kishor and Subaiya, 2008).

In more traditional societies, wife beating is largely regarded as a consequence of a man's right to inflict physical punishment on his wife, something which is indicated by studies from countries as diverse as Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Mexico, Nigeria, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe Schuler (1996)

Further, Schuler (1996) argues that cultural justifications for violence usually follow from traditional notions of the proper roles of men and women. In many settings women are expected to look after their homes and children and show their husbands obedience and

respect. If a man feels that his wife has failed in her role or overstepped her limits even, for instance, by asking for household money or stressing the needs of the children then violence may be his response. According to Schuler (1996) said that one of the author of a study in Pakistan notes, “Beating my wife to chastise or to discipline her is seen as culturally and religiously justified, because, men are perceived as the ‘owners’ of their wives. It is necessary to show the wives who is the boss in the house so that future transgressions are discouraged. In many developing countries, women often agree with the idea that men have the right to discipline their wives, if necessary by force.

In Egypt, over 80% of rural women share the view that beatings are justified in certain circumstances (EDHS, 2008). Significantly, one of the reasons that women cited mostly often as a cause for beatings is refusing a man sex (El-Zanaty, 1996). Not surprisingly, denying sex is also one of the reasons women cited most often as a trigger for beatings (Zimmerman, 1995). This clearly has implications for the ability of women to protect themselves from unwanted pregnancy and sexually transmitted infections. Societies often distinguish between “just” and “unjust” reasons for abuse and between “acceptable” and “unacceptable” levels of violence. In this way certain individuals, usually husbands or older family members are given the right to punish a woman physically, within limits, for certain transgressions. Only if a man oversteps these bounds for example, by becoming too violent or for beating a woman without an accepted cause others will intervene (Heise, 1996).

2.7 Domestic Violence and Income Poverty

Violence is viewed in the context of beliefs about women’s and men’s role and status within the family. Men’s loss position of sole breadwinner, in turn leading violence to impose their authority on family. But, a study conducted in Bangladesh suggests that

violence against women decrease when women bring home resources, regardless of who actually uses the money (Schuler *et al.*, 1996 cited in William *et al.*, 2006). However other researchers suggest that women's independent income, not simply extra resources, reduces violence (Hashemiet *al.*, 1996 cited in William *et al.*, 2006).

Conflicts over decisions about money and food are a source of violence within poor households. In case violence against women is happening, it may often be exacerbated as a result of poor working conditions, unemployment, financial insecurity and the resulting difficulty of providing household necessities. Conflict intensifies in situations of acute poverty (William *et al.*, 2001). The argument here is apparently that domestic violence arises because one has not been employed, or not having money, or not providing money to the family. The argument here is based one side that income poverty leads to violence in the family. But the author does not speak on the other side, how if domestic violence exists in the family, that can it be the source of income poverty? The argument is based in one side.

The UN has recognized that conditions of underdevelopment, poverty, and poor housing, produce stress that result in high levels of domestic violence (Connors, 1989 cited in William *et al.*, 2006). Much of this violence has been linked to the challenges that economic difficulties pose to men's role as a household head, and their control over women. A study in Ecuador found that domestic violence increased as a result of reduced family income. About 48% of women in Ecuador claimed that violence occurred when they had to ask for money to maintain the household (Moser, 1999 cited in Williams *et al.*, 2006). The same applies here, that it seems that conflicts, domestic violence increases as a result of reduced family income. However the argument of above based on income to be the source of violence in family, but not explaining it on the other way around.

In Papua New Guinea, many wives have observed that their husband's violence towards them increases when men are out of work, and in the period around the start of New Year on when school fees are due, and couples argue about how money is to be found. It appears that working wives suffer more wife-beating than unemployed wives, because husbands feel threatened by their wives' potential independence and attempt to retain their control through physical dominance (Bradley, 1994 cited in Williams *et al.*, 2006).

2.7.1 Contribution of poverty to violence

Although violence cuts across cultures, societies, and economic lines, and affects women in developed and developing countries; women living in poverty are more vulnerable to domestic violence. Women in developing countries tend to work in the lowest paid sectors, have less stable incomes and have less access to job training and education. For example, women make up some 60% of the world's working poor people who work but do not earn enough to lift themselves above the \$1 per day per capital income poverty line (ILO, 2004). Women in developing countries working in the lowest paid sector have less stable incomes and have less access to job training and education. This argument is true because working in the lowest sector depends on the education of somebody; it is necessary for women but even for men as well. The argument that women living in poverty are more vulnerable to domestic violence might be true in the sense that women are the major producers, and take of the family. In case the necessity needs are not available in the house the first person to be in trouble is a woman.

Further, some women remained trapped in abusive relationship because they lack resources to leave and know that poverty and material hardship may result. On the other hand, domestic violence can trigger poverty in different ways including decreasing employment stability of the women, causing formulation of female-headed households,

and causing formation of new households that have no person assets or income due to the violence (Ribero and Fabio Sanchez, 2004). However, with limited income, assets and other productive resources, many women have few options to avoid domestic violence like to live dependent, abusive relationships.

2.7.2 Contribution of violence to poverty

Violence reduces a woman's ability to work and provide for her family. In Managua, Nicaragua, studies show that women who reported abuse earned 40% less than women who were not affected by violence (Mirsky, 2003 cited in Schrader, 2000). In addition to reducing household income poverty, this lost income translates into a loss of productivity at the national level. According to a World Bank report, Colombian women who suffer physical violence have 14% lower earnings than women who do not suffer violence. Colombian society experienced a loss of approximately 4% of the GDP in 2003 due to indirect costs of domestic violence (Macintyre *et al.*, 2005). On the other side, 16% of women who participated in a representative survey on domestic violence in Cambodia reported that in the previous year, they had lost income as a result of domestic violence (2005). According to Macintyre *et al.* (2005) asserted that if women victims to domestic violence, there is a higher probability that they will become unemployed and that both of them and their children will experience poor health. In addition, the International Centre for Research on Women and Child National Population Fund (2009) affirmed that in Uganda, about 12.5 % of women report losing time from household work such as washing dishes and fetching water due to intimate partner violence. It is argued that women living in domestic violence earn lower than women not living in domestic violence.

2.7.3 Economic violence

Economic abuse as one component of domestic violence is believed as “making or attempting to make women financially dependent to their husbands by maintaining total control over financial resources. Economic violence is specifically listed on what is known as the power and control wheel: a model that is used” extensively in women’s shelter and support group. According to Adam (2008), men can practice economic violence to their partners in different ways: first by preventing women from using resources, secondly by preventing women from acquiring resources and thirdly by exploiting women’s resources. Erickson (2008) revealed that some of the tactics are “Putting the victim on a strict allowance, withholding money at will and forcing the victim to beg for money until the abuser gives the money. It is common for the victim to receive less money as the abuse continues. Furthermore, in economic violence, the most frequently mentioned thing was depriving a wife of basic needs, including clothing and food. They shared a sense that the expectation for a man to be the provider and bread winner are now changing and, as a result, the failure to provide for his family isn’t viewed as a usual occurrence.

Therefore, the survivor becomes economic dependent on the abuser. During economic downs turns, domestic violence calls and request for shelter bonds increase. National research, advocates advise the victims to be aware of economic tactics as financial squeeze in a household becomes tighter. Victims have reported that the psychological effects of coercive controlling violence are worse than physical effects. This can include fear and anxiety, loose of self-esteems, depression, and post trauma stress (Wen, Jing zhang, 2009). Ogradnik (2010) sums up by asserting that since violence against women is linked to poverty, violence will not be reduced unless poverty is reduced because largely the victims are poor women. Therefore, women should depend on themselves rather than on their husbands, in order to reduce the possibility of violence.

2.8 Extent of Domestic Violence

Among 48 population based surveys, from around the world, between 10% and 69% of women reported having been physically assaulted by an intimate male partner at some point in their lives, the percentage of women who had been assaulted by a partner in the previous 12 months varied from 3% or less among women in Australia, Canada and the United States to 27% of ever-partnered women in León, Nicaragua, 38% of currently married women in the Republic of Korea, and 52% of currently married Palestinian women in the West Bank and Gaza Strip (Adams, 2008).

Women experienced multiple acts of physical aggression over time. In a study by Briceno León (1989), for instance, 60% of women had been abused during the previous year by being attacked more than once, and 20% had experienced severe violence more than six times. Among women reporting physical aggression, 70% reported severe abuse (Wen, Jing Zhang, 2009). The average number of physical assaults during the previous year among women currently suffering abuse, according to a survey in London, England, was seven (Jenkins, 2009).

Furthermore, other researchers suggest that physical violence in intimate relationship is often accompanied by psychological abuse and in one-third to over one half of cases by sexual abuse. Among 613 women in Japan who had at any one time been abused, for example, 57% had suffered all three types of abuse: physical, psychological and sexual. Less than 10% of the women had experienced only physical abuse (Yoshi Hama, 2000). Similarly, in Monterey, Mexico 52% of physically assaulted women had also been sexually abused by their partners (Granados, 1996) graphically illustrates the overlap between types of abuse among ever-partnered women in León, Nicaragua (Ellsberg, 2005).

Physical acts that are more severe than slapping, pushing or throwing an object at a person are generally defined in studies as “severe violence”, though some observers object to defining severity solely according to the act (Smith, 1999). Partner violence accounts for a significant number of deaths by murder among women. The studies from Australia, Canada, Israel, South Africa and the United States of America show that 40–70% of female murder victims were killed by their husbands or boyfriends, frequently in the context of an on-going abusive relationship (Dahlberg,2002).

In Ethiopia, it was estimated that 71% of women had experienced either physical (50%) or sexual (59%) violence by a partner. In Namibia 36% of women had experienced either physical (31%) or sexual (17%) violence by a partner. Furthermore, in Tanzania about half of women had experienced either physical (47%) or sexual (31%) violence by a partner.

On the other side, a study carried out by DHS (2010) in Tanzania shows an increase rate of violence as about two-fifths of all women (39%) have suffered from physical violence at some point since age 15. Also, one- third (33%) of women had suffered from act of violence during the previous 12 months whereby among half of ever-married women have suffered from spousal or partner abuse at some point in time, whether physical, emotional, or sexual.

2.9 Conceptual Framework

Katani (1999) asserts that a conceptual framework binds facts together and provides guidance towards collection of appropriate data. A research performed without a conceptual framework is usually sterile for reasons that the researcher does not know how to put them into use (Kajembe, 1994). The conceptual framework of this study (Fig.1) explains variables examined and their relationships. The conceptual framework shows a

set of independent variables such as physical and economic violence that influence the dependent variable which is household income poverty. However, there are background variables which influence the dependent variable; these include sex, age, education, marital status and occupation. The double arrows shown in the conceptual framework indicate that domestic violence has influence on income poverty. Also, income poverty has influence on domestic violence, while physical violence has association to economic violence.

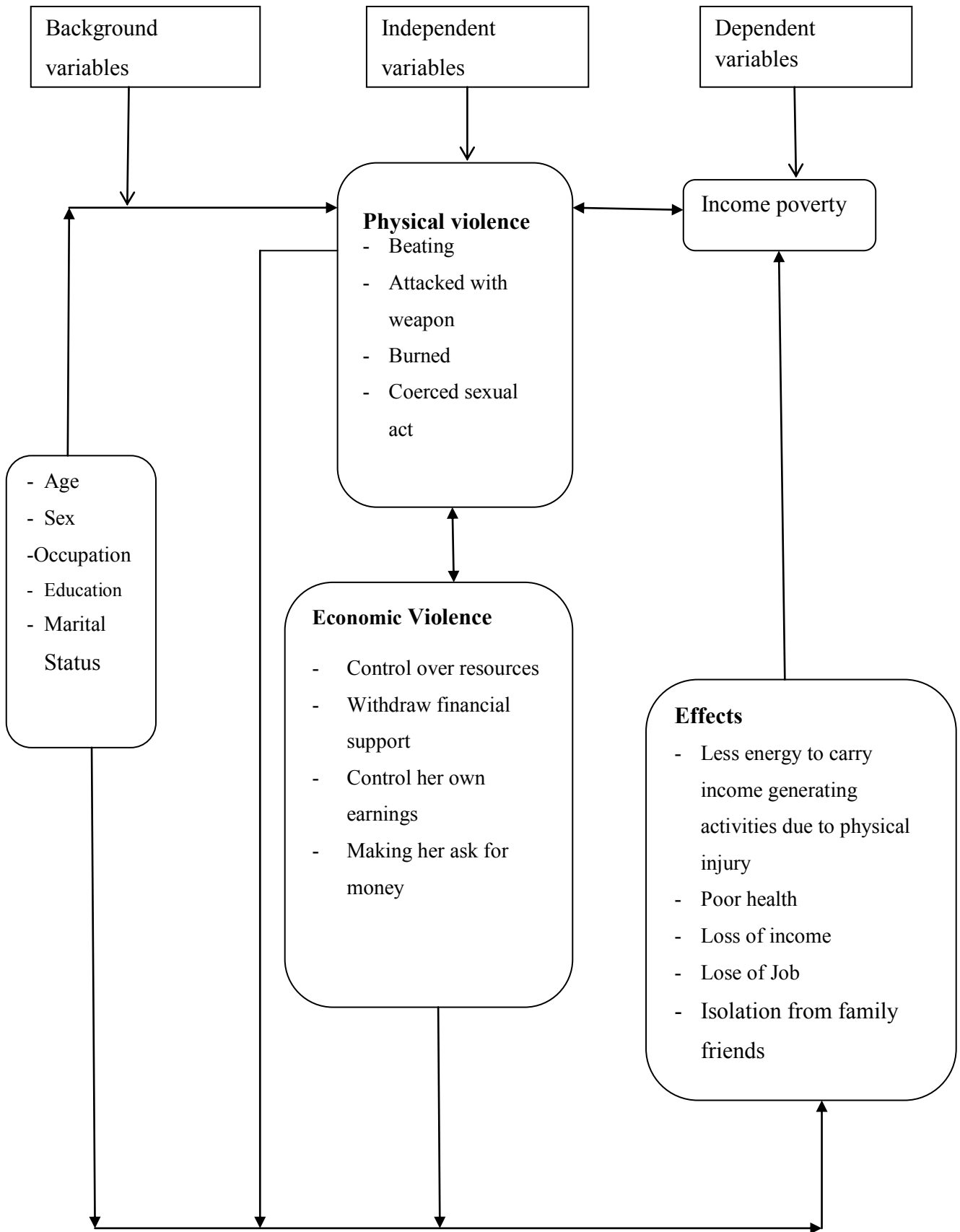


Figure 1: Conceptual frame work on domestic violence and household income poverty in Manyara region, BabatiDistrict

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 The Geographical Location

Manyara Region is one of Tanzania's 30 administrative regions. Babati is the capital of the region. According to the 2012 national census, the region had a population of 1 425 131 people, who was lower than the pre-census projection by 1 497 555, the region has five districts which are Babati, Hanang, Kiteto, Mbulu and Simanjiro (URT, 2013).

Babati District has 4 divisions, 21 wards and 95 villages. The district covers an area of 5608 square kilometres. The district is bordered to the North by Arusha Region, to the South-East by Simanjiro District, to the South by Dodoma Region, to the South-West by Hanang' District, and to the North-West by Mbulu District. According to the 2012 Population Census, the population of Babati District was 312 392 people. The main ethnic groups in the district are the Maasai, Gorowa, Nyiramba, Nyaturu, Rangi, Fyomi, Hadzabe (Mang'ati), and Iraq (Mbulu) (URT, 2013).

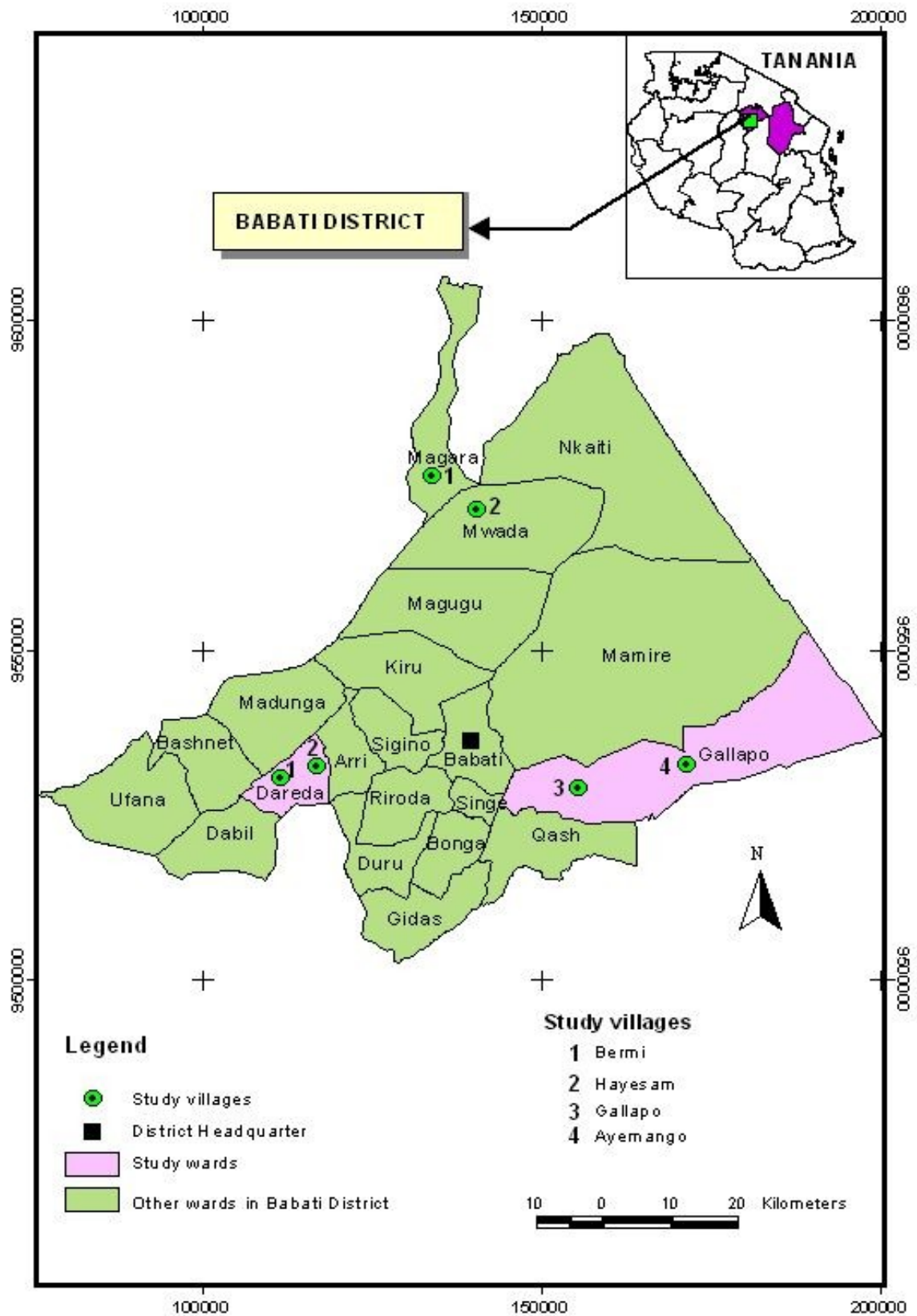


Figure 2: Map of Babati District showing the study areas

3.2 Justification of the Study Area

The study was conducted in Manyara Region, specifically Babati District, because it had the highest (81%) incidence of domestic violence such as wife battering and female genital mutilation compared to other regions like Dodoma (67%), Arusha (54%), Singida (43%), Mara (38%), Kilimanjaro (25%), Tanga (23%) and Iringa (22%) (URT, 2013).

3.3 Research Design

The study employed across-sectional research design whereby data were collected at one point in time using a structured questionnaire for individual respondents and checklists for key informants. Furthermore, the design was considered to be suitable for determining relationships between and among variables (Kothari, 2009).

3.4 Sampling Procedure

Purposive sampling was applied to select Manyara Region and Babati District while wards, villages and households were randomly selected to avoid bias. Two wards of Dareda and Gallapo out of twentyone (21) wards were selected randomly. Two villages of Bermi and Hayesam were selected from Dareda Ward while Gallapo and Ayemango villages were randomly selected from Gallapo ward. Women from each household in the selected villages were also randomly selected, whereby in each village twenty five women were selected to obtain the sample size of 100. Also, key informants were selected purposively depending on the roles they performed in the area. These included Ward Executive Officers, Doctors, Police Officers and Village Executive Officers. The divisions, wards and villages where the research was done are listed in Table 1.

Table 1: Sampling Scheme

Regional	District	Divisions	Wards	Villages
Manyara	Babati	Bashnet	Dareda	Bermi
				Hayesam
		Babati		Gallapo
				Ayemango

3.5 Population and Sample Size

The unit of analysis was awoman in a household. According to Bailey (1994), regardless of the population size, a sample or sub sample of 30 cases is bare minimum for studies in which statistical data analysis is to be done. However, the study used 100 respondents from the four (4) villages which were randomly selected from 2 study wards out of 21 wards. Besides Bailey's suggestion on a sample size, a formula by Yamane's (1967) was used to calculate the sample, to further justify the size. The equation for the calculated sample size for the study was:

$$n = N / [1 + N (e^2)]$$

Whereby; n= represents sample size,

N =Total population,

$$N = 312,392$$

$$e = 10\% = 0.1$$

$$\text{Therefore; } n = 312,392 / [1 + 312,392 (0.1^2)]$$

$$= \frac{312,392}{1 + 312,392(0.1^2)}$$

$$= \frac{312,392}{1 + 312,392 \times 0.01}$$

$$= \frac{312,392}{1 + 3123.92}$$

$$= \frac{312,392}{3124.92}$$

$$n = 99.967999$$

$$n = 99.9$$

$$n \approx 100$$

Therefore, the sample size for this study was 100 respondents.

3.6 Data Collection

3.6.1 Primary data

A structured questionnaire was the main research instrument that was used to collect quantitative information in relation to the study objectives. The questionnaires included sections in accordance with the study objectives. Perception of women towards domestic violence was determined through a Likert scale which was made of equal numbers of statements which implied liking and disliking gender based violence. The statements were included in the questionnaire. The use of questionnaire enhances data quantification and analysis (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003).

Qualitative data were collected through focus group discussions (FGDs) and key informant interviews. Two focus group discussions were conducted in each of the two wards using a FGDs guide. The main aim of conducting FGDs was to be more informed about the emotional feelings and interpretation of participants. They gave detailed information about what women thought about domestic violence in the area. However, in order for everyone to participate comfortably, a group of eight to ten participants were used per discussion. The FGDs were conducted in open spaces, but privacy was maintained. The discussions focused on the kinds of knowledge people had on domestic violence in the study area, who were more affected on domestic violence, reasons for the occurrence of domestic violence, such as coercive sexual acts and being controlled over their resources.

Quantitative data were collected using copies of a structured questionnaire. The information collected included different forms of domestic violence and its influence on household income poverty. A Likert scale was used to capture women's attitude on domestic violence. It was necessary to use a combination of all these techniques in order to obtain sufficient and intuitive information about domestic violence (Kothari, 2009).

3.6.2 Data collection from key informants

Key informant interviews were conducted to ascertain information obtained from focus group discussions and from the structured questionnaire. These were purposively selected based on their roles in the society. Among the key informants interviewed were Ward Executive Officers, a Police officer, a Medical Doctor and domestic violence sufferers. These were interviewed in order to get additional information besides the information obtained from the structured questionnaire.

3.7 Data Analysis

3.7.1 Quantitative data analysis

Prior to data analysis, editing and coding of the data were done to make the data acquiescent for analysis. Data collected were processed and analyzed by using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) (Version 16) whereby descriptive and inferential analyses were done. Descriptive statistics included frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations for the first, second and third objectives. Data analysis results were presented in tables, diagrams; including bar charts and histograms to clearly show the distribution of variables.

In addition, inferential statistical analysis was done whereby Chi-Square Test was used to determine relationships between independent and the dependent variable for objective

number four. The cross tabulation with Chi-square test was done between domestic violence and income in order to determine their relationships.

The Chi-square formula by Kothari (2009) which was used is expressed as follows:

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O_{ij} - E_{ij})^2}{E_{ij}}$$

Whereby:

χ^2 is Chi square

O_{ij} is the observed frequency of the cell i^{th} row and j^{th} Column

E_{ij} is the expected frequency of the cell i^{th} and j^{th} column

Content analysis was used to analyze and interpret qualitative data from the checklist and FGDs guide to provide meaning in relation to the study objectives. The analysis was done by grouping information from various interviewees and comparing and contrasting the contents of the information.

3.8 Reliability and Validity of the Measurements

Reliability and validity of any study enable acceptance of the findings. According to Bhattacharjee (2012), reliability is the degree to which the measure of construct is consistent or dependable meanwhile validity refers to the extent to which a measure adequately represents the underlying construct that it is supposed to measure. Further, Fisher *et al.* (1998) suggest that if a measurement is valid, it is also reliable though reliability measurement may or may not be valid. A trade-off between validity and reliability was somehow evident in this study where validity was seen to have priority since adherence to research ethics was well followed. To ensure the instrument

(questionnaire) drew appropriate, meaningful and useful data the instrument was validated through discussions with the supervisor, peers and other experts in the DSI, Sokoine University of Agriculture. Their comments were then used to improve the instrument accordingly.

Pre-test was done through administering of questionnaire to 20 respondent women picked from Magugu village in Babati District. Magugu village is found in Babati District. After pre-testing, the questionnaire was modified to incorporate what was seen as important including dropping questions which were found to be irrelevant before it was actually administered to the respondents in Babati District. Though the study was conducted in Babati District, but the study results might be useful for inference in some other rural settings in Tanzania and Sub-Sahara Africa (SSA) at large.

3.7.5 Limitations of the study

This study has presented findings from a survey conducted in four Villages in Babati District. Based on the cultural and socio-economic differences of the country, the findings from this study cannot be used to draw a generalized conclusion representing all villages in the country. Therefore, more case studies in terms of districts and regions are required so as to acquire enough evidence to draw firmer conclusions. The delay of getting permission of conducting a research in villages from the ward executive officer hindered a researcher to collect data as per plan. However, with the assistance of skilled and punctual enumerators data were collected timely.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

4.1.1 Age

The findings, as indicated in Table 2, show the distribution of age of the respondents grouped in five age categories. Before grouping them, they were collected as continuous data in order to make sure that the respondents concerned were all included. It was found that 45.0% of the respondents were in the age group between 15 and 30 years. In a study conducted by Wilson and Daly (1993) cited in Jay Peters *et al.* (2002) it was argued that younger women are at the greater risk of facing domestic violence than older women, with lower reproductive value. But also, it is not necessary that being in the young age automatically leads to being affected by domestic violence, it depends on the situation and culture of a particular area. Further, it was found that 41.0% of the respondents were aged between 31 and 40 while those aged 41 to 50 and those aged 51 to 60 years were 10.0% and 2.0% respectively. Those in the age group of above 60 years were only 2.0%, which implies that as the age increases the possibility of suffering from Domestic violence decreases as far as the selected elderly age group witnessed to have suffered from DV during the young age, but nothing was going on.

Table 2: Ages of the respondents (n=100)

Age category	%
15-30	45
31-40	41
41-50	10
51-60	2
More than 60	2
Total	100

4.1.2 Marital status

Findings as presented in Table 3 indicate that 69.0% of the respondents were married. During the focus group discussion, it was noted that more domestic violence occurs among the married couples as one woman was quoted saying,

“Before marriage, I was living comfortably without violence; I was doing my activities peacefully, but after being married all the happiness was driven away by my husband as he beats me on a daily basis. This happens especially when he has taken alcohol”.

On the other hand, only 16.0% of respondents were divorced, while, widows and single respondents were 8.0% and 7.0%, respectively.

Table 3: Marital status for the respondents (n=100)

Variables	%
Married	69.0
Separated/Divorced	16.0
Single	8.0
Widow	7.0
Total	100

4.1.3 Occupations of the respondents

The findings as presented in Table 4 indicate that the greatest proportion of the respondents (48.0%) were farmers. Apart from farming, few (24.0%) of the respondents were employed, which probably indicates low risk of domestic violence because of the assurance of availability of income. Sometimes having income doesn't guarantee low risk of domestic violence, but it might be one factor of reducing the incidence. Further, 23.0% of the respondents were engaged in business and 5.0% were not employed; they were depending solely on their husbands.

Table 4: Distribution of respondents according to their occupations (n=100)

Variables	%
Occupation Level	
Farming	48.0
Employed	24.0
Business	23.0
Not employed	5.0
Total	100

4.1.4 Level of education

The results as presented in Table 5 indicate that 47.2% of the respondents had completed primary school, which indicates that low education of the respondents can contribute to the occurrence of domestic violence compared to those with higher education. Further, 34.2% of the respondents had secondary school education. Other studies, similarly, show that men's and women's high educational attainment results in reduced violence against wives: the study of Aghakhani *et al.* (2001) confirms the relationship between spouses' low educational attainment and prevalence of violence. The studies of Babo and Kar (2009) show that high educational attainment and economic independence protects women against violence. Some studies conducted in other countries show that low educational attainment in men is an important factor in their violence against women (Odujiniri, 1993 and Koop, 1992). Also, 14.1% of the respondents had no formal education and few (4.0%) of the respondents had attended adult/semiformal education. A study conducted by Visarias (1990) observed that women with education up to primary level tend to be more subjected to violence as compared to those educated beyond the primary school level (Tegbar, 2010).

Table 5: Distribution of respondents according to the level of education (n=100)

Education Level	%
------------------------	----------

Primary	47.6
Secondary	34.3
Not formal education	14.1
Adult/Vocation	4.0
Total	100.0

4.2 Extent of Domestic Violence against Women

4.2.1 Common forms of domestic violence in the study area

Multiple responses were applied (Table 6) in order to know common forms of domestic violence in the study area. The study results showed wife battery (19.9%) to be the leading form of domestic violence in the study area. Wife battery is practised mainly in rural areas and leads to many adverse effects including some of the women to become disabled, losing their energy to carry out income generating activities, getting poor health conditions and losing their jobs. To affirm that wife battery was the prevalent form of domestic violence, one of the FGD participants (group) was quoted as saying:

“Wife beating is a great challenge in our village. I am personally subjected to such beating almost every day; since I have nowhere to go, I have to tolerate. My husband is a drunkard; he can beat me anytime and anywhere even in public.”

On the other hand, the findings in Table 6 indicate that attacking wife with weapon (17.8%) as a form of domestic violence was reported to exist in the study area. Culturally, men in the research area walk with weapons in their hands, and other weapons are inserted in their trousers around the waist as a means for protecting themselves. Most of the weapons observed were machetes, sticks, clubs and knives. Apart from self-protection, the weapons are used for beating their wives and children as a means of disciplining them. The type of

weapon to be used depends on the form of mistake done. From FGDs discussions, a woman with a very big scar on her shoulder explained the following violence case:

“I was beaten and cut by my husband with a machete. He injured me on the shoulder because he did not want to see my face on earth again (he wanted to kill me”); he was annoyed because I delayed to open the door to let him in from drinking alcohol. He suspected that I dated another man in the house. After he entered in the house, he forced me to show him the man whom he assumed was in the house.”

The results corresponds with those of a study conducted by Karkal (1985) who reported that the availability of weapons defines the profiles of murders of intimate partners in different countries like in the United States where more murders of women are more committed with guns than with all other types of weapons combined. Further, the findings are in line with Visaria (1999), Moses *et al.* (2010), and Tegbar (2010) who asserted that some of the weapons like knives, machetes, bottles, hammers, blades, and stones were mentioned to be used during domestic violence.

Few (16.3%) of the forms of domestic violence such as lack of (access and control over resources) were reported also by the respondents, as seen in Table 6. This indicates that economic violence was not high. It was reported that resources were under the control of men as it was revealed by one of the FGDs participant who said:

“My husband took our family money without my consent; as a result, the family livelihood deteriorated.”

The finding is similar to the findings by Brewster *et al.* (2003) and Adams *et al.* (2008) who revealed that controlling resources by a husband involves preventing a wife from

resource acquisition and limiting the amount of resources to be used by the wife. The motive behind preventing a spouse from acquiring resources is to diminish wives' capacity to support them, thus forcing them to depend on the husband financially.

Table 6: Common forms of domestic violence in multiple response(n=326)

Forms of DV	Responses	%
Wife battery	65	19.9
Attacking wife with weapon	58	17.8
Access and control over resources	53	16.3
Deprived of acquiring basic needs	49	15.0
Coerced sexual contact	44	13.5
Deprived of financial support	31	9.5
Burning	26	8.0

More than one-eighth (13.5%) of the forms of domestic violence (Coerced sexual contact) showed in Table 6 were reported to exist in the study area. This form of domestic violence mostly occurred to the women, especially when they were forced by their husbands to perform sexual acts without their consent. For a married couple, forcing sexual acts is called marital rape. During focus group discussions, different reasons were given for such an act of husbands forcing their wives to have sex with them without their consent as one of the women said:

“Some women are forced to have sex without their consent because of being tired due to high workload, husbands being drunkard and during menstrual period or lack of moods.”

A key informant interview with Ward Executive Officer (WEO) also confirmed that she had received some domestic violence complaints from women who had been forced to perform sexual acts without their consent. Most of the women are said to feel shy,

especially on the reporting of sexual incidents; that is why sometimes it is seen that sexual violence is low. Husbands sometimes do not control their sexual desires, as a result they abuse their wives.

4.2.2 Rate of occurrence of domestic violence

The findings in Table 7 indicate that 57.4% of the women experienced wife battery frequently, while 48% of the women were deprived of basic needs and 40.0% of women reported being deprived of financial support by their husbands. The findings are similar with responses from the FGDs participants who reported about a woman who was initially a nurse as she confirmed the way her husband controlled her salary; she said:

“My husband used to take my monthly salary without my consent and I was left with nothing, even money for my personal needs. Therefore, I had to request again from him. It reached a time he stopped me from working. I was then totally depending on him. Additionally, because I had no job, he started harassing me, and on top of that he had an extra marital relationship with some other women. When I complained about this, he was very annoyed. It reached a time he chased me away, and I went back to my parents just staying at home. Until this time, I have no job, just depending on my parents.”

The findings of this study were also supported by Adam (2008) as he said that husbands can practise economic violence to their wives in different ways like preventing women from using resources, acquiring resources and by exploiting women's resources.

Similarly, 37.9% of the women reported having been attacked with weapons thrice, while 33.3% of the women reported having been denied of access and control over resources once. The study findings concur with those of a study by Moser (1999) cited in William *et*

al. (2006) who found that domestic violence increases when family income is low. Also, women claimed that violence occurred when they had to ask for money to maintain the household by obtaining basic needs.

Table 7: Responses on the rate (1 year) of occurrence of domestic violence (n=100)

Forms of DV	once		Twice		Thrice		Frequently	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Wife battery	8	13.1	6	9.8	12	19.7	35	57.4
Attacked with weapon	5	13.9	7	19.4	10	37.9	14	13.9
Forced to perform sexual act	5	27.8	3	16.7	4	22.2	6	33.3
Denied Access and Control over resources	5	33.3	3	20.0	3	20.0	4	26.7
Burning	2	25.0	2	25.0	3	37.5	1	12.5
Deprivation of financial support	2	20.0	4	40.0	2	20.0	2	20.0
Deprivation of basic needs	1	4.0	7	28.0	5	20.0	12	48.0

4.2.3 Domestic violence occurrence over a period of time

The respondents were asked to remember domestic violence events in a particular period of time. The finding, as indicated in Table 8, show that 61.1% of the respondents were able to remember domestic violence (sexual violence) events that had occurred in the previous year, and 37.5% of them were able to remember the domestic violence events (burning) that had happened in the previous six months. Similarly, 32.4% of the respondents were able to remember the domestic violence events (weapon attack) that had occurred one month previously, while 29.0% of them remembered domestic violence (wife battering) that had occurred within the previous week. This indicates that people were able to remember events for the domestic violence events which had occurred a long time, especially within the period of one year. This would make it easy to take initiatives on perpetrators of such violence. It was also observed by Sikira (2010) that the problem of

forgetting domestic violence events leads to false negative reporting which makes it difficult for the community to take action.

Table 8: Occurrence of domestic violence over a period of time (n=100)

Forms of DV	One week %	One month %	Past 6 months %	Past 1 year %
Wife battering	29.0	9.4	14.5	37.1
Attack with weapon	8.8	32.4	23.5	35.3
Burning	12.5	25.0	37.5	25.0
Coercive sexual act	5.6	11.1	22.2	61.1
Access and control	3.0	5.0	2.0	5.0
Deprivation of basic needs	34.8	17.4	4.3	43.5
Deprivation of financial support	20.0	30.0	30.0	20.0

4.2.4 Perpetrators of domestic violence

The findings as presented in Table 9 indicate that 66.6% of the husbands were mentioned to be the main perpetrators of domestic violence. According to Bradley 1994 cited in William *et al.*, 2006 many wives experienced more violence from their husbands when the husbands were out of work, and in the period around the start of New Year when school fees were due, and couples argued about how much money to be spent. Moreover, the results also indicated that 44.4% of the other male partner were said to be perpetrators of domestic violence to the women. Further, 18.5% of both wife and husbands are said to be the perpetrators of domestic violence, while 11.1% of the perpetrators of domestic violence are mentioned to be villagers/strangers. This idea was in line with a study done by WHO (2014) which showed that one in 10 women experienced sexual violence by a non-partner since the age of 15, with boyfriends and strangers being the most frequently mentioned perpetrators. According to a key informant (WEO), it was very risky for

women walking along the street during the night; they might be raped, and others were even killed after being raped.

Table 9: Responses on perpetrators of domestic violence (n=100)

Perpetrator	Once		Few times		Many times	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Husband	7	25.9	14	46.6	42	66.2
Other male partners	12	44.4	6	20.0	7	11.1
Wife and husband	5	18.5	8	26.6	7	11.1
Villagers/strangers	3	11.1	2	6.6	7	11.1

4.2.5 The extent of domestic violence against women

In order to determine the extent (level) of domestic violence against women, an index scale was used to list common forms of domestic violence. Seven variables were used to form this index. The variables were wife battery, attack wife with weapon, burning, and coercive sexual act, denial of access and control over resources, deprivation of basic needs and deprivation of financial resources. Their responses to each variable statement were primarily recorded as “Yes” or “No”.

Table 10: The extent of domestic violence

Statements	Yes	No
Wife battering	1	0
Attack wife with weapon	1	0
Burning act	0	1
Coerced sexual act	1	0
Access and control over resources	0	1
Deprivation of basic needs	0	1
Deprivation of financial support	1	0

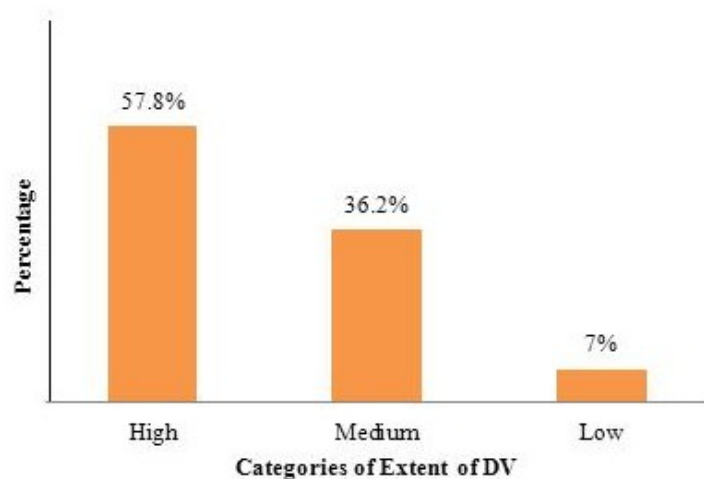
For the results in Table 10, the variables with a “Yes” response were given the value of 1, which indicated high level of domestic violence, while “No” response was given a value of “0”, meaning low level of domestic violence.

However, a respondent scoring 7 points was viewed as having a high level of domestic violence since she had experienced all the 7 forms of domestic violence. Likewise, one with a 0 point was regarded as having low level of domestic violence since she had not experience any or had experienced few among the forms of domestic violence. The computed index is summarized in Table 11. Moreover, the values of the index of extent (Level) were categorized in low medium and high level in order to get a meaningful analysis.

Table 11: Domestic violence and their categorization (n=100)

Score	Percent
1	7.1
2	21.2
3	21.2
4	24.2
5	13.1
6	13.1
7	0.1
Mean 3.5	
Categories of Extent(level) of DV	
Low	7.0
Medium	36.2
High	57.8

Scores in the range of 0 to 3.4 mean were considered as low extent (level) of violence, while scores in the range of 3.5 to 7.0 mean were considered to be high extent (level) of violence, but the range of 3.5 was considered to be medium extent (level) of violence. Table 11 and Fig 3 show that the majority (57.8%) of the respondents were above the mean, suggesting that the majority of the respondents experienced high extent (level) of domestic violence.

**Figure 3: Index of Extent (level) and their categorization**

4.3 Socio-demographic Characteristics and Domestic Violence

4.3.1 Age and domestic violence

The findings in Table 12 show the distribution of age categories and domestic violence. It was found that 57.1% of the respondents aged between 15 and 30 years experienced high level of domestic violence. This implies that young women have a large risk of experiencing domestic violence. This finding is contrary to findings of a study conducted by the United States National Crime Victimization Survey (USNCVS) for 1987-98 which revealed that young women had the highest rates of violent victimization by an intimate male partner (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1994; RennisonWelchans, 2000), cited in Jay Peters *et al.* (2002).

On the other hand, it was found that 54.9% of the respondents who experienced high level of domestic violence were aged 31 to 40. This implies that women in the middle age do suffer more risk of domestic violence comparing with women in the young age group. The findings of this study are in line with findings of a study that was conducted by Wilson *et al.* (1995, cited in Jay Peters *et al.*, 2002), which revealed that high incidences of domestic violence occur when women are in their 30s and later 40s.

Therefore, it was revealed that domestic violence was high among the age group of 31 to 40, although the Chi-square test showed that domestic violence had no significant relationship with age category ($p = 0.184$, $p > 0.05$). This implies that age had no significant relationship with occurrence of domestic violence among the respondents, but violence is more likely the same to women of all age groups. The women considered to be weak, inferior and submissive to their husbands in most of the areas in Tanzania and the World at large although not all of them. This observation was against the study conducted by

Kishor's and Subaiya (2008), which revealed that the possibility of suffering from domestic violence decreases with increase of age.

Table 12: Level of domestic violence and age of respondents

Age category	Level of Domestic violence					
	Low		Medium		High	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
15-30	4	57.1	20	47.6	17	33.3
31-40	2	28.6	15	35.7	28	54.9
41-50	0	0	5	11.9	5	9.8
51-60	0	0	1	2.4	1	2.0
More than 61	1	14.3	1	2.4	0	0.0

$\chi^2 = 11.39$, $p = 0.184$, not significant at $p > 0.05$

4.3.2 Marital status and domestic violence

The findings as presented in Table 13 indicate that 76.2% of the married respondents experienced medium levels of domestic violence. This indicates that among women who are married, domestic violence does exist to some extent. This finding is in line with findings of a study conducted by Ericet *al.* (2013) who reported that married women are the most likely to report the incidence of physical violence during their relationship, suggesting that violence may have contributed to marriage breakdown. Similarly, 57.1% of the respondents who were married experienced low levels of domestic violence while more than five-eighths (64.7%) of the respondents who were married experienced high level of domestic violence too. On the other side, 28.6% of the respondents who were widowed experienced low level of domestic violence. This indicates that the possibility of experiencing domestic violence is probably low among the widows as, after their husbands die, they remain alone whereby quarrels decrease. The results of this study are contrary to those of a study conducted by UNICEF (2000) whereby

it was asserted that there is high level of domestic violence among widows, following the tradition of wife or widow inheritance. For example, it is fairly common in Eastern and Southern Africa, especially when a woman's husband dies, to inherit women and property by his eldest brother. Also, in Western Kenya, women have been forced to marry, even when their husbands have died of AIDS, when they themselves are infected, or when their future husband had AIDS. The Chi-square test revealed that domestic violence had statically significant relationship with marital status ($\chi^2 = 0.052$) at $p < 0.05$. The result is in line with the observation made by the World Health organization (2000) which revealed that marital status was associated with a woman's high risk of domestic violence.

Table 13: Level of domestic violence and marital status

Marital Status	Level of Domestic violence					
	Low		Medium		High	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Married	4	57.1	32	76.2	33	64.7
Separate/Divorce	0	0	3	7.1	13	25.5
Widow	2	28.6	4	9.5	2	3.9
Single	1	14.3	3	7.1	3	5.9

$\chi^2 = 12.52$, $p = 0.005$, significant at $p < 0.005$

4.3.3 Occupation of the respondents and domestic violence

The findings presented in Table 14 revealed that 56.9% of farmersexperienced high level of domestic violence. This shows that most of the respondents were farmers, and this was one of the driving forces of occurrence of domestic violence. The study's finding is in line with URT (2002) which asserted that poverty in Tanzania is linked with dependence on agriculture, household size, level of education and living in rural areas. Furthermore, it was found that 26.2% of the employed respondents who experienced medium level of domestic violence were employed. This indicates that having employment sometimes

decrease the possibility of experiencing domestic violence due to income availability from earning a salary. These findings are in line with that of a study conducted by Dan *et al.* (2013) who observed that increased risk of male unemployment decreases the incidence of intimate partner violence, while a rising risk of female unemployment increases domestic abuse. The chi-square test showed that domestic violence had significant relationship with occupation at ($\chi^2 = 18.43$ at $p < 0.05$). This implies that occupation of respondents had contribution to the occurrence of domestic violence, that an employed person has low possibility of experiencing domestic violence.

Table 14: Level of Domestic violence and occupation

Occupation of the respondents	Level of Domestic violence					
	Low		Medium		High	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Employment	1	14.3	11	26.2	12	23.5
Farming	2	28.6	17	40.5	29	56.9
Business	1	14.3	6	14.3	9	17.6
Self-employment	1	14.3	6	14.3	0	0.0
Not employed	2	28.6	2	4.8	1	2.0

$\chi^2 = 18.43$, $p = 0.005$, significant at $p < 0.005$

4.3.4 Level of education and domestic violence

The findings, as presented in Table 15, indicate that 57.1% of the respondents with primary level of education experienced low level of domestic violence. This indicates that low education of respondents does not contribute highly to occurrence of domestic violence. This finding is contrary to that of a study conducted by Visarias (1990) who found that women with primary education do face more violence than women with secondary education. Women with education up to primary level tend to be more subjected to violence as compared to those educated beyond the primary level. Likewise, 50.0% of the

respondents with secondary school education experienced low level of domestic violence. This indicates that probably higher education reduces the intensity and the probability of experiencing domestic violence. Other Studies show that there is a negative relationship between wives' and husbands' educational attainment and violence: when both have college education, the incidence of violence is considerably low (Ellsberg, 2005). It appears that well-educated women are more independent and more likely to possess the skills and resources required to identify and stop violent behaviours. In other words, high academic attainment protects women against violent behaviours. However, in a study of 1999 married women in the U.S. in 2002, the researchers did not find a relationship between men's academic attainment and violence against women (Cohen and Maclean, 2002). Yani Karam's study in Turkey shows that higher educational attainment in men and women correlate with lower violence scores (Emreet *al.* 2006). The chi-square test revealed that domestic violence had no significant relationship ($\chi^2 = 7.657$ at $p = 0.264$) with the level of education. This implies that level of education of respondents does not guarantee the occurrence of domestic violence to a person, whether the person has low or high education level; the extent of experiencing domestic violence is more or less the same.

Table 15: Level of domestic violence and education

Level of education Education of the respondents	Level of Domestic violence					
	Low		Medium		High	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Primary	4	57.1	21	50.0	22	44.0
Secondary	2	28.6	16	38.1	16	32.0
Adult/vocation	1	14.3	2	4.8	1	2.0
Informal education	0	0.0	3	7.1	11	22.0

$\chi^2 = 7.657$, $p = 0.264$, not significant at $p > 0.05$

4.4 Perception of Women towards Domestic Violence

Table 16 summarizes the results on perceptions, which were based on a Likert scale. The Likert scale was used to collect information on the perception of women towards domestic violence. Statements that reflected like and dislike of women about domestic violence were formulated, and the respondents were required to reply to the statements whether they strongly agreed, agreed, were undecided, disagreed or strongly disagreed with each of the statements. The score assigned to each statement was based on respondents' responses. The correct answers were given 5 if a respondent strongly agreed, and 4 if a respondent just agreed, while 3 was for undecided, 2 for disagree and 1 for strongly disagree (Kothari, 2009). There were 10 statements which were used; therefore the maximum score which an individual would obtain was 50 (i.e. 10x5); the medium score that an individual would score was 30 (10x3) and the minimum score which an individual would obtain was 10 (i.e. 1x10). The scores were more re-grouped into positive, neutral and negative perceptions. Positive perception ranged from 31 to 50 scores, neutral attitude was regarded if a respondent scored 30 and negative perception regarded if a respondent scored below 30 that 10 to 29. The overall score was 54 which shows that the respondent had positive perception of domestic violence.

The findings indicated that 90.0% of the respondents agreed with the statement that it was a part of love for women to stay with violent husbands. The findings were congruent with Tegbare *et al.* (2010) who asserted that some women considered beating as a sign of love. He said that those men who love their wives would beat them, and women who experience beating to be a sign of love would even trigger more violence. Likewise, 81.0% of women disagreed with the statement that a husband is allowed to have sex without wife's consent. This implies that sex without wife's consent was regarded as marital rape. The study is in line with UNFPA (2002) cited in Olubunmi *et al.* (2012) that the majority of women are not after coercive sex. They said it was inappropriate for a man to have sex

with his wife against her will; there should be agreement between them. Similarly, 81.0% of women's perception was that a man has got all the rights on her body. A man can use the body of the woman in whatever way he likes, but in a good manner regarding that they are leaving together as partners. This was in line with a study done by Tegbar (2010) who affirmed that, in many African cultures, men have the right to control their wives' behaviour and those women who challenge that right may be punished or divorced.

Table 16: Perception of women towards Domestic Violence (n=100)

Perception towards DV against women	Scores (%)		
	D	U	A
Domestic violence should be interfered because it is not a private issue. Should be reported for further actions.	36	5	59
Wife beating by a husband should not be interfered because it is a part of love.	63	7	30
It is not good to stay with a violent husband; the steps should be taken for further action.	24	8	68
A husband is allowed to have sex without the women's permission.	81	5	14
It is a part of love for women to stay with the violent husbands.	6	4	90
Women agree domestic violence to please the husband in the house because it is common.	16	9	75
Women staying in violence are really not happy because it is not a part of marriage.	84	4	12
Women perception is that a man has got all the rights on her body.	24	12	81
Women accept violence because it is part of social and cultural norms.	16	3	64
Violence is perceived as one dimension of male dominance.	38	14	47
Average score	38	7	54

Key: 1 D=Disagree, U=Undecided, A=Agree

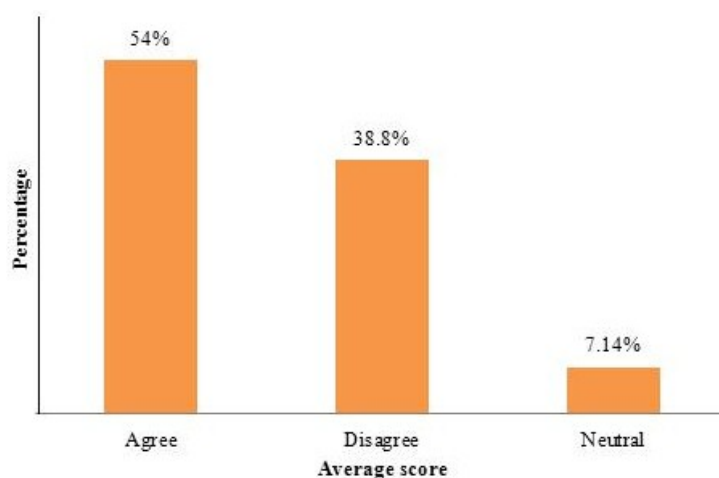


Figure 4: Perception of women towards Domestic Violence

On the other hand, Table 16 shows that the majority (63.0%) of the women disagreed with the statement that wife beating by a husband should not be interfered because it was a part of love. Other women were not after being beaten as it was perceived by them that beating was an expression of love to the wife. This was contrary to the ideas of Yemaneet *al.* (2010) who asserted that wife beating was the notion that a husband was responsible for disciplining a wife who made mistakes and put her on the right track. However, 68.0% of women agreed with the statement that it was not good to stay with a violent husband; steps should be taken for further action. Focus group participants said that there was no peace of mind, happiness even meaning of living with a violent husband, as every time you worry that you can be beaten or abused, or anything can happen. This was in line with the idea of Tegbareet *al.* (2010) that was against a violent relationship as he affirmed that no one has the right to beat anyone; and beating could result in injury and death, and might sour the relationship resulting in divorce. In relation to that in Table 16 shows that 84% of women disagreed with the statement that women staying in violent relationships were really not happy because it was not a part of marriage. This was confirmed by one of the survivors of violence during FGDs as she said.

“When you live under one roof, conflicts are expected even between brothers and sisters, let alone a husband and a wife.”

In relation to social and cultural norms, in Table 16 show that 64.0% of the women agreed with the statement that they accept violence because it was part of social and cultural norms. With this statement, women were aware that social and cultural norms were taken as a reason for justifying violence practices. The findings match with those of a study done by Back *et al.* (1982); Heise (1996); Hayward (1999) cited in UNICEF (2000) and Kisho *et al.* (2008) who asserted that domestic violence against women was accepted and was identified as a social and cultural norm of the communities and the society. For instance, traditional beliefs that those men have a right to control or discipline women through physical means makes women vulnerable to violence by intimate partners. Sexual violence was also regarded as a private affair that hinders outside intervention and prevents those affected from speaking out and gaining support. In addition, about 59% of respondents agreed with the statement that domestic violence should be interfered because it was not a private issue, should be reported for further actions. Likewise, 75% of women agreed domestic violence makes the husband feel well in the house because it was common to all women. They considered it as part of life.

The average score from Fig. 4 shows that more than half (54.0 %) of the respondents had positive attitude towards domestic violence, only 38.8% had negative perception, while 7.14% were neutral (Fig. 3), which indicates that most of the women in Babati District were affected by domestic violence, which on the other side undermines their dignity in the family, community, society as well as national at large. This was in line with findings of a study done by UNICEF (2000) that violence against women and girls in Tanzania, as in other parts of the world, denies women dignity, equality, security, self-worth and the

ability to fully enjoy their fundamental freedoms in the community. However, the average score showed that women had positive attitude towards domestic violence, in line with the study conducted by Tegbaret *al.* (2010) asserted that domestic violence is regarded as part and parcel of African culture that is passed from one generation to another.

4.5 Extent of Income Poverty among the Respondents

4.5.1 Possession of livestock

In most of the places animals were kept as a form of wealth, source of food, for manure, and rarely for commercial purpose in Babati District. The number of cattle owned signifies the wealth status of the household head, which enables the owners to increase the number of wives (Rutasitara, 2002). Similarly, Mascarenhas (2000) supported that livestock ownership was one of the critical factors of reducing poverty. Likewise, the possession of animals was regarded as sign of wealth, security and for agricultural activities, especially cattle (manure and traction). This was the reason for having a good number of people owning cattle rather than other kind animals.

The study revealed that 57.3% of the respondents owned cattle, while 42.7%, had no cattle. This implies that cattle were in large numbers, whereby bulls were used for agricultural activities like cultivating, weeding and a source of manure. However, 49% of the respondents owned goats while 51% had no goat.

Table 17: Distribution of Respondent by Possession of Livestock (n=100)

Types of Livestock	Own livestock	Don't own livestock
	Yes (%)	No (%)
Cattle	57.3	42.7
Goats	49.0	51.0
Poultry	37.2	62.8
Lamb	3.3	96.7
Pigs	1.1	98.7

4.5.2 Possession of other assets

The respondents were asked to state whether they possessed assets such as bicycles, motorbikes, radios, clocks, sofa sets, kerosene lamps, water pumps, mosquito nets, tables, chairs, and pressure lamps. A good proportion (46%) of the respondents owned bicycles while the majority (97%) owned mosquito nets and radios (88%). Only few (2%) owned cars and motorbikes (27%). This indicates that most of the respondents did not have access to assets due to lack of income. Normally, assets are purchased when a household has achieved basic essential family requirements such as food and other necessities. Therefore, this shows that many people had only enough for essential requirements and not for luxury assets.

Table 18: Distribution respondents by asset owned (n=100)

Assets	Own assets Yes (%)	Don't own assets No (%)
Mosquito net	97	3
Radio	88	12
Pressure lantern	63	37
Bicycle	46	54
Sofa	44	56
Motorbike	27	73
Clock	27	73
Water pump	16	84
Car	2	98

4.5.3 Income of the respondents

The respondents were asked to mention their income per year. The findings in Table 19 indicate that 36% of the respondents earned income of less than TZS < 50 000 per year, while 25% earned TZS 51 000 to 100 000 per year. A good proportion (19.8%) of respondents earned TZS 100 000 to 500 000 while 5% earned TZS > 500 000 per year. This observation indicates that most of the respondents in the study area were poor as most of them lived below the poverty line which is TZS 26 805 per adult equivalent per month, which is about 437784 TZS per adult equivalent per year (NBS, 2014).

In the year 2014, income of Tanzanians was 600.66 US dollar per capita per year per month. However, using the 2011/12 HBS data, the estimated Basic Needs Poverty Line is 36482 TZS per adult equivalent per month, and the Food Poverty Line is 26085 TZS per adult equivalent per month. Poverty is particularly prevalent in the rural areas; almost 61% of the rural population is poor as compared to 39% of the urban population (URT, 2011)

Table 19: Income of the household per year (n=100)

Income category	Respondents	
	Freq	%
<below 50 000	42	36.2
51 000-100 000	29	23.0
100 001-500 000	23	19.8
above >500 000	6	5.2
Total	100	100

4.7 The link between Domestic Violence and Household Income

The findings, as presented in Table 20, revealed that 43.0% of the respondents who earned below TZS 50 000 per year experienced high level of domestic violence. This indicates that a good number of the respondents in the study area were poor as the majority of them were living below the poverty line. Furthermore, it indicates that most of them

were at the high risk of experiencing domestic violence as it is hypothesized that violence incidence occurs to the people of low income. These findings are in line with those of a study conducted by Callie and Sarah (2000), who asserted that women living in the households with lower annual household incomes experience high domestic violence at higher rates than women in households with higher annual incomes. Intimate partners victimized women living in households with the lowest annual household income at a rate nearly 7 times than that of women living in households with the highest annual household income. Another study conducted by women's right project (2003) affirmed that while women at all income levels experience domestic violence, poor women experience domestic violence at higher rates than women with higher household incomes.

However, it was found that 42.0% of the respondents who experienced low level of domestic violence earned above TZS 500 000 per year per person. This indicates that some respondents were well-off in terms of income as a good number of them were living above the poverty line. Further, it indicates that the level of violence within these people were at the minimal rate as far as the income per person was high. This finding is congruent with the study conducted by Costello (2012) who found that women with higher household income do experience domestic violence at much lower rates than women with lower annual incomes. In the United States, between 1993 and 1998, women with annual household incomes over \$75,000 experienced low level of domestic violence than women with annual household incomes less than \$7,500. Additionally, 31.0% of the respondents who earned TZS 85 500/= to 100000 experienced medium levels of domestic violence and TZS 100 001 to TZS 500 000 per year per person. This indicates that income of the respondents in the study area is in the middle level to enable them to cope with everyday situation in their lives. They are not so rich; at the same time they are not so poor as far as they receive standard income per year.

To understand whether there is a link between domestic violence and household income, a chi-square test was done to respondents with low level, middle level and high level of domestic violence. The results showed that income level had no significant relationship with domestic violence ($\chi^2 = 12.042$ at $p = 0.061$). However, the lack of significant relationship between status of domestic violence and household income implies that income of the respondents do not contribute to the occurrence of domestic violence; this means that whether the person was poor or rich, the level of experiencing domestic violence was more or less the same. The research conducted in Babati district had come up with the new idea, this is because, most of the studies like those conducted by William *et al.* (2006), Hashemi *et al.* (1996), cited in William *et al.* (2006) and Mirsky (2003) cited in Shrader, 2000) confirmed that there was relationship between domestic violence and household income poverty.

Furthermore, the discussion from other literatures shows the relationship between domestic violence and household income to exist: A study conducted in Bangladesh by Moser (1999) asserted that domestic violence increased as a result of reduced family income. This shows that domestic violence occurs if the income is not available in the house. Also, another study conducted by Ribero and Fabio Sanchez (2004) said that domestic violence can trigger poverty in different ways including decreasing employment stability of the women, causing formulation of female-headed households, and causing formation of new households that have no personal assets or income due to violence. Also, this idea shows the relationship to exist between the two variables. However, from the two hypotheses given in this study that “there is no significant relationship between domestic violence and household income”, and the second hypothesis was, “there is significant

relationship between domestic violence and household income poverty”; the aim was to see whether there is relationship between these two variables. The results from the Chi-square test revealed that relationship does not exist at all as far as the study concerned. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted as it stated that “there is no significant relationship between domestic violence and household income” But, the alternative hypothesis was rejected as it stated that “there is significant relationship between domestic violence and household income”. This shows that occurrence of domestic violence and level of income poverty of the person had no relationship. Simply, the occurrence of violence can occur to the people of all levels of income. On the other hand, the level of income poverty of the person is not necessary factor or reason for the person to suffer from domestic violence. That means, domestic violence is existing to all people regardless to the level of income they earn.

Table 20: Link between domestic violence and income of the respondents (n=100)

Income category	Respondents with various Levels of Domestic Violence					
	Low		Medium		High	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
<50 000	0	0.0	2	28.6	22	43.1
50 001-100 000	2	28.5	13	31.6	15	29.4
100 001-500 000	2	28.5	13	31.6	7	13.7
>500 000	3	42.8	4	9.5	7	13.7

$\chi^2 = 12.042$, $p = 0.061$, not significant at $p > 0.05$

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusions

Based on the findings from the study, it can be concluded that domestic violence is still a problem among women in Babati District. It was found that wife battering was more practised than any other form of domestic violence. The husbands were mentioned to be the main perpetrators of domestic violence, especially when they are drunk. Although there was existence of other forms of violence but wife battery was the major form that was seen to be the problem existed in the study area.

However, the majority of women had positive perception towards domestic violence. This was a clear sign that women in Babati District were still embracing cultural practices in which domestic violence is manifested. The inheritance of culture, traditions, and customs in their societies from their ancestors may justify the act of domestic violence to be part of the society whereby women feel that it is a right of the husband to punish them in case of their wrong doing.

Looking at income of the respondents, it was found that the majority lived below the national poverty line. The poverty line was measured per year and each person was expected to live above USD1.25 per day. Also, in measuring income poverty through ownership of assets, both livestock and domestic assets, it was observed that the majority of the respondents at the medium level (slightly poor) possessed some of the valuable assets. This shows that the respondents acquired income in the specific period of time. But assets, once they were bought, were just there at home all the time. Further, in the

rural areas possessions of assets was regarded as a prestige and respect to the person possessing them. Therefore, the possession of assets was more valuable than income.

The relationship between domestic violence and household income was determined using chi-square test. It was found that there was no statistical significant relationship ($p > 0.005$) between domestic violence and household income. This means that the occurrence of domestic violence and the level of income poverty of the person had no relationship. Simply, the occurrence of violence can occur to the people of all levels of income. However, the level of income poverty of the person is not a necessary factor or reason for the person to suffer from domestic violence.

5.2 Recommendations

Based on conclusions, the following recommendations are made:

Wife battery is still high in the study area; in that sense the communities, through Government and NGOs, should create awareness to women on the negative consequences of domestic violence. They should also be in a position to dispel unfavourable customs and beliefs that nurtured and condone domestic violence. This should be done through lobbying and advocacy among traditional leaders and the Government. Also, stiffer measures should be taken to perpetrators of domestic violence so as to deter others from the vice. On the other hand, the laws that were enacted by the Government of Tanzania on women's rights and the sexual Offences Special Provision Act, 1998 (SOSPA), which offer protection to women and children from sexual harassment and abuse should be implemented in order to ensure that domestic violence does not exist or practised to oppress women.

There is a need to empower women economically and encourage them to join voluntary organisations which can act as buffers at times of stress hence they won't be able to depend on their spouses economically.

There is a need to rectify unfavourable positive perceptions of women towards domestic violence through continuous culturally sensitive information education and communication programmes. The education programmes should seek to help women to be aware of their rights and view themselves as valuable members of the society. Lobbying by traditional leaders could also be a solution as some of the cultural practices will be abolished.

5.3 Areas for Future Research

Domestic violence has varieties of forms, but this study worked on two forms: physical violence and economic violence. Therefore, more research should be established to other kinds of domestic violence like psychological violence and emotional violence.

Also, the study was conducted to find the linkage between domestic violence and household income. The result shows that there is no relationship between domestic violence and income, while some relationships were expected. Therefore, another study should be conducted in other areas to check whether there are really no relationships/linkages between domestic violence and household income poverty.

REFERENCES

- Adams, A. E., Sullivan, C. M. and Greeson, M. R. (2008). Development of the scale of economic abuse. *Violence against Women* 14 (5): 563–588. Doi: 10.1177/1077801208315529. PMID 18408173. Edit. pp. 61.
- Aghakhani, K., and Aghabegloee, A. (2002). Physical Violence by Husbands against Women Examined at Tehran Forensic Medicine Centre. *Journal of Iran University of Medical Sciences* 9(31): 485-490.
- Ayad, M., Barrere, B. and Otto, J. (1997). *Demographic and Socio-economic Characteristics of Households*. Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) Comparative Studies. Macro-International Inc., Calverton, Maryland. 62 pp.
- Babo, B. V., and Kar, S. K. (2009). Domestic violence against women in eastern India: a population –based study on prevalence and related issues. *BMC Public Health*. 9(129), 1-15. [<http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-9-129>] site visited on 12/06/2015.
- Back, S. M., Post, R. D. and D’Arcy, G. (1982). A study of battered women in a psychiatric setting. *Women and Therapy* 1: 13–26.
- Bagachwa, M. S. D. (1994). Changing perceptions of poverty and emerging research issues. In: *Poverty alleviation in Tanzania: Recent research issues*. (Edited by Bagachwa, M. S. D.), Dar es Salaam: Dar es Salaam University Press. pp 75.

- Bailey, K. D. (1994). *Methods of Social Research* (Fourth Edition). The Free Press, New York. 345pp.
- Bhattacharjee, A. (2012). *Social Science Research: Principles, Methods and Practices 2nd edition*. By Anol Bhattacharjee University of South Florida.US.pp 140.
- Bradley, C. (1994). 'Why Male violence against women is development issue: Reflection from Papua New Guinea'. In: *Women and violence Realities and Responses Worldwide*. (Edited by Davies, M.), London: Zed Books. 106 pp.
- Brewster, M. P. (2003). Sexual and Domestic Violence: Report from the Qualitative Phase from an Adolescent Centre: Implications for treatment of battered women. *Journal of the American Medical Women's Association* 50(3-4): 87-93.
- Buss, D. M. and Shackelford, T. K. (1997). From vigilance to violence: Mate retention tactics in married couples. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 72: 346-361.
- Callie M. and Sarah W. (2000). Bureau of Justice Statistics Special report. *Journal of Intimate Partner Violence* 38:235-238.
- Cohen, B. and House, W. J. (1994). Demographic behaviour and poverty: Micro-level evidence from Southern Sudan. *World Development* 22 (7): 1031-1044.
- Cohen, M. and Maclean, H. (2002). Violence against Canadian women. *BMC Women Health* 4(1): 22.

Commission on Human Rights, (1995). *Preliminary Report by the UN Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women*, Ms.RadikaCoomaraswamy, UN Doc. E/CN.4/1995/42 (1995). 20-21.

Connors (1989). *Violence against Women in theFamily*, New York: United Nations Office at Vienna, Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs. 27pp.

Costello, C. B. (2012). *Increasing Opportunities for Low-Income Women and Student Parents in Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math at Community Colleges*. Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Dahlberg, L. Krug., E. G. (2002). "Violence a global public health problem". In: *World report on violence and health* (Edited by Krug, E.G.), Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization. pp 42.

Daly, M. (1993).An evolutionary psychological perspective on male sexual proprietariness and violence against wives. *Violence and Victims* 8: 271-294.

Dan. A., Helmut, R., Jonathan, W. and Tanya, W. (2013).Employments and Domestic violence Theory and Evidence. Discussion Paper No 7515.Germany: Munich. pp 11.

David, D. (1996). "The Haven becomes Hell: A Study of Domestic Violence in Pakistan". In: *Pakistan Women Living under Muslim Laws*. (Edited by Cant., L.), Pakistan: Medical Research Council. pp 72.

- Davies, J. (1998). Policy Blueprint on Domestic violence and Poverty: *Building comprehensive solution to Domestic violence*. National Resources Centre on Domestic Violence, a project of the Pennsylvania Coalition against Domestic. pp 8.
- Egypt Demographic Health Survey. (2008).[<http://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/FR220/FR220.pdf>] site visited on 22/10/2014.
- Ellsberg, M. (2005). “Sexual violence against women and girls: Recent findings from Latin America and the Caribbean”. In: *Sex without consents: Young people in developing countries*. (Edited by Jejeebhoy, S. J., Shah, I., Thapa, and S.), London, UK: Zed Books.
- El-Zanaty, F., Hussein, Enas M., Shawky, Gihan A., Way, A. and Kishor, S. (1996). *Egypt Demographic and Health Survey*. Calverton, Maryland: National Population Council [Arab Republic of Egypt] and Macro International Inc. pp 95.
- Emre, Y., Gulsan, K., Betul, A., and Umran, S. (2006). Domestic Violence during pregnancy in Turkey and Responsibility of prenatal Healthcare providers. *American Journal Perinatology* 23(2): 93-103 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1055/s-2006-931802>.
- Eric, Y. T., Adobebe, Y. O., Eric, H. Y. and Richard, B. (2013). Factors Influencing Domestic and Marital Violence against Women in Ghana. *Gender Issues in Violence and Trauma* 28:771 - 781.

Erickson, N. U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Program. (2008). Addressing the problem of juvenile bullying. [<https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/ojjdp/fs200127.pdf>] site visited on 21/12/2014.

Ethiopia demographic and health survey, (2001). *Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, and Calverton, Maryland, USA*: Central Statistical Authority. pp. 31-33.

Fisher, A. A., Laing, J. E., Stoeckel, J. E. and Townsend, J. W. (1998). *Handbook for family planning operations research design*. Second edition USA New York, 10017. [www.popcouncil.org] (USA pdf). 84 pp.

Goetz, A. T. and Shackelford, T. K. (2010). Sexual Coercion in Intimate Relationships Scale. In: *Handbook of sexuality-related measures. (3rd ed)*, (Edited by Fisher, T.D., Davis, C., Yarber, W. and Davis, S.), London: Taylor and Francis. pp. 125-127.

Granados, S., M. (1996). “Salud reproductiva Violencia contra lamujer: UN análisis desde la perspectiva de género”, *Populations Reports* [on line], Nuevo León, Association Mexicana de Población, Consejo Estatal de Población, El Colegio de México. [http://www.jhuccp.org/pr/l11/l11tables.stm#table_1] site visited on 22/10/2014.

Hashemi, S. M., Schuler, and S. R., Riley, A. P. (1996). Rural credit programs and women’s empowerment in Bangladesh. *World Development* 24 (4): 635 - 53.

- Heise L., Ellsberg M. and Gottemoeller M. (1999) *Ending violence against women*. Population Reports Series L (11) Baltimore, Johns Hopkins University School of Public Health, Population Information Program, December. pp 33.
- Heise, L. (1996). The construction of self in online support groups for victims of domestic violence. *British Journal of Social Psychology* 46 (4): 859-874.
- ILO (2004). Women and Men in the informal sector: A statistical picture, Geneva, 2002. [<http://www.ilo.org/Public/English/Employment/infeco/download/menwomen.pdf>] site visited on 18/9/2014.
- Irfan, M. (1989). Poverty, class structure and household demographic behaviour in rural Pakistan. In: *Proceedings of the Population Growth and Poverty in Rural South Asia Series*. (Edited by Rogers, G.), New Delhi, India. pp 76-120.
- Jazairy, L. A. and Pannucio, T. (1995). *The State of World Rural Poverty. An inquiry into its Causes and Consequences*. New York University Press, New York. 172 pp.
- Jenkins, A. (2004). Battered women's multitude of needs: Evidence supporting the need for comprehensive advocacy. *Violence against Women* 10: 1015 - 1035.
- Jere, R. B. (1993). *Microeconomics Policies and Rural Poverty: Issues and Research Strategies*. Oxford University Press, Oxford. 76pp.

- Kajembe, G.C. (1994). Indigenous management system as a base of community Tanzania: A case study of Dodoma Urban and Lushoto District: Tropical resources management paper no. 6. Wageningen Agricultural University. The Netherlands. 15pp.
- Karkal, M. (1987). 'Healthy of Mother and Child Survival'. In: *Dynamics of population and family welfare*. (Edited by Srinivasan, K. and Mukerji, S.), Bombay: Himalaya. 2-17 pp.
- Katani, J. Z. (1999). The role of gender-based indigenous knowledge in developing coping strategies against deforestation: A case of Mwanza District. Dissertation for Award for MSc. Degree at Sokoine University of Agriculture, Morogoro, Tanzania. 110pp.
- Kigoda, M. and Mwishomba, A. (1995). Defining a poverty line and alternative measures of standard of living and poverty. In: *Proceedings of The workshop on Socio-economic Growth and Poverty Alleviation in Tanzania* (Edited David, A. And Aleen, I.), Arusha, Tanzania. pp 37-44.
- Kipobota, K. and Louw, S. (2009). Legal and Human Rights Centre, Tanzania Human Rights Report. In: *Progressive through Human Rights, Compilation of Extra Women's Rights*. (Edited by Kiwanga, F., Bisimba, H.K., Peter, C.M, Shilamba, R., Sungusia, H., Maro, R., Manya, F.), Legal Human Right Centre, Dar es Salaam. pp 3-8.
- Kishor, S. and Subaiya, L. (2008). Demographic and Health Survey Comparative Reports. No, 20. Calverton, MD: Macro International; Understanding women's empowerment: A comparative analysis of Demographic and Health Surveys. pp 15.

- Koop, C. E. and Cundbxy, G. D. (1992). Violence in America: A public health emergency. [*JAMA*,276,305657.<http://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.1992.03480220093036>] site visited on 22/10/2014.
- Kothari, C. R. (2009). *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques* (Second Edition). Wiley Eastern Limited, New Delhi. 401pp.
- Lehrner, A. and Allen, N. E. (2008). Social change movements and the struggle over meaning making: a case study of Domestic violence narratives. *American Journal of Community Psychology*42 (3): 220-234.
- Lloyd, S. and Talus,N. (1999).The impact of recent partner violence on women’s capacity to maintain work.*Violence against Women.South-western Social Science Association: State of New Jersey* 5 (4): 370–92.
- Logan, T. K., Shannon, L., Cole, J. and Swanberg, J. (2007).“Partner stalking and Implications for Women’s Employment. ‘*Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 22: 268–91.
- Macintyre, S., L. McKay, and Ellaway, A. (2005). Are rich people or poor people more likely to be ill? 18 Lay perceptions, by social class and neighbourhood, of inequalities in health.*Social Science and Medicine, Europe*, 7: 313-360.
- Martin, S.L. (2004). Changes in intimate partner homicide during pregnancy. *Journal of Family Violence* 19(4): 201–210.

- Mascarenhas, A. (2000). *Poverty, Environmental and Livelihood along the Gradients of the Usambaras in Tanzania, REPOA Research Report No 05.2*, Tanzania Printers Limited, Dar es Salaam. 57pp.
- Mirsky, J. (2003). *Beyond Victims and Villains: Addressing Sexual Violence in the Education Sector*. London: Pano.pp 12.
- Moser, C. (1999). Forced sex and intimate partner violence.Effects on women risk and women's health." *Violence against Women* 5 (9): 107-1035.
- Moses, M. M., Samuel R., Michael A., Lydia. (2010). *Factors Leading to Domestic Violence in Low-Income Residential Areas in Kenya: A Case Study of Low-income Residential Areas in Kisumu*. Moi University, Eldoret. 70 pp.
- Mugenda, O. M. and Mugenda, A.G. (2003). *Research Methods: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*. Acts Press. Nairobi. 143pp.
- Narayan, D., Patel, R., Schaft, K., Rademacher, A. and Koch-Schulte, S. (2000). *Voices of the Poor, Can Anyone Hear Us?* Oxford University Press Inc., New York, N.Y.10016. 343pp.
- National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) and ICF Macro (2014). *Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey, 2010*, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania: NBS and ICF Macro, 2011.pp 13.
- NBS (2009). *Household Budget Survey 2007*. President's Office, Dar es Salaam. 94pp.

- Odujiniri, O. (1993). Wife battering in Nigeria. *Int J GynaecolObsetet*, 41, 15964. www.ccsenet.org/gjhs *Global Journal of Health Science*. 8(5): 2016183 [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0020-7292(93)90699-W] site visited on 20/10/2014.
- Ogrodnik, C. (2010). Women under Attack: Violence and Poverty in Guatemala. *Journal of International Women's Studies* 12 (1): 157.
- Olubunmi, R. (2012). Effects of domestic violence on women farmer's livelihood activities in Ogun State Nigeria. *Greener Journal of Agricultural Sciences* 2 (4): 2276-7770.
- Oputa, L. (1994). Who is who among the Poor', The Guardian on Sunday, April 17, 1994. In: *Ending Africa's Poverty Trap*. (Edited by Sachs, J.D., McArthur, J.W., Schmidt, G., Kruk, M., Bahador, C., Faye, M. and McCord, G.), Mimeo: available at [www.unmillenniumproject.org] site visited on 12/11/2014.
- Peggy, H. (2011). Sexual conflict: Evolutionary insights into feminism and the "battle of the sexes." In: *Sex, power, conflict*. (Edited by D. M. Buss & N. M. Malamuth). New York: Oxford University Press. pp. 296-318.
- Rennison, C. M. and Welchans, S. (2000). The influence of childhood maltreatment and self-control on dating violence: A comparison of college students in the United States and South Korea. *Violence and Victims* 26 (3): 296-318.

- Renzetti, C. M. (2009). *Economic Stress and Domestic Violence*. Applied Research Forum, National Online Resource Centre on Violence against Women. [http://www.vawnet.org/category/Main_Doc.php?docid=2187i] site visited on 27/7/2014.
- Ribero, R. and Fabio, S. (2004). *Determinates, Efectos, y Costos de la Valencia Intrafamiliar en Colombia*. Bogota, Colombia: Centro de DeEstudiospara el Desarrollo Economic (CEDE) de la Universidad de los Andes. [<http://economia.uniandes.edu.co/documentocede2004-44.htm>] site visited on 12/03/2014.
- Rodgers, G. S., Gupta, S., Sharma, A. N. and Sharma, B. (1989). Demographic patterns and poverty among households in rural Bihar. In: *Population Growth and Poverty in Rural South Asia*. (Edited by Rodgers, G.), Sage Publication. New Delhi.
- Rugira, J. (2015). Forms, causes, and effects of violence against women in Mbulu Tanzania. *General Education Journal* 4 (1):16-31.
- Russell, D. (1982). The prevalence and incidence of forcible rape and attempted rape of female *Victimology: an International Journal* 7: 81-93.
- Rutasitara, L. (2002). *Economic Policy and Rural Poverty in Tanzania: A Survey of Three Regions, REPOA Research Report No 02.1*. MkukinaNyota Publishers Ltd, Dar es Salaam. 118pp.
- Saffitz, Z. (2010). *Understanding Gender-base violence: Evidence from Kilimanjaro and Moshi Rural*. School of Social Work, Columbia University: New York. pp 85.

- Schuler, S. R. (1996). Credit programs, patriarchy and men's violence against women in rural Bangladesh. *Social Science and Medicine* 43: 1729 - 1742.
- Semboja, J. (1994). Poverty assessment in Tanzania: Theoretical, conceptual and methodological issues. In: *Poverty alleviation in Tanzania: recent research issues*. (Edited by Bagachwa, M.S.D.), Dar es Salaam: Dar es Salaam University Press. pp. 31-56.
- Shettin, D. I. and Sullivan, C. M. (2004). Battered Women's Multitude of Needs: Evidence supporting the need for comprehensive advocacy. *Violence against Women, The free press, New York*. 10: 1015–1035.
- Shrader, E. (2000). Fatal violence among spouses in the United States, 1976-85. *American Journal of Public Health* 79: 595-599.
- Sikira, A. (2010). *Women Empowerment and Gender Based Violence in Serengeti District, Mara Region, Tanzania*. Thesis for Award of PhD Degree at Sokoine University of Agriculture, Morogoro, Tanzania. 218pp.
- Smith, P. H., Smith, J. B. and Earp, J.A.L. (1999). Beyond the measurement trap: Are constructed conceptualization and measurement of battering. *Psychology of Women Quarterly* 23: 177 - 193.
- Stalans, L. J. and Finn, M.A. (2006). Public and police officers' interpretation and handling of domestic violence cases: Divergent realities. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 21 (9): 1129 - 1155.

- TAMWA (2013). *Gender Based Violence Research Report*. TAMWA, Springer Publishing Company, Dar es Salaam: Tanzania. pp 20.
- TAWJA (2011). *Millennium Development Goals Program 3-Tanzania: 2009-2011: Stooping, Shaming and Naming the Abuse of Power for Sexual Exploitation, a Tool Kit by Tanzania Women Judges*. Human Right Watch, Dar es Salaam. 12-15 pp.
- Tegbar, Y., Yemane, B., Nigussie, D. and Mirgissa, K. (2010). Perceptions and attitude towards violence against women by their spouses: A qualitative study in Northwest Ethiopia. pp 41-42.
- Tolman, R. and Raphael, J. (2000). A review of research on welfare and domestic violence. *Journal of Social Issues* 56 (4): 655 - 82.
- Tyler, G., El-Ghonomy, M. Rial and Convreux, Y. (1993). 'Alleviating Rural Poverty though Agricultural Growth'. *The Journal of Development Studies* 29: 359-63.
- UNDP (2004). *Sub-Saharan Africa Poverty Reduction Report of 2004*. UNDP, New York. 37pp.
- UNICEF (2000). *Domestic Violence against Women and Girls*. Innocent Digest No.6. June, Innocent Research Centre, Florence, Italy, UNICEF Innocent Research Centre. [<http://www.unicef-icdc.org>] site visited on 20/11/2014.

- United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), (2002). *State of the World Population 2002: People, Poverty, and Possibilities: United Nations Response Women*. UNFPA, New York. 136 pp.
- URT (2011). *Stop Gender Based Violence. A National Plan of Action for the Prevention and Eradication of Violence against Women and Children (2001-2015)*. Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children, Dar es Salaam. 2 pp.
- URT (2003). *Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper*. Government Printer, Dar es Salaam. 46 pp.
- URT (2013). Prime Minister's officer, Regional Administration and Local Government: Investment and Socio-Economic Profile Manyara Regional Commissioner's Officer, Manyara Region. 11 pp.
- USAID (2005). *Conflicts and livelihoods. A Toolkit for Intervention*. [http://www.usaid.gov/our_work/crosscutting_programs/conflict/publications/docs/CMM_Livelihoods_and_Conflict_Dec_2005] site visited on 30/11/2014.
- USAID (2008). *Gender-Based Violence in Tanzania: An Assessment of Policies, Services and Promising Interventions*. Mount Meru University, Arusha. 6 pp.
- Visaria, L. (2000). Violence against women: Economic and Political Weekly. World Health Organization. In: *World Report on Violence and Health*. (Edited by Krug, E.G., Dahlberg, L.L., Mercy, J.A., Zwi, A.B. and Lozano, R.). Geneva: World Health Organization, 35:1742-1751.

- Wen, J.Z. (2009). Combination of acupuncture and Florentine for depression: A randomized, double-blind, sham-controlled trial. *The Journal of Alternative and Complementary Medicine* 15 (8): 598.
- WHO (2002). Public Policies on Domestic violence: Violence against women, gender Ethnicity and health Unit, pan African Health Organization. Washington; DC. 4 pp.
- WHO (2005). United Republic of Tanzania: *WHO Multi-Country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence against Women*. [http://www.who.int/gender/violence/who_multicountry_study/en/] site visited on 11/5/2014.
- WHO (2014). *Humanitarian News and Analysis: a service of the UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs*. WHO, Dar-es-Salaam. 3pp.
- Williams, A., Stoep, A.V., Kuro, E. and Stewart, D.G. (2006). *Predictors of Mental Health Service Enrolment among Juvenile Offenders*. *Youth Violence and Juvenile Justice* 4 (3): 266-280.
- Williams, S. L. and Mickelson, K. D. (2007). A psychosocial resource impairment model Explaining partner violence and distress: Moderating role of income. *American Journal of Community Psychology* 40: 13-25.
- Wilson, M., Daly, M. and Scheib, J. E. (1993). Femicide: An evolutionary psychological perspective. In: *Feminism and evolutionary biology*. (Edited by Gowaty, P.A.), New York: Chapman and Hall. pp. 431-463.

- Wilson, M., Johnson, H. and Daly, M. (1995). Lethal and nonlethal violence against wives. *Canadian Journal of Criminology* 37: 331-361.
- World Bank (1996). *Tanzania: The Challenges to Reforms: Growth, Income and Welfares, Main Report*. World Bank, Washington DC. 108pp.
- World Bank (2000). *Can Africa Claim the 12st Century?* World Bank, Washington DC. 278 pp.
- World Bank (2003). *World Development Report 2003: Sustainable Development in a Dynamic World*. World Bank Press, Washington DC. 30pp.
- World Health Organization, (2006). *Information Pack*. WHO, Geneva. pp 99.
- Yamane, T. (1967). *Statistics. An introductory Analysis*, 2nd Edition. Harper and Row, New York. 5 pp.
- Yigzaw, T. and Yibrie A. (2010). Perceptions and attitude towards violence against women by their spouses: A qualitative study in Northwest Ethiopia. pp 41-42.
- Yoshihama, (2000). Domestic violence against women of Japanese Descent in Los Angeles: Two methods of estimating prevalence. *Violence against Women* 5(8): 869-889.
- Zimmerman, K. (1995). *Plates in a Basket with Rattle: Domestic Violence in Cambodia: A Summary* Phnom Penh, Cambodia: Project Against Domestic Violence. pp 4.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Operational definitions, indicators, and measurement levels of key variables

Variable	Operation definition	Indicator	Measurement level
Education	The number of years spousal(women and men) went through formal education	Number of years	Ratio
Age	Age of the spousal (women and men)	Number of years	Ratio
Sex	Biological sex of the spouses of the household	1= Male 2= Female	Nominal
Marital status	Parents spousal(women and men) being in marriage or not	1= Married 2=Separated 3=Single 4=Widow 5= Otherwise	Nominal
Occupation	Spousal (women and men) being involved in production.	1= Employed 2= Farming 3= Business	Nominal
Domestic violence	Extent to which women have been experiencing violence in life time	1= High 2= Otherwise	Ordinal
Community's perception on Domestic violence	The attitude of the community towards Domestic violence facing women.	1= Positive 2= Negative	Ordinal

Appendix 2: Checklist for key informants**Interview guide****Confidential**

Serial number.....

Ward.....Division.....District.....Street/village.....

Date.....Checklist No.....

Domestic violence

1. Do you know anything about Domestic Violence?
2. Have you ever received any case of people being quarrelled from their Families?
3. Which kind of domestic violence cases were receiving if that was the case?
4. Why do you think such kinds of violence are happening?
5. Who are often been affected with such kind of violence?
6. Is there any connection between the problems reported and life condition of people in this area?
7. What steps have been taken to resolves such kinds of violence?
8. What should be done to reduce such violence?
9. What are your comments towards such kind of violence in your area?

Thank you for your time

Appendix 3: Questionnaire of the households heads (spousal)

My name is Revocatus A. Setembo; I'm student of Sokoine University of Agricultural (SUA) in Morogoro. I'm carrying out a survey in Babati district, Manyara regional titled: domestic violence and household income poverty. You have been selected by chance to take part in the study. Don't be worry about answers from my questions since everything is going to be kept strictly secret. I assure you know that no record will be kept of your names or address unless you like. It is you're right to stop me to interview at anytime to leave out any question that there is no answer for it. There is no right or wrong answer. The interview will take maximum 30minutes to accomplish. I welcome you all to participate actively. Thank you for your acceptance

Name of the interviewer

Date of the interview

Name of the ward

Name of the village.....

A. Background information of the respondents

Tick the appropriate answer or fill in where spaces are provided.

1. Age range (years): []

2. Sex: (1) male [] (2) Female []

3. Marital status: (1) Married [] (2) Separated/Divorce [] (3) Single [] (4) widow [] (5) Other (specify).....

4. Occupation of the woman: (1) Employed [] (2) Farming [] (3) Business [] (4) Other (specify).....

5. Occupation of the Men: (1) Employed [] (2) Farming [] (3) Business [] (4) Other (specify).....

6. Education background: (1) Primary [] (2) Secondary [] (3) Tertiary [] (4) Adult/vocation [] (5) No formal education []

B. Objective number 1: Extent of Domestic violence

8. How domestic violence is defined by you?

1. It is a pattern of coercive and assaulted behavior []
2. Is any relationship that is used to gain or maintain power and control in an intimate [] partner?
3. Is any behaviour within an intimate relationship that causes physical, psychological or sexual harm? []

9. Have you ever been experienced Domestic violence?

1. Yes []
2. No []

10. Among the list of Domestic violence given, tick any form that you have experienced in your life and how many times have you experienced such kind of violence?

Types of Domestic act	Once (1)	Twice (2)	Thrice(3)	Frequently(4)
Being beaten				
Being attacked with weapon				
Being burned				
Forced to perform sexual act				
To be Controlled over resources				
The basics needs being withdrawn from like food and cloth				
To be controlled on your own earnings				

10. Among the list of forms of domestic violence, tick any form of DV that you have experienced in your life, and the frequency.

Types of violent act	One week(1)	One month(2)	Past six month(3)	Last year(4)
Being beaten				
Being attacked with weapon				
Being burned				
Forced to perform sexual act				
To be controlled over resources				
The basic needs being withdrawn from you like food and cloth				
To be controlled on your own earnings				

11. Put a tick from the following statements to indicate the extent of domestic violence (physical and economic violence) whether you have been low (1), medium (2) and high (3) experience such violence.

	Low(1)	Medium(2)	High(3)
1.			
The extent to which women have been attacked with weapon by their husbands			
The extent to which women have been burned by their husband.			
The extent to which women have been forced to perform sexual act.			
The extent to which your husband has control over your resources			
The extent to which your husband has withdrawn over your financial support.			
The extent to which your husband deprived your basic needs like food and cloth from you.			

14. Would you indicate the reasons for Domestic violence?

Type of Domestic act	Indicate by a tick
Low education of husband	

low education of wife	
low income of the husband	
low income of the wife	
Alcohol use by the husband	
Dependence on one parent for the household needs.	

14. Who are the perpetrator of Domestic violence in the household level and the frequency of occurrence? (**Indicate by tick**)

Perpetrator	How Frequency		
	Once(1)	Few times(2)	Many times(3)
Husband			
Other male partners			
Both wife and husband			
Villagers/Strangers			

15. Whom would like you like to report to about Domestic violence?

1. My husband []
2. My father []
3. Police men []
4. Other specify.....

C. Objective number II: To examine the extent of income poverty among men and women

I. Employment and Cash Income

Now I have questions about your (present/last) occupation, employment and sources of income

16. What is your main occupation?

1. Farming [] 2. Livestock []
3. Wage employee [] 4. Non-farm activities []

(Fishing, hunting, forestry)5. Other (explain) []

17. Have you received any cash income in the past 12 months?

1. Yes [] No. []

18 If yes (qn 18) mainly from

1. Wages [] 2. Crop/Livestock sold []
3. Business income [] 4. Cash remittances []
5. No reliable source []

19. How much income did you receive.....?

20. is your wife/husband currently

1. Self employed [] 2. Wage-employed []
3. Not working []

21. Has your wife/husband received any cash income in the past 12 months?

1. Yes [] 2.No []

22. If yes (qn 21) mainly from

1. Wage [] 2. Crop/livestock sold []
3. Business income [] 4. Cash remittances []
5. No reliable source []

II. Assets and Expenditure

23. Do you keep any animals like cows, lambs, goats and poultry?

1. Yes [] 2.No []

24. If no (qn 23) How many cows/Lambs/goats/poultry?

1. Cow [] 2. Goats []
3. Lamb [] 4. Pigs []
5. Poultry []

25. Iam mentioning some of household items please tell me if you own any of these.

INTERVIEWER: WRITE YES/NO IN BLANK SPACE

Items	Yes.....1 No.....2 If yes(qety)	Item	Yes.....1 no.....2 If yes (qty)	Item	Yes.....1 No.....2.
Bicycle		Sofa		Mosquito Net	
Car		Wooden bed		Satellite Dish	
Motorbike		Electric iron		Fan	
Radio		Spongy Mattress		Table	
Refrigerators		Cotton Mattress		Chairs	
Television		Water pump		Kerosene Lamp	
Ox-Plough		Wardrobe		Tractor	
Clock/watch		Sewing Machine		Pressure Lantern	

26. Do you/husband/wife own this house?

1. Own [] 2. Rent []

3. Other (specify) []

27. Do you or your husband own other house?

1. Own [] 2. Rent [] 3. Other (specify) []

28. What are the floors of this house made of?

1. Earth [] 2. Wood []

3. Tiles [] 4. Cement []

29. What are the walls of this house made of?

1. Stone, Coral block, Cement block, burnt brick [] 2. Mud, bricks
(plastered/un plastered), wood []
3. Galvanized, mud and stick, mud [] 5. Other (specify)[]

30. What is the roof of this house made of?

1. Tiles, concrete, cement [] 2. Galvanized, iron or asbestos []
3. Bamboo, wood, mud, grass, thatch [] 4. Other (specify. []

31. How many rooms are used for sleeping in this house?

32. Do you have electricity in your household?

1. Yes [] 2.No []

33. What is the source for drinking water in this household?

1. Piped into residence [] 2. Rainwater harvesting []
3. Public tap [] 4. Vendor []
5. River, canal, spring [] 6. Other (specify) []

34. What is the main source of energy for cooking in this house?

1. Electricity, propane, or solar [] 2. Biogas, kerosene, or charcoal []
3. Firewood [] 4. Crop residue, coconut husks, sawdust, and animal dung
chaff, grass []
5. Other (specify) []

35. Do you own land?

1. Yes [] 2.No []

36. How did you acquire your land?

1. Purchase 2. Rented
3. Inherited

37. How big is your land?

38. How big is your cultivated land?

39. Have you expanded your acreage for the past years?

1. Yes [] 2.No []

40. How easy is it to get land?

1. Very easy 2. Easy 3. Difficult 4. Very difficult

41. Do you think there is any relationship between Domestic violence and poverty?

1. Yes [] 2. No

42. If yes (qn35) how/Why?

Objective number III: Influence of Domestic violence toward Income poverty

43. Do you know the Influencing factors of Domestic violence towards income poverty?

1. Yes [] 2.No []

44. If Yes (qn 32) would you please indicate them (**tick the answer**)

1. Human power reduced due to physical injury
2. Using money for treatment to rescue patient of violence
3. Having psychological effects that disable someone to engage in any generating activities.
4. Women running away from the home hence unable to attend work place
5. If any other specify.....

45. In revising (**qn 10**) would you please indicate the consequence of such violence?

(**Tick the answer**)

Type of consequences	Yes(1)	No(2)
1. Less energy to carry out income generating activities due to physical injury		
2. Poor healthy conditions		
3. Loss of income		
4. Lose of Job		
5. Isolation from the family.		

E. Objective number IV: Perception toward domestic violence against women

The following are the different opinions towards domestic violence. Tell me whether you strongly agree, agree, disagree, Undecided, Disagree or strongly disagree. (**Circle the right answer please**)

Statement	Strongly agree(1)	Agree (2)	Undecided (3)	Disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
Domestic violence should be interfered because it is not a private issue, should be reported for further actions					
Wife beating by a husband should not be interfered because it is a part of love					
It is not happy to stay with violent husband; the action should be taken for further action					
A husband is allowed to have sex without the women's permission					
It is a part of love for women to stay with the violent husbands.					
Women agree Domestic violence to please the husband in the house because it is common					
Women stays in violence are really not happy because it is not a part of marriage.					
Women accept violence because it is the part of social and cultural norms					
Women perception is that man has got all the rights on her body, so she doesn't have the right to interfere him.					
Violence is perceived as one dimension of male dominance					