



DOMESTIC VIOLENCE IN CONTEMPORARY TIMES, CAUSE AND EFFECTS: AN EDUCATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

Okoye Chinasa R.¹

¹Senior Lecturer,
Department of Social Sciences,
School of General Studies
Federal Polytechnic Oko,
Orumba North Anambra State,
Nigeria

ABSTRACT

Contemporarily, Domestic violence has indeed become a social epidemic and cankerworm that eats deep down into the fabrics of the affected citizenry and the people that witness the incidence especially children. While some of the victims take-in their turn in very many diverse ways, majority of the victims, most worrisomely, suffer in silence. Whereas most scholars focus so much on violence against women alone, quite a number of documentations show that men also suffer domestic violence (though very rare). As a social reality, domestic violence in some cases leads to the death of the victims, and other disruptive consequences. It has the capacity to affect the physical and psychological wellbeing of the abused (victims of violence). This in turn can hamper the growth and development of any nation and the world at large. It is on this premise that this paper discusses: domestic violence in contemporary times, causes and effects. This paper also discusses causes and management of domestic violence. In conclusion recommendations were made to eradicate this hazard from the society.

KEYWORDS: *Domestic violence, physical, psychological damage, management*

INTRODUCTION

World over, domestic violence is an issue of public/societal concern. It occurs in enormous range of contexts and is ranked among the leading causes of death and disability (Sethi, Habibula, McGee, Peden, Bennett & Hyder, 2004).

Domestic violence occurs in all parts of society, regardless of geographic location, socio-economic status, age, cultural and ethnic background, or religious belief. With regard to its prevalence globally, WHO cited by Koustuv (2008) and Yusuf, Arulogun, Oladepo, and Olowookere, (2011) revealed that in 48 population-based surveys around the world, between 10-69 women are victims of domestic violence while UNFPA (2002) reported 60% abused women worldwide. In India, the NFHS-3 revealed that nearly two in every five married

women have experienced some form of violence by husbands. In USA, women experienced about 4.8million intimate partner-related physical assaults and rape and even in Ghana, domestic violence on women tops the list of domestic violence. In Nigeria, despite the fact that domestic violence especially among the elites is under reported (Moronkola, 2003; Adewale, 2009; Ashimolowo & Otufale, 2012; Adebayo & Kolawole, 2013; Adebayo, 2013) for fear of divorce, abuser's retaliation, stigmatization and loss of economic support, yet, the situation is not different. Pearce (1992) specifically found that in Ile Ife (the homeland of the Yorubas), wife assault is not only common, but highly visible. In line with this, Etuk, Nwagbara and Achibong (2012) found that of the 504 respondents in their study in Niger Delta State of Nigeria, 344 (68.2%)

had been exposed to a form of domestic violence while only 44 (8.8%) have not. Adebayo (2013) revealed that about 50% or two thirds of Nigerian women are subjected to domestic violence, while Alo, Odusina & Babatunde (2012) estimated domestic violence prevalence rate in the South-West of Nigeria to be 32%. Same were reported by Project Alert (2007) and Afrol News (2007). However, Ashimolowo & Otufale (2012) had contrary findings as they revealed that majority of their respondents in Ogun State of Nigeria never experienced domestic violence.

With this documentation however, it can be observed that domestic violence is mostly seen as synonymous with violence against women. Hence, women only, are often perceived to be the victims of domestic violence, and men as the perpetrators. Contrarily, research in the field of domestic violence over the past 25 years has generally shown that men and women act violently in relationships at about the same rate. Furthermore, men and women are equally likely to instigate violence against one another. The truth is surprisingly egalitarian: about half of all domestic violence occurs with both partners abusing each other, with 25% occurring only with men assaulting women and the other 25% occurring with only women assaulting men (Straus, 2010). Buttressing this, the Fiebert Bibliography documented over 100 studies which show that women are as likely, or more likely, to commit abuse in relationships as men. Contrary to the popular belief, women do not only hit in self-defense, which has been validated many times in domestic violence research, Straus found that women hit their partners first just as often as men, and has confirmed this result repeatedly (Straus, 2010).

However, not only is domestic violence real and very much around us, its effects and consequences are nothing to write home about. It's often devastating effects — psychological, social and economic, short-term and long-term — rebound on families, children, and the community as a whole. Hence, it is a cankerworm that should not be allowed. Discussion on its causes, effects/consequence *and* management is very imperative, as its eradication is very important for general wellbeing of the citizenry.

Domestic violence also known as domestic abuse, spousal abuse, battering, family violence and intimate partner violence (IPV) is a pattern of abusive behaviours by one partner against another in an intimate relationship such as marriage, dating, family or cohabitation.

Domestic violence, so defined, has many forms, including physical aggression or assault (hitting, kicking, biting, shoving, restraining, slapping, throwing objects), or threats thereof; sexual abuse; emotional abuse; controlling or domineering; intimidation; stalking; passive/covert abuse otherwise known as neglect; and economic

deprivation (Seimeniuk, Krentz, Gish & Gill, 2010). Domestic violence/abuse is not limited to obvious physical violence. It can mean endangerment, criminal coercion, kidnapping, unlawful imprisonment, trespassing, harassment and stalking (National Network to End Domestic Violence, 2011).

FORMS OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

Domestic violence finds expression in a number of ways, which include:

- Physical
- Verbal
- Sexual
- Psychological and
- Emotional

Physical abuse is the most commonly reported type of domestic violence according to police statistics from 2009 to 2011 (Police report). Sexual abuse involves any kind of forced sexual contact without partner consent (Domestic Violence Act Chapter5:16). Sexuality largely determines one's identity as a person and when attacked in a sexual manner it can be injurious to the victim's character. It can be reasonable to suggest from this evidence that sexual assault is less common due to cultural specific factors which do not overtly encourage victims to discuss let alone report on such matters of spousal intimacy. The types of subtle forms of suffering endured by victims of domestic violence include feeling helpless, depressed, low self-worth and self-esteem, and these have been classified as defamation of character and as such legal intervention is expressly excluded (Domestic Violence Act 5:16). Other forms of domestic violence include financial abuse, such as withholding money from the victim, controlling the entire household bills and expenditure. Social abuse, where the perpetrator isolates the victim from friends, family and support services is also commonly reported during interview sessions. Harassment and stalking are included as forms of domestic violence, as these behaviours induce unequal power relations and harmful consequences to the victim (Domestic Violence Act Chapter5:16).

DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

Violence against women refers to any act of gender based violence that results in, or is likely to result in physical, sexual, or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life. It is a widespread problem, with terrible physical, sexual, emotional, psychological and economic consequences for girls and women (Gill & Rehman, 2004). It affects women of every age, in every society and in every socio-economic group. Violence against women shall be understood to encompass, but not be limited to the following:

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

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

c) Physical, sexual and psychological violence perpetrated or condoned by the State, wherever it occurs. This is important so that policy makers have a full understanding of the issues involved in violence against women; otherwise the laws and policies that are formulated are likely to be ineffective.

Violence against women can also be in form of emotional abuse. One definition of emotional abuse is: "any act including confinement, isolation, verbal assault, humiliation, intimidation, infantilization, or any other treatment which may diminish the sense of identity, dignity, and self-worth. Examples of emotional abuse include:

- Threats of violence or abandonment
- Intentionally frightening
- Making an individual fear that they will not receive the food or care they need
- Lying
- Failing to check allegations of abuse against them
- Making derogative or slanderous statements about an individual to others
- Socially isolating an individual, failing to let them have visitors
- Withholding important information
- Demeaning an individual because of the language they speak
- Intentionally misinterpreting traditional practices
- Repeatedly raising the issue of death
- Telling an individual that they are too much trouble
- Ignoring or excessively criticizing
- Being over-familiar and disrespectful
- Unreasonably ordering an individual around; treating an individual like a servant or child

DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AGAINST MEN

Domestic violence against men is a term describing violence that is committed against men by the man's intimate partner (Sugg, Thompson, Thompson, Majuro, & Rivara, 1999). It is a rare finding (Tjaden, & Thoennes, 1998), unlike that of women that floods the lexicon of research. Hence,

despite the fact that there have been so many headlines and cries about domestic violence against women across the globe, domestic violence against men is a reality. It occurs virtually in every society in varying degrees. The problem in conducting studies that seek to describe violence in terms of gender is the amount of silence, fear and shame that results from abuse within families and relationships. This is why domestic violence against men remains largely unreported. Gender differences in reporting violence have been cited as another explanation for mixed results (Chan, Ko Ling, 2011). According to a 2004 survey in Canada, the percentages of males being physically or sexually victimized by their partners was 6% versus 7% for women. However, females reported higher levels of repeated violence and were more likely than men to experience serious injuries; 23% of females versus 15% of males were faced with the most serious forms of violence including being beaten, choked, or threatened with or having a gun or knife used against them. Also, 21% of women versus 11% of men were likely to report experiencing more than 10 violent incidents. According to a report by the United States Department of Justice, a survey of 16,000 Americans showed 22.1% of women and 7.4% of men reported being physically assaulted by a current or former spouse, cohabiting partner, boyfriend or girlfriend, or date in their lifetime (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). A 2010 survey of over 21,000 residents of England and Wales by the UK Home Office showed that 7% of women and 4% of men were victims of domestic abuse in the last year (Kevin, Kathryn, Simon, & Philip, 2011).

However, domestic violence against men has been on a steady increase in Kenya and its assuming a worrisome dimension. It has been reported that in 2011, almost five hundred thousand men were beaten by their wives in Kenya (Odimegwu, 2012). The rising cases of husband battery are blamed on increasing "female superiority complex". According to Robert (2012), the BBC reported that a men's group in Kenya named Maendeleo Ya Wanaume ("**Progress for Men**") announced an initiative to protest what is becoming a growing problem of female perpetrated domestic abuse in that country. The protest will entail a nationwide boycott of meals made by their wives and partners and is supposed to encourage men to eat away from home together and share their experiences with domestic abuse whether physical or emotional. In Kenyan culture, eating your wife's meal is said to be a very important part of a man's expression of appreciation for his wife. Last year, the group conducted its own survey of Central and Nairobi provinces and found that up to 460,000 men said they had been subjected to some sort of domestic abuse. The two provinces have a combined population of more than seven million people. **This figure represents an increase from 160,000 cases in 2009.** Many women have responded defensively to the news and statistics.

They say the rash of domestic violence reflects deep-seated frustration with husbands and fathers they often describe as dead-beat. The chairman of Maendeleo ya Wanawake -- "Progress for Women" -- in Kiswahili, publicly stated that men who don't provide for their families should be beaten. . . **the result of which are deformed faces, broken legs, burnt bodies and chopped private parts.** Another example of female brutality against men is the sorry tale of Eddie Kidd, a brain-damaged former motorbike stuntman, who revealed how he was severely battered constantly by his wife. He told *The Sun* on Sunday: 'She had started drinking heavily and would just not change. She would slap me in the face and punch me in the chest and arms, strangle me and say horrible things. As a man, any man, to be beaten by your wife is desperately humiliating and, in a way, shameful. I ended up blaming myself - thinking she had taken too much - or, that it was my fault. I took on so much when I was riding. Then after all the stunts, all the fanfare, I sat in a chair being beaten by my wife and there is nothing I can do.' Mrs Kidd was arrested for domestic violence last December after her husband's family reported her to police days after the couple split up. She was jailed for five months for four assaults last month (Daily Mail, 2013).

Furthermore, many men have also been killed by their female partners, just as many women have been killed by their male partners. Statistics show that of those killed by an intimate partner about three quarters are female and about a quarter is male. In 1999 in the United States 1,218 women and 424 men were killed by an intimate partner (U.S. Department of Justice. Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2003) and 1181 females and 329 males were killed by their intimate partners in 2005 [26]. In England and Wales about 100 women are killed by partners or former partners each year while 21 men were killed in 2010. In 2008, in France, 156 women and 27 men were killed by their intimate partners. Women who often experience higher levels of physical or sexual violence from their current partner, were 44%, compared with 18% of men to suffer from an injury. According to Daily Mail (Daily Mail, 2013), Theresa Rafacz pleaded guilty to manslaughter (killing her husband) and was jailed for two years after Belfast Crown Court was told how she 'lost control' when she came home from work to find her husband Piotr drunk while he was meant to be looking after their three-year-old son. Cases in which women are faced with extremely abusive partners, results in the females having to fear for their lives due to the violence they had faced. In addition, statistics show that 34% of women feared for their lives, and 10% of men feared for their lives as well (O'Grady, 2011).

In Nigeria, however, the lists of men who have been battered and violently treated by their wives are enormous. The records of court/police cases in Nigeria on domestic violence against men

by Adebayo (2014) show that it is no more news that some percentage of men are been battered by their wives. His lists went on and on to present life cases/incidences pertaining to this social epidemic. Reasons attached to this ranged from infidelity to inability to live up to their demands amongst other reasons. This however reveals that contrary to the traditional owned view that portrayed women as the only victims of domestic violence, recent studies are proving beyond reasonable doubts that men also suffer same.

CAUSES OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE Women and Children

Domestic violence is a social vice that has been proven to be caused by a lot of factors, either as co morbid factors or joint factors. Hence, there is no one single factor to account for violence perpetrated against women. Increasingly, research has focused on the inter-relatedness of various factors that should improve our understanding of the problem within different cultural contexts. Several complex and interconnected institutionalized social and cultural factors have kept women particularly vulnerable to the violence directed at them, all of them manifestations of historically unequal power relations between men and women. Factors contributing to these unequal power relations include: socioeconomic forces, the family institution where power relations are enforced, fear of and control over female sexuality, belief in the inherent superiority of males, and legislation and cultural sanctions that have traditionally denied women and children an independent legal and social status.

Lack of economic resources underpins women's vulnerability to violence and their difficulty in extricating themselves a violent relationship. The link between violence and lack of economic resources and dependence is circular. On the one hand, the threat and fear of violence keeps women from seeking employment, or, at best, compels them to accept low-paid, home-based exploitative labour.

And on the other, without economic independence, women have no power to escape from an abusive relationship (Schuler, Hashemi, Riley & Akhter, 1996). The reverse of this argument also holds true in some countries; that is, women's increasing economic activity and independence is viewed as a threat which leads to increased male violence (Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean, 1992). This is particularly true when the male partner is unemployed, and feels his power undermined in the household.

Studies have also linked a rise in violence to the destabilization of economic patterns in society. Macro-economic policies such as structural adjustment programmes, globalization, and the growing inequalities they have created, have been linked to increasing levels of violence in several regions, including Latin America, Africa and Asia (UNICEF, 1989). The transition period in the

countries of Central and Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union – with increases in poverty, unemployment, hardship, income inequality, stress, and alcohol abuse – has led to increased violence in society in general, including violence against women. These factors also act indirectly to raise women's vulnerability by encouraging more risk-taking behaviour, more alcohol and drug abuse, the breakdown of social support networks, and the economic dependence of women on their partners (UNICEF, 1999). Cultural ideologies – both in industrialized and developing countries – provide 'legitimacy' for violence against women in certain circumstances.

Furthermore, male control of family wealth inevitably places decision-making authority in male hands, leading to male dominance and proprietary rights over women and girls. The concept of ownership, in turn, legitimizes control over women's sexuality, which in many law codes has been deemed essential to ensure patrilineal inheritance. Women's sexuality is also tied to the concept of family honour in many societies. Traditional norms in these societies allow the killing of 'errant' daughters, sisters and wives suspected of defiling the honour of the family by indulging in forbidden sex, or marrying and divorcing without the consent of the family. By the same logic, the honour of a rival ethnic group or society can be defiled by acts of sexual violence against its women. Experiences during childhood, such as witnessing domestic violence and experiencing physical and sexual abuse, have been identified as factors that put children at risk. Violence may be learnt as a means of resolving conflict and asserting manhood by children who have witnessed such patterns of conflict resolution.

Excessive consumption of alcohol and other drugs has also been noted as a factor in provoking aggressive and violent male behaviour towards women and children. A survey of domestic violence in Moscow revealed that half the cases of physical abuse are associated with the husband's excessive alcohol consumption. The isolation of women in their families and communities is known to contribute to increased violence, particularly if those women have little access to family or local organizations. On the other hand, women's participation in social networks has been noted as a critical factor in lessening their vulnerability to violence and in their ability to resolve domestic violence.

These networks could be informal (family and neighbours) or formal (community, organizations, women's self-help groups, or affiliated to political parties) (Sen, 1999) Lack of legal protection, particularly within the sanctity of the home, is a strong factor in perpetuating violence against women. Until recently, the public/private distinction that has ruled most legal systems has been a major obstacle to women's rights.

Increasingly, however, States are seen as responsible for protecting the rights of women even in connection with offences committed within the home. In many countries violence against women is exacerbated by legislation, law enforcement and judicial systems that do not recognize domestic violence as a crime. The challenge is to end impunity for the perpetrators as one means of preventing future abuse. Investigations by Human Rights Watch have found that in cases of domestic violence, law enforcement officials frequently reinforce the batterers' attempts to control and demean their victims. Even though several countries now have laws that condemn domestic violence, "when committed against a woman in an intimate relationship, these attacks are more often tolerated as the norm than prosecuted as laws....In many places, those who commit domestic violence are prosecuted less vigorously and punished more leniently than perpetrators of similarly violent crimes against strangers" The Human Rights Watch (Global Report on Women's Human Rights, New York, 1995).

Men

The issue of what causes female perpetrated Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) is another controversial subject. Donald and Tonia (2005) write that traditional feminist theory "views all social relations through the prism of gender relations and holds, in its neo-Marxist view, that men (the bourgeoisie) hold power advantages over women (the proletariat) in patriarchal societies and that all domestic violence is either male physical abuse to maintain that power advantage or female defensive violence, used for self-protection." In this sense, any IPV committed by women against men is by way of self-defense. Kelly (2003) writes that "in conceding that women do engage in acts of domestic violence, female use of violence is justified as self-defense — a lifesaving reaction of women who are being physically attacked by their male partners. The development of the battered woman syndrome as a defense for crimes committed against abusive male partners, including homicide, evidences the wide acceptance of a woman's use of violence as self-defense." The theory is that when women commit IPV, it is probably justified because they were previously victims and, therefore, the male was the "primary aggressor." Thus, the woman's violent behavior is caused by her background as a victim (Walker, 1984; Tower & Fernandez, 2008). Ramírez(2005) believes that given the socially accepted model of femininity as one of submission, passivity and abnegation, whatever behavior does not follow this stereotype will be perceived in an exaggerated manner as abnormal and violent. Thus, women will be perceived as disproportionately aggressive even if merely defending themselves.

However, several studies have found evidence that only a small proportion of female perpetrated IPV is prompted by self-defense. For example, in a 1996 study of 1,978 people in

England, 21% of women who admitted to committing IPV gave self-defense as a reason. More prevalent reasons were "Get through to" (53%), "Something said" (52%) and "Make do something" (26%) (Carrado, George, Loxam, Jones, & Templar, 1996). In a 1997 survey of college students in Canada, Walter DeKeseredy and Martin D. Schwartz found that 62.3% of women who had committed IPV did not cite self-defense as a factor at all, whereas only 6.9% cited it as the primary factor (DeKeseredy, & Schwartz, 1997). In a five-year study of 978 college students from California, concluded in 1997, Fiebert and Gonzalez (1997) found an IPV rate amongst women of 20%. Within this group, perpetrators were asked to select reasons as to why they assaulted their partners, with the option to choose multiple reasons. The breakdown of reasons had "my partner wasn't sensitive to my needs" as the most prevalent (46%). Also found more frequently than self-defense were "I wished to gain my partner's attention" (44%) and "My partner was not listening to me" (43%).

Looking beyond self-defense, studies have found a range of causes for female perpetrated IPV. Writing of the feminist theory which regards reinforcement of patriarchy as the sole cause of IPV, and the problems to which such a narrowly focused theory can lead, Murray A. Straus writes "Patriarchy and male dominance in the family are clearly among the causes [of IPV], but there are many others. However, with rare exceptions, current offender treatment programs are based on the assumption that the primary cause is male dominance. Thus, they proceed under an erroneous assumption. Illustrative of this fallacious single-cause approach are the state-mandated offender treatment programs that forbid treating other causes, such as inadequate anger management skills"(Straus, 2010). In 1992, a random sample of 1,257 Canadians found that 39% of female participants reported committing minor IPV and 16.2% reported committing severe IPV. Their main reasons were confidence that their male partner would not hit back, psychological disturbance and alcohol abuse (Sommer, Barnes, & Murray, 1992). In 2006, Medeiros and Straus (2006) conducted a study using a sample of 854 students (312 men and 542 women) from two American universities. They identified fourteen specific risk factors common amongst both males and females who had committed IPV; poor anger management, antisocial personality disorders, borderline personality disorders, tendency to dominate relationships, substance abuse, criminal history, posttraumatic stress disorders, depression, communication problems, jealousy, sexual abuse as a child, stress, and a general attitudinal approval of partner violence. In 2014, a study involving 1,104 male and female students in their late teens and early twenties found that women are more likely than men to be controlling and aggressive towards their partners, more likely to demonstrate a desire to

control their partners, and more likely to use physical aggression in ensuring that control. The main author of the study, Bates, Graham-Kevan and Archer (2014) wrote "this suggests that intimate partner violence may not be motivated by patriarchal values and needs to be studied within the context of other forms of aggression, which has potential implications for interventions."

Other explanations for both male and female perpetrated IPV include psychopathology, anger, revenge, skill deficiency, head injuries, biochemical imbalances, feelings of powerlessness, lack of resources, and frustration (Straus, & Hotaling, 1980; Holtzworth-Munroe, Bates, Smutzler, & Sandin, 1997; Follingstad, Bradley, Helff, & Laughlin, 2002; George, 2003; Holtzworth-Munroe, Bates, Smutzler, & Sandin, 1997; Manchikanti Gómez, 2011; Saldivia, & Vizcarra, 2012). Researchers have also found a correlation between the availability of domestic violence services, increased access to divorce, higher earnings for women, and improved laws and enforcement regarding domestic violence with declines in female perpetrated IPV (Dugan, Nagin, & Rosenfeld, 1999).

CONSEQUENCES OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

There are varied consequences of domestic violence depending on the victim, the age group, the intensity of the violence and frequency of the torment they are subjected to. The consequences of the domestic violence in detail can be broadly categorized under – the Effect on the victim and the family, Effect on the society and the Effect on nation's growth and productivity.

Effect on the victim and the family Physical Effect- Bruises, broken bones, head injuries, lacerations and internal bleeding are some of the acute effects of a domestic violence incident that require medical attention and hospitalization (Jones, 1997). Some chronic health conditions have been linked to victims of domestic (Berrios, 1991). Victims who are pregnant during a domestic violence relationship experience greater risk of miscarriage, pre-term labor and injury to or death of fetus.

Psychological Effect – Among victims who are still living with their perpetrators, high amounts of stress, fear and anxiety are commonly reported. Depression is also common, as victims are made to feel guilty for 'provoking' the abuse and are frequently subjected to intense criticisms. It is reported that 60% of the victims meet the diagnostic criteria for depression, either during or after termination of the relationship, and have a greatly increased risk of suicidability (Barnett, 2001). The most commonly referenced psychological effect of domestic violence is Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD). According to Vitanza, Vogel and Marshall (1995), PTSD is characterized by flashbacks, intrusive images, exaggerated startle response, nightmares and avoidance of triggers that are

associated with the abuse. These symptoms are generally experienced for a long span of time after the victim has left the dangerous situation.

Effect on Children: There has been increase in acknowledgement that a child who is exposed to domestic abuse during his upbringing will suffer in his development and psychological welfare (Dodd, 2009). Some emotional and behavioral problems that can result due to domestic violence include increased aggressiveness, anxiety, and changes in how a child socializes with friends, family and authorities. Problems with attitude and cognition in schools can start developing, along with a lack of skills such as problem-solving. Correlation has been found between the experience of abuse and neglect in childhood and perpetrating domestic violence and sexual abuse in adulthood (Sadler, 1994). Additionally in some cases the abuser will purposely abuse the mother in front of the child to cause a ripple effect, hunting two victims simultaneously

Extensively, recent meta-analyses have shown that children exposed to family and domestic violence exhibit significantly more problems than children not exposed (Edleson, 2011). Children are regularly exposed to the damaging effects of family and domestic violence both as witnesses of violence against mothers and direct victims of assault and emotional abuse. The 2005 Personal Safety Survey indicated that 61 per cent of men and women who had experienced violence by a previous partner had children in their care during the relationship. Additionally, 49 per cent of people who reported they had experienced violence by a current partner said they had children in their care at some point during the relationship (ABS, 2006: 11). During 2012-2013, WA Police attended over 47 000 incidents of domestic violence. It is estimated that in more than 70 per cent of these cases, children were present during the incident or known to reside at the location.

MANAGING THE EVIL: 'DOMESTIC VIOLENCE'

Intervention and action at multiple levels: Efforts done so far on gender issue defy basic and simple solutions. Elimination of all kinds of violence requires channelizing simultaneously the attention and efforts of all the concerned people and work together. This sensitive issue needs intervention and action at multiple levels – state, society and individuals in public and private capacities.

At government level - Amongst immediate steps, the most important task of government is to arrest continuously deteriorating law and order situation. There should be vigilant policing round the clock both in cities and suburban areas and more women police officers in all police stations.

Speedy and time-bound justice is needed urgently. Delayed justice emboldens the spirits of criminal-minded elements in society, who take advantage of loopholes in law, and which enables them to escape. Many culprits go off scot-free even

after committing a heinous crime. Reforming the structure and systems of governmental institutions engaged in the law-making and enforcement tasks are highly desirable, but it may take a longer time.

Role of Non-Governmental Institutions/Organizations

Non-governmental organizations and institutions should conduct series of seminars, workshops meetings at different places on various aspects of violence/oppression against women. They should discuss in depth the gravity, enormity and dangers of continuously deteriorating law and order position, deteriorating human values, self-centered attitude of individuals and alarming rise in bestial acts against women, which makes it very unsafe for women to move freely outside their homes and try to find out remedy for it.

Media

Media should bring the issues of domestic violence to public domain in a forceful manner. They can play an important role in spreading awareness. They can provide a platform to speakers and panelists from different fields, eminent personalities responsible for decision-making to share their views and conduct an in-depth study on various gender issues, and view it holistically touching various aspects of the problem. Views of some of the victims of atrocities should also be taken to understand their unpleasant experiences and the manner in which they came over the agonies they suffered because of inhuman acts.

At family's level

Family is the first and foremost institution, where children learn first lesson of humanity and social relationships. Family is the best place to inculcate positive values – like honesty, simplicity, modesty, sense of responsibility and respect for elders – amongst children and youth of both the sexes.

Childhood is the most formative, educative and impressionable time in a human's life and most appropriate time for inculcation of such values, as it remains permanently and firmly embedded in their delicate psyche throughout their life.

Training for gender sensitization should be imparted within the family. Right from the beginning, all the children should be treated equally, without any gender-bias.

On women' part: Instead of silently bearing all the atrocities perpetrated against them, women should raise their voice against injustice; create awareness amongst women about their rights and channelize their efforts by writing articles, organizing seminars, workshops etc.

Irrespective of their social status in society, they should join hands, and work in a spirit of unity. They should raise their voices boldly against social evils like dowry, bride-burning, female infanticide, etc.

Women should exercise utmost vigilance both at the mental and physical level to ensure their safety and security, so that no one could exploit them when

placed under adverse circumstances in life. They must always be prepared for self- defense by getting training in Karate etc.

Community Education Coordinator

Many shelters across the country have a Community Education Coordinator on staff who may be a social worker. This person should be accountable for managing all types of community education from professional development and training to providing speakers for civic or social groups.

Social workers should provide therapy to victims of domestic violence while they are in a shelter or living in their community. Social workers should also serve as executive directors of domestic violence organizations.

CONCLUSION

The significance of discussing domestic violence in contemporary times; which extends to its causes, consequences and management can never be over emphasized. It is based on this importance that the researcher concludes that discussion such as this is tantamount to a corrective measure capable of preventing the menace of domestic violence in the homes and across gender. This is owed to the fact that the evil: 'Domestic Violence' is a contemporary devil which may have a far wider and deeper impact in real life than what has been covered in this paper. It is rather very persuasive that a closer look at the association of the factors provoking a particular form of domestic violence as portrayed in this paper will go a long way in curbing this menace. This is because if these factors can be curbed then more than one form of violence can be prevented from harming an individual or our society and families (especially Nigerian families). This will in turn heighten the level of marital satisfaction often experienced by couples.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Considering the harms (i.e. the physical and psychological effects) implicated on domestic violence, it is worthy of note to recommend that comprehensive and extensive premarital counseling be given to intending couples on how to manage their marital relationship. Again, there should be public insight through the mass media on the negative effects or damages of domestic violence by intimate partners.

Considerable help is also expected from religious leaders. It is recommended in this paper that they dynamically teach against marital violence in their places of worship. The youths are not to be left out. They should be encouraged and taught to detest and not imitate brutish treatment around them. Professionals in medicine also have a major part to play. It is recommended that they should refer the victims to counselors and psychotherapists. In the whole, punishment given to dangerously offending husbands should be publicized, so that it can serve as deterrence to others.

REFERENCES

1. ABS. (2006). 'Personal Safety Survey: Australia 2005' - re-issued version, ABS Cat.no. 4906.0, Australian Bureau of Statistics, Canberra.
2. Adebayo, A.A. (2013). Sociological implications of domestic violence on children's development in Nigeria. *Journal of African Studies and Development*.6 (1) 8 – 13
3. Adebayo, A.A., and Kolawole, T.O. (2013). Domestic violence and death: Women as endangered gender in Nigeria-American. *Journal of Sociological Research*.3 (3) 53 – 60
4. Adewale, R. (2007). Violence in the family: A preliminary investigation and overview of wife battering in Africa. *Journal of International Women' Studies*. 9(1) 234 – 251.
5. AfroNews (2007). Half of Nigeria's women experience domestic violence.
6. Alo, O.A., Odusina, E.K., Babatunde, G. (2012). Spousal violence in South-West, Nigeria: Prevalence and correlates. *Journal of Womens' Health Care*. 1(2) 110
7. Ashimolowo, O.R. and Otufale, G.A. (2012). Assessment of domestic violence among women in Ogun State, Nigeria. *Greener Journal of Social Sciences*. 2(3), 102 – 114
8. Bates, E. A., Graham-Kevan, N., and Archer, J. (2014). "Testing predictions from the male control: Theory of men's partner violence". *Aggressive Behaviour* 40 (1): 46-50
9. Barnett, (2001). Why battered women do not leave: External inhibiting factors
10. social support and internal inhibiting factors. *Trauma, Violence and Abuse*.2(1), Pp3-35.
11. Berrios, D.G.(1991).Domestic Violence: Risk Factors and outcomes. *Western Journal of Medicine*. (2), Pp 133-143 |
12. Carrado, M., George, M. J., Loxam, E., Jones, L., and Templar, D. (1996). "Aggression in British Heterosexual Relationships: A Descriptive Analysis". *Aggressive Behaviour* 22(6), 401-415.
13. Chan, Ko Ling (2011). "Gender Differences in Self-Reports of Intimate Partner Violence: A Review".*Aggression and Violent Behavior (Elsevier)* 16 (2): 167–175.
14. Daily Mail, 15th September 2013.
15. Daily Mail, 6th April 2013.
16. DeKeseredy, W., and Schwartz, M. D. (1997). *Woman Abuse on Campus: Results from the Canadian National Survey*. Thousand Oaks, CA.: Sage. p. 77.
17. Dodd,L.W.(2009). Therapeutic group work with young children and mothers who have experienced domestic abuse. *Education Psychology in Practice*. 25(21).
18. Dugan,L., Nagin, D. S., and Rosenfeld, R (1999) "Explaining the Decline in Intimate Partner Homicide: The Effects of changing domesticity, womens' status and domestic violence Resources " *Homicide Studies* 3(3): 187-214

19. Dutton, D.G., Nicholls, T. L. (2005) "The gender paradigm in domestic violence research and theory: Part 1- The conflict of theory and data. *Aggression and Violence Behaviour*, 10(6): 682.
20. ECLAC (Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean) (1992), 'Domestic Violence against Women in Latin America and the Caribbean: Proposals for Discussion', Social Development Division, Santiago, Chile.
21. Edleson, J., with Nissley, B. A. (2011). *Emerging responses to children exposed to domestic violence* (2nd Ed.), VAWnet.org (National Online Resource Center on Violence Against Women), a project of the National Resource Center on Domestic Violence, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.
22. Etuk, G.R., Nwagbara, E.N. and Archibong, E.P. (2012). Working women and spousal violence in Nigeria: Emerging patterns and strategies for change. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*. 3 (17) 272 – 277
23. Fiebert, M.S., and Gonzalez, D. M. (1997). "Women who initiate assaults: The reasons offered for such behavior". *Psychological Reports* 80 (2): 583–590.
24. Follingstad, D.R., Bradley, R. G., Helff, C. M., and Laughlin, J.E. (2002). "A Model for Predicting Dating Violence: Anxious Attachment, Angry Temperament, and Need for Relationship Control". *Violence and Victims* 17(1): 35-47
25. Gill, A. and Rehman, G. (2004) Empowerment through activism: responding to domestic violence in the South Asian Community in London, *Gender and Development*, Volume 12, No.1, Oxfam Journal, Pp 75-82.
26. George, M. J. (2003). "Invisible touch". *Aggression and Violent Behavior* 8: 46.
27. Holtzworth- Munroe, A. Bates, L. Smutzler, N. and Sandin, E. (1997). "A Brief Review of the Research on Husband Violence, Part. III: The Psychological Effects of Husband Violence on Battered women and Their Children." *Aggression and Violent Behaviour* 2(3): 285-307.
28. Holtzworth- Munroe, A. Bates, L. Smutzler, N. and Sandin, E. (1997). "A Brief Review of the Research on Husband Violence, Part. II: The Psychological Effects of Husband Violence on Battered women and Their Children." *Aggression and Violent Behaviour* 2(2): 179-213.
29. Jones, R.H. (1997). *The American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists; A decade of responding to violence against women. International journal of Gynecology and Obstetrics*, 58(1), Pp 43-50
30. Kelly, L. (2003). "Disabusing the Definition of Domestic Abuse: How Women Batter Men and the Role of the Feminist State." *Florida State University Law Review* 30 (4): 806.
31. Kevin Smith (Ed.), Kathryn Coleman, Simon Eder and Philip Hall (2011). "Homicides, Firearm Offences and Intimate Violence 2009/10".
32. Koustuv, D. (2008). *Causes and consequences of child labour and women in developing countries*. Stockholm, Karolinaka Institute. Pp.1 – 25
33. Manchikanti Gomez, A. (2011). "Testing the Cycle of Violence Hypothesis: Child Abuse and Adolescent Dating Violence as Predictors of Intimate Partner Violence in Young Adulthood" *Youth & Society* 43(1): 171-192.
34. Medeiros, R. A., and Straus, M. A. (2006). "Risk Factors for Physical Violence Between Dating Partners: Implications for Gender-Inclusive Prevention and Treatment of Family Violence". In Hamel, John; Nicholls, Tonia. Family Approaches to Domestic Violence: A Practitioner's Guide to Gender-Inclusive Research and Treatment
35. Moronkola, O.A. (2003). *Essays on issues in health*. Ibadan, Nigeria. Royal People Ltd. Pp. 52-55
36. Odimegwu, O. (2012). *The Modern Man in Kenya*. Available at Nigeriafilms.com
37. O'Grady, W. (2011). *Crime in Canadian Context: debates and controversies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press
38. Ramirez, J. C. (2005). *Madejasentreveradas: Violencia, masculinidad y poder* (in Spanish). Guadalajara: Universidad de Guadalajara Robert O'Hara. Kenyan men protest domestic violence.
39. Sadeler, C. (1994). *An ounce of prevention: The life stories and perceptions of men Who are sexually offended against children*. (Unpublished thesis) Wilfrid Laurier University.
40. Saldivia, C., and Vizcarra, B., (2012). "Consumo de Drogas y Violencia en el Noviazgo en Estudiantes Universitarios del Sur de Chile". *Terapias psicologica* (in Spanish) 30 (2) 43-49
41. Schuler S.R., Hashemi S.M., Riley A.P., and Akhter S., (1996). *Credit Programs, Patriarchy and Men's Violence against Women in Rural Bangladesh*, *Soc. Sci. Medicine* Vol 43, No 12, pp 1729-1742,.
42. Sen P., (1999). *Enhancing Women's Choices in Responding to Domestic Violence in Calcutta: A Comparison of Employment and Education*. *The European Journal of Development Research*, Vol 11, No 2, pp. 65- 86.
43. Sethi D, Habibula S, McGee K, Peden M, Bennett S, and Hyder AA, (2004). *Guidelines for conducting community surveys on injuries and violence*. Geneva: World Health Organization. 2004: 1-7.
44. Sommer, R., Barnes, G. E., and Murray, R.P (1992) "Alcohol consumption, alcohol abuse, personality and female perpetrated spouse abuse". *Personality and Individual Differences* 13(12):1315-1323
45. Straus, M.A., and Hotaling, G. T., eds. (1980). *The Social Causes of Husband-Wife Violence*. Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press.
46. Straus, M.A (2010). "Thirty years of denying the evidence on gender symmetry in partner violence: implications for prevention and treatment." *Partner abuse* 1: 332-361.
47. Sugg, N. K., Thompson, R. S., Thompson, D. C., Majuro, R., & Rivara, F. P. (1999). *Domestic violence*

- and primary care attitude, practices, and beliefs. *Archives of Family Medicine*, 8, 301-306
48. The Human Rights Watch Global Report on Women's Human Rights, New York, (1995.)
 49. Tjaden, P., and Thoennes, N. (1998). *Prevalence, incidence, and consequences of violence against women: Findings from the National Violence Against Women Survey (NCJ-172837)*. Washington, DC: Department of Justice.
 50. Tjaden P. and Thoennes, N. (2000). "Full Report of the Prevalence, Incidence, and Consequences of Violence Against Women". National Institute of Justice, United States Department of Justice.
 51. Tower, L.E. and Fernandex, M.E. (2008). "English and Spanish-Speaking Women's Use of Violence." *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 23 (1): 23-38.
 52. UNFPA (2002). *World report on violence and health*. Geneva.
 53. UNICEF (1989), 'The invisible adjustment: Poor women and economic crisis', UNICEF, The Americas and Caribbean Regional Office, Santiago. 'La situation de la femme malienne: cadre de vie, problèmes, promotion' op. cit. Mazumdar, V. et al. (1995) *Changing Terms of Political Discourse: The Women's Movement in India, 1970s-1990s*, *Economic and Political Weekly*, vol. XXX: 29, pp 1866-1878.
 54. U.S. Department of Justice. Bureau of Justice Statistics. *Intimate Partner Violence, 1993–2001. Crime Data Brief*. February 2003.
 55. Vitanza, S; Vogel, L.C and Marshall, L.L (1995). *Distress and symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder in abused women*, *Violence and Victim*. 10 (1), Pp 23-34.
 56. Walker, L. E. (1984). *The Battered Woman Syndrome*. New York: Springer.
 57. Yusuf, O.B., Arulogun, O.S., Oladepo, O., Olowookere, F. (2011). *Physical violence among intimate partners in Nigeria: A multi-level analysis*. *Journal of Public Health Epidemiology*. 3(5), 240 – 245.