Domestic Violence in a Post-Conflict African Setting: A study of gender and role on personality, coping styles, attitudes to coercion and self-reported victimization in a Ugandan urban sample

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Copyright Statement

Abstract

Domestic violence has been gradually increasing globally with developing countries across Sub-Saharan Africa being the most affected (WHO, 2013). Uganda, in particular, ranks highest in relation to the incidence of domestic violence (UNICEF, 2000). This situation led to the enactment of the first domestic violence legislation in the country, the Domestic Violence Act, 2010; this makes domestic violence a crime and is particularly focused on reducing violence to women (Uganda GBV Guidelines, 2013). Women make up the majority of victims of domestic violence in Uganda and are subject to gender inequality within a patriarchal society that particularly disadvantages them. However, the argument of this thesis is ***firstly,*** although there are strong cultural factors implicated in violence against women, notably practices of wife inheritance, forced marriage and societal sanctioning of wife beating, there has been an over-reliance on cultural explanations for the problem (Bowman, 2006, Speizer, 2010) at the expense of exploring psychological factors. It is argued that understanding psychological issues related to domestic violence is particularly important in post-conflict settings since the literature shows that wars and violence at the societal level often get played out in the domestic sphere and can contribute significantly to the generation of psychological harm and personality issues (Saunders et al., 1999). Victims often use different coping behaviours-strategies to protect themselves from negative feelings and thoughts (Fritsch & Warrier, 2004) but what remains unclear is how both genders engage coping styles. ***Secondly***, in an attempt to address the needs of women as victims, policy and practice in Uganda has failed to recognise the way that women can contribute to the victimisation of other women (particularly relevant in a context in which polygamous households and co-wives are normative) and also to men, who in such a patriarchal society may experience difficulties acknowledging victimhood and seeking help.

Using non-coercive questionnaires administered to 60 victims and 60 perpetrators of both genders in an urban area in Uganda, this study aimed to explore the relationship, impact of gender and role in domestic violence based sub-scales on: attitudes to coercion (*private matter, men's right to control, women exaggerate, women's behaviour used to justify, no big deal*), self-reported victimisation (*physical, psychological and sexual,* personality traits (*neuroticism, extroversion and psychoticism*) and coping styles (*problem solving, social support and avoidance*). Participants faking good (Lie) was controlled as a covariate according to Francis et al, 1999. This quantitative study employed 2x2 factorial design [gender vs role]. MANCOVA analysis was used to test hypotheses on differences and interactions and a Pearson product moment correlation analysis was conducted to test hypotheses on group relationships. Since results can be significant by chance, as recommended by Pallant 2013 p.*217* this study applied Bonferroni correction-adjustment to the alpha levels which are used to judge statistical significance on 14 dependent variables.

The findings revealed statistically significant role (victim and perpetrator) differences but no major gender differences. Results also revealed no interaction and no effect between gender and role on all aforementioned dependent variables. However, there were statistically significant correlational findings based on role as (victims and perpetrators) and gender for (males and females) on most sub-scales on attitude to coercion, self-reported victimisation and coping styles except personality traits. The only significant correlations for personality traits were between perpetrators neuroticism trait scores and psychological violence. Overall, exploring the psychological behaviour patterns, the study provides insights into the psychological characteristics of victims and perpetrators of both genders in the Ugandan sample. These results were then compared with western published studies and both commonalities and differences were identified. Studying the responses of both male and female victims and perpetrators represents the first such research in a post-conflict African context and makes a significant contribution to knowledge. Though specific to Uganda, the study findings point to the need for a greater awareness of the significance of psychological factors in exploring domestic violence in Africa, especially in countries where the population has been exposed to violence at a societal level, such as war. Furthermore, a major contribution is made by this study in its conclusion that there is need for a gender sensitive approach to domestic violence in African context, one that takes account of the differential needs of men and women as both victims and perpetrators. Finally, in opening up psychological explanations for domestic violence in addition to cultural factors and gender inequality, the way is paved for a synergistic approach for addressing domestic violence –one which addresses these as interlinking elements of the problem requiring simultaneous attention.

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Dedication

Dedicated to the memory of my beloved Dad Karugahe Benon (1928-2015) who passed on during my PhD and never lived to see me accomplish what he long inspired me to do and wished me to achieve.

To the memory of my dear Sister who passed on prior to the beginning of this course. You will forever be remembered.

To my Mum, amidst challenges you still inspired me throughout to advance my academic career up to PhD level, thank you very much. To my entire family members, your unending support and encouragement enabled me to carry on despite being miles away in a different continent; you braved my absence-thanks to you all.

Acknowledgement

This PhD is a result of my tireless efforts to study hard amidst many challenges but also God's blessings that empowered me with zeal. There are many people whose contribution made it possible for me to carry on towards a successful end of my studies. My supervisors, Professor Adele Jones, David Canter and Dr. Donna Youngs thank you all for your brilliant and professional guidance from the start to completion of my PhD. The efforts have yielded this thesis. My family in Uganda Ainembabazi, Akampa, Nyirabashitsi, Byarugamba, Mirembe, Majambere, Byamukama, Tumukunde and our loving mother, your unending moral support made my years studying and staying in England feel close to home despite being many miles away. The academic staff members at University of Huddersfield, especially Dr. Maria Iaonnou, Dr. Laura Hammond, Dr. Helen Gavin, Dr. Bernad Galger and Dr. Grant Muir, your contribution was enormous and greatly appreciated. Many thanks to Christine and Helen for your support. My colleagues in the PhD course especially John, Sabranek, Dominic, Magdalene, Sophia, Agnes and many others not mentioned by name for the sharing knowledge and being a good team of PhD researchers. The staff in the School of Human and Health Sciences research office: Kirsty, Vikki, Sarah and Alison; thank you very much for all you do to enable international students feel at home while studying at the University of Huddersfield. I cannot mention all your names but many people helped me directly or indirectly in many ways during my stay and studies in United Kingdom. Thank you all.

I would like to thank Keith Hickling and Dr. Derrol Palmer, former and current head of Counselling and Psychology at the University of Huddersfield for the opportunity you gave me to lecture and share knowledge, it was good and worthy for my journey in the PhD programme. Thanks go to the Uganda Police Force, especially Acting Commissioner Christine Araro, Sharon Lamwaka and your team for helping me to access respondents. I also want to thank Professor Baguma, Ssenyonga and Francis Blouin together with your team for your support.

List of Abbreviations

AIDS	Acquired Immune Diseases Syndrome
ACTB	Attitudes towards Coercive Behaviours
BIF	Big Five Inventory
CEDAW	Convention to Eliminate all Forms of Discrimination against Women
CEDOVIP	Centre for Domestic Violence Programme
CDC	Centre for Disease Control
CSI	Coping Strategy Indicator
DV	Domestic Violence
EPQS	Eysenck Personality Traits Questionnaire Short version
FIDA	Federacion International de Abogadas
HO-UK	Home Office United Kingdom
HIV	Human Immune Virus
IPV	Intimate Partner Violence
IRCIP	International Research Centre for Investigative Psychology
ICRB	International Conference on the Great Lakes Region
ICGLR	International Centre for Research on Women.
ICRW	Institutional Committee Review Board in Uganda
MANCOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Covariance
MAP	Men as Partners
MLGSD	Ministry of Labour Gender and Social Development
MRC	Men's Right to Control
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NEOPI-R	Neuroticism, Extroversion, Open to experience Personality Inventory Revised
NBD	No big deal
PASPH	Partner Abuse Scale Physical
PEARSON (*r*)	Pearson Product Moment Correlation
PM	Private Matter
UDHS	Uganda Demographic and Health Survey
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Education Fund
UNCST	Uganda National Council for Science and Technology

UP-CFPU	Uganda Police - Child Family Protection Unit
RECESVID	Rehabilitation Centre for Sexual Violence and Victims of Violence
SHREP	School of Human Research Ethics Committee Panel
SSA	Smallest Space Analysis
S-SA	Sub-Saharan Africa
SGVB	Sexual Gender Based Violence
SPSS/PASW	Statistical Package for Social Sciences-Practical Analytical Software
WB	Women's behaviour used to justify
WHO	World Health Organisation
WICCE	Women's International Cross Cultural Exchange
WL-E	Women lie/Exaggerate

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Academic Biography

Wilber Karugahe graduated with degree honours in Community Psychology in 2005, Masters of Counselling Psychology from Makerere University in 2009 before enrolling for PhD in 2011 at the University of Huddersfield United Kingdom. Wilber Karugahe begun as a teaching assistant at Bugema University in 2005 rose to Lecturer and First Head of Counselling department St. Lawrence University Uganda. Karugahe also did part-time lecturing at Kyambogo University Psychology Department.

So why conduct research on domestic violence? Mainly, gaps within the Ugandan Domestic Violence Act 2010 and GBV Guidelines, 2013 have fundamentally motivated this study. However, my long-time passion in addressing violence comes from my personal experience of growing up in a polygamous family where domestic violence could not be ruled out even between co-wives. Violence in polygamous families reflects the experiences of many people within Uganda (UDHS, 2011), but this has received little research attention. Furthermore, my experience in supervising research students and lecturing counselling psychology in public and private universities exposed gaps within the literature on domestic violence in African contexts and motived me to focus on domestic violence for my PhD. Throughout my PhD Journey at Huddersfield University in United Kingdom; I have been involved in lecturing and as a personal tutor to undergraduates in psychology and counselling. In addition, I have worked as demonstrator on the Masters of Investigative Psychology course and have facilitated a number of SPSS/PASW workshops to PhD students and staff at University of Huddersfield (organised by Staff Development). Overall, it has been a reciprocal experience benefiting enormously from experienced supervisors-professors much as I also shared my knowledge with students.

Summary of Activities and Programmes involved during my PhD.

Position/Role	*Tittle of Course /Conference /Workshop*	*Date/Worked with/Organised*
Lecturer 2011-2013	HFB 2008 Introduction to Cognition, Biological Psychology and Quantitative Research Methods (Psychology and	Wilber Karugahe and Dr Dave Tyfa

	Counselling undergraduate students) University of Huddersfield UK	
Lecturer 2012-2013 • Lecturing • Marking using Turnitin UK	HFB1030 Introduction to quantitative and qualitative methods (Counselling undergraduate students) University of Huddersfield UK	Wilber Karugahe and Dr Shirley J Pressler
Personal Tutor 2011	HFB2007 Perspectives in Psychology (Undergraduate students) University of Huddersfield UK	Wilber Karugahe, Dr Simon Goodson, Keith Hickling
Demonstrator 2012-2014 • Marking course works, exams and dissertations • SPSS/PASW Analysis	Demonstrator on MSc Investigative Psychology/MSc Psychology and Investigation (Masters Students) University of Huddersfield UK	Wilber Karugahe, Dr Maria Ioannou, Dr Laura Hammond, Professor David Canter, Dr Donna Youngs, Dr John Synott and Wozna Agnes
Facilitator/Trainer 2011-2013 • SPSS/PASW	Facilitating SPSS/PASW training workshops to Masters, PhD students and staff University of Huddersfield UK	Wilber Karugahe Organised by Staff Development University of Huddersfield and Research & Enterprise
Presenting in Conferences (2012)	Presented Paper: 14th IA-IP International Conference in Investigative Psychology South Bank University London, 2012	Presented by: Wilber Karugahe PhD Student
2011-Date	Within UK, I attended various Conferences, Seminars and classes that empowered me in different capacities throughout my PhD Journey.	

CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This study focuses on domestic violence in Uganda. Though domestic violence is a concern globally, a survey of 16 countries across Asia, Africa and Latin America identified Uganda as having the highest incidence in the world (UNICEF, 2000). The WHO (2013) indicates that 35% of women worldwide experience physical and sexual violence from an intimate partner or non-partner. This report also shows that women in urban areas are twice as likely as men to experience domestic violence, particularly in developing countries. Although all continents are affected, at 36.6%, Africa has the third highest rate of domestic violence (after South-East Asia at 37.7% and Eastern Mediterranean at 37.0%) in the world. High income countries have the lowest prevalence rates of 23.2%; these countries include the USA, the UK, Japan, Canada, France and Germany (WHO, 2013, p.44).

Table 1.1: Global-Regional Lifetime Prevalence of Intimate Partner Violence (WHO, 2013)

WHO Low and Middle-Income region	Prevalence, %	95 CI % (Confidence Interval)
Africa	36.6	32.7 to 40.5
Americas	29.8	25.8 to 33.9
Eastern Mediterranean	37.0	30.9 to 43.1
Europe	25.4	20.9 to 30.0
South-East Asia	37.7	32.8 to 42.6
Western Pacific	24.6	20.1 to 29.0
High Income regions	23.2	20.2 to 26.2

Source: WHO (2013) Global and regional estimates of Intimate Partner Violence

Domestic violence takes similar forms and types across the globe but the prevalence rates, how it affects people and how seriously the issue is regarded vary from community to community and country to country (Burrill, Roberts & Thornberry, 2006). In Africa attention was only paid to domestic violence from the mid-1990s when a series of surveys were carried out in Ghana, Tanzania, Kenya, Uganda and South Africa (Ofei-Aboagye, 1994 cited in Bowman, 2003). However, it is only recently, according to Burrill, Roberts & Thornberry (2006), that pressure groups such as *Women in Development in Ghana,* who have been campaigning for decades, succeeded in getting African governments to act. This is because the problem has largely been viewed as a private matter about which the State has no right to intervene. Human right activists lobbying for domestic violence codes to be introduced in African law have had little success (Bowman, 2003) except for Mauritius and South Africa. However, domestic violence was legally recognised as a crime in Uganda in 2010 (UDHS, 2011). Despite increasing attention and pressure from international human rights agencies and local activist groups, research other than prevalence surveys, remains scant (Carlson & Randell, 2013). The statistics raise awareness of the existence of domestic violence but do not provide explanations about its occurrence. Within African contexts cultural theories are widely given as a possible explanation for domestic violence yet psychological explanations, which could give insight into victims and perpetrators psychological characteristics and, gender differences in relation to self-reported domestic violence victimisation have been given little attention (Robson, 1993). This study seeks to address this gap in knowledge by examining psychological pathways that contribute to domestic violence victimisation, through exploring victim and perpetrator views within an African sample.

The study was located in Uganda where the problem is identified as particularly serious (UNICEF, 2000) and which, as a post-colonial, post-conflict society with a diverse ethnic population, entrenched poverty and weak legislative, policy and service infrastructure, provides insights

valuable for other similar contexts. The results of the research are discussed in relation to studies of domestic violence in the West (primarily the UK) in order to explore similarities in outcomes. However, it is important to stress that this is not a comparative study; while it addresses a global problem that involves some universal characteristics, the study is distinctive in its focus on domestic violence in Uganda. As a Ugandan psychologist with many years of practice within community settings I bring a particular perspective to this research based on specific cultural, linguistic and social knowledge. I do not position myself as an 'insider researcher' and acknowledge the multifaceted, heterogeneous (*the many cultural and subcultural groups, languages and dialects*) and fluid nature of culture (Alarcon, 2009, p.134); nevertheless, my knowledge of Ugandan history, cultural traditions and social problems is an important element of the research framework. The study had several aims:

1. To explore the ***impact-effect*** and ***interaction*** of gender and the role of victims and perpetrators in self-reported domestic violence victimisation, attitudes towards coercive behaviours, personality traits and coping style strategies in a Ugandan sample.
2. To examine ***gender-based relationships*** between sub-scales of self-reported domestic violence victimisation, attitudes towards coercive behaviours, personality traits and coping style-strategies in a Ugandan sample.
3. To examine ***role in domestic violence-based relationships*** between sub-scales of self-reported domestic violence victimisation, attitudes towards coercive behaviours, personality traits and coping style-strategies in a Ugandan sample.
4. To do a literature-based ***cross-cultural comparison*** of results from the Ugandan sample with studies from western countries.

This chapter provides an overview of the social, political, economic and cultural context in which the research was situated, which is a crucial starting point in any social psychology study. The

concept of culture is a recurring theme within the literature on domestic violence in Africa and the chapter begins with a critical discussion of cultural theories and how they are used within this thesis. The chapter then discusses some of the key cultural and social factors of Ugandan society relevant to the study of domestic violence, such as patriarchy; polygamous marriages; the impact of the recent civil war and the role of conflict in increasing tolerance for violence; the implications for domestic violence of HIV-AIDS; and the wife/family adoption tradition arising from the death of the 'head of household'.

The next section addresses some key questions: what is domestic violence and what definition was adopted for this study and why? Secondly, what is the 'nature' of domestic violence and what forms and typologies are reported in the literature? The chapter includes a discussion of some of the key debates on violence against women within a gender paradigm; it summarises what is known about domestic violence in Uganda (including current legislative and policy initiatives) and how the problem is viewed in relation to dominant perspectives. This leads on to a description of the rationale for the study and the objectives are outlined. The chapter concludes with a description of the structure of the thesis.

1.2 Culture

The concept of culture is defined and discussed with regard to how it is interpreted and used throughout this thesis. Culture has several definitions depending on the approach from which it is studied (Storey, 1993). In this thesis, culture is explored from an anthropological perspective as a particular way of life, whether of people, a period or a group (Storey, 1993). The anthropological cultural approach enables one to view the values people hold as helping to account for the cultural differences that exist in different societies (Storey, 1993 p.41). Weber's classic work of over six decades ago suggests that culture is a dynamic rather than a fixed attribute of society, with the concept being defined in relation to values, meanings and interpretations relevant to the society in which they take shape (Weber, 1949 cited in Billington et al, 1991). Hence, drawing from the two

aforementioned definitions, culture in this thesis is understood as the beliefs, norms, values and practices that are embedded in societies and, in the case of Uganda, are transmitted and sustained through institutionalised structures and patriarchal family systems. Storey (1993) explains that societies are not simply a sum of the activities of individuals deriving from biological properties of human beings but rather are unique social entities impacted by and impacting *on* those individuals. It is within societies that culture is learned and transmitted through groups and individuals (Beattle, 1964 cited in Billington, 1991; Kroeber, 1952). Therefore, for one to understand individuals it is important to first understand beliefs, values, customs, practices and society itself (Geertz, 1973, cited in Billington et al, 1991). Thus, in the next section I discuss the social, economic, historic and political landscape of Uganda. This firmly positions the study within a Ugandan context. The interpretation of results is also informed by this context.

As a Ugandan with extensive knowledge of these socio-cultural factors, I inevitably bring this perspective to bear in making sense of the results of the study; however, I also apply theoretical understandings (discussed in Chapter Two) derived from a non-Ugandan context. It is through the use of this 'bi-focal' analytic lens that the study makes a unique contribution to knowledge - grounding knowledge in the socio-cultural realities of Uganda but advancing understandings of domestic violence beyond simple cultural explanations to inform the international literature.

1.3 Uganda

Uganda is a post-conflict, landlocked country in the east of sub-Saharan Africa with an estimated population of 34.9 million (Uganda Census, 2014). A legacy of its British Colonial history until 1962 independence, Uganda's official language is English although many other languages are widely spoken (UDHS, 2006). Uganda is a country still recovering from over two decades of civil war and the atrocious actions, gross violation of human rights and crimes of sexual violence committed by rebel soldiers fighting for the 'Lord's Resistance Army' (Muwereza, 2011). Indeed, similar to most war-affected countries, sexual and physical violence against women and girls has

been used as weapon and, yet, research in such countries has failed to recognise that this type of violence is often also '*domestic*' in nature in that it is not committed against '*combatants'* but is perpetrated by men (soldiers) usually within the domestic domain (Human Security Report, 2012, p.20). Women and girls are attacked primarily within the homes and communities within which they live, are exiled to or become a part of when they are abducted to become the sex slaves or 'wives' of rebel soldiers (Ochen, 2015). Furthermore, women and girls subject to war-related sexual and physical violence are often violated by multiple perpetrators and may be further victimised by partners, husbands and other household members who regard them as being partly culpable. Although gender debates regarding who victimises who, still remain, a survey on sexual violence carried out in Northern Uganda refugee camps showed that of the 35% of cases reported, 30% of these were inflicted by the 'intimate partner' and only 5% by 'someone outside household' (Stark et al, 2009 cited in Human Security Report, 2012).

Despite suffering the effects of war-related atrocities and political instability, since 1986, under the National Resistance Movement government, Uganda has achieved some relative growth in socio-economic transformation, infrastructure and education literacy. For example, as a result of free universal primary education, from 1997-2007, enrolment increased from 53 % to 73%. Following this success, in 2007, universal secondary education was introduced and, consequently, literacy increased to 74.6 % (Asankha and Takashi, 2011). These reforms have increased literacy levels and impacted on overall development, with the country's GDP growth varying between 5.6 % and 7.1 % between 2006 and 2011 (UBOS, 2006a). The country has embraced the importance of educating girl children and improvements in gender inequality can be seen in the increase in females taking up male-dominated jobs. For example, the former Vice President and the current Speaker of Parliament is a woman, the first woman to hold such a position of power in the history of Uganda. Seventy-six % of Ugandan women work compared to 50% of women in most sub-

Saharan Africa countries (Coffey, 2014). These statistics belie the fact however, that most Ugandan women are employed in the agricultural sector and still struggle under extreme poverty. This is because 36% of the women employed in agriculture in Uganda are more likely not to be paid, compared to 4% in non-agricultural jobs, according to the National Planning Authority Report, 2013 (cited in Coffey, 2014). Poverty increases the risks of women being exposed to abuse and HIV-AIDS (although it must be stated that abuse impacts on women of all socio-economic backgrounds and that HIV is no respecter of status or class). With regards to domestic violence in Uganda, the most recent research showed that six in ten ever-married women and four in ten men aged 15-49 had experienced physical, emotional and sexual violence from a spouse within the 12 months prior to the survey (UDH Report, 2011). Moreover, sexual violence has been linked to HIV infection in Uganda with poorest women at a higher risk of 55% compared to 52% for the least poor (Karamagi et al 2006). It has been argued that the fear of intimate partner violence decreases HIV prevention behaviours and thus increases HIV infection (Jewkes, 2003 cited in Karamagi et al, 2006 p.2). This shows that the HIV transmission epidemic is linked to intimate partner violence fears hence increasing the justification for this study into the role of victims and perpetrators of both genders on coercion and self-reported victimisation.

Policy and Legislative Framework

Although Uganda gained its independence in 1962, the Domestic Violence Act was only passed in 2010 and, while enacting this law was undoubtedly a milestone of success for the government and human rights activists, its infancy is indicative of the slow rate of social change. Nevertheless, it is this Act that provides the legislative context for the study. The Act has three parts: Part One is the preliminary preamble and discusses the commencement, interpretation and relationship of the parts of the law; Part Two covers the control of domestic violence and describes the sections of the Act; and Part Three discusses miscellaneous information including appeals, amendments of schedules and regulations. This legislation is necessary and undoubtedly well-intentioned and the

fact that key terms such as emotional/psychological, sexual, mental and coercive harm are clearly explained is helpful. However, one of its limitations is that it fails to include psychologists in the list of practitioners involved in domestic violence cases even though the forms of domestic violence described, such as psychological, emotional and sexual harm, require expertise in investigation and psychological rehabilitation services. This omission is possibly due to the low availability of psychological services in the country (the implications of this are discussed below).

The government of Uganda has also registered some success in providing national referral pathways for preventing and responding to gender-based violence cases. There are currently six options (gender referral pathways) used in Uganda (MLGSD, 2013*).* Option 1 - Gender Referral Pathway One, which reports to Local Council 1 (LC1) is for cases relating to physical assault without injuries, financial or verbal/emotional violence. Sexual violence cases are covered under Option 2 and must be reported to the police (MLGSD, 2013 p.21-22). Other options which serve as entry points for reporting gender-based violence include Option 3 which involves the direct reporting to a medical/health practitioner if the victim/survivor is in critical condition and needs medical care or the emergency contraceptive pill (this must be prescribed within 72 hours/ 3 days to prevent HIV infection and to avoid unwanted pregnancies). In Option 4- a report is made to the traditional/religious/community leaders in cases relating to financial and or/emotional abuse/violence. In the last two options 5 and 6, according to MLGSD, 2013 p.25-26, one reports to psychosocial service providers (Option 5) and in Option 6 to the Magistrates Court for legal aid. The most commonly used option is the community-based option (Option 1) which is discussed in more detail below:

Option 1: National Referral Pathway for Prevention and Response to Gender Based Violence Case in Uganda.

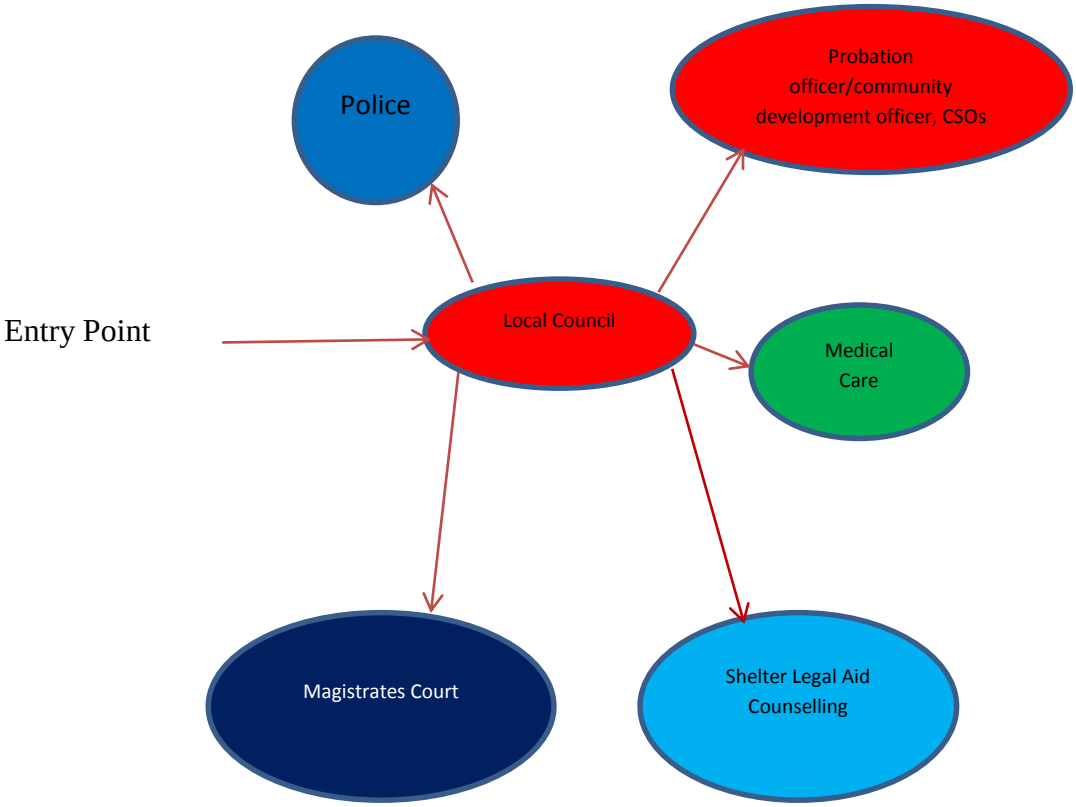

Figure 1: Source: Ministry of Gender Labour and Social Development October 2013 National Referral Pathway for Prevention and Response to Gender Based Violence Case in Uganda.

The above pathway (see figure 1) shows the most used entry point when the victim/survivor or the concerned individual within the community reports a case of domestic violence to the local council (LC1). This is normally at village/zone level headed by elected chairperson (MGLSD, 2013). The local council chairperson and the entire committee members often may not possess any formal qualification relevant to the services the council provides. For example, the local council provides mediation between the victim and perpetrator of domestic gender based-violence; yet mediation is a service that requires skilled and trained individuals to attend to each party through empathetic listening while they share conflict narratives (Billikopf, 2014 p.4). Therefore, although this policy and mediation itself is good, the local council committee has no adequately trained personnel with

formal training and skills to investigate and handle mediation services between victims and perpetrators. The inadequate handling and the mediation at local council has a number of effects on the case: 1) improper documentation may lead to inadequate intervention to effectively deal with the case at later stages e.g. at the police station, the Magistrates Court or by the medical care personnel; 2) evidence for further investigation by the police or trained psychologists is tampered with as the process at entry point often means a delay before professionals are involved. The hearing of the case at local council in public (after serving the perpetrator and victim/survivor) could be strengthened by having psychologists and psychological services working hand in hand with police from the start. Currently, after hearing the case in public, a probation officer is brought on board only if the child is involved. However, if there is no agreement reached within 14 days and the perpetrator is a repeat offender, the local council makes a referral to the police or to court (MGLSD, 2013). One problem with this system is that whereas victims/survivor experience different forms of violence, the option of reporting to psychosocial service providers is not the most used option. This could be due to the fact that psychological services are not readily available within communities in which victims and perpetrators live. Yet, it is unlikely that psychological services would be made available for victims and perpetrators (both males and females) unless, policy makers and implementers realise the urgency, need and importance of such services.

This current study explores the psychological aspects of domestic violence victimisation as reported by males and females (victims and perpetrators) in order to provide empirical data which can impact policy and practice in Uganda and address deficiencies such as this.

There is no single factor to explain domestic violence in Uganda; however, it has been often associated with poverty and unemployment along with other economic demands and the increase in societal tolerance for violence arising out of the civil war. The government has taken steps to address some of the causal factors of domestic violence and formulated legislation; however, more

empirical research is needed on the psychosocial-cultural traditional practices that contribute to violence, such as the patriarchal nature of society, gender inequality and the social acceptance of wife beating. In the next section I discuss socio-cultural factors such as patriarchy, polygamy and wife beating practices, all of which are underpinned by gender inequality and are thus related to this current study.

1.3.1: Socio-Cultural Factors and Traditional Practices Rooted in the Patriarchal Nature of Ugandan Society.

In Uganda, as in many other sub-Saharan countries, women have less power and control in the family and society than men. Gender inequality is embedded in traditional values and shaped by religious and cultural practices. One example is the practice of polygamy- one man marrying more than one wife, formally or non-formally, which is a common family type in Uganda. According to the Uganda Bureau of Statistics Census Report (2002), 14.7 % of Ugandan men, or one in every seven, have more than one wife with whom they live on a rota basis. However, this practice is gradually declining. In 2001, 32 % married women had co-wives but this reduced to 28% in 2006 (UDHS, Report, 2006). These types of marital arrangements reflect inequalities *between* men and women but they also perpetuate asymmetrical power dynamics *among* women (co-wives) which can generate conflict (Umar, 2009). They can increase financial hardship within families because of the demands of paying dowry and the diversion of resources from one woman and her children to others (Karanja, 1994). Furthermore, multiple partnering, even within socially sanctioned practices such as polygamy, can increase the risk of HIV transmission, since women cannot negotiate safe sex or insist on the use of condoms (Anagbogu and Nwokolo, 2012). Women in polygamous marriages, like other African women, are often controlled, coerced and subjected to abuse and domination through wife beating (Speizer, 2010) and being a second wife in Uganda is associated with violence and increased vulnerability to physical and sexual coercion (Karamagi, Tumwine, Tylleskar & Heggenhougen, 2006). Power and gender issues are critical factors in the

disempowerment of women in polygamous relationships; they have little control over their sexual and reproductive rights and they have reduced choice and freedoms (for example, they cannot prevent their husbands taking on additional wives). Connolly (2009) suggests that men in polygamous situations are driven by views about sexual entitlement, desire and conquest (a man who is able to maintain several wives is admired for his manhood, Umar, 2009) and the cultural legacy of polygamy, whilst women are trapped by economic necessity and male domination. This suggests the need for psycho-social education programmes for men and improvements in the socio-economic status of women (which may help women to flee financial entrapment) however, at a deeper level it reflects the need for a change in cultural values, attitudes and behaviours towards women. This is especially so since the dehumanisation of women in Uganda has its roots in traditional ancestral rituals that persisted as recently as the 20th century. These include, but are not limited to, the practice of tying up a girl expecting a child conceived out wedlock on a tree to die of hunger or dumping her at night on the isolated punishment island known as 'Akampeene' which is in middle of Lake Bunyonyi (Briggs & Roberts, 2013, p.257). These girls could escape death if they were rescued by fishermen who could not afford to pay the bride-price for a second wife but they would not be freed from patriarchal control (Briggs & Roberts, 1994; 2013).

Another cultural practice harmful to women and which is underpinned by patriarchy and gender inequality is the tradition of inheriting wives. When a Ugandan man dies it is commonly understood that his brother will inherit his widow and take responsibility for her and her children. The issue of love or affection is not a consideration and this is the case regardless of the woman's wishes. Research shows that whereas women often prefer to marry for love, men place less emphasis on discussion and cultivation of romantic love than on their needs for sexual and domestic services (Easthope, 1986; Metcalf and Humphries, 1985; Weeks, 1981 cited in

Billington, 1991). Another motivating factor reported in the literature is greed, since widow inheritance enables the man to gain control of the deceased person's property and wealth (Mabumba et al., 2007). Widow inheritance is relevant to understanding domestic violence as it is linked to increased sexual and physical violence against women (Jewkes, Levi, & Penn-Kekena, 2002) and in Uganda the practice has become more commonplace because of the increase in AIDS-related deaths among men (Mabumba et al., 2007). Some commentators suggest that, in the absence of adequate welfare services, the tradition functions as a form of 'social security' for families impacted by AIDS, especially as women and girls in households where there is no visible male presence may be regarded as legitimate targets for sexual predators. However, this is not a solution to patriarchal domination but simply underscores the extent to which Ugandan women are denied rights and freedoms. Furthermore, widow inheritance may actually increase women's vulnerability to HIV transmission (Agonet, 2010, cited in Oluoch & Nyongesa, 2013). In the next section I discuss the problems of female genital mutilation and forced marriage, which are also major problems for women and girls in Uganda.

Female Genital Cutting/Mutilation (FGM) is practised in many African countries, including Uganda, and affects between 100 to 140 million females worldwide (WHO, 2002). The excruciating pain and dehumanization this practice inflicts upon females led the Parliament of Uganda to ban it in 2009. However, the psychosocial impact of FGM and discrimination against women who have not undergone the procedure still exists. For example, women who are not cut (to ensure marriageability and rite of passage) may be considered gender ambiguous in some parts of Uganda (UNFPA, 2011). Forced and early marriage is another tradition commonly practised in many countries, of which 30% are in Africa (UNFPA, 2012). The UNFPA (2012) report estimated that 14 million young girls are forced into marriage by their parents. Uganda is placed 11th in the world rankings on global prevalence of forced/early marriage and 46% of girls can expect to face this form of exploitation (UNFPA, 2012) - 10% of girls are married before 15 years of age and

40% before their 18th birthday (UNICEF, 2005). Girls from poor households are three times more likely to get married before the age of 18 than those from rich households (UNICEF, 2010) and the extent of poverty in Uganda makes this a difficult practice to eradicate. The legal age of marriage in Uganda is 18 years and these figures demonstrate not only the failure of legislative reform in changing attitudes and behaviours but also the deeply entrenched nature of patriarchal entitlement. In addition to reflecting a breach of domestic laws, forced marriage is also a violation of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948, Article 16.2) which states that marriage should be entered into with free and full consent. The links with domestic violence are clear; physical violence is often used or threatened in order to force compliance and young women subjected to forced/early marriage in Uganda have reported experiencing physical and sexual abuse (UDHS, 2006).

Despite such grave acts against Ugandan women and the violation of their human rights there is evidence over recent years of increasing activism in relation to women's emancipation and a slight improvement in their status. Nevertheless, there is still large scale disagreement in Ugandan society, amongst both men and women, about the notion of women's equality (Wyrod, 2008). One study, which explored a dominant perception that African women believe that men have the right to punish them, showed that these views persist because strategies to address gender-based violence are inadequately resourced, that women have little or no access to counselling or shelters and they suffer from weak judicial systems (Kim, 1999 cited in Kim and Motsei, 2002).

This current study explores domestic violence victimisation amongst both victims and perpetrators of domestic violence. The inclusion of women perpetrators is based on the argument that crimes of violence amongst women are under-researched and most theories have been developed and validated from male subjects (Morris, 1987:2 cited in Tibatemwa, 1999). Tibatemwa (1999) argues that the nature and extent of female criminality in Uganda has been neglected. Furthermore, the

assumption that theories on criminality and violence are gender neutral and will apply to all perpetrators of violence, women included, is a concern. In exploring domestic violence, it is important to take account of both men and women's behaviours by highlighting factors that operate differently for men and women (Tibatemwa, 1999, p.4). Given the gender disparities in Uganda that have been outlined, this study explores the impact of gender on the role of victims and perpetrators in domestic violence and what psychological constructs influence it. Next, the definition adopted in this thesis is discussed and justified.

1.4 What is Domestic Violence? The Definition of Domestic Violence Adopted for this Thesis

Domestic violence, otherwise termed intimate partner violence or domestic abuse, is a pattern of coercive behaviours used by one person to control and subordinate another in an intimate relationship (Oregon Domestic Violence Council, 1995 cited in Margi, 2008). Abuse is a useful term because it includes passive aggression, while the term 'intimate partner violence' (IPV) emerged in recognition of the fact that marital status is not the key factor and that domestic violence takes place between intimate partners regardless of whether they are married or not (Margi, 2008). However, domestic violence is the most commonly used terminology due to its broad nature encompassing violence in general (Hester *et al*., 2000) and is this thesis's preferred term. For example, domestic violence includes other forms of violence such as violence between roommate's/house mates who are not intimate partners. Also, although the terms domestic violence, abuse and IPV are often used interchangeably within the literature, in Uganda domestic violence is the most widely understood term since it carries legal status (Uganda Domestic Violence Act, 2010).

Domestic violence is a form of oppression that occurs within social contexts that make violence against an oppressed group or person possible and even acceptable (Margi, 2008). The social

acceptance of violence against women in Uganda is demonstrated by the fact that it ranked number one across the globe in relation to the question of whether wife beating is seen as an acceptable behaviour if a woman argues with husband. In Uganda 40% of women and 36% of men who took part in a survey of six countries, based on data from each country's demographic survey - Uganda (2006), India (2005-2006), Ghana, (2008), Armenia (2005), Indonesia (2007) and the Dominican Republic (2007) - agreed with the statement and other countries follow in descending order (PRB Report, 2011 p.2). When asked whether, in circumstances in which a woman refuses to have sex, wife beating is acceptable, Uganda again came first (followed by India and Ghana, respectively) with 31% of women and 19% of men agreeing with the statement. This shows that women and men in Uganda are more likely to view wife beating as acceptable, than any other group in the world and also suggests that attitudes towards violence, gender inequality and women's low status in society are part of the social fabric and that perceptions of inferiority may be internalised by women from birth (PRB Report, 2011, p.2).

The most common forms of domestic violence include physical, psychological/emotional, sexual and/or economic abuse/violence (Margi, 2008) and in all these forms of domestic violence the more frequent the violent episodes, the more the situation becomes severe and dangerous. For example, there can be an escalation from verbal abuse to frequent punching and, further, to the use of weapons. The oppression is often characterised by unequal gender rights, with women (primarily) being rendered powerless in decision making processes and socio-cultural factors enforcing their subordination (Margi, 2008). Margi argues that patriarchal systems that place women in lower power positions and through which they are subject to exploitation in their role of providing unpaid labour in the form of housekeeping and child care underpin many cases of domestic violence (2008). Drawing on the work of Dobash and Dobash she further states: 'If domestic violence is both the result of the gender inequality and the means by which it is perpetuated, then initiatives to challenge and prevent domestic violence must be located within

broader initiatives and strategies that address gender inequality' (Dobash and Dobash, 1979 cited in Margi, 2008, p.206). Though more women than men are victims of domestic violence, men are affected too (Hamberger, 2008). Margi's definition of domestic violence includes physical, sexual and psychological abuse, economic and other forms of exploitation, acts of coercion, terrorism in families and degradation (Margi, 2008). The violence may include threats, harm, injury, control, terrorism or damage to living beings and property (Hubbard, 1991 cited in Margi, 2008). This definition is particularly useful because it considers violence not just as a single act or incident but rather as a pattern of behaviours. It is also helpful because it not only mentions types of abuse and violence but also raises the issue of control as a weapon to gain compliance and subordination of the victim using various tactics. Most countries in Africa, however, have adopted the internationally recognised World Health Organisation (WHO) definition of domestic violence as the basis of policy and legislation. The WHO defines domestic violence as experience of physical violence (e.g. slapping, hitting, kicking and beating), sexual violence (e.g. forced intercourse and other forms of coerced sex) and emotional or psychological violence (e.g. intimidation and humiliation) by a current or former partner (WHO, 2005 p.13; WHO, 2013, p.5). This is the definition adopted by the government of Uganda and, as it is hoped that the study will inform Ugandan policy and programme development, this is the definition used in this thesis. Although this study is aligned with the WHO definition of domestic violence, this definition is limited in that it does not highlight issues of control, co-occurring abuse or victim resistance and I therefore augment the definition by drawing on the typology of abuse developed by Johnson (2008). This is discussed next.

1.5 The Nature of Domestic Violence

Johnson (2008) proposed four types of domestic violence that happen in intimate relationships:

1. Intimate terrorism (IT)
2. Situational couple violence (SCV)
3. Violent resistance (VR)
4. Mutual violent control (MVC).

In describing this typology of violence Johnson explains that intimate terrorism (IT) involves a series of violent behaviours used by the abuser to facilitate his general control over his partner (Johnson, 2008; 2011). This type of violence is often characterised by physical injuries and other controlling behaviours. Johnson suggests that intimate terrorism describes what is often labelled as spousal abuse and domestic violence. To support his argument Johnson explains that intimate terrorism is often driven by a desire to control while the abuser engages in emotionally hurting behaviours, threats, intimidation and monitoring the victim. Intimate terrorism characteristics are typical and common in victims from agencies such as domestic violence shelters and court-ordered programs for offenders (Johnson, 1995; 2011).

Situational couple violence (SCV) involves a series of behaviours where both or one partner uses violence when responding to a conflict with the hope of gaining control over a specific situation (Johnson, 1995; 2011). Due to the fact that it is a response to a couple's specific conflict situation it does not always lead to control in relationships and is considered less severe than other IT and may be equally perpetrated by both men and women (Johnson, 1995). Because SCV's characteristics are perceived to be less harmful, couples are unlikely to seek professional help from domestic violence shelters but instead use coping strategies that might stop further violence (Rosen, et al., 2005). Situational couple violence characteristics are often commonly seen in samples from random surveys (Johnson, 1995).

The third and fourth of Johnson's types of violence are related to intimate terrorism. These are mutual violent control (MVC) and violent resistance (VR). Mutual violent control and violent resistance both highlight the main characteristic responses of a woman to violence perpetrated against her (Johnson, 2006). In violent resistance a woman reacts to her partner's intimate terrorism acts and retaliates in an attempt to prevent further control and violence in the future (Johnson, 2006; 2011). Violent resistance is an act by women to reclaim and take control again over aspects of their relationships to prevent ongoing abuse (Johnson, 2006). Psychological, physical and homicidal attributes are some of the characteristics found in cases of violent resistance. Johnson suggests that victims killed by intimate terrorists, sexual assault victims or those who receive brutal injuries are more likely than those in other situations to engage in violent resistance (Johnson, 2008).

Mutual violent control (MVC) consists of behaviours used by both partners, which are physically and psychologically violent in nature, to gain control over their spouses/partner (Johnson, 2008). In this type of intimate partner violence both partners (men and women) are regarded as intimate terrorists. Johnson (2006) argues that victims found in shelters and those in court ordered programs for batterers may both exhibit MCV behaviours.

This typology of domestic violence developed by Johnson has been used and conceptualised by some researchers to explain the control, content and concurrence of different forms of violence that happen in intimate relationships (O'Neal, Tellis & Spohn, 2014). Furthermore, Tellis (2008) urges that studies conducted on intimate partner violence could benefit by incorporating Johnson's typology to further the understanding of the nature and forms of intimate partner violence. In discussing these characteristics of Johnson's typology much emphasis is placed on the dynamics of control and domination in which the behaviour or act of violence is embedded (O'Neal, Tellis & Spohn, 2014). In response to critics who argue that Johnson's violence categories are conceptually unclear, researchers have extended the typology and have applied it successfully to

the categorisation of violent individuals/couples (Anderson, 2008; Graham-Kevan & Archer, 2003) while others have used it to identify differences between SCV and IT (Anderson, 2008; Brownridge, 2010; Frye et. al, 2006; Graham-Kevan & Archer 2003; Graham-Kevan & Archer, 2008 cited in O'Neal et al, 2014). Johnson and Leone (2005) and Leone (2011) found that victims of IT were more likely to experience severe physical violence and psychological consequences compared to victims of SCV. Furthermore, Leone, Johnson and Cohen (2007) found that situational couple violence (SCV) victims primarily relied on informal support systems.

Influenced by the findings of studies that report success in the use of Johnson's typology of Intimate Partner Violence, the presented research partly uses this typology as a foundational basis to study types of domestic violence victimisation reported by victims and perpetrators of both genders in Uganda and to identify which domestic violence typologies associate with which coping strategies, a key aim of the study. However, the study also incorporates the notion of pseudo intimate terrorism (PIT), which is an extension of Johnson's typology that incorporates aspects of terror experienced by victims (Johnson and Ferrero, 2000; Rosen, Stith Few, Daly and Tritt, 2005). I declare from the outset that the use of Johnson's typology to discuss the findings is not without *caveat*. The limitations of the data collected mean that the typology cannot be applied to its full extent and the discussion of findings makes it clear the ways in which the present study departs from Johnon's ideas. For example, Johnson's typology is based on the intersection of gender, actual coercion, the victim and, the perpetrator. However, this study only gathers data on the intersection of gender and victimhood, (*but not perpetration*) and attitudes to coercion (*not actual coercion*). In defence of this approach however, I argue that previous research by Muir, Lonsway and Payne (1996) shows that moderate scores on attitudes to coercion predicts actual coercion (Muir et al., 1996). Moreover, testing Johnson's typology was not a main aim of the study but rather provides theoretical justification for exploring victimisation alongside other variables

(personality, coping strategies and attitudes to coercive behaviours). To fully test Johnson's typology in the African setting, further research would need to be carried out.

1.6 Rationale for the Study

Although there are many theories on domestic violence and battering applicable in Europe and the USA these are often regarded as carrying little currency in the African context (Robinson, 1993). Many African scholars writing on domestic violence emphasize battering and domestic violence as falling under the rubric of 'culture' rather than offering psychological explanations. This is because most theories on domestic violence have been derived from research conducted in western countries and by professionals working with male batterers, however, such programmes are rare or absent in Africa. This is confirmed by Dutton (1998; 2011) who indicated that psychological research, for example on the notion of the 'abusive personality', has not been conducted in Africa and that psychology-based explanations are generally overlooked in favour of cultural explanations (these ideas are developed further in Chapter Two). This thesis responds to this gap in knowledge by reporting on a study of the personality traits and attitudes to coercive behaviours that influence domestic violence in Uganda. As explained earlier, the contribution of psychological services to addressing the needs of victims and perpetrators of domestic violence is little understood in Uganda despite acknowledgement of the psychological harm caused. There are few empirical studies that exist on domestic violence in Uganda and no published research was found that examines the psychological aspects of the problem. This provides further justification for this study, which explores domestic violence from a psychological perspective and which could therefore benefit current policies on domestic violence in Uganda.

This study examines domestic violence victimisation reported by victims and perpetrators of both genders within Uganda. Domestic violence is very old but public acknowledgement of the issue in the country is still in its infancy (Margi, 2008). According to Straus's (1976) article 'Sexuality

Inequality, Cultural Norms and Wife Beating' wives are more often victims of domestic violence by their husbands than the reverse. Male partner violence is usually attributed to the hierarchical and male dominant nature of society and men's desire to coerce and dominate, whereas women are said to be violent primarily as an act of self-defence against humiliating and dominating behaviour (Straus, 1976). Straus concluded, almost 40 years ago, that the impression that women may be motivated to hit in order to coerce a male partner is outrageous and sexist. In agreement is the study of Hester et al. (2000) which argued that women only act violently in self-defence, hence implying that a woman is a victim first and only becomes a perpetrator through acting in self-defence and, in such cases, no arrests should be made (Centrex, 2004). However, more recent research challenges the idea that women are only violent in response to violence. Hamberger (2008), for example, states that women are increasingly being convicted of domestic violence, with men as their victims. There is a common myth in most African societies that men cannot be victims, however, a study by Kitala et al., (2012) in Northern Uganda among victims in hospitals revealed that both men and women are victims of physical abuse (Kitala et al., 2012). Also, most studies take gender differences in crime for granted and do not develop adequate analysis even though gender is considered a better predictor of crime than, for example, race or employment status (Heidensonohn, 1985:143 cited in Tibatemwa, 1999). Related to this discussion is the importance of exploring personality traits in relation to gender and domestic violence. Eysenck (1975) showed that individuals who scored high on psychoticism had personality characteristics such as an inability to empathize with others and were more likely to have irrational and anti-social behaviours. Although personality traits have been studied against gender in Uganda (Wyrod, 2007), there are no empirical studies that have studied the relationship between personality traits and coercive behaviours and domestic violence in Uganda. Yet, research in western countries has associated violence with gendered attitudes to coercion (Muir, 2002).

The significance of gender in domestic violence is reported in many studies (see for example, Dobash and Dobash, 1979; Johnson, 2008) and is also evident in the growth in gender-based interventions in Africa (Jakobsen, 2014). Data from an American national sample of adults in intimate relationships revealed however, that some forms of violence are reciprocal (Follingstad & Edmundson, 2010) while others report results from research that indicate that women and men may be equally violent (Dutton & Corvo, 2006; 2007 cited in Agazino, 2011). The issue of gender is explored fully in Chapter Two, however what emerges from this discussion is that the failure to acknowledge violence perpetrated by women against men contributes to different forms of gender inequality and may mask the extent of tolerance for interpersonal violence within society. While domestic violence has often been referred to as 'gendered', the word has often been used without clarity (Scully, 2008). Some researchers in the US, in advocating for a greater gender balance in responding to domestic violence, propose erasing the word gender in partner violence approaches altogether (Dragiewicz, 2009; Kimmel 2012 cited in Jakobsen, 2014). Furthermore, surveys conducted by Straus (2008; 2010) claim that in Africa, gender may be less important in cases of domestic violence than is generally assumed. By challenging gender symmetry in Africa, Straus (2008; 2010) over generalises the problem and under-estimates the role of women as perpetrators and men as victims. This is significant for a country such as Uganda because of some of the cultural issues discussed earlier, such as FGM and polygamous marriages and in which women may be victims of violence but also may be involved in the perpetration of violence against other women. Hamel (2007) emphasised the importance of a gender inclusive approach to domestic violence research, arguing that many studies have marginalised the role of women, not only in the victimisation of men but also of other women, and thus have failed to produce adequate explanations and solutions to this social problem (Hamel, 2007; Kitala, et al., 2011). These ideas, debates and complexities challenge the hegemonic principles of current domestic violence policy and practice in Africa in general and, in furthering knowledge about the situation in Uganda, it is important therefore to provide empirical evidence as to the role of gender in domestic violence.

The study has five objectives:

1. *First,* the study examines gender (male and female) and role (victim and perpetrator) in relation to self-reported domestic violence victimisation. This approach is taken because gender and age remain the best predictors for crime rather than, for example, race and employment status (Heidensohn, 1985:143, cited in Tibatemwa, 1999).
2. *Second*, the impact-effect that role and gender have on attitudes towards coercive behaviours is studied based on the socio-cultural assumptions that women-beating is considered acceptable in Uganda (Speizer, 2010). The study also utilises the work of Muir (2002) that identified two important sets of attitudes in the coercion-domestic violence scenario: 'men's right to control hence coerce' but also 'women exaggerate coercion' and explores whether or not these attitudes to coercive behaviours differ among men and women and also between victims and perpetrators.
3. *Third,* despite available research on coping strategies what remains unclear to date is whether coping styles are engaged by men and women equally or whether victims are more likely than perpetrators to engage in positive coping strategies. As revealed by previous studies, while physical violence may end, non-physical forms of violence, including emotional abuse, may escalate. This was found to be the case among male perpetrators who attended intervention programmes in the US (Rothman, Butchart, & Cerda, 2003; van Wormer & Bednar, 2002 cited in Agozino, 2011) and raises the need to explore whether or not coping styles are engaged in differently by perpetrators and victims of either gender. This is explored in this study.
4. *Fourth,* the study explores the personality traits of victims and perpetrators (both genders). This is based on Wyrod's study of gender and personality traits in Uganda (Wyrod, 2007) and Eysenck's conclusions from his classic 1975 study that individuals who scored high on Extroversion and Neuroticism scales had a level of nervousness that made it difficult

to condition them. Consequently, they did not easily learn to use anxiety to respond to antisocial impulses and were more likely to act antisocially in situations where the opportunity presented itself (Eysenck, 1975). This raises questions as to whether or not domestic violence and coercive behaviours are related to an individual's personality trait scores (Speizer, 2010).

5. *Fifth,* Agozino, 2011 argues that domestic violence is perpetrated by a male partner on a female victim who perceives it as harmful and destructive. However, gender symmetry researchers argue that men too are victims (White, 2013). This study examines whether there is role-based (*victims & perpetrators*) and gender-based (*males and females*) statistical correlation/relationship amongst sub-scales on attitudes towards coercion, self-reported domestic violence victimisation, personality traits and coping strategies.

1.7 Central Argument of this Thesis

This study attempted to study self-reported victimization reported by males and females in Uganda, a country where more women are victims and gender inequality that disadvantages women particularly, are strong features of society. These factors alone undermine the notion of gender symmetry, a concept developed by Straus & Gelles, 1975 in U.S. National Family Violence Survey findings, which led to Steinmetz, 1977 battered husband syndrome and which has been the subject of much debate in the literature (see Dobash & Dobash, 1992, Saunders 1988) among other feminist researchers confronting a growing chorous of researchers who claim that women and men are victimised by domestic violence in roughly equal numbers (Pleck, Pleck, Grossman, & Bart, 1978; Schwartz & DesKeseredy,1993 cited in Kimmel, 2002).

The *central argument* of this thesis is *firstly,* although there are strong cultural factors implicated in violence against women, notably practices of wife inheritance, forced marriage and societal sanctioning of wife beating, there has been an over-reliance on cultural explanations for the problem (Bowman, 2006, Speizer, 2010) at the expense of exploring psychological factors. For

example, arguments, fights and jealousy lead to domestic violence in the US but there, they are perceived as issues of power and control or, as the result of the individual batterer's psychological condition', not as a cultural issue (Bowman, 2003 p.855)**.** It is argued that understanding psychological issues related to domestic violence is particularly important in post-conflict settings since the literature shows that wars and violence at the societal level often get played out in the domestic sphere and can contribute significantly to the generation of psychological harm and personality issues (Saunders et al., 1999). Survivors often use different coping behaviours-strategies to protect themselves from negative feelings and thoughts (Fritsch & Warrier, 2004).

Secondly, in an attempt to address the needs of women as victims, policy and practice in Uganda has failed to recognise the way that women can contribute to the victimisation of other women (particularly relevant in a context in which polygamous households and co-wives are normative) and also to men (see Mushanga, 2009), who in such a patriarchal society may experience difficulties acknowledging victimhood and seeking help. Overall, exploring the psychological behaviour patterns, the study provides insights into the psychological characteristics of victims and perpetrators of both genders in the sample. These results were then compared with western published studies and both commonalities and differences were identified. Jointly studying the responses of male and female victims and perpetrators represents the first such research in a post-conflict African context and makes a significant contribution to knowledge. Though specific to Uganda, the study findings point to the need for a greater awareness of the significance of psychological factors in exploring domestic violence in Africa, especially in countries where the population has been exposed to violence at a societal level, such as war. A further contribution is made by this study in its conclusion that there is need for a gender sensitive approach to domestic violence in African, one that enables not only addressing the issues of women as victims and men as perpetrators, but one that is more nuanced and involves exploring the factors that contribute to women making victims of other women and also, the needs of male victims. In addition to

reviewing pre-existing socio-cultural factors and Ugandan legislative policies (*discussed in chapter 1 section 1.2 - 1.3*), this thesis explores psychological concepts – an under-studied area within domestic violence in Africa. Specific concepts investigated are individual personality traits, attitudes to coercive behaviours, self-reported victimisation, coping strategies and the relationship of these factors to gender and role in domestic violence. This is intended to explore and reflect synergistic approach for addressing domestic violence - one which addresses these as interlinking elements of a problem requiring simultaneous attention. These arguments together demonstrate that yes, culture matters, yes gender inequality matters, but alongside these factors, the consideration of psychological factors is essential, especially in a post-conflict society such as Uganda. It is hoped that the findings from this study will influence the adoption of a gender sensitive approach in policy and practice. Such an approach goes beyond merely gender inclusivity and acknowledges that both genders may engage different coping strategies and recognises differential needs. For example, the psychological needs and characteristics of male victims whose victim status may leave them feeling less manly in a patriarchal societies and who may therefore find it difficult to access help (see Uganda GBV Guidelines, 2013).

1.8 Thesis Structure

The thesis is structured as follows:

Chapter One: Introduction: This chapter describes the social context for the study and clarifies the definitions that have been used within the thesis. It outlines the extent of the problem in Uganda and briefly discusses contradictions within the literature on the role of gender. The scope of the study is narrowed down to the impact of gender and role as a victim or perpetrator on attitudes to coercive behaviours, self-reported domestic violence victimisation, personality traits and coping strategies engaged. The rationale for the study is described and the study objectives stated.

Chapter Two: Literature Review – Theoretical Perspective. Two literature reviews have been conducted for this study. Chapter Two (Part One) reviews key theoretical positions on domestic violence and identifies their relevance to the study of the problem in Uganda. This gives rise to the research questions and the hypotheses for the study, which are outlined next. Part Two explores the literature in relation to the specific variables, questions and hypotheses explored in the study. The second literature review (Chapter Five) discusses the relationship of the results of the presented study with other studies carried out in western settings to determine the extent to which there are commonalities or differences.

*Chapter Three: Methodology***.** This chapter discusses the design of the study, the instruments used to collect data, procedures for recruiting the sample, sample demographics and ethical procedures for data collection. The analyses undertaken and justification for the choice of statistical tools are discussed.

Chapter Four: Results. This chapter describes the results of the study of the impact of gender and domestic violence role on personality, coping styles, attitudes to coercion and self-reported victimisation in Uganda. Both descriptive and inferential statistical results are presented in line with the hypotheses of the study.

*Chapter Five: Results Discussed in Relation to the Wider Literature***.** This chapter presents a data driven analysis of the wider literature to explore what is known about the impact of gender and domestic violence role on personality, coping styles, attitudes to coercion and self-reported victimisation in other countries. Studies have been sourced from the UK and other western countries to explore the extent to which the Ugandan results reflect broader commonalities or describe a picture distinct to the African context.

Chapter Six: Discussion and Conclusion. This chapter summarises the main findings of the study and discusses the implications of the research for policy and practice within Uganda. The contributions to African scholarship made by this study are articulated. The limitations of the research are discussed and this forms the basis of recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2- LITERATURE –THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

2.1 Introduction

The way in which domestic violence is measured, defined and consequently responded to, is directly linked to the theoretical perspectives adopted (Bowen, 2011). Therefore, before discussing the main rationale for the study variables (see Section 2.9 of this chapter) I present a critical analysis of theories that account for domestic violence victimisation. The theories reviewed are cultural, feminist, sociological, attachment, dyadic and individual psychological theories (e.g. social learning theory, cognitive-behavioural approaches) and the gender symmetry and gender paradigm debates in relation to domestic violence. The inclusion of these theories is based on the aims of this study. Subsequent to the evaluation of these theories and literature, gaps are identified and then research questions and hypotheses are stated; in 2.10 and 2.11 respectively.

In order to effectively evaluate the quality of a theory it is necessary to identify the components, because an adequate theoretical account of behaviour generates hypotheses that can be empirically tested (Bowen, 2011). However, domestic violence cannot be explained by a single theory or factor as it is a consequence of complex interactions between individuals, social and environmental influences (Browne & Hebert, 1997 p.35). Hence, though single theories are reviewed, I go further to delineate each of these theories along with insights from existing studies. Most theories are to a large extent explanations of domestic violence against women (Margi, 2008) even though these are sometimes supplemented with explanations that seek to account for female violence against men - gender symmetry (Dutton and White, 2013). Contemporary theories of domestic violence, including psychological theories, are critiqued

using existing African literature, explanations and empirical studies. This is intended to highlight the absence and relevance of such psychological explanations for domestic violence in Africa and, further, to argue that both men and women could be in either roles, as victims or perpetrators. Hence, psychological characteristics of victims and perpetrators of both genders are summarised, implications considered and conclusions provided.

It is important to stress that this review does not aim to provide a comprehensive approach to the literature and that theories of domestic violence that are not directly linked to the variables and aims of the study have been left out. This is not to negate the importance of other theories, some of which are briefly mentioned here:

For instance, biological theories focus on genetic, hereditary factors and, recently, on brain injuries. Family systems theories attribute violence to the dynamic organisation made up of interdependent components where one member's behaviour is affected by feedback of other family members (Margi, 2008). Historical and ecological approaches suggest violence against women and children has always been present, noting that certain groups become targets as a consequence of societal values and structures (Walker, 1996 cited in Fife & Schrager, 2012). In addition, the ecological framework involves the consideration of the complex interplay between ecological systems and the way the interaction of factors within these systems leads to intimate partner violence (Edleson & Tolman, 1992 cited in Bowen, 2011).

2.2 Cultural Theories

There are various cultural theories of domestic violence and, given the significance of culture to this study, cultural considerations are conceptualised as an overarching umbrella under which other theories of domestic violence fall (Fife & Schrager, 2012). This is because it is impossible to understand domestic violence or any other abuse within the family in the absence of cultural understanding of the values and traditions of individuals involved in the behaviour

in question (Fife and Schrager, 2012). Hence, it should be noted that a range of feminist theories are encapsulated within the 'socio-cultural theories' classification (Bowen, 2011). However, for this thesis, feminist and sociological theories are separately discussed next, in 2.3 and 2.4, to emphasise the importance of gender inequalities, gender roles, patriarchy and control theory (power and control) in domestic violence, even though these factors are also highlighted and mentioned in cultural theories. Indeed, common to sociological, cultural and feminist theories is the aim of understanding why men use violence against women in societies (Schechter, 1982 cited in Bowen, 2011). Sociological theories go further and focus on the processes that are created via interactions with others, either in one-to-one relationships or in large groups, that influence domestic violence (Fife & Schrager, 2012).

Before discussing cultural theories in relation to domestic violence it is important to first understand the concept of culture. Culture is defined by anthropologists as the way people live, their values and meanings (Margi, 2008). Anthropology emerged as a discipline to study culture in indigenous and non-western countries of Asia and Africa during colonial times, based on a growing interest in understanding the rituals and traditions that defined such cultures. Hence, during colonial times western culture was portrayed as superior, civilised and modern and was used as a yardstick against which other cultures were measured (Margi, 2008). However, contemporary anthropology has moved on, leading to the use of terms such as 'developed' and 'developing countries' to distinguish western and non-western countries. In both contexts though, feminist researchers point to the dominance of cultures where male privilege is the norm (Margi, 2008).

> ''A universal contributing factor in developed and developing countries alike is the belief that domestic violence is a private affair causing a culture of silence to surround the issue" (Margi, 2008 p.89)

Margi (2008) argues that whereas in many developing countries, domestic violence is attributed to negative cultural values and traditions, in developed countries, such as the US, violence is not generally associated with culture. This is possibly because in developed countries researchers have moved forward to focus on other possible causes of domestic violence, including psycho-social factors, and on treatment programmes. In developing countries, particularly in Africa and the Middle East, cultural explanations tend to stigmatise victims instead of faulting abusers (Nazir, 2005). Cultural factors are also embodied within legal systems. For example, some countries have weak or no laws against gender based violence and sometimes place the burden of proof on the female victim; e.g. in Egypt the law only permits a woman to divorce her physically abusive partner if she produces in court a medical certification of sustained injuries and at least two witnesses to the event (Human Rights Watch, 2014). In another example, Uganda, wife beating is viewed as culturally acceptable (Speizer, 2010). Given the dominance of cultural beliefs, this may explain why cultural views are slow to change and why less attention has been paid to other possible causes of domestic violence than in western countries (Nazir, 2005).

In the African context arguments that emphasise culture to the exclusion of other issues are problematic for a number of reasons. Culture in Africa varies widely among groups and tribes but also regions, changes over time and may hotly be contested within the same groups (Nyamu, 2000 cited in Bowman, 2003). Indeed, Armstrong (1998 cited in Bowman, 2003) suggests that culture is often an excuse for male violence rather than a cause of it. In her study of 25 males and 25 females' victims in the Shona-speaking region, Armstrong showed that cultural factors were often cited as the cause of domestic violence even though arguments about money and jealousy were identified as the primary catalyst. Bowman pointed out that 'arguments and jealousy also lead to domestic violence in the US but there, they are perceived

as issues of power and control or, as the result of the individual batterer's psychological condition', rather than being explained away as a cultural issue (Bowman, 2003 p.855).

Therefore, what is characterised as cultural causes of domestic violence in Africa would be interpreted differently in western countries such as the US.

I have previously argued that it is impossible to understand family violence without cultural understanding of the individuals involved (Fife & Schrager, 2012; Flores & Carey, 2000), however, cultural explanations in themselves are not enough. This is evident in developed countries where contemporary theories which focus on psycho-social factors and the promotion of gender equality through breaking the power and control that privileges men over women, has led to improved strategies and policy on domestic violence (Margi, 2008). Thus, in the following sections, I argue that Africa needs to focus on psychological factors as contributing factors in domestic violence alongside cultural factors.

2.3 Feminist Theories

Feminist theories focus on the patriarchal family structures in which men are expected to have power over women (Fife & Schrager, 2012). Feminist scholars have provided a philosophical foundation to understanding domestic violence based on challenging beliefs that men are ordained with power and control and in revealing the ways in which patriarchal systems support the use of male dominance to control women. In this regard feminist researchers argue that women are victims of male abusive control (patriarchal) and domestic violence reflects the unequal distribution of power between men and women in societies, families and relationships (Dobash & Dobash, 1992). Hence, in discussing feminist theory, the focus is on patriarchal systems, gender roles and inequalities as causes of domestic violence.

Patriarchy: Firstly, much feminist research in the area of wife abuse is consistent with a radical feminist position since it focuses primarily on patriarchy as the primary explanation (Bograd, 1983; 1988, Bowker, 1983 cited in Lenton, 1995). According to Dobash and Dobash (1979 cited in Lenton, 1995) violent men are more likely to adhere to an ideology of familial patriarchy. Power imbalances between genders at the societal level have also been conceptualised by feminist theorists as a causal agent in intimate partner violence (Bowen, 2011). Feminists argue that in societies where men control the range of resources through which women 's societal status is crafted (e.g., economic, education and political), institutions that endorse the subordination of women and legitimise male dominance will flourish (Dobash & Dobash, 1979 cited in Bowen, 2011); thus, violence is viewed as a patriarchal mechanism for female subordination. In support of such theories, it is evident in explicit feminist explanations frequent in the domestic violence literature in Africa, that women are marginalised and subordinated to male dominance (Bowman, 2003). Furthermore, other research in Africa has shown that husbands who acknowledge gender equality and relate positively with their wives' autonomy are at reduced risk for violent behaviours in marital relationships than other men (Yllo, 1993).

Gender roles and inequality: Secondly, according to gender role theory (O'Neil, 1981 cited in Bowen, 2011), individuals will behave in ways appropriate to their beliefs regarding what constitutes behaviour appropriate to their gender identification. As a result, as aggression is endorsed by male cultural norms (discussed in previous sections), it is argued thatindividuals who have a strong masculine gender identity will be more likely to engage in violent behaviours. For example, African men who hold conservative gender ideals concerning providing for one's family may be more likely to perpetrate violence if it is perceived that these norms are being violated (Bowen, 2011). Similarly, available literature in the African context shows that domestic violence victimisation and perpetration can result from a double standard

where the wife is seen as challenging the husband's authority and prerogatives by inquiring about his extra marital involvements (which can threaten the economic survival of the first wife and her children and is also a potential source of HIV/AIDS (Armstrong, 1992, cited in Bowman, 2003)). Hence women become victims as a consequence of questioning or attempting to challenge men's traditional rights and roles when their partners respond to the threat to their culturally prescribed position with violence (Armstrong, 1992 cited in Bowman, 2003). Furthermore, in the African context, feminist explanations also agree with the notion that unless the systematic inequality between men and women is addressed, the problem of domestic violence will persist (Tamale, 1993). In fact, in a Ugandan study, Tamale (1993) argued that pervasive inequality between men and women can be dealt with by advocating for women's independence and changing male attitudes. Gender inequality can be said to be rampant in the African context and it is difficult to avoid interpreting domestic violence in Africa in terms of pervasive gender inequality (Bowman, 2003). This is because almost every traditional African society is patriarchal, and the women's place within society is decidedly subordinate. These inequalities are further influenced by factors such as the uneven distribution of power between married couples, the impact of polygamy, the acceptance of male promiscuity, the power of extended families over married couples and the universal institution of bride price (Stewart, 1992 cited in Bowman, 2003). For example, a woman is not allowed to exit an abusive relationship unless her family of origin pays back the dowry, which in most cases is impossible to do due to poverty. Hence, such gender inequalities, entrenched within culture, have been blamed as responsible for domestic violence according to (Kenyan Constitution 1992 cited in Bowman, 2003). The institutionalisation of gender inequality remains common in Africa where women have no right to inherit from husbands, are not regarded as sharing ownership of marital property, are excluded from ownership of land and are almost without remedy upon divorce (Butegwa, 1994; Gopal & Salim, 1998; Tamale, 1993 cited in Bowman, 2003). Because gender

inequality is so widespread, domestic violence is often discussed by African authors simply in a brief section in articles on violence against women in general or about gender inequality in Africa (Tamale, 1993 cited in Bowman, 2003). This current study responds to the aforementioned gaps in knowledge.

Critics of feminist theory argue that violence is related to other factors besides gender and point out that feminists have failed to recognise female perpetrators in intimate relationships and in same sex relationships (Lawson, 2003). These criticisms have been partly considered in this study through recruiting Ugandan females and males both as perpetrators and victims and how they differ in attitudes to coercive behaviours, self-reported victimization, engaging coping strategies and their personality traits.

2.4 Sociological Theories of Domestic Violence

Sociological theories share a lot in common with cultural and feminist theories regarding issues of power and control. In sociological theories, emphasis is put on control (control theory) and inequitable access to resources as contributing factors in domestic violence.

Control theory proposes that domestic violence, including family conflicts, results from an individual desire to obtain but also maintain power and control within a relationship (Fife & Schrager, 2012). Mostly, the motivation underlying the abusive behaviour is the power and control the abuser exerts over the other person (Bostock et al., 2002; Fife & Schrager, 2012). Such power is exerted by powerful members (e.g., the husband) often using threats, force or violence to gain compliance from less powerful members, often wives or children (Goode, 1971 cited in Fife & Schrager, 2012). In this regard Bostock et al. (2002) argued that such acts aim to control the partner's life through using forms of intimidation such as coercion, isolation, economic abuse and denial of personal blame. Consequently, the victim begins to comply by modifying his/her behaviour, slowly giving up control in order to survive and avoid further

victimisation. The most harmful form of intimidation, according to control theory, is when the victim is in isolation, kept out of the public sphere without social contacts and unable to escape from victimisation as a result of an absence of social support (Bostock et al., 2002 cited in Fife & Schrager, 2012).

Hence, concepts within control theory are relevant to the African context where individuals' rights are compromised at the expense of family and its interests and a woman's status is viewed as a derivative one (Bowman, 2003). For example, in Nigeria, a woman's reproductive capacity is considered as ''owned'' by the husband's lineage after marriage and personal autonomy is not common; furthermore, individual rights and equality are considered foreign (Tola Olu, 1995 cited in Bowman, 2003). Control theory acknowledges that there are men who have a strong attachment to others (see attachment theory in 2.6) and as a result do not abuse their wives, as compared to men without such attachments (Sherman, 1992 cited in Fife & Schrager, 2012).

Resource theory suggests a link between wealth and violence (Goode, 1971 cited in Fife & Schrager, 2012). This theory indicates that men with a high income and social standing have access to a wide variety of resources used to control their wives' behaviour (in addition to violence), whereas men with limited resources may resort to physical force or violence more quickly (Bostock et al., 2002). According to this theory, men who have less perceived power are more likely to use violence as compared to women, who are more likely to report using verbal violence in intimate relationships (Sagrestano, Heavey & Christensen, 1999 cited in Bowen, 2011). The argument that men with limited resources use physical violence more often is applicable and relevant to studying violence in Uganda, a low income country where findings indicate (UDHS, 2011) that 56% of women aged 15-49 had experienced physical violence at least once within the 12 months prior to the survey. Since the survey noted that men too were victims (four in ten men), a slightly lower number compared to six in ten women aged 15-49

who had experienced emotional, physical or sexual violence, victimisation of both genders is explored in this thesis.

2.5 Attachment theory

The link between attachment theory and domestic violence focuses on early relationships, the implications of relationship formation and adult functioning as causes of violence (Margi, 2008). Bowlby (1969), who coined the term 'attachment theory', was a psycho-analyst (like Freud) and believed that mental health and behavioural problems could be attributed to early childhood attachments. Bowlby posits that attachment is a concept of interpersonal relationships that emphasise evolutionary significance in intimate relationships especially those in early childhood experiences. Bowlby (1969) believed that human beings are born with an innate need for close attachment to significant others for them to be able to survive. It is argued that the behavioural system is made up of behaviours that provoke and nurture care from primary caregivers and when satisfaction of the attachment needs are met, the individual forms a secure attachment to the caregiver (Kesner et al., 1997 p.212). Hence, when the individual is stressed, the attachment behavioural system will motivate the individual to seek support and protection from the attachment figure. It is the internal working model, based on the individual's early history of attachment relationships, which forms a foundation for future relationships (Bowlby, 1969). For example, the internal model motivates the individual's behaviours in relationships. Thus, the individual with an insecure model (where attachment needs were not met) will expect future attachment figures and/or partners not to meet these needs, whereas those who have a history of secure relationships anticipate that attachment figures or partners will meet their needs (Bowlby, 1969). However, whether a partner becomes an attachment figure is debatable. Indeed, Ainsworth (1989) urges that, to some people in adulthood, the attachment figure is not replaced by an intimate partner but by others. Nevertheless, individuals whose attachment needs were not met in early childhood may still be

looking for security, protection and support from their intimate relationships. Adults with unresolved/disorganized/disoriented attachment classification may have failed to develop the cognitive mechanisms that form the internal working models for regulating emotions and self-control. Egeland (2004) argues that these inner working models are carried forward from infancy throughout the life course and influence relationships in adulthood. Adults who had negative attachment experiences in childhood may find that stressful situations reactivate their early insecurities. Furthermore, adults that have failed to acquire the appropriate cognitive regulatory skills derived from positive early attachments are more likely to respond to excessive stress in relationships with violence (MacEwen & Barling, 1988; Neidig et al, 1986 cited in Cano and Vivian, 2000). These scenarios and experiences are common among individuals who find themselves in situations where they are unable to successfully cope, causing frustrations which may result in violent behaviours (Dollard et al, 1939 cited in Kesner et al, 1997, p.214). The relevancy of attachment theory to this current study is that displacement and disruption common to situations of war have a major impact on attachment behaviours and experiences. Emotional dysregulation can be activated by any condition such as separation, insecurity and fear that seems to threaten the achievement of proximity to attachment figures. In post-conflict Uganda, the legacy of a civil war that ceased over a decade ago continues to impact people's psychological states and abilities to cope with stress. The separation of families, fear and insecurity of war, large scale displacement and the breakdown of structures that promote safety and wellbeing are major factors in the high incidence of domestic violence. The impact of the war in northern Uganda on the development of positive attachment behaviours can perhaps best be understood by the example of the abduction of children, forcefully recruited as child-soldiers and in the case of girls were turned into the wives of soldiers, subject to sexual violence and often became young mothers as a consequence (Ochen, 2012). The loss of proximity to safe attachment figures for child soldiers and the difficulties

young mothers have in developing positive attachment parenting styles with children born in such circumstances is discussed by Ochen (2012). These children are now adults and many will be in relationships where the psychological scars of war resurface to influence emotional regulation and coping strategies. Though I do not know how many of the participants in the current study were impacted by the war, in northern Uganda, where the study was located, the war affected the social, personal and public life of the whole of society and it is reasonable to assume therefore that these experiences I have described may have affected a large number of people. Hence, the effects of attachment bonds for people living in a society impacted by war is an important issue and further justifies the need for an investigation of psychological factors, especially in relation to attitudes to coercive behaviours and domestic violence.

2.6 Gender paradigm vs Gender symmetry

Domestic violence or intimate partner violence is often framed as a ‘‘women’s issue’’ or ‘‘violence against women’’, generating a perception of males who are involved in violent relationships only as ‘‘perpetrators’’ (Dutton & White, 2013). Consequently, due to this set of beliefs (often called the gender paradigm), male victims are often met with disbelief or suspicion when they attempt to seek help or gain protection from a female partner. In this regard, Dutton and White (2013) argued that often, because shelters are targeted exclusively at female victims, males find it difficult to access services specific to their needs. Similarly, Kim’s (1999) study in South Africa showed that domestic violence to men was not addressed because of a lack of human resources, an absence of shelters and a lack of awareness. Yet, awareness could deal with stereotypes that attach violence to one gender. For example, a stereotype that men are the only perpetrators is common not only among uninformed people, but also academics who also adhere to a ‘‘gender paradigm’’ evident in the works of (Dekeseredy 2011; Dobash 1998; Dragiewicz 2008; Dutton & White, 2013). This adherence to a dominant gender paradigm creates a research gap in the academic field, and in Africa, men are rarely included

in studies as victims of violence (gender symmetry). The gender paradigm is attributed to a Marxist-Feminist perspective developed by scholars such as Catherine Mackinnon (1989) who posits that sexuality is to feminism what work is to Marxism (sic), hence domestic violence, in which a man hits a wife, is defined as ‘‘violence against women’’ (MacKinnon, 1989 cited in Dutton & White, 2013 p.6). Indeed, it has been argued by Lie, Schilit, Bush, Montague, & Reyes, (1991 cited in Dutton & White, 2013) that there is no equivalent term for when a woman hits a man, or for when a woman hits a woman. In the African context however, where polygamy is widely practised, women do hit other women (UDHS, 2011) and recently females have been prosecuted for perpetrating domestic violence to male victims (Hamburger, 2008). In circumstances like these, such actions are said to be psychologically driven (Dutton and White, 2013) and others have argued that women act violently in self-defence (Sanders, 2002). Incontestably, it is now evident that women do commit domestic violence, both to their male partners and also to other women in the household (Dutton & White, 2013 p.6).

Gender symmetry suggests that women may perpetrate domestic violence at roughly the same rates as men (Dutton & White, 2013). This notion is an original term coined by Straus and Gelles (1975 cited in Dutton & White, 2013) in their findings from a survey sample of 2,146 intact families in USA. The findings were that 11.6% of men and 12% of women had experienced some kind of domestic violence in the previous twelve months, while 4.6% of men and 3.8% women had experienced severe domestic violence (Gelles, 1988 cited in Dutton & White, 2013). Clearly, these findings are not generalizable to an African context since they fail to consider the cultural and institutional subjugation of women and patriarchal dominance common in traditional African societies and which would most likely lead to different results. Nevertheless, they remind us of the importance of critically engaging with debates and controversies based on gender and roles and how these impact on victimisation, issues that are explored in this thesis. The inclusion of male victims in this study is further justified by research

evidence that men highly exhibit negative psychological symptoms in addition to possible physical injury (Archer, 2000 cited in Dutton & White, 2013). However, on average, men are less likely to sustain injury compared to women (*see psychological characteristics discussed in 2.8.1 & 2.8.2*).

One multi-site study of 3,461 male victims showed that domestic violence victimisation was associated with post-traumatic stress symptoms (Hines, 2007). A similar study among men seeking help for domestic violence victimisation who had contacted a Hampshire police hotline, the only one of its kind in North America, which provided an overview of male victims, showed that 20% of the men had experienced extreme violence (e.g., choking, using a knife, being scalded with water, targeting of their genitals during attacks) and that 95% of female perpetrators used controlling acts consistent with Intimate Terrorism e.g., death threats, display of weapons and calling police (Hines and Douglas, 2010). Furthermore, 64% of those men who sought help from local domestic violence programmes had been described as the ‘‘real batterers’’. This is a clear indicator that though women are victims, men too are often victims of domestic violence (Dutton and White, 2013), hence the importance of incorporating male victims in this study.

2.7 Dyadic and Individual Psychological theories

Psychological perspectives-theories have traditionally focused on personal characteristics ‘*individual factors*’ that can cause violent behaviours (Browne & Hebert, 1997 p.27). However, more recently, psychological perspectives have proposed that it is the interaction of factors that are important ‘*dyadic –interpersonal factors*’ O'Leary, 1994 cited in Browne & Hebert, 1997). The individually focused theories concentrate on inherent personality characteristics, often of a psychological nature e.g. an individual’s level of hostility, aggressiveness, temperament and anger expression (Buss & Durkee, 1957; Edmunds & Kendrick, 1980; Spielberger et al; 1983

cited in Browne & Hebert, 1997) and the study of biological variables which underpin the tendency towards violence (Archer, 1988; Coccaro, 1995 cited Browne & Hebert, 1997).

2.7.1 Individual Psychological theories

The individual psychological theories include social learning, psychobiological, psychodynamic and special victim perspectives. For this thesis, social learning theory and special victim perspectives are reviewed because of their link to the aims of this study. Furthermore, social learning perspective provides an alternative explanation for (i) an individual's psychobiological characteristics (connection between testosterone hormone levels and male violence and pathological conditions (Potter-Efron and Potter-Efron, 1990; Pernanen, 1991 cited in Browne & Hebert, 1997) and, (ii) psychodynamic determinism (based on the theories of Freud 1940-1949; Lorenz 1996 cited in Browne & Hebert, 1997 p.28) which focuses on the abnormal characteristics of the individual abuser, emphasising the internal psychological conflicts and dysfunctional characteristics of certain abusing adults which are often attributed to adverse socialisation experiences that produce a 'psychopathic' character with a predisposition to behave violently). Hence, for individual psychological theories, this thesis reviews social learning theory next.

Social Learning Theories: Based on behavioural theories, this approach provides a less rigid understanding of human aggression and emphasizes observable changes seen in a person's behaviour as a result of learning (Browne & Hebert, 1997). For instance, according to Bandura (1977 cited in Margi, 2008) domestic violence is learned during childhood. Similarly, previous research (Schultz, 1960 cited Browne & Hebert, 1997) claimed that the main source of violence in a marital context is unhappy childhood experiences and deviant marital relationships. However, Gayford 1975 cited in Browne & Hebert, 1997 later carried out research in conjunction with Chiswick Women's Aid, attempting to show the learned character of domestic

violence within a person's family of origin. Over the years, social learning theorists have upheld that human behaviours are not innate but learned and acquired (Miller & Doddard, 1941 cited in Anderson & Kras, 2007). The process of learning is based on the notion that aggressive responses to situations, when positively reinforced, are more likely to be repeated in future. Equally, aggressive or violent behaviours that are followed by undesired outcome (punished) are less likely to be repeated. It was from this perspective that Albert Bandura (1973-1977 cited in Browne & Hebert, 1997) developed the concept of social learning theory. This theoretical approach began to bridge the gap between behaviourists and psychodynamic ideas. For example, without denying the influence of the environment, Bandura (op.cit) recognised the importance of internal processes such as thoughts and feelings. Greater weight was given to cognitive processes as individuals in childhood and adulthood were seen to learn by observing and imitating others.

Indeed, social learning theory is the most influential theory in explaining vicarious learning and modelling through which individuals learn behaviour without necessarily experiencing the behaviour (Burger, 2000). Bandura's social learning theory posits three regulatory systems that control behaviour (Anderson & Kras, 2007; Bandura, 1973). Firstly, the antecedent inducements greatly influence the time and response of behaviour. Secondly, response feedback also serves an important function where reinforcements mean behaviour is likely to re-occur. Thirdly, the role of cognitive functioning, where some people may easily be angered by the sight or thought of individuals with whom they have had hostile encounters. This memory of acting aggressively or violently is acquired through a learning process. In fact, Bandura (1979) argued that such behaviours can be predicted and controlled by studying the social context of performers and cues for such behaviours. This is because Bandura believed that behaviours are learned ''inadvertently'' or on ''purpose' 'through experiences and also through observation; therefore, this learning process is essential in understanding the process

by which individuals engage in aggression (Bandura, 1973, p.44). More so, social learning theory recognises how modelling influences learning aggressive behaviours largely through repetition and symbolic reinforcement; in this case modelling was specific through family examples (Bandura, 1973; Siegel, 2000; Tedeschi & Felson, 1994). Therefore, according to social learning theory, people learn violent behaviour from observing aggressive role models. In support of this argument, Roy (cited in Browne & Hebert, 1997) has stated that four out of five abusive men (n=4000) were reported by their partners as observing their mothers as victims and/or were a victim of child abuse themselves. This was a comparison with only one third of the abused women, but other study findings have supported this observation (Buchanan, 1996 cited in Browne & Hebert, 1997). Indeed, it is suggested that children learn aversive behaviour as a general style for controlling their social and physical environments and that this style continues in adulthood (Gully & Dengenrink, 1983; Browne & Saqi, 1987 cited Browne & Hebert, 1997).

According to Benda and Corwyn's (2002) study of delinquents, the effects of prior abuse significantly related to delinquency among boys aged 13-18 years old. However, prior abuse predicted violence more among older youth (16-18), due to additional peer pressure, than among younger adolescents, who were more influenced by family interactions. Consequently, children are subjected to aggression by parents, to gain a desired effect of good discipline, which simply makes children use aggression in order to gain compliance, which later in life is seen as violence or aggression (Bandura, 1973). This is further supported by Tedeschi and Felson (1994) who promote the argument that it is the anticipated outcome, not the reaction of the victim that leads to aggression. In this case violence is reinforced by the compliance of the individual or submission of the person being abused, in most cases a wife or other intimate partner. This is reinforced by Stith and Farley (1989) who predicted that observation of marital

violence in family settings by youths would be likely to increase their engagement in marital violence.

This exposure and learning often takes place within an environment in which an individual is directly or indirectly exposed to violent behaviours such as pushing, shoving, kicking, slapping, choking, scratching, grabbing, twisting, throwing something at someone and/or threatening using a gun or knife on someone (Williams, 1989, p.98 cited in Anderson & Kras, 2007). Therefore, vicarious learning and modelling have largely been linked to violent behaviours, where witnessing violence provides the individual with a limited understanding of ways to resolve stressful events (Bandura, 1973). These individuals from violent families will have the capacity to model violence, rehearse abuse as a perpetrator or accept abuse as a victim (Hines & Saudino, 2002, p.213). Furthermore, through witnessing abuse the cycle of violence continues through modelling and prior abuse makes the individual accept violence and aggression as means of resolving conflict (Tontodonato and Crew, 1992 p.2 cited in Anderson & Kras, 2007). A WHO, 2009 report on changing cultural and social norms that support violence, shows that cultural acceptance of violence, either as a normal method of resolving conflict or as a usual part of rearing a child, is a risk factor for all types of interpersonal violence. Yet till now, in Uganda, beating a wife is acceptable and in South Africa physical violence is an acceptable way to resolve conflicts within relationships (Jewkes et al, 2002).

The Special Victim Perspective: In direct contrast with the viewpoints considered so far are suggestions that the victims may be instrumental in some way in eliciting attachment or neglect (Browne & Hebert, 1997 p.30). For example, Browne & Hebert (1997) review the complex reasons why a child may not fulfil a parents' expectation or demands. The dependent child may in some way be regarded as special; for example studies have found prematurity, illness, low birth weight, and handicap to be associated with child abuse (Elmer and Gregg, 1967; Lynch and Roberts, 1977; Browne & Hebert, 1997). With respect to wife abuse, Browne & Hebert

(1997) distinguished various types of victim of domestic violence, offering names and descriptions which imply that the cause of behaviour lies with the victim. Others, for example, Walker & Browne (1985 cited in Browne & Hebert, 1997) have argued that such consistent response patterns are situationally determined. A link between the social learning theory and special victim perspectives have been suggested by Lewis (1987) who claims that some women learn to accept violent behaviour towards themselves as a result of childhood experiences. In Africa for example, according to a study carried out on women's perception of partner violence in a rural Igbo area of Nigeria, reporting abuse is considered disrespectful (Ilika, 2005). This could imply that victims may suffer hidden victimisation. Furthermore, there are communities in Africa that still adhere to harmful traditional and cultural beliefs such as female genital mutilation (FGM) that make them vulnerable to other forms of abuse too (Amusan & Asekun-Olarinmaye, 2006).

Some researchers have suggested that characteristics of victims may increase the likelihood of maltreatment (Wilson & James, 2007, p.55). For instance, it has been argued that physical attractiveness may lead to abuse-domestic violence. Similarly, Lyn (2004) points out that groups or individuals who are known to be especially vulnerable to ongoing abuse may not be able to access outside and professional help and therefore are at higher risk of further abuse. Similar to Lyn (2004), both female and male victims in the African setting face various challenges including lack of professional help in South Africa (Kim, 1999). Equally, in Uganda, UDHS (2011) reported minimal coping strategies among female and male victims; this among other factors may increase chance of further victimisation. Hence, this study examines domestic violence victimisation reported by female and male victims and also, perpetrators.

2.7.2. Dyadic psychological theories

Interaction-focused models (Dyadic–psychological theories): Owing to past experiences, some abusing couples tend to establish aggressive relationships because they are familiar and therefore comfortable, with violence as an expression of intimate concern and attachment. Therefore, some researchers have advocated a more interactive approach that includes the social setting, rather than seeking to isolate the person or situation (Browne & Hebert, 1997). This entails a move from the individual psychological level to a study of social interaction between family members. In Africa, for example a study on community norms, cultural attitudes, beliefs and factors influencing violence against women shows that, it is commonly believed that a man has a right to ‘‘correct ‘’ or discipline female behaviour (Adegoke & Oladeija, 2008). Another study titled ‘‘If they rape me, I cannot blame them’’ shows that it is believed in South Africa that ‘‘sexual activity’’ is a maker of masculinity and sexual violence is an acceptable way of putting women in their place or punishing them (Jewkes et al, 2005). Consequently, engaging victims and perpetrators, males and females widens the scope of gaining depth and gender-balanced data on coercive behaviours and domestic violence.

The interpersonal interactive perspective: Toch 1969 cited in Browne & Hebert, 1997 in his study entitled violent men looked not only at the characteristics of men but also at victims. Toch concluded that aggressive behaviour was associated with ‘Machismo’ and the maintenance of a particular personal identity in relation to others. However, Kaplan 1984 cited in Browne & Hebert, 1997 argue that even aggressive individuals, inconsistency is found across situations for measures of aggression taken at one particular time. Hence the need for studying domestic violence by gender and role to establish differences-similarities in these individuals.

The person–environment interactive perspective: This perspective facilitates a situational analysis of the context in which the violence occurs and the functional analysis of the sequence

of events that precede the violent incident (Hollin, 1993 cited in Browne & Hebert, 1997). There are three basic criteria for understanding violent behaviour in terms of a person-environment interaction: The situation in which violence occurs; the person in relation to individual thoughts feelings and actions; and the impact of the violent behaviour on the environment. For example, environmental stress situations which are usually long term such as poverty, influence domestic violence first because abusers assess their personal situations differently from non-abusers; secondly, frustrations which can lead to violence arise from the discrepancy between one's expectations and one's lived reality. Thirdly, the response to such situations is more likely to be anger and emotional distress rather than problem solving strategies for change (Hollin, 1993 cited in Browne & Hebert, 1997). These causal links result in the individual being more easily provoked to take violent action. However, Frude (1989) challenged the assumption that abusers differ from non-abusers and suggested that they might more usefully be considered as occupying different points on a continuum. More, important to this current study is the sample's environment in Uganda, a country which is experiencing rapid urbanisation estimated at 5.5% growth rate and where Kampala has remained a prime city since 1969, absorbing 4.9% of the national population (UBOS, 2002). This expansion and growth has been associated with a lack of social services and environmental problems that are putting pressure on existing infrastructure while the poor settlements are beset with environmental burdens that are deteriorating the well-being of dwellers in the city (Nyakaana, et al 2014). Important for this study is how these environmental stressors and poverty (low socio-economic status) outweigh of supplement cultural factors to provoke violence? How do people cope with these general day to-day challenges?

Cognitive Behavioural Approaches: These approaches to the study of violent and/or aggressive behaviours go quite a long way back. For example, Dollard et al., (1939) were the early proponents of the frustration-aggression hypothesis. They focused on attention on role of

frustration in its various forms as an intervening variable (along with perception, appraisal and other cognitive processes) in manifestation, inhibition and displacement of aggression. Koneoni 1975 (cited in Browne & Hebert, 1997) argues that certain events function as provocation, particularly if a person is prone to provocation because of his or her dispositional state (e.g. being hungry, tired or tense). Huesmann & Eron, (1986) have developed a social cognitive theory in which they describe violence in the home or as portrayed in the media as being learned as a cognitive script to be used in later social situations. This aggressive script is learned as a way to behave, and its use will depend on the situations at the time of recall and the situation at the time the script is encoded in memory. Thus, certain situations in a home may cue and trigger aggressive behaviours or violent responses that relate to domestic violence witnessed or experienced as a child; especially if a person is already frustrated or angry (Browne & Hebert, 1997 p.35).

Summary and Criticism of Psychological theories: Overall, psychological explanations have moved from accounting for domestic violence purely in terms of individual psychopathology towards perspectives that attempt to integrate characteristics of abusing parents, their children and situations in which they live (Browne & Hebert, 1997). However, to date there has been little agreement amongst theorists on the role of individual psychological factors as a cause. Whereas psychological theories see the causes of domestic violence to be within the person and this is seen to be the focus of change, this argument has been highly contested by feminist theorists (Dobash & Dobash, 1979 cited in Margi, 2008). From a psychological perspective, the person is understood in terms of individual choices, interests, personal characteristics and pathologies. In agreement with this claim are psychopathology theories that argue that men who abuse wives could have a mental illness and need medication (Chornesky, 2000). Similarly, psychological theories focus on various forms of psychological disorders, characteristics within the perpetrator including low self-esteem, personality problems and anti-

social behaviour amongst others (Chornesky, 2000; Fonagy, 1999). Furthermore, it is argued that victims of domestic violence manifest psychological deficits such as learned helplessness and identification with the aggressor as reasons why victims remain in abusive and violent relationships (Fonagy, 1999). The implication of this theory is that the victims are blamed for personal maladjustment rather than the relationship dynamics or the perpetrator. Feminist theorists have heavily criticised both psychopathology and psychological theories that excuse batterers and do not take into account the patriarchal structures within societies that privilege men over women (Dobash and Dobash, 1979 cited in Margi, 2008). However, too little attention has been paid to psychological factors as a cause of domestic violence in Africa and little is known about the psychological characteristics of victims/perpetrators. Therefore, in the next section, both mental and psychological characteristics of victims and perpetrators of both genders are summarised.

2.8.1 Psychological characteristics of perpetrators:

Canter (1994 cited in Canter & Youngs, 2012) argues that offender-perpetrators' empathy deficits lead them to assign 'vehicle, object or person' roles to their victims within their personal narratives. Canter argues that, firstly, an offender's lack of empathy often makes him/her control the victim as if s/he is a vehicle through which exploitation and expression of anger can be channelled (sees victim as vehicle); secondly, based on an offender's empathy deficits s/he uses coercive control and generally undervalues the victim (sees victim as a person) and thirdly, an offender's empathy deficits makes him/her possessive and prone to the use of subjugation as form of control based on the objectification of the victim (sees victim as object). Hence, from Canter's analysis, crime is generally committed against the victim as a result of the offender-perpetrator's lack of empathy (psychological characteristic). However, in relation to domestic violence, psychological explanations have been described as misguided and serve only to propagate the myth that domestic violence is a function of underlying

psychopathology or addiction, therefore is not the responsibility of individual men (Dobash and Dobash, 1979 cited in Bowen, 2011). Nevertheless, insights into psychological factors may have important clinical implications if there is a therapeutic aim of rehabilitating perpetrators. Although the purpose of this study is not rehabilitation, the relevance and implication of the African context is to justify the role and influence of psychological characteristics/factors in domestic violence and challenge claims that psychological interventions are not relevant in Uganda (Dutton, 2011). Although little is known about female batterers, a study by Schroffer (2004) observed 12 female perpetrators from a court-mandated 52-week group treatment programme who were treated concurrently with two groups of men each with 10 people. The following characteristics were observed in a comparison of male and female perpetrators. Firstly, there was 'compulsive and premature disclosure' by more than half of the participants in the women's group versus `minimal or deferred disclosure` in the men's group. Secondly, ambivalence between the 'perception of self as perpetrator and/or the perception of self as victim' occurred in the women's group versus perception as *either* victim or perpetrator in the men's group and devaluation of self in the women's group versus devaluation of the partner in the men's group. Thirdly, the perceptions and attitudes of the younger, poorer, less well-educated participants often conflicted with those of their more affluent counterparts. This shows that more females than male perpetrators repeatedly disclosed their violent behaviours and were uncertain of whether to perceive themselves as victims compared to men. Similarly, in a related study, Houry (2008) compared 772 men and women within each IPV status (victims, perpetrators or both) in relation to scores of women's experience with battering (WEB). The women's experience with battering is gender neutral about the abuse of power and control and fear in intimate relationships (Houry, 2008). Findings show that women 'disclosed higher levels of battering despite their status' as (victim or both victim & perpetrator). Victims were five times more likely than their male counterparts to disclose high rates of battering and

generally, symptoms of PTSD and IPV victimisation were associated with WEB scores. Hence, females reported victimisation more often than males and also females displayed psychological symptoms more often than males. Generally, criminal populations tend to be characterised by high levels of instability (e.g., lack of stable employment, prior criminal convictions, prior convictions and substance misuse) and are more likely to have other criminal behaviours not just those relating to domestic violence (Klein & Tobin, 2008 cited in Bowen, 2011). Furthermore, most perpetrators often display antisocial behaviours, identified within different domestic violence typologies along with other co-morbid personality disorders (Bowen, 2011). For example, such perpetrators are hypothesized to be characterised by negative attitudes towards women, impulsivity, pro-offending attitudes, dismissive attachment style and low empathy (Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994 cited in Bowen, 2011) and fall into three categories. First, GVA (Generally Anti-social) batterers were more likely to have witnessed inter-parental violence or experienced direct victimisation as a child, to use substances and to engage in most serious IPV perpetration as part of the repertoire of violent behaviours outside of the family context. Second, in contrast, (BD) Borderline/Dysphoric individuals display high levels of emotional dysregulation typical of individuals with borderline personality/disorder (e.g., high levels of explosive anger, self-harming, fear of rejection, jealousy) but generally the BD group were predicted to engage in less IPV outside the family. Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart (1994 cited in Bowen, 2011) argued that BD individuals expressed extreme dependence on and/or fear of losing their intimate partner but were hypothesized to have experienced high parental hostility and rejection during childhood. However, to a lesser extent than the GVA, the BD group exhibited impulsive traits, pro-violence attitudes and hostile attitudes towards women. Third, the (FO) Family Only perpetrator group was seen and expected to have the fewest risk factors for IPV but more importantly to be the least likely of the three groups to engage in violence outside intimate relationships (Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994 cited in

Bowen, 2011). It was concluded that, unlike BD and GVA groups, FO perpetrators are expected to be characterised by little or no psychopathology and may use violence as a result of marital conflict, a combination of stress factors (general or relationship specific) and risk factors (e.g., lack of interpersonal /communication skills, witnessing inter-parental violence during childhood). Further studies have been conducted to provide some empirical evidence to support the basic premise of this typology (Holtzworth-Munroe, Meehan, Herron et al., 2000 cited in Bowen, 2011), Studies have replicated either two typologies (Chase, O'Leary & Heyman, 2001; Tweed & Dutton, 1998 cited Bowen, 2011) or three typologies (Bowen, 2011; Hamberger, Lohr, Bonge et al, 1996, Longhnrichsen-Rohling, Huss & Ramsay, 2000) and together these studies support the notion of the heterogeneous nature of IPV perpetrator samples and identify clinically meaningful differences between these groups that may have implications for their response to intervention. The implication of this literature review for the Ugandan context is not for intervention purposes but rather to establish whether individual psychological characteristics (personality traits, attitudes to coercive behaviours) relate to domestic violence besides socio-cultural factors emphasised by feminist theorists. It is anticipated that this study findings will open up the psychological approach to addressing domestic violence in Uganda and may lead to new types of interventions.

2.8.2 Psychological characteristics of victims:

After determining that females are the most affected by domestic violence, which is mostly perpetrated by men, it is important to understand what is known about female and male psychological characteristics. Female victims of domestic violence are widely researched but mainly from feminist rather than psychological perspectives (Dobash & Dobash, 1979 cited in Margi, 2008), thus there is wide literature on the consequences of violence but scant information on the psychological characteristics of victims. Generally, female victims report a broad constellation of short term and long term 'injuries', which include physical, mental and

psychological injuries, chronic pain and, in the most serious scenarios, death (Campbell, 2002; Coker, Smith, Bethea, et al., 2000; Stewart & Robinson, 1998 cited in Bowen, 2011). On the other hand, mental health and psychological consequences have been identified among victims, including PTSD, personality disorders characterised by borderline traits and dissociation, anxiety, self–harm and low self-esteem (Dutton, Kaltman, Goodman et al., 2005; Sansone, Reddington, Sky et al., 2007; Sockett & Saunders, 1999; Stewart & Robinson, 1998 cited in Bowen, 2011). Indeed, Baldry (2003), Follingstand, Routledge, Beger et al. (1990), Lawrence, Yoon, Langer & Ro (2009 cited in Bowen (2011) state that psychological rather than physical domestic violence is associated with negative psychological outcomes for victims. Similarly, research on the role of domestic violence as a risk factor of mental health problems among women indicated that women are at between 3 and 6 times increased risk of developing a range of psychological problems. Weighted mean-odds ratios for depression is reported to be 3.8, suicidality 3.56, PTSD 3.74, for alcohol abuse /dependence 5.56 and drug abuse/dependence 5.62 (Golding, 1999 cited in Bowe, 2011). However, such problems reflect a complex interaction between the nature, duration and severity of victimisation, a woman's ability to cope with her experience and the extent of the support available to her (Taft, Resick, Panuzio et al., 2007). Previous research in this field has concentrated mainly on female characteristics and little is known about male victims. Men are not fully represented in domestic violence victimisation research samples (Dutton and White, 2013). Consequently, many of the psychological characteristics known about men are offending characteristics, discussed in 2.7.1 above. However, in recent years there has been considerable interest in male victims (Dutton & White, 2013; Dobash and Dobash, 1979; Margi, 2008). In a survey conducted in the US by Murray Straus, Richard Gelles and Suzzane Steinmetz (1979 cited in Margi, 2008); a conflict tactics scale is used to establish the range of violence in homes among couples living together. The survey findings show that men are 'hidden victims' who fear to come out and disclose

their problem and this admission fits with what Steinmetz's earlier study referred to as ''battered husbands''. In fact, Steinmetz's (1977-1978 cited in Margi, 2008) study concluded that both men and women may both be victims of domestic violence and theorised this as ''mutual combat''. Indeed, when Murray et al. qualified their previous study findings in their subsequent studies (including their book titled *Behind Closed Doors: Domestic violence in American Families*) they agreed that men are often victims. It was concluded that the 'shame' and 'stigma' men experience makes it difficult to disclose abuse and consequently battered husbands' shelters and men-focused programmes are not successful. It would thus be of interest to gain in-depth knowledge for both males and females with regard to psychological characteristics, with the hope of making male victims visible in Uganda and also making a contribution to new psychological perspectives in researching domestic violence in Uganda and the African continent in general.

Conclusion: There is a great deal of research and available theories to explain domestic violence but studies on male victims (gender symmetry) and the role of psychological explanations in domestic violence remain scant in Africa. However, what is undisputable is the fact that domestic violence is a major public concern, often excused as culturally-determined, yet committed against women through power and control and gender inequalities at societal level and within families. In contrast, more recently literature has emerged that offers evidence that females are perpetrators too and that men are also victims (Dutton & White, 2013). This challenges the notion that domestic violence in Uganda is a culturally sanctioned practice meted out only to women. Though feminists have led the way in tackling domestic violence (both at the theoretical and activist level), many feminist theorists dispute the role of psychological factors in domestic violence. However, the dominance of cultural theories and the absence of psychological explanations in most African literature on domestic violence has

not served victims or batterers well in Uganda and there is need for a fresh approach. Hence, the rationale for this study is discussed next.

2.9 Justification for this study (Rationale)

This section provides the rationale for the study and delineates and links all the variables. The study examines gender and role (victims and perpetrators) in relation to attitudes to coercion, self-reported domestic violence victimisation, coping strategies and personality. Through evaluation of literature/theories, gaps are identified and broader research questions and hypotheses stated. Throughout this section and the entire thesis two terms emerge quite often. Firstly, gender role, which refers to socially ascribed characteristics and expectations; attitudes, behaviours, beliefs and values associated with being male (masculine) or female (feminine) in a particular culture (Newman, 2002). Secondly, the role in domestic violence as victim or perpetrator (Anderson, 2002). Both gender and role are treated as independent variables that impact on the following dependent variables that are reviewed and later measured:

Firstly, attitudes to coercive behaviours: An attitude is an overall evaluation of an object that is based on cognitive, affective and behavioural information (e.g., an individual possesses a positive, negative or neutral attitude) (Maio & Haddock, 2010, p.4). Dutton & Goodman (2005) define coercion as a dynamic process in which a perpetrator makes a demand and threatens a negative consequence for non-compliance. It is upheld that coercive behaviour follows a coercive attitude although some people may not necessarily act in accordance with their attitudes (Miles, Wolfgang & Klaus, 2012). For an attitude to influence an individual's behaviours depends on the strength, positivity or negativity about something or the concept in question, that the person holds (Kraus, 1995). In this thesis, attitudes to coercion are reviewed and examined in relation to gender and role in domestic violence. The reasons for this are that coercion is central to understanding domestic violence since often a woman is subjected to

forceful physical and psychological behaviour by a man in order to coerce her to do something he wants her to do without any concern for her rights (Walker, 1979 cited in Kuennen, 2007). Indeed, coercion in domestic violence involves threats, use of force and intimidation aimed at creating compliance through fear (Colvin, 2000). Coercion can either be interpersonal (involves physical force, actual or threatened removal of social support that provides the individual with both emotional and material needs) or impersonal, which arises from structural arrangements and circumstances beyond the individual's control, such as social and economic pressures caused by circumstances such as unemployment (Colvin, 2000). This thesis reviews aspects of both impersonal and interpersonal coercion but the focus is narrowed to interpersonal coercion between men and women. One theory of coercion in relation to gender is the evolution theory of coercion, which attributes proximate causes of behaviour to the influence of genes, personality, physiology and environmental stimuli as they pertain to males and females (Thornhill & Palmer, 2000). In contrast to evolution theory, social information processing (SIP) theory suggests that cognitive and social skills are responsible for coercive behaviours (Crick & Dodge, 1994 cited in Jennifer & Jennifer, 2009). Theorists in this camp claim that individual cognitive and social skills influence attitudes to coercive behaviours irrespective of gender. Consequently, the person's cognitive and social evaluation of a situation determines whether he or she acts coercively. For example, Muir (2002) identified five attitudes to coercive behaviours and domestic violence that are not gender specific: men's right to control (it is alright for a man to be violent and abusive to keep 'his woman' in her place); women lie/exaggerate (women tend to make too much of coercive behaviour); women's behaviour is used to justify (dressing provocatively to gain attention from men as a way of asking for trouble); no big deal (men's sexual behaviour as natural and not something women should get upset about) and private matter (regards conflict or violence as no one else's business). Muir's (2002) attitudes to the coercive behaviour dimensions of domestic violence are similar to

behaviours reflected in Uganda's patriarchal society and cover most of the domains relevant to this study. First, in Africa, despite acts of coercion that include violence or threats of violence being identified as a human rights violation (United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1984) which led to more than 40 countries adopting specific legislation to address domestic violence UNICEF (2000), there are still some countries treating it as part of their culture (CDC Report, 2003). Violent behaviours are not uniformly perceived as wrong (Frye & Wilt, 2001; Waltermaurer, 2007). For example, Kim and Motsei (2002), stated that in South Africa, reports to the police or judicial system were not taken seriously because domestic violence was considered a private matter. Drawing on earlier research from Ghana, Kisekka (1981) reported that in 69% of cases examined, wife beating was believed to be a private matter. Perceptions of coercive and violent behaviours as a private matter or beliefs that women exaggerate coercion makes women more vulnerable to further victimisation or being victimised twice; once by their abuser and again by professional staff when they seek help (Langford, 1996; Tilden, 1989). This is not to say that coercive behaviours are exclusively aimed at women, and clearly men are affected too, however, Martin et al., (2006) argue that in patriarchal societies, attitudes to coercive behaviours tend to affect females more than males.

Second, in Uganda, coercion and violence come from inequalities and conceptions of masculinity that affirm ideas of natural male superiority that confer male authority over women (Obbo, 1990; Wyrod, 2007). These inequalities result in day-to-day arguments and fights between couples, leading to domestic violence. Clarke (1997) and UNESCO et al., (2009) argued that it is only when males and females learn how to relate to each other as friends, equals and with respect, that gender inequalities and violence could be reduced. Further, challenging the power imbalance that exists between males and females could reduce sexual domination (Lakin, 1994) which is a particular problem in Uganda, a society in which sexual violence has been used as a weapon of war and where sexual domination is a feature of the HIV-AIDS

epidemic. It is therefore necessary for this study to first establish gender and role differences or similarities in attitudes to coercive behaviours and then to investigate gender-based differences in self-reporting of victimisation and coping strategies. The inclusion of females not only as victims, but also perpetrators who can act coercively and violently is one of this study's contribution to knowledge. If, as is hypothesised, domestic violence is not only cultural *and* is not only a consequence of gender inequalities, but is *also* related to the psychological characteristics of victims and perpetrators, then a study of men and women as *both* victims and perpetrators women is crucial. This is particularly important for Uganda, where in polygamous families; it is not just the violence of husbands that is a problem, but also, the violence of wives against husbands and other wives:

> ''A study in Uganda among 66 women interviewed in prison, 17 (26%) were violent within polygamous unions. Nine of the women directed violence towards their husband's other women, six were violent towards their step mother and one was violent towards step brother. Some husbands were killed because they had married other women, leading to the deterioration of the relationship with the first wives'' Tibatemwa's (1999 p.123).

Coercion and violence among both genders needs to be studied in its totality for the benefit of Ugandan policies and society. Based on evidence of men victims globally (Dutton & White, 2012) and examples in Uganda of men as victims (UDHS, 2011) and also evidence that men who perpetrate violence risk being victims of female retaliation (Tibatemwa, 1999) this thesis's intent is to explore coercion and self-reported victimisation (*discussed next*) among victims and perpetrators of both genders.

Self-reported domestic violence victimisation: In Uganda, a man who subjects his wife to abuse also takes the risk of becoming a victim (Tibatemwa, 1999). For example:

> ‘‘It is highly evident that socio-cultural values and norms within patriarchal society and the family increase the chances that a woman will resort to domestic violence. This is among other things, because legitimate means of marriage dissolution are often not viable options to a woman who desires to bring to an end a conflict –ridden marital relationship: (Tibatemwa, 1999 p.77)

From this finding, switching roles from perpetrator to a victim and vice versa is evident for both genders. It is this notion, coupled with other western and local literature discussed throughout this thesis, which forms the rationale for examining self-reported victimisation in Uganda.

Undoubtedly, domestic violence has been increasingly recognised as a serious social problem with historical evidence that shows women have suffered violence from their husbands and partners (Clarke, 1992 cited Mooney, 2001; Dobash & Dobash, 1979; Freeman, 1979). Despite these public concerns, little is known about domestic violence and it has been recognised as an area that requires in-depth research, especially in the general populations (Smith, 1989 cited Mooney, 2001). This call for in-depth research is based on the previous research that shows domestic violence is one of the highest hidden figures of any crime (British Medical Association, 1998 cited in Mooney, 2001; Dobash & Dobash, 1979, Hammer & Stanko, 1985, Loral and Pease, 1986). Indeed, domestic violence victimisation is often unknown to anyone outside the family and it is unlikely that the victim will disclose her experience to a stranger or interviewer (Mooney, 2001). For example, often victims experience embarrassment and psychological blocking, among other reasons for not disclosing violence (Mooney, 2001). Similarly, previous research shows that men are hidden victims because they fear being

embarrassed (Margi, 2008). Men have been increasingly recognised as victims but more research needs to make them visible, which this thesis aims to contribute to.

Despite evidence of gender symmetry, Keeling and Mason (2008) argue that it has been largely viewed as a myth, nonetheless women's violence to male victims is also a concern for a variety of reasons; among them is (*i*) the compassion for victims of violence so that support and interventions are provided to all victims (gender asymmetry advocates do not question violence against women but assert the level of violence against men is equivalent); (*ii*) examining women's violence can better illuminate the dynamics of men's aggression against women since often women's violence is retaliatory, or expose the ways men use to control women and women's perceived lack of options except ''fighting back'' (Keeling and Mason, 2008 p.32). Hence, gender inclusive explanations of domestic violence acknowledge that women use violence as a tactic in family conflict whereas men use violence instrumentally to control women's lives e.g., both types are embedded within the larger framework of gender inequality (Keeling and Mason, 2008).

Despite available evidence that men are victims too, feminist ideologists maintain gendering of the victims, creating an impression that only women and female children are the victims of violence perpetrated by men (Davies et al., 2003 p.33). However, Davies et al. (2003) argued that they are not downplaying all the work achieved by feminist academics, researchers and activists in drawing attention to and campaigning against rape, domestic violence etc., nor should this read as denial of the overwhelming evidence that women and children suffer most at the hands of men, especially those they know well. However, despite these caveats, they insist that the mainstream victimology work leaves us with an underpinning view that victims are powerless and mostly female. Hence, this makes women's victimisation visible and men's invisible (Newburn & Stanko, 1994 cited in Davies et al., 2003). Indeed, much victimology research leaves us with impression that males cannot be victims or victims are not likely to be

male. Yet, more recently, scholars have suggested that men can be victims and more so experience their victimisation as a key problem in their understanding of themselves as male (Davies et al., 2003; Hobdell & Stanko, 1993). In fact, some gender asymmetry studies, such as national violence against women (NVAW), found in 1998 that men physically assaulted their partners at three times the rate at which women assaulted theirs (Tjaden & Thornes 2000b:151 cited in Keeling & Mason, 2008). However, research shows that men who are violent towards their intimate partners tend to deny and not identify with violence and also accuse women of being abusers (Agozino, 2008). It is very important to hear women's experiences of domestic violence from their partners (Buttel & Carney, 2004; Dutton & Corvo, 2006; Gregory & Erez, 2002 cited in Agozino, 2011). Consequently, this thesis's samples are from both genders and roles in domestic violence. In agreement is previous research from a national survey that confirms that half of domestic violence perpetrators are also victims of their partner assaults (Anderson, 2005). For example, in the 1985 National Family Violence Resurveys 49% of the respondents who reported perpetrating domestic violence also stated that they were victimised by their partners (Stets & Straus,1990 cited in Anderson, 2005). Furthermore, National Surveys of Families and Households (NSFH), which included interviews with both partners in heterosexual marital and cohabiting relationships, found out that 64% of respondents who reported perpetrating domestic assaults also reported being victimised by violence (Anderson, 2003). Researchers who examine partner violence with national surveys data typically focus on either partner violence perpetration or victimisation (e.g., Ellison & Anderson, 2001; Gelles & Straus, 1990; Kaufman, Kantor & Straus, 1990a, 1990b; Pan, Neidig, & O'Leary, 1994; Stets, 1991; Anderson, 2003). This separation creates two problems for research in domestic violence of *(i*) contributing to the problem of identifying causal order and *(ii)* it masks the ways in which experiences of intimate partner violence may differ by gender and other social locations (Anderson, 2005 p.851). Stet & Straus (1990), in

one of the few studies that compared the psychological consequences of domestic violence victimisation for women and men, revealed that victims of partner assault women were significantly more likely than men to be injured and require medical care (physical) and to report higher levels of stress and depression (psychological), however, generally there are few studies that have compared the consequences of domestic violence victimisation for men and women (Anderson, 2005 p.853). Through the lens of hegemonic masculinity (Conell, 1987 cited in Davies at al., 2003), female victims and male perpetrators are recruited while, from a gender symmetry lens (Dutton & White, 2013), male victims are recruited and female perpetrators of self-reported domestic victimisation. This polarisation has led to a partial view of the problem. For example, until now, there is no single study in Uganda that has attempted to compare domestic violence victimisation for both perpetrators and victims of both genders, yet there is evidence that four in ten victims are men and six in ten are women (UDHS, 2011). Furthermore, Bowman (2003) and Tamale (1999) argue that both genders, as victims or perpetrators of domestic violence, have not been researched beyond cultural-feminist perspectives. The gaps in literature suggest the need to explore psychological characteristics, commonalities and differences, which is the aim of this current study. In addition, this study's findings contribute to the knowledge gap in gender symmetry and open up psychological approaches to researching domestic violence in Uganda. Next, coping strategies are discussed and critically evaluated.

Coping strategies: Coping is a conscious effort by an individual to solve his/ her personal and interpersonal problems and seek ways to minimise or tolerate conflict and/or stress (Cummings et al., 1991). However, most notable is that literature examining coping in physical abuse by a spouse or partners is very limited and as a result previous reviews draw primarily from general coping research (Waldrop & Resick, 2004). For example, Waldrop & Resick's (2004) study on

coping among adult female victims of domestic violence acknowledges that domestic violence coping research is somewhat lacking in theories, coherence and models and over-relies on the literature on general coping. Hence, general coping strategies are reviewed in this thesis and because this study sample are victims and perpetrators of both genders, the link between domestic violence victimisation and coping strategies helps to situate this research.

> ‘‘According to Uganda Demographic Health Survey (UDHS, 2011) results on domestic violence show that only 4 in 10 women and men have sought assistance from any source for the violence they have experienced. This is a small number of victims seeking help which raises questions on how they engage with coping strategies. One major issue is, that even those who reported to have sought help, didn’t majorly seek professional help, the common sources of help for coping was the respondent’s own family (reported by 23% of women and 16% of men), the police (reported by 6% of women and 8% of men) and relative high percentage of women 12% sought help from their husband’s/partners family compared to only 3% of men who sought help from wife/partners family. For example, of all the sources where help was sought to cope, professional psychologist/counsellor was not mentioned.” (UDHS, p.273).

This raises questions and the need to gain more insight into whether coping strategies are engaged in equally by males and females as victims or perpetrators to deal with general life challenges which, if not resolved, could predispose them to further violence.

To study coping strategies in Uganda I have drawn from the Uganda demographic study findings on coping discussed above but also on previous studies and approaches globally. For example, Waldrop & Resick’s (2004) study on strategies used by women victims in comparison with communal samples in response to ordinary life stressors showed that women victims were lacking in problem solving. In responding to the exclusion of other strategies in preference to problem solving by Waldrop & Resick (2004) this thesis includes social support and avoidance

coping strategies/dimensions (discussed next) and how all these strategies are engaged in by males and females.

Despite a number of variations in coping dimensions, two descriptive factors emerge repeatedly across many studies. Firstly, approach and avoidance coping strategies labelled as active/avoidant coping and engagement /disengagement (Halahan & Moos, 1987; Michell & Hodson, 1983; 1986; Moos, 1995; Waldrop & Resick, 2004). This strategy attempts to establish whether the individual tries to change the situation (e.g., talking to a friend about the problem or making a plan and following it) or avoidance, where the individual simply distances him/herself from the stressor to avoid negative outcomes (refusing to believe that it happened and keeping feelings to himself /herself) (Holahan & Moos, 1987, p.949 cited in Waldrop & Resick, 2004).

Secondly, cognitive versus behavioural strategies; while the behavioural strategies involve the observable actions taken in an attempt to resolve issues (such as going away for a while) the cognitive strategies involve the individual restructuring and changing his/her thinking about the situation e.g., seeing the positive side of the situation rather than concentrating on the negative side (Holahan & Moos, 1987, p.949 cited in Waldrop & Resick, 2004). Consequently, approach/avoidance constructs are the *focus* of coping while behavioural/cognitive strategies are the *method* of coping (Moos, 1995 cited Waldrop & Resick, 2004). Although these two approaches have been widely used, Waldrop & Resick (2004) argued that using a coping strategies indicator (CSI) demonstrated the hierarchical factor structure of coping. The coping strategies indicator (Armikhan, 1990; Lazarus et al., 2006) identified three dimensions: *problem solving,* where the individual tries to solve or resolve the problem; *social support,* where the individual seeks social support in attempting to deal with the problem; and *avoidance coping,* in which the individual ignores the situations that cause pain. This study explores how these strategies are adopted by victims and perpetrators, both men and women, in order to

provide some insights into the coping mechanisms of Ugandans, including those who avoid seeking help to cope (UDHS, 2011).

Previous research shows that types of coping strategies utilized by women who experience domestic violence were related to types of social reactions experienced upon disclosure of violence (Lazarus et al., 2006). Furthermore, women who used coping strategies such as problem solving and social support to deal with victimization were perceived as doing something to resolve their problems and reacted positively compared to women who used avoidance (reacted negatively) and were perceived to be doing little or nothing to resolve their problems. Similarly, Ullman (1996) noted that avoidance coping was related to negative social reactions but argued that social networks play a big role in domestic violence coping. Indeed, women who received little support from people they interacted with had the greatest severity of violence and struggled to cope with domestic violence victimisation (Michael & Hanson, 1983). Thus, in this study, women and men, both victims and perpetrators who have reported victimisation, are compared to establish if there any differences or if relationships between coping and victimisation based on gender exist.

In a similar study Hebert et al. (1991) examined cognitive coping strategies used by women who chose to stay with their abusive partners and those who left. The findings revealed that those who stayed in abusive relationships had focused more on the positive aspects of the relationship compared to those who left. This finding is especially relevant to women in Uganda. Karamagi, Tumwine, Tylleskar & Heggenhougen (2006) studied domestic violence perpetrated against women in Uganda and asked participants if their husbands had cheated on them. The results showed that 35% of the women who stated that their husband had other sexual partners during their marriage also reported satisfaction within marriage. This inconsistency suggests the need to investigate how females in comparison with males, engage coping strategies. Dutton et al. (1994) argued that tangible support could make women remain and feel

trapped in abusive intimate relationships. Such women entrapped in relationships face a challenge that some people who would have provided support may turn away from women using avoidant coping because the women are not trying to remove themselves from abusive relationships (Waldrop & Resick, 2004). There is clearly a need therefore, for research which focuses on identifying the psychological symptoms that result from abuse and how these link to coping more strategies (Carlson, 1997).

In summary, from the global to the local literature in Uganda, three important things are noted: firstly, there is scant literature on men's coping strategies; secondly, there are few studies which compare female and male coping strategies; and thirdly, the extent to which coping strategies are adopted by both genders irrespective of their role in domestic violence.

Personality traits: To the lay person, personality is judged in a social context, such as how well people get on with others and their style of interacting as well as their appearance (Maltby et al., 2007). Similarly, the interpretation of the concept of personality differs among psychologists and, as a result, there are different definitions and theories such as learning, cognitive, humanistic, biological (genetic and evolutionary) and trait approaches to personality depending on the study being undertaken (Eysenck, 1964; Maltby et al., 2007).

The traits perspective is adopted in this thesis to explore the impact gender and its role in domestic violence has on personality trait score differences. This is because, although a number of studies have been carried out on personality regarding the similarities and differences in personality structures and traits across cultures (mostly using the five factor model of personality), these have been primarily carried out in western countries (Fiske et al., 2010). This reveals a gap in knowledge on the study of personality traits in domestic violence in Uganda and indeed, in Africa more widely. To investigate personality traits in this study, I have

adopted the ‘personality trait’s big five factor model and Eysenck’s ‘gigantic three’ as a conceptual framework for exploring the extent to which the factors presented by these models are identified within the literature as being relevant to the Ugandan context. Consequently, gaps in knowledge are identified and this provides further justification for the study of personality in relation to domestic violence in Uganda.

Although there are different definitions of personality, many have overall similarities. Ewen (1998) defines personality as important, relatively stable characteristics within the individual that account for consistent patterns of behaviour. Personality traits are the most agreed pattern of relatively permanent, unique characteristics that give both consistency and individuality to a person’s behaviour (Feist, 2009). There is a difference regarding state vs. trait personality; whereas personality traits are stable over time, state are (temporal behaviours and or/feelings) that depend on the individual’s situation and motives from occasion to occasion (Ewen, 1998; Mathews et al., 2009). Indeed, common to most trait theorists is the core consistency that defines the individual’s true nature but this has been contested in that some people behave or act inconsistently from time to time depending on circumstances (e.g., an individual who was honest on one occasion might steal, lie, cheat at other times (Berkowitz, 1993 p.127). Hence, stability distinguishes traits from more transient properties of a person, such as moods or temporary mood states (Mathews et al., 2009). Furthermore, traits are generally believed to directly influence behaviour e.g. if a person spontaneously breaks into crying we might explain his or her behaviour by saying the person has a sad disposition. Hence, throughout this thesis, personality is studied by its defining traits:

> ‘‘Aristotle suggested a more subtle, reciprocal causal hypothesis that: It is through actions that dispositions develop which in turn influence actions. Thus personality is studied by its unique and therefore defining characteristics (traits) ’’ (Buss, 1989 cited in Mathews et al., 2009 p.4).

Two major ways of measuring personality are to ask the person to rate how well trait adjectives such as impulsive, honest, sincere etc., apply to him/herself or to ask questions about behaviours thought to relate to personality (Mathews et al., 2009). For example, to measure introversion-extroversion one asks questions about whether the person enjoys parties, meeting other people or other social activities. Indeed, Carr & Kingsbury (1938 cited in Mathews et al., 2009) argued that knowing the trait of an individual is predictive of that person's likely future behaviour (e.g., traits are not observable but inferred from behaviours). This notion of trait predicting behaviour continues to influence and be the view of prominent trait theorists such as McCare et al. (2000, p.175 cited in Mathews et al., 2009) who stated that:

> ''Traits cannot be directly observed but rather must be inferred from patterns of behaviour and experiences that are known to be valid trait indicators''

However, human beings are all different with unique personality characteristics so that not even identical twins will have exactly same personal traits (Feist, 2009). Some of these personality traits may be observable or unobservable and conscious or unconscious (e.g., unobservable aspects are thoughts, memories and dreams, while behaviours are the individual's physical, social, mental, emotional actions and many more behaviours are observable through overt actions (Ewen, 1998. p.2). Indeed, Mathew et al. (2009) have argued that the term trait in personality refers to broad traits or dimensions found in the big five factor model: neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, consciousness (Costa & McCrae, 2003; Eysenck, 1981) and Eysenck's personality theory (gigantic three: neuroticism, extroversion and psychoticism (Eysenck, 1964 cited in Mathews et al., 2009) but each broad trait comprises narrow traits which are correlated e.g. people with a tendency towards one of them have a tendency towards others. Next, big five factor and gigantic three are discussed accordingly.

Firstly, trait and factor theories-big five factor model measured by NEOPI-R, which is traced from Allport & Odbert's (1936) list of English language trait names, led to a sixteen

personality factor questionnaire scale (16 PF with three domains NEO), which was later developed to NEOPIR and is still being widely used (see Mathews, et al., 2009, p.19). In this model Costa and McCrae's (1985, 1992 cited in Zhang, 2006) previous research has clustered personality traits into five basic traits (Big 5): Neuroticism (N) - which is the opposite of emotional stability and people with high scores on N often experience guilt and low self-esteem; extroversion (E) - people with high scores on E are viewed as being social and assertive in life; openness to experience (O) - people scoring high on O are open minded, high on imagination and they also have independent judgement; agreeableness (A) - high scores tend to be tolerant, trusting and they value other people's beliefs; and finally conscientiousness (C) scale - high scorers tend to be achievement oriented, they distinguish themselves for trustworthiness and are responsible (Costa and McCare, 1985, 1992 cited in Zhang, 2006).

For one to understand how the personality traits link to human criminal actions or behaviours, Howitt (2009) recommends that one must gain theoretical insight. The trait and factor theorists point out human beings are different from other animals because of their ability to report data about themselves (Costa & McCrae, 2003). It is further argued that people are able to evaluate themselves and render reasonably reliable reports concerning their attitudes, temperament, needs, interests and behaviours. More importantly, psychologists behind trait and factor theory emphasise that genetic factors of personality are inherited and of biological components and influence human behaviours but social factors do not (Costa & McCrae, 2003). Critics of this theory such as Mischel (1968 cited in Berkowitz, 1993) indicate that its failure to recognise the role of social factors in influencing human behaviour in preference to biological factors is a weakness. Mischel (1968) further questioned whether persons possessed stable personality traits definite that produce same behaviour all the time. It is important to note, however, Mischel (1968; Berkowitz, 1993) did not say people are completely inconsistent. There are cases such as of aggression when people who are prone to violence attack others only when the

given situation has a certain meaning for them, such as when they regard themselves as being threatened or criticised (Berkowitz, 1993). Indeed, this thesis perceives personality traits in relation to domestic violence which might occur when men's position, power and control are threatened or questioned. Also, female violence to men (victims) has been found to be a result of perceived threat to their life and opting to fight back/ retaliation (Berkowitz, 1993; Tibatemwa, 1999). Hence, Berkowitz (1993) concludes that essentially some people indeed opt to act the same way whenever an aggressive/violent opportunity arises and if these individuals are free to do what they want in a given situation, there is good chance that the individual will behave in the same manner on many occasions.

Overall, the big five are marred in controversy. For example, scholars have argued that openness is not viewed to be different from intellect and others have questioned whether openness should be ranked as a factor in the big five (Boyle, 1989 et al., 2009). Although the big five are criticised as containing too many traits to describe personality and being an unstable measure across different cultures, the NEO-PI is still being used. This is partly because it is related to Eysenck's Personality Inventory (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1996) which is one of the most used psychometric tools in research on personality (Zhang, 2006 p.1180). Hence, Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire (EPQ shorter version by Francis et al., 2006) is used and it is critically evaluated next to rationalise and situate this study.

Secondly, the personality theory of Eysenck (1969-1997 cited in Mathews et al., 2009), states there are three broad personality factors (gigantic three) i.e. extroversion, neuroticism and psychoticism. These traits are assessed in a self-report questionnaire (Eysenck Personality Questionnaire), which includes yes/no answers a lie scale intended to measure the subject's tendencies to lie when answering questions (Mathew et al., 2009). Throughout the years this questionnaire has been revised, resulting in several different versions (see for example, Eysenck & Saklosfske, 2008; Eysenck & Eysenck, 1991 cited in Mathews et al.2009 and

Francis et al. 2006). Although Eysenck's higher order dimensions are intended not to be correlated, there are slightly positive correlations between male subjects and the other two scales (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1991 cited in Mathews et al., 2009). These gigantic three traits according to Eysenck (Mathews at al., 2009) are: Extroversion personality trait: high scorers are considered sociable, lively and sensation seeking and low scorers are regarded to be low in arousal and in need of environmental stimulation; Neuroticism personality trait: people who score high on neuroticism are anxious, depressed and react strongly to aversive stimuli- high scorers are also regarded as having high levels of instability whereas low neuroticism scorers are considered stable and relatively unreactive; Psychoticism personality trait**:** people who score high on psychoticism are considered aggressive, antisocial, cold and egocentric and low scorers are social and warm. Eysenck concluded that more people have moderate extroversion, neuroticism and psychoticism and extreme scorers are rare and hard to find because most people often score moderately on personality. Furthermore, Eysenck emphasised that both neurotic and psychotic traits are normal personality traits even though they might predispose a person to neurotic and psychotic disorders (in a very few individuals). Finally, Eysenck emphasised that it is the normal network in which a dimension is embedded that provides its validity (e.g., the network must specify the psychometric properties of a dimension but also its cultural variance (Mathews et al., 2009, p.24).

However, questions remain; For example, is the 'five trait factor' or Eysenck's 'gigantic three structures' universally applicable to both men and women, victims and perpetrators, and in all cultural settings or, alternatively, do these traits reflect ideas about personhood that are limited to the west, where the studies from which these approaches have been derived have been conducted? To answer these questions previous research is reviewed through the lens of trait and the big five factor model and Eysenck's gigantic three traits. For instance, McCrae et al.'s (2005 cited in Fiske et al., 2010) large study among 50 different cultures from all continents

except Antarctica used the big five factor model to assess trait adjectives. Although in many of the locations studied, the factor structure of the big five was replicated, in most developing countries (e.g., Botswana, Ethiopia and Uganda amongst others) the factor structure was not so evident. Furthermore, the quality of the data collected was poor, suggesting that people did not understand the questions or were unfamiliar with answering questions in that format. Hence, this thesis adopts Eysenck's personality questionnaire, a much shorter version but also widely and previously used in Uganda to study gender (Lynn & Martin, 1996).

From personality theory, Eysenck developed his personality theory of offending, which emphasises socialisation by viewing criminogenic behaviour as developmentally immature, selfish and seeking to achieve immediate gratification (Eysenck, 1964). Eysenck argued that the process of socialisation is where the individual is taught the ability to delay gratification and be socially oriented through conditioning and immaturity. Going against the norm is accompanied with a severe punishment that makes individuals associate anxiety with antisocial behaviours. Where this is successful, even thinking of antisocial behaviour produces anxiety and therefore the person avoids being antisocial or committing crime. Eysenck concluded that individuals who scored high on neuroticism and psychoticism had nervous systems making it hard to condition them and as a result would not learn easily to respond to anxiety; hence they would be more likely to act antisocially (Eysenck, 1964). This theory has been criticised for its failure to address the concerns of forensic psychologists about why perpetrators do what they do (Howitt, 2009). Despite this criticism, Howitt (2009) argues that this theory can tell us whether the perpetrator is extrovert, neurotic or psychotic.

This present study goes further to find out the traits of victims of domestic violence, of both genders, and thereafter to identify differences or similarities that exist in the characteristics of these groups.

Previous research (Lynn & Martin, 1997) within 37 countries (including two countries in Sub-Saharan African: Uganda & Nigeria) studied the relationship between gender differences on the three Eysenck's personality dimensions: extroversion, neuroticism and psychoticism. Results showed no significant differences for any of the three traits in Uganda and Nigeria. These findings were against the study's expectations that gender differences in personality traits scores would be greater in more traditional, economically developing countries where differences in norms for sex roles are generally greater than in developed countries like the USA and the UK and where there is greater equality between the sexes (Lynn & Martin, 1997). Across all countries, men consistently had higher mean scores on psychoticism while women had higher scores on neuroticism. The consistency suggests the possibility that these gender differences may have a genetic basis, as proposed by Maccoby & Jacklin (1974 cited in Lynn & Martin, 1997) in reference to the apparent universality of the greater aggressiveness of men. In this thesis, in addition to exploring gender trait differences, roles as victim or perpetrator are incorporated and henceforth reveal individuals' personality characteristics, differences or similarities. Furthermore, personality traits are correlated with domestic violence typologies to detect any significant gender relationships and hence to identify which personality trait relates to which domestic violence victimisation typology. This is based on previous studies among women victims and non-victims that show that women victims are significantly more likely than non-victims to qualify for psychiatric diagnoses including obsessive compulsive personality disorder and intensity is high when the perpetrator is one they love, trust or on whom they depend. This compounds the psychological consequences of feelings of vulnerability, loss, betrayal and hopelessness (Koss, 1990). In addition, Koss (1990) argued that victims are more prone to vulnerability and other personality disorders when a perpetrator is a spouse. Similarly, a study of male perpetrators' psychological profiles found high incidences of psychopathy; personality traits such as sudden bursts of anger and poor impulse

control (Dutton, 2005). In instances where gender scores are the same, especially on neuroticism, domestic violence is seen as gender neutral and thus not culturally influenced. However, there are few studies globally and none in Uganda that have studied personality traits through the lens of victims and perpetrators for both genders, which this study aims to achieve. This study aims to answer the following research questions and hypotheses.

2.10 Research Questions

1. Are there gender (male or female) and role (victim or perpetrator) ***differences and interactions*** in relation to self-victimisation, attitude to coercive behaviours, personality traits and coping strategies?
2. Is there a ***relationship based on gender*** (male and female) and role (victim or perpetrator) in self-reported domestic violence victimisation, attitudes towards coercive behaviours, personality traits and coping strategies?
3. Is there a ***relationship based on role*** (victim or perpetrator) in self-reported domestic violence victimisation, attitudes towards coercive behaviours, personality traits and coping strategies?
4. Are there ***cross-cultural (country) differences in Western literature review*** in relation to self- reported domestic violence victimisation, attitude to coercive behaviours, personality traits and coping?

2.10 Hypotheses

In accordance with the literature reviewed that generally highlights gender differences in many of the variables concerning the study of domestic violence, the hypotheses for the study are as follows:

1. *Hypothesis 1:* There are ***significant gender and role differences-effect*** in sub-scales of attitudes towards coercive behaviours, self-reported domestic violence victimisation personality traits and coping style-strategies in a Ugandan sample.
2. *Hypothesis 2:* There are ***gender-based relationships*** between sub-scales of self-reported domestic violence victimisation, attitudes towards coercive behaviours, personality traits and coping style-strategies in a Ugandan sample.
3. *Hypothesis 3:* There ***are role-based relationship***s between sub-scales of self-reported domestic violence victimisation, attitudes towards coercive behaviours, personality traits and coping style-strategies in a Ugandan sample.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the quantitative approach taken and provides the justification for the design chosen. The study's dependent and two independent variables (levels) are identified. The sampling strategies, participants and procedures for recruiting participants are discussed. Furthermore, participants' demographic characteristics and the measures-questionnaires with pilot testing reliability scores are discussed. The chapter further discusses the ethical procedures, data collection and main study procedures. Then the data analysis approach is discussed, providing a clear justification for the choice of statistical analysis package (MANCOVA) used for this study.

3.2 Study Design

This study takes a quantitative approach, a factorial design 2x2 or (''two by two'') which examines the effect of two or more variables simultaneously (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996 p.120). Factorial design is used because it allows systematic assessment of how two or more variables interact when the effect of one independent variable on the dependent variable depends on the value of the second independent variable. This allows qualifying conclusions about their effect in an important way because it studies the simultaneous operation of two independent variables (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996). The two categorical independent variables (IVs) in this study are: Gender, with two levels i.e. ''male or female'' and Role, with two levels i.e. ''victim or perpetrator''. These two independent variables (factors) are operationalised to investigate their relationship and impact on each of the following dependent variables sub-scales (DVs): attitudes towards coercive behaviours; self-reported domestic violence victimisation; personality traits; and coping while controlling participants faking good (Lie scale) treated as a covariate variable as recommended

by (Jackson & Francis, 1999). Furthermore, correlation matrices for gender and role on all dependent variables are examined.

3. 3 Participants in the Study

In 2013 the courts in Uganda were dealing with a total of 676 perpetrators and victims (Uganda Annual Crime and Road Safety Report, 2013 p. 19). The numbers could be higher than reported since domestic violence only became a legal crime in 2010, thus some people may not be aware of the new domestic violence legislation. Unlike in developed countries where there are specialised centres, domestic violence victims and perpetrators are initially dealt with in Police Family and Child Protection Units (CPFU) which work hand in hand with a minimal number of NGOs due to the absence of shelters in Uganda. Moreover, these services are absent in rural areas and available mainly to people in urban centres/cities, hence this study was carried out in Kampala city.

3.4 Sampling Strategies

Three factors influenced the sampling strategy**:** *1)* To recruit a sample large enough to indicate the gender dynamics and how these influence roles in domestic violence as a victim or perpetrator. *2)* To use the key agencies available in Kampala city to recruit respondents. Reasons for this geographical choice were influenced by the availability of agencies, the existence of services, the awareness of domestic violence legislation and the literacy of people in the city. *3)* To draw up criteria for inclusion:

a). 18 years and above – the reason for not including those under 18 years was because this was a study of adults and, in Ugandan law, young people under 18 are classed as minors.

b) Should be a service user of the Child and Family Protection Unit (CPFU) or a Non-Governmental Organisation that offers specialised services to victims or perpetrators.

c) Should be either a victim or a perpetrator of domestic violence. Agencies identified perpetrators and victims and obtained initial consent using details in participant's invitation sheet.

d) Should volunteer to participate

e) Gender balance-inclusion of both males and females

f) Should be able to read and write in English

3.5 Sample –Description of Participants

The participants in this study numbered 120, including 60 victims (14 males & 46 females) and 60 perpetrators (27 males and 33 females) of domestic violence, aged between 18 and 59 years. These participants were purposively voluntarily sampled from a non-government organisation that had a victim client-base of 30, of which a total of 20 were recruited. An additional 100 participants were from a government police unit (CPFU) attending counselling conflict-resolution sessions. Participants who could read and write in English and met the criteria for participating in the study were selected using purposive and voluntary sampling strategies; firstly, because of specific required participant characteristics (Black, 1999) and secondly, due to a participant's experiences of domestic violence. Voluntary sampling was used to ensure that individuals were not coerced to participate but rather participated voluntarily. The study ensured that the sample size reflected a large sample of service users in organisations at that time by recruiting more than 50% of the total number of enrolled victims and perpetrators and which, in turn, is representative of this urban city. Potential participants were initially contacted by a member of the organisation's management using the researcher's

information (participant information sheet). Those who volunteered had to consent and were briefed whilst in the organisation's premises; they filled in the questionnaires (discussed in 2.6), were debriefed and thanked for participating.

3.6 Measures / Questionnaires

*3.6.1 Demographic Characteristics**:*** The questions asked the participant's role in domestic violence as victim or perpetrator and their gender (male or female). In addition, the participant's age, religious affiliation, education, socio-economic status and employment status were requested (these details are discussed in the first section of the results chapter)

3.6.3 Partner Abuse Scales - Physical (PASPH) and Non-Physical (PASNP): These scales were developed by Hudson (1992) and were used to measure physical and non-physical aspects i.e. psychological and/or sexual victimisation for both men and women in marital relationships, cohabiting or dating (Hudson, 1997). In this thesis, as in previous research, the PASPH and PASNP have been combined, with some questions reworded or deleted and some questions added (Beck et al, 2009). Both scales have 25 items in their original scales with higher scores indicating high self-reported victimisation. The format was modified from a 7 Likert to 4 Likert scale (*Never= 1 / Always = 4)* to fit Africa's minority population, in agreement with Tjaden and Thoennes's (2000) and Field and Caetano's (2004) justification for intimate partner violence (IPV) measures in CDC,1999 Compendium tools. They urged that these scales have been developed and used most in African American, Hispanic and Native American or Alaskan Native populations and not in minority populations. For this reason, the language used in the scales may need to be adapted to be culturally or linguistically appropriate for some minority populations (CDC, 1999 p.3). In this study both instruments were validated through a pilot test

with 20 participants and Cronbach's alpha were as follows: .97 for PASPH and .90 for PASPN; items for sexual violence achieved .72. However, some items were reworded; the rationale being to simplify the language so that participants with a lower level of education could read and understand (Beckie et al, 2009) and non-significant items were deleted (from the non-physical scale**:** 2,3,5,6,7,8,10,14,15,16,19,24 and 25 and from the physical scale items 10 and 25). The partner abuse scales were preferred because of the purposive volunteer-sampling methods used, due to the absence of shelters in Uganda that would fit well with CTS2 measure which corresponds well with random sampling. Moreover, CTS2 has been criticised that data provided by husbands parallel the findings from data provided by wives (Arias & Beach, 1987; Straus, Gelles & Steinmetz, 1980 cited in Straus et al, 1996), hence misrepresenting intimate violence, urging that males and females within couples do not agree on the amount of violence used (Dobash et al.,1992).

3.6.3 Eysenck Personality Traits (EPQ-Short German Version) was used to measure personality traits (Francis, et al., 2006). The questionnaire consists of three measures conforming to three personality traits (Psychoticism, Extroversion and Neuroticism) in Eysenck's 1990 theory, plus a lie scale (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1992). There are 12 items in each of the four scales with dichotomous binary responses of yes and no scored as 1 and 0 respectively. The maximum possible score on each original sub-scale is 12 or 0 with 2 items reverse coded in extroversion, 7 in psychoticism and 9 in lie; the neuroticism scale had no reversed items. A pilot test was done with 20 participants and Cronbach's alpha scores for each sub-scale were: .72 for Extroversion, .75 for Neuroticism, .71 for Psychoticism, .70 for Lie. The items that were not significant were deleted (items 31, 28 and 26 from psychoticism; items 25 and 21 from Neuroticism; items 19 and 23 from Extroversion; items 37 and 24 from the lie scale). The lie scale lists behaviours that are socially desirable but infrequently practised or frequently practised but socially undesirable (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1976). Indeed, the lie

scale was originally introduced to detect those who fake being good (McCrae and Costa, 1983 cited in Jackson and Francis, 1999) by diagnosing a set of rare acts being endorsed by the respondent while frequently performed non-desirable acts are being denied. There is a large body of research evidence that individuals with high motivation to fake being good on lie scale scores suppress their own neurotic scores, which leads to a negative correlation between lie and neuroticism scales (Jackson and Francis, 1999). This has been researched and the relationship found to be true among children (Eysenck et al 1965; Waters, 1968; Eysenck et al; 1971) and also among adults (Gomez and Braun, 1967; Michaelis and Eysenck, 1971; Rump and Court, 1971; Farley and Goh, 1976; Levin and Montag, 1987; Cowles et al; 1992 cited in Jackson and Francis, 1999; Braun and Gomez, 1996). Although the lie scale is open to multiple interpretations, some researchers urge, with evidence, that it should interpreted as measuring personality dimensions in their own right (McCrae and Costa, 1983 and Furnham, 1986 cited in Jackson and Francis, 1999). Although the lie scale is open to multiple interpretations Jackson and Francis, 1999, this current study has interpreted and treated lie scale as a covariate variable to detect whether or not elevated high lie scores indicate one faking to be good or not.

3.6.4 Attitudes towards Coercive Behaviours (ATCB) Scale developed by Muir (2002) measured attitudes to coercive behaviours in 5 sub-scales with 24 items answered on a seven-point scale from 1 (*not at all*) - 7 (*very much agree*). For each statement the participant has to circle the number that best corresponds with his/her opinion, where 1= 'not at all agree', 4= 'moderately agree' and 7= 'very much agree' i.e. the less the participant agrees with the statement, the lower the number he/she should circle; the more the participant agrees with the statement, the higher the number he/she should circle. However, Muir (2002) recommends that scoring be reduced to (*1-2 not at all agree*), (*3-4 moderately agree*) and (*5-7 very much agree*). These three options, Muir (2002) suggests, fit well with Maio & Haddock (2010) who agree that an attitude falls in one of the three negative, neutral or positive categories. Attitudes

towards coercive behaviours sub-scales are as follows, with Cronbach's alpha scores from 20 participants used in the pilot test: ''Women's behaviour used to justify (WB = .77)'' which has 5 items; ''Men's right to control (MRC =.82)'' which has 4 items; ''No big deal (NBD = .78)'' consisting of 4 items; ''Private matter (PM =.90)'' which has 5 items; ''Women lie/exaggerate (WL = .73)'' which has 3 items. The measure has 2 filler items.

3.6.5 Coping Strategies Indicator (CSI) Scale developed by Armikhan (1990) measured coping strategies with 3 sub-scales of avoidance, supportive and problem solving strategies. The Coping Strategies measure has 33 items in total with 11 items in each of the three sub-scales rated on a three-point scale from 1 (*not at all*) to 3 *(a lot*). The potential range of scores is 33 (low) – 99 (high). The individual who scores high on the supportive coping strategy is doing a lot to seek social support in order to cope with his/her current challenging situation. As with social support, high scores on the problem coping strategy indicate how the individual is trying to solve a challenging situation by concentrating on what can be done, weighing options critically and logically before making decisions (Armikhan, 1990). However, high scores on avoidance coping are indicative of an individual who withdraws physically and/or psychologically from the current challenging situation through distraction or fantasizing about how things ought to be different, day dreaming and sleeping more than usual. The Coping Strategy Measure was used in this current study because it has been through progressive refinements in multiple samples and a heterogeneous range of stressors (Armkhan, 1990 cited in Desmond et al., 2006) and has sought to inductively derive an instrument which has significant generalisability across populations (Ager & MacLachlan, 1998). Although not exhaustive of all coping strategies, the tripartite structure of coping strategies indicator (CSI) corresponds well with human threat (Armikhan, 1990). The instrument was pilot tested on 20 participants and Cronbach's alpha scores were valid since they were above .70, as follows: .90 for supportive coping; .91 for problem solving coping; and .73 for avoidance coping.

3.7 Procedures

This section highlights how participants were recruited, how the researcher knew how many participants to recruit, ethical considerations, procedures for data collection including pilot scores and main study procedures. First, the participants were recruited from known and legitimate organisations where victims and perpetrators attend specialised services and police units (CPFU) where couples seek conflict resolution and counselling services. Purposive and convenient voluntary sampling strategies were used because of specific required participant characteristics (Black, 1999). Voluntary sampling was further used due to the sensitivity of the topic and to ensure that individuals were not coerced to participate but rather participated voluntarily. Ethical approval was sought from the University of Huddersfield and consequently approval and clearance was gained from the School Research and Ethics Panel (SREP). Secondly, at the national level within Uganda where data was collected, the study sought and gained approval and clearance from the Institution Review Committee Board Clearance (IRCB) and the Uganda National Council of Science and Technology (UNCST). This approval/clearance was done in accordance with a Ugandan government regulation established in 1990 that requires any research to have research clearance and permission before any data is collected from human beings. This is to ensure *i*) the safeguarding of people against potentially harmful scientific activities; *ii*) the assessment of the credibility and skills of the researcher, to ascertain their ability to collect data without causing harm to participants; *iii*) the protection of the welfare of human research objects through science and technology regulations, guidelines and monitoring compliance (UNCST bulletin, 1990). Thirdly, the study gained permission from the organisations/institutions where data was collected**.** This involved seeking the manager's permission from Non-Government Organisations (NGOs) and the Office of Commissioner Child and Protection Unit (UP-CFPU). Following successful ethical approvals, pilot test was done on instruments for validation purposes using 20 participants (10

victims and 10 perpetrators) from one centre other than those where the final data was collected. The Cronbach's Alphas are presented for each questionnaire scale in Section.3.6 Measures.

In addition, a Small (est) Space Analysis (SSA) was carried out for the purposes of assessing respondents' understanding of the questionnaires used. Smallest Space Analysis is a non-metric dimensional scaling which allows examination of relationships and analysis of co-occurrence of a variable with every other variable (Lingoes, 1973 cited in Ioannou, 2006). Lingoes (1973) argues that because mathematic row scores are hard to interpret, a smallest space analysis can help to produce visual geo-metric results to indicate the relationship between variables and themes within variables. The analysis computes coefficients between variables and ranks/orders these coefficients producing a triangular matric consisting of correlation coefficients of how variables correlate with other variables. These coefficients are then used to form a spatial representation with points representing items. The more positive inter-correlated items, the closer the points representing variables will be in the smallest space analysis chart. This means such items share the same variable and thus appear in the same region together in the multidimensional scaling space implying a high positive correlation. The variables that have low interrelation will appear in different parts of the smallest space analysis chart or region and this means that they do not share the same facet (Canter & Heritage, 1987). Smallest Space Analysis statistical principles are related to Facet theory (Shye, 1978) which proposes grouping of facets to represent distinct facets. What makes smallest space analysis particularly valuable is that variables represent distinct facet elements, while variables in another region represent another facet element. Therefore, both smallest space analysis and facet statistical approaches provide a way of examining associations between variables and presenting the findings in a visual geometric way. Lines are used to demarcate or separate plots by the researcher so that items that belong to a particular region are associated with the same theme and items in a different region are associated with a different theme.

Smallest Space Analysis was considered relevant to this study to establish if participants would identify items-variable sub-scales with a shared theme located in the same region and distinct from other regions with other variables. It was anticipated that the alienation coefficients would indicate some marginal and good fit between variables thus enabling a visual/spatial representation of the data. Smallest Space Analysis was used rather than Factor analysis (despite this analysis being a widely used method to assess the interrelationship between variables in research). Factor analysis considers mathematical linear combinations of the factors but does not to reveal qualitative inter-relationships between variables (Donald, 1985 cited in Ioannou, 2006). In addition, unlike Factor analysis, Smallest Space Analysis translates similarities in the association matrix into distances in geometric representation. It further operates on rank order correlations between variables rather than their absolute zero thus enabling it to produce solutions in the smallest dimensionality and compensate for some of the 'noise' found in the real world data (Gutman, 1968, cited in Iaonnou, 2006). The themes and alienation coefficients revealed by this analysis are illustrated in the figures below.

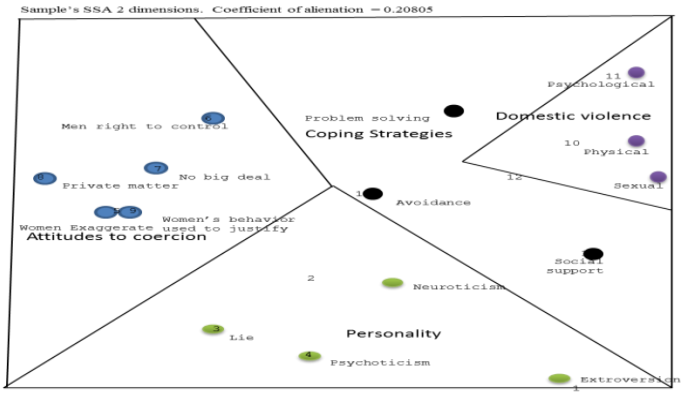

Figure 2. Results show a coefficient of alienation of 0.20805 which indicates a marginal fit of spatial representation to the data in these samples (Lingoes, 1987).

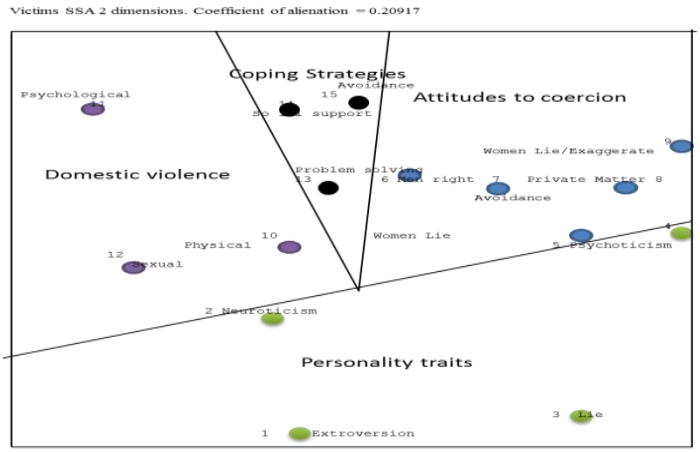

Figure 3. Results show a coefficient of alienation of (0.20917) which indicates a marginal fit of spatial representation to the data in these samples (Lingoes, 1987).

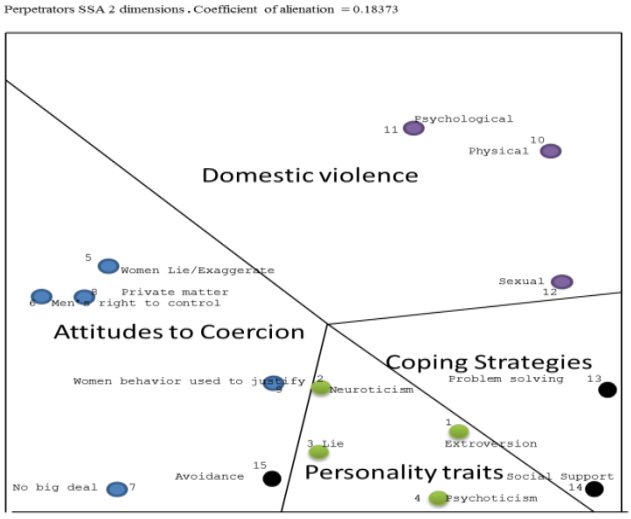

Figure 4. Results above show a coefficient of alienation of (0.18373) which indicates a good fit of spatial representation to the data in these samples (Lingoes, 1987).

The alienation coefficients for the entire sample on 14 sub-scale independent variables is 0.20805, 0.20917 for victims and 0.18373 for perpetrators which all fall below the 0.25 cut-off point but are larger than the more conservative alpha 0.20 (Borg & Lingoes, 1987) threshold, indicating more marginal fit of the spatial representation to the data in these samples. This does not provide information about the scale's structures, but rather, portrays a geometric

representation of the entire set of inter-variable relationships. From Smallest Space Analysis results, as illustrated in all of the above figures, it can be concluded that most respondents understood the questionnaires since themes identified are located within similar regions to those identified by samples used by original authors to standardise questionnaires. However, there are slight differences in interpretation and understanding of some questions by the Ugandan sample as follows:

Firstly, victim's interpretation of personality traits questions was slightly different with psychoticism personality trait identified away from other traits to suggest Ugandan sample may not have fully understood the questions.

Secondly, perpetrators from the Ugandan sample had a different understanding/interpretation of coping styles. For example, whereas perpetrators identified two out of three variables/themes to be located in the same region, avoidance coping was inter-correlated with the rest of the coping styles to suggest perpetrators may have not have fully understood the questions concerning avoidance coping strategy.

Although there are slight differences in interpretations of questions used by the Ugandan sample, according to Lingoes (1987), variables-items with a shared theme should be located in the same region of smallest space analysis and distinct from other regions of other variables given that the alienation coefficients indicate some marginal and good fit spatial representation to the data in these samples (Lingoes, 1987). This analysis shows that the respondents largely understood the questions used and that the questionnaires were fit for purpose but also shows that some respondents may have not fully understood some questions on psychoticism personality trait and avoidant coping sub-scales.

After ascertaining validity, a voluntary sampling technique was used to recruit a sample from victims and perpetrators attending specialised services, participants had to consent before being

briefed on the study and were assured of their rights to withdraw for any reason without seeking permission. Questionnaires were distributed, filled in, collected back and packed in safe storage to ensure total confidentiality and anonymity even when their identity was concealed i.e. no names were used. After the data collection process data analysis was undertaken.

3.8 Data Analysis

Data was sorted, coded and entered into Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS/PASW version 20). The data was screened for normality using Kolmogorov-Smirnov not Shapiro-Wilk because the number of participants was over 50. The results were normally distributed within the sample from which it was collected, hence used parametric tests rather than non-parametric which are less powerful (Field, 2000, p.49; Field, 2013). In addition, statistical power refers to the ability of a test to find an effect that genuinely exists; thus, since non-parametric tests are less powerful, this implies that if there is a genuine effect in the data, then a parametric test is more likely to detect it than a non-parametric one (Field, 2000). Thus, the use of a parametric test avoids false negative (type 11 error) of accepting that there is no difference between groups when, in reality, a difference exists (Field, 2000). Consequently, descriptive statistics were used to analyse demographic characteristics (Means and Standard Deviations) and inferential analysis (MANCOVA) was used to tests hypotheses. Although 2 x 2 MANOVA, like MANCOVA, features two or more response variables, analysis evolves from MANOVA to MANCOVA where one or more covariates are added to the mix (Field, 2013); hence, MANCOVA was used because the lie scale or faking good was added as a covariate. Thus, MANCOVA is used because it compares two or more continuous variables (e.g. self-reported victimisation, coercion, coping styles etc.) by levels of factor variable (e.g. gender),

while controlling for a covariate, in this case lie (faking good). In this study there are two categorical independent variables (IVs) of gender and role, each with two levels. For instance, gender has two levels, ‘‘male or female’’ and role has two levels, ‘‘victim or perpetrator’’, which were operationalised to impact on each of the following dependent variables (DVs): domestic violence victimisation; personality traits; attitudes towards coercive behaviours; and coping, while controlling lies or faking good. The data file was split to compare groups (males and females; victims and perpetrators) on each dependent variable sub-scale to establish if there were significant relationships (correlation full matrices).

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with the demographic characteristics reported, using descriptive statistics in the form of frequencies and percentages. Much emphasis is put on means and standard deviations by role and gender as independent variables. Furthermore, gender and role are treated as independent variables on which dependent variables are analysed in 2x2 MANCOVA, treating lie as a covariate variable (Jackson & Francis, 1999). To justify parametric analysis, firstly data was screened and no outliers were identified; normality and assumptions were checked through Box's test of equality of variance matrices (in Table 6) using conservative alpha .001 due to its sensitivity (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Pallant, 2013). This is followed by presentation and reporting of inferential statistics that provide results / answers to the set hypotheses of this study. These results were interpreted in relation to the hypotheses. The chapter ends with a summary of the main effects, interaction and gender-based relationships correlation matrices by highlighting commonalities and differences between males and females and victims and perpetrators; thus their psychological characteristics are summarised.

4.2.1 Demographic Characteristics

As in most academic studies, participants' demographic characteristics are very important and give context to the data. The description of demographic characteristics further gives the thesis a sense of authority, confidence and credibility, as the source of the data and the results are evident. For this thesis the demographic characteristics discussed include age, religious affiliation, employment status and socio-economic class. These are related to factors in reported cases of domestic violence and also to gender. The diverse range of demographic characteristics may serve as a reference point as to whether these characteristics could have influenced participants' views on the variables being studied and the final results of this study.

Table 4.2.1: Descriptive Statistics on Age of Respondents.

			Statistic	Std. Error
Age	Mean		31.81	.800
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	30.22	
		Upper Bound	33.39	
	5% Trimmed Mean		31.30	
	Median		30.00	
	Variance		76.744	
	Std. Deviation		8.760	
	Minimum		18	
	Maximum		59	
	Range		41	
	Interquartile Range		13	
	Skewness		.901	.221
	Kurtosis		.502	.438

The output results in table 1 summarises the age of respondents out of a sample of 120. Their age ranges from 18 years (Maximum score) to 59 years (Minimum score), median of 30, variance of 76.744, range 41 and interquartile is 13. The age mean is 31.81; trimmed mean is 31.30, and the standard deviation is 8.760. By comparing the original mean 31.81 and trimmed mean 31.30, shows that the two mean values are not very different and this suggests that extreme scores are having a strong influence on the mean (Pallant, 2013 p.65). This shows that we have 95 percent confidence interval surrounding the mean. Furthermore, results on age show a positive skewness value (indicating positive skew) and positive kurtosis value (indicating that the distribution is rather peaked) (Pallant, 2013 p.59). However, even where kurtosis values are 0 indicating distribution that is relatively flat, Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p.80 cited in Pallant, 2013 p.59 argue that with reasonably large samples, skewness will not make substantive differences in the analysis.

Table 4.2.2: Domestic Violence Role across Religions.

Domestic violence role	Religion of Respondents						Total
	Catholic	Protestant	Muslim	Born-again	SDA	Other religions	
Victim	23	18	10	9	0	0	60
Perpetrator	16	19	7	14	3	1	60
Total	39	37	17	23	3	1	120

The study had various respondents from different religious affiliations. In this study, Christians, especially Catholics, had the highest number of victims and perpetrators, Protestants had almost equal representation of victims and perpetrators. Muslims had the third lowest number of victims and the second fewest number of perpetrators. The lowest number of victims were from born again (fellowship) churches and there were no victims from Seventh Day Adventist and other religions. The higher numbers of Christians as victims and perpetrators in comparison to other religions could be due to the fact that Uganda's majority population are Christians (UDHS, 2011) and also because of sampling bias.

Table 4.2.3: Education/Qualification and Domestic Violence

Domestic violence role	Education levels					Total
	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary	Degree	Postgraduate	
Victim	13	20	12	12	3	60
Perpetrator	3	19	18	15	5	60
Total	16	39	30	27	8	120

The results indicate that domestic violence affected people from all educational backgrounds. However, it was predominant in individuals with secondary school, tertiary (diploma) and

degree qualifications compared to those who had completed only primary education. The respondents who had postgraduate qualifications were in the minority.

Table 4.2.4: Financial Status of Respondents and Domestic Violence.

Domestic violence role	Socio-economic status			Total
	Low	Moderate	High	
Victim	34	26	0	60
Perpetrator	17	38	5	60
Total	51	64	5	120

The socio-economic status was self-assessed by respondents through classifying themselves based on their individual and family financial status. Although the majority of the perpetrators were of moderate socio-economic status, the majority of the victims were of low socio-economic class. There were no victims of high socio-economic status. This may be the consequence of the sampling approach used but also may reflect the possibility that people from high socio-economic backgrounds access different sources of help than the agencies involved in this study. It is common to find that victims of domestic violence may not be able to afford the basic needs of life such as food, health care and shelter (UDHS, 2011). This could increase their risk of further victimisation/vulnerability in their attempts to survive.

Table 4.2.5: Employment Status and Domestic Violence.

Domestic violence role	Employment status		Total
	Employed	Unemployed	
Victim	25	35	60
Perpetrator	19	41	60
Total	44	76	120

Participants' characteristics show that unemployment cut across them all but it was higher amongst perpetrators than victims. There were small numbers of both victims and perpetrators who were employed. The high rates of unemployment correspond with the low socio-economic status of respondents, as shown in Table 3 above

In relation to the use of weapons, findings from the Ugandan sample showed that of the 120 participants, 76 (63.3%) said no weapon was used, 26 (21.7%) did not respond whether a weapon was used and 18 (15.0%) admitted using weapons. Of respondents who said they had used weapons, the majority (13) were females compared to 5 males. Importantly however, of the 18 people who admitted using weapon 11 were victims and only 7 were perpetrators. The data were cross tabulated and the results of the Cramer's V value for gender at: .064, $p = .533$ and .077, $p = .454$ found no significant association between gender, role and weapon use (that is, >.05). Despite this, the findings show that females used weapons more than males, and the majority of those who used weapons were also victims of domestic violence. This finding is supported by research by Hester (2009) which revealed that often females use weapons as means of protecting themselves from further violence from their partners. Therefore, with these current study findings in Uganda revealing that females use weapons more than men, there is clearly a need for further research on whether women who perpetrate violence are first victims and in the process of defending themselves recourse to the use of weapons. Regarding factors on

the causes of domestic violence in Uganda, the majority of respondents indicated that marrying a second wife (4.2%) was the major factor that led to domestic violence. It was also revealed that a partner coming home late (3.3%) and matters that started as a joke (3.3%) often led to domestic violence, including physical fighting (2.5%). Furthermore, asking for money to buy food (2.5%) and/or misusing sugar at home led to physical fighting (being slapped). Jealousy and overprotective attitudes often leading to controlling behaviours were also mentioned as factors that generated domestic violence. The summary of the full list of responses about how domestic violence starts is attached in appendix 8.

4.2.2 Inferential Statistics Results Structure Overview.

In Tables 4.3.1-4.3.7 below, the output results present and describe attitudes to coercive behaviours (sub-scales of section 4.3) prior to other dependent variables sub-scales on: (domestic violence tables 4.4.1- 4.4.5 in section 4.4; personality traits result in table 4.5.1-4.5.5 in section 4.5; coping strategies results are in tables 4.6.1-4.6.5 in section 4.6). Jointly these results test the following first hypothesis of this study:

> *Hypothesis 1: There are significant gender and role differences in sub-scales of attitudes towards coercive behaviours, self-reported domestic violence victimisation personality traits and coping style-strategies in a Ugandan sample.*

After presenting and describing-interpreting all the variables of the MANCOVA-post-hoc results, a summary explicitly reflecting how these findings link to the aforementioned hypotheses is provided in section 4.7. Furthermore, in section 4.8 role and gender correlation matrices for victims and perpetrators, males and females are presented, described and used to link hypotheses three and four. A general conclusion-summary on the results section is provided to highlight the key findings of the study. This subsequently leads into the section on implications. Next, results on attitudes to coercive behaviours are presented and discussed.

4.3 Attitude to Coercive Behaviours Results.

4.3.1 Descriptive Statistics on Attitudes to Coercive Behaviours

Table 4.3.1: Descriptive Statistics in relation to Gender (males and females) and Role (victims and perpetrators) on Sub-Scales on Attitude to Coercive Behaviours.

	Gender	Role in Domestic Violence	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Private Matter	Male	Victim	6.5000	2.13937	14
		Perpetrator	7.4815	2.00711	27
		Total	7.1463	2.08040	41
	Female	Victim	6.4783	2.24835	46
		Perpetrator	7.6970	2.17205	33
		Total	6.9873	2.28425	79
	Total	Victim	6.4833	2.20548	60
		Perpetrator	7.6000	2.08465	60
		Total	7.0417	2.20921	120
Men's Right to Control	Male	Victim	8.0714	1.85904	14
		Perpetrator	7.8148	1.38778	27
		Total	7.9024	1.54604	41
	Female	Victim	7.9130	1.83577	46
		Perpetrator	8.4242	1.65888	33
		Total	8.1266	1.77133	79
	Total	Victim	7.9500	1.82659	60
		Perpetrator	8.1500	1.56037	60
		Total	8.0500	1.69453	120
Women Lie	Male	Victim	8.5000	2.06621	14
		Perpetrator	8.9259	1.97924	27
		Total	8.7805	1.99389	41
	Female	Victim	8.2391	2.23293	46
		Perpetrator	8.5455	1.80435	33
		Total	8.3671	2.05799	79
	Total	Victim	8.3000	2.18081	60
		Perpetrator	8.7167	1.87844	60
		Total	8.5083	2.03745	120
Women's Behaviour Used to Justify	Male	Victim	8.0714	2.01778	14
		Perpetrator	8.8519	1.58609	27
		Total	8.5854	1.76034	41
	Female	Victim	7.8261	1.96982	46
		Perpetrator	8.1515	1.88946	33
		Total	7.9620	1.93114	79
	Total	Victim	7.8833	1.96660	60
		Perpetrator	8.4667	1.77999	60
		Total	8.1750	1.89054	120
No Big Deal	Male	Victim	9.1429	1.74784	14
		Perpetrator	8.9630	1.37229	27
		Total	9.0244	1.49144	41
	Female	Victim	8.5652	2.00723	46
		Perpetrator	9.3030	1.74078	33
		Total	8.8734	1.92399	79
	Total	Victim	8.7000	1.95110	60
		Perpetrator	9.1500	1.58194	60

Table 4.3.1 above shows the mean and standard deviations for roughly similar numbers of victims (60) and perpetrators (60), who include 79 females and 41 males who responded to fourteen dependent variables. In each dependent variable, female and male means are compared; each gender has both victims and perpetrators. For instance, males have mean scores on domestic violence as a private matter reported by victims and also mean scores reported by perpetrators. This analysis is also carried out with female respondents and across all the following study dependent variables.

Firstly, on 'attitudes to coercive behaviours' sub-scales: results show that males had higher mean scores than females as perpetrators on the `private matter` attitude while female victims had higher scores than male victims. However overall, perpetrators had a higher mean than victims on `private matter` attitude. The standard deviations are almost the same, which suggests there is imaginative variance. For the `men's right to control` attitude, perpetrators had higher mean scores than did victims. However, male victims reported higher mean scores than females did although female perpetrators had higher mean scores than male perpetrators did. Similarly, for the `women lie-exaggerate` attitude, male perpetrators had higher mean scores than females. Male victims scored higher mean scores on the `women lie-exaggerate` attitude than female victims but, in general, perpetrators had higher mean scores than victims. In contrast, on the `women's behaviour used to justify` attitude, male perpetrators had higher mean scores than female perpetrators. Furthermore, male victims had higher mean scores than female victims but perpetrators generally showed higher mean scores than victims. In addition, results in relation to the `no big deal` attitude show that male victims had higher scores than female victims. However, female perpetrators had higher scores than males on the `no big deal` attitude to coercive behaviour. Overall, perpetrators scored higher means; males had higher scores than females both as victims and as perpetrators on most dependent variables sub- scales

within `attitude to coercive behaviours` except that the `men's right to control` attitude showed females with higher mean scores.

Overall, males and females had roughly the same mean scores on most dependent variables and slightly different mean scores on a few variables. The means are equally distributed among victims and perpetrators, including men and women. Indeed, results show that both males and females were involved in domestic violence cases as victims and perpetrators. However, the majority of the victims and perpetrators were females. The possible explanation for the high numbers of females in this study could be attributed to polygamy. Some of the possible examples in Uganda are when women fight each other over a husband (Mushanga, 2004 p.92).

4.3.2 MANCOVA Results on Attitude to Coercive Behaviours.

4.3.2 Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices

Although this study's sample of 120 participants was large enough (over 50 participants) to argue for the waiving of a normality test, this was carried out. The Kolmogorov test probability values did not deviate significantly from normal distribution. In addition, there were no outliers from standardised residuals and, although not perfect, the residuals in the normal Quantile-Quantile (Q-Q) plots are not too distorted from the diagonal line to suggest deviation from normality or violation of assumptions of normality (Field, 2013 p.185).

More importantly, the Box Test of Equality of covariance matrices for each variable are reported in the text below rather than constant repetition of similar interpretation. However, the results on Box's test of equality will be reflected on when presenting and discussing a particular variable of interest as follows: attitudes to coercive behaviours (Box's M = 52.790, F=1.056, Df1=45, Df2= 10083.992 and Sig. = .370); Domestic violence (Box's M = 42.892, F=2.242, Df1=18, Df2= 13015.731 and Sig. = .002); Personality traits (Box's M = 26.593, F=1.390, Df1=18, Df2= 13015.731 and Sig. = .125); and Coping strategies (Box's M = 17.722, F=.926, Df1=18, Df2= 13015.731 and Sig. = .546). If matrices are equal or not significantly

different between groups on dependent variables after adjusting covariate for lie, the assumption of homogeneity is met. For this study the assumption of homogeneity of variance is interpreted according to Pallant (2013) who suggests that because Box's M statistic is very sensitive, a more conservative alpha of .001 should be used. Similarly, Tabachnick & Fidell (2007) recommend alpha of .005.

However, in conducting analysis of variance, I intended to determine whether there were significant differences among various groups or conditions. Planned comparisons (also known as a priori) were used to test specific hypotheses (drawn from past research) concerning the differences between subset of groups (e.g. do group 1 and 2 differ significantly or if, overall groups differ (that independent variables in some way influences scores on the dependent variables). Pallant, 2013 argues that some caution needs to be exercised with this approach if one intends to specify a lot of different comparisons (in my case, the study features three and five comparisons). Planned comparisons do not control for the increased risk of type errors (rejecting the null hypothesis). For example, "there are no differences among groups'' when it is actually true. To avoid reaching a wrong conclusion (thinking that you have found a significant result when in fact it could have occurred by chance), Pallant 2013 p.217 recommends applying what is known as Bonferroni adjustment to the alpha level that is used to judge statistical significance. This involves setting a more stringent alpha level for each comparison to keep alpha across all the tests at a reasonable level. To achieve this Pallant, 2013 recommends dividing alpha level (usually .05) by the number of comparisons that one intends to make, and then use this new value as the alpha level. For example, if one intends to make three comparisons, the new alpha level would be .05 divide by 3, which equals .017, variations to this technique, see (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013 p.52). For this current study, using the Bonferroni adjustment, the traditional alpha of .061 was dived by 14 comparisons (14 dependent variables) which equals (*0.004 adjusted alpha overall*). Consequently, to perform a

Bonferroni correction, I divided the critical p value by the number of comparisons made: Attitude to coercive behaviours five sub-scales alpha of .370 dived by five, (the number of comparisons made) **(***Bonferroni adjusted alpha = 0.07*). Similarly, Domestic violence alpha .002 was divided by three sub-scales -number of comparisons made (*Bonferroni adjusted alpha = .0007*). Personality traits three sub-scales alpha of .125 was divided by three comparisons made (*Bonferroni adjusted alpha=.04).* Coping strategies three sub-scales alpha of .546 was divided by three comparisons made *(Bonferroni adjusted alpha is = .18).*

The Box Test results aforementioned indicated that all (p-values) are greater than adjusted alpha (Bonferroni adjustments), which shows that results are not significant and equality of covariance matrices is met. Thus an assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance is met and normality to enable using a parametric test (MANCOVA) to test the hypotheses of this study is established. Furthermore, given the equal sample size, especially for victims and perpetrators, the homogeneity could as well be ignored as the Pillai–Bartlett trace is robust to any assumption violation (Singh, 2007).

Table 4.3.2: A Multivariate Test[a]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent Parameter	Observed Power
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.841	117.309[b]	5.000	111.000	.000	.841	586.546	1.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.159	117.309[b]	5.000	111.000	.000	.841	586.546	1.000
	Hotelling's Trace	5.284	117.309[b]	5.000	111.000	.000	.841	586.546	1.000
	Roy's Largest Root	5.284	117.309[b]	5.000	111.000	.000	.841	586.546	1.000
LIE	Pillai's Trace	.013	.290[b]	5.000	111.000	.918	.013	1.449	.120
	Wilks' Lambda	.987	.290[b]	5.000	111.000	.918	.013	1.449	.120
	Hotelling's Trace	.013	.290[b]	5.000	111.000	.918	.013	1.449	.120
	Roy's Largest Root	.013	.290[b]	5.000	111.000	.918	.013	1.449	.120
Gender	Pillai's Trace	.035	.802[b]	5.000	111.000	.551	.035	4.009	.279
	Wilks' Lambda	.965	.802[b]	5.000	111.000	.551	.035	4.009	.279
	Hotelling's Trace	.036	.802[b]	5.000	111.000	.551	.035	4.009	.279
	Roy's Largest Root	.036	.802[b]	5.000	111.000	.551	.035	4.009	.279
Role	Pillai's Trace	.057	1.338[b]	5.000	111.000	.253	.057	6.691	.458
	Wilks' Lambda	.943	1.338[b]	5.000	111.000	.253	.057	6.691	.458
	Hotelling's Trace	.060	1.338[b]	5.000	111.000	.253	.057	6.691	.458
	Roy's Largest Root	.060	1.338[b]	5.000	111.000	.253	.057	6.691	.458
Gender * Role	Pillai's Trace	.042	.964[b]	5.000	111.000	.443	.042	4.819	.333
	Wilks' Lambda	.958	.964[b]	5.000	111.000	.443	.042	4.819	.333
	Hotelling's Trace	.043	.964[b]	5.000	111.000	.443	.042	4.819	.333
	Roy's Largest Root	.0435	.964[b]	5.000	111.000	.443	.042	4.819	.333

a. Design: Intercept + LIE + Gender + Role + Gender * Role
b. Exact statistic
c. Computed using alpha = .05

Firstly, the multivariate results revealed by Pillai Traces (p = .551 (gender) and p= .256 for (role) which are bigger in magnitude than .07 Bonferroni adjusted alpha) based on MANOCVA derived combined dependent variables show that there are no gender and role differences in relation to attitudes to coercive behaviours. From this result it is concluded that groups do not differ on some dependent variables; this lack of effect (strength of association) needs to be broken down to find out exactly what is going on (see Table 4.3.3). Thus, in interpreting strength of effect size statistics, Cohens 1988, p.22 guidelines cited in Pallant, 2013 p.218 are used to conclude that there is partial Eta Squared – small effect size for gender (. 035) and small effect size for role (.057). The partial Eta Squared for gender is .35 and .57 for role; this implies that .35% and .57% of variability in impact across all dependent variables in a canonical MANCOVA derived estimate is being accounted for within gender and role groups.

Secondly, Pillai Trace (p = 0.443 which is bigger than .07 Bonferroni correction adjusted alpha) results show that there is no significant interaction between gender and role in dependent variables sub-scales of attitudes towards coercive behaviours. In addition, the observed power reveals medium percentages of 26% for gender and 45% for role of rejecting

null hypothesis when in fact it was true. From this result it is revealed that there is no interaction between gender and role on attitude to coercive behaviours dependent variables while controlling lie-covariate variable (faking good).

Therefore, from multivariate results it is concluded that there are no gender and role differences and no interaction between gender and role. However, Pallaise Trace which is robust to violation is used (Pallant, 2013). The nature of this effect, from multivariate test statistics, is not clear because it does not tell us which groups differed from which or whether the effect of gender and role, while controlling lie, was at work in relation to attitude to coercive behaviour (private matter, men's right to control, women lie/exaggerate, women's behaviour used to justify, no big deal). To determine this effect requires examining each sub-scale for each dependent variable and how groups differ, which is provided by univariate tests of between-subjects effects results, shown in Table 4.3.4. However, the first step to achieve this is to run Levene's test of equality of error variances for each dependent variable, which is presented in Table 4.3.3 below:

Table 4.3.3: Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

	F	Df1	Df2	Sig.
Private Matter	.223	3	116	.880
Men's Right to Control	.664	3	116	.576
Women Lie/Exaggerate	1.075	3	116	.362
Women's Behaviour Used to Justify	.387	3	116	.763
No Big Deal	1.784	3	116	.154
Physical Violence	7.282	3	116	.000
Psychological Emotional Violence	4.829	3	116	.003
Sexual Violence	1.984	3	116	.120
Extroversion	3.179	3	116	.027
Neuroticism	.865	3	116	.461
Psychoticism	.538	3	116	.657
Problem Solving	.350	3	116	.789
Social Support	.436	3	116	.728
Avoidance	2.179	3	116	.094

Tests the null hypothesis that the error of variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.
Design: Intercept + Lie+ Gender + Role + Gender*Role

The table 4.3.3 above shows a summary of Leven's test of equality of error variance for each dependent variable. Leven's test results for all dependent variables need to be non-significant, if the assumption of homogeneity (imaginative variance) has been met or satisfied. The results show that dependent variables sub-scales are not significant for all attitudes to coercion, personality traits, coping strategies and domestic violence except physical violence. However, despite one significant sub-scale, the majority 13 out of 14 are non-significant and, given this study's sample size were roughly equal, strengthens the assumption that the test is robust (Field, 2013).

To avoid over-repeating Leven's test of equality of error of variance for each variable, all variable sub-scale results are presented in table 9 together. However, the reader should note that this table and its interpretation of a particular set of sub-scale scores will be referred to when discussing each variable independently by quoting the following Bonferroni adjusted alpha's as follows: attitudes to coercive behaviours five sub-scales (alpha=0.07); domestic violence three sub-scales (alpha = .0007); personality traits three sub-scales (alpha =.04) and coping strategies three sub-scales (alpha = .18) - see rationale and details in 4.3.2 with all Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices. These non-significance results on Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a] are reflected on for each study variable before presenting its univariate tests of between-subjects effects. This examines each dependent variable beyond the multivariate Pallais Trace scores in order to reject or accept a hypothesis using combined dependent variables.

Table 4.3.4: Tests of Between –Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type 111 Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent Parameter	Observed Power
Corrected Model	Private Matter	38.103a	4	9.526	2.019	.096	.066	8.074	.589
	Men's Right to Control	7.003b	4	1.751	.602	.662	.020	2.406	.193
	Women Lie	12.477c	4	3.119	.745	.563	.025	2.980	.234
	Women's Behaviour	18.158d	4	4.539	1.282	.281	.043	5.128	.390
	No Big Deal	12.306e	4	3.077	.967	.429	.033	3.866	.298
Intercepted	Private Matter	644.112	1	644.112	644.112	.000	.543	136.492	1.000
	Men's Right to Control	835.109	1	835.109	835.109	.000	.714	286.939	1.000
	Women Lie	1073.852	1	1073.852	1073.852	.000	.690	256.468	1.000
	Women's Behaviour	870.579	1	870.579	870.579	.000	.681	245.885	1.000
	No Big Deal	1109.223	1	1109.223	1109.223	.000	.752	348.508	1.000
LIE	Private Matter	.000	1	.000	.000	.993	.000	.000	.050
	Men's Right to Control	.019	1	.019	.006	.936	.000	.006	.051
	Women Lie	4.389	1	4.389	1.048	.308	.009	1.048	.174
	Women's Behaviour	.020	1	.020	.006	.941	.000	.006	.051
	No Big Deal	.932	1	.932	.293	.589	.003	.293	.084
Gender	Private Matter	.234	1	.234	.050	.824	.000	.050	.056
	Men's Right to Control	1.263	1	1.263	.434	.511	.004	.434	.100
	Women Lie	2.462	1	2.462	.588	.445	.005	.588	.118
	Women's Behaviour	5.580	1	5.580	1.576	.212	.014	1.576	.238
	No Big Deal	.335	1	.335	.105	.746	.001	.105	.062
Role	Private Matter	29.946	1	29.946	6.346	.013	.052	6.346	.705
	Men's Right to Control	.415	1	.415	.143	.706	.001	.143	.066
	Women Lie	2.729	1	2.729	.652	.421	.006	.652	.126
	Women's Behaviour	7.632	1	7.632	2.155	.145	.018	2.155	.307
	No Big Deal	1.715	1	1.715	.539	.464	.005	.539	.113
Gender * Role	Private Matter	.351	1	.351	.074	.786	.001	.074	.058
	Men's Right to Control	3.670	1	3.670	1.261	.264	.011	1.261	.200
	Women Lie	.083	1	.083	.020	.889	.000	.020	.052
	Women's Behaviour	1.291	1	1.291	.365	.547	.003	.365	.092
	No Big Deal	5.270	1	5.270	1.656	.201	.014	1.656	.248
Error	Private Matter	542.688	115	4.719					
	Men's Right to Control	334.697	115	2.910					
	Women Lie	481.514	115	4.187					
	Women's Behaviour	407.167	115	3.541					
	No Big Deal	366.019	115	3.183					
Total	Private Matter	6531.000	120						
	Men's Right to Control	8118.000	120						
	Women Lie	9181.000	120						
	Women's Behaviour	8445.000	120						
	No Big Deal	9937.000	120						
Corrected Total	Private Matter	580.792	119						
	Men's Right to Control	341.700	119						
	Women Lie	493.992	119						
	Women's Behaviour	425.325	119						
	No Big Deal	378.325	119						

a. R Squared = .020 (Adjusted R Squared = -.014)
b. R Squared = .025 (Adjusted R Squared = -.009)
c. R Squared = .043 (Adjusted R Squared = .009)
d. R Squared = .066 (Adjusted R Squared = .033)
e. R Squared = .033 (Adjusted R Squared = -.001)
f. Computed using alpha = .05 (Significant on Bonferroni correction)

Table 4.3.4 presents the MANCOVA summary of results for all dependent variables in relation to gender and role and the interaction between the two, while controlling lies as a covariate. The results of interest are those in the rows relating to gender, role and their interaction between gender and role.

Firstly, the univariate results in relation to gender show no significant gender differences in relation to all dependent variables (p values are bigger than .07 Bonferroni adjusted alpha). Hence, it can be concluded that male and female results do not differ significantly. Indeed, the univariate results concur with previous results that there are no significant gender differences in relation to all attitudes to coercive behaviour (private matter, men's right to control, women lie/exaggerate, women's behaviour used to justify, no big deal). This implies that in all the aforementioned dependent variables, the results from both male and females show no significant statistical differences.

Secondly, results in relation to role show significant differences between victims and perpetrators in relation to private matter attitude to coercive behaviour (p value is less than > .07 Bonferroni adjusted alpha). These results show strong significant differences between victims and perpetrators in regard to holding the attitude that coercive behaviour is a private matter.

These differences revealed by univariate analysis disagree with the multivariate results in Table 7 that predicted and indicated that there are no significant role and gender differences. Contrary to multivariate results, the univariate results however, revealed that there are role differences noticed in private matter sub-scale of attitude to coercive behaviours. However, there are no differences in men's right to control, women lie/exaggerate, women's behaviour used to justify, no big deal attitudes to coercive behaviours. In summary, despite there being no gender differences in some of the dependent variables reported in the content above, there were significant role differences in private matter attitude.

Thirdly, results show no interaction between role and gender in relation to attitude to coercive behaviours dependent variables-sub-scales. This is revealed by differences between groups' and `within group's` scores. This is revealed by all univariate results (p > .07 Bonferroni adjusted alpha) to suggest no interaction. However, because role in domestic

violence as victim and perpetrator had an effect on some dimensions of attitudes to coercive behaviours, this effect needs to be broken down to see exactly what dependent variables are significantly different for victims and perpetrators but also for males and females (Post-hoc results in table 4.3.5 and 4.3.6).

4.3.3 Post-hoc ANCOVA test

Post-hoc tests systematically compares each of the pairs of groups, and indicates where there is a significant difference in the means of each (Pallant 2013 p.206). SPSS provides the post-hoc tests as part of the ANOVA/ANCOVA output. Pallant 2003 recommends that one is not supposed to look at the post-hoc results until one finds a significant main effect or interaction effect in overall (Omnibus) analysis of variance test. In this study, I obtained significant main effect for role in domestic violence -private matter attitude to coercive behaviours in the ANCOVA, therefore I am justified in we digging further using post-hoc tests (Pallant, 2003 p.206).

Table 4.3.5: Post-hoc ANCOVA on Attitudes to Coercive Behaviours for Victims and Perpetrators.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable	(I) Role of Domestic Violence	(J) Role of Domestic Violence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. [a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Total Private Matter	Victim	Perpetrator	-1.100*	.437	.013	-1.965	-.235
	Perpetrator	Victim	**1.100***	.437	.013	.235	1.965
Total Mens Right to Control	Victim	Perpetrator	-.130	.343	.706	-.809	.550
	Perpetrator	Victim	.130	.343	.706	-.550	.809
Total Women Lie	Victim	Perpetrator	-.332	.411	.421	-1.147	.483
	Perpetrator	Victim	.332	.411	.421	-.483	1.147
Total Women Behaviour used to justify	Victim	Perpetrator	-.555	.378	.145	-1.304	.194
	Perpetrator	Victim	.555	.378	.145	-.194	1.304
Total No Big Deal	Victim	Perpetrator	-.263	.359	.464	-.973	.447
	Perpetrator	Victim	.263	.359	.464	-.447	.973

Based on estimated marginal means
*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Results in table 4.3.5 are post pairwise comparisons generated by Sidak to test significant differences that exist between victims and perpetrators. The differences are indicated by an asterisk in the column labelled mean difference (Pallant, 2003). In this study results in the table

above show that victims and perpetrators only significantly differ from each in regard to private matter attitude to coercive behaviour. The post-hoc comparisons using Sidak indicate that the mean score for victims (M=6.48, SD=2.20) was significantly different from the perpetrators group (M=7.60, SD=2.08). The results on men's right to control, women lie, women behaviour are used to justify and no big deal attitudes to coercive behaviours did not significantly differ from either group (detailed mean scores are discussed in table 4.3.1).

Table 4.3.6: Post-hoc ANCOVA on Attitudes to Coercive Behaviours for Males and Females.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable	(I) Gender	(J) Gender	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Total Private Matter	Male	Female	-.097	.435	.824	-.959	.765
	Female	Male	.097	.435	.824	-.765	.959
Total Mens Right to	Male	Female	-.225	.342	.511	-.902	.452
Control	Female	Male	.225	.342	.511	-.452	.902
Total Women Lie	Male	Female	.314	.410	.445	-.498	1.126
	Female	Male	-.314	.410	.445	-1.126	.498
Total Women Beha	Male	Female	.473	.377	.212	-.273	.498
viour used to justify	Female	Male	-.473	.377	.212	-1.220	1.220
Total No Big Deal	Male	Female	.116	.357	.746	-.592	.824
	Female	Male	-.116	.357	.746	-.824	.592

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak

Table 4.3.6 results show that unlike victims and perpetrators, the post-hoc comparisons using Sidak indicate that males and females did not significantly differ in regard to any of the attitudes to coercive behaviours sub-scales on: private matter, men's right to control, women lie, women behaviour are used to justify and no big deal attitudes to coercive behaviours (detailed mean scores are discussed in table 6). Discussed next are results on domestic violence victimisation.

4.4 Domestic Violence Results.

4.4.1 Descriptive Statistics on Domestic Violence.

Table 4.4.1: Descriptive Statistics in relation to Gender (males and females) and Role (victims and perpetrators) on Sub-Scales on Domestic Violence.

	Gender	Role in Domestic Violence	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Physical Violence	Male	Victim	47.0714	17.66119	14
		Perpetrator	39.5556	16.40903	27
		Total	42.1220	17.01205	41
	Female	Victim	50.1304	19.91048	46
		Perpetrator	31.3939	8.00757	33
		Total	42.3038	18.47962	79
	Total	Victim	49.4167	19.30776	60
		Perpetrator	35.0667	13.04603	60
		Total	42.2417	17.91999	120
Psychological Violence	Male	Victim	26.0652	8.34373	14
		Perpetrator	18.1212	5.02343	27
		Total	22.7468	8.12793	41
	Female	Victim	26.9286	8.07145	46
		Perpetrator	20.9259	6.77624	33
		Total	22.9756	7.70223	79
	Total	Victim	26.2667	8.22123	60
		Perpetrator	19.3833	5.99178	60
		Total	22.8250	7.95329	120
Sexual Violence	Male	Victim	4.2826	1.86980	14
		Perpetrator	3.3333	1.38444	27
		Total	3.8861	1.73934	41
	Female	Victim	4.5000	2.24465	46
		Perpetrator	4.1481	1.99429	33
		Total	4.2683	2.06185	79
	Total	Victim	4.3333	1.94559	60
		Perpetrator	3.7000	1.72027	60
		Total	4.0167	1.85610	120

Table 4.4.1 regarding domestic violence results in relation to physical violence show that female victims had higher mean scores than male victims. However, male perpetrators had higher mean scores than female perpetrators. This could suggest that females are more likely to be victims of physical violence. Psychological violence results show victimization was highly reported by females irrespective of role in domestic violence. For instance, female perpetrators were more likely than males to have experienced psychological victimisation prior

to their current status. Overall, victims, especially females, revealed higher scores in relation to psychological violence. Regarding sexual violence, females had slightly lower mean scores compared to victims. Overall, victims had higher mean scores than perpetrators in relation to sexual violence and more females than males rated highly on having been subject to sexual violence.

4.4.2 MANCOVA Domestic Violence Results.

The assumption of homogeneity is met since p=.002 > .0007 (Bonferroni adjusted alpha) for domestic violence sub-scales is satisfied (see details in section 4.3.2, Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices).

Table 4.4.2: A Multivariate Test[a]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncentr Parameter	Observed Power
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.590	54.116[b]	3.000	113.000	.000	.590	162.348	1.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.410	54.116[b]	3.000	113.000	.000	.590	162.348	1.000
	Hotelling's Trace	1.437	54.116[b]	3.000	113.000	.000	.590	162.348	1.000
	Roy's Largest Root	1.437	54.116[b]	3.000	113.000	.000	.590	162.348	1.000
LIE	Pillai's Trace	.060	2.386[b]	3.000	113.000	.073	.060	7.158	.584
	Wilks' Lambda	.940	2.386[b]	3.000	113.000	.073	.060	7.158	.584
	Hotelling's Trace	.063	2.386[b]	3.000	113.000	.073	.060	7.158	.584
	Roy's Largest Root	.063	2.386[b]	3.000	113.000	.073	.060	7.158	.584
Gender	Pillai's Trace	.019	.749[b]	3.000	113.000	.525	.019	2.246	.206
	Wilks' Lambda	.981	.749[b]	3.000	113.000	.525	.019	2.246	.206
	Hotelling's Trace	.020	.749[b]	3.000	113.000	.525	.019	2.246	.206
	Roy's Largest Root	.020	.749[b]	3.000	113.000	.525	.019	2.246	.206
Role	Pillai's Trace	.194	9.058[b]	3.000	113.000	.000	.194	27.174	.995
	Wilks' Lambda	.806	9.058[b]	3.000	113.000	.000	.194	27.174	.995
	Hotelling's Trace	.240	9.058[b]	3.000	113.000	.000	.194	27.174	.995
	Roy's Largest Root	.240	9.058[b]	3.000	113.000	.000	.194	27.174	.995
Gender * Role	Pillai's Trace	.031	1.205[b]	3.000	113.000	.311	.031	3.615	.316
	Wilks' Lambda	.969	1.205[b]	3.000	113.000	.311	.031	3.615	.316
	Hotelling's Trace	.032	1.205[b]	3.000	113.000	.311	.031	3.615	.316
	Roy's Largest Root	.032	1.205[b]	3.000	113.00	.311	.031	3.615	.316

a. Design: Intercept + LIE + Gender + Role + Gender * Role
b. Exact statistic
c. Computed using alpha = .05 (p < .002 Significant on Bonferroni correction).

Table 4.4.2 on the multivariate results revealed by Pillai Traces (p = .000 < which is smaller than. 0007) show that there are statistically significant role differences (between victims and perpetrators) but there are no significant gender differences, revealed by p = .525 which is bigger than. 0007. This implies that a null hypothesis is accepted for gender and rejected for role as there are significant differences in relation to dependent variables (domestic violence

sub-scales) based on MANOCVA derived combined dependent variables together in a canonical manner. From this result, it is concluded that although there is no interaction, the groups differ on some dependent variables; this effect (strength of association) needs to be broken down to find out exactly what is going on (see Table 4.4.1). Thus, in interpreting strength of effect size statistics, Cohen's 1988, p.22 guidelines cited in Pallant, 2013 p.218 are used to conclude that there is partial Eta Squared – small effect size for gender (. 019) and small effect size for role (.194). Hence, the partial Eta Squared for gender is .019 and .194 for role, implies that 19% and 2% of variability in impact across all dependent variables in a canonical MANCOVA derived estimate is being accounted for within gender and role groups. The Levene's test of equality of error variance results satisfied the assumption of homogeneity (imaginative variance) at .0007 Bonferroni adjusted alpha except for physical violence (See details in table 4.3.3). However, given this study's sample size were roughly equal, strengthens the assumption that the test is robust (Field, 2013). Hence, next are univariate tests of between-subject's effects which examine each dependent variable.

Table 4.4.3: Tests of Between –Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type 111 Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent Parameter	Observed Power
Corrected Model	Physical Violence	7398.683f	4	1849.671	6.903	.000	.194	27.611	.993
	Psychological	1632.462g	4	408.115	7.962	.000	.217	31.847	.998
	Sexual	23.487h	4	5.872	1.747	.144	.057	6.989	.520
Intercepted	Physical Violence	19817.939	1	19817.939	19817.939	.000	.391	73.959	1.000
	Psychological	8384.783	1	8384.783	8384.783	.000	.587	163.575	1.000
	Sexual	244.063	1	244.063	244.063	.000	.387	72.623	1.000
LIE	Physical Violence	131.383	1	131.383	.490	.485	.004	.490	.107
	Psychological	86.237	1	86.237	1.682	.197	.014	1.682	.251
	Sexual	1.087	1	1.087	.323	.571	.003	.323	.087
Gender	Physical Violence	166.591	1	166.591	.622	.432	.005	.622	.122
	Psychological	81.273	1	81.273	1.586	.211	.014	1.586	.239
	Sexual	6.556	1	6.556	1.951	.165	.017	1.951	.283
Role	Physical Violence	4145.073	1	4145.073	15.469	.000	.119	15.469	.974
	Psychological	1256.677	1	1256.677	24.516	.000	.176	24.516	.998
	Sexual	11.032	1	11.032	3.283	.073	.028	3.283	.435
Gender * Role	Physical Violence	787.759	1	787.759	2.940	.089	.025	2.940	.398
	Psychological	23.009	1	23.009	.449	.504	.004	.449	.102
	Sexual	2.207	1	2.207	.657	.419	.006	.657	.127
Error	Physical Violence	30815.309	115	267.959					
	Psychological	5894.863	115	51.260					
	Sexual	386.480	115	3.361					
Total	Physical Violence	252337.000	120						
	Psychological	70045.000	120						
	Sexual	2346.000	120						
Corrected Total	Physical Violence	38213.992	119						
	Psychological	7527.325	119						
	Sexual	409.967	119						

a. R Squared = .194 (Adjusted R Squared = .166)

b. R Squared = .217 (Adjusted R Squared = .190)
c. R Squared = .057 (Adjusted R Squared = .024)
d. Computed using alpha = .05 ($p < .0007$ Significant on Bonferroni correction).

Table 4.4.3 presents the MANCOVA summary of results for all dependent variables in relation to gender and role and the interaction between the two, while controlling lies as a covariate. The results of interest are those in the rows relating to gender, role and their interaction between gender and role.

Firstly, results in relation to role show statistically significant differences between victims and perpetrators in relation to physical and psychological violence (p values are less than > .0007 Bonferroni adjusted alpha). These results show strong significant differences between victims and perpetrators in terms of physical and psychological violence reported by victims and perpetrators.

Secondly, the univariate results in relation to gender show no significant gender differences in relation to all dependent variables (p values are bigger than .0007 Bonferroni adjusted alpha). Hence, it can be concluded that males and females do not differ significantly in terms of domestic violence (physical, psychological and sexual). This implies that in all the aforementioned dependent variables, both males and female's results show no statistical significant differences.

The results on differences revealed by univariate analysis agree with the multivariate ones in Table 4.4.2 that predicted and indicated that there are significant role differences, even though it did not tell us which groups differed from which or about the effects of gender and role while controlling lie for dependent variables. These details on the nature of effect are provided within the univariate results. In summary, despite there being no differences in sexual violence reported, there were strong significant role differences in terms of physical and psychological violence.

Thirdly, regarding interaction, the p values are bigger than level of significance to suggest no interaction between role and gender in relation to domestic violence sub-scales.

However, because role had an effect on some dimensions of domestic violence victimisation reported, this effect and differences are explored further in post-hoc results presented next.

4.4.3 Post-hoc ANCOVA on Domestic Violence

Table 4.4.4: Post-hoc ANCOVA on Domestic Violence for Victims and Perpetrators.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable	(I) Role of Domestic Violence	(J) Role of Domestic Violence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
						Lower Bound	UpperBound
Total Physical violence	Victim	Perpetrator	12.939*	3.290	.000	6.423	19.456
	Perpetrator	Victim	-12.939*	3.290	.000	-19.456	-6.423
Total Psychological	Victim	Perpetrator	7.125*	1.439	.000	4.274	9.975
	Perpetrator	Victim	-7.125*	1.439	.000	-9.975	-4.274
Total sexual violence	Victim	Perpetrator	.668	.368	.073	-.062	1.397
	Perpetrator	Victim	-.668	.368	.073	-1.397	.062

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Results in table 4.4.4 are post pairwise comparisons generated by Sidak to test significant differences that exist between victims and perpetrators. The differences are indicated by an asterisk in the column labelled mean difference (Pallant, 2003). Although there were no differences in sexual violence, the results show that victims and perpetrators significantly differ from each in regard to physical and psychological violence victimisation. The post-hoc comparisons using Sidak indicate that the mean score for victims on physical violence (M=49.41, SD=19.30 and psychological violence M=26.26, SD = 8.22) were significantly different from the perpetrators on physical violence (M=35.06, SD=13.04 and psychological M=19.38, SD=5.99). This implies that there was significant difference in physical and psychological violence reported by victims and perpetrators in that victims had significantly higher scores than did perpetrators. (See detailed discussion of mean scores in table 12).

Table 4.4.5: Post-hoc ANCOVA on Attitudes to Coercive Behaviours for Males and Females.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable	(I) Gender	(J) Gender	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
						Lower Bound	UpperBound
Total Physical violence	Male	Female	2.586	3.279	.432	-3.910	9.082
	Female	Male	-2.586	3.279	.432	-9.082	3.910
Total Psychological	Male	Female	1.806	1.434	.211	-1.035	4.647
	Female	Male	-1.806	1.434	.211	-4.647	1.035
Total Sexual violence	Male	Female	.513	.367	.165	-.215	1.240
	Female	Male	-.513	.367	.165	-1.240	.215

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak

Table 4.4.5 reveals that unlike, victims and perpetrators, the post-hoc comparisons using Sidak indicate that males and females did not significantly differ in regard to physical, psychological and sexual violence. (See detailed discussion on gender mean scores in table 4.4.1). Presented next are the results on personality traits.

4.5 Personality Traits Results.

4.5.1 Descriptive Statistics on Personality traits.

Table 4.5.1: Descriptive Statistics in relation to Gender (males and females) and Role (victims and perpetrators) on Sub-Scales on Personality Traits.

	Gender	Role in Domestic Violence	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Extroversion	Male	Victim	2.8571	1.35062	14
		Perpetrator	3.2593	1.74516	27
		Total	3.1220	1.61547	41
	Female	Victim	4.0000	2.16025	46
		Perpetrator	3.3636	1.14067	33
		Total	3.7342	1.82370	79
	Total	Victim	3.7333	2.04911	60
		Perpetrator	3.3167	1.43198	60
		Total	3.5250	1.77263	120
Neuroticism	Male	Victim	4.5000	2.71038	14
		Perpetrator	5.7037	2.70064	27
		Total	5.2927	2.73170	41
	Female	Victim	5.4348	2.45540	46
		Perpetrator	5.3939	2.03008	33
		Total	5.4177	2.27364	79
	Total	Victim	5.2167	2.52507	60
		Perpetrator	5.5333	2.33954	60
		Total	5.3750	2.42903	120
Psychoticism	Male	Victim	3.0714	1.63915	14
		Perpetrator	2.4074	1.59950	27
		Total	2.6341	1.62413	41
	Female	Victim	2.7609	1.64904	46
		Perpetrator	3.2121	1.78111	33
		Total	2.9494	1.70894	79
	Total	Victim	2.8333	1.63817	60
		Perpetrator	2.8500	1.73523	60
		Total	2.8417	1.68032	120

Table 4.5.1 personality traits scales result in relation to extroversion show that male victims had lower scores on extroversion compared to the female victims, whose mean scores were high. Moreover, victims had higher scores on extroversion than perpetrators. In addition, female victims had higher mean scores on neuroticism. However, male perpetrators had higher mean scores than females but, overall, perpetrators had higher mean scores than victims. Also, the standard deviations suggest there is imaginative variance. Psychoticism results show that

male victims had higher mean scores than female victims. However, female perpetrators scored higher on psychoticism than did males. Overall, perpetrators scored higher than victims in relation to psychoticism personality traits.

4.5.2 MANCOVA Results on Personality traits

The assumption of homogeneity is met since p= .125 > .04 (Bonferroni adjustment alpha) for personality traits is satisfied (see details in section 4.3.2, Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices).

Table 4.5.2: A Multivariate Test[a]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncentr Parameter	Observed Power
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	512	39.526[b]	3.000	113.000	.000	.512	118.579	1.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.488	39.526[b]	3.000	113.000	.000	.512	118.579	1.000
	Hotelling's Trace	1.049	39.526[b]	3.000	113.000	.000	.512	118.579	1.000
	Roy's Largest Root	1.049	39.526[b]	3.000	113.000	.000	.512	118.579	1.000
LIE	Pillai's Trace	.067	2.711[b]	3.000	113.000	.048	.067	8.133	.645
	Wilks' Lambda	.933	2.711[b]	3.000	113.000	.048	.067	8.133	.645
	Hotelling's Trace	.072	2.711[b]	3.000	113.000	.048	.067	8.133	.645
	Roy's Largest Root	.072	2.711[b]	3.000	113.000	.048	.067	8.133	.645
Gender	Pillai's Trace	.035	1.368[b]	3.000	113.000	.256	.035	4.103	.356
	Wilks' Lambda	.965	1.368[b]	3.000	113.000	.256	.035	4.103	.356
	Hotelling's Trace	.036	1.368[b]	3.000	113.000	.256	.035	4.103	.356
	Roy's Largest Root	.036	1.368[b]	3.000	113.000	.256	.035	4.103	.356
Role	Pillai's Trace	.019	.736[b]	3.000	113.000	.533	.019	2.207	.203
	Wilks' Lambda	.981	.736[b]	3.000	113.000	.533	.019	2.207	.203
	Hotelling's Trace	.020	.736[b]	3.000	113.000	.533	.019	2.207	.203
	Roy's Largest Root	.020	.736[b]	3.000	113.000	.533	.019	2.207	.203
Gender * Role	Pillai's Trace	.041	1.629[b]	3.000	113.000	.187	.041	4.888	.418
	Wilks' Lambda	.959	1.629[b]	3.000	113.000	.187	.041	4.888	.418
	Hotelling's Trace	.043	1.629[b]	3.000	113.000	.187	.041	4.888	.418
	Roy's Largest Root	.043	1.629[b]	3.000	113.000	.187	.041	4.888	.418

a. Design: Intercept + LIE + Gender + Role + Gender * Role
b. Exact statistic
c. Computed using alpha = .05 (p < .04 Significant on Bonferroni correction).

Table 4.5.2 presnts the multivariate results revealed by Pillai Traces (p = .256 which is bigger than .04) show that there are no gender differences. Similarly, there are no significant role differences, revealed by p = .533 which is bigger than .04. This implies that a null hypothesis is accepted that gender and role groups are not significantly different on personality traits score sub-scales based on MANOCVA derived combined dependent variables together in a canonical manner. However, through examining effect .019 for role and .035 for gender, in line with Cohen's 1988, p.22 guidelines cited in Pallant, 2013 p.218, it is observed that the partial Eta

Squared – small effect size for gender (.035) and small effect size for role (.019) shows variability in impact across all dependent variables within gender and role groups.

Moreover, personality traits levene's test of equality of error variance results satisfied the assumption of homogeneity (imaginative variance) at 0.04 Bonferroni adjustment alpha (See details in section 4.3.2 Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices). This allows to present and discuss next the univariate tests of between-subject's effects which examine each dependent variable.

Table 4.5.3: Tests of Between –Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type 111 Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent Parameter	Observed Power
Corrected Model	Extroversion	21.128i	4	5.282	1.722	.150	.057	6.887	.513
	Neuroticism	38.965j	4	9.741	1.689	.157	.055	6.757	.505
	Psychoticism	14.078k	4	3.520	1.257	.291	.042	5.029	.383
Intercepted	Extroversion	119.087	1	119.087	119.087	.000	.252	38.818	1.000
	Neuroticism	203.581	1	203.581	203.581	.000	.235	35.303	1.000
	Psychoticism	73.809	1	73.809	73.809	.000	.187	26.367	.999
LIE	Extroversion	1.739	1	1.739	.567	.453	.005	.567	.116
	Neuroticism	25.152	1	25.152	4.362	.039	.037	4.362	.544
	Psychoticism	3.418	1	3.418	1.221	.271	.011	1.221	.195
Gender	Extroversion	9.567	1	9.567	3.118	.080	.026	3.118	.417
	Neuroticism	2.204	1	2.204	.382	.538	.003	.382	.094
	Psychoticism	1.453	1	1.453	.519	.473	.004	.519	.110
Role	Extroversion	.226	1	.226	.074	.786	.001	.074	.058
	Neuroticism	10.887	1	10.887	1.888	.172	.016	1.888	.276
	Psychoticism	.144	1	.144	.051	.821	.000	.051	.056
Gender * Role	Extroversion	6.755	1	6.755	2.202	.141	.019	2.202	.313
	Neuroticism	9.814	1	9.814	1.702	.195	.015	1.702	.253
	Psychoticism	7.695	1	7.695	2.749	.100	.023	2.749	.376
Error	Extroversion	352.797	115	3.068					
	Neuroticism	663.160	115	5.767					
	Psychoticism	321.914	115	2.799					
Total	Extroversion	1865.000	120						
	Neuroticism	4169.000	120						
	Psychoticism	1305.000	120						
Corrected Total	Extroversion	373.925	119						
	Neuroticism	702.125	119						
	Psychoticism	335.992	119						

a. R Squared = .057 (Adjusted R Squared = .024)
b. R Squared = .055 (Adjusted R Squared = .023)
c. R Squared = .042 (Adjusted R Squared = .009)
d. Computed using alpha = .05 ($p < .04$ (Significant on Bonferroni correction).

Table 4.5.3 presents the MANCOVA personality results for all dependent variables-traits sub-scales in relation to gender and role and the interaction between the two, while controlling lie as a covariate. The results of interest are those in the rows relating to gender, role and their interaction between gender and role. Firstly, the univariate results in relation to gender show no significant gender differences in relation to all dependent variables (p values are bigger than

.04 Bonferroni adjusted alpha). Hence, it can be concluded that males and females, did not report significant differences in personality traits scores on: neuroticism, extroversion and psychoticism

Secondly, results in relation to role show significant differences between victims and perpetrators concerning neuroticism, extroversion and psychoticism personality traits scores (p values are bigger than > .04 Bonferroni adjusted alpha). Results show no interaction between role and gender in relation to personality traits scores, domestic violence sub-scales. The statistical significance of the post-hoc results are discussed next.

4.5.3 Post-hoc ANCOVA Results on Personality traits

Table 4.5.4: Post-hoc ANCOVA on Personality traits sub-scales for Victims and Perpetrators.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable	(I) Role of Domestic Violence	(J) Role of Domestic Violence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
						Lower Bound	UpperBound
Total Extroversion	Victim	Perpetrator	096	.352	.786	-.602	.793
	Perpetrator	Victim	-.096	.352	.786	-.793	.602
Total Neuroticism	Victim	Perpetrator	-.663	.483	.172	-1.619	.293
	Perpetrator	Victim	.663	.483	.172	-.293	1.619
Total Psychoticism	Victim	Perpetrator	.076	.336	.821	-.590	.742
	Perpetrator	Victim	-.076	.336	.821	-.742	.590

Based on estimated marginal means
b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Results in table 4.5.4 are post-hoc pairwise comparisons generated by Sidak to test significant differences that exist between victims and perpetrators. The difference is indicated by an asterisk in the column labelled mean difference (Pallant, 2003). In this study, results show that victims and perpetrators do not significantly differ from each other in regard to personality traits (extroversion, neuroticism and psychoticism - the detailed mean scores differences are discussed in table 4.5.1).

Table 4.5.6: Post-hoc ANCOVA on Personality traits sub-scales for Males and Females.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable	(I) Gender	(J) Gender	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Total Extroversion	Male	Female	-.620	.351	.080	-1.315	075
	Female	Male	.620	.351	.080	-.075	1.315
Total Neuroticism	Male	Female	-.297	.481	.538	-1.250	.656
	Female	Male	.297	.481	.538	-.656	1.250
Total Psychoticism	Male	Female	-.242	.335	.473	-.905	.422
	Female	Male	.242	.335	.473	-.422	.905

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak

Table 4.5.6 shows that like, victims and perpetrators, the post -hoc comparisons using Sidak indicate that males and females did not significantly differ in regard to any personality traits sub-scales on: Extroversion, Neuroticism and Psychoticism. The detailed mean scores differences are discussed in table 4.5.1). Presented and discussed next are the coping strategies results.

4.6 Coping Strategies Results.

4.6.1 Descriptive Statistics on Coping Strategies.

Table 4.6.1: Descriptive Statistics in relation to Gender (males and females) and Role (victims and perpetrators) on Sub-Scales on Coping Strategies.

	Gender	Role in Domestic Violence	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Problem Solving	Male	Victim	26.0714	6.26915	14
		Perpetrator	23.7037	5.94083	27
		Total	24.5122	6.08326	41
	Female	Victim	25.5652	5.97644	46
		Perpetrator	23.3030	5.81208	33
		Total	24.6203	5.97710	79
	Total	Victim	25.6833	5.99574	60
		Perpetrator	23.4833	5.82366	60
		Total	24.5833	5.98820	120
Social Support	Male	Victim	28.0000	6.05106	14
		Perpetrator	23.1852	6.15215	27
		Total	24.8293	6.46878	41
	Female	Victim	26.6957	5.68378	46
		Perpetrator	23.0303	4.92750	33
		Total	25.1646	5.64876	79
	Total	Victim	27.0000	5.74604	60
		Perpetrator	23.1000	5.46390	60
		Total	25.0500	5.91658	120
Avoidance	Male	Victim	22.7143	4.84258	14
		Perpetrator	21.0370	5.52951	27
		Total	21.6098	5.30508	41
	Female	Victim	22.6522	5.04300	46
		Perpetrator	21.7273	3.62520	33
		Total	22.2658	4.50273	79
	Total	Victim	22.6667	4.95631	60
		Perpetrator	21.4167	4.55212	60
		Total	22.0417	4.77985	120

Table 4.6.1 on coping strategies sub-scales results show that female victims had higher mean scores in relation to problem solving than did males. Furthermore, male perpetrators also showed higher mean scores in relation to problem solving than did females. Similarly, in relation to the social support coping strategy, victims had higher mean scores than perpetrators did. Males had higher scores than females both as victims and as perpetrators. However,

females had higher mean scores in relation to avoidance, whether as victim or perpetrator. Avoidance coping strategy results show that victims had higher mean scores than perpetrators did.

4.6.2 MANCOVA Results on Coping Strategies

The assumption of homogeneity is met since p = .546 > .016 (Bonferroni adjustment alpha) for coping strategies is satisfied (see details in section 4.3.2, Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices).

Table 4.6.2: Multivariate Test[a]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent Parameter	Observed Power
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.821	173.350[b]	3.000	113.000	.000	.821	520.049	1.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.179	173.350[b]	3.000	113.000	.000	.821	520.049	1.000
	Hotelling's Trace	4.602	173.350[b]	3.000	113.000	.000	.821	520.049	1.000
	Roy's Largest Root	4.602	173.350[b]	3.000	113.000	.000	.821	520.049	1.000
LIE	Pillai's Trace	.019	.732[b]	3.000	113.000	.535	.019	2.195	.202
	Wilks' Lambda	.981	.732[b]	3.000	113.000	.535	.019	2.195	.202
	Hotelling's Trace	.019	.732[b]	3.000	113.000	.535	.019	2.195	.202
	Roy's Largest Root	.019	.732[b]	3.000	113.000	.535	.019	2.195	.202
Gender	Pillai's Trace	.005	.199[b]	3.000	113.000	.897	.005	.596	.086
	Wilks' Lambda	.995	.199[b]	3.000	113.000	.897	.005	.596	.086
	Hotelling's Trace	.005	.199[b]	3.000	113.000	.897	.005	.596	.086
	Roy's Largest Root	.005	.199[b]	3.000	113.000	.897	.005	.596	.086
Role	Pillai's Trace	.117	4.986[b]	3.000	113.000	.003	.117	14.958	.906
	Wilks' Lambda	.883	4.986[b]	3.000	113.000	.003	.117	14.958	.906
	Hotelling's Trace	.132	4.986[b]	3.000	113.000	.003	.117	14.958	.906
	Roy's Largest Root	.132	4.986[b]	3.000	113.000	.003	.117	14.958	.906
Gender * Role	Pillai's Trace	.004	.158[b]	3.000	113.000	.924	.004	.475	.078
	Wilks' Lambda	.996	.158[b]	3.000	113.000	.924	.004	.475	.078
	Hotelling's Trace	.004	.158[b]	3.000	113.000	.924	.004	.475	.078
	Roy's Largest Root	.004	.158[b]	3.000	113.000	.924	.004	.475	.078

a. Design: Intercept + LIE + Gender + Role + Gender * Role
b. Exact statistic
c. Computed using alpha = .05

The multivariate results in table 4.6.2 revealed by Pillai's Trace (p= .003 < .18 Bonferroni adjusted alpha) show that there are statistically significant role differences on how coping strategies are used by victims and perpetrators. However, gender results revealed by Pillai Traces (p= .117 > .18 Bonferroni adjusted alpha) shows no gender differences regarding coping strategies. This implies that a null hypothesis is accepted for gender and rejected for role (victims and perpetrators) since there are significant differences in relation to coping strategies sub-scales based on MANOCVA derived combined dependent variables together in a canonical

manner. From this result it is concluded that role groups differ on some dependent variables; this effect (strength of association) needs to be broken down to find out exactly what is going on (see Table 4.6.3). In interpreting strength of effect size statistics, Cohen's 1988, p.22 guidelines cited in Pallant, 2013 p.218 are used to conclude that there is partial Eta Squared - medium effect size for gender (.005) and small effect size for role (.117). This implies that 5% and 11% of variability in impact across all coping strategies dependent variables is accounted for within groups.

Note, coping strategies levene's test of equality of error variance results satisfied the assumption of homogeneity (imaginative variance) at .182 Bonferroni adjustment alpha (See details in table 4.3.2). This allows to present and discuss next the univariate tests of between-subject's effects which examine each dependent variable-sub scales on coping strategies.

Table 4.6.3: Tests of Between –Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type 111 Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent Parameter	Observed Power
Corrected	Problem solving	228.126l	4	57.031	1.624	.173	.053	6.495	.487
Model	Social Support	500.803m	4	125.201	3.929	.005	.120	15.715	.893
	Avoidance	54.007n	4	13.502	.583	.676	.020	2.331	.188
Intercepted	Problem solving	9424.676	1	9424.676	9424.676	.000	.700	268.340	1.000
	Social Support	9147.562	1	9147.562	9147.562	.000	.714	287.039	1.000
	Avoidance	6320.375	1	6320.375	6320.375	.000	.703	272.759	1.000
LIE	Problem solving	77.791	1	77.791	2.215	.139	.019	2.215	.314
	Social Support	25.886	1	25.886	.812	.369	.007	.812	.145
	Avoidance	.015	1	.015	.001	.980	.000	.001	.050
Gender	Problem solving	4.541	1	4.541	.129	.720	.001	.129	.065
	Social Support	12.713	1	12.713	.399	.529	.003	.399	.096
	Avoidance	2.463	1	2.463	.106	.745	.001	.106	.062
Role	Problem solving	149.656	1	149.656	4.261	.041	.036	4.261	.535
	Social Support	462.664	1	462.664	14.518	.000	.112	14.518	.965
	Avoidance	42.038	1	42.038	1.814	.181	.016	1.814	.267
Gender *	Problem solving	.096	1	.096	.003	.958	.000	.003	.050
Role	Social Support	8.386	1	8.386	.263	.609	.002	.263	.080
	Avoidance	3.529	1	3.529	.152	.697	.001	.152	.067
Error	Problem solving	4039.041	115	35.122					
	Social Support	3664.897	115	31.869					
	Avoidance	2664.785	115	23.172					
Total	Problem solving	76788.000	120						
	Social Support	79466.000	120						
	Avoidance	61019.000	120						
Corrected	Problem solving	4267.167	119						
Total	Social Support	4165.700	119						
	Avoidance	2718.792	119						

a. R Squared = .053 (Adjusted R Squared = .021)
b. R Squared = .120 (Adjusted R Squared = .090)
c. R Squared = .020 (Adjusted R Squared = -.014)
d. Computed using alpha = .05

Table 4.6.3 presents the MANCOVA summary of results for all dependent variables-sub scales on coping strategies in relation to gender and role and the interaction between the two, while controlling lies as a covariate. The results of interest are those in the rows relating to gender, role and their interaction between gender and role. Firstly, results in relation to role show statistical significant differences in relation to problem solving and social support coping revealed by (p values.000, 041, .181 which are all smaller than > .182 Bonferroni adjusted alpha). This implies that regarding. That there is significant difference in seeking social support, problem solving and slightly on avoidance used by victims and perpetrators. Secondly, the univariate results in relation to gender show no significant gender differences in relation to coping strategies sub-scales (p values are bigger than .182 Bonferroni adjusted alpha). Hence, it can be concluded that males and females, did not report significant differences in how they used problem solving, social support and avoidance coping strategies. Although, results show no interaction between role and gender in relation to coping strategies, results show statistical significant differences in how these strategies are used by victims and perpetrators which are explored further in post-hoc tables presented and discussed next.

4.6.3 Post-hoc ANCOVA Results on Coping Strategies

Post-hoc tests systematically compares each of the pairs of groups, and indicates where there is a significant difference in the means of each (Pallant 2013 p.206). SPSS provides the post-hoc tests as part of the ANCOVA output. Pallant 2003 recommends that one is not supposed to look at the post-hoc results until one finds a significant main effect or interaction effect in overall (Omnibus) analysis of variance test. In this study, I obtained a significant main effect result for role in coping strategies in the ANCOVA test, justifying further exploration (Pallant, 2003 p.206).

Table 4.6.4: Post-hoc ANCOVA on Coping Strategies for Victims and Perpetrators.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable	(I) Role of Domestic Violence	(J) Role of Domestic Violence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Total Problem solving	Victim	Perpetrator	2.459*	1.191	.041	.099	4.818
	Perpetrator	Victim	-2.459*	1.191	.041	-4.818	-.099
Total Social Support	Victim	Perpetrator	4.323*	1.135	.000	2.076	6.570
	Perpetrator	Victim	-4.323*	1.135	.000	-6.570	-2.076
Total Avoidance	Victim	Perpetrator	1.303	.967	.181	-.613	3.219
	Perpetrator	Victim	-1.303	.967	.181	-3.219	.613

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Results in table 4.6.4 are post pairwise comparisons generated by Sidak to test significant differences that exist between victims and perpetrators. The difference is indicated by a little asterisk in the column labelled mean difference (Pallant,2003). In this study results in table above show that victims and perpetrators significantly differ from each other in social support and problem solving coping strategy. For instance, the victims had higher scores on Problem solving (M=25.68, SD=5.99 and Social Support M=27.0, SD=5.74) than perpetrators whose mean scores on problem solving M=23.48, SD=5.82 and Social support strategy M=23.10, SD=5.46). Moreover, even on avoidance strategy victims had slightly higher scores than perpetrators. This implies that there was a significant difference in social support and problem solving strategy used by victims and perpetrators. The detailed mean scores are discussed in table 4.6.1).

Table 4.6.5: Post-hoc ANCOVA on Coping Strategies for Males and Females.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable	(I) Gender	(J) Gender	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
						Lower Bound	UpperBound
Total Problem solving	Male	Female	427	1.187	.720	-1.925	2.779
	Female	Male	-.427	1.187	.720	-2.779	1.925
Total Social Support	Male	Female	.714	1.131	.529	-1.526	2.955
	Female	Male	-.714	1.131	.529	-2.955	1.526
Total Avoidance	Male	Female	-.314	.964	.745	-2.225	1.596
	Female	Male	.314	.964	.745	-1.596	2.225

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak

Table 4.6.5 shows that unlike results for victims and perpetrators, the post-hoc comparisons using Sidak indicate that males and females did not significantly differ in regard to any of the coping strategies. However, detailed mean scores are discussed in table 4.6.1.

4.7 Hypothesis 1: Summary explicitly reflecting how findings link to hypothesis one.

This first hypothesis of this study is:

> *Hypothesis One: There are no significant gender and role differences in sub-scales of attitudes towards coercive behaviours, self-reported domestic violence victimisation personality traits and coping style-strategies in a Ugandan sample.*

To accept or reject this hypothesis, I have linked the main findings of this study to the following dependent variables:

(i) Firstly, Attitudes towards coercive behaviours findings Summary:

A two by two MANCOVA was conducted to explore the impact of role and gender on sub-scales on attitude to coercive behaviours: Private matter attitude, Men's Right to Control, Women Lie/Exaggerate, Women's Behaviour Used to Justify and No Big Deal were dependent variables. The independent variables were role (victims and perpetrators) and gender (males and females). Preliminary tests were conducted to check normality, linearity, univariate, multivariate and homogeneity. No serious violations were noted. The results show no statistically significant difference and no interaction between males and females, victims and perpetrators on all dependent variables. For role F=.802, P=.551; Pillai Trace =.035; partial eta squared =.035). For gender F=.964, P=.443; Pillai Trace =.042; partial eta squared =.042). When the results for dependent variables were considered separately, the only difference to reach statistical significance using a Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of .016, was private matter attitude F=6.35, P=.013, partial eta squared =.052. Post-hoc comparisons only showed significant differences between victims and perpetrators. Through inspecting the mean scores,

perpetrators reported slightly higher scores on private matter attitude (M=7.60, SD=2.08) than victims (M=6.48, SD=2.20).

(ii) Secondly, Self-reported domestic violence victimisation findings Summary:

A two by two MANCOVA was conducted to explore the impact of role and gender on sub-scales on domestic violence victimisation: Physical, Psychological and Sexual violence. The independent variables were role (victims and perpetrators) and gender (males and females). Preliminary tests were conducted to for check normality, linearity, univariate, multivariate and homogeneity and no serious violations noted. There were no statistically significant differences between males and females and no interaction. The results however, show statistically significant differences between victims and perpetrators. For role F=.9.058, P=.194; Pillai Trace =.000; partial eta squared =.194). For gender F=.749, P=.525; Pillai Trace =.019; partial eta squared =.019). When the results for dependent variables were considered separately, the difference to reach statistical significance using a Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of .002 for role (victims and perpetrators) was physical violence F=15.469, P=.000, partial eta squared =.119. Furthermore, psychological violence was significant F=24.516, P=.000, partial eta squared =.176. No significance was reported for sexual violence. Post-hoc tests only showed significant differences between victims and perpetrators. Through inspecting the mean scores, victims reported slightly higher scores on physical violence (M=49.41, SD=19.30 and psychological violence M=26.26, SD = 8.22) than perpetrators (M=35.06, SD=13.04 and psychological M=19.38, SD=5.99). This implies that more victims than perpetrators reported high scores on physical and psychological violence but not sexual violence.

(iii) Thirdly, Personality traits findings Summary:

A two by two MANCOVA was conducted to explore the impact of role and gender on personality traits sub-scales: Extroversion, Neuroticism and Psychoticism were dependent variables. The independent variables were role (victims and perpetrators) and gender (males

and females). Preliminary tests were conducted to check for normality, linearity, univariate, multivariate and homogeneity and no serious violations noted. The results show no statistically significant difference and no interaction between males and females, victims and perpetrators on all dependent variables (for gender F=.1.368, P=.256; Pillai Trace =.035; partial eta squared =.035); for role F=.736, P=.533; Pillai Trace =.019; partial eta squared =.019). When the results for dependent variables were considered separately, there was no difference of statistical significance using a Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of .016. Furthermore, post-hoc results show no significant differences between victims and perpetrators or males and females. However, through inspecting the mean scores, perpetrators reported slightly higher scores on neuroticism trait (M=5.533, SD=2.33 and psychoticism M=2.85, SD=1.73) than victims on neuroticism (M=65.216, SD=2.52 and psychoticism (M=2.83, SD=1.63). Furthermore, victims had higher scores on extroversion than perpetrators (see detailed discussion of mean scores on personality traits in Table 4.3.1).

(iv) Fourthly, Coping style-strategies:

A two by two MANCOVA was conducted to explore the impact of role and gender on sub-scales on coping strategies (lie was controlled). The independent variables were role (victims and perpetrators) and gender (males and females). Preliminary tests were conducted to check normality, linearity, univariate, multivariate and homogeneity and no serious violations were noted. The results show statistically significant differences between victims and perpetrators on problem solving and social support coping strategies (dependent variables). No differences were reported in results for males and females and there was no gender interaction. For role F=.4.986, P=.003; Pillai Trace =.117; partial eta squared =.117). For gender F=.199, P=.897; Pillai Trace =.005; partial eta squared =.005). When the results for dependent variables were considered separately, differences of statistical significance were problem solving strategy (F=462.664, P=.041, partial eta squared =.036) and social support coping strategy (F=4.261,

P=.000, partial eta squared =.112). Post-hoc tests only showed significant differences between victims and perpetrators. Through inspecting the mean scores, victims had higher scores on problem solving (M=25.68, SD=5.99 and social support M=27.0, SD=5.74) than perpetrators (M=23.48, SD=5.82) and social support strategy (M=23.10, SD=5.46). Moreover, even on avoidance strategy, victims had slightly higher scores than perpetrators.

In respect of the above findings, hypothesis one results show that there are significant role differences in sub-scales of attitudes towards coercive behaviours, self-reported domestic violence victimisation and coping style-strategies. However, there are no gender differences on most aforementioned sub-scales. Although, results revealed no interaction between role and gender there are main-effects revealed mainly on role in most sub-scales of attitudes towards coercive behaviours, self-reported domestic violence victimisation personality traits and coping style-strategies. Consequently, because gender and role had an effect on some sub-scales, this effect needs to be broken down to see exactly what dependent variables are significant for males and females but also for victims and perpetrators. These results are presented in the correlation matrices for gender (males and females) and role (victims and perpetrators). These correlational findings aim to test *Hypothesis 2:* There are gender-based relationships between sub-scales of self-reported domestic violence victimisation, attitudes towards coercive behaviours, personality traits and coping style-strategies in a Ugandan sample. And *Hypothesis 3:* There are role-based relationships between sub-scales of self-reported domestic violence victimisation, attitudes towards coercive behaviours, personality traits and coping style-strategies in a Ugandan sample.

4.8 Hypothesis 2-3: Correlation Matrices and how these findings link to this study hypotheses Two and Three

Subsequent to previous results summarised in 4.7 that gender and role had an effect on some dimensions of domestic violence, personality and coping strategies but not attitudes to

coercion, this effect needs to be broken down to see exactly what dependent variables are significant for males and females but also for victims and perpetrators. This is presented in the correlation matrices for males and females in Table 4.7.1-4.7.2 (hypothesis 2) and Table 4.7.3-4.7.4 for victims and perpetrators (hypothesis 3).

4.8.1 Hypothesis Two Results

> *Hypothesis 2: There are gender-based relationships between sub-scales of self-reported domestic violence victimisation, attitudes towards coercive behaviours, personality traits and coping style-strategies in a Ugandan sample.*

To test this hypothesis, the data file was split to compare groups based on gender, after which the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (correlation matrices) in relation to all dependent variables were analysed. The results are presented and interpreted in separate tables for males and females. Then a joint summary compares both genders to see if any commonalities or differences in the significant relationships exist.

Table 4.7.1: Correlation Matrix for Males on Dependent Variables Sub-Scales

Gender (IV)		PM	MRC	WL	WB	NBD	PHY	PSY	SEX	EXT	NEU	PSYC	PRO	SOC	A
Male															
PM	Pearson Correlation														
	Sig. (2-tailed)	_													
MRC	Pearson Correlation	-.042													
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.794	_												
WL	Pearson Correlation	237	.301												
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.136	.056	_											
WB	Pearson Correlation	.201	.490**	.344*											
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.207	.001	.028	_										
NBD	Pearson Correlation	.192	.175	.094	347*										
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.229	.275	.557	.026	_									
PHY	Pearson Correlation	.351*	.047	.123	.215	.009									
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.025	.770	.443	.178	.957	_								
PSY	Pearson Correlation	.230	.069	.138	.156	.015	.799**								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.149	.668	.390	.330	.924	.000	_							
SEX	Pearson Correlation	.276	.001	.106	.107	-.230	.653**	.725**							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.080	.997	.510	.505	.148	.000	.000	_						
EXT	Pearson Correlation	.076	-.125	-.007	-.105	.071	-.134	-.108	-.070						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.635	.435	.965	.514	.657	.403	.501	.663	_					
NEU	Pearson Correlation	.124	.179	-.029	.000	-.069	-.106	-.148	-.192	.309*					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.439	.264	.856	.999	.667	.511	.355	.230	.049	_				
PSYC	Pearson Correlation	-.058	-.054	-.103	-.072	.014	.110	.155	-.045	-.030	-.375*				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.720	.736	.523	.655	.930	.493	.333	.782	.851	.016	_			
PRO	Pearson Correlation	.249	.035	.247	.100	.117	.145	.144	-.089	-.167	-.253	.186			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.117	.830	.120	.535	.466	.367	.370	.580	.297	.111	.243	_		
SOC	Pearson Correlation	.139	.131	.284	.207	.021	.274	.413**	.058	-.256	-.252	.120	.706**		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.385	.415	.072	.195	.895	.083	.007	.719	.106	.112	.455	.000	_	
AVO	Pearson Correlation	.209	.199	.044	.132	.064	.315*	.341*	.099	-.050	.041	.122	.260	446**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.189	.211	.786	.410	.689	.045	.029	.538	.757	.800	.446	.100	.003	_
	N	N	41	41	41	41	41	41	41	41	41	41	41	41	

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). p < .004 (Significant on Bonferroni correction).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).} p < .004 (Significant on Bonferroni correction).

PM= Private Matter; MRC = Men's Right to Control; WL = Women Lie/Exaggerate; WB= Women behaviour used to justify; PHY= Physical violence; PSY= Psychological violence; SEX= Sexual Violence; EXT = Extroversion trait; NEU= Neuroticism trait; PSYC= Psychoticism trait; PRO= Problem solving coping, SOC= Social support coping; AVO= Avoidance coping.

Table 4.7.1 presents output of results testing, the statistical significance of correlation coefficients for males and table 35 presents females on the 14 dependent variable sub-scales. The significance levels reported below provide a test of the null hypothesis that correlation coefficient is 0. Thus the male results (significance at Bonferroni correction -.004 adjusted alpha) are that men consider they have the right to control women and that 'women's behaviour is used to justify' coercive behaviours. Furthermore, both physical violence and psychological violence correlated with sexual violence. These results imply that males who had higher scores and strong attitudes on 'men's right to control' also held beliefs that 'women behaviours' are used to justify coercion. Males experiencing physical violence were also likely to report psychological violence and sexual violence. In addition, males who reported high on psychological violence also reported high on sexual violence. The male results further indicate that males who scored high on psychoticism personality traits engaged positively with seeking social support. However, males who engaged in seeking social support also engaged positively with avoidance coping strategy.

Table 4.7.2: Correlation Matrix for Females on Dependent Variables Sub-Scales

Female		PM	MRC	WL	WB	NBD	PHY	PSY	SEX	EXT	NEU	PSYC	PRO	S
PM	Pearson Correlation													
	Sig. (2-tailed)	_												
MRC	Pearson Correlation	.301**												
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	_											
WL	Pearson Correlation	.279*	.353**											
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013	.001	_										
WB	Pearson Correlation	.407**	.313**	258*										
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.005	.021	_									
NBD	Pearson Correlation	.280*	.291**	.404**	.344**									
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013	.009	.000	.002	_								
PHY	Pearson Correlation	-.112	.079	.015	.028	-.184								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.325	.491	.896	.807	.104	_							
PSY	Pearson Correlation	-.091	.067	.041	.018	-.077	.744**							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.427	.556	.721	.874	.502	.000	_						
SEX	Pearson Correlation	-.165	.096	-.010	.014	-.181	.499**	.589**						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.146	.399	.933	.903	.111	.000	.000	_					
EXT	Pearson Correlation	-.016	-.041	-.151	.037	-.229*	.145	.159	108					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.887	.719	.183	.745	.042	.203	.162	.346	_				
NEU	Pearson Correlation	-.080	-.042	.011	-.104	-.143	.141	.075	.045	.145				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.481	.714	.926	.360	.208	.214	.510	.696	.204	_			
PSYC	Pearson Correlation	.141	.235*	.166	.069	.185	-.025	.036	-.235*	-.091	-.301**			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.215	.037	.144	.544	.102	.829	.753	.037	.426	.007	_		
PRO	Pearson Correlation	-.021	-.097	-.139	-.120	-.115	.247*	.313**	.073	-.158	-.188	.077		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.854	.395	.223	.292	.315	.028	.005	.520	.165	.097	.499	_	
SOC	Pearson Correlation	-.008	.123	-.003	-.097	-.058	.341**	.355**	.046	-.077	-.141	.150	.643**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.946	.278	.979	.395	.610	.002	.001	.685	.502	.215	.188	.000	_
AVO	Pearson Correlation	-.147	-.075	-.094	.025	-.157	.291**	.279*	.205	.130	.103	.090	.029	0
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.197	.511	.412	.828	.166	.009	.013	.070	.252	.366	.430	.799	.
	N	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	7

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). p < .004 (Significant on Bonferroni correction).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).} p < .004 (Significant on Bonferroni correction).

PM= Private Matter; MRC = Men's Right to Control; WL = Women Lie/Exaggerate; WB= Women behaviour used to justify; PHY= Physical violence; PSY= Psychological violence; SEX= Sexual Violence; EXT = Extroversion trait; NEU= Neuroticism trait; PSYC= Psychoticism trait; PRO= Problem solving coping, SOC= Social support coping; AVO= Avoidance coping.

Table 4.7.2 results on female are also significant at Bonferroni correction adjusted alpha of .004. This is aimed at reducing type 1 error of thinking (that there is significant correlation

when it is not actually there, Pallant, 2013). The statistically significant results from the female respondents are in respect of the following variables: beliefs and attitudes that coercive behaviours including domestic violence is a 'private matter', 'women behaviours used to justify coercive behaviours violence, 'men's right to control', 'women lie' and, 'no big deal' attitude. The results further show that physical violence correlated with both psychological and sexual violence. However, only physical violence correlated with social support, problem solving and social support coping styles.

These results imply that females who hold strong views about coercive behaviours including domestic violence as a private matter also hold strong views that women's' behaviour is used to justify coercive behaviours. However, females with strong attitude to coercive behaviours also had a strong attitude to the notion that domestic violence is no big deal. Furthermore, females who reported experiencing higher physical violence correlated/related to both psychological and sexual violence. Females who reported high psychological violence, also engaged positively with seeking social support as a coping strategy. In addition to females engaging positively with seeking social support, they also engaged positively with problem solving coping strategy.

Overall, similar results are seen on men's right to control attitude being held by both males and females. However, men's right to control related with women's behaviour used to justify for males and for females, with the women lie scale. Also physical violence related/correlated with sexual violence for both males and females. In addition, psychological traits correlated with sexual violence for both genders. Social support coping was the strategy most engaged by both males and females. However, distinctive results are seen in males who held strong attitudes only to men's right to control and women's behaviour used to justify; yet females held strong attitudes to most coercive behaviours (e.g. private matter, women lie and men rights to control).

Overall, personality traits did not correlate positively with other dependent variables for both males and females. *From these results the alternative hypothesis is accepted* to conclude that although not in all, there are statistically significant correlations between some subscales-dimensions on domestic violence victimisation, attitudes to coercive behaviours, personality traits and coping strategies.

4.8.2 Hypothesis Three Results

> *Hypothesis 3: There are role-based relationships between sub-scales of self-reported domestic violence victimisation, attitudes towards coercive behaviours, personality traits and coping style-strategies in a Ugandan sample.*

Similar to previous results in relation to gender (females and males), table 4.7.1 and 4.7.2 (victims and perpetrators) presents correlation matrices on dependent variables based on role to test hypothesis four. These results represent the output from victims (60) and perpetrators (60). The results are interpreted to identify any inter-correlation (relationship) between the following dependent variables in both groups, thus revealing psychological characteristics for victims and perpetrators.

Table 4.7.3: Correlation Matrix for Victims on Dependent Variables Sub-Scales

Role in Domestic Violence (IV)		PM	MRC	WL	WB	NBD	PHY	PSY	SEX	EXT	NEU	PSYC	PRO	SOC	A
Victims															
PM	Pearson Correlation														
	Sig. (2-tailed)	_													
MRC	Pearson Correlation	.212													
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.103	_												
WL	Pearson Correlation	.241	.425**												
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.064	.001	_											
WB	Pearson Correlation	.314*	.352**	.269*											
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.015	.006	.038	_										
NBD	Pearson Correlation	.227	.386**	.225	.393**										
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.081	.002	.084	.002	_									
PHY	Pearson Correlation	.090	.154	.016	.018	-.174									
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.496	.240	.902	.890	.183	_								
PSY	Pearson Correlation	.054	.095	.018	-.033	-.069	.695**								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.679	.472	.891	.804	.601	.000	_							
SEX	Pearson Correlation	-.026	.033	.100	-.114	-.228	.491**	620**							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.842	.800	.448	.387	.080	.000	.000	_						
EXT	Pearson Correlation	.063	-.081	-.247	.005	-.326*	.075	-.010	.069						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.634	.540	.057	.971	.011	.568	.941	.598	_					
NEU	Pearson Correlation	-.016	.076	-.166	-.121	-.258*	.119	.009	.054	.136					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.903	.564	.205	.357	.046	.365	.943	.682	.301	_				
PSYC	Pearson Correlation	-.052	.178	.081	-.038	.053	.027	.081	-.216	-.170	-.286*				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.691	.173	.540	.775	.687	.835	.536	.097	.194	.027	_			
PRO	Pearson Correlation	-.054	-.011	-.031	.090	.050	.258*	.377**	.048	-.137	-.341**	.231			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.684	.935	.811	.493	.706	.046	.003	.713	.298	.008	.076	_		
SOC	Pearson Correlation	.020	.233	.191	.085	.038	324*	.426**	.118	-.216	-.283*	.263*	.711**		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.879	.074	.144	.516	.774	.011	.001	.368	.098	.029	.042	.000	_	
AVO	Pearson Correlation	-.056	.006	-.183	-.020	-.223	.346**	.359**	.175	-.004	.124	.104	.160	.237	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.669	.966	.161	.881	.087	.007	.005	.181	.976	.346	.431	.222	.068	_
	N	N	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).} P < .004 (Significant on Bonferroni correction).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).} P < .004 (Significant on Bonferroni correction).

PM= Private Matter; MRC = Men's Right to Control; WL = Women Lie/Exaggerate; WB= Women behaviour used to justify; PHY= Physical violence; PSY= Psychological violence; SEX= Sexual Violence; EXT = Extroversion trait; NEU= Neuroticism trait; PSYC= Psychoticism trait; PRO= Problem solving coping, SOC= Social support coping; AVO= Avoidance coping.

Table 4.7.3 presents the output from results testing, the statistical significance of correlation coefficients for victims and perpetrators on fourteen (14) dependent variables (sub-scales). These sub-scales include measures of attitudes to coercive behaviours including domestic violence as a 'Private Matter', 'Men's Right to Control'; Women Lie/Exaggerate; Women's behaviour used to justify. Domestic violence victimisation sub-scales include Physical violence; Psychological violence and Sexual Violence. While personality traits sub-scales are Extroversion trait; Neuroticism trait and Psychoticism trait. The coping strategies scales are Problem solving coping, Social support coping; Avoidance coping. In all these sub-scales, the significance levels reported within the table and interpreted in the text provide a test of the null hypothesis that the correlation coefficient within the sample is 0 (see hypothesis 4). The results reported by victims significant at Bonferroni correction (.004 adjusted alpha) are in relation to the following variables: men's right to control and women lie, men's right to control and no big deal, women behaviours used to justify and no big deal, physical and sexual violence, psychological and sexual violence, psychological traits and problem solving, psychological and social support, problem solving and social support. These results imply that victims reported strong attitudes on men's right to control which correlated positively with women lie attitude. In addition, victims who had strong scores on women's behaviours used to justify (coercive behaviours) also had strong attitude on the no big deal (coercive behaviours). Furthermore, victims who reported high physical violence also reported higher psychological and sexual violence. However, victim's results show that victims who reported high psychological violence, engaged positively with problem solving and social support coping strategies.

Table 4.7.4: Correlation Matrix for Perpetrators on Dependent Variables Sub-Scales

Role in Domestic Violence (IV) **Perpetrators**		PM	MRC	WL	WB	NBD	PHY	PSY	SEX	EXT	NEU	PSYC	PRO	SOC	A
PM	Pearson Correlation														
	Sig. (2-tailed)	_													
MRC	Pearson Correlation	.165													
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.209	_												
WL	Pearson Correlation	.265*	.188												
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.041	.150	_											
WB	Pearson Correlation	.330*	.334**	.304*											
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.010	.009	.018	_										
NBD	Pearson Correlation	.245	.059	.431**	.252										
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.060	.652	.001	.052	_									
PHY	Pearson Correlation	.238	.014	.241	.396**	.064									
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.067	.913	.064	.002	.625	_								
PSY	Pearson Correlation	.257*	.117	.312*	.417**	.130	743**								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.048	.373	.015	.001	.323	.000	_							
SEX	Pearson Correlation	.122	.112	.010	.345**	-.089	.607**	.653**							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.353	.395	.940	.007	.499	.000	.000	_						
EXT	Pearson Correlation	-.002	.009	.116	-.039	.181	-.108	.098	-.092						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.986	.947	.378	.767	.167	.411	.455	.487	_					
NEU	Pearson Correlation	-.035	-.022	.178	-.032	.047	.034	.044	-.170	.333**					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.788	.866	.174	.807	.723	.798	.736	.194	.009	_				
PSYC	Pearson Correlation	.208	.127	.060	.061	.231	.014	.087	-.129	.094	-.364**				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.111	.332	.651	.641	.076	.916	.508	.326	.473	.004	_			
PRO	Pearson Correlation	.305*	-.086	.058	-.150	-.120	.004	-.046	-.104	-.256*	-.052	.006			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.018	.511	.662	.254	.360	.977	.729	.430	.048	.695	.966	_		
SOC	Pearson Correlation	.270*	.060	.079	.030	-.029	.043	.051	-.161	-.134	-.052	.039	.587**		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.037	.650	.550	.820	.825	.745	.698	.220	.307	.693	.766	.000	_	
AVO	Pearson Correlation	.089	.065	.151	.185	.130	.153	.142	.083	.167	.046	.113	.023	.118	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.497	.622	.250	.158	.322	.242	.279	.527	.203	.729	.389	.862	.371	_
	N	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).} P < .004 (Significant on Bonferroni correction).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).} P < .004 (Significant on Bonferroni correction).

PM= Private Matter; MRC = Men's Right to Control; WL = Women Lie/Exaggerate; WB= Women behaviour used to justify; PHY= Physical violence; PSY= Psychological violence; SEX= Sexual Violence; EXT = Extroversion trait; NEU= Neuroticism trait; PSYC= Psychoticism trait; PRO= Problem solving coping, SOC= Social support coping; AVO= Avoidance coping.

The perpetrators result significant at Bonferroni correction (.004 adjusted alpha) are presented in the output table 4.7.4 (see perpetrators results). The results include scores on the following

variables: women lie and no big deal, women's behaviour used to justify and physical violence, women behaviour used to justify and psychological violence, physical and psychological violence, physical and sexual violence, psychological and sexual violence, neuroticism and psychological violence, problem solving coping strategy and social support. These results imply that perpetrators of domestic violence who held strong attitudes on coercive behaviours that women lie also reported stronger attitudes on no big deal attitude to coercive behaviours. Moreover, scores on women's behaviour used to justify coercive behaviour correlated positively with high scores on reported physical violence. In addition, physical violence reported correlated positively with psychological and sexual violence. Similarly, psychological violence reported by perpetrators highly correlated/related to sexual violence. However, regarding perpetrators personality traits score, only neurotic personality traits related to the psychological violence. Moreover, perpetrators results show they mainly engaged positively with problem solving and also social support coping strategy.

Overall, there are similar significant results reported by both victims and perpetrators. For example, similar significant results are seen on highly reported physical and psychological violence. Indeed, both physical and psychological violence correlated with sexual violence. General to perpetrators and victims, social support and problem solving coping strategies were the most positively engaged. However, there were distinctive results for victims especially on attitudes to coercive behaviours not revealing relationship/correlations to most other dependent variables (see results in table 30). In contrast, women's behaviour used to justify influenced mainly physical and psychological violence aspects of domestic violence. Moreover, perpetrators who reported high scores on neuroticism personality trait engaged positively with seeking social support. This is an aspect distinct to perpetrators results and not seen within victim's results. These results mainly show both positive inter-correlations between different dependent variables. Hence, based on these correlations, a null hypothesis is rejected, to

conclude that there are relationships between dependent variables based on role in domestic violence (victims and perpetrators).

4.9 Conclusion

In summary, in relation to *Hypothesis one*, the results show role differences but no gender differences in relation to dependent variables of attitudes towards coercive behaviours, self-reported domestic violence victimisation, personality traits and coping style-strategies, based on MANOCVA derived combined dependent variables together in a canonical manner. Furthermore, results show that there is no significant interaction between gender and role in dependent variables sub-scales of attitudes towards coercive behaviours, self-reported domestic violence victimisation, personality traits and coping style-strategies. To explore the effects further, univariate results on each dependent variable (univariates) show some contrasts. For example, despite being led to believe that there are no role differences, there are differences in dependent variables and how coping is engaged. In addition, to a small extent, differences are noticed between genders in relation to psychoticism personality traits and sexual violence. However, these results do not tell us specifically where differences exist between males and females but rather between victims and perpetrators. To test the existence of these differences in relationships (Hypothesis two and three), the data file was split based on gender and role and further analysis (Pearson product moment correlation) was run to establish if there were any significant correlations between groups of males and females, victims and perpetrators. The correlation matrices for each group are presented and, overall, males' results reflect them to be largely inclined to the `men's right to control` and the attitude that women behaviours are used to justify coercion. Most forms of domestic violence revealed positive correlations. Females' results, like males', show that attitudes to coercive behaviour, but mainly on `women lie-exaggerate` `women lie-exaggerate` `private matter ` `men's right to control ` correlated mostly

with no big deal attitude to coercive behaviours. Females' results further reported significant correlations between domestic violence in all its forms (physical, psychological and sexual violence). Interestingly, whereas the avoidant and problem solving were not highly engaged, seeking social support as a coping strategy was reported. Females who reported physical and psychological violence highly engaged with seeking social support. Similar to social support, problem solving was equally positively engaged with by females. In both male and female results, personality traits were not statistically significant to most other dependent variable sub-scales. In general, there is dependent variables inter-correlation, both negative and positive, between variables for males and females. Hence, it can be concluded for *hypothesis two* that there are statistically significant relationships in both genders between sub-scales of self-reported domestic violence victimisation, attitudes towards coercive behaviours, personality traits and coping style-strategies in a Ugandan sample. In addition, victims' and perpetrators' results share to a small extent some similarities but largely each group shows distinctive correlations on dependent variables. For example, overall, the results mainly show both positive and negative inter-correlation between different dependent variables. Hence, based on these correlations, the alternative *hypothesis three* is accepted, to conclude that there are statistically significant relationships between dependent variables based on role in domestic violence (victims and perpetrators) in a Ugandan sample. Largely, victims' and perpetrators' results, like males' and females' results, show a correlation between different dependent variables for each group, to suggest different psychological characteristics. To conclude, these results support and elaborate this thesis's argument that domestic violence is not gender specific since both males and females take roles as either victims or perpetrators. More important, from the Ugandan sample results, is that domestic violence cannot be fully understood by reference to cultural explanations alone and that psychological explanations such as personality traits and attitudes are evident.

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS DISCUSSED IN RELATION TO THE WIDER LITERATURE

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a data driven analysis of the wider literature to explore what is known about the impact of gender and domestic violence role on personality, coping styles, attitudes to coercion and self-reported victimisation in other countries. This is because, unlike a traditional review, a data driven review has a clear stated purpose and a defined search approach stating inclusion and exclusion criteria; though it claims to be objective, balanced and unbiased (Jesson, Matheson & Lacy, 2011 p.12, 103) the focus and scope of the review is determined by the study results. As recommended by Jesson et al. (2011 p.27), that since the information from text books becomes out of date quickly, the use of online resources and library resources ensure that most up-to-date sources for the search were obtained. Key terms derived from the study aims and results (e.g. gender, forms and causes of domestic violence, gender differences in personality traits, coping strategies and attitudes towards coercive behaviours, psychological characteristics of victims and perpetrators of domestic violence etc.) were used to retrieve articles from the University of Huddersfield's Summon database. In line with Jesson et al.'s (2011 p.27) recommendation, additional designated keywords attached to the article were used to search for related articles. Where articles were retrieved that had the key words appearing in the article but where the content was not relevant, the search results were considered not relevant and not used. Boolean operators, mainly 'AND', were used to search for articles with two words (for example, `gender` *and* `role in domestic violence` in the case of this study). As

I could not locate any published studies similar to my research, I draw comparisons from the published western literature on victims' and perpetrators' psychological characteristics. The rationale for focusing on a review of characteristics is also supported by Canter and Young (2009) who argue that, through exploring general behaviour patterns and offence actions (domestic violence in this case), one gains insight into offender characteristics, and victims too in the case of this current study. Hence, the published literature reviewed has been structured as follows:

5.2 *Domestic violence in western countries and how research results link to the current study*

5.2.1 Forms of domestic violence.

5.2.2 Gender symmetry (equal victimisation)

5.2.3 Victim or perpetrator? (role in domestic violence).

5.3 Research on attitudes to coercive behaviours in western literature and how results link to the current study

5.4 Research on personality traits in western literature and how results link to the current study

5.5 Research on coping strategies in western literature and how results link to the current study.

5.*6 Psychological characteristics of male and female victims of domestic violence, in published sources.*

5.7 Psychological characteristics of male and female perpetrators of domestic violence, in published sources.

5.8 Summary and conclusions from the data driven review of the literature in relation to the current study.

In the summary section, this chapter briefly discusses the under-researching of this topic, as evidenced by the few available studies on female perpetrators and male victims of domestic

violence. A conclusion is then provided to acknowledge any commonalities or differences within the western literature and the Ugandan sample. This sets a foundation for the next chapter, Chapter 6, which discusses the implications of the current study for policy and practice within Uganda and concludes the thesis.

In reviewing the literature, studies have been sourced from the UK and other western countries to explore the extent to which the Ugandan results reflect broader commonalities or describe a picture distinct to the African context. The main results of this study (discussed in Chapter Four) have shown that: *(i)* domestic violence in Uganda is not only cultural (Bowman, 2003, 2006) but also psychological and *(ii)* domestic violence victimisation is more gender symmetrical in Uganda than has previously been understood (although the notion of gender symmetry masks the extent of gender inequalities and differential needs and is not particularly helpful in designing policy or interventions – this is discussed later). While women are more likely to be subjected to domestic violence, men too are victims and that for both genders, like victims, perpetrators may have been victims before or experienced victimisation. Furthermore, in studying psychological concepts reported by victims and perpetrators of both genders, insights have been gained into the-participants' psychological characteristics. The Ugandan sample results have revealed that, to some extent, the same and/or similar psychological concepts are significantly correlated for males and females, victims and perpetrators

5.2 Domestic Violence Review of Literature (Previous studies)

5.2.1 Forms of domestic violence in published sources

The following definitions have been adopted for the purposes of the review. For domestic violence this study adopted the broad definition earlier defined and justified in chapter one as 'a pattern of coercive behaviours used by one partner to control and subordinate another in intimate relationships' (Oregon Domestic Violence Council, 1995 cited in Margi, 2008). This definition also sits together with the more extensive definition in chapter one which describes

domestic violence as the experience of physical violence (e.g. slapping, hitting, kicking and beating), sexual violence (e.g. forced intercourse and other forms of coerced sex) and emotional or psychological violence (e.g. intimidation and humiliation) by a current or former partner (WHO, 2005 p.13; WHO, 2013, p.5).

In the United States, domestic violence, otherwise termed intimate partner violence or domestic abuse, has been defined as a pattern of coercive behaviours used by one person to control and subordinate another in an intimate relationship (Oregon Domestic Violence Council, 1995 cited in Margi, 2008). The fact is that there exist different definitions for different countries, which fits well with Muehlenhard & Kimes' (1999) argument that domestic violence is socially constructed, developed over time and reflects prevailing understandings, power sharing and the specific interests of the stakeholders concerned.

Women's experiences of abuse and supporting research evidence continue to expand conceptualisations of domestic violence as physically injurious by highlighting a range of abusive, coercive, controlling behaviours often causing psychological, sexual or physical harm and often accompanying or preceding the use or threat of physical abuse. However, there has been less attention to sexual and psychological forms of abuse among others (Bergen, 1999; O'Leary, 1999; Dekeseredy, 2000; Barnish, 2004). Similarly, some issues of terminology remain actively contested, such as whether domestic violence should be a gender–specific or neutral referent and/or encompass all forms and incidence of abuse in all types of intimate relationships (Muehlenhard & Kimes, 1999; Barnish, 2004). Hence, next I review gender symmetry in Western literature to reflect on victimisation experiences of men and women, victims and perpetrators.

5.2.2 Gender Symmetry- Equal Victimisation

In the 1996 British Crime Survey self-completion questionnaire (Mirrlees-Black, 1999) equal proportions (4.2%) of both men and women revealed that they had been assaulted by a current/former partner during the past year. Similarly, equal or near equal victimisation has been found in many other large-scale national surveys, particularly in North America, some of which report higher levels of violence by women. For example, a meta-analysis of 82 studies (mainly from the US) found that women were more likely than men to use acts of physical violence/aggression (Archer, 2000). However, such studies have been criticised for claiming domestic violence gender symmetry and for ignoring the meaning, nature, context and consequences of aggressive behaviour (Dobash, et al 1992; Nazaroo 1995; Hagemann-White 2001; Dasgupta 2002; Saunders, 2002).

Furthermore, research that supports a gender symmetry hypothesis fails to impartially acknowledge men's disproportionate use of violence and aggressive behaviour relative to women's in every other sphere of life (Kimmel, 2002 cited in Barnish, 2004). Moreover, some methodological research (analysing the body of methods and principles in gender symmetry) has shown that women are more reliable respondents who tend to report their own violence more completely (Romkens, 1997). The reliability of male survey responses is also cast into doubt by a follow–up study of men reporting violence by their partners in the Scottish Crime Survey (Gadd et al., 2002) which had initially indicated that 1 in 3 of those experiencing domestic violence were men (Macpherson, 2002). When these men were retraced, 28% said they had never experienced any form of partner violence but had misunderstood the self-completion form questions about domestic violence/abuse and were referring to other crimes committed around their homes.

In addition, research and analysis that explored and differentiated some of the issues integral to men's and women's experiences of domestic violence has shown that women abused by partners or former partners are more victimised than men (Kimmel, 2002; Saunders, 2002; Walby & Allen, 2004 cited in Barnish, 2004). These women experienced significantly higher rates of severe and dangerous violence i.e. being beaten up, choked, strangled, suffocated, threatened/assaulted, sexually assaulted, killed, injured and hospitalised (Mirrlees-Black, 1999; Archer, 2000; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000a; Johnson & Bunge, 2001; Gadd et al., 2002; Kimmel, 2002; Saunders, 2002; Richards, 2003; Walby &Allen, 2004 cited in Barnish, 2004).

There is evidence indicating that women experience a more negative impact than men as a result of abuse/violence, including emotional/psychological consequences (Budd & Mattinson, 2000; Bunge & Locke, 2000; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000a; Johnson & Bunge, 2001; Saunders, 2002; Walby & Allen, 2004 cited in Barnish, 2004). In contrast, however, women have been shown to initiate violence and call the police more often than men (Mirrlees-Black, 1999; Hamberger & Guse, 2002). The 1996 British Crime Survey shows that men who reported victimisation were more likely than women to say they felt wholly or partly to blame for the last incident (over 75%) and very few saw domestic violence incidents as crimes (Mirrlees-Black, 1999 cited in Barnish, 2004).

Research that assesses female violence to partners from both objective and subjective accounts indicates that many women who assault their male partners are themselves victims of ongoing abuse and use violence to try to escape or stop it (Dobash et al, 1992; Dasgupta, 1999 & 2002; Saunders, 2002). Furthermore, Saunders, 1989 cited in Barnish, 2004 notes that in spousal homicide studies women are more likely to use violence in self-defence than men. Although both genders use violence to achieve control, women try to secure short term command over an immediate situation whereas men tend to establish widespread authority over a much longer

time-period and men are generally motivated by jealousy (Archer, 2000 & Saunders, 2002, cited in Barnish, 2004).

Perhaps one of the most important studies to question the notion of gender symmetry is Hester's 2009 research, '*Who does what to whom? Gender and domestic violence perpetrators',* which builds on the data from two previous research projects focused on attrition and domestic violence cases going through the criminal justice system, and the profiles and needs of perpetrators (Hester et al.2006). It used longitudinal and comparative samples which involved 96 cases overall from 692 perpetrators profiles. This included a total of 126 individuals identified as perpetrators. The cases were tracked from 2001 to 2007 thus providing a picture of up to six years of involvement with the police (Hester 2009). Hester argues that this allowed the data to cover the period since new police guidance in 2004, and January 2006 when common assault became an arrestable offence in the UK. The study also drew upon the Northumbria domestic violence database, which was set up in 2001 as a victim-led record of incidents. According to Hester, a separate record was made for each incident reported to Northumbria police, and the police decided who to record as victim and who as offender. There were instances where police decided that the woman was the victim in one incident but her male partner was the victim in another incident, each were recorded as victim in their relevant incident record. Thus where one or more incidents were recorded involving the same parties the overall pattern of incidents was one of the following:

1. 'sole perpetrator' involving the man as perpetrator and man as victim;

2. 'sole perpetrator involving the woman as perpetrator and man as victim;

3. 'dual perpetrator' where both male and female partners are recorded at some a time as the perpetrator.

In order to explore issues related to gender and domestic violence perpetrators, three separate sample cases involving sole male, sole female and dual male/female perpetrators were developed to allow direct comparisons. This resulted in a sample of 32 sole female perpetrators in heterosexual relationships, 32 sole male perpetrators and 32 dual perpetrator cases where both men and women had at some time been recorded as perpetrator and as victim. In addition, narratives (description of incident as related by the parties, summary of incident from police perspective, police comments, action taken and history of the cases) recorded on the police domestic violence database in relation to the 96 were downloaded thus providing a unique picture of progression of cases overtime. In addition to victim interviews, a range of demographic features and criminal justice progression and outcomes relating individual perpetrators and cases were included in the analysis.

The findings from comparison of 96 cases where men, women or both were recorded by police as domestic violence perpetrators, revealed a number of clear differences between these groups as well as important patterns (Hester, 2009). Also, analysis of police and interview revealed differences by gender, including nature of incidents, levels of repeat perpetration, arrest and conviction. Furthermore, regarding gender and incidents, findings revealed that individuals were recorded as having been perpetrators in between one and 52 incidents of domestic violence. However, the differences were stark, with men significantly more likely to be repeat perpetrators. For example, although the majority of men had at least two incidents recorded (83%), many had more than that, and one man had 52 incidents recorded within the six-year tracking period. In contrast, nearly two thirds of women reported as perpetrators had only one incident recorded (62%), and the highest number of repeat incident for any women was eight. Hester concluded that these data reveal that the intensity and severity of violence and abuse behaviours from the men was much more extreme. This is also reflected in the nature of the violence used (See Table below).

Table 5.2.1: Types of abusive behaviour by gender

	Of male perpetrators %	Of female perpetrators %
Verbal abuse	94	83
Physical violence *	61	37
Threat *	29	13
Harassment *	29	11
Damage to partners' property	30	16
Use of weapon	11	24
Damage to own property	6	11

* Statistically significant differences between men and women. ***Source: Hester 2009***

From incidents described in table 5.2.1, men were significantly more likely than women to use physical violence, threats and harassment. While verbal abuse was used in most incidents by both men and women, men were slightly more likely to be verbally abusive. Men were more likely to damage the woman's property, while women were more likely to damage their own property. Whereas men tended to create a context of fear and related to that, control, this was not similarly the case where women were perpetrators. Incidents with women as perpetrators mainly involved verbal abuse, some physical violence, and only small proportion involved threat or harassment. However, women were much more likely to use a weapon, although this was at times in order for to stop further violence-protecting themselves from their partners (Hester, 2009 p.8, 18).

5.2.3 Victim or Perpetrator? (Role in Domestic Violence)

There is scant research on the extent to which, like victims, perpetrators may have experienced victimisation before and/or, are still subject to ongoing victimisation. However, where this has been explored, the percentage of persons affected by prior or ongoing victimisation is significant. For instance, in national surveys, around half of domestic violence perpetrators reported that they were also victims of partner assaults e.g., 49% of respondents to the 1985 National Family Violence Resurvey who reported perpetrating domestic violence also stated that they were victimised by their partners (Stets & Straus, 1990 cited in Anderson, 2002). Furthermore, analyses done on the National Survey of Families and Households (NSFH), in addition to interviewing both partners in heterosexual marital and cohabiting relationships, found that 64% of respondents who reported perpetrating domestic violence also reported being victimised by violence (Umberson, Anderson, Glick, & Shapiro, 1998 cited in Anderson, 2002).

However, researchers who examine partner violence within national survey data normally focus on either perpetration or victimisation (e.g. Galles & Straus, 1990; Kaufman, Kantor & Straus, 1990a, 1990b; Straus, 1990a; Stets, 1991; Anderson, 2002). Anderson (2002) argued that this separation creates problems for researching partner violence, such as problems identifying causal order, masking the ways in which experiences of intimate violence may differ by gender and other social locations. Anderson's (2002) study on perpetrators and victims was carried out among a subsample of 7,395 married and cohabiting heterosexual couples drawn from Wave 1 of the National Survey of Families and Households (NSFH-1), a nationally representative sample of the US (Anderson, 2002 p.855). Anderson's (2002) findings revealed gender symmetry in intimate partner violence victimisation and also perpetration (See Table 5.2.2). For this review attention is paid to gender symmetry in intimate partner violence victimisation since this was an important finding from my own study.

Perpetrator or Victim?

Table 5.2.2: Variable Means and Standard Deviations

Variables	**Men**	**Women**
	M (SD)	*M (SD)*
Partner violence perpetration	0.08	0.08
Partner violence victimisation	0.09	0.07
Types of Partner Violence		
Mutual violence	0.07	0.06
Respondent perpetration	0.01	0.02
Partner victimisation	0.02	0.01
Neither partner perpetrated violence	0.90	0.91
Psychosocial		
Depression	11.60 (14.67)	14.89 (16.27)
Drug and alcohol problems	0.03	0.01
Self-esteem	15.31 (1.80)	15.28 (1.90)
Sociodemographic		
Age	42.74 (15.53)	40.06 (14.71)
Education (years)	12.84 (3.35)	12.67 (2.77)
Household income (log)	10.27 (1.09)	10.33 (1.02)
Unemployment	0.10	0.10
Cohabitation	0.09	0.09
N	3,132	3,726

Source: *Extracted from Anderson (2002 pg. 857)*

The findings revealed in table 5.2 .2 above shows that eight percent of men and women reported perpetrating intimate partner violence in the year prior to the study. However, victimisation rates were slightly higher amongst men than amongst women (9% vs 7%) (Anderson, 2002 p.857). Furthermore, the aforementioned study results revealed that when intimate partner violence cases were categorised according to both victimisation and perpetration data, the

majority of cases of intimate partner violence involved mutual violence. However, regarding cases involving perpetration by only one partner, more women than men were identified as perpetrators (2% vs 1%), and more men than women were identified as victims only (2% vs 1%). Hence, the findings that women are more likely than men to be only perpetrators contradicts results from previous research (Lanhinrichsen-Rohling et al., 1995 cited in Anderson, 2002 p.856). However, the higher rates of victimisation reported amongst men in the National Survey of Families and Household (NSFH-1) is consistent with previous national survey sample results (Straus, 1993 cited in Anderson, 2002). Whereas this finding may reflect a context in western countries where considerable improvements have been made with regard to gender equality, in Uganda male dominance, characterised by a patriarchal family system results in females often being controlled by men and hence, women are more likely to be victims than perpetrators. This is not to say however, that males cannot be victims or females do not perpetrate violence in Uganda (a finding of this study) but to raise questions about the importance of local context in studies of domestic violence.

Although this current study in Uganda did not collect data on the causes of domestic violence, Anderson's (2002) analysis gives an insight into the association that exists between psychosocial factors and domestic violence. For example, there was a significant positive association between violence perpetration and mental health / drug and alcohol problems for men and women respectively, thus suggesting that mental health and substance abuse are associated with an increased risk of domestic violence. However, when violence is not controlled, the odds of violence perpetration are increased by about 2% (exp [.017] = 1.016) for men and 3% for women (exp [.025] = 1.025) for each unit increase in depression (Anderson, 2002). This finding suggests that depression and substance abuse are associated with a risk of domestic violence perpetration not only for men but also for women. This finding gives an insight into some of the psychosocial factors that influence perpetrating domestic violence.

Similarly, Caetano, Vaeth, & Ramisetty-Mikler (2008) carried out a study on the socio-demographic characteristics, drinking and selected psychological attributes of perpetrators, victims and those involved in mutual intimate partner violence (IPV) among couples in the US. The participants in the study included a multistage area probability sample representative of married and cohabiting couples from 48 states of the US. The study involved a diverse sample of 1,925 couples, including black couples (203), white couples (375), Hispanic couples (362) and mixed race couples (106). The interview process used a standardised questionnaire in English or Spanish and participants were interviewed separately at their homes. This methodology increases the likelihood of domestic violence being identified in comparison to those methodologies that rely only on one person's report (Schafer et al 1998; Caetano, Vaeth, & Ramisetty-Mikler, 2008, p.509). The results indicated that age was the only variable that appeared to reveal a consistent effect for men and women across violence related statuses (victims, perpetrators and those who engaged in mutual violence) (Caetano, Vaeth & Ramisetty-Mikler, 2008 p.507). Older individuals in age were less likely to be victims or perpetrators and less likely to be involved in mutually violent relationships. In contrast, this study's findings show other variables such as ethnicity, marital status, drinking, impulsivity, depression and powerlessness are gender or status specific in their ability to predict victimisation, perpetration and victimisation/perpetration (Caetano, Vaeth, & Ramisetty-Mikler, 2008). Overall, the study's findings did not identify gender as a more significant factor than other variables in predicting victimisation. The findings from the Caetano, Vaeth, & Ramisetty-Mikler (2008) study are partly in agreement with the Ugandan sample, especially on non-significant gender differences and correlation between some self-reported domestic violence victimisation forms and other variables reported by males and females. However, to some extent the aforementioned study findings contradict the Ugandan sample findings that revealed role specific (victims and perpetrators) significant differences and significant correlations between self-reported domestic violence victimisation forms and psychological sub-scales.

In another small scale study of couples in the UK (Barnish, 2004) victims' and perpetrators' description of the same incidents were analysed and it was found that there was a higher prevalence of violent acts attributed to women. In contrast however, whereas men were said to have humiliated and/or physically abused their partners, none of the women carried out similar attacks. The few women who assaulted their partners did so during a psychotic breakdown or after experiencing severe repeated beatings, while others attacked their partners in self-defence. These findings link to this study especially the insights into psychological characteristics for victims and perpetrators discussed in Chapter Four. For example, this study has revealed a significant correlation between neuroticism personality trait and psychological violence, thus revealing the psychological characteristics of perpetrators (both male and female) who are more likely to experience or have experienced psychological violence. Drawing from the Ugandan findings, next I review the psychological characteristics of victims and perpetrators through Western literature lens.

5.2.4 Summary of findings and how these relate to results from Ugandan sample.

Uncontestably, a common point of agreement between the Ugandan sample findings and this review of western literature is on the gender -symmetric phenomenon, much of the work regarding this, has centred on the premise that, at least in its more extreme forms, women are more likely victims (Dobash & Dobash, 1998; Jacobson and Gottman, 1998; Johnson 1995; Straus & Gelles, 1990 cited in Outlaw, 2009). Indeed, Ugandan sample findings show no differences regarding domestic violence victimisation (presence of gender symmetry) but more importantly the females than males had higher mean scores on all forms of domestic violence victimisation. This suggests and affirms higher levels among females than males as the case is in the global lens on domestic violence. Furthermore, through reviewing western literature, research has indicated that domestic violence is less dependant on gender than it is often made out to be (Outlaw, 2009 P.267). Similarly, the Ugandan sample results in chapter four show

that mostly women are victims but some men to reported victimisation. Indeed, the results revealed no significant gender differences regarding domestic violence victimisation. However, there were some noticeable differences regarding females having higher mean levels on most forms of violence mainly physical violence. Universally, drawing from western literature/studies in comparison with Ugandan sample, point of agreement seems to suggest that domestic violence affects mainly women but men too are victims to a range of forms of domestic violence especially psychological violence. Thus, this thesis recommends a gender inclusive and sensitive approach for Uganda's practice and policy organs. This thesis, also makes an interesting contribution through global lens literature and Uganda's findings by pointing out the need to understand domestic violence beyond physical violence (wife beating-common form according Speizer, 2010) through furthering research to other non-physical forms of domestic violence.

Limitation of Literature Review: Although NVAW Survey includes measure of sexual violence by an intimate, they were intentionally left out of these analyses being considered physical and it so inherently gendered. Consequently, Outlaw, 2009 recommends that given emphasis on multifaceted abuse, the omission of any variables relating to sexual violence needs to be addressed. This thesis addresses this by including sexual violence among the forms of domestic violence thus making a contribution to knowledge on this form of violence. Next, the data driven review of literature on attitudes to coercive behaviours.

5.2.4 Domestic violence review of literature (Previous studies)

Outlaw, 2009 in study entitled **''***No one type of intimate partner violence: Exploring physical and non-physical violence among intimate partners***''**; reveals that there are no significant gender differences in regard to victimisation. Furthermore, although physical violence often by men against women accounts for most of the scholarly attention to domestic violence, researchers have long acknowledged the existence and to a lesser extent, the importance of the

non-physical aspects/forms of domestic violence (Outlaw, 2009 p.1). These forms which include emotional/psychological, social, sexual and economic violence have been well documented and are often claimed by victims to be the worst (Miller, 1995; Strauchler et al, 2004). It seems though that these forms of domestic violence have become blurred together and seen as secondary, interchangeable risk factors or as warning signs for physical violence. For example, Outlaw (2009) argues that these forms of non-physical violence are vital to be studied in their own right as many victim's report that these forms of violence had a more devastating impact on them than physical violence. Hence, this thesis, responds to this by exploring some aspects of non-physical alongside physical violence. Non-physical forms of violence were reported to impact both females and males and both victims and perpetrators reported having previously experienced them (see detailed results in chapter four).

There appears to be no basis for the assumption that all forms of non-physical violence are alike, in their prevalence or in their relationship to physical violence. Also, given the longstanding debate regarding gender symmetry in domestic violence, it is vital to investigate whether sex differences in non-physical forms of violence follow a similar pattern as is seen in physical violence (Outlaw, 2009). In the study, Outlaw used data from the violence and threats against women and men in the United States of America (1994-1996, Tjaden & Thonnes, 1998) survey. This data includes a national representative sample of 8,000 women and 8,000 men. It further includes information about their experiences. Reported victimisation was of several different types, including violence by intimate partner and non-physical violence (termed emotional/coercive control within the survey). For physical violence, Outlaw's analysis focused on the sample of individuals with current partners (N=1, 129) but alongside explored non-physical violence (psychological/emotional violence) or termed by some scholars as verbal abuse, social violence/abuse and economic violence reflecting whether or not

respondents' current partner prevents him/her from knowing about or having access to family income, even when he/she asks.

Results: From Outlaws, 2009 study, the results of most interest for this thesis are those on the correlation between different forms of domestic violence victimisation (Table 33) and those on gender differences in (Table 34). The next tables present the results of the literature review in relation to the results of the current study.

Table 5.3.3: Shows binary correlation between different types of abuse.

Type of Abuse	Emotional	Social	Economic	Physical
Emotional /Psychological Violence	-	-	-	-
Social Violence	.43*	-	-	-
Economic Violence	.256*	.22*	-	-
Physical violence	.28*	.17*	.10*	-

*P<.01 **Source:** Outlaw, (2009).

The review findings output in table 5.3.3 above shows binary correlation between different types of abuse. The results show that all forms of non-physical violence are significantly correlated with each other, as well as with physical violence. These correlations reflect differences in association. Although related, the practice of lumping these forms of violence together as one phenomenon (non-physical violence) may be seriously flawed (Outlaw, 2009). Clearly, not all forms of non-physical violence/abuse are the same-either in quality or prevalence. In relation to the Ugandan sample, different forms of non-physical alongside physical forms of domestic violence were explored based on gender and role in domestic violence. The findings discussed in detail in chapter four show similarities with published western literature in terms of correlations and gender differences results. Next I review the gender differences through a global lens.

Table 5.3.4: Gender differences in types of Violence/Abuse.

Type of Abuse	Female	Male
Physical Violence	.068	.033*
Emotional Violence	.255	.244
Social Violence	.128	.175*
Economic Violence	.024	.017*

P<.05* ***Source:* *Outlaw, (2009) P.267*

Gender refers to gender of respondent (Victims)

Although there has been a fair amount of debate regarding the extent to which intimate partner violence/domestic violence is a gender-symmetric phenomenon, much of the work regarding this, has centred on the premise that, at least in its more extreme forms, women are more likely victims (Dobash & Dobash, 1998; Jacobson and Gottman, 1998; Johnson 1995; Straus & Gelles, 1990 cited in Outlaw, 2009). Outlaw argues that the vast majority of this work focuses on physical violence. Furthermore, complicating the issue, the research that does examine non-physical violence often includes only women as subjects (Follingstand and Dehart, 2000; Miller 1995; Strauchler et al.2004 cited in cited in Outlaw, 2009). Whether as a cause or as a result, much of the theoretical underpinnings regarding the correlates and causes of domestic violence present this as a reflection of patriarchy, assuming that men are using abuse to control women (Dobash and Dobash, 1998). However, as previously noted, very little work has examined non-physical forms of violence, particularly among both genders. Hence, Outlaw, 2009 conducted a sample t-test to determine what, if any differences exist between the different types of violence/abuse. The results presented in table 40 above suggest that violence /abuse in a general sense is less dependent on sex than it is often made out to be. For example, there appears to be non-significant differences between men and women in psychological/emotional abuse which Felson (1996) also confirms. Whereas men are more likely to experience (be victims of) social abuse, women are more likely to experience (be victims of) economic violence. Outlaw asserts that women generally report more physical violence/abuse and the

presence of violence affects the gender relationship further. These findings to a greater extent agree with Ugandan sample findings that also noted that women more than men, are affected most by physical but also sexual and psychological violence. In this current study, women experiences of physical violence are further confirmed by Speizers's findings that beating a wife is considered by some men to be an acceptable behaviour (2010).

5.3 Attitudes towards Coercive Behaviours Review of Literature (Previous Studies)

Like domestic violence, coercive behaviours take various forms including sexual coercive behaviours to women mainly but also men (Hogben & Waterman,2000). However, what remains largely under-researched are the *attitudes* towards coercive behaviours, which are studied amongst males and females within this thesis in Ugandan sample (See results chapter four). These results in their own right provide valuable contribution to Ugandan-African literature data base. However, to gain global lens, this thesis undertakes data -driven review of literature (scant studies) in the western countries. Undoubtedly, coercion in itself is widely researched, but there are scant studies on ''attitudes towards coercive behaviours'' accessed through different search engines including University of Huddersfield Library Summons Search. Nevertheless, Muir, 2002 study on attitudes to coercive behaviours among 82 males and females in Scotland (United Kingdom) and 158 in United States provides insight into global lens on attitudes to coercive behaviours in western literature. Muir, 2002 research on attitudes towards coercive behaviours focused and thus provide insight on the following sub-scales and respective Cronbach's alpha reliabilities for Scotland (UK sample) on: Women behaviour used to justify used to justify (.88), Men's right to control (.89), No big deal (.79), Private matter (.79) and Women lie achieved the Cronbach's alpha of (.86). The overall, total scale alpha was .90. Further, testing of the scale among 158 American male college students whose overall scale alpha was .89 and sub-scale alpha's were: Women behaviour used to justify used to justify (.81), Men's right to control (.80), No big deal (.80), Private matter (.83)

and Women lie (.89). The sub-scale to-total scale correlation ranged from 61 to 84 (for American sample) and 61 to 83 (for Scotland-UK sample) indicating subscales were highly related to overall scale. From these validity and reliability analyses, the subscales indicate sub-scales satisfactory for males and females from different western populations. For, this thesis, the Ugandan sample achieved the following alpha's on attitudes towards coercive behaviours: Women behaviour used to justify used to justify (.77), Men's right to control (.82), No big deal (.78), Private matter (.90) and Women lie achieved the Cronbach's alpha of (.73). Over, all, regardless of differences in culture, sample size and methodological differences for the Ugandan sample, similar to western scores there was satisfactory validity and reliability scores on attitudes towards coercive behaviours. These scores show similarities with those in western studies regarding the understanding of the questions within the attitudes to coercive behaviours.

Muir, 2002 research with respect to gender, it predicted that men had significantly higher mean scores than did men. Consequently, Muir, 2002 conducted a t-test on the overall sample which showed that men had significantly higher mean scores than women ($t(117) = 4.59$ $p < 0.001$). These results suggest that attitudes to coercive behaviours has scale construct validity although further testing with other scales, within the 'nomological net' and population is required. This thesis takes on the recommendation to compare these sub-scales among victims and perpetrators of both gender. The detailed Ugandan sample results are detailed in in Chapter Four. Next is the summary of the review of data driven literature on attitude to coercive behaviours and how these relate to its findings within Ugandan sample.

5.3.1 Summary of findings and how these relate to results from Ugandan sample.

Hence, this thesis did not aim to analyse sub-scale to total scale correlations but rather gained *Firstly* how sub-scales on attitudes to coercive behaviours differ among females and males. Ugandan sample results like Muir, 2002 findings there were no statistically significant

differences on all attitudes to coercive behaviours. This implies that attitudes to coercive behaviours are generally held by individuals irrespective of gender.

Secondly, this thesis aimed to gain understanding to which sub-scales on attitudes to coercive behaviours that are significantly significant correlated with each other but also how these relate to other sub-scales on :(*domestic violence victimisation, personality traits and coping strategies- see detailed results in chapter four*). Thus, exploring attitudes to coercive behaviours contributes to literature data base in Uganda-African context. More importantly, similarities in attitudes to coercive behaviours based on gender are seen in the review of data driven literature thus providing a global lens. It is however, important to note that although there is extensive literature on coercion, there is *scant literature on attitude to coercive behaviours* in western literature. This thesis has made a contribution to this cause for Uganda-African context and recommends comprehensive further research on attitudes to coercive behaviours.

5.4 Personality traits Review of Literature (Previous Studies)

Personality traits dimensions have been a subject of much research (Costa & McCrae, 1980; Meyer & Shack, 1989; Williams, 1981, 1989, 1990 cited in Kardum & Hudek-Knezeric, 1996). In most of these studies, the common denominator is, personality traits have been studied in relation with other variables including comparisons between genders. For instance, Kardum & Hudek-Knezeric, 1996 study of the relationship between Eysenck's personality traits, coping styles and moods among a sample of 17 to 38 years in Europe (Croatia) reveals significant gender differences and positive significant correlations. Previous, research by Eysenck and Eysenck 1975, points out for instance high scores on psychoticism are often described aggressive, lack socialisation, sensation seeking, impulsivity among many other traits. Hence, Kardum & Hudek-Knezeric's study of 1996, *firstly* explores these traits among females and males to see if there any significant differences. *Secondly*, as previously indicated by recent

research (McCrae & Costa,1986, Nakano,1992) in this study Kardum & Hudek-Knezeric,1996 further examines the correlations for both gender but also in relation to other variables including coping strategies. These findings are reviewed by this thesis to gain global lens on the personality traits and how these differ based on gender but also how these traits relate to coping styles. This study results, builds on previous studies e.g. McCrae & Costa, 1986 have shown that extroversion (assessed with NEOP-PI) is related to coping styles which include rational action, positive thinking, substitution and restraint-these strategies are called problem focused coping. Similarly, Parkes (1986) also reports similar results that Extroversion has significant positive effect on active focused -problem solving coping strategy, while Makano's 1992 results testify that extroversion is associated mainly with seeking social support. From these previous studies, Kardum & Hudek-Knezeric, 1996 argued that such results appear that replicable coping factors are inextricably related to the main dimensions of personality that is neuroticism and extroversion. Thus, Kardum & Hudek-Knezeric, 1996 study used the following measures: Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (*EPQ with sub-scales on extroversion, psychoticism, neuroticism and lie*), Coping Orientation to Problem (*COPE with sub-scales on problem focused, emotional and avoidance coping strategies*) and (*mood scale - this variable is not of interest to this data driven review of literature*). These measures-questionnaires were administered to 177(127 females and 50 females) in the age range of 17-38 years: Below are the results:

Table 5.4.1: Correlations between Eysenck's Personality traits, Coping styles and Moods

	Neuroticism	Psychoticism	Lie	Problem focused Coping	Emotional focused Coping	Avoidance Coping	Positive Mood	Negative Moods
Extroversion	-0.22**	-0.20**	0.06	0.05	-0.25***	0.06		
Neuroticism		0.23**	-0.13	-0.14	-0.13	0.33***		
Psychoticism			-0.45***	-0.25***	-0.21***	0.18*		
Lie-Scale				0.15*	0.001	-0.20***		
Problem focused Coping					0.13	-0.17*		
Emotional focused Coping						-0.11	-0.12	-0.04
Avoidance Coping							-0.140	-0.39***
Positive Mood								-0.36***

*P< 0.05; ** P < 0.01; ***P< 0.001 **Source:** Kardum & Hudek-Knezeric,1996

Note: *Mood scales (positive and negative) are left out-not of interest for this review of literature as it wasn't for the Ugandan sample study. The focus and attention of the review focuses on personality traits and coping styles which are studied in the Ugandan sample. This allows to gain global lens and identify some commonalities and or differences.*

Table 5.4.1 results revealed by initial correlation between Eysenck's personality dimensions and coping styles show that

Firstly, Extroversion is related to emotion focused coping (0.25; p <.001***)

Secondly, Neuroticism is associated-related with avoidance coping styles (0.33; p < .001***)

Thirdly, Psychoticism is significantly related with all coping strategies. These results show the direction of these results show direction of these results accord with the nature of this personality traits. For example, presence of components in psychoticism traits such as aggressiveness, lack of responsibility and socialisation do not enable the person to seek help while impulsiveness and sensational seeking interfere with behaviour oriented towards solving a stressful situation.

Gender differences on personality traits- When gender differences were taken into account, the results indicate that women achieve significantly higher scores on neuroticism (r = 0.25; p < 0.001), Lie-scale (r = 0.17; p< 0.05).

5.4.1 Summary of findings and how these relate to results from Ugandan sample.

These results report some commonalities and differences on personality traits scores with results reported by Ugandan sample in Chapter four. For example, although Ugandan sample results did not find significant differences in personality traits, mean scores in table 20 show that women revealed slightly higher scores on psychoticism, extroversion and neuroticism. These results are in agreement with findings of Kardum & Hudek-Knezeric,1996- that show women achieved slightly higher scores. However, where these results show differences with Ugandan sample finding lies in lack of statistical significant correlations between most personality traits and other variables except neuroticism personality trait scores and psychological violence victimisation reported by perpetrators.

5.5 Coping Strategies Review of Literature (Previous Studies)

Kardum & Hudek-Knezeric, 1996 results in table 5.4.1 above further show that coping styles-strategies are also associated with the two main dimensions of personality, even though these are significantly lower than Eysenck's dimensions. It is clear, from results that accord to those reported by Folkman and Lazarous 1988, that planned active solution reduces emotional state, but avoidance coping which is avoiding coping from stressful situation does nothing to solve the problem.

Gender differences on coping styles- When gender differences were taken into account, the results indicate that women achieve significantly higher scores on all coping styles revealed in the following statistical significant results on problem focused coping ($r = 0.26$; $p < .001$), emotional -focused coping ($r = 0.28$; $p < 0.001$), avoidance coping ($r = 0.39$; $p < .0.001$).

5.5.1 Summary of findings and how these relate to results from Ugandan sample.

The results reviewed show some similarities with the Ugandan sample results. For instance, females had statistically significant results on coping whereas males did not. Furthermore, females had higher mean scores than males which imply the females did use problem solving strategies more than men. Similarly, victims were more likely to use problem solving and help-seeking behaviours compared to perpetrators whose results show they highly engaged avoidance strategies.

Generally, personality traits show a strong direct effect and relationship with coping strategies. This is in agreement with Revenson, 1990 who states that we can better understand the functioning of personality in the context of coping if we consider personality as a frame which determines an individual's coping repertoire. However, this study acknowledges the limitation of self-assessment which may lead to various cognitive distortions. Next, the review focuses on psychological characteristics of victims and perpetrators of both genders.

5.6 Psychological Characteristics of Male and Female Victims of Domestic Violence

The term `gender` is an ambiguous concept often used interchangeably with the term `sex`, which refers to biological determinants such as maleness and femaleness (Taylor et al, 2013). However, in contrast to sex, gender refers to psychological and cultural characteristics associated with biological sex (Schechner, 2010, p.132). The person from each gender then adopts shared expectations, referred to as gender roles, such as attitudes, norms, values, behaviours and personality traits associated with particular genders in that society and culture (Taylor et al, 2013). Although there is no single theory to explain gender, social learning (Mischel, 1966 cited in Taylor et al, 2013) and cognitive development theories (Kohlberg, 1966 cited in Taylor et al, 2013), amongst others, suggest that gender is linked to psychological development, socialization processes and elements of social constructionism (Schechner, 2010. Gender has also been linked to victimisation in that women and girls, experience a range of

forms of abuse as a consequence of their gender, including sexual assault and sexual exploitation, intimate partner violence and genital mutilation (Morash, 2006, p.67). In addition, Heise et al. (1994, p.18 cited in Morash, 2006) has associated women victims with an increased likelihood of experiencing the psychological effects of domestic violence, such as fear, anxiety, fatigue and post-traumatic stress disorder.

Gender is also important in questioning the relatively hidden problem of domestic violence perpetrated by women. For example, Margi (2008) questions whether women are always and only victims and men always and only perpetrators. Drawing from the findings of the survey conducted in the US, Straus, Gelles and Steinmetz (1979, cited in Margi, 2008) reported on the range of types of violence in homes among couples living together and showed that men are victims too, and that women can be perpetrators. The findings of this survey further revealed that men are hidden victims who fear coming out and disclosing their problem and this male admission fits in with what Steinmetz's earlier study referred to as ''battered husbands''(Steinmetz, 1977-1978 cited in Margi, 2008). Steinmetz's study concluded that both men and women are both victims of domestic violence and theorised this as ''mutual combat'' (Steinmetz, 1977-1978 cited in Margi, 2008. Although men are sometimes victims of violence, it should be noted that the numbers are not comparable to the 1,400 women who die each year in the USA because of domestic violence and the many more millions who are left with permanent physical deformities and/or are psychologically scarred for life (Gelles, 2000).

Straus, Gelles and Steinmetz (1981 cited in Margi, 2008) qualified their previous study findings in their subsequent studies, including their book entitled `Behind closed doors: Domestic violence in American families` to agree that men are victims. The shame and stigma men experience by disclosing abuse has made it difficult for battered husbands' shelters and men-focused programmes to succeed (Margi, 2008). Furthermore, there is evidence that the distinction between victim and perpetrator is often blurred; for example, of 171 men referred

to one project for male victims, more than one third had a history of perpetrating domestic violence themselves (Robinson & Rowlands, 2006). Hence, to gain deeper insights into the perpetrators, next I discuss some of the psychological characteristics of male and female perpetrators. Cautiously, Debonnaire (2013) has suggested that, in some cases, when a perpetrator presents as a victim, this may be a deliberate strategy to deflect attention from their abusive behaviour.

5.7 Psychological Characteristics of Male and Female Perpetrators of Domestic Violence.

The link between gender and violence is well-established. Parrott and Zeichner (2003) carried out research with 59 men, to explore extreme forms of hyper-masculinity and physical aggression towards women. The findings indicated that men with higher scores on the hyper-masculinity test displayed higher levels of violence. Similarly, a quantitative study among offenders and non-offender's perception of masculinity and crime revealed that whereas female offenders perceived themselves as masculine and aggressive; non-offenders perceived themselves as adventurous and/or glamorous (Herrington and Nee, 2005). The importance of offenders' characteristics has been emphasised in treatment programmes. For example, a study by Bowen & Gilchrist (2004) that focused on behavioural outcomes in the evaluation of offenders programmes suggested that they were often too narrow and advocated a more holistic approach incorporating investigation of the psychological characteristics of offenders and treatment characteristics to determine what works for whom and in what circumstances. In addition, Bowen and Gilchrist's (2004) evaluation of domestic violence offender programmes concluded that moving closer to understanding successful rehabilitation could be attained by implementing theoretically informed and multifaceted evaluations. Moreover, previous research has shown that treatment responsivity is influenced by characteristics of the programme theory, the implementation and integrity of the programme but also the characteristics of the offenders' sample (Andrews & Bonta, 1994 cited in Bowen & Gilchrist,

2004). Loösel (2001) has argued that offenders' psychological characteristics are based on the theories that have been used in rehabilitation programmes, for example, the cognitive behavioural approach. Mostly, offending programmes of male perpetrators of intimate partner violence are based on the assumption that there is one perpetrator, even if this is not the case (Bowen & Gilchrist, 2004). The violence that happens in heterosexual relationships has different terms, such as domestic violence, wife abuse, family violence and many more, all resulting from different methodological assessments which lead to different theoretical interpretations of the resulting data (Johnson, 1995 cited in Bowen and Gilchrist, 2004). Johnson (1995) emphasises that there are two contemporary forms of domestic violence, common couple violence (less a product of gendered causal factors leading to minor violence by males, females or both partners) and patriarchal terrorism (viewed as being the product of the patriarchal tradition of men's belief in the right to control their women partners).

Whether or not offenders respond to treatment programmes in the same way has been under scrutiny. However, treatment dropouts are regarded as presenting a higher risk of recidivism than treatment completers (Bowen & Gilchrist, 2004). Cadsky, Hanson, Crawford & Lalonde (1996), Daly & Pelowski (2000); DeHart, Kennerly, Burke, Brochu, & Lermire (2001) and Rooney & Hanson (2001 cited in Bowen & Gilchrist, 2004) all indicate that offenders who drop out of treatment programmes are normally younger, have more extensive criminal histories, have higher levels of lifestyle instability factors, such as many jobs, moving locations and being substance users, than those who complete the treatment programmes.

In addition, anti-social offenders were identified as having anti-social personality traits, extensive criminal histories and substance and alcohol-related problems (Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994; Waltz, Babcock, Jacobson, & Gottman, 2000); and as rarely conforming to treatment demands (Davison & Neale, 1997 cited in Bowen & Gilchrist, 2004). Moreover, offenders characterised by borderline personality characteristics (high dependency, high levels

of depression and high levels of anger) had substance and alcohol related problems but less involvement in legal issues and generalised violence (Sunders, 1992; Holtzworth-Munro & Stuart, 1994; Hamberger, Lohr, Bonge, & Tolin, 1996; Holtzworth-Munroe, Meehan, Herron, Rehman, & Stuart, 2000; Tweed & Dutton, 1998 cited in Bowen & Gilchrist, 2004). Such offenders rarely present for therapy and it has been noted that such individuals do not seem to benefit from traditional offender programmes (Beck & Freeman, 1990; Davidson & Neale, 1997 cited in Bowen & Gilchrist, 2004). This literature could be comparable to the correlation reported by offenders within different categories of personality traits and coping strategies engaged.

5.8 Summary on Data Driven Review of Literature in relation to Results from Ugandan Sample.

The literature reviewed supports my finding that there are more male victims in Uganda than has previously been realised and that there are some commonalities between males and females regarding victimisation. The literature also shows that although males are victims, females experience more victimisation. However, literature has revealed self-reported domestic violence victimisation not only by victims but also by perpetrators who report having been assaulted and victimised. In other words, victims of violence can also be perpetrators of violence and in the case of women in particular, acts of violence are often associated with prior experiences of victimisation or self-defence. The literature reviewed reveals much information about perpetrators' psychological characteristics but scant information about characteristics of victims. Although there are similarities in forms of domestic violence and evidence of gender symmetry, we therefore know little about the psychological similarities between victims and perpetrators. Nevertheless, from what we can discern from research that has been carried out in western countries, the significance of psychological characteristics identified by scholars mirrors their importance in the Ugandan context (discussed in Chapter Four) and arguably, in other post-conflict African countries too. My contention therefore is that while cultural factors and social environment are essential in understanding domestic violence in Uganda, so too are the psychological characteristics portrayed by victims and perpetrators. Therefore, only in taking a synergistic, holistic approach that accounts for these different elements of the problem, can effective policy and services be established. In the next chapter (Chapter 6) I discuss the implications of the current study for policy and practice within Uganda.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

This chapter summarises the discussion of the main findings and their integration with previous literature. The chapter further discusses the implications of the research for policy and practice within Uganda. The contributions this study makes to African scholarship are highlighted. The limitations of the research are also discussed and this forms the basis of recommendations for future research.

6.2 Summary of the Main Findings

The main findings are summarised and are integrated with existing literature. These main findings are structured on the three hypotheses. In addition, evaluation of mean differences that exist between males and females are discussed for example on personality traits to reveal their psychological characteristics:

Firstly, the main major findings are derived from hypothesis one: *There are significant gender and role differences in sub-scales of self-reported domestic violence victimisation, attitudes towards coercive behaviours, personality traits and coping style-strategies in a Ugandan sample*. This hypothesis led to the analysis of whether there are differences between each group of variables regarding gender and role separately. It also led to the analysis of the interaction between gender and role to compare and see whether they had an effect on the aforementioned variables. Hypothesis one findings on role and gender differences and interaction are discussed for each variable in the following section.

Domestic violence victimisation shows statistically significant differences between victims and perpetrators but no statistically significant differences between males and females and there is no interaction between gender and role. When the victims and perpetrators results on dependent variables were considered separately the only difference to reach statistical significance was physical and psychological but not sexual violence. Similarly, post-hoc results

revealed significant differences between victims and perpetrators. Indeed, through inspecting mean scores, victims more than perpetrators, reported slightly higher scores on physical and psychological violence but not sexual violence.

Attitudes to coercive behaviours show no statistically significant differences and no interaction between males and females, victims and perpetrators on all dependent variables. When the results for dependent variables were considered separately, the only difference to reach statistical significance was 'private matter attitude' to coercion with more perpetrators than victims reporting slightly higher scores on this variable.

Personality traits show no statistically role and gender significant differences and no interaction on all personality traits. However, more perpetrators reported slightly higher scores on neuroticism trait and psychoticism than victims, who only had a higher mean on the extroversion scale.

Coping strategies show statistically significant role differences between victims and perpetrators but no gender differences reported by gender and no interaction. Post-hoc results confirm these role differences. For example, victims and perpetrators differences were reported on how problem solving and social support coping strategies are used in that victims had slightly higher scores than did perpetrators. Hence, although results revealed no interaction between role and gender there are main effects revealed mainly on role in most sub-scales of attitudes towards coercive behaviours, self-reported domestic violence victimisation personality traits and coping style-strategies. Consequently, because gender and role had an effect on some sub-scales, this effect needs to be broken down to see exactly what dependent variables are significant for males and females but also for victims and perpetrators. These findings are explored later in this section in the discussion of hypothesis two and three. Findings revealed that there were no gender differences between male and female respondents.

Males and females did not differ significantly on self-reported domestic violence victimisation, attitudes towards coercive behaviours, personality traits and coping style-strategies within the Ugandan sample. This implies that males and females equally reported being victims of domestic violence, responded similarly on most attitudes to coercion sub-scales, did not differ significantly in personality scores and engaged in named coping strategies at more or less the same rate. However, there were differences in the reporting of these scales depending upon whether the respondent held the role of victim or perpetrator. Initially, findings revealed that there were role differences but did not show the dependent variables-sub scales on which victims and perpetrators differed. However, further analysis (univariate) revealed differences in self-reported victimisation of physical and psychological violence between victims and perpetrators but not sexual violence. They were also differences in how respondents engaged in social coping strategies depending upon their role but not in avoidance and problem solving. The findings, however, showed no significant role differences in personality trait scores and attitudes to coercive behaviour sub-scales. Furthermore, the other major findings were derived from interaction which generally revealed that there was no interaction-effect between gender and role in the sub-scales of the measures used. This finding implies that role and gender do not interact in their effect on sub-scales of domestic violence victimisation, attitudes to coercive behaviours, personality traits and coping strategies within the Ugandan sample. However, independently gender and role had a main effect on some sub-scales. This effect is broken down further to see exactly what relationships exist between different variables or sub-scales reported by gender (males and females- for hypothesis 2) and (victims and perpetrators - for hypothesis 3) respectively.

A major finding was derived from hypothesis two: *There are gender-based relationships between sub-scales of self-reported domestic violence victimisation, attitudes towards coercive behaviours, personality traits and coping style-strategies in a Ugandan*

*sample***.** Because the findings linked to hypotheses one provide limited information about the differences between victims and perpetrators in relation to the measures used in this study, further analysis using gender correlation matrices was carried out. This revealed that males reported significant correlations between men's right to control and `women's behaviour used to justify' in both physical violence and sexual violence. Furthermore, psychoticism personality traits correlated positively with how males engaged with social support and with avoidance coping strategies. In contrast, female findings showed a statistically significant correlation between beliefs that domestic violence is a `private matter` and `women's behaviour used to justify`. Females who held strong attitudes about `men's right to control` also had strong attitudes towards `women's behaviour to justify`. In addition, the `women lie` attitude to coercive behaviours correlated strongly with the `no big deal` attitude. Indeed, the females' high `no big deal` attitude to coercive behaviours also correlated with `women's behaviours used to justify` coercive behaviours. Also, findings revealed that females' who reported more physical violence victimisation also reported more psychological and sexual violence victimisation. Moreover, the higher the physical violence, the higher the sexual violence women reported. However, it was only physical violence that correlated positively with social support coping strategies. In addition, females positively engaged problem solving and social support coping styles equally. Mainly, what stands out is that females reported more statistically significant results than males. In general, this current study's findings based on gender responds to one of the major concerns in partner violence identified by Anderson (2002) who argued that separating victims and perpetrators or males and females creates a problem for researching partner violence, such as masking the ways in which experiences of intimate violence may differ by gender (Anderson, 2002 p.851).

Thirdly, is the major finding derived from hypothesis three: *There are role-based relationships between sub-scales of self-reported domestic violence victimisation, attitudes*

towards coercive behaviours, personality traits and coping style-strategies in a Ugandan sample. The victims' findings revealed statistically significant correlations for `men's right to control` with `women lie` and `no big deal` attitudes to coercive behaviours. In addition, `women's behaviour used to justify` coercive behaviours revealed a significant correlation with the `no big deal` attitude, suggesting that victims hold strong views about coercive behaviours in both the aforementioned attitudes. Similarly, physical violence correlated positively with psychological and also with sexual violence. This implies that victims who reported physical violence also reported both psychological and sexual violence. Interestingly, victims who reported psychological violence engaged positively with problem solving coping and social support coping strategies. Moreover, victims who engaged with problem solving coping also engaged in social support coping strategies. From the perpetrators' findings, the summary indicates that there were no correlations regarding attitudes to coercive behaviours except `women lie` and `no big deal`. This implies that perpetrators who hold strong `women lie` attitudes to coercive behaviours also had strong `no big deal` attitudes. In addition, perpetrators beliefs that `women's behaviour is used to justify coercive behaviours` correlated with self-reported psychological victimisation. Furthermore, regarding self-reported victimisation reported by perpetrators, findings revealed significant correlations between physical violence and sexual violence victimisation. Similarly, psychological victimisation was also highly related to sexual victimisation. Perpetrators' findings on personality traits showed that only the neuroticism trait correlated with psychological violence, to suggest that perpetrators who scored high on neuroticism personality traits also reported psychological violence victimisation. These findings on personality traits do not challenge existing understandings of personality in previous studies but rather partly agree with them. For example, the Ugandan study concurs with a large study that investigated people from 50 cultures from all continents except Antarctica, in which participants evaluated someone they knew well on traits using the

'Big five questionnaires' (McCrae et al, 2005 cited in Fiske, Gilbert, & Lindsey, 2010 p.32). This is particularly important as it bolsters the findings of McCrae's study in respect of some developing countries (e.g., Botswana, Ethiopia, Lebanon, Malaysia, Puerto Rico and Uganda) where the evidence was weakest and suggested that people may not have fully understood the questions or were unfamiliar with answering questions in that format (Gilbert, & Lindsey, 2010 p.33).

Hence, despite personality traits not correlating with most other variables, except neuroticism and psychological violence reported by perpetrators, generally there were more statistically significant results reported by victims' findings than perpetrators' within the Ugandan sample. However, more interestingly, findings revealed that problem solving and social support coping strategies were both positively engaged in by more victims than perpetrators.

Fourthly; after discussion of the hypotheses, it is imperative to discuss and critically evaluate research findings (mean scores) on any differences between men and women victims and perpetrators on each of the following variables sub-scales and how these fit in with previous studies especially in Uganda.

Domestic violence victimisation: in discussing these findings, it is important to note that in many conflict situations, including domestic violence, it may be difficult to differentiate between victims and perpetrators; thus the complexities of victim and perpetrator identity have to be taken into account from historical, sociological, and anthropological perspectives (Servaes & Birtsch, 2008). For example, in Uganda, following the war, formerly abducted young women, many of whom experienced sexual violence during the war, were later turned into wives during the reintegration process. They often found themselves within polygamous households where, as co-wives, were subjected to physical violence by the 'superior' (first) wife (Ochen, 2009). Overall, domestic violence was highly rated by victims more than the victimisation rated by perpetrators which they experienced prior to perpetration. Moreover,

females more than males rated high (mean) on all forms of domestic violence. For example, physical violence was highly rated by female victims more than male victims. This finding concurs with previous studies that have revealed that wife beating is acceptable in Uganda (Speizer, 2010). One of the consequences of such violence is that the victims' construction of self may be shattered since identity is formed and sustained in relation to others such as spouse, family members, siblings, friends and community (Servaes & Birtsch, 2008). Servaes and Birtsch argued that such experiences leave the victim with profound sense of powerlessness that is overwhelming to his or her sense of control, connection, and meaning. Hence, next I discuss the general coping strategies that are engaged or disengaged by victims and perpetrators, males and females in the study and how these fit with previous literature.

Coping strategies: Overall, victims more than perpetrators engaged all the three coping strategies (social support, problem solving and avoidant). These high mean scores imply that victims more than perpetrators were seeking social support, engaging problem solving strategies but were also using avoidance strategies in relation to general challenges. These findings agree with evidence from battered women samples that showed higher levels of abuse are positively associated with the use of both engagement (Dutton, Goodman, & Bennett,1999, Jacobson, Gottman, Gortner, Berns, & Shortt, 1996 cited in Taft et al., 2007) and disengagement (Mitchell & Hodson,1983) forms of coping. Furthermore, a study carried out among 388 battered women revealed that social coping resources, including tangible support and appraisal of social support and belonging were associated with higher engagement coping and lower disengagement coping (Taft et al., 2007).

Personality traits: generally, female perpetrators rated highly on personality traits scores. For example, females rated highly on neuroticism and psychoticism personality traits and male perpetrators rated highly on extroversion trait. However, extroversion and

psychoticism traits were rated highly by more female victims than male victims. These results contradict Schmitt et al., 2007 findings on self-rating carried out using the Big Five Inventory (BFI; Benet –Martinez & John, 1998) in 56 nations. The direct comparisons of the self-report means (McCrae, 2002) from across these countries suggest that, for example, that 'the world champions of neuroticism are Spaniards, the most extroverted people in the world are from Denmark, the nationality that is was found to be open to new experiences were Australians where as the most agreeable people in the world are Malaysians, and the world's least conscientious nation of people is Japan' (Fiske et al, 2010 p.35). However, Fiske et al., 2010 noted that the replication of Big five in 50 developing countries, including Uganda, Botswana, Ethiopia, was questionable because of potential cultural misunderstandings of the phrasing of some questions. Hence, in this study, Eysenck's personality questionnaire (which has been validated in African contexts) was used. The findings concur with those from earlier research (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985) which showed that people who score high score on neuroticism are for example (moody, emotional, low self-esteem-low scorers are stable and unreactive), psychoticism high scorers are (unempathetic, tough minded, impulsive, anti-social, impersonal, cold and egocentric) and extroversion higher scorers (dominant, active, assertive, care free). Hence, this study contributes to the knowledge on the personality characteristics of victims and perpetrators of domestic violence by examining these factors within a Ugandan sample.

Attitudes to coercive behaviours: more males than females rated highly on most sub-scales on attitudes to coercive behaviours. For example, males had higher ratings on 'women lie' and 'women's behaviours are used to justify' coercive behaviours. Moreover, males more than females rated highly on 'no big deal' attitude to coercive behaviours and highly believed coercion is a 'private matter'. Overall, these high ratings give insight into gender differences and the attitudes held by males that may impact and make females vulnerable to coercion in Uganda. However, females too had higher ratings on some of the same attitudes to coercion.

For example, females as victims or perpetrator rated highly men's 'right to control'. This is not surprising in Uganda where male dominance is so common that even females are brought up to accept and respect men's right to control. For example, in Uganda, the ICRW, 2011 report exploring the link between women asset rights and domestic violence highlights socioeconomic status and women's empowerment as factors that may increase or decrease women's risk of domestic violence. Similarly, Rugadya (2007) has explored the effect of women's rights, including female ownership of property in Uganda, as factors that influence women experience of domestic violence. It is however, interesting to note that efforts have been made (as evidenced by recent Marriage and Divorce Bills) to clarify property rights within partnership by defining matrimonial property and considering it as jointly owned by default (Jacobs, Asiimwe-Mweige & Hollingworth, 2010). It has been argued that empowering women on their rights in their relationships and also providing them with viable exit options would reduce likelihood of experiencing violence (Panda & Agarwal, 2005). Thus this current study provides viable gender based patterns on attitudes to coercion that could be explored in an attempt to deal with gender inequalities and coercive behaviours including domestic violence in Uganda.

6.2.2 How findings link to Johnson's typology

Although this study doesn't claim replication of Johnson's typology (see chapter one), it makes partial use of Johnson's ideas in interpreting the findings. *Firstly*, despite vast literature on gender issues in relation to domestic violence, few studies have looked specifically at both the females and male as victims of domestic violence (Jasinski et al, 2014). Using data from Ugandan sample of male and female victims and perpetrators, this study has revealed some significant findings on domestic violence victimisation forms and how these relate to psychological concepts sub-scales on personality traits, attitudes to coercion and coping strategies. Data on perpetration was not gathered in the current study therefore only the findings

on self-reported victimisation are discussed in relation to Johnson's typology. Like previous researchers, Johnson's categorisation of domestic violence is one of the many different typologies used in attempt to systematically examine how and why different partners use violence (perpetration) and receive violence (victimisation) and which increases understanding of domestic violence and facilitates effective identification, assessment and intervention (Ioannou, 2008). Previous research shows that common assumption of all typologies is that a valid typology of batter/perpetrator could be used to match different types of abuse to different forms of intervention.

> *''Differed emphasis on behavioural traits, form and severity of violence or personality characteristics, motivation, causation, actions and victim-offender interaction raise methodological inconsistences that make it difficult-problematic to compare findings and draw conclusions. This has resulted in numerous typologies developed in domestic violence literature aimed to distinguish batter/perpetrators from non-violent partners-men; although this has not been completely and reliably achieved by any single profile (Ioannou, 2008, p.90).''*

Despite, their critics, many typologies have been used successfully. For example, using data from the National Violence Against Women Survey (NVAWS) and building on the work of Johnson and Leone 2005, Jasinski, (2014) studied the comparison of female and male victims of intimate terrorism (IT) and examined the effects of intimate terrorism on male victims. The findings of Jasinski et al (2014), among others, indicate that intimate terrorism, as a type of violence, does not have the same characteristics when the victims are men. Drawing from the aforementioned comparisons that have used Johnson's typology to study women and male victims, discussed next is how I make use of Johnson's typology in interpreting my study findings.

Secondly, this current study has revealed no significant gender differences but there are role differences in sub-scales of self-reported domestic violence victimisation, attitudes towards coercive behaviours, personality traits and coping style-strategies in a Ugandan sample.

Similarly, there are no interactions no interaction-effect between gender and role in the sub-scales but in contrast there are positive significant correlations for gender-based and role relationships between sub-scales of self-reported domestic violence victimisation, attitudes towards coercive behaviours, coping style-strategies except personality traits in a Ugandan sample. These findings do not fit Johnson's typology in its entirity, but what partially fits in are some of the relationships that exist between the gender intersection on domestic violence victimisation typologies/sub-scales and attitudes to coercion (which *can* predict coercion (Muir et al., 1996). The findings suggest a need for further research to test Johnson's typology and to explore questions such as, is there gender symmetry in intimate terrorism (IT) (Jasinski et al., 2014)? Jasinski et al (2014) argue that some of their findings appear to point to gender symmetry between women and men regarding IT, although broad conclusions based on these findings cannot be made in the absence of sufficient means to measure the level of coercion within relationships. This current study succeeded in exploring attitudes to coercion in relation to domestic violence victimisation reported by males and females and opens up avenues for further research on the intersection of gender with actual coercion among both victims and perpetrators. The summary of gender correlation findings seems to suggest features that fit in a manner that appears to what Johnson (2006) calls 'violent resistance (VR)', within a context where females are often on the receiving end of violence, control and in defending themselves from further control from intimate terrorists, perpetrate violence to men and possibly to co-wives. For instance, females reported significant findings on attitudes to coercive behaviours e.g. 'men's right to control', 'private matter' and all forms of domestic violence victimisation (physical, psychological and sexual). These findings seem to suggest females entrapped in men's control. These findings seem to fit in Johnson's (2006) classification of 'violent resistance' where one partner is violent, controlling and in resisting the intimate terrorist, the victim is self-defensive and seeks payback. However, this link is inconclusive without

perpetration data or research on victim motives that might justify the view that females fight back primarily out of self-defence. Sometimes the act of an entrapped victim who sees no other way to escape violently abusive behaviour is to become violent themselves (Iaonnou, 2000 p.5). In contrast, similar male significant findings on 'men's right to control' and 'women behaviours are used to justify' coercion could be interpreted as fitting with Johnson's 'intimate terrorist' (IT) classification where violence is utilised as part of the general control of one partner who uses violence along with emotional and psychological violence to maintain control over the other. To a lesser extent Johnson's 'common couple violence' (CCV) where one partner physically attacks the other but this is not related to a general pattern of control also applies as does the 'mutual violent control' (MVC) classification where both partners are violent and controlling.

Although this link is inconclusive without perpetration data and motives as to why one partner physically attacks the other, based on the relationship between gender and attitudes to coercion and victimisation, common couple violence and mutual violence control typologies seem to feature to a lesser extent in the Ugandan sample than in the Western literature. This may be due to gender inequality and socio-cultural factors (*discussed next in 6.2.3*) that render the notion of mutuality and commonality between male and female perpetrators of intimate violence implausible while at the same time provides the environment for (gender inequality), (female-female violence between co-wives in cases of polygamy a practice that doesn't exist in most western countries). This observation on gender inequality and polygamy further undermines the idea of gender symmetry in domestic violence within the African context.

6.2.3 How findings relate to socio-cultural factors that pertain to domestic violence in Uganda.

These issues were raised in Chapter 1 (*section 1.3 -1.5*) and now I come back to them in relation to the findings of this current study. Although this study focused on the psychological factors

involved in domestic violence, a rationale is here provided for reflecting back on the socio-cultural issues discussed in the introductory chapter. Understanding the social and cultural context of the study was crucial in the interpretation of the data and in understanding the policy and practice implications of the psychological issues raised by the study. It is argued that only by linking the study findings to the real worlds inhabited the study participants and to issues connected to domestic violence in the Ugandan context can meaningful policy and interventions be created to address the problem. These interconnected issues include HIV-AIDS, male victims in patriarchy society, double victimisation as a result of civil war and, culturally enshrined harms that disadvantage women in Uganda (e.g. early marriage, and polygamy). For example, regarding the link between this study and HIV-AIDS in Uganda, the finding that women had higher mean scores on domestic violence victimisation may help to explain why females who resist having unprotected sex due to fear of HIV, also risk being victims of violence (Human Rights Watch, 2003 p.171). A second example concerns male victims. In a patriarchal society, the findings on the extent to which coping strategies were engaged by male victims is valuable addition to the knowledge base in Uganda. These results can help to advocate for gender inclusive approach t policy and programming. A third example concerns the concept of double victims as a result of civil war. Uganda has had over two decades of violent conflict where females have fallen victims of sexual violence (ICGR, SGBV, Report, 2011). In situations of civil war, societies develop higher levels of tolerance for violence and this spills over into domestic settings where victims of domestic violence may also be victims of war (double victims). Although this study did not ask questions related to participants experiences of war, it is possible that some may have been double victims. A fourth example concerns culturally enshrined harms in Uganda that have a link to domestic violence victimisation especially to females, such as FGM and early marriage. This could explain why

females had a higher mean score on self-reported victimisation. These issues are reflected on in more detail in the next section.

6.2.3 .1 HIV and AIDS: In developing countries, it is impossible to talk about domestic violence without talking about HIV. Uganda's current HIV prevalence stands at 6.5 percent (UDHS, 2009/2010). Globally, half or more of the 40 million people infected with HIV in the world are women UNAIDS, 2004). In sub Saharan Africa, 75 percent of new infections are reported among women aged 15-24 years and women and are approximately three times more likely to be infected than young men of the same age (UNAIDS, 2004). So what makes women disproportionately vulnerable and why is it that UNAIDS efforts to date have largely failed to stem the epidemic? The high rates of infections in women have brought into sharp focus, the problem of violence against women. This concern grows from recognising that women and girls' vulnerability to HIV infections is shaped by deep-rooted and pervasive gender inequalities against them. For example, in Uganda like in many other African countries, women are vulnerable because they cannot negotiate condom use and are often in polygamous marriages that make HIV preventive measures difficult. Qualitative data from studies conducted in Uganda, India, and elsewhere indicate that women find it difficult to suggest or insist on condom use because of the threat of violence (Human Rights Watch, 2003, Go et al, 2003). Human rights Watch, 2002 uses the example below to show the relationship between marital violence, condom use and HIV risk in Uganda:

> *My husband hated condom use. He never allowed it. He would beat me often. He used to beat me when I refused to sleep with him. He wouldn't use a condom. He said when we are married, how can we use a condom? It's a wife's duty to have sex with her husband because that is the main reason you come together. But there should be love. When I knew about his girlfriends, I feared that I would get infected with HIV. But he didn't listen to me. I tried to insist on using a condom but he refused. So I gave in*

because I really feared [him].'' (A 31-year-old Ugandan woman) Source*: Human Rights Watch, 2003*

Similarly, other studies conducted in African countries such as Rwanda, Tanzania and South Africa have indicated that a substantial proportion of women have experienced violence in some form or another at some point in their life. These studies show up to three fold increases in risk of HIV among women who have experienced violence in comparison to those who have not (Maman et al, 2002, Van der Straten et al, 1998, Dunkle et al, 2004). In Uganda, for example, domestic violence as a consequence of being HIV positive is evident; where violence or fear of violence has been implicated as a barrier to women seeking HIV testing, women were afraid to ask for money or permission from their husbands to attend HIV and AIDS facilities or seek information and in some cases explicitly forbidden from taking HIV tests (Human Rights Watch, 2003). These studies give an insight into domestic violence victimisation against women through the lens of HIV. Although these studies take a different approach, to my study in that they are primarily qualitative, their findings are worthy of recognition because they address victimisation against women, and also recognise that men too, can be victims. Thus, one of central recommendations to emerge from *this* study, the need to adopt a synergistic model which uses a gender-sensitive approach for addressing domestic violence in Uganda, has much wider value to African scholarship since it would enable the incorporation of issues such as HIV and AIDS.

6.2.3 .2 Male Victims in Patriarchal Society:

Both gender and sexual norms related to masculinity and femininity play a central role in contributing to violence against women (Human Rights Watch, 2003). For example, in many African societies manhood or notions of an ideal man are defined in terms of providing for the

family, honour, respect and being sexually controlling whereas notions of an ideal women are defined in terms of being respectful, submissive, sexually passive and disciplined (Human Rights Watch, 2003). It is argued that men use violence against women to discipline them for transgression of female roles or when they perceive challenges to their masculinity. Consequently, several programmes have used principles and methods from adult education to target gender and sexual norms underlying violence against women. Examples of such strategies include 'Men as Partners' (MAP) programme in South Africa, and the 'Stepping Stones' intervention implemented in a number of African countries (Welbourn, 1995; Guedes, 2004). These strategies involve working with peer groups to explore ideas, attitudes, behaviours and values related to sexuality and gender relations etc. My critique of these strategies lies firstly, in their structure not being tailored to individual persons and/or specific gendered needs but rather that they bracket men together. Related to this is the fact that these strategies tend to incorporate men as perpetrators not as victims, when as this study shows, they may be either or both.

Much as women are more victimised than men, this current study recognises males who are victims. The findings further give insights to group differences in the extent to which coping strategies are engaged, and whether the extent to which they are engaged is associated with other variable sub scales on domestic violence victimisation, attitudes to coercion and personality traits. These findings are valuable for Ugandan policy in that they recognise people of both genders as potential victims, however the significance of these findings in a patriarchal society, which largely values men as dominant, requires further research. For example, the study raises questions such as: how are these male victims affected and perceived living in a patriarchal society in which men are seen to be dominant? How does this close down opportunities for them to seek help? How can they acknowledge their victim status without being seen as less manly? Hence, exploring these issues would further give in-depth insight

and clarity into the intersection of gender, socio-cultural factors, and psychological needs in domestic violence within the Ugandan context.

6.2.3 .3 Double victims as a result of Civil War: In situations of civil war, societies develop higher levels of tolerance for violence and this often spills over into domestic settings. Victims of domestic violence in Uganda may also be victims of war and the question arises, how can the results of this study improve understandings of the needs of people who are doubly victimised in this way and where the perpetration of violence has become a norm from which one needs help recovering?

There are very few studies carried to investigate how psychosocial problems are perceived by the affected communities, families and people themselves (Betancourt et al., 2009). Yet, Amone-P'Olak (2005) carried out a study on the psychological impact of war and sexual abuse on 123 females in northern Uganda who were sexually and physically abused, and had experienced war atrocities. These women had formerly attended Rehabilitation Centers where they presented with symptoms of psychological distress and needed psychosocial interventions to help develop coping skills as well as entrepreneurial skills for survival. Amone-P'Olok (2005) argued that coupled with war, the transition to normal life was made difficult because of numerous mental health behavioural and emotional consequences of violence. Drawing from the scenarios such as the ones aforementioned, this current study gives insight into different coping strategies engaged by not only females but also males; thus contributing to understandings of coping needs of people in a post-war country such as Uganda. In situations of civil war, societies develop higher levels of tolerance for violence that spill over into domestic settings where victims of domestic violence in Uganda may also be victims of war (doubly victims). As a result of two decades of violent conflict, the population experienced internal displacement and rates of sexual gender-based violence (SGBV) noticeably rose in

Uganda as females experienced rape within camps on the way to fetch water or firewood (ICGLR SGBV Report, 2011). This followed a period of conflict during which many women suffered sexual slavery and sexual mutilation by rebels and government forces (ICGLR SGBV Report, 2011). De Berry's (2004) study which examined the effects of the Ugandan war of 1986-1992, points out that sexual violence was used as an act of war, with females suffering rape; something that features in many other studies. These situations present females as being vulnerable to violence as a result of war but also violence in marital relationships hence being double victims. The findings of this study which highlight the importance of considering psychological factors in domestic violence, are particularly pertinent in addressing the psychological trauma of double victimisation that is a legacy of the Ugandan war.

6.2.3.4 Cultural enshrined harms that disadvantage women in Uganda: In Uganda, domestic violence is generated by previous harms which are culturally enshrined, such as early marriage, female genital mutilation (FGM) and wife inheritance, polygyny. For example, most forms of sexual and gender based violence persist, including early and forced marriages as well as widow inheritance, which is still practiced in some communities. Female genital mutilation practices continue to exist among the Sebei community of Eastern Uganda (Isis –WICCE, 2014, p. 77). Although this study has not explored these issues, the high rates of rural-urban migration in the country (which increased following the war) would indicate that some of the respondents in the study will have been impacted by these experiences. Most significantly, the study, in emphasising the importance of increasing understanding of psychological factors in domestic violence, bring focus to bear on the harm caused by domestic violence when it is layered upon or between traditional practices which violate the rights of women and girls. Intersectional qualitative research which addresses the meanings of these experiences and the ways in which the coping strategies identified in *this* study are applied in such real life settings is clearly called for.

6.2.4 How *findings of this current study fit or challenge existing knowledge or understanding may be accounted by the following factors.*

In discussing how these study findings fit or challenge existing knowledge, it is important to note methodological differences that may be responsible (e.g. the validity of responding issue arising from the variables or item based smallest space analysis discussed in (chapter *3 section 3.6*). Over-all, Ugandan sample understood the questions within variable sub-scales except psychotic personality trait and avoidant coping sub-scales (see chapter 3 methodology). Consequently, personality trait findings reported by victims and perpetrators revealed no significant correlations with other variables except perpetrators neuroticism trait and psychological violence. These findings show similarities with previous studies on personality in 50 different cultures including Uganda from all continents except Antarctica used the big five factor model to assess trait adjectives (See McCrae et al.'s (2005 cited in Fiske et al., 2010). The findings revealed that although in many of the locations studied, the factor structure of the big five was replicated; in most developing countries (e.g., Botswana, Ethiopia and Uganda amongst others) the factor structure was not so evident. Fiske et al.2010 argued that the quality of the data collected was poor, suggesting that people did not understand the questions or were unfamiliar with answering questions in that format. Even with this current study that used an alternative measure of personality trait (Eysenck's personality questionnaire) previously used in Uganda to study gender differences on personality (Lynn & Martin, 1996), hoping the data would be robust, the responding issues on personality trait revealed by smallest space analysis (See chapter 3) still shows that the Ugandan sample as in previous studies either did not understand some of the questions or were unfamiliar answering questions in that format. This could have had direct impact on lack of significant correlations mainly on

personality trait sub-scales and would call for future studies to be aware of such responding issues within personality trait measures in Uganda.

Although there is no theorising to account for why such misunderstandings might have occurred, the following explanation attempts to give insight to some potential cultural issues and highlights the need to properly validate these measures and at the very least develop indigenous measures of personality.

First, regarding why such misunderstandings may have happened/occurred, I reflect back on the argument by Fiske et al. (2010) that culture is quite clearly implicated in people's self-concepts and personalities. Similarly, in studies by McCrae & Costa (1987; 2005), the results have largely contrasted cultures on measures of the five factor model of personality This large body of research raises questions regarding personality across cultures- are personality factors similar across people from different cultures? Or, alternatively, does the factor model or other personality measures, such as the Eysenck personality questionnaire, reflect ideas about personhood that are limited to the West, where vast majority of this research has been conducted (Fiske et al.2010). These questions are not new and are the basis of the replication of 'Big five' research which has been carried out with people in dozens of cultures around world, including within developing countries such as Uganda, Botswana, Ethiopia, Lebanon, and Malaysia (McCrae et al, 2005). Fiske et al. (2010) point out that personality measures (Big five- Eysenck) were initially developed through exploration of English personality terms which could imply that these questions speak to the structure that emerges from universe of items that were considered. These measures may not necessarily speak to people in other cultures (for instance the Ugandan sample) unless they are properly validated. As Fiske et al. (2009) asserts, it is possible that a different set of items, particularly those that are meaningful in other cultural contexts, might reveal a different underlying personality structure. Thus personality measures that relate to the Ugandan-African cultural context need to be developed, pilot tested and

validated. For example, successful exploration of personality dimensions among Chinese indigenous personality terms revealed an additional factor of interpersonal relatedness (Cheung et al, 1996, 2003) and studies which have produced culture-specific factors have similarly been conducted successfully in Filipino, Spanish & Greek. The common feature in these investigations with indigenous traits reveal that although the Big five personality measures appear to be reasonably robust across cultures, they may not be an exhaustive list of the ways that personality can emerge in other cultures (Fiske et al.2010). This study on Eysenck's personality traits recommends a Ugandan indigenous personality terms measure, but this must be tested for robustness.

6.3 Main Contribution of this Research to African Scholarship

This current research is the first of its kind in Uganda to jointly study domestic violence victimisation among victims and perpetrators and makes a significant contribution to scholarship in Uganda and more widely, to Africa in various ways. Firstly, this study's sampling and recruitment procedures break a common traditional cultural belief in Uganda and Africa, from viewing victimisation as being an experience that only women are subjected to, to viewing the roles of victim and perpetrator in domestic violence cases as being held by *both* women and men. The study demonstrates that there is greater gender symmetry in domestic violence than has previously been presumed, thus raising questions about the over-reliance on culture (the ways in which patriarchal domination and female subjugation are sustained through cultural values and traditions) as an explanation. This contribution opens up the pathway for looking at the significance of gender in a more nuanced way in future studies of domestic violence in Uganda. This would be of great importance. For example, females who are the most impacted by domestic violence would through such studies be able to reveal suitable coping

strategies-interventions that meet specific gender-individual characteristics. But more importantly, male victim's needs could be incorporated within Ugandan policies as; within the current Uganda GBV Guidelines (2013) male victims are invisible. To achieve this, requires a gender sensitive approach, one that would go beyond merely being gender inclusive to engaging males into GBV programmes in ways that meant they were able to acknowledge their victim status and seek help without feeling that their masculine identity was threatened.

Secondly, the finding that perpetrators of domestic violence may have previously experienced victimisation is a major contribution to African scholarship and policy development. As previously mentioned, most programmes for male batterers/perpetrators fail to recognise that they may have also been victims and there is no other published research on this problem in Uganda. This present research offers an understanding that perpetrators too may also have experienced victimisation as supported by empirical data but further qualitative research could help to further gain in-depth insight into joint aspects of victimisation and perpetration of domestic violence. This contribution provides role and gender bias-free knowledge/information that could aid the police and others involved in handling domestic violence cases to acknowledge that perpetrators, like victims, may have experienced or still experience victimisation irrespective of gender. Thirdly, for Africa, this study makes a significant contribution by adding psychological factors (personality traits and attitudes to coercive behaviours) to already existing cultural explanations to domestic violence victimisation and in addition, coping strategies-styles and how these are engaged in differently by victims and perpetrators of both genders. Hence, these findings on coping open up avenues for interventions that incorporate psychological interventions in dealing with the daily challenges and domestic violence that have long been seen as irrelevant for Africa (Straus, 2010).

6.4 The Implications of the Research for Policy and Practice within Uganda.

This section draws from the findings to discuss their practical implications within government and non-government organisations in Uganda, by participants and academicians mainly in applied sciences and investigative psychology (even though this discipline is still in its initial early stages within the African context).

6.4.1 The Implications of my results for Understanding the risk of violence women face from other women in polygamous marriages.

The implications of the study's findings on the existence of female perpetrators of domestic violence can be discussed in relation to a previous study on criminal homicide in Uganda (Mushanga, 2013). Mushanga argued that women who perpetrate violence to other women may have been victims at the hands of males, and who then take their revenge on those they consider are the cause of their misery- primarily co-wives in polygamous marriages. Mushanga provides examples of a wife killing a co-wife in slain polygamous families and argues that often, conflict will become serious if the husband does not exercise impartially and equity in distribution of income according to socially accepted principles, for example, the most senior wife gets more, as do wives with more children is distributed accordingly (Mushanga, 2013). Favouritism and preferential treatment, even if merely suspected, can lead to jealousy, fights, quarrels among co-wives (Mushanga, 2013, p.92). Mushanga also notes that in polygamous families disputes and physical violence erupts between co-wives, between sons and their step-mothers and, between wives as a group against the husband (Mushanga, 2013 p.92). Consequently, though a man in such cases can be a victim of female violence, this cannot be separated from the wider gendered context in which the nature of power in patriarchal societies and the attitudes it

promulgates give men the right to control women and bound women to the rules put in place by men. Polygamous households are prevalent in Uganda. According to the Uganda Demographic Health Survey 2011, 25 percent of women in Uganda are in polygynous unions-marriages with two or more co-wives. In addition, 17 percent of men aged 15-54 in Uganda reported having two or more wives - a level that had remained constant for the previous five years. (UDHS, 2011). Despite this, there is little recognition of this issue in domestic violence policy. This current study opens up new angles to exploring gender relations in domestic violence cases in polygamous marriages in Uganda and fills a void in the research available.

6.4.2 Organisations: Results have revealed that domestic violence victimisation affects both males and females irrespective of gender. This is not to dispute the widely evident research that shows that females are the most affected victims of domestic violence. Rather, this study adds men to the list of victims. Hence, with this study's findings, governmental and non – governmental organisations within Uganda need to acknowledge male victims but also female perpetrators. This acknowledgement should then enhance awareness, prevention and service delivery to victims of both genders.

Furthermore, results have revealed that, like victims of domestic violence, perpetrators could to some extent have suffered victimisation. This is not to blame victims or accuse them of causing harm to their perpetrators but rather to acknowledge and note the victimisation that perpetrators may have experienced or be still experiencing. Indeed, Hester et al (2008) have argued that someone could be a victim at one point and a perpetrator at another time. Therefore, organisations and policy makers and implementers and the police need to be aware that being a perpetrator does not entirely mean that such a person has not experienced victimisation.

This study has revealed significant psychological characteristics of both victims and perpetrators. Hence, added insight on literature-knowledge that certain people are more

vulnerable to domestic violence victimisation than others. For example, besides gender and its cultural power dynamics, individual neuroticism personality traits have revealed that such individuals are more likely to have experienced domestic violence. Thus, the government of Uganda could build on this finding to research further the possibility of fully involving psychological professionals in investigating, assessing and providing services to both victims and perpetrators. Indeed, this need is evident in the absence of professional psychologists on the list of professionals within the Domestic Violence Act of Uganda, 2010**.**

6.4.3 Participants: As previously argued by Ogan, 2008, the key element in any crime is a victim, yet this has been neglected in many areas of crime and criminology psychology. Thus, by offering more insight into victimisation, not only from victims' perspectives but also exploring it from the perspectives of perpetrators who may have previously been victims, this research enriches the literature on victimisation in crime generally. More importantly, it offers useful information, especially in relation to the general coping strategies that could offer strategies for dealing with daily life challenges. Furthermore, this study's findings could also be used by professionals involved in handling domestic violence cases, not only to understand the victims they are dealing with but also for training and sensitizing the public to better understand what domestic violence involves.

6.4.4 Government Policies: Uganda's government under its ministry of labour and social development (MLGSD) guidelines for establishing and management of Gender Based Violence shelter in Uganda 2013 under management of shelter section 3.1 on eligibility currently states that only:

''*Females survivors and their children below 10 years of age shall be accommodated into shelter. In addition, the shelter shall provide psychosocial care to female adult and a child who has experienced GBV, or is under immediate threat of being harmed MLGSD, 2013 p.8''*

The male victims are left out by these guidelines. However, this current study has revealed that men too are victims whose needs require attention either through providing alternative programmes similar to those provided to female victims in shelters and access the psychological services made available to Gender Based Violence female victims. This current study findings and recommendation for a gender inclusive approach in Ugandan a country where male dominance is a strong feature of the society are likely to be received with cautiousness and contested by feminist activists like previous gender symmetry studies in Western literature by, Straus & Gelles 1975, Steinmetez, 1977, White, 2006, Anderson, 2002. However, what is important to note however, is this current study recognises females are the most vulnerable to domestic violence victimisation and does not claim gender symmetry in Uganda but rather advocates gender sensitive approach that acknowledges male victims in a patriarchal society and advocates that they too deserve GBV psychosocial needs to be met by government policies, Non-Government Organisations and professional practitioners.

6.4.5 Research in Investigative Psychology and Applied Sciences: Although investigative psychology is a discipline that is destined to lead scientific crime research globally, it is largely dominant in Western countries, the UK in particular. However, with this study's findings on domestic violence in Uganda, investigative psychology has the potential to extend its impact to the African continent. This has been achieved by this study through studying domestic violence in Uganda and comparing findings to wider literature from the field of investigative psychology, especially research on gender symmetry and the psychological characteristics of victims and perpetrators for both genders. The findings also give an insight into psychological explanations to domestic violence, which has recently become a crime not only in Uganda but in many other African countries (Bowman, 2006).

6.5 Limitations of the Study

Irrespective of the implications and contributions, this research is not without its limitations. Indeed, even previous research has acknowledged that the challenges of accurately measuring the pressures faced by victims of domestic violence and their effects on victim decision making, are numerous (Kuennen, 2007, p.26). Similarly, this current study had a number of limitations which, in some aspects, may have had some direct and/or indirect impact on the findings. However, this study used a number of strategies to overcome the challenges and carry the study to the end successfully. Challenges and limitations and how they were dealt with are discussed concurrently:

Like most scholarly work, the current study suffers from a few limitations.

The first concerns the *lack of a non-victim, non perpetrator comparison group.* As a result, the findings, while providing original knowledge, are limited in being able to assess self-reported victimisation reported by non-victim non-perpetrator comparison groups. This is limiting in a sense that non-victim non perpetrator comparison group results are missed.

On a related note, this current study also suffered from a *lack of self-domestic violence perpetration data*. Asking victims to report perpetration was viewed to be out of context and implied a judgemental approach, therefore this was not included in the study design. However, there is little doubt that perpetration data reported by perpetrators would have provided interesting results on gender differences and is a recommendation for future research. Future research should incorporate multiple categorisation (e.g. *alcohol consumption etc.*) thus go beyond participant's status as victims and/or perpetrators to gain more confidence that

association with variables of interest are actually due to categorisation. But even for this current study, the association with variables studied is attributed to categorisation as victim or perpetrator as participants lie was controlled. However, this study doesn't rule out the role of other extraneous factors such as whether participant is alcoholic or not etc. Widening the net to include multiple categories for participants would allow scholars of domestic violence to strengthen chances to rule out extraneous variables that are not measured but which may have influenced results.

The sensitivity of domestic violence as the subject being studied and it also being an act often hidden in families, a family secret, was a challenge. This is because domestic violence is still regarded as a private and sensitive matter in Uganda and in many societies within Sub-Saharan Africa as a whole. Thus, involving respondents in this rather sensitive study was not very easy and required a lot of expertise in recruiting, explaining the purpose of the study and how it might benefit respondents, other people in similar situations, policy makers and practitioners involved in service provision. This was achieved through explaining the aims of the study, using the expertise of the researcher in counselling in debriefing. However, more importantly, it was the enormous professional help victims and perpetrators were receiving from organisations where they accessed counselling and psychological services that was very helpful. The respondents seemed relaxed and willing to participate in the study despite their previous experiences of domestic violence victimisation.

These approaches might have impacted on the findings in terms of recruiting gender unbalanced samples. Moreover, in most Western studies of domestic violence, samples are recruited systematically from shelters and crisis and rehabilitation centres which unfortunately do not exist within Uganda. The few structures that exist to address domestic violence are still in initial stages and/or in policies due for implementation since domestic violence became a crime in 2010 (Uganda Domestic Violence Act, 2010). Thus, this current study advocates for

the inclusion of family shelters that would not only provide services to victims but also serve as data collection sources for future research into domestic violence.

The validity of responding issues arising from smallest space analysis (SSA) on whether respondents understood questions could reflect the methodological and sample differences within the Ugandan sample that could have led to some of the differences that exist in relation to existing studies. For example, regarding personality traits, the smallest space analysis revealed that the Ugandan sample's understanding of the measure used (Eysenck personality traits questionnaire) was slightly different from the original author's sample with which the measure was validated. However, this is not a new phenomenon regarding personality studies in different cultures. For example, in a cultural psychology study, (Heine, 2010 cited in Fiske, Gilbert, & Lindsey, 2010, p.32-33), despite the personality inventory (NEO-PI-R, Costa & McCrae, 1992) having been translated into a number of languages and having been distributed to thousands of people in dozens of cultures around the world, there are still questions raised about the structure of the questionnaires used to measure personality, whether it is something basic about human nature that we should find in the personalities of people in all cultures that we study? Or, alternatively, does the measure reflect ideas about personhood that are limited to West, where the vast majority of this research has been conducted? (Heine, 2010 cited in Fiske, Gilbert, & Lindsey, 2010, p.32). Hence, it is important to note these points/debates and the Ugandan sample's understanding of measures in the interpretation of this current study's results.

This study was conducted among victims and perpetrators. These are individuals who already have psychological, social and financial problems and challenges. This meant that they required special attention during data collection to enable a successful data collection exercise. Everything possible in the means of the researcher was ethically done to ensure confidentiality and respondents' well-being. In addition, the respondents' information sheets clearly laid out

and explained participants' rights, emphasising that, if at any point any participant felt they could not continue with the research, he/she was free to withdraw without seeking permission. This provided re-assurance to participants of their rights. Similarly, organisations and the police from which data was collected were very helpful in many aspects during the data collection process.

The other limitation of this study was the location of the study being in an urban area where the socio-economic and rates of respondent's unemployment revealed in the demographic characteristics of this study. However, the reasons and rationale for carrying out this study in urban areas rather than rural ones were based on the high prevalence of cases of domestic violence incidences in urban centres (UDHS, 2011). Moreover, organisations focusing on domestic violence are only mushrooming in urban areas following increased frequencies reported to police stations only available urban and not in rural settings.

Financial facilitation, as in many other academic studies, was an important necessity for this study in many aspects. This is because data was being collected from a different country from where the researcher's institution is located. This meant that the researcher required financial facilitation to be able to carry out the data collection exercise. This study had limited funds, given the number of activities that required facilitation. The costs included, but were not limited to, flight costs to the country of data collection, ethical approval and institution review fees in the country of data collection and also stationery costs, amongst others. Therefore, the limited funds to facilitate this study could have potentially directly or indirectly had an impact on the carrying out of this research.

6.6 Implications for Future Research (Future Directions)

Firstly, before discussing the implications of this research and future directions, reference is made to the objectives, the hypotheses that were tested by this study and the findings. Undoubtedly, the findings in relation to the set objectives were achieved and accomplished. For example, findings revealed no gender differences and role differences on sub-scale dependent variables. In addition, although there was no interaction between gender and role in domestic violence, findings from victims and perpetrators of both genders revealed some statistical significant inter-item correlations on some dependent variables. However, findings also revealed non-significant correlations on some variables, mainly personality traits. Although these findings sound definitive, there is still a need to do more joint comprehensive research into domestic violence and to study concepts other than psychological aspects. This is because this study has barely studied a few aspects of this wide and comprehensive topic. Kuennen (2007) noted that feminist scholars have long called for coercion to be recognised, rather than physical assault alone, as a critical method that perpetrators-batterers use to control victim's behaviours and decision making. In addition, Kuennen (2007, p 2) further noted that:

> Physical violence may not be the most significant factor about battering relationships. In all probability, the profile revealed by battered women reflects that they have been subjected to an ongoing strategy of intimidation, isolation, and control that extends to all areas of a woman's life, including sexuality; material necessities; relations with family, children and friends; and work.

The present study aimed to investigate domestic violence itself and its relationship with coercion from aspects recommended by Kuennen (2007). However, further research is needed to examine most issues raised but, more importantly and urgently, a study amongst children

from violent families who may be directly or indirectly impacted on / exposed to violence is necessary. Moreover, this study further revealed significant correlations for attitudes to coercion and self-reported victimisation. This could perhaps imply that these strong attitudes are held right from childhood into adulthood and/or could be developed in adulthood (these are assumptions that require further research). However, what is evident is that children from violent families are at risk, vulnerable and at risk of secondary victimisation (Walker & Gavin, 2011). In addition, Jones (2013) notes that child sexual abuse and later life experiences (long term effects) have their genesis in childhood. It is revealed that more females than males report their experiences of child abuse; however male under-reporting of sexual incidence cases is known from the research findings to conceal the magnitude of male victimisation (Jones, 2013 p.88). Drawing from examples in the Caribbean, Jones (2013) noted that:

> Rape of boys carries additional weight, since most patriarchal cultures teach males that sex is desirable and something they take pride in regardless of the circumstances. Hence, boys who are raped therefore must deal with this massive confusion of attempting to feel good about sexual injury, losing both moral and sensory clarity between what is pain and what is pleasure. They grapple with the notion that that they are expected to grow up and perpetuate this same sexual harm onto others, as their part of their masculine coming of age (Jones, 2013 p.99).

> Moreover, although fathers in the Caribbean provide for their families economically, their emotional availability and emotional ties with children are unclear (Sharpe, 1996, p.261-2 cited in Jones, 2013, p.98).

This calls for further research in Uganda among children from violent families who may not only have direct or indirect exposure to different forms of domestic violence but may also have unclear ties with their violent parents. These experiences could all culminate in attitudes to

coercion and perpetrating violence or accepting victimisation. Hence, further research would identify 1) the existence of children from violent families 2) establish the impact that exposure to domestic violence has on their attitudes to coercive behaviours. Based on such findings intervention strategies would be put in place to sensitize such children in an attempt to break the cycle of coercive behaviours, domestic violence in particular.

Furthermore, this current study's findings have revealed that both men and women in Uganda self-reported victimisation. Similarly, perpetrators reported victimisation previously experienced. This current study's findings are in agreement with gender symmetry studies that have argued that victimisation is not gender specific, that both males and females are victims (White, 2006). Moreover, male victims are rarely heard of publically in Uganda (UDHS, 2011). Therefore, this study has made a significant contribution to better understanding this 'newest' Ugandan crime in order to prevent or stop it. More importantly, these findings could aid the Government policy makers and implementers, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), police and other professionals to be gender bias-free in service provision but could also open new avenues of researching domestic violence.

Additionally, further research examining perpetration among females and males is needed. Perhaps, this could give insight into the domestic violence perpetration patterns that exist within both genders. Although this current study aimed to investigate victimisation, further research for perpetration is necessary, as Hamberger (1997) argued that females too have also been prosecuted for offences related to intimate partner violence.

Infrequent, psychological concepts, mainly personality traits, did not correlate with most sub-scale variables reported by both genders and roles, except neuroticism trait and psychological violence victimisation. Hence, these non-significant findings from Ugandan sample demands that further research/studies into factors other than psychological issues that

may be responsible for influencing domestic violence victimisation/abuse amongst females and males.

This current study has revealed a number of strategies, mainly seeking social support and problem solving strategies, to be positively engaged by both males and females to cope with general life challenges. This is a fundamental contribution to Uganda that lays a foundation for further research into gender based violence specific interventions that could help to deal with forms of domestic violence in Uganda in an attempt to prevent and/or minimise domestic violence victimisation. But, more importantly, further research on practical coping styles, counselling and rehabilitation services for victims and perpetrators should be made readily available and shelters provided for victims (including children as secondary victims) in the form of refuges or crisis centre homes.

Finally, the wider systematic literature review has been a significant contribution to the African scholarship on domestic violence. This review was mainly carried out to compare the Ugandan findings to identify any commonalities and differences in nature and forms of domestic violence, gender symmetry in domestic violence, psychological characteristics for victims and perpetrators. The commonalities identified within the literature dispute the myth that domestic violence in Africa is different from what it is elsewhere in the Western world (Straus, 2010). However, in contrast, the differences identified within the wider literature reviewed that contradict the Ugandan sample findings, reflect patterns that are distinct to the Ugandan-African context. Further systematic reviews on domestic violence topics could help scholars to gain in-depth insights into cross-cultural differences and commonalities.

6.7 Conclusion

This empirical study has been a starting point for researching approaches to domestic violence victimisation in relation to psychological concepts. If these findings are applied and similar studies carried out in broader contexts, such studies would reject the reflexive and cultural assumptions that often do not take into account domestic violence role and gender complexities in studying domestic violence in Africa. With this current study's contribution to both Uganda's national policy and practice and to the global literature/knowledge database, it is one step taken in disentangling the phenomenon of domestic violence. The overall aim of this study was 'to explore the relationship of gender and role in domestic violence and to investigate the interaction of these factors with self-reported victimisation, attitudes towards coercive behaviours, personality traits and coping style strategies in a Ugandan sample'. Consequent on these findings, a second aim was to conduct a literature-based cross-cultural comparison of results from the Ugandan sample with studies from western countries to identify any commonalities or differences that exist.

The ideas, debates and complexities that have emanated from this research challenge the hegemonic principles of current domestic violence policy and practice in Africa in general and, in particular, further knowledge about the situation in Uganda. The thesis objectives were:

1. *First*, in order to explore whether domestic violence is generally perpetrated by a male partner on a female victim who perceives it as harmful and destructive (Agozino, 2011) the study examines the role of victims and perpetrators in self-reported victimisation.
2. *Second*, the study examines gender (male and female) and role (victim and perpetrator) in relation to attitudes towards coercive behaviours and self-reported domestic violence victimisation. This approach is taken because gender and age remain the best predictors

for crime rather than, for example, race and employment status (Heidensohn, 1985:143, cited in Tibatemwa, 1999).

3. *Third,* the impact that role and gender have on attitudes towards coercive behaviours is studied based on the socio-cultural assumptions that women-beating is considered acceptable in Uganda (Speizer, 2010). The study also utilises the work of Muir (2002) that identified two important sets of attitudes in the coercion-domestic violence scenario: 'men's right to control hence coerce' but also 'women exaggerate coercion' and explores whether or not these attitudes to coercive behaviours differ among men and women and also between victims and perpetrators.
4. *Fourth,* despite available research on coping strategies what remains unclear to date is whether coping styles are engaged by men and women equally or whether victims are more likely than perpetrators to engage in positive coping strategies. As revealed by previous studies, while physical violence may end, non-physical forms of violence, including emotional abuse, may escalate. This was found to be the case among male perpetrators who attended intervention programmes in the US (Rothman, Butchart, & Cerda, 2003; van Wormer & Bednar, 2002 cited in Agozino, 2011) and raises the need to explore whether or not coping styles are engaged in differently by perpetrators and victims of either gender. This is explored in this study.
5. *Fifth,* the study explores the personality traits of victims and perpetrators (both genders). This is based on Wyrod's study of gender and personality traits in Uganda (Wyrod, 2007) and Eysenck's conclusions from his classic 1975 study that individuals who scored high on Extroversion and Neuroticism scales had a level of nervousness that made it difficult to condition them. Consequently, they did not easily learn to use anxiety to respond to antisocial impulses and were more likely to act antisocially in situations where the opportunity presented itself (Eysenck, 1975). This raises questions

as to whether or not domestic violence and coercive behaviours are related to an individual's personality trait scores (Seizer, 2010).

To a large extent this study has achieved its aims and objectives outlined above. However, this research identifies too, that there is a need more extensive research into domestic violence in Uganda, building on and exploring further some of the study's findings. For example, there is still a long way to go, more research to do and a lot of awareness to carryout in developing policies that would address the psychological needs -characteristics of men and women alongside other factors. Although this study has succeeded in giving insight to impact of gender and role in domestic violence in relation to self-reported victimization, personality, attitudes to coercion and coping, it opens a wide range of issues that could be explored further in other extensive independent studies in relation to domestic violence perpetration too. Amassing a wider body of African knowledge aimed at addressing domestic violence on the continent, in all its complexities, requires the efforts of researchers, academicians, professionals and government bodies to accept the need for gender sensitive approaches to research, policy and practice.

6.8 Reflexivity

I began this PhD journey with one intention that of researching domestic violence in Uganda using a gender sensitive approach and finally the dream is achieved. With this purpose accomplished, and findings in place that may not only benefit victims of violence, but also impact on practice and policy makers in Uganda, one could easily view this as a definite and accomplished mission. However, further research amongst victims and perpetrators of both genders on factors other than psychological issues that may influence domestic violence is required. Furthermore, as advocated by previous studies reviewed, further research to include children from violent families has also been deemed necessary in an attempt to deal with this rather global crime and break the cycle of violence.

It is, however, important to note that along the way and in the process of carrying out this research firstly, I acquired knowledge, skills and confidence to enable me carry out research independently (academic and professional growth). Secondly, I have made professional contacts across the continents of Europe (UK in particular), the Caribbean region, Africa and beyond. Thirdly, I have also been able to advance my academic skills and expertise through lecturing at the University of Huddersfield. I have also been able to utilise workshops and international and national conferences that have all given me a platform to engage with intellectuals. Fourthly, through reviewing Western literature on domestic violence, I have been able to explore and gain understanding about domestic violence through a global lens. Through this study findings, it is worth noting the contributions made to the scholarly work on domestic violence in Uganda. However, tackling domestic violence requires a comprehensive approach that goes far beyond studying the crime, to incorporate victims and perpetrators. In addition, further research on professionals' views on violence could help to gain in-depth knowledge towards breaking the vicious cycle of violence.

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Questionnaire

Dear respondent, please kindly spare some of your valuable time to answer the following questions. This study is an academic research and the information you will provide will be treated with all the confidentiality it deems and will be used for the purpose of research only.

Section A: Demographic Information (Tick/Fill in/Circle what is applicable to you)

1. Gender: (a) Male (b) Female

2. Domestic violence role: (a) Victim (b) Perpetrator

3. Age in years: ……

4. Religion: (a) Catholic (b) Anglican (c) Moslem (d) Born again (e)others……

5. Socio-Economic status: (a) Low (b) Moderate (c) High

6. Education: (a) Primary (b) Secondary (C) Tertiary (d) Degree (e) Postgraduate

7. Employment status: (a) Unemployed (b) Employed

8. Used Weapon in Domestic violence: (a) Yes (b) No.

9. How domestic violence start in Uganda: ☐

Section B: Personality Traits: Instructions: Tick as appropriately; do not over think, as there is no wrong and right answer 1 (*Yes*) 0 (*No*)

1. Are you a talkative person	1	0
2. Are you rather lively	1	0
3. Do you enjoy meeting new people	1	0
4. Can you usually let yourself go and enjoy yourself at a live party	1	0
5. Do you tend to keep in the background on social occasions	1	0
6. Do you like mixing with people	1	0
7. Do you like plenty of bustle and excitement around you	1	0
8. Are you mostly quite when you are with other people	1	0
9. Do other people think of you being very lively	1	0

10. Can you get a party going	1	0
11. Does your mood often go up and down	1	0
12. Do you ever feel just miserable for no reason	1	0
13. Are you an irritable person	1	0
14. Are you feeling easily hurt	1	0
15. Do you often feel fed-up	1	0
16. Would you call yourself tense or highly strung	1	0
17. Do you worry too long after an embarrassing experience	1	0
18. Do you suffer from nerves	1	0
19. Do you often feel lonely	1	0
20. Are you often troubled about feelings of guilt	1	0
21. If you say will do something, do you always keep promise no matter how inconvenient it might be	1	0
22. Were you ever greedy by helping yourself to more than your share of anything	1	0
23. Have you ever blamed someone for doing something you knew was really your fault	1	0
24. Are all your habits good and desirable ones	1	0
25. Have you ever taken anything (even a pin or button) that belonged to someone else	1	0
26. Have you ever said anything bad or nasty about anyone	1	0
27. As a child were you every cheeky to your parents	1	0
28. Have you ever taken advantage of someone	1	0
29. Do you always practice what you preach	1	0
30. Do you sometimes put off until what you ought to do today	1	0
31. Do you take much notice of what people think	1	0
32. Would being in a debt worry you	1	0

33. Would you take drugs which may have strange or dangerous effects	1	0
34. Do you prefer to go your own way rather than act by the rules	1	0
35. Do good manners and cleanliness matter much to you	1	0
36. Do you think marriage is old-fashioned and should be done away with	1	0
37. Do you try not to be rude to people	1	0
38. Would you like other people to be afraid of you	1	0
39. Is it better to follow society's rules than go your own way	1	0

Section C: Attitudes to Coercive Behaviours Scale: Instructions: Thank you for your participation in this study that is concerned with issues relating to men's and women's violent and controlling behaviours, and sexual violence issues. If at any time you find the material disturbing or upsetting, please do not continue. In the following pages you will be asked to respond to various statements by circling a number which best represents your opinion. Here is an example of what you can expect: - For each statement you should circle, the number that best corresponds with your opinion, where 1= 'not at all agree', 4= 'moderately agree', and 7= 'very much agree'. i.e. the less you agree with the statement the lower the number you should circle; the more you agree with the statement the higher the number you should circle.

Not at all agree Moderately agree Very much agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

This questionnaire is concerned with issues relating to men's violent and controlling behaviours. There are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers and for each statement you should circle the number which best corresponds with your opinion, where 1= 'not at all agree', 4= 'moderately agree', and 7= 'very much agree'.

1. If a woman dresses provocatively, her boyfriend should be able to tell her to change the way she dresses.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2.It is all right for a man/woman to hit his girlfriend/boyfriend if she/he is cheating	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. It is acceptable for a man/woman to verbally abuse his wife/husband if she/he shows him up in public.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. If a woman/man is a sexual tease, he/she shouldn't be surprised if a man/woman tries to force her/him to have sex.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.Women/men tend to exaggerate how much sexual harassment affects them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Women/men often cry domestic violence about behaviour that could be considered reasonable in an argument.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Women/men who claim they have been sexually harassed are usually exaggerating.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. A woman/man, who dresses provocatively to gain attention from men/women, is asking for trouble.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. If a woman/man flirts with another man/woman in public, she/he should not be surprised if her/his husband/wife is physically abusive to her/him.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.If you see a man and his wife fighting, it might make it worse if you intervene.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.Women/men who are sexually harassed have often done something to cause it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. When a woman/man deliberately makes her/his boyfriend/girlfriend jealous, she / he only have herself/himself to blame if he/she responds violently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Physical fighting between a man and his girlfriend is a personal matter between the two people involved.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Domestic violence is a private family matter.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

15. If you see a man and his girlfriend fighting, you shouldn't get involved.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. If your neighbour is physically abusing his wife/husband, it is really nobody else's business.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. It is just human nature that men/women will make sexual comments to women/men.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Women/men often see innocent flirtation as sexual harassment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. If a man/woman thinks his wife/husband is spending too much time out of the house with her/his friends, he/she is entitled to deliberately keep her/him short of money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Women/men shouldn't be so quick to take offence when a man/woman expresses sexual interest.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. It takes more than 'dirty jokes' and sexual comments to be sexual harassment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. It is not acceptable for a man/woman to tell his girlfriend/boyfriend how to dress in public.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. It is not acceptable, under any circumstances, for a man/woman to hit his wife/husband.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Cases of domestic violence should be dealt with severely by the courts.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section D: Domestic Violence: *Instructions***:** This questionnaire is designed to measure physical and non-physical abuse you have experienced in your relationship with your partner. It is not a test, so there are no wrong and right answers. Answer each item by ticking/circling as follows: 1(Never), 2 *(Rarely*), 3 (*Sometimes*) and 4 (Always).

1. My partner pushes and shoves me around violently.	1	2	3	4
2. My partner hits and punches my arms and body.	1	2	3	4
3. My partner threatens me with a weapon.	1	2	3	4

4. My partner beats me so hard I must seek medical help.	1	2	3	4
5. My partner slaps me around my face and head.	1	2	3	4
6. My partner beats me when he or she drinks.	1	2	3	4
7. My partner makes me afraid for my life.	1	2	3	4
8. My partner physically throws me around the room.	1	2	3	4
9. My partner beats me in the face so badly and ashamed to be seen in public.	1	2	3	4
10. My partner acts like he or she would like to kill me.	1	2	3	4
11. My partner threatens to cut or stab me with a knife or other sharp object.	1	2	3	4
12. My partner tries to choke or strangle me.	1	2	3	4
13. My partner knocks me down and then kicks or stomps me.	1	2	3	4
14. My partner twists my fingers, arms, or legs.	1	2	3	4
15. My partner throws dangerous objects at me.	1	2	3	4
16. My partner bites or scratches me so badly that I bleed or have bruises.	1	2	3	4
17. My partner violently pinches or twists my skin.	1	2	3	4
18. My partner tries to suffocate me with pillows, towels, or other objects.	1	2	3	4
19. My partner pokes or jabs me with pointed objects.	1	2	3	4
20. My partner has broken one or more of my bones.	1	2	3	4
21. My partner badly hurts me while we are having sex.	1	2	3	4
22. My partner injures my breasts or genitals.	1	2	3	4
23. My partner physically forces me to have sex.	1	2	3	4
24. My partner acts like a bully towards me and insults me	1	2	3	4
25. My partner belittles me or humiliates me	1	2	3	4
26. My partner screams and yells at me	1	2	3	4
27. My partner frightens me	1	2	3	4

28. My partner demands sex whether I want it or not	1	2	3	4
29. My partner becomes very angry if I disagree with his or her point of view.	1	2	3	4
30. My partner demands that I perform sex acts that I do not enjoy or like	1	2	3	4
31. My partner has no respect for my feelings	1	2	3	4
32. My partner orders and controls me around	1	2	3	4
33. My partner demands that I stay home	1	2	3	4
34. My partner is stingy in giving me money	1	2	3	4
35. My partner acts like iam his or her personal servant	1	2	3	4

Section E: Coping Strategies Indicator: *Instruction:* Tick as appropriately, don't over think as there is no wrong and right answer: 3 (*A lot*), 2 (A *little*) and 1(Not *at all*)

1. Rearranged things so your problem could be solved	1	2	3
2. Thought of many ideas before deciding what to do	1	2	3
3. Weighed up your options carefully	1	2	3
4. Set some goals for yourself to deal with the situation	1	2	3
5. Tried different ways to solve the problem until you found one that worked	1	2	3
6.Thought about what needs to be done to straighten things up	1	2	3
7.Turned your full attention to solving the problem	1	2	3
8.Formed a plan in your mind	1	2	3
9.Stood firm and fought for what you wanted in the situation	1	2	3
10.Tried to carefully plan a course of action rather than acting on impulse	1	2	3
11.Tried to solve the problem	1	2	3
12. Told people about the situation because talking about it helped you come up with solutions	1	2	3
13.Described your feelings to a friend	1	2	3

14. Went to someone friend or professional to help you feel better	1	2	3
15. Talked to people about the situation because talking about it made you feel better	1	2	3
16. Accepted sympathy and understanding from someone	1	2	3
17. Went to a friend to help you feel better about the problem	1	2	3
18. Went to a friend for advice about how to change the situation	1	2	3
19. Accepted sympathy and understanding from friends who had the same problem	1	2	3
20. Accepted help from a friend or relative	1	2	3
21. Sought reassurance from those who know you best	1	2	3
22. Talked about fears and worries to a relative or friend	1	2	3
23. Fantasized about how things could have been different	1	2	3
24.Tried to distract yourself from the problem	1	2	3
25.Did all you could to keep others from seeing how bad things really were	1	2	3
26. Daydreamed about better times	1	2	3
27. Avoided being with people in general	1	2	3
28. Buried yourself in a hobby or sports activity to avoid the problem	1	2	3
29. Slept more than usual	1	2	3
30. Watched television more than usual	1	2	3
31. Spent more time than usual alone	1	2	3
32. Identified with characters in movies or novels	1	2	3
33. Wished that people would just leave you alone	1	2	3

End Thanks

Appendix 1: Victims and Perpetrators Information sheet.

International Research Centre for Investigative Psychology (IRCIP)

University of Huddersfield

School of Human and Health Sciences

Tittle of the Study: Psychological Pathways to Domestic Violence in Uganda Africa.

Who is organising the study: The research study is being organised by Wilber Karugahe as a PhD researcher at the centre for International Research Centre for Investigative Psyhcology-University of Huddersfield (UK). The study project is under a supervisory team of Professor David Canter, Professor Adele Jones and Dr Donna Youngs from the University of Huddersfield (UK), School of Human and Health Sciences.

Why is the Research being done: The research study is being done for academic purposes specifically for the award of PhD in Investigative Psychology from the University of Huddersfield in the United Kingdom.

Why a particular person has been asked to engage?

You have been identified as a suitable respondent because of your experience and/or knowledge in the study topic. Your participation in this study will enable the researcher gain in-depth information on domestic violence, psychological explanations -pathways to domestic violence and and intervention strategies among other variables being studied.

Why your views are important: The views are very important because it will enable the researcher to obtain data. The data obtained will be useful to gain in-depth information about psychological pathways to domestic violence and how intervention strategies are engaged - thus contributing to knowledge base.

What will be involved if I take part in this study: If you decide to take part in this study, you should know that it's purely voluntary and you have a right to withdrawal at any time if for some reasons you no longer feel comfortable to continue. If you would like to ask questions or need clarity, feel free to contact me directly or through your organisation management in Uganda. My email and telephone contact number is: +44(0)7504613391: Email: wkarugahe@hud.ac.uk,

What happens next: If you decide to participate in this study, you may want to know the duration. The study will take roughly 30 minutes-1hour. You are free to take a break if you need to avoid maturation or for any other reason.

Will the information given be kept confidentially? The information will be kept confidentially and will be locked in lockable draws and on computers that have passwords to avoid its accessibility. Pseudo names or numbers other than real names will be used and this will help to protect your personal identity

Dissemination: The findings of this study will be published in the final copy of my PhD dissertation at the University of Huddersfield United Kingdom. The findings may also be published in articles, journals and may be presented in conferences and workshops internationally and locally. In such publications no individual's identity will ever be recorded.

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet and/or invitation letter to participate in this study. I hope you will be able to decide to come and participate and share your views and experiences in regard to the study topic.

In case you need more information don't hesitate to contact me on UK Tel: +44(0)7504613391 or wkarugahe@hud.ac.uk

Appendix 2: Consent Forms for Respondents

International Research Centre for Investigative Psychology (IRCIP)
University of Huddersfield
School of Human and Health Sciences

CONSENT FORM

Title of Research Project: Psychological Pathways to Domestic Violence in Uganda Africa.

It is important that you read, understand and sign the consent form. Your contribution to this research is entirely voluntary and you are not obliged in any way to participate, if you require any further details please contact researcher on contact details provided in your invitation sheet.

I have been fully informed of the nature and aims of this research	□
I consent to taking part in it	□
I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the research at any time without giving any reason	□
I give permission for my words to be quoted (by use of pseudonym)	□
I understand that the information collected will be kept in secure conditions at the University of Huddersfield	□
I understand that my answers will be used for research and that my identity will not be recorded with my answers at the International Centre for Investigative Psychology (IRCIP)	□
I understand that my identity will be protected by the use of pseudonym in the report and that no written information that could lead to my being identified will be included in any report.	□

If you are satisfied that you understand the information and are happy to take part in this project, please put a tick in the box aligned to each sentence and print-number and sign below:

Signature of Participant:	**Signature of Researcher:** *w.karugahe*
Print:	**Print:** Wilber Karugahe
Date:	**Date:**

(one copy to be retained by Participant / one copy to be retained by Researcher)

Appendix 3: Ethical Approval from University of Huddersfield (SREP)

University of
HUDDERSFIELD
Inspiring tomorrow's professionals

01 June 2012

Mr Wilber Karugahe
Research Student
School of Human and Health Sciences
University of Huddersfield

Dear Wilber

School Research Ethics Panel (SREP) Submission
Title of Study: 'Psychological Pathways to Domestic Violence in Uganda'

I confirm that your project as titled above has received ethical approval from the School of Human and Health Sciences Research Ethics Panel, University of Huddersfield.

I also confirm that indemnity for this project will be covered by the insurance policy held by the University of Huddersfield, as it falls within the normal range of research activity.

With best wishes for the success of your research.

Yours sincerely

Prof Nigel King
Chair, School Research Ethics Panel (SREP)
School of Human and Health Sciences

Direct Tel: +44 (0)1484 472812
Email: n.king@hud.ac.uk

Appendix 4: Approval from Uganda National Council for Science & Tech (UNCST)

Uganda National Council for Science and Technology

(Established by Act of Parliament of the Republic of Uganda)

Our Ref: SS 3120 **26/04/2013**

Mr. Wilber Karugahe
School of Pyschology
Makerere University
Kampala

Re: Research Approval: **Psychological Pathways to Domestic Violence in Uganda**

I am pleased to inform you that on **22/04/2013**, the Uganda National Council for Science and Technology (UNCST) approved the above referenced research project. The Approval of the research project is for the period of **22/04/2013** to **22/04/2014**.

Your research registration number with the UNCST is **SS 3120**. Please, cite this number in all your future correspondences with UNCST in respect of the above research project.

As Principal Investigator of the research project, you are responsible for fulfilling the following requirements of approval:

1. All co-investigators must be kept informed of the status of the research.
2. Changes, amendments, and addenda to the research protocol or the consent form (where applicable) must be submitted to the designated local Institutional Review Committee (IRC) or Lead Agency for re-review and approval **prior** to the activation of the changes. The approved changes must be communicated to UNCST within five working days.
3. For clinical trials, all serious adverse events must be reported promptly to the designated local IRC for review with copies to the National Drug Authority.
4. Unanticipated problems involving risks to research subjects/participants or other must be reported promptly to the UNCST. New information that becomes available which could change the risk/benefit ratio must be submitted promptly for UNCST review.
5. Only approved study procedures are to be implemented. The UNCST may conduct imprompt audits of all study records.
6. A progress report must be submitted electronically to UNCST within four weeks after every 12 months. Failure to do so may result in termination of the research project.

Below is a list of documents approved with this application:

	Document Title	Language	Version	Version Date
1	Study Protocol	English	N/A	September 2012

Yours sincerely,

Leah Nawegulo
for: Executive Secretary
UGANDA NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

LOCATION/CORRESPONDENCE

Plot 6 Kimera Road, Ntinda
P. O. Box 6884
KAMPALA, UGANDA

COMMUNICATION

TEL: (256) 414 705500
FAX: (256) 414-234579
EMAIL: info@uncst.go.ug
WEBSITE: http://www.uncst.go.ug

Appendix 5: Approval from Institutional Committee Review in Uganda

MBARARA UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW COMMITTEE
P.O. Box 1410, Mbarara, Uganda
Tel. 256-4854-33795 Fax: 256 4854 20782
Email: irc@must.ac.ug mustirb@gmail.com
Web site *: www.must.ac.ug*

Our Ref: MUIRC 1/7 Date: February 7, 2013

Mr. Wilber Karugahe
University of Huddersfield, Uk

Re: Submitted protocol on "Psychological Pathways to Domestic Violence in Uganda" No.04/07-12

Reference is made to the above study protocol which was resubmitted to the Institutional Review Committee for reconsideration and approval.

It is noted that you have addressed all the concerns raised by the Committee.
I am glad to inform you that your study has been approved for a period of one year up to February 8, 2014.

Please ensure that you use the approved MUST-IRC consent form that bears the official stamp.

You are required to register the study with Uganda National Council for Science and Technology, and submit progress and end of study reports to MUST IRC.

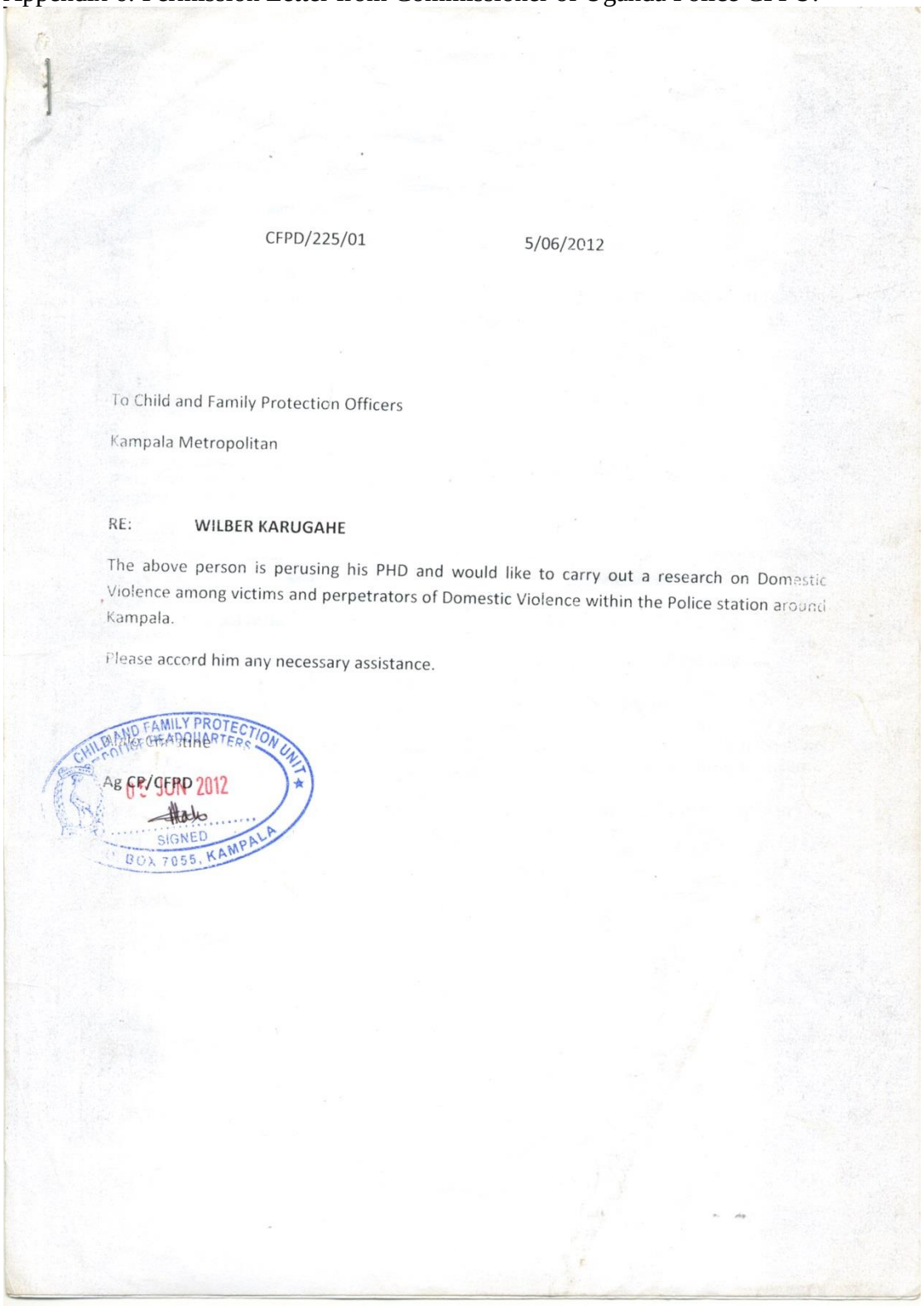
You can now proceed with the rest of the research activities as per your approved work plan.

I wish you all the best.

INSTITUTIONAL ETHICAL REVIEW COMMITTEE * MBARARA UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY * P. O. BOX 1410, MBARARA

Simon K Anguma
CHAIRMAN- MUST IERC
cc Secretary –IRC

Appendix 6: Permission Letter from Commissioner of Uganda Police CFPU.



CFPD/225/01 5/06/2012

To Child and Family Protection Officers

Kampala Metropolitan

RE: **WILBER KARUGAHE**

The above person is perusing his PHD and would like to carry out a research on Domestic Violence among victims and perpetrators of Domestic Violence within the Police station around Kampala.

Please accord him any necessary assistance.

CHILD AND FAMILY PROTECTION UNIT ★ POLICE HEADQUARTERS

Ag CP/CFPD 05 JUN 2012

SIGNED

P.O. BOX 7055, KAMPALA

Appendix 7: Permission Letter from NGO (RECESCVID)

Rehabilitation Centre for Victims of Domestic and Sexual Violence

Basement Floor, Silva Arcade, Plot 62 Bombo Road Opposite YMCA, Wandegeya

PO Box 2932, Kampala, Uganda

Tel: +256 312 108 608; Email: rehab.recesvid2009@gmail.com, info@recesvid.org

Website: www.recesvid.org

RECESVID

Tuesday May 29th, 2012

To Mr. Wilber Karugahe,

University of Huddersfield,

ENGLAND.

Re: RESEARCH ACCEPTANCE LETTER.

On October 23rd, 2011, you sent Rehabilitation Centre for Victims of Domestic and Sexual Violence [RECESVID] an email requesting to carry out your Ph.D research study with us. This letter serves to confirm that your request is accepted. RECESVID will work hand in hand with you to contact clients needed during your study period.

RECESVID is registered as an NGO dedicated to the promotion and protection of human rights with emphasis on rehabilitation of victims of domestic and sexual violence. Since its inception in 2009, RECESVID has provided psychosocial support services to 120 clients [90 female, 30 male]. Clients so far received at RECESVID present with diverse problems ranging from domestic and sexual violence, child abuse and neglect, suicidal and homicidal ideations, threatening violence, problematic children including delinquency, HIV/AIDS and discordance, history of schizophrenia, unwanted pregnancies, abortion, drug and substance abuse to relational problems. Our counselling includes working with the Child and Family Protection Units of the Uganda Police Force, the community and network partners who form part of RECESVID's referral system.

During the course of your research study, we request that confidentiality of all client information is adhered to.

Yours faithfully,

Lamwaka

Sharon Lamwaka

Executive Director

REHABILITATION CENTRE FOR VICTIMS OF DOMESTIC AND SEXUAL VIOLENCE (RECESVID)
29 MAY 2012
P.O. BOX 2932, KAMPALA (U)

Appendix 8: Frequencies of how Domestic Violence starts reported by Victims & Perpetrators.

How domestic violence start

Summary of Frequencies of how domestic violence starts in a Ugandan sample.

Responses	*Frequency*	*Percent*
Marrying another woman (co-wife/second wife)/Polygamy	5	4.2 %
Partner coming home late.	4	3.3 %
Started as a joke and ended up in a quarrel and/or being hit.	4	3.3 %
Physical fighting at home.	3	2.5 %
When I asked money for food he started slapping me.	3	2.5 %
Misusing sugar at home lead to domestic violence.	3	2.5 %
Do not remember how it all started.	3	2.5 %
When my wife started socializing with unknown people.	2	1.7 %
When i joined their family because I had their child.	2	1.7 %
He fell in love with my friend who he is married to now.	2	1.7 %
Jealousy and overprotective leading to controlling behaviours.	2	1.7 %
When I gave birth to second born child.	2	1.7 %
When I started working, I got a job far away.	2	1.7 %
He refused to give me support for my child.	2	1.7 %
When I went for ‘‘Kyeyo’’ (green pastures).	1	.8 %
Lack of control completely.	1	.8 %
As a result of alcohol overuse/abuse.	1	.8 %
Unfaithfulness that led to miscarriage due to STD.	1	.8 %
Extreme anger that lead to violent behaviours.	1	.8 %
Cutting off communication.	1	.8 %
After birth of first born.	1	.8 %
Prostitution for sexual satisfaction.	1	.8 %
Allegations that I burnt my co wife's child.	1	.8 %
Neighbourhood influence.	1	.8 %
My wife started asking me to put/watch blue movie before sex.	1	.8 %
The child does not resemble or look like him.	1	.8 %
When I was selling for him clothes he accused me of stealing.	1	.8 %
He wanted sex too much.	1	.8 %
Whenever I’m tired & stressed he demanded sex.	1	.8 %
Requested to change children’s school to improve performance.	1	.8 %
Begun by telling me sexual words and I refused.	1	.8 %
When I bought chicken for earning me income.	1	.8 %
When my ex-wife left Muslim religion.	1	.8 %
When I commented/talked about her bad behaviour.	1	.8 %
When I complained about adultery.	1	.8 %
We met at the same workplace and started quarrelling.	1	.8 %
I was burnt by my wife's sister.	1	.8 %
When he got a new catch (new girlfriend).	1	.8 %
When he started beating me up.	1	.8 %
When I refused his request to abort.	1	.8 %
Did not give any responses.	51	42.5%
Total Number of Respondents.	**120**	**100.0%**