

**DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AND ITS INFLUENCE ON PUPILS' ACADEMIC
PERFORMANCE AND SCHOOL PARTICIPATION: A CASE STUDY OF
KIANDUTU SLUM – THIKA MUNICIPALITY, KENYA**

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for the Award of the degree of Master of Education in Guidance and Counselling of
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EGERTON UNIVERSITY

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DECLARATION AND RECOMMENDATION

DECLARATION

I declare that this research thesis is my original work and has not been presented for the award of any degree or diploma in any other university.

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This research thesis has been submitted for examination with our recommendation as University supervisors.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my beloved children, Kaara Kanuri, Wangui Kanuri, Wambui Kanuri and Wangu Kanuri. Thank you so much for being there for me, and my request to you all is to never withstand domestic violence.

ABSTRACT

Domestic violence is a paradox because it occurs in the family, a place where people are expected to maintain intimacy and experience greater emotional support in their relationships. It is ironical therefore, that this very supportive social unit is also the arena where violence is experienced especially in urban slums with untold suffering to the partners involved and also on their children. Children who witness violence between their parents face increased risk for such emotional and behavioural problems as anxiety, depression, poor academic performance, low self-esteem, disobedience, nightmares and physical health complaints all of which may be associated with academic performance and school participation. This research aimed at analyzing domestic violence and its influence on pupils' academic performance and participation in schools in Kiandutu slum of Thika Municipality. The study used cross-sectional survey on the targeted population, which was made of households living in Kiandutu slum with children going to the local primary schools. It explored cases and types of domestic violence and how they relate to academic performance and participation of pupils in school. The target population comprised of about 700 households from which 80 households were sampled using simple random sampling technique. The study used two sets of tool for data collection: household questionnaire and pupil school participation profile (PSPP). The data was collected in two phases. Phase I involved questionnaire administration at the household level while phase II involved administration of another set of questionnaire to the class- teachers in the primary schools attended by the 154 pupils in the selected households in phase I. Descriptive statistics of mean, standard deviation, frequencies and coefficient of variation as well as tables and charts were used to summarize the data. Analysis of variance (ANOVA), Pearson product moment correlation coefficient (r), Chi-square (χ^2), and student t-test were used at 5% level of significance to test the hypotheses. The study revealed that domestic violence affects pupil's academic performance and school participation. It also revealed prevalence of all the forms and extent of domestic violence investigated in this study. This study recommends that different education sector stakeholders should address domestic violence as a social vice in order to improve academic performance and school participation of children coming from the slum areas. Education policy makers, school administrators, teachers, local administrators, social workers and non governmental organisations (NGOs) should formulate strategies for addressing the ills of domestic violence and encourage socially inclusive intervention mechanisms within the slum areas. The legislative framework should incorporate protective laws against domestic violence and school participation, basic education rights and regulations. This study also recommends further research in order to investigate the pre-disposing factors that may exacerbate the influence of domestic violence on pupil's academic performance and school participation in the slum areas.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
COVAW	Coalition on Violence against Women
CREAW	Centre for Rehabilitation and Education of Abused Women
CSOs	Civil Society Organizations
DV	Domestic Violence
EFA	Education for All
FAWE	Forum for African Women Educationalists
FGM	Female Genital Mutilation
FIDA	Federation of Women Lawyers
FPE	Free Primary Education
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IPV	Intimate Partner Violence
LHC	Life History Calendar
MOEST	Ministry of Education Science and Technology
NCWK	National Council of Women of Kenya
NFE	Non Formal Education
NGO(s)	Non Governmental Organizations
OVC	Orphans and Vulnerable Children
PLI	Public Law Institute
PPMCC	Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient
PSPP	Pupil School Participation Profile
PTSP	Post Traumatic Stress Disorder
SASS	Sexual Assault Survivor Services
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Educational Funds
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
UPE	Universal Primary Education
WRAP	Women Rights Awareness Programme

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background Information

Pupil school participation as seen in attendance, academic performance and class participation is related to their psychological and physical state which in turn could be influenced by family relations including domestic violence. Domestic violence is almost always accompanied by psychological abuse and in many cases by forced sex as well. Although the family is a place where people are expected to maintain intimacy and experience greater emotional support in their relationships, domestic violence presents itself as a paradox. It is ironical that this very supportive social unit is also the arena where intimate partner violence (IPV) is more often experienced. Children from slum areas, who witness violence between their parents on top of other social challenges, are exposed to the aftermath of domestic violence such as anxiety, depression, poor academic performance, low self-esteem, disobedience, nightmares and physical health deterioration all of which may negatively impinge on their academic performance and school participation.

The extent and magnitude of domestic violence cannot be precisely measured because there are many cases whereby victims fail to report thus making this vice an inter-personal and family secret. Violence between spouses or IPV usually has far reaching consequences on children. Besides the scenes of violence being traumatic, the children may suffer short-term as well as long-term emotional imbalances, which not only affect their behaviour and performance in schools, but also may adversely affect their social and interpersonal relationships. These children may then end up being abusers themselves in what can be seen as continuity hypothesis. Children who witness violence between their parents often develop many of the same behavioural and psychological problems as children who are themselves abused (Tony, 2002).

According to United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM), domestic violence in Kenya has revealed high figures as indicated in a study carried out in eight provinces of Kenya (Prem & Essd 2003). Among the findings of that study was that 41% of women have been sexually abused, 61% of women have been physically abused one time or several times as adults and that the peak period for physical and sexual abuse is between 21 and 30 years of age. Thus, the possible implication of this is that the children who witness violence between

their parents are more able to express their fears and anxieties regarding their parents' behaviour. They therefore can exhibit difficulties with schoolwork including poor academic performance, not wanting to go to school and difficulties in concentration (Wexler, 1990). Similarly, Raphaela (2005) affirm such children as constantly fighting with peers, rebelling against adult instructions and authority and being unwilling to do school work.

Most researches have examined the direct impact of violence on its victims; with little attention directed to the effect that physical and /or sexual victimisation of women and girls may eventually have on their offspring. There is evidence suggesting that women who are victimized suffer emotional and behavioural consequences that interfere with effective and nurturing parenting, which then can affect their children's development and behaviour (Sedlak & Broad Hurst, 1996). Prospective studies of children who have been abused have shown that during their adolescent and adult years they are more likely to experience symptoms of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD), be arrested for non-violent and violent crimes, develop substance abuse disorders, be diagnosed with antisocial personality disorder, and demonstrate lower levels of intellectual ability and academic achievement than children who have not been victimized, even after controlling for other family characteristics often associated with poor outcomes, such as poverty and parental substance and arrest (Widorn, 1999). Over 3 million children are at risk of exposure to parental violence each year. About two-thirds of abused children are being parented by battered women. Of the abused children, they are three times more likely to have been abused by their fathers (Tony, 2002).

The Kenya Government's policy on primary education was to achieve Universal Primary Education (UPE) by 2005, which was a key strategy towards attaining the overall Education for All (EFA) goal by 2015. Attaining UPE would ensure that all Kenyan children eligible for primary schooling have opportunity to enrol and remain in school, to learn and acquire quality basic education and skills training. In pursuit of this policy objective, the Government introduced Free Primary Education (FPE) in January 2003, which resulted in an increased enrolment of children from 5.9 million in 2002 to 7.2 million in formal public schools alone in 2004. Another 300,000 primary school-age children were enrolled in non-formal learning centres. But despite this rapid influx, about one and a half years later, an estimated 1.7 million children and youth (1.5 million aged 6-14 years and 200,000 youth) who for various socio-economic reasons had been unable to access education had dropped out of primary schools countrywide (Kenya & UNESCO, 2004/2005). This problem was and is particularly

acute in informal urban settlements like Kiandutu slum; Arid and Semi Arid Lands (ASALs) and areas exhibiting pockets of poverty across the country. The possible pitfalls that might reduce the participation and academic performance of pupils in primary schools could be the result of trauma, neglect, physical, sexual, verbal, emotional abuse and any other forms of domestic violence normally common in such hardship areas. Increasing cases of domestic violence are being reported in Kenyan urban slums including Kiandutu in Thika Municipality (Wambui, 2000). The slum has five primary schools (Garissa Road, Kianjau, Mugumo-ini, General Kago, and Athena) all of which draw a good number of their pupil population from this slum.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

While domestic violence has been recognised as one of the most entrenched and pervasive forms of violence in Kenya today, its influence on school going children have yet to receive the same degree of attention (Tony, 2002). This is despite the fact that every year in Kenya thousands of children as well as women suffer physically, psychologically, and sexually as a result of acts of violence against them in the home- in the urban as well as in the peri-urban areas such as Kiandutu in Thika Municipality. Despite the introduction of FPE about 20% of school aged children in Kenyan urban slums including Kiandutu have dropped out of school (MOEST, 2005). Children who are victims or witnesses of domestic violence may develop physical, psychological and behavioural problems as a result of physical, verbal, psychological and other forms of violence. This may affect their participation in school as they may go to school when they are too scared to learn and a good number of them may lag behind in class as well as in life due to exposure to domestic violence (Wathen, 2003). The short-term and long-term emotional and physical aftermath of domestic violence may affect pupil's school attendance, academic performance, and behavioural patterns in school and class participation. It's unclear how the types and extent of domestic violence affect pupil's academic performance and school participation, but this study sought to investigate this scenario.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore domestic violence and establish its influence on academic performance and school participation of pupils in Kiandutu slum.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives of the study were to:

1. Establish the extent of various forms of domestic violence among households of different socio economic characteristics in Kiandutu slum.
2. Determine the influence of domestic violence on pupil's school attendance in primary schools in Kiandutu slum.
3. Determine the influence of domestic violence on academic performance of pupils in primary schools in Kiandutu slum.
4. Determine the influence of domestic violence on school behavioural patterns of pupils in primary schools in Kiandutu slum.
5. Determine the influence of domestic violence on pupils' class participation in primary schools in Kiandutu slum.
6. Determine the influence of domestic violence on primary school dropout rates among children in Kiandutu slum.

1.5 Hypotheses

- Ho₁ There is no significant difference in the extent of various forms of domestic violence among households of different socio-economic characteristics in Kiandutu slum.
- Ho₂ Domestic violence does not significantly influence pupils' school attendance in primary schools in Kiandutu slum.
- Ho₃ Domestic violence does not significantly influence pupils' academic performance in primary schools in Kiandutu slum.
- Ho₄ Domestic violence does not significantly influence pupils' school behavioural patterns in primary schools in Kiandutu slum.
- Ho₅ Domestic violence does not significantly influence pupils' class participation in primary schools in Kiandutu slum.
- Ho₆ Domestic violence does not significantly influence primary school dropout rates among children in Kiandutu slum.

1.6 Significance of the Study

By revealing the extent of domestic violence among Kiandutu slum dwellers in Thika municipality and showing the influence it has on primary school pupils school participation and academic performance, the study may assist different education sector stakeholders in addressing domestic violence as a social vice and to improve the academic performance and school participation of children coming from the slum areas. Education sector policy makers,

school administrators and teachers may use the findings of this study to formulate strategies for implementing FPE that promote participation of children coming from families vulnerable to domestic violence.

The local administration and social workers as well as non-governmental organizations (NGOs) may use these findings in identifying such families, abused children and in formulating strategies for addressing the ills of domestic violence and encourage socially inclusive intervention mechanisms within slum areas. The study may also benefit the legal or legislative framework by providing information needed to incorporate protective laws against domestic violence and school participation, basic education rights and regulations. The results may also contribute to the national debate on domestic violence and its control as well as insights into more research on the causes, impacts and relationships of domestic violence with other elements of economic and social well-being of society.

1.7 Assumptions of the Study

This study made the following assumptions:

1. The respondents were to co-operate and provide honest responses to the questionnaires. This was seen important as this study demanded honest exposition of the forms and extent of domestic violence among the households selected.
2. The influence of financial constraints on pupils' school participation was comparable owing to the introduction of FPE and the slum conditions.
3. The influence of other financial requirements such as school levies and finances for uniforms were taken to be almost similar to all households in Kiandutu slum.
4. That the examinations undertaken in the municipality are the same for all the primary schools within.

1.8 Scope of the Study

The study focussed on the forms of domestic violence in relation to spousal and child abuse regarding verbal, psychological/emotional, physical, and sexual and child labour. This study also looked at pupil's school participation indicators such as attendance/absenteeism, behaviour patterns, class participation and the number of children (school children) out of school. The study limited itself to primary schools since it is where free education has been institutionalised and not in the secondary schools where other factors such as ability to pay school fees may have influenced pupil's academic performance and school participation. Pupil school participation was measured by the number of days the pupil was absent from

school, behaviour patterns which include discipline and interaction with other pupils, the level of pupil class participation and the number of children of school going age but are out of school. Academic performance was measured by the getting the mean score in examinations of a pupil in the past one year. The study was limited to Kiandutu slum area and in the five schools, which draw their pupil population from this slum. These are Garissa Road, Athena, Mugumo-ini, General Kago and Kianjau primary schools.

1.9 Limitations of the Study

1. Although the researcher employed Life History Calendar (LHC) method in an attempt to trigger respondents' recall, there were still some respondents who had compartmentalised their experiences to domestic violence and therefore they did not seem to have noted its effect on their children especially those who had remarried after the death of their spouse or divorce and were now not experiencing domestic violence in their relationship with their current spouse.
2. Security concerns within the slum area posed a great challenge to the researcher. Thus she was forced to use some proxies in some instances in order to access some respondents. However, this was seen to create some anxiety in some respondents and therefore posed a barrier to some respondents' opening up.
3. The researcher was unable to analyse responses in more details as the primary impetus for the questionnaire was to collect information on the extent and forms of domestic violence. Therefore no follow-up was made to counsel or make referrals of the affected spouses to the appropriate social facilities for further management and to prevent further exposure to violence of their children which would improve their academic performance and general school participation.
4. Since IPV is often committed in privacy, verifying respondents' experiences of IPV was difficult unless couples were observed 24 hours a day. Such an approach would have not only posed enormous ethical and practical difficulties, but would also have affected the occurrence of IPV.
5. This study found out that individuals were less reporting their own acts of abuse than those of their partners, and that the tendency to respond in socially desirable manner was associated with lower reporting of a person's own use of violence. Since questionnaires by their nature depend on self-reporting, the researcher was unable to determine the sensitivity or specificity with this tool as the actual incidences of domestic violence in our population is not known.

1.10 Definition of Terms

Academic performance – It was the mean score in examinations of a pupil in the past one year in examinations given within the municipality.

Attendance – This referred to the number of times a pupil was present during learning activities in school in one term.

Child abuse – This consists of anything, which individuals, institutions or processes do or fail to do which directly or indirectly harms children or damages their prospects of safe and healthy development into adulthood. This can also be referred to as physical and mental injury, sexual abuse, exploitation, negligent treatment or maltreatment of a child under the age of eighteen by a person who is responsible for the child's welfare and under circumstance which indicate that the child's health or welfare is harmed or threatened thereby. In this study, it is expressed as physical, verbal, emotional, child neglect, FGM, sexual abuse, early marriage and child labour.

Child labour – This is any form of economic exploitation in which the child is involved or performance of any work that is likely to be hazardous or interfere with the child's physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development.

Counselling- This is the helping relationship between a counsellor and a counselee.

Delinquency- This is the tendency of having bad or criminal behaviour in young people.

Domestic violence – This includes physical abuse, sexual abuse, psychological abuse and abuse to property. Domestic violence or abuse is most often abuse of a spouse or even children.

Forms of violence - These include physical abuse, verbal or non-verbal abuse (psychological abuse, mental abuse, and emotional abuse), sexual abuse, economic abuse or financial abuse.

Levels of domestic violence- This was measured by the spouse(s) indicating whether they have been experiencing domestic violence often, sometimes, rarely or never experienced at all.

Marriage- It's the union between two people -a man and a woman with an aim of founding a family

Physical abuse - This refers to any behaviour that involves the intentional use of force against the body of another person that risks physical injury, harm and or pain. This includes pushing, hitting, slapping, choking, using an object to hit, twisting of a body part, forcing the

ingestion of an unwanted substance, and use of a weapon such as a knife or gun, burning or murder.

Pupil's school participation – This refers to active involvement and attendance of learning activities by primary school pupils. In this study it encompassed pupil's class participation, attendance/absenteeism, behaviour patterns and the number of children (school children) who were out of school.

Pupils school behavioural patterns – These included avoidance, truancy, social withdrawal, interpersonal stress which may be displayed by decreased intimacy and lowered trust in others, and substance abuse.

Slum- This is an area of a town that is very poor and where the houses are dirty and in bad condition and people living in that area are of low socio-economic status. The urban environment is poorly served by basic social, economic and environmental services. In this study, Kiandutu slum of Thika Municipality was purposively selected.

Severe physical violence- This was taken to mean the spouse using either the following means of violence: kicking, biting, or hitting with a fist; hitting or trying to hit with something; beating up; choking; burning or scalding.

Socio-economic characteristics – It was taken to encompass the education level of the household head, marital status, employment status and ethnic background which define certain beliefs about the child's education whether a girl or boy-child.

Spousal violence – Also referred to as intimate partner abuse where one person in a marital relationship tries to control the other person. The perpetrator uses fear and intimidation and may threaten to use or may actually use physical violence.

Trauma- This is an emotional shock that often produces a lasting psychic effect or an emotional disorder.

Verbal abuse – This include derogatory statements or threats of further abuse like threats of being killed by another individual. Verbal abuse may also be referred to as mental, psychological or emotional abuse of a spouse or intimate partner. These may include name-calling, yelling or screaming, embarrassing, making fun of, or mocking the victim either alone, within the household, in public or in front of family or friends, telling the victim that they are worthless on their own without the abuser. This also includes the abuser saying hurtful things while under the influence of drugs or alcohol, and using the substance as an excuse to say the hurtful things.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of related literature in the area of research relevant to the study of domestic violence and its influence on pupils' academic performance and school participation. The chapter presents critical reviews of forms of domestic violence, causes and effects of domestic violence, prevalence of domestic violence, domestic violence as a cause of traumatic stress in children, domestic violence in Kenya, factors influencing pupils' academic performance and school participation, the LHC method for IPV data collection, efforts in addressing domestic and gender violence in Kenya and the on-going initiatives in addressing pupil school participation. The chapter ends with a summary of the literature and a conceptual framework that guided this study.

2.2 Domestic Violence: Meaning, Forms and Causes

The word 'domestic' is derived from the Latin word *domus* meaning a 'home'. Domestic (Domesticus in Latin) connotes what happens in and around a family dwelling place (Tony, 2002). Violence is the use of coercive forms of power: the use of force or the threat of its use to compel someone to do something that the person might not otherwise do. It is part of a continuum ranging from legitimate power (a person does something because it is right to do so) through utilitarian power (a person does something because of a reward for doing so) to coercive power. According to Jones (1994) violence is any act that causes the victim to do something they do not want to do, prevent them from doing something they want to do or causes them to be afraid. Hence violence need not involve physical contact with the victim, but verbal threats and psychological abuse can be equally destructive. Violence is any destructive behavior, which is geared towards hurting another person.

Domestic abuse or violence is that abuse (physical/sexual/verbal and emotional) which occurs within the home. In some cases (and frequently in this study) it can be used to refer to spousal abuse, IPV or husband-wife abuse. Spousal violence is the deliberate aggressive behavior against the spouse with the intent of producing harm. Domestic violence is the acts of psychological, physical, property and sexual abuse committed against a woman member of the family unit by a member of that unit. Acts of violence committed by a man against the woman who is the mother of his offspring is also considered as domestic violence even if there is no matrimonial bond or stable '*de facto*' union between them. It has been argued that

spousal violence is most destructive because the intensity of intimacy makes spouses very vulnerable to each other (Brencht *et al.*, 1980). This jeopardizes their safety and wellbeing. Violence constitutes unjustified and illegal conduct, whoever the victim may be, but violence against women is especially reprehensible. This is because the legal and judicial treatment of such violence has often been given inappropriate media attention and justified by an attitude that is disrespectful and discriminatory towards women both as individuals and as subjects of law. Domestic violence is a form of gender violence, which relates more to issues of power than sexuality. It has been known for sometime that rape or sexual assault is not related to sexuality; it is related to dominance and an apparent need to humiliate the person being attacked. Similarly, battering as part of domestic violence is also at its heart; an effort to assert dominance or to re-assert a self-image based on dominance (Rhodes&Levison2003).

2.2.1 Forms of Domestic Violence

The following are the forms of domestic violence:

- (i) **Psychological or emotional abuse** - This is any act or omission intended to degrade or control the actions, behaviour, beliefs and decisions of a female/male member of the family unit by means of intimidation, manipulation, direct or indirect threats, humiliation, insults, false accusations, or any other action which impairs her emotional health, her self-determination or her personal development. This also includes criticizing a partner constantly, ridiculing or undermining one's self-esteem. A partner may also use one's children as a form of psychological or emotional abuse. This is by making the other partner feel guilty about the children, using the children to give messages or using visitation (if divorced or separated) as a way to harass, denying children basic needs in order to get to a partner. Threats may involve threatening to harm the partner or their children, family or friends, to make reports to authorities that would jeopardize relationships to children, or reporting a partner to their employer so that she/he may lose the job.
- (ii) **Physical Violence** – This means any mistreatments committed by act or omission, which wilfully puts at risks or impairs the partner's physical integrity. This may involve hitting, slapping and choking, burning, biting, kicking shoving using a weapon. It is the use of physical force against another person in away that ends up

injuring the person, or puts the person at risk of being injured. Physical abuse ranges from physical restraint to murder.

- (iii) **Sexual violence** – This means any act, which violates the sexual freedom of any member of the family unit through the use of force, intimidation, coercion, blackmail, deception or any other procedure, which prevents or limits free will. Sexual abuse involves forcing a partner to have sex or engage in specific acts, grabbing or molesting a partner, criticizing a partner's sexual performance or withholding sex. Sexual abuse may also include any unwanted sexual intimacy forced on one individual by another. It may include oral, anal or vaginal stimulation or penetration, forced nudity, forced exposure to sexually explicit material or activity or any other unwanted sexual activity (Dutton, 1994).
- (iv) **Child abuse**- This is anything which individuals, institutions or processes do or fail to do which directly or indirectly harms children or damages their prospects of safe and healthy development in adulthood (Wambui, 2000). Children are less able to speak for themselves and assert their rights than are adults. Too often they receive substandard services because they lack the means to promote their own welfare. Moreover, children are inexperienced and trusting, so they are easily abused and exploited by adults, Vardin *et al.* (1979) as quoted by Donna *et al.* (1982). Child abuse may take the following forms: physical abuse, verbal or emotional abuse, child neglect, sexual abuse FGM and early marriage. Fundamentally, all these forms of child abuse come down to the misuse of adult power over children. The more 'disempowered' adults feel, the more they are likely to abuse those weaker than themselves.

2.2.2 Causes and Effects of Domestic Violence

The causes of domestic violence are many and varied. A strong predictor of domestic violence in adulthood is domestic violence in the household in which the person was reared. Many authors have also affirmed this. According to the social learning theory of aggression (Brecht *et al.*, 1980) violence can be modelled in intimate relationships from one generation to the next. The parents 'model' ways of solving problems through violence for the children and the children simply learn to use violence when they grow up. A child's exposure to their father's abuse of their mother is the strongest risk factor for transmitting domestic violence from one generation to the next. This cycle of domestic violence is difficult to break because parents have presented violence as a norm. However, many other batterers come from homes

where the father did not beat the mother, and violence wasn't the way problems were solved. Also, many boys who watch their moms being beaten do not batter their own wives when they grow up. Nor can we say that all men who beat their wives must have learned this behaviour from their fathers (Taylor, 1992).

Another cause of domestic violence is anger which leads to aggression. A person becomes angry when the spouse does or says something unpleasant towards him/her. He/she feels aggressive towards the source of attack and responds with retaliation. This usually produces an escalation of aggression – and violence breeds more violence. Another cause of anger is frustration. According to psychologists, frustration often produces aggression in that the frustrated person responds by lashing physically or verbally at another person or object (Collins, 1988). Whatever the source of frustration, whether family, finance or social matters, there is bound to be aggression, and mostly directed towards the spouse.

Stress is another common cause of spousal violence. Stress is caused by many factors such as financial and economic problems. In many instances, couples are unable to meet all their financial needs, especially with the rising cost of living and at times they are not able to sit and plan together for the available resources. Fights and quarrels arise from real or imagined misappropriation of the finances by one party. Stress may also arise from financial reversals especially during economic recession and depression. They usually have a negative impact on the socio-economic status of the family who can no longer maintain their place in the social class. This strain generates stress and eventually violence. It is suggested that the poorer one gets, the greater the stress in coping with the environment and such disappointments often precipitate violence (Tolman, 2001).

Frustrations which lead to stress may also arise from disappointments in the work place. People who work under an intimidating boss, or are unable to achieve their goals may turn to their spouses to release their tensions. This happens when a person cannot retaliate, either because the offender is too powerful or unavailable or both and so the aggression is expressed against a substitute, usually the spouse in what is known as displaced aggression. Job related problems also bring about fights between spouses. Societal roles are changing in that the wife has ceased to be the stereotype housekeeper and goes into salaried employment. Some husbands are uncomfortable with this arrangement and may try to discourage the wife from working, either because they feel financially unable to support the wife or simply to maintain

their image as the provider in the home. In other cases the working woman may elicit jealous in the husband who suspects that her male colleagues may befriend her. If the wife insists on continuing with work, a stressful relationship may develop, leading to fights. Men sometimes fear and feel insecure when their wives become economically independent (Tjaden & Thoennes 2000).

Sex prescribed roles prescribed by many cultures perceives the wife as a “domestic slave in disguise” (Federico, 1983). Besides many cultures and especially those in Africa support and tolerate wife beating. After paying dowry the wife is seen as the property of the man and can be occasionally disciplined by beating, sometimes to assert the man’s position of superiority in the home, and at times beating is taken as a demonstration of love. Male chauvinism expressed through wife beating makes the wife know who in charge is. Justifications for this violence also evolve from gender norms or expectations about the proper roles and responsibilities of women and men. Typically men are given a relatively free reign as long as they provide financially for the family. Women on the other hand are expected to tend to the house, take care of the children and show obedience and respect to their husbands. If a man however, perceives that his wife has somehow failed in her role, has stepped beyond her boundaries or challenged his rights, then he may react violently supposedly ‘to teach her a lesson’ (Yoshihama & Horrocks, 2003).

Worldwide studies identify a consistent list of events that are said to trigger violence. These include; not obeying her husband, talking back, not having food ready on time, failing to care adequately for the children or home, questioning him about money or girlfriends, going places without permission, refusing him sex, or expressing suspicions of infidelity. Kornblum (1991) asserts that the age of marriage is another cause of domestic violence. People who marry early may not have developed adequate sex-role performance and so their marriages have a high chance of instability punctuated by physical violence. Barrenness results in blaming each other and often it is the wife who gets the blunt end of the deal. Fights especially in our African culture also arise from the sex of the children, often with a bias towards preference of male children, with couples blaming each other for the sex of their children. Parenting and control of children also causes misunderstanding and fights between spouses.

About 20% of men who beat their wives are generally aggressive people who are violent towards others too (Taylor, 1992). But many normal or ordinary men beat their wives as well. These men are not crazy, psychopathic or mentally ill. They are not inclined to get into fights outside the home. Many of them do not even beat their children. Often a woman gets beaten when her husband or boyfriend has had too much to drink. But we cannot say that the alcohol causes the beating, because it has been shown that stopping the drinking will not stop the beating. Many battered women believe that the abuse will stop if the drinking stops (Rhodes & Levison 2003; Wathen & Macmillan, 2003). However, drinking men may batter whether drunk or sober, and many men who don't drink also batter. Alcohol can be an important part of a battering relationship. The causes for drinking and for beating in one individual may be the same. Drinking often leads to arguments, which may then end violently. Often the alcohol is used as an excuse for the battering by the man. Battered woman may find it easier to blame the violence on the batterer's drunkenness. The same discussion applies to the use of drugs that can also lead abusers to be more aggressive (Taylor, 1992).

Domestic violence has far-reaching effects to the victims, which are physical, psychological, social and economic in nature. Physical injuries ranging from cuts, bruises, black eyes, broken bones, internal injuries and brain damage from any blow to the head can cause minor brain damage such as loss of memory, difficulties in concentrating, mood changes or can cause loss of sight or hearing. In the worst cases, death may result or the victim may commit suicide. Domestic violence in some cases results in miscarriages when a woman is battered during pregnancy (Rhodes & Levison, 2003).

Tied to physical injuries is the victim's inability to perform their duties especially at the place of work as well as in the performance of their social roles. In the social and economic arena, the battered woman's work performance suffers as she may be absent a lot and may lose her job. She becomes isolated, as the husband controls whom she sees and where she goes. Some women fear losing their place in the society especially because there is a social stigma attached to divorce. Some battered women have also entered a state of learned helplessness and have accepted beating as a way of life, especially because the husband has paid dowry for her and thus owns her. Some women also argue that a violent husband is better than no husband at all. They also fear reporting to the police for fear of being ridiculed or turned away by the men they report to, who believe that domestic matters should be sorted out and

reconciled at home. Besides, some policemen are reluctant to prosecute (Straus & Gelles, 1990).

Women may also fail to report domestic violence against them because they are financially dependent on the men. They fear that if the man is jailed they suffer not only financially but also loneliness. They do not want to be responsible for breaking the marriage and in a way feel that by staying they could help the man change (Storm, 1986). Psychologically, the love for the husband changes into fear for him, and of what might happen. She may also lose confidence in herself emanating from the husband always telling her that it is her fault he hits her. There are also feelings of helplessness because her husband controls her through his violence. She is also due to suffer inabilities to make decisions on her own in fear that the husband does not approve and punishes her. Because of these effects, a battered wife finds it hard to help herself. For example, she may lay charges and then drop them or leave her husband and then go back to him. This makes people who try to help her feel frustrated and less willing to help again. Many of them are ignorant of the existence of better ways, or of institutions that can offer help. But more often than not women feel isolated and guilty of being in such an abusive relationship and this makes it very difficult to talk about it (Wearing, 1992).

There is also the fear that if the woman deserts the home, the husband may beat her more or kill her or even kill himself. Others simply do not have a place to run to while the majority feel obliged to stay and look after the children and the husband, driven by a maternal instinct not to abandon them to external ruin (Larson, 1986). Violence in a marital relationship also erodes the victim's mental health especially in cases where the victim is affected psychologically. The victim may experience post-traumatic stress disorders. This involves acute anxiety when victims feel overwhelming helplessness or threat to death or injury. They mentally re-live the traumatic event through flashbacks or 'flooding' and try to avoid anything that would remind them of the trauma. They experience difficulties in sleeping and concentrating, and are easily alarmed or startled. When the burden of violence is very great, they even contemplate suicide. The victim may also seek a temporary separation from the abusive spouse. In this case they may seek refuge with relatives or friends. This touches on the children whether they are left behind or flee with the mother because they have to adjust to her temporary absence or a new environment (Easteal, 1994).

Divorce is an option considered when the violence lingers on for a long time, or is very severe. The victims make up their minds to live without their spouses. Schaefer and Lamm (1993) argue that divorce involves a lot of physical and emotional difficulties, and stress for both parties. It is extremely difficult to balance social benefits and costs when an abusive relationship has to be terminated. The spouses have to undergo six stages of divorce, i.e.; emotional divorce as problems come up and they separate. They then face legal divorce as they raise legal grounds for dissolution of the marriage. Following is economic divorce that deals with division of money and property and co-parenting divorce where they settle custody and visitation rights for the children. There is also community divorce, which involves changes in friendships and institutional ties. Finally there's the psychic divorce as each person tries to regain autonomy and self-esteem. To master these stages is difficult, stressful and sometimes traumatic for the two and the stakeholders. Kornblum (1991) asserts that divorced people feel angry, humiliated and rejected. A wife who was dependent on the husband may suffer financially as well as experiencing social and psychological problems as she adjusts. According to Giddens (1992) the emotional bond they shared may persist after separation and this separation stress builds up into anxiety, panic and depression. They may also experience problems of single parenting. In some cases, the victim of domestic violence may seek legal assistance and press charges against the abuser. When this happens, long and costly legal tussles follow, which are very difficult to go along with as they involve "washing dirty linen in public".

In many cases, victims of domestic violence especially women, simply opt to live with the violence. One reason for this is a combination of emotional intensity and personal intimacy characteristic of family ties. This normally breeds a strong mixture of love and hate. The strong bond between them typically encourages the victim to feel responsible for the abuser's violence and this dims chances of escape. According to Jones (1994) the question of leaving an abusive relationship transforms an immense social problem into a personal transaction, and at the same time pins responsibility squarely on the victim.

2.3 Prevalence of Domestic Violence

As a phenomenon largely restricted to the private sphere, reporting domestic violence has been a taboo issue. But as a result of growing gender awareness, more people particularly women have become increasingly willing to recognise and report incidences of domestic violence. Thus in the past two decades there has been growing recognition of the prevalence

of domestic violence. Moreover, it has become apparent that some individuals are at greater risk for victimization than others. Worldwide, one of the most common forms of violence against women is abuse by their husbands or other intimate male partners. Partner violence occurs in all countries and transcends social, economic, religious and cultural groups. In nearly 50 populations – based surveys from around the world, 10% to over 50% of women reported being hit or otherwise physically harmed by an intimate male partner at some point in their lives (Population Report, 1999).

Physical violence in intimate relationships almost always is accompanied by psychological abuse and, in one-third to over one-half of cases, by sexual abuse. According to Population report 1999, 57% of abused women in Japan had suffered all three types of abuse – physical, psychological and sexual. Only 8% had experienced physical abuse alone. In yet another national survey over 6,000 American families, it was estimated that between 53% and 70% of male batterers also frequently abused their children (Straus & Gelles, 1990). Other research suggests that women who have been hit by their husbands were twice as likely as other women to abuse a child (Yoshihama & Horrocks, 2003; Yoshihama *et al.* 2004; Yoshihama *et al.* 2005).

According to Carlson (1984) over 3 million children are at risk of exposure to parental violence each year. Children from homes where domestic violence occurs are physically or sexually abused and/or seriously neglected at a rate 15 times the national average (Mc Kay, 1994). Approximately, 45% to 70% of battered women in shelters have reported the presence of child abuse in their home and battered women are parenting about two-thirds of abused children. Of the abused children, they are three times more likely to have been abused by their fathers (Meichenbaum, 1994). While intimate partner abuse is widespread, it is not universal. Anthropologists have documented a small-scale society such as the Wade of Papua New Guinea where domestic violence is virtually absent. This finding stands as testament to the fact that social relations can be organized in a way that minimizes partner abuse (Population Report, 1999).

2.4 Domestic Violence as a cause of Traumatic Stress in Children

While women are usually the immediate victims of domestic violence, the consequences of domestic violence extend beyond the victim to the society as a whole and to their children in particular. As the incidence of interpersonal violence grows in our society, so does the need

for investigation of the cognitive, emotional and behavioural consequences produced by exposure to domestic violence, especially in children. Traumatic stress is produced by extraordinary coping efforts. Such events are often unpredicted and uncontrollable. They overwhelm a person's sense of safety and security. Terr (1991) has described 'Type I' and 'Type II' traumatic events. Traumatic exposure may take the form of single, short-term events like rape, assault or severe beating and can be referred to as 'Type I' trauma. Traumatic events can also involve repeated or pro-longed exposure like chronic victimization such as sexual child abuse or battering and this is referred to as 'Type II' trauma. Research suggests that this latter form of exposure tends to have greater impact on the individual's functioning. Domestic violence is typically ongoing and therefore, may fit the criteria for a type II traumatic event.

With repeated exposure to traumatic events, a proportion of individuals may develop Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD). PTSD involves specific patterns of avoidance and hyper arousal. Individuals with PTSD may begin to organize their lives around their trauma. Although most people who suffer from PTSD especially in severe cases have considerable interpersonal and academic or occupational problems, the degree to which symptoms of PTSD interferes with overall functioning varies a great deal from person to person. The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders – fourth edition (DSM-IV, APA, 2000) stipulates that in order for an individual to be diagnosed with posttraumatic stress disorder, he or she must have experienced or witnessed a life-threatening event and reacted with intense fear, helplessness or horror. The traumatic event is persistently re-experienced i.e. distressing recollections, there is persistent avoidance of stimuli associated with the trauma, and the victim experiences some form of hyper arousal e.g. exaggerated startled response. These symptoms persist for more than one month and cause clinically significant impairment in daily functioning. When the disturbance lasts a minimum of two days and as long as four weeks from the traumatic event, Acute Stress Disorder may be a more accurate diagnosis.

According to Meichenbaum (1994) response to traumatic experiences can be divided into at least four categories. Emotional responses include shock, terror, guilt, horror, irritability, anxiety, hostility and depression. Cognitive responses are reflected in significant concentration impairment, confusion, self-blame, intrusive thoughts about the traumatic experiences (also referred to as flashbacks), lowered self-efficacy, fear of losing control, and

fear of re-occurrence of the trauma. Biologically based responses involve sleep disturbance (i.e. insomnia), nightmares, an exaggerated startled response and psychosomatic symptoms. Behavioral responses include avoidance, social withdrawal, interpersonal stress and substance abuse. If the process through which the individual has coped prior to the trauma is arrested a sense of helplessness is often maintained (Foy, 1992).

2.5 Possible Signs and Symptoms of Domestic Violence in Children and Adolescents

According to Graham (1994) more than half of school-age children in domestic violence shelters show clinical levels of anxiety or posttraumatic stress disorder. Without treatment, these children are at significant risk for delinquency, substance abuse, school dropouts and difficulties in their own relationships. Children may exhibit a wide range of reactions to exposure to violence in their homes. Younger children e.g. in pre-school and kindergarten oftentimes do not understand the meaning of the abuse they observe and tend to believe that they ‘must have done something wrong’. Self-blame can precipitate feelings of guilt, worry and anxiety. It is important to consider that children, especially younger children, typically do not have the ability to adequately express their feelings verbally. Consequently, the manifestations of these emotions are often behavioural. Children may become withdrawn, non-verbal and exhibit regressed behaviour such as clinging and whining, eating and sleeping difficulty, concentration problems, generalized anxiety, and physical complaints like headaches are all common (Yoshihama *et al.*, 2004).

Unlike younger children, the pre-adolescent child typically has greater ability to externalize negative emotions, which is to verbalize. In addition to symptoms commonly seen with childhood anxiety like sleep disturbances, eating problems, nightmares, and victims within this age group may show a loss of interest in social activities, low self-concept, withdrawal or avoidance of peer relations, rebelliousness and oppositional – defiant behaviour in the school setting. It is also common to observe temper tantrums, irritability, frequent fighting at school or between siblings, lashing out at objects, treating pets cruelly or abusively, threatening of peers or siblings with violence like, “give me a pen or I will smack you” and attempts to get attention through hitting, kicking or choking peers and/or family members. Incidentally, girls are more likely to exhibit withdrawal and unfortunately, run the risk of being ‘missed’ as a child in need of support (Raphaela, 2005).

Adolescents are at risk of academic failure, school dropout, delinquency and substance abuse. Some investigators have suggested that a history of family violence or abuse is the most

significant difference between delinquent and non-delinquent youth. An estimated one-fifth to a third of all teenagers who are involved in dating relationships are regularly abusing or being abused by their partners verbally, mentally, emotionally, sexually and/or physically. Between 30% and 50% of dating relationships can exhibit the same cycle of escalating violence as marital relationships (SASS, 1996).

2.6 The Situation of Child Abuse in Kenya

It is not unusual for a child to suffer more than one form of abuse and neglect either within the family or outside. All children suffering recurrent physical and sexual abuse are likely to also be suffering from emotional maltreatment. In Kenya today, children who are as young as six years are continuously doing backbreaking work for long hours in employment (child labour). Children provide 25% of labor in agriculture and an unknown number of children are working in domestic situations. About 3.6 million children who are between 6-14 years are not in school and could be easily working. This is a denial of their right to education. Kenya has hundreds of thousands of the children in the streets eking a living. The UNICEF estimate is that we have about 100,000 children in the streets. These children are living in extremely difficult circumstances and continuously being abused by adults. Many of these are being used as child prostitutes (Wambui, 2002).

Children are subjected to physical, mental and sexual torture in their homes, schools and institutions, which are supposed to provide the same children with care and protection. Children are continuously being battered even to death in the name of punishment. Some of these unfortunate incidents have occurred in some Kenyan schools. Incest and sexual abuse of children has become a common occurrence if the report in the dailies is anything to go by. Thousands of children are living in slums; an area where there is terrible overcrowding and no planning is done since these are illegal structures (Tony, 2003).

2.7 Domestic Violence in Kenya

Violence in its many forms has been widely acknowledged as a tool used by men to control and contain women. The degree of domestic violence against women in any society is taken as an indicator of women's ability in that society to participate in various aspects of decision-making at the family level and at the larger society level. This is because violence or the fear of violence can literally silence women, limit their mobility, constrain their ability to participate in decision-making at family and community level and render them invisible (Prem & Essd, 2003).

In Kenya the incidence of domestic violence has increased particularly with frustrations of living in a third-world country. According to Tony (2002) 24% of women have been victims of rape in Kenya. Furthermore the report of the nationwide NCWK study on violence against women found that only 12% of physical and sexual abuse cases were reported to any authority for action, while only 6.8% of all abused is reported to the police. The executive director of the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) has called violence against women 'The greatest challenge facing humanity'. Newspaper reports, research reports and surveys have indicated that women and girls are routinely subjected to all forms of sexual, physical and psychological violence. Overwhelmingly, the victims of domestic abuse and violence in the Kenyan society are women and girls. With a single and notable exception the perpetrators are predominantly Kenyan adult men – mostly in the form of husbands or partners.

Statistics show that physical and sexual violence are a common phenomenon for women and girls in Kenya (Tony, 2002). These trends are common in the families where the perpetrators are largely male, although mothers and sisters are responsible for some of it. The common forms of physical violence include beating, slapping, and whipping, kicking and punching. Women reported being attacked by *pangas* and being scalded or burnt. Sexual violence occurs in the form of rape, unwanted sexual touching or sexual insults. Marriage introduces women to a whole new set of potential and actual abusers. Married women experience abuse at the hands of husbands or partners, mothers-in-laws and fathers-in-laws (Tony, 2003).

Kenyan wives report considerably more domestic abuse episodes than Kenyan husbands. According to a survey study (Tony, 2002) 60% of Kenyan wives surveyed reported one or more episodes of domestic violence, 45% of Kenyan wives surveyed reported ongoing domestic abuse, while 54% claimed that their domestic abuse was becoming more frequent. In the same study only 30% of Kenyan married men claimed any kind of gender abuse, most of which were the less violent types of verbal and emotional maluse or misuse. The same survey indicated that each type of domestic abuse (physical, verbal, sexual and emotional) has a number of different forms. Over one half of all Kenyan married women surveyed reported that during their adult years, they were physically slapped or hit with a stick, were sexually harassed or insulted; were verbally yelled or threatened and were also emotionally closely monitored or dominated. Such high levels of domestic violence and abuse are nothing that the Kenyan society can be proud about.

Domestic abuse or violence in Kenya is caused by among many factors; the notion held by many Kenyan men that they are the sole-provider for and the protector of the family. Wives certainly desire the provider and protector role, but this for themselves and the children. This difference in perception is a function of change and the non acceptance of the traditional submissive female role on the part of the young and increasingly better educated women, and the non acceptance of the female traditional roles is seen as a prime cause of domestic abuse (Prem & Essd). Also in the view of Kenyan husbands, the idea of wife purchase and wife ownership underlies much male physical or domestic violence. Other 'rationales' for physical assault (retribution) ensue should the wife be promiscuous, 'publicly' embarrass the husband or denigrate the husband's or male partner's "manhood" e.g. accusing him of infertility or impotency. Physical reprisal also ensues when husbands are nagged or aggravated by an argumentative wife. Retribution also happens when a wife answers back, question a husband's behaviour about money and other women or accuse him of irresponsibility.

The other reasons most women often give as cause of abuse are: leaving home without permission, disobedience, refusal to give up earnings, unapproved medical examination, neglect of household or children, refusal to become pregnant, interrogating him about money and or girlfriends, refusal to accept co-wife, accusing him of adultery or promiscuity, refusal to have sex, drunkenness, land or property and inheritance disputes. This set of 'causes' is a reality check of male role perceptions. This is a case of the Kenyan macho male in all his glory with his demands for domestic dominance and power (Tony, 2003). Domestic abuse (between husband and wife and other members of the family) tends to dramatically alter the quality of family relationships. The abuser having exerted his power and authority may feel triumphant – his victims fearful and despondent. No matter what the general outcomes, the victims must out of necessity solve problems of coping with the abusers. They must also in many cases, develop mechanisms of dealing with ongoing abuse. For many Kenyan wives there are considerable barriers to be overcome in handling both the after effects of domestic abuse and finding 'active' solutions which would help them prevent or avoid domestic abuse repetition.

In Kenya where patriarchal societies are the rule- the matrimonial home belongs to the husband. When a woman marries, she gives up the right to her parents' home – and often this means that she can never 'legally' return. It is unusual in Kenya for a married woman to own

the house she lives in. Even if the wife has contributed to purchase, or where she pays her share of the rent, the ownership or lease of the property remains in the husband's name. Economically, it is extremely difficult for a wife to live independently (on her own). She is dependent on her husband for a roof over her head, dependent on the family for support and dependent on her community for the 'benefit' of marriage and children. When domestically abused, a Kenyan wife stays on and suffers ongoing abuse because all too often she has nowhere to go! Tony (2003).

If the number of reported cases of wife beating increases as has been the case in the recent past, we cannot say that the situation is worse because the problem is growing. It could be that the situation is improving because more women are prepared to talk about the beatings they suffer. Or both these things could be happening at the same time. What is clear is that wife beating should be seen as a social disorder rather than the problem behaviour of a few individuals. As these and more statistics on domestic violence become available, an increasingly negative picture emerges attesting to the prevalence and intensity of this problem in Kenya.

2.8 Factors Influencing Pupil's School Participation

As one of the initiatives to achieve national and international commitments in achieving EFA goals, the Government of Kenya introduced FPE in January 2003 bringing more than 1.3 million additional children to primary schools across the country. This rapid influx of children into primary schools following the removal of school fees and other levies, suggests that poverty was the major reason why most children were out of school. According to Sessional Paper No 1 of 2005 by MOEST despite this FPE initiative about one and a half years later, an estimated 1.7 million children and youth (1.5 million aged 6-14 years and 200,000 youth) who for various socio-economic reasons had been unable to access education had dropped out of primary schools countrywide. This problem is particularly acute in informal urban settlements like Kibandutu slum, Arid and Semi Arid Lands (ASALs) and pockets of poverty across the country. The questions this raises are numerous. Assuming that many of those who went back to school with the onset of UPE were the children of the poor who could not afford school fees, uniform or books why would the poor parents allow their children to walk away from free education? What made the one million children leave school even though the government is providing stationery and other materials required? There is even a lax atmosphere about wearing school uniform, which means that a teacher cannot send

a pupil away from school for not having proper school uniform. Is it possible also that there is something that children do outside the school that plays as a greater pull for than school? It has been suggested that child labour could be the pull factor and it's a big problem than the government is willing to acknowledge. But even if child labour is a pull factor, what makes the parents concerned abdicate their responsibility of providing basic needs to their children?

The mushrooming of slum areas has forced some of the children to live in situations that expose them to abuse and make them more vulnerable. These living conditions have also acted as 'push factors' to children from primary schools into the streets, for example children from Kiandutu slum. Other factors that contribute to child abuse include parental violence, and stress, family crisis, history of abuse, unrealistic expectations on the children and social isolation. These factors affect effective participation of children in schools. People who work with children and young people should know signs and symptoms of abuse and should be sensitive and aware of signals and signs of distress in the young people they work with. Teachers have extensive contact with children (particularly in the primary schools) and possess professional training and experience which should alert them on behaviour, which seems to be outside the 'norm' and unlike the usual behaviour of a particular child. There is a good deal of overlap between the signs and symptoms of the different types of abuse, particularly between emotional and other types of abuses. Some of the following possible signs of abuse are worth noting to enable teachers be able to help the children who exhibit them as they adversely affect their participation in schools. If a child is experiencing physical abuse from parents would exhibit significant changes in behaviour without explanation, deterioration in class work, fear of returning home or of parents being contacted, unexplained pattern of absences which may serve to hide bruises or other physical injuries, shrinking from physical contact with other people and admission of punishment which appears excessive.

Emotional abuse would be exhibited by the affected child in the form of compulsive stealing /scrounging, drug/solvent abuse, 'neurotic' behaviour like thumb sucking; displaying an air of detachment or the 'don't care' attitude; desperate attention seeking behaviour and social isolation or the child does not join in and has few friends. Sexual abuse signs that can be seen to influence pupils' academic performance and school participation include but not limited to bruises, scratches, burns or bite marks on the body, abrasions or persistent infections in the anal or genital regions, sexual awareness inappropriate to the child's age shown for example in drawings, vocabulary and games, attempts to teach other children about sexual activity,

withdrawal from friends and pregnancy particularly in the case of young adolescents who are evasive concerning the identity of the father. Children who are experiencing parental neglect would exhibit low self-esteem, have poor social relationship, frequent lateness or non-attendance at school, poor personal hygiene, have constant hunger, inappropriate clothing, untreated medical problems, constant tiredness and compulsive stealing or scrounging (Wambui, 2000).

Certain cultural beliefs and practices infringe on the girl-child's sexual and reproductive rights and bodily integrity. These are such practices and beliefs that touch on the coitus, initiation rites and early marriages. In addition, gender bias in the provision of education for girls is deeply rooted in culture and tradition. This infringes on the girl's rights to development as it denies them education affecting their career and prospects to participate in decision-making fora at every level.

2.9 The Life History Calendar Method for IPV Data Collection

The ability and willingness of respondents to recall may compromise the validity of their report of lifetime experience of intimate partner violence (IPV). Recall difficulties can challenge the validity of self-report of lifetime IPV. Research on autobiographic memory and survey methodologies has consistently found that the longer the reporting period, the more likely underreporting and inaccuracy (Steen, Larsen & Betz, 1996). However, most studies and instruments of lifetime IPV have not incorporated devices to facilitate respondents' recall of lifetime IPV. As a result, these instruments lack the adjustments necessary to facilitate respondents' recall, and reports of lifetime experiences of IPV may have been incomplete in many past studies. Conventional instruments may not capture the full extent of lifetime IPV experiences. Yoshihama and Gillespie (2002) showed that this may result in problems with recall, especially with older respondents.

Yoshihama *et al.* (2005) in a study comparing two methods of collecting data regarding lifetime experiences of IPV: the Life History Calendar (LHC) method and the commonly used structured interview using behavior-specific questions, found out that the LHC method elicited more reports of lifetime IPV especially abuse that occurred early in respondents' lives than a structured interview survey method. The LHC method combines a visual or event-based calendar with a structured interview schedule to help the respondents gain better access to long-term memory.

The LHC method (Freedman *et al.*, 1988) is similar to the timeline follow-back method, which has been used in studies of alcohol consumption (Carney *et al.*, 1998; Searles, Helzcr, & Walter, 2000; Sobell & Sobell, 1992). It uses a calendar format within a semi-structured interview schedule to encourage the use of memory cues in recalling patterns of past events. In an LHC interview, the respondent is asked to report first on memorable or easily recalled events to aid in the retrieval of less easily recalled information. The interview questions are organized thematically into different domains, such as geographic mobility (for example, timing and location of moves), family (for example, marriages and births), and occupation. The themes of this study was organised based on the forms of domestic violence which included verbal, physical, emotional, and sexual and child abuse. The calendar's time units can be any increment of time (for example, one year, month, week, or day) according to the specific study's purpose and scope. In this study, the calendar year, time of the day, weekday/weekends and eventful moments were used to trigger recall and were taken as the fundamental reporting unit. By providing several retrieval cues and mapping the events experienced onto calendar time, the LHC method helps respondents recall past events (Belli, 1998). For example, key dates of personal and public events (for example, weddings, events such as Christmas festivities) can be used to verify the timing of events that occurred contemporaneously, such as instances of IPV and other aspects of domestic violence.

The present study is based on the assumption that integrating the structure interview schedule with the LHC method would elicit more reports of IPV especially those that occurred early in respondents' family life. The application of the LHC method or similar methodological improvements to reduce respondents' recall problems can contribute to validity of research on IPV. Valid prospective self-report can be obtained in longitudinal studies; however, longitudinal designs are costly, require a long study period, and are likely to suffer from sample attrition. Use of the LHC in cross-sectional, large-scale surveys can serve as a more cost-effective alternative to longitudinal studies. This study adopted a small-scale cross-sectional survey.

Application of the LHC method to studies using retrospective designs is one promising approach to enhance the respondents' recall, thus increasing the validity of retrospective data. Besides enhancing the recall of an event's occurrence, the LHC method helps the respondent to place its timing in relation to other events in his/her life. It can allow researchers to more

effectively assess the pathways among the various events, beyond conventional co-relational analyses (Yoshihama & Horrocks, 2003). The LHC method is also highly applicable to social work research on a wide range of issues for which obtaining life course data is critical including domestic violence, the concern of this study. The barriers that professionals face when screening victims for intimate partner violence (IPV) are well studied (Thackery *et al.*, 2007). The LHC approach adopted applied, in addition, the characteristics of the screener and screening environment that make a victim feel more or less comfortable when disclosing a history of IPV. These factors include those that impact victim comfort and the study attempted to provide multiple opportunities for victims to disclose IPV in a state that was respectful, and in a culturally effective environment.

2.10 Efforts in addressing Domestic and Gender Violence in Kenya

Over the years, the civil society has taken the lead in designing and implementing programmes and projects aimed at addressing gender based violence. Today there are programmes that address all forms of violence including domestic, sexual, violence in schools and in the work place and FGM. Initiatives to address gender-based violence are just as diverse. These can be grouped in the categories of awareness campaigns, legal initiatives, and support services to women survivors of violence including domestic violence, research and documentation and education campaigns. As awareness and knowledge has developed on the nature and impact of gender based violence, the early awareness programmes have given way to more targeted initiatives. Projects targeting rural communities can now be found among the civil society actors though on a minimal representation. In the case of the government, statistics and data on gender based violence started to be compiled from the Kenya Police department from 1997.

One of the pioneer programmes was the awareness campaign launched by the Public Law Institute (PLI) in 1987/88. The campaign took the form of posters distributed by Kenya Bus Company within the city of Nairobi, informing the public that violence against women was against the law. The electronic and print media was also used to reach policy makers. The public responded to this early campaign with disquiet and discomfort. Overall the opinion was that PLI was wrong to discuss private matters in public. The myths about the value of domestic violence were commonly heard as men defended their behavior by stating that beating their wives was a sign of love or that a woman could not be raped unless she wanted to be.

Since this early campaign, the civil society has developed capacity to address gender based violence. Existing Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) have expanded their focus to include gender based violence including domestic violence, while other organizations have been formed with a mandate dedicated to addressing gender based violence. The Federation of Women Lawyers (FIDA) is in the former category. Its Legal Aid Programme handles test cases in order to set legal precedents in cases of women's rights abuse. Several such cases have been brought to the courts some of which have received wide press coverage. These include the Maasai woman who took her husband to court in 1997 because he had been beating her. Although she lost, the extensive press coverage that the case generated helped to introduce issues of domestic violence to the public.

The Domestic Violence (Family Protection) Bill 2002 is one of the products of collaboration between FIDA and other actors. The Bill seeks to provide for court intervention in cases of domestic violence and to establish a fund to financially assist survivors of domestic violence. Coalition on Violence against Women (COVAW) is dedicated to addressing and eradicating gender based violence. COVAW organizes annual campaigns and marches that serve to put a spotlight on the different forms of violence experienced by women in Kenya. COVAW and FIDA have also provided legal redress for women who have experienced violence including domestic violence. The Women Rights Awareness Programme (WRAP) formed in 1992 has been running a shelter for battered women in Nairobi for some years now (Prem & Essd, 2003).

The impact of these initiatives is seen in how differently the public responds to gender based violence. Today there is widespread awareness and acknowledgement that gender based violence is a problem that the whole of society needs to address. It is rare to hear pro-gender violence myths expressed in public by policy makers. Concerning an issue such as gender based violence including domestic violence, it is difficult to state conclusively whether these programmes have resulted in a decrease in the phenomenon. Among many other problems that make such conclusions difficult is that the first baseline survey was conducted only in 2002. At this stage, the impact of these programmes can be seen in the increasing numbers of organizations and in the growing diversity of initiatives aimed at addressing gender based violence. The mainstream media such as the Nation Media Group and the East African Standard routinely support awareness campaigns on gender based violence by providing free advertisement space and collaborating with NGOs on research. For example in 2001, the

Nairobi Women's Hospital (NWH) started the Gender Violence Recovery Centre. The Centre provides free medical and counseling services to both female and male survivors of sexual assault and domestic violence. The programme was started partly in response to the growing wave of gender based violence including domestic violence in the country and in Nairobi in particular. The Centre works closely with WRAP, FIDA and the Centre for Rehabilitation and Education of Abused Women (CREAW).

The NGO Sanaa Art Promotion has developed an interactive campaign against gender based violence for rural communities. The programme is based in Meru North and Meru Central districts, which have high incidences of gender based violence. The Sanaa approach is a participatory and interactive model targeted at producing behavior change and uses both males and females as change agents (Prem & Essd, 2003).

2.11 Ongoing Initiatives in addressing Pupils' School Participation

Education is widely recognized as key to national development. An increase in access and quality of education relative to the national population is critical to socio-economic growth and productivity, increased individual earnings, subsequently reduced income inequalities and the reduction of poverty. It also contributes significantly to improved health, enhanced democracy, good governance and effective leadership. Since the attainment of political independence in 1963, the Government of Kenya has placed emphasis on the role of education in socio-economic and political development. As a result, it has considerably expanded access through among others opening of more schools, and introduction of FPE in public primary schools. For example with the implementation of FPE initiative the number of pupils in public primary schools increased from 5.9 million in December 2002 to 6.9 million in January 2003 and 7.2 million in 2004. Currently, there are 7.7 million children in primary schools. But despite this positive development, it is evident that FPE resulted in increased gender disparities in the gross enrolment rates (MOEST, 2007).

At the same time girls' retention and ability to proceed with their education beyond grade five as well as their completion rates have deteriorated, while boys' participation is marked by higher repetition and drop out rates. The causes of this scenario are many and diverse both within and outside the school environment. FPE is also characterized by overcrowded classrooms and over- stretched facilities, particularly sanitation. This may not be conducive to the retention of girls in schools, especially those in ASALs, and the urban slum and rural poor.

In recognition of the importance of access, retention, completion, performance and transition in education, both the Government and development partners have developed strategies and implement a variety of initiatives to address participation in schools. Through a harmonized framework, programmes like the National Plan of Action on EFA 2003-2015, the Report of the Education Sector Review 2003, the Ministry of Education Strategic Plan (2006-2011) and Service Charter, Sessional Paper No.1 of 2005, and the Kenya Education Sector Support Programme (KESSP) 2005- 2010, have all paid attention to these commitments.

In relation to addressing gender equity and equality in education, the Government has ratified a number of protocols and conventions which include the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), among others. The implementation of FPE from January 2003 brought on board many girls and boys formally locked out of schools by a host of many factors which include domestic violence. Other initiatives however with a gender bias aiming at improving access in primary schools include among others: Introduction of mobile schools and establishment of feeder schools for children in the lower classes in the ASALs; re-admission of girls who become pregnant while in school; mainstreaming HIV and AIDS education in the primary school curriculum; and anti-gender violence programmes.

The creation of gender responsive school environments particularly in the ASALs, through expansion and improvement of classrooms, boarding facilities and water and sanitation facilities has started to pay dividends in that the number of girls attending school has increased (MOEST, 2007). However, a lot more still need to be done especially in the urban and peri-urban areas like Kiandutu slum, before all children can access, be retained and complete primary education. Non Formal Education (NFE) programmes should be spread to the rural and urban slums in order to cater for those children who are not able to access or who drop out of schools due to various reasons including domestic violence related reasons.

2.12 Theoretical Framework

The study was based on two theories (psychoanalysis and behavioural theories). Sigmund Freud's psychoanalysis theory assumes the biological, sexual and moral infemininity of women and enunciates that this scientific theory of femininity powerfully reinforces age-old prejudices and continues to influence individuals and male-female relationships even today. This assumption is evident of his well-known description of the phenomenon of penis envy. At about 4 years, Freud theorized that boys and girls make an important discovery: boys have a

penis, and girls don't. Thus they react differently. Boys assume that little girls are inferior to them- an assumption that persists throughout later stages of development. Girls on the other hand are envious. They devalue themselves and all other women (Lamanna, 1988). This theory can explain why male partners in marriage as a sign of male dominance perpetrate domestic violence over the women. This dominance of one spouse can directly or indirectly influence their child (ren) in various aspects of their lives. Overall boys tend to be more reactive and more aggressive than girls in disturbed families. This explains why more boys run away from home during such circumstances. They are more likely to be witnesses or participants in parental confrontations. Adolescents are least affected by their parent's strives because they assume some psychological independence than younger children who are wholly dependent on their parents. Thus, young children who come from households where there is domestic violence can develop academic as well as social problems.

Behaviourists under Watson use learning principles to change behaviours. The underlying concept under the behavioural theory is that individuals tend to adopt and adjust behaviour based on the stimuli in the environment. Watson theorized that emphasis should be on observations of external behaviour such as reflexes and habits that help the organism adjust and adapt to the environment. Behaviour modification or operant conditioning has been used to change abnormal behaviours or problematic behaviours and encouraging desired behaviours through rewards or punishments. Operant conditioning enhances understanding of psychological disorders particularly depression. Depressed people feel that they have less control over obtaining positive reinforces and avoiding punishments. As a consequence, they are less likely to try to change their life situations – which further contribute to their feeling of depression. In human beings, this depression is by the victim having reached the state of learned helplessness. This is witnessed by feelings of futility caused by belief that one has little or no control over events in one's life, which may make one stop trying and develop feelings of depression (Lester, 1993). Thus behaviour therapy offers various action-oriented methods to help people take steps to change what they are doing and thinking. This theory is useful in this study as it sheds light on how an abused spouse may reach a state of helplessness and no longer sees the need to change the other spouse to stop the abuse. This state of helplessness can spill over to their children and the abused spouse may neglect the children. This translates further into neglect in schoolwork, attendance, and in all other aspects of the children's life. The children may drop out of school to sell their labour in order to feed for themselves and may also run away from their homes where the atmosphere is not conducive.

2.13 Conceptual Framework

Figure 1 illustrates the relationship between the variables of the study that guided this study. In employing the two theories, the study assumed that pupils' academic performance and school participation were a possible outcome of psychological, physical, sexual and behavioural referents of domestic violence.

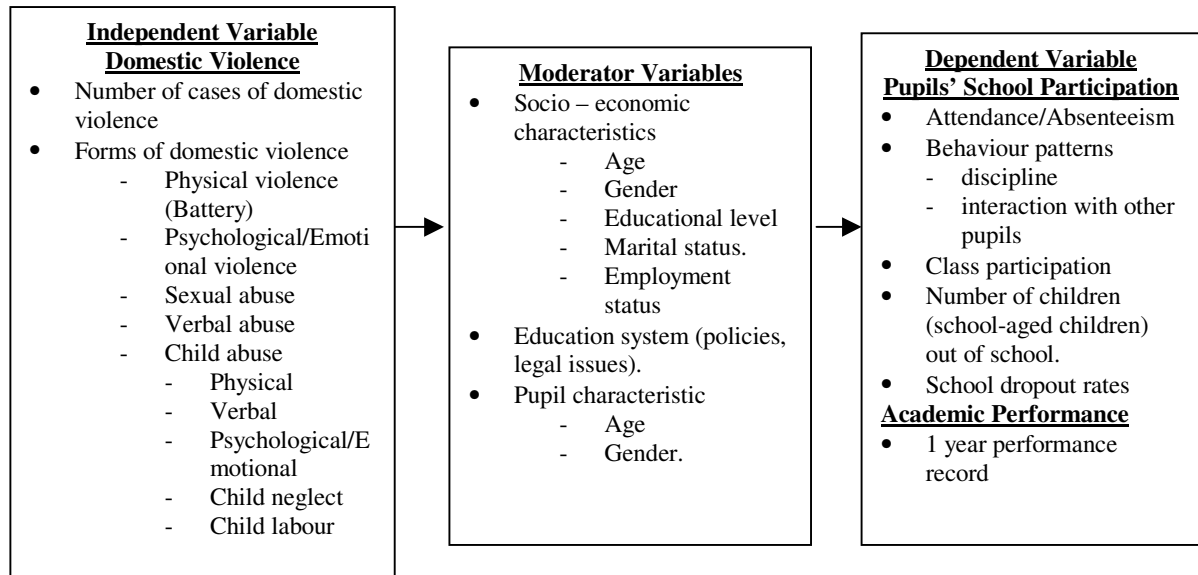


Figure 1: Relationship between domestic violence and pupils' academic performance and school participation

The independent variable of domestic violence include the cases of domestic violence which was reported by the household heads (in terms of numbers) and the types or forms of domestic violence which included physical violence/battery, psychological /emotional abuse, verbal abuse, sexual abuse and child abuse. Child abuse as a type of domestic violence included physical, verbal, emotional, child neglect and child labour. This independent variable was of the measurement type since it had already occurred and hence the researcher had no manipulative control.

On the other hand, the dependent variable of pupil's school participation included pupil attendance of school, the behaviour patterns of the pupil which included the discipline and the pupil interaction with other pupils, class participation which involved the level of pupil answering or asking questions in class and the number of school aged children who are out of

school. The dependent variable of pupil's school participation indicated the total influence arising from the effects of the independent variable of domestic violence. Academic performance was a second dependent variable, which was operationalized as the mean score in examinations of a pupil in the past one-year. Therefore pupils' school participation and academic performance varied as a function of domestic violence. This means that pupil's school participation which was measured by the number of days the pupil attended school, pupil's behaviour patterns of discipline or indiscipline and interaction with other pupils, class participation and number of school- aged children who are out of school and academic performance depended on the independent variable of domestic violence.

The moderator variables of socio-economic characteristics, education system and the pupil characteristic had to be controlled so as not to influence the results of the study. The socio-economic characteristics were in-built in the study. The education system as a moderator variable in terms of policies and legal issues were assumed to be the same for all the households in Kiandutu slum. This is because FPE policies as well as legal issues as is put forward by the MOEST should be for all parents to ensure all school-going aged children are in school and should remain in school. Any parent who goes against these policies is liable for prosecution. The pupil characteristic of age and gender as a moderator variable were controlled by involving all the children of primary school-going age in Kiandutu slum who came from households reporting domestic violence, and who were attending any of the five primary schools- Garissa Road, Kianjau, Mugumo-ini, General Kago and Athena. And in terms of gender, the pupil was either a boy or a girl.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the overall approaches employed in this study. These include a description of the research design, population, sample and sampling procedures or techniques, instrumentations, data collection procedures and data analysis. The specific research techniques and procedural choices have been justified appropriately.

3.2 Research Design

The study adopted a cross-sectional survey. This design was used to collect data needed to guide this study as it explores the status of a phenomenon at one point in time and helped in getting information from the sampled population which represented all relevant subgroups in the population in Kiandutu slum. As a survey type of design it facilitated the description of population characteristics and exploration of relationships, differences and comparisons between different categories of the population. In this study the exploration was done on the basis of cases of and types of domestic violence as they related to academic performance and school participation of children in Kiandutu slum. Surveys are also important for studying populations under natural conditions (Borg & Gall, 2003; Trochim, 2004). To address weaknesses of the design related to generalizability, the study used randomization and a relatively large sample of pupils-154. Kiandutu slum was purposively selected, is a cosmopolitan area and was seen as representative of the slums in the whole country. It was also convenient to the researcher within the resources that were available.

3.3 Study Area

Kiandutu slum is within Thika municipality along Thika-Garissa road. It is about forty-five kilometres from Nairobi. The slum has grown as a result of lack of affordable housing and sanitation for the poor workers who provide labour in the industries in Thika town. With the continued growth of Thika as an industrial town, other slums have come up. These are Matharau, Kiang'ombe and Gachagi slums. However, Kiandutu is the largest and is just about two kilometres from Thika town.

3.4 Population

The targeted population of the study consisted of all households living in Kiandutu slum with children going to the local primary schools. Kiandutu slum had approximately 700 families and five primary schools with a total of approximately 3710 pupils as at the time of this study. Majority of the slum children attended Garissa Road, General Kago, and Kianjau primary schools, while a small number of them attended Athena and Mugumo-ini primary schools. Table 1 summarizes the pupil population in the five schools.

Table 1: Pupil population in primary schools in Kiandutu slum

School	Boys	Girls	Total
Kianjau	280	280	560
Athena	320	330	650
Mugumo-ini	380	370	750
General Kago	460	430	890
Total	1880	1830	3710

Source: Thika Municipal Education Office (2006)

3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

A total of 80 households were sampled using simple random sampling technique. This was assumed to be representative of the 700 households in Kiandutu slum and was taken to be in congruence with the suggested sample sizes based on population, level of confidence and other population parameters like the mean and standard deviation considered in the reference table by Kathuri and Pals (1993). Simple random sampling technique is suitable for large and heterogeneous population and gives every member of the population an equal and independent chance of being selected (Borg & Gall, 2003; Kathuri & Pals 1993; McMillan, 1992; Tuckman, 1994). This sample size yielded a relatively large sample of pupils -154 which was used in phase II of data collection.

3.6 Instrumentation

3.6.1 Data Collection Instruments

The researcher prepared two sets of questionnaires that were used to collect information from the respondents. Set one consisted of three parts. Part I was administered to elicit biographical data of the household heads, while Part II profiled indicators of extent and forms of domestic violence within the households that affected the spouse and the child (ren). Part

III was administered to the household heads to give the names of their child (ren) and the schools they attended in order to use that information to track those pupils in phase two of data collection. Set two of the questionnaire, (PSPP) was administered to track down on the levels of academic performance and school participation to the class-teachers on the pupils identified in households experiencing domestic violence and attending the local primary schools.

LHC method was used in order to help respondents gain better access to long-term memory. Adjustments were made to facilitate respondents' recall and identify memorable and significant events in their lives other than those events that were in the pre-selected domains, which indicated exposure to any form of domestic violence.

3.6.2 Validity and Reliability

Professionals at the Department of Psychology, Counselling and Education Foundations of Egerton University validated the two sets of questionnaires. Pilot study was conducted among 10 households in Gachagi slum, which is also within Thika Municipality and was seen to have similar features as this study area. From the pilot study, the instruments had a reliability coefficient of 0.8. Some adjustments were made to address any weaknesses on the tools.

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

After completing proposal defence, the researcher obtained a letter of introduction from the graduate school, which facilitated the issuance of permit of research from the Ministry of Education Science and Technology (MOEST). The permit was used together with the introduction letter to request authority to carry out the study in the slum area from the District Commissioner and District Education Officer (Thika District). The letters were used to introduce the researcher to the local administrators- the Chief and Assistant Chief. The local administrators helped the researcher to identify guides from among the vigilante groups, social workers and local elders who facilitated appointments with households and introduced the researcher to the respondents. After randomly selecting the households, the researcher visited the families in the company of appropriate guides to administer the questionnaires. After establishing a record of children attending local schools, the researcher developed a profile that was completed by the class-teachers. The researcher inducted the class-teachers on the completion of the PSPP pro forma after the head teachers granted permission.

3.8 Data Analysis

The data collected from the study was organized and analyzed according to the variables and objectives of the study. Data from both the questionnaire and the PSPP pro forma was coded and entered into the computer. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and Microsoft Excel for Windows was used. Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviation, frequencies and coefficient of variation) as well as illustrations (tables and charts) was used to summarize the data. To test the hypothesis, analysis of variance, t-test and chi-square were used at 5% level of significance as summarized in table 2. Table 2 summarizes the analysis procedures for each hypothesis. The extent of domestic violence was computed as an index compounded from the responses to specific domestic violence occurrences in the household.

Table 2: Summary of data analysis procedures

Hypothesis	Independent Variables	Dependent Variables	Statistical Procedures
Ho ₁ There's no significant difference in the level of domestic violence among households of different socio-economic characteristics in Kiandutu slum.	Socio- economic characteristics <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Age of household head - Gender - Education level - Ethnic background 	- Extent of domestic violence. - Number of cases - Forms of domestic violence	- Descriptive statistics - ANOVA - T-test
Ho ₂ Domestic violence does not significantly influence pupil's school attendance in primary schools in Kiandutu slum.	Domestic violence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Extent of domestic violence - Number of cases - Forms of domestic violence 	- School attendance	- Descriptive statistics - Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient ¹ - χ^2
Ho ₃ Domestic violence does not significantly influence pupil's academic performance in primary schools in Kiandutu slum.	Domestic violence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Extent of domestic violence - Number of cases - Forms of domestic violence 	- Pupil's academic performance	- Descriptive statistics Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient - χ^2
Ho ₄ Domestic violence does not significantly influence pupil's school behavioural patterns in primary schools in Kiandutu slum.	Domestic violence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Extent of domestic violence - Number of cases - Forms of domestic violence 	- Pupil's behaviour patterns	- Descriptive statistics Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient - χ^2
Ho ₅ Domestic violence does not significantly influence class participation of pupils in primary schools in Kiandutu slum.	Domestic violence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Extent of domestic violence - Number of cases - Forms of domestic violence 	- Pupil's class participation	- Descriptive statistics Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient - χ^2
Ho ₆ Domestic violence does not significantly influence primary school dropout rates among pupils in primary schools in Kiandutu slum.	Domestic violence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Extent of domestic violence - Number of cases - Forms of domestic violence 	- Dropout rates	- Descriptive statistics Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient - χ^2

The choice of PPMCC and Chi-square depended on the scale of measurement of the variables. For continuous data, PPMCC was used while Chi-square was used for categorical data.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results and discussions of the study which aimed at determining the types and extent of domestic violence among households in Kiandutu slum in Thika municipality and establishing the influence it has on pupils' academic performance and school participation. The chapter presents a description of the respondents and households, the nature and extent of domestic violence, pupils' academic performance and school participation as findings based on objectives and hypotheses of the study. Discussions have also been presented to explain the findings in the context of existing knowledge about domestic violence, pupil's academic performance and school participation.

4.2 Description of Respondents and Households

In order to investigate the types and extent of domestic violence and its effects on pupils' academic performance and school participation, a sample of 80 households was selected with a total of 154 children attending the local primary schools. The following sub-sections provide brief descriptions of the respondents and households from which the children came from according to key characteristics namely: age, gender, level of education, marital status, and employment.

4.2.1 Age

The data presented in this study were collected from 80 households. From these households a total of 154 children were randomly selected for a follow-up study of their academic performance and school participation. The age distribution of their parents or guardians was investigated as a moderator variable. Table 3 shows the distribution of respondents according to their age brackets. Majority of the respondents were in their middle age (between 25 and 40 years) representing 73.8%.

Table 3: Frequency distribution of sampled household heads by age group

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Below 25 yrs	9	11.3	11.3
25 – 30 yrs	29	36.3	47.5
31 – 40 yrs	30	37.5	85.0
41 – 50 yrs	11	13.8	98.8
Above 50 yrs	1	1.3	100.0
Total	80	100.0	

Among this youthful age group, the household heads typically reported an average of a two-child family. Domestic violence is more often reported among young married couples (Tony, 2003).

4.2.2 Gender

82.5% of respondents were female and the rest were males as shown in Table 4. This can be explained from the responsiveness of women to the sensitive questions. Most men viewed as the perpetrators of most of the violence reported in the study opted not to respond to the questions or were not available during the household survey.

Table 4: Frequency distribution of sampled household heads by gender

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	14	17.5	17.5
Female	66	82.5	100.0
Total	80	100.0	

4.2.3 Education Level

The study used the highest level of formal education attained by the household heads to classify them. Table 5 shows the findings.

Table 5: Frequency distribution of sampled household heads by education level

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Below Std 8	42	52.5	52.5
Std 8	29	36.3	88.8
Form 4	9	11.3	100.0
Total	80	100.0	

52.5% of household heads in this study reported less than 8 years of formal schooling- an amount regarded by UNESCO as insufficient to ensure life-long literacy. 36% of the respondents in this sample reported a completed primary education. Only 11% however reported having attained Form 4 education that is a dismal percentage recorded. Domestic violence has been linked to the level of education of couples (Tony 2003). Different forms of domestic violence are also reported among households with different levels of formal education. Women who are illiterate are more susceptible to different forms of abuse especially under the conditions of poverty that prevail in slums. Low level of education among households' heads especially among women limits their access to training skills, and thus lacking economic empowerment. This further translates into economic dependency on their spouses.

4.2.4 Marital Status

77.5% of the respondents were married as shown in Table 6. The divorce prevalence among the households was 15%. Domestic violence was reported even in households reporting divorce or any other form of lack of spouse. This was perhaps from conjugal partners.

Table 6: Frequency distribution of household heads sampled by marital status

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Married	62	77.5	77.5
Divorced	12	15.0	92.5
Widowed	3	3.8	96.3
Others	3	3.8	100.0
Total	80	100.0	

As the table indicates, marriage seems to be virtually a universal experience among the sampled household heads. 22.6% of the households consisted of widowed, divorced and those respondents in the others category of marital status. Those in the others category reported having remarried after a divorce or death of a partner.

4.2.5 Duration of marriage

The study also investigated the duration of marriage and Table 7 shows the findings with a majority of the respondents reporting having been married for 5 – 10 years. This variable was considered in order to establish the extent of domestic violence at levels that have long-term influence on pupil’s academic performance and school participation.

Table 7: Frequency distribution of sampled household heads by duration of marriage

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0 - 5 yrs	2	2.5	2.5
5 - 10 yrs	34	42.5	45.0
10-15 yrs	22	27.5	72.5
15 – 20 yrs	12	15.0	87.5
Above 20 yrs	10	12.5	100.0
Total	80	100.0	

4.2.6 Employment

81.5% of the respondents interviewed had no formal wage employment, as the main forms of employment recorded were either casual labour or small-scale businesses within the slum. Table 8 shows the distribution of household heads according to their employment.

Table 8: Frequency distribution of sampled household heads by employment

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Casual	35	43.8	43.8
Business	30	37.5	81.3
Others	15	18.8	100.0
Total	80	100.0	

81.3% of the household heads sampled reported being in an occupation other than that of “housewife” which was in the others category.

4.2.7 Description of Pupils

The pupils tracked from the sampled 80 households were investigated for their academic performance and school participation. A total of 154 pupils were tracked in the study. This is because there were households with two or more children attending the schools near the slum. The study found a gender gap in school attendance. Out of the 154 pupils sampled only, 39.6% were girls. This gender gap has also been confirmed by UNESCO (2005) that

although the FPE policy brought in many girls to school, there is a persistent and slight gender gap of approximately 2%. Many factors conspire to keep children out of school. These factors can be economic, social, cultural and political in nature. In the worst situations, they all act together, erecting a wall that not only deprives children of the right to education, but a whole society of a secure future. The gender gap can be accounted for by the high prevalence of teenage pregnancy, early marriages, child labour, lack of motivation, and/or socio-cultural attitudes that undervalue girls' education. The lack of priority given to education in some communities also aggravates the situation of low enrolment and retention. Some harmful cultural practices like FGM and rampant poverty which manifest itself when children dropout of school due to hunger as parents cannot afford to sustain them by offering a proper diet, also explains the gender gaps in school participation.

Sometimes school authorities prefer not to allow pregnant girls into school in spite of the policy of allowing teen mothers to go back to school. There are also girls who are unable to cope with the normal attendance due to teasing from school colleagues, especially boys. Some questions have been asked as to whether sexual victimization itself contributes to the risk of girls becoming pregnant or whether both are caused by some third factor, such as an unhealthy and disorganised home life. Studies have shown that many of the factors that predispose a young girl to sexual abuse, such as absent or dysfunctional parents are also risk factors for adolescent pregnancy. FGM commonly known as circumcision is a rite of passage from childhood to womanhood which involves various forms of genital cutting. It has severe health complications including bleeding to death during or after the cutting, child bearing complications due to scar tissue resulting from the cutting, infection from poor hygienic conditions, and HIV/AIDS infection through shared cutting instruments. On the other hand, girls are withdrawn from school in preparation for the rite. During the period of healing the girls cannot attend school. In many cultures, girls are married as soon as they undergo the 'cut'. In such situations, the rite interferes with and sometimes brings to a complete end of the girls' education.

Girls who are orphaned may be forced into marriage on the pretext that they have no other options for support. Recent research in Kenya has revealed that girls from AIDS-afflicted households are twice as likely as boys to be 'removed' from school to assist with home duties. The girl-child thus becomes the household cook as well as the carrier of wood and

water. Poor attendance leads to poor performance, which in turn increases the likelihood of dropping out of school.

The girl-child's educational performance and attendance is in addition adversely affected by the common acceptance of her role as a mother- helper and therefore the desperate need to drop out of school to sell her labour as a house help for instance to earn a living. According to the EFA Global Monitoring Report 2003/04, parents are the main employers of their own children. Sometimes this work is paid, but mostly it is unpaid and takes place within the household or on the family farm. In Africa, population growth, a weak economy, famine and armed conflict have contributed at keeping child labour high-and school attendance low.

Almost all children who have dropped out of school come from poor families. These families cannot afford to pay for their children's education and are often obliged to choose which child goes to school and which one stays at home or goes to work. Children from poor families are also more likely to drop out of school because of illness, poor nutrition and domestic demands, such as caring for siblings or parents. According to UNESCO, Kenya faces both cultural and economic obstacles in the effort to achieve EFA by 2015. The United Nation EFA Global Monitoring Report of 2006 puts Kenya in the category of 44 countries worldwide with low chances of achieving universal primary education by 2015. By and large in order to achieve this, there is a need to have a policy that speaks out to all sectors of the society on their role towards this noble goal.

The mean age of the pupils was 11.25 (Standard Deviation = 2.61) ranging from 6 to 15 years. Out of all the 154 children in the sampled households, 13.4% (30) are of school-going age but are not attending school.

4.3 The Nature and Extent of Domestic Violence

The study sought to find out the type and extent of domestic violence in households living in Kiandutu slum of Thika Municipality. The types of domestic violence investigated included IPV and child abuse. The elements of IPV explored were: verbal abuse, physical violence, severe physical violence, emotional/psychological abuse and sexual abuse. This study showed sexual coercion existing along a continuum from forcible marital rape to non-physical forms of pressure that compelled spouses to engage in non-consensual sex. Respondents frequently mentioned being physically forced to have sex. Others reported giving into sex out of fear of the consequences of refusal, such as physical abuse, loss of

economic support, accusations of infidelity and others were harangued into it by a drunken husband. Many respondents (61.25%) reported having used sexual abuse as a way of handling disagreements. 85% of household heads reported their partners having used sexual abuse in handling disagreements. Although both spouses can be victims of sexual abuse, most respondents were women who reported a prevalence of this form of domestic violence. Women reported being more profoundly affected by sexual abuse as a way of handling disagreements than did men. It should be noted that sexual abuse as defined in this study includes a verbal-perhaps less violent-but no less damaging component that of “the sexual insult”. This aside, much of non-consensual sex remains alarmingly prevalent within consensual unions.

From the study 78.75% of household heads reported having used one or more forms of verbal abuse in their marriage as a way of handling disagreements. Likewise 90% of household heads reported their partners being verbally abusive while handling disagreements. The use of one or more forms of physical abuse as a way of handling disagreements was reported in 47.50% of households. A corresponding 82.50% of respondents sampled reported their partners using physical abuse in handling disagreements. As far as severe physical abuse was concerned, 33.75% of household heads reported having used this form of violence in handling disagreements, while 81.25% of household heads reported that their partners had used severe physical abuse while handling disagreements.

The use of emotional or psychological abuse was also prevalent with 75.00% of household heads sampled reporting having used one or more forms of emotional or psychological abuse in their union as a way of handling disagreements. A corresponding 93.75% of them reported their partners having used this form of abuse in handling marital disagreements. Most commonly in this study, the violent types of physical and sexual abuse were associated with verbal and emotional or psychological abuse. The study found that individual partners were reporting less their own acts of abuse as a way of handling disagreements than those of their partners. This is in agreement with the findings of Douglas *et al.* (2004) and Mullender (2004). The use of LHC approach, however helped track such sensitive data. This was in line with the finding by Thackery *et al.* (2007) that barriers to screening victims for intimate partner violence (IPV) are effectively surmounted when screener and screening environment that make a victim feel more or less comfortable when disclosing a history of IPV.

For each household the presence of child abuse exhibited or reported was also investigated to establish the perception of the respondent on whether it exists or affects the children's academic performance and school participation. This study showed a consistent set of responses of child abuse in the form of child neglect when spouses disagreed. This neglect ranged from failure to provide food and other basic necessities to failure to provide emotionally to children by the spouse involved by disappearing from home. This was reported to impinge negatively on the affected children's academic performance and school participation especially on attendance as spouses reported that during those instances the children were unable to attend school.

4.3.1 Intimate Partner Violence

The nature of IPV investigated in the study included verbal, physical and emotional forms. Table 10 shows the distribution of the respondents by the extent of occurrence of these various forms of IPV.

Table 9: Occurrence of various forms of IPV

	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total
Handling Disagreements Verbally	14	41	8	17	80
	17.50%	51.25%	10.00%	21.25%	100.00%
Partner Verbally Abusive	39	33	4	4	80
	48.75%	41.25%	5.00%	5.00%	100.00%
Handling Disagreements Physically	6	21	11	42	80
	7.50%	26.25%	13.75%	52.50%	100.00%
Partner Physically Abusive	27	35	4	14	80
	33.75%	43.75%	5.00%	17.50%	100.00%
Severe Physical Violence for Handling Disagreements	1	16	10	53	80
	1.25%	20.00%	12.50%	66.25%	100.00%
Severe Physical Violence by Partner	22	35	8	15	80
	27.50%	43.75%	10.00%	18.75%	100.00%
Handling disagreements by Emotional/Psychological Violence	4	49	7	20	80
	5.00%	61.25%	8.75%	25.00%	100.00%
Partner Emotionally or Psychologically Violent	27	43	5	5	80
	33.75%	53.75%	6.25%	6.25%	100.00%
Handling Disagreement by Sexual Abuse	3	39	7	31	80
	3.75%	48.75%	8.75%	38.75%	100.00%
Partner Sexually Abusive	20	46	2	12	80
	25.00%	57.50%	2.50%	15.00%	100.00%

A summary of the prevalence of the specific forms of domestic violence is shown in Figure 2. Figure 3 compares this prevalence between male and female respondents. It was found out that verbal abuse and emotional abuse were the most common forms of domestic violence among the households in Kiandutu slum. These forms of violence represent the initial stages of severe domestic violence and could take the form of:

- continually criticizing partner, calling him/her names or shouting at him/her
- insulting or chasing away partner's friends or family
- humiliating partner in private or public
- keeping partner from working, controlling partners' money or making all the decisions
- refusing to work or to share money
- taking partners property or money
- regularly threatening to leave or telling partner to leave
- threatening to harm the children when the abuser is angry with the spouse
- abusing pets or objects to hurt a partner
- manipulating partner with lies and contradictions

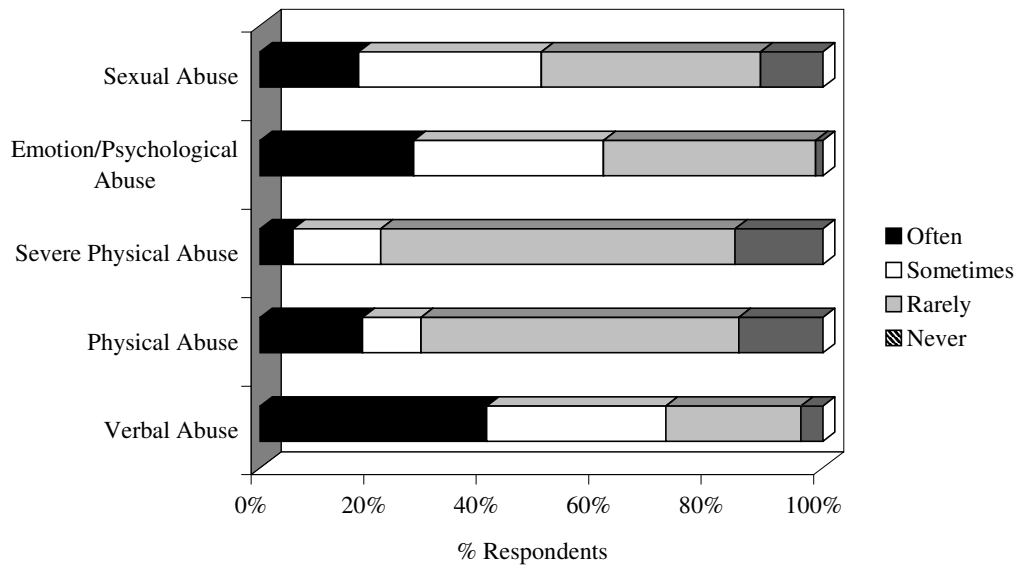


Figure 2: Prevalence of various forms of Intimate Partner Violence

4.3.2 Child Abuse

Figure 3 illustrates the prevalence of various forms of child abuse as a percentage of the respondents reporting their occurrence in their households. The forms that were investigated included child neglect by spouse, verbal threats by spouse and children involvement in disagreements. The figure also illustrates the proportion of households who perceived these forms of child abuse and whether the other aspects of domestic violence were influencing academic performance and participation of their children in school.

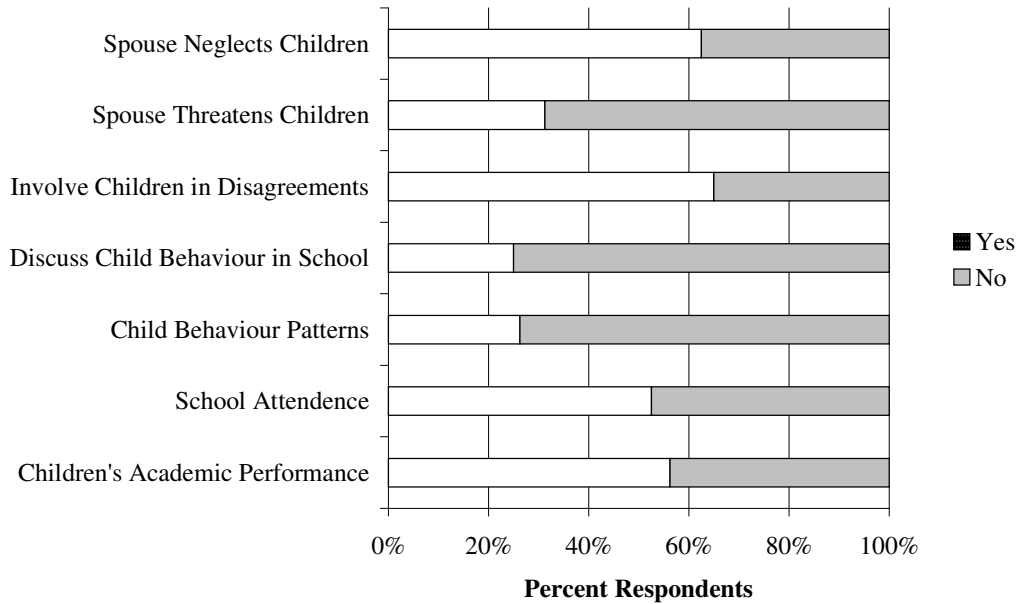


Figure 3: Proportion of respondents reporting child abuse by partners and perceiving domestic violence to be influencing children’s academic performance and school participation

Some seven different forms of child abuse were investigated. By and large it was also reported that pupils’ academic performance and school attendance was influenced by domestic violence among the sampled households. This was reported to emanate from the spouse neglecting the children and also the children being involved in parents’ disagreements. Partner threatening children, children’s behavioural patterns as well as parents discussing their children’s behaviours in school was seen not to feature audibly with the respondents.

In order to explain the possibility of this happening, it is important to note that some pupils’ experiencing domestic violence between their parents may cope by intently focussing on academics, sports or social activities (Gracier & Herrero, 2007). They describe blocking out the troubling events at home with life at school. These pupils may appear as if they have not been affected by the domestic violence. It may be more accurate to view them as children whose coping strategies foster success at school.

Domestic abuse of children is a central theme that cuts across all sectors of the social development including education and the implications for social development and education stakeholders and agencies are clear. Most of the research relates to domestic violence, but it

can equally well be applied to child sexual abuse which can be an integral part of domestic abuse and should not be considered as a separate dynamic where the safety of children is concerned (Gracier & Herrero, 2007). The impacts of domestic abuse on children may be dependant on age, culture, economic status, gender, disability, child's own resilience, type of abuse, extent and frequency of abuse and prevailing protective factors. Many children despite exposure to domestic abuse will go on to have very successful lives with reduced impacts of previous violence often due to the interplay of protective factors (Douglas *et al.*, 2004; Mullender, 2004). Any education policy with regard to domestic abuse should seek to support, strengthen or provide some of these factors (Hester & Westmarland, 2005). They include: -

- Intervention and prevention of further abuse
- Support within the family – non-abusive parent and siblings
- Support outside the family – peers, relatives and teachers
- Individual child's disposition and coping strategies
- Opportunity to discuss experiences in a safe environment

4.4 Academic Performance and Pupils' School Participation

These two dependent variables indicated the total influence arising from the effects of the independent variable of domestic violence. Academic performance was operationalized as the mean score in examination of a pupil in the past one year. Pupils' school participation had the following indicators: school attendance, class participation, discipline, and pupils' behavioural patterns. The questionnaires were administered to the class-teachers in the primary schools attended by the pupils coming from those households identified and reported to have had or were experiencing domestic violence. This was done so as to track the levels of pupils' school participation and academic performance. The class-teachers indicated whether the identified pupil was rated as Poor, Below Average, Average, Good or Excellent in each of the indicators.

Out of the 154 pupils tracked, 30 pupils' academic performance, school attendance, class participation, discipline and behavioural patterns were silent because they had already dropped out of school. 55.7% girls and 46.2% boys indicated an average level of academic performance. Only 2.2% of boys had an excellent performance and 0% for girls. As far as pupils' school participation is concerned, majority of pupils tracked showed an average and a good record in school attendance with girls showing a lower level of attendance. Majority of

pupils showed an average level in class participation. Class participation comprised the level of pupil asking or answering questions and how the pupil was attentive in class. Discipline of the pupil included how she/he obeyed or disobeyed the set school rules and regulations.

This study showed that majority of both girls and boys had a good record of discipline. Behavioural patterns of the pupils tracked down were measured by how each pupil interacted with other pupils in class and also with the other pupils in the school. It was enquiring whether the pupil fought others, quarrelled with other pupils, bullied or was withdrawn from others. This study showed majority of pupils recording good behavioural patterns. Tables 11, 12, 13, 14 and 15 present the bivariate distribution of academic performance by gender and participation by gender as measured through the class teachers rating of the pupils' school attendance, class participation, and discipline and behaviour patterns respectively.

Table 10: Academic Performance according to gender of pupil

		ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE							
		Out of School	Poor	Below Average	Average	Good	Excellent	Total	
GENDER OF PUPIL	Boy	Count	21	3	12	43	12	2	93
		%	22.6%	3.2%	12.9%	46.2%	12.9%	2.2%	100.0%
	Girl	Count	9	4	7	34	7	0	61
		%	14.8%	6.6%	11.5%	55.7%	11.5%	.0%	100.0%
Total	Count	30	7	19	77	19	2	154	
	%	19.5%	4.5%	12.3%	50.0%	12.3%	1.3%	100.0%	

Table 11: Cross-tabulation of School Participation of pupils by gender

		SCHOOL ATTENDANCE						
		Out of School	Below Average	Average	Good	Excellent	Total	
GENDER OF PUPIL	Boy	Count	21	9	27	34	2	93
		%	22.6%	9.7%	29.0%	36.6%	2.2%	100.0%
	Girl	Count	9	1	27	23	1	61
		%	14.8%	1.6%	44.3%	37.7%	1.6%	100.0%
Total	Count	30	10	54	57	3	154	
	%	19.5%	6.5%	35.1%	37.0%	1.9%	100.0%	

Table 12: Rating of Pupil’s School Participation based on their class participation ratings by the class-teachers according to gender

			CLASS PARTICIPATION						
			Out of School	Poor	Below Average	Average	Good	Excellent	Total
GENDER OF PUPIL	Boy	Count	21	1	12	37	21	1	93
		%	22.6%	1.1%	12.9%	39.8%	22.6%	1.1%	100.0%
	Girl	Count	9	1	6	33	12	0	61
		%	14.8%	1.6%	9.8%	54.1%	19.7%	.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	30	2	18	70	33	1	154
		%	19.5%	1.3%	11.7%	45.5%	21.4%	.6%	100.0%

Table 13: Rating of Pupil’s School Participation based on their discipline ratings by the class- teachers according to gender

			DISCIPLINE						
			Out of School	Poor	Below Average	Average	Good	Excellent	Total
GENDER OF PUPIL	Boy	Count	21	1	6	12	51	2	93
		%	22.6%	1.1%	6.5%	12.9%	54.8%	2.2%	100.0%
	Girl	Count	9	0	1	7	43	1	61
		%	14.8%	.0%	1.6%	11.5%	70.5%	1.6%	100.0%
Total		Count	30	1	7	19	94	3	154
		%	19.5%	.6%	4.5%	12.3%	61.0%	1.9%	100.0%

Table 14: Rating of Pupil’s School Participation based on their behavioural patterns ratings by the class- teachers according to gender

			BEHAVIORAL PATTERNS						
			Out of School	Poor	Below Average	Average	Good	Excellent	Total
GENDER OF PUPIL	Boy	Count	21	3	9	12	45	3	93
		%	22.6%	3.2%	9.7%	12.9%	48.4%	3.2%	100.0%
	Girl	Count	9	0	0	9	43	0	61
		%	14.8%	.0%	.0%	14.8%	70.5%	.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	30	3	9	21	88	3	154
		%	19.5%	1.9%	5.8%	13.6%	57.1%	1.9%	100.0%

The teachers assessed and rated each pupil's behavioral patterns as seen in shyness/anxiety, learning skills, interpersonal relations, and acting out behavior in the classroom. The pupil's classroom and school behavior is often affected by many factors, not just the child's mental health; although teachers may be more attuned to disruptive behavior than to anxiety or depression; or other "soft" attributes with no direct link to domestic violence (Gracier & Herrero, 2007).

4.5 Hypotheses Testing

As a preliminary step in isolating the main moderator variable of pupil's gender from this study finding, an independent sample t-test of significance difference was performed. The test found no evidence for a significant gender difference in academic performance and all the other four operants of pupils' school participation (attendance, class participation, discipline and behavioural patterns). The respective t-statistics and significance values for each test: academic performance t-value = 0.561, p-value = 0.575 > 0.025; school attendance: t-value = 1.291, p-value = 0.199 > 0.025; class participation: t-value = 0.890, p-value = 0.375 > 0.025; discipline: t-value = 0.1.731, p-value = 0.085 > 0.025; behavioural patterns: t-value = 2.124, p-value = 0.035 > 0.025. It was therefore decided to test each hypothesis regardless of any gender differences. The results are presented in the following subsections.

4.5.1 Differences in Forms of Domestic Violence

The hypothesis that *"There is no significant difference in the extent of various forms of domestic violence among households of different socio-economic characteristics in Kibandutu slum"* was tested using One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and t-test. The various socio-economic background characteristics used for the tests included gender, age, educational level, and marital status, duration of marriage, employment and ethnic background. The test compared mean measures of domestic violence as shown by scores of IPV. Gender differences were tested using t-test of independent samples while differences according to the other variables were tested using one-way ANOVA. Figure 4 shows the differences in the mean scores for the prevalence of various forms of IPV by gender while Table 16 shows the t-test results

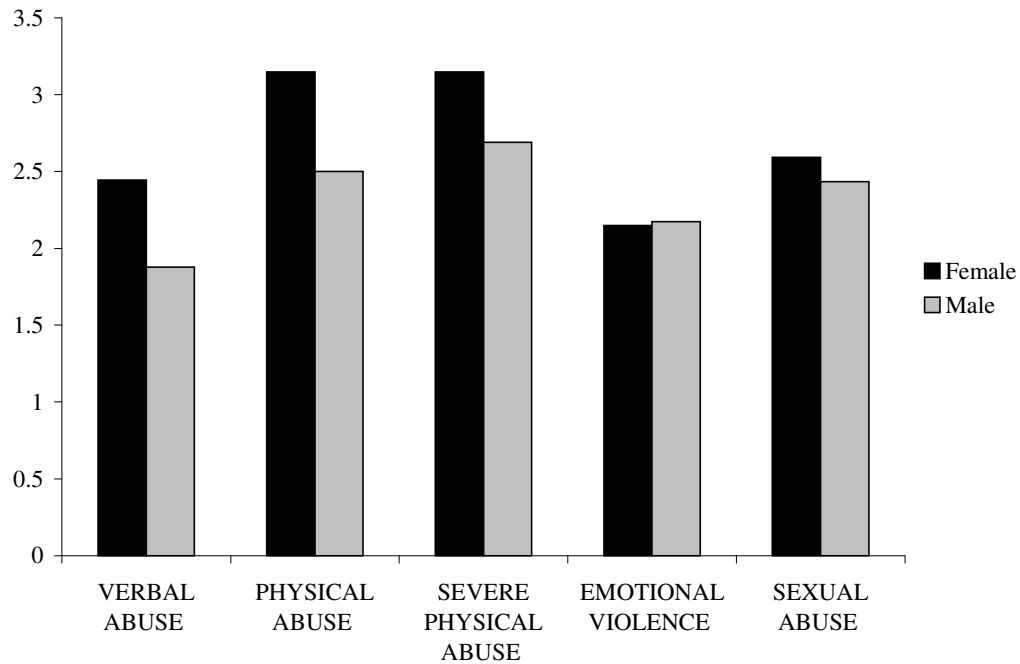


Figure 4: Comparison of scales of prevalence of different forms of intimate partner violence reported by male and female respondents

Table 15: Independent sample t-test results of gender differences in prevalence of different forms of domestic violence

	t-test for Equality of Means						
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Verbal abuse	3.767	152	.000	.56649	.15037	.26941	.86357
Physical abuse	3.912	152	.000	.64815	.16568	.32081	.97549
Severe physical abuse	3.438	152	.001	.45917	.13356	.19530	.72304
Emotional violence	-.197	152	.844	-.02508	.12701	-.27601	.22585
Sexual abuse	.954	152	.342	.15952	.16727	-.17096	.49000
Child abuse	3.351	152	.001	.22055	.06583	.09050	.35060

The study found evidence for significant gender differences in the prevalence of verbal abuse, physical abuse, severe physical abuse and perceived child abuse. There was no evidence to support existence of gender differences in emotional and sexual abuse from the study. The results of ANOVA test for differences in IPV prevalence according to the other socio-economic background factors are summarized in Tables 16, 17, 18, 19 and 20.

Table 16: Summary of one-way ANOVA test of significant differences in domestic violence prevalence according to age of respondent

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Verbal abuse	Between Groups	16.300	4	4.075	9.012	.000
	Within Groups	67.371	149	.452		
	Total	83.670	153			
Physical abuse	Between Groups	5.657	4	1.414	2.181	.074
	Within Groups	96.604	149	.648		
	Total	102.261	153			
Severe physical abuse	Between Groups	6.186	4	1.547	3.914	.005
	Within Groups	58.880	149	.395		
	Total	65.067	153			
Emotional violence	Between Groups	2.309	4	.577	1.645	.166
	Within Groups	52.301	149	.351		
	Total	54.610	153			
Sexual abuse	Between Groups	8.218	4	2.054	3.517	.009
	Within Groups	87.049	149	.584		
	Total	95.266	153			
Child abuse	Between Groups	2.072	4	.518	5.643	.000
	Within Groups	13.676	149	.092		
	Total	15.748	153			

Table 17: Summary of one-way ANOVA test of significant differences in domestic violence prevalence according to marital status of respondent

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Verbal abuse	Between Groups	4.455	3	1.485	2.812	.041
	Within Groups	79.216	150	.528		
	Total	83.670	153			
Physical abuse	Between Groups	8.055	3	2.685	4.275	.006
	Within Groups	94.206	150	.628		
	Total	102.261	153			
Severe physical abuse	Between Groups	2.255	3	.752	1.795	.151
	Within Groups	62.812	150	.419		
	Total	65.067	153			
Emotional violence	Between Groups	3.206	3	1.069	3.118	.028
	Within Groups	51.405	150	.343		
	Total	54.610	153			
Sexual abuse	Between Groups	11.925	3	3.975	7.155	.000
	Within Groups	83.341	150	.556		
	Total	95.266	153			
Child abuse	Between Groups	1.839	3	.613	6.611	.000
	Within Groups	13.909	150	.093		
	Total	15.748	153			

Table 18: Summary of one-way ANOVA test of significant differences in domestic violence prevalence according to duration of marriage of respondent

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Verbal abuse	Between Groups	3.105	4	.776	1.436	.225
	Within Groups	80.565	149	.541		
	Total	83.670	153			
Physical abuse	Between Groups	1.529	4	.382	.565	.688
	Within Groups	100.732	149	.676		
	Total	102.261	153			
Severe physical abuse	Between Groups	3.649	4	.912	2.213	.070
	Within Groups	61.418	149	.412		
	Total	65.067	153			
Emotional violence	Between Groups	2.770	4	.692	1.990	.099
	Within Groups	51.841	149	.348		
	Total	54.610	153			
Sexual abuse	Between Groups	11.247	4	2.812	4.986	.001
	Within Groups	84.019	149	.564		
	Total	95.266	153			
Child abuse	Between Groups	1.427	4	.357	3.710	.007
	Within Groups	14.321	149	.096		
	Total	15.748	153			

Table 19: Summary of one-way ANOVA test of significant differences in domestic violence prevalence according to level of education of respondent

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Verbal abuse	Between Groups	.237	2	.119	.215	.807
	Within Groups	83.433	151	.553		
	Total	83.670	153			
Physical abuse	Between Groups	5.635	2	2.818	4.403	.014
	Within Groups	96.626	151	.640		
	Total	102.261	153			
Severe physical abuse	Between Groups	2.818	2	1.409	3.418	.035
	Within Groups	62.249	151	.412		
	Total	65.067	153			
Emotional violence	Between Groups	4.170	2	2.085	6.242	.002
	Within Groups	50.440	151	.334		
	Total	54.610	153			
Sexual abuse	Between Groups	3.519	2	1.759	2.896	.058
	Within Groups	91.747	151	.608		
	Total	95.266	153			
Child abuse	Between Groups	.464	2	.232	2.290	.105
	Within Groups	15.284	151	.101		
	Total	15.748	153			

Table 20: Summary of one-way ANOVA test of significant differences in domestic violence prevalence according to employment of respondent

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Verbal abuse	Between Groups	.182	2	.091	.165	.848
	Within Groups	83.488	151	.553		
	Total	83.670	153			
Physical abuse	Between Groups	8.085	2	4.043	6.482	.002
	Within Groups	94.176	151	.624		
	Total	102.261	153			
Severe physical abuse	Between Groups	6.330	2	3.165	8.137	.000
	Within Groups	58.737	151	.389		
	Total	65.067	153			
Emotional violence	Between Groups	.287	2	.144	.399	.672
	Within Groups	54.323	151	.360		
	Total	54.610	153			
Sexual abuse	Between Groups	4.174	2	2.087	3.460	.034
	Within Groups	91.092	151	.603		
	Total	95.266	153			
Child abuse	Between Groups	.223	2	.112	1.085	.340
	Within Groups	15.525	151	.103		
	Total	15.748	153			

Based on ANOVA, the study found a significant difference in the extent of occurrence of many of the various forms of domestic violence according to age of respondent. There are significant differences in prevalence of all forms of domestic violence according to age except for emotional violence and mild physical abuse. All forms of violence were most prevalent among the two middle age groups (25 – 30 years and 30 – 40 years). This study showed high incidences of domestic violence among spouses between 25-40 years of age (98.7%). This study also showed that IPV decreased with age which implied that the younger the spouse, the higher the incidence of domestic violence. LHC method was used in order to help respondents gain better access to long-term memory. This was found helpful when the researcher was dealing with household heads who had remarried as a result of either a divorce or death of a spouse. Adjustments were made to facilitate respondents' recall and questions were also asked to identify memorable and significant events in their lives other

than those events in the pre-selected domains which could indicate their exposure to any form of domestic violence.

The study also found significant differences in the extent of occurrence of all forms of domestic violence according to marital status of the respondent except for severe physical abuse and emotional violence. There was no evidence to show any significant differences in all forms of domestic violence based on duration of marriage except for child abuse and sexual abuse. These two forms of domestic violence are sensitive and take time to be registered by the victims. Respondents who have been married for longer time were reporting more prevalence of the two forms of violence.

Based on the level of education there was no evidence of any significant difference except for emotional violence. Majority of the respondents had low levels of education and hence the finding. Except for severe physical abuse and mild physical abuse, the study found no evidence of any significant difference in various forms of domestic violence according to occupation of the respondents. Majority of the respondents were unemployed and were engaged in petty trade or casual labour. They experienced nearly similar levels of the prevalence of domestic violence. Occupation is not a significant determinant of prevalence of domestic violence. These and other social factors are confounding factors that predispose victims to domestic violence (Gracier & Herrero, 2007) and may affect a child's academic outcomes. Other socio-economic background factors were also found to predispose residents of Kiandutu slum to various forms of domestic violence other than employment status. Employment type in the slum does not lead to any major differences in income and poverty levels among households.

4.5.2 Influence of Domestic Violence on Pupil's School Attendance

To establish any significant influence of domestic violence on pupils' school attendance, the hypothesis that "*Domestic violence does not significantly influence pupils' school attendance in primary schools in Kiandutu slum*" was tested and a PPMCC was computed. Table 4.20 shows the results for this and the other hypotheses.

Table 21: Pearson’s product moment correlation coefficient test results for test of influence of domestic violence and aspects of PSP (N=154)

	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
Academic performance	-0.537*	0.015
School attendance	-0.822*	0.000
Class participation	-0.401*	0.011
Discipline	-0.721*	0.019
Behavioural patterns	-0.604*	0.012

*** Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).**

The study revealed a significant but negative correlation between domestic violence and pupils’ school attendance. The decision to attend school is often made by parents or may be a reflection of a child emotional and physical well-being. When faced with domestic violence and its trauma, children may have low school attendance due to possible medical, social and physical problems.

4.5.3 Influence of Domestic Violence on Pupil’s Academic Performance

In order to establish if there was any significant influence of domestic violence on pupils’ academic performance the hypothesis that “*Domestic violence does not significantly influence pupils’ academic performance in primary schools in Kiandutu slum*” was tested and a PPMCC was computed as shown in Table 4.20. A strong negative correlation exists between domestic violence and pupil’s academic performance. Domestic violence therefore has the effect of reducing performance by pupils. A part from mainstream cognitive factors that influence performance (Danili & Reid, 2006), domestic violence hinders ability of pupils to achieve as it reduces their participation in school, attendance, self-esteem and interaction with other students and teachers.

All these factors collectively lead to reduced opportunities and ability to perform in cognitive aspects of learning. Children’s educational outcomes are a function of the environment in which they live (Aaronson, 1998; Oreopoulos, 2003). The neighbourhood and poor living conditions in slums like Kiandutu exacerbate the impacts on educational outcomes. While these conditions also promote prevalence of domestic violence, domestic violence on its own also exacerbates the negative impacts of performance.

Children who witness domestic violence may have impaired educational attainment as well as facing other challenges such as struggles with self-esteem and forming relationships (Byrne and Taylor (2007). Findings confirmed the major effects that domestic violence can have on children's schooling and relationships. Two typical types of responses by children were identified: those who became quiet and withdrawn, and those who became loud and aggressive.

4.5.4 Influence of Domestic Violence on Pupil's Class Participation

In order to establish any significant influence on pupil's class participation, the hypothesis that "*Domestic violence does not significantly influence pupils' class participation in primary schools in Kiandutu slum*" was tested and a PPMCC was computed and is reflected in Table 21. The study found a negative correlation between domestic violence and pupils' class participation. This is the result of possible self-esteem influences and fear of reprisal by the children to be active in class.

4.5.5 Influence of Domestic Violence on Pupil's School Behavioural Patterns

The hypothesis that "*Domestic violence does not significantly influence pupil's school behavioural patterns in primary schools in Kiandutu slum*" was tested and a PPMCC value computed in order to establish any significant influence of domestic violence on pupil's behavioural patterns. The study found out that domestic violence significantly and negatively influences pupil's school behavioural patterns. These findings match those by Sternberg, *et al.* (2005) indicating the link between abuse and concurrent behavior of children. The aggressive and delinquent behaviours in preadolescents may be indicators of problems suffered at home from direct child abuse by one or both parents or indirect abuse, such as exposure to domestic violence (Baldry, 2007).

The results paint a negative picture of the effects of domestic violence on children. The relationship between concurrent behavior problems and varied by household socio-economic characteristics was strongest among lower classes and among girls. Predictions regarding the relationship between early abuse and later adjustment have been confirmed in longitudinal studies too (Gracier & Herrero, 2007; Sternberg *et al.*, 2005). Girls were found to be at more risk for internalizing and externalizing behavior problems than boys (Reynolds, 2001). The relationship between gender, depression, and self-esteem in children who have witnessed domestic violence play significant part in explaining this. Success in school is also intrinsically related to these factors (Sutherland, 1999).

4.6 Summary and Discussion

This study has sought to document the nature and extent of domestic violence in Kiandutu slum and its effect on pupils' academic performance and school participation. Much of the evidence comes from the collected data point towards prevalence of all the forms of domestic violence investigated. It would be prudent for families, the local administration, social workers, teachers and other stakeholders to acknowledge its existence and to address it, in particular through contexts of teaching and learning as well as educational policies compliance. Domestic violence, among households of different socio-economic background in the slums negatively influences academic performance and school participation of children. To prepare for effective interventions against domestic violence and mitigate its influence on school participation, it is important that broad dissemination of the analysis of social relations and their complexity as well as further research using an accepted domestic violence-recording framework of analysis be undertaken.

Domestic violence is a problem that affects individuals, communities, institutions, and society. It can be seen as a pre-cursor to many other problems in the society such as street families, upsurge in crime, increasing HIV&AIDS infections, poor academic performance of children in abusive environments to mention but a few. Therefore, strategies to counter this human rights violation need to be multi-sectoral and multi-disciplinary in order to have lasting effects. The solution to domestic violence, hidden or overt, lies in an imaginative, integrated approach that brings together all stakeholders including parents, pupils, government agents, NGOs, civil society, the media and local communities in the creation of a safe environment. This is because domestic violence is one –and a major one-of many factors in and outside the school that work together against girls enrolment, retention and performance in school (Suderman *et al.*, 1996).

If not stemmed, the scourge of HIV/AIDS may roll back the gains so far achieved on all fronts in relation to girl-child education. And yet education holds the key. Without a cure or a vaccine the answer to AIDS lays in education, not only for the girl –child but also for everyone. Prevention measures must depend on learning new behaviours and thus be largely school based ((Reynolds *et al.*, 2001). Special attention should be paid to FGM, as female circumcision has not decreased in spite of laws prohibiting it in many areas of Kenya such as Meru, Kisii, Kikuyu, and Maasai. There is an urgent need on the part of NGOs and the

government to carry out major education campaigns to enlighten the affected communities on the dangers attached to this harmful practice.

According to Osofsky (1997) millions of children and adolescents all over the world are exposed to violence in their homes, schools, neighbourhoods, and through the media. The effects are also life long (Sternberg, *et al.*, 2005). A significant proportion of these youths are exposed to domestic violence-abusive behaviour used by one intimate partner to control and dominate the other. The young people exposed to this form of violence often experience short and long-term impacts that may affect their adjustment at school. Children and adolescents living with domestic violence are at risk for increased emotional and behavioural problems, including increased violent behaviour. They are also at increased risk of experiencing emotional or physical abuse. These difficulties may compromise their availability for learning and their capacity to get along with others at school.

Earlier identification of difficulties can lead to earlier and more effective support and intervention for young people and their families. Teachers are in an ideal position to identify when a pupil is having difficulty. School-based interventions and prevention initiatives can reduce risk and increase protective measures for pupils. Teachers may be the caring adults who make a difference in the lives of pupils experiencing difficulties at home. Watching, hearing or later learning of a parent being harmed by a partner threatens young people's sense of stability and security typically provided by their family.

Children and adolescents may experience strong ambivalence toward their violent parent whereby affection coexists with feelings of resentment and disappointment. Young people may imitate and learn the attitudes and behaviours modelled when IPV occurs. Exposure to violence may desensitise children and adolescents to aggressive behaviour. When this occurs, aggression becomes part of the 'norm' and is less likely to signal concern to them (Reynolds *et al.*, 2001). Some pupils may cope by intently focusing on academics, sports or social activities. They describe blocking out the troubling events at home with life at school. These young people may appear as if they have not been affected by the domestic violence. It may be more accurate, however, to view them as children and adolescents whose coping strategies foster success at school (Dawud *et al.*, 1998).

Domestic violence can severely impair a parent's ability to nurture the development of their children. Mothers who are abused may be depressed or preoccupied with the violence. They may be emotionally withdrawn or numb, irritable or have feelings of hopelessness. The result can be a parent who is less emotionally available to their children or unable to care for their children's basic needs. Battering fathers are less affectionate, less available, and less rational in dealing with their children. Studies even suggest that battered women may use more punitive child-rearing strategies or exhibit aggression toward their children (Gracier & Herrero, 2007; Thackery *et al.*, 2007; Byrne & Taylor, 2007).

When children cannot depend on their parents or caregivers - for emotional support and for practical support - their development can be seriously delayed or in severe cases, permanently distorted. Children without an emotionally available parent may withdraw from relationships and social activities (Reynolds *et al.*, 2001). Since childhood is the time when social skills and attitudes are learned, domestic violence can affect their ability to form relationships for the rest of their lives. Parents who have been traumatized by violence must cope with their own trauma before they are able to help their children.

Any attempts to address the problems may consider the tier of needs and interventions of Hardiker, Exton and Barker (1991). The tier is based on the principle that at each level children have access to all the services in the tiers below and additional services relevant to that tier and that movement up the tier is based on assessment. The study proposes frequent assessment of the children counselling needs based on the level of domestic violence they are exposed to. Keeping of domestic violence vulnerability register for slum children is therefore recommended.

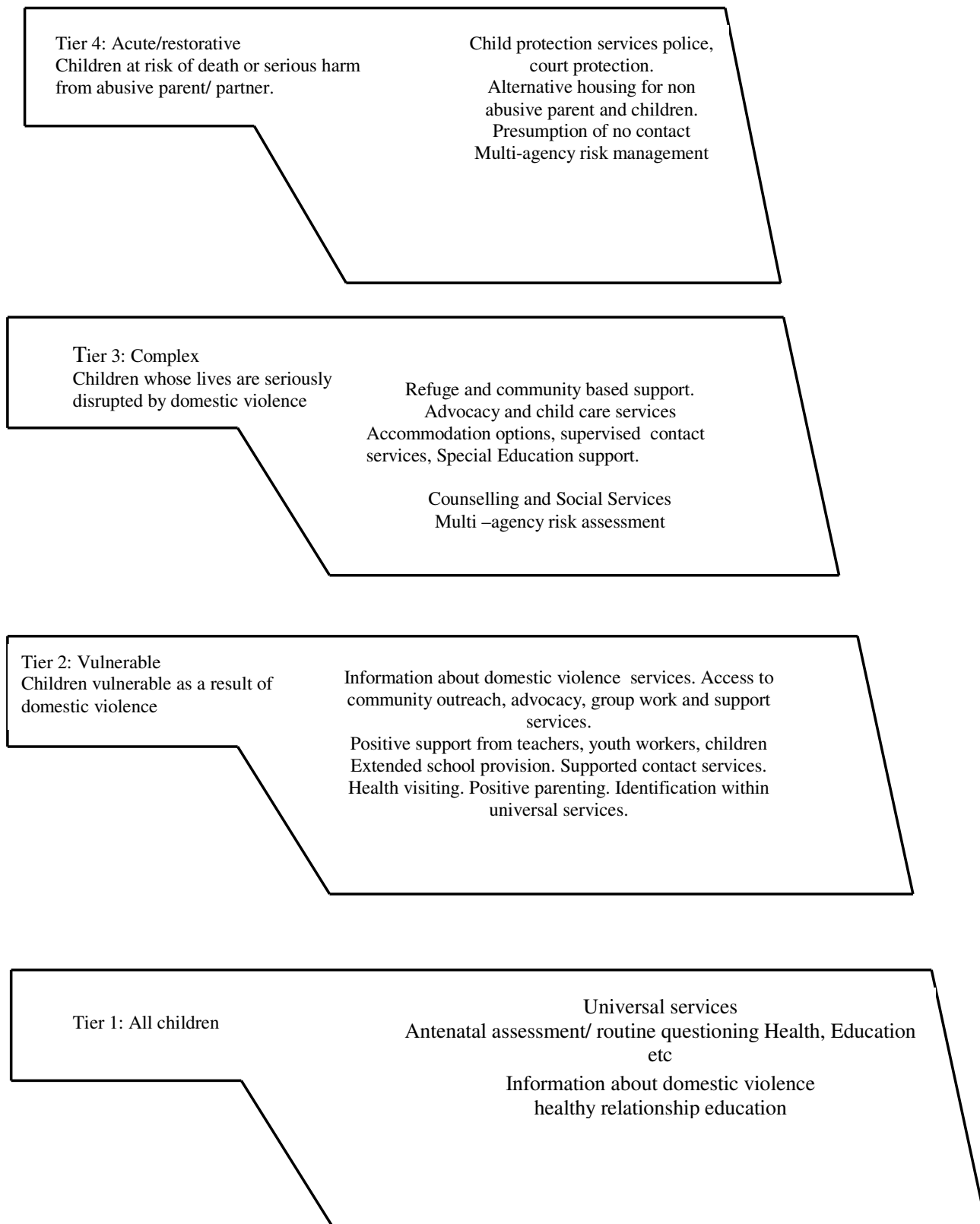


Figure 5: Tier and intervention framework for addressing effects of domestic violence among children (Adopted from Hardiker, Exton and Barker (1991))

In addressing domestic violence and its effect on pupils' academic performance and school participation, efforts should be made to ensure that:

- interventions facilitate the maintenance of healthy lifestyles that promote good physical, emotional and spiritual wellbeing;
- children live in a safe, secure and tolerant community where they are protected from harm, abuse, harassment and neglect;
- children achieve their full potential with appropriate opportunities for learning and participation in a range of sporting and cultural activities within their environment;
- children contribute to their local community, are enabled to have their voice heard and are valued as responsible citizens; and
- children are able to grow up in a loving, stable environment.

Exposure to domestic violence can have serious negative effects on children. These effects may include behavioral problems such as aggression, phobias, insomnia, low self-esteem, and depression. Children exposed to domestic violence may demonstrate poor academic performance and problem-solving skills, and low levels of empathy. Exposure to chronic or extreme domestic violence may result in symptoms consistent with posttraumatic stress disorder, such as emotional numbing, increased arousal, avoidance of any reminders of the violent event, or obsessive and repeated focus on the event. Retrospective studies indicate that there may also be negative effects in adulthood including depression, low self-esteem, violent practices in the home, and criminal behavior.

The effects of domestic violence can vary tremendously from one child to the next. The family situation, community environment, and the child's own personality may either strengthen the child's ability to cope or increase the risk of harm. For example, there are studies that indicate that children exposed to both domestic violence and child maltreatment typically show higher levels of distress than children exposed only to domestic violence. This study did not investigate predisposing factors and therefore further research is needed to determine if the presence of other stressors such as poverty, homelessness, substance abuse, and exposure to community violence exacerbate the negative effects of exposure to domestic violence. The slum environment is a host to these factors. Not all children exposed to violence suffer significant harmful effects. Based on research presented in the article by Oreopoulos (2003) and Mullender (2004) concerning children's resilience in the face of

violence and trauma, it is likely that the most critical protective factor for a child is the existence of a strong, positive relationship between the child and a competent and caring adult. Children exposed to violence need to be able to speak openly with a sympathetic adult about their fears and concerns, and also, ideally, have someone intervene to improve the situation.

Parents who are victims of chronic domestic violence may feel emotionally numb, depressed, irritable, or uncommunicative, and thus may be less emotionally available to their children. In cases of domestic violence, in which one parent is a victim of the violence and the other is the perpetrator, children may be even less able to turn to their parents for support and reassurance. The limited research to date on resilience and exposure to domestic violence indicates that maternal functioning, particularly as it relates to the mother's emotional availability, may be critical to children's ability to cope with the exposure. Victims of IPV, especially battered mothers may be less emotionally available to their children because they are preoccupied with the violence and trying to stay safe, and/or because they are experiencing depression. Their parenting practices may be compromised in other ways as well. Studies of battered women's patterns of affectionate or aggressive conduct toward their children either reveal no differences when compared with control groups, or suggest that battered women may use more punitive child-rearing strategies or exhibit aggression toward their children (Reynolds *et al.*, 2001). The limited research to date on the relationship between battering fathers and their children indicates that these fathers may be less available to their children and be less likely to engage in rational discuss.

Schechter and Ganley (1995) provide guidelines helpful for teachers dealing with troubling behaviours regardless of whether domestic violence is a factor. Young people often have confused or mixed feelings about the batterer. They may hate the abuser but like the 'fun' times they also share with the abusive parent. Children and adolescents can feel very angry at and loyal to a parent at the same time. If you criticise the offending parent, feelings of loyalty and protectiveness towards the parent may cause the youth to feel that he or she cannot talk about the abuse.

Children should be protected from all forms of abuse and neglect due to their helpless position in the society. This would be through involving all actors-NGOs, CBOs, FBOs, individuals, families, and philanthropists. A return to Education Trust Fund to assist orphans

to get shelter and food for the orphaned and vulnerable children (OVCs) who could be children in abusive environments or children from families experiencing domestic violence. A lot of support from government should be put into place so that they can enforce policies that address the effects of domestic violence on children who are most vulnerable since they are still young and dependent and also have no choice. This can best be done through a multi-sectoral approach like urging the government to support policies and be enforced. This is the mainstreaming of issues affecting children in all sectors-health, social services, education, justice and constitutional affairs ministry. There should be emphasise on community care rather than on institutional care system so that children are not confined into institutions which are cold and with no parental or sibling warmth.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary, conclusions, and recommendations that have been made in this study to address domestic violence and its influence on pupils' academic performance and school participation.

5.2 Summary

The study investigated the nature and prevalence of different types of domestic violence and its influence on pupils' academic performance and school participation in Kiandutu slum. School participation was operationalized as school attendance, pupils' behavior patterns, and number of school going children who were out of school, class participation and school dropout rates. Academic performance was operationalized by pupils' academic records for one year. The study was based on the premise that violence between spouses or IPV usually has far reaching consequences on children through short-term as well as long-term emotional imbalances, which not only affect their behaviour and performance in schools, but also may adversely affect their social and interpersonal relationships. While domestic violence has been recognised as one of the most entrenched and pervasive forms of violence in Kenya today, its effects on school going children have yet to receive the same degree of attention. Despite the introduction of FPE about 20% of school aged children in Kenyan urban slums including Kiandutu have dropped out of school. The purpose of this study was to explore domestic violence and establish its influence on academic performance and school participation of pupils in Kiandutu slum.

The study focussed on the forms of domestic violence in relation to spousal and child abuse regarding verbal, psychological/emotional, physical, and sexual and child labour. This study also looked at pupils' academic performance and school participation indicators such as attendance/absenteeism, pupils' behaviour patterns, class participation and the number of children (school children) out of school. The study adopted a cross-sectional survey design. The target population of the study consisted of all households living in Kiandutu slum numbering about 700 with children (about 3710) going to the five main local primary schools namely: Garissa Road, General Kago, Kianjau, Athena and Mugumo-ini primary schools. A

total of 80 households were sampled using simple random sampling technique. A total of 154 pupils were tracked in the study.

The elements of IPV prevalent in the slum include verbal abuse, physical violence, severe physical violence, emotional/psychological abuse and sexual abuse. This study also showed a consistent set of responses of child abuse in the form of child neglect when spouses disagree. This neglect ranged from failure to provide food and other basic necessities to failure to provide emotionally to children by the spouse involved by disappearing from home. This was reported to impinge negatively on the affected children's academic performance and school participation especially on attendance as spouses reported that during those instances the children were unable to attend school.

Various forms of child abuse including child neglect by spouse, verbal threats by spouse and children involvement in disagreements were also prevalent. Out of the 154 pupils tracked, 30 pupils' academic performance, school attendance, class participation, discipline and behavioural patterns were silent because they had already dropped out of school. For the rest, majority of both girls and boys indicated an average level of academic performance. Only 2.2% of boys had an excellent performance and a 0% for girls. As far as pupils' school participation is concerned, majority of pupils tracked showed an average and a good record in school attendance with girls showing a lower level of attendance. Majority of pupils showed an average level in class participation. Class participation comprised the level of pupil asking or answering questions and how the pupil was attentive in class. Discipline of the pupil included how she/he obeyed or disobeyed the set school rules and regulations. The study found that domestic violence negatively affects school participation of pupils coming from the slums.

This study has documented the nature and extent of domestic violence in Kiandutu slum and its influence on pupils' academic performance and school participation. Domestic violence, among households of different socio-economic background in the slums negatively influences academic performance and school participation of children. To prepare for effective interventions against domestic violence and mitigate its influence on pupils' academic performance and school participation, it is important that broad dissemination of the analysis of social relations and their complexity as well as further research using an accepted domestic violence recording framework of analysis be undertaken.

5.3 Conclusions

1. There are significant gender differences in the prevalence of verbal abuse, physical abuse, severe physical abuse and perceived child abuse. There are no significant gender differences in emotional and sexual abuse from the study. Significant difference exist in the extent of occurrence of many of the various forms of domestic violence according to age of respondent as well as in prevalence of all forms of domestic violence according to age except for emotional violence and mild physical abuse. All forms of violence are most prevalent among the two middle age groups (25 – 30 years and 30 – 40 years). This study showed high incidences of domestic violence among spouses between 25-40 years of age (98.7%). This study also showed that IPV decreased with age which implied that the younger the spouse, the higher the incidence of domestic violence.
2. Different households' socio-economic background factors influence domestic violence differently. There are significant differences in the extent of occurrence of all forms of domestic violence according to marital status of the respondent except for severe physical abuse and emotional violence. There was no evidence to show any significant differences in all forms of domestic violence based on duration of marriage except for child abuse and sexual abuse. According to level of education there is no evidence to show significant difference except for emotional violence.
3. There is a significant but negative correlation between domestic violence and pupils' school attendance. The decision to attend school is often made by parents or may be a reflection of a child emotional and physical well-being. When faced with domestic violence and its trauma, children have low school attendance due to possible medical, social and physical problems.
4. There is a strong negative correlation between domestic violence and pupil's academic performance. Domestic violence therefore has the effect of reducing performance by pupils. Apart from mainstream cognitive factors that influence performance, domestic violence hinders ability of pupils to achieve as it reduces their participation in school, attendance, self-esteem and interaction with other pupils and teachers.

5. There is a negative correlation between domestic violence and pupils' class participation. This is the result of possible self-esteem influences and fear of reprisal by the children to be active in class.

6. Domestic violence significantly and negatively influences pupil's school behavioural patterns due to the link between abuse and concurrent behavior of children. The aggressive and delinquent behaviours in affected children indicate the extent of problems suffered at home from direct child abuse by one or both parents or indirect abuse, such as exposure to domestic violence.

5.4 Recommendations

The study made the following recommendations:

1. Owing to the widespread prevalence of various forms of domestic violence in the slums, different education sector stakeholders should address domestic violence as a social vice in order to improve academic performance and school participation of children coming from the slum areas. This would be through mainstreaming domestic violence in social work, education and school management and can be achieved through:
 - Specific inclusion of domestic violence within delivery of core national curriculum subjects.
 - Greater awareness of the impact and issues relating to children, households and domestic violence in slum areas.
 - Acknowledgement of the wider implications for children as victims and improved access to support with a more child-centred approach to guidance and counseling.
 - Appropriate training for teachers and school administrators should increase awareness about domestic violence, as well as how to ask about it. It should enable exploration of fears and concerns, and provide knowledge and resources including use of safety planning and referral to local advocacy and social support services.
 - Good multi-agency relationships and referral systems are necessary for routine enquiry to enable safe disclosure and provide further support for the spouses concerned.

- Close working relationships with specialized domestic abuse agencies such as the Coalition on Violence against Women (COVAW), Thika Integration Centre (TIC) and the police should be established prior to the introduction of routine enquiry.
2. Research is needed that advances the current understanding of the prevalence and effects of childhood exposure to domestic violence, and the impact of resilience and risk factors, so that policymakers and practitioners can design interventions sufficient to address the size, nature, and complexity of the problem.
 3. Routine screening of families for the presence of domestic violence which can be done through school based violence screening questionnaire should be adopted.
 4. Education policy makers, school administrators, teachers, local administrators, social workers and non governmental organisations (NGOs) should formulate strategies for addressing the ills of domestic violence and encourage socially inclusive intervention mechanisms within the slum areas. The legislative framework should incorporate protective laws against domestic violence and school participation, basic education rights and regulations. This study also recommends further research in order to investigate the pre-disposing factors that may exacerbate the influence of domestic violence on pupil's academic performance and school participation in the slum areas.

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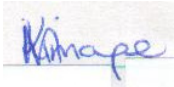
APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: INTRODUCTORY LETTER TO RESPONDENTS

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Marion C. Kanuri, a student at Egerton University undertaking a Masters degree in Guidance and Counselling. I am carrying out a study on Domestic Violence and its influence on Pupils' Academic Performance and School Participation. My main aim is to establish the facts and be able to offer suggestions on how the effects of domestic violence on pupil's school participation can be reduced. The exercise is not aimed at pointing blame on those involved in domestic violence for their children's performance, but it is simply to examine the dynamics of these relationships. The questions are straightforward and your response will be kept completely confidential and anonymous. Please give your honest and comprehensive responses to all the questions.

Thank you very much for your time and participation.



Marion C. Kanuri.

APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HOUSEHOLD HEAD

1. This questionnaire is divided into three parts. Part I requires general information about yourself. Part II is on domestic violence involving the spouses and children and part III is on information about your child (ren).
2. You are requested to answer all questions either by ticking (✓) or by providing the information requested.
3. The information provided will be treated with the utmost confidentiality.

PART I- BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

1. Your age in years

- Below 25
- 25 - 30
- 31 – 40
- 41 – 50
- Above 50

2. Sex

- Male
- Female

3. Marital status

- Single (unmarried)
- Married
- Divorced
- Widowed
- Others (specify)

If married, for how long have you been staying together?

- 0-5 years
- 5-10 years
- 10-15 years
- 15-20 years
- Above 20years

4. Education level

- Below standard eight
- Standard eight
- Form four
- University

5. Employment.

- Casual (wage employment)
- Salaried
- Business
- Others (specify

PART II (A): INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE (IPV)

Many people have been in relationships in which they have been physically, emotionally, sexually and verbally abused by a spouse or a partner. I know this is a personal question but I am asking it because it is important to understand more about these types of domestic violence.

List A- Verbal abuse

Threaten to hit.

Yell at

Sulk or refuse to talk

Insult or swear

Belittle

Humiliate

1. People handle disagreements in many different ways. Looking at list A, when you have a disagreement with your spouse/ partner, how often do you do any of the things on this list?

- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

2. How often does he/she do any of these things in List A to you?

- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

List B – Physical violence

Push, grab or shove,

Throw something,

Slap or spank.

3. Looking at list B, when you have a disagreement with your spouse/ partner, how often do you do any of the things on this list to him/ her?

- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

4. How often does he/she do any of these things in list B to you?

- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

List C – Severe physical violence

Kick bite or hit with a fist.

Hit or try to hit with something

Beat up

Choke

Burn or scald

5. Looking at list C, when you have a disagreement with your spouse/ partner, how often do you do any of the things in list C to him or her?

- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

6. How often do he/ she do any of these things in list C to you?

- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

List D – Emotional / Psychological abuse.

Closely monitor

Neglect/ spurn

Shame

Reject

Chase away / lock-out

7. Looking at list D, when you have a disagreement with your spouse / partner, how often do you do any of the things in list D to him or her?

- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

8. How often do he/ she do any of these things in list D to you?

- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

List E – Sexual abuse
Sexual insults
Rape
Suspect S.T.D / S.T.I
Unwanted sexual touch

9. Looking at list E when you have a disagreement with your spouse/ partner, how often do you do any of the things in list E to him or her?

- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

10. How often do he/ she do any of these things in list E to you?

- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

(B). CHILD ABUSE

1. Do you feel violence from your spouse affects your child's or children's performance?

- Yes
- No

2. If yes what makes you think so? (Please specify)

3. Do you find your child/ children not able to attend school regularly because of violence from your spouse?

- Yes
- No

4. If yes how does it happen? (Please specify)

5. Do you feel violence from your spouse affect your child's / children's behaviors at school? E.g. being rude to teachers, beating other children etc.

- Yes
- No

6. If yes specify please

7. Have you been called to school in the recent past to discuss you child's / children's behavior in school?

- Yes
- No

8. If yes, do you feel it was as a result of violence from your spouse? (Please specify)

9. When you disagree with your spouse do you involve your child/ children?

- Yes
- No

10. If yes, how do you involve them? (Please specify)

11. Does your spouse threaten to harm your child/ children when you disagree?

- Yes
- No


12. If yes how do he / she do it? (Please specify)


13. Does your spouse neglect your child / children when you disagree?

- Yes
- No

14. If yes, how do he/ she do it? (Please specify).

APPENDIX C: COPY OF RESEARCH PERMIT

<p align="center">PAGE 2</p> <p>THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:</p> <p>Prof./Dr./Mr./Mrs./Miss..... MARION C. KANURI</p> <p>of (Address)..... EGERTON UNIVERSITY P.O. BOX 536 NJORO</p> <p>has been permitted to conduct Research in..... THIKA MUNICIPALITY Location THIKA District, CENTRAL Province, DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AND ITS EFFECT ON PUPILS ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE AND SCHOOL PARTICIPATION: A CASE STUDY OF KIANDUTU SLUM - THIKA MUNICIPALITY KENYA</p> <p>for a period ending 30TH SEPTEMBER, 2007</p>	<p align="center">PAGE 3</p> <p>Research Permit No. MOST 13/001/37C 423</p> <p>Date of issue..... 16.7.2007</p> <p>Fee received..... SHS. 500.00</p> <div style="text-align: center;">  <p>PERMANENT SECRETARY MINISTRY OF EDUCATION SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY</p> <p>M. C. ONDTERIT</p> <p>Permanent Secretary Ministry of Science and Technology</p> </div> <p>Applicant's Signature</p>
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<p align="center">CONDITIONS</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. You must report to the District Commissioner and the District Education Officer of the area before embarking on your research. Failure to do that may lead to the cancellation of your permit. 2. Government Officers will not be interviewed without prior appointment. 3. No questionnaire will be used unless it has been approved. 4. Excavation, filming and collection of biological specimens are subject to further permission from the relevant Government Ministries. 5. You are required to submit at least two(2)/four(4) bound copies of your final report for Kenyans and non-Kenyans respectively. 6. The Government of Kenya reserves the right to modify the conditions of this permit including its cancellation without notice <p align="left">GPK 6055—3m—10/2003</p>	<div style="text-align: center;">  <p>REPUBLIC OF KENYA</p> <hr style="width: 20%; margin: auto;"/> <p>RESEARCH CLEARANCE PERMIT</p> </div> <p align="center">(CONDITIONS—see back page)</p>
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