

CAUSES AND EFFECTS OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE: A CONCEPTUAL MODEL ON THE PERFORMANCE AT WORK

Syazliana Astrah Mohd Idris
Johor Empowerment of Intellectual Women Association,
Ministry of Women, Family and Society Development, Johor Bahru, Johor, Malaysia
researchjeiwa@gmail.com

Nurul Nadia Abd Aziz
Faculty of Business Management, Universiti Teknologi MARA Pahang
Raub Campus, Pahang, Malaysia
nurul_nadia@pahang.uitm.edu.my

Raja Kamariah Raja Mohd Khalid
Department of Women's Development
Ministry of Women, Family and Society Development, Johor Bahru, Johor, Malaysia
rajakamariah@jpw.gov.my

Nor Fadillah Mohamed Nizar,
Johor Empowerment of Intellectual Women Association,
Ministry of Women, Family and Society Development, Johor Bahru, Johor, Malaysia
presidentjeiwa@gmail.com

Khalillah A. Rasip,
Johor Empowerment of Intellectual Women Association,
Ministry of Women, Family and Society Development, Johor Bahru, Johor, Malaysia
legaljeiwa@gmail.com

Wahida Ayub
Johor Empowerment of Intellectual Women Association,
Ministry of Women, Family and Society Development, Johor Bahru, Johor, Malaysia
corporatejeiwa@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

This paper was prepared as part of the Domestic Violence (DV) Against Women Research Project conducted by Johor Empowerment of Intellectual Women Association (JEIWA) Research and Development (R&D) with the support of Department of Women's Development. The purpose of this paper is to propose a framework in investigating the factors that contribute to the prevalence of DV against woman and its influence on the performance at work. Violence against women deprives women of their right to fully take part in social and economic life. It causes a myriad of physical and mental health issues. An extensive investigation of related literature and a structured self-administered online survey is employed targeting woman in Malaysia. A conceptual framework was developed using the Gendered Resource and Socio-Cultural Integration Theories to describe several attitudes and behaviors which are used to support its relationship with performance at work. The findings from this research could help policy makers, authorized agencies and non-governmental organizational leaders to strategize and adequately craft a suitable and high impact program that suits the target groups' needs and lifestyle.

Keywords: domestic violence; performance; victims; perpetrators; violent behaviour.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Domestic violence (hereinafter referred to as DV) is a global problem that crosses cultural, geographic, religious, social and economic boundaries and is a violation of human rights. Violence against women deprives women of their right to fully take part in social and economic life. It causes a myriad of physical and mental health issues and in some cases results in loss of life. A lack of understanding of the magnitude of DV, its causes and consequences, and the trends and patterns across cultures, hinders the development of efforts to address it.

Very little has been known about the prevalence of domestic violence in Malaysia and there has been a real need for evidence to learn more about the prevalence, causes and consequences of DV, and in particular to inform policy directions. To address this lack of data, Johor Empowerment of Intellectual Woman Association (JEIWA) specifically JEIWA's Research and Development (R&D) with the support of Department of Women's Development initiated a research project on understanding violence against women in Malaysia.

DV is a complicated and difficult issue to study and the research findings are inconsistent (Khan, 2015). DV against women which encompasses physical, mental, financial, sexual and spiritual abuse that disproportionately impact on women, is a violation of women's fundamental rights with respect to dignity, equality and access to justice. Its impact stretches beyond those women who are themselves victims of violence, since it affects families, friends and society as a whole.

According to statistics released by the Malaysian Royal Police in Parliament last session, 62,670 domestic violence cases were reported from 2000 to January 2017 with an estimated 3,800 cases per year equivalent to 323 cases per month (Parliament of Malaysia, 2017). Based on the latest statistics in 2016 that are sourced from the Royal Malaysia Police and Ministry of Women, Family and Community Development, urgent attention is needed to study this matter because the data showed that cases of domestic violence are increasing every year, and has been recorded as the highest form of violence against women in Malaysia for more than a decade.

The majority of husband's attitude that abused their wives is a very sad phenomenon. The reasons of this violent behaviour include lack of harmony and understanding between partner, different family backgrounds, financial problems, extreme jealousy, mental disorders and lack of religion (WHO, 2013; Isgandarova, 2017; Khan, 2015). Although various steps have been taken by governmental and enforcement agencies as well as non-governmental organisations (NGOs), the problem of DV is still at its most serious level.

Hence, what causes DV? Why the percentages of DV rising despite the various campaigns, awareness programs and enforcement of the act have been carried out? What are the psychological effects faced by victims as a result of domestic violence? The question arises as how victims of this violence are still able to survive in this tragic life environment and affect their performance especially at the workplace? Are most victims working, professional women or full-time housewives that are too dependent on men in terms of financial and emotional support? Do these women have no support chain other than their husbands? Does this woman have a personality problem, psychology or mental illness so willing to let herself being abused? There are many more questions that cannot be answered and resolved even though the issue of violence against women has long been widespread. There are many studies and many interventions regarding domestic violence have been conducted but the problem continues to rise in today's society. Therefore, researchers intend to examine about the factors that cause the domestic violence against women and its relationship to the performance at work. Researchers believe that clearly identifying the causes of DV against women can provide a more specific picture of the psychological impact the victim receives. Moreover, the form of effective and efficient support that the victim needs in facing the problem of domestic violence can also be identified.

2.0 WHAT CAUSES DOMESTIC VIOLENCE (DV)?

Previous studies found that domestic violence can happen to anyone regardless of gender, in which both women (Afifi, Al-Muhaideb, Hadish, Ismail, & Al-Qeamy, 2011; Olorunsaiye, Brunner, Laditka, Kulkarni, & Boyd, 2017; Unal, Koc, Unal, Akcan, & Javan, 2016) and men (Caetano, Vaeth, & Ramisetty-Mikler, 2008; Reingle, Staras, Jennings, Branchini, & Maldonado-molina, 2013) have the potential to become victims of abuse. In fact, the study also found that the victim of abuse also involved pregnant women (Coutinho et al., 2015; Ergönen et al., 2009; Felker-Kantor, Wallace, & Theall, 2017; Janssen et al., 2003; Ludermir, Lewis, Valongueiro, De Araújo, & Araya, 2010). Thus, the current

study posed question that focus on asking the characteristics shared by all victims of domestic violence. However, this study will discuss specifically on female victims only.

2.1 VICTIM CHARACTERISTICS

The core characteristics of domestic violence victims detected by many researchers is that they have low level of education (Coutinho et al., 2015; Naved, 2013; Shuib et al., 2013) and have low participation in income generating activities (Naved, 2013; Pickover et al., 2017). Some researchers agree on the status of housewives has been equated with female powerlessness (Hotaling & Sugarman, 1986). In other words, a housewife and a man who solely breadwinner may reflect male dominance (Caetano et al., 2008). On the other hand, there are also researchers who find that the victim is made up of those who attended or completed college (Pickover et al., 2017) and have high income (Khawaja, Linos, & El-Roueiheb, 2008) or at least have permanent employment status (MacGregor, Wathen, & MacQuarrie, 2016).

There is also a study that identifies victims' traits by taking into account the body mass index (BMI) before pregnancy. The study found that the majority of the victims were comprised of those with low / normal weight, followed by those who were overweight and obese (Coutinho et al., 2015). In terms of age of the victim, older individuals are less likely to be victims (Caetano et al., 2008; Khawaja et al., 2008; Shuib et al., 2013; Unal et al., 2016). Domestic violence is also said to be related to rural community (Devries et al., 2011; Ghimire, Axinn, & Smith-Greenaway, 2015; Kaur & Garg, 2010; Naved, 2013; Speizer, 2011; Tetikcok et al., 2016). However, there are also studies who found that domestic violence happens regardless of place of residence either rural or urban (Leonardsson & San Sebastian, 2017; Naved, 2013; Semahegn & Mengistie, 2015).

More interestingly, there are studies that found women who have positive attitude toward wife beating (Khawaja et al., 2008; Speizer, 2011). A study done by Khawaja and colleagues (2008) woman show a positive attitude towards the behavior of wife-beating if women who are deliberately disobeys what the husband asks of her, disrespecting his family, goes out in public alone, behaves in a way he dislikes, and speaks in a hostile way to him. A recent study done by Leonardsson and San Sebastian (2017) explained that witnessing violence between parents while growing up is an example of a personal history that may affect women's accepting attitude toward wife-beating. These findings has received widespread support from most scholars (Devries et al., 2011; Hotaling & Sugarman, 1986).

Many researchers also claim that victims of domestic violence often comprised of those who have poor communication skills (Gangoli, Razak, & Mccarry, 2006; Ludermir et al., 2010; Semahegn & Mengistie, 2015; Shuib et al., 2013; Walker, Bowen, Brown, & Sleath, 2015). No or little inter-spousal communication significantly increases the likelihood of becoming a victim of violence (Semahegn & Mengistie, 2015). Ineffective communication can lead to confusion, disagreements and provocation (Khan, 2015). This is in line with researches conducted by scholars (Eigenberg & Garland, 2003; Pavlou & Knowles, 2001) who found that provocation by a wife (victim) towards a husband (perpetrator) would lead to less sympathy for the wife whereby verbal abuse begins and increase the risk of physical abuse. This weak communication problem also caused the victims of the violence to refuse to seek help (Ahmad, Driver, McNally, & Stewart, 2009; Hamberger, Ambuel, Marbella, & Donze, 1998; Khan, 2015; Leonardsson & San Sebastian, 2017; Loke, Emma Wan, & Hayter, 2012; Oon et al., 2016). Some other researchers (Ahmad et al., 2009; Loke et al., 2012) highlighted that women with experiences of domestic violence delay help-seeking or reluctant to seek help because of social stigma, marriage obligations, loss of social support and afraid of being ridiculed or ignored. Some scholars believe that women tend to share information about their partners' behaviour with individuals who are close with them because this problem is consider as a private matter (Oon et al., 2016).

2.2 PERPETRATOR CHARACTERISTICS

In Malaysia, the main causes of domestic violence are hot-tempered attitude among perpetrators (Johari, 2017). Moreover, this act of physical aggression tends to be more severe and more likely to lead to serious harm when the perpetrator is drunk. Besides, the psychological characteristics (e.g., jealousy, attitudes toward violence, etc.), psychopathology relationship characteristics (e.g., marital satisfaction) also associated with the characteristics of domestic violence actors (Cools & Kotsadam, 2017; Kernsmith & Tolman, 2011; Stith, Smith, Penn, Ward, & Tritt, 2004). Specifically, low marital satisfaction was identified as a risk factor for DV (Stith, Green, Smith, Ward, 2008).

Other features for perpetrators of domestic violence are those under the influence of alcohol (Caetano et al., 2008; Duke, Pettingell, McMorris, & Borowsky, 2010; Gonzalez, Connell, Businelle, Jennings, & Chartier, 2014; Kaur & Garg, 2010; Mahapatro, Gupta, & Gupta, 2012; Reingle et al., 2013), and drug or marijuana abuses (Fergusson, John Horwood, & Ridder, 2005; Gonzalez et al., 2014; Stith et al., 2004; Zinzow et al., 2009).

Some studies linking violent behavior by perpetrators are due to they have been exposed to parental violence while growing up (Hotaling & Sugarman, 1986; Stith et al., 2004). If parents handle stress and disappointment with anger and aggression, children who have grown up in such an environment are at higher risk to exhibit the same behavior as witnessed (Mihalic & Elliott, 1997) which could lead to mental instability. This finding is supported by Kapoor, (2000) who highlighted that violence can be learned as a way of resolving conflict and affirming the fairness of children who have witnessed such conflict resolution patterns. Individuals suffering from mental instability have a higher risk of abusing their partners (Eckhardt, 2011, Birkley & Eckhardt, 2015).

A perpetrator's level of education seems to have an impact on victim's experiences of violence. A meta-analysis of perpetrator characteristics for DV against women showed that younger, less educated, and less affluent men were more likely to abuse their partners than were older, more educated, and more affluent men (Stith, Smith, Penn & Ward, 2004). The pattern of this trend is consistent across education groups in which the higher the perpetrator's education, the lower the prevalence of violent behavior.

3.0 EFFECTS OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE (DV)

The effects of DV are massive. They range from the physical health impacts to psychological and emotional problems. Battered women are not the only persons who suffer the damage wrought by domestic violence. In most cases, children are found to be very vulnerable to the long term effects of family violence, just like the mothers themselves.

3.1 HEALTH EFFECTS

The main stream of domestic violence research is related to the consequences on the violence survivors. This issue is more discussed by medical researchers with the scope of their study were more focused on the impact of violence on the victims' health consequences (Flury, Nyberg, & Riecher-Rössler, 2010; Hamberger et al., 1998; Mukashema, 2014; Ramsay, Richardson, Carter, Davidson, & Feder, 2002; Rodriguez, Quiroga, & Bauer, 1996; Sukeri & Man, 2017; Tetikcok et al., 2016). Some researchers found that continuous occurrences of domestic violence might affects victims' health such as bleeding, miscarriage, dizziness, vaginal bleeding, unwanted pregnant, having problems in their movement, suffering from various illnesses, losing a lot of weight and sexually transmitted diseases including HIV (Afifi et al., 2011; García-moreno, Claudia; Jansen, Henrica; Ellsberg, Mary; Heise, Lori; and Watts, 2005; Kapoor, 2000; Naved, 2013; Semahegn & Mengistie, 2015). However, some researchers have identified this kind of unwanted behaviour as short-term effect of DV in which the effect would gradually disappear as the physical wound heals. This commonly occurs when both husband and his wife insist to demonstrate the power when troubled. Consequently, physical fight occurs, and the physically-fit partner runs the show. The outcomes include bleeding from cuts and bruises, dislocated joints and, in the worst case, fracture of the bone (Ergönen et al., 2009; Kapoor, 2000; MacGregor et al., 2016; Özçakar, Yeşiltepe, Karaman, & Ergönen, 2016; Özçakar et al., 2016). At this point, the DV constitutes of a criminal act and should be referred the relevant law-authority. When the induced injury case is severe and need hospitalization, it also causes financial burden to the family. Nevertheless, the short-term effects gradually disappear as the physical wound heals.

Apart from the impact on physical health, previous researchers also reported that female survivors of domestic violence were also affected in terms of mental health such as depression, fear, anxiety, low self-esteem, obsessive-compulsive disorder, and post-traumatic stress disorder (Kapoor, 2000; Leonardsson & San Sebastian, 2017; Pickover et al., 2017). These effects are known as long-term effects that are more severe and affect the victim, their children and the close family members. The verbal abuse, executed either through excessive intonation, threatening statements and/or vulgar remarks could easily induce psychological trauma (Golu, 2014; Kapoor, 2000; Lancet, 2016). Such behaviour indicates the lack of respect and inability to manage anger and stressful state of mind. The effect is manifested in emotional distress leading to sadness, feeling inferior and loss of motivation.

3.2 DOMESTIC VIOLENCE (DV) AND WORK EFFECTS

In a report produced by Australia National Domestic Violence and the Workplace Survey, from 3,600 respondents, nearly half of the respondents who faced domestic violence admitted that the violence affect their capacity to get to work (McFerran, 2011). During their previous relationship, 70% experience refraining actions from their partners to go to work which affects their performance and productivity at work. Women who live in domestic violence situation are force to get out of their home which impact on their daily routines such as missing their personal belongings during force evacuations or managing child care issues. 16% of the respondents are feeling exhausted, unwell or distracted to work and 7% being late to work.

Various studies have shown that behavior of perpetrators against victims affects women's performance at work. The victim's report proves that they are disturbed, tired and unwell, need time for treatment or legal reason, late for work, and too disappointed to work (Crowne, Juon, Ensminger, Burrell, McFarlane & Duggan, 2011; McFerran, 2011, Swanberg & Macke, 2006). Not only that, the problem can be more serious if the perpetrator also interferes with the victim at work that can cause colleagues to be distracted. This may result in the victim losing her job (Showalter, 2016). In addition, the victims also face risks with workplace accidents that would affect employers.

There has been very little research about the effects of domestic violence on the performance at work in Malaysia. Previous studies that have been conducted with regard to domestic violence factors (Awang & Hariharan, 2011) and related issues (Shuib et al., 2013) as well as in accessing reliability and validity of WHO questionnaire (Saddki, Sulaiman, Ali, Tengku Hassan, Abdullah, Ab Rahman & Baharudin, 2013) including recent reports on the perspective of domestic violence conducted by Women Aid Organization in Malaysia. To date, there is lack of research investigates the impact of domestic violence on the performance at work, this literature review found no research has been documented in Malaysia that specifically examines the impact of domestic violence on the performance at work.

3.3 UNDERPINNING THEORIES

Domestic violence has been approached within various frameworks and viewpoints. These frameworks provide knowledge as well as understanding regarding violence problems. There are two general theoretical levels that underpinned this study; the first is the Gendered Resource Theory and the second is from the perspective of sociocultural.

3.3.1 GENDERED RESOURCE THEORY

Understanding the predictors of domestic violence (DV) is the longstanding goals of macro social research. This stream of research has several key components. Drawing on Atkinson, Greenstein, and Lang (2005) work, there are three general versions of theories on how resources affect the prevalence of domestic violence against woman. Two social structural views generally used to describe domestic violence against women are resource theory and relative resource theory. The level of resources has been identified as the primary predictor of DV against women. According to these authors, resource theory refers to married men who have few resources to offer while for relative resource theory refers to those married men who have fewer resources than their wives.

Specifically, both theories reflect the possession of resources as the primary predictor of domestic violence against women, which is typically operationalized as education, earnings, or employment. The perpetrators use violence to gain obedience and compliance in the absence of resources (Atkinson, Greenstein, & Lang, 2005) as they view it as a power base, as an alternative to material resources. Relatively more women resources could increase violence due to the stress caused by status instability (Heise, 2011; Gracia & Merlo; 2016). On the other hand, scholars have recently argued that relatively less women resources could lead to more violence due to marital dependency (Davis & Greenstein, 2009). Extending this logic, resource theory has been refined to maximize the prediction that husbands' gender ideologies are critical, where the degree to which men hold breadwinner ideals is important. Gender ideologies are how one identifies oneself with regard to marital status which range from 'traditional' (viewed by the belief that husbands should be primary breadwinners and wives should remain at home) to 'egalitarian' (viewed by the belief that women's share in total household income is crucial). Thus, gender ideology acts as a lens whereby individuals view their social world and make decisions.

In keeping with these views, Atkinson et al. (2005), who observed the husband's gender ideology and its relationship with women's share of household earnings, found that the women's share in total household earnings is positively

related to risk of violence only when husband is traditional. From the view of gendered resource theory, women who are primary breadwinners and who have traditional husbands are at the highest risk of violence. Structural explanations of women abuse from these resource theories namely, resource, relative and gendered resource theory emphasize violence as compensation for husbands' shortage of resources. These theories have received wide support (Gracia & Merlo, 2016). From a social point of view, these theories say that men are the head of the family and have the power to maintain dominance in the family (Davis & Greenstein, 2009).

On top of that, gendered resource theory has been widely applied to study how economic related to gender roles increase women's risk for domestic violence. Naved (2013) investigates the magnitude and nature of domestic violence against women and the factors related in urban and rural Bangladesh. He found that women with fewer resources become economically dependent on their partners, which in turn limits their negotiating power and their ability to diminish physical violence. This argument showed the relationship between resources and violence need not be linear as increased resources could also lead to more domestic violence against women (Cools & Kotsadam, 2017; Gracia & Merlo, 2016). This statement is in line with (Rahman, Hoque, & Makinoda, 2011), that found women's empowerment does not guarantee reduction in the risk of domestic violence against women. Findings show that domestic violence, especially physical and sexual violence, is increasing despite the fact that the wife has fulfilled all her husband's requests. From the previous researches mentioned above, it is clear that domestic violence is a complicated issue to study and this research requires comprehensive approaches from community for some valuable implications. Therefore, this research deserves further investigation.

3.3.2 SOCIO CULTURAL PERSPECTIVES

Violence is not a single kind of activity, generally, it involves socially category of activities that share some common features. Violence has been described as social phenomenon. Rather than look inside the perpetrator for the causes of violence, social-cultural perspectives look in the social situation for factors that may explain why violence varies in frequency and intensity (Lawson, 2012). This study is intended to help prevent violence by highlighting the understandings of the social-cultural integration influences that could contribute in combating DV.

Individual experiences become social when they are share or communicate their experiences to others. It is the combined experiences of many individuals, shared in these ways that makes up a culture or a society. Within cultures and societies shared experiences are organized into categories of events referred to variously as concepts, constructs, and schemas (Blume, 1996). The social approach to domestic violence includes both formal and informal understandings whereby it value on the common compared to the individual experience. Because of this emphasis on shared experience in social groupings, social theories are most useful in suggesting ways in which behaviour change can be accomplished by addressing social phenomena rather than by attempting to alter the individual (Dobash & Dobash, 2015). Violence is a result of power differences between social groups (gender, social class, age). Social norms provide society with guidelines as to how people should act and how their emotions should be expressed. Therefore social norms control the power distribution within society that examines violence in terms of socially structured inequality, and social cultural norms and attitudes.

Social Learning Theory is come under socio cultural perspectives which views that children who either experience violence themselves or who witness violence between their parents are more likely to use violence when they grow up (Bandura, 1971; Mihalic & Elliott, 1997). As mentioned earlier, family institution is a crucial foundation in the whole framework of the construction and continuity of the social development in community. The destruction of this institution means the destruction of the community itself. It is the place where people learn the roles of husband and wife, parent and child, learn how to deal with various stresses, frustrations and where a person first experiences violence as well. The socio-cultural perspectives also examine the cultural systems which influence every aspect of society.

4.0 A PROPOSED CONCEPTUAL MODEL

In this research, the development of the proposed conceptual model was resulted from an extensive literature review together with information gathered from the preliminary field study. The conceptual model presents the relationship of the main constructs used in the present research that comprises to four constructs namely, victim characteristics, perpetrator characteristics, health effects and performance at work. These two outcomes (health effects and performance at work) represent the effects of DV in this research. The model recommends that the causes of DV influence the health

of victims which further affects the performance at work. This model integrates existing theories namely Gendered Resource and Socio-cultural in order to explain how causes and effects relationship influences the performance of victims at work.

4.1 A PROPOSED CONCEPTUAL MODEL

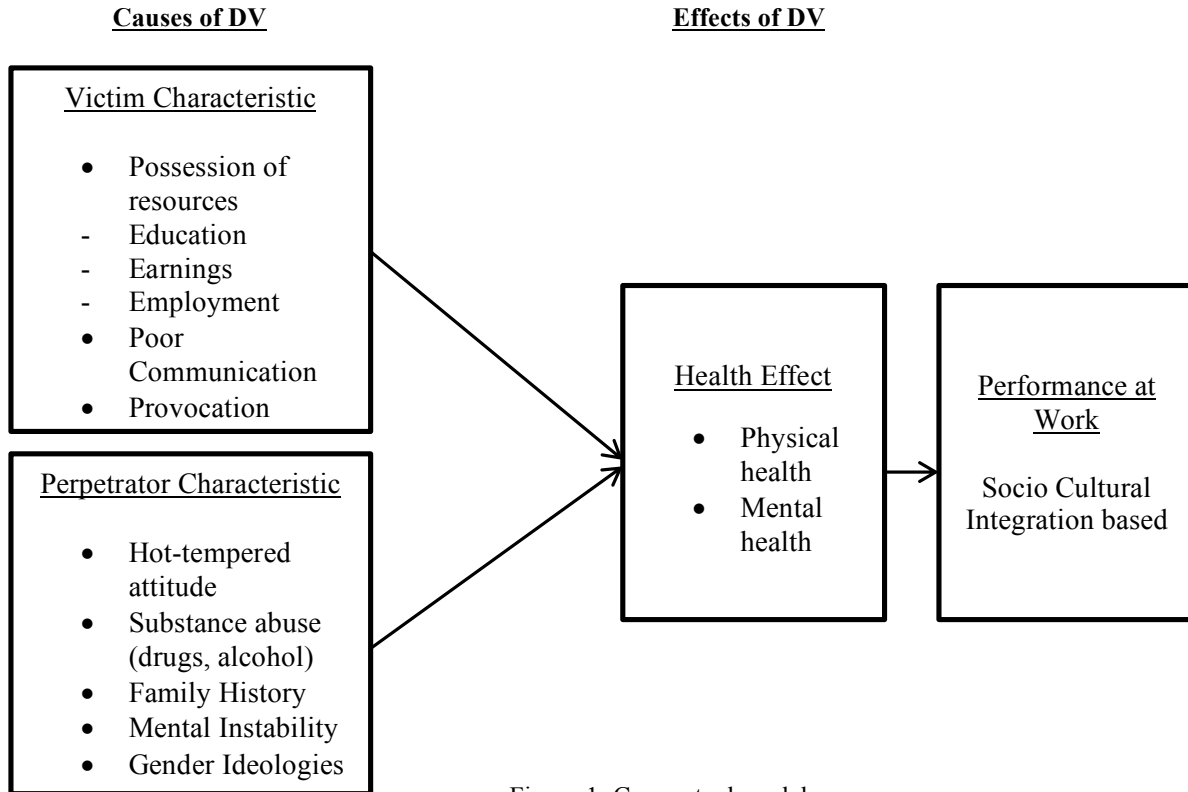


Figure 1: Conceptual model

4.2 CAUSES AND EFFECTS OF DV

The relationship between causes and effects of DV discussed best in the domestic violence literature. The field of DV is complicated as there are many contradicted information regarding the characteristics of victims and perpetrators related to resources (education, earnings and employment) and other factors as previously explained. However, this field of research has been very popular, and researchers have utilized different measures to assess the root causes of DV. As a result, there is no agreement amongst researchers concerning what are exactly the primary significant factors that affects the victim’s health and performance at work. The underlying characteristics of victims and perpetrators can be different from one situation or place to the others. In this study, the relationship between causes and health effects of DV will be examined which would specifically test each victim and perpetrator characteristics with health effects of DV.

4.3 HEALTH EFFECTS AND THE PERFORMANCE AT WORK

Violent behaviors towards women by perpetrators have various effects that reach beyond the immediate impacts she experiences in the workplace. Various studies have shown that the violent behaviors by perpetrators affect women’s capability to perform well at work. Victims report feeling distracted, extremely exhausted and unwell, needing to take time off for medical or legal reasons, being late for work, and being too upset to work. Moreover, when perpetrators engage in harassing tactics towards the victim while she is working, there is a higher likelihood that the victim will lose her jobs. The effect of DV on health cannot be taken lightly as it affects the performance of the victim at work due to distraction and loss of focus on work. Not only that, these effects can results in accidents at work and endangers the

safety of others. Hence, based on the conceptual model of this study, the researchers propose to examine the relationship between health effects and performance at work that will be measured from socio-cultural integration perspectives.

5.0 CONCLUSION

From this preliminary study, it can be concluded that the DV can cause various negative significant effect to the victim's health and their performance at work. Having policies in place to recognise and support victims can help limit the costs associated with DV by helping victims to stay in paid employment and eliminate the need to hire and train new employees. Furthermore, with economic security and access to DV resources, victims are more likely to be able to leave their abusive situations, limiting the financial losses due to poor work performance, distraction, and absenteeism.

Realising the impact on the violence against women to the society and the country, especially on the health and wellbeing of the victims and the nation, prevention is always possible and essential. Therefore, various activities needs to be implemented that suits the target groups' needs in different states, with multiple layers of target group both urban and rural areas. More emphasis needs to be placed in combating DV from pre phase, during and post phase of DV situation. It is believed that workplace, government and legislative interventions together with great initiatives from communities especially NGOs are the most important efforts in combating DV. The research is expected to contribute significantly to the body of knowledge concerning domestic violence and structural interventions in Malaysia. As the year of 2018 is the year of empowering women, it is hoped that the findings would be able to provide a foundation theory in dealing with this critical situation. In terms of theoretical significance, this study proposes to fill the gap in the body of knowledge of DV especially in Malaysia. The findings from this research could help policy makers, authorized agencies and non-governmental organizational leaders to strategize and adequately craft a suitable and high impact program that suits the target groups' needs and lifestyle.

6.0 REFERENCES

- Afifi, E. M., Al-Muhaideb, N. S., Hadish, N. F., Ismail, F. I., & Al-Qeamy, F. M. (2011). Domestic violence and its impact on married women health in Eastern Saudi Arabia. *Saudi Medical Journal*, 32(6), 612–620.
- Ahmad, F., Driver, N., McNally, M. J., & Stewart, D. E. (2009). “Why doesn't she seek help for partner abuse?” An exploratory study with South Asian immigrant women. *Social Science and Medicine*, 69(4), 613–622. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2009.06.011>
- Atkinson, M. P., Greenstein, T. N., & Lang, M. M. (2005). For women, breadwinning can be dangerous: Gendered resource theory and wife abuse. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 67(5), 1137–1148. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3737.2005.00206.x>
- Awang, H., & Hariharan, S. (2011). Determinants of domestic violence: Evidence from Malaysia. *Journal of Family Violence*, 26(6), 459-464.
- Baker, C. K., Cook, S. L., & Norris, F. H. (2003). Domestic violence and housing problems: A contextual analysis of women's help-seeking, received informal support, and formal system response. *Violence Against Women*, 9(7), 754–783. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1077801203253402>
- Bandura, A. (1971). Social learning theory. *Social Learning Theory*. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1460-2466.1978.tb01621.x>
- Birkley, E. L., & Eckhardt, C. I. (2015). Anger, hostility, internalizing negative emotions, and intimate partner violence perpetration: A meta-analytic review. *Clinical psychology review*, 37, 40-56.
- Blaney, E. (2010). Police officers' views of specialized intimate partner violence training. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 33(2), 354–375. <http://doi.org/10.1108/13639511011044939>
- Blume, T. W. (1996). Social perspectives on violence. *Michigan Family Review*, 2(1).
- Buang, S. (2017, May 2). Better protection for domestic violence victims. *New Strait Times*. Retrieved from <https://www.nst.com.my/opinion/columnists/2017/05/235716/better-protection-domestic-violence-victims>
- Caetano, R., Vaeth, P. A. C., & Ramisetty-Mikler, S. (2008). Intimate partner violence victim and perpetrator characteristics among couples in the United States. *Journal of Family Violence*, 23(6), 507–518. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-008-9178-3>
- Capaldi, D. M., Knoble, N. B., Shortt, J. W., & Kim, H. K. (2012). A Systematic Review of Risk Factors for Intimate Partner Violence. *Partner Abuse*, 3(2), 231–280. <http://doi.org/10.1891/1946-6560.3.2.231.A>
- Cools, S., & Kotsadam, A. (2017). Resources and intimate partner violence in Sub-Saharan African. *World Development*, 95,

- 211–230. <http://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2017.02.027>
- Coutinho, E., Almeida, F., Duarte, J., Chaves, C., Nelas, P., & Amaral, O. (2015). Factors Related to Domestic Violence in Pregnant Women. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 171, 1280–1287.
- Crowne, S. S., Juon, H. S., Ensminger, M., Burrell, L., McFarlane, E., & Duggan, A. (2011). Concurrent and long-term impact of intimate partner violence on employment stability. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 26(6), 1282–1304.
- Davis, S. N., & Greenstein, T. N. (2009). Gender Ideology: Components, Predictors, and Consequences. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 35(1), 87–105. <http://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-soc-070308-115920>
- Devries, K., Watts, C., Yoshihama, M., Kiss, L., Schraiber, L. B., Deyessa, N., ... Garcia-Moreno, C. (2011). Violence against women is strongly associated with suicide attempts: Evidence from the WHO multi-country study on women's health and domestic violence against women. *Social Science and Medicine*, 73(1), 79–86. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2011.05.006>
- Dobash, R. E., & Dobash, R. P. (2015). Domestic Violence: Sociological Perspectives. In *International Encyclopedia of the Social & Behavioral Sciences* (pp. 632–635). <http://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-08-097086-8.45022-1>
- Duke, N. N., Pettingell, S. L., McMorris, B. J., & Borowsky, I. W. (2010). *Adolescent Violence Perpetration: Associations With Multiple Types of Adverse Childhood Experiences*. American Academy of Pediatrics.
- Ergönen, A. T., Hakan Özdemir, M., Can, I. O., Sönmez, E., Salaçin, S., Berberoğlu, E., & Demir, N. (2009). Domestic violence on pregnant women in Turkey. *Journal of Forensic and Legal Medicine*, 16(3), 125–129. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jflm.2008.08.009>
- Felker-Kantor, E., Wallace, M., & Theall, K. (2017). Living in violence: Neighborhood domestic violence and small for gestational age births. *Health and Place*, 46(May), 130–136. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.healthplace.2017.05.011>
- Fergusson, D. M., John Horwood, L., & Ridder, E. M. (2005). Show me the child at seven: the consequences of conduct problems in childhood for psychosocial functioning in adulthood. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 46(8), 837–849. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7610.2004.00387.x>
- Flury, M., Nyberg, E., & Riecher-Rössler, A. (2010). Domestic violence against women: Definitions, epidemiology, risk factors and consequences. *Swiss Medical Weekly*, 140(NOVEMBER), 23–27.
- Gangoli, G., Razak, A., & Mccarry, M. (2006). Forced Marriage and Domestic Violence among South Asian Communities in North East England, (June), 35. Retrieved from http://www.nr-foundation.org.uk/downloads/ForcedMarriage_report.pdf
- García-moreno, Claudia; Jansen, Henrica; Ellsberg, Mary; Heise, Lori; and Watts, C. (2005). WHO Multi-country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence against Women. *WHO World Health Library Catalogue*, 19.
- Ghimire, D. J., Axinn, W. G., & Smith-Greenaway, E. (2015). Impact of the spread of mass education on married women's experience with domestic violence. *Social Science Research*, 54, 319–331. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssresearch.2015.08.004>
- Golu, F. (2014). Predictors of Domestic Violence – Comparative Analysis. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 127, 611–615. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.321>
- Gonzalez, J. M. R., Connell, N. M., Businelle, M. S., Jennings, W. G., & Chartier, K. G. (2014). Characteristics of adults involved in alcohol-related intimate partner violence: results from a nationally representative sample. *BMC Public Health*, 14, 466. <http://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-14-466>
- Gracia, E., & Merlo, J. (2016). Intimate partner violence against women and the Nordic paradox. *Social Science & Medicine*, 157, 27–30. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2016.03.040>
- Hamberger, L. K., Ambuel, B., Marbella, A., & Donze, J. (1998). Physician interaction with battered women: the women's perspective. *Archives of Family Medicine*, 7(6), 575–582.
- Heise, L. (2011). What works to prevent partner violence? An evidence overview.
- Hotaling, G. T., & Sugarman, D. B. (1986). An analysis of risk markers in husband to wife violence: The current state of knowledge. *Violence and Victims*, 1(April), 101–124. Retrieved from <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/3154143>
- Isgandarova, N. (2017). The Role of Islam in Preventing Domestic Violence towards Muslim Women in Azerbaijan. In *SPC* (p. 183).
- Janssen, P. A., Holt, V. L., Sugg, N. K., Emanuel, I., Critchlow, C. M., & Henderson, A. D. (2003). Intimate partner violence and adverse pregnancy outcomes: A population-based study. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology*, 188(5), 1341–1347. <http://doi.org/10.1067/mob.2003.274>
- Johari, S. (2017). Enam Fakta Hasil Analisis Statistik Kes Keganasan Rumah Tangga 2015 [Six Facts of the Statistical Analysis of Domestic Violence Cases in 2015].
- Kapoor, S. (2000). Domestic Violence Against Women and Girls. *Innocenti Digest*, 1(6), 1–25.
- Kaur, R., & Garg, S. (2010). Domestic violence against women: A qualitative study in a rural community. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Public Health*, 22(2), 242–251. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1010539509343949>
- Kernsmith, P. D., & Tolman, R. M. (2011). Violence Against Women. *Violence Against Women*, 17(4), 500–516.

- <http://doi.org/10.1177/1077801211404312>
- Khan, A. R. (2015). Domestic Violence against Women in Bangladesh: A Review of the Literature and the Gaps to fill-in by Future Interventions. *Khazar Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 18(3), 57–81. <http://doi.org/10.5782/2223-2621.2015.18.3.57>
- Khawaja, M., Linos, N., & El-Roueiheb, Z. (2008). Attitudes of men and women towards wife beating: Findings from palestinian refugee camps in Jordan. *Journal of Family Violence*, 23(3), 211–218. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-007-9146-3>
- Lancet, T. (2016). Domestic violence in China. *Lancet (London, England)*, 387(10023), 1028. [http://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(16\)00689-9](http://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(16)00689-9)
- Lawson, J. (2012). Sociological Theories of Intimate Partner Violence. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment*. <http://doi.org/10.1080/10911359.2011.598748>
- Leonardsson, M., & San Sebastian, M. (2017). Prevalence and predictors of help-seeking for women exposed to spousal violence in India - a cross-sectional study. *BMC Women's Health*, 17(1), 1–15. <http://doi.org/10.1186/s12905-017-0453-4>
- Loke, A. Y., Emma Wan, M. L., & Hayter, M. (2012). The lived experience of women victims of intimate partner violence. *Journal of Clinical Nursing*, 21, 2336–2346.
- Ludermir, A. B., Lewis, G., Valongueiro, S. A., De Araújo, T. V. B., & Araya, R. (2010). Violence against women by their intimate partner during pregnancy and postnatal depression: A prospective cohort study. *The Lancet*, 376(9744), 903–910. [http://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(10\)60887-2](http://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(10)60887-2)
- MacGregor, J. C. D., Wathen, C. N., & MacQuarrie, B. J. (2016). Domestic Violence in the Canadian Workplace: Are Coworkers Aware? *Safety and Health at Work*, 7(3), 244–250. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.shaw.2016.01.003>
- Mahapatro, M., Gupta, R. N., & Gupta, V. (2012). The Risk Factor of Domestic Violence in India. *Indian Journal of Community Medicine*, 37(3), 153–157.
- McFerran, L. (2011). Safe at home, safe at work. *National domestic violence and the workplace survey (2011)*. Australia: Australian Domestic and Family Violence Clearinghouse.
- Mihalic, S. W., & Elliott, D. (1997). A social learning theory model of marital violence. *Journal of Family Violence*, 12(1), 21–47. <http://doi.org/10.1023/a:1021941816102>
- Mukashema, I. (2014). Facing Domestic Violence for Mental Health in Rwanda: Opportunities and Challenges. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 140, 591–598.
- Naved, R. T. (2013). Sexual violence towards married women in Bangladesh. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 42(4), 595–602. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10508-012-0045-1>
- Olorunsaiye, C. Z., Brunner, L., Laditka, S. B., Kulkarni, S., & Boyd, A. S. (2017). Associations between women's perceptions of domestic violence and contraceptive use in seven countries in West and Central Africa. *Sexual & Reproductive Healthcare*, 13, 1–8. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.srhc.2017.01.003>
- Oon, S. W., Shuib, R., Ali, S. H., Endut, N., Osman, I., Abdullah, S., & Ghani, P. A. (2016). Exploring the Coping Mechanism of Women Experiencing Intimate Partner Violence in Malaysia. *SOCIONT 2016 3rd International Conference on Education, Social Sciences and Humanities*, (May), 820–825.
- Özçakar, N., Yeşiltepe, G., Karaman, G., & Ergöner, A. T. (2016). Domestic violence survivors and their experiences during legal process. *Journal of Forensic and Legal Medicine*, 40, 1–7. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jflm.2016.01.023>
- Parliament of Malaysia. (2017). *Laws of Malaysia Act 302* (Vol. 1449).
- Pavlou, M., & Knowles, A. (2001). Domestic violence: Attributions, recommended punishments and reporting behaviour related to provocation by the victim. *Psychiatry, Psychology and Law*, 8(1), 76-85.
- Pickover, A. M., Lipinski, A. J., Dodson, T. S., Tran, H. N., Woodward, M. J., & Beck, J. G. (2017). Demand/withdraw communication in the context of intimate partner violence: Implications for psychological outcomes. *Journal of Anxiety Disorders*, 52(November 2016), 95–102. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.janxdis.2017.07.002>
- Rahman, M., Hoque, M. A., & Makinoda, S. (2011). Intimate Partner Violence Against Women: Is Women Empowerment a Reducing Factor? A Study from a National Bangladeshi Sample. *Journal of Family Violence*, 26(5), 411–420. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-011-9375-3>
- Ramsay, J., Richardson, J., Carter, Y. H., Davidson, L. L., & Feder, G. (2002). Should health professionals screen women for domestic. *British Medical Journal*, 325, 1–13.
- Reingle, J. M., Staras, S. A. S., Jennings, W. G., Branchini, J., & Maldonado-molina, M. M. (2013). The Relationship Between Marijuana Use and Intimate Partner Violence in a Nationally Representative, Longitudinal Sample. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 27(8), 1–13. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0886260511425787>
- Rodriguez, M. A., Quiroga, S. S., & Bauer, H. M. (1996). Breaking the silence. Battered women's perspectives on medical care. *Archives of Family Medicine*, 5(3), 153–8. <http://doi.org/10.1001/ARCHFAMI.1996.01850400035008>
- Saddki, N., Sulaiman, Z., Ali, S. H., Tengku Hassan, T. N. F., Abdullah, S., Ab Rahman, A., ... & Baharudin, Z. (2013).

- Validity and reliability of the Malay version of WHO Women's Health and Life Experiences Questionnaire. *Journal of interpersonal violence*, 28(12), 2557-2580.
- Semahegn, A., & Mengistie, B. (2015). Domestic violence against women and associated factors in Ethiopia: Systematic review. *Reproductive Health*, 12(1). <http://doi.org/10.1186/s12978-015-0072-1>
- Showalter, K. (2016). Women's employment and domestic violence: A review of the literature. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 31, 37–47. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2016.06.017>
- Shuib, R., Endut, N., Ali, S. H., Osman, I., Abdullah, S., Oon, S. W., ... Shahrudin, S. S. H. (2013). Domestic Violence and Women's Well-being in Malaysia: Issues and Challenges Conducting a National Study Using the WHO Multi-country Questionnaire on Women's Health and Domestic Violence Against Women. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 91, 475–488. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.08.445>
- Speizer, I. S. (2011). Intimate partner violence attitudes and experience among women and men in Uganda. *NUH Public Access*, 25(7), 1–14. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0886260509340550>
- Stith, S. M., Smith, D. B., Penn, C. E., Ward, D. B., & Tritt, D. (2004). Intimate partner physical abuse perpetration and victimization risk factors: A meta-analytic review. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 10(1), 65–98. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2003.09.001>
- Stith, S., Green, N., Smith, D., & Ward, D. (2008). Marital satisfaction and marital discord as risk markers for intimate partner violence: A metaanalytic review. *Journal of Family Violence*, 23, 149–160. doi:10.1007/s10896-007-9137-4
- Sukeri, S., & Man, N. N. N. (2017). Escaping domestic violence: A qualitative study of women who left their abusive husbands. *Journal of Taibah University Medical Sciences*. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtumed.2017.05.009>
- Swanberg, J. E., & Macke, C. (2006). Intimate partner violence and the workplace: Consequences and disclosure. *Affilia*, 21(4), 391-406.
- Tetikcok, R., Ozer, E., Cakir, L., Enginyurt, O., İscanli, M. D., Cankaya, S., & Ozer, F. (2016). Violence towards women is a public health problem. *Journal of Forensic and Legal Medicine*, 44, 150–157. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jflm.2016.10.009>
- Unal, E. O., Koc, S., Unal, V., Akcan, R., & Javan, G. T. (2016). Violence against women: A series of autopsy studies from Istanbul, Turkey. *Journal of Forensic and Legal Medicine*, 40, 42–46. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jflm.2015.11.025>
- Walker, K., Bowen, E., Brown, S., & Sleath, E. (2015). Desistance From Intimate Partner Violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 30(15), 2726–2750. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0886260514553634>
- World Health Organisation (WHO), (2013). Global and Regional Estimates on Violence against Women. *WHO Library Cataloguing-in-Publication Data*, ISBN 978 92 4 156462 5
- Yusoff, J. Z. M. (2009). Jenayah Dalam Keluarga: Penderaan dan Pengabaian Warga Tua di Malaysia. *International Conference on Corporate Law (ICCL)*, (June), 11. Retrieved from http://repo.uum.edu.my/1144/1/Jal_Zabdi_Mohd_Yusoff.pdf
- Zinzow, H. M., Ruggiero, K. J., Hanson, R. F., Smith, D. W., Saunders, B. E., & Kilpatrick, D. G. (2009). Witnessed community and parental violence in relation to substance use and delinquency in a national sample of adolescents. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, 22(6), 525–533. <http://doi.org/10.1002/jts.20469>