******

COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SOCIAL SCEINCES

SCHOOL OF GOVERNANCE, DEVELOPMENT AND SOCIETY

DEPARTMENT OF PROFESSIONAL POLICE STUDIES

**THE CONTRIBUTION OF RWANDA NATIONAL POLICE AWARENESS CAMPAIGNS TO COMBAT DOMESTIC VIOLENCE IN MUSANZE DISTRICT**

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Bachelor’s Degree in Arts and Social Sciences with Honour in Professional Police Studies (PPS)

Submitted

By

MUVARA Willy

(Reg. No: 219000815)

Supervisor: Modeste BISANGWA

April, 2024

# CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the background, problem statement, general objective, specific objectives, research questions, scope, significance and subdivision of the study.

## 1.1. Background of the research

Universally, domestic violence is a global issue of pandemic proportions, which has an impact on all societies (Marijke, 2021). It violates the rights and fundamental freedoms of victims (Seelinger, et al, 2019). Such violence can have a devastating effect on the lives of victims, their families and communities (Seelinger, et al, 2019). Domestic violence is a global crisis, with the World Health Organization (WHO) issuing a stark warning that violence against women has become "devastatingly pervasive”, impacting one in three individuals worldwide, and posing a particular risk to younger women (Ayoubi & Juaristi, 2023).

Ganley & Scheckter (2020), define domestic violence as a pattern of coercive and assaultive behaviours that include physical, sexual, verbal and psychological attacks and economic coercion that adults or adolescents use against their intimate partner. Millions of people worldwide are impacted by domestic violence, which is a global public health issue that results in financial, psychological, and physical abuse (Rakovec, 2014).

In the year preceding the COVID-19 outbreak, 243 million women and girls, aged 15 to 49 globally endured physical or sexual abuse at the hands of an intimate partner (Dlamini, 2021). Simultaneously, Russia grappled with a severe crisis of domestic violence, as evidenced by the alarming statistic that over 12,000 women fell victim to such violence between 2011 and 2019. This underscores the urgent need for international efforts to address and combat the pervasive issue of intimate partner violence.

Acknowledging its severe ramifications, governments, law enforcement agencies, and international organizations employ various tactics to counter it. This makes it possible to comprehend how domestic violence weakens households' financial stability and quality of life while reducing the efficacy of initiatives to enhance the capabilities and well-being of communities throughout low- and middle-income nations. Awareness campaigns have been used as the best and foremost strategy to counterattack domestic violence (World Health Organization, 2017). Raising awareness can take many different forms, but it frequently entails educating people about pertinent laws, policies, services, and rights as well as challenging attitudes, beliefs, and norms that support various forms of violence and their causes and effects (Tsiko, 2020).

Events and campaigns to support the prevention of violence against women and girls (VAWG), such as the yearly 16 Days of Activism Against Gender-Based Violence (GBV), frequently have the backing of awareness-raising operations (Greig, 2014). They might be directed toward various audiences, encompassing the broader public, communities of intervention, local and national authorities, and service suppliers. These initiatives range in scope from one-time messages to extended-run programs, like radio or television programs, to a continuing campaign of activism. Many Strategies for increasing awareness are created to change perceptions around VAWG, in addition to gender norms, which specify what appropriate and suitable behaviours are for men and women in a certain group or culture.

Peru is an excellent place to research this phenomenon in several respects. The government has actively used two United Nations observances, International Women's Day in March and the International Day for the Elimination of Violence against Women in November, to promote a new mentality. It is estimated that 70% of women in the nation between the ages of 15 and 49 have experienced domestic violence. The crux of this endeavour is a flurry of radio and television programs, protests, and gatherings in which senior cabinet members take part, in the weeks preceding the U.N. days (Nogueira, et al, 2020).

Analysing the years 2009–2015, for instance, it was discovered that when there are by far the most anti-violence campaigns, it also sees a 12% increase in incidents reported by hospitals and health centres and a 7% increase in complaints of domestic violence at women’s emergency centres. Women's helpline calls increase by 19%.  Of course, one explanation for this increase could be that women are more likely to report violent encounters because of awareness-raising activities (Salinsky, 2017).

In United Kingdom (UK), about 50% of domestic violence cases against female were reported in 2020, though, there are hints that only about 10% of domestic violence against male victims were reported to the authorities, largely because of taboos and fears of misapprehension fashioned by a culture of masculine prospects. Comparison entails that 1.9 million people aged 16-59 expressed to the England and Wales Crime Survey (ending of March, 2021), in total, 1.9 million females faced domestic violence compare to 1.2 million males and only 79% of those domestic violence cases were reported by their partner or ex-partner (Office for Nations Statistics, 2022).

Africa domestic abuse is a silent epidemic that will not be eradicated until the cultural and societal conventions that support it are challenged (Kapoor, 2000). According to The Nigeria Demographic and Health Survey (2018), 28% of Nigerian women thought that a husband had a right to beat his wife if she argued with him, burned food, left the house without telling him, neglected the kids, or refused sex. In Nigeria, the police response to domestic violence has been perceived historically as poor, both by advocates and academic researchers (Edwards, 2019). Early studies suggested the majority of officers viewed domestic violence as a private or civil matter, and would take action only in cases where there was significant physical violence (Edwards, 2019).

In Kenya, eliminating domestic violence requires a strong criminal justice response to the violence (Judith & Mannarimo, 2020). However, it also requires a range of interventions that may differ from traditional approaches to crime and prosecution. For example, where domestic violence is concerned, it can be difficult for its victims to leave the relationship or charge the offender; as such interventions have the potential to cause an escalation in the violence (Judith & Mannarimo, 2020). ‘In addition, victims of violence often remain connected to the abuser, through children and other family members. For these reasons, a single response to the violence, such as arrest, the laying of criminal charges, or leaving the perpetrator, will not necessarily end the violence or intimidation. Awareness campaigns have been considered as the best and foremost strategy to counterattack domestic violence in Kenya (Mengistie, 2019).

Domestic violence is still prevalent in Uganda, and the highest rates were in East Central Uganda, (53 percent). According to the UBOS Uganda Bureau of statistics (UBOS) and Macro International 2023, almost four out of ten women in Uganda have ever experienced domestic violence (39 percent). As expected, forced first domestic intercourse is much more common among women than men were. One out of four women aged 1 5-49 years (24 percent) report that their first domestic intercourse was forced against their wills (UBOS and Macro International, 2022). Intimate partner violence is common in Eastern Uganda and is related to gender inequality, multiple partners, alcohol and poverty (Karamagi, 2023). Accordingly, programmes for the prevention of intimate partner violence need to target these underlying factors. The suggested link between intimate partner violence and HIV risky behaviors or prevention strategies calls for further studies to clearly establish this relationship (Karamagi, 2023).

The Rwanda National Police (RNP) efforts to fight and prevent crimes, especially gender and domestic related cases. Trainings of various groups to effectively combat the vice (Rwanda National Police, 2019). In most cases, domestic violence usually goes unreported or often cannot stand in court due to lack of sufficient evidence. To address the challenge, Rwanda National Police was planning in rolling out a new campaign against domestic violence cases in 2019, this was revealed by the Rwanda National Police spokesperson at a press conference on the state of security in 2019 and the plans for the 2020 held on January 3 at the police headquarters. Domestic violence is among the issues that the campaign will be tackling. When either of the parent’s experience domestic violence, it has direct consequences on the wellbeing of a child (Kabera, 2019).

However, it is important to note that Rwanda National Police officers are the first actors who a victim of domestic violence is likely to encounter. RNP is a well-known and highly visible community authority, provides free services, and is generally one of the few systems actors who can provide rapid 24-hour daily assistance and as first responders; police officers play an important role in protecting victim safety and enhancing offender accountability (Rudasingwa, 2018). Although RNP may be unable to rapidly address all incidents of domestic and intimate partner violence at any hour in all locations, its visibility and authority, continue to increase the likelihood that a person experiencing domestic violence will be exposed to RNP officers. Thus, RNP plays a crucial role in addressing and decreasing incidences of domestic and intimate partner violence. Moreover, RNP officers act as criminal justice gatekeepers thus problems arise when allegations are made that police do not take domestic violence seriously consider it a family problem and, therefore inappropriate for police action (WHO, 2019).

In preventing the roots of domestic violence in Rwanda, the awareness campaigns and preventive community policing carried out by the Rwanda National Police have helped the people of Rwanda shed their fear of the reporting process and ensure that violators are fully aware of the legal consequences of their acts (RNP, 2017).

Realizing that domestic violence is also prevalent in Rwanda and that they are still under reported, the researcher felt there is a need to focus his research in the area by limiting in Musanze District where domestic violence is high compare to the other district in Northern Province (annual criminal report, 2022). Awareness campaigns have played a great role in shedding light to reduce domestic violence in Musanze district (Gatabazi, 2018). It is against this background that the researcher needs to assess the contribution of Rwanda National Police awareness campaigns in combating domestic violence in Musanze district.

**1.2. Problem statement**

**The family** without domestic violence lives together and shares common benefits, no burden on numerous sectors of the social system and quietly yet dramatically affects positively the development of a nation by reducing the cost of nation fortunes in terms of law enforcement, health care, lost labour and general progress in development (Zimmerman, 2010). Living without domestic violence is a major pillar for sustainable peace, unity and development in Rwanda and Musanze District (RNP, 2018).

Rwanda National Police report shows that cases of gender-based violence are still a great challenge, though some of the cases are commonly not reported to police. Domestic violence against men in Rwanda is rooted in the cultural or religious philosophies, and numerous social circumstances creating unfit power relations and gender norms, which men use to keep silent about gender-based violence against them. It is noted that only women and few men come in contact with Isange one stop-centers, where victims are given psychological medical support, and offered legal aid, since men survivors hesitate to speak out and share their experiences (RWAMREC, 2023).

Fighting against domestic violence against women requires a strong criminal justice response to the violence and it requires a range of interventions that may differ from traditional approaches to crime and prosecution (Mberabagabo, 2019). The Government of Rwanda through RNP has deployed considerable efforts to address domestic violence challenges. Some commendable success has been registered in GBV awareness and eventually contributed to reducing domestic violence cases (GBV, 2021). Indeed, RNP has conducted specific awareness campaigns in the Musanze district like domestic violence awareness campaigns. These are part of the RNP crime prevention and reduction strategies through which local leaders, Community Policing Committees (CPCs) have been formed, on top of joint operations to address specific security issues including domestic violence prevention. Rwanda National Police has started several awareness projects to address domestic abuse, it is yet unclear how exactly these efforts have affected Musanze district. Deeply long-standing cultural norms and traditional beliefs frequently affect how people view gender roles and power dynamics in homes, which may make it more difficult for the RNP's teachings against domestic violence to be adopted. Understanding the complex nature of these cultural elements is essential for developing interventions that touch an emotional connection with the community, guaranteeing increased acceptance and compliance with anti-domestic violence campaigns (Kamugisha, 2020).

This study is conducted in Musanze District because of high cases of domestic violence cases recorded in this district between 2021, 2022 and 2023. They included 49 cases of physical violence, 88 cases of social violence, 57 cases financial /economic violence and 101 cases of sexual violence (Rwanda annual crime reports, 2021-2023). The cases of domestic violence in Musanze District are high because alcoholism, ignorance, polygamy and poverty. This implies that there are gaps in crime prevention especially in domestic violence prevention in Rwanda despite the anti-domestic violence laws, the establishment of the Community policing committees, Rwanda Youth Volunteers in Community Policing (RYVCP).

Community outreach campaigns, media campaigns and anti-crime clubs have been conducted in Musanze District, the manner in which those campaigns contribute to domestic violence prevention is not comprehensively revealed in the current literature in Musanze District. Additionally, the sociocultural environment in the Musanze district can make these domestic violence awareness efforts less successful. This study therefore, assesses the contribution of RNP awareness campaigns in combating domestic violence in Musanze District. The expected results are assumed to inform RNP on how to improve community policing through the awareness campaigns to effectively prevent and eradicate domestic violence in Rwanda.

## 1.3. Objective of the study

The objective of the study is divided into two broad categories namely: general objective and specific objectives.

## 1.3.1. General objective

The primary objective of this study is to assess the contribution of RNP awareness campaigns to combat domestic violence in Musanze District

## 1.3.2. Specific objectives of the study

This study is guided by the following specific objectives:

1. To examine the contribution of community outreach campaigns in combating domestic violence in Musanze district.
2. To evaluate the contribution of media campaigns in combating domestic violence in Musanze district.
3. To analyse the contribution of anti-crime clubs in schools in combating domestic violence in Musanze District.

## 1.4. Research questions

To achieve the objectives of this study, the research is guided by the following research questions:

1. How do community outreach campaigns contribute to combating domestic violence in Musanze district?
2. To what extent do media campaigns contribute to combating domestic violence in Musanze District?
3. What is the contribution of anti-crime clubs in schools to combat domestic violence in Musanze district?

## 1.6. Significance of the study

This study is important in four respects. First, it provides data for understanding the contribution of RNP awareness campaigns in combating domestic violence in Rwanda. Secondly, the study findings are useful to RNP to evaluate its operations and effectiveness of its community outreach campaigns, media campaigns and anti-crime clubs to rapidly change the field of policing duties especially in combating domestic violence cases in Rwanda. Thirdly, Government of Rwanda will benefit from reliable data of this research. The findings of this study will help to set serious and efficient strategies to combat domestic violence. The findings of the study will recommend the strategies, which can be used by the government to improve the standard of living of people in society through improved crime (domestic violence) prevention duties. Fourth, since this study is an assessment research regarding RNP awareness campaigns in combating domestic violence it will add some insights to the existing literature in this field of academic discourse. Instructively, this may form the basis for replication by other researchers in similar or other contexts.

## 1.7. Scope of the study

**1.7.1 Geographical scope**

The study is carried out in Musanze District. This is because the researcher is more familiar with the area of study, Musanze District has many cases of domestic violence compare to the other districts in northern province. The researcher lives in Musanze District four more than three years, he has a hope of easily selecting groups of people (Police officers, Youth volunteers, Medea people, Community policing committees, Rwanda Investigation Bureau Investigators, local leaders (vice-mayor in charge of social affairs) and women heads of households in Musanze District.

**1.7.2. Content scope**

The study is carried out to assess the contribution of RNP awareness campaigns in combating domestic violence in Musanze District. In choosing this topic, the researcher was firstly motivated by the fact that, police campaigns to combat domestic violence is among the major responsibilities of RNP in which the researcher is also a member. The researcher was also motivated by lack of enough literature related to the study subject in Musanze District and lastly, the researcher was selective and focused on one duty of the duties of RNP.

**1.7.3. Time scope**

The time scope of the study covered three years between 2019 to 2023, both years inclusive. This time interval is chosen because the researchers expect to use secondary data related to domestic violence cases reported in last five years. This time has been chosen because it will help the researcher to get accurate and update data. The time period has been chosen to help the researcher to get data related to the domestic violence cases trend in last five years to be able to assess whether police campaigns help to reduce or not the cases of domestic violence in Musanze District.

## 1.8 Organization of the study

This study is organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 is an introductory chapter, which provides the background to the study, statement of the problem, objectives, research questions, significance and scope and limitations of the study as well as research organization. In Chapter two of this work, relevant conceptual review and empirical literature are presented. The chapter also highlights relevant theories and it further provides the conceptual framework to show the relationship between independent and dependent variables. In Chapter 3, the study provides detailed account of the research design, approaches to sampling, data collection and analysis. Chapter four presents analyses and interprets the collected data while chapter five presents the summary of the major findings of the study, draws conclusions and implications for theory and practice. The chapter further draws the recommendations based on objectives of the study and for further research.

# CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

## 2.0 Introduction

This chapter clarifies the key concepts, reviews the existing literature on the contribution of RNP awareness campaigns to combat domestic violence. The literature review starts by defining the key terms, it also reviews the literature related to the independent variable (Police awareness campaigns and the literature related to the dependent variable (domestic violence prevention). It also presents the literature review related to the contribution of Police awareness campaign in combating domestic violence. The literature further presents the theoretical framework and conceptual framework to show the relationship between independent and dependent variables.

## 2.1. Clarification of key concepts

This section defines the key concepts as per different scholars and operationalizes them to the context of the study. Important documents from the study areas in place were also reviewed for full clarification of the concept of police, police campaigns and domestic violence.

**2.1.1. RNP awareness campaign**

According to (Bakogiannis, 2017) awareness campaign is a strategy that can be used to draw attention to important issues like domestic violence. According to Munshi & Edwards (2011), an awareness campaign is any planned time-limited campaign with the primary goal of raising public awareness of the cause is considered an awareness campaign. For non-profits, this is organizing a campaign to raise awareness of any organization's goal, why it matters, how hard your team is working to address a particular issue, and why it needs their support. By accomplishing all of these goals, the organization will have access to several important advantages and attract essential support. In this study, Police awareness campaigns (community outreach campaigns, media campaigns and anti-crime clubs in schools) are the only ways to start a behavioural change of people in relation to crime prevention especially domestic violence issues.

The Rwanda National Police (RNP) operates the Isange One Stop Centers to address cases of gender-based violence. The National Police carries out community sensitization campaigns by establishing anti-crime clubs in secondary schools, community outreach programmes, and anti-GBV desks. The National Police has intensified its operations, partly through provision of emergency hotlines and other contacts countrywide, as well as establishing a Public Relations (PR) office at the regional level. This has ensured quick response and 24/7 alertness. Rwandan National Police, in partnership with other stakeholders, conducts workshops with other criminal justice actors in the country. These workshops aim at training officers on detainees’ rights and case management (Ministry of Health, 2020).

Various Community Policing Committees (CPCs) in Musanze District have been asked to collaborate with the public and law enforcement agencies to identify individuals who may be connected to criminal activity. The appeal was made recently during a meeting that local officials and police officers were also present at (Kamugisha, 2021). The objective was to provide them with additional knowledge about community policing programs and to highlight the value of collaboration and real-time information exchange in preventing criminal activity. The commitment of CPCs as people on the ground who comprehend the daily activities within their villages is the first step towards efficiency in fighting and avoiding crimes. In collaboration with the locals, the community policing baseline is established by the CPCs, who carry out their operations at the local level. Together, they detect and report suspected criminals or any unlawful behavior. Community policing committees were notified by RNP officers that drug misuse is a major contributing factor in crimes involving child abuse, gender-based violence, and domestic violence. Additionally, RNP advocated that positive interactions with the public facilitate the exchange of information about criminals and their activities, facilitate the prompt apprehension of suspects, and facilitate the recovery of illicit or stolen goods (RNP, 2022).

**2.1.1. Community outreach campaigns**

Community outreach campaign is the practice of engaging with diverse groups of people to raise awareness, provide information, or promote a cause of the problem and effective strategies to handle that problem (Carillo, 2022). Community outreach campaign is a way of working with and empowering communities to identify and address their own needs and challenges. It recognizes that communities are not homogenous, but diverse and dynamic, with different cultures, values, and experiences. It also acknowledges that communities have assets and resources that can be mobilized and leveraged to create positive change. community outreach campaigns are participatory, collaborative, and respectful of the local context and knowledge (Nkwapatira, 2022).

Domestic violence is not only a personal or family issue, but a social and structural one. It is influenced by factors such as gender norms, power relations, poverty, discrimination, and access to services. Therefore, addressing domestic violence requires a holistic and systemic perspective that goes beyond individual interventions. A community outreach campaigns for domestic violence aim to prevent violence by raising awareness, changing attitudes, and promoting social norms that respect human rights and gender equality (Peterson, 2021). The campaigns also seek to support survivors by providing them with safety, justice, and healing options that are culturally appropriate and responsive to their needs. Community outreach campaign for domestic violence also engages with different actors and sectors in the community, such as health, education, justice, and media, to coordinate and strengthen their efforts and resources (UN Women and WHO, 2020).

Community outreach campaign is recognized as a promising programme strategy to transform harmful attitudes, beliefs and norms underlying violence against women and girls (VAWG) and gender inequality (UN Women and WHO, 2020). Experiences of implementing violence prevention programmes repeatedly show how the social environment can hinder the likelihood and sustainability of behaviour change. Community outreach campaigns are often regarded as state-of-the-art strategies for creating more enabling environments. These interventions typically engage volunteer “community activists” who live or work in communities and are trained and supported to engage communities in informal conversations and awareness-raising about violence (Maton, 2008). Community outreach campaign also commonly involve working with key opinion leaders such as religious and traditional leaders, the police, and health and social services. Community outreach campaign can also include efforts to hold government and institutions accountable, with communities mobilizing to pressure change in or ensure responsiveness to policies and laws (Fox, 2015). Civil society organizations (CSOs) and women’s rights organizations (WROs) have a particular role to play in community mobilization efforts, with promising strategies revolving around grassroots campaigning, drawing on techniques such as community conversations, creative media and digital technology (DFID, 2012).

**2.1.2. Media campaigns**

Domestic violence is a mutual problem, so to do the prevention and treatment of domestic violence based community needs to cooperate with other parties.

Rwanda National Police used social media to prevent crime by spreading awareness and providing information to the general public and It can influence the public's perspective on crime and the legislative system that punishes these crimes. Social media platforms have become a large influence on the public, with justice campaigns being run on these platforms (Goddard, 2020). Data mining and machine learning methodologies can be applied to crime data on social media to improve crime prediction and prevention and Social media-facilitated neighbourhood watch groups utilize swarm intelligence and stigmergy to respond to local crime. Additionally, social media data can be used for crime analysis by providing contextual information about crime incidents and sentiment analysis of related tweets (Brawley, 2015).

The media plays a significant role in forming and influencing people’s attitudes and behaviour (Goddard, 2020), drew attention to the essential role of the media in increasing society’s awareness of and response to child abuse and neglect. Of particular note was the part played by news and features that reported on specific child abuse cases, research and intervention strategies. Such media attention to child abuse has at times, positively influenced public, professional and political responses to the circumstances in which children and young people find themselves. Understanding media influences, and how to use the media constructively, may thus be an essential tool for those who advocate for children, young people, and their families (Brawley, 2015). In addition to news stories, feature articles, and investigative journalism, sporadic mass media education and crime prevention campaigns were launched. Rwanda national police works hand in hand with Medea people in various anti-crime campaigns usually endeavour to broaden community knowledge of domestic violence and other related crimes, to influence people’s attitudes towards children and young people, old people and to change behaviors that contribute to, or precipitate, the problem of domestic violence in our communities (RNP, 2022).

Media campaigns and media coverage of related to domestic violence prevention perform an important and significant role in placing issues such as economic, physical, sexual and psychological violence on the public and political agenda. Lindsey (2022) maintains that: ‘Media has a central role in mediating information and forming public opinion. The media casts an eye on events that few of us directly experience and renders remote happenings observable and meaningful. The Rwanda National Police uses the media to shift minds and encourage changes in attitudes toward domestic abuse in the Musanze district. The police have been successful in changing public attitudes and perceptions about domestic abuse by using focused and consistent messages on radio, television, social media, and community initiatives, among other media channels (Aguiari, 2014). Reliable information disseminated via these platforms aids in dispelling urban legends, dispelling misconceptions, and enlightening the public on the gravity and ramifications of domestic abuse. The police-led media campaigns have aided in the development of a more knowledgeable, compassionate, and helpful community response to ending domestic violence by emphasizing survivor tales, legal rights, accessible support resources, and the significance of reporting abuse (Leech, 2019). In Musanze District, RNP already has some designated social media accounts such as Facebook and Twitter to formally train and educate its personnel on the use and benefits of social media for policing. Radios, Mobile phones, Television, bill board movies are used to sensitize the public on dangers of domestic violence and the advantages of its prevention.

**2.1.3. Anti-crime clubs in schools**

Rwanda national police use antic-crime clubs to prevent crimes in Rwanda, currently, they are over 2000 anti-crime clubs in the country, majority schools, which are instrumental in raising awareness against various crimes. Anti-Crime Clubs also contribute to the security and build a better education system embraced with focused and capable youth. Due to the fact that domestic violence affects youth especially pupils, learners and students, Rwanda National Police is actively involved in teaching the young generation on the negative effects of domestic violence and the legal repercussions involved

The creation of anti- crime clubs in the schools is part of the initiatives of the Community Policing Committees in the country and Anti-crime clubs in schools are a blessing, apart from assisting the police to reduce crime in the society, through information sharing and sensitize the public to combat crimes (domestic violence) (Newtimes reporter, 2024). Through anti-crime clubs as community policing strategy, Rwanda National Police has managed to bring on board several partners in crime prevention, including domestic violence, learning institutions, secondary schools, traders, private enterprises, among others, which has contributed to the rate of crime detection, prevention and mitigating impact of crime (Domestic violence) (Mukaruliza, 2021).

Activities to promote safety and security and prevent crimes in Musanze District are gaining momentum following the creation of at least 113 anti-crime clubs in schools and in communities in 2016 and 377 anti-crime clubs in 2023. The clubs have been credited for increased awareness and information exchange on wrongdoers in real time, which has led to the reduction in specific crimes especially drug and gender based related crimes. Anti-Crime clubs in schools in Musanze District focus on raising awareness against Drug abuse and Gender Based Violence within their respective schools, families & communities. clubs can be in raising awareness against criminality and specific issues related to gender based violence, drug abuse and even human trafficking and the cases of unwanted pregnancies in schools, drug abuse and gender based violence tremendously reducing while many students who were drug abusers have reformed and use these clubs as a platform to share testimonies in Musanze District.

**2.1.2. Domestic violence**

Domestic violence also known as domestic abuse, spousal abuse, family violence and intimate partner violence (IPV) can be broadly defined as a pattern of abusive behaviors by one or both partners in an intimate relationship such as marriage, dating, family, friends or cohabitation. (Garner, 2014). Domestic violence has many forms including physical aggression that is to say hitting, kicking, biting, shoving, restraining, slapping, throwing objects) or threats thereof domestic abuse; emotional abuse; controlling or domineering, intimidation; stalking; passive or covert abuse and economic deprivation. Alcohol consumption and mental illness can be co-morbid with abuse and present additional challenges when present alongside patterns of abuse (Brasileiro, 2017). Furthermore, Ganley & Schechter (2016), define domestic violence as a pattern of coercive and assaultive behaviors that include physical, sexual, verbal and psychological attacks and economic coercion that adults or adolescents use against their intimate partner.

**2.1.2.1. Forms of domestic violence**

**2.1.2.1.1. Physical Violence**

Besides injuries and deaths, physical violence by an intimate partner is related with numerous adversative health consequences (Ryan 2008). A number of health conditions concomitant with intimate partner violence may be a direct outcome of physical violence e.g. knife wounds, bruises, broken bones, pelvic pain, traumatic brain injury, etc. Added conditions are the result of the effect of intimate partner violence on the gastrointestinal, endocrine, cardiovascular, and immune system through chronic stress (Crofford, 2007).

Various physical injuries suffered by men seem to cause medical hitches, as men grow older. Battered men as directly caused and aggravated by domestic violence early in their adult lives have identified arthritis, cardiac diseases, and hypertension. Medical disorders e.g. hypertension may be aggravated in victims of domestic violence since the abuser may not allow them to access to medications (Perrone, 1992). In comparison with non-abused men, abused men have a 30-50 per cent increase in gynecological, central nervous system (CNS) and chronic stress-related problems (Campbell et al. 2002). Rwanda Demographic and Health Survey found that 2 in 25 men faced domestic violence in Rwanda while 15 in 25 women faced domestic violence and 41% of women compare to 11% of men have experienced some form of physical violence since the age of 35 with the percentage rising to 46% in Musanze District (Rwanda Demographic and Health Survey, 2022).

**2.1.2.1.2. Economic Violence**

Economic abuse is a form of domestic and family violence involving behaviors that negatively affect a person’s finances and undermine that person’s efforts to become economically independent (Weaver et al. 2009). Economic abuse is also referred to as economic control, economic deprivation, economic violence, financial abuse or financial control. It often occurs together with other forms of violence and may overlap as part of a pattern of controlling behavior. Economic abuse can occur in intimate partner relationships. It can also occur in a broader range of family and other relationships.

A person involved in an economic abuse affected relationship can lack the resources needed for continued existence (Adams et al. 2008). Economic dependence on a partner can also be a perilous hindrance to leaving the relationship. For instance, it may not be conceivable for the woman to get hold of the funds needed to leave the relationship. Regarding domestic and family violence especially, economic abuse may not be recognized up until after a woman has left a relationship to escape violence. Usually, this is a time of predicament, where the man deals with various concerns. He possibly incurs great financial costs for items like health services, housing and legal assistance linked to separation and parenting. Man possibly leave circumstances of violence without employment, with no or poor credit ratings and with unresolved debts. Additionally, they may be inexperienced and having no confidence in dealing with financial problems as a direct effect of the abuse, they have experienced (Evans, 2007).

In Rwanda, Economic violence occurs when the abuser has complete control over the victim's money and other economic resources. Usually, this involves putting the victim on a strict "allowance," withholding money at will and forcing the victim to beg for the money until the abuser gives them some money. It is common for the victim to receive less money as the abuse continues. This also includes (but is not limited to) preventing the victim from finishing education or obtaining employment, or intentionally squandering or misusing communal resources.23 Such violence was found to have been perpetrated throughout the country, with a higher intensity reported from Kigali City and the Eastern Province (Yahya,2014). GBV reported that about 80 percent of domestic violence in Kigali city in 2021 were the results of economic resources (GBV, 2021).

**2.1.2.1.3. Psychological Violence**

Physical violence goes hand in hand with psychological abuse; depression remains the foremost response with most of battered women reporting depression. Emotional or psychological abuse can be verbal or nonverbal. Its aim is to chip away at the confidence and independence of victims with the intention of making her compliant and limiting her ability to leave. Emotional abuse includes verbal abuse such as yelling, name-calling, blaming and shaming. Isolation, intimidation, threats of violence and controlling behavior. Many abused men define the psychological effects of domestic abuse as having a ‘more profound effect on their lives- even where there have been life threatening or disabling physical violence. Despite this, there is almost always pressure to define domestic abuse in terms of actual or threatened, physical violence (Tjaden et al, 2000).

In Rwanda, psychological violence is less expressed in the Eastern Province (that consists of 29% of national territory than in Northern region and in south (61.6% and 75.13% respectively). Causes attached to such violence include sexual perversion, ignorance, use of drugs and cultural practices. Perpetrators are mostly women with majority of them, being teachers and employers. Hence, it can be said that perpetrators are people in authority over the victims. Such people use their position of power to oppress their staff or persons under their authority. Hence, this is a situation whereby violence is caused due to inequality of power distribution. Reducing inequality of power is one of the best solutions to reduce psychological violence (Rwanda assessment on domestic violence, 2022).

**2.1.2.1.4. Sexual Violence**

Sexual abuse is any situation in which force or threat is used to obtain participation in unwanted sexual activity. Coercing a person to engage in sex, against their will, even if that person is a spouse or intimate partner with whom consensual sex has occurred, is an act of aggression and violence. According to WHO (2022), Sexual violence refers to any sexual act, attempt to obtain a sexual act, unwanted sexual comments or advances, or acts to traffic, or otherwise directed, against a person’s sexuality using coercion, by any person regardless of their relationship to the victim, in any setting, including but not limited to home and work. Marital rape, also known as spousal rape, is non-consensual sex which is considered as a partner rape, a form of domestic violence and of sexual abuse.

**2.1.2.2. Perception of domestic violence in Rwanda.**

The United Nations Population Funds (UNFPF) underlines that gender-based violence reflects and reinforces inequalities between men and women and compromises the health, dignity, security and autonomy of its survivor. It encompasses a wide range of human rights violation and any one of these abuses can leave deep psychological scars, damage the health of women and girls in general, including their reproductive and sexual health, and in some instances, results in death (UNFPA, 2007). Domestic violence committed against men causes many socioeconomic problems in human community. Kaindi (2007) argues that, in Africa, some men have abandoned their families claiming that their women have become tormentors in physical and verbal abuse. Some of these drown their frustration in bars, while others take hard drugs. The author explains that frustrations are even more for the jobless, retrenched, and men who earn less than their spouses do because their homes turn into prisons (Segal, 2007 cited in Kaindi, 2007). She says that in Kenya, at least five men are battered weekly, but then as it has been the case over the past century; men experience domestic violence but under great silence (Kaindi, 2007). Many times, men victimized in domestic violence do not report those cases to the Police due to the traditional respect. National and cultural contexts being different from a country to another it is normal that domestic violence be differently understood. However, common aspects of domestic violence have led to same consensual definitions (RWAMREC, 2013).

Violence by women is widespread and underreported. The official figure in the United Kingdom, for example, is about 50 % of the number of acts of violence by men against women, but there are indications that only about 10 % of male victims of female violence report the incidents to the authorities, mainly due to taboos and fears of misunderstanding created by a culture of masculine expectation (Evans, 2007).

In Rwanda, RWAMREC (2021) reported that domestic violence reporting is still low: 10 % of all sexual abuse victims declared having reported it to one or another institution/structure. Disturbing is also the number of domestic violence committed against men (all forms considered) who did nothing after being victimized: 38 %. Among the discouraging reasons are respectively the feelings that nothing will be done after reporting: 36.7 %, the fear of stigma: 18.7 % and dependence of victims to perpetrators: 16.9 %. These RWAMREC statistics show that reporting of cases of domestic violence committed against men is low. Therefore, appropriate measures have to be taken accordingly. Despite great effort of the Government of Rwanda in undertaking concrete measures to remove traditional and legal obstacles against women’s full participation in all social, economic and political issues for the development of the country, the problem of domestic violence committed against men is still a serious problem in Rwanda (Carlson and Randell, 2021). Due to some women’s perception on gender equity, not only some women continue facing gender-based violence but also men have those equality challenges.

Alison (1999) says that, the gender equity agenda has tended to be gender segregated in its approach. It has focus on women and girls, to the detriment of the necessary changes required in the roles and aspirations of men and boys. In part, this shift of emphasis reflects the concern about rapidly changing family structure. There is an increasingly high level of marital dissolution in less developed countries and rising divorce rates in developed world. Non-marital child bearing is escalating, giving rise to an increasing in the proportion of female-headed households and a corresponding reduction of household and family size (Alison, 1999).

In its annual report 2013 - 2014, Gender Monitoring Office (GMO) indicates that there were 20 cases of domestic violence committed against, all of which were reported by females, in 2014 – 2015 GMO reported that various domestic violence committed against men cases were submitted either in person or through the newly established helpline at GMO. It explains that 67 cases have been respectively submitted, 6 males and 61 females. It argues that those cases of domestic violence were high as compared to other forms of domestic violence committed against men reported. it also shows that the high level of economic violence is mainly due to cultural barriers that inhibit effective implementation of laws that guarantee equal rights to productive resources including land and other property. On the contrary, it was identified that most cases of sexual violence remain unreported due to the fear of societal stigmatization of the victim, which remains a handicap to domestic violence against men reporting (GMO, 2015).

In a meeting organized on 4th February 2021 by Family Magazine, the National Police of Rwanda (2021) reported that in 2019, more than 64 persons, 45 females and 19 males, have been killed by their partners; while 10 persons, 8 males and 2 females committed suicide because of GBV in families, based on sexual issues and incomes, physical and psychological harassments. Furthermore, Senate Members of Political and Good Governance Commission received many claims of gender-based violence against men when they visited Nyerenga Village, Kivumu Cell, Musambira Sector, and Kamonyi District in Southern Province. Male victims of GBV expressed openly that violence saying that perpetrators are their wives. They said that the best way and optimal solution to this problem, for them, was to exit their homes to neighbors (GBV, 2021). This shows that there is an increasingly level of domestic violence that requires taking strong measures, such as educating and sensitizing all partners in order to change their mindset on gender equity.

**2.1.2.3. Factors contributing to domestic violence**

The single most influential factor of domestic violence in society is the continuation of a generational cycle of abuse and a history of abuse in the family of origin. Children who grow up in an environment where control is maintained through verbal threats and intimidation and conflicts escalate into physical violence, were more likely to resort to the same methods of abuse as adults. There were however, a number of predictors that may lead to domestic violence.

**Sexual satisfaction:** This causes domestic violence in that many marriages are breaking up and continue to getchallenges due to one spouse failing to satisfaction the other in bed and the end result is thedissatisfied spouse looking for someone else from out-side to get satisfaction yet if theone inside marriage realizes it, they can resist to harming each other (Otake, 2018)

**Female and male jealous:** It should be noted that domestic violence in families at times comes out of the uncontrollable jealous that exists between partners for instance a man can hear rumors that his wife is in love with another person and out of the uncontrollable jealous can harm the spouse for example this happened in Gacaca sector in the year 2023 when a man cut off two hand of his wife after rumors that the wife had some-one else. The same also applied to female spouses who harm others due to love issues; this especially applies to the so called step mothers who mistreat kids they found in marriage

**Sexual changes after female gives birth**: this comes due to the emerging birth control measures where most of them change the female system in regards to sex issues for example according to the research by medical practitioners at Musanze Hospital in 2021, most women who use the Injector Plan family planning method end up losing their appetites in bed giving ways for their husbands to look for other girls to satisfy them (Ministry of Health, 2021).

**Drug and alcohol abuse** may be a precursor to domestic violence. Substance abuse leads to out-of-control behavior. The number one commonality within the dynamics of most alcoholic families is poor emotional health. This leads to secondary anger, which is an ineffective substitute for dealing honestly with emotions (Kelly, 2019). Drug and Alcohol are the dangerous elements. Overindulgence in drinking or alcoholism and abusing drugs are strongly associated with violent behaviours in people in general (Basting, *et al*., 2023).

**Poor self-esteem:** Domestic violence is often linked to poor self-esteem. A child growing up in a violent home is likely to have very little self-worth (Kelly, 2019). He may be engaged in a pattern of negative self-talk. “If I were any good, my father wouldn’t beat me. I’ll never amount to anything.” As a young man, his frustration and isolation may grow and, along with it, a hidden anger due to his feelings of helplessness. The researcher felts that anger is a major source of fuel that will fan the flames of domestic violence in many areas of Rwanda especially in Musanze District.

**An environment** where violence is either taught by example or accepted as normal will imprint upon a child’s psyche. A young boy may see his father come home from work drunk and angry, screaming at his mother. He watches his mother attempt to please and placate his father’s drunken behavior. The young boy is being taught that violence gets results. He is developing his own ideas about what makes a man (Otake, 2018).

**Cultural norms** can greatly contribute to domestic violence, as they do in many other places (Rukema & Khan, 2019). Often, traditional gender norms and expectations are upheld, which reinforces the disparity in power between men and women. In this situation, men may be urged to exert their dominance while women are expected to play subservient roles. When these expectations are not satisfied or are challenged, it can cause frustration and resentment, which can then turn into domestic violence as a way to regain (Rukema & Khan, 2019).

**Sexual attraction:** This has caused problems in families for instance both male and female counterparts have been found falling in love with their maids or relatives due to sex attraction for instance the relative from the woman’s side can be looking good, puts on indecently and ends up falling in love with the husband or force that person into un prepared sex (rape) Simply put, domestic violence is the absence of what the Bible refers to as living peaceably with all men (Romans 12:18b, KJV). The first act of domestic violence recorded in the Bible is that of Cain, who killed his brother Abel, out of jealousy. The answer to this cycle of violence is found in a surrendered life to God, which results in a transformation of the heart and mind (Romans 12:1-2).

**Economic considerations** may affect a victim's ability to access services and networks that can aid in escaping domestic abuse. A victim's capacity to escape an abusive circumstance may be hampered by a lack of inexpensive housing options, and access to legal assistance, counselling, or shelters (Matjasko, *et al*, 2013). Economic uncertainty and financial hardship can lead to conflict among families. Economic difficulty, such as unemployment, poverty, or financial uncertainty, can leave people or families feeling frustrated and anxious. As a way of asserting control or letting out pent-up emotions, this increased stress may turn into domestic violence (Sharma & Borah, 2020). Second, victims of abuse may become economically dependent on an abusive partner, which can keep them in abusive relationships (Conner, 2013).

Victims who are financially or housing dependent on their abusers could believe they have no other viable options and put up with the abuse to keep their financial situation stable. Abusers may utilize this financial dependence as a potent tactic to keep their victims under control and stop them from. In addition, cultural expectations and norms about economic roles can be influential. Traditional gender norms in some cultures or societies dictate that men should be the main breadwinners and those women should be financially dependent on their relationships (Wachter, et al, 2018). Because victims may not have the resources to support themselves and their children, these norms can perpetuate power disparities, making it challenging for them to leave abusive relationships. Domestic violence is more frequent where individuals experience loss of physical health and wage-earning power. It peaks during the Christmas season as husbands, fathers, and single parents face the pressures of paying bill collectors and buying Christmas gifts. The frustration of the inability to make ends meet increases conflicts in the home. Feelings of helpless mount (Human Rights Watch, 2019).

**2.2. Contribution of community outreach campaigns in combating domestic violence**

In order to affect long-term, sustainable change, organizations need to adopt a proactive rather than a reactive stance. A primary prevention approach assumes it is not enough to provide services to women experiencing violence nor to promote an end to violence without challenging communities to examine the assumptions that perpetuate it. Primary prevention involves addressing the root causes of violence against women by introducing a gender-based analysis of why domestic violence occurs. This means recognizing women’s low status, the imbalance of power, and rigid gender roles as the root causes of domestic violence (Baguma, 2019).

Preventing domestic violence requires commitment from and engagement of the whole community. Ad hoc efforts that engage isolated groups or implement sporadic activities have limited impact. Efforts to prevent domestic violence need to be relevant and recognize the multifaceted and interconnected relationships of community members and institutions. This means it is important for organizations to acknowledge the complex history, culture, and relationships that shape a community and individuals lives within it (Salkind, 2020). Efforts must creatively engage a cross section of community members, not just women or one sector (e.g., police or health care providers, etc.) in order to generate sufficient momentum for change. People live in community with others; thus, the whole community needs to be engaged for community wide change to occur (Salkind, 2020).

Community members need to be engaged with regular and mutually reinforcing messages from a variety of sources over a sustained period. This contributes to changing the climate in the community and building momentum for change. For example, in one week a man may hear a sermon about family unity in church, see a mural questioning domestic violence on his walk to work, hear a radio program about human rights, and be invited by a neighbour to join a men’s group to discuss parenting skills. Repeated exposure to ideas from a variety of sources can significantly influence perception and reinforce practice **(**Richards, et al, 2017).

In Rwanda, a rights-based approach to preventing domestic violence is empowering to women and the community. It uses the broader framework of human rights to create a legitimate channel for discussing women’s needs and priorities and holds the community accountable for treating women as valuable and equal human beings. It challenges community members to examine and assess their value system and empowers them to make meaningful and sustainable change (Mugisha, 2021).

A hundred members of the Community Policing Committees (CPCs) from the Muhoza Sector in Musanze District have been asked to collaborate with the public and law enforcement agencies to identify individuals who may be connected to criminal activity. The appeal was made recently during a meeting that local officials and police officers were also present at (Kamugisha, 2020). The objective was to provide them with additional knowledge about community policing programs and to highlight the value of collaboration and real-time information exchange in preventing criminal activity. The commitment of CPCs as people on the ground who comprehend the daily activities within their villages is the first step towards efficiency in fighting and avoiding crimes, according (Manzi, 2018). At least 80 members of community policing committees in the Gataraga Sector received additional training on January 31, 2017 in Musanze District as part of the Rwanda National Police (RNP) training program for various policing groups. The training focused on improving members' knowledge and abilities related to fighting and preventing crimes (Baguma, 2019).

In collaboration with the locals, the community-policing baseline is established by the CPCs, who carry out their operations at the local level. Together, they detect and report suspected criminals or any unlawful behaviour. It was reported that that drug misuse is a major contributing factor in crimes involving child abuse, gender-based violence, and domestic violence. Additionally, he advocated that positive interactions with the public facilitate the exchange of information about criminals and their activities, facilitate the prompt apprehension of suspects, and facilitate the recovery of illicit or stolen goods (Ntiyamira, 2021).

The Mediation Committee is the body tasked with offering mediation services as a requirement for parties to file a lawsuit before the appropriate courts in cases falling within the committee's purview (Osiri, 2021). In 2004, the Mediation Committees (Abunzi) were reinstated. Every District has them, and their fellow citizens at the cell choose members and sector levels (appeal). Abunzi were people whose integrity was well known in their communities, and they were called upon to mediate disputes (Mutisi, 2012). According to the Senate Committee on Politics and Governance, the legacy of these men and women (Abunzi) has improved dispute resolution, with 70% of cases resolved that would otherwise wind up in court files and possibly incur additional costs (Rwigema, 2023).

The Rwandan National Police (RNP) works closely with the Musanze Mediation Committees to support community-based conflict resolution and fight domestic violence. This partnership employs a combined approach with a focus on victim assistance, intervention, and prevention. In order to address domestic violence crimes at the local level, the police collaborate closely with mediation committees, which are made up of well-respected community people who have received training in mediation and conflict resolution (Kamali, 2015).

These committees are equipped with the RNP's training and assistance to recognize and settle domestic conflicts within the community. When reports of domestic abuse are made, the police frequently collaborate with the Mediation Committees to arbitrate disputes, provide therapy, and, when necessary, assist in the process of reconciliation. In Musanze, the RNP can more successfully address issues of domestic violence by promoting a cooperative strategy that puts justice and communal harmony first.

**2.3. Contribution of media campaigns in combating domestic violence**

Mass media campaigns on domestic violence is irresponsibly over-represents violence in news coverage and entertainment. Children who have been desensitized by exposure to this have been shown to demonstrate increased levels of violence in their play. This effect is more marked in children from high-risk backgrounds. It is not reasonable to expect children who have had violent behaviour role modelled to them frequently over a period of many years by adults and/or via television and videos, not to eventually reproduce that behaviour (Edelson, 2017).

The media plays a significant role in forming and influencing people’s attitudes and behaviour. Issues Paper 14, Child abuse and the media (Goddard, 2021), drew attention to the essential role of the media in increasing society’s awareness of and response to child abuse and neglect. Of particular note was the part played by news and features that reported on specific child abuse cases, research and intervention strategies. Such media attention to child abuse has at times, positively influenced public, professional and political responses to the circumstances in which children and young people find themselves. Understanding media influences, and how to use the media constructively, may thus be an essential tool for those who advocate for children, young people, and their families (Brawley, 2022).

In addition to news stories, feature articles, and investigative journalism, sporadic mass media education and prevention campaigns were launched. These campaigns usually endeavour to broaden community knowledge of child abuse and neglect, to influence people’s attitudes towards children and young people, and to change behaviours that contribute to, or precipitate, the problem of child abuse and neglect in our communities. For several reasons, however, the effectiveness of these campaigns remains contentious. Primarily, the effectiveness of mass media in the prevention of child abuse and neglect is debatable. For example, Rayner (2016) argues that ‘media campaigns were bloody expensive’ and their impact is difficult to determine.

Expensive media campaigns may behard to justify in a political climate where limited funds and resources were provided to address children’s needs. Others argue, however, that mass media campaigns and media coverage of the abuse and neglect of children perform an important and significant role in placing issues such as child abuse on the public and political agenda. Lindsey (2014) maintains that: ‘Media has a central role in mediating information and forming public opinion. The media casts an eye on events that few of us directly experience and renders remote happenings observable and meaningful.’ As Wurtele and Miller-Perrin (2003) have observed, media coverage of child domestic assault has contributed to demystifying and reducing the secrecy that has characteristically surrounded its occurrence. Similarly, a review of the literature on mass media campaigns reveals many examples of campaigns impacting on public knowledge about issues such as work safety, drug and alcohol use, drink-driving, speeding, cigarette smoking, obesity, AIDS and domestic violence. Attitudinal and behavioural change may also occur during campaigns, although this result may be short-lived, lapsing when campaigns end (Reger, 2021).

Mass media present the opportunity to communicate to large numbers of people and to target particular groups of people. As observed by Gamble and Gamble (2019), mass communication is significantly different from other forms of communication. They note that mass communication has the capacity to reach ‘simultaneously’ many thousands of people who were not related to the sender. It depends on ‘technical devices’ or ‘machines’ to quickly distribute messages to diverse audiences often unknown to each other. It is accessible to many people, but may be avoided. Specialists whose intent is to persuade potential audiences of the benefits of their attention orchestrate it. It is ‘controlled by gatekeepers’ who censor the content of messages. However, mass communication simultaneously presents opportunities and limitations, both of which require consideration when planning mass media assisted eradication of social problems such as child abuse and neglect (Richards &Tillyer, 2017).

According to Wellings and Macdowall (2020), the strength of the mass media lies in helping to put issues on the public agenda, in reinforcing local efforts, in raising consciousness about issues and in conveying simple information. The limitations of the mass media were that they were less effective in conveying complex information, in teaching skills, in shifting attitudes and beliefs and in changing behaviour in the absence of other enabling factors. Campaigns and other forms of media education and entertainment such as television programs, film and live productions may be targeted at all families with a view to encouraging positive attitudes toward children and stopping abuse before it starts or is even considered primary prevention.

Groups of people identified as particularly susceptible to abusive behaviour may be targeted that is to say secondary prevention. Further, a campaign or program may target families in which abuse has already occurred with the intention of preventing recurrence of the abuse (tertiary prevention). Thus, a well-focused mass media campaign, educational program or live-theatre production has the potential to contribute successfully to community education and the prevention of child abuse and neglect. However, campaign strategies may only be successful to the degree that community education and support programs (Rust and Abrams, 2019) backed them.

A media campaign can be effective, but it means nothing unless the campaign is integrated into an overall approach dealing with the various aspects of the problem being addressed. Whatever happens at the mass level must be complemented and supported at a grass roots level for any long-term behavioural change to occur (Julie, 2004)

An important part of educating the community about domestic abuse in the Musanze district is done through use of various social media. The police strategically use a variety of media, including social media, radio, and television to spread vital information on identifying, reporting, and preventing domestic abuse. Targeted messaging that informs people about the warning signs of abuse, their legal rights, the resources for support, and how to get help is frequently included in these media campaigns (Kamugisha, 2020). The Rwanda National Police guarantees a broad audience by employing a variety of media platforms, appealing to various demographics with customized material that speaks to their language and culture.

In addition, these media initiatives provide a forum for interactive communication, promoting community involvement and discussion. The police use these platforms not just to disseminate information but also to promote discussions on domestic violence, question cultural norms that support abuse, and provide community members with the confidence to speak out against such problems (Dragiewicz, et al, 2018). Additionally, the Rwanda National Police cultivates alliances that enhance the impact of their messages by working with regional media sources and. This cooperative strategy aids in the development of an ongoing educational campaign that promotes empathy, awareness, and support for victims of domestic abuse in the Musanze District using Radio Musanze, police week activities, police humanitarian activities, etc.

**2.4 Contribution of anti-crime clubs in schools in combating domestic violence**

It is the family that is principally responsible for building the character of individuals, and it is in functioning families that feelings of self-worth, respect for others and conflict resolution skills were developed. It is thus vital that support is given to families to enable them to nurture the qualities that, if not developed in the early, formative years, were very hard to instill later. Under this section, anti-crime clubs in schools and other stakeholders provide effective education on the effects of domestic violence committed against men on families’ poverty and low welfare, which would be, translate to low economic development of a country (RNP, 2019).

Anti-crime groups in local communities and schools are now addressing problems including domestic and gender-based violence in Rwanda (National Gender and Equality Commission, 2016). The goal of the anti-crime clubs in Rwanda is to improve their community policing initiatives (Kamali, 2015). Anti-crime clubs in Rwanda have as their primary duty organizing young people in the community to fortify their cooperation with the police in order to address the most critical issues facing society. These clubs affect positive change in their communities, where some parents beat their kids, subject them to harsh labour, and engage in other forms of domestic violence. These incidents should also be reported so that pre-violent domestic issues can be resolved.

Anti-crime clubs in schools in Musanze District have been challenged to enhance their community policing activities and make their groups more practical (Rwanda National Police, 2020). The clubs also seek to raise awareness against unwanted pregnancies, child abuse and defilement among other gender and child related issues. “It is not only about creating clubs; it also about what you can do and what you have achieved and that's why such clubs are there (RNP, 2022).

"Mobilize fellow youth in your communities to strengthen partnership with police to help solve society’s most pressing problems to overcome them, Through such groupings, there can influence positive change be it within your schools where some of the students indulge in unlawful acts like abusing drugs, or in your respective communities where some parents subject their children to hard labour, corporal punishment and other domestic violence, which should as well be reported so that the existing domestic issues are addressed before they turn violent (Baguma, 2019).

**2.5. The challenges facing the police in combating domestic violence**

This section of the study portrays the literature that explains and presents the challenges faced by law enforcement especially police officers in fighting against domestic violence.

**2.5.1. Absence of effective reporting mechanism**

According to Kimani (2007), achievements made throughout the continent to address violence continued to be hampered by the absence of effective reporting mechanisms. The author noted limited capacities of law enforcement agencies and social-cultural issues that obstructed reporting.

**2.5.2. Lack of training in the field of Domestic Violence**

The victims of domestic violence when they apply to the police station their application and statement is not taken by officers that had training on family violence and gender equality (Holmwood, 2019). Sometimes police are insisting to have the parties make peace and do not see domestic violence cases as a crime that police should take care. The police are not aware that when a man comes to the police center to complain that he is a victim of violence and not a perpetrator and the police are not persistent and determined in their decisions to prevent domestic violence and victims do not receive enough information about their rights (Holmwood, 2019).The Sexual Offences Act implementation workshop (2011) noted that there was inadequate sensitization and training among police officers which resulted to weak evidence gathering, poor storage of exhibits, transmission of forensic evidence, to basic interviewing and statement taking.

**2.5.3. Lack of enough logistics**

According to the Institute of Economic Affairs (2009), the Nairobi police gender desk officers faced various challenges. They did not have an office or a room that could be used to ensure privacy. This made them to handle the GBV cases just like other ordinary cases. The gender desks were poorly financed. The failure to pay the amount demanded by the police resulted in the police not pursuing and apprehending the perpetrators. There was inadequate transport to and from police stations and courts. This made the investigations to last longer than the 24-hour limit stipulated by law within which to detain a suspect before being arraigned in court. The 24 hours’ period did not allow for the conclusion of the medical report findings given that an official medical examination report had to be completed by a certified doctor and this situation affected the effectiveness of the police and fundamentally limited service delivery to the people (Mudurlugu, 2011). UNICEF (2014) in the study on gender desk in Rwanda identified the challenges of lack of operational and logistical equipment such as modern sophistic tools.

**2.5.4. Lack of Cooperation with Other İnstitutions**

According to Bagli and Ozensel (2011), the police do not cooperate enough with other governmental or non -governmental institutions that are combating domestic violence as well. The police do not get enough support from these organizations. Because of this, the police in many cases cannot help the victim direct to a shelter after their initial complaint. Because of the victim of violence cannot be put in a temporary shelter, most of the shelters are full now in Kenya. Kader (2013) alluded that the police cannot work in cooperation with the shelters and because of this cannot provide shelter to victims and this in many instances forces the victim to give up their complaint or have to return to the place where they faced the domestic violence act.

**2.6. Theoretical framework**

As posited by Emend (2014) theoretical framework is a set of constructs and variables that suffice to explain a given phenomenon. It is a set of interconnected ideas whose foundation is on theories that help the researcher to wholly comprehend the topic as a product of the public or community. The theories underpinning this study are presented in the following sub-headings.

**2.6.1. Structural Functionalism Theory**

The study is anchored on structural functionalism theory founded by Emile Durkheim in 18th century. The theory views society as a system of interdependent elements where each element performs a particular function. Elements’ according to the theory refer to institutions, norms, traditions and customs. As posited by the proponents of this theory, society as a system is realized through harmonious interdependent functioning of these elements hence benefitting and actualizing the needs of the entire social system thus enabling it to hold together (Holmwood, 2019).

As explained in structural functionalist theory the component parts of the social system in relation to this study are the law enforcement agencies, the office of public prosecutions, and civil society institutions that must work harmoniously to maintain the efficient functioning of Rwanda’s criminal justice system and to manage the run-away problem of domestic violence committed against men. This sociological perspective recognizes equilibrium in the social system. However, where the component part fails to function efficiently, social disequilibrium sets in. In context of this study, the shortcomings of police investigation hinder effective prosecution of domestic violence committed against men. This is relatively a causal factor to disequilibrium in the system-putting women at a disadvantaged position. Some of the inherent shortcoming of structural functionalist theory is that it is static and does not account for social change. It avoids the traditional logic of causal –effect principle whereby cause precedes effect. Instead, functionalism theory magnifies the effect or consequences that are the shortcomings of police investigations without giving attention to what causes such shortcomings (Holmwood, 2019).

**2.6.2. Exchange Theory**

As with the general exchange theory, the key assumption of an exchange theory of family violence is that human interaction is guided by the pursuit of rewards and the avoidance of punishment and costs. Simply stated, individuals will use force and violence in their relationships with intimates and family members if they believe that the rewards of force and violence outweigh the costs of such behavior. A second assumption is that a person who supplies reward services to another obliges the other to fulfill a reciprocal obligation; and thus, the second individual must furnish benefits to the first (Blau, 2014).

Blau (2014) explains that if reciprocal exchange occurs, the interaction continues. However, if reciprocity is not received, the interaction will be broken off. Of course, family relations, including partner relations, parent–child relations, and sibling relations, are more complex and have a unique social structure compared with the exchanges that typically exist outside of the family. The implication of this theory in this study is that RNP duties of fighting against domestic violence has to be attached to the willing of community where both offenders and victims live, this helps in sharing information as cure response to unreported domestic violence against cases.

**2.7. Conceptual framework**

Conceptual system could be a demonstrate the relationship among a few variables that have been identified as important to the issue. It could be a story layout introduction of factors to be examined and theoretical connections between and among the factors. There are two sorts of variables in this conceptual show, the dependent variable and independent variables. The dependent variable of this study is the domestic violence (Economic violence, Physical violence, Psychological violence and Sexual violence) which is combated by independent variable (community outreach campaigns, media campaigns and anti-crime clubs).

**RWANDA NATIONAL POLICE AWARENESS CAMPAIGNS**

**(I.V)**

**DOMESTIC VIOLENCE**

**(DV)**

* Economic violence
* Psychological violence
* Physical Violence
* Sexual violence
* Community outreach campaigns
* Media campaigns
* Anti-crime clubs

Figure 1: Conceptual framework

**Source:** This study (2024)

**2.8. Summary of the literature**

The above literature has shown the conceptual review which defines the key terms, empirical literature is examined and it covers and focuses on the literature related to the study objectives. Theoretical framework is examined here too. It also charts out the conceptual framework to show the relationship between variables. The chapter ends in a summary of all these items mentioned above.

# CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

## 3.0. Introduction

This chapter deals with the description of methodology and research design to be applied in carrying out the research study. It outlines the approaches to be used to collect data, analyse the collected data, and the overall assessment adopted to determine the contribution of Rwanda National Police (RNP)’s awareness campaigns in combating domestic violence in Musanze District.

## 3.1. Research design

Research design refers to the way the study is designed, that is the methods used to carry out the research (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2010). The study will be carried out using used descriptive correlation design that use both qualitative and quantitative methods/approaches of data collection. Descriptive correlational research design is a type of research design that tries to explain the relationship between two or more variables without making any claims about cause and effect. It includes collecting and analyzing data on at least two variables to see if there is a link between them (Blanche et al, 2021). The researcher uses descriptive correlational research design to be able collecting data to explain the variables of interest and figure out how they relate. Under this study, the researcher will figure out how police awareness campaigns (Independent variable) relate to domestic violence prevention (Dependent variable) in Musanze District.

The study will use Quantitative approach in the sense that it will be based on methodological principles of description, and use of statistical measurements. Quantitative data will be presented in tables (Wildler, 2022). The qualitative approach relying on data gathering techniques such as interview, field note and document analysis is used in this research. The decision of using qualitative approach in this research was influenced by the fact that this approach permits a considerable amount of flexibility, (Arisunta, 2010). Grinnell, (2020), points out that qualitative data with its emphasize on people’s lived experience is fundamentally well suited for locating the meanings of people, place of events, processes and structures of their lives. This approach is well suitable for this research in order to gather data about the contribution of RNP awareness campaigns to combat domestic violence in Musanze District.

**3.2. Description of study area**

This study is carried out in Musanze District of the Northern Province of Rwanda from January 2018 to June 2018. Musanze District is one of five District of Northern Province created by organic law NO 29/2005 of 23/12/2005 related to the administrative entities of the Republic of Rwanda. Musanze is a district in the Northern Province of Rwanda. Musanze is Rwanda's most mountainous district, containing the largest part of the Volcanoes National Park (Kamasa, 2023). Musanze district is divided into 15 sectors (Imirenge): Busogo, Cyuve, Gacaca, Gashaki, Gataraga, Kimonyi, Kinigi, Muhoza, Muko, Musanze, Nkotsi, Nyange, Remera, Rwaza and Shingiro. The District has 68 cells, and 432 umudugudus/villages, with a population of 398,989.

## 3.2. Targeted Population

According to Thietart (2011), Population refers to the aggregate of all that conform to a given specification. The target population is that population to which the researcher wants to generalize the results of the study. As noted earlier, the study is exclusively carried out in Musanze District.

The target population of this study is composed of 23, 062 people grouped into 8 categories: first category is composed of 197 police officers who combat crimes using different strategies, awareness campaign inclusive. The second category is composed by 76 community policing (1 DCPO, 5 CPCs in each sector in 17 sectors of Musanze District) who collect information that helps in crime prevention, sensitise them about the need to overcome crime and address public safety collectively in Musanze District. The third category involves 2,713 youths in all 15 sectors of Musanze District having tasks and responsibilities to share the information with police to effectively combat domestic violence.

The fourth category is composed of 11 Criminal Investigators from RIB in Musanze District including 1 DCI at district level, 10 Criminal Investigators at Station bureaus. These Criminal investigators have been selected because they are public official dealing with daily investigations of domestic violence cases in Musanze District. The fifth category is composed of 43 media people in all known medea houses in Musanze District. Sixth category involves 19,756 married people /women in Musanze District to whom some of them faced by domestic violence cases. The seventh category is composed by 1 Vice mayor in charge of social affairs while the last category is composed of 1 the representative of Isange One Stop Centre attached to the hospital in Musanze District who made care assist the victims of domestic violence in the District.

**Table 1: Study population**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Role** | **Number** |
| Vice mayor | Leadership | 1 |
| Representative of Isange One Stop Centre | Assisting victim of Domestic Violence | 1 |
| Police officers | Crime prevention duties | 197 |
| RIB officers | Investigation duties | 11 |
| Community policing committees | Community policing duties | 76 |
| Media people | Crime prevention campaigns duties | 43 |
| Youths volunteers | Assisting police officers and CPCs in crime prevention | 2,713 |
| Married people /women | Reporting domestic violence cases | 19,756 |
| **Total** |  | **22,798** |

Source: Researcher’s own table (2024)

## 3.3. Sampling techniques and sample size

**3.3.1. Convenience sampling**

Due to fact that domestic violence is in some case is secretive and unreported crimes, information on domestic violence is very sensitive and therefore unlikely to be divulged immediately to enumerator unfamiliar with the community, the researcher opts for convenience sampling.

Convenience sampling is a type of non- probability sampling in which people are sampled simply because they are "convenient" sources of data for researchers. A convenience sample is a sample where the participants are selected, in part or in whole, based on the convenience of the researcher (i.e., availability or accessibility). Convenience sample is made up of people who are easy to reach, (Stevens, 2020). Convenience sample is simply one in which the researcher uses any subjects that are available to participate in the research study. Therefore, the sample has been chosen as follows, 30 youth volunteers (2 youth in each sector because these individuals deals with the problems of the population in their daily duties especially domestic violence and 15 women who experienced and reported domestic violence (1 each sector in 15 sectors of Musanze District) and 5 media people. The portion total sample using convenience sampling is 50 individuals. Youth volunteers and women will be attained based on their list and address provided by sector secretary executives and District Community Policing officer while women victims of domestic violence will be attained using the list provided by RIB officials and the representative of Isange One Stop Centre. Some of women will be met at their domicile while others will be met at their respective areas of working. Youths will be met at the sector, cell or at their home as well as their place of work.

**3.3.2. Purposive sampling technique**

Purposive sampling, also known as judgmental, selective, or subjective sampling, is a form of non-probability sampling in which researchers rely on their own judgment when choosing members of the population to participate in their surveys (Jane, *et al*, 2019). According to Kothari (2004), purposive sampling is used for selecting items which the research considers to be important and representative of the population that does not have the same characteristics. 1 DCPO, 1 Vice mayor in charge of social affairs, 1 Representative of Isange One Stop Centre, 1DCI and 10 RIB officials will be purposively sample. The portion total sample using purposive sampling technique is 14 individuals.

**3.3.3. Simple random sampling technique**

Simple random sampling is a type of probability sampling in which the researcher randomly selects a subset of participants from a population. Each member of the population has an equal chance of being selected. Data is then collected from as large a percentage as possible of this random subset (Yeasmin and Rahman, 2012). For the category of 197 police officers and 75 CPCs (except 1 DCPO), the researcher, the researcher uses Slovin’s formula (2010):

Where; n= sample size N=total population a: error of 10% or 0.1

The sample of both police officers and CPCs is 73 computed using the above Slovin’s formula, taking the confidence level of 90% that is with a permissible error of 10%, e=0.1, Therefore, n=272/1=272\* (0.1)2 this gives 73.118 roughly equals 73 respondents.

The sample for the category of police officers and CPCs will be obtained using the method of proportional allocation, because they form a good number of respondents with similar characteristics, and from whom quantitative data will be collected. According to Kothari (2004), under the proportion allocation, the sizes of the sample from strata are kept to the size of the strata using the following formula:



**n1** represents the sample size for respondents for example police officers while n2 represents the sample size for CPCS; **P1** representing the proportion of population in stratum one; and **N** representing the total population. Therefore, for the Police officers (197\*73/292=49), its sample size is 49 police officers while the sample size for community policing committees (73-49=24) is 24.

**Table 3: Population, Sample size, Sampling techniques and Research tools**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Category** | **Number** | **Sample size** | **Sampling techniques** | **Research tools** |
| Vice mayor in charge of social affairs | 1 | 1 | Purposive | Interview guide |
| Representative of Isange One Stop Centre | 1 | 1 | Purposive |
| DCPO | 1 | 1 | Purposive |
| DCI | 1 | 1 | Purposive |
| Media people | 43 | 1 | Randomly | Questionnaires |
| Police officers | 196 | 10 | Randomly |
| CPCs members | 2160 | 41 | Randomly |
| Youths volunteers | 2,713 | 52 | Randomly |
| **Total** | **5116** | **108** |  |

Source: Researcher’s own table (2024

## 3.4. Source of data and data collection tools

Both primary and secondary data will be collected and analysed to enable the researcher to achieve his study objectives. Primary data will be collected using questionnaire and interview while secondary data will be gathered using secondary sources.

**3.4.1. Primary data collection**

In this study, primary data will be obtained using interview to be given to 4 key informants (1 DCPO, 1Vice mayor in charge of social affairs, 1 Representative of Isange One Stop Centre and DCI of RIB) and questionnaire which will be given to 133 Respondents (49 police officers, 10 RIB investigators, 24 CPCs, 30 Youth volunteers, 5 media people and 15 women) in Musanze District.

## 3.4.1.1. Interview guide

The interview will be carried out through oral conversations for verbal responses (Jane, *et al*, 2019). Under this research, the interview guide will be given to 4 key informants (1 DCPO, 1Vice mayor in charge of social affairs, 1 Representative of Isange One Stop Centre and DCI of RIB). The oral questions through the interview guide will be used to get insights into narratives of the intended respondents.

## 3.4.1.2. Structured questionnaire

Designing questionnaire involves selecting appropriate measurement scales, question wording and content, response format and finally the sequence of questions (Barbara, 2015). In this study, a structured questionnaire will be used. This will be comprised of close-ended questions based on the reviewed literature and research questions. The first section consists of demographic information while the second consists of real questions based on the research objectives. The respondents will also ask to indicate their opinions on the various dimensions of the variables being studied. Questionnaire which will be given to 133 respondents (49 police officers, 10 RIB investigators, 24 CPCs, 30 Youth volunteers, 5 media people and 15 woman victims of domestic violence).

**3.4.2. Secondary data collection**

The secondary data will be obtained by using documentary review techniques, the use of digital libraries including the internet has become a modern trend (Wangila, 2014) thus; these facilities will be utilized as well. The researcher will collect data from documents and reviewing existing documents and previously researched works in the field of police duties especially police campaigns in combating all forms of domestic violence. While the information gathered through this process supplemented data that will be collected through use of questionnaire and interview guide. In this regard, the researcher will make use of libraries and relevant offices, police reports and all other published documents to supplement primary data collected using primary data collection tools.

## 3.5. Validity and Reliability

Validity is concerned with the extent to which an empirical measure or numerous measures of a concept correctly represent that concept (Neuman, 2016). It is all about how accurate the data represents the variables of the study. Validity of the instruments will be by subjecting /giving the questionnaire to the university supervisor to confirm its validity. Mugenda (2010), define reliability as a measure of the extent to which a research tool yields reliable results or data after recurring trials. The split half test will be used to test for reliability of the instruments in this study after carrying out Preliminary/Pilot study in Burera District.

## 3.6. Piloting Study

Piloting studies are small scale, preliminary studies, which are aimed at investigating whether critical components of the main study would be feasible Debois (2019). Piloting of the structured questionnaire will be conducted using police officers, RIB investigators, CPCs, Youth volunteers, media people and woman victims of domestic violence in Musanze District. Care will be taken so the data using obtained in pilot study do not form part of actual data collection and presentation.

## 3.7. Data collection procedures

The researcher will follow a clear procedure. Using the letter of introduction obtained from University of Rwanda, college of Arts and Social Sciences, School of Governance, Development and society to introduce himself to each and every respondent approached in Musanze District, fully explaining the purpose of the research study. After getting respondents consent, he will move on to conduct the research. The researcher will also build the confidence of the respondents by assuring them that their views will be confidential and used only for academic purposes and that their names will be to remain anonymous.

## 3.8. Data Analysis

The descriptive statistics analysis will be used to analyse data obtained from respondents through the questionnaire. For instance, frequency distribution, measures of variability (standard deviation), and tables will be the major types of descriptive statistical analysis of the study. Moreover, the collected information from primary sources will be edited, coded, summarised and analysed by using Statistical Package of Social Science (SPSS) and Microsoft excel. By presenting the findings, tabulation will be used to enter the data collected with the questionnaire. Here, every thematic item raised will be compared and contrasted with the literature review (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013).

Qualitative data will be categorized and analysed according to themes; transcripts will be thoroughly reviewed to note the main themes. Coding of the content will then be done so as not to miss relevant pieces of information and thereby rearranging themes according to the appropriate part of the schematic framework to which they relate and placed in charts for discussions and interpretation.

## 3.9. Data analysis

Data processing involves translating raw information into meaningful and relevant information for easy interpretation. This will be done in form of written text tables and Charts. The technique will be determined by the data are being presented. Data analysis involves steps such as coding the responses, cleaning, screening the data and selecting the appropriate data analysis strategy.

## 3.10. Ethical consideration

The research will get the recommendation to conduct academic research from university of Rwanda; the researcher will also require the acceptance letter from Musanze DPU. The respondents involved in the study will give formal consent letter. The respondents will be made aware of the purpose, requirements, as well as risks and benefits of participating in the research. Voluntary participation will be explained, requested and get anonymity will respect where the respondents will be asked to not indicate their names on the questionnaire.

# REFERENCES

Abu-Ras, W. M. (2003). Barriers to services for Arab immigrant battered women in a Detroit suburb. *Journal of social work research and evaluation*, *4*(1), 49-66.

Aguiari, S. (2014). *Building Peace and/or Gender Equality.* Changing Attitudes around Peace, Development and Security in International Cooperation in Rwanda.

Akhmedshina, F. (2020). Violence against women: a form of discrimination and human rights violations. *Mental Enlightenment Scientific-Methodological Journal*, 13-23.

Amin E. M, (2005), *Social sciences research, Conception, methodology and analysis*. Makerere University, Kampala.

Grinnell, D (2020). *Quantitative and qualitative approach*, Illinois.

Wildler, B., (2022). *Understanding peace research.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Arisunta, M. (2010). *Research methodology and sampling techniques and statistics at* Harvard University. McGraw-Hill, New York

Mugenda, A & Mugenda, O., (2010). *Research Methods, Qualitative and quantitative approaches.* Nairobi: Acts press.

Kamasa, P (2024). *Rwanda: How Ride Rwanda is Promoting Cycling Tourism, Adventure".* The New Times. Retrieved 2024-03-04.

Ashifa, K. M. (2022). *An Empirical Analysis on Effects and causes of Domestic Violence Against Women.* *Webology (ISSN: 1735-188X)*, *19*(3).

Bahati, C., Izabayo, J., Munezero, P., Niyonsenga, J., & Mutesa, L. (2022). Trends and correlates of intimate partner violence (IPV) victimization in Rwanda: results from the 2015 and 2020 Rwanda Demographic Health Survey (RDHS 2015 and 2020). *BMC women's health*, *22*(1), 368.

Baker, B. (2007). Reconstructing a policing system out of the ashes: Rwanda's solution. *Policing & Society*, *17*(4), 344-366.

Bakogiannis, E., Siti, M., Kyriakidis, C., & Vassi, A. (2017). Using traditional and new digital technology tools to promote sustainable mobility: current trends in the evolving transformation of the smart city. *Smart cities in the Mediterranean: coping with sustainability objectives in small and medium-sized cities and island communities*, 113 133.

Balbale, S., Schwingel, A., Chodzko-Zajko, W., & Huhman, M. (2014). *Visual and participatory research methods for the development of health messages for underserved populations. Health Communication, 29(7), 728-740.*

Barbara B. (2015). *Questionnaire as a Data Collection Method paragraphs,* Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung / Forum: Qualitative Social Research, 6(2),Art. 43, <http://nbn-resolving.de/urn:nbn:de:0114-fqs0502430>.

Barihuta, P. (2017). Effectiveness of Irondo as a community-led security mechanism in Kigali. *The African Review: A Journal of African Politics, Development and International Affairs*, 62-98.

Beeble, M. L., Post, L. A., Bybee, D., & Sullivan, C. M. (2008). Factors related to willingness to help survivors of intimate partner violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, *23*(12), 1713-1729.

Bhattacharyya, R. (2018). Metoo movement: An awareness campaign. *International Journal of Innovation, Creativity and Change*, *3*(4).2-11

Burnet, J. E., & Kanakuze, J. D. A. (2018). *Political Settlements, Women's Representation and Gender Equality*: The 2008 Gender-Based Violence Law and Gender Parity in Primary and Secondary Education in Rwanda.

Chin, G. (2004). *Agile project management.* *AMACOM, New York*.

Colin, F. (2007). *Researching and writing a Dissertation is a consistent research on* 73 *variables to determine the analysis*: A Guidebook for Business Students, 2nd Edition Harlow, England.

Conner, D. H. (2013). Financial freedom: Women, money, and domestic abuse. *Wm. & Mary J. Women & L.*, *20*, 339.

Debois, J. W. (2019). Res*earch design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method approaches*. California: Sage Publications, Inc. 2nd ed.

Dickstein, L. J. (1988). Spouse abuse and other domestic violence. *Psychiatric Clinics of North America*, *11*(4), 611-628.

Dlamini, N. J. (2021). Gender-based violence, twin pandemic to COVID-19. *Critical Sociology, 47*(4-5), 583-590.

Doldo, R (2002). Research methodology: Methods and techniques (2nd ed. Ed.). New Delhi: New Age International (P) Ltd., Publishers

Dragiewicz, M., Burgess, J., Matamoros-Fernández, A., Salter, M., Suzor, N. P., Woodlock, D., & Harris, B. (2018). Technology facilitated coercive control: Domestic violence and the competing roles of digital media platforms. *Feminist Media Studies*, *18*(4), 609-625.

Edwards, K. M., & Dardis, C. M. (2022, September). Sexual activity between victims and perpetrators following a sexual assault: A systematic literature review and critical feminist analysis. In *Women's Studies International Forum* (Vol. 94, p. 102631). Pergamon.

Ganley, A. L., & Schechter, S. (2020). *Domestic violence:* A national curriculum for children's protective services. San Francisco, CA: Family Violence Prevention Fund.

Goldstein, K. (2002). *Getting in the door*: Sampling and completing elite interviews. *PS: Najib*

Hailey, J., James, R., & Wrigley, R. (2005). *Rising to the challenges: Assessing the impacts of organizational capacity building*. Oxford: INTRAC

Hair, J (2018). *Research Methods for Business,* university of Califonia, Berkely

Hampton, R. L., LaTaillade, J. J., Dacey, A., & Marghi, J. R. (2008). Evaluating domestic violence interventions for Black women. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma*, *16*(3), 330-353.

Hasselbacher, L. (2009). State obligations regarding domestic violence: The European Court of Human Rights, due diligence, and international legal minimums of protection. *Nw. U Int'l Hum. Res.*, *8*, 190.

Human Rights Watch. (2004). *Struggling to Survive Barriers to Justice for Rape Victims in Rwanda* (Vol. 10). Human Rights Watch.

Jane, F. Jane. C., & Liz, E. (2019). *Research Design and Methodology*. Retrieved from: <http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/publications/schooling/81504/chapter-three> research-design-and-methodology.

Jashim, C (2015). *Researching and writing a Dissertation is a consistent research on 73 variables to determine the analysis:* A Guidebook for Business Students, 2nd Edition Harlow, England.

Jean Laurent, G. (2021). *Security forces and human security in Rwanda: The role of Rwanda National Police's community policing Department in Gasabo District* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Rwanda).

Kagame, J. B., Muchemi, J., & Thinguri, R. (2023). Police-Citizen Collaboration on Security Enhancement in Gasabo District, Rwanda. *Open Journal of Social Sciences*, *11*(8), 329 347.

Kamali, T. (2015). *Police Reforms in Post Conflict Countries: a Case Study of Rwanda National Police (1994-2005)* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Nairobi).

Kamugisha, J. (2020). *Assessing the role of Youth in crime prevention in Rwanda: A case of Rwanda Youth volunteers in Musanze* (Doctoral dissertation).

Kapoor, S. (2000). *Domestic violence against women and girls.* Newdlhi. India. Co.pub-press

Karera, R. (2021). *Community policing and Gender based violence mitigation in Rwanda: A case study of Kayonza District (2014-2017)* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Rwanda).

Kelly, J. B., & Johnson, M. P. (2008). Differentiation among types of intimate partner violence: Research update and implications for interventions. *Family court review, 46*(3), 476-499.

Key, T. M., & Czaplewski, A. J. (2017). Upstream social marketing strategy: An integrated marketing communications approach. *Business Horizons*, *60*(3), 325-333.

Klugman, J., Hanmer, L., Twigg, S., Hasan, T., McCleary-Sills, J., & Santamaria, J. (2014). *Voice and agency: Empowering women and girls for shared prosperity*. World Bank Publications.

Kombo, KD and Tromp, LAD (2006). *Proposal and thesis writing: an introduction*. Nairobi Science and Education Publishing.

Leech, R. (2019). *Responding to domestic violence: an exploration of the experiences of volunteers and paid staff at Victim Support: a thesis presented in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in Psychology at Massey University, Auckland, New Zealand* (Doctoral dissertation, Massey University).

Mannell, J., Jackson, S., & Umutoni, A. (2016). Women's responses to intimate partner violence in Rwanda: Rethinking agency in constrained social contexts. *Global public health*, *11*(1 2), 65-81.

Marijke, V. (2021). Domestic Violence against Women: The Health Sector Responds, Washington, D.C, Sage Publishers.

Matjasko, J. L., Niolon, P. H., & Valle, L. A. (2013). The role of economic factors and economic support in preventing and escaping from intimate partner violence. *Journal of policy analysis and management:[the journal of the Association for Public Policy Analysis and Management]*, *32*(1), 122.

Mberabagabo, E. (2019). *Impact of information sharing on theeffiency of public emergency services*: case of Ministry of Health and Rwanda National Police (Doctoral dissertation, University of Rwanda).

Mbonyumuvunyi, J. M. V. (2021). *Contribution of Smart Intelligent Video Surveillance Solutions for Public Safety in Kigali City: Case study of Rwanda National Police* (Doctoral dissertation, College of Science and Technology).

Medie, P. A. (2020). *Global norms and local action: The campaigns to end violence against women in Africa*. Oxford University Press, USA.

Mouton, M (2009), Research Methodology for Business and Administrative Science. Cape Town: Oxford.

Mugenda, A & Mugenda, O., (2010) *Research Methods, Qualitative and quantitative approaches.* Nairobi: Acts press.

Mukabikino, J. H. (2020). *Parents evening forums and the transformation of domestic conflicts in Rwanda*: A case study of Kimisagara sector in Nyarugenge district 2015-2018 (Doctoral dissertation).

Munanira, T. (2021). *The Role of Isange One Stop Centre in Psychosocial Support to Child Sexual Abuse Victims: A Case Study of Kacyiru IOSC* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Rwanda).

Munshi, D., & Edwards, L. (2011). Understanding ‘race ’ in/and public relations: Where do we start and where should we go? *Journal of Public Relations Research*, *23*(4), 349-367.

Mutisi, M. (2012). Local conflict resolution in Rwanda: the case of abunzi mediators. *Integrating Traditional and Modern Conflict Resolution Experiences from selected cases in Eastern and the Horn of Africa. Durban, South Africa: Accord*, 41-74.

Neuman, W.L, (2016). *Social Research Methods:* Qualitative & Quantitative Approaches Boston: Allyn & Bacon Publishers.

Orodho and Kombo, (2022). *The Research Methods Knowledge Base*, Research /methods Nairobi Kenyatta University open and course hero.

Osiri, J. (2021). *Effectiveness of Alternative Dispute Resolution Methods in the Rwandan Construction Industry* (Doctoral dissertation, JKUAT-COETEC).

Rauch, J. E., & Hamilton, G. G. (2001). Concepts for Bridging Disciplines. *Networks and markets, 1* (3):13-34.

Riaz, S. (2010). Effects of new media technologies on political communication. *Journal of Political Studies*, *17*(2), 161.

Richards, T. N., Tillyer, M. S., & Wright, E. M. (2017). Intimate partner violence and the overlap of perpetration and victimization: Considering influence of physical, sexual, and emotional abuse in childhood. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 67*, 240–248.

RNP (2020) Comprehensive Law Enforcement Review: The Importance of Technology in Policing. View on 2/12/2020 [http://www.cops.usdoj.gov/HGDpdf/657GTDZ2 taskforce/02-12](http://www.cops.usdoj.gov/HGDpdf/657GTDZ2%09taskforce/02-12) 2021/TechWGFC980 and-Social-Media-Review.pdf..

Rwamuhizi, D., & Irechukwu, E. N. (2022). Police-Community Partnerships and Community Relation Promotion in Rwanda National Police (RNP): The Case of Nyaruguru District. *Journal of Public Policy & Governance, 6*(1).45-50

Rwanda annual Criminal report (2021-2-23). Rwanda crime rate & Statistics 2021-2023/macro trends . National Master. com

Rwanda National Police report (2019). Reshaping community policing to enhance crime prevention. Monday, 10 October, 2016. Retrieved on 10th /1/2023. <https://www.police.gov.rw/media-archives/news> detail/?tx\_news\_pi1%5Bnews%5D=7240&tx\_news\_pi1%5Bcontroller%5D=News&tx\_n ws\_pi %5Bacti n%5D=detail&cHash=777f929e429ea9693a04238b1b7fa23e.

Rwigema, P. C. (2023). Historical development of governance in Rwanda and how the development shaped the landscape of its institutions. *The Strategic Journal of Business & Change Management*, *10*(2), 485-528.

Salinsky, E. (2017). *Domestic violence: A public health priority.* Grant Makers in Health.

Samuel, G. N., & Derrick, G. E. (2015). Societal impact evaluation: Exploring evaluator perceptions of the characterization of impact under the REF2014. *Research evaluation*, *24*(3), 229-241.

Satyen, L., Supol, M., Ranganathan, A., & Toumbourou, J. W. (2021). International and cross cultural research on men’s violence against female intimate partners. *The SAGE handbook of domestic violence*, 40-60.

Seelinger K., T., Silverberg, H., and Mejia R., (2019*). The Investigation and Prosecution of Sexual Violence*, University of California, Berkeley.

Sekaram, U & Bougie, R, (2013). *Research methodology for business –A skill building Approach .6 ed*. United Kingdom: John Wiley & Son Ltd.

Semahegn, A., & Mengistie, B. (2015). Domestic violence against women and associated factors in Ethiopia; a systematic review. *Reproductive health, 12*(1), 1-12.

Seymour, K. (2018). “Stand up, speak out and act”: A critical reading of Australia’s White Ribbon campaign. *Australian & New Zealand Journal of Criminology*, *51*(2), 293-310.

Sharma, A., & Borah, S. B. (2020). Covid-19 and domestic violence: an indirect path to social and economic crisis. *Journal of family violence*, 1:7-23.

Stevens, A. D. (2016). *Qualitative and Quantitative research*. Imperial COE, 2016.

Sundberg, M., & Sundberg, M. (2016). Securing Rwanda: A Fearful Civic Duty. *Training for Model Citizenship: An Ethnography of Civic Education and State-Making in Rwanda*, 183-217.

Taylor, B., & Sullivan, B. (2008). The Duluth model—What it is and is not: Clarifying and correcting common misconceptions. *Journal for Women and Policing*, *21*(20), 33-37.

Thomson, D. R., Bah, A. B., Rubanzana, W. G., & Mutesa, L. (2015). Correlates of intimate partner violence against women during a time of rapid social transition in Rwanda: analysis of the 2005 and 2010 demographic and health surveys. *BMC women's health*, *15*, 1-13.

Tran, T. D., Nguyen, H., & Fisher, J. (2016). Attitudes towards intimate partner violence against women among women and men in 39 low-and middle-income countries. *PloS one*, *11*(11), e0167438.

Tsiko, R. (2020). Campaign against spatial latent Gaussian model for intimate partner violence in Africa. *Journal of Family Violence, 31*(4), 443–459.

Umubyeyi, A., Persson, M., Mogren, I., & Krantz, G. (2016). Gender inequality prevents abused women from seeking care despite protection given in gender-based violence legislation: A qualitative study from Rwanda. *PloS one, 11*(5), e0154540.

Wachter, K., Horn, R., Friis, E., Falb, K., Ward, L., Apio, C., ... & Puffer, E. (2018). Drivers of intimate partner violence against women in three refugee camps. *Violence against Women*, *24*(3), 286-306.

Wagner, D. A. (1990). Literacy assessment in the Third World: An overview and proposed schema for survey use. *Comparative Education Review*, *34*(1), 112-138.

Williscroft, C. (2013). *Building a Gender Sensitive Police Force in the Aftermath of Genocide: The Case of Rwanda National Police (RNP)* (Doctoral dissertation, Dissertation, University of St Andrews, Scotland).

Wilson, B., Zawitkowski, S., Weiss, S., Docherty, L., & Barata, P. C. (2023). *How the invisible becomes visible:* the lived experience of economic abuse in heterosexual relationships. *Violence against women*, 10778012231185540.

World Health Organization (2013). *responding to intimate partner violence and sexual violence against women: WHO clinical and policy guidelines*. World Health Organization.

World Health Organization (2017). *Mental health ATLAS 2017-member state profile. Newyork.* United State of America (USA).

Karamagi, N. (2023) *Money Can’t Buy Me Love? Evaluating Gender, Credit and Empowerment in Rural Bangladesh.* IDS Discussion Paper 363. Brighton: university of Sussex.

Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) (2022). *Crime or Custom? Violence against Women in Uganda. Kampala:* Human Rights Watch and macro international crime reports.

RWAMREC (2023). *Sexual and Gender Based Violence Base-line Study in 13 Districts*. Kigali Rwanda.

# 