INFLUENCE OF INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE (IPV) ON WOMEN’S PRODUCTIVE WORK IN THE INFORMAL SECTOR IN NAKURU MUNICIPALITY, KENYA

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ABSTRACT: Globally, intimate partner violence is experienced in various cultures and affects people across societies irrespective of their economic status. This is also the case in Sub-Saharan Africa. Kenya is reported to show an increasing trend as reported by Medical and Human Rights groups. The influence of intimate partner violence on women’s productive work in the informal sector is a subject of interest since women play an active role in the sector. The purpose of this study was to examine the influence of intimate partner violence (IPV) on women’s productive work in the informal sector in Nakuru Municipality. The study was carried out in five rescue institutions handling intimate partner violence victims. The study employed ex-post facto research design while simple random sampling was used to select 176 participants who were victims of intimate partner violence and had registered the violence in the five rescue institutions. Data was collected by use of researcher administered questionnaire and focus group discussions. A pre-test was conducted among 25 randomly selected women in Lanet Deanery Centre to determine the instrument’s reliability which was found through Cronbachs alpha to be 0.8. Data was analyzed using descriptive statistics for qualitative data while inferential statistics based on Chi square test and T-test were used to analyze quantitative data. The findings of the study showed that IPV significantly (p < 05) resulted into loss of hours of productive work, and reduced personal earnings. The findings therefore indicate that IPV has an influence on productive work of women. It has been recommended that policy makers and stakeholders should include measures to reduce IPV. The same should also be considered for further research so that feasible coping mechanisms can be developed.

KEYWORDS: Intimate Partner Violence (IPV), Women’s Productive Work, Informal Sector.

1 INTRODUCTION

IPV is experienced in various cultures and affects people across society irrespective of economic status. A survey carried out in the USA by Bachman, Ronet and Saltzman, (1995) revealed that women are about six times as likely as men to experience IPV. Further research studies reveal that 30% of women surveyed in Barbados experienced IPV while in Canada the figure was 29%. The other parts of the world such as Egypt, New Zealand, Swaziland and the USA, the respective experiences were 34%, 35%, 21% and 22%, other countries such as Nicaragua reveal the same trend (Tonia & Hamel 2007). In East Africa, cases of IPV have also been reported. For example in Tanzania 21% of 1444 women reported such cases over a period of 12 months while 26% reported that the violence can occur anytime (McCloskey, Williams and Larsen, 2005). These women reported that the commonly experienced IPV were physical abuse and forced intercourse.

In Kenya, there has been an increased trend to IPV (Medical and Human Rights [MHR], 2010). The statistics at the Gender Violence Recovery Centre in Nairobi Women’s Hospital indicate a drastic increase in IPV. Records in this institution show that cases of IPV were 299 in 2006, 412 in 2007 and 400 in 2008. These statistics are based on reported cases but the ones which go unreported could make the total figure much higher. Further statistics from the centre show that a minimum of eight new cases are reported daily. In Nakuru Municipality, cases of IPV are on the increase. This is confirmed by the increased presence of newly introduced rescue centres for women in abusive relationships such as Tumaina Jipya Centre, Filadelfia Women Crisis Centre, Catholic Diocese of Nakuru and Lanet Deanery within the Municipality.
2 LITERATURE

IPV is increasing in most families and taking different forms. According to the USA based survey on Family Violence Prevention Fund (FVPF) it is defined as a pattern of assaultive and coercive behaviours that may include inflicted physical injury, psychological abuse, sexual assault, progressive social isolation, stalking, deprivation, intimidation and threats (Healthy People, 2010). These behaviours are perpetrated by someone who is, was, or wishes to be involved in an intimate or dating relationship with an adult or adolescent, and are aimed at establishing control by one partner over the other. In the report, it is further stated that 85% of victims of IPV are female and that women are five to eight times more likely than men to be victimised by an intimate partner. The statistical reports are sometimes subjective depending on theory used or accuracy of data. Archer (2000) noted that IPV may be symmetric or asymmetric (in symmetric the perpetrator is either of the partner, while in asymmetric the perpetrator is the man) depending on the theory used and method of data collection.

IPV also described as family violence, domestic violence, women battering, wife beating and spouse abuse, is increasingly recognized as a serious societal problem throughout the world. According to Tjaden and Thoennes (2000), IPV cuts across all socio-economic and cultural boundaries and is seen in both developing and developed countries. IPV is the systematic, intentional use of physical, emotional and/or sexual abuse that one person in a relationship exerts over their partner in order to maintain power and control. Sattler (2000) argued that, abusive relationships cause devastating conditions most often labelled as "power and control". That is, the abuser takes all power in the relationship in order to control the partner. The power may include controlling the finances; keeping the car keys; determining what friendships a partner may have; and all of the other small, day-to-day experiences that are hardly noticed until their effects have reached a damaging extent.

IPV is a worldwide public health problem that significantly impacts on women’s mental and physical well-being. A woman living with a violent intimate partner is usually exposed to repetitive acute episodes of physical, psychological and/or sexual violence. Bonomi, Thompson, Anderson, Reid, Carrell, Dimer, and Rivara (2006) reported pronounced negative health outcomes for abused women when compared to their non-abused counterparts. The negative outcomes included smoking, engaging in heavy drinking, and major and minor depressive symptoms. Coker, Davis, Arias, Desai, Sanderson, Brandt and Smith (2002) also reported poor perceived mental and physical health, substance abuse, symptoms of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD), depression, anxiety, lowered self esteem and suicide among abused women. With respect to physical health, IPV victims are more likely to report joint disease, current asthma, activity limitations, and HIV risk factors than non-IPV victims (Breiding, Black & Ryan, 2005).

Families who are prone to violence are often unstable socially, emotionally and economically. Stability is vital for progression and development in a family which forms the basic foundation for national development. In this context the set up of a family needs to create an environment that promotes productive work of all its members, which in turn enhances the economic status of the family. This research was carried out in order to determine the influence of IPV on women’s productive work in the informal sector in Nakuru municipality.

Two thirds of the world’s working hours are constituted by women, as such; they make a significant contribution to the world’s economy. Women play a pivotal role in the economic growth and development of many countries through their involvement in the informal sector. Income generated from the informal sector contributes significantly to total household income. In many regions, for example, in several African countries, informal sector income accounts for nearly 30 percent of total income and over 40 percent of total urban income (Chen, 2000). The informal sector is the primary source of employment for women in most developing countries. The involvement of women in the informal sector, which accounts for over 95 percent of women in most countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, is evident in Kenya. In India and in Indonesia, the informal sector accounts for nine out of every ten women (Chen, 2000).

Women’s involvement in the informal sector could however be adversely affected by Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) (CARE, 2005). Previous studies show that, Intimate Partner Violence has an influence on mental state of women, subsequently, influencing their productive work (Campbell, 2002). IPV refers to violence or abuse perpetrated by one intimate partner against another intimate partner that causes physical, psychological, or sexual harm to those in the relationship. Such behaviours include: acts of physical aggression such as slapping, hitting, kicking, and beating; psychological abuse such as intimidation, constant belittling, and humiliating; forced intercourse and other forms of sexual coercion; various controlling behaviours such as isolating a person from their family and friends, monitoring their movements, and restricting their access to information and assistance (Krug, Mercy, Dahlberg & Zwi, 2002).
2.1 **WOMEN’S ROLES IN THE INFORMAL SECTOR**

It is estimated that informal businesses account for 35-50% of GDP in many developing countries. Similarly, in Kenya, the informal sector is quite large, estimated at 34.3% and accounting for 77% of employment. Over 60% of those working in the informal sector are the youth, aged between 18-35 years, 50% being women (Ouma et al., 2009). Informal sector is generally viewed as comprising of activities of petty traders operating on the streets of main urban centres. Most are involved in the sale of second-hand items like clothes and shoes, dairy products, poultry and poultry products, maize roasting and other street vendors, vegetable selling, fish selling and many other small businesses. It can also be described as any activity generating income and profits, though on a small scale, using simple skills, dynamic and not tied to regulation of the activities. In Kenya, as well as some other sub Saharan countries, women’s participation in the informal sector accounts for over 50% of GDP (Hontz 2009). This shows that their role is very important to the country’s economic growth.

The role of women in production contributes to the household economy as well as to the national development. In the past their roles were more concentrated in the informal sector with emphasis on domestic chores. However, with liberalisation women are increasingly getting involved in formal engagements. Despite this, they still manage to sustain their informal roles at household level. This is an indication that women have the potential to multi-task and therefore play a central role in prosperity at family level. It is noted that in many societies especially in third world countries, household work is the preserve of women even if they are engaged in formal employment. Studies show that women tend to compromise their formal employment for household work as compared to their male partners which confirms their concern for a stable family life in future (Maume, 2006).

White and Roggers (2000) reviewed family outcomes in relation to economic circumstances in 1990s with focus in the USA. The authors reported that both men’s and women’s economic advantage is associated with more marriage, less divorce, more marital happiness and greater child well being. In this review it was reported that women showed stronger income growth than men even though they were subjected to the same work environment as men. This reveals the potential of women to be more productive given an equal opportunity with men or when exposed to the same environment.

Women constitute two-thirds of the world’s working hours. Despite this, they own only 10% of the worlds’ income (Cohen, 2011). This is an indication that they are exploited because their wealth ownership is not commensurate with their contribution in the work force. This is likely to be due to the fact that they have no control of their earnings but instead the male spouse takes ownership. This leads to economic violence thereby depriving them of their rights which results in their productive work being underestimated. In Sub-Saharan Africa just like in many developing countries especially those with high poverty levels, women provide the backbone of rural economy.

In the industry, women provide backbone of rural labour force especially in agricultural industry where they form 47% of the labour. This constitutes 80% of economically active females in labour force. In addition, these women are involved in direct food production more so in the rural areas. Compared to their male counterparts especially in third world countries such as Africa, the role of women in food production is relatively high. Although the formal sector is more visible than the informal sector, the latter contributes significantly to productive work as well; especially in as far as the involvement of women is concerned. Production in the informal sector and in particular where women are involved can be considered in two classes namely home-based workers and street vendors. According to statistics, 85% of home-based workers in most countries are women (Chen, 2000). This is likely to be due to the fact that women are also home keepers and therefore they tend to develop activities at home which they can execute at home. Furthermore culturally women are socialised to remain at home and this promotes productive work within the home environment.

In street vending which mainly involves informal trade, about 73-99% of employment and 50-90% GDP is generated from this segment of informal production (Chen, 2000). Regarding informal employment, women constitute about 50-90%. However, this is likely to be so if mobility of women is not restricted outside the home. This situation is promoted by cultural practices which are counter-productive especially in developing countries where the freedom of association of women is restricted because they are considered to be passive by their male counterparts. A survey carried out in Benin shows that 80% of economic units are from street vending and 75% of all street vendors are women (Chen, 2000). This is an indication that where women are not restricted they can enhance production.

2.2 **WOMEN AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP**

The complexity of women’s life and domestic responsibilities make them not to be very productive in the formal employment, because of the strict duration which often conflict with the many roles which they play. However, they are more productive if their work has some level of flexibility. According to research findings by Isidro (2010), many women were
found to be venturing into self-employment and getting inclined to start their own enterprises. This practice was viewed to pave way to face new challenges, be one’s own boss and have a better organised working life. This way of life enables one to plan her activities in totality taking into account business oriented activities and other obligations such as domestic roles as well as reproductive roles. In this way, women are able to manage their responsibilities comprehensively and also appreciate their roles in the society.

Flexibility in terms of time is another factor that encourages women to get into entrepreneurship. It enables them allocate time appropriately for their various activities. In addition to this, working for other people or organisations more often than not frustrates them because in a number of occasions women are taken advantage of. This is so especially in circumstances where they are seeking promotion or increase in wages which is their right but they are occasionally denied or subjected to fulfill certain demands. In this scenario their performance is compromised. Consequently they opt for entrepreneurship despite its challenges but they can manage their destiny unconditionally (Isidro, 2010).

Being self-employed has the potential of controlling one’s income which is preferred by most women. In this way they can allocate their income to take care of their diverse obligations. This empowers them to invest more and meet their demands in life independently. It further relieves them from dependency syndrome which otherwise would make them be a lesser people in the society. Further to this, entrepreneurship also offers challenges at personal and professional levels. It is also subjected to stiff competition which would enable women to maximise on the use of their talents and hence perform better than if in formal employment. Entrepreneurship rather than formal employment in large companies particularly offers women improved better chance in advancing in their careers (Griffey-Brown & Oakland, 2007). On the other hand studies in the US have revealed that women have been starting businesses at twice the rate of men over the past several years (Myers, 2005).

2.3 Intimate partner violence and women’s productive work

The social and economic costs of IPV are enormous and have ripple effects throughout the society. Women may suffer isolation, inability to work, loss of wages, lack of participation in regular activities and limited ability to care for themselves and their children. Since women make up for a significant proportion of the work force, any influence on their performance will lead to reduction in productive work and consequently to reduction in national economic development.

Studies by Reeves and Kelly (2007) on work organisation revealed that IPV victims missed more hours of work due to absenteeism and that they are distracted from work more than non-victims. This phenomenon has negative impact on the performance of the organisation. However, the extent of the influence of IPV on performance varied by the type of victimisation. This is an indication that IPV cannot be treated uniformly because different types have different influence on performance as revealed in this study, which focused on work organization in the formal sector. The same argument can be applied in the informal sector because in the same context the victims will in a similar way be affected and absent themselves from work as they will be engaged on issues that relate to IPV at that particular time. Since in the informal sector, competition is quite stiff, any form of absenteeism will heavily influence current and future production, unreliability leading to lack of customer confidence. As reported by Swanberg and Logan (2005), women who experience IPV are negatively affected even at their workplaces. This is because the abuse causes one to be absent and late, less productive while at work, lose advancement of opportunities which consequently results in reduced earnings.

Brush (2004) reported IPV as a predictor of poverty, welfare use, and unemployment. The author also noted that abuse at adulthood was linked to lower earnings and employment instability. This is because low income earners hardly meet their daily socio-economic needs and therefore they easily succumbed to IPV under the pretext of getting support from the partner. The female partner is not ideally physically coerced into the practice but the situation forces her to submit which she wouldn’t have done if she was able to meet her needs. The same applies to when one’s position is threatened in employment; she would in a similar way succumb to the demands of the partner in order to gain favours or support for sustainable employment or any form of entrepreneurship. These two scenarios are forms of IPV, which could easily go unreported. In the same study, the aspect of gender-biased sampling has been pointed out as a possible contributing factor to asymmetric findings.

Women form a significant proportion of the work force. They constitute two-thirds of the world’s working hours. Despite this, they own only 10% of the world’s income (Morgan, 1985). This is an indication that they are exploited because their wealth ownership is not commensurate with their contribution in the work force. This is likely because they have no control of their earnings but instead the spouse takes ownership.
Studies carried out by Shafer (2011) in the US revealed that, according to economic theories, women are more likely to exit the labour force if their partners have higher income. This is because if the income of the women is lower, then their husbands view it as a liability since they don’t see any value addition to the economic status of the family. This is more common in developed world where domestic labour force is usually high and may be even commensurate with the wife’s income. Therefore the male partner would opt for the wife to leave employment and stay at home and perform domestic work. However, leaving employment makes the female partner become insecure especially in the event that the husband loses his job. Therefore they would wish to continue working even if their wages are low. However, since their male partners insist because their wages do not add significant value, they are forced to leave labour force by their male partners, which constitutes IPV. Consequently this results in reduced productive work of women.

Male partners whose wages are lower than their female partners do not accept to leave employment and perform domestic work. This is because of gender stereotypes. This experience is found in most societies and is also reported by Coltrane (2004) that under those circumstances women still do more household work. In a similar argument relating to gender norms husbands do not do more housework even if their income are much lower than their female partners (Bittman, England, Sayer, Folbre & Matheson, 2003). The same argument is advanced by West and Zimmermann (1987) who reported that when women earn more, couples tend to have more traditional arrangements in housework. Further to this scenario, Blair-Loy (2003) reported that Men’s limited contribution to household work makes balancing paid and unpaid labour challenging for women and might drive women’s exit from the labour force. This is another form of IPV resulting from cultural norms that force women to do more work at home and work place. Due to the heavy burden on them, it will result in low production.

3  METHOD

3.1  THE STUDY LOCATION

This study was conducted in Nakuru Municipality of Nakuru County Kenya. This is situated within the Great Rift Valley. The county is the home of Lake Nakuru known for its large number of flamingoes. Agriculture, manufacturing and tourism are the main economic activities. Due to the high agricultural potential in the environs of the town, agro based industries have flourished in the town providing opportunities for entrepreneurship. Dairy farming is another major economic activity which has also attracted increased attention. The municipality is also a center for various retail businesses that provide goods and services to the manufacturing and agricultural sectors. These production sectors show the high potential of informal and formal employment. As a result of these, production institutions of small and large scale in both formal and informal sector have emerged providing opportunities for women engagement. On the other hand, there has been an increase of IPV in the Municipality. This is evidenced by the centers where IPV management is done. Examples are Filadelfia Crisis Centre, Tumaini Jipyja Centre, St. Gabriel Learning Centre, NALEP, Catholic Diocese of Nakuru and Lanet Deanery.

3.2  STUDY POPULATION AND SAMPLE SELECTION

The study population for this research was drawn from the institutions in Nakuru Municipality dealing with victims of IPV. These include: Filadelfia Crisis Centre, Tumaini Jipyja Centre, St. Gabriel Learning Centre, NALEP, Catholic Diocese of Nakuru. Purposive sampling was used to select the rescue centers which deal with women who have undergone IPV. The participants of the study were women who had experienced IPV and were participating in productive work in the informal sector. A sample size of 176 was used. To get representative sample, the accessible population was stratified based on the rescue institutions and proportionate simple random sampling was used to determine the number of participants from each strata. Proportionate simple random sampling procedure was used to select the participants for focus group discussions. This was carried out in two groups of 10 participants each giving a total of 20 participants for the focus group discussion. The 20 participants were drawn proportionately from the five institutions using the percentage proportion.

3.3  STUDY INSTRUMENTS

The study used researcher-administered questionnaires and focus group discussions to determine the various forms of intimate partner violence as experienced by women in the informal sector within Nakuru municipality. The use of the researcher’s administered questionnaire and focus group discussions helped in triangulation of the results. In addition to this, they facilitated information flow from the respondents given that they were likely to comprehend issues differently. Furthermore the researcher administered questionnaires provided in-depth information important for the study. During
focus group discussions some respondents felt encouraged to speak after hearing what their fellow women were going through. This made them open up and share their experiences freely within the forum.

**DATA ANALYSIS**

The study collected both qualitative and quantitative data, which was then coded organized and cleaned for any errors and keyed into the SPSS programme. Content analysis was used for qualitative data, which was then coded and organized into thematic areas. Quantitative data was analyzed using frequency distribution and presented using frequency table.

**RESULTS**

4.1 **INFLUENCE OF INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE ON THE NUMBER OF HOURS SPENT IN PRODUCTIVE WORK**

Data and information in this was meant to determine the influence of intimate partner violence on number of hours spent in productive work among women in the informal sector in Nakuru Municipality.

**FREQUENCY OF INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE IN A WEEK**

The variable frequency of intimate partner violence was measured as a combined score developed from the women responses on the 25 different types of intimate partner violence they identified. These types of IPV identified by the women were each multiplied by the number of times the women reported they experienced them in a week to form the combined score of intimate partner violence in a week. The combined scores were divided into 8 categories. The reliability of the combined score based on its internal consistency using Cronbach’s alpha was 0.8. The frequency distribution of the score is given in Table 13.

**Table 1: Frequency of Intimate Partner Violence per Week**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency of IPV Per week</th>
<th>Number of women experiencing IPV</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 - 5</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 - 10</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 - 15</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 - 20</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 - 25</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 - 30</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 - 35</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 36</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean 16.7±1.127, Median 12, Mode 3, Stddev14.96, Minimum 1, Maximum 83

Table 1 shows the proportion of women experiencing IPV when analyzed based on intervals of five units. The findings established cases of IPV with frequency of 1-5 having the highest cases of 47 at 26.7%, while the lowest case was at 31-35 intervals with a value of 7 at 4%.

4.2 **NUMBER OF HOURS WORKED WHEN NOT EXPERIENCING IPV**

The productivity of the participants was measured in terms of the number of hours spent working and earning income. Respondents estimated the number of hours in a day they spent working away from home to earn an income when not experiencing IPV. The hours worked by the women in a day were multiplied by 5 (number of working days in a week) to give the number of hours worked by the women in a week to earn income. The hours worked in a week were then categorized into five classes: (i) 5 to 15 hours, (ii) 16 to 31 hours, (iii) 32 to 47 hours, (iv) 48 to 63 hours, (v) above 64 hours. The frequency distribution of the hours worked by the women in a week when not experiencing IPV is given in Table 2.
Table 2: Frequency Distribution of the Number of Hours Worked by the Women in a Week When not experiencing IPV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hours worked in a week</th>
<th>Frequency of women</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5-15 hours</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-31 hours</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>31.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32-47 hours</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48-63 hours</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>24.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 64 hours</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>176</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean 39.46±1.35, Std. dev. 17.95, median 40, mode 40, minimum 5, maximum 100

The women worked an average of 39.46 hours in a week. The minimum number of hours worked by the women was 5, while the maximum number of hours worked by the women was 100. The majority of the women (31.3%) worked between 16 and 31 hours in a week, with 6.3% of them working for more than 64 hours in a week.

4.3 NUMBER OF HOURS WORKED WHEN EXPERIENCING IPV

The women were further asked to state the number of hours they worked when experiencing IPV. The number of hours worked by the women in a week when not experiencing IPV varied with the number of hours they worked when they were experiencing IPV. The women reported that when they were experiencing IPV they tended to work fewer hours or none at all. The number of hours worked by the women per week when they were experiencing IPV was computed based on the women’s estimate of the number of hours they worked when they had undergone IPV. The frequency distribution is given in Table 3.

Table 3: Frequency distribution of the number of hours women worked per week when undergoing IPV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 - 9 hours</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.1 - 18 hours</td>
<td>49.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.1 - 26 hours</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.1 – 36 hours</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean 13.15±0.45, Std. dev. 5.98, median 13, mode 13, minimum 1.67, maximum 33

The average hours worked by the women experiencing IPV were 13.15, the minimum hours were 1.67 and the maximum hours were 33 per week. The majority of the women 49.4% worked between 9.1 and 18 hours when they were affected by IPV, while 2.8% worked above 26 hours in a week.

To determine the influence of intimate partner violence on the number of hours spent in productive work, the average number of hours worked in a week when not experiencing intimate partner violence and the average number of hours worked when experiencing IPV were compared using the paired t test (Table 4). This was to determine, if indeed the violence that the women were exposed to, had a statistical significant influence on the number of hours worked.

Table 4: Mean comparison of the hours worked by women when normal and when undergoing IPV using the Paired t test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hours worked per week with ought IPV</td>
<td>39.46</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hours worked per week when undergoing IPV</td>
<td>13.15</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>29.15</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mean comparison between the number of hours the women worked when they did not experience IPV and the hours they worked when they were undergoing IPV showed a statistical significant difference (t = 29.15, p ≤ 0.05). The women worked for an average of 39.46 hours when they were not affected by IPV as compared 13.15 hours per week when they
were undergoing IPV. This means that as the frequency of intimate partner violence increases, the number of hours worked by the women decreases, implying that their productive work reduced when they were experiencing IPV. Similar results were found by Reeves and Kelly (2007) who found out that IPV victims missed more hours of work due to absenteeism and that they are destructed from work more than non victims. Although the results were focusing on the formal sector, the same argument is applicable in the informal sector of this study. This confirmed the finding of the previous research (Coker et al., 2000; Golding, 1999; Plichta, 2004; Wisner et al., 1999) established that there are negative long term effects from IPV, which are likely to contribute to the victims being absent from their work places The same argument has also been shared by the NCIPC (2003) and Max et al, (2004) who found out that there is a high estimated productivity loss by missed days of work which are attributed to IPV.

4.4 INFLUENCE OF INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE ON EARNINGS

To find out the influence of intimate partner violence on earnings among women in the informal sector in Nakuru Municipality, the earnings of the participants were a reflection on their productivity and ability to self-sustenance.

WOMEN EARNINGS PER MONTH

The earnings by the women were determined by asking them to state their average profits which they earned in a period of one month when they were not experiencing IPV. The responses were then converted into six categories of income earned by the women as given in Table 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>K.Shs</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below 1,000</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>16.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1001 – 5,000</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>70.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5,001 – 10,000</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,001 – 15,000</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15,001 – 20,000</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean 3,415±223, Std. dev.2,961, median 3,000, mode 3,000, min.400, max.20,000

The average earning per month for the women was KShs 3,415±223, with a minimum of 400 and a maximum of KShs 20,000. These results reveal that majority of the respondents earn less than Kenyan minimum wage which is KShs 7578 per month (International Minimum Wage rates, 2014).

4.5 AMOUNT OF EARNINGS PER MONTH WHEN EXPERIENCING IPV

The amount of income earned by the women in a month due to intimate partner violence was determined by asking the women to state the amount of income that was earned when the women were undergoing intimate partner violence. The figure obtained was grouped into four income categories as given in Table 6.
Table 6: Amount of money earned by the women in a month due to intimate partner violence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Amount earned K.Shs</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below 1,000</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>91.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1001 – 5,000</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5,001 – 10,000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,001 – 15,000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean 642±88.98, Stddev. 1,190, median 300, mode 200, minimum 100, maximum 10,500

The average amount of money per month earned by the women who experienced violence from their spouses was KShs 642±89 while the minimum and maximum earnings were KShs 100 and KShs 10,500 respectively. The standard deviation was high indicating that a high level of variation in amount earned existed among the respondents. The average loss of income per day varied between KShs 300 and KShs 9500 with a mean of KShs 2773. These differences in earnings indicate the negative influence of IPV on income. This was further verified through comparative analysis using paired sample t-test. The results of the test are given in Table 19.

Table 7: Mean comparisons of earning by women when experiencing and when not experiencing IPV using the Paired t-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Amount of income earned without violence</td>
<td>3,415</td>
<td>11.78</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of income earned with violence</td>
<td>642</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mean difference using the paired sample t-test showed that the women’s earnings were significantly influenced by the violence. The mean of the income earned in a month by women when not experiencing IPV was found to be significantly (p ≤ .05) higher than the mean of the women when they experienced violence from their intimate partners.

The results of this study indicate that women earn much less when they experienced violence than. As reported by Brush (2004), IPV is a predictor of poverty and unemployment as well as being linked to lower earnings and employment instability. This argument is justified by the high deviation in earnings after the respondents experienced IPV.

Women have been reported to constitute two-thirds of the world’s working hours (Morgan, 1985). The same argument is also advanced by Cohen (2011) who further emphasizes that women play a very important role in contributing to the economy. Therefore anything that affects their performance will directly have a negative impact in the economy at the macro level. As the results have shown by comparing the means in tables 17 &18, IPV influence women’s earnings by about 80%, this means that a similar loss may be incurred in the economy if IPV is perpetrated. Local statistics indicate that in Kenya and Sub-Saharan countries at large, women are participating in the informal sector accounts for over 50% of GDP (Hontz, 2009). This is an indication that women play an important role in such countries as well. Therefore the loss incurred in the earnings by women as revealed by this study implies that the GDP is also likely to be affected if IPV is not prevented.

IPV as reported by O’Connell (1994) is also likely to relegate women to low cadre of employment where their performance is going to be very low and below expectation since in that state they will be demoralized. This will lead to low earning and therefore have negative impact on economy since they form the majority workforce (Cohen, 2011). Although initiatives have been put to enhance women’s performance in the economy such as Millennium Development Goal 3 which seeks to empower and ensures equality for opportunities in all sectors., such initiatives are unlikely to succeed if IPV is not prevented as revealed in this study

5 CONCLUSION

The influence of IPV on the number of hours of productive work was analyzed by comparing the number of hours the women worked when they were free from IPV and the hours they worked when they were undergoing IPV. This showed a statistically significant difference (t = 29.15, p= ≤ 0.05). The women worked for an average of 39.46 hours when they were not experiencing IPV as compared to 13.15 hours per week when they were undergoing IPV. The violence experienced significantly influences their productive work in terms of reducing time spent in productive work, income earned and...
women’s self efficacy. This implies that if IPV is not addressed among women in the informal sector, their contribution to the economy of their communities as well as the country will be greatly affected.

REFERENCES


