Abstract: The study assessed the effects of income on gender-based violence using a multinomial logistic regression and an ANOVA test to model the cross-sectional data collected from a survey of 305 respondents in Bulilima district, Matabeleland South province, Zimbabwe. The study is significant as understanding the role of income on gender-based violence guides policymakers in eradicating gender-based violence since it entails more economic costs such as lost wages, productivity and it also drains resources from justice, health and social service which slackens the effectiveness of poverty reduction programs. The results showed that more women than men experienced gender-based violence. Also, an increase in the proportion of women engaged in any economic activity was associated with the risk of encountering sexual and emotional violence. In addition, the likelihood of experiencing emotional violence increased with every Rand in income for a woman. The study recommends the government to prioritize employment creation and financial empowerment through promoting and supporting agricultural operations so that men retain their social role of providing for the family. Furthermore, monetary policies that benefit both men and women in small and medium-sized businesses should be implemented to increase household incomes.

Keywords: Income, Employment status and Gender-based violence.

1. Introduction

Gender-based violence has been pervasive across all of human history. It is yet another strand in the woven fabric of institutional violence that safeguards misogynistic values by ensuring the preservation of male dominance and male control of corporate strategy institutions, all of which contribute to the retention of women and girls in the kitchen. The announcement on the eradication of gender-based violence proclaimed by the United Nations outlines violence against women as any form of abuse against women that leads to physical, sexual, or emotional damage or distress, as well as intimidation of such doings, bullying, or illogical denial of rights, whether in a formal or informal setting (Nations (UN), 1993). It comprises coercions into sex, abuse, degradation, beatings, molestation, intimate partner violence, oedipal love, forced prostitution, torment, and attempted rape are all examples of violence against women (Nations (UN), 1993). It is not acceptable to disregard acts such as defacing female genitalia and other risky traditional practices, as well as child marriages, which greatly increase maternal deaths. Although both males and females experience such abuse, its incidence continues to be higher for women and girls.

For instance, Dr. Babatunde Osotimehin indicated in his movement against gender-based violence, "At the moment, there is not a single country where women and girls are safe from abuse (UNAIDS, 2022). A home should ideally be a safe haven, but in sub-Saharan Africa, many women experience physical, emotional, mental, and sexual violence (Bamiwuye, 2014). Violence against women is prevalent in less developed areas, particularly intimate partner abuse, the position is even more perplexing (Duvvry et al., 2018). Vyas et al. (2015) asserted that formal employment may be more preventive than periodic employment and women's income was connected to a lower incidence of violence in some situations, but higher in others. While some findings from Vyas et al. (2015) have proven that the occurrence of women's intimate partner violence is reduced when women are financially empowered and possess property or land, other studies like Gupta et al. (2018) showed a positive relationship between income and violence against women. According to statistics from across the world, between 15 and 71 percent of women who have ever had a relationship have encountered physical or sexual assault by a present or ex-partner at some stage in life (Usdin et al, 2005).
Spousal violence has long-lasting impacts on women's physical and emotional health, their ability to contribute to the manufacturing of products and services and the development of their offspring. Hence, the reduction of gender-based violence is key as it impedes development; it causes juvenile delinquencies as well as increasing criminal rates. Gender-based violence (GBV) is a common, terrible, and everyday problem that disturbs and affects every Zimbabwean in some manner. Spousal abuse is a complicated and unpleasant subject that affects one in three women (WHO, 2021). Although there are statutes regarding spousal abuse, however, it is also usual for most women to live in a state in which they are susceptible to all sorts of abuse (WHO, 2021). Emphasized that spousal violence is indeed a major cause of nearly half of the homicide cases that are submitted before the Zimbabwe Constitutional Court. Even though all forms of violence against women are acknowledged to be detrimental to one's health and rights for women, they also obstruct economic growth. In Zimbabwe's patriarchal society, it is instilled in girls and women that it is acceptable for a partner to be physically or verbally mistreated as it's a symbol of love (SAFAIDS, 2009). Although violence against women affects people from all socioeconomic levels, studies indicate that women who lack financial independence are more likely to become victims of intimate relationship abuse. Even though, it has been hypothesized that women who are more financially and socially powerful may be less vulnerable to intimate partner violence (IPV).

No interventions that seek to empower women while addressing poverty or gender disparities have yet been designed and evaluated (Usdin et al., 2005). In less developed countries, lack of income is positively correlated with gender-based violence and this position is even more troubling (Duvvury et al., 2018). The COVID-19 pandemic, price rises on basic goods, and poor harvests all combined to leave over half of Zimbabwe’s population living in extreme poverty (ZIMSTAT, 2020). In the same view, Rapid Poverty Income Consumption and Expenditure Survey (Rapid PICES) 2021, (round 3) reported that 61 percent of the population overall and 71 percent of the rural population reported having food shortages (ZIMSTAT, 2021). Due to the general intertwining effects of poverty, males may turn hostile towards their relations, resulting in spousal violence because men fail to be financially responsible to their families. The main contributor to defenselessness and the inability to recover from the effects of many threats is a lack of income or financial independence. In the same view, Cameroon & Tedds (2021) discovered that women in Canada suffer poverty to a greater extent than men and that both poverty levels and instances of poverty raise the likelihood of gender-based violence. In addition, Conner (2014) asserted that the freedoms experienced by men or women who are abused by their partners are substantially restricted by a lack of income. Income has both an endowing and disempowering effect on abusive relationships.

While a perpetrator is empowered by her partner's income dependency, the independence of a victimized woman is reduced by her abuser’s ability to control her through financial means (Zhang & Breunig, 2021). Furthermore, income insecurity is the utmost reason why, after gaining freedom, a woman who experiences intimate partner violence has limited choices and may eventually acquiesce to her spouse's attempts to settle (Zhang & Breunig, 2021). Thus, income instability is a tie that binds a woman to her perpetrator. Interventions designed to financially "equip" women have gained recognition in recent years as a potential strategy for lowering the risk of spousal violence among women claimed that certain circumstances and places have shown that interventions like microcredit initiatives, income support programs, and other types of socioeconomic programs have reduced women's exposure to spousal violence. However, Mayoux and Hartl (2009) revealed that even though microcredit systems enhance women's small enterprises as well as boost their confidence, they can also cause debt crises and increased vulnerability. In the same view, Bates et al. (2004) showed that women who work or start their businesses gain the freedom of income they need to exit abusive marriages or stop GBV. However, some initiatives that promote income independence might actually make the situation worse. Thus, males will employ violence against women who have a source of income as a way of putting them in their place.

Figure 1 shows the proportion of women (15–49) who have ever been married, who experienced gender-based violence in 2019 by wealth quintiles. It also demonstrates the relationship between lack of income and gender-based violence by demonstrating the high incidence of emotional, physical, and sexual violence among women in the lowest, second, and medium welfare quintiles. Thus, women’s lack of income is associated with a higher incidence of spousal violence. It is obvious that income affects gender-based violence since men may utilize women's lack of financial independence as a way to keep assaulting them. The
government has a social, legal and political obligation to take necessary measures to prevent, investigate and punish acts of violence. Consequently, policies to eradicate GBV targeting women have been implemented which includes the Gender Policy 2013-2017. Also, the High-Level Political Compact was introduced by the Zimbabwean government, the European Union, and the United Nations in 2021, an initiative to eradicate GBV and harmful practices. Although subsequent laws against domestic violence have been implemented, over 27% of women aged 15 to 49 who have ever been in a union have encountered gender-based violence by present or past partners (WHO, 2021). According to AUC-WGDD (2020), domestic violence, be it physical or verbal rose from 40.6% to 5 internationally. 25 percent of those who encountered sexual assault were women, and 62 percent of those survivors are girls aged 15 and 19 years. Emotional and physical violence was 22.1% and 15.2% in 2019, respectively (ZIMSTAT, 2019). Musasa project recorded more than 6,800 cases in 2020 and the cases increased to 26779 from January to August 2021 (Musasa project, 2021). Likewise, a total of 502 incidents of economic abuse, 349 incidents of physical assault, 413 incidents of emotional abuse, and 874 incidents of sexual harassment were recorded by the one-stop centers operated by the Ministry of Women Affairs, Community, Small and Medium Enterprises (GoZ, 2021).

Figure 1: Shows the Proportion of Women (15–49) Who Experienced Gender-Based Violence by Wealth Quintiles

Source: ZIMSTAT 2019.

Figure 2: Shows the Escalation of Gender-Based Violence through Time in the Same Perspective

Source: ZIMSTAT 2019.

Physical violence increased from 30.7% in 2010 to 36.1 %in 2019, while emotional violence increased from 29.5% to 36.4%. Despite the government's efforts to eradicate gender-based violence over the past decades, ongoing macroeconomic instability and job losses undermined these efforts. Regardless of the widespread adoption of the women's empowerment mantra, the prevalence of gender-based violence has increased. The critical question for Zimbabwean policymakers is whether income positively or negatively affects gender-based violence. Although a number of studies have been conducted on how income affects GBV, a significant proportion of these studies have been carried out in developed countries, with only a few studies by Jekwes et al. (2010) and Abramsky et al. conducted in Africa. The study was limited to a developing country, Zimbabwe, and concentrated on income and its effects on gender-based violence in Bulilima, Matabeleland.
South.

2. Literature Review

The section's focus is on a theoretical and empirical literature review on how income affects GBV. The income-GBV relationship theories are reviewed first, followed by a review of studies that investigated the income-GBV relationship.

Theoretical Literature: Various theoretical models suggested that income may reduce the prevalence rate of GBV or aggravate the problem of GBV, which includes:

Bargaining Models: The non-cooperative bargaining models of intimate partner violence (IPV) hypothesize that the level of intimate partner violence will be minimized by a rise in economic empowerment for women, that is, through the acquisition of income or remittances and other income from outside the marriage. This model assumes that an increase in women's financial opportunities, comparable to those of males, will reassure women that they have good options outside of marriage and lower their tolerance for abuse inside, reducing the likelihood of violence (Farmer & Tiefenthaler, 1997). A Nash-bargaining model of domestic violence by Tauchen et al. (1991) demonstrated the effect of changes in income on domestic violence. According to the method, every partner has a weakness that should provide the least amount of welfare for each party in the partnership. Given a specific amount of income transfer from her husband, a woman's level of risk is the amount of abuse she is willing to endure without divorcing him. The model postulates that an increase in the income of a man permits him to bargain for additional abuse by raising the monetary transfers to his wife. On the contrary, an increase in the woman's financial position compels him to minimize his violent behavior. Likewise, the increased income for a woman increases the household income as stipulated in the resource theory. Gelles (1997) proclaimed income resource effect reduces intimate partner violence by reducing economic constraints for the household.

Male-Backlash Model: The theory postulates that women are likely to encounter more spousal violence if their financial status defies the socially accepted male dominance and female dependence, and the challenged man might attempt to re-establish his authority over his wife by inflicting violence on her (Macmillan & Gartner, 1999). The theory further pointed out that there is a positive association between women's earnings and abuse against them, as men feel their traditional gender roles are threatened. The male-backlash theories do not consider women's rationality constraint and disregard the probability that women can choose to end the relationship (Aizer, 2007). On the other hand, patriarchal cultures don't offer women favorable options outside of marriage, which makes divorces to become rare. The lawful processes inhibit divorces as the procedures are expensive and marriage dissolution is accompanied by significant social stigma and financial misery. In traditional societies, empirical research has shown that women's financial freedom, as measured by their income or involvement in credit groups, increases the risk of violence (Sinha & Kumar, 2022).

Male Peer Support Model: The Male Peer Support approach is characterized by DeKeseredy and Schwartz (2002) as a male dependence on male coequals and the money they provide, which approves and maintains violence against women, the most significant underlying cause of woman abuse. Several poor men in the same situation have a habit of encouraging each other to abuse women who seem to threaten masculinity either by having more income, working or owning a business. Most men who lost their jobs or who do not have steady jobs such that their lives are thus less organized do interact more with male friends. Conway (2001) asserted men spent much of their time drinking and conversing about hard times or grieving about lost jobs with their peers. In addition, these men's friends view physical gender-based violence, rape, and other forms of woman abuse as valid and effective means of repossessing patriarchal authority (DeKeseredy and Schwartz, 2002). Their peers advise them that abusing women is a legitimate way of keeping them in their place. The global economic downturn, particularly in Zimbabwe, contributes to increased female abuse because many men have lost their jobs. Jobs continue to disappear as a result of economic challenges, and many girls and boys are failing to continue with their education, pressuring people to marry at a young age, which may increase abuse and poverty. If one of the partners earns more than the other, this will inevitably lead to gender-based violence especially when a woman earns better than the man. The men will instigate gender-based violence as a way of putting women in their place.
Theories Underpinning the Study: The study is underpinned by the male backlash and the male peer support model. The male backlash theory says employment status and income have a positive association with gender-based violence as men feel their gender roles are defied and hence beat their wives, a current traditional belief by most men. In addition, the male peer support theory portrays what is currently happening in Bulilima where there is low employment (4%) as stated by ZIMSTAT (2022); most males there may spend most of their time drinking with peers who influence them to beat their wives as a way of claiming back respect from a financially stable wife.

Empirical Literature: A number of empirical studies produced inconclusive results. Some studies discovered that income reduces gender-based violence prevalence rate while other studies discovered that income exacerbates it. In examining the empirical literature, we start with Abramsky et al. (2019), who investigated women’s earnings and the possibility of facing gender-based violence in North-Western Tanzania which is more similar to the current study. The study discovered that at baseline and longitudinal data, higher income was associated with a decline in the previous year’s physical and sexual abuse at baseline only. Also, the study supported the assertion that all women's increasing financial contributions were related to higher levels of domestic abuse, even though panel data only included controlled women. Using a different methodology, Rashada and Mesbah (2016) assessed the association between monetary disproportion and female abuse in India. Employing the Gini index, Logistic regression and a Tobit method, the connection between income disparity and spousal abuse was evaluated. The study established a connection between financial discrepancy and intimate abuse. Also, it revealed that the amount of spousal abuse increased as the Gini index also increased. The degree of education, the husband’s employment, living in rural areas, being from a non-disadvantaged socioeconomic class and the socioeconomic condition of the family may function as a deterrent to violence against intimate partners.

Furthermore, it was found that a woman's probability of facing physical and sexual abuse differed according to her social group or tribe and religious affiliation. Furthermore, Sanz-Barbero et al. (2015) used a multilevel logistic regression to investigate how provincial joblessness and financial inequity affected the likelihood of a woman encountering gender-based aggression in Spain. According to the study, women in provinces with rising incomes had lower rates of gender-based abuse than those in regions with small variations in income abuse. Gupta et al. (2017) used baseline data from a randomized controlled trial of women in Mexico City to conduct a multilevel logistic regression analysis on women who were currently working to assess intimate partner violence against low-income women and associations with work-related disruptions. The study discovered that 40.6% of women who were working at the time of the survey experienced work-related disturbances as a result of Intimate Partner Violence. Furthermore, they discovered that women who had low levels of physical and sexual violence were more likely to have work disruptions than women who had high levels of physical and sexual violence and injuries or high levels of physical and low sexual violence and injuries. In addition, Muzavazi et al. (2022) assessed the causes of gender-based violence against women in low and high-income households in Zimbabwe’s Manicaland Province, lending support to the relationship between income and GBV.

The study discovered that age at marriage, access to media, and having an alcoholic partner were risk factors for GBV among low-income households using binary logit regression. Age and spouse-controlling behavior, on the other hand, were significant causes of GBV in both low and high-income households. Coll et al. (2020) also examined data from 46 countries collected through surveys undertaken between 2010 and 2017 to evaluate the prevalence and disparities of current emotional, physical, and sexual intimate partner violence among women aged 15 to 49 who have ever been in a committed relationship. To measure inequalities, data were divided by household incomes, women’s age, level of empowerment, polygyny status of the relationship, and place of residence. IPV preponderance differed significantly by country, spanning from less than 5% in Armenia and Comoros to more than 40% in Afghanistan. They also discovered massive disparities between countries. Women with more power and income reported less IPV, as did women whose partners had no co-wives. Variations were discovered in various countries based on the age and location of the women, but in general, younger women and those living in rural areas seem to be more vulnerable to IPV. Furthermore, Ranganathan et al. (2022) used qualitative data to assess women’s economic status, male authority patterns, and domestic violence in the rural North West province of South Africa.
Adult women who had recently completed gender studies and had recently received microloans for more than a year took part in the study's in-depth interviews. The findings showed that women's ability to generate income, along with a sense of financial independence and increased social support, reinforces the concept of "power within the self." Despite the persistent social norms and gender expectations regarding women's subservience and male authority, particularly among older women, women reported higher levels of contentment and lower levels of financial stress. Younger women appeared to be subjected to abuse as well, owing to childcare and financial obligations. Greulich and Dasre (2022) investigated the relationship between women's economic engagement and physical and/or sexual domestic abuse against women in Turkey using an Instrumental Variable approach based on cluster averages to strengthen the control for endogeneity in cross-sectional data. They distinguished between women who do not work because their partners refuse to let them and women who do not work for other reasons, as well as between formal and informal labor market activity. The study discovered that employment for women in Turkey cannot be linked to a lower risk of experiencing domestic violence; women who work in the formal labor market and earn at least the equivalent of their partner to household income are less likely to experience physical and/or sexual domestic violence than their counterparts. Although it is evident from the evaluated theoretical and empirical evidence that there is a relationship between income and violence against women, the exact nature of that relationship remains unclear. The study attempts to determine the relationship between income and intimate partner violence in Bulilima.

3. Research Methodology

The section presents the methodology used in assessing the impact of income on GBV in Bulilima. Research design, sampling methodology, Model specification and model results are discussed in this section.

Research Design

Research Area: The study focused on the Bulilima district in Matabeleland South Province. According to a thorough review of the literature on gender-based violence in Zimbabwe and some Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) and Zimbabwe Demographic Health Survey (ZDHS) reports, this area has the highest rates of violence against women. Emotional and physical violence was 22.1% and 15.2% in 2019, respectively (MICS, 2019). The study focused on male and female abuse, although most studies exclusively look at women.

Research Design and Target Population: Descriptive method was used for the research's strategy since it gives a precise and trustworthy picture of the factors that relate to or are pertinent to the theme. To successfully obtain legitimate results, a household survey was conducted from the 15th to the 26th of May 2022 to evaluate the effect of income on gender-based violence. This study was conducted in a limited period and the use of the sample was the best option for the study. Males and females between the ages of 10 and 65 who are partnered, married, or cohabitating made up the population for this study.

Sampling Methodology: In most cases, it is difficult for investigators to observe every person in the community they are investigating directly. The study, at the first stage, thus settled for the non-probability sampling technique of purposive sampling when choosing Matabeleland South. In the second stage, Simple Random sampling was employed to choose the Bulilima district. Given the ZIMSTAT enumeration areas data from the 2012 Census, 10 out of 30 enumeration areas were selected using simple random sampling. Only after a listing of all households was complete, the households to be interviewed were chosen using systematic random selection.

Sample Size Determination: The total households from the 10 enumeration areas were (N= 932). Using the 95% confidence level and a margin of error of 5%. The Yamane's formula is employed we get

\[ n = \frac{N \times \text{error}}{N - 1 + \text{error}} \]

\[ = \frac{932 \times 0.042}{932 - 1 + 0.042} \]

\[ = 374.12 \]

Hence, we round up to 370 individuals. The target in each enumeration area was 37 individuals totaling 370 individuals. The interview was done with 305 individuals as some respondents were not available during field visits and some refused to be interviewed since the issue of GBV is sensitive.
Data Collection Procedures: To gather data, the study used a face-to-face interview approach through the use of a standardized questionnaire. The questions were based on the literature review and sought specific replies from the respondents about gender-based violence.

Data Measurements: Emotional violence was assessed using four categories that represented experiences of emotional abuse: lying, swearing, or humiliating him/her; threatening to leave him/her; making him/her feel unwelcome; and forcing him/her to leave. Physical violence used seven things to represent experiences of physical assault to measure. Respondents were asked if their partners had done any of the following things: Pushing, shaking, or hurling something at her; slapping her or twisting her arm; punching or beating her with dangerous objects; kicking or dragging her; strangling or burning her; threatening to use a weapon (a knife or other instrument); and twisting her arm. Sexual violence was measured using pressured or luring or forced sex, sexually explicit name calling, and uninvited sexual contact. Income was measured using the expenditure that a female or male earns monthly. Education was measured using the level of education that an individual has completed. Age was measured using the completed years of an individual. Employment status was measured using the current economic activity that an individual is currently engaged in or his/her source of income.

Model Estimation Procedures: A multinomial logistic regression technique was employed to evaluate the primary data on how income affected gender-based violence. Thus, the multinomial Logit model, denoted by:

\[ L_i = \ln \frac{P_{ij}}{P_0} = B_1 + B_2 X_i \]

The dependent variable is now categorical because it takes more than two values, and the dependent variable \( Y_{ij} = 1 \), if an individual \( i \) selects alternative \( j \), where \( j = 1, 2, 3 \) and \( 4 \) in the current cases \( \) and \( = 0 \), otherwise

Additionally, let \( i_1 = \Pr(Y_{ij}=1) \) .................................(1)
and \( = 0 \), otherwise

where Pr denotes probability. Hence, \( i_1, i_2, i_3 \) and \( i_4 \) reflect the likelihood that person \( i \) will select option 1, 2, 3 or 4, accordingly, those are substitutes for physical abuse, sexual assault, emotional abuse or both. If the only possibilities that an individual has are these, then surely,

\[ i_1 + i_2 + i_3 + i_4 = 1 \]

This is such that the total probability of all possible outcomes that are exhaustive and mutually exclusive must equal 1. The \( s \) is called the response probability. Thus, the study determines any four probabilities, the fifth one is determined automatically. The multinomial logit model is then written as:

\[ ij = e^{i_j} x_i = 44 e^{i_j} x_i \] .................................(2)

The slope and intercept coefficients' subscripts, "\( j \)" serves as a gentle reminder that these coefficients' values can vary depending on the option selected. The underlying theory on the effects of income on gender-based violence and empirical studies carried out by Sanz-Barbero et al. (2015), Aizer, (2007), Rashada and Mesbah, (2016) and Abramsky et al. (2019) provide the foundation for building the model to be considered.

Thus, the multinomial logit regression model becomes:

\[ L_i = \ln \frac{P_{ij}}{P_0} = B_0 + B_1 \text{sex} + B_2 \text{employstatus} + B_3 \text{education} + B_4 \text{income} + B_5 \text{age} \]

Reliability and Validity of Data: The study ensured the data collection tool was clear and concise in order to guarantee that all the data was legitimate and dependable. The questionnaire was created after a thorough study of the literature and was built around the study objectives, which concerned the income’s impact on gender-based violence. The questionnaire was pilot tested on just three households, which were not included in the sample. The questions that respondents had trouble answering during the pilot test were changed so that they had a clear meaning.

Ethical Issues: The study valued confidentiality and so, being mindful of this ethical issue, each participant’s verbal consent was obtained and for minors aged 10 to 17 were interviewed separately, adult consent was gained before the child’s assent. Information about the voluntary nature of participation, information confidentiality, and information anonymity was provided to all respondents. Names and other details that could reveal interviewees’ identities were removed from the data to safeguard the secrecy of the data.
4. Results and Discussion

Demographic And Economic Characteristics of the Respondents: The majority of women 47% and men 45% were between the age ranges of 30 to 50 years. About 54% of women reported having completed Lower secondary education as their highest level of education while 66% of men reported having completed primary school. Furthermore, most of the women reported earning between 100 and 500 Rands per month. Also, communal farmers and own account workers other (informal business) accounted for the majority of female employment, with 60% and 18%, respectively.

Table 1: Percentage Distribution of Respondents’ Demographic and Economic Qualities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>Female %</th>
<th>Male %</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10 &lt; 30</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>22.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 &lt; 50</td>
<td>46.8</td>
<td>44.8</td>
<td>46.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 &lt; 65</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>37.9</td>
<td>31.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Level of Education

- Degree: 1.4% (Female), 0.0% (Male), 1.0% (Total)
- Diploma: 0.9% (Female), 0.0% (Male), 0.7% (Total)
- Upper secondary: 0.0% (Female), 3.5% (Male), 1.0% (Total)
- Lower Secondary: 53.7% (Female), 27.6% (Male), 46.2% (Total)
- Primary: 44.0% (Female), 65.5% (Male), 50.2% (Total)
- Never been to school: 0.0% (Female), 3.5% (Male), 1.0% (Total)

Monthly Income in Rands

- 100 < 500: 64.2% (Female), 31.0% (Male), 54.8% (Total)
- 501 < 1500: 26.6% (Female), 65.5% (Male), 37.7% (Total)
- 1501 < 3000: 9.2% (Female), 3.5% (Male), 7.5% (Total)
- Total: 100.0% (Female), 100.0% (Male), 100.0% (Total)

Employment status (Economic Activity)

- Communal farmer: 59.6% (Female), 37.9% (Male), 53.4% (Total)
- Homemaker: 5.1% (Female), 0.0% (Male), 3.6% (Total)
- Own account worker other: 18.4% (Female), 48.3% (Male), 26.9% (Total)
- Paid employee casual: 6.9% (Female), 10.3% (Male), 7.9% (Total)
- Paid employee permanent: 8.7% (Female), 3.5% (Male), 7.2% (Total)
- Sick and disabled: 1.4% (Female), 0.0% (Male), 1.0% (Total)
- Total: 100.0% (Female), 100.0% (Male), 100.0% (Total)

Forms of Gender-based Violence

- Both (Emotional, Physical and Sexual): 21.6% (Female), 6.9% (Male), 17.4% (Total)
- Emotional: 34.9% (Female), 17.2% (Male), 29.8% (Total)
- None: 35.3% (Female), 72.4% (Male), 45.9% (Total)
- Physical: 1.4% (Female), 0.0% (Male), 1.0% (Total)
- Sexual: 6.9% (Female), 3.4% (Male), 5.9% (Total)
- Total: 100.0% (Female), 100.0% (Male), 100.0% (Total)

Sample size (N): 218 (Female), 87 (Male), 305 (Total)

Source: Author’s calculation (STATA 15).

Additionally, the study established that more females than males were victims of gender-based violence. In addition, 35% of females experienced emotional violence compared to 17% of males. The multinomial regression results are shown in Table 2 below.
Table 2: Multinomial Logistic Regression (Relative Risk)

| GBV                           | COEF   | Std. Error | z    | P>|z| | [95% conf. interval] |
|-------------------------------|--------|------------|------|------|----------------------|
| Both forms of GBV             |        |            |      |      |                      |
| Education                     | 1.009353 | 0.047217  | 0.2  | 0.842 | 0.920926 – 1.106271 |
| Employ-status                 | 1.224599 | 0.18789   | 1.32 | 0.187 | 0.906555 – 1.654221 |
| SEX                           | 0.128237 | 0.064262  | -4.1 | 0.00  | 0.048025 – 0.342424 |
| Income                        | 0.999536 | 0.000374  | -1.24| 0.215 | 0.998805 – 1.000269 |
| Age                           | 1.03119  | 0.014586  | 2.17 | 0.03  | 1.002993 – 1.060178 |
| _cons                         | 1.125947 | 0.994602  | 0.13 | 0.893 | 0.199348 – 6.359523 |
| Emotional GBV                 |        |            |      |      |                      |
| Education                     | 0.960969 | 0.040464  | -0.95| 0.344 | 0.884846 – 1.043641 |
| Employ-status                 | 1.845125 | 0.234407  | 4.82 | 0.000 | 1.438428 – 2.366811 |
| SEX                           | 0.135071 | 0.054354  | -4.97| 0.000 | 0.06138 – 0.297233  |
| Income                        | 1.000869 | 0.000268  | 3.25 | 0.001 | 1.000345 – 1.001394 |
| Age                           | 1.024712 | 0.012827  | 1.95 | 0.051 | 0.999878 – 1.050163 |
| _cons                         | 0.577995 | 0.410544  | -0.77| 0.44  | 0.143656 – 2.32554  |
| none                          |        |            |      |      |                      |
| Physical GBV                  |        |            |      |      |                      |
| Education                     | 551229.7 | 5.27E+08   | 0.01 | 0.99  |                      |
| Employ-status                 | 6806-08 | 0.00016    | -0.95| 0.995 |                      |
| SEX                           | 560E-12 | 2.33E-08   | -0.95| 0.995 |                      |
| Income                        | 1.001781 | 0.001472  | 1.21 | 0.226 | 0.9989 – 1.00467    |
| Age                           | 0.8661531 | 0.00822   | -1.55| 0.121 | 0.72237 – 1.038555  |
| _cons                         | 3.14E-61 | 4.45E-57   | -0.92| 0.99  |                      |
| Sexual GBV                    |        |            |      |      |                      |
| Education                     | 1.059038 | 0.073535  | 0.83 | 0.409 | 0.924288 – 1.213432 |
| Employ-status                 | 1.612639 | 0.319268  | 2.41 | 0.016 | 1.094 – 2.37715    |
| SEX                           | 0.1803793 | 0.126298  | -2.45| 0.014 | 0.045729 – 0.711508 |
| Income                        | 0.9995121 | 0.000601  | -0.81| 0.417 | 0.998336 – 1.00069 |
| Age                           | 1.000192 | 0.020382  | 0.01 | 0.993 | 0.96103 – 1.040949 |
| _cons                         | 0.3205802 | 0.413463 | -0.88 | 0.378 | 0.025593 – 4.015694 |

Source: Authors’ calculations using STATA 15
Number of observations =305
LR-chi2(20) = 117.15
Prob >chi2 = 0.000
log likelihood = -318.052
Pseudo R2 = 0.1555

Both Forms of Gender-Based Violence: When a person’s sex was female, there was a 13% increase in the risk of experiencing both types of gender-based violence (emotional, physical and sexual). Thus, sex had an impact on gender-based violence, with women disproportionately affected. Also, the likelihood of encountering gender-based violence increased with age. In the same view, Decker et al. (2015) proclaimed that GBV was prevalent among adolescent and young adult women in low- and middle-income countries.

Emotional Violence: An increase in the number of women engaged in any economic activity (employment status) was associated with a 1.85 increase in the risk of experiencing emotional violence. In the same vein, Gupta et al. (2017) discovered that employed women encountered intimate partner violence in Mexico. In addition, as income for a partner increased by a Rand, the risk of encountering emotional violence also increased by 1.001. The highest rate of emotional aggression was found in the economic bracket of 1001–3000 Rands. In the same view, Zhang and Breunig (2021) discovered that women who earn more than their male partners were more likely to suffer from emotional abuse than those who earn less than their male partners in Australia. Likewise, Gupta. et al, (2018) claimed that income for a woman could result in the
aggravation of power inequalities within households and thus it reinforces dynamics of reliance, income for an individual could be in vain, as it is unusual for a person living in an abusive context to hold any financial power or control of resources. Similarly, Abramsky et al. (2019) discovered that all women with increasing household financial contributions were facing higher levels of domestic abuse in North-Western Tanzania. This is consistent with the male backlash theory.

**Sexual Abuse:** An increase in economic activity (employment status) resulted in a 1.61 increase in the risk of sexual violence. Most of the sexual violence survivors were women in their own-account work (informal jobs such as vending and selling clothes). Furthermore, the majority of men in Bulilima (60%) spent a large portion of their free time drinking with friends. In the same vein, ZIMSTAT (2021) discovered that Matabeleland South had a low employment rate of 4%. This is consistent with the male peer support theory, which states that males spent time with peers who encourage them to restore male dominance through violence to economically independent women. In addition, an ANOVA test was employed to verify the significance of the variables on income.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Partial SS</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Prob &gt;F</th>
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<td>0.870960806</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>5</td>
<td>1.32532675</td>
<td>21.00</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Age</td>
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<td>41</td>
<td>0.705735744</td>
<td>11.18</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Income</td>
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<td>23</td>
<td>0.821822514</td>
<td>13.02</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>14.7704485</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>0.63121575</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>75.7377049</td>
<td>304</td>
<td>0.249137187</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The F-statistics (13.80) and its corresponding p-value (0.00) for the model show that sex, employment (economic activity), age and income explain gender-based violence. Sex, employment (economic activity), age and income, their F-statistics and associated p-values indicate that all have individual-significant effects on gender-based violence. The R2 (0.8050) shows the percentage of variation in gender-based violence that is explained by sex, employment, age and income. An ANOVA model with GBV as the dependent variable and beliefs about whether the husband or wife will beat their spouse if she or he cheats or rejects sex as the independent variables proved insignificant.

**5. Conclusion and Policy Recommendations**

A multinomial logistic regression for relative risk produced results that showed that people’s age and sex were connected to the risk of experiencing both types of gender-based violence at a 1% and 5% level of significance, respectively. Additionally, Employ-status (economic activity) and income were found to be highly statistically significant at a 1% level of significance, when a person experiences emotional violence. When physical violence was used against a person, none of the factors were significant at any standard level. According to the study, women made up the majority of those who experienced gender-based violence. An ANOVA test validated the significant effects of sex, employment, age and income on gender-based violence. The main observation from this study is that gender-based violence is not only affected by income but it’s also affected by employment status, sex and age. The government should concentrate on policies that promote financial empowerment for men and women through employment creation, encouraging and supporting agricultural enterprises, and other income-generating businesses since this may assist males reclaim their social role of providing for the family, which they felt had been stolen by women. Furthermore, the government should enact monetary policies that benefit both men and women in small and medium-sized businesses as a way of improving household income. These policies may reduce the time spent by most men drinking with peers who influence them to beat their financially stable wives. Furthermore, backlash from men who believe their societal roles were stolen by economically secure women will be reduced.
References


SAFAIDS. (2009).
UNAIDS. (2022).