CYBER DATING ABUSE AND UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS' ACADEMIC ENGAGEMENT IN SELECTED UNIVERSITIES IN NAIROBI CITY COUNTY, KENYA

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DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented in any other University/Institution for consideration of any certification. It has been complemented by referenced sources duly acknowledged. Where text, data (including spoken words), graphics, pictures or tables have been borrowed from other sources, including the internet, these are specifically accredited and cited using current APA system and in accordance with anti-plagiarism regulations.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my dear husband John Ologi, my dear children Wayne, Kaitlyn and Marya Ologi; my dear parents Mr. Blassius Mayoyo and Mrs. Beatrice Mayoyo and all my lovely siblings Everlyne, Christine, Edna, Felistas, Emmanuel, Sheila, Perpetua and Mary Gorreti.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CDA	Cyber Dating Abuse
DDA	Digital Dating Abuse
FB	Facebook
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
GPS	Global Positioning System
IM	Instant Messaging
IPV	Intimate Partner Violence
LGBT	Lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender
MMS	Multimedia Messaging Service
NACOSTI	National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation
PhD	'Philosophiae Doctor' (Doctor of Philosophy)
RAT	Routine Activities Theory
SITS	Socially Interactive Technologies
SMS	Short Messaging Service
SNS	Social Networking Sites
SPSS	Statistical Package of Social Sciences
TAADVA	Technology-Assisted Adolescent Dating Violence and Abuse
UON	University of Nairobi

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to establish the influence of Cyber Dating Abuse (CDA) on the academic engagement of undergraduate students. The objectives of the study were: to establish the students' perception of CDA; identify the kinds of technology used in perpetrating different forms of CDA; assess gender differences in CDA perpetration and victimization; examine the extent to which CDA affects academic engagement of Kenyan University students and propose strategies to mitigate on effects of CDA on academic engagement. The study adopted two theories: Routine Activities Theory which states that the daily activities which individuals engage in make them susceptible to CDA and Johnson's Typology of Intimate Partner Violence which outlines different kinds of Intimate Partner Violence. The study utilised a cross sectional descriptive survey research design. The respondents comprised a convenience sample of 384 students from three randomly selected Universities, namely: Multimedia University of Kenya, Kenyatta University and Catholic University of Eastern Africa in Nairobi City County; three Deans of Students and two Student Counsellors purposively selected. Quantitative and qualitative data was collected through questionnaires, focus group discussions and interviews. Piloting of the study was done in University of Nairobi to validate the content and face validity of instruments while the internal consistency method was used to ascertain their reliability. Data was analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively and presented in Tables, Charts and Graphs. Results indicate that majority of the respondents had misguided perceptions and normalized most of the CDA behaviours. The respondents' routine activities involved constant exchange of calls, SMS, online chats providing avenues for CDA victimization. WhatsApp was the most used digital media to perpetrate CDA. Results revealed that the four types of violence outlined by Johnson (2005) were evident with Coercive Control Violence being the most pervasive. Although no differences were found in the prevalence rates in CDA perpetration and victimization for males and females, significant gender differences were noted for specific CDA behaviours. On perpetration, males were more likely to perpetrate sexual coercion than females while for victimization, males were more likely than females to report frequent victimization in direct aggression and sexual coercion. Gender was statistically and significantly associated with response to four acts of CDA behaviours of: partners spreading rumours; threats of physical harm; pressurizing partners to have sex or engage in sexual activities online and pressurizing them to exchange sexual photos and videos. On the contrary, both males and females reported frequently suffering from depression, anxiety and fear. Results indicated that a significant negative correlation *(r* (313) = -.193, *p* =< .001) existed between victimization and behavioural academic engagement but no significant correlation existed between victimization and emotional academic engagement. Finally, based on the high prevalence rates reported and negative consequences experienced by victims, the study put forth suggestions for interventions which could mitigate on the negative effects of CDA. It was suggested that the three Universities should include CDA in existing policies such as the social media policy and in policies on sexual harassment and interpersonal violence within University settings. Also, there was need to create awareness on CDA and its prevention to promote healthy dating and enhance behavioural academic engagement.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

This Chapter provides the background to the study, the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the objectives, research questions and assumptions, the limitations and delimitations of the study, significance, theoretical framework, conceptual framework and the operational definition of key terms.

1.2 Background to the Study

The use of technology in communication has totally revolutionised social interactions among people in the contemporary world and has become an indispensable part of intimate relationships. This is especially true for the youth whom technology provides an avenue for initiating, maintaining and ending their intimate relationships (Draucker & Martsolf, 2010; Reed, Tolman & Sayfer, 2015). Intimate relationships are conceptualised as kinds of friendship characterised by positive affect which has to do with feelings of attraction, warmth, affection and love. They also comprise the viewpoint that one is admired, appreciated, loved and cared for by another (Prager, 2000). Intimate relationships can be between romantic partners, between friends and between parents and children. In this study we focus on relationships between romantic partners.

Technology enables such partners to remain connected through constant exchange of text messages, frequent chatting through instant messaging, and exchange of pictures

and videos through social media. These routine activities among the youth encourage them to frequently share personal information which at times puts them at risk of suffering from Cyber Dating Abuse (CDA). Moreover, the great amount of time spent using technology, high levels of exposure and proximity makes victims to be susceptible to abuse, which has negative consequences on their psychological health. Consequently, while these technologies have proved to be powerful tools in enhancing connectivity, they also can be tools of destruction used to harm others.

The availability of internet, social media and mobile phones while easing communication among dating individuals, unfortunately is also responsible for promoting several negative behaviours. Technology can be used to control a partner by monitoring their movements and keeping note of what they are engaged in and controlling their interactions by directing who they befriend and talk to. It can also be used in issuing threats to a partner and showing hostility to them. Individuals also use social media to publicly share their partners' sexual videos and photos with other people without their partners' consent. Others use social media or mobile phones to pressure partners to get involved in non-consensual sexual behaviour like sexting (Reed, Tolman & Ward 2016). All these behaviours when perpetrated through technology constitute a form of digital Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) called Cyber Dating Abuse (CDA). CDA is identified by Flach and Deslandes (2017) as:

> A new expression of intimate partner violence; an emerging phenomenon with specific characteristics and elements that are different from the violence that takes place in face-to-

> face amorous exchange and cyber-bullying, perpetrated through internet and digital technologies with no geographic or temporal barriers to its expression, intended to harm the partner, and with relevant consequences for the victims' mental health.

Cyber Dating Abuse has emerged as a social problem that afflicts dating students worldwide. Zweig, Lachman, Yahner and Dank's (2013b) study in the United States of America (USA) revealed that on average 26% of 5467 middle high school students who were dating suffered cyber abuse in the previous year with girls' victimization being higher than the boys. Reed (2015), in her study of high school students, still in the USA, established that 73% of females and 66% of males of 1162 students were victims of CDA. A study by Dick *et al*., (2014) conducted in the USA, found out that 41% of their adolescent respondents had experienced CDA victimization. A study of 433 College students, conducted in Europe-Spain, established that over 50% had suffered from CDA victimization (Borrajo, Gamez-Guadix, & Calvete, 2015a). Van Ouytsel, Ponnet, Walrave and Temple (2016), in a study conducted in Belgium, found that 65% of 466 of their respondents had suffered from CDA.

While a considerable amount of research has been carried out on Cyber Dating Abuse in America and Europe, the same cannot be said of other continents, particularly Africa. Thus, there is a dearth of empirical studies which have investigated CDA among adolescents and young adults. Equally, studies which have looked at cyber bullying are

still limited (Tokunaga, 2010). While both cyber bullying and CDA involve using technology to intimidate and inflict harm, they are different in the sense that cyber bullying in school contexts normally occurs repeatedly among peers and/ or may involve unknown persons and aims at public humiliation. However, Cyber Dating Abuse strictly occurs between individuals involved in a romantic relationship, in which the lovers may not necessarily be peers (Flach & Deslandes, 2017) and it needs not occur repeatedly.

A study by Faryadi (2011) in Malaysia, Asia, established that 13% of 365 University students had experienced cyber bullying. In South Africa, a report by the Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention established that cyber bullying accounted for more than a third of the more traditional bullying (Burton & Mutongwizo, 2009). The study consisting of 1,726 respondents established that 46.8 % of the adolescents were victims of cyber bullying. Additionally, a study by Olumide, Adams and Amadu (2016) of 653 adolescents in Oyo State, Nigeria, indicated that 23.9 % (156) of the adolescents had harassed someone online with 39.8 % (260) reporting to have been victimized. Equally, 21% (137) were both victims and perpetrators. In Tanzania, Onditi (2017) in a study of 778 teenagers of age 14-18 found out that 42% were perpetrators of cyber bullying while 58% were victimized. In Kenya, a study by Gitonga (2014), focusing on general internet crimes among University of Nairobi (UON) female students established that 77.6% of 201 of the respondents were victims of online harassment whereas 76.1% suffered from internet stalking.

While no known documented study in Kenya has looked at Cyber Dating Abuse, cases of CDA in Kenyan Universities have been reported. One such incident widely publicised was the dethronement of a University of Nairobi law student model who had been crowned Miss World Kenya after her ex-boyfriend sent her nude pictures to the organisers of the Miss World Kenya pageant (Nzomo,2016). This kind of Cyber Dating Abuse is referred to as 'revenge porn' meant to hit back at a partner or ex-partner. The crown Prosecution Service in the United Kingdom defines revenge porn as a term broadly encompassing a wide range of activities which involve sharing an ex-partner's intimate sexual photos or videos without their consent with the intention of humiliating or embarrassing the victim (Cyber/ Online Crime, 2017). Revenge porn is just one among other kinds of CDA that are forms of intimate partner violence.

Further, there are media reports indicating that incidences of offline dating violence in intimate relationships abound among Kenyan University students. A few students have been killed or have committed suicide in cases of love gone sour. On April 9th, 2019 a female student in her sixth-year pursuing Medicine at Moi University, was reported to have been axed to death by her frustrated 'supposed lover', a childhood friend and classmate, in a case of unrequited love. On the fateful day, the report stated that the perpetrator was infuriated by the woman's failure to answer his calls as she had switched off her phone, thus cutting communication between them. This was even after the man had allegedly sent her money to plan for her birthday party (Kipsang, 2019). On 6th April 2017, an article in the Nation newspaper decried the rising cases of varsity killings with the death toll hitting five students in six months (Chege, 2017).

In one such case related to CDA; a University of Nairobi student was said to have killed her lover for posting a picture of another woman on his Facebook profile (Chege, 2017). Although some of the reported incidents point to offline dating violence among dating couples, researches indicate that technology was commonly used to perpetrate verbal abuse and behaviours which often led to offline dating violence (Reed, Tolman & Ward, 2016). Equally, research has shown that Cyber Dating Abuse leads to adverse relationship consequences such as physical aggression occurring offline (Schnurr, Mahatmya, & Basche, 2013).

Despite having some clue on these happenings, the use of technology in perpetrating CDA and how it relates to academic engagement among Kenyan University students has not been clearly documented. This is despite the fact that several students own mobile phones and extensively use them to connect on Social Networking Sites. Octutu, Martita,Nyakerario, Wanekeya and Akotii (2014) in their study of 300 University of Nairobi students found out that 75% of the respondents owned smart phones. Similarly, Mayoyo, Nyangau, Nyamwaka and Aminga (2015) in their research of 143 undergraduates in Kisii University showed that 122 respondents (85.3%) owned smart phones. They also found that 134 (97.3%) of the respondents were active Facebook users and were spending on average one and a quarter hour daily on the Social Networking Sites (SNS), with some spending as many as six hours a day. According to Dixon and Bowen (2012), heavy usage of technology increases the opportunity and means which put the youth at risk of suffering from CDA.

Being in full cognizance of the fact that social media have the capability to build or damage personalities and institutions, some Universities in Kenya have formulated social media policies to govern student conduct in utilizing social media. For instance, Kenyatta University student social media policy guiding principles point to the students' responsibility in maintaining good communication practices. In line with this, students are obliged to ensure that "the comments they post are constructive, devoid of abusive, obscene and vulgar language in accordance with the University social media guidelines". Misusing the internet or social media is deemed to be an offence that is punishable and is prohibited by State Law and University Policy. (Kenyatta University Student Social Media, 2014: 3). Equally, Strathmore University, in their online social media policy, highlights responsibility as a core principle. It outlines that "in the atmosphere of freedom, no member of the University should post material that is embarrassing, hateful, obscene, harassing, defamatory or threatening to any person or entity". (Strathmore University Social Media Policy, 2016: 3).

Similarly, the Government of Kenya has also made an effort in enacting appropriate laws to regulate internet use in the country. In 2018, it enacted 'The Computer Misuse and Cybercrimes Act 2018', in a bid to prohibit wrongful use of computer systems and to protect citizens' rights to privacy and freedom of expression. The objective of this Act was to expedite prompt and effective prevention, investigation and punishment of computer and cybercrimes (Kenya Gazette Supplement, 2018). Section 23 stipulates that it is an offence for one to intentionally publish false information as may happen in the event of a partner spreading rumours about their partners. Section 27 deals with

cyber harassment which is a form of CDA. Section 37 stipulates that it is an offence for one to wrongfully distribute obscene or intimate images as may occur in event of revenge porn. Although this law had been in operation partially since its enactment it only came back into full force in February 2020 after the high court lifted a suspension on some 26 sections of the Act whose legality had been challenged.

Cyber Dating Abuse just like other forms of intimate partner violence, negatively afflicts the victims. However, the severity of negative effects like depression, anxiety and other behavioural problems (Eshelman & Levendosky, 2012) experienced by CDA victims is more intense than that caused by other dating violence (Zweig, Lachman, Yahner and Dank, 2014) owing to the relative permanency of texts or social media posts. Victims can re-read an SMS or social media post several times, thus increasing the negative effects of CDA (Melander, 2010).

Equally, incidents of CDA can be quickly shared publicly, hence increasing emotional distress and negatively impacting on a victim's everyday life (Daslaluk, 2016). Bennet, Guran, Ramos and Margolin (2011) also found out that CDA caused more psychological distress when perpetrated by a dating partner than when it was perpetrated by a friend. Dating abuse has also been found to have consequences on school belonging and school attachment - feelings that one is accepted and valued by others within the school (Walker, 2011). Cyber Dating Abuse is negatively associated with crucial educational outcomes with victims reporting a lower sense of school

attachment and school belonging; two important characteristics of student academic engagement.

Academic engagement refers to efforts expended by a learner in their devotion to educational activities contributing explicitly to their aspired outcomes (Krause & Coates, 2008). Fredricks, Blumenfeld and Paris (2004) conceptualize it as a three-factor construct comprising of behavioural, cognitive and emotional component. The behavioural component consists of students' involvement in classroom projects, conduct and involvement in school related co-curricular activities. Cognitive component involves the learners' devotion and willingness to put in the essential efforts so as to understand and master concepts and different skills while emotional component consists of students' sense of belonging and attitude about value of school.

Academic engagement has been found to relate to academic performance since the more engaged students are the better their academic performance. According to Schnurr, *et al*. (2013), dating violence has a negative effect on academic engagement with victims suffering from depression, poor school performance and early substance abuse. This can negatively impact on students′ progress as academic engagement has been found to be fundamental towards improving graduation rates and academic performance. But increased student academic engagement has been found to lower and hamper social issues such as delinquent behaviours, to improve student progress and decrease the chances of dropout (Malczyk, 2015).

While studies on dating violence have investigated its influence on academic achievement which is a long-term effect, there is limited research on academic engagement whose effects are immediate. Increased levels of emotional distress arising from CDA victimization are likely to affect the day to-day experiences in victim's academic engagement. Moreover, education researchers emphasize the significance of school engagement as a vital aspect of school experience which is more manageable and responsive to immediate intervention (Fredricks *et al*., 2004).

In this study, it was conceptualized that distress arising from CDA victimization may lead to a student's academic disengagement. Experiencing CDA victimization would likely impair concentration in studies making one to lose interest in the value of school for them. Behaviourally, it may lead to a student's lack of enthusiasm in class participation and group discussions. Also, the student may not do their school assignments on time.

Given that occurrences of CDA amongst Kenyan youth who are students at the University are real, and since such occurrences reported elsewhere have been found to impact the academic engagement of the affected students, this study intended to understand CDA dynamics, proportions and dimensions for the various preventive and control purposes.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Engagement in intimate relationships is a feature characteristic of undergraduate students' social interaction at the university. This period is characterised by conflicts among dating partners as they discover themselves and learn to relate with each other. This, unfortunately, is made worse by heavy usage of technology which exposes them to CDA. This continued abuse if left unchecked is likely to cause victims depression which could lead to academic disengagement. This is likely to have undesirable effects on students' retention and compliance and the education system. Yet, despite CDA being an emerging phenomenon described in various studies as a fast-spreading one, not much scholarly and research attention has been directed to it in Kenya. In this regard, the nature and magnitude of the effect this has on academic engagement, especially amongst the affected Kenyan University students, remains undocumented. Therefore, the main problem of this study was to explicate the connection between CDA and academic engagement among Kenyan University students.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to establish the influence of Cyber Dating Abuse on the academic engagement of Kenyan University students with a view of determining workable strategies to mitigate the negative effects of CDA.

1.5 The objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were:

i) To establish the students' perception of the concept of Cyber Dating Abuse.

ii) To identify the kinds of digital technologies used in perpetrating different kinds of Cyber Dating Abuse among University students in Nairobi City County.

iii) To assess the gender differences in the perpetration and victimization of Cyber Dating Abuse among University students in Nairobi City County.

iv) To examine the extent to which Cyber Dating Abuse affects the academic engagement of University students in Nairobi City County.

v) To determine strategies to mitigate the effects of Cyber Dating Abuse on the academic engagement of University students in Nairobi City County.

1.6 Research Questions

i) What is the students' perception of the concept of Cyber Dating Abuse?

ii) What kinds of digital communication technologies are used in perpetrating different forms of Cyber Dating Abuse by University students in Nairobi City County?

iii) What differences exist in the way male and female University students in Nairobi City County perpetrate and experience Cyber Dating Abuse?

iv) How does CDA affect the academic engagement of University students in Nairobi City County?

v) What strategies can be adopted to mitigate effects of CDA on academic engagement of University students in Nairobi City County?

1.7 Significance of the Study

The findings from this study may have useful information on students' social interaction which may be helpful to University administration, members of Faculty, students and parents. Given the limited studies in Kenya which have investigated the relationship between CDA and academic engagement, this study has contributed new knowledge in this area. With rapid technological evolution and the youths being heavy users, it is critical to appreciate the role of technology in perpetrating CDA and to understand its implications to student involvement which is significant in affecting educational outcomes.

The findings may also provide information to students on different kinds of CDA. This may enable them identify victimization processes and thus respond to them appropriately. Besides, it may sensitize the students on strategies they could use to cope with CDA. Finally, the findings may provide insights into the association between CDA and academic engagement. The study findings may also contribute to the legislation of policies related to ethical use of information and communication technologies which may be useful in intervening and preventing CDA. This may enhance the quality of student's social life and their academic engagement which are crucial in influencing academic achievement.

1.8 Limitations and Delimitations

1.8.1 Limitations of the Study

This study utilised a descriptive cross-sectional research design which was a limitation as causal inferences could not be made. The study also relied on self-reports from the respondents on their experiences with Cyber Dating Abuse. To minimize this bias, the study used questionnaires and focus group discussions for students, interviews for the Deans of Students and Student Counsellors and then triangulated the data. Another limitation is that the findings of this study cannot be generalized to all university students because it relied on a sample drawn from Universities in Nairobi City County whose socio-cultural characteristics and socialization may differ from students from universities in rural settings.

1.8.2 Delimitations of the Study

The study was limited to three randomly selected Universities in Nairobi City County, Kenya, and particularly to a convenience sample size of 384 undergraduate students who were or had been in a dating relationship. The target population was a critical group typified by intensification in sexual and amorous experiences as they developed from adolescence, through to adulthood, in an environment of freedom afforded in the University. The study only explored the effect of Cyber Dating Abuse on undergraduates' academic engagement. With regard to academic engagement, this investigation only focused on academic involvement and disregarded other factors like social involvement which could affect the same. The reviewed literature focused on

studies pertaining to cyber dating abuse as a form of IPV and excluded in-person intimate partner abuse which occurs in face-to-face interactions.

1.9 Assumptions of the Study

The study was based on the assumption that dating students were utilising technology in their scholarly and social activities, and it is in the course of their daily routine activities that they perpetrated or fell victims of Cyber Dating Abuse. It was also assumed that victimization had an effect on their academic engagement.

1.10 Theoretical Framework

This study was guided by two theories that is, the Routine Activities Theory and Johnson's Typology of Intimate Partner Violence.

1.10.1The Routine Activities Theory (RAT)

To describe victimization as it relates to CDA in this study, the Routine Activities Theory (RAT), propounded by Lawrence Cohen and Marcus Felson in 1979 to explain crime rate change in the USA 1947-1974, was used. This theory states that for offending to take place, an offender with a motive must encounter a suitable victim at a site outside the watch of a capable protector (Cohen & Felson, 1979). Relating to this study, it was conceptualized that the youth's routine activities which revolve around use of technology expose them to CDA.

Moreover, the regular usage of technology increases a victim's visibility and accessibility as individuals disclose their private information, including their whereabouts. The use of smart phones, which enable the use of Global Positioning Systems make it easier for potential offenders to stalk their victims (Dixon & Bowen, 2012). All these happen privately in the absence of persons to act in protective manner or without security systems like social media policy to deter this. Besides, research shows that the presence of a third party in the form of an individual who is aware of anti-cyber abuse policies, one who is aware of methods of reporting the abuse and has computer competency can deter an offender from committing a crime or act by disrupting crime events in progress (Felson, 2006; Reynald, 2011).

Applied to this study, University students who are adults use technologies and the internet in their class work and assignments as part of their formalized learning experiences. They also use social networking sites, instant messaging and the internet for social connection in their social circles including romantic relationships. According to Melander (2010), engagement in everyday regular activities online and on campus, exposes the youth to CDA. Constant interactions of partners who are in the same University and campus and class attendance expose the victims to the offenders. Nevertheless, even in the absence of physical proximity, the longer a victim stays online the more they become visible, hence making them vulnerable targets to motivated offenders. This exposure enables a controlling partner to monitor, harass, control their partner, causing them distress and embarrassment.

The strength of this theory is that it explains crime rates based on normal activities which individuals engage in and as a result has been expanded to apply to many kinds of deviant behaviours (Argun & Daglar, 2016). This theory departs from examining violence from a gender perspective and social learning. Instead, it explains victimization by exploring the risk factors arising from an ever-changing pattern of life cultivated through technology. The limitation of this theory, however, is that although it mentions the existence of a motivated offender as being necessary for crime to occur, it does not account for the offenders but instead focuses only on victimization. The RAT also fails to associate deviance with the offender's characteristics, hence does not state who is likely to be an offender or under what circumstances deviance occurs. Therefore, there was need to complement it with an integrative theory, Johnson's Typology of Intimate Partner Violence, to explain why some individuals resort to Cyber Dating Abuse and, especially, who is likely to perpetrate CDA as expressed below.

1.10.2 Johnson's Typology of Intimate Partner Violence

This theory's foundation lies in the conflicting views of Feminist Theory and Family Violence Theory (Johnson & Leone, 2005). Michael Johnson asserts that both the feminist and family violence theorists' perspectives are crucial in explaining Intimate Partner Violence (IPV), providing a theoretical work that gives an integrative perspective on IPV. Based on this understanding, Johnson (1995) initially outlined two kinds of IPV, namely, Patriarchal Terrorism and Common Couple Violence (Ali, Dhingra &. McGarry, 2016).

Patriarchal Terrorism arises out of traditional patriarchy which gives men authority to control their women (Johnson, 1995:284). It is, therefore, understood from a gendered feminist perspective. On the contrary, Common Couple Violence is not gender based but arises out of conflict within a family which gets out of control (Johnson, 1995:284). It thus can be explained from the Family Violence perspective. Johnson refined his typology in 2005 and added two other kinds of violence. He also modified the vocabulary of the earlier types: Patriarchal Terrorism/ Intimate Terrorism was renamed Coercive Control Violence while Common Couple Violence was renamed Situational Couple Violence. He added Violent Resistance and Mutual Violent Control.

Situational Couple Violence is as a result of conflict occurring in a situation (Johnson, 2005). It normally occurs as a reaction to anger or frustration and, in heterosexual relationships, is likely to be done by both partners. On the contrary, Coercive Control Violence occurs when a partner dominates over the other by employing controlling tactics in their amorous association. Such partners always keep watch and establish rules which, if flouted, lead to punitive action (Beck *et al*., 2013; Kelly & Johnson, 2008). Although it is a form of violence which can be carried out by both men and women, in heterosexual relationships males are more likely to perpetrate it more than females. Violent Resistance, on the other hand, emanates from retaliation with violence in self-defence by a partner in response to Coercive Control Violence. In heterosexual relationships, it is primarily carried out by females. Finally, Mutual Violent Control is as a result of both intimate partners being violent and controlling (Melander, 2010).

Johnson (2006) specified that these kinds of violence were differentiated by the extent of control entailed in each, and not by how severe the violence is.

Applying Johnson's typology to CDA, it was noted that individuals in intimate relationships used technology to perpetrate the different kinds of violence. Research indicated that partners used different technologies in perpetrating controlling behaviours and constant communication which amounted to Cyber Dating Abuse (Melander, 2010).

The strength of Johnson's Typology of Intimate Partner Violence Theory is that it provides a very detailed classification of Intimate Partner Violence which is crucial in explaining the phenomenon of IPV occurring in different situations, circumstances, and proportions (Ali, *et. al*.,2016). Johnson's Typology of Intimate Partner Violence Theory and Routine Activities Theory complement each other. Routine Activities Theory explains victimization while Johnson's typology of IPV explains perpetration. Thus, the two were combined to account for perpetration and victimization occurring in CDA.

1.11 Conceptual Framework

Based on the theories and background information, a conceptual framework was developed to explain the variables and how they interact. Three variables, namely, independent variable consisting of CDA, stress and regulatory framework as intervening variable and academic engagement were identified and explained in the way they interact in the process of CDA as illustrated in Figure 1.1:

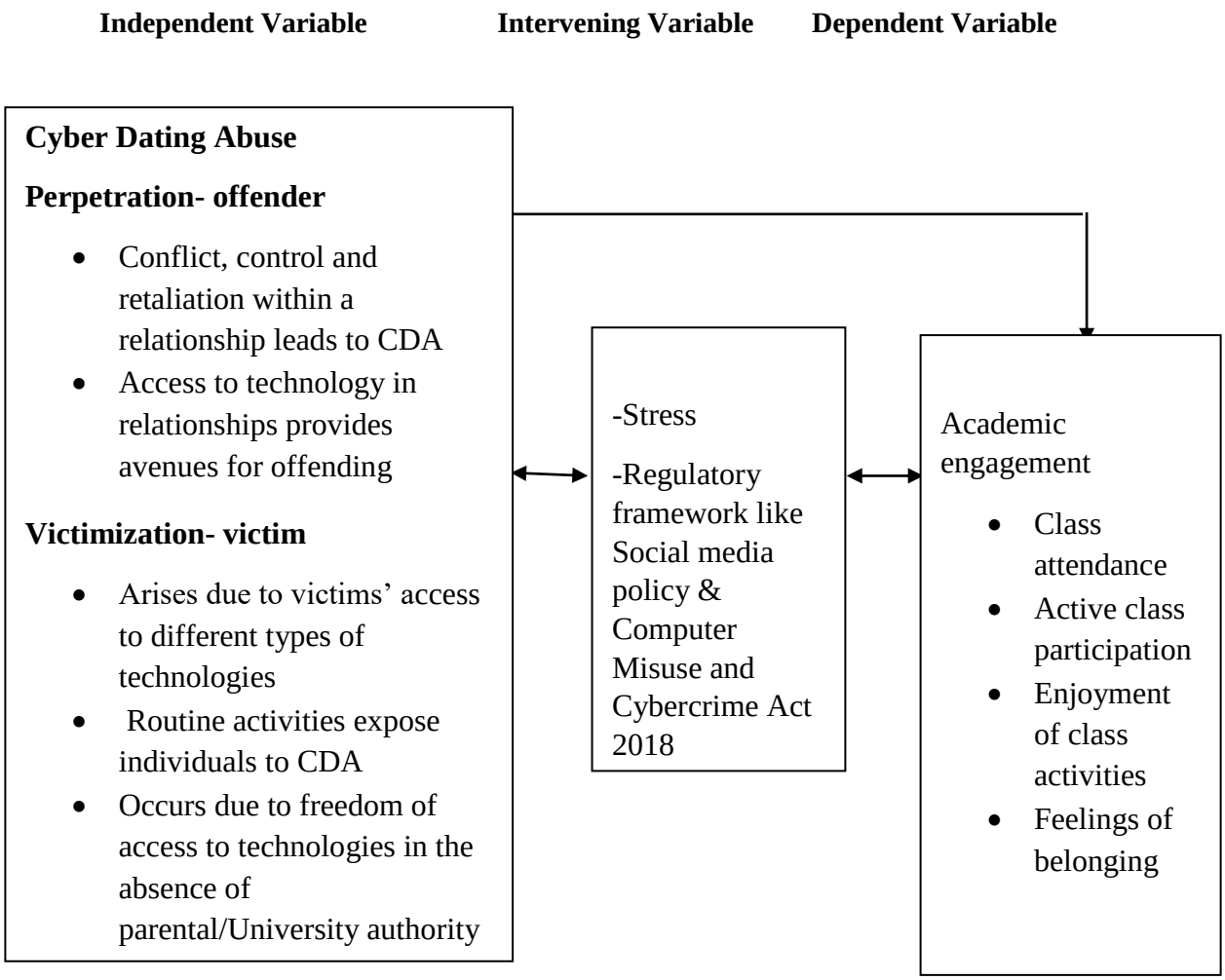

Figure 1.1: Conceptual Framework: Interrelationship between CDA, Stress, regulatory framework and Academic Engagement

The conceptual framework in Figure 1:1 illustrates how perpetration and victimization occur in cyber dating abuse. It shows that when University students experience conflicts due to access and regular usage of digital technologies in their daily activities in the absence of a capable guardian, this may cause the victim emotional distress. This could further lead to their disinterest in their studies. This could cause them not to actively participate in classroom activities like discussions, doing assignments and lead to their

skipping classes, which ultimately may lead to academic disengagement. On the other hand, the presence of regulatory frameworks put in place may deter perpetrators from misusing technology to perpetrate CDA against their partners. This is likely to have implications on their academic engagement as in, in the absence of stress caused by CDA, they are likely to actively participate in learning activities in their classrooms. They are also likely to feel a sense of belonging encouraging positive relationships between their peers and teachers and thus increase their academic engagement.

1.12 Operational Definitions of Terms

Academic engagement- This refers to students' effort and willingness to take active part in learning tasks that make a direct contribution to aspired learning outcomes.

Behavioural academic engagement- Refers to the student's active involvement in classroom activities whose indicators are class attendance, participation in group work, doing assignments

Casual dating- A kind of relationship where partners may have a sexual relationship lacking commitment and may be for a limited time (not considered a serious relationship).

Catfishing-(verb)- Refers to actions of an individual luring another into a relationship by using a fake identity online.

Cyber Dating Abuse- Refers to harassment, intimidation, monitoring and controlling of an intimate partner with the intention of causing them psychological, emotional harm and social embarrassment through use of technology.

Cyber Dating Abuse victimization- It is the experience where an individual becomes a target (victim) of aggressive behaviour from their dating partner causing them humiliation, distress and social embarrassment.

Digital technologies- These are digital devices, systems that are used to develop, store and process data

Delinquency- Antisocial behaviours especially by young people that are not acceptable in society.

Emotional academic engagement- This is the feeling of sense of belonging characterised by positive relationships with peers and teachers and an interest in school activities.

Exclusive dating- A kind of romantic relationship where partners decide to commit to each other and portray themselves as a couple to the world (Considered a serious relationship).

Gender mistrust- A general feeling of distrust between men and women that a partner cannot be trusted to be loyal or faithful in a relationship

Ghosting- It is a way of breaking a relationship digitally by simply disappearing online by not answering a partner's texts, calls or chats without an explanation.

Hit and run- Refers to situations in which an individual makes sexual advances on another, often times taking advantage of them and then suddenly disappearing.

Intimate partner - Current or ex- partner / boyfriend or girlfriend.

Intimate partner violence - Any kind of violence: physical, emotional or sexual perpetrated against a lover with the aim of hurting, intimidating, or embarrassing them.

Kittenfishing- A deceptive way in which individuals make themselves seem to be different from what they really are on online platforms for example, one using flattering photos of themselves from some time back or those that are heavily edited, exaggerating their skills

Mitigation strategies- These are steps that can be taken to minimize the risk of CDA

Prevalence-The frequency expressed as a percentage of individuals within a demographic group who become victims of CDA within a specified period of time.

Routine activities- The day-to-day activities an individual engages in as part of their lifestyle.

Sext(ing)- Sending of explicit sensual messages which may also contain nude, semi-nude, or provocative images or video of oneself or others via mobile phone or Social Networking Sites.

Social Media- Applications and websites which allow users to develop and distribute content like videos, photos, ideas, personal messages with people they interact with online

Social networking sites- A website which enables a user to develop a social profile and to communicate with other users, for example, Facebook, Myspace, Instagram, LinkedIn, Google Plus

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This Chapter is a review of literature related to Cyber Dating Abuse and academic engagement of University students. The review was done in accordance with the main themes as outlined in the study objectives and research questions. Accordingly, the chapter is divided into five sections namely: perception of the concept of Cyber Dating Abuse among University students; kinds of digital technologies used in perpetrating different forms of Cyber Dating Abuse among University students; gender differences in perpetration and victimization of Cyber Dating Abuse among dating University students; the influence of Cyber Dating Abuse on academic engagement of University students; strategies to mitigate effects of Cyber Dating Abuse on academic engagement of University students and finally, summary of the research gaps.

2.2 Perception of the concept of Cyber Dating Abuse by University students

In order to understand CDA as emotional aggression perpetrated through technology, a description of important terms adopted by researchers in the field of interpersonal dating violence was essential. As already defined in Chapter One, CDA is used in reference to the use of emerging technologies to harass lovers with the intention of causing them harm (Melander, 2010). Several terms have been used by different researchers to describe these behaviours which occur among individuals in romantic relationships.

Based on a review of empirical research on CDA in romantic relationships, Flach and Deslandes (2017), identify some of these terms. Cyber Dating Abuse/ violence have been the most commonly used terms in literature on intimate partner abuse because they are more inclusive (Zweig, Dank, Yahner & Lachman, 2013a). The term 'cyber' is used to describe the wide array of technology- mobile phones, social media, electronic mail and instant messaging applications- which can be used to perpetrate different kinds of abuse. The term was consequently adopted in this study in place of all the other terms. Other terms used are online/digital forms of dating abuse; technology and dating conflict; cyber aggression; socially interactive technologies (SITS) abuse/violence; technology-based abuse; cyber harassment; technology-assisted adolescent dating violence and abuse (TAADVA); cyber stalking and partner cyber abuse (Flach & Deslandes, 2017). Similarly, other studies have used the term Digital Dating Abuse (DDA) (Picard, 2007; Reed *et al*., 2016).

Kline (2009) asserts that dating is an integral part of College/University experience and is of significance to the youth's social development. However, at times it leads to experiences that are complicated, painful and at times dangerous. Ironically, few students are even aware of the abuse and violence in their relationships (Kline, 2009). This was important in highlighting the problem of intimate partner abuse among dating students. Indeed, the findings in this study revealed that majority of students were dating and were experiencing cyber dating abuse which many were unaware of. This is of concern because if left to continue it may have adverse effects on the students' educational outcomes.

The review also established that different individuals have different perceptions regarding behaviours that constitute CDA. According to Reed *et al*. (2016), research shows that behaviours such as frequent exchange of text messages with anticipation of an immediate response, suspicions about messages posted on one's social networking site profile and demand to exchange sensual intimate photos are assumed to be quite normal by young people. However, this may not be entirely the case. Repeated text messaging to monitor a partner may be a sign of possessive and controlling behaviour in an intimate relationship and hence is a kind of Cyber Dating Abuse behaviour (Reed, *et al*., 2016). Further, they state that an important feature of CDA is the intention to cause the other harm. Yet, they are also cognisant of the fact that some behaviour, though not consciously carried out with this intention, might still be abusive. The respondents to Reed's study were high school adolescents who were then new to dating. This information was important as it informed the development of the study which sought to find out what were the respondents' thoughts on the behaviours they perpetrated against their partners.

Kellerman, Margolin, Borofsky, Baucom and Iturralda (2013) established that text messages and social media postings were differentially perceived by the sender and recipient. Respondents in this study in the USA reported higher victimization rates than perpetration because victims were likely to interpret online behaviours of others as being hurtful while the perpetrators failed to recognise that texts, they sent were offensive. This ambiguity was deemed to arise from lack of oral and facial cues in online behaviours. Further, in qualitative analyses, it was established that some

respondents who engaged in digital abusive acts did not ascribe them to hostile intentions.

Equally, there are behaviours that are deemed to be innocent at first glance but turn out later to be paths to CDA. For instance, sharing passwords and pin numbers is done to signify love and trust and is not thought to be harmful in any way. However, these are at times used by insecure partners to perpetrate CDA by monitoring and controlling their partners. This review informed the choice of data collection tools so as have a clear understanding of CDA among university students in the selected universities in Nairobi City County. The use of qualitative methods in addition to quantitative methods provided rich descriptions of CDA and highlighted their interpretations of the CDA behaviours they perpetrated or that they experienced.

The respondents in the studies by Reed (2016) and Kellerman and their colleagues (2013) were teenagers. But the respondents in this study were much older. Given that dating is a social process that is developmental, it was necessary to find out the experiences of the youth who were actively involved in the process of discovering more about intimate relationships in their social development. Despite the two populations having undergone different socialization the findings in this study indicated that they did not differ in their perceptions on CDA despite their different geographical locations and cultural backgrounds.

A research involving 23 adolescents established that abusive behaviours were normalized by the teenagers (Lucero, Weisz, Smith-Darden, & Lucero, 2014). The girls in the reviewed study reported that monitoring was of significance in their intimate relationships and they often created fake social media profiles to investigate their boyfriends' online activities. It was common for girls to delete other girls' messages on their boyfriends' mobile phones. Boys on the other hand reported that they knew their girlfriends monitored their activities online which they disliked. For girls, sharing of passwords was interpreted as a sign of affection, trust and commitment in their relationships.

On the contrary, boys were not keen on revealing their passwords until they had established mutual trust. Consequently, controlling acts and jealousy among girls were not perceived to be abusive but rather a demonstration of love and means of protecting one's love. Behaviours like monitoring and constant contact that are considered as abusive among adults were found to be common among the teens and were perceived to be annoying but not abusive.

On methodology, while the study by Reed *et al*. (2016) and Kline's (2009) studies utilised quantitative methodologies in an online survey, both qualitative and quantitative methodologies were used in this study to contribute to foundational knowledge on CDA among University students in Kenya. This study thus sought to establish Kenyan University student's perceptions of CDA.

2.3 Types of Digital Technologies used in Perpetrating Different Kinds of Cyber Dating Abuse among University students

Reviewed studies indicate that CDA is majorly carried out through use of mobile phones via calls, Social Media, SMS, sexting and IM. A cell phone or mobile phone traditionally was a portable handset that was used for voice communication. Today it has evolved into a "complex multi-platform system that includes email, a web browser, address book, calendar, clock, games, video camera, GPS, music player, e-book reader, access to radio and television content, and thousands of downloadable and upgradeable applications" (Scolari, Aguado & Feijoo,2012). Mobile phones are frequently used not only in verbal fights with a partner but also in threatening, harassing and stalking (Draucker & Martsolf, 2010). Moreover, smart phones have the capability of doing more than make calls and send texts. They can be used to send Multimedia Message Service (MMS) messages, make video calls and access sites like Facebook (FB), Twitter and Snap chat among others (Vermaat, 2014).

Boyd and Ellison (2007) define social networking sites (SNS) as websites which enable a user to create a public profile to connect with other users within their network. Text messaging/ Short Messaging Services (SMS) involve exchange of text messages through mobile phones (Kowalski & Limber, 2008) while sexting involves the exchange of provocative photos or messages to others (Ferguson, 2011). Instant Messaging (chatting) is a text-based communication which happens in real time through the internet that allows people to instantly converse (Kowalski & Limber, 2008).

A study by Picard (2007) showed that 10% of 382 respondents were physically threatened through social media while 30% reported to have received 10 or more SMS in an hour from partners to monitor their whereabouts and activities. 25% were called names, harassed or demeaned through SMS and 22% reported to have been coerced to sext. Lucero, *et al*. (2014), found that monitoring, sexting and password sharing was part of CDA. The respondents in both studies were adolescents. Draucker and Martsolf (2010) established that about 4% of 56 youth used IM to establish relationships, limit partner's access to themselves and reconcile after a violent episode or breakup.

A study by Borrajo, Gámez-Guadix, and Calvete (2015a) of 433 dating University students found out that passwords were used to spy and control a partner. Behaviours consisting control and monitoring were normalized and justified by 'a romanticized view of love' or perceived as a joke. Most CDA behaviours (52.04%) in this study were perpetrated using SNS; 40.92% were carried through messaging applications like WhatsApp while 7.04% of behaviours were through email. Another study on undergraduate students found that 25% of females and 6% of males used e-mail to monitor their partners (Burke, Wallen, Vail-Smith & Knox, 2011).

CDA manifests itself in several ways. First, there is digital sexual coercion which involves a partner sending or coercing their spouse to share with them nude pictures or sensual text messages with the victim through WhatsApp or SMS or posts on social media. Second manifestation of CDA is digital monitoring control which involves power, control and manipulation. It may include isolating a partner from peers or

friends by restricting their interactions both physically and online, abusing a partner verbally through technology, stalking a partner using Global Positioning Systems (GPS), which is tracking of an individual's exact location through technology. The third form is digital direct aggression which may involve threatening a partner, sharing embarrassing photos and videos of a partner without their permission or spreading rumours about a partner (Walker, 2011).

The study gap in the context of this objective is that, while the reviewed studies provide information on the kinds of technology used to perpetrate CDA, most of them were about five years old or more. Given that technology quickly evolves, there have been a lot of changes and the kinds of technology in use today are more advanced, providing new avenues for abuse with negative consequences for its victims. This study, therefore, aimed at finding out the current technologies being utilised in perpetrating CDA among Kenyan University students.

2.4 Gender Differences in Perpetration and Victimization of Cyber Dating Abuse among Dating University students

2.4.1 Prevalence of Cyber Dating Abuse among Dating Students

Studies on CDA among different populations report different prevalence rates. This is thought to be due to the different definitions given to the term 'Cyber Dating Abuse' as well as the different methods used in the studies. Reporting on Cyber Dating Abuse may also be hampered by perceptions held by young people.

A quantitative study in the US by Cutbush, Williams, Miller, Gibbs and Clinton-Sherrod (2012) of 1430 adolescents aged 12-13 years, established that 31.5% of the teens were victims of electronic dating aggression while 18.4 % were aggressors. Another study by Zweig *et al*. (2013b) of 5,647 adolescents aged 12-18 years old established a prevalence rate of 26.3 % victimization and 11.8% perpetration. While Cutbush and colleagues' study (2012) utilised a 29-item questionnaire, Zweig's used a 16-item questionnaire and reported a lower prevalence rate than Cutbush' study because those respondents who were not dating were assumed not to have experienced any CDA.

A study conducted in the US by Dick *et al*. (2014), among teenagers found out that 44.6% of females had suffered from Cyber Dating Abuse as compared to 31% of males. The cross-sectional study focused on abuse occurring in the previous 3 months. This differs from this study in that the respondents were young teenagers who were new to dating then as compared to the respondents in this study who were much older and may have had different dating experiences by virtue of their age and socialization. Equally, the duration for reviewed study was shorter, focusing on 3 months, as opposed to 12 months in this study. This likely influenced the percentage of those victimized during that period.

A study by Kellerman *et al*. (2013) on 226 undergraduate students, found out that 71.7% were victims of Cyber Dating Abuse. Quantitative and qualitative methods were used to obtain data through an online survey. The study relied on a 19-item

questionnaire adapted from Bennet *et al*. (2011). Borrajo *et al*. (2015a), in their study of 433 college students in Spain, established that over 50% of students aged between 18-30 years experienced Cyber Dating Abuse victimization in previous six months. The quantitative study utilised nine questions to find out the frequency of victimization and the context of aggression. This prevalence rate was lower than that established in the study by Kellerman. While Kellerman and colleagues (2013), looked at victimization occurring in the past one year, Borrajo (2015a) looked at the past six months. A study by Gitonga (2014), on internet crimes among University of Nairobi female students established that 77.6% of 201 of the respondents were victims of online harassment, whereas 76.1% suffered from internet stalking. Although the study's focus wasn't specifically on CDA, higher victimization was noted among married or dating couples than among singles.

The study gaps identified in respect to this theme was that all the reviewed studies, except one, were from developed countries. Moreover, most reviewed studies gave a general prevalence rate on victimization. This study sought to provide a gendered analysis of the prevalence rates.

2.4.2 The Influence of Gender on Perpetration and Victimization of Cyber Dating Abuse among University Students

In the past, violence among intimate partners was conceptualised to be only inflicted by men on women. However, research has disapproved this. According to Caldwell, Swan and Woodbrown, (2012), IPV is more complex and multidimensional, defying

simplistic explanations. Previous research points to inconsistent findings. In some studies, women perpetrated abuse more often than men. Others reported an equal rate of perpetration, while others reported males being the primary perpetrators (Reed 2015). According to Kaukinen, Gover and Hartman (2012), males and females who were dating in College were found to be perpetrators and victims of dating violence. Dating violence among these respondents occurred in mutually violent relationships.

The feminist view was that males and females could not perpetrate IPV in a similar manner and that the two experienced it differently. They alluded to the fact that females and males had been raised in a highly gendered social cultural context which ascribed hierarchical roles for them and within which dating violence occurred (Reed, 2015). According to Caldwell *et al*. (2012) research showed that, comparatively, more women than men were sexually victimized and stalked by their current and ex- partners. The higher rates of sexual coercion and sexual abuse perpetration among males could be attributed to these beliefs of dominance and power over the females. Additionally, cultures which granted men dominance over their women increased their likelihood of sexual coercion over females (Edwards, Black, Dhingra, McKnight-Eily & Perry, 2009). Consensual sexting, though, did not constitute a form of violence unless a partner shared sexual pictures or videos without their partner's consent.

Although Zweig *et al*. (2013b) established the likelihood of boys perpetrating sexual cyber dating behaviours than girls, a study by Reed, *et al*. (2016) found no differences between male and females' victimization or perpetration. Men, though, were likely to

publicly share compromising information about their partner or pressure for sexually suggestive photos or videos via computer or mobile phone. They also exercised direct aggression by distributing partners' photos and sexting messages, making revenge porn go 'viral' (Borrajo *et al*., 2015a; Lucero et al., 2014). This is common following a breakup in which videos recorded and photos shared during the relationship were shared with other people with the intention to scandalize, embarrass, extort and/or take revenge. (Martsolf, Colbert & Draucker, 2012).

Unlike feminist theorists, family violence theorists point to gender symmetry, a notion that in some instances, females perpetrate dating violence more than males, although this applies to some types of IPV but not others (Johnson, 2006; Caldwell *et al*., 2012). The study on internet crimes against female students in UON by Gitonga (2014) showed that more women than men perpetrated cyber harassment. 89 of the 201 respondents (44.2%) said their perpetrators were fellow women with 86 (42.7%) of the respondents reporting harassment from men. 26(12.9%) reported not knowing the gender of the offenders. The study, however, was not explicit on the relationship between the male perpetrators and their victims, although the respondents who were dating were found to be more affected than those who were single.

According to Reed (2015), empirical findings suggest the likelihood of more girls engaging in emotional manipulation or non-physical aggression than boys. While boys resort to overt physical aggression, girls resort to passive and emotional forms of aggression as a socially acceptable way to challenge power structures or get control in

their relationships. Lucero *et al*. (2014) in their study of 23 teenagers in Michigan, established in a focus group that girls normalized frequent monitoring behaviour while boys experienced frustration from the same. For girls, sharing of passwords was reassuring even though there were potential consequences for so doing, but boys perceived it as something that made them anxious.

Just as there are gender differences in perpetration of CDA, so are their responses to CDA. A study by Reed *et al*. (2016) of 365 young adults revealed that females were differentially affected as they reported more distress, negative emotional and behavioural consequences from all types of CDA than males did. In another empirical study of 266 students, women were found to show more resentment than men in a hypothetical situation in which they viewed pictures online of their spouses with another person (Muscanell, Guadagno, Rice and Murphy, 2013).

A study by Marshall, Bejanyan, Di Castro and Lee (2013) also reported that women expressed greater levels of resentment about FB posts. Women found intrusiveness to be hypothetically more distressing than men did. Although overall, humiliation and hostility were reported to be more distressing than other forms of CDA. When experiencing invasive behaviours, men were found to exhibit lower levels of anticipated distress (Reed, Tolman & Ward, 2017). In a study by Dardis, Edwards, Kelly and Gidycz (2015), men were found to perceive acts of violence in IPV not as threatening or abusive as women did. These findings showed a gendered response to digital media.

On the contrary, a study by Harned (2001) showed that both male and female victims of physical and psychological IPV equally suffered from depression and anxiety at low intensities of aggression. Nevertheless, women reported more depressive and anxious symptoms with higher intensity of aggression. Another study by Fergusson, Horwood and Ridder (2005) also established that both victims of IPV, both men and women suffered increased depression and anxiety. This, however, contrasted with findings by Romito and Grassi (2007) who established that females who were frequently victimized suffered more depression and had higher episodes of panic than those who suffered from low or no intimate partner violence. However, IPV had no influence on men's depressive and panic symptoms.

The study by Caldwell *et al*. (2012) was a literature review of articles from two databases on the gender differences in outcomes of IPV. The study mainly looked at IPV entailing physical, sexual, emotional and coercive control and not specifically at CDA. The study was not clear on the sample used in the reviewed studies. Also, the study by Harned (2001), though focusing on both undergraduate and postgraduate students, did not focus on CDA but general psychological, sexual and physical aggression. Romito and Grassi (2007) also looked at violence by family members, peers/school violence, IPV and sexual violence of University students. Fergusson *et al*. (2005) focused on a birth cohort of 25-year-olds and their victimization in domestic violence and not CDA. Gitonga's (2014) study, though conducted in Kenya just focused on internet crimes against female University students only and not specifically on CDA. Thus, it did not capture the effects of both females and males in relationships.

Muscanell *et al*.'s (2013) study utilised an experimental design in which young adults were asked to report their feelings based on a hypothetical situation of looking at pictures of their spouses with another person online (Reed *et al*., 2015). So, unlike the reviewed studies, this study specifically focused on CDA abuse among Kenyan University undergraduate students.

2.5 The Influence of Cyber Dating Abuse on Academic Engagement of University Students

Academic engagement has been an area of interest in research due to its relationship with academic performance, school and greater feeling of satisfaction and happiness (Estell & Perdue, 2013). A student's involvement in activities that are educationally useful results in persistence, satisfaction, achievement and academic success (Hu & Ching, 2012). On the contrary, low levels of academic engagement have also been negatively associated with school dropout (Janosz, Archambault, Morizot, & Pagani, 2008), delinquency (Payne, Gottfredson, & Gottfredson, 2003), and substance abuse (Simons-Morton, 2004 as cited in Yang, 2015).

Different researchers have attempted to define academic engagement. An overview of these definitions is provided by Oqab, Phan and Ngu (2016). Krause and Coates (2008), define it as "quality of efforts students themselves devote to educationally purposeful activities that contribute directly to desired outcomes", while Nystrand and Gamoran (1992:14) as cited by Maroco, Maroco, Campos and Fredricks (2016) define it as "students' willingness to participate in routine school activities, such as attending

classes, submitting required work, and following teachers' directions in class". From these definitions, engagement requires a student's direct involvement. Research further points to the fact that the more involved a student is, the more they learn. Student academic engagement is thought to be multi-dimensional and encompasses different aspects. According to Fredricks, Blumenfeld and Paris, (2004: 62-63), drawing on 1956 Bloom's taxonomy state that there are three facets to student engagement, namely: behavioural, cognitive and emotional.

Behavioural engagement involves complying with classroom patterns, observing regulations and avoiding unruly behaviours like skipping school (Oqap *et al*., 2016). It also has to do with involvement in schooling and academic connected activities such as contributing actively to classroom and group discussions, making inquiries, concentration, staying alert and exerting effort (Fredricks *et al*., 2004; Oqap et al., 2016). According to Fredricks *et al*. (2004), the cognitive dimension focuses on the extent to which a student invests in schooling and includes features like devotion and the effort needed to comprehend difficult tasks, utilise suitable learning approaches, goals and student driven learning. The emotional construct is also called motivational engagement, psychological engagement or affective engagement (Oqap *et al*., 2016). Emotional engagement is defined in relation to academic tasks. In this case, it focuses on the degree of excitement, happiness, enjoyment or disinterest to academic tasks (Appleton, Christenson &Furlong, 2008). It can also be defined broadly as the feeling that a student has towards the institution, colleagues and educators (Fredricks *et al*., 2004).

Student academic engagement differs from student school engagement which focuses on academic, school and community. Academic engagement specifically focuses on student involvement within the classroom or with content and is the focus of this study. Also, only the emotional and behavioural dimensions of academic engagement are dealt with. Lawson and Lawson (2013) assert that while researchers agree to the tripartite definition of academic engagement, rarely do they use the three in the same study. This is due to statistical complications of covering all three dimensions of academic engagement which require different modes of measurement (Malczyk, 2015).

A few existing empirical studies on academic engagement have considered it as predictor variable rather than an outcome variable. Carini, Kuh and Klein (2006) conducted a research in the USA to establish the linkage between student learning outcome and engagement. The study aimed at examining the relationship between student engagement and academic performance. The findings revealed that engagement was associated with beneficial learning outcomes such as critical thinking and performance. Higher engagement among students with low ability was more beneficial to them than their colleagues with low engagement. Differences were also noted among students from different academic years as well as institutions. The study population in this study was 1058 University students.

Another study by Hancock (2014) sought to establish the relationship between cyber dating harassment as a predictor variable and self-esteem and academic engagement. But the findings did not establish a link between cyber dating harassment and academic

engagement. However, a significant negative relationship existed between cyber dating harassment and self-esteem. The study sample was first year University students aged 17-19. In the study, it was hypothesized that cyber dating harassment victims would avoid their perpetrators, hence leading to avoidance of academic settings which would lead to academic disengagement. This was not supported in the findings and was ascribed to the fact that most year one students were dating partners in different Universities, hence were not threatened by their presence on campus. (Hancock, 2014)

There are also researches that have looked at the reciprocal association between delinquency and school engagement. Hirschfield and Gasper (2010), in their study involving elementary students, examined whether the relationship between engagement and misconduct was bidirectional. Their study findings established that delinquency was predictive of decreased school engagement in the cognitive domain only. Wang and Fredricks (2014) also carried out a study to establish the complementary association between school engagement and problematic behaviours among the youth. The findings revealed an association between decrease in behavioural engagement and increase in delinquency and vice versa for grade 7 to grade 11. Similarly, decreased emotional engagement later heightened levels in delinquency. In this study, the delinquent behaviours considered included stealing, hitting someone, problems with the police and vandalism. The reviewed studies differed from this study in several ways. One, they were conducted in the developed world involving adolescents who were of a different age group from the target population in this study.

Two, even the study on University students just focused on first year students only. In addition, although the studies focused on delinquent behaviour, Cyber Dating Abuse wasn't specifically addressed.

2.6 Strategies to Mitigate Effects of Cyber Dating Abuse on Academic Engagement of University Students

Studies that have investigated cyber dating violence point to the need for preventive measures because of the negative effects it has on victims, especially on students. Several studies conducted on Cyber Dating Abuse have come up with a number of suggestions to mitigate its effects.

Dank, Lachman, Zweig and Yahner (2014), in their study of CDA among lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) youth, established a higher prevalence rate among this group when compared to heterosexuals and called for preventive and intervention efforts tailored to meet their needs and vulnerabilities. In the study, the youth were found to confide in their peers and so a suggestion of peer involvement in building awareness on issues to do with dating abuse was recommended. Dank *et al*. (2014) opined that school counsellors could be trained on identifying early symptoms of dating violence and on mechanisms of handling such cases, especially among LGBT. While the reviewed study focused mainly on LGBT this study sought to recommend interventions for all dating students affected by CDA whose orientation might not necessarily be LGBT.

A study by Borrajo *et al*. (2015a) established that CDA was as a result of feelings of jealousy, need for revenge and aggression as a form of a 'joke'. They suggested the need for preventive programmes for preteens to challenge such beliefs. A study by Murray *et al*. (2016) affirmed the crucial role of family and school counsellors in familiarizing students and their families on the risk of adolescent dating violence, with the aim of unmasking this kind of abuse which was normally seen to be harmless by the teens' parents. This concurred with the study by Martsolf (2012) which revealed that most young adults and professional counsellors reported that most communities were ignorant of adolescent dating violence and did not think of it as a problem that was prevalent. Participants in this study suggested that mentoring could be an effective way of assisting adolescents in handling dating abuse at the primary and secondary prevention level. Johnson, Hoffmann, Kruger and Rizzo (2015) recommended the restructuring of training curricula for school psychologists. This could consist of not only comprehensive knowledge of what constitutes adolescents' dating abuse, but also evaluation and mediation in cases of CDA.

While all the studies reviewed mainly focused on dating violence among adolescents, this study's respondents were young adults in University. Some of the studies like Martsolf's and colleagues (2012) focused on general adolescent dating violence that included physical aggression which was more overt than CDA which was not so overt. This study sought to recommend preventive measures for young adults whose dating experiences and socialization differed from those of adolescents who continued to negotiate interpersonal relationships as part of their social development.

2.7 Study Gaps

Related literatures were reviewed, in order to develop a conceptual clarity for this study as well as establish the research gaps. The review indicates that several empirical studies have been conducted in Western cultures on perceptions held by adolescents on behaviours constituting CDA with few studies focusing on youth in African and specifically Kenyan Universities. This study focused on young adults whose socialization and experiences in dating were different from those of adolescents. On the prevalence of CDA, whereas many studies gave a general prevalence rate for their respondents, in this study, a gendered analysis of CDA abuse was carried out to understand the differential role of each gender in perpetration and victimization of CDA. Additionally, most of the reviewed studies were five years old or more and, since technology kept evolving, this study focused on finding out how the youth could have been utilising new and emerging technologies to perpetrate CDA.

On methodology, majority of the reviewed studies used either quantitative methods or qualitative methods only in measuring the prevalence of CDA. This study used both quantitative and qualitative methodologies. The qualitative component was used to add the voice of the respondents on their perceptions and experiences on CDA. Also, although the reviewed studies focused on a reciprocal relationship between CDA and delinquency, none specifically focused on CDA. Finally, this study sought to examine the relationship between CDA and academic engagement among Kenyan University students.

2.8 Summary of Chapter

This chapter reviewed related literature according to the main themes as outlined in the study objectives and research questions. Study gaps in respect to perception of the concept of Cyber Dating Abuse among University students; kinds of digital technologies used in perpetrating different forms of Cyber Dating Abuse among University students; gender differences in perpetration and victimization of Cyber Dating Abuse among dating University students and the influence of Cyber Dating Abuse on academic engagement of University student. The study gaps identified were as discussed above.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This Chapter presents information on the research design, research variables, the study locale, target population, sample and sampling procedures. The research instruments, validity and reliability, data analysis, logistical and ethical considerations are also presented.

3.2 Research Design

This study adopted a descriptive cross-sectional survey design. The focus of descriptive studies is to describe existing relationships, existing processes, perspectives or attitudes held; on-going practices and effects being felt or developing trends (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). The collection of data at a point in time to illuminate current conditions or to reveal relationships between events is possible through cross sectional studies (Cohen *et al*., 2007). The study also employed mixed method of data collection which entails collecting, analysing and mixing both quantitative and qualitative research methods in a single study (Creswell, 2012.)

A descriptive cross-sectional design, utilizing both quantitative and qualitative data collection methodologies, was found suitable for this study. It enabled it to outline, explain and examine contemporary conditions regarding CDA and to describe any existing relationships with academic engagement, if any, without manipulating variables. A survey made it possible to collect data via interviews and questionnaires

given to a sample drawn from the population to draw inferences about it. Additionally, surveys compared to other designs were appropriate in reaching a large sample that was representative enough of the target population in a short time, besides being cost effective (Orodho, 2009).

A cross-sectional survey design was appropriate as it enabled the study to make inferences about possible relationships between Cyber Dating Abuse and academic engagement. However, its weakness was that it did not differentiate cause and effect since there were other variables likely to affect the relationship between Cyber Dating Abuse and academic engagement. Still, the design was significant in providing information on what was happening among the respondents regarding Cyber Dating Abuse and academic engagement. This information could be useful in paving way for further research on the phenomena.

3.2.1 Variables

The study had both independent and dependent variables. A dependent variable is one that depends or has consequences on another variable, while the 'antecedent variable to the dependent variable is an independent variable' (Kothari, 2004). In this study, Cyber Dating Abuse behaviour is the independent variable while student academic engagement is the dependent variable. This study sought to examine the relationship between Cyber Dating Abuse and academic engagement. It also has an intervening variable, namely, stress and regulatory framework. An intervening variable 'explains a relation or provides a causal link between other variables' (Vogt, 2005).

3.3 The Study Locale

The study was carried out in Nairobi City County. The County is coterminous with Nairobi City which is Kenya's capital. Geographically, Nairobi City County boarders three counties: to the East is Machakos County; to the South is Kajiado County and to the North and West is Kiambu County. Also, Nairobi as an economic hub boasts of a high concentration of cyber interconnectivity and is covered with fibre optic and 4 G technology which make telecommunication to be highly sophisticated. In comparison to other counties, Nairobi City County has an excellent broadband coverage with all major network operators concentrated there.

The locale's features made it appropriate for this study. Given that it is an urban area, the youth in the Universities in this region's exposure to technology is likely to be higher than their counterparts in rural areas. This is by virtue of the ease of access to cheap phones and good network coverage and connection which enable them to use technology in their intimate relationships. At the time of research, the County had 15 Universities whose main campuses are in the city. Three Universities were randomly selected from the 15. These were: Kenyatta University (KU), a public University whose main campus is located in Kahawa, North East of Nairobi, along the Nairobi-Thika Highway; Catholic University of East Africa (CUEA), a religious affiliated University located in Langata South West of Nairobi and the Multimedia University of Kenya a public University whose main campus is located 25 kilometres South of Nairobi City Centre along Magadi Road. The Multimedia University of Kenya (MMU) is located a kilometre away from Ongata Rongai town.

3.4 Target Population

The target population was approximately 100,000 undergraduate students ("Africa universities", 2016) who were then dating or those who had been involved in intimate relationships in the past one year drawn from the 15 Universities in Nairobi City County. The research also targeted 15 Deans of Students and 15 Student Counsellors in these Universities. The undergraduate students were an appropriate target group as research shows that the youth heavily use technology in their communication, and their age is characterised by conflicts, which do influence their academic engagement. The Dean of Students' and Student Counsellor's offices were crucial because of the important role they play in students' welfare. The Dean of Students' Offices has staff who closely interact and help students to adjust to University life; they also offer orientation programmes and counselling services. This Office was relevant in providing information on students' social life, including their experiences arising from dating and the University policies regarding use of social media and conflict resolutions among students.

3.5 Sampling Techniques and Sample Size

This section explores the different sampling methods that were used in the study. It also shows the sample size used in the study.

3.5.1 Sampling Techniques

The study used both probability and non-probability sampling techniques. Purposive sampling /deliberate sampling was used to select Universities in Nairobi City County,

the Deans of Students and Student Counsellors from each of the selected Universities. This non-probability kind of sampling involves an intentional choice of specific units of the population to constitute its representative sample (Kothari, 2004). Nairobi City County was purposively selected because it is one of the most developed counties in the country with a highly developed infrastructure, including a modern commercial and communication network. This enabled students to use technology in their relationships.

Also, simple random sampling was used in selecting three Universities out of the 15 purposively selected. Simple random sampling/ chance sampling implies the probability of an equal chance for each item to be included in the sample (Kothari, 2004). The names of the 15 Universities were written on slips of papers and a lottery was conducted. This was done without looking. Once a piece of paper was picked, it was not returned into the hat. All the 15 Universities had a probability of being part of the study given their location which encouraged students to use technology due to excellent network coverage, cheap and readily available technology. The Deans of Students and Student Counsellors from the three randomly selected Universities were purposively selected for the study.

Convenience sampling was used for available undergraduate students who were in session during the period of the study. This method is useful in the absence of the profiles of those to be studied (McMillan, 1996). Given that dating is highly personal, there was no expectation of any record of students involved in intimate relationships and so this method was found to be appropriate. Students were reached through the help

of their lecturers either before their classes began or after. This was done until the target sample was met. Also, simple stratified sampling technique was used to select 48 respondents from the convenience sample for the FGD. Stratified sampling involves obtaining a representative sample from a heterogeneous population by stratifying the population into non-overlapping strata and then selecting a sample from each stratum (Kothari, 2004). In using this sampling technique, the study sample in the FGD represented the relevant subgroups based on gender.

3.5.2 Sample Size

According to Orodho (2009), a researcher can carry out a study based on a carefully selected sample that is representative of the entire population. This is crucial since limitations in time, finances and energy make it impossible for one to study everyone in the entire population. Three Universities were sampled out of the possible 15 in Nairobi City County. This represented 20% of the target population. According to Gay (1987), a sample size of at least 10% is required from a target population for Social Sciences.

Also, the sample size for respondents in this study was calculated based on Krejcie and Morgan (1970) sample size table. They suggested a table for easy determination of sample size. This was based on the formula provided by National Education Association. The formula is given as below:

$$s = X^2 NP(1-P) \div d^2(N-1) + X^2 P(1-P)$$

s = required sample size = the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level ($1.96 \times 1.96 = 3.84$)

N= the population size.

P = the population proportion (assumed to be 0.50 since this would provide the maximum sample size).

d= the degree of accuracy expressed as proportion (0.05).

According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970), no calculations are needed to use the table. Given that the total population of the three Universities was approximately 100,000 undergraduates, a sample size of 384 was deemed appropriate as per the table. A summary of the respondents who participated is illustrated in the Table 3.1:

Table 3.1: Sampling Matrix

Respondents	**Target Population**	**Sample**	**No of respondents**	**KU**	**MMU**	**CUEA**
Undergraduate students	100,000	384	356	107	121	128
Deans of Students	15	3	3	1	1	1
Student Counsellors	15	3	2	1	0	1
FGD (males & females)	48	48	48	16	16	16
Total	100,078	438	361	125	138	146

Source: Researcher's Compilation, 2020

Table 3.1 shows that 361 respondents took part in the study. Out of the sampled 384 undergraduate students, 356 fully completed the student questionnaires. 48 respondents drawn from those who answered the questionnaire also took part in the FGDs.

Additionally, three Deans of Students were interviewed, one per University, and two Student Counsellors were interviewed as shown in Table 3.1. The Multimedia University of Kenya did not have a Student Counsellor at the time of the study.

3.6 Research Instruments

Three research instruments were used during fieldwork for data collection. This consisted of questionnaires, focus group discussions and interview schedules.

3.6.1 Student Questionnaires

A self-administered questionnaire was used to obtain both quantitative and qualitative data from undergraduate students. A questionnaire is an assortment of questions written in a clear order on a form (Kothari, 2004). According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), it is important for collecting important information about a population. The questionnaire used was a semi-structured one, presenting questions with similar wording for all respondents. The questions were both open ended and close ended. The questionnaire sought to obtain demographic data from the respondents: data on kinds of technology used to perpetrate CDA, prevalence rates, and to establish gender differences on CDA perpetration and victimization and its relationship with academic engagement.

Some of the questions in the questionnaire were formulated specifically for this research while some were from standardized scales adopted from instruments used by earlier researchers and appropriately modified. Questions on CDA were adopted from a tool

used by Reed *et al*. (2016) and Borrajo *et al*. (2015b), while questions on academic engagement were adopted from a tool- University Student Engagement Inventory- used by Maroco *et al*. (2016). *A K6 Distress Scale* adapted from Kessler *et al*. (2002) was used to measure psychological distress. Adaptation of the three scales was necessary as validated scales increased the certainty that the instrument precisely reflected what it was supposed to measure. It also enabled the study to compare results with those from other studies. A questionnaire was appropriate for collection of data in this study as it gave respondents adequate time to give well thought out answers and was free of interviewer bias, hence encouraged honest answers (Kothari, 2004).

3.6.2 Focus Group Discussions Guide

Focus Group Discussion (FGD) is a focused discussion which aims at 'drawing attention on the given experience of the respondent and its effects' (Kothari, 2004). The FGD was used to provide contextual information on the respondents' perceptions on behaviours that constitute CDA, their dating experiences and their relationship with academic engagement. This was important as it enabled the research to limit deficiencies and enrich the results by triangulating data obtained from other instruments with data from the FGDs.

Six FGD groups, consisting of eight members each, were used in the study. Each group consisted of a homogeneous sample of either gender. This was necessary due to the sensitivity of the topic of research and, significantly, encouraged open dialogue among the participants. The respondents interacted freely and, based on their own experiences

and what they had observed, explained their perceptions which were at times similar and at times contradictory to each other's. The FGD was appropriate for this study as it allowed for the voices and feelings of the respondents to be heard as they shared their experiences. Also, the method allowed for the use of language adapted to the ability and age of respondents to avoid misinterpretations of questions. FGDs save on time and enable the gathering of a lot of data in a short duration. (Morgan, 1988 as cited by Cohen *et al*., 2007).

3.6.3 Interview Schedule

Interviews involve administering a questionnaire or interview schedule verbally (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). There are different types of interviews, namely: structured, unstructured and non-directive. Structured interviews require an interviewer to follow a rigid procedure when asking questions. Questions are asked in a prescribed form and order. Unstructured interviews, however, are characterised by flexibility. The interviewer does not have to follow a system of pre-determined questions. They can ask questions in any sequence, add supplementary questions or omit others as the situation dictates. For non-directive interview, the interviewer's role is to encourage the interviewee to talk on a given topic with minimal questioning. This study used semi-structured interviews to obtain data from the Deans of Students and Student Counsellors. This made it possible to get an understanding of the prevalence rates of CDA among University students, existing policies and suggestions on interventions which could be put in place to deal with CDA. A semi-structured interview was appropriate because it was characterized by flexibility in approach to questions and

allowed for modification of questions to obtain as much information as was necessary. As a result, clear and in-depth information was obtained from the respondents.

3.7 Piloting and Validating of Research Instruments

3.7.1 Piloting

Before commencing on the actual study, piloting was conducted to enhance validity and reliability of the research instruments. This was conducted at the University of Nairobi which has similar characteristics to the sampled Universities by virtue of its location. This was useful in standardizing the research tools as some inadequacies were discovered with the data collection instruments. For example, it was discovered that some questions in the adapted tools were unclear and ambiguous. It was also found out that questions used in the FGDs were insufficient in providing exhaustive responses on perceptions and strategies to be adapted to mitigate effects of Cyber Dating Abuse. Consequently, after piloting some of the questions were reviewed and rephrased in order to get rid of the ambiguity. Likert Scale items were also added to the questionnaire on perceptions and strategies to enrich the instrument.

3.7.2 Validity

Validity is the degree of accuracy of data obtained in a study. It represents its variables, demonstrating it as a true reflection of the said variables (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). Whenever the research instruments are valid, the inferences that are made are believed to be meaningful and accurate. Kombo and Tromp (2006:56) define validity to be the extent to which an instrument measures what it is intended to measure. Piloting of the

research instruments was useful in restructuring the questions to achieve their face and content validity. Also, data for this study was collected using a questionnaire, focus group discussion guide and an interview schedule. This enabled the triangulation of data to ascertain its accuracy. Consequently, triangulation provided a deep understanding of how students relate with their partners from different perspectives afforded by the different research tools which ensured credibility of the data.

3.7.3 Reliability

Mugenda and Mugenda (2003:38) define reliability as the measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results each time it is used. Reliability was ascertained by the internal consistency method using Cronbach's alpha. The Cronbach's alpha was obtained from scores obtained from a single test administered to a sample of the respondents. Using this approach, a score obtained in one item is correlated with scores obtained from other items in the instrument (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). The Cronbach's alpha for Perpetration Scale in this study was 0.83; Victimization Scale was 0.86; Distress Scale was 0.85 while the academic engagement scale was 0.90. According to Tavakol and Dennick (2011), a Cronbach's alpha coefficient greater than or equal to 0.7 is generally deemed to be good as a measure of reliability. Moreover, trained research assistants were engaged in the administration of the questionnaires and in collection of data during the Focus Group Discussions to enhance reliability.

3.8 Data Collection Procedure

This involved first the seeking of official permission from the relevant authorities to conduct the research and then the actual data collection from the selected Universities in Nairobi City County. Procedurally, an introduction and authorization letter from Kenyatta University was obtained. Then an application for a research permit from NACOSTI to enable collection of data from the selected sample was made. On acquiring the research permit, authorization from the Ministry of Education and the County Commissioner of Nairobi City County were sought. Once permission to conduct research within Nairobi City County was granted, formal applications were made seeking permission to conduct the same in the sampled Universities from the Deputy Vice Chancellors (Research and Innovation).

3.8.1 Data Collection

The study involved collection of primary data, which involved questionnaires, interviews and focus group discussions.

3.8.2 Administering the Questionnaires

After obtaining the University Management's permission, with the help of a few lecturers, students who were in session were reached, either before commencement or after their lectures. The administration of the questionnaires involved use of a random choice of the classrooms, where they were administered among available classes of various faculties and years of study. Before the respondents commenced with filling the questionnaires, the purpose of the study was explained to them. They were also

informed that participation was voluntary and that their agreeing to fill the questionnaire was at their free will. With the help of research assistants, the self-administered questionnaires were distributed to the undergraduate students and were collected immediately after the exercise. This took an average of 30 minutes. In a few instances, the questionnaires were left with the respondents and were picked at an agreed time later in the day.

3.8.3 The Interviewing Process

Upon obtaining permission from the respective Universities, courtesy calls were paid to the respective Deans of Students and Student Counsellors to book an appointment with them for the interviews. They were able to agree on specific days and time for the interviews. On the agreed day, the respondents were met in their University offices and were explained to regarding the expectations of the study. They were requested to sign a consent form before individually commencing with the interview. With their permission, each session was recorded electronically and manually. The interviews lasted between 30 to 45 minutes for each interviewee.

3.8.4 The Focus Group Discussions

For the FGDs, the respondents were met at an agreed time and the discussions carried out within the University. They took between 45 minutes and an hour. Before commencing, the participants were briefed about the purpose of the study. They were also informed that participation was voluntary. Verbal consent was obtained from the respondents and they were assured of anonymity and confidentiality. This was done by

using pseudonyms in the FGDs to protect the respondents' privacy and maintain confidentiality. With their permission, the discussions were voice recorded using a digital audio recorder as the research assistants took down notes.

The focus group discussion guide comprised similar questions and discussion prompts for all the respondents. This was to enable the study to capture a gendered analysis and comparison of results. Different FGD groups had different levels of participation, making follow up questions to vary per group. It was of particular concern in one FGD female group comprising 50% (n=4) first years that their level of participation was relatively lower compared to other FGD groups. This was a pointer to the possibility of different experiences among the participants.

3.9 Data Analysis

According to Kothari (2004), data collected is meaningless unless it is 'processed and analysed in accordance with the outline laid down for the purpose at the time of developing the research design'. Processing entailed editing, coding, classifying and tabulating of the collected data, while analysis referred to the computation of certain measures along with searching for patterns of relationships among the groups. The data obtained was analysed through the following techniques.

With the aid of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24, quantitative data analysis was done to obtain both descriptive and inferential statistics as well as the graphic display of the data. Quantitative data obtained from questionnaires

was analysed using descriptive statistics to yield frequencies, percentages and means as presented in frequency tables, pie charts and graphs. To assess the gender differences in CDA among Kenyan University students, inferential statistics was used to test two null hypotheses: $H_0$1-"there is no significant difference in Cyber Dating Abuse prevalence among Kenyan University students across gender" and $H_0$2- " there is no significant difference in the response to Cyber Dating Abuse among Kenyan University students across gender". An independent sample t-test was used to test for significant differences between male and female students' experiences in CDA victimization and perpetration as well as differences in their responses to victimization.

Cross tabulations were also used to establish differences in responses to CDA and chi-square test of independence was used to determine the significance in association between gender and response to CDA. A Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient was used to establish the relationship between time spent online and victimization rates and CDA and academic engagement.

All the analyses resulted in data which is displayed in tables, charts and graphs. Data obtained through Focus Group Discussions and interviews which were audio recorded was first transcribed. This required reduction, interpretation and representation to make the written data readable and meaningful before it was used in the analysis. The data was then translated and coded to establish recurrent themes or relationships. Emerging patterns were identified and conclusions drawn. After synthesising the data, it was

reported in text and narrative form. These sets of data were triangulated to provide a wholesome picture of the issues raised in this study.

3.10 Logistical and Ethical Considerations

3.10.1 Logistical Considerations

This was adhered to by ensuring that due procedures were followed in obtaining permission from relevant authorities before commencing with the research.

3.10.2 Ethical Considerations

Given that the study involved human beings, before embarking on the research, its protocol was reviewed and approved by the Ethics Review Committee of Kenyatta University. Also, ethical considerations were observed by obtaining informed consent from all the participants after explaining to them the purpose of the study. They participated in the study on voluntary basis. They were assured that their identities would be protected by guaranteeing them privacy, anonymity and confidentiality. This was done by asking them not to write their names on the questionnaires and also use of pseudonyms during the FGDs.

Voice recording of discussions was done with their permission and no photos or videos were taken. The researcher gave frequent breaks to victims exhibiting emotional distress during data collection. Such respondents were also informed of the availability of professional assistance to help them cope with the trauma. At the end of each session, participants were thanked for their participation.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This Chapter presents the interpretations and discussion of the research findings in line with the objectives and research questions outlined in Chapter One. The objectives of the study were:

i) To establish the students' perceptions of the concept of Cyber Dating Abuse.

ii) To identify the kinds of digital technologies used in perpetrating different forms of Cyber Dating Abuse among University students in Nairobi City County.

iii) To assess the gender differences in perpetration and victimization of Cyber Dating Abuse among University students in Nairobi City County.

iv) To examine the extent to which Cyber Dating Abuse affects academic engagement of University students in Nairobi City County.

v) To determine strategies to mitigate effects of Cyber Dating Abuse on the academic engagement of University students in Nairobi City County.

The Chapter is presented in six sections covering:

a) Demographic information of participants

b) Perceptions of Cyber Dating Abuse among undergraduate students in Universities in Nairobi City County

c) The kinds of digital media used in perpetrating Cyber dating abuse among University students in Nairobi City County

d) Gender differences in perpetration and victimization of Cyber Dating Abuse among undergraduate students in Universities in Nairobi City County

e) The influence of cyber dating abuse on the academic engagement of University students in Nairobi City County

f) Strategies to mitigate effects of CDA on academic engagement among University students in Nairobi City County.

4.2 Characteristics of Study Sample and Demographic Information on Undergraduates in Selected Universities in Nairobi City County

The aim of this study was to contribute to the literature on Kenyan University undergraduate students' perpetrations of Cyber Dating Abuse and victimization within their intimate relationships and its association with their academic engagement. To achieve this, three Universities in Nairobi City County, namely: Kenyatta University, Catholic University of Eastern Africa and The Multimedia University of Kenya were randomly selected out of the existing 15 Universities in Nairobi City County. 356 undergraduate students responded to the survey. Hence, the response rate was 92.7%.

4.2.1 Gender Distribution of the Respondents

The initial sample comprised 356 respondents who fully completed the student questionnaires, 195 (54.8%) were male while 161 (45.2%) were females. This distribution indicated that more male students responded to the survey than females. This could be attributed to the fact that most of the respondents were drawn from Engineering, ICT, Science and Public Health which tended to have more male students than females. Still, this was a reasonably fair representation for both males and females. The two Deans of Students were male, and one assistant Dean of Students was female. Both Student Counsellors were female.

4.2.2 Age of Respondents

On the distribution of the respondents with dating experience in the past one year by age, the study established that their age range was 18-35. 201 respondents (63.8%) were aged 18-21, 99 (31.4%) were aged 22-24 while 15 (4.8%) were aged above 25. The average mean age was 21(*SD* = 1.99). The mode was 20. The wide age range could be attributed to the fact that the convenience sample had participants drawn from different faculties and all years of study from first year to fourth year. The participants also belonged to different faculties, namely: Faculty of Education, Media and Communication, Engineering, Science, Business, ICT and Public Health. Majority of the participants (95.2%) fell in the age category of young emerging adults (18-25) which was the target of the study and so were assumed to be suitable to provide valid information.

4.3 Prevalence of Dating among Kenyan Undergraduate Students from Selected Universities in Nairobi City County

Before seeking to understand the students' perceptions on behaviours which constitute CDA, the respondents were asked whether they were dating or for those who were not dating, if they had been involved in a romantic relationship in the past one year. Figure 4.1 shows the findings.

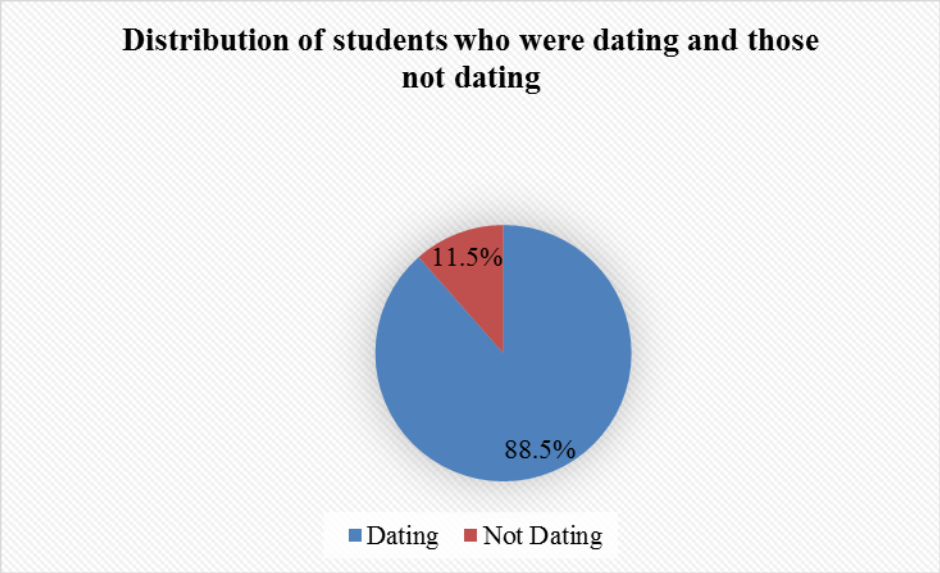

Figure 4.1: Distribution of Respondents who were dating and those not dating

Figure 4.1 shows that majority of the respondents (88.5%) were either dating or had been dating in the past one year while a minority (11.5%) were not dating and had not been in a relationship for the past one year. The data analysis utilised a final sample of the 315 who reported to have been dating and excluded the 41 who reported they had not been dating in the past one year. Of the 315 respondents, 52.4% were males while the remaining 47.6% were females.

The findings from this study showed that majority of undergraduate students involved themselves in intimate relationships. This concurred with Kline's (2009) assertion that dating was indeed an essential part of young adults' college experiences as part of their social development. A few of those not dating had broken up with their partners and were probably victims of CDA. Many of the respondents reported having been in relationships spanning short periods of time as they kept changing partners. Besides,

threats of break-ups which were common among fighting partners and may have been actualized may account for those who were not dating.

4.3.1. Relationship Status

The respondents were asked to define the kind of relationship they were involved in. This was important to understand their dating patterns. The findings to this question were as illustrated in Table 4.1:

Table 4.1: Respondents' Relationship Status

What kind of relationship were/are you involved in? n=315

	Frequency	**Valid Percentage**
Married	17	5.4
Cohabiting	14	4.4
Dating exclusively	154	48.9
Dating casually	130	41.3
Total	**315**	**100.0**

As illustrated in Table 4.1, the findings on type of relationship revealed that 48.9% were dating exclusively; 41.3% were dating casually, 5.4% were married while 4.4 % were cohabiting. It was evident from the findings that a very small number of respondents were married and cohabiting. Many reported to have been involved in casual relationships and others were or had been in committed relationships. Given that the respondents were young adults averagely aged 21, it was expected that most of them were too young to get into any serious commitment in their relationships. This

explained the small number of those who were married and those who were cohabiting and the percentage of those who were casually dating. The casual nature of dating amongst the sample was expected as the participants kept an open mind of meeting new partners. Incidentally, the lack of commitment among respondents contributed to the high CDA prevalence. Suspicion against their partners led to monitoring and control which was deemed normal and occasionally led to situational couple violence.

4.3.2 Duration of Intimate Relationships among Kenyan Undergraduate Students

To further expound on their dating patterns, the respondents were asked about the length of their relationships. This required that they declare on how long their current or recent past relationships had lasted. Table 4.2 illustrates this:

Table 4.2: The Duration of Undergraduate Students' Intimate Relationships n=315

	Frequency	**Percent**	**Valid Percentage**
0-5 months	85	27.0	30.6
6 months-1 year	79	25.1	28.4
Over 1 year-2 years	54	17.1	19.4
Over 2 years	60	19.0	21.6
Total	**278**	**88.3**	**100**
Missing	**37**	**11.7**	**100**
Total	**315**	**100**	**100**

The data in Table 4.2 indicated that 278 (88.3%) participants responded to the question while 37(11.7%) did not. The longest period of relationship, according to the data, was 10 years as reported by the oldest respondent who was married and was aged 35 years.

The shortest lasted just one night as reported by a 22-year-old respondent. Of the 278 respondents, 30.6% had relationships not exceeding five months; 28.4% had relationships lasting between half a- year to a period of one year. Minority (19.4%) of the respondents' relationships lasted between one year and two years. Those whose relationships had lasted beyond two years were 21.6%.

However, 11.7% respondents did not define the length of their relationships. These provided responses to the open question which was not quantified, though their voices were clear. One respondent stated that they were 'in and out of relationships', yet another said their relationship had lasted 'long enough'. Another said that their past relationship had lasted for a year while the recent one did not last. Surprisingly, one simply wrote "No, it did not last" with another respondent stating, 'I have never been in any serious relationship'. Evidently, these responses generally indicated that these relationships did not last longer than a year.

Moreover, the research results were supported by the reports from the FGDs which corroborated the fact that most of the respondents' relationships hardly lasted beyond a year. The respondents reasoned that being at the University was a time for them to explore, experiment and discover themselves and not for being in permanent relationships. Both males and females affirmed that they were always open to meeting new people with a likelihood of starting new relationships. This was corroborated by a female respondent who argued: "You meet someone in first year, and as you advance, you meet another who has something different to offer, so you jump to the next

relationship…" This was echoed by a female who asserted that, out there, there is always someone "with better looks and a better bank account". Males substantiated this by reporting that the lack of money for maintaining their relationships contributed to the shorter duration of relationships. A male participant retorted that if one did not have money, then they could not manage to keep a relationship for long. This was unanimously supported by other males in the FGDs who cited the same reason of men being abandoned by females.

It was particularly noted that most relationships started or ended whenever 'freshers'- first year students- joined the University. It was a common practice for senior students, especially males, to go for what they called 'fresh blood'. This explained why some of these relationships just ended with the emergence of a new academic year, before the cycle repeated itself. A male respondent reported that, "We change partners because we are still comparing and looking for experience. When first years come, there is change of perspective and we go for fresh blood". This mentality contributed to gender mistrust with both males and females being suspicious of their partners. This accounted for the high prevalence of CDA in which monitoring and control was most prevalent and was meant to check on cheating partners. Additionally, male respondents reported of having what they described as 'hit and run' relationships which included one-night stand affairs. Some respondents reported engaging in relationships in which they had sexual relationships with close friends devoid of commitment in what they termed as friends with benefits.

Evidently, dating was not taken seriously by many of the respondents. This lack of seriousness and commitment could be attributed to the students' young age typified by a desire to experiment and have fun. This led to many respondents resorting to relationships that were casual in nature. Although almost a half of the respondents reported that they were dating exclusively, this commitment did not last long since only 21.6% had been in relationships lasting over two years. Technology was yet another factor contributing to short lengths of relationships. The findings revealed that it played a part in linking up individuals. Some respondents confessed to have initiated intimate relationships online through social media like Facebook, WhatsApp and Instagram. Males reported of picking numbers from WhatsApp classroom or University groups and messaging the females. Some of these relationships materialized and some failed to materialize.

Interestingly, some respondents claimed having initiated and ended their online relationships even before they met their partners physically. A quarter of respondents in one male FGD group reported of having met online and moved the relationships from cyber space to the real world, dated for some time before breaking up. Moreover, many of the respondents in the FGDs believed that such relationships did not have high chances of surviving compared to when partners' initial meeting was face to face. This, was attributed to the fact, that many of the online partners were deceptive and were not what they profiled themselves to be. In cases that went wrong, a male respondent narrated a story about one of his friends and classmate:

> My friend, a female student was a victim of catfishing. She met a man online and started an affair with him which lasted a few months. According to her, the guy seemed to be nice and she felt they had really connected until they organized to meet face to face. It was on meeting the man that she realized she had been catfished. The boyfriend was nothing close to whom he had portrayed himself to be. On their first date, after buying her drinks the guy started harassing her and tried to force her to accompany him to unknown destination. My friend sensed danger and it was just by good luck that she managed to escape. Though physically unhurt, this experience left her traumatized. She blocked the guy from her social media and changed her mobile number to keep him off. (Male student, FGD).

In another incident of a case of kitten fishing, a victim narrated their experience which, to majority of the participants of the FGDs, was reported to be quite normal in online initiated relationships:

> I received a friend request from this beautiful girl on FB which I accepted. We started talking and before long we were chatting and eventually started dating. From her pictures uploaded on FB, and the ones she shared on WhatsApp, the girl was so beautiful. After a few months of dating online we agreed to meet. I was to pick her from the bus stop. When I got near the bus stop, I called to see who was picking my call. Lo! I could not believe my eyes…the voice was hers but the face, the girl was nothing like the pictures she had been sending me. I simply switched off my phone and

> disappeared…. Later I blocked her and that was the last I ever talked to her. (Male, FGD).

It is evident from the narrated stories that such relationships did not last long. Moreover, issues of trust among partners contributed to short lengths for most relationships with some opting for multiple relationships. It was reported in the FGDs that technology had contributed to more cheating among partners. Also, technology had made it easy for one to discover if their partner was cheating. Consequently, with these trends it was no wonder that many of these relationships hardly lasted over a year. An insight into the background information on the respondents' dating patterns and experiences was necessary to provide a broad base on which Cyber Dating Abuse could be analysed.

4.4 Perceptions on Cyber Dating Abuse among dating Undergraduate Students

The first objective of this study was to establish the undergraduate students' perceptions on what constituted CDA. This was done by using both quantitative and qualitative methodologies. In the quantitative approach, 315 respondents with dating experience were asked to indicate to what extent they agreed with the statements on behaviours that constitute CDA. Additionally, to obtain better understanding of perceptions on CDA, six groups, each comprising eight participants drawn from those who had filled the questionnaires, took part in focus group discussions. Each University had two focus discussion groups comprising of either gender. The participants were asked to describe their perceptions regarding eight behaviours that constituted CDA.

The results in Table 4.3 summarize the respondents' responses to Likert Scale items in which they were asked to show their level of agreement with the statements given. In the analysis, the responses 'strongly disagree' and 'disagree' were collapsed into 'disagree' while 'strongly agree' and 'agree' were collapsed into 'agree'.

Table 4.3: Respondents' Perceptions of CDA

The following acts when perpetrated through technology (social media/phone calls/SMS) are abusive and amount to Cyber Dating Abuse. n=315

S/N	ITEMS	STRONGLY DISAGREE/DISAGREE		NEUTRAL		STRONGLY AGREE/AGREE	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
1	My partner sharing publicly intimate information without my knowledge	161	51.1%	25	7.9%	129	41%
2	My partner sending threatening messages	181	57.5%	27	8.6%	107	33.9%
3	My partner accessing my SMS, calls and online accounts to control me	136	43.2%	39	12.4%	140	44.4%
4	My partner sending too many messages and demanding for an immediate response	120	38.1%	74	23.5%	121	38.4%
5	My partner pressuring me for passwords to have access to my mobile phone or online accounts	151	47.9%	49	15.6%	115	36.5%
6	My partner pressuring me to 'sext' or engage in sexual activities online	160	50.8%	55	17.5%	100	31.7%
7	My partner pressuring me to send them sexual photos or videos of me or them sending me theirs without me asking for them	189	60%	26	8.3%	100	31.7%
8	My partner sending/posting on other people's timelines to make me jealous	161	51.1%	44	14%	110	34.9%

4.4.1: Sharing of Screenshots of Partner's Private Information with Peers as a Norm among Dating Kenyan Undergraduate Students

The respondents were asked to show their level of agreement with the statement that their partners' sharing publicly their intimate information without their knowledge amounted to abuse. One hundred and sixty-one (51.5%) respondents disagreed indicating that they did not perceive this act to be abusive. This was confirmed from focus group discussions, where it was alleged that sharing of screenshots of intimate information like chats (which could include private photos and videos) was thought to be normal, especially among peers and was done with no malice.

However, 25 (7.9%) were neutral while 129 (41%) thought it was abusive. Still, in the focus group discussion, some respondents opined that an act like this was abusive because it was perpetrated with the aim of causing the partner emotional distress or social embarrassment and was done out of malice. This was reported to occur mostly after break-ups in what was referred to as revenge porn. In such incidents, ex-partners aimed at shaming and hurting their ex-partners emotionally as a form of revenge. One respondent- Cherise (pseudonym), who had fallen victim of this, narrated her story:

Cherise: My boyfriend and I had started dating in first year. We dated for two years two months… at first, we were both happy and things were going well. Then, after second year he started changing…we started having problems in our relationship. This made me to become suspicious … and sure enough, after some investigation I discovered he was cheating on me.

Interviewer: So, how did you discover he was cheating on you?

Cherise: Well, when I noticed he had started changing, I made it a habit to check on his text messages, call logs and social media.

Interviewer: Yes…

Cherise: Of course, there was nothing there…seemingly he was deleting all their conversations

Interviewer: Uhm…

Cherise: So, I decided to hack his phone… (deep sigh) … what I saw… anyway, my fears were confirmed…he was cheating on me. Not with one girl, but many girls…

Interviewer: mmh…

Cherise: Anyway, we ended up quarrelling and we broke up. Of course, he wasn't expecting it. He came asking for forgiveness, promising never to do it again…but I had had enough…I refused…. then the next thing I learnt was that he had shared my nudes on social media on class WhatsApp groups…The nudes spread so fast ... (with a blank stare) …it was the worst moment of my life. I was so shocked, I was confused, ashamed…it was depressing. The day after he had shared my pictures, was very bad…sad… It is like everyone was avoiding me, my friends, classmates…everywhere I went people were staring and talking about me… For a week I just locked myself in my room. I constantly cried and kept to myself most of the time. I avoided going to class… I even thought of killing myself… however, my best friend was so supportive. She consoled me and encouraged me to seek help…I talked to a peer counsellor…She was understanding. She helped me to come to terms with the situation…it was not easy at first. Eventually after a while, well…ages… the story faded away, but my dignity had been eroded, my self- esteem gone…the pain remains.

Cherise then disclosed how this event had adversely affected her academic engagement. Following this incident, she was so distressed to the detriment of her studies. For a while, she was unable to attend classes at the University because of shame. Her self-esteem was affected, and she even contemplated committing suicide. She could not concentrate on her class work and this led to a drop in her grades that semester. The support from a peer counsellor helped her to cope. Gradually she recovered, though she still felt traumatized.

This incident underscored the fact that this act was abusive. A similar incident of revenge porn following a breakup was reported in one of the male FGDs. A male student claimed that he knew of a lady whose nudes where shared at the University. The lady in question had broken up with her boyfriend, who then shared her nudes in the class WhatsApp group. The respondent recounted how shameful this act was to the victim and thus affirmed that sharing of private information was abusive.

Moreover, some respondents felt that even when it was done with no ill motive, like when one partner chose to share their intimate chats, photos or videos with close friends and peers, it was still abusive as it infringed on one's privacy. On the contrary, there were incidents in which victims were not even aware of the abuse, like in the case cited below. An incident was reported of a male student who videotaped his girlfriend when they were making love and later secretly shared the video with his close male friends. Unfortunately, some of them shared the video with their lady colleagues:

> One guy in our class shared our classmate's sex video. I saw the video and felt bad.…but am not sure whether my friend (the victim) knows. We, her female friends, are afraid to tell her. It will hurt her. The males in our class were discussing about her and have changed their perception of her. You can feel it in the way they talk about her... It has tainted her image and eroded her dignity. (Female, FGD).

The respondent, who narrated this story, felt that this was abusive since it was a source of social embarrassment to the victim, even though (at the time of the discussion) probably the victim was still not aware of it.

4.4.2: Threats and Intimidation during Disagreements as a Norm among dating Undergraduate Students in selected Universities in Nairobi City County

The respondents were asked to show the extent to which they thought their partners' sending threatening messages was abusive. Respondents exhibited ambivalence on this item, with their perception being largely influenced by the level of commitment in their relationship. One hundred and eighty-one (57.5 %) respondents did not agree with the statement, implying they did not think it was abusive. In the FGD, the respondents argued that sending threatening messages was quite normal, especially whenever couples were having disagreements in their relationships.

In casual relationships -which were common among this sample (41.3%)- this was not taken seriously as it was a norm. Hence it was not perceived to be abusive since the partners did not care much. They cited instances in which such intimidating threats were

just dismissed. A male respondent retorted that when it was from a girl, he was not serious with, it did not even bother him. This was supported by another male participant who said that when he received such threats, he just ignored them.

However, some males reported that when they received threats of breakups they retaliated with even worse messages: "I texted her back and sarcastically told her 'ahsante' translated to mean 'Thanks'. In this assertion, the victim implied that they were glad to be threatened with a breakup which, according to them, was highly welcome. Another respondent added: "For me, I just told her 'nilikuwa nimekuwacha kitambo wewe ndio unaniacha saa hii' translated to mean 'I had already broken up with you; it is you who is breaking up with me now…' (Male, FGD). Such messages were insulting, humiliating and intimidating and were likely to hurt a partner's feelings. However, some male respondents did not think much about them.

But, 27 (8.6%) of respondents were neutral while 107 (33.9%) agreed, implying they thought that it was abusive. In the cases cited above, a few participants noted that such messages were meant to psychologically torture someone and so were depressing hence abusive. This was likely to be the case for partners who were committed to their relationships. Even worse were threats about physical harm which were meant to directly cause the partner fear, anxiety and to hurt their feelings. However, it was reported that threats about physical harm were rare as the Student Code of Conduct prohibited them from physically harming each other. They were aware that such a threat

on SMS or message on social media was likely to be used as evidence against them and so they avoided sending their partners such.

4.4.3 Snooping on a Partner: A Source of Annoyance, a Reflection of Love or Insecurity?

The respondents were asked to show the extent to which they thought that the act of their partners accessing their SMS, calls and online accounts without their permission to monitor them was abusive. One hundred and thirty-six (43.2%) respondents did not agree with the statement implying that they did not perceive it to be abusive. For females, monitoring of partners was thought to be a norm. This was affirmed by a female respondent who stated:

> It depends on the type of relationship one has, if it is a casual one, one cannot go to that extent of spying in order to know what their partner is up to, but if it is exclusive, then one would wish to know everything… (Female, FGD)

This was supported by other females who asserted that they just had to be sure what their partners were up to. Some respondents, however, had the perception that this act, though not abusive, was rather annoying. For males, it was attributed to a partner's insecurity and mistrust which was assumed to be normal among females. Both males and females affirmed that minimal to moderate monitoring was not bad at all as it was perceived to reflect a loving and caring partner who valued the other, especially among couples who were newly dating. Nonetheless, among couples who had been dating for a while it was said to be uncomfortable.

Also, a minority 39(12.4%) were neutral with 140 (44.4%) agreeing with the statement, implying that they believed this act constituted abuse. The respondents' sentiments, as expressed in the FGD, revealed that many believed monitoring which involved restricting partners' movements and activities was abusive. Furthermore, it was believed that unlike minimal monitoring, which was just annoying, too much monitoring was insidious and manifested a partner's insecurities. It was also believed to be an infringement on a partner's privacy, freedom of movement and association.

In Kenyatta University, a case of monitoring and control which had gone overboard was reported to the counsellors. A victim of monitoring and control went to seek help because they were so emotionally distressed, anxious and could not concentrate in their studies. The victim could not stand their controlling partner and wanted to break off their relationship, but the girlfriend could not let go. In this reported case, the victim was dating a classmate, but the partner was so insecure to the detriment of their relationship. The perpetrator could take the victim's phone, go through call logs, messages and chats and make calls to all numbers from the opposite gender the partner had communicated with, asking them to keep off her man. She could monitor her partner's whereabouts and restrict who he had group discussions with.

The victim became the laughingstock of their class. The victim was derided by his classmates on their class WhatsApp groups, asking him to take charge of their relationship and keep their private affairs to themselves and off their classroom social media walls. Classmates put up posts and wrote hurtful comments about the two making

fun of them. Although the victim tried to engage with the partner, asking her to stop her behaviour, she did not stop. This forced the victim to seek help. Based on this incident, it was evident that monitoring and control was abusive and could cause the victim untold pain and social embarrassment, as was the case here. This was likely to have an effect on the victim's academic engagement.

4.4.4 Sharing of too many Messages with Expectation of Immediate Response among dating Partners, is it Love or Obsession?

The respondents were asked to show the extent to which they thought that the act of their partners sending of too many messages with an expectation of immediate responses was abusive. Here, participants expressed divergent perceptions with some being unable to agree whether this was abusive or not. One hundred and twenty (38.1%) respondents disagreed with the statement, implying that they did not perceive the act to be abusive. It was revealed that this was a norm especially among newly dating couples. Some males asserted that they did not mind their girlfriends doing so. A male respondent said, "I see nothing wrong with this, it is ok because everyone needs attention. If anything, it is a sign of love". This was corroborated by others who ascertained that it was not a bad thing, especially for a person someone loves. Some of the females supported this, saying that it was quite normal, especially in a new relationship.

However, a few respondents were of contrary opinion and opined that though this behaviour was not abusive, it was nagging and restricting:

> Just like a new-born baby, one keeps on checking on their new partner, but as partners get used to each other, it becomes uncomfortable. It is nagging…someone is in class; the lecturer is busy teaching then you get a text…followed by another... Why are you not replying my text? (Female, FGD).

This assertion was supported by a few male respondents in the FGD who agreed that too much texting with expectation of immediate response was nagging. On the contrary, 74 (23.5%) of the respondents were neutral. However, 121(38.4%) agreed with the statement, meaning that they perceived the act to be abusive. They believed that partners who perpetrated this were insensitive, insecure and obsessive. Moreover, for them this was a form of harassment, hence considered to be abusive. They also felt it was insensitive of their partners because they viewed it as an unnecessary distraction especially when one was very busy.

4.4.5 Pressurizing Partner for Passwords as a Security Measure against Cheating

The respondents were asked to show the extent to which they thought the act of their partners pressurizing them for passwords was abusive. One hundred and fifty-one (47.9%) did not agree with the statement, indicating that they did not perceive this behaviour to be abusive. A male participant enthused that the demand for passwords was creepy and showed that their partners did not trust them. This was echoed by other male participants who felt that, although this act was not abusive, it was frightening and

caused them anxiety. Females reiterated that this was a normal practice amongst them as they had to be sure of what their partners were up to, especially for those who were dating exclusively and were committed to their partners. Some males reported that sharing passwords in exclusive relationships was of no harm.

The perceptions held by the respondents contributed to the high incidents of CDA. However, some were uncomfortable sharing their passwords specifically with girlfriends they were dating casually or were newly dating. Some male respondents reported that when they were asked for passwords, they gave them out but would later change them. However, some reported that after giving their girlfriends passwords, they would go to the extreme and change their SIM card lines. This shows the extent to which these respondents wanted to protect their privacy and probably hide their online activities from their partners' prying eyes.

Some females however, claimed that males offering their passwords voluntarily was suspect and perhaps they were hiding something. This could have been influenced by gender mistrust which made partners to be suspicious of the other. Instead, they preferred hacking into their partners' accounts in 'good faith' to confirm whether the guy could be counted on. Asked whether they did not think this amounted to abuse, they justified the act saying that it was done with no ill intention. A female respondent retorted, "You just know how males are, you just have to be sure." From these assertions, there was a belief among the females that males were likely to cheat on them, so they had to be sure their partners were not doing this.

Also, 49(15.6%) of the respondents were neutral while 115 (36.5%) opined that this act was abusive because it was a violation of one's privacy in addition to being a discomfort:

> I think it is an invasion of one's privacy. … you see, these things are private (referring to mobile phones, call logs, text messages, social media chats). You know at the University, we have many people pursuing us, sometimes we flirt…and if one's partner sees this, it is not ok … (Female, FGD).

Some males were also in support of this assertion. They emphasized that it was harassing for a partner to demand for passwords. Additionally, they believed that this was suffocating and abusive as such partners were likely to be domineering.

4.4.6 Consensual Sexting as a means of Spicing Relationships

The respondents were asked if they thought that the act of their partners pressurizing them to sext or engage in sexual activities online was abusive. A half (50.8%) of the respondents disagreed, implying that they did not perceive this behaviour to be abusive. This was because in exclusive dating where partners were committed to each other, this was one way of spicing up their relationship. According to one male participant, 'consensual sexting was a check' when done with a partner one trusts. This was supported by other male respondents who argued that there was nothing wrong with a partner demanding for sex or sexting as partners had the right to share what they wanted. It was also felt that if both partners consented to it, and were comfortable, then it did not constitute abuse. However, some were apprehensive about being a source of

conflict if misused: “Sext chatting is not abusive, but it becomes a problem when you disagree with your partner…they can use it against you”.

Fifty-five (17.5%) respondents chose to remain neutral regarding the question. However, the remaining 100 (31.7%) respondents opined that the act was abusive. Some believed that if individuals were just dating and were not married, this was morally wrong. Hence, coercing a partner to do it amounted to abuse. Some respondents claimed that the act was inappropriate since it was against their religious beliefs (sex before marriage and related activities) and they would be offended if their partners pressurized them for this. They also felt that a partner had no right to coerce the other to sext or engage in sexual activities online as it would lead one into temptations to have sex with them and so was unnecessary.

Moreover, they believed that if it was against their partners’ will it amounted to abuse. Equally, as revealed in the in-depth discussion, they believed that sexting, even when consensual, put both partners at risk of being exposed in case one of them decided to share the chats publicly. This was a common form of revenge in case of break-ups. Therefore, it was inadvisable because one had to protect oneself from such an eventuality since no one was sure of the future.

4.4.7 Sharing of Sexual Photos or Videos as a Normal Behaviour among exclusively dating Undergraduate Students

The respondents were asked to what extent they thought that the act of their partners pressurizing them to send their sexual photos or videos, or their sending them theirs without being asked, was abusive. Sixty percent (189) disagreed with the statement, indicating that they did not perceive the act to be abusive. This implies that this act could have been widespread amongst the respondents. As revealed from the focus group discussion, the respondents argued that this depended on the type of relationship one was involved in. In exclusive relationships where partners were serious with their relationship, this was deemed to be quite normal and was not a problem so long as the two partners were both comfortable with it. However, some stated that though the act was not abusive, it was uncomfortable. One respondent expressed their discomfort as indicated below:

> If my partner sent me such a picture or video I have not asked for, I would be wary of them. I will ask myself, if they can send me this, how many other people do I know they are sending to? In fact, this would just make me very suspicious of them and make me think of them as being 'loose'. (Male, FGD).

Most male respondents were in support of this assertion and expressed their discomfort, especially with girlfriends whom they were newly dating. Therefore, many said in such situations they were hesitant to demand for such pictures and videos until they became committed to the relationship.

However, 26 (8.3%) of the respondents were neutral while 100 (31.7%) perceived this kind of behaviour not only as being uncomfortable but also abusive. This was especially so in relationships which lacked commitment or in which partners were newly dating. This was expressed as indicated below:

> If am not serious with my partner or in a new relationship, I would find this abusive because I will not be comfortable sharing such intimate stuff. I can only do so when we are so deep into the relationship (Female, FGD)

> Sharing such photos and videos is a recipe for disaster. Before I do that, I ask myself, what will happen if we break up? (Female, FGD).

> Some partners will pressure you for nudes…if one refuses, they start saying…. Oh, you do not trust me with your nudes…to me that is crap. It is sexual harassment and so is abusive (Female, FGD).

Most female respondents in the FGDs expressed their discomfort in sharing their intimate photos or videos with their partners. They were also cautious of doing so to avoid the risks of such photos and videos being leaked. In support of these views, respondents asserted that coercion from a partner to do this was nothing short of abuse. In any case, such a partner was up to no good and was suspicious. Some respondents reiterated that, in the first place, sharing such stuff was against their religious beliefs and they would be offended if their partner demanded for such or even sent them theirs without their consent.

4.4.8 Jealousy Eliciting Comments Posted on other People's Timelines as Innocent acts: no Malice Intended

The respondents were asked to what extent they thought the act of their partners sending/posting on other people's timelines to make them jealous was abusive. One hundred and one (51.1%) respondents did not perceive this behaviour to be abusive, hence they disagreed with the statement. According to them, this was an act that was normal among young adults. Youngsters did this without any intention of hurting their partners. For instance, some claimed that their posts and comments on friends of opposite gender were innocent and were done without malice. However, at times, they were negatively interpreted by their partners causing them to be jealous.

Nevertheless, 44 (14%) of the respondents were neutral while 110 (34.9%) had a different view. They perceived this behaviour to be abusive because, even when seemingly innocent, it was directed to their partner to hurt their feelings. Moreover, some people did this deliberately to make their partners jealous. It was also commonly used as a form of revenge by partners who were having conflicts or whose relationships had ended. It was reported that some of them, at many times, posted statuses just aimed at hurting their partners. This was abusive as it was emotionally distressing. A male respondent said that when his former girlfriend left him, he put up this status: "Lose one, get two for free". This was made in reference to the fact that he was at liberty to get even two girlfriends if he so wished and that he had moved on. Such status was meant to hurt an ex-partner's feelings; hence it was abusive.

4.4.9 Discussion on Perceptions on Behaviours that Constitute CDA

Analyses were done to understand the respondents' perception of CDA. The findings indicated that most of the cyber dating abuse seemed to be embedded in habits which normalized such behaviours and attitudes among undergraduate students. Many of the respondents confessed that these behaviours were quite normal in their relationships.

For instance, sharing intimate information with friends (which at times ended up becoming public) was common among them and was done without malice just as was the sharing of posts or making comments to make a partner jealous. This was consistent with the findings in a study by Kellerman *et al*. (2013) who found out that their respondents did not ascribe hostile intentions to their abusive acts. Equally, in this study, an act like accessing a partner's accounts to monitor them was not thought to be abusive but rather was deemed to be an indication of lack of trust from a partner.

Moreover, females who were dating exclusively seemed to normalize the behaviour. Both males and females who had dated for short periods of time perceived minimal to moderate monitoring a sign of love and care. However, those who had dated for a while felt that too much monitoring was annoying and uncomfortable. This concurred with findings by Borrajo *et al*. (2015a) who found out that adolescents in their study perceived CDA to be a "proof of love" and confused it with care. Moreover, acts to do with control and intimidation were 'justified by a romanticized view of love' (Borrajo *et al*., 2015a). This implies that these respondents interpreted their partner's monitoring as an indication of their love and care to them.

While the sharing of intimate information with friends without partner's permission was not bad in itself, it became problematic when the same information was misused as it might happen at times. Monitoring was also likely to be problematic especially when it was found to cause conflicts which at times led to academic disengagement. Since Universities might not have control over how the young adults use digital technologies and what information they share, this called for future direction to address the misuse of information shared which could have negative effects on the victim.

Also, it was revealed, in this study, that the respondents considered monitoring and controlling behaviours to be just annoying rather than abusive. These findings were consistent with those in a study by Lucero *et al*. (2014) who established that, adolescents did not perceive these acts to be abusive but rather found them to be annoying. In this study girls reported that monitoring was an important component of their intimate relationships. This finding shows that gender mistrust was a major issue among young dating adults. As reported, this phase among undergraduate students was characterised by a desire to experiment and have fun. This may explain why some male respondents reported that when asked to share their passwords, they later changed them. Few went to the extreme of changing sim cards. This could be a pointer to the level of dishonesty among some respondents. With this understanding, many respondents were naturally distrustful of their partners. Consequently, they felt the need to monitor their partners to ensure that they were behaving correctly.

According to Nomaguchi, Giordano, Manning, and Longmore (2011), gender mistrust includes individuals' negative attitudes towards the other gender. It encompasses behaviours aimed at controlling and manipulating a partner and is anchored on stereotypical beliefs about sexual conduct and the concept that men and women cannot be trusted to sexually commit themselves to one partner. This mistrust amongst the respondents made them to be wary of their partners and to harbour suspicions against them. Hence to them, monitoring and controlling a partner wasn't perceived as abusive but as a necessary precautionary security measure against cheating.

Apparently based on findings of this study, gender mistrust affected the level of trust among partners in intimate relationships and contributed to CDA perpetration. For some respondents, intrusive acts like pressurizing a partner for passwords so as to access their mobile phone and online accounts; or accessing the mobile phones and online accounts to monitor and control them and sending them too many messages so that they feel uncomfortable, were perceived to be quite normal.

However, according to Johnson (2005), coercive control violence results from the patriarchal tradition that men have legal and social right to control their partners. Consequently, in the African culture, male dominance is a norm and males are socialized to have power over their partners. Hence, in this study, males exhibited their dominance over the females as they clearly reported that they believed partners were free to do what they wanted with each other. This made sexual coercion, involving demands for sexual photos and videos or sending them without being asked and

pressure to ‘sext’ or engage in sexual activities online, to be perceived as normal, especially by males. The males, therefore, seem to subscribe to this gender socialization which gives them power to start controlling their girlfriends, right from the dating phase.

In line with the suspicious mentality, arising from gender mistrust amongst female respondents, findings indicate that females who were dating exclusively were wary of boyfriends who voluntarily offered them passwords. This act was construed to be deceptive. Instead, partners preferred stealing the passwords or hacking into their partners’ online accounts. This contradicts the perception held by the adolescents in the study by Lucero *et al*. (2014) that sharing of passwords was a sign of trust, love, and commitment to the relationship. The differential interpretation to this act could be explained by the age differences between the two samples. While the respondents in Lucero and colleagues’ study were teenagers, this study’s respondents were young adults. The teenagers were probably innocent and naive and hence were more trusting of their partners than the young adults. So, whereas to the teenagers being given a password was perceived as an act of love, for young adults this was not necessarily so. This could probably be attributed to the fact that as people mature and develop socially, gender mistrust increases amongst partners (Nomaguchi *et al.*, 2011).

Equally, respondents in this study reported to having relationships spanning short lengths of time. Hence, they might have had their own negative experiences of betrayal from their partners or might have observed what their peers and acquaintances had

experienced, thus compounding their distrust. The fact that many respondents considered their time at the University to be a period to experiment and discover, explains the lack of seriousness in their dating. Thus, the need to control and monitor partners amongst these respondents could be attributed to the knowledge that their partners might not be serious with them. Yet even when they normalized this, it was clear that coercive control violence was undesirable and had detrimental effects on the victims hence should be discouraged.

Whereas the reviewed studies were all from Europe and their respondents were teenagers, the two population samples had a lot of similarities with only negligible contradictions noted in their perceptions regarding behaviours comprising CDA. In this respect, despite the age, geographical and cultural differences between the respondents in the reviewed studies and this study, not much difference was noted in their perceptions. It was revealed, just like in the reviewed studies, most of the respondents in this study did not perceive the listed behaviours as constituting CDA. Instead, they interpreted them to be annoying, uncomfortable or attributed them to mistrust and jealousy.

On the contrary, over a third of the respondents in this study were of a different opinion that the acts discussed above were abusive. They felt that these acts were carried out as a form of harassment or to simply cause their partners emotional distress or social embarrassment and hence were perceived to be abusive. The respondents believed that behaviours like the sharing of a partner's intimate information or sending

posts/comments on another person's profile to make a partner jealous and sending threatening messages were acts of direct aggression meant to cause partners psychological harm, hence were abusive. This supports the assertion by Reed *et al*. (2016) that an important feature of CDA is the intention to cause the other harm.

Other acts like pressurizing a partner for passwords and accessing their SMS, mobile phone calls and online accounts so as to monitor them, pressurizing a partner to sext or engage in sexual activities online, or share their sexual photos or videos or sending them unwelcome sexual photos or videos, were believed to be an infringement on one's privacy and rights. Hence, they were abusive. Respondents also expressed their feelings that controlling behaviours were suffocating, uncomfortable and curtailed one's freedom of movement and association. They were also perceived to be abusive. This agrees with the assertion by Stark (2006) that coercive control violence hinders a victim's autonomy, equality and dignity.

In this respect, these respondents' position differs from the perceptions expressed in the reviewed studies by Borrajo *et al*. (2015a); Kellerman *et al*. (2013) and Lucero *et al*. (2014) discussed above. However, these perceptions uphold the views expressed in a study by Flach and Deslandes (2017) that, while an act like consensual sexting is not perceived to be a form of abuse, it becomes abusive when this information is publicly posted without a partner's consent, thus infringing on their right to privacy. According to Martsolf, Colbert and Draucker (2012), this was a common form of revenge

following break-ups among teenagers and was used to defame, humiliate, blackmail, and shame an ex-partner.

Based on the findings from the FGDs this study found out that the major factor leading to the divergence in perception was the influence of the type of relationship one was involved in. Respondents who were committed in their relationships seemed to have differing opinions from those who were dating casually or those that were newly dating. For instance, an act like sending too many messages until a partner became uncomfortable, were perceived to be a sign of affection among newly dating couples. However, those in serious and committed relationships found it nagging and uncomfortable. A few even perceived the act to be abusive as it was considered a form of harassment by obsessive partners.

From the analysis, although 48.9% of the respondents reported to dating exclusively, only 21.6% reported to have been in relationships that had lasted over two years. Moreover, most respondents' relationships seemed to have lasted for short durations. For example, 59% claimed that their relationships had lasted between 2 weeks to 1 year. This could probably explain why only over a third believed that these acts constituted abuse with over a half of them reporting the contrary.

Another factor that was evident from the discussions above was that the context under which the acts occurred largely dictated the respondents' perceptions. Participants differentially interpreted the acts depending on their relationship and situation under

which they occurred. Consequently, some behaviours were perceived to be the norm and harmless. Some were interpreted to be acts of love and affection while others were interpreted to be distressing, intrusive and abusive. For instance, it was reported that sharing of private information especially chats, was a norm. Both males and females shared screenshots of their intimate partners' conversations with their close friends. Some males even shared their sexual videos with close friends, probably to showcase their prowess.

Even when these acts seemed innocent and were shared with no malice, such an act was an infringement on their partners' right to privacy. It was also shown that, at times the same information was later used to shame partners when they fell out with each other like in revenge porn, which is a form of CDA. Also, when confidants made private information shared by their peers public, it became a source of social embarrassment to the victim like in cases where one's private photos and videos were publicly shared on social media.

In conclusion, even though there were differential interpretations as to whether the acts constituted CDA or not, it was evident that even those that initially seemed to be innocent could turn out to be abusive. For instance, whereas some respondents said sexting was used to spice up their relationships, the same information could cause victims emotional distress when misused by a partner to shame their ex-partners. Similarly, the sharing of intimate conversations, pictures and videos with close friends was an infringement on a partner's privacy and a source of social embarrassment and

psychological distress to the victims. Hence it was abusive. This, therefore, meant that young adults needed to exercise caution in the way they shared private information, given the dangers they exposed themselves should that information be misused. Additionally, the young adults' misguided perceptions that control and monitoring were expressions of love led to the justification of this abuse. Yet, high levels of monitoring and control behaviours were found to be detrimental to a relationship, and resulted into fear and anxiety and negative mental health in the form of depression among victims. This, therefore, calls for the need to sensitize undergraduate students against such behaviours.

4.5 Kinds of Digital Media used to Perpetrate Different Forms of Cyber Dating Abuse among Kenyan University Students

The study sought to obtain an overview of the students' use of digital technologies and their communication patterns. This was crucial in providing information on the ones used in the perpetration of CDA. The findings indicated that all the respondents with dating experience 315 (100%) owned mobile phones and 314 (99.7%) had access to the internet. Data from the FGDs revealed that this was possible due to the availability of free Wi-Fi in all the three Universities. Some students reported having access to free Wi-Fi in their rented hostels. Additionally, they used data bundles provided by mobile service providers to access the internet. Also, 312 (99%) used social media like WhatsApp, Facebook, Instagram among others to connect with their partners. The respondents used mobile phones to make calls and exchange text messages as well as access social networking sites to connect with their partners and to perpetrate CDA.

4.5.1 Texting (SMSing)

The study sought to find out the extent to which the respondents interacted with their partners through Short Messaging Services (SMS). They were asked to state the number of SMSs they exchanged in a single day. Table 4.4 shows the results.

Table 4.4: Frequency of Sending SMS to Current or Ex-partner in a Day

	Frequency	**Valid Percentage**
No text	18	5.7
1-20	154	48.9
21-200	101	32.1
201-250	19	6.0
500	23	7.3
TOTAL	**315**	**100**

The findings show that majority 292 (94.3%) of the respondents corresponded with their intimate partners using text messages. One hundred and fifty-four (48.9%) exchanged between 1-20 text messages daily. One hundred and one (32.1%) sent between 21-200 texts per day. A small number (13.3%) sent over 200 texts per day. Regarding the frequency of texting, of the 311 who gave a response to this question, 21.9% texted at least once per day, 63.7% sent texts several times a day. Only 8.7% sent texts several times an hour while 5.8% did not exchange texts at all. Findings from the focus group discussion revealed that for majority of the respondents, text messaging was common.

4.5.2 Calling

The study sought to find out the frequency of communication between partners through phone calls. The results are as indicated in Table 4.5:

Table 4.5: Frequency of Calling Current or Ex-partner per Day

	Frequency	**Valid Percentage**
Not at all	3	1.0
Once per day	163	52.9
Several times a day	135	43.8
Several times an hour	7	2.3
Total	**308**	**100**

Table 4.5 illustrates the frequency of calling. Of those who responded to this question, 163 (52.9%) called their partners at least once per day while 135 (43.8%) called several times a day. A minority 7(2.3%) called several times an hour while 3(1%) did not call at all. Seven did not respond to the question.

4.5.3 Favourite time for Communication (calling, texting, chatting)

The study sought to find out the time at which most of the communication between partners took place. The results are as indicated in Table 4.6:

Table 4.6: Favourite time for Communication (Calling, texting and chatting)

On a typical day, what hours of the day do/did you SMS/call/chat frequently? n =310

	Frequency	Valid Percentage
6am – 12 noon	17	5.5
1pm – 5pm	59	19.0
6pm – 10pm	151	48.7
11 pm – 5am	16	5.2
All day	67	21.6
Total	**310**	**100**

As illustrated in Table 4.6, of those who responded to this question, 151 (48.7%) preferred communicating between 6pm-10pm while 67 (21.6%) were comfortable communicating all day. Fifty-nine (19%) communicated between 1pm-5pm. Still 17 (5.5%) communicated between 6am -12 noon while another 16(5.2%) communicated between 11pm-5am. Only 5 (1.6%) of the 315 respondents with dating experience did not respond to the question.

4.5.4 Access to the Internet and Social Media

The study sought to find out if the respondents had access to internet and if they used social media. The findings showed that of the 315 respondents with dating experience, 314 (99.7%) had access to internet on their mobile phones, tablets or laptops. The study also sought to find out the time spent on social media during a typical weekday and during a typical weekend. Table 4.7 indicates the results as follows:

Table 4.7: Hours Spent Online on Social Media on a Typical WEEKDAY and WEEKEND.

How many hours do you spend on social media? n= 315

	WEEKDAY		**WEEKEND**	
	Frequency	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Less than half an hour	16	5.1	14	4.4
Half an hour to 1 hour	42	13.3	27	8.6
1-3 hours	99	31.4	67	21.3
More than 3 hours	158	50.2	207	65.7
Total	**315**	**100**	**315**	**100**

The findings revealed that on weekdays, 158 (50.2%) of the respondents spent more than 3 hours on the internet with this number rising to 207 (65.7%) during the weekend. Ninety-nine (31.4%) spent between 1 hour to 3 hours on weekdays, with 67(21.3%) spending the same time on weekends. On weekdays, 58(18.4%) spent less than an hour while only 41 (13%) spent the same time on weekends. Further analysis indicated that the average total time spent on social media per week was18 hours 5 minutes, and 139 (44.1%) spent 24 hours 30 minutes per week.

Additionally, the respondents were asked to indicate whether they used social media to connect with their partners. The expected responses were a ‘yes’ or ‘no’. The findings indicate that, majority 312(99%) of them used social media with their partners with a negligible number 3(1%) indicating they did not use any. Also, the respondents were

asked to indicate all the social media they frequently used. There were 798 responses to this question. Figure 4.2 illustrates the findings as follows:

Tick all the social media and instant messaging applications you use regularly with your partner. n=312

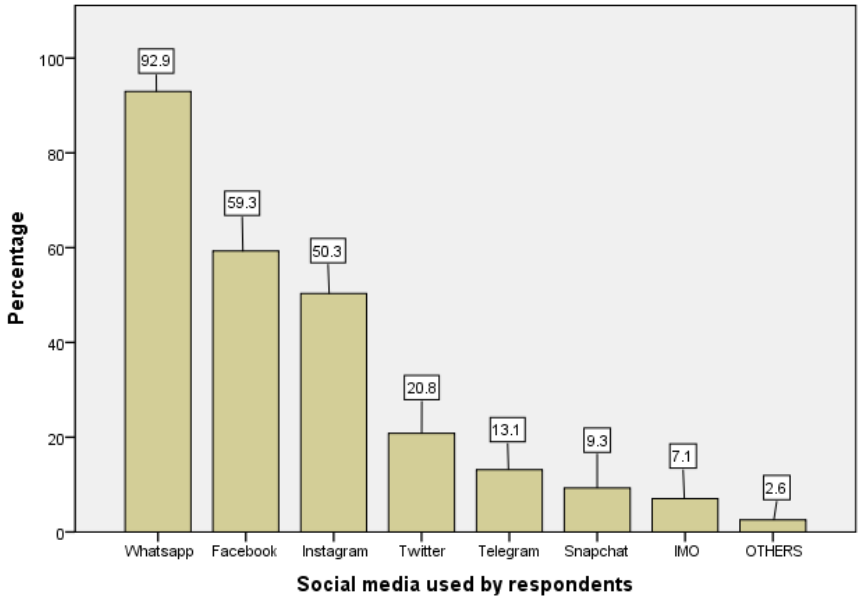

Figure 4.2: Social Media used by Undergraduate Students

The findings indicate that majority of the respondents 290 (92.9%) listed WhatsApp; 185 (59.3%) listed Facebook; Instagram was listed by 157(50.3%) respondents; 65 (20.8%) listed Twitter; Telegram was listed by 41(13.1%); Snapchat was listed by 29(9.3%); 22(7.1%) listed IMO and 8(2.6%) listed under Others: Google Duo, LinkedIn, Viber, Line, Skype, WeChat, Messenger, TikTok and Weibo.

The respondents were further asked to state two of their most favourite social media. The findings in response to this question indicated that there were 478 responses. WhatsApp was indicated as the most favourite chosen by 278 (93.6%); Facebook was

the second most popular listed by 113(38.0%); Instagram was listed by 65(21.9%). The remaining social media were listed under others- by 22 (7.4%). Respondents were also asked to state the technology that they mostly used in perpetrating CDA. Of the 279 responses provided to this question, 72.1% indicated they frequently used WhatsApp, 36.1% frequently used SMS, 17.8% indicated they frequently used phone calls, minority 5.3% indicated they used Facebook messenger and another 2.9% used the other social media.

4.5.5 Forms of CDA Perpetrated by Undergraduate Students in Selected Universities in Nairobi City County

The study sought to find out CDA behaviours prevalent among the respondents. The data indicated that of the 315, 284 (90.2%) claimed to have perpetrated at least one of the behaviours in the CDA perpetration scale while a minority 31 (9.8%) had not done so. On victimization, 275(87.3%) had experienced at least one of the behaviours in the victimization scale, with a very small number 40 (12.7%) reporting not to have experienced any of this. Table 4.8 illustrates the percentage of respondents who had perpetrated and experienced each of the CDA behaviours.

Table 4.8 Prevalence of CDA Perpetration and Victimization per Behaviour among Dating Respondents:

Have you ever perpetrated CDA or been a victim of CDA?								
	Perpetration				Victimization			
	Yes		No		Yes		No	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Accessed online accounts	164	**52.1**	151	47.9	158	**50.2**	157	49.8
Sent insulting message	127	40.3	188	59.7	98	31.1	217	68.9
Spread rumours, gossip &jokes	66	21.2	245	78.8	69	22.0	244	78.0
Posted status/comments to elicit jealousy	92	29.2	223	70.8	95	31.1	220	69.8
Threats of physical harm	22	7.0	293	93.0	33	10.5	282	89.5
Sent message to threaten them	49	15.6	265	84.4	55	17.5	259	82.5
Used information from SNS to ridicule partner	70	22.2	245	77.8	68	21.6	247	78.4
Pressure for quick response	218	**69.4**	96	30.6	202	**64.1**	113	35.9
Monitoring partner's whereabouts	199	**63.2**	116	36.8	185	**58.7**	130	41.3
Too many messages making partner uncomfortable	148	47.0	167	53.0	166	**52.7**	149	47.3
Pressure for passwords	85	27.1	229	72.9	117	37.3	197	62.7
Snooped on partner's messages, call logs	164	**52.1**	151	47.9	174	**55.2**	141	44.8
Pressure to sext	55	17.5	260	82.5	68	21.6	247	78.4
Shared intimate information without permission	50	15.9	264	84.1	53	16.9	261	83.1
Pressurized to have sex or engage in sexual activities online	76	24.1	239	75.9	88	28.0	226	72.0
Sent sexual photo partner did not ask for	32	10.2	283	89.8	45	14.3	269	85.7

As illustrated in Table 4.8, certain CDA behaviours were prevalent amongst the dating undergraduate students from selected Universities in Nairobi City County. The findings show that Coercive Control Violence, which entails control and manipulation, was the most common amongst this study's sample. The data indicates that 63.2% of the respondents monitored their partners' online activities to keep track of their whereabouts and to control who they interacted with. In the FGD, some respondents admitted that they tracked their partners' phones, hacked into their partners' online

accounts to find out what they were doing and with whom. Other common controlling behaviours that were a constant source of conflict were pressurizing partners for quick responses to messages, calls and chats as perpetrated by 69.4% of the respondents. Accessing lovers' accounts without permission and snooping in on a partner's accounts to check whether they were behaving properly was perpetrated by 52.1% of the respondents.

Other not so common controlling behaviours reported were sending partners too many messages which made them to feel uncomfortable, perpetrated by 47% of the respondents. Also, findings from the FGD indicated that some respondents professed that their partners dictated who to interact with, including whom to study with and hold academic group discussions with. Some females claimed that when asked to avoid specific classmates by a boyfriend they were serious with, they obeyed the orders.

The need to control and manipulate a partner amongst these respondents could be due to the fact that 41.3% of the respondents reported that they were casually dating. This could have contributed to feelings of uncertainty about the nature of their relationships. These respondents were not sure whether their partners were serious with them and if their relationships had a future thus heightening the need to monitor their partners to be sure. Also, according to Psychology, attachment theory points to individuals subscribing to different attachment styles. Preoccupied individuals exhibit insecurity and may resort to being controlling in their romantic relationships. This is due to anxiety that their partners may reject them.(Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

Demand for immediate response was found to be a constant source of conflict. From the FGDs, respondents reported that at times they got offended when their partners ignored them by not replying to their messages. They said that they were unhappy when their WhatsApp messages were 'blue ticked' and yet no response was forth coming, even when their partners' status showed that they were online. Partners were keen on the online and last seen statuses on WhatsApp to monitor their partners' online presence.

A female respondent stated that if they sent their partners messages and they were 'blue ticked'(means message is read but not replied to) and yet they could see them online, they also decided to ignore them by 'grey ticking' them when they later responded. To 'grey tick' a WhatsApp message meant that a recipient decided to ignore a message that was delivered to their phone. This could happen if the recipient deliberately failed to read it or if they had blocked the sender. This behaviour is an indication of obsession among perpetrators. It also points to impatience and lack of understanding among them.

The findings also indicate that respondents perpetrated Situational Couple Violence which arises out of occasional conflicts due to partners' reaction to anger or frustration. The findings show that the constant use of technology among dating partners was an avenue for them to get into conflicts with each other. Nearly one third (29.2%) of the respondents reported that they at times posted comments which elicited jealousy. Although these comments made on other people's posts or uploading of profile pictures

were deemed to be harmless, they at times ended up being a source of conflict among partners.

In one case which escalated and ended up being a disciplinary case, a male student got a suggestive comment on his social media post from a lady classmate who had a crush on him. The comment made his girlfriend suspicious, leading them to quarrel. The gentleman in his defence confronted the classmate who had posted the comment, and in the confrontation that ensued he yanked at his classmate's hand. The lady was offended and reported the case to the administration.

Findings from the FGD also indicate that some respondents perpetrated some form of violence that Johnson (2005) refers to as violent resistance. In some instances, partners were forced to retaliate with violence against their controlling ones. For example, in cases where one partner demanded for passwords, the other partner also demanded for theirs an indication of mutual mistrust among respondents. Additionally, humiliating or threatening messages were reciprocated with even worse threats or insults. Equally, mean posts and status were also reciprocated with even more mean posts and status. Dobell (pseudonym) reported how he retaliated against his girlfriend:

> When we had issues with my girlfriend, she put up a suggestive status and a profile picture of a male I did not know. I did not ask her about it…but I also picked a very nice picture of a female cousin of mine she does not know ... I then captioned it to keep her guessing…. a few days later she

> just brought herself back, we talked about it and resolved our issues. (Male, FGD).

Females also reported that when they suffered from sexual coercion victimization, some of them resorted to blocking their partners' access to themselves by preventing them from reaching them. They would ensure their partners were not able to reach them on phone, through texts, calls and social media. Avoidance of a partner at times served to worsen the situation and contributed to more cyber dating abuse. At worst, it could lead to extreme consequences like in the case of the university student who was allegedly murdered by her supposed 'lover' after she blocked him. In some instances, they avoided their offending partners in person. This was likely to lead to behavioural academic disengagement amongst those who were schooling in the same institution. From the findings, it was evident that the availability and use of technology to contact partners provided the respondents with opportunities to perpetrate different kinds of violence.

4.5.6 Forms of Cyber Dating Abuse Behaviours Experienced by Victims

The results in Table 4.8 indicate that some CDA behaviours were prevalent among the respondents. Monitoring and controlling behaviours were the most common as 64.1% of them reported of being pressurized by a partner to respond quickly to calls, texts or other messages. 58.7% of the respondents reported that their whereabouts and activities were monitored by their partners to know where they were and with whom. More than half (55.2%) reported that their partners snooped on their messages, call logs and contacts without their permission to check whether they were behaving correctly

(spying); while 52.7% reported that they were sent so many messages that they felt uncomfortable.

According to the Routine Activities Theory (Cohen & Felson 1979), for an offence to take place, the offender with a motive must encounter a suitable victim at a site outside the watch of a capable protector. Relating to this study, it was conceptualized that the youth's routine activities which revolve around use of technology expose them to CDA. All these happen in the absence of a guardian who could act in a protective manner or without a source of security systems like social media policy to deter the offence. The findings indicate that the respondents used a variety of digital media in their social interactions. It is in this interaction that offenders were able to encounter suitable victims (in this case, their partners). The respondents reported that they spent considerable amount of time on social media every week which increased their visibility and accessibility to the offender.

It was evident that the respondents' interaction with their partners happened in the absence of a capable guardian who could prevent the abuse. To start with, findings from the FGD showed that some respondents were not even aware that what they were experiencing was abuse as revealed by majority's misconception regarding behaviours constituting cyber dating abuse. Additionally, majority of the respondents generally lacked awareness of existing anti-cyber abuse policies even in Kenyatta University which had a social media policy in place.

Although the Computer Misuse and Cybercrime Act of 2018 and the Social Media Policy for KU were capable of offering protection for victims, they rarely made use of them as they hardly reported their CDA victimization to the administration. Besides, the study established that Multimedia University of Kenya and Catholic University of Eastern Africa did not have anti-cyber abuse policies and relied on the student code of conduct to handle cases of CDA.

Secondly, it was reported that the respondents' affairs were private and as such victims mostly kept the abuse silent since some were not aware of how and to whom to report to. Even when facing abuse, they were reluctant to seek help from relevant authorities out of ignorance (majority of the respondents thought CDA was a normal part of relationships), fear of exposing themselves and causing themselves further embarrassment and the belief that they were capable of handling their own issues. Many students were reluctant to seek help from the University Counsellors who they felt did not really understand them. However, a few reported when the cases had got out of hand.

Nevertheless, many respondents treated most of the CDA cases lightly and relied on the advice of their friends who, from findings were just as ignorant as those seeking help and, in some cases, just worsened the CDA cases. This implied that even friends who were regularly consulted or told of the abuse were not able to deter or stop the crime in progress.

Thirdly, although all the respondents reported to have computer competency, it remained unclear whether their parents and the University officials who could act as capable guardians possessed computer competency. Besides, young people claimed they wanted to keep their conversations secret by using language that might be foreign to adults. For instance, IWSN which means 'I Want Sex Now'; GNOC which means 'Get Naked on Camera'; TDTM which means 'Talk Dirty to Me' could constitute sexual coercion abuse which might not be recognised by adults. Consequently, this could have contributed to adults' inability to acts as capable guardians. Also, parents and most University officials were not aware of the nature of interactions the respondents had. Moreover, they were not informed about the cyber dating abuse victimization, except in a few extreme cases. This implied that, in such circumstances, they could not act as capable guardians with authority to monitor what the respondents did online to ensure civility.

Moreover, even respondents who had computer competency often did nothing to stop CDA since most times some friends and classmates were responsible for making revenge porn go viral by redistributing private pictures and videos. At times, some friends could stand up for their friends by practising collective revenge. In such instances, friends ganged against a friend's offending partner by putting up suggestive posts, or posted insulting comments meant to humiliate and offend the other in defence of one of their own as reported by females. A female respondent explained: "When you touch me, you touch all of us. So, when one of our friends comes crying, 'he has done

this to me', me and my crew go for him…". This implied that the females used technology to get back at the offender.

This assertion was unanimously corroborated by other female respondents who stated that it was at times necessary to do so to defend their own. Such acts did nothing to stop CDA but only fuelled it further, making things worse. This therefore calls for the need to sensitize young adults about cyber dating abuse so as to equip them with knowledge which can enable them to play the role of capable guardians.

4.5.7 Discussion on the Kinds of Digital Media used in Perpetrating Different forms of CDA among Kenyan Undergraduate Students

The study purposed to find out the type of digital technologies that were used by the respondents for communication in their relationships and, in turn, what was frequently used to perpetrate CDA. From the findings, all respondents with dating experience owned mobile phones and 99.7% used them to access the internet. This was consistent with the findings by Reed *et al*. (2016) who found out that 100% of their respondents owned mobile phones. However, the percentage reported in this study was higher than that in previous studies on Kenyan University students. The study by Octutu *et al*. (2014) established that 75% of the 300 University of Nairobi students owned smart phones while the study by Mayoyo *et al*. (2015), of 143 Kisii University students, 122 (85.3%) owned smart phones.

This implied that with the passing years more and more students now own smart phones. This could be attributed to accessibility to readily available cheap smart phones in Nairobi, a commercial hub. Besides, the price of smart phones had greatly dropped, making them quite affordable unlike some few years ago. Moreover, a report by the Communication Authority of Kenya (CAK) for the second quarter sector statistics for the financial year 2018/2019 indicated that there had been an exponential growth in the Kenyan mobile market over the years. Also, the internet/data market in the country remained vibrant during the quarter under review and the mobile phone remained the most available and preferred medium for accessing the internet. (CAK, 2018).

The respondents said that they used SMS, phone calls and social media to get in touch with their partners. Most of them (94.2%) sent text messages daily ranging from 20-500 texts. On the contrary, only 46.1% called several times a day while 52.9% called their partners at least once a day. It was, therefore, evident that most of them preferred exchanging texts to calling. This was affirmed in the focus group discussion in which respondents explained that they preferred communicating through SMS.

This could be attributed to the fact that sending SMS was cheaper compared to making phone calls. The availability of flexible options by service providers made this possible where, for instance, one service provider offered SMS bundles at 30 shillings for 400 SMSs for a week or 200 SMS at 10 shillings daily. Texting was also found to be convenient because it was more private than calling at most times. Making phone calls

did not afford them the privacy they desired, especially when in public places which was the case most of the times.

Respondents' favourite hour for communicating indicated that 48.7% preferred to communicate between 6pm-10pm. However, 21.6% communicated all day. Still a few (19%) reported their favourite hour was 1pm-5pm; 5.5% communicated between 6am-12 noon with 5.2% reporting they communicated way into the night to the wee hours of morning between 11 pm and 5am. The findings indicated that the students were comfortable communicating at any time of the day at a convenient time when they were done with classes, group discussions and assignments and were now free. They also indicated that the use of technology was indeed a part of the respondents' daily normal routine, many of whom were comfortable using digital technologies to interact with their intimate partners during their free time.

The communication patterns between partners could be attributed to a number of factors. To start with, the type of relationship one was involved in determined the frequency and time of communication. Most commonly, partners who were newly dating communicated more often and at any time of the day while those who had been in their relationships longer communicated at least daily. The class hours also dictated the time of communication. This explains the wide range of timings for the respondents as they were from different Universities, years and faculties hence attended classes at different times as their schedules dictated. Evidently though, most students took

advantage of their free time to catch up with their partners with many stating that they liked to communicate through social media during their free time

On access to internet and use of social media, majority had access and communicated through social media with their partners. Half of the respondents spent over three hours on social media on a typical day while a third spent between 1 and 3 hours. This time increased on weekends as 65.7% of the respondents spent more than 3 hours on social media. This finding was expected since most students were free during weekends. Hence, they could afford to spend more of their time online connecting with their friends and partners. The average time spent on social media per week was 18 hours 5 minutes, though some respondents spent more like the 44.1% who spent 24 hours 30 minutes weekly.

Additionally, it was established that 32.1% of the respondents exchanged between 21-200 texts daily with 13.3% exchanging over 200 texts daily. Equally, 46.1% of the respondents called their partners several times a day. These findings revealed that the respondents' routine activities revolved around use of the technology. As indicated, a considerable amount of time was spent using digital media and this extended use of technology was likely to expose them to CDA. A Pearson's Correlation Coefficient r (313) =0.20, p =<.001 established that the amount of time spent online was statistically and significantly positively associated with higher CDA victimization. The r value of 0.2 implied that this was practically significant. (Felson, 2006). This, therefore, supports the hypothesis that the amount of time a victim spent online exposed them to a

motivated offender. Hence, higher exposure corresponded to higher levels of victimization. This concurs with the findings in a study by Baker and Carreno (2015), which found out that the use of technology, increased a victim's visibility even when they were not together and made it easy for a partner to abuse another.

Also, the respondents were found to use more than one social media, with WhatsApp being the most favourite among them as listed by 278 (93.6%). Facebook was second favourite listed by 113(38.0%). Furthermore, WhatsApp was reported to be the most frequently used social media in perpetrating CDA as indicated by 72.1% of the respondents. SMS was second most frequently used by 36.1% of the respondents. Only 17.8% of them used phone calls while 5.3% used Facebook. These findings concur with those by Borrajo *et al*. (2015a) who found out that messaging services, like WhatsApp, were used in perpetrating over 50% of the reported cases of Cyber Dating Abuse with Facebook being used by 40% of the cases. It also agrees with findings by Burke *et al.* (2011) who found out that 40.9 % of CDA behaviours among their respondents were carried out through messaging applications like WhatsApp.

However, while the respondents in these reviewed studies were mostly using social networking sites for perpetrating more than half of the total behaviours (52.04%) and 7.04% of behaviours through email, this study points to the contrary since only 5.3 % used Facebook while e-mail was not listed. This could be attributed to the difference in years that have elapsed since the Burke *et al*. study of 2011. Technology has since evolved, and individuals find instant messaging and texting to be more convenient in

communicating with partners because of their synchronous nature. Although texting is asynchronous, it can be used synchronously with correspondents exchanging several texts in succession. This is made possible due to availability of SMS bundles offer by mobile providers which enable users to exchange several texts a day at an affordable rate. Also, unlike e-mails which are asynchronous and may take time to reply, instant messaging guarantees the sender an instant response when the recipients are online. This was the case with these respondents most of the times.

In this study, the findings indicated that instant messaging applications (specifically WhatsApp) were more popular than social networking sites like Facebook. Many smart phones nowadays come preinstalled with instant messaging applications like WhatsApp which makes it more likely to be used. Besides, it affords users privacy and many respondents claimed that it was fun to use because of the many emojis available. WhatsApp is also convenient to use even when signal strength is weak and works well with any kind of network be it 2G, 3G or 4G. The major difference between the different networks is the speed of data transmission with 4G offering fastest internet browsing and data downloading compared to 3G and 2G networks.

The availability of internet on University campuses and some hostels meant that one could remain in touch wherever and with whatever networks they were in. This preference confirms that technology keeps evolving over time. A study by Mayoyo *et al*. (2015) showed that in the year 2014, Facebook was reported as the most favourite social networking site among Kisii University students as indicated by 93.7% of the

respondents. Although Facebook has an instant messaging application, Messenger, which can be used to chat, many respondents clearly preferred WhatsApp over Messenger for their communication.

Overall, social media were reported the most favourite digital media technology utilized by the respondents. This was made possible by the good connectivity in the three target Universities because of the availability of free Wi-Fi on campuses and in some student hostels. When not using free Wi-Fi, students connected to the internet by using mobile data bundles that were readily and cheaply available. Some of these were provided by mobile service providers while some used what they referred to as “bundles mwitu”- unconventional data bundles sold by resellers which were readily available on campuses and were much cheaper than those offered by conventional mobile service providers.

Moreover, mobile data providers also offered free WhatsApp, Facebook and Twitter even upon depletion of data bundles so that one could remain connected for free. Besides connectivity, social media were popular because they offered the respondents privacy in their communication, were fast, reliable, lively and more fun than sending SMS. The respondents enjoyed using emojis, posting statuses, exchanging photos and videos and video calling. This enhanced accessibility and flexibility encouraged respondents to constantly use social media, thus making them vulnerable to cyber dating abuse.

This study further sought to find out the various forms of Cyber dating Abuse perpetrated by the respondents. The findings show that the most common forms of CDA experienced were acts meant to monitor and control their partners, direct aggression in form of intrusiveness, humiliation and hostility. Sexual coercion was the least common of the three. Intrusiveness included behaviours that infringed on partners' privacy and rights such as accessing without permission partners' mobile phones or online accounts; pressurizing partners for passwords and sending so many messages to them so that they felt uncomfortable.

Humiliation and hostility were perpetrated through behaviours that were directly aggressive aimed at harassing, humiliating/insulting or causing partners emotional distress or/and social embarrassment. They included behaviours like sending partners insulting/humiliating messages and sharing their private information (chats), compromising photos and videos without their consent. These findings concur with those in a study by Bennet *et al*. (2011) in which college students reported intrusion and humiliation as common forms of CDA.

Monitoring and control were reflected in acts like snooping partners' messages, call logs and contacts to check whether they were behaving correctly (spying); monitoring partners' whereabouts and activities to know where they were and with whom; pressurizing a partner to respond quickly to calls, texts or other messages; and pressurizing partner for passwords to access their phones, SMS or online accounts to check on what they were up to. This concurred with other findings which confirmed

that monitoring was a common form of CDA among college students (Baker & Carreno, 2015; Borrajo *et al*., 2015a; Draucker & Martsolf, 2010 and Daslakuk, 2016). A study by Lucero *et al*. (2014) also established that monitoring and sharing passwords were common forms of CDA. However, while Lucero and colleagues' study found sexting to be quite common, this was not the case in this study as only 68 (21.6%) had been a victim of this and 55 (17.5%) had perpetrated this. Sexual coercion was among the least common form of CDA reported among this study's respondents which could be attributed to cultural differences and socialization. In most African cultures, talk about sex is a taboo and so some respondents may have feared being stigmatized or they simply could not have been involved.

Applying Cohen and Felson's Routine Activity Theory (1979), it was hypothesized that the amount of time the youth spent on their routine activities increased their visibility and exposed them to CDA. It was conceptualized that the longer a victim stayed online, the more they became visible. This made them vulnerable targets to motivated offenders. Results indicated that respondents in this study were spending a considerable amount of time using their phones, exchanging texts and on social media which made them vulnerable to CDA. The online presence of the respondents made it possible for perpetrators to send too many messages to their victims and to demand immediate responses which were a constant source of conflict among the respondents. Equally, the constant use of technology provided an opportunity for perpetrators to monitor their partners' activities and whereabouts. This made monitoring and controlling to be a common form of violence perpetrated and experienced by the victims.

The findings corresponded to Cohen and Felson's (1979) assertion that a victims' visibility to motivated offenders increased their chances of falling prey to a crime. Furthermore, in this study, as victims spent time online, they became easy targets to the offenders. The findings indicated that the longer a victim stayed online, the higher the rate of their victimization. This was in consonance with the findings in a study by Juvonen and Gross (2008) which found out that heavy use of the internet (more than 3 hours a day) among 12-17-year-olds increased the risk of being cyber bullied almost sevenfold. Results of this study indicated that the extended use of social media provided opportunities for some people to monitor, harass and control their partners. It was reported that partners were offended when their messages went unanswered, yet their counterparts' 'online statuses' indicated they were online. They also used the 'last seen statuses' to question their partners' online activities. This led to conflicts in their relationships. Equally, the constant use of technology encouraged partners to share a lot of personal information in their chats including private photos and videos. This same information was at times made public by ex-partners or, in some instances, it was shared among friends who in turn shared with their friends, making the information public.

Johnson's Typology of Intimate Partner Violence (2005) was also used to explain perpetration of CDA in this study. The findings show that Coercive Control Violence which typically involves monitoring and control was the most common form of CDA perpetrated by both males and females. The results from the independent samples t-test confirm that no gender differences were found in the mean perpetration rates for males

and females. This differs with findings by Johnson (2006) who established that Coercive Control Violence was often perpetrated by men supporting the notion of gender symmetry in this kind of intimate partner violence. These findings seem not to tally with Johnson's conclusion that the perpetration of Coercive Control Violence was the preserve of men. They therefore, conflict with the gendered view that traditional patriarchy empowers men with authority to control their female partners (Johnson, 1995) since females in this study were found to equally perpetrate monitoring and control through digital media. This could be attributed to the frequent use of technology by both males and females which provided an opportunity for either party to control their partners. Also, Melander (2010) found out that coercive control violence could be strengthened and aided using technology.

Moreover, research which applies gender theory to Coercive Control Violence states that males are likely to commit this abuse by virtue of their big sizes and strength relative to that of women in most heterosexual relationships (Dutton & Goodman, 2005). However, this does not seem to apply to Cyber Dating Abuse which is typically perpetrated technologically. Irrespective of size and strength users hide behind the keyboard, type messages and make demands which ordinarily they may not do in a face-to-face situation. This gives equal power to both males and females involved in a relationship to control each other. Also, in face-to-face interactions, partners' reactions to abuse are likely to deter them from perpetrating violence. However, technology gives individuals the courage they would otherwise not have. Consequently, in moments of

anger and frustration, individuals may type, click to share information to shame their partners, without second thought, actions that they may regret later.

This study's findings show that both males and females applied controlling tactics on their partners. This concurs with the results from a study by Melander (2010) who found out that both partners used technology to control each other. It also corresponds to a study by Kaukinen, *et al*. (2012) whose respondents were found to be perpetrators and victims in mutually violent relationships. This could be ascribed to the fact that both males and females equally accessed technology and used it as such, hence were both able to use it to monitor their partners.

Johnson (2005) outlined Situational Couple Violence as another type of violence which occurs within intimate partner relationships. The results in this study indicate that this kind of violence was common among the respondents. For instance, it was reported that sometimes acts like comments made on people's posts and uploading of profile pictures were sources of conflict among partners. Partners also had conflicts arising from their failure to respond quickly to their partner's messages. This was perpetrated by both males and females. This was in harmony with Johnson's (2005) assertion that in heterosexual relationships, conflicts leading to Situational Couple Violence are likely to be caused by both partners.

Finally, the study findings indicated that the respondents experienced Violent Resistance. This happened when someone resorted to violence in revenge against a

violent, controlling partner as a way of defending themselves (Melander, 2010). Respondents reported that humiliating or threatening messages were reciprocated with even worse threats or insults. Also, mean posts and status were reciprocated with even more mean posts and status.

Based on the results from this study, one could conclude that the need by the respondents to remain connected contributed to the constant use of the digital technologies. Equally, the need by the young adults to correspond with their partners in 'real time' led them to mainly use instant messaging which was the most common kind of digital technology used in perpetrating CDA. Their routine activities led them to spend a lot of time online, and to perpetrate different forms of violence as outlined by Johnson (2005) with Coercive Control Violence being the most pervasive.

This had negative consequences not only on their mental health but also academic engagement. This therefore calls for researchers and academic policy makers to pay close attention to an in-depth study of CDA so as to understand it better for preventive measures. Moreover, though Universities acknowledged the fact that undergraduate students were independent and solely responsible for their actions, given such consequences there is need for Universities to provide guidance to the students' use of technology to ensure their safety in social and academic contexts.

4.6 Gender Differences in Perpetration and Victimization of Cyber Dating Abuse among Undergraduate Students in Selected Universities in Nairobi City County

4.6.1: Prevalence of Cyber Dating Abuse Perpetration and Victimization among dating Undergraduate Students

Levels of Cyber Dating Abuse were measured using the Cyber Dating Abuse Scale (CDAS) (refer to Appendix 1, Part Two Section A and B) adopted from a validated measure of cyber dating abuse behaviours by Borrajo *et al*. (2015b) and Reed *et al*. (2015). The original scale consisted 36 parallel items. The scale was modified by dropping two items which were ambiguous and language modified for the respondents in this study. The final scale consisted 32 parallel items focusing on perpetration and victimization behaviours among intimate partners. Each scale comprised three subscales, all focusing on behaviours perpetrated digitally.

The first subscale had 7 items focusing on direct aggression. It comprised intentional behaviours aimed at threatening, hurting or humiliating a partner. The second subscale was on monitoring and controlling behaviours comprising 5 items focusing on intrusion on a partner's privacy: controlling and keeping track of a partner's activities, movement and relationships with others. The third subscale was composed of 4 items focusing on sexual coercion. The perpetration scale had a Cronbach's alpha of .828 while the victimization scale had a Cronbach's alpha of .855.

To measure the prevalence of CDA, a question was constructed as follows: 'Within the past one year have you perpetrated/suffered from CDA victimization?' The respondents were required to answer with a Yes or No. Any respondent who acknowledged to have perpetrated or experienced any of the CDA behaviours was deemed to be a perpetrator or victim of CDA. The CDA prevalence rates among males and females are as illustrated in Table 4.9:

Table 4.9: Prevalence of CDA perpetration across gender

Have you ever perpetrated CDA? n=315

Gender	**Response**	**Frequency**	**Valid percentage**
Male	Yes	149	90.3
	No	16	9.7
	Total	**165**	**100.0**
Female	Yes	135	90.0
	No	15	10.0
	Total	**150**	**100.0**

As illustrated in Table 4.9, the perpetration prevalence for males was 90.3% while for females was 90%.

Table 4.10: Prevalence of CDA victimization across gender

Have you ever been a victim of CDA? n=315

Gender	Response	Frequency	Valid percentage
Male	Yes	143	86.7
	No	22	13.3
	Total	**165**	**100.0**
Female	Yes	132	88.0
	No	18	12.0
	Total	**150**	**100.0**

The victimization prevalence as per Table 4.10 was that 86.7% males and 88% females reported to have been victims of CDA.

4.6.2 Discussion on CDA Prevalence among Undergraduate Students in Selected Universities in Nairobi City County

This study sought to establish whether there were gender differences in the CDA experiences of undergraduate students in selected Universities in Nairobi City County. In this study, gender was conceptualised first, as a biological construct distinguishing perpetrators and victims as males or females. Secondly, gender was considered as cultural construct arising from socialization which influenced the dating and digital media experiences of the respondents.

The study sought to establish the prevalence rates of perpetration and victimization. This was of significance in explaining how often the phenomenon occurred. The prevalence rates for perpetration and victimization among the respondents show that

90.3% males and 90% females were perpetrators while 86.7% males and 88% females were victims. The high prevalence rates are expected given that a behavioural checklist was used as a measure of CDA in this study. Moreover, research shows that studies that use a behavioural checklist to account for prevalence, do report high levels of perpetration especially for psychological violence (Reed, 2015). This prevalence is much higher than that reported by Cutbush *et al*. (2012) who established a victimization prevalence of 31.5% and perpetration of 18.4% of adolescents in their study. This could be attributed to the difference in time since the Cutbush and colleagues' study as well as the age difference.

Since 2012, there have been lots of changes in technology with recent years witnessing greater accessibility and use of technology among individuals. Given that the respondents in this study were emerging young adults, the higher prevalence rates could also be attributed to the greater access to technology that University students have in comparison to adolescents in high school. Furthermore, emerging young adults enjoy a lot more freedom in utilising technology in their intimate relationships with no restrictions from their guardians and University authorities unlike adolescents who mostly are regulated by their parents and schools.

The prevalence is still higher than that reported by Borrajo *et al*. (2015a) in which 50% of 433 college respondents were victims. Borrajo and colleagues' study conducted in Europe-Spain utilised a 9- item victimization questionnaire and established victimization over the previous 6 months. This differed from this study which utilised a

16-item questionnaire and focused on experiences occurring over the past year. The difference in the two researches could be attributed to the length of time for victimization under study. This study focused on a longer period, twice as long as that for Borrajo and colleagues' study (2015a) and so it was expected that the victimization would be much higher.

Kellerman *et al*. (2013) also reported a lower prevalence rate of 71.7% of their 226 undergraduates. Their study utilised a 19-item questionnaire to establish victimization rates. The difference in prevalence could be attributed to difference in time context between the reviewed studies and this study given that the respondents were of the same age. The difference in time since the reviewed studies were done could account for this discrepancy, given that over the years there has been advancement in use of technology which has proliferated its use among young people. This puts the users at greater risk of suffering from CDA. This could be attributed to the higher access to phones, the internet and social media due to drop in prices of smart phones over the years and improved network connectivity.

However, the findings are in concurrence with Bennet *et al*. (2011) who found out that 92% of their respondents had experienced some electronic victimization in the past year. Bennet and colleagues' study focused on victimization from both intimate partners and friends while this study focused only on intimate partners. This had a bearing on the kind of conclusions that could be made about the effect of CDA victimization specific to dating partners alone. Research has shown that studies report different prevalence

rates as a result of differences in measurement, sampling and context. It has also been noted that differences may also arise due to underreporting because of the stigma associated with both perpetration and victimization (Lenhart, Purcell, Smith & Zickuhr, 2010).

This study also investigated the use of digital media by the respondents. The findings showed that both males' and females' usage of digital media was on equal basis. It was found out that 100% males and females owned mobile phones with 164 (99.4%) males and 148 (98.7%) of females using social media to communicate with their partners. This was a contrast with the findings from studies by Marshall, Bejanyan, Di Castro and Leo (2013) who found out that females were more frequent users of digital media than males. The equal usage of digital media implied that both males and females had equal opportunities of CDA perpetration and victimization.

4.6.3 Frequency of Perpetration of CDA Behaviours among Males and Females

The study sought to find out the frequency of CDA perpetration by respondents using descriptive analysis. To analyse for the most frequently perpetrated CDA behaviours among the respondents, the responses categorized as 1-2 times were classified as 'rarely', while those categorised as 3-5 times and more than 6 times classified as 'often'. Table 4.11 (Refer to Appendix XII, pg 237) presents the findings as reported by the respondents in their recent past or relationships at the time of the study in the previous one.

The findings as indicated in Table 4.11 show that the most prevalent behaviours, among the 165 dating males and 150 dating females, constituted those to do with monitoring and controlling abuse. Over 60% of both males and females monitored their partners' whereabouts and activities to know where they were and with whom. They also pressurized their partners to respond quickly to their messages and calls. Additionally, over 50% of females and over 40% of males snooped on their partners' accounts to check whether they were behaving correctly and sent their partners too many messages making them uncomfortable.

Furthermore, both descriptive and inferential statistics were conducted to establish whether there existed gender differences in the frequency of perpetration of CDA on the three conceptual subscales. The descriptive findings were in terms of means and standard deviations. The inferential statistics was in the form of independent sample t-test and the study hypothesized that there was no significant difference in perpetration of Cyber Dating Abuse among undergraduate students in selected Universities in Nairobi City County across gender. The first test was on direct aggression subscale and the descriptive statistics is as illustrated in Table 4.12

Table 4.12: Mean Frequency Scores for Direct Aggression Perpetration Across Gender

Perpetration subscale	**Gender**	**N**	**Mean**	**Std. deviation**
Direct aggression	Male	165	10.32	3.51
	Female	150	10.19	3.07

The findings indicate that males had a mean of 10.32 with standard deviation of 3.51 while females had a mean of 10.19 with standard deviation of 3.07. To establish if there was a significant difference in the mean frequency scores of direct aggression perpetration across gender, an independent sample t-test was conducted, and the findings are as shown in Table 4.13:

Table 4.13: Independent Samples T-test for Direct Aggression Perpetration Across Gender

DAP	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed	1.188	.277	.361	313	.719
Equal variances not assumed			.363	312.493	.717

Key: DAP- Direct aggression perpetration

Referring to Table 4.13, Levene's Test for Equality of Variances had an f =1.188 at p =.277. The p value (.277) is more than .05, which implies equal variances are assumed. With this background, the t (313) = .361, p=.719 which has a p-value that is above the significance level of .05 shows there was no statistically significant difference between mean frequency scores for direct aggression of males and females. We therefore fail to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is no difference in the way males and females perpetrate Direct Aggression.

The second subscale was monitoring and controlling perpetration. The descriptive statistics is as illustrated in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14: Mean Frequency Scores for Monitoring and Controlling Perpetration Across Gender

Perpetration subscale	Gender	N	Mean	Std. deviation
Monitoring and Control	Male	165	9.35	3.39
	Female	150	10.10	3.58

The mean frequency scores for monitoring and controlling perpetration were computed and results show that males had a mean of 9.35 with standard deviation of 3.39 while females had a mean of 10.10 with standard deviation of 3.58. To establish if there was a significant difference in the mean frequency scores for monitoring and controlling across gender, an independent samples t-test was conducted, and the findings are as shown in the Table 4.15:

Table 4.15: Independent samples t-test for monitoring and controlling perpetration across gender

MCP	Levene's Test of Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed	1.476	.225	-1.921	313	.056
Equal variances not assumed			-1.916	305.995	.056

Key: MCP- Monitoring and Controlling perpetration

Referring to Table 4.15, Levene's Test for Equality of Variances had an f =1.476 at p =.225 The p value (.225) is more than .05, which implies equal variances are assumed. With this background, the t (313) = 1.921, p=.056 has a p-value which is above the

significance level of .05. This, therefore, indicates that there was no statistically significant difference between mean frequency scores for males and females in their monitoring and controlling perpetration. We therefore fail to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is no difference in the way males and females perpetrate Monitoring and Control abuse.

The third subscale on victimization was sexual coercion. The descriptive statistics is as illustrated in Table 4.16:

Table 4.16: Mean Frequency Scores for Sexual Coercion Perpetration across Gender

Perpetration subscale	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Sexual coercion	Male	165	5.57	2.43
	Female	150	4.70	1.63

The mean frequency scores for sexual coercion perpetration were computed and results indicate that males had a mean of 5.57 with standard deviation of 2.43 while females had a mean of 4.70 with standard deviation of 1.63. To establish if there was a significant difference in the mean frequency scores for sexual coercion perpetration across gender, an independent samples t-test was conducted, and the findings are as shown in the Table 4.17:

Table 4.17: Independent Samples T-test in Sexual Coercion Perpetration across Gender

SCP	Levene's Test of Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed	17.823	.000	3.690	313	.000
Equal variances not assumed			3.758	288.469	.000

Key: SCP- Sexual Coercion perpetration

Referring to Table 4.17, Levene's Test for Equality of Variances had an f =17.823 at p =<.001 The p value (< .001) is less than .05, which implies equal variances are not assumed. With this background, the t (288) = 3.758, p = <. 001 has a p-value which is less than the significance level of .05. We therefore reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis. We conclude that there was a statistically significant difference in mean frequency scores in sexual coercion perpetration for males and females. This implied that males were more likely to perpetrate Sexual Coercion than females.

4.6.4 Frequency of CDA Victimization Behaviours among Males and Females

Descriptive analysis was carried out to find out what were the most prevalent CDA behaviours experienced by the respondents. The findings as indicated in Table 4.18 (Refer to Appendix XIII, pg 238) show that over the past one year some behaviours were widespread among the 165 males and 150 females who were dating. Similar to perpetration, both females and males frequently suffered from monitoring and control abuse. Over 50% of the respondents reported that their partners monitored their

whereabouts and activities to know where they were and with whom; pressurized them to respond quickly to their messages and calls; snooped on their accounts; accessed their accounts to check if they were behaving properly and sent them too many messages making them uncomfortable.

Also, both descriptive and inferential statistics were conducted to establish whether there existed gender differences in the mean frequency scores for CDA victimization on the three subscales among the undergraduate students in this study. The descriptive findings were in terms of means and standard deviation. The first test was on direct aggression victimization and the descriptive statistics is as illustrated in Table 4.19:

Table 4.19: Mean Frequency Scores in Direct Aggression Victimization across Gender

Victimization subscale	Gender	N	Mean	Std. deviation
Direct Aggression	Male	165	10.60	3.74
	Female	150	9.79	2.99

The findings indicate that males had a mean of 10.60 with a standard deviation of 3.74 while females had a mean of 9.79 with standard deviation of 2.99. To find out if there was a significant difference in the mean frequency scores for direct aggression victimization across gender, an independent sample t-test was conducted. Findings are as shown in the Table 4.20

Table 4.20: Independent Sample T-test in Direct Aggression Victimization across Gender

DAV	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed	7.620	.006	2.101	313	.036
Equal variances not assumed			2.123	308.205	.035

Key: DAV- Direct aggression victimization

Referring to Table 4.20, Levene's Test for Equality of Variances had an f =7.620 at p =.006. The p value (.006) is less than .05, which implies equal variances not assumed. With this background, the t (308) = 2.123, p=.035 indicates a p-value which is less than the significance level of .05. We therefore reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis. We conclude that there was a statistically significant difference between males' and females' mean frequency scores in direct aggression victimization with males experiencing higher and frequent direct aggression victimization than females.

The second subscale was monitoring and controlling victimization. The descriptive statistics are as illustrated in Table 4.21:

Table 4.21: Mean Frequency Scores in Monitoring and Controlling Victimization across Gender

Victimization subscale	Gender	N	Mean	Std. deviation
Monitoring and Control	Male	165	10.15	4.01
	Female	150	10.03	3.79

The results for monitoring and controlling victimization established that males had a mean of 10.15 with standard deviation of 4.01 while females had a mean of 10.03 with standard deviation of 3.79. To find out if there was a significant difference in the mean frequency scores for monitoring and controlling across gender, an independent sample t-test was conducted, and the findings are as shown in the Table 4.22:

Table 4.22: Independent Sample T-test on Monitoring and Control Victimization across Gender

MCV	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed	.893	.345	.268	313	.789
Equal variances not assumed			.269	312.619	.788

Key: MCV- Monitoring and Controlling victimization

Referring to Table 4.22, Levene's Test for Equality of Variances had an f =.893 at p =.345. The p value (.345) is more than .05, which implies equal variances are assumed. With this background, the t (313) = .268, p=.789 which has a p-value that is above the significance level of .05. We therefore fail to reject the null hypothesis and conclude

that there was no statistically significant difference in the way males and females experience Monitoring and Control abuse.

The third subscale on victimization was sexual coercion. The descriptive statistics is as illustrated in Table 4.23:

Table 4.23: Mean Frequency Scores in Sexual Coercion Victimization across Gender

Victimization subscale	Gender	N	Mean	Std. deviation
Sexual coercion	Male	165	5.72	2.63
	Female	150	5.02	1.86

The findings for sexual coercion victimization showed that males had a mean of 5.72 with standard deviation of 2.63 while females had a mean of 5.02 with standard deviation of 1.86.

To find out if there was a significant difference in the mean frequency scores for sexual coercion victimization across gender, an independent sample t-test was conducted, and the findings are as shown in the Table 4.24:

Table 4.24: Independent Sample T-test in Sexual Coercion Victimization across Gender

SCV	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed	14.755	.000	2.705	313	.007
Equal variances not assumed			2.749	295.744	.006

Key: SCV- Sexual Coercion victimization

Referring to Table 4.24, Levene's Test for Equality of Variances had an f =14.755 at p =<.001. The p value (<.001) is less than .05, which implies equal variances are not assumed. With this background, the t (295) = 2.749, p=.006 indicates a p-value which is less than the significance level of .05. We therefore reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis. This indicates that there was a statistically significant difference in the mean frequency scores for males and females in their sexual coercion victimization implying that males experienced higher and frequent Sexual Coercion victimization than females.

4.6.5 Discussion on Frequency of Perpetration and Victimization among Undergraduate Students in Selected Universities in Nairobi City County

Studies on intimate partner violence have centred on the gender symmetry debates regarding the perpetration and victimization rates by males and females. Feminists have always supported the opinion that intimate partner violence is largely perpetrated by males against females while family violence theorists believe that intimate partner

violence arises out of conflict within relationships. Consequently, family violence theorists opine that even females can be perpetrators of violence against their spouses. (Ali *et al*., 2016). Moreover, different studies show varied results with some indicating that males perpetrate more violence than females and vice versa, yet others registered equal rates of perpetration by males and females.

A descriptive analysis on Cyber Dating Abuse within the past one year among the study sample revealed that some behaviours were more prevalent than others. The results indicate that for perpetration and victimization, monitoring and control abuse was reported as being the most common among both males and females while sexual coercion was the least common.

The results of an independent samples t-test indicated that there were no significant differences in mean frequency scores for direct aggression perpetration for males (M = 10.32, SD =3.51) and females (M = 10.19, SD = 3.07); t (313) =.361, p=.719). There was also no significant effect for gender for Monitoring and Control perpetration t (313) = 1.921, p=.056, despite females (M = 10.10, SD = 3.58) attaining higher scores than males (M = 9.35, SD =3.39). This, therefore, implied that males and females equally perpetrated direct aggression, and monitoring and control.

These findings are at variance with those which indicated that more women/girls perpetrated frequent monitoring and control than men/boys (Reed, 2015, Lucero *et al*., 2014 & Zweig *et al*., 2013). These findings also differ with those by Reed (2015)

which showed that more girls than boys engaged in emotional manipulation or non-physical aggression. All the reviewed studies were four years old or more and had adolescents as their sample. The difference in findings could be because emerging young adults become more assertive as they grow up, unlike adolescents. The females in this study were able to use technology to control their partners.

Given the time differences, with the passing years, women have been fighting for equality and hence becoming more assertive even in their intimate relationships. Evidently the use of digital media provides equal opportunities for females and males to control and monitor each other. Females, therefore, find that they can comfortably challenge the traditionally presumed power dynamics in their relationships without fearing immediate threat of physical violence (Sears, Byers & Price, 2007).

However, the study results indicated that there was a difference in mean frequency scores for sexual coercion perpetration for males ($M = 5.57$, $SD = 2.43$) from that of females ($M = 4.70$, $SD = 1.63$). The t-statistic of 3.758 ($p<.001$) confirmed that this difference was statistically significant. These results indicated that males were more likely than females to perpetrate sexual coercion. This concurs with the findings in a study by Espelage, Low, Anderson, and De La Rue (2014) which found out that boys perpetrated more sexual harassment and sexual dating violence than girls. It was also in harmony with the findings in a study by Zweig *et al*. (2013b) which found out that boys perpetrated sexual cyber dating behaviours more than girls.

The higher rates of sexual abuse perpetration by males than females could be attributed to gender roles socialization which gives male dominance and power over women (Stark, 2006). This was also reflected in reports on intimate relationships where it was noted that among new relationships men were found to be more likely than women to pressurize partners for sex. But the difference could also be due to underreporting by females. The findings from the FGD showed that once partners were comfortable with each other, the females did demand covertly for sex on equal footing with males.

In many cultures gender socialization on sex, expects that females must be passive while males are expected to dominate (Stark,2006). As was evident in the FGD, males were generally more open in discussing sexual matters than females. In conclusion, despite the age and cultural differences in the samples in the reviewed studies and this study, it seems that the gender socialization on sex is similar. Hence, males dominate females in sexual matters as is evident from the findings.

On monitoring and control victimization there was no statistically significant difference in the mean frequency scores (M = 10.15, SD =4.01) from that of females (M = 10.03, SD = 3.79), (t 313=.268, p> 0.05). This concurred with the results from Reed (2015) who found out that there were no differences in frequency of monitoring and controlling victimization among females and males. However, there were differences noted in the mean frequency scores of victimizations for males and females in direct aggression. The results indicated different means for males (M = 10.60, SD =3.74) from that of females (M = 9.79, SD = 2.99). The t statistic of 2.123 (p=.035) indicated that the differences in

mean frequency scores were statistically significant. The results implied that males were more likely than females to suffer frequent direct aggression victimization. This finding was expected, given that according to gender socialization and norms, females were expected to be passive and were likely to resort to emotional aggression as an acceptable way to challenge power structures. (Ringrose, 2008).

These findings tally with those from a study by Leisring and Giometti, (2014), who found out that men suffered more severe electronic aggression than women. But it differs from this study in that it only measured severe acts of electronic aggression like financial control and surveillance. These behaviours were not included in the measure in this study. This study's findings, however, differ with those from a study by Reed (2015) which indicated that there were no statistically significant differences in the mean frequency score for direct aggression for girls and boys.

The results on sexual coercion victimization established mean frequency scores for males (M = 5.72, SD =2.63) and (M = 5.02, SD = 1.86) for females. The t statistic of 2.75 (p=.006) indicated that this difference was statistically significant. This finding shows that males were more likely than females to report frequent sexual coercion victimization. This differs with the findings in the study by Reed (2015) which showed that girls reported more frequent sexual coercion victimization. The respondents in Reed's study were, however, high school students. Probably at their relatively young age the boys were more dominating over the girls in accordance to gender socialization which traditionally assumed more power for males over females. However, in line with

gender socialization, it would have been expected that females in this study would have reported more sexual coercion victimization than males.

The above finding was surprising in the sense that traditionally females were socialized to be submissive. This finding could be attributed to the fact that the emerging young females might be more assertive than males due to their contemporary exposure. Also, it could be attributed to the fact that the use of technology afforded females a means of sexually expressing themselves more freely than they would normally do if digital media was to be removed from their socialization. This, therefore, explains why they pressurized their partners to sext, sent them sexually suggestive messages to coerce them to engage in sexual activities online or sent them sexual photos without being asked to. According to Reed (2015), females were likely to do this to attract their partners' attention and to be sexually appealing to them. This possibly explains why the males in this study suffered more sexual coercion abuse than the females.

4.6.6 Gender Differences on Victimization Responses to CDA

The study further sought to find out how males and females responded to CDA victimization. This was conducted by asking them to state how such behaviours in their relationships made them feel. Respondents were asked for their response to the most recent incident of each behaviour to assess their consequences. The study utilised the Kessler K 6 psychological distress scale to measure levels of CDA distress (refer to appendix 1, Part Two, section D page 224). The scale is a 6-item distress scale used to

measure levels of anxiety and depressive symptoms in the past among the general population. It assesses the frequency of psychological distress within a reference period.

The respondents were asked to consider instances when they had suffered from CDA in the past one year and state how frequently they had experienced the following: felt nervous, hopeless, restless, worthless, depressed (Kessler *et al*., 2002). Responses for the six items were coded 0 for 'none of the time' to 4 for ' all the time'. Scores ranged from 0 to 24. A score of below five was considered none or low level of distress; 5-12 was moderate while 13 or more was high level of distress. The scale had recorded excellent internal consistency and reliability Cronbach's alpha = 0.89 (Kessler *et al*., 2002). A reliability analysis was done and the Cronbach's alpha for this scale was 0.85. The findings of the distress scale scores were as presented in Table 4.25:

Table 4.25: Descriptive Statistics for Levels of Distress across Gender

Gender	Distress scores	Frequency	Valid Percentage
Male	0-4	47	28.5
	5-12	76	46.0
	13-24	42	25.5
	Total	**165**	**100.0**
Female	0-4	35	23.5
	5-12	67	51.7
	13-24	47	24.8
	Total	**149**	**100.0**

Descriptive statistics show that 28.5% of males experienced low levels of distress; 46% experienced moderate levels while 25.5% experienced high levels of distress. For the females, 23.5% experienced low levels; 51.7% experienced moderate levels while

24.8% experienced high levels of distress. The analysis of individual items on the distress scale indicated that for both males and females, the most frequently experienced CDA consequences were anxiety, depression and fear as reported by over a half of the respondents. The results are as illustrated in Figure 4.3:

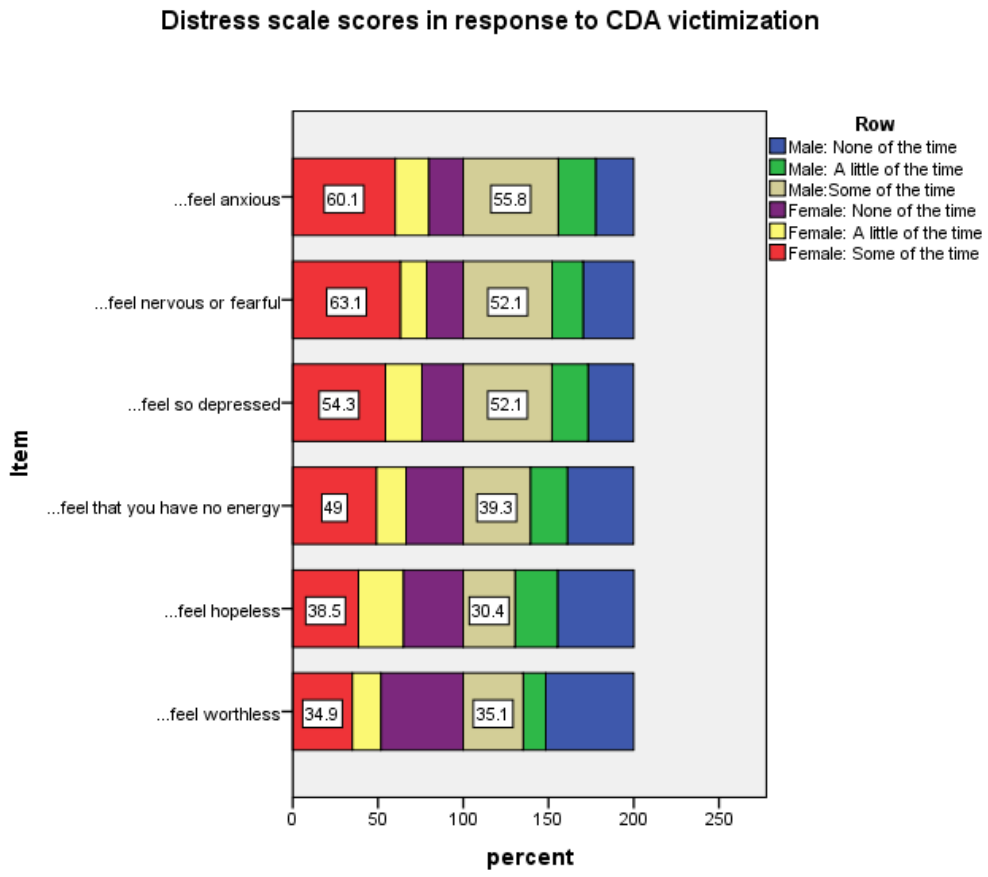

Figure 4.3: Distress scale scores in response to CDA victimization

As illustrated in Figure 4.3, the negative effect most frequently experienced by 63.1% of female respondents and 52.1% of males was fear or nervousness. 60.1% of females and 55.8% of males experienced anxiety.54.3% of the females and 52.1% males

suffered depression. Over a third of the respondents suffered from hopelessness, feeling worthless and having no energy. These findings are consistent with those by Harned (2001) who found out that men and women who suffered physical and psychological IPV reported a similar degree of depressive and anxious symptoms at low intensities of aggression. Another study by Fergusson *et al*. (2005) also found out that both male and female victims of IPV suffered increased depression and anxiety. This however was a contrast to findings by Romito and Grassi (2007) who asserted that IPV had no influence on males' depressive and panic symptoms.

The study hypothesized that there was no significant difference in response to CDA across gender among students in selected universities in Nairobi City County. A Pearson correlation coefficient was conducted to examine the relationship between distress and frequency of direct aggression victimization. The Pearson correlation coefficient of r (165) =.234, p=.003 indicated that there was a significant positive, though weak correlation, between the two variables for males while a correlation coefficient of r (148) =.133, p=.108 indicated that there was no correlation between the two variables for females. We therefore reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis and conclude that there was a difference in response to direct aggression. Males were likely to suffer more distress with frequent victimization unlike the females. This implied that for the males, distress increased with repetitive abuse which might occur as a result of having a partner who is controlling and practices coercive control violence. According to Johnson (1995), traditionally males are empowered to dominate and control females. This may therefore explain why men

seemed to suffer more distress when they found themselves in relationships where their partners were domineering. However, no correlation was established between the frequency of direct aggression and distress for the females. Also, a study by Bennett *et al*. (2011) did not indicate any association between frequent direct aggression with distress. Bennett speculated that as part of their sample of college students experienced more digital dating abuse, cognitive dissonance caused them to anticipate the abusive behaviours to be increasingly less distressing. This could explain why there was no correlation between the frequency of direct aggression and distress for the females in this study. This was because females might be accustomed to the traditional patriarchal expectations of having males control them. Hence, they were not affected by increased frequent direct aggression.

On the contrary, it could be that the females did not need repetitive direct aggression to suffer distress. Some CDA acts do not necessarily need to be done repeatedly for them to cause emotional distress to a victim. Indeed, for romantic partners, behaviours like sending a partner a humiliating/insulting message and threats of physical harm in just one incident is adequate to obtain desired effect, particularly when it is aimed at psychologically harming a partner and causing them emotional distress. The fact that it is done by an affectionate mate makes it even worse. Research findings show that respondents do experience greater psychological distress from victimization by a dating partner than from a friend (Bennet *et al*., 2011) or even from a stranger for that matter. Also, this study revealed that females were more likely to block their partners when experiencing threats of any kind. They were also likely to engage with them showing

that even occasional cases of direct aggression were taken seriously. Hence, they were enough to cause them emotional distress. This concurred with the assertion by Reed (2015), that some behaviour like threats of physical harm through technology was harmful and abusive even when they occurred in single episodes.

To establish the relationship between distress arising from CDA and frequency of monitoring and control victimization, a Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient was computed. The Pearson correlation coefficient of r (165) =.172, p=.027 indicated that there was a significant positive, though weak correlation, between the two variables for the males. The correlation coefficient of r (149) =.241, p=.003 indicated a significant positive, though weak correlation, between the two variables for the females. The results, therefore, indicated that there was a relationship between frequent monitoring and control victimization and higher level of distress for both males and females. We therefore fail to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is no difference in males' and females' response to monitoring and control. This implied that for both, frequent monitoring and control abuse was associated with higher levels of distress.

This is consistent with findings in a study by Reed (2015) that found that both boys and girls experienced greater distress with greater frequency of monitoring/controlling abuse. This implied that repetitive monitoring and control experienced by individuals was problematic and increased the level of distress, which was not the case with isolated cases of monitoring and control like what happens in instances of situational

couple violence. Repetitive monitoring and control could be attributed to those partners who practised coercive control violence as a means of obtaining and maintaining power over their partners which explained the higher distress experienced by victims.

A Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient of r (165) =.141, p=.071 indicated that there was no significant correlation between distress arising from CDA and the frequency of sexual coercion victimization for males. A correlation coefficient of r (149) =-.003, p=.976 also found no significant correlation between the two variables for the females. The results, therefore, implied that there was no relationship between the frequency of sexual coercion victimization and distress for both males and females. We therefore fail to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is no difference in response for males and females to sexual coercion.

Sexual coercion was the least experienced form of CDA victimization. The lack of correlation could be attributed to the fact that even in occasional cases, sexual coercion was negatively perceived by the respondents. This was in consonance with the assertion by Reed (2015), that some behaviours like pressurizing a partner to engage in sexual activity were harmful and abusive even when they occurred in single episodes. Also, Sorenson and Thomas (2009) found out that intimate partner violence victims perceived acts of sexual and physical violence more negatively than psychological violence.

Equally, the female respondents in this study negatively perceived sexual coercion and this could explain why more females than males were likely to block their partners from

gaining access to them in response to sexual coercion victimization. For the females, this response was a protective measure for shielding themselves against further harm. But, in response to this act, more males than females were likely to engage their partners to express their displeasure. This was in line with their gender socialization where males exhibited their masculinity by remaining in charge even in their romantic affairs.

Further, the respondents were asked to indicate their likely reaction to the 16 items on the victimization scale, whether they had experienced them or not. They were presented with four options of possible emotional and behavioural responses. On emotional responses, they were asked to choose whether they reacted to CDA by being dismissive, that is, ignoring or just laughing off the behaviours; or if the abuse upset them, that is, if they felt angry, sad, embarrassed and worried. The behavioural response included engagement which could involve one getting into an argument with the partner over the act, talking about it with the partner, threatening a partner with breakup, sharing with someone about it or revenging by doing something nasty to them through technology. The behavioural response could also involve blocking access which included one cutting communication with their partner or denying their partner access to themselves by blocking their phone numbers, switching off their phones to avoid communication, blocking them on social media, and ignoring them in person.

A cross tabulation was carried out to obtain the percentages for the responses to CDA. The findings indicated that the majority of the participants (both males and females)

were generally likely to be dismissive of all the CDA behaviours save for the acts involving perpetrators accessing their partners' accounts without their consent or sending humiliating messages and snooping on their partners' messages. This was found to be upsetting to the females. However, more males were likely to be upset than being dismissive to their partners' act of spreading rumours, gossip and jokes about them. Furthermore, a chi-square test of independence was conducted on all items to find out if there was a connection between gender and response to CDA. The results indicated an association for only 4 items out of the 16 items on victimization scale. The results are as shown in Table 4.26 (Refer to Appendix XIV, pg. 239-240).

Despite these findings showing that there was a differential gender response to the four acts, generally more males than females were likely to be dismissive of all CDA behaviours. The males did not consider these acts of abuse as being serious and hence were likely to laugh them off or just ignore them. This implied that males largely perceived CDA as being harmless. This could be attributed to the influence of gender socialization. Dardis *et al*. (2015) found out that males considered abusive acts to be less problematic than females. This was because violence and aggression were consistent with the masculine role and might be considered more socially acceptable by men than by women.

The findings further indicate that there was a relationship between gender and response to partners spreading rumours, gossip and jokes about the other to ridicule them (X^2 (3, N=297) =11.65, p= .009). The computed value of chi-square is 11.654 while the table

chi-square value at alpha .05 and the degrees of freedom is 7.815. Since the computed chi-square value is higher than the table value, it means there was a statistically significant relationship between gender and response to partners spreading rumours to ridicule the other. It was found that females were twice as likely as males to engage their partners. They were also likely to confront their partners to talk about it; share with their friends or at times use technology to take revenge. In serious cases, they would threaten their partners with break-ups or eventually break up. In some instances, aggrieved females ganged with friends to harass their partners through social media as a way of revenge.

This concurred with findings in a study by Kellerman *et al*. (2013) who found out that females resorted more to non-physical aggression than males as the only socially acceptable way to challenge existing power structures. This explained the females' responses to direct aggression from their partners. However, more males were likely to be upset by this act than being dismissive. This differed with the findings in Reed's study (2015) which found out that girls were more likely than boys to be upset by this behaviour. This would be expected as girls were deemed to be powerless and so were bound to feel upset by this. However, the males' reaction in this study could be attributed to their gender socialization. It was expected that males dominated in their relationships thus they were likely to resent this kind of relational aggression from their partners. This could explain why more males than females were likely to be angered and upset by this kind of behaviour.

Additionally, the results indicated that gender connection was found with response to a partner sending the other threats about physical harm. The findings as shown in Table 4.26, indicated that there was a relationship between the two variables (X^2 (3, N=295) =9.87, p= .020). The computed value of chi-square is 9.867 while the table chi-square value at alpha .05 and the degrees of freedom is 7.815. Since the computed chi-square value is higher than the table value, it means there was a statistically significant relationship between gender and response to threats about physical harm.

In reaction to this behaviour, more males than females were dismissive, implying that they did not take this seriously. However, more females than males were offended and were likely to isolate the abusive partners from themselves by blocking access to their phones, social media and in some instances avoiding them in person. This avoidance was likely to lead to victim's behavioural academic disengagement when their perpetrator was studying in the same institution.

The finding that females were found to be offended by threats of physical threats was consistent with that in a study by Phelan *et al*. (2005) which found out that more women than men were afraid of physical aggression from their partners. This differential response among males and females could be attributed to the influence of gender. Cultural norms granted men power over women coupled by the fact that men were on average physically stronger than women. This could explain why more males than females were dismissive of this act. Unlike males, however, females were easily intimidated and afraid of any kind of threats, particularly those of physical harm.

Consequently, they were likely to avoid contact with their partners digitally by blocking access to them to protect themselves from more hostility.

Also, results on Table 4.26 indicated that gender was found to relate to the response to partners being pressurized to engage in sexual activities online. Here, the findings indicated that there was a relationship between the two variables (X^2 (3, N= 307) =14.91, p= .002). The computed value of chi-square here was 14.908 while the table chi-square value at alpha .05 and the degrees of freedom was 7.815. Since the computed chi-square value is higher than the table value, this means there was a statistically significant relationship between gender and response to pressure to engage in sexual activities online. Equally the chi-square value of X^2 (3, N= 304) =9.68, p= .022 indicated that gender was statistically associated with response to partners pressurizing others to send them sexual photo/video or them sending their partners sexual photo/video they did not want/ask for.

In reaction to sexual coercion acts, more males than females were dismissive choosing to ignore them or just laugh them off. More males than females also talked to their partners about it or argued about it. The findings from the FGD showed that males who were newly dating were not very comfortable with a lady initiating sex, pressurizing for sexts or sending sexual photos and videos. Such females were criticized. This was because they were negatively perceived to be of loose morals. However, when partners had known each other for some time, if a male wasn't comfortable, they would just talk over it with their partner to express their displeasure. Another reason for engagement

was that some respondents considered this act to be against their religious teachings and, therefore, were uncomfortable and so there was a need for them to discuss it with their partners. Also, a study by Lippman and Campbell (2014) found out that girls were harshly judged, whether they sexted or not, and were given names like ‘sluts’ and ‘prudes’ respectively. This pointed to the societal gender bias in which double standards were applied in differently judging females’ and males’ use of technology, thereby perpetuating existing gender norms and stereotypes.

However, females were twice more likely than males to react to sexual coercion by blocking their partners. This meant that they could not be accessed on their social networks and through phone calls. Some ignored them in person. The findings thus indicated that more females than males were against sexual coercion abuse in dating which tallied with the gendered socialization norms. In most societies, cultural norms granted men more power over women because women were normally expected to be passive. Thus, many men had the tendency to dominate and take control in their sexual relationships, hence the basis for sexual coercion. The assumed male rights to have power over females in patriarchal cultures increased the likelihood of sexual coercion (Edwards, Dhingra, McKnight-Eily & Parry, 2009). This dominance made females to feel helpless and in resentment, to block their partners as a preventive measure to stop the abuse.

The results indicated that response to CDA was gendered. This implied that males and females responded differently to CDA victimization. Males were found to be largely

dismissive of many of the CDA behaviours while females were found to be reactive to aggressive behaviours and sexual abuse. These behaviours were upsetting to females. Despite the fact that sexual coercion was the least common abuse among these respondents, it nevertheless had negative consequences especially among females. This therefore meant that it could not just be dismissed and taken lightly as a norm among dating students.

4.7 The Relationship between Cyber Dating Abuse and Academic Engagement of Kenyan University Students

Academic engagement was measured using the University Student Engagement Inventory (*USEI*) adapted and modified from Maroco *et al*. (2016) (see Appendix 1, Part Three, page 225). The USEI is a three-factor construct whose components are: behavioural, cognitive and emotional. This study focused on the behavioural and emotional constructs only. The scales consist of a total of 12 items, 6 on behavioural and 6 on emotional construct. The responses to the items were: strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree and strongly agree. Strongly disagree was scored as 1 while strongly agree scored as 5. A higher score was interpreted to mean a higher level of engagement while a lower score implied a lower level of engagement. The Cronbach's alpha for the academic engagement scale was .906. For the subscales, the behavioural academic engagement had a Cronbach's alpha of .909 while the emotional academic engagement had a Cronbach's alpha of .828. This was deemed to be good (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003).

4.7.1 Influence of CDA Victimization on the Behavioural Components of Academic Engagement

The study sought to find out if there was a relationship between victimization rates and distress experienced by the victims. Also, it investigated whether there was a relationship between distress experienced and behavioural academic engagement. A Pearson Coefficient correlation was conducted, and the results are as illustrated in Table 4.27:

Table 4.27: Correlation between Distress and CDA Victimization

		Distress Scores	**CDA victimization**
Distress Scores	Pearson Correlation	1	.195**
	Sig.(2-tailed)		.000
	N	314	314
CDA victimization	Pearson Correlation	.195**	1
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.000	
	N	314	314

** Correlation is significant at the 001 level (2-tailed)

Table 4.27 shows the results of a Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient computed to indicate the relationship between CDA victimization and distress. A Pearson correlation coefficient of r (314) = .195, p=<.001 indicated that there was a significant positive, though weak, association between CDA victimization and distress. This implied that an increase in CDA victimization was associated with higher distress among cyber dating abuse victims.

Table 4.28: Correlation between Distress and Behavioural Academic Engagement

		Distress Scores	Behavioural academic engagement
Distress Scores	Pearson Correlation Sig.(2-tailed) N	1 314	-.137* .015 314
Behavioural academic engagement	Pearson Correlation Sig.(2-tailed) N	-.137* .015 314	1 314

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

Table 4.28 shows the results of a Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient computed to indicate the relationship between behavioural academic engagement and distress. A Pearson correlation coefficient of r (314) = -.137, p = 015 indicated that there was a significant negative, though weak, association between distress and behavioural academic engagement. This implied that higher distress levels were associated with lower behavioural academic engagement.

Table 4.29: Correlation between CDA Victimization and Behavioural Academic Engagement

		CDA victimization	Behavioural academic engagement
CDA victimization	Pearson Correlation Sig.(2-tailed) N	1 315	-.193** .001 315
Behavioural academic engagement	Pearson Correlation Sig.(2-tailed) N	-.193** .001 315	1 315

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.29 shows the results of a Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient computed to indicate the relationship between CDA victimization and behavioural academic engagement. A Pearson correlation coefficient of r (315) =-.193, p=.001 indicated that there was a negative correlation between CDA victimization and behavioural academic engagement. This implied that higher CDA victimization was correlated with lower behavioural academic engagement. This association, though, is a weak one. A visual display of the relationship between CDA victimization and behavioural academic engagement is further illustrated using a scatter plot in Figure 4.4:

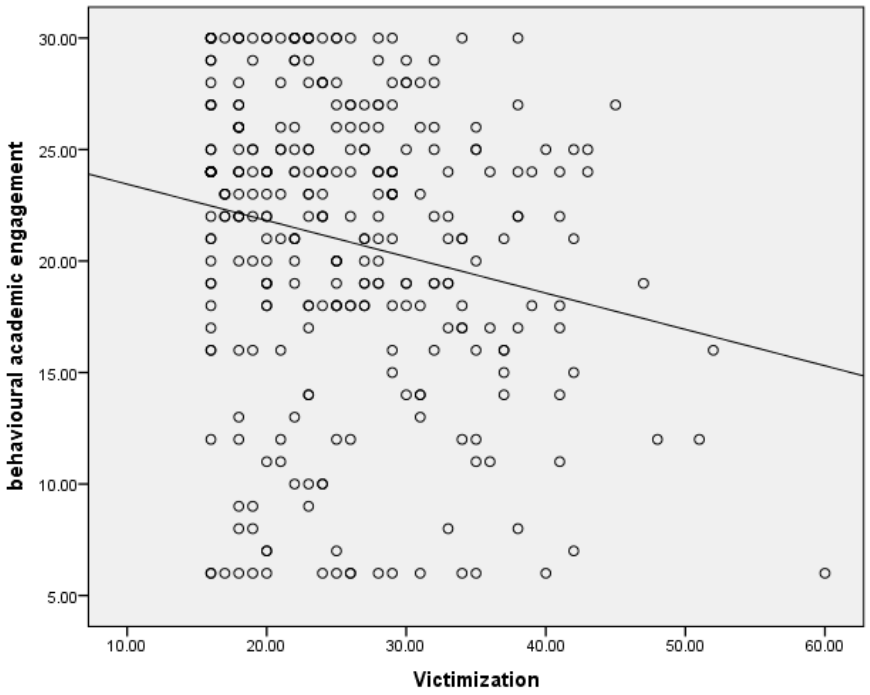

Figure 4.4: Scatter plot on behavioural academic engagement and victimization

4.7.2 The influence of CDA Victimization on Emotional Components of Academic Engagement

Table 4.30: Correlation between Distress and Emotional Academic Engagement

		Distress Scores	Emotional academic engagement
Distress Scores	Pearson Correlation Sig.(2-tailed) N	1 314	-.025 .653 314
Emotional academic engagement	Pearson Correlation Sig.(2-tailed) N	-.025 .653 314	1 315

Table 4.30 illustrates the results of a Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient computed to indicate the relationship between behavioural academic engagement and distress. A Pearson correlation coefficient of r (314) = -.025, p = 653 indicated that there was a weak negative association between emotional academic engagement and distress. This relationship though was insignificant.

Table 4.31: Correlation between CDA Victimization and Emotional Academic Engagement

		Distress Scores	Behavioural academic engagement
CDA victimization	Pearson Correlation Sig.(2-tailed) N	1 315	-.075 .183 315
Emotional academic engagement	Pearson Correlation Sig.(2-tailed) N	-.075 .183 315	1 315

Table 4.31 illustrates the results of a Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient computed to establish the relationship between CDA victimization and emotional

academic engagement. A Pearson correlation coefficient of r (315) =-.075, p=.183 implied that there was no relationship between CDA victimization and emotional academic engagement. A visual display of the relationship between CDA victimization and emotional academic engagement is further illustrated using a Scatter plot in Figure 4.5:

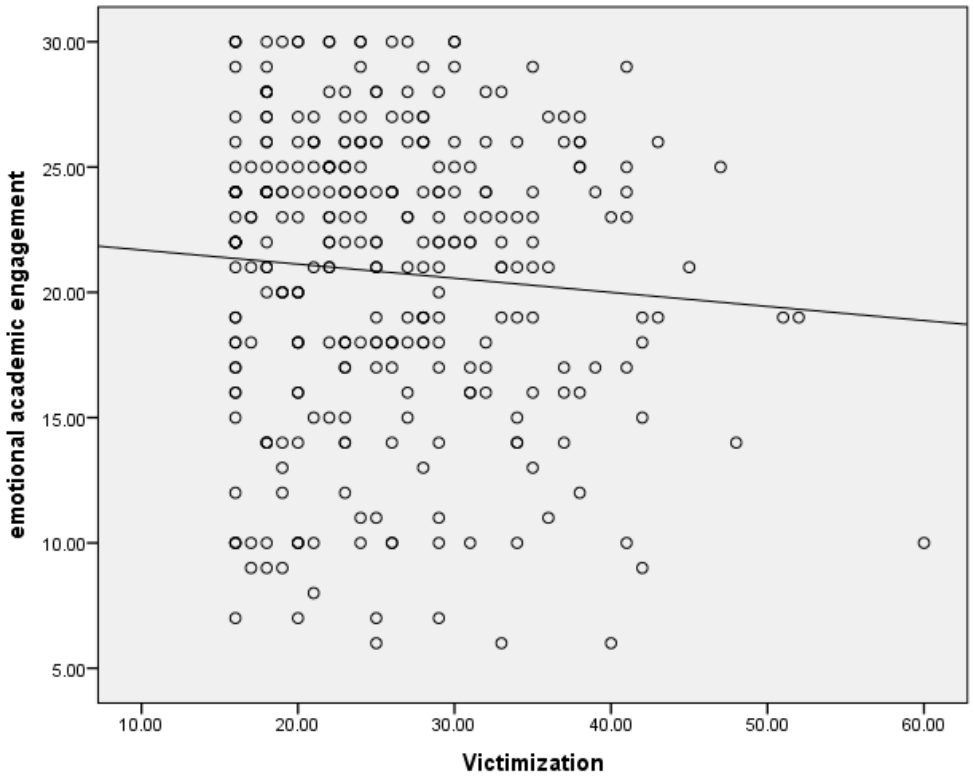

Figure 4.5: Scatter Plot on Emotional Academic Engagement and Victimization

Respondents were also asked questions on Likert scale items whether their partners had used technology to control who they studied with or had academic group discussions with. They were also asked whether conflicts arising from use of technology had led

them to skip classes, to hand in assignments late and to lose interest in their studies. The findings are as illustrated in Table 4.32:

Table 4.32: The Effect of Conflicts due to use of Technology on Behavioural and Emotional Academic Engagement of Respondents

Item	Yes	No	1-2 times	More than 3 times
Has use of technology led to a conflict leading to your skipping classes?	84(26.7%)	231(73.3%)	58(18.4%)	26(8.3%)
Have you ever missed doing as assignment or handed it in late due to conflict caused by use of technology?	84(26.7%)	231(73.3%)	63(20%)	21(6.7%)
Has your partner used technology to monitor and control who you hold academic discussions with?	70(22.2%)	276(87.6%)	30(9.5%)	9(2.9%)
Have conflicts due to use of technology made you lose interest in your University work?	39(12.4%)	276(87.6%)	30(9.5%)	9(2.9%)

Source: Field data, 2019

The results indicate that CDA victimization had led to 84 (26.7%) of the respondents to skip classes. Similarly, 26.7% had missed doing assignments or handed them in late. Further, 39 (12.4%) had lost interest in their studies while 70 (22.2%) had used technology to control who they studied with or had academic group discussions with.

4.7.3 Discussions on Influence of CDA Victimization on Academic Engagement

The study sought to examine the relationship between CDA and academic engagement of Kenyan University students. It was an investigation intended to determine how the prevalence of CDA victimization influenced academic engagement. This was based on the assumption that distress which arose from CDA victimization could either lower or increase level of academic engagement. As envisaged, the results indicated a significant positive relationship between CDA victimization and distress *(r* (314) = .195, *p*=<.001) among undergraduate students in selected Universities in Nairobi City County. These results implied that individuals who experienced higher CDA victimization exhibited more distress.

However, although the Pearson's correlation results indicated that distress was negatively correlated with emotional academic engagement (*r* (314) = -.025, *p* = 653) among undergraduate students, they were not statistically significant. This indicated that there was no correlation between distress and emotional academic engagement. However, results indicated that there was a significant negative correlation between distress and behavioural academic engagement *(r* (314) = -.137, *p* = 015) among undergraduate students. This implied that respondents who experienced higher levels of distress exhibited lower levels of behavioural academic engagement.

The findings in this study, therefore, indicated that higher CDA victimization was associated with higher distress levels. This was related to lower behavioural academic engagement. Also, a study by Daslaluk (2016) showed that CDA increased distress and

had a negative impact on a victim's daily life. Equally, a study by Bennet *et al*. (2011) found out that CDA by dating partner resulted in great psychological distress for the victims. This finding is expected given that 74.5% of males and 75.2% of females reported to suffer mild to high levels of distress following victimization. The low behavioural academic engagement associated with distress could be attributed to the anxiety, depression and fear experienced by the victims. This most likely made it difficult for students to work with others. It also probably made others want to skip classes and even when they attended, they could not fully concentrate.

Further, a Pearson's correlation of r (315) =-.193, p=.001 indicated a significant negative relationship between CDA victimization and behavioural academic engagement among the target undergraduate students. These findings implied that higher frequencies of victimization were related to lower behavioural academic engagement. This indicated that respondents who experienced higher CDA victimization exhibited lower levels of behavioural academic engagement. The r value of 0.193 is close to the 0.20 that is the minimum recommended effect size for practical significance (Ferguson, 2009). On the contrary, the Pearson's correlation results did not indicate a relationship between victimization and emotional academic engagement *(r* (315) =-.075, p=.183) among the undergraduate students. These results therefore indicated that whereas there was no correlation between CDA victimization and emotional academic engagement; higher levels of CDA victimization were associated with decreased behavioural school engagement. Further analysis showed that about a fifth of the respondents endorsed the items relating to conflicts that arose from use of

technology and which had led to academic disengagement. 26.7% of the respondents reported that they had missed doing an assignment or handed in their assignment late and had skipped classes; a minority 12.4% had lost interest in their University studies and 22.2% had been controlled by their partners using technology on who they held academic discussions with.

These results contrasted with those by Hancock (2014) which did not find a link between cyber dating harassment and academic engagement. The study sample in the case of Hancock (2014), however, were first year University students aged 17-19. Nevertheless, the results in this study tend to concur with findings by Schnurr *et al*. (2013) whose study indicated a relationship between cyber harassment and academic engagement. Hancock's (2014) study respondents were first year University students while the respondents in the study by Schurr *et al*. (2013) were secondary school students. Hancock attributed the lack of correlation to the fact that the respondents in her study had long distant relationships so there was no likelihood of them avoiding their victims and school to lead to academic disengagement. However, the victims and perpetrators in the study by Schnurr and colleagues went to the same school, probably explaining the link between harassment and academic disengagement.

In this study, it was conceptualised that a victim would want to avoid the perpetrator in person if attending the same University and sharing classes, hence leading to behavioural academic disengagement. It was also conceptualised that even when not studying in the same University, the distress arising from conflicts perpetrated through

technology would lead to individuals becoming academically disengaged both behaviourally and emotionally. As envisaged in this study, CDA victimization was related to behavioural disengagement but not emotional disengagement. This could be attributed to several factors.

First, as revealed in the FGD, some respondents had their partners in the same University and a few belonged to the same school or faculty. Consequently, descriptive statistics indicated that over a quarter of the participants occasionally skipped classes as they avoided their partners in person and this led to behavioural academic disengagement. From the FGD, some of the victims of revenge porn narrated how they skipped classes for some few days following their victimization. They did this to avoid being in contact with not only their partners but also their classmates after their private photos and videos went viral. Results also indicate that 22.2% of the respondents had controlling partners who dictated on who to associate with during their group study. This led some of the respondents to avoid group discussions with some individuals thereby contributing to behavioural academic disengagement.

Besides, even when they were not studying in the same University and school, the distress arising from CDA victimization led to behavioural academic disengagement among the respondents. The descriptive results indicated that over a quarter of both males and females experienced high levels of distress. Also, a Pearson Correlation coefficient of r (312) =.195, $p < .001$ indicated that CDA victimization was positively correlated to distress. The r value that is close to 0.20 is interpreted to be practically

significant. This distress could be the reason why over a quarter (26.7%) of the respondents failed to do their assignments on time or handed them in late hence an indication of behavioural disengagement among them. The psychological distress experienced by victims of CDA could likely account for low concentration among them, and this affected their ability to learn in the classroom. This, in turn, explains the behavioural disengagement experienced by CDA victims as indicated by the results.

However, there was no correlation found between victimization and emotional academic engagement. According to Fredricks *et al*. (2004) emotional engagement represented students' positive and negative relationships with teachers, peers and school community in general. The kind of romantic affairs students were engaged in were largely personal and could explain why the affairs did not affect their academic relationship with teachers and peers. Although a few cases were reported of peers making revenge porn go viral, such cases were not so widespread. Furthermore, despite the social embarrassment to victims, these cases probably did not affect the victims' emotional relationship with their peers. Given that most of the victims had willingly shared their private photos and videos probably made them not to blame their peers for spreading them.

Besides, most of the conflicts arising from CDA were very personal in nature. Hence, they did not affect the victims' emotional relationships with their classmates and the University in general. This probably explains why there was no correlation between CDA victimization and emotional academic engagement of victims. It could also be that

some of the respondents dated partners who were not in the same University or school. Hence, victimization did not have a direct impact on the victims' emotional academic engagement. In any case, over a half of the respondents did not perceive most of the CDA acts to be abusive. This could explain why CDA victimization did not affect their emotional connections with school so as to negatively impact their emotional academic engagement.

Findings in this study show that the use of digital technologies among undergraduate students provides them with an opportunity for perpetrators to control, harass and degrade their partners. This, in turn, was found to negatively impact on the victims' participation in academic tasks. Of particular concern was that CDA victims were found to exhibit lower behavioural academic engagement. This was worrisome as research has indicated that low academic engagement was likely, in the long term, to affect students' academic progress which negatively impacts on their graduation rates and academic performance (Schnurr *et al*., 2013). Therefore, this called for the need to adopt strategies that could be instituted to inform prevention and intervention programmes to bring CDA to an end.

4.8 Strategies to Mitigate on Effects of Cyber Dating Abuse on Academic Engagement among Kenyan University Students

Based on the previous researches as outlined in the reviewed literature and based on the indicated findings of this study, it became apparent that CDA victimization had negative effects on victims' academic engagement. Consequently, the study sought to

establish strategies that could be adopted to mitigate the effects of CDA on academic engagement of Kenyan University students. The respondents were asked to show the extent to which they agreed to statements on strategies that could be adopted (Appendix 1, Part Two, Section E page 224). The responses were: strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree and strongly agree. The findings of the study were as follows:

4.8.1 The need for Awareness Training on CDA and its Prevention

The respondents were asked to show the extent to which they agreed to the need for awareness creation among students and lecturers. Their responses are illustrated in Figure 4.6:

Should Universities offer awareness training on CDA and its prevention?

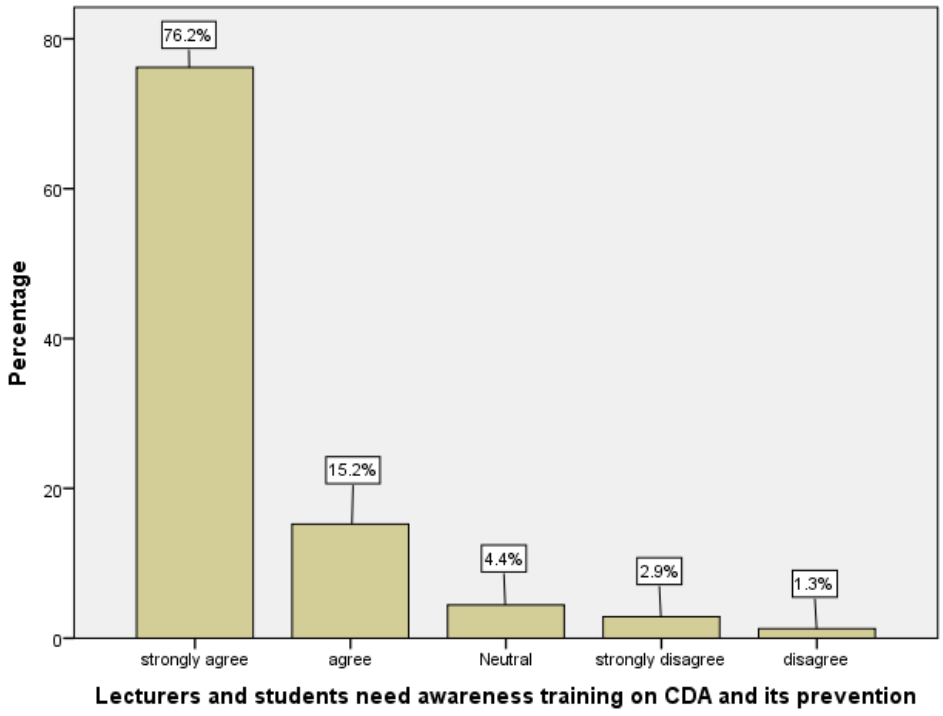

Figure 4.6: Need for Awareness Training on CDA

Figure 4.6 indicates that 76.2% of the respondents strongly agreed that awareness training was necessary while 15.2% agreed of its necessity. A small number (4.4%) were neutral, while 2.9% strongly disagreed and 1.3% disagreed. From the focus group discussions and interviews with the Deans of Students and Student Counsellors, the respondents echoed the need for awareness training on CDA. The Dean of Students for Multimedia University of Kenya asserted the need for the training to be educational so that students could be helped to understand the serious risks one might encounter in the cyber world. He affirmed that students needed to know how to develop healthy relationships and to understand the risks they got exposed to by what they did or said in cyber space.

Also, the students needed to be educated on why and where to seek for help in case they fell victims of CDA. This was crucial because 71.4% of 234 CDA victims in this study reported that had not sought help. Some of the reasons cited were ignorance, with participants reporting that they thought CDA was a normal thing in relationships. Also, they did not know that they needed help while others said they did not know or see an appropriate person to seek help from.

Even though a Student Code of Conduct, social media policy and student support services such as counselling existed in the Universities, some students seemed ignorant of these. The students suggested rather than being given booklets containing this information (many confessed they hardly read the booklets and only got to know of the rules and regulations when facing disciplinary action), the Universities could consider

mentioning the rules and providing direction of where they could obtain support services during orientation programs for first years and also do periodic reminders on the same. The students in FGD also affirmed the need for sensitization on responsible use of technology and the danger of online dating.

Students in CUEA called for a continued sensitization on relationship matters by invited speakers to the University. A respondent from the female FGD suggested that to ensure that all students benefited from the talks, especially first years, they should be made mandatory for all students rather than have attendance on voluntary basis. A participant from KU male FGD stated that although such events were organized by the University, the turn up by the students was usually low. He was, therefore, of the opinion that the University could organize these forums as 'fun musical gigs' by inviting celebrities as part of the event, then utilise the opportunity to pass the crucial information.

4.8.2 The need to Develop Policies to Handle CDA Cases

The respondents were asked to show their level of agreement to whether they thought there was need for Universities to develop policies to handle CDA cases. The responses were as highlighted in Figure 4.7:

Should Universities develop policies to handle CDA cases?

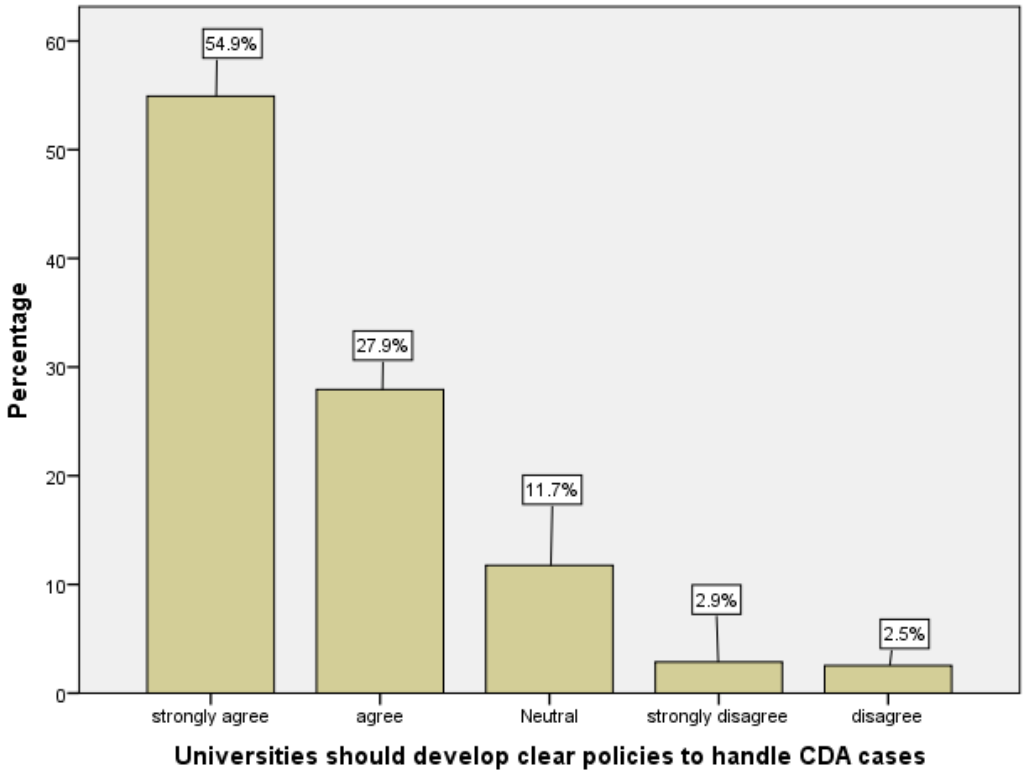

Figure 4.7: Need to Develop Policies to Handle CDA Cases

The responses to this question indicated that 54.9% of the respondents strongly agreed that it was necessary for Universities to develop policies on CDA while 27.9% agreed. A minority (11.7%) were neutral, 9 (2.9%) strongly disagreed with 8 (2.5%) disagreeing.

The findings from the interview with the Deans of Students MMU and CUEA revealed that the Universities did not have specific social media policy to deal with CDA but rather relied on the Student Code of Conduct to deal with any issues that were disciplinary in nature. The Dean of Students MMU suggested that Universities should think of coming up with social media policies. This should be developed with students' contributions so that they become acceptable to them. Once the policies are in place they could be implemented, and students sensitized on them. Clear penalties should be stipulated and executed for students who breach them.

However, although Kenyatta University had a social media policy many students were ignorant of its existence, with only 46 (42.9%) of 107 reporting that they were aware of its existence. Worse still, even when participants were victims of CDA they were reluctant to report such incidents to relevant authorities.

4.8.3 The need to Encourage Affected Students to Seek Guidance and Counselling Services

The respondents were asked whether affected students should be encouraged to seek guidance and counselling services. The responses are as highlighted in Figure 4.8:

Should affected students to be encouraged to seek guidance and counselling services?

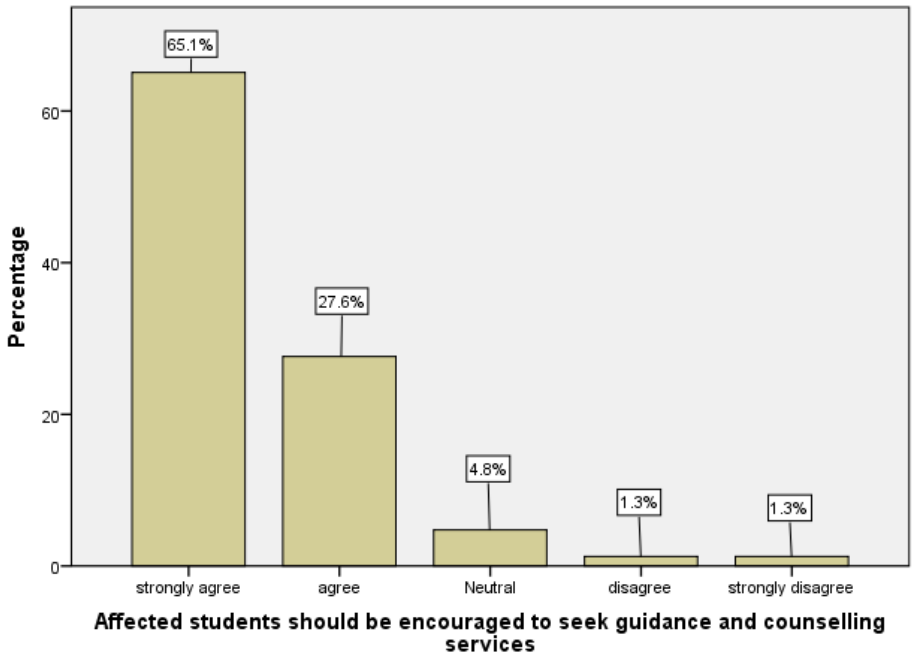

Figure 4.8: Need to Seek Guidance and Counselling Services

The response to this question indicated that 65.1% strongly agreed that students should be encouraged to seek guidance and counselling while 27.6% agreed. A minority (4.8%) were neutral, while 1.3% strongly disagreed as another 1.3% disagreed. This trend was seen in the focus group discussion where most participants felt that victims of CDA should seek guidance and counselling. However, they rarely did this even when they thought it would be of help. They revealed that they did not seek help citing several reasons: some of them felt shy about asking for help; some were embarrassed to share their experiences; some lacked the courage to seek help; some were afraid of disclosure, feeling that sharing with someone would expose them further; some felt that

CDA victimization was a private matter which they could handle themselves; some believed seeking help would make matters worse. Besides, some suggested that they preferred speaking to a peer counsellor rather than the main University Counsellor for fear of being exposed. One such instance was the case of the student whose nudes were shared, who opted to speak to a peer counsellor rather than the University Counsellor.

Nevertheless, a few students still sought help from the University Counsellors especially in serious cases where a partner was controlling. In KU, in the previous one year the Counsellors reported that they had handled 69 cases (28 males and 41 females) to do with relationship issues related to CDA. In the reported cases, victims complained mostly of their partners' controlling and monitoring and cheating on them through use of technology.

In addition to the conflicts arising from the use of digital media experienced in their relationships, some of these victims had sought help because of issues related to their reproductive health. Cases which were beyond the Counsellors were accordingly referred for appropriate medical attention. In CUEA, although the Student Counsellor had handled cases to do with relationships only 3 cases reported by female students were directly related to CDA. This was confirmed by the Dean of students who said he was aware of the three cases. However, MMU did not have Counsellors at the time of the study as the previous ones had retired and were yet to be replaced.

In KU, the participants were asked whether they were aware of the existence of counselling services in their University. Their responses expressed their ignorance about the availability and location of such services. One respondent exclaimed, “Do we even know where those Counsellors are found?” (Male, FGD). Another interjected, “You mean counselling exists in Africa!” (Male, FGD). However, one participant was aware of the availability of the services, although he felt that the offices were not easily accessible due to their location. “I accidentally stumbled upon the counselling offices at one time. I was not even aware they were located there. The office is tucked in some corner and has no label on the door”. (Male, FGD.) Evidently, some participants were just hearing of the availability of counselling services from the discussion as one participant affirmed: “I did not even know where those offices are located. Am just hearing of it right now” (Male, FGD).

The same sentiments were expressed by female respondents. One of them was surprised that such services existed and exclaimed “Are those not white people stuff?” According to this respondent counselling was a western concept and they did not think it was something Africans took seriously. This indicated their ignorance about the need for such services. Some other students also reported that they were not aware of the existence of such services. However, one respondent contradicted their claims and reported that she had been a recipient of the services. She explained to the others the procedure of booking an appointment and confirmed that the Counsellors were very receptive and helpful. This affirmed that many of the students were just ignorant of the help that was readily available for them. The students expressed their concern when

seeking help and said, instead, they were comfortable talking to their friends: “You know you wonder, if I go to the Counsellor, what am I going to tell them, how am I going to open up…” (Female, FGD).

In CUEA and MMU Universities, a few students were not aware of the availability of counselling services. However, even those who were aware reported that they rarely utilised the services. The males alleged that they rarely sought help but instead ‘opted to suffer in silence as time heals’. This was supported by other males in the FGD and participants gave some coping mechanisms, among them drowning their sorrows in taking alcohol. A few, though, suggested that they talked to friends and pastors. The female respondents, however, were of a different opinion. Many reported that they sought help from friends but not the Counsellors. In CUEA University, many students reported that they were comfortable seeking help from peer Counsellors. However, in MMU, it was established that students rarely sought help from the Counsellors. A female respondent explained that this was due to the wide age gap which existed between the Counsellors and the students. She further explained that the Counsellors did not understand their problems from their perspective: ‘You see, for them they are more logical while we are emotional’. (By the time of this study though, the so mentioned old Counsellors had since retired.)

4.8.4 The need to Encourage Affected Students to talk to someone they trusted

The next question was whether affected students should be encouraged to talk to someone they trusted. The responses are as highlighted in figure 4.9:

Should students be encouraged to talk to someone they trust when they experience CDA cases?

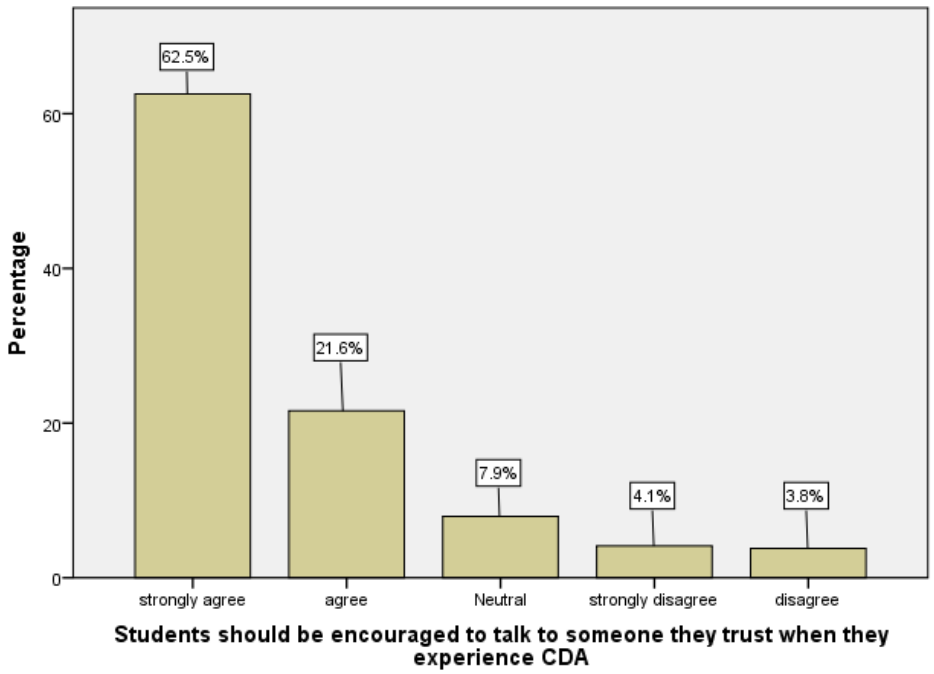

Figure 4.9: Need to talk to someone trusted

Response to this item indicated that 21.6% agreed that students should be encouraged to talk to someone they trusted while 62.5% strongly agreed. A very small number (7.9%) were neutral, (3.8%) disagreed with (4.1%) strongly disagreeing. The respondents who had suffered from CDA were asked whether they had talked to someone they trusted. The results to this question indicated that of 234 victimized respondents who answered the question, only 28.6% affirmed. Those who sought help shared and sought it from their close friends, mentors, colleagues, pastors, counsellors, peer counsellors, elder siblings, parents and classmates. Of the 67 who reported to have talked to someone they trusted, 35 (52.2 %) of them confided in close friends. Discussions from the FGD revealed that most participants opted to talk to friends, even though some of these

friends had no solution to offer. Some, instead, made things worse by spreading the issues and making posts on social media. A few, though, were helpful.

4.8.5 The need to encourage victims to report serious cases of CDA to law enforcers

The respondents were asked whether they thought that victims should be encouraged to report serious cases of CDA to law enforcers. The responses are as highlighted in Figure 4.10 below:

Should University students be encouraged to report serious cases of CDA to law enforcers?

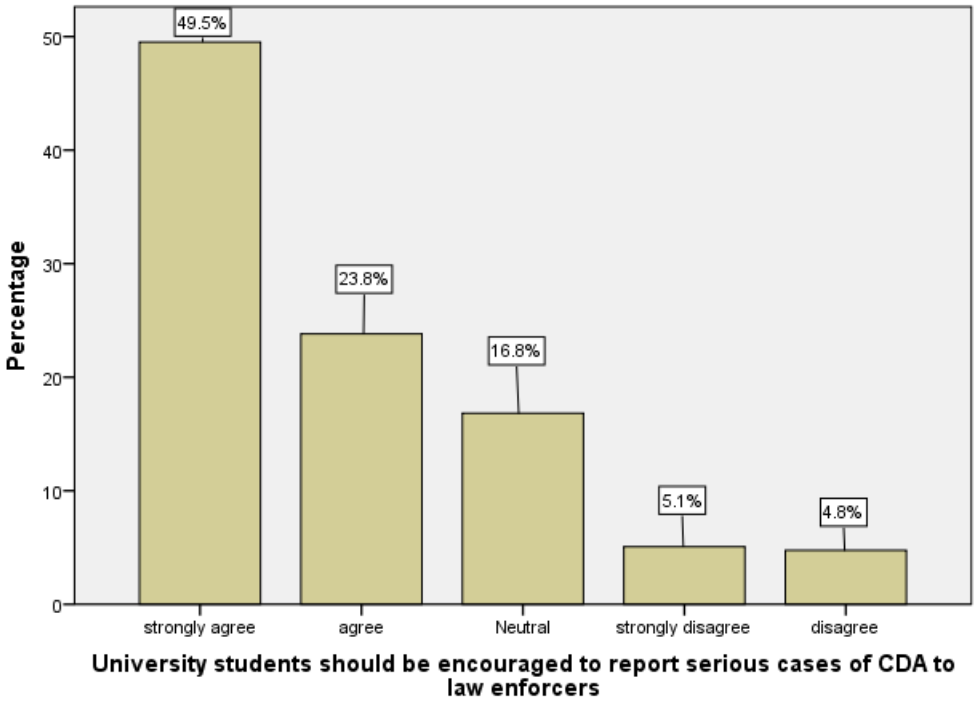

Figure 4.10: Need to Report Serious Cases to Law Enforcers

The response to this question indicated that 49.5% of the respondents strongly agreed that students should be encouraged to report serious cases of CDA to law enforcers while 23.8% agreed. A minority (16.8%) were neutral, (5.1%) strongly disagreed with (4.8%) disagreeing. In the FGD, the participants suggested that the government should enact a law that could be used to charge perpetrators who misused technology to harass others and who posted negative things about others, in a court of law.

In CUEA, a female student was a victim of stalking from an anonymous person who frequently harassed her by sending her threatening messages. The victim became so much afraid to the extent that she couldn't leave her place of residence for a week due to fear for her life. She became so depressed, cried a lot, forcing her to seek help. She reported this to the University authorities. The University then involved the law enforcers and telecommunications company. The stalker was discovered to be her ex-boyfriend. The case was handled by the administration and involved the parents to the two parties, the stalker was warned by the University to keep off the lady and was referred for counselling. From this case, it became evident that there was need for law enforcement to protect CDA victims.

Other suggestions given to mitigate the negative effects of CDA were:

a) Encouraging students to build healthy relationships based on trust
b) Encourage students to uphold personal integrity, desist from taking and sharing nude photos and videos as these would later be used to shame them (victims).
c) Education on emotional intelligence and anger management

d) Education on self-awareness and ability to relate with others

e) Need for chaplaincy services to mentor students and offer spiritual nourishment so as to enable them have a conscience that could help mitigate on behaviours that were destructive to others.

f) Peer counselling

g) Modelling, mentorship and coaching

The Counsellor from CUEA suggested a need for parents to work closely with the Universities in mentoring and guiding their children on relationship matters. According to her, parents should be encouraged to check often on their children and find out what they were involved in. She also suggested that students needed thorough orientation on relationship matters, not just on academics and performance. The Dean of Students CUEA also proposed that, apart from the hard skills taught at the University, students needed training to acquire soft skills and critical thinking.

4.8.6 Discussion on Strategies to Mitigate the Effects of CDA on Academic Engagement

A review of related literature indicated that CDA had adverse effects on its victims. Equally, the findings in this study indicate that CDA victimization caused victims anxiety, depression and fear. Besides, results on the relationship between CDA victimization and academic engagement indicated that there was a statistically significant negative correlation between the two variables. This, therefore, implied that there was need for preventive measures to be put in place to mitigate on these negative

effects. This study put forth several suggestions that could be adopted by the Universities and the students as follows:

There was a suggestion that the Universities could adopt the following strategies. The first one was to create awareness among students and lecturers on this form of intimate partner violence to initiate its prevention. This would equip them with knowledge on intimate partner violence occurring digitally and which was psychological in nature. This was consistent with the suggestions given in a study by Caldwell *et al*. (2012) who called for the need to include information on CDA on dating prevention and intervention efforts. Caldwell's study also called for the youth to be given knowledge on relationship between digital forms of controlling behaviours and offline forms of abusive behaviours and the negative health outcomes. This is of importance because the Kenyan media had reported few murder and suicide cases arising out of dating abuse violence among University students, with one of the cases being directly linked to CDA. Besides, over a half of the female and male respondents indicated the possibility of suffering from depression due to CDA.

Moreover, one of the victims of revenge porn reported that they still suffered from the pain of the traumatizing event. This clearly showed that CDA victimization could have long term effects, thereby making every single case to be disturbing. This implies that CDA victimization is a major concern which cannot be ignored due to associated negative health implications. On 1st June 2019, His Excellency, Uhuru Kenyatta, the President of Kenya in his Madaraka Day address, urged educational institutions in

Kenya to create centres for awareness on mental health as depression was real. (Citizen News Kenya, 1st June,2019).

Consequently, creation of awareness campaigns is critical because from these results most of the respondents were not even aware that they were being abused. The young adults normalized CDA yet its consequences were not pleasant. While some participants interpreted CDA behaviours to be acts of love, others attributed them to mistrust and perceived them to be annoying, nagging, if not uncomfortable. This calls for preventive programmes that could challenge such perceptions. This is in consonance with the suggestion by Borrajo *et al*. (2015a) who, in their study, called for preventive programmes to challenge beliefs by the teenagers that CDA was due to jealousy, compulsion for revenge and was thought to be a joke. Despite the age differences between the respondents in the reviewed study and this study, emerging adults just like adolescents seemed to have misguided perceptions as to what constituted CDA. For this reason, creating awareness could empower students with knowledge of this new form of intimate partner violence, on ways of dealing with the abuse and how to develop healthy relationships which could have implications on their behavioural engagement.

Given the ignorance portrayed by most of the respondents, it is important to offer mentorship to them. Rather than just concentrate on academics only, thorough orientation on their social life is also crucial. Students need to be made aware of the existence of the Students Code of Conduct and Social Media Policy and how this should

guide their interactions and protect them from abuse. The knowledge of dating and CDA is also crucial as it was reported in the FGD that it was a norm for females to keep their affairs private, thus creating secrecy on what it meant to be in an affectionate relationship. This fear of disclosure could be attributed to lack of awareness. Moreover, most students (as revealed in this study) preferred to keep their CDA victimization experiences private and this contributed to the concealment of unhealthy aspects of CDA. This secrecy and silence meant that there could not be any meaningful intervention to stop the abuse which, if left unchecked might become worse with time, resulting into more negative effects on the students.

The findings revealed that although the sampled Universities had programmes in place to provide guidance, counselling and knowledge on healthy dating, they did not specifically focus on the risks that technology had brought in the perpetration of CDA. It is, therefore, proposed that Universities should endeavour to incorporate education on the use of digital technology in health promotion programmes which are aimed at encouraging healthy dating and prevention of CDA. The downside, as reported by the respondents, was that many students did not take the existing programmes seriously and attendance was poor. Universities should therefore come up with innovative and attractive ways of captivating and reaching out to as many as they can for every student's benefit.

Another suggestion supported by 82.8% of the respondents was that the Universities needed to develop policies on CDA. Whereas Kenyatta University had an existing

Social Media Policy, Multimedia University of Kenya and Catholic University of Eastern Africa did not have any in place. A policy on responsible use of digital media is capable of protecting victims of CDA if implemented. However, despite the existence of a Social Media Policy, it was revealed that KU students hardly made reference to it as regards CDA. This was because even when partners contravened the policy, majority of the victims did not report this to the administrators. Hence, nothing much could be done to punish the perpetrators. However, a few isolated cases mostly to do with ex-partners had been reported and disciplinary action had been taken against perpetrators to protect victims from further abuse. This, therefore, implied that implementation of the policy had the capacity to protect the victims. However, this could only happen if the victims were sensitized on the need for them to use the policy to their advantage.

Moreover, it was shown that in some cases of revenge porn, the said victims chose not to report this to the University authorities because they thought it would complicate matters by exposing themselves to further danger. Given that this abuse occurred among lovers, it was expected that the victims would not want to expose themselves. They would also want to protect their partners hence their reluctance to report this to relevant authorities. Still, it was necessary for Universities to include CDA in existing policies about harassment and interpersonal violence in the University settings. This could act as a deterrent to the CDA acts, especially revenge porn which was likely to occur after breakups and was made viral by other students. It would also ensure that the victims of CDA got protection. This would mitigate on the emotional distress and the

depression that some students suffered which led to behavioural disengagement in their academic activities.

Another intervention proposed and supported by 92.7% of the respondents was the need for guidance and counselling for CDA victims. The results from this study showed that 71.5% of males and 76.5% of females experienced between moderate to high levels of distress as a result of CDA victimization. Yet, many of the respondents clearly stated that they rarely sought help from professional counsellors. This corresponds to findings from a study by Ashley and Foshee (2005) who found out that adolescents rarely sought help from professionals. Apparently, respondents seemed to be more comfortable talking to Peer Counsellors. The few who sought professional counsellors preferred those who were closer to them in terms of age. From the FGD, respondents seemed not to trust adults in professional roles because they feared to be judged and be blamed for the abuse.

Given the important role that counsellors play, in the light of these findings, Universities could consider training peer counsellors, who can be easily reachable, to offer guidance and counselling to CDA victims. Also, Universities could consider employing approachable young counsellors with whom students would feel free to seek help from. These counsellors should be well equipped on evaluation and intervention in cases of CDA. Since the findings revealed that about a quarter of males and females suffered from high levels of distress, there was need for intervention to target this group of respondents. Moreover, in the awareness training, students should be encouraged to

appreciate the fact that conflicts do happen, and it was all right to seek help. In the FGD, some students were not aware that such services were available and thought the whole counselling idea was foreign to Africans. There is need for the Universities to sensitize students on availability of the services and to demystify the whole idea of counselling which seemed to be largely misunderstood by a number of the respondents. This study, therefore, suggests that prevention should go beyond education and awareness of risks to include continued sensitization of students on available support and relevant offices to seek help from, whenever needed. This should not only be done during orientation programmes for first years but should be done consistently throughout the academic year for even continuing students. The Counsellor from CUEA also recommended the need for families to work with the University in providing knowledge of developing and maintaining healthy relationships. This was consistent with the findings in a study by Murray *et al*. (2016) who affirmed the important role played by counsellors and family in familiarizing students with the risks of adolescent dating violence. Despite the age differences between the respondents in the reviewed study and the current one, it was evident that young adults at the University also needed guidance and help from their families.

On the contrary, only a minority of the respondents shared their CDA victimization experiences with siblings and parents, with many choosing to confide in friends instead. This was consistent with findings by Picard (2007) in which 72% of the victims did not inform their parents. In the study, the adolescents believed that their parents were 'technologically challenged' and could not assist them. Equally, in this study, the

respondents indicated that their parents were out of the picture, meaning that most of them were unaware of the affairs their children were involved in and their CDA experiences, both as perpetrators and as victims. It is suggested that parents should not abdicate their parental roles simply because their children were now at Universities. Parents should be encouraged to check often on their children and find out what they are involved in while at University. Their contribution in guiding the students and helping them to understand consequences of technology misuse would be helpful in forming healthy relationships. This would mitigate the negative effects due to CDA and enable the students to actively participate in academic activities to improve their academic engagement.

Another intervention suggested and supported by 84.1% of the respondents was the need for victims of CDA to talk to someone they trusted. The results revealed that most students did not do this. However, for the few who did, they confided in their close friends and colleagues. This was consistent with the findings in a study by Dank *et al*. (2014) who found out that the youth like to confide in their peers and proposed the involvement of these in building awareness of issues to do with dating abuse. This was of significance given that findings from this study showed that some of the friends the CDA victims consulted were clueless on matters on cyber dating violence and some even ended up misleading the victims which worsened the problem.

In the FGDs, some females confessed taking collective revenge with the help of friends against their offending partners. Peers were also responsible for redistributing private

sexual photos and videos. In such instances, peers helped in making revenge porn go viral which had detrimental effects to the victims as was evident in this study. Sharing of screenshots of intimate conversations was also reported to be normal yet this amounted to abuse as it infringed on the rights of the victims. This emphasizes the need to provide education on the negative effects of Cyber Dating Abuse to all students so that they could positively influence and advise each other in cases of victimization. Also, if the peers were aware of the availability and importance of seeking further help, they would positively advise their peers in the event that they could not help them to handle the situations they were going through. Further, if equipped with such knowledge, peers would be in a position to act as competent guardians who could help prevent CDA from occurring as explained in the Routine Activities Theory.

Another intervention emanating from 73.3% of the respondents was the need to seek help from law enforcers in serious cases of CDA. This was necessary for cases that involved partners who were not University students; partners who used fake online identities as well as cases which got out of control and might not be handled at the University level. However, this could not be, as Section 29 of the Kenya Information and Communications Act was declared unconstitutional in 2016. This law had stipulated that it was an offence for one to "Use any licenced telecommunication system to send a message or other matter that is grossly offensive or of an indecent, obscene or menacing character or sending a message that one knows to be false for the purpose of causing annoyance, inconvenience or needless anxiety to another person". (Kenya Information and Communications Act, 2012).

The government later enacted ‘The Computer Misuse and Cybercrimes Act 2018’ which had sections that could protect citizens against CDA. This however was not possible as the legality of some sections were suspended making the law inoperative until February 2020 when the suspension was lifted by the high court. This therefore meant that for the said period the law was ineffective in protecting victims of CDA. Upon lifting the suspension earlier held, ‘The Computer Misuse and Cybercrimes Act 2018’ can consequently be used to charge CDA perpetrators. Since they sent their victims messages, made calls and used social media, it was possible to apprehend and deal with them. However, this could not be, as many of the victims were either ignorant of the existence of law and, or were unwilling to report their victimization to the authorities in a bid to protect their lovers. In this study only one case was reported of a victim seeking help from law enforcers.

Kiplagat (2019) reported that in addition to this law, it was possible for a victim of stalking in Kenya to seek a restraining order when the stalker was known. Also, one could protect themselves from a stalker by obtaining an ex parte order under the 2015 Prevention of Violence Act, even without a lawyer. This was possible if evidence in the form of text messages, calls or witness statements were available. Accordingly, University students should be encouraged to keep evidence of CDA in form of SMS, chats and posts on social media which they could use to seek legal aid, if needed, for protection against continued and future abuse.

Given the continued advancement and use of technology among intimate partners, the Government of Kenya should consider strengthening the existing laws in line with the Kenya 2010 constitution to protect victims from digitally perpetrated abuse in the form of CDA. Above all, there is need to sensitize students on need of taking advantage of the law to protect themselves against CDA victimization. This is likely to deter serious cases of CDA which are likely to have implications on their behavioural academic engagement. Other proposals given to mitigate the negative effects of CDA were: First, that participants should be encouraged to build healthy relationships based on trust. The findings of this study revealed that most of the CDA behaviours were as a result of one partner mistrusting the other. The availability of technology provided new avenues for partners to cheat on each other. The constant texting and chatting with members of the opposite sex created room for suspicion among dating partners. There was a need for partners to clearly define boundaries and rules on their online interactions to get rid of suspicions.

Secondly, it was proposed that students need to be encouraged to develop and practice virtues like honesty, self-respect, as well as the need to uphold their personal dignity and integrity. They should desist from taking and sharing nude photos and videos because these could later be used to embarrass them. Students needed such enlightenment on online sexual risk behaviours such as sexting. This proposal is contained in Sánchez, Muñoz-Fernández, and Vega (2015) and Walrave et al. (2015) who emphasized the importance of creating awareness among young people regarding sexual risk behaviours and the legal consequences of the same.

Thirdly, it was proposed that besides the focus on hard skills only, Universities should also equip students with soft skills in critical thinking, decision making, conflict resolution and emotional intelligence. This proposal is in harmony with the research by Lippman *et al*., (2015) who highlighted the significance of soft skills in response to health and violence prevention outcomes. He outlined seven skills that could help achieve positive outcomes in violence prevention. They were:

a) Positive self-concept an example of which is self-efficacy
b) Self-control which entails managing one's emotions
c) Higher order thinking skills involving how one solves problems
d) Social skills, for example, respecting others
e) Communication,
f) Empathy
g) Goal orientation.

It is believed that with the seven skills in place, students will be emotionally intelligent individuals who should be conscious and able to manage their emotional states. This would enable them to acquire self-awareness and the ability to relate with others. Lastly, it was also proposed that Universities needed chaplaincy services to mentor students and offer spiritual nourishment and guidance to enable students have a conscience that could help mitigate behaviours that are destructive to others.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This Chapter provides a summary of the research findings, conclusions, recommendations for policy decisions and further research.

5.2 Summary of Main Findings of the Study

5.2.1 Perception of Cyber Dating Abuse among University Students in selected Universities in Nairobi City County

The first objective was on students' perceptions of the concept of Cyber Dating Abuse. The findings indicated varied responses. However, most behaviours which constituted CDA, according to the respondents, were perceived as normal rather than abusive. Some respondents perceived them as being annoying and uncomfortable. Their understanding was that they arose due to lack of trust from their partners. Moreover, some acts were interpreted to be signs of love and care. However, about a third of the respondents had a contrary opinion. These perceived such acts as being abusive because they were perpetrated with the aim of causing the others emotional distress and social embarrassment. They also felt that they were an infringement on one's right to association and privacy.

5.2.2 Kinds of Technology used in Perpetrating CDA among Undergraduate Students in Selected Universities in Nairobi City County

The second objective focused on identifying the kinds of digital technology used in perpetrating different forms of CDA among Kenyan undergraduate students. The

findings indicated that all the respondents with dating experience owned mobile phones. Majority used them to connect to internet and access social media, make phone calls and exchange text messages. Although the students used a variety of digital media, it was established that WhatsApp was mostly used to perpetrate CDA. The findings also showed that the most popular form of CDA among the respondents was monitoring and controlling behaviours. However, some respondents also stated that they perpetrated direct aggression in form of intrusiveness, humiliation and hostility with sexual coercion being the least infrequent. In line with Johnson's Typology of Intimate Partner Violence (2005), the respondents perpetrated four forms of abuse that is coercive control violence, mutual violent control violence, situational couple violence and violent resistance.

5.2.3 Gender Differences in Perpetration and Victimization of CDA among Students in Selected Universities in Nairobi City County

The third objective sought to assess the gender differences in victimization and perpetration among students in selected Universities in Nairobi City County. To start with, the findings revealed a high prevalence rate for both perpetration and victimization of CDA among both males and females. Secondly, a descriptive analysis for the frequency of perpetration and victimization across gender revealed that some behaviours were quite prevalent among the respondents. Both males and females had perpetrated or experienced the following five behaviours most frequently:

a) Pressurizing partners for quick responses to calls, texts and other messages

b) Monitoring partners' whereabouts and activities to know where they were and with whom
c) Accessing without permission partners' mobile phone or online
d) Snooping in on partners' messages, call logs and contacts accounts account to check if they were behaving correctly
e) Sending partners too many messages making them uncomfortable.

Also, males frequently sent their partners humiliating messages.

Further analysis using inferential statistics indicated that there was no difference in the way males and females perpetrated direct aggression and monitoring and controlling. However, there was a statistically significant difference in mean frequency scores in sexual coercion for males and females, indicating that males were more likely than females to perpetrate sexual coercion. For victimization, the results indicated that males and females suffered equally from monitoring and controlling. However, there was a statistically significant difference in the mean frequency scores in direct aggression and sexual coercion between males and females. This implied that males were more likely than females to report suffering from frequent direct aggression and sexual coercion.

Thirdly, descriptive statistics results indicated that, for both males and females, victims most frequently suffered from anxiety, depression and fear as a result of CDA victimization as reported by over a half of the respondents. Further, Pearson correlation coefficient results indicated that frequent monitoring and controlling caused the victims more distress for both males and females. However, unlike females, males were likely

to suffer more distress when they experienced frequent direct aggression. The results, though, did not indicate a correlation between frequency of victimization and distress for sexual coercion for both males and females. Therefore, the results indicated that in response to CDA behaviours, majority of males and females were largely dismissive of most CDA acts, except accessing of accounts without partners' consent or receiving humiliating messages and partner snooping on others' messages and call logs. This was upsetting to females while males were upset by partners who spread rumours, gossip and jokes about them. Gender was statistically and significantly associated with response to partner spreading rumours, threats to physically harm a partner; pressurizing a partner to have sex or engage in sexual activities online or to exchange sexual photos and videos.

5.2.4 The Relationship between CDA and Academic Engagement of University Students in selected universities in Nairobi City County

The fourth objective sought to examine the extent to which CDA affects academic engagement among University students. Results from a Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient indicated that CDA victimization and distress were positively correlated. This indicated that respondents who reported to have experienced higher levels of CDA victimization were more likely to exhibit higher levels of distress. Also, the results indicated that CDA victimization and behavioural academic engagement were negatively correlated. This indicated that respondents who reported to have experienced higher CDA victimization were more likely to exhibit lower behavioural academic engagement. However, the results did not indicate a relationship between

CDA victimization and emotional academic engagement. Descriptive statistics indicated that CDA victimization had caused a small number of participants to skip classes and miss their assignments. Few participants also reported being controlled by their partners on who to hold academic discussions with. But minority reported to have lost interest in their University studies.

5.2.5 Strategies to Mitigate Effects of CDA on Academic Engagement of undergraduate Students in selected Universities in Nairobi City County

The last objective focused on strategies that could mitigate the effects of CDA on academic engagement of Kenyan University students. Descriptive statistics indicated that many of the respondents supported the following proposals:

a) Awareness training for students and lecturers as a preventive measure
b) Need for Universities to develop policies on CDA
c) Need for CDA victims to seek guidance and counselling
d) Need for victims of CDA to talk to someone they trusted
e) Need for victims to seek help from law enforcers in serious cases of CDA.

Other proposals given were:

a) Students should be encouraged to build healthy relationships based on trust
b) Students need to be taught to uphold their personal dignity and integrity
c) They should desist from taking nude photos and videos and sharing them which were later used to embarrass victims
d) Apart from the Universities focusing on hard skills only, students should be equipped with soft skills: critical thinking, decision making, conflict resolution and emotional intelligence.

e) Also, students need education on self-awareness and ability to relate with others.

f) Finally, it was proposed that all Universities needed chaplaincy services to mentor students and offer spiritual guidance to enable them have a conscience that could help mitigate behaviours which were destructive to others.

5.3 Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn based on the findings. To start with, it was concluded that misguided perceptions on what constituted CDA contributed to the continued abuse amongst majority of the respondents. Secondly, the proliferation and availability of user-friendly technologies and social networks enabled respondents to commonly use WhatsApp, SMS, and phone calls to perpetrate CDA. Thirdly, the equal use of technology among males and females supports gender symmetry as the findings show that there was a high prevalence rate for perpetration and victimization amongst them. Equally there was no gender difference in perpetration of direct aggression and monitoring and control. Finally, given that CDA was negatively correlated to behavioural academic engagement it was concluded that there was a need for preventive measures to be put in place to mitigate these negative effects.

5.4 Recommendations

The study provides recommendations related to policy and practice, and recommendations for further research.

5.4.1 Policy Recommendations

i) Universities should include CDA in existing policies, such as the social media policy and in policies on sexual harassment and interpersonal violence within University settings.

ii) Universities should incorporate awareness/ mentorship programmes into existing ones to create awareness on the role of technology in perpetration of CDA to prevent it, promote healthy dating and enhance academic engagement among undergraduate University students.

iii) There is need to strengthen existing laws on misuse of telecommunication systems in line with the Kenya 2010 constitution to offer protection to CDA victims. There's also need to sensitize students on their existence and encourage implementation of the same to offer protection to CDA victims.

iv) Since digital media is here to stay and CDA victimization is likely to persist, there is need for Universities to have critical discussions on how CDA, could be prevented to avoid its escalation which might lead to worse consequences on students' health and academic outcomes.

5.4.2 Recommendations for Further Research

i) This study was a cross sectional one in design. Therefore, future research should consider a longitudinal study to determine if CDA can progress in a manner that may lead to severe controlling behaviours online. The extent to which physical aggression and sexual coercion affect academic engagement should be accounted for in a longitudinal study.

ii) Further research could focus on the influence of CDA on its victims. Of concern should be whether specific behaviours cause more negative effects and whether they are likely to affect academic engagement of the victims. This would be significant in informing efforts for intervention.

iii) Although this study looked at gender differences in perpetration and victimization, it did not collect supporting data on CDA from the participants' partners. Future research could consider focusing on this aspect to investigate if there is agreement about the occurrence of CDA between dating partners.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Student Questionnaire for Undergraduate students in Kenyan Universities

This research is meant for academic purposes. The questionnaire seeks to explore the effect of Cyber Dating Abuse on academic engagement of University students. You are humbly requested to provide answers to the questions as honestly and as accurately as you can. Some questions will require that you tick [✓] in the appropriate boxes, while some will need some explanation. **ALL INFORMATION PROVIDED WILL BE CONFIDENTIAL.** It shall not be disclosed to any third party or used for any other purpose outside the intended study. Thank you for your cooperation. I will be grateful if you take time to answer the questions here.

PART ONE: SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHICS University Code:

1. Gender: MALE [ ] FEMALE [ ]

2. Age: …….. ……

3. a) Are you currently involved in a romantic relationship (dating)? Yes [ ] No [ ]

b) If **Yes**, proceed to **Question 4;** If **No**, have you been involved in a romantic relationship (dating) in the last 12 months? Yes [ ] No [ ]

c) *If **Yes**, Proceed to **Question 4**;* If **No** Thanks for your time.

4. a) If Yes, what is/what kind of relationship are /were you in: Married [ ]
Cohabiting [ ] Dating exclusively [ ] Dating casually [ ]

b) How long has your current relationship lasted /did your recent past relationship last?.....

SECTION B: USE OF TECHNOLOGY AMONG DATING STUDENTS

1.a) Do you own a mobile phone? Yes [ ] No [ ]

2. On average how many **SMS** messages do/did you exchange with your current/most recent ex-partner per day? No SMS [ ] 1-20 [ ] 21-200 [ ]
201-250 [ ] 500[ ]

b) How often do/did you **SMS** your current or ex- partner in a day?
Not at all [ ] Once per day [ ]; Several times a day [ ]; Several times an hour [ ]

c) On a typical day how often do/did you **call** your current or ex- partner?
Not at all [ ] Once per day [ ]; Several times a day [ ]; Several times an hour [ ]

d) On a typical day, what hours of the day do/did you **SMS/call/chat** frequently?
6am-12noon [ ], 1pm-5pm [ ], 6pm-10pm [ ], 11pm-5am [ ], All day [ ]

3. a) Do you have access to a computer /laptop/ internet enabled phone? Yes [ ]
No [ ]

b) Do you use any social media to connect with your partner? Yes [ ] No [ ]

c) Tick all the social media and instant messaging applications you use regularly with your partner. Facebook [ ], Twitter [ ], Instagram, [ ], WhatsApp, [ ], Snap chat [ ]
Telegram [ ], IMO [ ], others (specify)……

d) Of the social media and instant messaging applications chosen above, in order of preference indicate TWO that you mostly use(d) with your partner ……
……
…….

4. How often do you use the internet on the computer/laptop/tablet/mobile phone?

Once a day [ ] More than 5 times a day [ ]

Once a week [ ] Once a month [ ]

5. a) How many hours do you spend on social media on a typical **week day?**

Less than half an hour [ ] Half an hour to 1 hour [ ]

1-3 hours [ ] More than 3 hours [ ]

b) How many hours do you spend on social media on a typical **WEEKEND**?

Less than half an hour [ ] Half an hour to 1 hour [ ]

1-3 hours [ ] More than 3 hours [ ]

SECTION C: ACADEMIC ENGAGEMENT

6. Has the use of technology ever caused you and your partner conflict leading you to skip a class? Yes [ ] No [ ];

If **YES** how often? 1-2 times [ ] , More than 3 times [ ]

7. Has the use of technology ever caused you and your partner conflict causing you to miss doing an assignment or made you hand in an assignment late? Yes [ ] No [ ]

If **YES**, how often? 1-2 times [ ], More than 3 times [ ]

8. Has your partner ever used technology to monitor or control who you have academic discussions or study with? Yes [ ] No[ ]

If **YES,** how often? 1-2 times [ ], More than 3 times [ ]

9. a) Have conflicts arising from use of technology in your relationship ever made you lose interest in your University studies? Yes [ ] No [ ] ;

If **YES,** how often? 1-2 times [ ], More than 3 times [ ]

SECTION D: PERCEPTIONS OF BEHAVIOURS WHICH CONSTITUTE CYBER DATING ABUSE

Please indicate your level of agreement with each statement by ticking the corresponding responses.

The following acts when perpetrated through technology (social media/phone calls/SMS) are abusive and amount to cyber dating abuse	**Strongly agree**	**Agree**	**Neutral**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
My partner sharing publicly intimate information(chats) or compromising images of me without my knowledge					
My partner sending me threatening messages					
My partner accessing my SMS, calls and contacts to monitor or control me					
My partner sending me too many messages and demanding for an immediate response					
My partner pressurizing me for my passwords to have access to my mobile phones or online accounts					
My partner pressurizing me to sext or engage in sexual activities online					
My partner pressurizing me to send them sexual photos/videos of me or them sending me theirs without me asking for them					
My partner posting status or commenting on another person's photo to make me jealous					

PART TWO

This part asks questions to obtain information on Cyber Dating Abuse (CDA) behaviours. The definition of Cyber Dating Abuse as conceptualised in this study is given to enable you understand its use and respond appropriately to the questions asked.

Definition of Cyber Dating Abuse (CDA)

"CDA is the use of technology to harass, intimidate or threaten an intimate partner with the intention of causing them psychological, emotional harm and social embarrassment."

PART TWO SECTION A: Cyber perpetration questionnaire

For each of the behaviours described below, tick **[√]** the appropriate response as to how often **YOU HAVE DONE IT** using technology

Perpetration Scale	**Tick √ the most appropriate as applies to you**			
In the past 12 months, I have used technology (phone, internet and social media) to do the following to my current /recent x- partner…	**Never**	**Seldom**	**Sometimes**	**Often**
1. Accessed without permission my partner's mobile phone or online account				
2. Sent my partner insulting/humiliating messages				
3. Spread rumours, gossip and jokes about my partner to ridicule them				
4. Posted status or commented on another person's photo to make me jealous				
5. Threatened to physically harm my partner				
6. Called/sent my partner a message to threaten them				
7. Used information from my partner's social networking site to ridicule or put them down				
8. Pressurized my partner to respond quickly to my calls, texts, or other messages				
9.Monitored my partner's whereabouts and activities to know where they were and with whom				
10.Sent so many messages to my partner that they felt uncomfortable				
11.Pressurized my partner for passwords to access their mobile phone or online accounts				
12. Snooped in on my partner's messages, call logs and contacts without their permission to check whether they are behaving correctly (spying)				
13. Pressurized my partner to "sext" (sharing of explicit messages that may contain nude, semi-nude, or provocative pictures or videos)				
14. Shared intimate information(chats) or compromising images of my partner without their knowledge				
15. Pressurized my partner to have sex or engage in sexual activities online				
16.Sent a sexual/naked photo that my partner did not want/ask for				

PART TWO SECTION B: Cyber victimization questionnaire

For each of the behaviours described below, tick [√] the appropriate response as to how often **IT HAS BEEN DONE TO YOU** by your partner using technology

Victimization Scale	**Tick √ the most appropriate as applies to you**			
In the past 12 months, my current/recent x-partner has used technology (phone, internet and social media) to do the following to me …	**Never**	**Seldom**	**Sometimes**	**Often**
1. Access without permission my mobile phone or online account				
2. Sent me insulting/humiliating messages				
3.Spread rumours, gossip and jokes about me to ridicule me				
4. Posted status or commented on another person's photo to make me jealous				
5. Threatened to physically harm me				
6. Called/sent a message to threaten me				
7.Used information from my social networking site to ridicule or put me down				
8.Pressurized me to respond quickly to their calls, texts, or other messages				
9.Monitored my whereabouts and activities to control where I am and with whom				
10.Sent me so many messages/chats that I felt uncomfortable				
11.Pressurized me for my passwords to access my mobile phone or online accounts				
12. Snooped in on my messages, call logs and contacts without my permission to check whether I am behaving correctly				
13. Pressure me to "sext" – (sharing of explicit messages that may contain nude, semi-nude, or provocative pictures or videos)				
14. Shared intimate information(chats) or compromising images of me without my knowledge				
15.Pressurized me to have sex or engage in sexual activities online				
16.Sent to me a sexual/naked photo that I did not want/ask for				

a) If you have experienced any behaviour mentioned above, did you seek help?

Yes [ ] No [ ]. If Yes, from whom did you seek help? .....

If No, why didn't you seek help?

.....

b) What communication technology was mostly used to perpetrate any of the behaviours above?

SMS [ ], Phone call [ ], WhatsApp [ ], Facebook [ ], Other (specify)……

c) Are you aware of your University's policy regarding social media use?

Yes [ ] No [ ].

d**)** Do you know of anyone who has ever got into trouble for going against the policy?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

If Yes, explain.....

PART TWO SECTION C: Responses to Cyber Dating Abuse

Below are possible reactions to any of the cyber dating behaviours listed above

Description of four categories of emotional and behavioural CDA responses

Emotional Response	**Possible Response Item description**
Dismissive	Laughed it off or ignored it
Upset	Made me sad or upset; angry; embarrassed and worried for my safety
Behavioural Response Engagement	Yelled or argued with them; talked to them about the incident; Threatened to break with them, told someone about what happened; revenged by doing something nasty to them using the internet or phone
Blocking access	Blocked their number on social media/ignored them in person

My emotional and behavioural responses to the following Cyber Dating Abuse behaviours when my current/recent x-partner used or were to use technology to …. ***(Tick the ONE which most applies to each behaviour)***	Dismissive	Upset	Engagement	Blocking access
1. Accessed without permission my mobile phone or online account				
2. Sent me insulting/humiliating messages				
3.Spread rumours, gossip and jokes about me to ridicule me				
4. Posted status or commented on another person's photos to make me jealous				
5. Threatened to physically harm me				
6. Called/Sent a message to threaten me				
7.Used information from my social networking site to ridicule or put me down				
8.Pressurized me to respond quickly to their calls, texts, or other messages				
9.Monitored my whereabouts and activities to control where I was and with whom				
10.Sent me so many messages/chats that I felt uncomfortable				
11.Pressurized for passwords to access my mobile phone or online accounts				
12. Snooped in on my messages, call logs and contacts without my permission to check whether I am behaving correctly				
13. Pressure me to "sext" – (sharing of explicit messages that may contain nude, semi-nude, or provocative pictures or videos)				
14. Shared intimate information(chats) or compromising images of me without my knowledge				
15.Pressurized me to have sex or do other sexual activities with them				
16.Sent to me a sexual/naked photo that I did not want/ask for				

PART TWO SECTION D: Kessler Psychological Distress Scale (K6). This part wants to find out about your emotional state any time you experienced Cyber Dating Abuse.

Thinking about the last time in the past one year when you experienced any form of Cyber Dating Abuse as described in the behaviours listed in victimization questionnaire above, describe how you felt by ticking **[**√**]** one of the answers below:

Every time I experience (d) CDA, I…	**All the time**	**Most of the time**	**Some of the time**	**A little of the time**	**None of the time**
...feel nervous or fearful					
…feel so depressed that nothing can cheer me up					
…feel hopeless					
… feel that I have no energy to do anything and everything is an effort					
…feel worthless					
…feel that I am anxious or disturbed					

SECTION E: STRATEGIES TO MITIGATE ON EFFECTS OF CYBER DATING ABUSE (CDA) AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

Kindly rate to what extent you agree to the following statements	**Strongly Agree**	**Agree**	**Neutral**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Lecturers and students need awareness training on CDA and how to prevent it					
Affected students should be encouraged to seek guidance and counselling services					
Universities should develop clear policies to handle CDA cases					
University students should be encouraged to report serious cases of CDA to law enforcers					
Students should be encouraged to talk to someone they trust when they experience CDA					

PART THREE

a) For those who are **CURRENTLY DATING OR WERE INVOLVED IN A ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIP IN THE PAST 12 MONTHS**, this part seeks to gauge your perception of how CDA affects academic engagement. In the instances that you have/ were a victim of CDA to what extent did that influence the following?

Description of categories of emotional and behavioural academic engagement responses

Behavioural engagement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I pay attention in class					
2. I follow the University rules					
3. I usually do my assignments on time					
4. I ask questions whenever I have doubts and participate in debates in the classroom					
5. I usually participate actively in group assignments					
6. I attend my classes as required					
Emotional Engagement					
1. I don't feel very accomplished at this University					
2. I like being at my University					
3. I am interested in the schoolwork at the University					
4. My classroom is an interesting place to be					
5. I feel happy at the University					
6. I feel excited by schoolwork at the University					

Thank you for your time. Your cooperation is immensely appreciated

Appendix II: Student Focus Group Discussion Questions

1. University students do involve themselves in romantic relationships. How would you describe their dating experiences?

2. On average how long do relationships last? Why?

3. Youth who are dating greatly utilise technology to communicate with their intimate partners, what kinds of technologies do they use? How do they use them? Which are most common, why?

4. Approximately what percentage own mobile phones? What kind of mobile phones do they own? Do students use phones to text, chat or call more? Why?

5. a) How do students access the Internet? (for instance, through mobile phone, laptop, computer). Which ones do they frequently use?

b) How do students access internet? Wi-Fi? Data bundles?

6.a) What comes to mind when someone talks of dating Violence? What role does technology play in perpetrating dating violence?

b) How often does this violence happen in intimate relationships?

7. Are there differences in the way males inflict cyber dating abuse as compared to females? If yes, what are the differences? If No, why aren't there any differences?

8. How would you describe victimization of CDA among male and female students? Who suffers more victimization?

9. How do males/females respond to CDA? Why?

10. How do abusive dating behaviours perpetrated through technology affect victims behaviourally and emotionally? Probe for behavioural – class attendance, class participation, Group discussion, handing in assignments) emotional – how do they like being at the University, their interest in University work, how do they enjoy being in their classroom, their feelings about their accomplishment at the University.

11. What do you think of some practices like sharing of passwords with a partner, calling/texting numerous times to check on partner; asking a partner to share private photos or videos against their wish; sharing your partner's private photos/videos publicly in case of a misunderstanding as a way of hitting back at them; monitoring a partner's movement using technology; hacking a partner's account to spy on them.

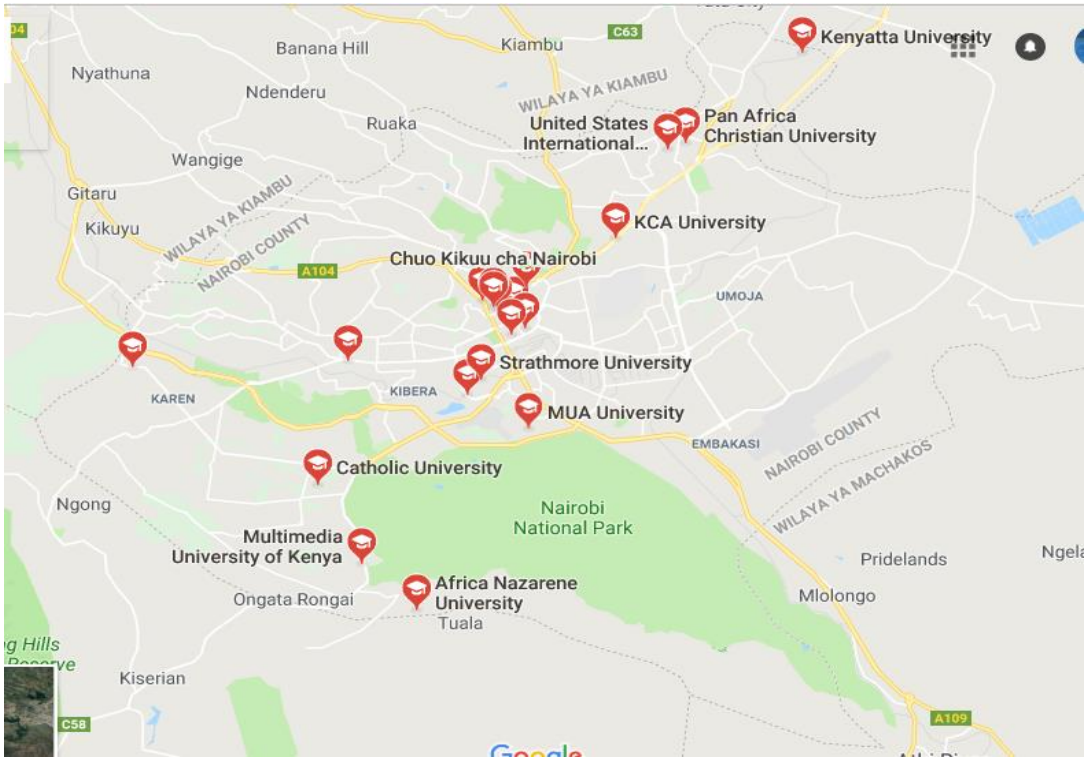
12. Where do victims of Cyber Dating Abuse seek help from?

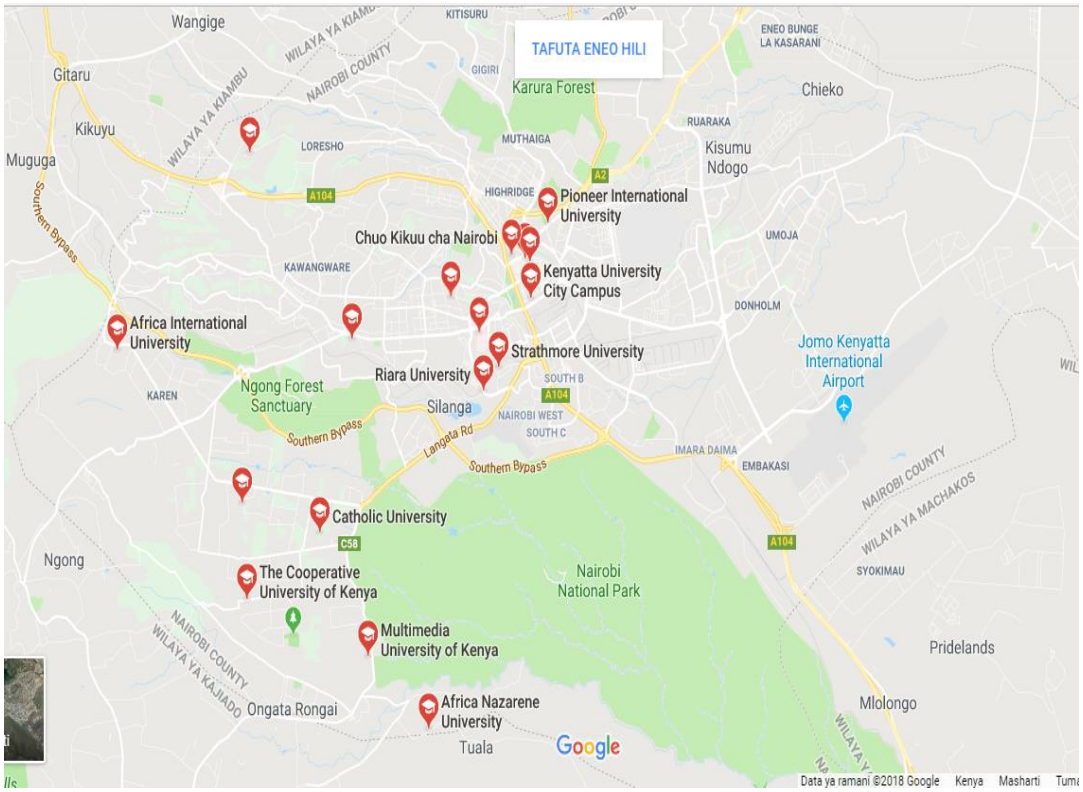
13. What interventions can be adopted to prevent cyber dating abuse among University students?

Appendix III: Dean of Students and University Counsellors interview schedule

1. How would you describe undergraduate students' dating experiences in the University?
2. Do some students experience problems in their relationships?
3. Technology is greatly utilised by intimate partners; therefore, it provides both opportunities and risks. In your opinion, how do students misuse technology in perpetuating Cyber Dating Abuse against their partners?
4. What kinds of technologies do students utilise in abusing their partners?
5. What is the University's social media policy regarding use of social media by students?
6. What happens when a student violates the social media policy?
7. Do you have any reported cases of students who have experienced CDA? If yes, how many such cases have been reported in the past one year?
8. What gender differences exist in the manner that males and females perpetrate and are victims of Cyber Dating Abuse? Kindly, explain if there are differences in the manner that male and females respond to CDA?
9. How does CDA victimization affect students' academic engagement behaviourally and emotionally?
10. What interventions can be adopted to prevent cyber dating abuse among University students?

Appendix IV: Map of Universities in Nairobi City County





Appendix V: Research Authorization letter from Kenyatta University

KENYATTA UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL

E-mail: dean-graduate@ku.ac.ke
Website: www.ku.ac.ke

P.O. Box 43844, 00100
NAIROBI, KENYA
Tel. 8710901 Ext. 57530

OUR REF: E83/38285/16

Date: 23rd January, 2019

The Director General,
National Commission for Science, Technology & Innovation
P.O. Box 30623-00100,
NAIROBI

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION FOR MS. NANCY MAYOYO REG. NO. E83/38285/16

I write to introduce Ms. Mayoyo who is a Postgraduate Student of this University. She is registered for Ph.D. Degree programme in the Department of Educational Foundations in the School of Education.

Ms. Mayoyo intends to conduct research for Ph.D. Thesis entitled, "Cyber Dating Abuse and Undergraduate Student' Academic Engagement in Selected Universities in Nairobi City County, Kenya"

Any assistance given will be highly appreciated.

Yours faithfully,

PROF. ELISHIBA KIMANI
FOR: DEAN, GRADUATE SCHOOL

/cao

04 APR 20..

Committed to Creativity, Excellence & Self-Reliance

Appendix VI: Research Authorization letter from NACOSTI

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION

Telephone +254-20-2213471,
2241349,3310571,2219420
Fax +254-20-318245,318249
Email: dg@nacosti.go.ke
Website : www.nacosti.go.ke
When replying please quote

NACOSTI, Upper Kabete
Off Waiyaki Way
P.O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA

Ref No. **NACOSTI/P/19/8066/27965** Date: **13th February, 2019**

Nancy Rabera Mayoyo
Kenyatta University
P.O. Box 408-40200
KISII

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on ***"Cyber dating abuse and undergraduate students' academic engagement in selected universities in nairobi City County, Kenya"*** I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Nairobi County** for the period ending **31st January, 2020.**

You are advised to report to **the County Commissioner and the County Director of Education, Nairobi County** before embarking on the research project.

Kindly note that, as an applicant who has been licensed under the Science, Technology and Innovation Act, 2013 to conduct research in Kenya, you shall deposit **a copy** of the final research report to the Commission within **one year** of completion. The soft copy of the same should be submitted through the Online Research Information System.

GPKalerwa

GODFREY P. KALERWA MSc., MBA, MKIM
FOR: DIRECTOR-GENERAL/CEO

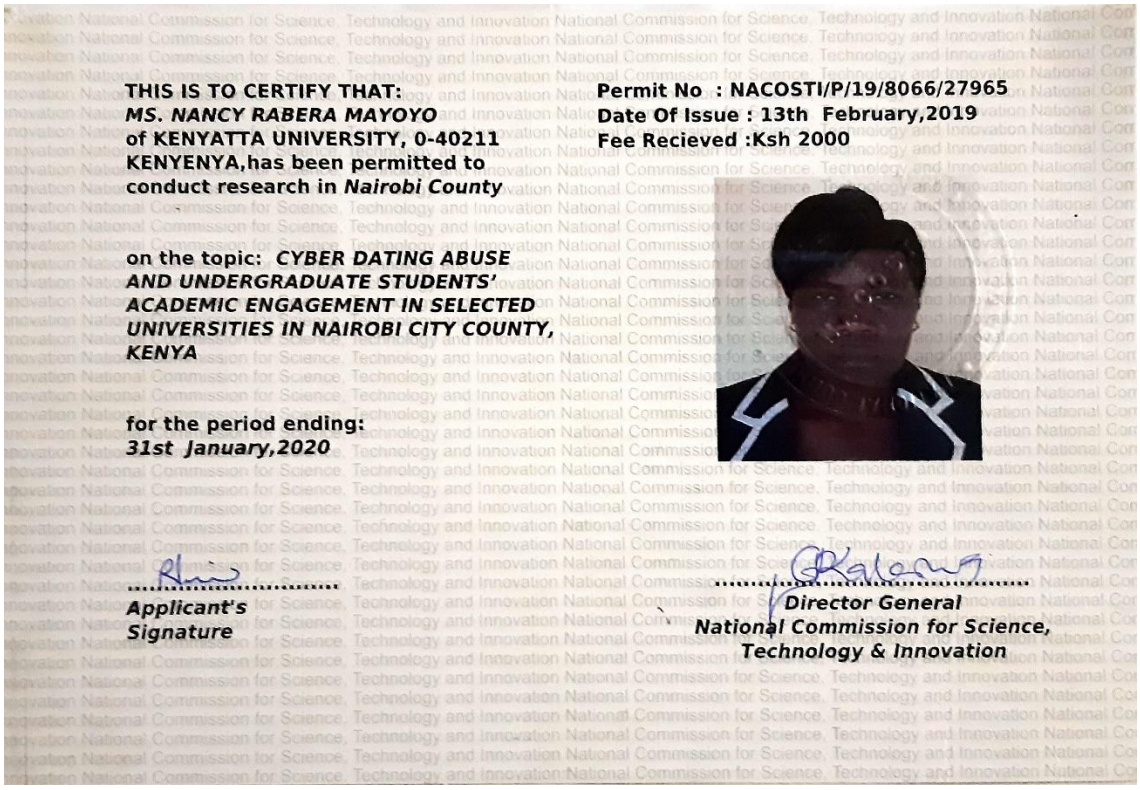
Copy to:

The County Commissioner
Nairobi County.

The County Director of Education
Nairobi County.

National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation is ISO9001: 2008 Certified

Appendix VII: Research Permit from NACOSTI



THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:
MS. NANCY RABERA MAYOYO
of KENYATTA UNIVERSITY, 0-40211
KENYENYA,has been permitted to
conduct research in *Nairobi County*

Permit No : NACOSTI/P/19/8066/27965
Date Of Issue : 13th February,2019
Fee Recieved :Ksh 2000

on the topic: *CYBER DATING ABUSE AND UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS' ACADEMIC ENGAGEMENT IN SELECTED UNIVERSITIES IN NAIROBI CITY COUNTY, KENYA*

for the period ending:
31st January,2020

.....
Applicant's Signature

.....
Director General
National Commission for Science, Technology & Innovation

Appendix VIII: Research Approval by Kenyatta University Ethics Review Committee

KENYATTA UNIVERSITY
ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Fax: 8711242/8711575
Email: chairman.kuerc@ku.ac.ke

P. O. Box 43844,
Nairobi, 00100
Tel: 8710901 12

Website: www.ku.ac.ke

Our Ref: KU/ERC/ APPROVAL/VOL.1 (262) Date: 10th June, 2019

Nancy Mayoyo
P.0 Box 43844-00100
Nairobi

Dear Ms. Mayoyo,

APPLICATION NUMBER PKU/1005/11055: CYBER DATING ABUSE AND UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS' ACADEMIC ENGAGEMENT IN SELECTED UNIVERSITIES IN NAIROBI CITY COUNTY, KENYA

1. IDENTIFICATION OF PROTOCOL

The application before the committee is with a research topic **"Cyber Dating Abuse and Undergraduate Students' Academic Engagement in Selected Universities in Nairobi City County, Kenya"**. Received on 4th April, 2019 and discussed on 14th May, 2019

2. APPLICANT

Nancy Mayoyo

3. SITE

Nairobi City County, Kenya

4. DECISION

The committee has considered the research protocol in accordance with the Kenyatta University Research Policy (section 7.2.1.3) and the Kenyatta University Ethics Review Committee Guidelines and **APPROVED that the research may proceed for a period of ONE year from 14th May, 2019.**

Appendix IX: Research Authorization letter from Catholic University of Eastern Africa

THE CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY OF EASTERN AFRICA

Office of Deputy Vice Chancellor
Research, Innovation and Partnerships

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

March 26, 2019

RE : MS. NANCY MAYOYO'S DATA COLLECTION FROM CUEA STUDENTS FOR HER PhD RESEARCH

Ms. Nancy Mayoyo is a registered PhD student at Kenyatta University (Reg. No. E83/38285/2016) in the School of Education, Department of Educational Foundations. She has sampled CUEA as one of the Universities to be included in the data collection for her PhD research title *"Cyber Dating Abuse and undergraduate students' academic engagement in selected universities in Nairobi City County, Kenya"*.In her letter dated March 14, 2019, she requested to be allowed to collect data from CUEA students consistent with the sampling procedure in her PhD proposal and the approved data capture tool (attached). Her research proposal was approved by the University of Nairobi's School of Computing and Informatics. She also has the research authorization from the National Commission for Science and Technology (NACOSTI) through the Research Permit No. NACOSTI/P/19/8066/27965.

Ms. Mayoyo is therefore authorized to collect data from the aforesaid study population in CUEA between March 27th To May 27th 2019. Ms. Mayoyo will undertake to adhere to all the ethical considerations in conducting the research and respect the values upheld by the Catholic University of Eastern Africa. In addition to these conditions for data collection, Ms. Mayoyo shall share with the CUEA Library her final report of the findings and publications associated with this study. The Catholic University of Eastern Africa reserves the right to cancel this authorization if the researcher flouts the parameters of research ethics and integrity.

Your assistance to facilitate her data collection will be highly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

THE CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY OF EASTERN AFRICA
DVC/RESEARCH, INNOVATION & PARTNERSHIP
P. O. Box 62157-00200, NAIROBI

Prof. Dr. Benson A. Mulemi
Ag. DVC/Research, Innovation and Partnerships
Research Coordinator/Directorate of Research & Innovation

c.c DVC/Academic Affairs
Dean of Students
University Librarian
Chief Security Officer

THE CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY OF EASTERN AFRICA (CUEA) P.O. BOX 62157 00200 Nairobi – KENYA
Tel: 020-2525811-5, 8890023-4, +254-20-2525811-5, Email: dvcresearch@cuea.edu Website: www.cuea.edu

Appendix X: Research Authorization letter from Multimedia University of Kenya

MULTIMEDIA UNIVERSITY OF KENYA
P .O. BOX 15653 - 00503, NAIROBI, KENYA.
(MMU is ISO 9001:2008 Certified)

OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY VICE CHANCELLOR (AA, R&I)

REF: MMU/DVC AA R&I/RESEARCH/VOL.1 11th March, 2019

Ms. Nancy Mayoyo
P.O Box 1590 – 60100
EMBU

Dear Ms. Mayoyo

RE: REQUEST FOR COLLECTION OF DATA IN THE UNIVERSITY

Reference is made to the above subject matter pursuant to your letter dated 5th March, 2019 and in which you sought permission for data collection from the University.

We note that you are a registered PhD. student at Kenyatta University and we are pleased to inform you that your request has been granted and permission approved for collection of data within Multimedia University of Kenya, Main Campus.

You are required to report to the Registrar Administration before you commence your data collection. You will be required to observe the University Rules and Regulations. Upon completion of your study, ensure that you submit a copy of your Project Report/Dissertation/Thesis to Multimedia University of Kenya.

We hope that our support will contribute to the success of your career development.

Yours faithfully,

PROF. PAUL N. MBATIA PhD.
Deputy Vice-Chancellor (AA, R&I)

C.c. Vice Chancellor
Deputy Vice Chancellor – AF&P
Reg. Administration
Ag. Registrar, (R&I)
Ag. Librarian
Chief Security Officer

Appendix XI: Research Authorization letter from Kenyatta University

KENYATTA UNIVERSITY

OFFICE OF DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR, RESEARCH, INNOVATION AND OUTREACH

P. O. Box 43844 - 00100
Nairobi, Kenya
Tel. 254-20-810901 Ext. 026
E-mail: dvc-rio@ku.ac.ke

Ref: KU/DVCR/RCR/VOL.3/267

Nancy Mayoyo
School of Education
KENYATTA UNIVERSITY

25th June, 2019

Dear Ms Mayoyo,

Re: **REQUEST TO COLLECT RESEARCH DATA AT KENYATTA UNIVERSITY**

This is in reference to your letter dated 24th April, 2019 requesting for authorization to collect research data at Kenyatta University on the topic "Cyber Dating Abuse and Undergraduate Students' Academic Engagement in Selected Universities in Nairobi City County, Kenya" towards an PhD degree of Kenyatta University.

I am happy to inform you that the Vice-Chancellor has approved your request to collect data. It has been noted that your data will be collected mainly from undergraduate students, the Dean of Students and Counsellors.

Yours Sincerely,

Prof. F. Q. Gravenir
Deputy Vice-Chancellor
Research, Innovation & Outreach
cc. Vice-Chancellor
Director, Students Affairs

Appendix XII: Table 4.11: Descriptive statistics for prevalence of CDA perpetration behaviours across gender

In the past year, I have used technology (phone, internet and social media) to do the following to my partner...												
	Male N=165						**Female N=150**					
	Never		**Rarely**		**Often**		**Never**		**Rarely**		**Often**	
	Count	**%**	**count**	**%**	**Count**	**%**	**Count**	**%**	**count**	**%**	**Count**	**%**
Accessed my partners accounts without their permission	86	**52.1%**	22	**13.3%**	57	**34.5%**	65	**43.3%**	21	**14%**	64	**42.7%**
Sent insulting/humiliating messages	93	**56.4%**	25	**15.2%**	47	**28.5%**	95	**63.3%**	19	**12.7%**	36	**24%**
Spread rumours, gossip & jokes about my partner to ridicule them	125	**76.2%**	20	**12.2%**	19	**11.6%**	120	**81.6%**	12	**8.2%**	15	**10.2%**
Posted/sent my photos to another person to make my partner jealous	114	**69.1%**	18	**10.9%**	33	**20%**	109	**72.7%**	12	**8%**	29	**19.3%**
Threatened to physically harm my partner	150	**90.9%**	6	**3.6%**	9	**5.4%**	143	**95.3%**	4	**2.7%**	3	**2%**
Called/sent my partner a threatening message	138	**83.6%**	10	**6.1%**	17	**10.3%**	127	**85.2%**	11	**7.4%**	11	**7.4%**
Used information from my partners SNS to ridicule or put them down	129	**78.2%**	17	**10.3%**	19	**11.5%**	116	**77.3%**	11	**7.3%**	23	**15.3%**
Pressure my partner to respond quickly to my calls/texts or other messages	51	**30.9%**	43	**26.1%**	71	**43.1%**	45	**30.2%**	20	**13.4%**	84	**56.3%**
Monitored my partner's whereabouts and activities to know where they are and with whom	62	**37.6%**	38	**23%**	65	**39.4%**	54	**36.2%**	29	**19.3%**	67	**44.7%**
Sent too many messages to my partner that they felt uncomfortable	92	**55.8%**	28	**17%**	45	**27.3%**	75	**50%**	23	**15.3%**	52	**34.7%**
Pressure my partner for passwords to access their mobile phone or online accounts	120	**72.7%**	20	**12.1%**	25	**15.1%**	109	**73.2%**	14	**9.4%**	26	**17.5%**
Snooped in on my partner's accounts to check whether they are behaving correctly	88	**53.3%**	35	**21.2%**	42	**25.5%**	63	**42%**	23	**15.3%**	64	**42.7%**
Pressure my partner to 'sext'	121	**73.3%**	24	**14.5%**	20	**12.1%**	139	**92.7%**	4	**2.7%**	7	**4.6%**
Shared intimate information (chats) or images of my partner without their knowledge	134	**81.2%**	15	**9.1%**	16	**9.7**	130	**87.2%**	4	**2.7%**	15	**10%**
Pressured my partner to have sex or engage in sexual activities online	109	**66.1%**	23	**13.9%**	33	**20%**	130	**86.7%**	12	**8%**	8	**5.4%**
Sent a sexual/naked photo/video that my partner did not want/ ask for	145	**87.9%**	8	**4.8%**	12	**7.2%**	138	**92%**	7	**4.7%**	5	**3.4%**

Appendix XIII: Table 4.18: Descriptive statistics for prevalence of CDA perpetration behaviours across gender

In the past year, my partner has used technology (phone, internet and social media) to do the following to me ...												
	Male N=165						**Female N=150**					
	Never		**Rarely**		**Often**		**Never**		**Rarely**		**Often**	
	Count	**%**	**count**	**%**	**Count**	**%**	**Count**	**%**	**Count**	**%**	**Count**	**%**
Accessed my accounts without my permission	83	**50.3%**	17	**10.3%**	65	**39.4%**	75	**50%**	14	**9.3%**	61	**40.7%**
Sent me insulting/humiliating messages	106	**64.2%**	22	**13.3%**	37	**22.5**	111	**74%**	15	**10%**	24	**16%**
Spread rumours, & jokes about me to ridicule me	121	**73.4%**	22	**13.3%**	22	**13.3%**	122	**82.4%**	11	**7.4%**	15	**10.2%**
Posted photos to another person to make me jealous	109	**66.1%**	16	**9.7%**	40	**24.2%**	111	**74%**	11	**7.3%**	28	**18.7%**
Threatened to physically harm me	143	**86.7%**	9	**5.5%**	13	**7.8%**	138	**92%**	6	**4%**	6	**4%**
Called/sent me a threatening message	130	**78.8%**	19	**11.5%**	16	**9.7%**	129	**86.6%**	10	**6.7%**	10	**6.7%**
Used SNS information to ridicule or put me down	124	**75.2%**	18	**10.9%**	23	**13.9%**	123	**82%**	11	**7.3%**	16	**10.7%**
Pressurized me for quick response	61	**37%**	28	**17%**	76	**46%**	52	**34.7%**	23	**15.3%**	75	**50%**
Monitored my whereabouts and activities	72	**43.6%**	22	**13.3%**	71	**43.1%**	58	**38.7%**	22	**14.7%**	70	**46.6%**
Sent many messages to me that I felt uncomfortable	78	**47.3%**	25	**15.2%**	62	**37.5%**	71	**47.3%**	27	**18%**	52	**34.7%**
Pressurized me for passwords	100	**60.6%**	27	**16.4%**	38	**23%**	97	**65.1%**	20	**13.4%**	32	**21.5%**
Snooped in on my accounts to monitor me	68	**41.2%**	31	**18.8%**	66	**40%**	73	**48.7%**	18	**12%**	59	**39.3%**
Pressurized me to 'sext'	117	**70.9%**	20	**12.1%**	28	**17%**	130	**86.7%**	9	**6%**	11	**7.3%**
Shared intimate information (chats)	131	**79.4%**	17	**10.3%**	17	**10.3%**	131	**87.3%**	10	**6.7%**	9	**6%**
Pressurized me to have sex or engage in sexual activities online	111	**67.3%**	22	**13.3%**	32	**19.4%**	116	**77.3%**	11	**7.3%**	23	**15.4%**
Sent a sexual/naked photo/video that I did not want/ ask for	136	**82.4%**	12	**7.3%**	17	**10.3%**	134	**89.3%**	6	**4%**	10	**6.7%**

Appendix XIV: Table 4.26: Emotional and behavioural responses to CDA across gender

ITEM	GENDER	COUNT	RESPONSE TO CDA				TOTAL	X^2	DF	ALPHA	Table x^2
			DISMISSIVE	UPSET	ENGAGE	BLOCK ACCESS					
1. Access without permission	M	Count	65	63	14	21	163	6.88	3	.076	7.815
	F	Count	59	69	8	8	144				
TOTAL		**Count**	**124**	**132**	**22**	**29**	**307**				
2. Humiliating messages	M	Count	55	54	23	26	158	.341	3	.952	7.815
	F	Count	48	52	18	23	141				
TOTAL		**Count**	**103**	**106**	**41**	**49**	**299**				
3. Spread rumours	M	Count	64	65	11	18	158	11.65	3	**.009**	7.815
	F	Count	48	43	25	23	139				
TOTAL		**Count**	**112**	**108**	**36**	**41**	**297**				
4. Posts to make partner jealous	M	Count	71	47	18	25	161	.631	3	.889	7.815
	F	Count	60	43	18	18	139				
TOTAL		**Count**	**131**	**90**	**36**	**43**	**300**				
5. Physical threat	M	Count	70	42	21	27	160	9.867	3	**.020**	7.815
	F	Count	40	32	24	39	135				
TOTAL		**Count**	**110**	**74**	**45**	**66**	**295**				
6. Threatening messages	M	Count	70	43	20	28	161	5.370	3	.147	7.815
	F	Count	46	33	23	35	137				
TOTAL		**Count**	**116**	**76**	**43**	**63**	**298**				
7. Ridiculed partner	M	Count	71	45	22	24	162	0.931	3	.818	7.815
	F	Count	58	39	24	18	139				
TOTAL		**Count**	**129**	**84**	**46**	**42**	**301**				
8. Pressure for quick response	M	Count	73	45	32	15	165	.164	3	.983	7.815
	F	Count	60	40	29	12	141				
TOTAL		**Count**	**133**	**85**	**61**	**27**	**306**				

ITEM	GENDER	COUNT	RESPONSE TO CDA				TOTAL	X^2	DF	ALPHA	Table x^2
			DISMISSIVE	UPSET	ENGAGE	BLOCK ACCESS					
9. Monitoring partner	M	Count	60	56	24	23	163	1.587	3	.662	7.815
	F	Count	51	50	28	16	145				
TOTAL		**Count**	**111**	**106**	**52**	**39**	**308**				
10. Sent many messages	M	Count	68	51	28	14	161	.432	3	.933	7.815
	F	Count	57	42	28	11	138				
TOTAL		**Count**	**125**	**93**	**56**	**25**	**299**				
11. Pressure for passwords											
	M	Count	67	49	24	22	162	.918	3	.821	7.815
	F	Count	61	40	24	15	140				
TOTAL		**Count**	**128**	**89**	**48**	**37**	**302**				
12. Snooping SNS,SMS	M	Count	59	54	29	21	163	1.602	3	.659	7.815
	F	Count	48	53	28	13	142				
TOTAL		**Count**	**107**	**107**	**57**	**34**	**305**				
13. Pressure to sext	M	Count	72	32	37	22	163	4.803	3	.185	7.815
	F	Count	55	35	23	28	141				
TOTAL		**Count**	**127**	**67**	**60**	**50**	**304**				
14. Shared private information	M	Count	59	49	28	26	162	1.833	3	.608	7.815
	F	Count	48	39	22	31	140				
TOTAL		**Count**	**107**	**88**	**50**	**57**	**302**				
15. Pressure to have sex	M	Count	74	39	36	16	165	14.91	3	**.002**	7.815
	F	Count	41	37	30	34	142				
TOTAL		**Count**	**115**	**76**	**66**	**50**	**307**				
16. Sent sexual photos	M	Count	74	29	33	27	163	9.678	3	**.022**	7.815
	F	Count	49	31	20	41	141				
TOTAL		**Count**	**123**	**60**	**53**	**68**	**304**				