

Domestic Violence Indictors and Coping Styles Among Iranian, Pakistan and Turkish Married Women: A Cultural Study

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ABSTRACT

Domestic violence remains a pervasive global issue affecting women across cultural, social, and economic contexts. This cross-cultural causal-comparative study examined the dimensions of domestic violence psychological, physical, sexual, and economic and the associated coping strategies among married women in Iran, Pakistan, and Turkey. A total of 660 married women (220 from each country), aged 20–65 years and married for at least two years, completed the Domestic Violence Scale and the Coping Style Scale through online administration during the COVID-19 pandemic. Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was utilized to compare violence dimensions and coping methods across the three populations. Results revealed statistically significant differences in all four dimensions of violence among the countries ($p < .001$). Pakistan reported the highest levels of psychological, physical, economic, and sexual violence, followed by Turkey, while Iran exhibited comparatively lower levels in all domains except economic violence, where Iran and Turkey were similar. Significant cross-cultural differences were also found in coping strategies, particularly cognitive coping and problem-solving approaches ($p < .001$), whereas emotional coping did not significantly differ. Pakistani women reported significantly higher cognitive coping scores, and Turkish women exhibited stronger problem-solving tendencies compared to Iranian participants. These variations reflect the influence of cultural norms, economic conditions, gender roles, and societal expectations on both the experience and management of intimate partner violence. The study highlights the necessity of culturally informed interventions, enhanced social support systems, and policies that address the structural determinants of domestic violence in developing countries. Limitations include restricted sampling due to pandemic conditions and the sensitivity of self-reported measures. Future research should incorporate longitudinal designs and explore the role of cultural capital in shaping women's resilience and coping trajectories.

Keywords: Domestic violence; Coping strategies; Cross-cultural comparison; Married women; Iran–Pakistan–Turkey

INTRODUCTION

Violence is a detrimental, universal issue. World Health Organization (WHO), defined violence as the intentional use of physical force, threatened or actual, especially that towards another person or a group, resulting in or having a significant probability of resulting in physical and/or psychological injury, death, maldevelopment, or deprivation (Kurt, Yorguner Küpeli, Sönmez, Bulut & Akvardar, 2018).

Contemporarily, DV has been defined very broadly to include physical abuse (including but not limited to sexual abuse), and psychological and economic abuses. Similarly, the present research focuses on domestic violence (DV) which includes physical, psychological, or economic abuse done by the male family member to dominate or control the female partner. However, the issues of dominance and control have been previously studied to explain the motive and reasoning behind such violence (Sharma, 2016).

As evident from a dearth of state-sponsored, official reports on Violence Against Women (VAW) and subsequent response by state agencies, it appears this prevalent issue is not given due diligence across South Asia. However, there are fragmented reports by non-governmental agencies which provide an insight into the issues of VAW. Although, these reports lack in-depth knowledge and understanding of the causes of violence as shown by the reports provided by numerous foreign agencies, such as the United Nations (UN) and the World Health Organization (WHO). The reports by these autonomous international organizations indicate a significantly high prevalence of self-reported intimate partner violence (IPV), which included but was not limited to sexual violence such as marital and non-partner rape; also, an increasing number of acts of pedophilia as well as gang rapes committed against women by males of varying age cohorts has been noted (UNRISD, 2016).

Research has shown that during ongoing domestic violence, females are mostly the first victims of the abuse (Rahnavardi, Shayan, Babaei, Bostani Khalesi, Havasian & Ahmadi, 2017). Similarly, a recent study indicated that one-third of the world's female population has had at least one experience of DV. In terms of demographics, the study also found that middle- and low-income countries reported higher cases of experiencing DV as compared to higher-income countries (Saffari, Arslan, Yekaninejad, Pakpour & Koing, 2017). This reflects the global impact of DV which goes beyond cultural, social, and economic boundaries. Furthermore, educational advancements also appear to not play a significant role in managing the problem (Mohammadian, Mohtashami, Rohani & Jamshidi, 2018). VAW is one of the deadliest forms of violence in Asia, yet it is drastically overlooked by governments and policymakers. Rodriguez, Shakil, and Morel (2018) stated the devastating impact of VAW and the lack of implementable measures by policymakers to manage the issue. While emphasizing the debilitating role VAW plays in Asian societies, they also noted that the laws present in most Asian countries to reprimand and punish the offenders tend to exclude unregistered and/or unmarried intimate partners.

The present understanding of DV is grounded in the variety of definitions provided over the years through the studies on DV coping mechanisms. Coping has been defined as the cognitive and behavioral response to ever-changing environmental cues and needs (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Such mechanisms aim to respond to intra- and inter- demands that may be viewed as taxing on the individual. Likewise, the constantly occurring process of cognitive appraisal also plays a pivotal role in assessing responses to events and situations based on previous experiences (Childress, Gioia & Campbell, 2017). Within mental health, coping mechanisms are further defined as cognitive expressions through thought and behavior in order to exercise control over stressful situations, thus being supportive in the prevention of and restraint over stressors (Fallah, Talemi, Bagheri Allameh, Mazloumirad et al., 2019). Some common coping mechanisms as stated in the literature include increased sense of spirituality, temporary or permanent separation from spouse or partner, choosing silence over verbal or physical confrontation, submission and pacifying the spouse/partner through different means, minimizing the extent of the violence and/or its denial, and seeking external support (e.g., Taherkhani, Negarandeh, Simbar, Fazlollah, & Ahmadi, 2016).

Özcan, Günaydın, and Çitil (2016) described the Turkish Domestic Violence Against Women (DVAW, 2015) report, which stated that 43.9% of the respondents experienced emotional violence, 33.5% experienced physical violence, 30% shared to have experienced economic violence, and 12% had experienced sexual violence. Furthermore, Garrusi et al. (2008) reported that the prevalence rates among women who frequented health centers in Kerman, Iran, included emotional (60.7%), physical (41.4%), and sexual (25.2%) violence. Whereas Taherkhani, Negarandeh, Simbar, and Ahmadi (2016) reported the violence rates in Marivan, Iran, which reflected significantly high levels of IPV, in that, 79.7% of women were subjected to psychological violence, 60% to physical, and 32.9% shared experiences of sexual violence.

In Karachi, the largest metropolitan city in Pakistan, Ali, Mogren and Krantz (2013) found the increasing levels of VAW. The study indicated the prevalence of physical violence (56.3%), sexual violence (53.4%), and psychological violence (82%) among a community-based sample of women.

A view of the literature shows that in order to deal with the consequences of violence, the strategies adopted by survivors of IPV could be a strong indicator of whether their well-being is maintained or their likelihood of experiencing further violence (Mary, 2020). Thus, the present study is focusing on examining these coping strategies.

The past two decades have seen an increase in awareness regarding VAW in South Asian and Middle Eastern countries. However, South Asian countries, in particular, also reflect an increase in the prevalence of psychological, physical, and emotional abuse among intimate partners. In recent years, studies have also focused on women being perpetrators (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2018). However, the present study focuses specifically on VAW within IPV, which has been seen to occur in a variety of settings, irrespective of socio-economic statuses, religious inclinations, and cultural differences (Niaz, Hassan, & Tariq, 2017). Moreover, there is a growing body of research being conducted in multiple countries investigating the individual and cultural attitudes towards DV from different strata of societies. However, not only is there a lack of cross-cultural studies, but certain variables such as the roles of political agendas and economic stability of the countries impacting support for DV survivors also lack representation in the literature (Sardinha, & Nájera Catalán, 2018). The societal support and cultural acceptance of IPV are

dependent on numerous factors including personal ideologies, hence, individual and collective coping mechanisms vastly vary and are extensively context dependent. Nevertheless, to understand and develop effective and sustainable prevention and management strategies, an in-depth exploration of coping mechanisms used by women is required (Khodabakhshi-Koolae, Bagherian, & Rahmatizadeh, 2018).

Therefore, the present comparative study aims to understand VAW from a cross-cultural perspective that focuses on the dimensions and coping methods of married women in Iran, Pakistan, and Turkey.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The present study investigated the causal-comparative relationship between the dimensions of domestic violence and the coping methods employed by married women in Iran, Pakistan, and Turkey.

The study targeted married, adult women between the ages of 20-65yrs, who had been in a marital relationship for a minimum of two years. However, due to the unprecedented events experienced the world over because of the COVID-19 pandemic, the outreach of the researchers from all three countries was restricted to only electronic administration of the questionnaires. In these exceptional circumstances, a total of 660 women (220 from each country) were gathered over a period of three months.

The collected demographic characteristics of the participants included their education, number of years of marriage, country of residence, nationality, and the number of children. The questionnaires used to investigate the study's constructs are enumerated as follows:

The Domestic Violence Scale (Haj-Yahia, 1999) measures the level of violence against women. It is constituted of 32 items divided into four subscales measuring psychological ($r=.71$), physical ($r=.86$), sexual ($r=.93$), and economic ($r=.92$) aspects. Amiri and Shamili (2014) presented a good internal consistency of the domestic violence scale ($\alpha=.86$). The present study produced a value of $\alpha=.95$ for the scale. Also Coping Style Scale (Billings & Moss, 1984) measures three coping mechanisms, namely, cognitive, emotional, and problem-solving orientation. The test-retest reliability of the scale has been noted to be .79 (Ghadamgahi, 1997), whereas the external reliability has been calculated at .78. The present study produced a value of $\alpha=.71$ for the scale. It should be noted that multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to analyze the data in this study.

FINDINGS

The statistical programs SPSS and AMOS software were used to conduct the analysis of data. In the initial stage of data analysis, an understanding of the participants' demographic characteristics was made (See table 1 for the generated classifications). A total of 660 married women in Iran, Pakistan, and Turkey participated in the study. The largest age groups of the Iranian (31%) and Turkish (27%) participants were in the 30-34 years group and Pakistani participants were 26-29 years group (23%). Also, the education level of participants was divided into 5 significant groups: illiterate, under Diploma, Diploma, Bachelors, Masters' and above. The largest educational group in Iran (42%) and Pakistan (78%) was a master's degree, whereas, in Turkey, the largest group was a bachelor's degree at 44%. The third descriptive indicator was the number of children in the study groups. A large group of Iranian participants were without a child (37%) compared to Pakistani participants (25%). On the other hand, having two children accounted for the largest group among Turkish participants (41%). However, collectively, the analyses illustrated that majority of the participants had only one child (33%). The participants were also required to provide the duration of their marriage. These values indicated that the common denominator in the number of years was 11 years or more for all three countries, i.e., Iran with 51%, Pakistan with 54%, and Turkey with 71%. Demographic data for sample groups are indicated in Table 1.

Table1: Demographic data in samples groups

Variable	Count	Country			
		Iran	Turkey	Pakistan	Total
Age	20-24 years	12(5.5%)	5(2.3%)	39(17.7%)	56(8.5%)
	25-29 years	31(14.1%)	39(17.7%)	51(23.2%)	121(18.3%)
	30-34 years	67(30.5%)	59(26.8%)	24(10.9%)	150(22.7%)
	35-39 years	29(13.2%)	57(25.9%)	24(10.9%)	110(16.7%)
	40-44 years	37(16.8%)	17(7.7%)	279(12.3%)	81(12.3%)
	45-49 years	12(5.5%)	22(10.0%)	22(10.0%)	56(8.5%)
	50-54 years	18(8.2%)	10(4.5%)	16(7.3%)	44(6.7%)
	55-59 years	11(5.0%)	7(3.2%)	12(5.5%)	30(4.5%)
	Up to 60	3(1.4%)	4(1.8%)	5(2.3%)	12(1.8%)

	Total	220(100%)	220(100%)	220(100%)	660(100%)
Education	illiterate	5 (2.3%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	5(0.8%)
	Under Diploma	5(2.3%)	48(21.8%)	3(1.4%)	56(8.5%)
	Diploma	37(16.8%)	60(27.3%)	9(4.1%)	106(16.1%)
	Bachelor	81(36.8%)	96(43.6%)	37(16.8%)	214(32.4%)
	Master and above	92(41.8%)	16(7.3%)	171(77.7%)	279(42.3%)
	Total	220(100%)	220(100%)	220(100%)	660(100%)
Number of children	No children	81(36.8%)	27(12.3%)	55(25.0%)	163(24.7%)
	No children	76(34.5%)	55(25.0%)	54(24.5%)	185(24.5%)
	Two children	54(24.5%)	91(41.4%)	36(16.4%)	181(27.4%)
	Three children	9(4.1%)	36(16.4%)	54(24.5%)	99(15.0%)
	Four children and more	0(0.0%)	11(5.0%)	21(9.5%)	32(4.8%)
	Total	220(100%)	220(100%)	220(100%)	660(100%)
Length of marriage	1 - 5 years	62(28.2%)	14(6.4%)	64(29.1%)	140(21.2%)
	6 - 10 years	45(20.5%)	51(23.2%)	38(17.3%)	134(20.3%)
	11 years and more	113(51.4%)	155(70.5%)	118(53.6%)	386(58.5%)
	Total	220(100%)	220(100%)	220(100%)	660(100%)

In the following table, descriptive indicators of research variables are reported.

Table 2: descriptive indicators of variables

Variable	Country	min	max	mean	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Physical violence	Iran	11	38	14,631	6,286	1,014	1,510
	Turkey	11	44	17,345	8,244	1,411	1,230
	Pakistan	11	62	31,881	6,908	-.482	1.150
Psychological violence	Iran	16	64	30,754	12,929	.784	-.435
	Turkey	16	64	36,522	14,862	.313	-1,182
	Pakistan	16	64	45,868	6,481	-.054	1,146
Economic violence	Iran	3	12	4,327	2,358	1,722	1,771
	Turkey	3	12	4,490	2,605	1,664	1,511
	Pakistan	3	12	6,022	2,916	.552	-,753
Sexual violence	Iran	2	8	3,040	1,836	1,747	1,889
	Turkey	2	9	3,909	2,285	.874	-.647
	Pakistan	2	8	5,886	1,930	-.625	-.580
Violence (total)	Iran	32	121	52,7561	20,628	1,152	.372
	Turkey	32	128	62,268	24,431	.670	-.488
	Pakistan	40	128	89,659	12,968	-.437	21,509
Emotional coping	Iran	2	34	15,645	6,749	.425	-.167
	Turkey	1	38	17,218	6,751	.301	.231
	Pakistan	5	43	16,313	5,086	.603	1,632
Cognitive coping	Iran	1	30	17,377	5,017	.070	-.038
	Turkey	1	30	16,963	5,184	-.107	.402
	Pakistan	10	30	22,413	2,524	1,925	1,995
Problem -solving	Iran	1	15	3,995	2,864	1,034	1,718
	Turkey	1	15	4,972	2,926	.502	.182
	Pakistan	1	10	3,468	1,952	.680	.629

According to the results, the data collected was normally distributed and did not have significant outliers, hence, further analysis, i.e., MANOVA was conducted.

Hypothesis 1

The dimensions of violence among married women in Iran, Pakistan, and Turkey are different.

To analyze the above hypothesis, multivariate analysis of MANOVA was used. First, normality was evaluated by K-S test and the same variance of dependent variables was evaluated by Levene's test. The hypothetical data for analyzing the above hypothesis to compare the mean dimensions of violence (physical, psychological, sexual, and economic violence) show equal variance not assumed. Therefore, a stricter alpha level was used when evaluating the dependent variables. The covariance matrix (Box's M test) exhibited that there was a covariance matrix among dependent variables and different levels of independent variables were not homogenous between these groups (Box's M= 264,374, $p < .001$). However, it is understood that when the sample size is large, the Box's M statistic shows a good statistical power (Norman & Streiner, 2008). Thus, to determine the significance of the effect of a country on the dimensions of violence, multivariate tests were used. The present study employed Pillai's test as reported in Table 3.

Table 3: Multivariate Tests

	Effect	Value	F	df	Error df	Sig.
Country	Pillai's Trace	.608	71.551	8.000	1310	.001
	Wilk's Lambda	.411	91.624	8.000	1308	.001
	Hotelling's Trace	1.389	113.367	8.000	1306	.001
	Roy's Largest Root	1.355	221.875	4.000	655	.001

The results of Pillai's Trace test show that there was a significant difference between the three countries in at least one of the dimensions of violence ($F = 71.551$, $df(8, 1310)$, $p = .001$). According to the results obtained from multivariate tests, the analyses related to the effects between the subjects were examined, the results of which can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Country	Psychological violence	25595.639	2	12797.820	89.271	.001	.214
	Physical violence	37857.027	2	18928.514	365.832	.001	.527
	Economic violence	384.839	2	192.420	27.673	.001	.078
	Sexual violence	935.730	2	467.865	113.891	.001	.257
Error	Psychological violence	94186.809	657	143.359			
	Physical violence	33993.850	657	51.741			
	Economic violence	4568.305	657	6.953			
	Sexual violence	2698.973	657	4.108			

Since the assumption of homogeneity of variances was not confirmed, the alpha level was considered to be more stringent. However, differences in all dimensions of violence were also confirmed at the 0.001 level. According to table 3, univariate F tests showed that there were significant differences between the three countries in terms of psychological violence ($F = 89,271$, $df = 2$, $p = .001$), physical violence ($F = 365.83$, $df = 2$, $p = .001$), economic violence ($F = 27,673$, $df = 2$, $p = .001$), and sexual violence ($F = 467,865$ $df = 2$, $p = .001$). As the values of the η^2 coefficient showed that physical violence with 53% more is affected by the type of country under study. To evaluate the extent and manner of differences, a post hoc test was used. Due to a lack of homogeneity of variance in sample groups, the Dunnett's test was used to compare the means of the three countries. The results are shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable	Country (I)	Country (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Psychological violence	Iran	Turkey	-5.7682*	1.32814	.001
		Pakistan	-15.1136*	.97512	.001
	Turkey	Iran	5.7682*	1.32814	.001
		Pakistan	-9.3455*	1.09315	.001
	Pakistan	Iran	15.1136*	.97512	.001
		Turkey	9.3455*	1.09315	.001
Physical violence	Iran	Turkey	-2.7136*	.69900	.001
		Pakistan	-17.2500*	.62976	.001

¹ Partial Eta Squared

Economic violence	Turkey	Iran	2.7136*	.69900	.001
		Pakistan	-14.5364*	.72520	.001
	Pakistan	Iran	17.2500*	.62976	.001
		Turkey	14.5364*	.72520	.001
	Iran	Turkey	-.1636	.23696	.867
		Pakistan	-1.6955*	.25289	.001
	Turkey	Iran	.1636	.23696	.867
		Pakistan	-1.5318*	.26368	.001
	Pakistan	Iran	1.6955*	.25289	.001
		Turkey	1.5318*	.26368	.001
Sexual violence	Iran	Turkey	-.8682*	.19768	.001
		Pakistan	-2.8455*	.17964	.001
	Turkey	Iran	.8682*	.19768	.001
		Pakistan	-1.9773*	.20171	.001
	Pakistan	Iran	2.8455*	.17964	.001
		Turkey	1.9773*	.20171	.001

The abovementioned results show the mean of psychological violence was significantly different between the three countries. The average score of psychological violence in Iran was about 6 points lower than in Turkey and 15 points lower than in Pakistan, and psychological violence in Turkey was about 9 points lower than in Pakistan. There was also a significant difference between the three countries in terms of physical violence. Iran was about 3 points lower than Turkey and 17 points lower than Pakistan. The average violence in Turkey was about 15 points lower than in Pakistan. In terms of economic violence, there was no significant difference between Iran and Turkey, but this type of violence in Iran was 2 points lower than in Pakistan, which became statistically significant, whereas, in Turkey, it was about 1.5 points lower than in Pakistan. Sexual violence was also significantly indicated between the three countries. Iran was about 1 point lower than Turkey and about 3 points lower than Pakistan. Turkey was also about 2 points lower than Pakistan.

Hypothesis 2

Coping styles are different among married women in Iran, Pakistan, and Turkey

This hypothesis was analyzed in a similar manner as the first hypothesis, i.e., with MANOVA, K-S test, and the uniformity of variance of dependent variables evaluated by Levene's test. The hypothetical data for analyzing the above hypothesis to compare the mean of coping styles (emotional coping, cognitive coping, and problem-solving coping) show equal variance not assumed. Therefore, a stricter alpha level was used when evaluating the dependent variables. Also, the covariance matrix (Box's M test) showed that there was no homogeneity between groups (Box's M= 264,374, $p < .001$). Therefore, in order to determine the significant effect of the country on the coping styles, multivariate tests were used (specifically Pillai's Trace). The results of which are reported in Table 6.

Table 6: Multivariate Tests

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
country Pillai's Trace	.286	36.416	6.000	1312.000	.001	.143
Wilks' Lambda	.720	38.970	6.000	1310.000	.001	.151
Hotellin's Trace	.381	41.544	6.000	1308.000	.001	.160
Roy's Largest Root	.360	78.657	3.000	656.000	.001	.265

The results of Pillai's Trace test show that there was a significant difference between the three countries of Iran, Pakistan, and Turkey in at least one of the types of coping styles ($F = 36.416$, $df(6, 1312)$, $p = .001$). According to the results obtained by Pillai's Trace test, the analyses related to the effects between the subjects were examined, the results of which can be seen in Table 7.

Table 7: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
country	Emotional coping	274.130	2	137.065	3.514	.030	.011
	Cognitive coping	4050.827	2	2025.414	104.003	.000	.240
	Problem-solving coping	256.427	2	128.214	18.688	.000	.054
Error	Emotional coping	25623.232	657	39.000			
	Cognitive coping	12794.755	657	19.475			
	Problem-solving coping	4507.609	657	6.861			

Since the assumption of homogeneity of variances was not confirmed, the alpha level was considered to be more stringent. For this reason, Bonferroni correction was applied with the alpha level of 0.05. Dividing by 3 (number of dependent variables) the modified alpha level was equal to 0.017. Based on the findings shown in Table 7, univariate F tests showed that between the three countries in terms of emotional coping style ($F = 3.514$, $df = 2$, $p = .030 > .017$), where the p-value was not significant. However, cognitive coping style ($F = 104,003$, $df = 2$, $p = .001$) and the coping style of problem solving ($F = 18.688$, $df = 2$, $p = .001$) had the significant differences. The ETA coefficient showed cognitive coping style to be 24% more affected by the type of country under study. Also, to investigate the differences between the components of coping styles, Dunnett's test as post hoc was used. The results are shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable	Country (I)	Country (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Cognitive coping	Iran	Turkey	.4136	.48642	.779
		Pakistan	-5.0364*	.37868	.000
	Turkey	Iran	-.4136	.48642	.779
		Pakistan	-5.4500*	.38874	.000
	Pakistan	Iran	5.0364*	.37868	.000
		Turkey	5.4500*	.38874	.000
Problem_ Solving coping	Iran	Turkey	-.9773*	.27610	.001
		Pakistan	.5273	.23372	.072
	Turkey	Iran	.9773*	.27610	.001
		Pakistan	1.5045*	.23719	.000
	Pakistan	Iran	-.5273	.23372	.072
		Turkey	-1.5045*	.23719	.000

*Mean difference is significant at .05 level.

The results of the above table showed that the average score of cognitive coping styles between Iran and Turkey were not significantly different, but both Iran and Turkey were 5 points (each) significantly lower than Pakistan in terms of this style. Moreover, for the coping style of problem-solving, Iranian respondents were about 1 point lower than Turkish respondents, making it statistically significant. However, there was no significant difference between the responses when compared between Iran and Pakistan for problem-solving. Furthermore, Turkey significantly differed from Pakistan in terms of this style by about 1.5 points.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study cross-culturally compared the dimensions of domestic violence and coping methods among married women aged 20 to 65 years from three countries (i.e., Iran, Pakistan, and Turkey) by employing MANOVA. The results showed that the highest reporting age group among Iranian and Turkish married women were 30-34 years, and Pakistani women aged 26-29 yrs. Additionally, the highest frequency for the level of education among Iranian and Pakistani married women was reported to be postgraduate and higher education. In the case of Turkish women, it was a bachelor's degree. Most of the respondents from Iran and Pakistan had no children, but most Turkish respondents had at least two children. Regarding the duration of the marriage, the highest frequency in all three groups was reported to be above 11 years. The results of the analysis showed that the average

total score of violence in all three countries was higher than the average score on the Violence Measurement Questionnaire. The findings are consistent with the research of Sharma and Borah (2020), which has reflected the growing trends of violence on the streets, the high frequency of sensationalized media reporting around the world, and the increased risks of experiencing violence in one's own home. From global estimates, 736 million women (approximately one in three women) have been abused by a partner at least once in their lifetime (30% of women were aged 15yrs and over). However, consequences of facing violence such as depression, anxiety disorders, unplanned pregnancies, sexually transmitted infections, HIV, and many other health problems that occur after the violence has ended can further extrapolate the abuse experience.

Consistent with the reported findings, previous literature from all three countries can be compared separately. For instance, an Iranian nationwide study conducted in 28 provinces showed that in 66% of the surveyed families, women had experienced violence at least once since the beginning of their marriage. 30% of households reported serious and acute violence and 10% of households reported violence leading to temporary and permanent injuries (Ghazi Tabatabai, 2014). According to experts, many of the current problems in Iranian society, especially families, are due to the transition of society from a traditional to a modern structure. Increasing women's capacity, employment, and financial independence, as well as changing the social structure of a family has led to a change in the role of women in the family and society. On the other hand, the incompatibility of men and women with these changes and new lifestyles has led to problems and increased levels of stress in the society and family setups. Consequently, it has increased the quantity and quality of communication with the outside world through media, travel, and dealing with culture. It is undeniable that different societies are intensifying the effects of this issue. Therefore, one of the factors that could be significant in the occurrence of violence against women is cultural factors and the lack of cultural capital in families and society (Ahmadi, 2015).

Compared to a similar study conducted in Pakistan (Ashraf et al., 2017), a much higher percentage of domestic violence was reported (about 90% of married women). The prevalence was psychological violence (69.4%), physical violence (37.5%), and sexual violence (21.2%). The causes of domestic violence in this study were identified as poverty, husband influence, second marriage, stepfather children, forced intimate relations, husband irresponsibility, addiction, and children with disabilities. Ashraf et al. (2017) showed that 90% of women in the Bahawalpur area of Pakistan experienced domestic violence which was committed by close familial relations as husbands, brothers, fathers, and/or other male family members. The study suggested that the experience of childhood violence and observational learning of these types of interactions and exposure to domestic violence could be important factors in continuing the experience of violence in adulthood and married life. This may indicate generational trauma and repetition of abuse and violence. This case of a risk factor for abuse is consistent with the current study. Economic factors seem to be prominent as one of the main factors in creating violent behaviors in society, as supported by previous literature (e.g., Murshid, 2017). All the main stakeholders and members of society stated that the lack of economic resources is the main cause of many evils. Poverty has been associated with an increase in violence against women, including sexual violence and trafficking as economic deprivation is associated with social injustice and contributes to frustration and violence (UN Women, 2014). Gender-based violence against women is prevalent the world over and can be observed in all societies and all social strata. However, the prevalence, type, severity, consequences, and contributing factors of this phenomenon in different communities are different. Its prevalence is impacted by various economic, social, and cultural factors. Numerous studies continue to emphasize the existence of this important phenomenon widely around the world. However, current knowledge about gender-based violent beliefs and stereotypes is limited because existing data are derived from different parts of the world. Comparative knowledge across countries is scarce, despite its association with understanding the different effects of exposure to different patriarchal structures on gender-based violent beliefs and stereotypes (Fakunmoju, 2017). For example, studies by Moreno-Garcia et al. (2015) showed that in Asian and Eastern cultures, patriarchal attitudes have led to a higher rate of gender-based violence compared to Western countries.

Furthermore, the findings of Sen and Bolsoy (2017) in Turkey showed a 30% prevalence of domestic violence. The results of this study showed that the variables: age, education, employment, social support, immigration status, living environment, duration of the marriage, age of women at the time of marriage, employment status, male spouse's education, and polygamy, have a significant impact on the experience of violence faced by women. The results of Duran and Eraslan (2019) also show that 26% of Turkish women have experienced varying degrees of domestic violence. Findings of this study showed among physical abuse, the physical beating was significantly rated, among verbal abuse, shouting and screaming were significant, among emotional abuse, neglect was reportedly significant, among sexual abuse, coercion to perform sexual acts was highly significant, and among economic abuse, the respondents shared the deprivation of basic household needs.

In addition to examining the dimensions of violence against Turkish women, Gümüş, Şıpkın, and Erdem (2020) showed that the rate of physical violence was 34.7% during women's lifetime. The rate of women experiencing emotional violence in the year prior to the conduction of the current study was 48.7% and 52.7%. The most common form of emotional violence, both in 2020 and throughout the respondents' lives was a lack of support. The rate of women exposed to sexual violence was 11.3% in 2020 and 14% during their lifetime.

As shown in the present study, the average psychological violence is significantly different between the three countries. The average score of psychological violence in Iran was lower compared to Turkey and Pakistan. Additionally, the result in Turkey was lower than in Pakistan. A significant difference was noted between the three countries in terms of physical violence. This

was lower in Iran than in Turkey and Pakistan, and lower in Turkey than in Pakistan. In terms of economic violence, there was no significant difference between Iran and Turkey, however, this type of violence in Iran was lower compared to Pakistan, which was statistically significant. Additionally, economic violence in Turkey was lower than in Pakistan. Sexual violence was also significant in the three countries. This type of violence was lower in Iran than in Turkey and Pakistan, and lower in Turkey than in Pakistan.

These differences could indicate that the many cultures are ill-equipped in their understanding of managing and preventing violence against women, whilst its repeated occurrence appears to be significantly frequent. The results of a recent study showed that 26% of Kazakhs, 29% of Nepalis, 56% of Turks, and 57% of Indians consider male violence against their wives as a norm in order to maintain unity through male dominance in the family system (Yeke Kar & Hosseini, 2020).

Studies on societal attitudes toward violence against women have previously shown a lack of opposition from younger age cohorts. This could be a reflection of the deep-rooted patriarchal values of the countries as well as the generation under study. However, in recent years, mass awareness is gradually bringing a positive change in the attitudes through a better understanding of abuse and violence in these countries.

Furthermore, in line with the findings of the present study, the studies of Hajjani et al. (2014) can also be referred to, which reported data in 15 countries that a prevalence of physical, sexual, or both acts of violence, was noted to be between 15% and 71%.

Although there are cultural similarities in the present study's sample groups, the data has shown varying results. This is also supported by previous literature which states that individual attitudes toward domestic violence against women in seven countries geographically close countries: Armenia, Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Kazakhstan, Nepal, and Turkey vary considerably amongst each other (Rani & Bono, 2009).

The results of the second hypothesis similarly showed that the coping patterns among Iranian, Pakistani, and Turkish women, such as the methods of cognitive coping and problem solving, were significantly different. However, there was no significant difference between the methods of emotional coping among women experiencing violence in the three countries. The results have also shown that the intergroup effect had the greatest effect with 24% on the cognitive coping method compared to the problem-solving method.

Longitudinal, follow-up studies in the literature also showed that this difference between Iranian, Pakistani, and Turkish women is methodologically significant, however, the present study did not yield a significant difference between Iranian and Turkish respondents. Furthermore, no significant difference between Iranian and Pakistani women was noted in terms of problem-solving.

Studies have shown that individuals' coping strategies vary according to the difficulty of the situation and internal and external resources (e.g., Dahl et al., 2014), personality traits of the perpetrator as well as the sufferer (e.g., Carver & Connor-Smith, 2010), and the severity and type of inflicted violence (e.g., Lazarus, 2006). Coping strategies play an important role in managing stressful life events. They are considered to be the normal responses, acts, certain behaviors and thoughts in response to abnormal situations in order to reduce and manage the level of stress and subsequent negative emotions (Bahrami et al., 2016).

A study by Sadeghi Fasayi (2011) and Bahrami et al. (2016) showed that women who are exposed to domestic violence have a tendency of employing a variety of coping strategies including seeking external social support, active problem-solving, self-blame, positive reassessment through denial, and avoidance. Further research has also shown that experiences of physical violence among Turkish women result in lower self-esteem (Gümüş, Şipkin, & Erdem, 2020). Also, women who have been exposed to emotional violence used the surrender method more than those who have not experienced such abuse. Whereas women who have been exposed to sexual violence are less likely to be self-confident and use optimism-based approaches to cope with their circumstances as compared to those who have not.

In line with the present study, the findings of Bhandari (2019), which examined coping strategies with a sample of 21 abused women in Mumbai, India, reported through a qualitative analysis of the significant relationship between women's usage of emotion-based strategies over problem-based.

Previous literature further supports current findings such as the study conducted in Turkey (Dildar, 2020). It was found that women, who stay at home use less active coping strategies and tend to be in denial of the abuse also report higher incidences of violence. Whereas a study by Irmak and Altıntaş (2017) found that women living in safe houses and shelters were more likely to use active coping strategies.

According to their research, the repeated use of active coping methods in women who have taken refuge in safe houses can be related to the fact that the decision to go to shelters and prevent violence is, in fact, an active coping attitude. Therefore, it can be concluded that the use of coping methods is also greatly influenced by the culture and conditions within which women are subjected to violence.

The limitations of this study included 1) the lack of generalizability of the study sample, as the study was conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic, which restricted the researchers' ability to expand the community access to gather data, 2) the fear of stigma and labeling may also be another factor for the cautious responding to the sensitive items in the survey.

To conclude, the present study indicated that the amount of cultural capital plays a significant role in the position of women in terms of the type of relationship they have with their husbands (whether the relationship is bilateral, democratic or series). It can

be said that women's cultural capital can create different relationship dynamics with their husbands and other family members, and therefore, change lifestyles.

Hence, it is suggested that structural research be done to identify women's cultural capital and its relationship with family interactions in the current political and economic state of developing countries.

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