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**Predictors and Consequences of Intimate Partner Violence Impacting
Korean Women**

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Korean Women**

by

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ABSTRACT

Predictors and Consequences of Intimate Partner Violence Impacting Korean Women

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Abstract: Intimate partner violence (IPV) is an ongoing health issue in South Korea. IPV has significant adverse effects on women's lives and causes irreparable injuries. This dissertation sought to examine the physical and mental consequences of IPV and identify which predictors within the intimate relationship develop into actual violence. First, we reviewed the context of intimate partner femicide (IPF), the most serious form of IPV, and factors affecting IPF in South Korea. Findings indicate that Koreans' relatively low public awareness of IPF compared to its seriousness is partly due to the influence of traditional Korean culture. Societal factors such as a Confucian culture emphasizing traditional Korean women's roles, patriarchal family structure, and passive police officers have had a tremendous influence on the other factors. Second, we focused on how behavior considered to be romantic in intimate relationships develops into IPV. We found that one partner's control over the other plays an important role in the progression to IPV

perpetration and the insecurity of the adult attachments in this progression. As a result, control over a partner can be considered a warning sign for more severe forms of IPV, including physical, psychological, and sexual violence. Therefore, it is necessary to raise awareness in Korean society and develop sensitivity to recognize dominance over others as unsafe and unhealthy behavior, not as a way for men to express love toward women. Last, using the concept of gender-role stress, we sought to examine how traditional cultural values affect Korean women's depressive symptoms related to IPV. In addition, we explored how personal resources such as self-esteem and life satisfaction factor into those symptoms. The results showed that gender-role stress was positively related to IPV severity and depressive symptoms and negatively associated with self-esteem and life satisfaction. In summary, findings indicate the importance of accessible and timely interventions for women exposed to IPV, and further research is needed to find ways to best support women's physical and mental health and protect them when IPV occurs. Future work assessing the cultural aspects of IPV can provide additional insight into factors related to both risk and protection, allowing for intervention efforts based on IPV experience and thus promoting safe and healthy adjustment.

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Chapter I: Introduction

Intimate partner violence (IPV) is a major public health concern and a human right issue across most countries (World Health Organization [WHO], 2013). The Centers for Disease Control (CDC) and Prevention defined IPV as physical, sexual, and/or psychological violence in intimate relationship (Beydoun et al., 2012). Although it can happen in any kind of intimate relationship, IPV is the most common form of violence against women (WHO, 2012). Although men may also experience IPV by their female partners, females are likely to undergo severe consequences of IPV (Breiding et al., 2014; Melander & Marganski, 2020; Rennison & Welchans, 2000; Thompson et al., 2006). Many of these women are mothers who are worried about the effect witnessing IPV may have on their children (Sundborg et al., 2012). In fact, child maltreatment occurs in many families in which the mother experiences IPV (Chan, 2011). More seriously, those women who experienced or observed abuse in childhood were more likely to report later IPV victimization, perpetration, and mental health consequences including post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), depression, and sleep problem (Lagdon et al., 2014).

The focus of this dissertation is violence affecting Korean women. IPV is not only a serious social problem in South Korea but also a global public health problem. IPV has far-reaching adverse effects on women's health. In addition, a significant number of deaths in women are attributed to IPV. The overarching purpose of this study is to

investigate the predictors and consequences of IPV on South Korean women using a cultural lens. The following literature review will first provide the background on IPV, then discuss related health consequences, and finally address the circumstances of the IPV in South Korea. Last, the dissertation overview will be described.

INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE: PREVALENCE, RISK FACTORS

Globally, 30% of women report that they have experienced IPV in their lifetimes (WHO, 2017). IPV is a severe public health problem in the United States as well and varies in severity and frequency, often happening on a continuum. In the United States, the CDC reported that more than 12 million women and men were victims of IPV during the year 2014. More than 20% of women and 14% of men experience a severe physical form of IPV—that is nearly 30 million women and 16 million men in the United States. These national data also show that 9% of women have experienced sexual IPV at some point in their lives (Breiding, 2014). Of female victims, 47.1% were aged 18–24 when they first experienced IPV, which is commonly identified as the period during which women are most likely to make first intimate relationships (Breiding et al., 2014). The most extreme form of IPV is intimate partner homicide, and at least 1 in 7 murders is committed by an intimate partner (Stöckl et al., 2013). For women, that proportion is even more problematic: a recent CDC study found that 55% of female murders in the United States were related to IPV (Petrosky et al., 2017).

IPV is the result of factors at the individual, family, community, and social levels that interact with one another to increase or decrease risk. Some factors are associated

with being a perpetrator of or a victim of IPV. CDC (2019) reported that lower education level, a history of exposure to child abuse, witnessing family violence, alcohol abuse, controlling behaviors toward partners, and low level of gender equality were associated with both IPV perpetration and victimization. Antisocial personality traits, harmful masculine behaviors, and social norms regarding the acceptability of violence against women were contributors to IPV perpetration. On the other hand, to explain IPV, feminist theories have stressed that IPV is rooted in power, gender, and male dominance, all of which indicate active attempts to maintain control over women (Anderson, 1997). In general, IPV is socially acceptable and was more common among people in unfavorable environments, including those who were in households in the lowest class of society, who lived in rural areas, and who had received limited formal education (Tran et al., 2016). Feminist scholars argue that victims' acceptance of violence reflects the idea that men have control over their female partners and that the male partners' lack of similar authority in their social lives and economic capabilities tend to intensify their violence in the home (Anderson, 1997; Kalmuss & Straus, 2017).

HEALTH CONSEQUENCES STEMMING FROM INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE

IPV causes profound short- and long-term physical, mental, and reproductive health consequences and affects victims' well-being (WHO, 2012). This violence leads to high social and economic costs for women, their families, and societies. IPV has been associated with substantial negative health consequences, including, for example, mortality related to homicide or suicide, direct physical effects of assault-related injuries,

unintended pregnancies, induced abortions, and sexually transmitted infections including HIV (Ansara & Hindin, 2011; Campbell, 2002; Coker et al., 2002; Stöckl et al., 2013). Injured survivors of IPV often experience chronic health problems such as pain (back pain, abdominal pain, chronic pelvic pain), insomnia, and gastrointestinal symptoms (Campbell, 2002; Dutton & Goodman, 2005; Dutton et al., 1997). More seriously, the consequences of IPV far exceed the adverse physical effects. Severe mental health burdens include depression, PTSD and other anxiety disorders, sleep difficulties, and more suicidal ideas and attempts compared to those who are not exposed to IPV (Pico-Alfonso et al., 2006).

INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE IN SOUTH KOREA

In the past, IPV was considered a personal problem, but since the late 1980s, IPV has emerged as a social issue in South Korea through the improvement of women's social status and activities (Go, 2016). As a solution, Act on the Prevention of Domestic Violence and Protection of Victims was enacted in 1997 to provide a legal basis for solving IPV-related social problems (Choi, 2022). Afterward, various social services—such as a 24-hour women's emergency hotline, the expansion of counseling centers, and a one-stop support center for IPV—were provided. However, despite these efforts, according to the results of the Ministry of Gender Equality and Family's survey on IPV, the incidence of IPV was 44.6% in 2004, 54.8% in 2010, and 45.5% in 2013 (Kim, 2016). In the 2016 survey, the incidence was 41.5%. As a result of analyzing IPV in 2017 and 2018, the Korea Women's Policy Institute and the Supreme Prosecutors' Office

announced that most of the relationships between perpetrators and victims were common-law marriages, with 83.8% of the perpetrators' being male. In addition, the number of consultations over the women's hotline operated by the Ministry of Gender Equality and Family was 352,269 as of 2018, an increase of about 21.9% from 2017, with 289,032 (Choi, 2022). More seriously, IPV does not occur once and end but has the characteristic of repeating. In fact, the recurrence rate of IPV is also steadily increasing, from 7.9% in 2008 to 20.3% in 2010 and 32.2% in 2012 (Kim, 2016). However, many female victims simply endure the violence without trying to come up with a fundamental solution because they do not want to provoke anger from their partners, who provide living spaces and basic living expenses due to their weak economic power (Park, 2018). In a study of Korean IPV victims' reactions to the violence, 66.6% of respondents—the largest percentage—reported, "I was just holding it in." Only 1% reported asking for help from others. The reasons most did not ask for help were that they thought the violence did not seem serious (41.2%) and they were too embarrassed to reveal the problems in their households to others (29.6%) (Choi, 2021).

DISSERTATION OVERVIEW

Understanding the underlying predictors associated with IPV perpetration and the consequences associated with IPV victimization is important for researchers who seek to implement improved IPV intervention and prevention methods. The overarching goal of this dissertation is to assess the impact of IPV in South Korea by considering the societal

and cultural aspects and to provide prevention and intervention methods to perpetrators and victims.

The first paper focuses on the most extreme form of IPV, which is the murder of a woman by an intimate partner, or IPF, in South Korea. The research questions guiding the first paper included (a) “What are the circumstances of IPF in South Korea?” and (b) “What are the risk factors associated with IPF in South Korea?” Because of the limited number of studies, only 9 articles were selected for review. The studies were mainly designed to understand the characteristics of the IPV cases and the perpetrators. By applying an ecological model to these studies, risk factors were identified at the individual, relationship, community, and societal levels. These studies have found that the risk factors at the societal level—Korean culture, policy, and law—have a significant impact on the killing of women by their intimate partners, but no clear solution has been proposed.

The second paper seeks to examine the role of attachment styles on the association between controlling behaviors and IPV perpetration in the context of South Korea. In this paper, controlling behaviors were not considered to be psychological violence, although some literature conceptually linked partners’ controlling behaviors to psychological violence. Using existing national data collected from a representative Korean sample of 2,000 unmarried men, the findings indicated that men’s controlling behaviors were positively associated with IPV and that their insecure attachments moderated this association. In conclusion, control over partner can be considered to be

one of the warning signs of even more severe forms of IPV; thus, it is necessary to engender sensitivity toward controlling behaviors as unhealthy and unsafe in intimate relationships in Korean society and to not view these as men's expressions of love and a desire to protect women.

The third paper investigated the relationship between gender role stress and depressive symptoms considering the IPV situation among Korean women and the role of personal resources. This study used the Korean Welfare Panel Study data (KOWEPS), which is the second-largest data set in South Korea and was developed from the stress process model. The finding indicated that gender role stress was positively associated with IPV severity and depressive symptoms and negatively associated with self-esteem and life satisfaction. The full Structural Equation Model (SEM)'s fit indices suggest that the data fit adequately. IPV, self-esteem, and life satisfaction mediated the direct effect on gender role stress and depressive symptoms. Therefore, for Korean women who have greater gender role stress, it is important to prevent IPV victimization and improve self-esteem and life satisfaction to reduce the probability of their developing depression.

In the last chapter, the similar points of view of the studies previously mentioned were derived to provide awareness of the culture of Korean society and violence by intimate partners. Based on this, the chapter intends to present measures to prevent violence against Korean women and reduce physical and mental consequences.

Chapter II

Intimate Partner Femicide in South Korea: An Integrative Review of The Literature

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Introduction

The World Health Organization (WHO, 2012) explained femicide as one end of the ranges of violence against women. Femicide is a compound word for female and homicide, applied generally to the killing of women. The term femicide began in the 1970s, which started to raise awareness of the violent deaths of women, and feminist writer and activist Diana E. H. Russell first defined and disseminated the term as "the killing of female by males because they are female" in 1976 (Radford & Russell, 1992). Although the term has been used in many ways, without an international agreement on the definition of femicide, it is not easy to gather data and compare data between countries (the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime [UNODC], 2018).

In a global study on homicide by UNODC (2018), most homicide victims were found to be men, but women are more often killed by family members and intimate partners. The findings of a study by the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine and the WHO show that at least one in seven homicides around the world and more than 35% of femicides are perpetrated by an intimate partner (Stöckl et al., 2013). On the website of Office on Women's Health (2018), Intimate partner is defined as "a person with whom you have or had a close personal or sexual relationship". According to Korea Women's Hotline's (2019) results of contents analysis of a consultation in 2018, 65.2% of domestic violence perpetrators were former (4.2%) or current (61%) spouses. In the study by Block and Christakos (1995), the researchers included same-sex partners in

their study of intimate partners; however, in South Korea, same-sex relationships have not yet been socially accepted. For this reason, in South Korea, it is assumed that the perpetrators of violence that lead to women's deaths are most commonly male legal partners.

South Korea has a lower homicide rate than other industrialized countries; its homicide rate in 2014 was 0.70 per 100,000 residents, compared to the United States' 4.9 per 100,000 inhabitants in 2015 (Intentional homicides, n.d.). In the UNODC report published in 2014, of the victims of intentional murder in South Korea, 52.5% were women, while the rate of female homicide victims worldwide is 21.3% (Kwok, 2017). Female homicide in intimate relationships is the most common among all kinds of femicide in South Korea; however, official female murder statistics are counted separately through a different classification with cases combined with different crimes (e.g., rape, robbery, etc.). Therefore, it is likely to be reported to be shrinking (Sohn, 2016). In this situation, it is hard to identify the realities of violence and murder against women in intimate relationships. Because of this, it is not well known who the women are that were killed, under what circumstances, and the nature of the criminal investigation or the outcome of the proceedings. As Korean women's education levels increase, women become more concerned and have increased awareness about their rights, and the majority of Korean women exposed to these social issues are paying a lot of money to avoid becoming a victim of crime because of tremendous fear (Park et al., 2009).

Because of the influence of Confucianism, Koreans still emphasize the structure of the family and the role of women from a patriarchal-society perspective (Kim et al., 2010). Present research regarding South Korean spousal murder is just focused on a woman who murdered her husband after enduring domestic violence. However, in 2015, feminism, which got a significant boost from the Me Too Movement, began to take an interest in women's rights in South Korea, and the study of femicide is now in its infant stage. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to find a gap among present studies, specific circumstances, and studies of femicide in South Korea and interpret the dynamics of femicide through the lens of cultural contexts by using research conducted in South Korea. The research questions that guided the review were as follows: 1) What are the circumstances and studies of femicide in South Korea, and 2) which sociocultural factors contribute to femicide in South Korea?

Methods

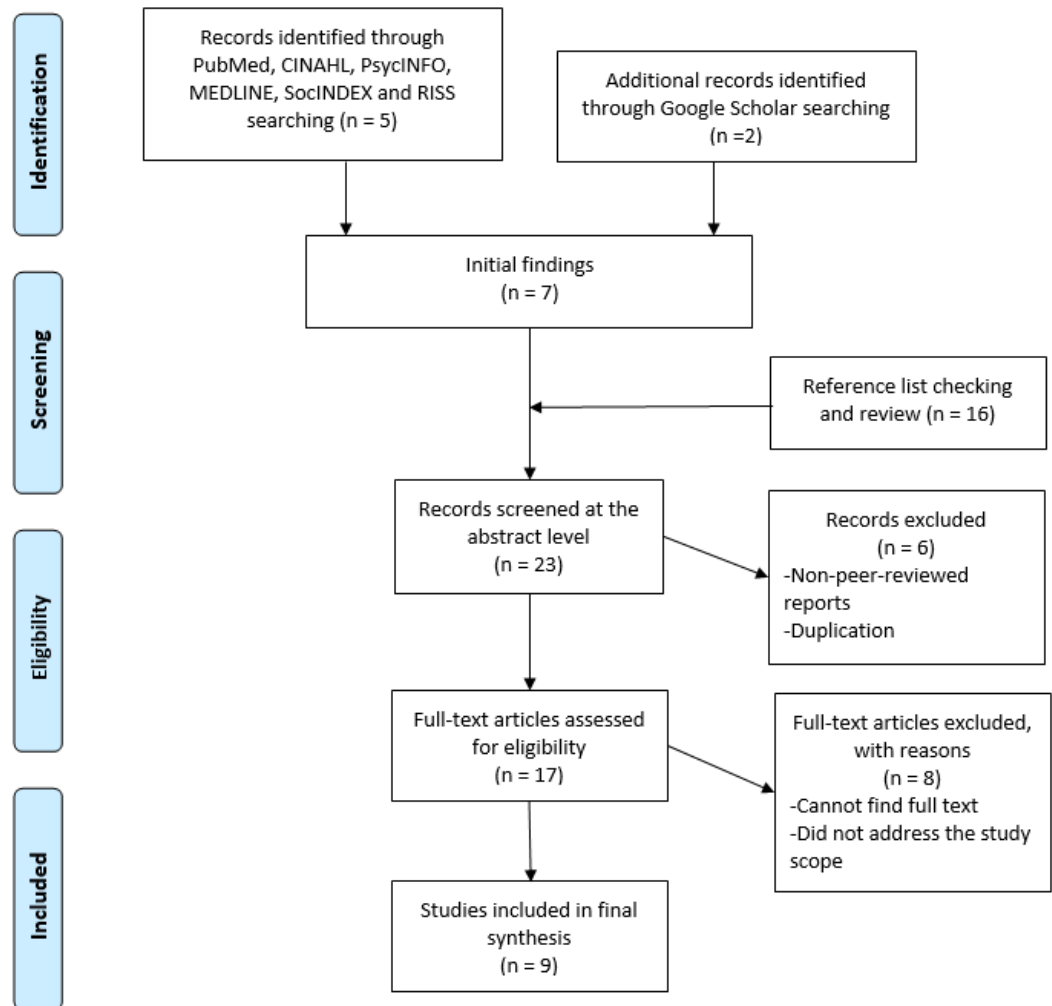
A web-based literature search was performed in five databases including CINAHL, PubMed, MEDLINE, PsycINFO, and RISS (Korean academic online database). We used this search strategy: (femicide by an intimate partner +OR+ femicide +OR+ murder of a woman +OR+ spouse homicide +OR+ intimate homicide+ +OR+ female homicide OR+ domestic violence +OR+ intimate partner homicide +OR+dating violence)+AND+(Korea +OR+ East Asia +OR+ Republic of Korea +OR+ South Korea). In consultation with a senior health sciences librarian, we found that searching articles in a reference list from these findings is more effective in this situation. Therefore, we

searched for relevant keywords using Google Scholar, and found 2 additional papers that seemed highly relevant. In these 7 papers, we went through the reference lists, searched for the journals in which the cited papers were published, and looked at authors referenced multiple times. This time, 5 papers were added, and no other new papers were found subsequently. Ultimately, we obtained 10 articles after removing papers that corresponded to exclusion criteria and referred to gray literature.

The inclusion criteria for the searches were: (1) the article was published in English or Korean; (2) the study was conducted using Korean samples; and (3) Although the article focused on domestic violence rather than murder, it contained information related to the femicide in South Korea. The exclusion criteria were (1) the paper had been duplicated, (2) the full text could not be found, (3) the content was inappropriate for the topic of this study, or (4) the paper referred to research that was unpublished or was published in a nonacademic journal.

[Figure 1 Literature Search Flow Chart. Source: Adapted from PRISMA 2009

Flow Diagram (Moher et al., 2009).



Results

Study Characteristics

The included papers were published from 2006 to 2018; of the 9 papers in total, six were published within the last five years, and four were published earlier. The IPF in

South Korea has been dealt with by sociology, criminology, policing, and gender study researchers, and no paper was found in the field of health care. In terms of research design, three studies were cross-sectional studies that showed certain aspects of society, one was a quasi-experimental study to examine participants' perceptions through four types of newspapers that had different nuances about femicide, one literature review study analyzed the verdict of marital homicide, one study produced a systematic review paper on suicide after the murder of a woman, and one was a perspective paper to describe why Korean women sometimes became victims or perpetrators under Korean culture. Because of difficulty accessing the subjects, the four papers analyzed newspaper contents. The first author of each of the nine papers was Korean, and only one were written by English authors and published in American journals.

Study Quality

Of the 9 papers in total, there were 4 different types of journal articles; therefore, 4 quality assessment tools were used. The Joanna Briggs Institute (JBI, 2017) provides a detailed explanation of each tool's questions. In addition, because there are four types, using quality assessment tools issued by the same institution is the best way to improve the consistency of the assessments. For these reasons, all of the quality assessment tools used were published by JBI. Based on the scoring criteria for the given tools, seven were high and two were moderate when evaluated.

[Table 1 Characteristics of Included Studies]

Author, Year	Discipline	Research Design	Sample	Language	Results	Quality rating (High, Moderate, Low) ^a
Lee & Yoo, 2018	Criminology	Quasi-experimental	520 college students	Korean	When articles about femicide blamed the victims or defended the perpetrators, participants imposed lower sentences on perpetrators and their moral blame of that crime would be low.	High (75%)
Sea, Youngs, & Tkaczyk, 2018	Criminology	Descriptive cross-sectional	Between 2006 and 2010, 537 cases of homicide perpetrators	English	Offenders' characteristics: 78.3% of male perpetrators were in their 20s and 40s. 81.8% had a high school diploma or less. 38.2% of men were out of work, and 29.4% of men were blue-collar. 75.7% of male perpetrators had criminal records. Place of homicide: One of these familiar-to-victim places Crime scene actions: Male offenders were likely to possess a weapon (cutting & sharp instruments 39.5%, blunt objects 25.4%, string/rope 22.9%) at the time of the homicide. Men are more likely to commit sexually oriented crimes.	High (75%)
Shin & Gong, 2006	Sociology	Descriptive cross-sectional	267 murderers in jail (108 spouse killers, 159 stranger killers)	Korean	Male perpetrators who have frequently witnessed parental conflict and have grown up in poor circumstances are more likely to commit femicide by expressive motive.	High (75%)
Park, S., 2006	Sociology	Descriptive cross-sectional	46 cases of marital homicide between 1995 and 1997	Korean	More than 25% of husbands who murdered their wives had a criminal history, and 12.8% had mental illness. Half of the male perpetrators committed murder while intoxicated with alcohol. Male perpetrators tended to prepare weapons for a number of murders at the same time, targeting people other than their female partners. The femicides happened when the male perpetrators failed in a power conflict and lost control over the women.	High (75%)
Lee, J., 2018	Policing	Systematic / literature review	238 cases of femicide reports in newspapers collected between 2014 and 2016	Korean	Increased number of press reports from 2014 to 2016; shows that social interest is increasing. 73.1% of the news on the murder of women reported in the media was on women murdered by intimate partners. When the perpetrator was in an intimate relationship, 34.8% of family or friends of victims were physically harmed. Only 8.4% of news reports deal with femicide as a social problem.	Moderate (64%)

Back, S., 2011	Gender studies	Systematic / literature review	1,077 cases of intimate homicide reports in newspapers collected between 1990 and 2010	Korean	Male perpetrators committed femicide in all age groups, from the 10s to the 70s, by expressive motive. After killing the women, they were more likely to commit familicide and suicide. Even though the actual number of incidents was small, there were many reports of female perpetrators in the newspapers before 1998. Of all intimate relationships, the murder rate was highest in legal marital relationships.	High (80%)
Park, M., 2013	Criminal justice	Systematic / literature review	15 verdicts of domestic homicide	Korean	The male perpetrators killed their female partners while the male was intoxicated by alcohol. Verbal, physical, or sexual violence lasted from a minimum of 6 to 30 years before the murder occurred. There was no difference in the gender of the perpetrator, but if the victim's gender was male, the sentence was higher than in cases in which the victim was a woman. In verdicts, words of male-centric gender roles, accusations against female victims, and advocacy for male perpetrators were used.	High (70%)
Lee, M., 2018	Policing	Systematic / literature review	9 articles related to intimate femicide- suicide	Korean	Compared to the United States, South Korea's perpetrators and victims were older, and the motives of the crimes were unclear. 15% of male murderers killed the victims and their families and then committed suicide.	Moderate (64%)
Heo, M., 2017	Gender studies	Perspective article	None	Korean	Male perpetrator is obsessed with hierarchy, has a desire for control, and has a patriarchal perspective. Such men hold the social view that women should be feminine and have a duty in their way as Korean women.	High (100%)

^a High: ≥70%; Moderate: >40% and <70%; Low: ≤40

[Table 1 (continued) Characteristics of Included Studies]

Features on intimate partner femicide in South Korea

The studies were mostly designed to understand the characteristics of the perpetrators and cases. As a result of the studies, there were differences in the demographic data by age of the perpetrators and victims. Back's study (2011) showed that the ages of the perpetrators vary from 10s to 70s, and Sea et al. (2018) reported that the ages of the perpetrators are concentrated in the 20s to 40s. Lee (2018b) reported that Korean victims and perpetrators are older than those in the United States, and Sabri et al. (2016) reported that in this context, the ages of perpetrators and victims in East Asia are older than those in other Asian groups. Several studies examined the perpetrators' alcohol intoxication and previous criminal records and reported generally consistent results. The perpetrator had a prior criminal record (Park, 2006; Sea et al., 2018) and committed femicide while alcohol intoxicated (Park, 2006;2013). The male perpetrators were exposed to frequent conflicts between parents and had grown up in poor circumstances (Shin & Gong, 2006), were obsessed with hierarchy, had a patriarchal perspective, and had a desire for control (Heo, 2017). The male perpetrators tended to use weapons (Sea et al., 2018; Park, 2006) and chose homicide places that were familiar to their victims (Sea et al., 2018). It could be reasoned that male perpetrators are likely to visit victims' homes and other familiar places whether they had the intention to murder or not.

Back (2011) reported that the rate of IPF was highest in legal marital relationships. The result of this study is not surprising because Korea does not generally

recognize various forms of intimate relationships due to the influence of conservative traditional culture. A more serious concern is that when perpetrators murdered their female partners, they also tended to kill (Park, 2006) or physically harm families and friends of victims (Lee, 2018b). Lee (2018b) also showed that these perpetrators commit suicide after killing their families, and Sabri et al. (2016) support this with their finding that East Asian groups have a significantly higher intimate partner homicide suicide rate than other Asian groups. On the other hand, the role of the media lies in an important one. The growing interest in women's rights in Korean society has led to a growing number of reports of femicide.

Risk factors of intimate partner femicide in South Korea based on ecological model

Risk factors of intimate partner femicide in South Korea were found through the review of the literature.

[Figure 2 Risk factors of IPF in South Korea based on the Ecological model]

Individual Personal factors that influence individual behavior	Relationship With family, intimate partners, and friends	Community Neighborhood, schools and workplaces	Societal Policy, law, and culture
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Financial dependency on male partner 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Have previous criminal history ■ Stalking ■ Continued violence ■ Suspicion of infidelity ■ Expressive motive ■ Alcohol intoxication ■ Use of weapons ■ Consider partner or family members possessions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Consider domestic violence a private matter ■ Low community sensitivity to violence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Patriarchal family structure ■ Confucian culture that emphasizes the role of family ■ Expected traditional women's roles ■ Laws advantageous to men ■ Passive police officers ■ Media stands on side of men

At the individual level, personal factors that influence individual behavior and increase the likelihood of becoming a femicide victim were included in the risk. Due to

limited access to information on victims who have already died, most studies have focused on the perpetrators and there have been difficulties in identifying victims in the included studies. However, one factor has been identified in the literature that is financial dependency on male partners. Park (2013) explained that women living in particularly poor conditions are more dependent on the economic power of their male partners, the more difficult it is to report their violence to people outside the relationship or divorce their partners, as doing so could lead to a more dangerous situation.

At the relationship level, factors such as intimate partners, friends, and families influence women's risk of becoming victims of femicide. Several factors were found in this level.

A major factor in the IPF is the way the perpetrator lived and how the perpetrator treated the victim when they lived together. Park (2006) found that one-fourth of the perpetrators had criminal histories. Sea et al. (2018) supported this with a higher result value, showing that more than three-fourths of male murderers have prior criminal records. Among their previous violations, one-fourth are estimated to involve an intimate partner; therefore, the result could be attributed to Park (2006)'s results. Before many murders, there was conflict between the perpetrator and the victim; in about half, it was reported that the male perpetrator had verbally, physically, or sexually abused the female partner (Park, 2006; 2013) and stalked them prior to the murder (Lee, 2018a). Park's research (2013) supported those victims who had been constantly plagued by IPV for periods ranging from 6 to 30 years. In addition, the media also reported that IPV had

occurred before several of the murders (Lee, 2018a). Also, a third of the male perpetrators reported that their wives' infidelity was a reason for murder (Park, 2006).

Some studies investigated the expressive motives of perpetrators (Back, 2011; Shin & Gong, 2006). If criminals committed a crime as part of unplanned acts of revenge, anger, or frustration, it could be called expressive motives and can cause more serious damage for the victim. Male perpetrators often beat women with expressive motives and cause their death (Back, 2011). According to a study by Shin and Gong (2006), 100% of perpetrators who killed their female partners for expressive motives grew up in poor family circumstances. The researchers also noted that higher the marital conflict, the higher the rates of expressive motive femicide (Shin & Gong, 2006). In addition, alcohol can be a contributing factor in raising this expressive motive. Park (2006) said that 46% of criminals committed femicide while alcohol intoxicated. During trial, the male perpetrators reported that they were drunk on the day of the incident and had committed murder (Park, 2013).

The use of weapons is intended to inflict greater physical damage on the victim. In South Korea, it is illegal to carry firearms, so household items such as hammers, or knives are used as weapons. 80% of intimate perpetrators reviewed used fatal weapons in murders (Park, 2006). However, in studies involving stranger murderers, about 50% of the male perpetrators used weapons (Sea et al., 2018). This suggests that when IPF occurs, the perpetrators murder with a clearer and more decisive intent to harm or kill.

If male partners consider their partners and family members to be possessions, this could be another risk factor. When a female partner, whom he considers his possession, decides to leave, he may resort to murder to stop her (Back, 2011). In particular, the moment when women demand to break up their relationships, their risk of becoming victims of femicide increases (Park, 2006). When she seeks to escape the power and control of the man, this type of behavior can be interpreted as an attempt to maintain or extend the relationship that he spearheaded through murder even she would be disappeared.

At the community level, relationships with the schools, workplaces, and neighbors can influence femicide.

At the community level, if people regard IPV as a private matter, the risk of femicide will increase. Sea et al. (2018) mentioned that, in Korean society, people view IPV as a private matter rather than a social issue; therefore, women struggle to ask for help and people around the victims are likely reluctant to help. However, in one case, when the violence became more serious and the issue went to court, the judge mentioned the woman's responsibility to ask for help to others and escape the violence situation on her own (Park, 2013).

Another risk factor of femicide is low community sensitivity to violence. Before a certain femicide occurred, only 9.7% of the people around the victim and the perpetrator were aware of the violence (Lee, 2018b). Although individualism is widely accepted in South Korea, South Korea is still a society in which people care about one another and

value harmony. This can be interpreted as the community recognizing a situation as simple contention rather than violence.

At the societal level, law, culture, and policy could influence femicide.

Gender inequality based on patriarchal family structures is another factor that influences femicide. Cultures that believe that dominating and controlling women are the natural and desirable sexual order creates large gender power inequalities (Heo, 2017). Sea et al. (2018) stated that women's roles in patriarchal societies are fixed in housework and have little means of protecting themselves from male intimate partners. More interestingly, in a patriarchal society, criticism of men is justified even if economic activities defined by men's roles are not carried out properly (Park, 2013).

Confucian culture, which emphasizes strong family bonds and dependence, has a negative side when considering IPV. Sea et al. (2018) described that in this culture, even victims of IPV have a hard time getting out of the house. In such a situation, a woman cannot inform any acquaintances of her situation; only 5% of victims call for help (Lee, 2018b). Traditional Korean women are expected to maintain their families and put their families first even in the violent situation. In Korean society, people respect women who endure all kinds of suffering (Park, 2013). From the traditional Korean societal perspective, women who confront violence in the hands of men cannot be seen as victims (Heo, 2017), and there have been no cases in Korean history where women's claim of self-defense against a male violence have been accepted (Park, 2013). In addition, if

prejudice and stereotypes against women persist, it is difficult to view violence against women as a social problem (Heo, 2017).

In South Korea, the prosecution rate of domestic violence is only 1% (Lee, 2018b). Although there are several factors for that, this result is ridiculously low. In the study that compared the differences in sentences of female and male marital murderers, Park (2013) found that, regardless of the gender of the perpetrator, the sentence was higher when the victim was a male than when the victim was female. This aspect of patriarchal Korean society shows that men's lives are more valuable than those of women (Park, 2013). In addition, in the verdict, the judges used male-centered language, and the fact that intimate partner femicide victims have endured their own abuse without reporting it or requesting divorce was considered a factor for reduction, not a weighting factor for the perpetrator (Park, 2013). From their point of view, the victim's sacrifice is noble, and the victim may not want the perpetrator punished.

If the police act passively, the risk of femicide increases. In the case of IPV, there are no strict provisions in Korean law, and since it is regarded as a one-time, minor incident (Lee, 2018a), the police are under the burden of immediately separating the perpetrator from the victim (Park, 2013). This can be an indirect but definite factor in intimate partner femicide.

Media's stand on a certain side is a significant risk factor with tremendous power. Lee and Yoo (2018) explained that the Korean media reported the victims' drinking and drug problems, infidelity, and inappropriate behavior that enough to cause a murder and

produced critical articles citing the mental problems of femicide victims while standing on the side of perpetrators. Lee (2018b) supported this by arguing that newspaper articles from 2014 to 2016 contained that the victim could die under certain situations. Lee and Yoo (2018) also pointed out that the role of media in Korea, which is using the Civil Participation in Criminal Trial Act, can have a major impact on the public's perception and judgment.

Discussion

Korean women being murdered by intimate partners is nothing new. Such incidents have existed in our lives for a long time, but the need for research is increasing as people's awareness increases. However, the current research remains case- and perpetrator-focused, despite the indelible injuries on female victims and their families. This paper is significant in that it is the first study to analyze risk factors of IPF from the perspective of the victim in South Korea.

Based on the analysis, the factors at four levels in ecological model can show us what we should do and research in the future. Since there has been no approach to victims and perpetrators from a health care perspective, we need to take such an approach for them. We often witness social phenomena in which perpetrators and victims change, and they need mental and physical health care. At the community level, education programs are needed to increase the sensitivity to violence, and at the social level, standardized official statistics of South Korea IPF should be collected and published.

This will help to show us objective social phenomena and enable more research.

Furthermore, creating a policy that allows the police to actively intervene is a major task that needs to be accomplished. In addition, in this era of globalization, a standardized definition of femicide is needed so that researchers and others can cooperate with one another and share more accurate information.

In the effort to understand and develop awareness for victims, we have several suggestions for future studies. First, since it is not known what physical and mental treatment needs victims' surviving family members have, a review of literature based on Asian culture should be conducted, or we could listen to the true voices of the victims' families through the counseling center for crime victims in South Korea. Based on this, we can conduct intervention studies for the victims' surviving family members according to their needs.

Second, since Korean victims' reporting rate is low, we need to study how health care providers who meet crime victims in emergency rooms or counseling centers connect them to other social resources and what perspective they have when they care for those victims. This is important because, at this point in the process, interactions with providers could be a major factor in determining how victims will behave and what they will say.

This integrative review study has several limitations. The study screening and selection process was conducted by only one person, albeit with the help of the senior librarian. Therefore, there is a risk of bias in that procedure. In addition, because the data

in several of the selected papers used newspaper articles, some of the information may not be entirely accurate. Finally, generalization may be impossible because this review article included diverse discipline papers with different perspectives.

Chapter III

From Controlling Behaviors to Actual Violence in Intimate Relationships in South Korea: The Moderating Effects of Insecure Attachments

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Introduction

IPV often occurs in the dating experiences of youth or young adults; a violence inflicted on a partner in an unmarried couple, regardless of the age of the parties involved. This is because marriage is not considered an important aspect of the relationship, as married victims can be protected and administered by the Act on the Prevention of Domestic Violence and Protection of Victims (Park, 2018). However, so far, no laws or policies have been legislated to protect unmarried victims or to punish or detain the perpetrators. Further, it has been seen that behavioral patterns of violence by a romantic partner before and during marriage are likely to differ. Thus, there has been a lack of adequate intervention and support from others for unmarried victims of IPV. IPV among unmarried couples in South Korea is considered to be a serious and highly prevalent public problem: Kim et al. (2014) found that between 21% and 56% of unmarried men and women in Korea have experienced physical violence while dating, and 11.9% of murder cases in 2015 were reported to have involved unmarried intimate couples (Hong et al., 2015).

IPV among unmarried couples, thus, has been generally neglected in Korean society, and in this respect, cultural influences cannot be ignored. Under the influence of Confucianism, a philosophical school of thought, which stresses on specific ethical virtues in relationships, and that has impacted the cultures of most East Asian countries (Park & Chesla, 2007), the practice of the dominance of men over women has long existed and been justified. Specifically, women have long been recognized to be

dependent upon men. For this reason, men's controlling attitudes and behaviors towards women are taken for granted, and even considered to be a way in which men express their love and care towards women. A recent survey from 1,082 representative samples of unmarried Korean females showed that 62.6% of respondents have experienced being controlling in some way by their partners, including monitoring their interactions with people (45.1%), regulating the way in which they dressed (36.9%), forcing them to quit their jobs (29.5%), controlling their daily schedules (25.5%) and so on (Son, 2016). The onset of the partners' controlling behaviors was seen to be sooner in the relationship than the other visible forms of violence. Importantly, however, 38.9% of respondents claimed that they did not see these behaviors as acts of violence, and 32.1% claimed that they thought these behaviors were a demonstration of their partners' love for them (Son & Cho, 2016). There is evidence to show that the partner's control negatively affected the victim's ability to make decisions and hindered them from participating in daily activities, limited their independence, and undermined the victim's self-image and their sense of autonomy (James-Hawkins et al., 2018; Robertson & Murachver, 2011).

Coercive control to actual violence in feminism perspective

Coercive control refers to establishing dominance over another person by systematically restricting the person's autonomy, freedom, and independence (Dichter et al., 2018; Dutton & Goodman, 2005). It is often exerted by a socially powerful person over one who is not (Dutton & Goodman, 2005). Some studies have demonstrated that violence inflicted by a male against an intimate female partner is more often

characterized by a motivation to control than that inflicted by a female over an intimate male partner (Johnson, 2006; Swan et al., 2008). Shim and Kim (2001) referred to male-to-female violence in Korea as “patriarchal terrorism” since it is seen to be mainly triggered by patriarchal conflicts involving men attempting to maintain their authority or govern gendered roles of women, which are usually characterized by physical violence as well as the exertion of emotional and financial control over their partners.

Often, coercive control is considered to be a warning sign for potentially more severe and visible forms of violence (Tanha et al., 2010), since some studies have found that controlling behaviors are correlated with physical and sexual violence (Fulu et al., 2013; Yount et al., 2016). Indeed, women who experienced being controlled by their partners have reported to have faced a higher frequency of subsequent IPV as well as higher levels of danger than those who did not experience such control (Dichter et al., 2018). Kwon and Park (2019), who qualitatively explored the phenomenon of male to female coercive controlling in dating relationships in South Korea, also asserted that controlling behavior is not an end but often develops into more violent behaviors. They asserted that controlling behaviors of men over women were an endeavor to possess their partners and exert their dominance over them; thus, controlling behaviors gradually develop into more severe forms of violence such as intimidation, rape, and verbal or physical abuse, especially when the victims do not comply with the perpetrators’ demands, which includes reporting their whereabouts and their interactions with other people. However, not all men who control their female partners exhibit visible forms of

violence (Dutton et al., 2005), and there is a need for subsequent studies to examine this hypothesis — the association between men’s controlling behaviors and other forms of violence against their partners.

Insecure attachment and partner violence

Bowlby (1980) originally presented the concept of attachment to understand the nature of infant-caregiver relationships. Early attachment studies have mainly focused on the bonds formed in infant-caregiver relationships; however, researchers have found that attachment processes may further affect relationships in adulthood (Hazan & Shaver, 2017). Studies on the security felt in adult attachments rely on categorical measures to classify participants as secure, anxious, or avoidant (Hazan & Shaver, 2017).

Specifically, in terms of insecure attachments, anxiety attachment (ANA) refers to the degree to which people perceive themselves to be worthy of being loved (Brennan et al., 1998). A high score on the ANA scale indicates a greater obsession with being accepted, a desire to form intimacy, and a pervasive fear of loss of the partner. On the other hand, avoidance attachments (AVA) are related to the reluctance to or discomfort with intimacy (Brennan et al., 1998).

Adults with insecure attachment styles are prone to use unconstructive coping strategies when stressed (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2003). In intimate relationships, those with insecurities about attachment with their partners are often seen to exhibit dependency, jealousy, desire to control, and distrust (Buck et al., 2012). Specifically, ANA is likely to be related to aggression with intimate partners among young adults,

contributing to problems associated with hostility (Cummings-Robbeau et al., 2009). In a study involving male undergraduates, Smallbone and Dadds (2001) found that while ANA predicted antisociality and aggression towards partners, AVA was related to coercive sexual violence.

In sum, it is necessary to examine the specific dynamics of controlling behaviors, as controlling behaviors of men as well as the pattern of control developing into severer forms of violence are reported in recent literature. Shim and Kim (2001), who studied male partner batterers, said that the victims appeared to be subordinated to the perpetrators, while in fact, the perpetrators were subordinated to the victims. Thus, the behaviors of controlling the partners may be related to the issues faced by the perpetrators in the formation of attachments.

Therefore, the present paper focused on the controlling behaviors of Korean men to examine whether they were related to severe forms of violence towards their female partners. Specifically, we explored the ways in which one's insecurity of attachment affected the development of controlling behaviors to actual forms of IPV. The sample of this study involved unmarried men since marital status are known to be critical factors of determining the patterns of partner violence among couples in South Korea. Hence, the purpose of this study was to examine the moderating effects of insecure attachment on the association between controlling behaviors and actual IPV. The following hypotheses, developed by the framework described above, were tested:

Hypothesis 1: Controlling behaviors towards partners are associated with actual forms of IPV, including psychological, physical, and sexual violence.

Hypothesis 2: One's insecure attachments —avoidance (AVA) and anxiety attachments (ANA) — moderate the relationship between controlling behaviors and actual IPV.

Methods

Study design

This study is a secondary analysis of existing national data, cross-sectionally collected from a representative Korean sample of 2,000 males in 2015 by the Korean Institute of Criminology (KIC) (Hong et al., 2015). Since we used public data, the Institutional Review Board of Chung-Ang University exempted the need to review this study. Further, we got the permission to use this data for the study from KIC (Hong et al., 2015).

Sample and procedure

The data were primarily collected from November 3rd to 9th in 2015 in South Korea, with the purpose of examining the characteristics of female victims and male perpetrators in IPV as well as the influencing factors of IPV (Hong et al., 2015). The target population of this project included Korean adults aged between 19 and 64, who were unmarried and had, either formerly or at the time of the survey, experience of dating relationships. Since this national project focused on male violence against female partners in dating relationships, experiences of oppression were investigated through samples of

females whereas experiences of inflicting violence/abuse were assembled from a sample of males. The survey was conducted online since the issues covered under the theme of this study were private and sensitive.

The data were collected by a specialized survey company (*Micromill Embrain*), which had more than 110,000 research panels, as of November 2015. Random and quota sampling methods were used in consideration of the gender and marital status of the participants. The participants, who understood the purpose of this project and consented to participate in it, completed the structured questionnaire on the online survey site. In total, 2,000 males and 2,000 females participated in the project. However, in this secondary analysis study, we only used the data from the male samples, following the aims of this study.

Measures

Perpetration of IPV. Perpetration of IPV was measured through the Revised Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS2) (Straus et al., 1996). In total, 47-items were used to assess emotional and psychological perpetration of violence (18 items), physical perpetration of violence (18 items), and sexual perpetration of violence (11 items). Each item was scored on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = “I don’t have”; 5 = “almost every day”) to examine the severity of perpetration of violence. Cronbach’s alphas in the current study were .94, .83, and .92 for psychological, physical, and sexual perpetration of violence, respectively.

Adult insecure attachment. Experiences in Close Relationship (ECR) was translated into Korean and used to assess adult insecure attachment (Brennan et al., 1998;

Hwang, 2001) . This scale comprises two subscales measuring AVA and ANA. Each item was scored on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree). Cronbach's alpha of the translated version of ECR was $.60_{AVA}$ and $.86_{ANA}$, and that of the current study was $.83_{AVA}$ and $.82_{ANA}$.

Control over partner. Control over partner was assessed by the scale developed by Hong et al. (2015). It consists of 11 items scored on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = "None"; 5 = "almost every day") to measure controlling behaviors towards partner. Example items include "Most of the time, we do what I want," "I don't let my girlfriend wear certain clothes," "I decide with whom my girlfriend can spend time," "I do what I want, even if my girlfriend does not want it," and "I always want to know the location of my girlfriend." Alpha reliability of this tool in this study was $.82$.

Demographics and other dating related information. Demographics such as respondent's current age, the age and partner's age at the time of dating, and whether he cohabited with the partner or not were identified. Additionally, in order to assess their awareness and indirect experiences related to IPV, two dichotomous questions were asked: 1) Have you heard about the word "IPV?" and 2) "Have you seen or heard about the occurrence of violence in an intimate relationship?"

Data analysis

A Pearson correlational analysis was performed to identify the correlations between the variables in this study. Further, multiple regression was conducted to test the moderating effect of insecure attachments on the relationship between control over

partner and perpetration of IPV. The variables were mean centered to reduce multicollinearity in interaction terms (control over partner \times AVA & control over partner \times ANA). As a result, the variance inflation factors of the variables ranged from 1.02 to 1.09 (control over partner \times AVA) and 1.00 to 1.19 (control over partner \times ANA).

Four stages of hierarchical multiple regression analysis were performed. In the first stage, controlling variables associated with perpetration of IPV were entered in the model. In the second stage, control over partner (independent variable) was added in the model. In the third stage, two types of insecure attachments (moderator) were entered, and finally, control over partner and terms of insecure attachment interaction were entered in the model. The statistical analyses of this study were performed by using SPSS Statistics (version 26). Furthermore, graphs illustrating the moderating effects were added and simple slope tests were conducted (Dawson, 2014).

Results

Descriptive findings and correlations

Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics and correlations between the variables. The mean age of the sample was 28.81 years. The age at the time of recent dating experience ranged between 15 to 58 and the mean age was 26.72 years. The average age difference between the male and female partners was 1.53 years. About 8.3% of the participants said they had lived with their partners. Further, 62.1% of the participants

answered that they had heard about the word “intimate partner violence,” and 36.1% said they had had indirect experiences (seen or heard) of IPV.

Age at the time of dating was positively associated with sexual violence, whereas difference of age between the partners did not show an association with control over partner, nor with any forms of perpetration of IPV. Cohabitation with partner was positively associated with control over partner and all forms of perpetration of IPV. Awareness of the definition of IPV was negatively associated with psychological and physical violence, and indirect experiences of IPV was positively associated with all forms of IPV. Both insecure attachments were significantly associated with control over partner and all three forms of perpetration of IPV. Control over partner and the three forms of perpetration of IPV were all significantly associated with each other.

[Table 2 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for the Variables (n=2,000)]

Variables	Mean±SD or n (%) [Range]	Correlation (<i>r</i>)			
		8	9	10	11
1. Age at the time of recent dating (years old)	26.72±6.43 [15- 58]	.04	-.01	.01	.08**
2. Age difference with partner at the time of recent dating (Male-Female) (years)	1.53 [-9- 13]	.03	.001	-.01	.04
3. Cohabitation with partner (Yes) [†]	165 (8.30)	.05*	.11**	.09**	.12**
4. Aware the definition of IPV (Yes) [†]	1241 (62.10)	-.03	-.06**	-.05**	-.02
5. Indirect experiences of IPV (Yes) [†]	722 (36.10)	.01	.11**	.10**	.13**
6. Avoidance attachment	2.72±.47 [1.28- 4.61]	.23**	.18**	.14**	.12**
7. Anxiety attachment	2.65±.63 [1- 4.83]	.37**	.27**	.17**	.17**
8. Control over partner	2.66±.54 [1-5]	1	.38**	.21**	.22**
9. Psychological violence	1.10±.38 [1- 5]		1	.67**	.58**
10. Physical violence	1.37±.54 [1- 4.50]			1	.75**
11. Sexual violence	1.21±.44 [1- 4.18]				1

Moderating effects of insecure attachments

The moderating effects of AVA and ANA on the relationship between control over partner and perpetration of IPV are shown in Table 3 and Table 4. The results indicated that the models with AVA and ANA were all significant, explaining 16% and 19% of the total variance, respectively ($F = 65.66, p < .001$; $F = 79.12, p < .001$).

Three controlling variables were entered in stage 1 of both models. All the variables significantly predicted perpetration of IPV by explaining 3% of the variance. Specifically, cohabitation with partner ($\beta = .16, p < .001$) and indirect experience ($\beta = .11, p < .001$) of IPV positively predicted perpetration of IPV, while awareness of the definition of IPV ($\beta = -.07, p < .001$) negatively predicted perpetration of IPV. When control over partner ($\beta = .24, p < .001$) was entered in the Model 2, the model came to explain 14% of the total variance in perpetration of IPV by adding 10% of the total variance. Control over partner seemed to be the strongest predictor of perpetration of IPV among all the variables in this study. In stage 3, avoidance attachment ($\beta = .09, p < .001$) and anxiety attachment ($\beta = .09, p < .001$) were entered in the model, and the models were still significant, and explained 15%_{AVA} and 16%_{ANA} of variance in perpetration of IPV, respectively. Finally, the interaction effect between control over partner and insecure attachments were all significant by adding 2%_{AVA} and 4%_{ANA} of total variance in perpetration of IPV.

[Table 3 Moderating Effect of Avoidance Attachments on the Relation between Control over Partner and Intimate Partner Violence Perpetration]

Variables	Intimate Partner Violence Perpetration											
	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	β	t	p	β	t	p	β	t	p	β	t	p
Controlling variables												
Living with partner	.16	4.74	<.001	.13	4.21	<.001	.13	4.21	<.001	.13	4.31	<.001
Aware the definition of IPV	-.07	-3.90	<.001	-.06	-3.59	<.001	-.07	-3.69	<.001	-.06	-3.51	<.001
Indirect experience of IPV	.11	5.81	<.001	.11	5.90	<.001	.11	5.80	<.001	.10	5.63	<.001
Control over partner				.24	15.52	<.001	.22	14.04	<.001	.22	14.14	<.001

Avoidance attachment			.09	4.92	<.001	.11	5.99	<.001
Control over partner × Avoidance attachment						.20	6.27	<.001
F (p)	23.52 (<.001)	80.00 (<.001)		69.59 (<.001)			65.66 (<.001)	
Adjusted R ²	.03	.14		.15			.16	
ΔR ²	.03	.10		.01			.02	
Durbin-Watson				1.72				

[Table 3 (continued) Moderating Effect of Avoidance Attachments on the Relation between Control over Partner and Intimate Partner Violence Perpetration]

[Table 4 Moderating Effect of Anxiety Attachments on the Relation between Control over Partner and Intimate Partner

Violence Perpetration

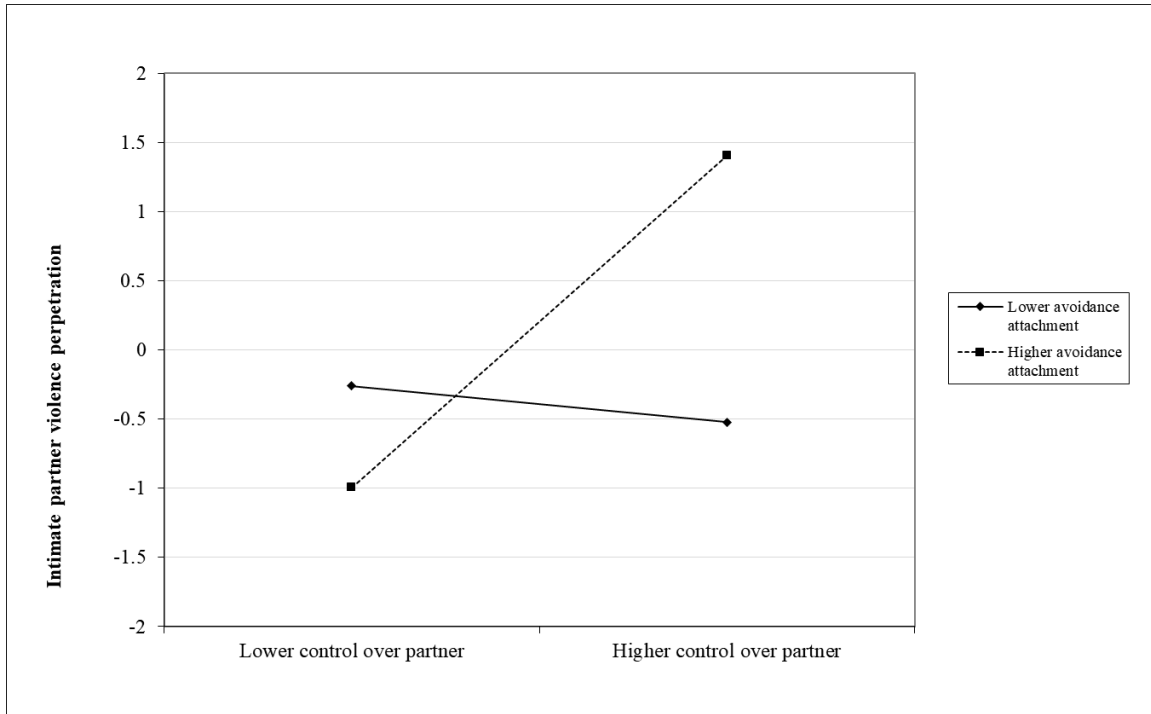
Variables	Intimate Partner Violence Perpetration											
	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	β	t	p	β	t	p	β	t	p	β	t	p
Controlling variables												
Cohabitation with partner	.16	4.74	<.001	.13	4.21	<.001	.14	4.50	<.001	.14	4.56	<.001
Aware the definition of IPV	-.07	-3.90	<.001	-.06	-3.59	<.001	-.07	-3.79	<.001	-.06	-3.27	<.001
Indirect experience of IPV	.11	5.91	<.001	.11	5.90	<.001	.10	5.55	<.001	.09	5.08	<.001

Control over partner	.24	15.52	<.001	.20	12.16	<.001	.22	13.59	<.001
Anxiety attachment				.09	6.32	<.001	.09	6.62	<.001
Control over partner × Anxiety attachment							.18	9.58	<.001
F (p)	23.25 (<.001)	80.00 (<.001)		73.25 (<.001)			79.12 (<.001)		
Adjusted R ²	.03	.14		.15			.19		
ΔR ²	.03	.10		.02			.04		
Durbin-Watson				1.74					

[Table 4 (continued) Moderating Effect of Anxiety Attachments on the Relation between Control over Partner and Intimate Partner Violence Perpetration

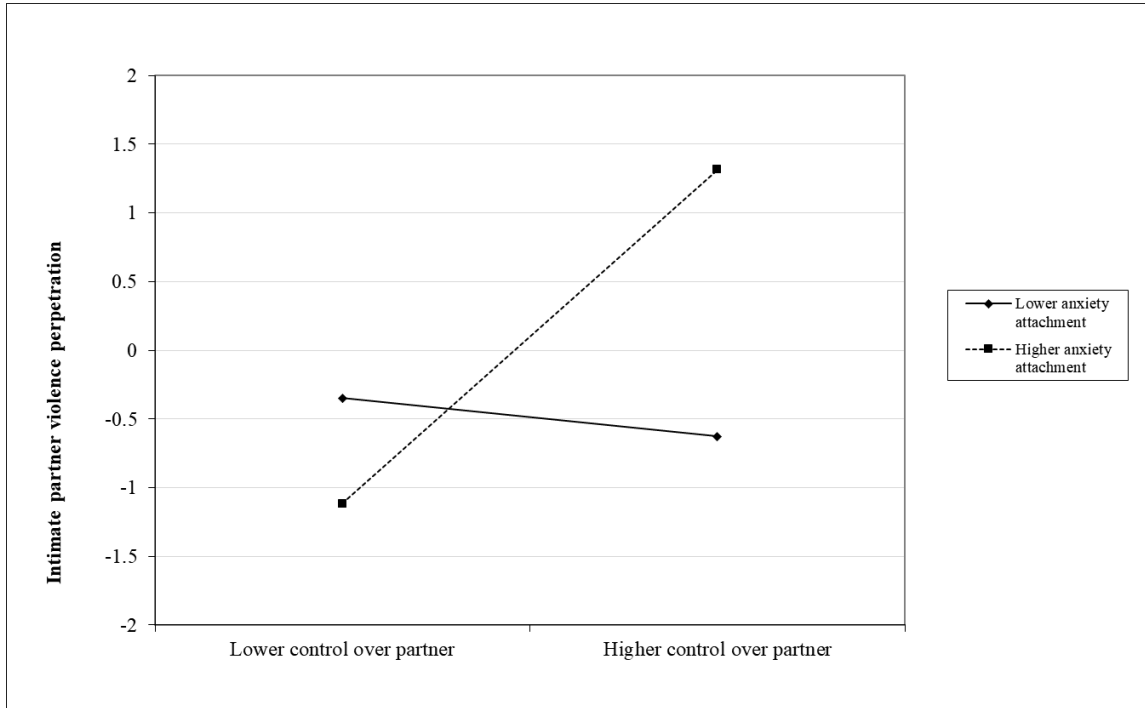
In order to specifically explicate the interaction effects, two slopes of control over partner are presented to show the changes of perpetration of IPV according to the level of insecure attachments in Figure 3 and Figure 4. Based on the slope tests (Dawson, 2014), the relationship between control over partner and perpetration of IPV was not significant ($t = -1.37, p = 0.17$) among the participants having lower AVA tendency, whereas the positive relationship between control over partner and perpetration of IPV was significant ($t = 9.72, p < .001$) among participants having higher AVA tendency. On the other hand, among those with lower ANA tendency, the relationship between control over partner and perpetration of IPV was significantly negative ($t = -2.14, p = .03$). Among those having higher ANA tendency, a significant and strong positive relationship between partner control and IPV perpetration was shown ($t = 13.37, p < .001$).

[Figure 3 The Association between Control over Partner and Intimate Partner Violence Perpetration at Lower and Higher Avoidance Attachment]



[Figure 4 The Association between Control over Partner and Intimate Partner

Violence Perpetration at Lower and Higher Anxiety Attachment]



Discussion

The present study aimed to investigate the impact of insecure attachment on the association between controlling behaviors and actual forms of IPV: physical, psychological, and sexual violence. Regarding the two hypotheses of this study, findings from the current study showed that male partners' controlling behaviors were significantly associated with all three forms of IPV. This is consistent with the findings of a previous study that reported more frequent experiences of physical, psychological, and sexual violence among women who experienced coercive controlling by their male partners (Dichter et al., 2018).

Additional contributors to IPV behaviors were observed: age at the time of dating was a significant contributor to sexual violence. This might be supported by the results of the study conducted by Planty et al. (2013), which reported that 84% of male perpetrators were adults and more than 50% were 30 or older. From a cultural perspective, however, this finding was perhaps related to the finding of a recent study that demonstrated a higher sensitivity towards gender violence among younger generations in South Korea (Joo et al., 2020).

Cohabitation with partners was also a strong risk factor of control over partner and IPV. Due to physical closeness, victims are potentially more exposed to violence. However, Kenney and McLanahan (2006), who also reported results that are consistent with this study, asserted that this may be caused by the demographic differences between cohabiting and married couples, rather than cohabitation itself. According to Kenney and McLanahan (2006), as the couples who remained in cohabitation were less likely to be educated and committed to the relationship, the perpetrators might be more likely to inflict violence upon their partners. On the contrary, Wong et al. (2016), who reported that cohabiting women experienced physical violence almost twice as much as married women, identified that these women were significantly younger and had attained higher levels of education than the married women. Given the inconsistency in the results, this needs to be further investigated. Cohabitation has become widely acceptable in Korean societies, and it is vital to study the factors as well as couple dynamics that result in

cohabitating women being more susceptible to violence as compared to non-cohabiting or married women.

Age differences between male and female partners in this study were not associated with control over partner or any perpetration of IPV. When considering that age difference between men and women had served to solidify the justification for gendered power dynamics and imbalances in gender roles among men and women in Korean culture (Chung, 2014), traditional beliefs about gendered power differences did not contribute to control over partner nor actual perpetration of violence on the partner. This finding is consistent with the study of control over partner and IPV involving adolescent girls and older male partners (Velotti et al., 2018), which found that the age difference was associated with sexually unsafe behavior, such as low rate of condom use, but was not associated with imbalance in power dynamics between the partners, nor physical and psychological violence.

Awareness of IPV was negatively associated with psychological or physical violence; however, it was not significantly related to control over partner or sexual violence. This may be the case because some behaviors, such as controlling or attempting unwanted sexual contact, are often not considered to be violent, and are often normalized in dating relationships (Kuloğlu, 2018), and this finding also showed that respondents of this study were less likely to recognize control over partner or sexual violence as categories of IPV. On the other hand, indirect IPV experiences were associated with perpetration of IPV. This might support the claim that exposure to violence through a

history of family dysfunctions are likely to trigger further violence (Lavoie et al., 2002). For instance, exposure to interparental conflict (Tschann et al., 2009) was found to be related to perpetration of IPV and victimization.

Both insecure attachments in males were associated with control over the partner and perpetration of IPV on females and moderated the relationship between control over partner and actual IPV. The model with ANA had higher percentages of explained variance compared to that of AVA. This finding supported the results of a previous study (Park & Lee, 2010) that reported that the adult anxiety attachment model had more nuanced explanations of relationship problems, compared to avoidant attachment. Our slope tests provided a more specific explanation of the results; those having higher AVA and ANA showed stronger positive associations between control over partner and perpetration of IPV. Those with insecure attachments are known to have higher separation anxiety, emotional dependency, partner distrust, lower self-esteem, and higher impulsivity (Buck et al., 2012), and these personal characteristics potentially contribute to aggravating violence beyond control. Interestingly, however, those having lower ANA showed negative association between control over partner and perpetration of IPV. This may need further research; however, it could be interpreted as an effect of patriarchal cultural influences, which consider controlling behaviors of men against women to be a way of expressing love and care.

Some limitations have to be considered in the interpretations of the findings: first, reflecting upon the urgency of this social issue in Korean society, the national data

we used were collected from unmarried male participants with a focus on male to female perpetration of IPV; therefore, the results of this study cannot be extended to married couples or cases of female to male perpetration of violence. Second, even though the participants' ages varied from 19 to 58, the mean age was 28.81 years, which meant young adults formed the majority of the participants in this study. Finally, our study population targeted participants of one specific ethnicity; therefore, the extension of these results to people of other ethnicities should be done with caution. On the other hand, we used a large representative sample and made a novel attempt to understand the progression of control over partner to actual IPV, and the important role of adult insecure attachments in this progression.

Chapter IV

Lifetime Stressors (IPV Victimization and Gender-Role Stress) and Depressive Symptoms among Korean Women: The Mediating Role of Self-esteem and Life Satisfaction

Soojeong Kim and Jane Dimmitt Champion

Introduction

Depressive symptoms among Korean women

Depression is a relatively common mood disorder that can have serious consequences, including suicide. In fact, it is believed that up to 60% of all suicides are related to major depression (Ng et al., 2017). Depression is not temporal fluctuations of natural emotions but a medical condition that lasts more than two weeks with symptoms such as sleeping problems, feeling worthless or guilty, fatigue, difficulty thinking, and loss of interest in normal activities (Koo, 2018). These depressive symptoms increase the probability of major depression (Busch et al., 2013; Weissman et al., 1999).

It is commonly accepted in any social culture that women show more depressive symptoms than men (Albert, 2015; Hackett et al., 2007). In 2010, globally, the prevalence of depression was 5.5% for women and 3.2% for men, which is 1.7 times higher for women (Baxter et al., 2014). Over the past 50 years, South Korea has experienced unprecedented economic growth and changes in social values. As a result, mental health issues have become a nationwide problem (Koo, 2018). Suicide rates in South Korea have been the highest among Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries since 2004 (Lee et al., 2018). The prevalence of depression among 1 million Koreans increased from 2.8% in 2002 to 5.3% in 2013; it appeared to increase with the age of the population and was higher in women than in men in most age groups (Kim et al., 2020). In seeking to explain these findings, studies show that the anatomy of the brain is different based on biological sex and that women and

men differ because the reproductive hormones of women and men have different effects on mental activation (Burt & Hendrick, 2007). However, while Korean married women develop depression at higher rates than unmarried women, Korean men living alone are more likely to develop depression than married men (Kim, 2006). Therefore, social and cultural factors cannot be overlooked. In other words, since the social system of marriage has different effects on women and men, possibly related to their different gender roles, it seems clear that those differences play a role in inducing depression.

Gender-role stress on depressive symptoms

The gender role is an important concept of the culture and social structure of every society. Gender roles are social roles that encompass a range of attitudes and behaviors that are generally accepted, appropriate, or considered desirable by individuals based on their biological or perceived gender identities (Eagly & Chivala, 1986).

The attitudes on gender roles may differ depending on characteristics such as gender, age, or education level (Hong, 2006; Whaung, 2004). Here, attitude is an important factor in predicting an individual's actual behavior in that it is a psychiatric process that determines the actual and potential responses of humans (Song & Lee, 2012). In Korean society, despite the increase in awareness of gender equality and the increase in women's social advancement, women still play a large part in housework and parenting. Using 5,381 Korean adult samples in 2016, Lee (2016) found that Korean women living alone spend less time doing housework than women living with family. In contrast, Korean men living alone spend the longest time on housework compared to men

living with family. Moreover, Korean women's housework time increases rapidly after getting married, but men living with wives spend the least housework time. In addition, many Korean women experience discrimination in the workplace after marriage or childbirth through the application of policies that are not family friendly. This forces them to play a traditional gender role in the home (Kino et al., 2019). In this situation, the weight of the roles that come from work and family can be burdensome and stressful for women.

Regarding research on the relationship between gender-role stress and depressive symptoms, egalitarian gender-role attitudes had a positive effect on mental health (Song & Lee, 2012) because people who have such attitudes can more easily participate in degendered role performance than those with traditional attitudes (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Wierda-Boer et al., 2008). However, there is disagreement on the relationship between gender-role attitudes and depression in Korean populations. First of all, unlike a study of adolescents showing that depressive symptoms are lowest in female adolescents who have egalitarian gender-role attitudes (Lee, 2008), in a study of male and female adolescents, no significant results were found regarding a link between gender-role attitudes and depressive symptoms (Ryu et al., 2006). A study of married Korean women who have lived in the United States did not show statistically significant results in gender-role attitudes and depressive symptoms (Lee, 2002); however, in a study comparing gender-role attitudes and depressive symptoms for employed women and full-time housewives, women in both groups who held egalitarian gender-role attitudes had

the lowest depressive symptoms scores, while those with traditional gender-role attitudes showed high levels of depressive symptoms (Lee & Cho, 2000). Several previous studies in Korea also pointed out that traditional gender-role attitudes increase women's depression (Han & Hong, 2011; Kim & Kang, 2011; Park, 2003; Shin et al., 2019). They argued that women with traditional gender-role attitudes bear the burdens of marriage, housework, and parenting, and these burdens are deeply related to women's depressive symptoms. This also emphasizes that traditional gender-role stereotypes, such as responsibility for child rearing in relation to work and family balance, become one of the factors that make working difficult for women and negatively affect mental health.

The associations among intimate partner violence, gender-role stress, self-esteem, life satisfaction stress, and depressive symptoms

Intimate partner violence (IPV) is a serious public health problem and a human rights issue across many countries (World Health Organization [WHO], 2013). Although it can happen in any kind of intimate relationship, IPV is the most common form of violence against women (WHO, 2012). Short-term or long-term harmful effects of IPV on mental health outcomes include substance abuse, post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), depression, and suicide risk (Devries et al., 2013; Stockman et al., 2015).

Female victims of IPV often have low self-esteem because of shame, guilt, and self-blame, which strengthen negative self-images (Karakurt et al., 2014), and research shows that low self-esteem is negatively related to several mental problems (Nathanson et al., 2012). On the other hand, the gender role imposed on and recognized by women in

their learning and socialization from childhood has a holistic effect on self-esteem depending on their successful performance (Han & Hong, 2011). The despair felt by women can act as a factor in depressive symptoms if they are considered unable to satisfactorily fulfill their roles as women in society and family. Lu and Wu (1998) examined the associations among gender-role traits, depressive symptoms, and self-esteem in 301 Taiwan samples. They found that self-esteem was an important mediator between gender-role traits and depressive symptoms. Regarding Korean samples, Choi et al. (2010) investigated 464 Korean high school boys and found that a traditional male gender role demonstrated direct and indirect effects on depressive symptoms through the mediational effect of self-esteem. Han and Hong (2011) found that self-esteem plays a partially mediating role between gender-role stress and depressive symptoms ($\beta = -.421$, $p < .001$). In other words, the higher the gender-role stress is, the lower the self-esteem is; and lower self-esteem further increases depressive symptoms, showing that it plays a mediating role in the positive relationship between gender-role stress and depressive symptoms.

Life satisfaction refers to a cognitive and subjective evaluation of one's life based on the suitability of individual achievements and goals (Diener, 2009). Hui and Constantino (2021) suggested that there are many possibilities to explain the relationship between IPV victimization and life satisfaction. They found that participants who had experienced IPV had 2.05 times more dissatisfaction in life compared to people who had not experienced IPV. This study concluded that people who experience IPV are more

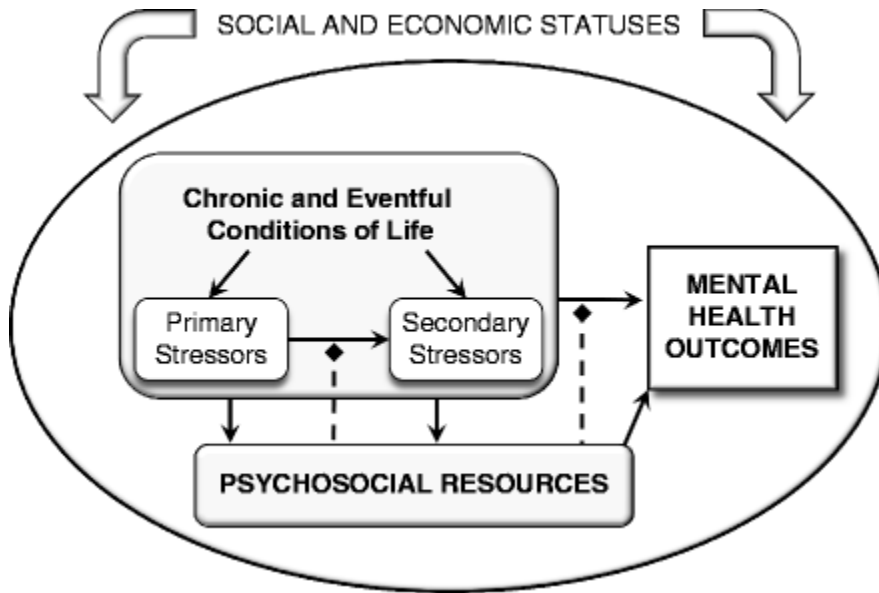
likely to receive less emotional support, perceive dissatisfaction in life, and have poor health outcomes. Regarding the relationship between depression and life satisfaction, Fergusson et al. (2015) investigated the association between life satisfaction and mental health problems using a longitudinal study design with a birth cohort of 1,265 children in New Zealand at ages 18, 21, 25, 30, and 35 years. They found that poor life satisfaction negatively influences depressive symptoms among young adults ($p < 0.001$). On the other hand, a study by Gigantesco et al. (2019) does not support this and argued that life satisfaction and depressive symptoms are not related, at least among females. Among Korean samples, life satisfaction was associated with a low risk of depression (Lee et al., 2003; Seo et al., 2018; Won & Choi, 2013). On the other hand, the gender-role stress of women can also affect life satisfaction depending on their successful performance and can act as a factor of depression when the results are unsatisfactory (Han & Hong, 2011). In Han and Hong (2011)'s study, the results showed that the lower the life satisfaction was in family and spouse relationships, the higher the depressive symptoms were. In addition, it was found that life satisfaction in family relationships plays a partial mediating role in the relationship between women's gender-role stress and depressive symptoms ($\beta = -.373, p < .001$). In other words, higher gender-role stress leads to lower life satisfaction in families, and that further increases the depressive symptoms, showing that life satisfaction plays a mediating role in the positive relationship between gender-role stress and depressive symptoms.

Stress process model

The stress process model (SPM) suggested for this study provides a fundamental framework for understanding how multiple stressors influence individuals' mental health and how their coping efforts operate in certain situations. Pearlin and colleagues developed the SPM in 1989, and it shows a causal mechanism for turning social inequality into a health disparity (Pearlin, 1989). A key feature of the SPM is its sociological emphasis on understanding the impact of social structure on an individual's exposure to stressor and their response to these experiences.

Pearlin (1989) suggested the components of SPM with stressors, moderators or mediators, and health outcomes. Pearlin emphasized that stressors affect individuals' health within the society. Vulnerable social status causes a high level of psychological stress, and social stress influences health outcomes. In other words, individuals' exposed stress and protective resources are patterned under social status, and those experiences and living conditions contribute to poor mental health outcomes. In addition, SPM includes an understanding that stressful events can occur throughout individuals' lifetimes, accumulate, and have a lasting impact on health.

[Figure 5 Stress process model (Pearlin & Bierman, 2013)]



Research questions and hypotheses

This study explored the influence of lifetime stressors on depressive symptoms and how personal resources affect them through the modified Pearlin's SPM among Korean Women. This study will examine whether the modified Pearlin's model fits with the data set well. The research questions are below.

RQ 1: How do lifetime stressors directly affect Korean women's personal resources and their psychological distress?

Hypothesis 1a: IPV victimization will have direct negative effects on personal resources (self-esteem and life satisfaction) and direct positive effects on depressive symptoms.

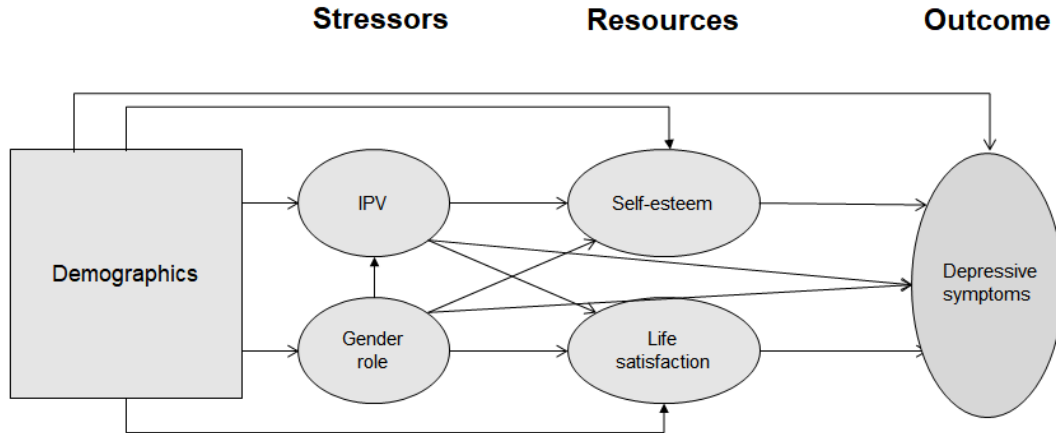
Hypothesis 1b: Higher gender-role stress will have direct negative effects on personal resources (self-esteem and life satisfaction) and direct positive effects on depressive symptoms.

RQ 2: How do personal resources mediate the direct effects of lifetime stressors on psychological distress?

Hypothesis 2a: Decreased self-esteem will mediate the direct effect of IPV victimization and gender-role stress on depressive symptoms.

Hypothesis 2b: Decreased life satisfaction will mediate the direct effect of IPV victimization and gender-role stress on depressive symptoms.

[Figure 6 The hypothesized model examined in the present study]



Methods

Study design

This study, a cross-sectional secondary data analysis, uses data from the Korean Welfare Panel Study (KOWEPS), a nationwide longitudinal study that has collected annual data through personal interviews since 2006. The study was initiated in 2005 and represents 90% of the population of the 2005 Korean census, and the follow-up rate of households has been above 90%. Data is collected annually through face-to-face interviews using structured questionnaires. The KOWEPS collects data from cohorts of participants and follows them throughout their lives, including information on socioeconomic status, health status, and insurance and welfare status. The data is used to guide national policies that can flexibly respond to changing economic conditions and population values over time. Therefore, KOWEPS enables investigation of Korean society regarding dynamic changes in sociocultural aspects.

Participants

The target population of the study is married South Korean women who have had no mental health problems, such as depressive symptoms, in the previous year from the KOWEPS data set. Since KOWEPS includes data from more than 18,000 Korean individuals, it will be appropriate for conducting research on married women who are living in South Korea. From the data set, inclusion criteria are a) legally married, b) aged 18 years or above, and c) had no mental health problems in the previous year. If participants are divorced, bereaved, separated, or single, the data will be excluded.

The sample-size calculation was based on the purpose of the study to evaluate the hypothesized mediating roles of self-esteem, life satisfaction, and the relationship among IPV victimization, gender-role stress, and depressive symptoms. This was generally achieved by SEM analysis where study samples with more than 200 participants were considered sufficient (Kline, 2005). In this study, we aimed to include more than 3,000 Korean women; thus, the sample size is considered as sufficient.

Procedures

The KOWEPS data set can be accessed publicly after providing information about the purpose of the data usage for this study on the KOWEPS website (<http://www.koweps.re.kr/>). For the data set from 2019, KOWEPS collected data over 93 days, from February 18 to May 21. The data were collected through person-to-person interviews of each household and through structured questionnaires, which 50 trained interviewers conducted to record information on socioeconomic and health-related characteristics. Since we used public data, the Institutional Review Board of University of Texas at Austin exempted the need to review this study.

Measures

Intimate Partner Violence victimization. IPV was measured using the following items: “In the last year, have you experienced: a) verbal abuse, insulting, or degrading remarks; b) indirect physical violence or the threat of physical violence; c) direct physical violence or physical damage from your partner?” The responses were on a 5-point scale

indicating the frequency of exposure to IPV. It was created for the KOWEPS survey; the reliability and validity information were not given.

Gender-role stress. The gender-role recognition scale is a question related to the “social perception of the value of gender roles” developed by the Seoul National University Social Welfare Research Institute. It consists of questions about gender roles over the past year to measure gender-role perception (Sohn et al., 2009). Gender-role recognitions were measured using 7 items, and each was scored on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Examples of included items are “It is not good for a mother with preschoolers to work” and “Having family responsibilities makes it difficult to concentrate at work in the workplace.” Higher gender-role recognition represented a strong opinion that women are more responsible for housework than men. In this study, We estimate high gender-role recognition is associated with high gender-role stress. The value of Cronbach’s $\alpha = .59$ (Han & Hong, 2011).

Self-esteem. Self-esteem was measured using the translated version of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES). This scale consists of 10 items, including 5 negative self-esteem items and 5 positive self-esteem items, rated on a 4-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 4 = strongly agree). The 5 negative self-esteem items were reverse-scored for data analysis. Examples of included items are “I feel like I have many good qualities” and “I definitely feel useless at times.” The higher scores indicate higher levels of self-esteem. Previous studies have shown that the Korean version of the RSES has good reliability (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .90$) and construct validity in adults (Bae et al., 2014).

Life satisfaction. Life satisfaction means the individual feels responsible for his or her life and adapts well to the surrounding environment. In the KOWEPS data, the life-satisfaction scale consists of 6 items to evaluate life satisfaction such as health, income, family residential environment, family relationship, occupation, and social intimacy. Each item can be rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree,” which is score of 1, to “strongly agree,” which is score of 5; high composite scores indicate high social-capital satisfaction. The value of Cronbach’s $\alpha = .805$ (Lee, 2017).

Depressive symptoms. Depressive symptoms were measured using the Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale (CES-D). This scale asked about the participants’ psychological state related to depressive symptoms over the week preceding the time of the survey. This scale consists of 11 items evaluated on a 4-point Likert scale (0 = rarely to 3 = always). Some included items were “I did not want to eat,” “I enjoyed life,” “I felt lonely,” and “I could not get ‘going.’” The 2 items that measure positive emotions will be reverse-scored for data analysis. Higher scores indicate higher depressive symptoms. The Korean version of the CES-D-11 has been widely used in previous depression studies and has high validity and reliability (Jang et al., 2015; Jeong & Veenstra, 2017; Kim et al., 2016). The internal consistency of CES-D in Han et al. (2019)’s study was 0.871 as measured by Cronbach's alpha. The major depression patient group showed significantly higher scores by item and total scores than other groups, confirming the validity of CES-D's content. For each item, the major depression group

showed the highest score and highest statistical significance, confirming the good discriminant validity of CES-D (Cho & Kim, 1998).

Statistical analyses

First, the hypothesized model variables and demographic characteristics were first summarized using descriptive statistics. The hypothesized model was then evaluated by using structural equation modeling (SEM). Analyses will be performed using the software Mplus ver. 7 (Muthén & Muthén, 2017). In the main analysis, mediators were examined in a single model using SEM, an advanced statistical method for investigating causal models. SEM differs from traditional multivariate regression analysis in two ways (Byrne, 2001). First, conventional path analysis based on regression techniques does not assume measurement errors, while SEM explicitly estimates measurement errors. Additionally, SEM integrates observed and latent variables into a single model, whereas conventional path analysis does not estimate latent variables. The possibility to model potential variables is perhaps one of the greatest strengths of SEM in social science research, as many theoretically interesting concepts have potential properties. The SEM framework simultaneously tests the complex paths of a single model. This feature is particularly useful for examining the mediating effects.

Due to the high sensitivity of χ^2 to large samples, goodness of fit for a model was evaluated by other fit indices, including the χ^2 , the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), and comparative fit index (CFI). Values greater than 0.90 for the TLI and CFI are considered to reflect acceptable model fit. It has also been reported that the root mean square error of

approximation (RMSEA) was an approximation with value less than 0.05 and up to 0.08 indicating a reasonable approximation error (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The mediating effects of the model were estimated using a bootstrapping which is re-sampling method that resulted in 2,000 iterations. All statistical tests were performed with a significance level of 5%, each estimate accompanied by a 95% confidence interval, where appropriate.

Results

Descriptive findings and correlations

Table 5 presents the basic description statistics for the key variables in the analyses. The average age of the sample of the Korean women was 60 years, with a range from 25 to 95 years old. Education levels were moderate or high, with more than 70% of women in the sample having a high school education. However, only 22.8% of the women have a regular-employment status. The most common type of IPV was verbal IPV, with 16.1%.

[Table 5 Descriptive statistics of study variables (n = 3,404)]

Variables	N (%)	Mean (SD)	Range
<i>Sociodemographic</i>			
Age		60.03 (14.85)	25-95
Education level			
College	1363 (40)		
High school	1052 (30.9)		
Less than middle school	989 (29.1)		
Employment status			
Regular	777 (22.8)		
Unstable	1102 (32.4)		
Unemployment	1525 (44.8)		
Annual household income (\$)		59,757.81 (51,924.03)	0-1,702,040
Upper 50%		96,180.95 (59,066.81)	57,590-1,702,040
Lower 50%		31,131.43 (14,540.31)	0-57,510
<i>Stressors</i>			
Intimate Partner Violence experiences		3.29 (0.81)	3-12
Verbal IPV	545 (16.1)		
Indirect IPV	58 (1.7)		
Physical IPV	24 (0.7)		
Gender role stress		24.09 (3.16)	13-35
<i>Resources</i>			
Self-esteem		31.63 (3.62)	15-40
Life satisfaction		21.28 (2.93)	7-30
<i>Outcome</i>			
Depressive symptoms		13.97 (4.19)	11-38

Table 6 presents the correlation among study variables in the study. These results showed that age was associated with all other variables, whereas annual household income was not significantly associated with IPV victimization. IPV victimization and gender-role stress were negatively associated with self-esteem and life satisfaction and positively

associated with depressive symptoms. In addition, the results show that bivariate correlations between all variables were modest so that data were not compromised by multicollinearity.

[Table 6 Correlations among study variables (n = 3,404)]

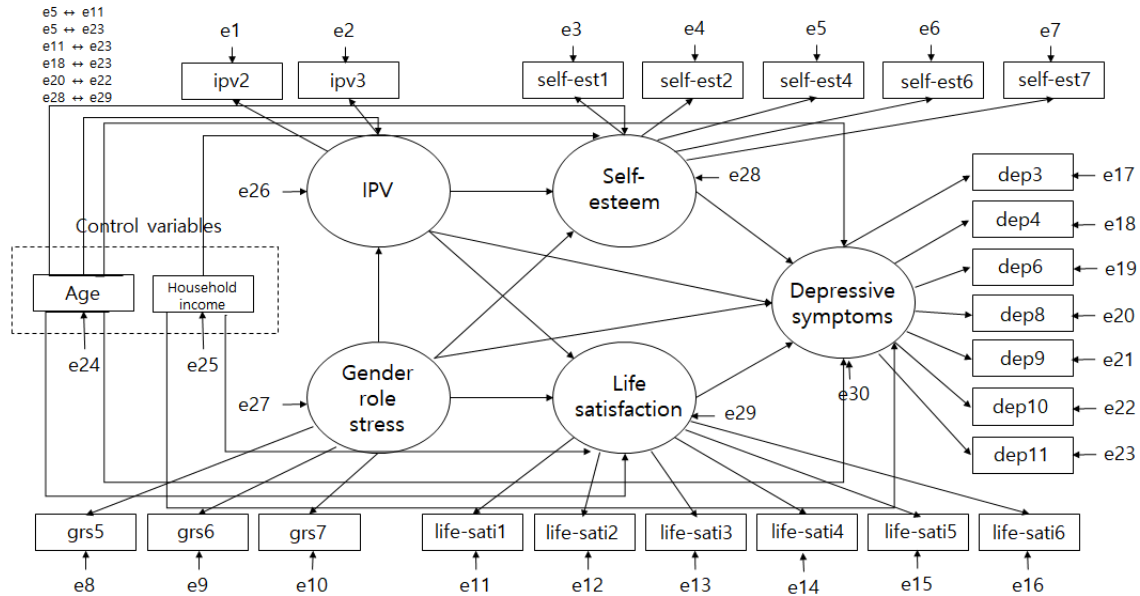
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Age	-						
Household income	.40***	-					
IPV experiences	-.05*	-.02	-				
Gender-role stress	.09***	-.11***	.09***	-			
Self-esteem	-.31***	.27***	-.11***	-.15***	-		
Life satisfaction	-.31***	.30***	-.19***	-.18***	.50***	-	
Depressive symptoms	.28***	-.24***	.17***	.14***	-.43***	-.42***	-

Note. ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$

Results for SEM analyses and hypothesis

To confirm the goodness-of-fit of the data, I first performed a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Several items—1 item in the IPV subscale, 4 items in the gender-role stress subscale, 5 items in the self-esteem subscale, and 4 items in the depressive symptoms scale—were deleted because they had a factor load value of less than .4, which I judged to be less relevant. In addition, 2 control variables which are age and annual household income were included to examine whether these variables confound SEM's hypothesized relationships depicted in the model. After initial confirmatory analysis, 6 paths of covariance were added and an initial structural model was developed (figure 7).

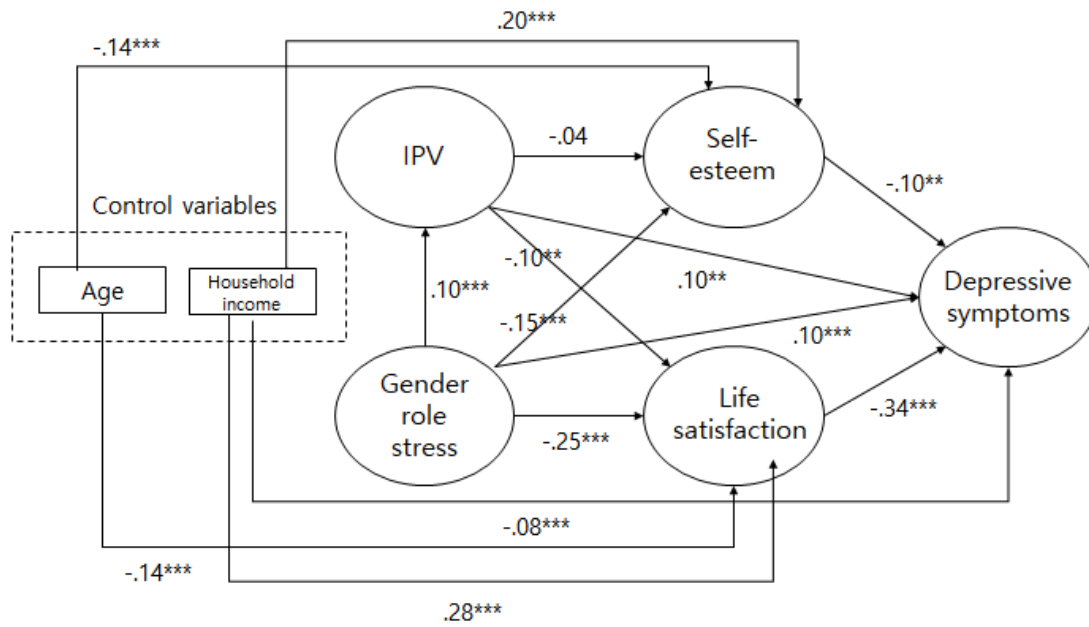
[Figure 7 Initial Structural Model in the Present Study. ipv2 = indirect IPV; ipv3 = direct IPV]



The suggested criteria for good model fit include RMSEA less than 0.06, CFI greater than .95, and .90 for marginal fit (Acock, 2013). The final SEM model fit indices suggest that the data fit adequately ($\chi^2 = 2349.3$, $df = 252$, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .0049, CFI = 0.918, TLI = 0.902, and SRMR = 0.043). Figure 8 showed that hypotheses 1a and 1b are partially supported. While gender-role stress has direct negative effects on both personal resources—between gender-role stress and self-esteem ($\beta = -.15$, $p < .001$) and gender-role stress and life satisfaction ($\beta = -.25$, $p < .001$)—IPV victimization has a direct negative effect on only life satisfaction ($\beta = -.10$, $p < .01$). Between victimization and self-esteem has no statistically significant direct effect ($\beta = -.04$, not significant),

On the other hand, there are direct positive effects on depressive symptoms; with IPV victimization ($\beta = .10, p < .01$) and with gender-role stress ($\beta = .10, p < .001$). In addition, gender-role stress also has direct positive effects on IPV victimization ($\beta = .10, p < .001$).

[Figure 8 Final Structural Model in the Present Study]



Note. $***p < 0.001$ $**p < 0.01$, $*p < 0.05$

This current study controlled the confounding effects of demographics such as age and annual household income on the endogenous constructs of IPV victimization, self-esteem, life satisfaction, and depressive symptoms. Findings showed that age has significant negative association with self-esteem ($\beta = -.14, p < .001$), life satisfaction ($\beta = -.14, p < .001$) and annual household income has significant positive association with self-esteem ($\beta = .20, p < .001$), life satisfaction ($\beta = .28, p < .001$) and negative

association with depressive symptoms ($\beta = -.08, p < .001$). There was no association between control variables and IPV victimization. In addition, age also does not associate with depressive symptoms.

Table 7 showed the indirect effects of IPV victimization and gender-role stress on depressive symptoms. Hypotheses 2a and 2b are partially supported, which say that self-esteem (standardized path coefficient $\beta = .01; p < .01$) and life satisfaction ($\beta = .1, p < .001$) mediate the direct effect of gender-role stress on depressive symptoms. IPV victimization also mediates the direct effect of gender-role stress on depressive symptoms ($\beta = .01, p < .05$). IPV victimization and life satisfaction mediates the direct effect of gender-role stress on depressive symptoms ($\beta = .003, p < .05$) however, IPV victimization and self-esteem does not mediate the direct effect of gender-role stress on depressive symptoms ($\beta = .000$, not significant). In addition, self-esteem does not mediate the direct effect on IPV victimization and depressive symptom ($\beta = .003$, not significant).

[Table 7 Standardized Indirect Effect of Model Predictors]

Path	β	95% CI
Gender-role stress → IPV → Depressive symptoms	0.01*	[.003, .020]
IPV → Self-esteem → Depressive symptoms	0.003	[.000, .010]
Gender-role stress → Self-esteem → Depressive symptoms	0.01**	[.005, .025]
IPV → Life satisfaction → Depressive symptoms	0.031**	[.014, .054]
Gender-role stress → Life satisfaction → Depressive symptoms	0.1***	[.063, .110]
Gender-role stress → IPV → Self-esteem → Depressive symptoms	0.000	[.000, .001]
Gender-role stress → IPV → Life satisfaction → Depressive symptoms	0.003*	[.001, .006]

Note. *** $p < 0.001$ ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$

Discussion

The current study examined the influence of lifetime stressors on depressive symptoms and how personal resources interact with Korean married women. This study found that IPV victimization, self-esteem, and life satisfaction mediated the gender-role stress on depressive symptoms. This is consistent with other studies' results showing that self-esteem and life satisfaction play a mediating role between gender-role stress and depressive symptoms among Korean samples (Choi et al., 2010; Han & Hong, 2011).

Furthermore, this study has shown that IPV victimization can be a mediator as well as have an effect on other mediators and depressive symptoms. Life satisfaction plays a mediating role among gender-role stress, IPV victimization, and depressive symptoms; however, self-esteem does not mediate among them. Specifically, unlike the results of previous studies (Karakurt et al., 2014; Zlotnick et al., 2006), it was found that IPV has no direct negative effect on self-esteem and does not mediate between IPV and depressive symptoms. However, follow-up studies are needed to confirm the consistency of the results of this study of Korean women. To sum up, for Korean women who have greater gender-role stress, it is important to prevent IPV victimization and improve life satisfaction to prevent depressive symptoms.

Psychological IPV has received limited attention compared to physical IPV because psychological violence was previously viewed as having less of an impact than other forms of violence (Lawrence et al., 2009). However, the effect of solitary or combined psychological violence on mental health is more prominent than originally thought (Lagdon et al., 2014). In the data used in the current study, the most common type of IPV was verbal IPV, which is a psychological form of IPV. However, verbal IPV was not significant enough to explain the IPV factor in the data because of the lower factor loading of below 0.4. In this study, we included only direct and indirect physical IPV; future study is needed to examine other forms of IPV and accumulate scientific knowledge on them. Even though a relatively small number of participants experienced indirect or direct physical IPV in the current study, in that those have enough factor

loading to explain IPV, this study might highlight the severity of physical IPV's impact on Korean women's depressive symptoms.

In South Korea, limited attention is given to understanding IPV considering the cultural aspect, such as gender-role stress (Kim et al., 2013). Park et al. (2017) showed their results of assessing gender-role attitudes, IPV victimization, and depressive symptoms among Korean women. In their study, they found that women who reported experiencing IPV and recognized traditional gender roles had a higher score on depressive symptoms than women who did not experience IPV (OR: 4.59; CI: 2.90–7.28). This study supports the previous study with regard to IPV victimization mediating between gender-role stress and depressive symptoms and their positive associations. Furthermore, this study is meaningful in that it examined the effect of self-esteem and life satisfaction among those variables.

Nursing has provided a variety of interventions for subjects with depressive symptoms and has contributed to improving their depression. However, nurses' interest in the effect of gender roles on depression was limited. A previous study in nursing investigated the relationship between gender roles and depression among Asian Indian women in the United States (Mann et al., 2017). The results revealed that depression is related to traditional gender roles, and researchers argued that gender role attitudes that affect decisions on mental health care should be considered. The current study has the same views as their findings. In particular, women living in countries with cultural

diversity must consider the impact of cultural factors on depression and must be included in nursing interventions in order to alleviate their depression.

This study has several limitations. The cross-sectional study does not permit an evaluation of casual relationships among study variables. In this study, we used only a 2019 data set; future studies might use longitudinal data sets to improve the quality of the results. Qualitative studies may also be conducted to explore the contexts within which gender-role stress or IPV takes place to attain a more comprehensive picture of Korean women's experiences by considering cultural values. Future study might consider the use of multiple sources of data, more standardized measurement, and other nationality groups who have similar cultural experiences.

Chapter V: Conclusion

Intimate partner violence (IPV) is a global health issue and an ongoing one in South Korea as well. IPV has significant negative effects on women's lives and causes irreparable injuries. This dissertation sought to examine the physical and mental consequences stemming from IPV and how minor behaviors within the intimate relationship develop into actual violence.

In study 1 from chapter 2, we reviewed the context of Intimate Partner Femicide (IPF), which is the most serious form of IPV, and factors that influence IPF in South Korea based on the ecological model. The study showed that public awareness was relatively low considering the severity of IPF due to the influence of Korean traditional culture. In addition, there are several risk factors for each level of the ecological model that influence IPF in South Korea. The factors in the societal level include Confucian culture, traditional patriarchal family structure and women's roles, media, and laws that are supportive of men, all of which had a tremendous influence on the other factors. Therefore, in study 3 from chapter 4, we sought to examine how traditional cultural values, using the concept of gender role stress, influence Korean women's depressive symptoms in an intimate violence situation. In addition, we explored how personal resources such as self-esteem and life satisfaction influence them. The results showed that gender role stress was positively related to IPV severity and depressive symptoms and negatively associated with self-esteem and life satisfaction. With results from studies 1 and 3, this indicates the need for more research to identify the risks and protective

factors in the societal and cultural levels in IPV and to promote the physical and mental health of women.

In study 2 from chapter 3, we focused on how behaviors that are considered romantic in intimate relationships developed into IPV. We made a novel attempt to understand the progression of control over partner to IPV perpetration and the important role of insecure adult attachments in this progression. As a result, control over partner can be considered a warning sign for further severe forms of IPV perpetration, including physical, psychological, and sexual violence. Therefore, it is necessary to raise awareness in Korean society and work on developing sensitivity to perceive control over partner as an unhealthy and unsafe behavior, and not as men's expression of love and care toward women. Sociocultural efforts are crucial to create sensitivity toward the perception of such controlling behaviors.

Alhalal (2020) found that nurses who did not receive IPV-related training or adequate training to respond to IPV survivors were less aware and less prepared to manage IPV and had only basic knowledge. Because of this, nurses were found to have failed to adopt an appropriate attitude toward the victims of the violence, and training and preparation to evaluate and resolve the violence are limited. Nurses encounter victims of IPV in their work environment, so such training must be developed and guidelines implemented for integrating IPV into the nursing curriculum and in-service training. It also requires a multilevel intervention that allows nurses to respond to IPV. To achieve these goals, IPV assessment, intervention, and evaluation must include universal

screening within all healthcare environments; the use of proven tools that are easy to use, adaptable, and appropriate to different patient populations; and regular screening that is conducted on a routine basis. Further studies are needed to assess the extent to which interventions in response to IPV are used in Korea and the process of referring IPV victims to other community-based centers.

In summary, by examining the predictors and consequences of IPV on Korean women, as well as the importance of insecure attachments and personal resources, this dissertation uniquely contributes to IPV literature in the context of Korean culture. The findings underscore the importance of accessible and timely interventions for women exposed to IPV, and further studies are needed to identify how best to support and protect women's physical and mental health and protect them from violence. Future work assessing cultural aspects and IPV may provide additional insight into factors associated with both resilience and risk, allowing for intervention efforts that are more likely to promote safe and healthy adaptation after experiencing IPV.

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