

Original article

Socio-demographic Characteristics of Intimate Partner Violence Cases Presenting to a Crisis Centre in Sylhet, Bangladesh

Received: 04-02-2026

Accepted: 07-04-2026

Rowshon Ara Begum,¹ Laila Yesmin,² Md. Syedur Rahaman Sumon,³ Nazia Sharmin,⁴ Rumana Kabir,⁵ Antara Dhar,⁶ Most. Eti Khatun,⁷ Md Shamsul Islam⁸

Abstract:

Background: Intimate partner violence (IPV) is a major public health and human rights concern, particularly in low- and middle-income countries. In Bangladesh, IPV remains highly prevalent, with disproportionate effects on socioeconomically vulnerable women. **Objectives:** To describe the socio-demographic characteristics of IPV victims and perpetrators attending a One-Stop Crisis Centre (OCC) in Sylhet city. **Methodology:** A descriptive cross-sectional study was conducted using retrospective records from the OCC at Sylhet MAG Osmani Medical College between January 2019 and December 2020. A total of 1,290 female victims of intimate partner violence with complete records were included. Data on socio-demographic characteristics, family context, perpetrator profile, and forms of violence were extracted and analyzed using descriptive statistics. **Results:** Among 1,290 victims, 65.2% were aged 16–30 years. Most were married (73.2%), Muslim (74.1%), and resided in rural areas (71.6%). A large proportion were housewives (67.1%) and from low socio-economic backgrounds (76.4%). Early marriage before 18 years was reported in (77.0%) of cases. Husbands were the primary perpetrators (50.5%), followed by former husbands (18.8%) and in-laws (12.4%). Psychological abuse was the most frequently reported form of IPV (85%), followed by physical (64%), sexual (47%), and economic abuse (18%). **Conclusion:** IPV in Sylhet predominantly affects young, married women in socioeconomically constrained settings. The findings highlight the need for targeted prevention strategies and strengthened support systems within institutional and community contexts.

Keywords: Intimate Partner Violence; Bangladesh; Socio-demographic factors; One-Stop Crisis Centre; Perpetrators

Copyright: This article is published under the Creative Commons CC By-NC License (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0>). This license permits use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited, and is not used for commercial purposes.

How to cite this article: Begum RA, Yesmin L, Sumon MSR, Sharmin N, Kabir R, Dhar A, et al. Socio-demographic Characteristics of Intimate Partner Violence Cases Presenting to a Crisis Centre in Sylhet, Bangladesh. Ad-din Med J. 2026 Jul;4(2):03-07.

Address of Correspondence: Dr. Rowshon Ara Begum, Assistant Professor, Dept. of Forensic Medicine & Toxicology, Khwaja Yunus Ali Medical College, Enayetpur, Sirajganj, Bangladesh. Email: dr.rowshnara@kyamc.edu.bd

1. Dr. Rowshon Ara Begum, Assistant Professor, Dept. of Forensic Medicine & Toxicology, Khwaja Yunus Ali Medical College, Enayetpur, Sirajganj.
2. Dr. Laila Yesmin, Professor, Dept. of Forensic Medicine & Toxicology, Khwaja Yunus Ali Medical College, Enayetpur, Sirajganj.
3. Dr. Md. Syedur Rahaman Sumon, Professor (CC), Department of Forensic Medicine & Toxicology, Bashundhara Ad- din Medical College, Dhaka
4. Dr. Nazia Sharmin, Assistant Professor (CC), Department of Forensic Medicine & Toxicology, Shaheed Monsur Ali Medical College, Dhaka.
5. Dr. Rumana Kabir, Assistant Professor, Department of Forensic Medicine & Toxicology, Ad-din Akij Medical College, Khulna.
6. Dr. Antara Dhar, Assistant Professor, Department of Forensic Medicine & Toxicology, Chittagong Army Medical College, Chittagong.
7. Dr. Most. Eti Khatun, Assistant Professor, Dept. of Paediatrics, Khwaja Yunus Ali Medical College, Enayetpur, Sirajganj.
8. Dr. Md Shamsul Islam, Associate Professor, Department of Forensic Medicine, Sylhet MAG Osmani Medical College, Sylhet.

Introduction:

Violence is a pervasive social and public health problem worldwide. The World Health Organization (WHO) defines violence as the intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself or others that results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, psychological harm, or deprivation.¹ Among its many manifestations, violence against women (VAW) stands out as one of the most widespread and enduring violations of human rights across the globe.² Despite advances in gender equality in the 21st century, VAW remains highly prevalent. VAW is commonly categorized as interpersonal violence, which includes intimate partner violence (IPV) and non-partner violence (NPV). IPV—violence inflicted by a current or former intimate partner—accounts for the largest share of reported violence against women.¹

The concept of violence within intimate relationships and the cyclical nature of abuse were first systematically described by Lenore Walker through her formulation of Battered Woman Syndrome.² Earlier, such violence was broadly labeled as domestic violence, family violence, spouse abuse, wife abuse, or wife battering, before being more distinctly conceptualized.³ The term intimate partner violence (IPV) emerged in the late 1980s and was widely adopted in the 1990s to more accurately capture abuse across diverse intimate relationships.⁴

Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) represents the most common form of violence against women and includes physical, sexual, psychological, and controlling behaviors perpetrated by a current or former intimate partner. According to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), IPV encompasses physical violence, sexual violence, stalking, or psychological aggression (including coercive acts) by a current or former intimate partner, whether or not the partner is a spouse.⁵ The perpetrator can be the partner within a marriage context, cohabitation or any other formal or informal union. Although IPV can occur across genders and relationship types, this study focuses specifically on violence inflicted by male intimate partners against women in a major city in Bangladesh, reflecting the most prevalent and consequential pattern documented worldwide.

Global data regarding IPV paints an alarming picture. For example, nearly 1 in 3 women experience physical and/or sexual violence by an intimate partner during their lifetime. Violence like this often begins early, with approximately 1 in 4 girls reporting exposure during adolescence. IPV undermines the achievement of Sustained Development Goals (SDG) particularly Goal Target 5.2.1, which aims to eliminate all forms of violence against women and girls in both public and private spheres.⁶ Even children are indirect victims of IPV, often experiencing long-term psychological and behavioral consequences. It is estimated that 1 in 4 children under five living with their mothers are exposed to

IPV. Even without direct abuse, such exposure can have lasting psychological effects and reinforce intergenerational cycles of violence. Every four minutes or so, a child is murdered by violence somewhere in the world.⁷

In Bangladesh, IPV is widely reported as a common form of domestic violence, even in the presence of legal protections such as the Domestic Violence (Prevention and Protection) Act, 2013. Recent statistics show that approximately 76% of women in Bangladesh experience violence by a husband or intimate partner, including physical, sexual, psychological, and economic abuse. Despite this high prevalence, an estimated 62% of survivors do not disclose their experiences to others.⁸ Silence surrounding such abuse has detrimental effects on the physical, mental, sexual and reproductive health of women, on their children, and often on the wider family. Multiple studies suggest that IPV remains deeply embedded within patriarchal family structures, early marriage practices, and socio-economic dependency. Although closely related, IPV and DV differ conceptually; DV covers a wider spectrum of abusive behaviors within the household, such as child, elder, or other family member abuse.⁹

Despite the magnitude of the problem, region-specific data—particularly from Sylhet—remain limited. Understanding local socio-demographic patterns of IPV is essential for effective prevention and intervention.

Materials & Methods:

This cross-sectional study was conducted at the One-Stop Crisis Centre (OCC) of Sylhet MAG Osmani Medical College in Sylhet, Bangladesh, covering the period from January 2019 to December 2020. Data were obtained from retrospective OCC records documenting intimate partner violence, including socio-demographic characteristics, incident details, and perpetrator profiles. Out of 1,338 registered cases, 1,290 female victims with complete records were included, while those with incomplete information were excluded. Data were extracted using a pre-designed structured format to capture socio-demographic characteristics, marital and family contexts, perpetrator profiles, and specific forms of violence. Statistical analysis was performed using Microsoft Excel to analyze the data descriptively, with results expressed as frequencies and percentages presented in tables and figures. Institutional ethical approval was obtained prior to data collection, and individual consent was waived due to the retrospective nature of the review; however, victim confidentiality and autonomy were strictly maintained by ensuring no personal identifiers were used.

Several limitations characterize this study, as the use of retrospective data from a single center may introduce selection bias, reflecting only survivors who sought formal support rather than the wider community. Reliance on

secondary records further limited control over data completeness and measurement precision, while the cross-sectional design precludes causal inference. Additionally, underreporting of sexual and psychological violence remains likely due to social stigma and cultural barriers. Finally, as the findings are context-specific, they may not be generalizable beyond the Sylhet region.

Results:

Socio-Demographic Profile of Victims

Table 1 shows among the 1,290 victims, the majority were aged 16–30 years (65.2%), followed by 31–45 years (27.8%). Most were married (73.2%), Muslim (74.1%), and rural residents (71.6%). Educational attainment was generally low, with (41.3%) completing secondary education and

Table 1. Socio-demographic characteristics of participants (n = 1290)

Sociodemographic characters	Category	n (%)
Age (years)	<15	75 (5.8)
	16–30	841 (65.2)
	31–45	358 (27.8)
	≥46	16 (1.2)
Marital status	Married	944 (73.2)
	Unmarried	302 (23.4)
	Widow	17 (1.3)
	Divorced	15 (1.2)
	Separated	12 (0.9)
Religion	Islam	956 (74.1)
	Hindu	302 (23.4)
	Others	32 (2.5)
Residence	Rural	923 (71.6)
	Urban	367 (28.4)
Socioeconomic status	Low	985 (76.4)
	Middle	191 (14.8)
	High	114 (8.8)
Education	Illiterate	292 (22.6)
	Primary	338 (26.2)
	Secondary	533 (41.3)
	Higher	127 (9.8)
Occupation	Housewife	865 (67.1)
	Student	72 (5.6)
	Employed (garments/service)	216 (16.7)
	Domestic worker	62 (4.8)
	Others	75 (5.8)

(22.6%) being illiterate. Most victims were housewives (67.1%) and belonged to low socio-economic status (76.4%). Early marriage was common.

Perpetrators of Violence

Table 2 shows husbands were the primary perpetrators (50.5%), followed by former husbands (18.8%) and in-laws (12.4%). Non-marital partners accounted for (2.7%) of cases.

Table 2. Relationship of perpetrators to victims (n = 1290)

Victim-Perpetrator Relationship	n (%)
Husband/Spouse	652 (50.5)
Former husband	243 (18.8)
Non-marital partner	35 (2.7)
In-laws	160 (12.4)
Parents/Family members	46 (3.6)
Others	154 (11.9)

Family and Marital Characteristics

Table 3 shows among married participants (n = 988), arranged marriages were predominant (80.2%). Early marriage before 18 years was reported in (77.0%) of cases. Most victims had been married for 4–6 years (64.1%) and had an age gap of 6–10 years with their husbands (64.5%). Decision-making authority was largely husband-directed (73.2%).

Table 3. Family and marital characteristics of married participants (n = 988)

Variable	Category	n (%)
Type of marriage	Arranged	792 (80.2)
	Love	196 (19.8)
Age at marriage	<18 years	761 (77.0)
	≥18 years	227 (23.0)
Duration of marriage	≤3 years	69 (7.0)
	4–6 years	633 (64.1)
	7–10 years	188 (19.0)
	≥11 years	98 (9.9)
Age gap (wife–husband)	≤5 years	90 (9.1)
	6–10 years	632 (64.0)
	≥11 years	266 (26.9)
Family type	Nuclear	568 (57.5)
	Joint/Extended	420 (42.5)
Family autonomy	Elder	178 (18.0)
	Husband	723 (73.2)
	Wife	87 (8.8)

Socio-Demographic Profile of Perpetrators

Most perpetrators were aged 16–30 years (49.4%) or 31–45 years (33.2%) shown in Table 4. Primary-level education was most common (29.6%). Agricultural work (33.9%) and informal employment were prevalent. Substance abuse (20.8%), alcohol consumption (18.6%), and controlling behavior (31.8%) were frequently reported contributing factors.

Table 4. Socio-demographic profile of perpetrators (n = 988 married cases)

Sociodemographic characteristics	Category	n (%)
Age (years)	<18	70 (7.1)
	19–30	488 (49.4)
	31–45	328 (33.2)
	≥46	102 (10.3)
Residence	Rural	679 (68.7)
	Urban	309 (31.3)
Education	Illiterate	244 (24.7)
	Primary	292 (29.6)
	Secondary	240 (24.3)
	Higher	212 (21.5)
Occupation	Unemployed	291 (29.5)
	Agricultural	335 (33.9)
	Employed/Business	362 (36.6)
Contributing factors*	Extramarital affair	137 (13.9)
	Substance abuse	205 (20.8)
	Alcohol consumption	184 (18.6)
	Psychological issues	56 (5.7)
	Controlling behaviour	314 (31.8)
	Disaster-prone residence	92 (9.3)
Number of Partners/Spouses	One	693 (70.14)
	Two/more	295 (29.86)

*Multiple responses possible.

***Perpetrators aged <18 years reflected cases involving early or child marriage, which remains prevalent in certain rural settings.

Forms of Intimate Partner Violence

Figure 1 shows different forms of IPV. Psychological abuse was the most prevalent form of IPV (85%), followed by physical (64%), sexual (47%), and economic abuse (18%).

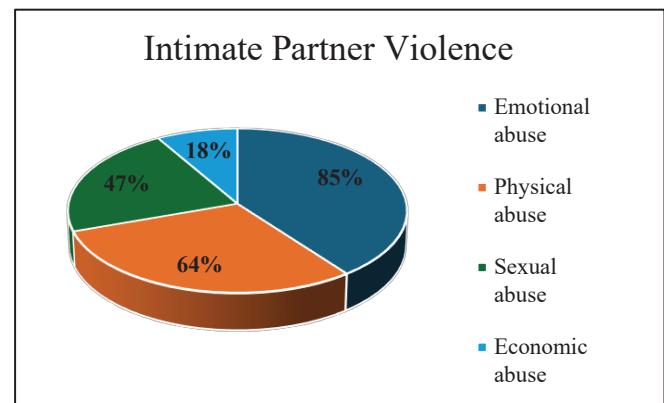


Figure 1: Forms of IPV

Discussion

In patriarchal social settings such as Bangladesh, household decision-making is largely male-dominated, shaping women's access to education, mobility, and economic resources over the life course. Within these domains, violence may serve as a means of maintaining hierarchical power dynamics and control across domestic and social territory. In some communities, wife battering is normalized within family relations, reflecting deeply entrenched gender norms.¹⁰ Women's tolerance of abusive behavior is often linked to overlapping social and economic factors, including feelings of powerlessness, traditional norms emphasizing obedience to male authority, economic hardship and limited awareness of legal protections.¹¹

Although national survey data show the highest lifetime prevalence of IPV in Barishal and Khulna (81.5%), Sylhet presents a distinctive regional profile. Despite comparatively lower prevalence (72.1%) and higher literacy levels, IPV remains persistent in Sylhet, likely reflecting the region's predominantly rural context.¹² Within this setting, age emerges as a key determinant of IPV risk. The present study indicates that IPV in Sylhet disproportionately affects young, married, Muslim women, particularly those aged 16–30 years (65.2%), followed by women aged 31–45 years (27.8%). These findings are consistent with earlier Sylhet-based studies and national data demonstrating heightened vulnerability during the early years of marriage, especially among women with low educational background and economic dependency.^{11,12,13,14,15,16} Early marriage further reinforces power imbalances, limits educational and economic opportunities, and increases prolonged exposure to abuse. Across South Asia, similar results have been observed in Dalal K et al., Ali PA et al., Giri S et al. and Jayasuriya V et al.^{17,18,19,20} This pattern suggests that, despite diverse cultural and religious contexts, women remain vulnerable to IPV. Studies by Kadir SH et al. and Hayati EN et al. suggest that IPV patterns are largely driven by low education and disadvantaged social status.^{9,21}

The literature shows that husbands and former husbands

account for nearly 70% of IPV perpetrators, particularly among married women, reinforcing IPV as an intimate partner phenomenon. While non-partner violence accounts for a relatively small proportion of reported cases (2.71%), these findings warrant attention, as social norms and stigma may contribute to underreporting of such incidents. The majority of perpetrators were aged 16–30 years (49.4%), with a substantial proportion aged 31–45 years (33.2%). Educational attainment was generally low, with primary-level education being most prevalent (29.6%), followed by illiteracy (24.7%), secondary-level education (24.3%), and higher-level education (21.4%). Most perpetrators were from rural areas (68.7%) rather than urban settings (31.9%). Occupationally, employment was predominantly in agriculture (33.9%), while (29.5%) were unemployed; a smaller proportion were engaged in service-related or self-employed occupations. In our study, family structures were commonly characterized by early arranged marriages (before the age of 18 years) with common spousal age gaps of 6–10 years. Patrilineal family systems typically institutionalize male dominance in regulating women's behavior, where coercive measures may be rationalized as forms of discipline. Limited family intervention can normalize such practices, fostering a culture of silence that is reproduced across generations. Within this milieu, women's tolerance of abusive behaviour appears to be linked to multiple constraints, such as restricted educational opportunities, economic vulnerability, early marital obligations, and normative gender hierarchies.^{10,11,13,22}

Psychological abuse was the most common form of IPV in this study (85%), followed by physical (64%), sexual (47%), and economic abuse (18%), underscoring the often hidden and under-recognized nature of non-physical violence. This pattern is consistent with national evidence indicating that controlling behaviour and emotional abuse are the most widespread yet least disclosed forms of IPV in Bangladesh.¹² Although psychological and physical abuse frequently co-occur, the combined prevalence could not be quantified in the present study and is likely underreported. Consistent with earlier research by Dalal K et al., Ali PA et al., Giri S et al., and Jayasuriya V et al., psychological forms of IPV—particularly controlling behaviours—were highly prevalent.^{17,18,19,20} In the present study, psychological abuse commonly manifested as verbal threats, humiliation, gaslighting, and shaming, while physical abuse involved acts such as beating, slapping, punching, kicking, pushing, and choking. Interpretation of sexual violence remains particularly challenging in cultural settings such as Bangladesh, where disclosure may be constrained and measurement often relies on limited interview-based assessments.²¹ Similar patterns, though with lower reported prevalence, have been observed in studies by Kadir SH et al. and Hayati EN et al. potentially reflecting cultural norms that emphasize family privacy and marital harmony.^{9,21}

Several risk factors identified in this study—including

substance use, controlling behaviour, economic stress, and entrenched patriarchal norms—have been well documented in earlier Sylhet-based research.^{13,14,15} Stake et al. demonstrated strong associations between IPV and husbands' controlling behaviours, lower educational attainment, and intergenerational exposure to violence.¹⁶ The prominence of controlling behaviour, substance abuse, and alcohol consumption among perpetrators in the present study further underscores the multifactorial nature of IPV, reflecting the interplay of individual, relational, and broader societal influences.^{19,20} Cases documented at the Sylhet One-Stop Crisis Centre (OCC) likely represent only a fraction of the broader burden of IPV, capturing those instances in which violence reaches a level that compels women to seek formal assistance. This institutional perspective complements earlier qualitative and survey-based studies by shedding light on the severity and consequences of IPV that often remain hidden in community settings. Despite recent expansions in legal frameworks addressing domestic violence, persistent cultural reluctance to disclose abuse continues to limit women's access to justice and health services. The findings from Sylhet reflect this disconnect, highlighting the gap between the formal recognition of IPV and women's lived experiences of constrained protection and support.

Conclusion

In Sylhet city, IPV predominantly affects young, married women from socioeconomically disadvantaged backgrounds and is most often inflicted by intimate partners. While these findings broadly converge with national and global evidence, they also highlight context-specific vulnerabilities related to early marriage, economic dependence, and barriers to reporting. Strengthening institutional responses, promoting early intervention, and addressing underlying social norms remain critical for reducing the burden of IPV.

Acknowledgement

The author sincerely expresses gratitude to the Department of Forensic Medicine & Toxicology, Sylhet MAG Osmani Medical College, for their guidance, support, and invaluable assistance throughout the preparation of this study. Special thanks are extended to the faculty and staff for providing the necessary resources, expertise, and encouragement that made this work possible.

References

1. Krug EG, Dahlberg LL, Mercy JA, Zwi AB, Lozano R, editors. World report on violence and health. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2002.
2. Walker LE. The Battered Woman Syndrome. 3rd ed. New York: Springer Publishing Company; 2009. p. 95–97.
3. Ifechukwude CG, Ezeama N, Okundaye EC, Enobakhare E, Chioma A, Okeke IU, et al. Intimate Partner Violence in

- Pregnancy: Sustainable Development Goals Impediment. *West African Journal on Sustainable Development (WAJSD)* 2024;1(2):90–104.
4. Saltzman LE, Fanslow JL, McMahon PM, Shelley GA. Intimate partner violence surveillance: uniform definitions and recommended data elements. Atlanta: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention; 1999.
 5. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Intimate partner violence: definitions [Internet]. Atlanta: CDC; 2017 [cited 2025 Oct 26]. Available from: [https://www.cdc.gov/intimate-partner-violence/about/index.html#:~:text=Intimate%20partner%20violence%20\(IPV\)%20is,and%20how%20severe%20it%20is](https://www.cdc.gov/intimate-partner-violence/about/index.html#:~:text=Intimate%20partner%20violence%20(IPV)%20is,and%20how%20severe%20it%20is).
 6. World Health Organization. Violence against women. [Internet]. Geneva: WHO; 2021 [cited 2025 Oct 26]. Available from: <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/violence-against-women>
 7. UNICEF. A Familiar Face: Violence in the lives of children and adolescents. [Internet]. New York: UNICEF; 2020. [cited 2025 Oct 26]. Available from: <https://www.unicef.org/reports/familiar-face>
 8. TBS Report. 3 in every 4 women in Bangladesh face violence by intimate partners: BBS survey. *The Business Standard* [Internet]. Dhaka; 2025 Oct 13 [cited 2025 Oct 26]. Available from: <https://www.tbsnews.net>
 9. Kadir SH, Jafri F, Mohd Zulkefli NA, Ahmad N. Prevalence of Intimate Partner Violence in Malaysia and Its Associated Factors: A Systematic Review. *BMC Public Health*. 2020;20:1550.
 10. Ahmed R, Tabassum F. Patriarchal Norms and The Experiences of Intimate Partner Violence Among Women: A Qualitative Case Study in Sylhet, Bangladesh [conference paper]. 2022 Sep.
 11. Das TK, Bhattacharyya R, Alam MF, Pervin A. Domestic violence in Sylhet, Bangladesh: Analysing the Experiences of Abused Women. *Social Change*. 2016;46(1):1–18.
 12. Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS), United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA). Violence against women survey 2024: key findings [Internet]. Dhaka (Bangladesh): BBS & UNFPA; 2025 [cited 2026 Jan 29].
 13. Das TK, Alam MF, Bhattacharyya R, Pervin A. Cause & Contexts of Domestic Violence: Tales of Help Seeking Married Women in Sylhet, Bangladesh. *Asian Social Work and Policy Review* 9 (2015) 1–14
 14. Bhattacharyya R, Das TK, Alam MF, Pervin A. Researching Domestic Violence in Bangladesh: Critical Reflections. *ETHICS AND SOCIAL WELFARE*, 2018; 12(2):123–139.
 15. Islam MS. Intimate partner sexual violence against women in Sylhet, Bangladesh: some risk factors. *Journal of Biosocial Science*. 2020;52(6):1–23.
 16. Stake S, Ahmed S, Tol W, Ahmed S, Begum N, Khanam R, et al. Prevalence, Associated Factors, and Disclosure of Intimate Partner Violence Among Mothers in Rural Bangladesh. *Journal of Health, Population and Nutrition*. 2020;39:14.
 17. Dalal K, Rahman F, Jansson B. Wife Abuse in Rural Bangladesh. *J Biosoc Sci*. 2009;41(5):561–573.
 18. Ali PA, Naylor PB, Croot E, O’Cathain A. Intimate Partner Violence in Pakistan: A Systematic Review. *Trauma Violence and Abuse*. 2015;16(3):299–315.
 19. Giri S, Parveen S. Intimate Partner Violence in India: Patterns, Causes and Way Forward. *Int J Sci Res Arch*. 2024;12(1):837–846.
 20. Jayasuriya V, Wijewardena K, Axemo P. Intimate Partner Violence Against Women in The Capital Province of Sri Lanka: Prevalence, Risk factors, and Help-seeking. *Violence Against Women*. 2011;17(8):1086–1102.
 21. Hayati EN, Högberg U, Hakimi M, Ellsberg MC, Emmelin M. Behind the Silence of Harmony: Risk Factors for Domestic Violence in Rural Indonesia. *BMC Women’s Health*. 2011;11:52.
 22. Xu, X., Kerley, K. R., & Sirisunyaluck, B. Understanding Gender and Domestic Violence From A Sample of Married Women in Urban Thailand. *Journal of Family Issues*, 2011;32(6), 791–819.
 23. Sanawar SB, Islam MA, Majumdar S, Misu F. Women’s Empowerment and Intimate Partner Violence in Bangladesh: Investigating the Complex Relationship. *J. Biosoc. Sci.*, 2019;51(2) 188–202