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Parental and Cultural Influences on Hispanic College Women's Verbal Intimate Partner Violence Victimization: An Examination of Within-Group Differences

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PARENTAL AND CULTURAL INFLUENCES ON HISPANIC COLLEGE WOMEN'S VERBAL INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE VICTIMIZATION: AN EXAMINATION OF WITHIN GROUP DIFFERENCES

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Shannon Quintana

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To: Interim Dean Michael R. Heithaus
College of Arts and Sciences

This dissertation, written by Shannon Quintana, and entitled Parental and Cultural Influences on Hispanic College Women's Verbal Intimate Partner Violence Victimization: An Examination of Within Group Differences, having been approved in respect to style and intellectual content, is referred to you for judgment.

We have read this dissertation and recommend that it be approved.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my family who has always supported my dreams wherever they have led me, shared my successes, carried me through the storms, and believed in me when I did not believe in myself. My parents instilled in me a love of learning and taught me to reach for the stars. Gabriel, my patient and loving husband, has been with me every step of this journey, infinitely supportive. Isabella, my amazing and charismatic daughter, you are the light of my life and taught me to appreciate the little things in life.

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

PARENTAL AND CULTURAL INFLUENCES ON HISPANIC COLLEGE WOMEN'S VERBAL INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE VICTIMIZATION: AN EXAMINATION OF WITHIN GROUP DIFFERENCES

by

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Miami, Florida

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Prior research has shown that college women in the United States are experiencing significantly high rates of verbal intimate partner violence (IPV); estimates indicate that approximately 20-30% of college women experience verbal IPV victimization (e.g., Hines, 2007; Muñoz-Rivas, Graña, O'Leary, & González, 2009). Verbal IPV is associated with physical consequences, such as chronic pain and migraine headaches, and psychological implications, including anxiety, depression, suicidal ideation, and substance use (Coker et al., 2002). However, few studies have examined verbal IPV in college populations, and none have focused on Hispanic college women who are members of the largest minority population on college campuses today (Pew Research Center, 2013), and experience higher rates of IPV victimization (Ingram, 2007). The current dissertation sought to address these gaps by examining the influence of familial conflict strategies on Hispanic college women's verbal IPV victimization. Further, within group differences were explored, with specific attention paid to the role of acculturation and gender role beliefs. A total of 906 from two Hispanic Serving

Institutions (HSI) in the southeastern (N=502) and southwestern (N=404) United States participated in the three part study. Study one examined the influence of parental conflict strategies on Hispanic women's verbal IPV victimization in current romantic relationships. Consistent with previous research, results indicated that parental use of verbal violence influenced verbal IPV victimization in the current romantic relationship. A unidirectional effect of paternal use of verbal aggression towards the participant on maternal verbal aggression towards the participant was also found. Study two examined the influence of parental conflict strategies, acculturation, and gender role beliefs on victimization. Acculturation and gender role beliefs were found to not have an influence on participants' verbal IPV victimization. Study three examined within-group differences using Study two's model. Differences were found between the southeastern and southwestern participants; gender role beliefs increased rates of verbal IPV victimization in the southeastern population. The current dissertation fills a gap in the literature on IPV experiences in Hispanic college populations, the importance of examining verbal IPV trends, and highlights importance differing cultural influences within populations traditionally viewed as homogenous. The implications for future research are discussed.

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I. INTRODUCTION

According to the Centers for Disease Control (CDC; 2012), intimate partner violence (IPV) is a "serious, preventable public health problem that affects millions of Americans" (p. 1). In fact, the National Intimate Partner Violence and Sexual Violence Survey (2010) found that approximately 12 million people are affected by IPV each year. The majority of IPV is first experienced before the age of 24 (CDC, 2012), with college students at an increased risk because of the unique dating expectation norms of the young college-centered culture. There is an abundance of dating and sexual relationships during college because of the proximity of so many individuals in their late teens and early twenties who are exploring love and sex (Arnett, 2008). The high rate of dating during college impacts the frequency of IPV among individuals during the college years (Gover, Kaukinen, & Fox, 2008). A landmark study by Makepeace (1981) found that one in five college students were involved in IPV, a number that has jumped to 27 to 50% in recent years (Jackson, 1999; Jankowski et al., 1999; Kwong et al., 2003; Murphy & Blumenthal, 2000; Riggs & O'Leary, 1996).

Intimate Partner Violence has been defined as an act carried out with the intention or perceived intention of inflicting harm on a romantic partner (Infante, 1995; Schumacher & Leonard, 2005). Subtypes of IPV include physical, sexual, verbal, and psychological/emotional. Until recently, research on IPV has focused on physical intimate partner violence. Such a focus is problematic as verbal violence is a common, yet overlooked form of aggression. Research indicates that approximately 25% of women reporting verbal violence in their current relationship (Hines, 2007; Katz, Washington, Kuffel, & Brown, 2006; Muñoz-Rivas, Graña, O'Leary, & González, 2009). Verbal

aggression is defined as verbal communication intended to cause psychological pain to another person or a communication perceived as such (Infante, 1995; Schumacher & Leonard, 2005).

The high rate of verbal IPV is concerning, as both physical and psychological consequences have been found. Victims of verbal IPV, for instance, have been shown to experience higher levels of physical symptomology including low energy, fatigue, nightmares, stomach pain and indigestion, muscle cramps, dizziness, migraine headaches, and chest pain (Staggs & Riger, 2005; Sutherland, Sullivan, & Bybee, 2001). Psychological disorders, such as post-traumatic stress disorder, depression, and suicidal ideation, are also evident by those involved in verbal IPV (Afifi, 2009; Coker et al., 2002; Fletcher, 2010; Kimerling et al., 2009). Although it poses a significant health risk, there has been little of research on verbal IPV, in particular with college students, examining correlates, risk factors, effects, and prevention (Cornelius & Resseguie, 2007; Harned, 2002; Harper, Austin, Cercone, & Arias, 2005; Riggs, O'Leary, & Breslin, 1990; Shorey, Cornelius, & Bell, 2008).

While it is clear that the incidences of verbal IPV is significantly high across college populations in the United States (Hines, 2007; Katz & Myhr, 2008; Katz, Washington, Kuffel, & Brown, 2006; Muñoz-Rivas, Graña, O'Leary, & González, 2009; Kwong et al., 2003), little is known about experiences within subgroups. The lack of examination of subgroups is concerning given racial/ ethnic minority women have been found to be at greater risk for general IPV victimization than White counterparts (Rivas, Graña Gómez, O'Leary, &González Lozano, 2007). For example, a study by Sorenson and Telles (1987) found US born Hispanics were more likely than Caucasians to

participate in these violent acts at an alarming rate of 30.3% of the population, with 25% of women experiencing habitual verbal aggression victimization (Muñoz-Rivas, Graña, O'Leary, & González, 2009). Furthermore, Gonzalez-Guarda, Peragallo, Vasquez, Urrutia, and Mitrani (2009) found that physical, behavioral, and mental health consequences of IPV victimization are also more dire for Hispanic women. Additional risk factors seem to be the result of acculturation and cultural gender beliefs (see Klevens, 2007, for a review).

Unfortunately, no studies to date have focused on general IPV or verbal IPV specifically in Hispanic college populations, despite the fact that they are the largest ethnic minority population on college campuses today (Pew Research Center, 2012). The present study seeks to address this void in the research by examining victimization of verbal IPV among Hispanic college women. Specifically, the study seeks to identify the ways in which parental conflict strategies and cultural identity factors influence Hispanic college women's IPV victimization experiences. The three part study, will examine 1) the relationship between of mother and father conflict strategies on Hispanic college women's experiences with verbal IPV victimization; 2) mother and father conflict strategies, gender role beliefs, and acculturation's influence on Hispanic college women's experiences with verbal IPV victimization; and 3) the within-group differences in verbal IPV victimization experiences among Hispanic college women attending Hispanic Serving Institutions (HSI) in the southeastern and southwestern United States.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Intimate Partner Violence

Intimate Partner Violence has been identified as a key public health issue among college populations (see Garcia, Lechner, Frerich, Lust, & Eisenberg, 2012; Mason & Smithey, 2012; Stein, Tran, & Fisher, 2009). Makepeace's (1981) landmark study of IPV in college students indicated that one in five students were involved in IPV (also known as dating violence), a number that has grown as high as 50% in recent years (Jackson, 1999; Jankowski et al., 1999; Kwong et al., 2003; Murphy & Blumenthal, 2000; Riggs & O'Leary, 1996). The Dating Violence Resource Center of the National Center for Victims of Crime (2004) reported that dating violence was experienced by 32% of college students in a previous relationship and 21% had experienced violence in a current dating relationship. Since the Makepeace (1981) study, there has been a proliferation of research on dating violence examining correlates, risk factors, effects, and prevention (Cornelius & Resseguie, 2007; Harned, 2002; Harper, Austin, Cercone, & Arias, 2005; Riggs, O'Leary, & Breslin, 1990; Shorey, Cornelius, & Bell, 2008).

However, research on IPV in college has struggled with the establishment of a universal, operational definition of IPV (Ismail, Berman, & Ward-Griffin, 2007). Early definitions focused primarily on what is now labeled as physical violence or threat of physical violence (Sugarman & Hotaling, 1989). Today, IPV is generally defined by researchers as "physical, sexual, or psychological harm by a current or former partner or spouse. This type of violence can occur among heterosexual or same-sex couples and does not require sexual intimacy" (CDC, 2012, p. 1). The definition has also led to the

identification of three broad categories of IPV perpetration and victimization: physical, psychological/ emotional, and verbal (Jackson, 1999; Shorey et al., 2008).

Physical IPV. Physical IPV can present in a variety of ways. It "may take the form of pushing, shoving, kicking, hitting, beating, or using a weapon" (Clark, Beckett, Wells, & Dungee-Anderson, 1994, p. 266). Physical violence can also include actions such as "slapping, hair-pulling, punching, biting, choking and beating with an object" (Smith & Donnelly, 2001, p. 55). It is rare that physical violence in a romantic relationship is a single-incident; rather, it is more common that physical violence is recurring with escalating severity. If such relationships continue, there is a risk that the violence will result in injury or fatality (Bethke & DeJoy, 1993).

Physical violence has been the most identifiable form of IPV because it can be measured through the presence of injury or even death. However, the psychological impact of these interactions has been found to have even more profound consequences for the victims. Research shows that long-term IPV victims experience higher rates of mental illness and poorer general mental health than individuals who have not experienced long-term victimization (Coker et al., 2002). Further, mental conditions such as post-traumatic stress disorder, depression, and anxiety have been linked to IPV victimization across several studies (Afifi, 2009; Coker et al., 2002; Fletcher, 2010; Kimerling et al., 2009). In college populations, experiencing IPV has been found to be associated with lowered academic performance and higher absenteeism (Bergman, 1992). Unfortunately, these studies overwhelming focus only on non- Hispanic white female populations.

Of these, verbal violence is considered the most prevalent type of IPV. In abusive relationships, IPV usually begins with psychological violence and often leads to escalating physical violence. Psychological violence is defined as "coercive or aversive acts intended to promote emotional harm or the threat of emotional harm" (Murphy & Hoover, 1999, p. 40). Examples of psychological IPV include intimidation (Carlson, 1987) and making the victim feel as if she is crazy that leads a victim to question her own thoughts and abilities to make correct decisions (Smith & Donnelly, 2001). Research has indicated that psychological IPV is a precursor to and predictor of physical violence that can lead to serious harm or death (Leonard & Senchak, 1996; Murphy & O'Leary, 1989; O'Leary, Malone, & Tyree, 1999). It is important to note, however, that psychological IPV is often viewed by researchers as more harmful because of its lack of visibility, and normalization in relationships (Hoffman et al., 2006). Even though psychological violence is the most prevalent form of IPV, it is also the most understudied and further research is necessary into its incidence, correlates, causes, and consequences.

Verbal IPV. Psychological IPV has been categorized into two distinct forms in the research: emotional and verbal (Esteban, 2006; Jackson, 1999; Shorey et al., 2008). Emotional violence/abuse is an attack on an individual's psychological well-being and/or identity. Specifically, emotional abuse is defined as psychological maltreatment, a repeated pattern behavior that conveys to the victims that they are worthless, flawed, unloved, unwanted, endangered, or only of value in meeting another's needs (Esteban, 2006).

Verbal IPV is a specific type of emotional abuse that also attacks a person's self-concept. Verbal abuse is exemplified by communications used with the intent to cause

psychological pain to another person, or a communication perceived as having that intent (Infante, 1995; Schumacher & Leonard, 2005). Research has identified three types of verbal violence that include active verbal (e.g. name-calling or nasty remarks), and active non- verbal (e.g. slamming a door or smashing something) and passive nonverbal (e.g. stony silence or sulking; Infante, 1995). It includes the use of threats, profanity, yelling, and insults (Infante & Wigley, 1986). Verbally-based violence is considered at the core of emotionally abusive behavior (Esteban, 2006; O'Hagan, 1995; Tomison, & Tucci, 1997).

The research literature indicates that 20-25% of women report verbal IPV in their current relationship (Hines, 2007; Katz, Washington, Kuffel, & Brown, 2006; Muñoz-Rivas, Graña, O'Leary, & González, 2009). Researchers, however, believe that the incidence rate is much higher than 25%. Given that verbal violence is considered less obvious (than physical violence) with no clear definition, it is often overlooked or even normalized in relationships (Jezl, Molidor, Wright, 1996; Katz, Moore, & Tkachuk, 2007; Muñoz-Rivas, Graña Gómez, O'Leary, & González Lozano, 2007). For this reason, research notes that it is difficult to accurately predict the prevalence of verbal IPV among college women.

There are two main issues when labeling behaviors verbal IPV, especially in college populations: the regularity of such violence and its lack of physical markers (e.g. bruises, physical pain). As psychological violence, verbal violence in particular, is a very common conflict tactic style for both sexes, it is important to examine how these two factors differ across populations by gender, culture and race/ ethnicity (Dowd, Leisring, & Rosenbaum, 2005; Straus & Sweet, 1992; Winstok, 2006, for a review). For example,

research indicates that college men and women engage in equal amounts of name-calling, insulting, sulking, and slamming doors, and throwing things (Straus et al., 1996). In contrast, Hispanic college women are more likely to be verbally aggressive towards their romantic partner than other populations (Rivas, Graña Gómez, O'Leary, &González Lozano, 2007). These differences highlight the importance of examining the differing values towards the normalization of verbal IPV in heterosexual romantic relationships (Jezl, Molidor, Wright, 1996; Muñoz-Rivas, Graña Gómez, O'Leary, & González Lozano, 2007).

Consequences of Verbal IPV. Even though there are no direct physical markings from psychological IPV, it can have physical and psychological implications, especially for the victim. Physically, IPV increases the symptomology of a variety of disorders, including irritable bowel syndrome, chronic pain, and migraine headaches (Coker, Smith, Bethea, King, and McKeown, 2000). Psychologically, it can contribute to post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), anxiety, depression, and suicidal ideation (Coker et al., 2002; Hegarty, Gunn, Chondros, & Small, 2004; Pico-Alfonso et al., 2006) as well as alcohol and drug use (Coker et al., 2002).

Theories of Intimate Partner Violence

Given that the present study focuses on verbal IPV victimization, Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1973) is being used. The theory underlies recent conceptualizations of the underpinnings of dating violence by focusing on attitude development and learning processes that shape IPV perceptions.

Social Learning Theory. Social learning theory provides a useful framework for the examination of aggression, including its precipitates, forms of expression, and

maintenance (Snethen & Van Puymbroeck, 2008). A core tenet of social learning theory is that early parental interactions provide a normative belief framework about behavior. The family of origin has been widely studied as a primary risk factor for later IPV victimization and engagement (Bandura, 1973; Gray & Foshee, 1997; Halford et al., 2000; Hines & Saudino, 2002; Kalmuss, 1984; Skuja & Halford, 2004; Wekerle & Wolfe, 1999).

Social learning theory argues that there is an innate neurophysical predisposition to behave aggressively, but enacting it is dependent on stimulation (experience) and cortical control (Bandura, 1973). There are three regulatory processes that contribute to aggressive behavior. First, antecedent stimuli set particular behaviors to occur based on prior exposure and conditioning. Second, response feedback receives the reinforcing or punishing consequences in response to particular behaviors, which influences the likelihood that these behaviors will occur in the future. Finally, cognitive processes assess, interpret, and predict response feedback. Within the model, though everyone is capable of aggression, it must be learned, triggered, or reinforced in order to be used and maintained (Snethen & Van Puymbroeck, 2008).

Early research on social learning theory linking early experience with violence focused on children, as the theory posits that children learn through direct observational conditioning and modeling by others (Bandura, 1973). These behaviors learned in childhood remain with the individual throughout their lifespan and impact their later cognitive processes and behaviors. Research indicated that children learn appropriate behavior through modeling. Witnessing aggression in childhood, in the family of origin in particular, models aggression as a functional behavior that has value for the aggressor,

especially without visible negative consequences for the use of such aggression. Children witness the behaviors modeled by their caregivers and those around them and, as children grow to respect and admire their primary caregivers, they are more likely to add the modeled behaviors to their own repertoires, including aggression and aggressive behaviors (1973). In their study of sixth and twelfth graders, for example, Gray and Foshee (1997) found that those students that engaged in IPV reported higher frequencies of witnessing violence between their parents and/or experiencing violence from their parents.

However, it is important to be cautious in interpreting these results, as they tend to be correlational (see Jackson, 1999, for a review). Simply witnessing or experiencing violence as a child does not mean that the individual will participate in a violent romantic relationship later on. For example, the effects of early exposure are moderated by gender. Evidence indicates that males who witness violence during childhood are less likely than females to engage in similar behavior with their romantic partners (O'Keefe, 1998). Additionally, research has also shown that witnessing interparental violence in childhood does not increase the risk for involvement in IPV as an adult (Billingham & Gilbert, 1990).

There has been some critique of social learning theory that learning processes are not easily measured for IPV. Research has indicated that social learning theory is a contributing factor in IPV involvement (Sellers, Cochran, & Branch, 2005; Sellers, Cochran, &Winfree, 2003). However, learning processes are not easily measured for IPV and in the current study. There may be broader socialization (Jewkes, 2002) and

contextual factors (International Clinical Epidemiologists Network, 2000; Martin, Tsui, Maitra, & Marinshaw, 1999).

Despite these concerns, social learning theory is the broad framework being used in the present study as prior foundational research on this phenomenon in other racial/ethnic groups have used social learning theory to guide their initial work (Caetano, Field, Ramisetty-Mikler, & 2005; Watson, 2010). The utilization of social learning theory is useful because social learning theory acknowledges the importance of primary socialization figures and aggression in its approach to predicting behaviors. Further research is necessary to examine the links between of social learning theory's conceptualization of IPV in intimate relationships and moderating factors, particularly within Hispanic populations.

Culturally specific social learning processes. There are numerous studies that specifically highlight the significance of parental messages about appropriate behaviors influence on their children's interpersonal relationships (Halford et al., 2000; Hines & Saudino, 2002; Kalmuss, 1984; Skuja & Halford, 2004; Snethen & Van Puymbroeck, 2008). Familialism, defined as a strong identification and attachment to family, including feelings of love, loyalty, and solidarity towards family (Sabogal, Marín, Otero-Sabogal, Marín & Pérez-Stable, 1987; Trandias, et al., 1982), is a core characteristic in the Hispanic culture, serving as a primary socialization institution (Sabogal et al., 1987). Understandably, the familial unit serves as one of the primary sources of information about interpersonal relationships. Through ongoing direct and indirect communications, Hispanic women learn what their families view as appropriate behavioral expectations in dating contexts.

Research studies examining Hispanic familial processes have consistently found that parents have significant influence over their daughters' intimate relationship beliefs and behavioral outcomes, particularly in dating and martial contexts (Hovell, Sipan, Blumberg, Atkins, Hofsteter, & Kreitner, 1994; Raffaelli, 2005). As conflict and negotiation are central in Hispanic parental messages about interpersonal relationships, it is particularly important to understand the influence of parental values on their daughters' perceptions of IPV.

Many studies have noted that certain aspects of Hispanic culture and contexts that may increase women's risk for IPV victimization when compared to their White counterparts. Fenton (2003) found that traditional gender role beliefs and cultural factors compound the risk for Hispanics' involvement in IPV. Reasons for the compounded risk can include the valuing of communal beliefs over individual well-being (Castillo & Cano, 2007; Galanti, 2003; Dietrich & Schuett, 2013), familial dedication (Bauer, Rodriguez, Quiroga, & Flores-Ortiz, 2000; Cortés, 1995), silence around male perpetration of violence (Dietrich & Schuett, 2013; Gordon, 1996; West, Kantor, & Janinski, 1998), and lack of community IPV related resources (Freidman, Loue, Golman Heaphy, & Mendez, 2011; Ingram, 2007).

However, these studies tend to frame Hispanics as a homogenous group, ignoring the real within-group differences that exist. There is a lack of research that specifically examines differences within the population, which is concerning given prior research suggests that Hispanic within ethnic groups differences may be as significant as differences across racial/ ethnic groups (Falcon, 1995; Gomez, 2000; Marrow, 2003;

Montalvo, 2004). Further, Hispanic populations are often composed of varying and multiple subgroups.

These realities have implications for Hispanic women's intimate partner experiences. For example, there are significant regional differences in dating outcomes among Hispanic populations. Patterns of cohabitation and non-marital births vary among Hispanic populations. In contrast to Mexican American premarital births that have a 40% occurrence rate in cohabitating informal relationships, almost 60% of non-marital births among Puerto Ricans occurred within informal cohabitating couples (Landale & Hauan, 1992). The effect of a premarital birth among cohabitating Hispanic couples on future marriage also differs, with an increased likelihood to marry for Mexican Americans and a decreased likelihood for Puerto Ricans to wed (Manning & Landale, 1996). Stephens, Fernandez, and Richman (2012) also found that Hispanic women with darker skin viewed themselves as less attractive, and were viewed as more likely to engage in sexual risk taking.

When specifically looking at IPV, research has found that there are even differences among rates between Hispanic subgroups. These differences have been attributed to country of origin (Aldarondo, Kantor, & Janinski, 2002; Jasinski, 1998; Kantor et al., 1994), place of birth (Jasinski, 1998; Kantor et al., 1994; Sorenson & Telles, 1991), acculturation experiences (Caetano et al., 2000; Jasinski, 1998; Kantor et al., 1994; Perila, Bakeman, & Rorris, 1994), socioeconomic factors (Guzman, 2001), and social support networks. For example, Caetano, Schafer, and Clark (2000) found that Hispanics with moderate levels of acculturation were at an increased risk for IPV involvement, above that of less acculturated groups. It is theorized that the differences

were possibly due to the negotiation of two cultures and small support networks. Taken together, these findings highlight the importance of identifying the meanings and values each individual gives to specific dating behaviors and interactions, including verbal IPV.

These Hispanic culture specific realities also reinforce the importance of considering the role of gender beliefs in intimate partnerships. There exists a significant body of literature suggesting a positive relationship between traditional gender role beliefs and IPV perceptions (Dobash & Dobash, 1979; Finn, 1986; Haj-Jahia, 1998; Straus et al., 1980). Traditional gender role beliefs encompass concept such as female subordination and the notion that a woman's role is to be a wife and a mother, sacrificing herself for her family (Castillo et al., 2010; Castillo et al., 2007). Furthermore, research indicates that Hispanics place a higher value on such traditional gender role beliefs and hold high gender expectations (Dietrich & Schuett, 2013; Galanti, 2003).

There is a large body of research examining the relevance of traditional gender role beliefs and Hispanic women. Such a focus is necessary because Hispanic women often have to negotiate the socially constructed frameworks of race/ ethnicity, nationality, class, and sexual identity further intersect to form the culturally unique femininity concept referred to as "marianismo." Similarly to traditional gender role beliefs in Western cultures, this culturally specific concept of appropriate femaleness is characterized by submissiveness, passivity and sexual purity (e.g., DeSouza & Hutz, 1996; Ford, Vieira, & Villela, 2003; Glass & Owen, 2010; Liang, Salcedo & Miller, 2011; Rafaelli & Ontai, 2004). Specifically, Gil & Vasquez (1996) cited ten commandments of ascribing to marianismo: a Hispanic woman should not forget her place, forsake tradition, be independent, put her needs first, engage in sex for pleasure, be

more than a housewife, get angry at her husband, ask for help, change, or discuss personal problems outside the home.

These beliefs are framed as operating to support the concept of "machismo," whereby Hispanic males are pressured to stress dominance and subjugate women (Galanti, 2003; Próspero, 2008; Torres, Solberg, & Carlstrom, 2002). Further, conceptualizations of machismo place the father as the head of the household who makes all decisions and is given the right to guide all aspects of the family functions outside of those assigned to women (Torres, Solberg, & Carlstrom, 2002). Machismo has implications for interpersonal relationship functioning as research on machismo acceptance found that those embracing this concept are more likely to normalize male domination and the acceptance of abusive behaviors, including infidelity and IPV (DeSouza & Hutz, 1996; Ford, Vieira, & Villela, 2003; Glass & Owen, 2010; Moreno, 2007; Sobralske, 2006). Acceptance and enactment of the marianismo and machismo gender frameworks can be so powerful for some Hispanic women that it persists in spite of degree of acculturation (Sobralske, 2006).

Research indicates that these types of power differences between partners (male/female) can contribute to IPV. Research has found that participants involved in IPV maintained more traditional and conservative attitudes towards women and agree that violent behavior towards women was the result of attempts to maintain control of the relationship (Dietrich & Schuett, 2013). Thus, violent behavior in romantic relationships by men may be directly related to conservative, patriarchal family structures and corresponding gender role beliefs. Furthermore, individuals engaged in relationships with unequal power are more likely to engage in IPV, both psychological and physical. It has

been theorized that this is due to the belief that the male's role in relationships is characterized by power and domination (Dietrich & Schuett, 2013; O'Keefe & Treister, 1998; Watson, 2003).

Research, however, on the influence of gender role beliefs has largely ignored the fact that such beliefs have become more heterogeneous and complex. Gender role beliefs and attitudes are no longer necessarily blatant, outright hostile, or negative; rather, they can also be covert or even overtly benevolent towards women (Herzog, 2007). In an effort to address this issue, Herzog (2007) examined various gender role beliefs and attitudes and their impact on IPV tolerance. Using an Israeli sample, Herzog (2007) found that attitudes towards IPV are contingent on the type of traditional gender role attitudes assessed and how positive relationships between gender role beliefs and IPV attitudes were more likely when blatantly traditional gender role attitude scales were used, such as the Attitudes Towards Women Scale.

Thus, Herzog (2007) concludes that, though there does seem to be a link between traditional gender roles and IPV acceptance, the relationship is complex. Several researchers' findings highlight that further research in this area is necessary (Bookwala et al., 1992; Sellers et al., 2005; Stephens & Eaton, 2014). For example, Nabors and Jasinski (2007) found that there is a variety of factors that influence support of IPV beyond gender role beliefs and also found that there are gender differences. More research is needed to understand confounding factors in order to understand the role of gender role beliefs in IPV.

Research Aims

Despite the value of the overviewed research, a paucity of research on Hispanic college women's experiences with IPV remains. Research has indicated a high rate of verbal IPV amongst college students and indicates. Similarly to broad IPV research, studies with college students indicate that socialization in the family of origin and gender role beliefs influence in IPV involvement. The research has focused on White college students with few studies focusing on Hispanic college students and their unique experiences. The small body of research on Hispanic's involvement in IPV, however, has indicated an increased risk for Hispanic college women. The purpose of this study is to address some of the limitations of prior research, identifying differences in victimization of verbal IPV among Hispanic college women at two HSI in the United States. Specifically, the influence of familial exposure, acculturation, and gender role beliefs were explored.

The current dissertation seeks to examine Hispanic college women's verbal aggression victimization to determine the role of familial use of verbal aggression, acculturation, and gender role beliefs. Study 1 explored the influence of maternal and paternal use of verbal aggression towards each other influenced participant victimization, as mediated by parental verbal aggression towards the participant themselves. Next, Study 1's model was expanded to include the role of acculturation and gender role beliefs (Study 2). Finally, Study 3 explored within group differences between FIU and CSUN participants for Study 2's model. The outcome variable for these studies was the participant's verbal violence victimization in their current romantic relationship.

The following research questions were addressed:

Study 1 Research Question. To what extent does exposure to verbal IPV in the family of origin impact verbal IPV victimization in romantic relationships for Hispanic college women?

Consistent with previous findings and the notions of social learning theory, it was hypothesized that participants that experience higher levels of familial conflict will perceive IPV as an acceptable means by which to resolve conflict within their dating relationships.

Study 2 Research Question. Do acculturation and gender role beliefs, in conjunction with familial exposure, influence verbal IPV victimization?

It was hypothesized that participants who endorse traditional gender role beliefs will perceive IPV as an acceptable means by which to resolve conflict within their dating relationships. Participants who have hold stronger ethnic identity beliefs will be more likely perceive IPV as an acceptable means by which to resolve conflict within their dating relationships as a strong ethnic identity has been found to increase the likelihood that an individual will adhere to the cultural norms and ideologies of Hispanic culture.

In alignment with research on acculturation and IPV amongst minorities, acculturation is expected to decrease acceptance of and involvement in IPV. As prior research has shown a positive relationship between traditional gender role beliefs and IPV perceptions, participants who are endorse traditional gender role beliefs will perceive IPV as an acceptable means by which to resolve conflict within their dating relationships.

Study 3 Research Question. Do within-group differences exist between the Miami and Northridge Hispanic college women with respect to familial influence, acculturation, and gender role beliefs?

Consistent with research on within-group differences amongst Hispanic college populations (Schwartz et al., 2013), it was hypothesized that differences between the two populations would be found. It is expected that CSUN participants will be less acculturated and have stronger marianismo belief due to the regional differences; specifically, in the Southern California Mexican Hispanic population are residing in a receiving context that discriminates against them, increasing the likelihood of acknowledging and embracing traditional Mexican identity factors (e.g. gender role beliefs, ethnic pride). In contrast, the Hispanic population in Southeastern Florida is in the majority and has greater political, economic and social power than other ethnic groups. As a result they reside in a receiving context that allows for greater mobility between US and Hispanic culture.

III. METHODOLOGY

Participants

The current study used a convenience sample of 906 Hispanic college women from Hispanic Serving Institutions (HSI) in two regions of the United States, Florida International University (FIU) and California State University-Northridge (CSUN). Women self-identifying as Hispanic, heterosexual, between the ages of 18 and 25 were recruited through the FIU and CSUN's Department of Psychology research pool known as Sona Systems. Through this system, students who participated earned extra course credit for completing the measures in the present research. A total of 906 participants were recruited; 502 were recruited from FIU and 404 from CSUN.

FIU Participants. The mean age of participants recruited from FIU was 20.98 years. The mean number of years of participants' U.S. residency was 17.7 years with a standard deviation of 5.3 years. In an effort to understand the ethnic composition of participants, both maternal and paternal national origin was examined. The cosmopolitan nature of the sample is evident in the variety of nationalities and region origins. A total of 45.4% of FIU participants reported that their maternal nationality was Cuban, with Colombian (10%) and Nicaragua (8.6%) being the other largest reported. A complete listing of maternal nationality can be found in Table 1. When grouping nationality by region, the majority of maternal nationalities were Caribbean (54.8%) and South American (10.6%), as seen in Table 2. Paternal country of origin was reported primarily from Cuba (45.9%), Colombia (7.8%), and Nicaragua (6.4%), as listed in Table 3. By region, paternal origin was reported as from the Caribbean (55.2%), South America (18.9%), and Central American (13.5%), which can be found in Table 4.

CSUN Participants. The mean age of CSUN participants was 18.93 years. The mean number of years participants have resided in the United States was 18.33 years with a standard deviation of 2.59 years. There was also great diversity of nationalities for mothers and fathers in the CSUN sample. The majority of maternal nationality was reported as 65.1% originating from Mexico and 11.8% from El Salvador with the rest of the sample from a variety of nations, as listed in Table 5. The majority of maternal regional origin was North American (71.8%), as seen in Table 2. Paternal country of origin was primarily reported as Mexico (63.5%) and El Salvador (11.1%), as seen in Table 6. The highest proportion of paternal regional origin was 69.3% North American and 17.8% Central American, as seen in Table 4.

Procedures

The study was a fully online survey hosted by Qualtrics software systems' server. Prior to beginning the survey, students were shown a screen containing a letter of assent; reading and continuing with the survey served as their acknowledging their consent to participate in the study. Once consent was received, participants then completed the survey online. After completion of the survey, participants were directed to an entirely separate survey where they will be asked to enter their name, student ID number, and date of birth in order to receive credit for their participation.

Measures

Demographics Information. Participants are asked to report demographic information regarding age, ethnic affiliation, nationality, residence, education, children, household income, current living situation, relationship status, desired relationship status, preferred sexual partners, sexual behaviors, sexual satisfaction, preferred dating partners,

dating behaviors, and dating satisfaction. Along with self-reported ethnic affiliations of Hispanic, the current studies utilize familial nationality of origin to identify participants' ethnic identity and to help understand meanings given to acculturation. The information is useful because prior studies on Hispanic within group identity development differences have noted it helps identify the various acculturation experiences that differ by country of origin and social- historical contexts (Padilla, 2006; Stephens, Fernandez, & Richmond, 2013; Uhlmann et al, 2002).

Conflict Tactics Scale. The present study utilizes the Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS; Straus, 1979). The CTS examines reasoning, verbal aggression, and violence in interpersonal relationships. Carr and VanDeusen (2002) describe the measure as follows: "it is a widely used self-report survey of tactics used during conflict with a partner, including various acts of psychological and physical coercion. Participants were asked how often they (a) experienced these acts as a child, (b) how often they observed these acts between parents, and (c) how often they use the tactics in a dating relationship" (p. 637).

The scale has been widely used and has been modified in several ways to focus on different aspects of what it examines (i.e., physical or psychological aggression, aggressor or victim, personal experience or witnessing as a child; Carr & VanDeusen, 2002; Gover, Kaukinen, & Fox, 2008). For the current study specifically, the CTS was utilized in two ways to examine childhood experiences and witnessing of conflict in their family or origin. First, it was used to examine participant's witnessing of violence during childhood in their family of origin. The measure asks "did you ever witness the following items during your childhood in your family?" Secondly, it was used to examine the

participant's experience of being victims of the acts as a child within their family of origin. It asked "Did these items happen to you in your family of origin?" There are ten items for each version, including "threatened to hit or throw something at one another," "slapped one another," and "pushed, grabbed, or shoved one another." The responses are on a Likert-type scale as follows: never, once a year, twice a year, 3-5 times a year, 6-10 times a year, 11-20 times a year, and more than 20 times a year.

The CTS has been shown to be reliable and valid. Internal reliability coefficients in a multitude of follow up studies have all been above .6 (Follingstad et al., 1999). The measure's validity, though not directly proven, has support as well. The measure's creator, Straus, (1979) wrote that "it must be stated at the outset that there is no definitive evidence supporting the validity of the CT scales…neither, however, is there a complete lack of evidence" (p. 83). Concurrent validity has not been established; however, content and construct validity have been clearly confirmed on the instrument. The items have content validity because they all involve some sort of physical or psychological act on or by the respondent. Construct validity has been indicated in several ways. Straus (1979) found consistency between the CTS and evidence of aggression control. The CTS has also obtained high rates of respondents willing to admit to socially undesirable acts and the measure has acquired data suggesting a pattern of violence from an earlier generation to the current one. There also has been some correlation between the measure and some variables used in previous studies on similar topics (Follingstad et al., 1999).

The CTS was utilized to examine conflict tactic styles in the family of origin and current romantic relationships.

Multidimensional Measure of Cultural Identity Scales for Latinos. The Multidimensional Measure of Cultural Identity Scales for Latinos (MMCISL; Felix-Ortiz, Nexcomb, & Myers, 1994)**.** The 35-item scale was created to examine a Latino adolescent's cultural identity. It features 10 scales that provide a multidimensional (i.e., Latino and American) profile of cultural identity across various domains (e.g., language, behavior, familiarity with culture, values/attitudes). There are two ways the measure can be used: as a group to provide a profile or a subset of scales to explore a particular aspect of Latino cultural identity. For the current study, a subset relevant to the research questions and aims were used to explore Latina identity. Measured on a Likert like scale ranging from "Only English" to "Only Spanish," items included "In general, what language do you read and speak?," "What was the language you used as a child?," "What languages do you usually speak in your home?," "In what languages do you think?," and "What languages do you usually speak with your friends?." Only the questions that focused on an individuals' oral and interpersonal communication practices with family and friends were used because this study specifically examined the ways in which these relationships informed verbal IPV experiences.

Although the measure was initially validated with Mexican American adolescents and was found to be reliable and valid in this population (Felix-Ortiz, 1994), it was also validated for use with an adult Latina population (Dillon et al., 2009). The findings support the factor structure and psychometric properties of the measure with this population. Adequate reliability estimates were found for the scales and confirmatory factor analysis showed evidence for construct validity and criterion validity was also supported.

Marianismo Beliefs Scale. The Marianismo Beliefs Scale (MBS; Castillo, Perez, Castillo, & Ghosheh, 2010) examines the extent to which Latino/as believe that they should acculturate and practice the cultural values that encapsulate marianismo. Marianismo is a belief system about gender roles expectations. These expectations are derived from traditional gender norms (e.g., women are submissive, women should sacrifice for their family, women should be virginally pure and nonsexual). The measure is a 24 item survey and uses a four point Likert-like scale of strongly agree to strongly disagree. Sample items include "A Latina must be a source of strength for her family," "A Latina should be pure," and "A Latina should respect men's opinions even if she disagrees."

The measure contains five subscales: Family Pillar, Virtuous and Chaste, Subordinate to Others, Silencing Self to Maintain Harmony, and Spiritual Pillar. All of the subscales were found to be reliable and valid. Internal reliability for the scales ranges from 0.77 to .85. With a sample of 370 Latino university students, research supported convergent and discriminant validity of the MBS and its subscales (Castillo et al., 2010).

The MBS is used in the present study to examine gender role beliefs specifically within Hispanics populations. For the current study, only the Family Pillar, Subordinate to Others, and Silencing Self to Maintain Harmony subscales were used as they directly related to prior research findings on the role of family beliefs and conflict (Bandura, 1973; Gray & Foshee, 1997; Halford et al., 2000; Hines & Saudino, 2002; Kalmuss, 1984; Skuja & Halford, 2004; Wekerle & Wolfe, 1999) and women's conflict strategies within intimate relationships (Gray and Foshee, 1997; Shorey et al., 2008)

Analyses

To examine the relationships between variables, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was utilized. Structural Equation Modeling is an integration of a measurement model and path-analytic model. SEM is an analytic technique that explores direct and indirect relationships between one or more independent and dependent variables. The approach is confirmatory in nature and specifies causal processes with a series of regression equations that are tested to fit the observed processes (Bryne, 2001). As outlined by Jaccard (2010), all path coefficients in the model are simultaneously examined and tested for statistical significance. Structural Equation Modeling evaluates global model fit, independently from significant path coefficients. Thus, SEM is useful in examining multidimensional relationships, providing analysis of concurrent tests of each relationship. Structural Equation Modeling's ability to examine multiple regression and path analyses while concurrently considering unique components of variance and measurement error (Hoyle Panter, 1995; Kline, 1998) makes SEM a powerful statistical technique.

For these reasons, SEM is plausible and effective in examining the influence of familial verbal aggression, acculturation, and gender role beliefs by allowing for an evaluation of model fit of the data at the global level while also examining the mediated relationships between variables.

Furthermore, global fit indices were used in an effort to assess the model fit, as suggested by Bollen and Long (1993). Absolute fit, indices of relative fit, and indices of fit with a penalty function for lack of parsimony were examined. The chi-square and its probability factor (*p*-value) were evaluated, with a higher p-value indicating a closer fit

between the hypothesized model and the model fit (Bryne, 2001). Another global fit indice that was examined was the comparative fir index (CFI). The CFI compares the hypothesized model with the independence model. A CFI of 0.95 indicates a good model fit. Accounting for the error of approximation in the population, the root mean square approximation (RMSEA) was utilized. A RMSEA of less than 0.08 indicates a good model fit. Finally, more focused tests of model fit were examined. The standardized residual covariances (between -2.00 and 2.00) and modification indices (less than 4) were analyzed (Jaccard, 2010).

The model fit of the current studies was evaluated using Stata 13.0 software. The models were a good fit for the current data set. Study 1, Study 2, and Study 3 models can be found in Figure 1, 2, and 3, respectively.

III. STUDY 1 – Familial Verbal Violence

Analytic Procedure

Structural Equation Modeling was utilized in Study 1 to examine the effects of verbal aggression in the family of origin on verbal aggression victimization in the participant's current romantic relationship. Paternal and maternal use of verbal aggression towards each other was mediated by use of verbal aggression towards the participant in its effect on participant victimization of verbal aggression in the current relationship. The model developed for Study 1 can be seen in Figure 1.

Preliminary Analysis

Frequencies of exposure to parental verbal IPV exposure were calculated. Eighty-seven point seven percent of participants reported witnessing their mother using verbal IPV on average each year. The most common form of verbal IPV used by mothers was yelling or insulting the father. Frequencies for each mother to father verbal aggression item can be found in Table 7. There were 77.8% of participants who reported witnessing fathers using verbal IPV towards their mother. Participants most commonly reported witnessing their fathers using yelling or insulting forms of verbal IPV on average each year, as seen in Table 9.

Additionally, frequencies of verbal violence victimization by parents were calculated. There were 77.4% of participants being victims of maternal verbal IPV, with the most common form being yelling and insulting, as seen in Table 11. Further, 72.4% of participants report being victims of verbal violence by their fathers. Yelling and insulting was the most common form of violence, as seen in Table 13.

Frequencies of involvement were conducted to examine the rates of verbal IPV victimization. Of all of the respondents, 61.6% reported victimization of at least one incidence of verbal aggression. The most common form of verbal aggression utilized against the participant was sulking. Frequencies for each verbal aggression item on the CTS scale can be found in Table 15.

Evaluating the Model

The first model consisted of the following 5 observed variables: Mother to Father (M = 13.12, SD = 6.49, n = 882), Father to Mother (M = 11.91, SD = 6.64, n = 861), Mother to Daughter (M = 11.23, SD = 6.32, n = 804), Father to Daughter (M = 10.78, SD = 6.39, n = 804) and Participant Victimization (M = 9.93, SD = 5.53, n = 821).

Exogenous variables were Mother to Father and Father to Mother. Variables specified as mediators were Father to Daughter and Mother to Daughter. Participant Victimization was the outcome variable with a direct paths from Father to Daughter, Mother to Daughter, Mother to Father, and Father to Mother. Furthermore, Mother to Daughter was a moderating variable between Father to Daughter and Participant Victimization. The model was an over-identified model with 2 degrees of freedom. That is, there were fifteen observed variables with thirteen parameters, including variable variances and covariances, needing to be estimated.

Assessment of Normality. Structural Equation Modeling requires data employed in analyses to have a multivariate normal distribution (Byrne, 2001). It has been demonstrated that when data are not normally distributed, Chi-square values increase and standard errors are underestimated (Byrne), which may result in statistically significant estimated indices that are not actually significant. Mardia's test of normalcy was

employed to determine if the distribution of data was normal. Mardia's test of normalcy can be found in Table 20. Mardia's test for skewness yielded a coefficient of 8.69, $\chi^2(35) = 1000.85$, $p < .001$ and for kurtosis 61.27, $\chi^2(1) = 1692.66$, $p < .001$. Given the finding, there is sufficient evidence that indicates a non-normal distribution for the data in the current study.

As with the results of Mardia's test of normality, significant non-normality indices were identified in the analysis. Procedures designed to address non-normality issues were implemented following the conclusion that the data for the current model were non-normally distributed. Boot-strapping was implemented with 2000 iterations to obtain accurate indices of total effects for the variables in the current analyses.

Notes for Model Fit and Model Fit Statistics. To handle missing data, structural estimates were obtained through the use of Maximum Likelihood with Missing Values (MLMV) as the choice of estimation method. Maximum Likelihood with Missing Values allows the researcher to use as much data as possible by assuming that missing values are to be missing at random (Allison, 2002). The null hypothesis postulated that the specification of the model was valid and the Chi-Square test evaluated the likelihood that this statement was true. In the current study, $\chi^2(2) = 3.57$, $p = .17$ represented a good fit of the model to the observed data. An examination of other indices of model fit also indicated good fit. Specifically, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .03 with a 90% confidence interval between .00 and .08, and PCLOSE = .69 all of which indicate good model fit. Further inspection of the residuals and modification indices revealed no significant points of ill-fit in the model.

Standardized and Unstandardized Path Coefficients. Finally, Table 22 gives the unstandardized and standardized path coefficients for the model. The model indicates an impact of Mother' to Father (β = .49) and Father to Daughter (β = .36) on Mother to Daughter, on Father to Mother (β = .71) on Father to Daughter, and on Father to Daughter (β = .14) and Mother to Daughter (β = .31) on Participants' verbal IPV victimization. According to Keith (1999), standardized coefficients greater than .25 indicate large effect sizes, those between .10 and .25 are considered moderate, those between .05 and .10 considered small, and those less than .05 considered insignificant. Thus, the finding suggests that Mother to Daughter has a large effect on Participant after controlling for Father to Daughter, while Father to Mother has a large effect on Mother to Daughter and a moderate effect on Father to Participant. No significant effect was found with Mother to Father (β = .10, p = .07) and Father to Mother (β = .01, p = .83) on Participant, after controlling for Mother to Father and Father to Daughter, respectively.

Furthermore, indirect effects (see Table 23) were found between Father to Mother and Mother to Daughter (β = .26). Significant effects were found between Father to Mother on Participant's Verbal IPV victimization (β = .18), between Mother to Father Participant's Verbal IPV victimization (β = .15), and between Father to Daughter on Participant's Verbal IPV victimization (β = .11). Also significant were the total effects between Father to Mother on Mother to Daughter (β = .36), Mother to Father on Mother to Daughter (β = .49), and Father to Daughter on Mother to Daughter (β = .36). Also significant were the total effects of Father to Mother on Participant's Verbal IPV victimization (β = .19), Mother to Father on Participant's Verbal IPV victimization (β = .25), Father to Daughter on Participant's Verbal IPV victimization (β = .25) and Mother

to Daughter on Participant's Verbal IPV victimization (β = .31). Significant total effects were also found between Father to Mother on Father to Daughter (β = .71).

Discussion

Previous research on familial violence's impact on verbal IPV involvement has concentrated on White non-Hispanic sample, while the current study filled that void in its focus on Hispanic college women. The purpose of Study 1 was to examine the role of parental use of verbal IPV on the participant's verbal IPV victimization. Drawing on social learning theory, it was expected that parental use of verbal aggression towards each other would influence parental use towards the daughter that, in turn, would influence the participant's victimization in her current romantic relationship. The results supported the current study's hypothesis. Both mothers' use and fathers' use of verbal aggression affected the participants' later involvement in IPV victimization, suggesting that acceptability of behaviors is part of the family of origin socialization processes.

Results show that mothers' and fathers' use of verbal aggression towards one another increased the use of verbal aggression toward the participant. Consistent with literature on the influence of IPV in the family of origin, the mothers' use of verbal IPV towards the participant was influenced by her use of the tactic towards the fathers and vice versa (Hamel, 2005; Rumm, Cummings, Krauss, Bell, & Rivara, 2000). Numerous researchers have concluded that a culture of aggression in the family of origin whereby verbal aggression is viewed as an acceptable conflict tactic contributes to children's victimization (Hovell, Sipan, Blumberg, Atkins, Hofsteter, & Kreitner, 1994; Raffaelli, 2005; Rancer & Avtgis, 2006). Children, therefore, are merely victims of their parents' acceptance of verbal aggression. Research has indicated that verbal aggression is

reciprocal in nature with mothers and fathers both contributing to the cycle of verbal aggression (Atkin, Smith, Toberto, Fediuk, & Wagner, 2002; Infante, Sabourin, Rudd, & Shannon, 1990; Rancer & Avtgis, 2006). It has also been proposed that possible explanation is that the parents may generally be verbally aggressive, both within and outside of the familial setting.

Consistent with this body of literature, the current study's results may therefore be indicative of an overall verbally abusive home context. According to social learning a violent environment teaches daughters that verbal aggression is an acceptable means of communication, impacting experiences in romantic relationships. It is suggested that because she has learned that verbal aggression is acceptable, participants are more adept to be a victim of verbal IPV.

Additionally, results of the current study show a correlation between maternal and paternal use of verbal aggression towards one another. The finding corroborates the theory that parental perpetration of verbal IPV is reciprocal between parents (Atkin et al., 2002; Infante et al., 1990). Studies show that spouses often equally engage in IPV towards their partner (Sugarman & Frankel, 1996) and for similar reasons (Medeiros & Straus, 2006), where one partners' aggression is responded to with aggression (Atkin et al., 2002; Infante et al., 1990). In accordance with the current research, a study with a sample of Hispanic college women found that parental use of verbal aggression towards one another is correlated and also influences their use of verbal aggression towards their daughters (Oramas, 2013, unpublished thesis). The current study, therefore, also demonstrates reciprocity of verbal violence.

The study also found that fathers' use of verbal violence towards the daughter influences mothers' use towards the daughter but not vice versa. The finding supports prior research findings about the influence of paternal machismo behaviors on familial conflict (Cortes, 2005; Dietrich & Schuett, 2013; Friedman, Loue, Golman Heaphy, & Mendez, 2011; Próspero, 2008). Social learning theory would suggest, more specifically, that the finding illustrates the ways in which a father that is the dominant force in the family can subordinate all other members, including the wife (Gelsthorpe & Morris, 1990; Sugarman & Frankel, 1996; Turchik et al., 2010). Such a finding is especially relevant when considering Hispanic cultural values and beliefs about the father's role in the family. As previously discussed, the concepts of familialism, machismo, and marianismo in Hispanic culture place the father as the head of the household. As a result of this power, the father sets and maintains the tone of acceptability of verbal violence towards the daughter whereby the mothers' use of verbal violence is influenced by the fathers' use of verbal IPV.

Importantly, there was no direct effect of parental use of verbal violence towards one another and the participants' verbal IPV victimization in her current romantic relationship. The effect of perpetration of verbal aggression for both mothers and fathers was mediated by their use of verbal aggression towards the participant. Exposure to verbal aggression between parents was not, in and of itself, influential in determining later verbal IPV victimization. In alignment with previous research (i.e., Billingham & Gilbert, 1990), the effect of exposure to inter-parental verbal IPV was only seen when mediated by perpetration towards the participants themselves. The current finding mirrors the dialogue regarding exposure and experience of IPV in the family of origin within IPV

literature (Billingham & Gilbert, 1990; O'Keefe, 1998). For instance, navigating the specific effects of exposure and victimization of verbal aggression in the family of origin on later verbal IPV victimization is problematic, given that the two often co-occur (see Holt, Buckley, & Whelan, 2008, for a review). Additional research is therefore necessary to further explore the role of exposure and experience of verbal IPV on later victimization.

In summary, the results of Study 1 lend support to social learning theory's postulation that behaviors are learned in the family of origin. Both mothers' and fathers' use of verbal aggression influenced the participants' victimization, indicating the importance of modeling. The results also indicate that the influence of maternal use and paternal use of verbal aggression toward the participant differ, something that requires further examination. Further, the findings raise questions as to the exact nature of the relationship between parental verbal aggression and daughters' later victimization. There was a unidirectional relationship between fathers' use of aggression towards the participant and the mothers' use. Most significantly, there was no direct relationship between either parents' use of verbal aggression towards their partner and the participants' victimization. Given these complexities, the influence of familial verbal violence exposure and victimization merits further examination.

IV. STUDY 2 – FAMILIAL VIOLENCE, ACCULTURATION, & GENDER ROLE BELIEFS

Analytic Overview

In alignment with the analyses in Study 1, SEM was utilized to provide a full information estimate approach. The model of good fit found in Study 1 was expanded to include direct effects of acculturation and gender role beliefs. The model tested in Study 2 can be found in Figure 2.

Evaluating the Model

The second model consisted of the five observed variables in Model 1 plus the addition of the following two variables: Acculturation (M = 3.51, SD = .77, n = 842) and Gender Role Beliefs (M = 2.61, SD = .47, n = 865). Frequencies of the acculturation and gender role beliefs items can be found in Table 18 and 19, respectively. As the two new variables laying of different scales compared to the previous five, all variables were standardized using the normal approach of the mean as zero and standard deviation of one (Keith, 1999) before proceeding with the analyses in Model Two.

The model had seven observed variables. Exogenous variables were Mother to Father, Father to Mother, Acculturation, and Cultural/Gender Role Beliefs. Variables specified as mediators were Father to Daughter and Mother to Daughter. Participant Victimization was the outcome variable with a direct path from all the remaining observed variables. Furthermore, a direct path was drawn from Father to Daughter to Mother to Daughter. The model was an over-identified model with 6 degrees of freedom. That is, there were 28 observed variable components with 22 parameters, including variable variances and covariances that were estimated.

Assessment of Normality. Mardia's test of normality (see Table 20) was employed to determine if the distribution of data was normal. Mardia's test for skewness yielded a coefficient of 11.21, $\chi^2(84) = 1182.35$, $p < .001$ and for kurtosis 89.93, $\chi^2(1) = 905.37$, $p < .001$. Given this, there is sufficient evidence that indicates a non-normal distribution for the data in the current study.

Notes for the Model Fit and Model Fit Statistics. Again, this model contained missing data, and in order to handle this situation, structural estimates were obtained through the use of Maximum Likelihood with Missing Values (MLMV) as the choice of estimation method. Maximum Likelihood with Missing Values allows the researcher to use as much data as possible by assuming that missing values are to be missing at random (Allison, 2002). The null hypothesis postulated that the specification of the model was valid and the Chi-Square test evaluated the likelihood that this statement was true. In the current study, $\chi^2(6) = 10.61$, $p = .10$ represented a good fit of the model to the observed data. An examination of other indices of model fit also indicated good fit. Specifically, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .03 with a 90% confidence interval between .00 and .06, and PCLOSE = .88 all of which indicate good model fit. Further inspection of the residuals and modification indices revealed no significant points of ill-fit in the model.

Standardized Path Coefficients. Table 24 gives the standardized path coefficients for the model. The model indicates an impact of Mother to Father ($\beta = .49$) and Father to Daughter ($\beta = .36$) on Mother to Daughter. An effect was found between Father to Mother ($\beta = .71$) on Father to Daughter, and on Father to Daughter ($\beta = .14$), Mother to Daughter ($\beta = .31$) and Cultural/General Role Beliefs ($\beta = .07$) on Participants' Verbal IPV victimization.

According to Keith (1999), standardized coefficients greater than .25 indicate large effect sizes, those between .10 and .25 are considered moderate, those between .05 and .10 considered small, and those less than .05 considered insignificant. The findings suggests that Mother to Daughter has a large effect on Participant after controlling for Father to Daughter, while Father to Mother has a large effect on Mother to Daughter and a moderate effect on Father to Participant. No significant effect was found with Mother to Father (β = .10, p = .08), Father to Mother (β = .01, p = .80), Acculturation (β = .02, p = .62) on Participant, after controlling for Mother to Father and Father to Daughter, respectively.

Furthermore, indirect effects (see Table 25) were found between Father to Mother and Mother to Daughter (β = .26). There were also effects found between Father to Mother (β = .17), Mother to Father (β = .15) and Father to Daughter (β = .11) on Participants' Verbal IPV victimization. Also significant were the total effects of Father to Mother (β = .26), Mother to Father (β = .49), and Father to Daughter (β = .36) on Mother to Daughter. Additionally, effects were found between Father to Mother (β = .19), Mother to Father (β = .25), Father to Daughter (β = .25), Mother to Daughter (β = .31), and Cultural/Gender Role Beliefs (β = .06) on Participant; and between Father to Mother (β = .71) on Father to Daughter.

In alignment with the analyses in Study 1, SEM was utilized to provide a full information estimate approach. The model of good fit found in Study 1 was expanded to include direct effects of acculturation and gender role beliefs.

Discussion

Expanding on the research in Study 1, the purpose of Study 2 was to examine the role of familial violence, acculturation, and gender role beliefs on verbal IPV victimization for Hispanic college women. It was hypothesized that gender role beliefs would influence verbal IPV victimization for Hispanic college women. The hypothesis was not supported by the results, as there was no effect of gender role beliefs on verbal IPV victimization. The hypothesis that acculturation would decrease IPV victimization was also not supported by the results. The relationship between acculturation and gender role beliefs was insignificant.

Although these findings indicates that level of acculturation had no impact on verbal IPV victimization in the participants' current romantic relationship, the results should be read with caution given that there are similar inconsistent findings in the literature (e.g., Ramirez, 2007; Sorenson & Telles, 1988; Ulloa, et al., 2004). For the reasons outlined below, there may be effects that were not detected in the current study that warrant additional analysis.

As noted in the prior research (Ramirez, 2007; Schwartz, 2010; Schwartz, 2013), there is the possibility that effects not detected in the current study affected outcomes. For example, the lack of effect of acculturation because of the high level of acculturation of participants in the present dissertation may not be indicative of the experiences of Hispanic college students at other institutions, or in the community at large. The sample was recruited from two HSI universities located in communities with large Hispanic populations. As a consequence of their unique ethnic make-up, these communities provide women with the opportunity to engage in bi-cultural identity development,

meaning they are able to blend and integrate their ethnic culture and mainstream American culture (Schwartz, et al., 2006). Research, in fact, has found that adolescents and young adults in Miami and Los Angeles held differing degrees of ethnic affirmation. Furthermore, Miami participants' ethnic affirmation remained the same while Los Angeles participants' ethnic affirmation increased over time (Meca, 2014).

Measurement concerns should also be considered as a factor contributing to the insignificance of acculturation in this study. Specifically, the ways in which acculturation is measured, both in this study and across the field, has been critiqued by numerous researchers (Ramirez, 2007; Schwartz, 2010; 2013). Researchers have been unable to clearly delineate and operationalize a definition of acculturation or a framework for how to measure it within IPV literature The lack of definition is particularly true when examining Hispanic populations, given their complex and diverse patterns of migration and immigration (Gonzalez, 2008; Schwartz, Zamboanga, Rodriguez, & Wang, 2007; Schwartz, 2007). Similar to issues discussed in prior research, the current study may not be capturing acculturation, which becomes problematic when trying to comprehensively analyze prior research as acculturation is defined and measured differently, impacting results and conclusions.

For the current study, the acculturation measure utilized was created by Hispanic researchers specifically for use with Hispanic youth and young adults (Felix-Ortiz, Nexcomb, & Myers, 1994). Though the measure has been validated with ethnically diverse samples, the measure's focus on language may not fully capture acculturation in the current dissertation's sample. The sample, as previously discussed, derives from areas where both English and Spanish are spoken prolifically. The responses on the

acculturation items range from “Only Spanish” to “Only English.” Such measurement requires a meaning be given to the responses, in this case more acculturation being a response of “Only English”, which may provide an accurate gauge of acculturation in some samples. However, in the bi-cultural communities where participants reside, an accurate degree of acculturation may not be possible when it is measured in regards to language. For instance, Gonzales (2010) found that bilingualism and speaking Spanish in Miami was viewed positively, with participants reporting that Spanish literacy was beneficial and a seen as a source of cultural pride. Acculturation, thus, merits further review utilizing a more comprehensive measurement so as to better examine the impact of acculturation on verbal IPV victimization among Hispanic college women.

In the current study, there was also no detectable effect of gender role beliefs. Such a finding is interesting given the definitions of gender roles in Hispanic culture that, according to the prior research, should attribute to the increased vulnerability of Hispanic women to verbal IPV. There is an assumption that women are to be placed in a subordinate position where her role includes silencing herself for the needs of her family in this context (Gil & Vasquez, 1996). The submissiveness, in turn, makes women vulnerable to IPV victimization (Sobralske, 2006). Thus, the insignificant effect found is should be viewed as a starting point for future research, which would benefit from the use of a more multi-dimensional approach to acculturation.

Additional analysis of the role of gender role beliefs is merited given the sampling conducted for this dissertation. Though the Marianismo scale used in the study measures the extent to which an individual ascribes to a traditional concept of marianismo, it may not be indicative of acceptance of traditional gender roles in sample evaluated for the

dissertation. The universal values may not be indicative of the value interpretation among the sample demographics of college women who have already moved beyond traditional cultural gender roles by attending a higher education institution. The finding aligns with previous findings that symbolic allegiance to gender role beliefs but adapt the role behaviors to fit their realities and daily lives (Firestone & Harris, 1994; Wildsmith, 2004). The study's sample may, therefore, give marianismo different meanings and values because of their participation in higher education. If the study was conducted in a non-college, community location, more traditional conceptualizations of marianismo may be found and, in turn, more influential in Hispanic women's verbal IPV victimization.

Furthermore, there was no relationship between acculturation and gender role beliefs. This is interesting given that research that shown a correspondence between low acculturation, traditional gender role beliefs, and endorsement of IPV (Gonzalez-Guarda, Peragallo, Vasquez, Urrutia & Mitrani, 2009; Ulloa et al., 2004). The result could again be a reflection of measurement issues. As previously discussed, acculturation was measured using language-centered items that could have provided an inaccurate portrayal of level of acculturation in the current studies' sample was derived from higher education HSI. Similarly, the gender role beliefs scale might not have been indicative of the realities of the college population sampled in this dissertation.

The insignificant correlation between the effects of acculturation and gender role beliefs may also be the result of insignificance of each of the paths themselves. Such a finding is interesting given that research has indicated that acculturation influences gender role beliefs, familialism specifically (Schwartz, 2007). Given the insignificant paths of acculturation and gender role beliefs, it is not surprising that there was no

correlation because neither acculturation nor gender role beliefs impacted verbal IPV victimization.

The current study provides a first step in examining the roles of acculturation and gender role beliefs in Hispanic college women's verbal IPV victimization. Despite the insignificance of the variables and no correlation between the two, some important insights were made. The study illuminates the necessity for measures specifically applicable to Hispanic women and addressing IPV. The statistical insignificance of acculturation may be indicative of over reliance on language as a means to explore degree of acculturation in a Hispanic college population. Similarly, the lack of influence of gender role beliefs could be explained by the sample because of their unique conceptualization of marianismo. Finally, the lack of correlation that is inconsistent with the literature should be further explored.

V. STUDY 3 – WITHIN-GROUP DIFFERENCES

Analytic Overview

The main objective of Model Three was to compare the model fit and parameter estimates between the Florida and California data using the same structural model as the previous study. Multiple-group path analysis was employed to examine and test whether differences in the structural parameters across the two groups were statistically significant. In Multi-group path analysis, the researcher attempts to compare two models: a model with unconstrained parameters and a model with constraints. If the constrained model results in a significant worsening of model fit, then the researcher can conclude that the grouping variable, in this case schools, moderates the model (Keith, 1999).

Preliminary Analyses

FIU Frequencies of Verbal Violence. Frequencies of exposure to parental verbal IPV exposure were calculated. A total of 87.6% of participants reported witnessing their mother using verbal IPV on average per year. The most common form of verbal IPV used by mothers was yelling or insulting the father. Frequencies for each mother to father verbal aggression item can be found in Table 9. Similarly, 76.6% of participants report witnessing fathers using verbal IPV towards their mother. Most commonly, participants reported witnessing their fathers using yelling or insulting forms of verbal IPV on average each year, as seen in Table 11.

Additionally, frequencies of verbal violence victimization by parents were calculated. A total of 78.1% of participants being victims of maternal verbal IPV, with the most common form being yelling and insulting, as seen in Table 12. Similarly, 72.5%

of participants report being victims of verbal violence by their fathers. Yelling and insulting was the most common form of violence, as seen in Table 16.

Frequencies of involvement were conducted to examine the rates of verbal IPV victimization. The majority of participants (74.5%) reported verbal IPV victimization in the past year by their partner at least once in the current year. The most common form of verbal aggression utilized against the participant was sulking. Frequencies for each verbal aggression item on the CTS scale can be found in Table 16.

CSUN Frequencies of Verbal Violence. Frequencies of exposure to parental verbal IPV exposure were calculated. A total of 87.9% of participants reported witnessing their mother using verbal IPV on average per year. The most common form of verbal IPV used by mothers was yelling or insulting the father. Frequencies for each mother to father verbal aggression item can be found in Table 9. Additionally, a total of 79.2% of participants reported witnessing fathers using verbal IPV towards their mother. Most commonly, participants reported witnessing their fathers using yelling or insulting forms of verbal IPV on average each year, as seen in Table 11.

Additionally, frequencies of verbal violence victimization by parents were calculated. The majority of participants (76.8%) report being victims of maternal verbal IPV, with the most common form being yelling and insulting, as seen in Table 12. Similarly, 72.3% of participants report being victims of verbal violence by their fathers. Yelling and insulting was the most common form of violence, as seen in Table 14.

Frequencies of involvement were conducted to examine the rates of verbal IPV victimization. A total of 63.4% of all respondents reported victimization of at least one incidence of verbal aggression. The most common form of verbal aggression utilized

against the participant was sulking. Frequencies for each verbal aggression item on the CTS scale can be found in Table 16.

Evaluating the Model

Notes for Model Fit and Model Fit Statistics. Again, this model contained missing data, and in order to handle this situation, structural estimates were obtained through the use of Maximum Likelihood with Missing Values (MLMV) as the choice of estimation method. Maximum Likelihood with Missing Values allows the researcher to use as much data as possible by assuming that missing values are to be missing at random (Allison, 2002). Examining the baseline model among the total sample, $\chi^2(6) = 10.61$, $p = .10$ represented a good fit of the model to the observed data. An examination of other indices of model fit also indicated good fit. Specifically, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .03 with a 90% confidence interval between .00 and .06, and PCLOSE = .88 all of which indicate good model fit. Further inspection of the residuals and modification indices revealed no significant points of ill-fit in the model.

Multiple Group Path Analysis. Constraining the structural parameters to be equal across the two subgroups resulted in an overall worsening of model fit ($\Delta\chi^2 = 33.87$, $\Delta\ df = 9$, $p = <.001$), rejecting the null hypothesis that the paths are the same across the two subgroups. The completely unconstrained path model suggested good fit of the model to the observed data ($\chi^2(12) = 20.52$, $p = .06$). Once again, an examination of other indices of model fit also indicated good fit. Specifically, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .04 with a 90% confidence interval between .00 and .07, all of which indicate good model fit. The model can be found in Figure 3 and Table 26 displays the path coefficients obtained between the two groups.

Standardized Path Coefficients for FIU. Table 26 gives the standardized path coefficients for the model. The model indicates an impact of Mother to Father (β = .56) and Father to Daughter (β = .28) on Mother to Daughter, Father to Mother (β = .66) on Father to Daughter, Mother to Daughter (β = .30), Father to Daughter (β = .15), and Cultural/General Role Beliefs (β = .12) on Participant. According to Keith (1999), standardized coefficients greater than .25 indicate large effect sizes, those between .10 and .25 are considered moderate, those between .05 and .10 considered small, and those less than .05 considered insignificant. The finding suggests that Mother to Daughter has a large effect on Participant after controlling for Father to Daughter, while Father to Mother has a large effect on Mother to Daughter and a moderate effect on Father to Participant. No significant effect was found with Mother to Father (β = .13), Father to Mother (β = .04), Acculturation (β = .03) on Participant, after controlling for Mother to Father and Father to Daughter, respectively.

Standardized Path Coefficients for CSUN. Table 26 gives the standardized path coefficients for the model, which can also be found in Figure 3. The model indicates an impact of Mother to Father (β = .37) and Father to Daughter (β = .46) on Mother to Daughter, Father to Mother (β = .76) on Father to Daughter, and Mother to Daughter (β = .27) on Participant. As previously cited, Keith (1999) states that standardized coefficients greater than .25 indicate large effect sizes, those between .10 and .25 are considered moderate, those between .05 and .10 considered small, and those less than .05 considered insignificant. The finding suggests that Mother to Daughter has a large effect on Participant after controlling for Father to Daughter, while Father to Mother has a large effect on Mother to Daughter and a moderate effect on Father to Participant. No

significant effect was found with Mother to Father (β = .06), Father to Mother (β = .00), Father to Daughter (β = .14), Gender Role Beliefs (β = .01), and Acculturation (β = .06) directly on the Participant.

Discussion

Despite the necessity for the examination of within-group differences among Hispanics regarding verbal IPV, there are still few studies that clearly address the issue and, of those, there are contradictory results (e.g., Champion, 1996; Kaufman Kantror, 1994; Ulloa et al., 2004). Study 3 thus sought to explore within-group differences in the role of familial violence, acculturation, and gender role beliefs between FIU and CSUN samples. Following the work of Schwartz (2007; Schwartz et al., 2013; Schwartz et al., 2010), it was hypothesized that, given the unique sociocultural characteristics of the two samples, there would be differences between the group when independently analyzing the model. Results demonstrate that the models were similar in the effect of familial verbal aggression and acculturation, but statistically differed in regards to the role of gender role beliefs. Thus, the hypothesis was supported to some extent.

Surprisingly, the influence of acculturation on verbal IPV victimization did not differ between FIU and CSUN—there was no effect for either sample. Within-group diversity research argues that Hispanic experiences within the US differ greatly on the basis of a variety of factors, discrimination in particular (Schwartz, 2007; Schwartz et al., 2010; Schwartz et al., 2013). Diversity is especially true when comparing Miami and Los Angeles. While 65% of the population in the county where FIU is located (Miami-Dade County) report their ethnicity as Hispanic, only 47% of the population in Los Angeles county (the location of CSUN) report their ethnicity as Hispanic (U.S. Census Bureau,

2014). Self-description as Hispanic can hold different meanings because of socio-historical and cultural factors (Schwartz et al., 2013). Additionally, reception and perceived discrimination was higher for Hispanics residing in Los Angeles (Schwartz et al., 2013). It has been hypothesized that the difference can be attributed to the environment and political power in the respective communities. In Miami, Hispanics are the dominant, yet diverse, culture, and hold political power (Schwartz, 2007). Further, it has been theorized that Hispanics in Miami, particularly college students, engage in transculturalism whereby they adapt US culture while maintaining traditional cultural values (Stepick et al., 2010). The subtleties of acculturation or its contributing factors were possibly not captured by the study's measure.

With a purportedly varying experience of acculturation, it is noteworthy that there was not a difference in influence in verbal IPV victimization. As previously discussed, the degree of acculturation for both populations, as evidenced by their enrollment in an HSI, could contribute to the lack of statistical difference in acculturation's role in verbal IPV victimization due to the current study's measurement of acculturation.

The lack of support for the hypothesis is indicative of the body of literature on acculturation and within-group differences. There has yet to be agreement on the influence of acculturation on verbal IPV victimization and within-group differences on the subject have not been studied. The current study's finding on acculturation is provides insights into the importance of examining the ways in which region of residence, familial nation of origin and perceptions of ethnic identity inform Hispanic college women's experiences in further research.

A very important finding of this study was that there were statistical differences in the influence of gender role beliefs in verbal IPV victimization. While gender role beliefs were influential in victimization for the FIU sample, there was no statistical effect for the CSUN sample. It can be speculated that the difference is the result of various factors. First, there are differences in Hispanic experiences in Miami and Los Angeles. As a consequence of the perceived centrality of Hispanic culture in Miami, Hispanic women at FIU could feel more freedom to maintain cultural values without sanctions, discrimination, or injustice. For example, Gonzalez (2010) found that Hispanic college women in Miami felt freedom to navigate U.S. and Hispanic culture in their own unique way without fear of being ostracized. Such cultural acceptance could explain the significant effect of gender role beliefs for this sample. Research has indicated that there is a link between acceptance of gender role beliefs and IPV victimization (e.g., Dobash & Dobash, 1979; Simonson & Subich, 1999).

The differences in gender role beliefs between the FIU and CSUN samples may be the result of the living arrangements of the participants. Specifically, more CSUN students were living outside of their parents' home as compared to the FIU population;, 67% of CSUN participants and 81.1% of FIU participants report living with one or both parents. Further, only 3.2% of the CSUN and 3% of the FIU sample live with other family members (see Table 28). These living arrangement trends are important to consider as the research has shown residing with parent/parents during this stage of the lifespan can influence women's identity exploration We assert that Hispanic college females' living in the family home may feel pressure to conform to familial enforced traditional gender ideals and roles, inclining her to adhere to marianismo beliefs. In

contrast, living outside of the family home (e.g., dormitory, roommate, significant other) provides women with opportunities to explore and experiences that differ from the traditional belief systems valued in Hispanic cultures. However, such conclusions must be evaluated and research is necessary to determine the veracity of the conclusions.

On the basis of these results, it is clear that further exploration into within-group diversity and its contributions to verbal IPV outcomes. There seems to be some differences between the two diverse samples, supporting within-group difference literature, yet the relationships do not directly correspond with theories and findings of the field.

VI. GENERAL DISCUSSION

Summary

The current dissertation sought to evaluate the influence of familial verbal aggression, acculturation, and gender role beliefs on the experiences of Hispanic college women at two HSI institutions in the U.S. Little verbal IPV research has focused solely on Hispanic women. In an attempt to fill this void, the study sought to examine Hispanic college women's verbal IPV victimization in their current romantic relationships specifically addressing the gap in research regarding the cultural factors influencing Hispanic college women's verbal IPV victimization.

In Study 1, the role of familial violence on verbal IVP victimization was explored. Study 1 found that maternal and paternal use of verbal IPV towards each other influenced participant verbal aggression victimization in their current relationship. Thus, the results indicate that exposure to verbal IPV in conjunction with experience of verbal aggression impacts later victimization. These findings lend support to the social learning theory's argument that acceptability of behaviors is learned in the family of origin (Gray & Foshee, 1997; Skuja & Halford, 2004). Further research is necessary to evaluate the relationship between exposure and experience.

Study 2 builds upon the model of good fit found in Study 1 to also explore influence of acculturation and gender role beliefs. There was no significant effect of acculturation verbal IPV victimization. As noted in the discussion, this could be due to measurement issues. As noted in prior research (Schwartz, 2007; Schwartz, Unger, Zamboanga, & Szapocznik, 2010), measures that currently are used widely used assess acculturation in this population, do not adequately measure *degree* of acculturation. This

is a significant concern when a study, like the present one, integrates two distinctly different subgroups of Hispanic women who have unique migration, receiving context, and familial nation of origin experiences (Aldarondo, Kantor, & Janinski, 2002; Caetano et al., 2000; Schwartz, 2007; Schwartz et al., 2010; Schwartz et al., 2013). These factors have all been associated with perceptions of acculturation and gender identity development. Thus additional research and exploration is necessary to examine the relationship between IPV, gender role beliefs, and acculturation for diverse Hispanic college students is needed.

Finally, Study 3 examined within-group differences in model fit and significance between the FIU and the CSUN samples. Only one path difference differed when the FIU sample was analyzed separate from the CSUN sample, gender role beliefs had a statistically significant, though minor, effect. The path was insignificant for the CSUN sample. Though possible explanations were explored in the discussion, empirical work is necessary to understand these differing effects for the two populations.

Limitations

Though the current dissertation complements and extends previous research on Hispanic IPV involvement, there are some limitations that merit discussion. First, the methods for the study rely upon individuals' self-reports about one's family, intimate relationship, and IPV experiences. Self-report data can potentially reduce the validity of the study due to potential bias. The personal, sensitive nature of the survey may impact responses. For example, a participant may be hesitant to reveal instances of IPV and underreport the experiences. In addition, the quantitative survey does not allow for elaboration or clarification. Future research should thus integrate quantitative and

qualitative methodology to gain a more comprehensive understanding of verbal IPV victimization.

The sample must also be considered as this current dissertation specifically examined Hispanic college women. Research has indicated that college students aged 18-25 years old have a unique experience as compared to broader community samples, known as the "forgotten half" (see Arnett, 2008, for a discussion). Findings taken from Hispanic women that do not attend college may show that gender and acculturation beliefs differ due to exposure and experiences in academic and non- Hispanic settings. For example, attendance at an American higher education institution requires English literacy and some knowledge of American ideology, customs, and culture. The participants had a level of acculturation that may not be indicative of the overall experiences among 18-25 year old Hispanic women in the US.

The results may also not be indicative of the experiences of Hispanic college women in other regions or post-secondary institutions in the United States. As the participants in this study were recruitment from two HSI, these women have the unique experience of being in contexts where there are large numbers of Hispanic students. For instance, research has shown that Hispanic ethnic identity and adherence to cultural values differs for students attending a primarily White institution (PWI) than those attending a HSI (Torres, 2004a; Torres, 2004b). FIU is located in one of the largest urban centers of South Florida where Hispanics are a numerical majority (64.4%; U.S. Department of Commerce, 2014), and hold a significant amount of political, economic, and social power (Motel & Patten, 2012). Further 61% of the student population at FIU identify as Hispanic; university is ranked number one in the nation for granting bachelors

and master's degrees to Hispanics (FIU, 2014). Similarly, CSUN is located in Los Angeles County where Hispanics comprise 47.7% of the general population (U.S. Department of Commerce, 2014). Hispanic students at CSUN represent 37% of the campus population (CSUN, 2014). Thus the present study's participants' may differ from a Hispanic student attending a university where Hispanics are small minority on their campus. For example, Hispanic women attending an HSI may have access to support networks (e.g., campus environment, student organizations, and ethnically specific resources) that those at PWI do not.

Limitations also arise from collecting data from only one partner. Romantic relationships are dyads whereby each individual has their own perceptions and experiences of the partnership. Collecting data, therefore, from one partner may not fully describe characteristics of the relationship. Obtaining data from one partner is especially problematic when studying verbal IPV as research has indicated that such aggression is usually reciprocal in nature (Rancer & Avtgis, 2006). Data on female victimization utilizing self-report only does not necessarily portray the relationship behaviors and dynamics indicative of the partnership. Such one-sided research does not account for participants' initiation of verbal aggression (see Hamel, 2005, for a review). Future research should seek to include both partners to gain better insight into IPV experiences amongst Hispanic college women.

The study was also limited in its examination of relationship factors. Parental closeness was not measured, a factor that could influence the use and perceptions of verbal aggression between parents and the participant. For instance, parental use of verbal aggression may be interpreted differently given a close bond between parent and

daughter. Current partner relationship duration and quality was also not explored. The survey asks the rate of behaviors each month, but does not ask about the longevity of the relationship or the quality of the relationship. Given that attitudes, commitments, behaviors can change during the progression of a romantic relationship (Davis & Rusbult, 2001; Weigel, 2010) and relationship quality could influence the use and acceptance of verbal aggression, relationship length and quality are areas worthy of further examination.

Finally, limitations arose from measurement. The measures utilized may not be indicative of the experience of the realities of the study's sample and may not be capturing the influence of acculturation and gender role beliefs specifically. The current study's findings highlight the necessity of updating and refining measures that can better illustrate the role of acculturation and gender role beliefs in experiences of verbal IPV victimization. Furthermore, measurement refinement needs to address the unique experiences and within-group differences of Hispanic women.

Strengths and Significance

Despite these limitations, this dissertation contributes to the body of literature on Hispanic verbal IPV. The current study's focus on verbal IPV is important given the paucity of research on verbal IPV among college students despite research indicating rates of verbal IPV are high among college women with approximately 25% of college women experiencing verbal IPV victimization (Hines, 2007; Katz, Washington, Kuffel, & Brown, 2006; Muñoz-Rivas, Graña, O'Leary, & González, 2009). Verbal IPV victimization has both psychological (Coker et al., 2002; Hegarty, Gunn, Chondros, & Small, 2004; Pico-Alfonso et al., 2006) and physical consequences (Coker, Smith,

Bethea, King, and McKeown, 2000) that can increase with habitual victimization (Muñoz-Rivas, Graña, O'Leary, & González, 2009). The rates of verbal IPV victimization is also alarming given that verbal IPV victimization has been shown to be a precursor to escalating mental and physical victimization (Leonard & Senchak, 1996; Murphy & O'Leary, 1989; O'Leary, Malone, & Tyree, 1994).

These concerns are further complicated for Hispanic women due to the unique characteristics of the population, which have been ignored by the focus on White college student samples. Despite the fact that they are at an increased risk for IPV involvement, the causes, beliefs about, and experiences of verbal IPV among Hispanic college women are largely unknown due to a lack of research specifically focused on their experiences. Even less is known about within-group diversity among Hispanic college women and IPV. The paucity of research has been acknowledged in the field and there have been calls for research on Hispanic IPV (Herzog, 2007; Umaña-Taylor, 2011). This dissertation sought to address the gap in the literature through its concentration on Hispanic women and within-group differences.

The current dissertation's exploration of familial violence, acculturation, and gender role beliefs further supplements the current body of literature. Prior research indicates that IPV in the family of origin is correlated with future involvement in IPV (e.g., Hines & Saudino, 2002; Skuja & Halford, 2004), yet familial exposure for Hispanics has not been studied. Additionally, there has been a lack of research on the effects of gender role beliefs on IPV in the Hispanic population. The studies are a step towards better understanding verbal IPV victimization among Hispanic college women

and its correlates. The findings provide new insights into the influence of familial violence, acculturation, and gender role beliefs.

Furthermore, IPV research has treated Hispanics as a homogenous group. Research's failure to study Hispanics as a heterogeneous group is seen as one of the primary reasons that research on Hispanic IPV shows such inconsistent results (Kaufman Kantor, Jasinski, & Al- darondo, 1994; Segura, 1992). This is especially problematic because the US Hispanic population is diverse in its national origin, socioeconomics, demographics, immigration status, and location (Schwartz et al., 2010). Few studies, however, have studied within-group differences amongst Hispanics.

The small body of literature on Hispanic IPV provides insight into within-group differences, thus illustrating the need for research on Hispanics (Champion, 1996; Kaufman Kantor et al., 1994). In an attempt to address the diversity in the Hispanic college population, this dissertation draws its sample from two HSI, something made possible by the studies' methodology. The use of online surveys allowed for access to a large number of participants simultaneously at two universities located in Southern California and South Florida. Drawing from these two populations, the sample was quite diverse especially in regards to ethnic composition and regional and national origin. For example, participants from FIU were primarily of Caribbean descent and participants from CSUN were from North American descent. Having such an inclusive sample from these two locations is important because research has shown there are differences in experiences and acculturation of those of differing national origins and immigration histories (e.g., Kantor, Jaininski, & Alarando, 1994; Schwartz et al., 2010; Schwartz et al., 2013).

A great strength of this dissertation, therefore, is its inclusive sample of Hispanic college women at two HSI with distinct cultural backgrounds. The current dissertation is able to explore within-group differences, something that is minimal in the current body of literation. In particular, Study 3 tested model fit and significance of familial exposure, acculturation, and gender role beliefs. Through the use of a multi-group approach, this research was able to capture a difference in the effect of gender role beliefs on verbal IPV victimization. Study 3 found that gender role beliefs effect verbal IPV victimization for the FIU sample but the CSUN sample, indicating that there may possibly be differences in correlates of victimization for ethnically diverse Hispanics.

The current dissertation is significant considering the paucity of research on Hispanic college women's IPV involvement. As previously stated, Hispanic women are at an increased risk for IPV with more dire consequences, making research on this population even more important. However, how various subgroups of Hispanic women may have differing experiences and give varied meanings to their experiences with verbal IPV. Recognizing this, the present study recruited participants at two HSI with diverse ethnic compositions to explore within-group differences. As it was found that gender role beliefs differed across the two populations, it is clear that further research on within-group verbal IPV victimization among Hispanic populations must be conducted.

Conclusions

The dissertation attempted to address the void in Hispanic IPV research with its sample while also filling the deficiency in within-group diversity analysis of IPV with Hispanics. Although the current studies helped to answer some of the questions of the

role of familial violence, acculturation, and gender role beliefs, they also pose many questions and provide implications for future research.

There is a large body of literature on verbal aggression in the family of origin that has found familial violence impacts verbal IPV involvement, yet few studies on Hispanics. Study 1 similarly found that parental verbal aggression influenced the participants' verbal IPV victimization. However, the relationship was complex with a unidirectional effect of fathers' use of verbal aggression towards the participant on the mothers' use of it towards the participant. Additional research is necessary to explore interpersonal and family dynamics that contribute to verbal aggression as a conflict resolution tactic.

Further research also needs to elucidate the role of acculturation and gender role beliefs. There have been inconsistent results regarding the impact of acculturation. It has been speculated that this is due to the definition and measurement of acculturation. In agreement with the field (e.g., Schwartz et al., 2013), acculturation needs to be evaluated using a multi-faceted approach. Future research should thus aim at a more comprehensive examination of acculturation using a variety of measures and methodologies.

Additionally, research needs to clarify the influence of gender role beliefs on IPV victimization. Though there is some evidence that gender role beliefs influence IPV involvement (Herzog, 2007; Nabors & Jasinski, 2007), research has not included or focused on Hispanics. This void in the literature should continue to be explored. Future research should include the development and psychometric analysis of a gender role beliefs measure specifically related to IPV. Such a measure could potentially capture the relationship between gender role beliefs, attitudes towards IPV, and IPV involvement.

Future research needs to also extend the study of within-group diversity among Hispanics and involvement in verbal IPV. Research should expand its analysis of within-group diversity by both extending its foci. Studies should be conducted in other large metropolitan cities where Hispanics may have different socio-cultural experiences. Research comparing ethnic groups, immigration status, socioeconomic status, and other factors need to explore to further understand within-group differences. This dissertation is a first step toward this goal as it sought to supplement the understanding causes and correlates of verbal IPV victimization among Hispanic college women. In an attempt to fill gaps in current literature, the multi-site studies examining the roles of gender role beliefs and acculturation on IPV victimization in an ethnically and regionally diverse sample of Hispanic college women. In doing so, the studies represent a step forward and provide a foundation for further research and analysis on Hispanic IPV experiences.

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TABLES

Table 1

FIU Maternal Nationality

	Frequency	Percentage
Africa	4	0.8
Arabic	1	0.2
Argentina	3	0.6
Aruba	1	0.2
Brazil	3	0.6
Caribbean	1	0.2
Central American	1	0.2
Chile	4	0.8
China	1	0.2
Colombia	50	10.0
Cuba	228	45.4
Dominican Republic	24	4.8
Ecuador	3	0.6
El Salvador	3	0.6
Germany	1	0.2
Guatemala	2	0.4
Haiti	1	0.2
Hispanic	4	0.8
Honduras	15	3.0
Italy	3	0.6
Jamaica	1	0.2
Mexico	11	2.2
Nicaragua	43	8.6
Panama	4	.8
Peru	18	3.6
Philippines	1	.2
Puerto Rico	23	4.6
Spain	9	1.8
United States	8	1.6
Uruguay	2	.4
Venezuela	22	4.4

Table 2

Maternal Ethnicity by Region

	FIU		CSUN	
	Frequency	*Percent*	Frequency	*Percent*
African	1	0.2	1	0.2
Asian	2	0.4	3	0.7
Caribbean	275	54.8	3	0.7
Central American	80	15.9	74	18.3
European	12	2.4	4	1.0
North American	8	1.6	290	71.8
South American	106	21.2	12	3.0

Table 3

FIU Paternal Nationality

	Frequency	Percentage
Arabic	2	0.4
Argentina	5	1.0
Belize	1	0.2
Brazil	4	0.8
Central America	1	0.2
Chile	4	0.8
China	3	0.6
Colombia	39	7.8
Costa Rico	2	0.4
Cuba	229	45.9
Curacao	1	0.2
Dominican Republic	26	5.2
Ecuador	7	1.4
El Salvador	4	0.8
Germany	2	0.4
Greece	1	0.2
Guatemala	4	0.8
Haiti	1	0.2
Hispanic	4	0.8
Honduras	11	2.2
Hungary	1	0.2
Ireland	1	0.2
Italy	6	1.2
Jamaica	1	0.2
Lebanon	2	0.4
Mexico	13	2.6
Nicaragua	43	6.4
North America	1	0.2
Palestine	1	0.2
Panama	1	0.2
Peru	14	2.8
Poland	1	0.2
Portugal	1	0.2
Puerto Rico	20	4.0
Romania	1	0.2
Slovenia	1	0.2
Spain	10	2.0
United States	11	2.2
Uruguay	3	0.6
Venezuela	21	4.2

Table 4

Paternal Ethnicity by Region

	FIU		CSUN	
	Frequency	*Percent*	Frequency	*Percent*
African	0	0	0	0
Asian	1	0.2	1	.02
Caribbean	277	55.2	4	1.0
Central American	68	13.5	72	17.8
European	24	4.8	9	2.2
North American	12	2.4	280	69.3
South American	95	18.9	12	3.0

Table 5

CSUN Maternal Nationality

	Frequency	Percentage
Argentina	1	0.2
Belize	1	0.2
Bolivia	3	0.7
Chile	1	0.2
Colombia	2	0.5
Costa Rico	1	0.2
Cuba	1	0.2
Ecuador	1	0.2
Egypt	1	0.2
El Salvador	48	11.8
France	1	0.2
Germany	3	0.7
Greece	1	0.2
Guatemala	16	4.0
Guyana	1	0.2
Hispanic	9	2.2
Honduras	6	1.5
Mexico	263	65.1
Native American	1	0.2
Nicaragua	2	0.5
Peru	2	0.5
Philippines	3	0.7
Puerto Rico	2	0.5
United States	28	6.9
Venezuela	1	0.2

Table 6

CSUN Paternal Nationality

	Frequency	Percentage
Argentina	1	0.2
Bolivia	2	0.5
Canada	1	0.2
Caucasian	2	0.5
Chile	1	0.2
Colombia	4	1.0
Costa Rica	1	0.2
Croatia	1	0.2
Cuba	1	0.2
Ecuador	1	0.2
El Salvador	45	11.1
Europe	3	0.7
France	1	0.2
Germany	3	0.7
Guatemala	20	4.9
Hispanic	10	2.5
Honduras	3	0.7
India	1	0.2
Ireland	2	0.5
Israel	1	0.2
Italy	1	0.2
Mexico	255	63.5
Nicaragua	3	0.7
Peru	3	0.7
Puerto Rico	3	0.7
Spain	2	0.5
United States	25	6.2
White	1	0.2

Table 7

Frequency of Mother to Father Verbal Intimate Partner Violence

	Frequency	Percent
Yelled and/or insulted		
Never	211	23.3
Once a Year	112	12.4
2-3 times a year	142	15.7
Often, but less than once a month	151	16.7
About once a month	107	11.8
More than once a month	168	18.5
Sulked and/or refused to talk about it		
Never	247	27.3
Once a Year	126	13.9
2-3 times a year	139	15.3
Often, but less than once a month	148	16.3
About once a month	104	11.5
More than once a month	129	14.2
Stomped out of the room		
Never	278	30.7
Once a Year	139	15.3
2-3 times a year	122	13.5
Often, but less than once a month	140	15.5
About once a month	85	9.4
More than once a month	129	14.2
Threw or smash something (but not at the other)		
Never	557	61.5
Once a Year	129	14.2
2-3 times a year	56	6.2
Often, but less than once a month	76	8.4
About once a month	34	3.8
More than once a month	43	4.7
Threatened to hit or throw something at the other		
Never	644	71.1
Once a Year	92	10.2
2-3 times a year	40	4.4
Often, but less than once a month	55	6.1
About once a month	31	3.4
More than once a month	31	3.4

Table 8

Frequency of Mother to Father Verbal IPV by Sample

	FIU		CSUN	
	Frequency	*Percent*	Frequency	*Percent*
Yelled and/or insulted				
Never	120	23.9	91	22.5
Once a Year	66	13.1	46	11.4
2-3 times a year	85	16.9	57	14.1
Often-less than once a month	87	17.3	64	15.8
About once a month	57	11.4	10	12.4
More than once a month	79	15.7	89	22.0
Sulked and/or refused				
Never	143	28.5	104	25.7
Once a Year	71	14.1	55	13.6
2-3 times a year	78	15.5	61	15.1
Often-less than once a month	81	16.1	67	16.6
About once a month	50	10.0	54	13.4
More than once a month	71	14.1	58	14.4
Stomped out of the room				
Never	155	30.9	123	30.4
Once a Year	81	16.1	58	14.4
2-3 times a year	66	13.1	56	13.9
Often-less than once a month	76	15.1	64	15.8
About once a month	41	8.2	44	10.9
More than once a month	74	14.7	55	13.6

Table 8 (continued)

Frequency of Mother to Father Verbal IPV by Sample

	FIU		CSUN	
	Frequency	*Percent*		Frequency
Threw or smash something (but not at the other)				
Never	315	62.7	242	59.9
Once a Year	62	12.4	67	16.6
2-3 times a year	30	6.0	26	6.4
Often-less than once a month	47	9.4	29	7.2
About once a month	20	4.0	14	3.5
More than once a month	21	4.2	22	5.4
Threatened to hit or throw something at the other				
Never	365	72.7	279	69.1
Once a Year	36	7.2	50	12.4
2-3 times a year	20	4.0	20	5.0
Often-less than once a month	36	7.2	19	4.7
Once a month	14	2.8	4	1.0
More than once a month	15	3.0	6	1.5

Table 9

Frequency of Father to Mother Verbal IPV

	Frequency	Percent
Yelled and/or insulted		
Never	292	32.3
Once a Year	115	12.7
2-3 times a year	121	13.4
Often, but less than once a month	113	12.5
About once a month	94	10.4
More than once a month	147	16.2
Sulked and/or refused to talk about it		
Never	327	26.1
Once a Year	132	14.6
2-3 times a year	97	10.7
Often, but less than once a month	122	13.5
About once a month	86	9.5
More than once a month	116	12.8
Stomped out of the room		
Never	368	40.6
Once a Year	125	13.8
2-3 times a year	88	9.7
Often, but less than once a month	12	13.4
About once a month	62	6.8
More than once a month	115	12.7
Threw or smash something (but not at the other)		
Never	619	68.3
Once a Year	88	9.7
2-3 times a year	55	6.1
Often, but less than once a month	54	6.0
About once a month	28	3.1
More than once a month	39	4.3
Threatened to hit or throw something at the other		
Never	674	74.4
Once a Year	72	7.9
2-3 times a year	35	3.9
Often, but less than once a month	48	5.3
About once a month	22	2.4
More than once a month	30	3.3

Table 10

Frequency of Father to Mother Verbal IPV by Sample

	FIU		CSUN	
	Frequency	*Percent*	Frequency	*Percent*
Yelled and/or insulted				
Never	170	33.9	122	30.2
Once a Year	65	12.9	50	12.4
2-3 times a year	73	14.5	48	11.9
Often-less than once a month	65	12.9	48	11.9
About once a month	51	10.2	43	10.6
More than once a month	65	12.9	82	20.3
Sulked and/or refused				
Never	183	36.5	144	35.6
Once a Year	79	15.7	53	13.1
2-3 times a year	50	10.0	47	11.6
Often-less than once a month	75	14.9	47	11.6
About once a month	50	10.0	36	8.9
More than once a month	51	10.2	65	16.1
Stomped out of the room				
Never	205	40.8	163	40.3
Once a Year	43	8.6	51	12.6
2-3 times a year	47	9.4	41	10.1
Often-less than once a month	74	14.7	47	11.6
About once a month	35	7.0	27	6.7
More than once a month	53	10.6	62	15.3

Table 10 (continued)

Frequency of Father to Mother Verbal IPV by Sample

	FIU		CSUN	
	Frequency	*Percent*	Frequency	Percent
Threw or smash something (but not at the other)				
Never	354	70.5	265	65.6
Once a Year	43	8.6	45	11.1
2-3 times a year	28	5.6	27	6.7
Often-less than once a month	32	6.4	22	5.4
About once a month	13	2.6	15	3.7
More than once a month	20	4.0	19	4.7
Threatened to hit or throw something at the other				
Never	381	75.9	293	72.5
Once a Year	38	7.6	34	8.4
2-3 times a year	14	2.8	21	5.2
Often-less than once a month	28	5.6	20	5.0
Once a month	14	2.8	8	2.0
More than once a month	13	2.6	17	4.2

Table 11

Frequency of Mother to Participant Verbal Violence

	Frequency	Percent
Yelled and/or insulted		
Never	296	32.7
Once a Year	133	14.7
2-3 times a year	106	11.7
Often, but less than once a month	112	12.4
About once a month	75	8.3
More than once a month	98	10.8
Sulked and/or refused to talk about it		
Never	329	36.3
Once a Year	122	13.5
2-3 times a year	113	12.5
Often, but less than once a month	114	12.6
About once a month	52	5.7
More than once a month	87	9.6
Stomped out of the room		
Never	364	40.2
Once a Year	104	11.5
2-3 times a year	97	10.7
Often, but less than once a month	116	12.8
About once a month	56	6.2
More than once a month	81	8.9
Threw or smash something (but not at the other)		
Never	613	67.7
Once a Year	64	7.1
2-3 times a year	36	4.0
Often, but less than once a month	55	6.1
About once a month	19	2.1
More than once a month	33	3.6
Threatened to hit or throw something at the other		
Never	635	70.1
Once a Year	51	5.6
2-3 times a year	47	5.2
Often, but less than once a month	38	4.2
About once a month	19	2.1
More than once a month	32	3.5

Table 12

Frequency of Mother to Participant Verbal Violence by Sample

	FIU		CSUN	
	Frequency	*Percent*	Frequency	*Percent*
Yelled and/or insulted				
Never	158	31.5	138	34.2
Once a Year	71	14.1	62	15.3
2-3 times a year	68	13.5	38	9.4
Often-less than once a month	59	11.8	53	13.1
About once a month	39	7.8	36	8.9
More than once a month	51	10.2	47	11.6
Sulked and/or refused				
Never	175	34.9	154	38.1
Once a Year	62	12.4	60	14.9
2-3 times a year	65	12.9	48	11.9
Often-less than once a month	70	13.9	44	10.9
About once a month	28	5.6	24	5.9
More than once a month	43	8.6	44	10.9
Stomped out of the room				
Never	193	38.4	171	42.3
Once a Year	57	11.4	47	11.6
2-3 times a year	56	11.2	41	10.1
Often-less than once a month	68	13.5	48	11.9
About once a month	34	6.8	22	5.4
More than once a month	37	7.4	44	10.9

Table 12 (continued)

Frequency of Mother to Participant Verbal Violence by Sample

	FIU		CSUN	
	Frequency	*Percent*	Frequency	Percent
Threw or smash something (but not at the other)				
Never	333	66.3	280	69.3
Once a Year	33	6.6	31	7.7
2-3 times a year	23	4.6	13	3.2
Often-less than once a month	32	6.4	23	5.7
About once a month	8	1.6	11	2.7
More than once a month	16	3.2	17	4.2
Threatened to hit or throw something at the other				
Never	350	69.7	285	70.5
Once a Year	27	5.4	24	5.9
2-3 times a year	22	4.4	25	6.2
Often-less than once a month	25	5.0	13	3.2
Once a month	6	1.2	13	3.2
More than once a month	17	3.4	15	3.7

Table 13

Frequency of Father to Participant Verbal Violence

	Frequency	Percent
Yelled and/or insulted		
Never	330	36.4
Once a Year	124	13.7
2-3 times a year	97	10.7
Often, but less than once a month	89	9.8
About once a month	75	8.3
More than once a month	104	11.5
Sulked and/or refused to talk about it		
Never	367	40.5
Once a Year	123	87
2-3 times a year	87	9.6
Often, but less than once a month	92	10.2
About once a month	67	7.4
More than once a month	83	9.2
Stomped out of the room		
Never	389	42.9
Once a Year	124	13.7
2-3 times a year	82	9.1
Often, but less than once a month	76	8.4
About once a month	58	6.4
More than once a month	90	9.9
Threw or smash something (but not at the other)		
Never	630	69.5
Once a Year	68	7.5
2-3 times a year	40	4.4
Often, but less than once a month	31	3.4
About once a month	23	2.5
More than once a month	28	3.1
Threatened to hit or throw something at the other		
Never	649	71.6
Once a Year	63	7.0
2-3 times a year	29	3.2
Often, but less than once a month	30	3.3
About once a month	24	2.6
More than once a month	27	3.0

Table 14

Frequency of Father to Participant Verbal Violence by Sample

	FIU		CSUN	
	Frequency	*Percent*	Frequency	*Percent*
Yelled and/or insulted				
Never	182	36.3	148	36.6
Once a Year	66	13.1	58	14.4
2-3 times a year	53	10.6	44	10.9
Often-less than once a month	53	10.6	36	8.9
About once a month	39	7.8	36	8.9
More than once a month	52	10.4	2	12.9
Sulked and/or refused				
Never	200	39.8	167	41.3
Once a Year	74	14.7	49	12.1
2-3 times a year	46	9.2	41	10.1
Often-less than once a month	53	10.6	39	9.7
About once a month	38	7.6	29	7.2
More than once a month	36	7.2	47	11.6
Stomped out of the room				
Never	220	43.8	169	41.8
Once a Year	66	13.1	58	14.4
2-3 times a year	45	9.0	37	9.2
Often-less than once a month	46	9.2	30	7.4
About once a month	29	5.8	29	7.2
More than once a month	41	8.2	49	12.1

Table 14 (Continued)

Frequency of Father to Participant Verbal Violence by Sample

	FIU		CSUN	
	Frequency	*Percent*	Frequency	Percent
Threw or smash something (but not at the other)				
Never	344	68.5	286	70.8
Once a Year	39	7.8	29	7.2
2-3 times a year	20	4.0	20	5.0
Often-less than once a month	19	3.8	12	3.0
About once a month	10	2.0	13	3.2
More than once a month	13	2.6	15	3.7
Threatened to hit or throw something at the other				
Never	357	71.1	292	72.3
Once a Year	32	6.4	31	7.7
2-3 times a year	15	3.0	14	3.5
Often-less than once a month	18	3.6	12	3.0
Once a month	14	2.8	10	2.5
More than once a month	12	2.4	15	3.7

Table 15

Frequency of Verbal IPV Victimization

	Frequency	Percent
Yelled and/or insulted		
Never	387	42.7
Once a Year	121	13.4
2-3 times a year	96	10.6
Often, but less than once a month	114	12.6
About once a month	54	6.0
More than once a month	62	6.8
Sulked and/or refused to talk about it		
Never	365	40.3
Once a Year	96	10.6
2-3 times a year	98	10.8
Often, but less than once a month	115	12.7
About once a month	77	8.5
More than once a month	78	8.6
Stomped out of the room		
Never	446	49.2
Once a Year	116	12.8
2-3 times a year	77	8.5
Often, but less than once a month	89	9.8
About once a month	51	5.6
More than once a month	53	5.8
Threw or smash something (but not at the other)		
Never	679	74.9
Once a Year	63	7.0
2-3 times a year	39	4.3
Often, but less than once a month	27	3.0
About once a month	16	1.8
More than once a month	13	1.4
Threatened to hit or throw something at the other		
Never	735	81.1
Once a Year	40	4.4
2-3 times a year	24	2.6
Often, but less than once a month	18	2.0
About once a month	6	1.2
More than once a month	4	.8

Table 16

Frequency of Verbal IPV Victimization by School

	FIU		CSUN	
	Frequency	*Percent*	Frequency	*Percent*
Yelled and/or insulted				
Never	185	36.9	208	51.1
Once a Year	79	15.7	51	12.6
2-3 times a year	56	11.2	40	9.9
Often-less than once a month	75	14.9	37	9.2
About once a month	27	5.4	22	5.4
More than once a month	38	7.6	19	4.7
Sulked and/or refused				
Never	173	34.5	209	51.7
Once a Year	59	11.8	38	9.4
2-3 times a year	63	12.5	32	7.9
Often-less than once a month	75	14.9	46	11.4
About once a month	43	8.6	28	6.9
More than once a month	45	9.0	28	6.9
Stomped out of the room				
Never	223	44.4	223	55.2
Once a Year	65	12.9	51	12.6
2-3 times a year	48	9.6	29	7.2
Often-less than once a month	62	12.4	27	6.2
About once a month	28	5.6	23	5.7
More than once a month	33	6.6	20	5.0

Table 16 (Continued)

Frequency of Verbal IPV Victimization by School

	FIU		CSUN	
	Frequency	*Percent*		Frequency
Threw or smash something (but not at the other)				
Never	348	69.3	331	81.9
Once a Year	44	8.8	19	4.7
2-3 times a year	29	5.8	10	2.5
Often-less than once a month	24	4.8	3	0.7
About once a month	9	1.8	7	1.7
More than once a month	8	1.6	5	1.2
Threatened to hit or throw something at the other				
Never	393	78.3	342	84.7
Once a Year	26	5.2	14	3.5
2-3 times a year	16	3.2	8	2.0
Often-less than once a month	17	3.4	1	0.2
Once a month	6	1.2	4	1.0
More than once a month	4	.8	6	1.5

Table 17

Verbal IPV Victimization Descriptive Statistics

	Mean (SD)	Skewness	Kurtosis
Mother to Father	13.117 (6.488)	0.649	2.630
Father to Mother	11.911 (6.642)	0.829	2.812
Mother to Daughter	11.233 (6.321)	1.026	3.371
Father to Daughter	10.776 (6.392)	1.130	3.501
Partner to Participant	9.933 (5.526)	1.180	3.913
Acculturation	3.510 (.765)	-0.082	2.879
Gender Role Beliefs	2.608 (.471)	0.229	2.574

Table 18

Marianismo Subscale Descriptives

	FIU & CSUN		FIU		CSUN	
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*
Family Pillar	3.78	0.61	3.80	0.62	3.81	0.61
Virtuous & Chaste	3.27	.069	3.20	0.68	3.35	0.70
Subordinate to Others	1.83	0.71	1.80	0.75	1.81	0.67
Silencing Self for Harmony	1.68	0.65	1.40	0.66	1.74	0.63
Spiritual Pillar	2.45	0.78	2.50	0.81	2.43	0.74

Table 19

Acculturation Descriptive Statistics by Samples on a Scale of 1 (Only Spanish) to 5 (Only English)

	FIU & CSUN		FIU		CSUN	
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*
Language read and speak	3.65	0.68	2.46	0.64	2.21	0.69
Language used as a child	2.64	1.20	3.61	1.11	3.05	1.22
Language spoken at home	2.98	1.23	3.17	1.27	2.83	1.25
Language in which you think	4.10	0.92	2.04	1.01	1.73	0.75
Language spoken with friends	4.25	0.82	1.88	0.91	1.60	0.66

Table 20

Mardia's Test of Multivariate Normality

Variable	Min	Max	Skew	Kurtosis
Mother to Father	5	30	.65	2.63
Father to Mother	5	30	.83	2.81
Mother to Daughter	5	30	1.03	3.37
Father to Daughter	5	30	1.13	3.50
Acculturation	1.2	5	-.08	2.88
Gender Role Beliefs	1	4.83	.23	3.57
Verbal IPV Victimization	5	30	1.18	3.91
Multivariate			11.31	89.93

Table 21

Study 1 Intercorrelation of Variables

Variable	2	3	4	5
1. Mother to Father	.740	.680	.553	.402
2. Father to Mother	---	.592	.715	.380
3. Mother to Participant		---	.619	.475
4. Father to Participant			---	.396
5. Partner to Participant				---

Table 22

Study 1 95% Confidence Intervals

Path	Estimate	95% CI
Mother to Daughter←Father to Daughter	.36	.30 to .41
Mother to Daughter ←Mother to Father	.49	.44 to .54
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Father to Mother	.01	-.10 to .12
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Mother to Father	.10	-.01 to .21
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Father to Daughter	.14	.04 to .23
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Mother to Daughter	.31	.22 to .41
Father to Daughter ←Father to Mother	.71	.68 to .75
Mother to Father ←→ Father to Mother	.74	.71 to .77

Table 23

Study 1 Total Effects

Path	Estimate	95% CI
Mother to Daughter←Father to Daughter	.35	.30 to .41
Mother to Daughter ←Mother to Father	.48	.42 to .53
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Father to Mother	.16	.08 to .24
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Mother to Father	.22	.13 to .30
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Father to Daughter	.21	.13 to .30
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Mother to Daughter	.27	.19 to .36
Father to Daughter ←Father to Mother	.69	.64 to .73
Mother to Daughter ←Father to Mother	.24	.20 to .28

Table 24

Study 2 95% Confidence Intervals

Path	Estimate	95% CI
Mother to Daughter←Father to Daughter	.36	.30 to .41
Mother to Daughter ←Mother to Father	.49	.44 to .54
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Father to Mother	.01	-.10 to .13
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Mother to Father	.10	-.10 to .20
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Father to Daughter	.13	.03 to .23
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Mother to Daughter	.31	.22 to .41
Father to Daughter ←Father to Mother	.71	.68 to .75
Mother to Father ←→ Father to Mother	.74	.71 to .77
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Acculturation	.02	-.05 to .08
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Gender Role Beliefs	.07	.00 to .13
Acculturation ←→ Gender Role Beliefs	.03	-.04 to .10

Table 25

Study 2 Total Effects

Path	Estimate	95% CI
Mother to Daughter←Father to Daughter	.36	.30 to .41
Mother to Daughter ←Mother to Father	.49	.43 to .55
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Father to Mother	.19	.09 to .28
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Mother to Father	.25	.15 to .34
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Father to Daughter	.24	.15 to .34
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Mother to Daughter	.31	.22 to .41
Father to Daughter ←Father to Mother	.71	.66 to .76
Mother to Daughter ←Father to Mother	.26	.21 to .30
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Acculturation	.02	-.06 to .11
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Gender Role Beliefs	.07	.00 to .13

Table 26

Study 3 95% Confidence Intervals

	FIU		CSUN	
	Estimate	95% CI	Estimate	95% CI
Mother to Daughter←Father to Daughter	.28	.20 to .35	.45	.37 to .53
Mother to Daughter ←Mother to Father	.56	.52 to .66	.37	.28 to .46
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Father to Mother	.04	-.10 to .19	-.00	-.17 to .17
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Mother to Father	.13	-.02 to .29	.06	-.09 to .21
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Father to Daughter	.16	.04 to .28	.14	-.02 to .29
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Mother to Daughter	.32	.18 to .45	.25	.12 to .39
Father to Daughter ←Father to Mother	.65	.58 to .72	.78	.71 to .84
Mother to Father ←→ Father to Mother	.72	.62 to .83	.77	.64 to .89
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Acculturation	.04	-.06 to .14	.09	-.06 to .24
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Gender Role Beliefs	.11	.04 to .19	-.01	-.10 to .09
Acculturation ←→ Gender Role Beliefs	.05	-.03 to .12	-.02	-.08 to .05

Table 27

Study 3 Total Effects

	FIU		CSUN	
	Estimate	95% CI	Estimate	95% CI
Mother to Daughter←Father to Daughter	.28	.20 to .35	.45	.37 to .53
Mother to Daughter ←Mother to Father	.59	.52 to .66	.37	.28 to .46
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Father to Mother	.20	.08 to .33	.19	.06 to .33
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Mother to Father	.32	.19 to .45	.15	.01 to .29
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Father to Daughter	.25	.12 to .37	.25	.10 to .40
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Mother to Daughter	.32	.18 to .45	.25	.12 to .39
Father to Daughter ←Father to Mother	.65	.58 to .72	.78	.71 to .84
Mother to Daughter← Father to Mother	.18	.13 to .23	.35	.28 to .42
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Acculturation	.04	-.06 to .14	.09	-.06 to .24
Verbal IPV Victimization ←Gender Role Beliefs	.11	.04 to .19	-.01	-.10 to .09

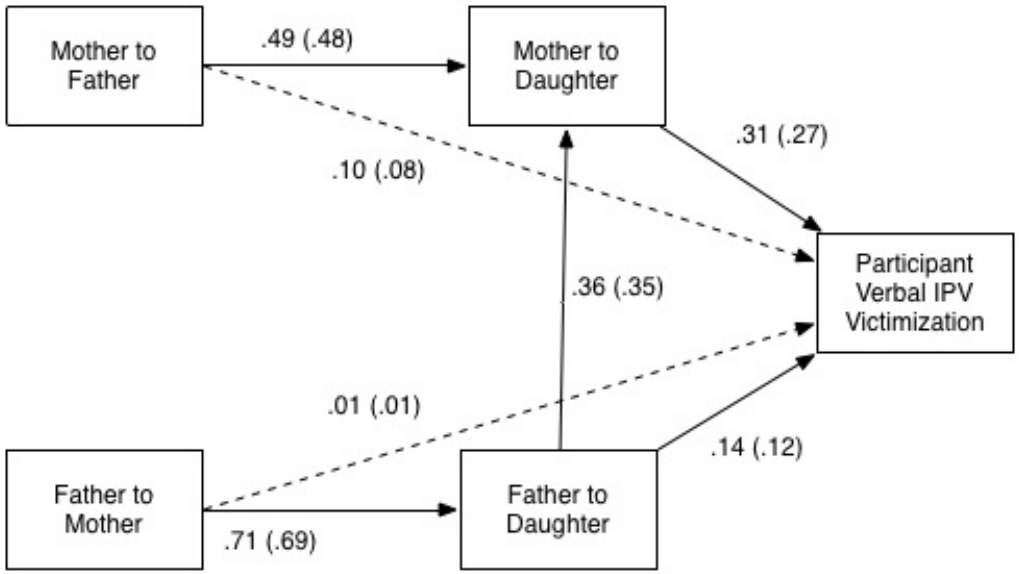
Table 28

Participant Residency by School

	FIU		CSUN	
	Frequency	*Percent*	Frequency	*Percent*
Mother and Father	249	49.6	198	70
Mother	149	29.7	70	17.3
Father	9	1.8	3	.70
Family member	15	3.0	13	3.2
Dormitory on campus	9	1.8	59	14.6
Friends	11	2.2	32	7.9
Romantic partner	38	7.6	11	4.2
Other	21	4.2	17	4.2

Figure 1

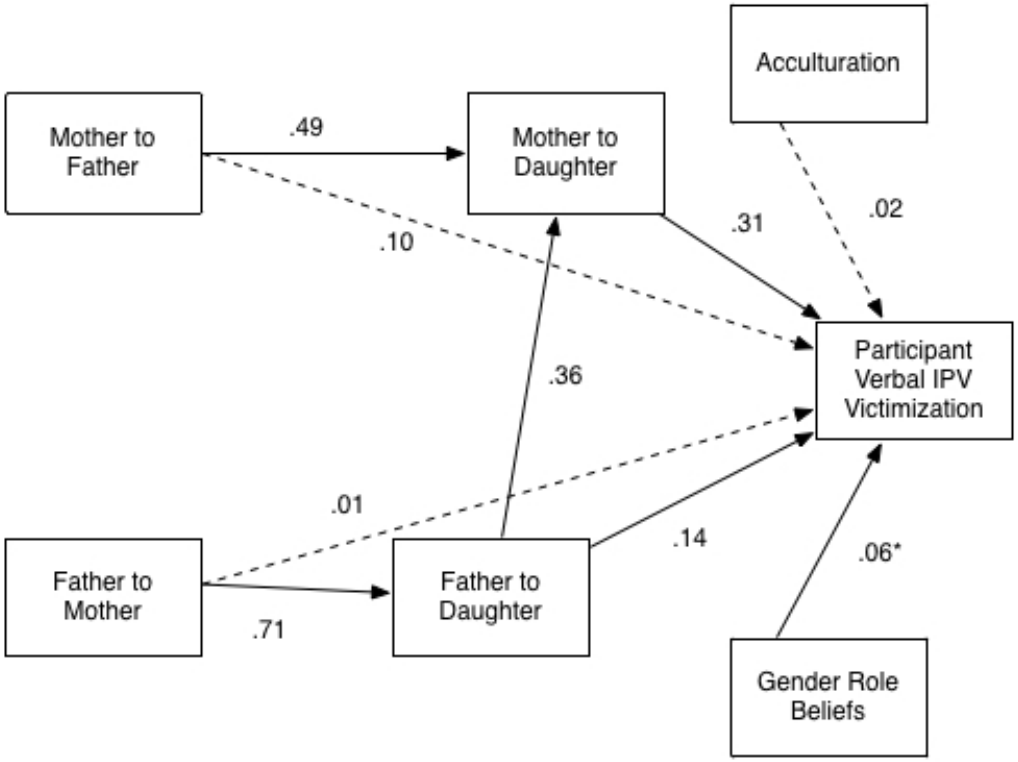
Study 1 SEM Model of the Influence of Parental Use of Verbal IPV



Note: All dark lines imply significance at $p < .001$
The covariance between Mother to Father and Father to Mother is significant at $p < .001$.

Figure 2

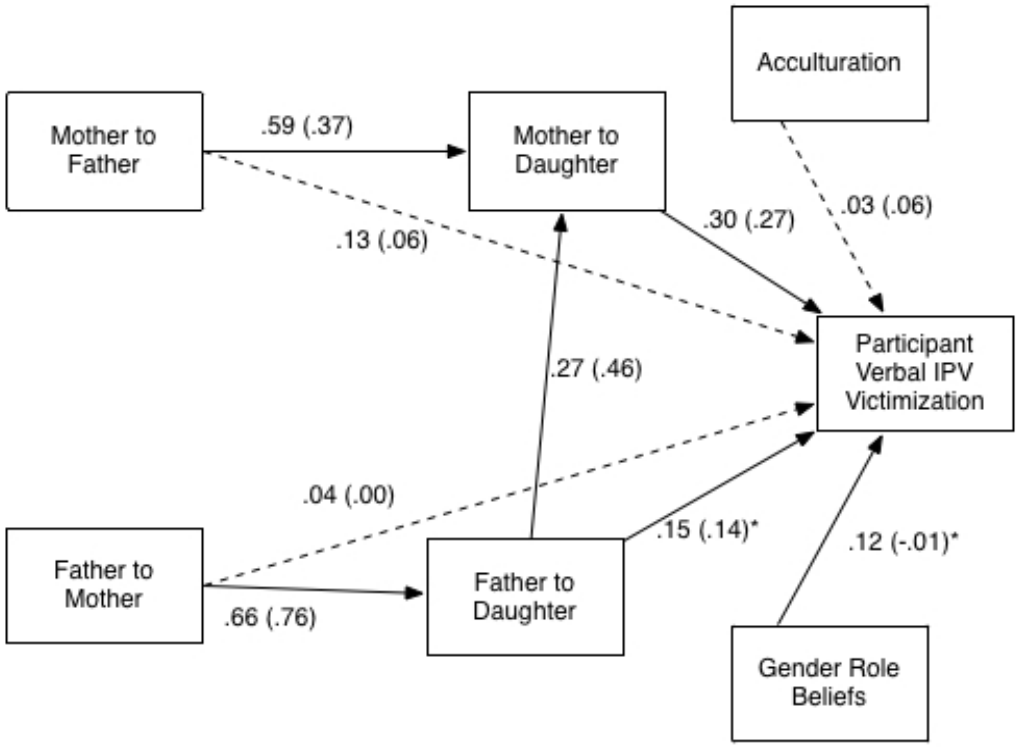
Study 2 SEM Model of the Influence of Parental Use of Verbal IPV, Acculturation, and Gender Role Beliefs



Note: All dark lines imply significance at $p < .001$
*significant at $p < .05$
The covariance between Mother to Father and Father to Mother is significant at $p < .001$.

Figure 3

Study 3 SEM Model of Within-Group Differences



Note: Standardized coefficients in parenthesis are given for CSUN
All dark lines imply significance at $p < .05$
*not significant at $p < .05$
The covariance between Mother to Father and Father to Mother is significant at $p < .001$.

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PUBLICATIONS AND PRESENTATIONS

Meca, A., Eichas, K., Quintana, S., Maximin, B. M., Ritchie, R. A., Madrazo, V. L., Harari, G. M., & Kurtines, W. M. (in press). Reducing Identity Distress: Results of an Identity Intervention for Emerging Adults. *Identity: An International Journal of Theory of Research.*

Stephens, D. P., Thomas, T., & Quintana, S.M. (Revise & Resubmit). Masculinity norms' influencing Hispanic college men's HPV vaccination decision making processes.

Quintana, S., Oramas, L., & Stephens, D. (2013, November). Hispanic College Females Perpetration of Verbal Intimate Partner Violence: The Role of Maternal Modeling. Presented at the biennial meeting of the Society for the Study of Human Development. Fort Lauderdale, FL.

Oramas, L., Quintana, S., & Stephens, D. (2013, November). Maternal Influence on Hispanic College Women's Perpetration of Physical Intimate Partner Violence. Presented at the biennial meeting of the Society for the Study of Human Development. Fort Lauderdale, FL.

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Presentation at the annual Florida International University Women, Sexuality, and Gender Student Association Student Conference, Miami, FL.

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Eichas, K., Rinaldi, R., Ritchie, R., Garcia, A., Varela, A., Madrazo, V., Maximin, B., Kasian, K., Meca, A., O'Dowd, B., Quintana, S., & Kurtines, W.M. (2009). Evaluating positive youth development: An integration of quantitative and qualitative methods. Presented at the Society for the Study of Human Development biennial meeting, Ann Arbor, Michigan.