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# The Influence of Parental Aggression and Cultural Gender Role Beliefs on Hispanic College Women's Experiences with Psychological Aggression

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FLORIDA INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY

Miami, Florida

THE INFLUENCE OF PARENTAL AGGRESSION AND CULTURAL GENDER  
ROLE BELIEFS ON HISPANIC COLLEGE WOMEN'S EXPERIENCES WITH  
PSYCHOLOGICAL AGGRESSION

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

PSYCHOLOGY

by

Laura A. Oramas

2015

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

This dissertation, written by Laura A. Oramas, and entitled The Influence of Parental Aggression and Cultural Gender Role Beliefs on Hispanic College Women's Experiences with Psychological Aggression, 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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Dionne Stephens, Major Professor

Date of Defense: June 2, 2015

The dissertation of Laura A. Oramas is approved.

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Dean Michael R. Heithaus  
College of Arts and Sciences

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Dean Lakshmi N. Reddi  
University Graduate School

Florida International University, 2015

## DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my sister, Sara Oramas, who is currently considering following in my footsteps. While I may not have made the journey to a Ph.D. look easy, I hope you never allow anything or anyone discourage you from pursuing your dreams.

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION  
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ROLE BELIEFS ON HISPANIC COLLEGE WOMEN'S EXPERIENCES WITH  
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by

Laura A. Oramas

Florida International University, 2015

Miami, Florida

Professor Dionne Stephens, Major Professor

Psychological aggression is present in as many as 89-97% of college women's intimate relationships (Cercone, Beach, & Arias, 2005; Riggs & O'Leary, 1996). Victimization has been linked to negative physical and mental health consequences including depression, anxiety, and chronic pain (Coker, Smith, Bethea, King, & McKeown, 2000; Derrick, Testa, & Leonard, 2014; Pico-Alfonso et al., 2006). Psychological aggression also serves as a risk factor for future or continued physical intimate partner violence (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2014), which can result in bruises, broken bones, or in extreme cases, even death. Parental modeling of appropriate relationship behaviors may be an important factor in young adult women's learning how to behave in their own intimate relationships. Studies have produced mixed results when assessing the role of engendered cultural influences on this phenomenon, with many reporting that women holding traditional gender role beliefs are at an increased risk for experiencing relationship aggression (Brownridge, 2002; CDC, 2014; Eaton & Matamala, 2014; Fitzpatrick, Salgado, Suvak, King, & King, 2004). The

current dissertation seeks to investigate the roles of traditional, culturally informed gender role beliefs in the intergenerational modeling of psychological aggression in Hispanic college women's intimate relationships. A total of 687 students from a large Hispanic Serving Institution (HSI) in the southeastern United States participated in this study. The results of Study 1 showed that parental use of psychological aggression and participants' beliefs consistent with *caballerismo* influenced Hispanic college women's victimization in their intimate relationships. The results of Study 2 indicated that parental use of psychological aggression, participants' beliefs consistent with *marianismo*, and participants' beliefs sanctioning their own use of psychological aggression toward their boyfriends significantly influenced Hispanic college women's perpetration of this type of aggression in their intimate relationships. The findings from this dissertation are important as few studies have examined intimate partner violence or conflict strategies in Hispanic college populations, despite the fact that they constitute the largest group of ethnic minority women on campuses today (Fry, 2011). Further, they contribute to our ability to effectively critique traditional gender beliefs used to examine Hispanic women's behavioral and psychological outcomes.

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## I. INTRODUCTION

There is large body of research on college students' intimate relationships as this phase of the lifespan represents a critical period in the development of an individual's identity. For many college students entering intimate relationships, this is the first time that they are able to make independent decisions about their sexual health and relationships. Making these independent decisions requires them to draw upon values, beliefs and practices utilized within familial contexts to make independent decisions about and within relationships for the first time in their lives. Given the significance of intimate relationships during college, much of the research has focused on various forms of intimate partner violence (IPV) and its relevance to familial socialization processes and gender role beliefs in college students (Black, Sussman, & Unger, 2010; Fitzpatrick, et al., 2004; Hines & Saudino, 2002; Nabors & Jasinski, 2009; Skuja & Halford, 2004). These findings highlight the importance of understanding familial socialization and identity development and their relationship to college women's conflict negotiation in intimate relationships (Black et al., 2010; Fitzpatrick, et al., 2004).

Interestingly, research over the past decade has become more focused in its investigation of IPV due to the recognition that a) there are variations in the types of violence that occurs; and b) the rates of occurrence differ across populations and contexts (e.g., college versus community). When considering variations in types of violence, one area gaining increased attention is psychological aggression, particularly within college populations. Psychological aggression includes behaviors, threats, or coercive tactics which cause trauma to the recipient (CDC, 2014). Examples of psychological aggression include controlling what the victim can and cannot do, embarrassing the victim, isolating

the victim from friends and family, and denying the victim access to financial resources (CDC, 2014).

Research has shown that it is important to distinguish between psychological aggression and other forms of IPV, as each type of violence is used differently across contexts and populations. For example, although it is estimated that 39% of college students experience some form of physical violence, an estimated 88% have experienced some form of verbal aggression in their dating relationships (Alleyne-Green, Coleman-Cowger, & Henry, 2012; Katz, Washington, Kuffel, & Brown, 2006; Muñoz-Rivas, Graña, O'Leary, & González, 2009; Nabors & Jasinski, 2009; Prospero & Vohra-Gupta, 2007; Schnurr, Mahatmya, & Basche, 2013; White & Koss, 1991). This is concerning given that psychological aggression can have serious psychological and physical consequences to victims, including physical symptomology such as chronic pain (Coker et al., 2000) and psychological symptomology such as depression and anxiety (Hegarty et al., 2004; Pico-Alfonso et al., 2006). Further, psychological aggression is one of the key contributors to the use of physical intimate partner violence tactics in young adult and adult relationships (CDC, 2014). Thus, psychological aggression victimization also increases a woman's risk for experiencing physical aggression within intimate relationships, which can result in bruises, broken bones, or even death (CDC, 2014).

There is a clear need to examine college women's psychological aggression perpetration and victimization given that their rates of usage have been found to be very similar to men's experiences. Indeed, research over the past two decades has consistently shown that women tend to be more likely than men to use this tactic in conflict with significant others, increasing the likelihood of male victimization (Harned, 2001; Hines

& Saudino, 2003; Lohman, Neppl, Senia, & Schofield, 2013; Schnurr et al., 2013; Stockdale, Tackett, & Coyne, 2013). Recent studies have consistently shown that women use psychological aggression more than any other aggressive tactic in their intimate relationships (Dowd, Leisring & Rosenbaum, 2005; Harned, 2001; Straus & Sweet, 1992), with as many as 86% of heterosexual college women have reported perpetrating psychological aggression in their intimate relationships on at least one occasion (Hines & Saudino, 2003).

While alarming, these rates of psychological aggression perpetration by women must be contextualized with the understanding that responses to violence are engendered (Brownridge, 2002; Fitzpatrick et al., 2004). Specifically, the reciprocal nature of IPV has been identified as influencing the degree to which and reasons why women use psychological aggression (Atkin, Smith, Roberto, Fediuk, & Wagner, 2002; Capaldi, Kim, & Shortt, 2007; Infante, Sabourin, Rudd, & Shannon, 1990; Murphy & Blumenthal, 2000). Researchers note that women often use psychological aggression when responding to their partners' use of IPV. Psychological aggression is particularly common among women because it is one of the few forms of IPV which does not require great physical strength to perpetrate. Thus, because women may be physically weaker than their male counterparts, it stands to reason that they would seek out conflict tactics which they can easily carry out (e.g., belittling them, swearing, slamming doors, breaking things; see Bjorkqvist, 1994). Added to this is the fact that psychological aggression is a less "obvious" form of IPV in that it is not something you can actually see/ leaves no physical markings, and is difficult to measure quantitatively. This has contributed to its ability to outpace the usage of physical aggression as a conflict tactic among college women

(Bjorkqvist, 1994). Further, it adds to the normalization of these behaviors within college women's intimate relationships (Katz, Moore, & Tkachuk, 2007).

*Parental Influence.* These unique engendered factors reinforce the importance of examining those factors influencing perceptions and experiences with IPV specifically among college women. Prior research in this area has largely focused on the influence of parental socialization and modeling processes on victimization and perpetration. This is because as the most proximal influence on their children, parents' behaviors serve as guidelines and examples that prepare them for intimate relationships (O'Sullivan, Meyer-Bahlburg, & Watkins, 2001; Raffaelli, & Ontai, 2001; Stephens, Fernandez, & Richman, 2012). Specifically, the Social Learning Theory-based IPV research suggests that children learn appropriate relationship behaviors directly by observing the ways their parents interact (Bandura, 1973; Halford, Sanders, & Behrens, 2000; Hines & Saudino, 2002; Kalmuss, 1984; Palazzolo, Roberto, & Babin, 2010; Skuja & Halford, 2004). Understanding parental modeling of psychologically aggressive behaviors may provide insight into children's subsequent use and acceptance of these behaviors in their own intimate relationships in adulthood.

When considering Hispanic women of college age, prior research supports the assertion that parental values and behaviors have a significant influence on their daughters' intimate relationship conflict tactics (Brownridge, 2002; Eaton & Matamala, 2014; Fitzpatrick, et al., 2004). This is in part due to the importance given to *familismo*, a cultural framework of family importance and "connectiveness," that has been identified as a core value in Hispanic families. The influence of familial, and particularly parental, values has been widely studied in the literature examining Hispanic daughters' intimate

relationship experiences. For example, prior research has shown that Hispanic parents communicate beliefs about love, acceptance, trust, and intimacy via indirect and direct messaging (Hovell et al., 1994; Raffaelli & Ontai, 2001; Raffaelli & Suárez-al-Adam, 1998; Villaruel, 1998). Parental beliefs about these intimacy expectations have implications for understanding Hispanic college women's conflict negotiation tactics with their intimate partners.

Many of these intimate relationship messages from parents to daughters are engendered, and provide insights into culturally specific beliefs about male and female appropriate behaviors. These gender role specific values are important to examine as researchers have found that they can function as a risk factor for aggression in intimate relationships and may lead males to perpetrate both physical and psychological aggression in their intimate relationships, and may lead females to report higher levels of victimization (Brownridge, 2002; Eaton & Matamala, 2014; Fitzpatrick et al., 2004; Stith & Farley, 1993). These findings are particularly relevant when considering Hispanic populations as gender frameworks in this culture have traditionally been characterized via concepts of machismo and marianismo. Machismo is characterized by males' assertion of their dominance, superiority, and strength in relationships (Marrs Fuchsel, Murphy, & Dufresne, 2012). In contrast, marianismo dictates that women are to be submissive to men in their relationships (Brabeck & Guzman, 2009; Marrs Fuchsel et al., 2012). By definition, these gender role beliefs allow men to behave in aggressive ways toward their female partners in order to assert and maintain their elevated status (Marrs Fuchsel et al., 2012; Wessel & Campbell, 1997).

Building upon prior research which suggests that parental and gender role influences may play key roles in the development of relationship aggression, this dissertation identified the ways in which culturally specific gender identity development variables influence Hispanic college women's experiences with psychological aggression in intimate relationships. Specifically, this dissertation first investigated parents' use of psychological aggression toward their daughter, and participants' beliefs about Hispanic cultural gendered role beliefs. How these are associated with Hispanic college women's psychological aggression victimization within their own intimate relationships was identified. This dissertation also examined these relationships and their association to Hispanic college women's perpetration of psychological aggression within their own intimate relationships.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Studies examining college-aged Hispanic women have noted that the rates of IPV victimization are high (Edelson, Hokoda & Ramos-Lira, 2007; Muñoz-Rivas et al., 2009; Nabors & Jasinski, 2009; Schnurr et al., 2013). However, few studies have exclusively focused on Hispanic women in college settings. And those studies that focus on college women rarely have large numbers of Hispanic participants (Black et al., 2010; Coker et al., 2002). Further, much of the literature to date examining aggression in intimate relationships within the college student population focuses on physical forms of violence. Moreover, little research has examined the influence of parenting on Hispanic college students' use of aggression in intimate relationships. To address this void, the present review of the literature will bring together the current research identifying potential precursors and correlates of IPV unique to Hispanic college women. This includes aggression in the family of origin, attitudes supporting the use of aggressive tactics during conflict, and traditional gender role beliefs.

### **Psychological Aggression**

As many as 82% of college women have reported experiencing victimization of psychological aggression in their intimate relationships (Alleyne-Green et al., 2012; Prospero & Vohra-Gupta, 2007), and as many as 50% of racial/ethnic minority women have reportedly perpetrated psychological aggression toward their significant others (Alleyne-Green et al., 2012). Defined as any behavior, threat, or coercive tactic intended to cause psychological/emotional trauma to the victim (CDC, 2014), rates of usage tend to peak in late adolescence and early adulthood, making IPV during this life stage particularly important to investigate further (Capaldi, Knoble, Shortt, & Kim, 2012).

Unfortunately, there are few research studies examining psychological aggression which focus on specific sub groups of racial/ethnic minority women. One reason for this is that research investigating aggression in racial/ethnic minority women's intimate relationships has focused on physical forms of aggression (Lehrer, Lehrer, & Zhao, 2010). This is problematic as it fails to acknowledge the differing forms of violence that exist, particularly those that have been found to be antecedents to physical violence.

Second, as psychological aggression is less obvious than physical aggression, it is often overlooked and discounted in intimate relationships (Katz et al., 2007; Jezl, Molidor, Wright, 1996; Muñoz-Rivas, Graña Gómez, O'Leary, & González Lozano, 2007). This is not only true within the field but also within couples themselves, as Caetano, Field, Ramisetty-Mikler, and Lipsky (2009) found that over half of the couples they interviewed disagreed about what constituted psychological aggression. Although psychological aggression is often viewed as a less injurious form of aggression than physical tactics (see Williams, Richardson, Hammock, & Janit, 2012), victims of psychological aggression have reported that it is actually more harmful than physical aggression, in part because its effects tend to be much longer lasting.

**Consequences of psychological aggression.** Although psychologically aggressive behaviors may go unnoticed or even be normalized, victims of psychological aggression may develop several physical and psychological symptoms. These may include less severe consequences such as embarrassment, anger, or irritation (Infante, Trebing, Shepherd & Seeds, 1984). However, victims may suffer from many more detrimental symptoms, such as serious damage to their self concept, irritable bowel syndrome, migraine headaches, and chronic pain, post-traumatic stress disorder, anxiety,

depression, and suicidal ideation (Coker et al., 2000; Hegarty et al., 2004; Infante, et al., 1984; Pico-Alfonso et al., 2006). Suffering from these harmful consequences may, in turn, increase the likelihood that victims of psychological aggression will participate in heavy drug and alcohol use (Coker et al., 2002) and attempt suicide (Pico-Alfonso et al., 2006). Although no studies specifically consider the implications of psychological aggression among Hispanic populations, research on the consequences of other types of IPV have shown that Hispanic victims had significantly greater trauma-related symptoms, depression, lower social and personal self-esteem, and were less likely to make global attributions of positive events when compared to white women of the same age group (see Edelson et al., 2007).

Also important to consider are the long-term patterns of aggression in intimate relationships as research has found that psychological aggression in the family of origin may be predictive of psychological aggression in intimate relationships in adulthood (Black et al., 2010; Murphy & Blumenthal, 2000). Other studies have shown that engagement in psychological aggression is also linked to the use of physical abuse in adult intimate relationships, suggesting that psychological aggression may be predictive of concurrent or future physical abuse (Hamby & Sugarman, 1999; O'Leary, 1999; Salis, Salwen, & O'Leary, 2014; Schumacher & Leonard, 2005). This supports researchers' assertions that psychological aggression is the first in a long continuum of aggressive behaviors that continue across the lifespan, which includes physical aggression, severe physical aggression, and possible partner/spousal homicide (Murphy & Blumenthal, 2000; Schumacher & Leonard, 2005; Winstok, 2006).

## **Theories of Intimate Partner Violence**

Given the lack of research examining processes influencing violence perpetration and victimization in Hispanic college women, this study uses two theoretical paradigms to identify underpinnings of this phenomenon. Violence researchers have primarily utilized Social Learning Theory (SLT; Bandura, 1973) when examining various forms of violence within families and intimate relationships across all stage of the lifespan. Social Learning Theory has been widely used because of its focus on attitude development and learning processes that inform violence outcomes in various dyads (Kalmuss, 1984; Skuja & Halford, 2004; Snethen & Van Puymbroeck, 2008). Building upon this foundational theory, Social Constructionism (SC; Blume, 1996; Gergen, 1985) has also been utilized as a framework for the examination of multilevel factors influencing psychological aggression experiences within this unique and understudied population. Together, these paradigms will contribute to our understandings of the unique ethnic and cultural values that shape Hispanic college women's interpretations of violence, gender roles, and family processes.

**Social Learning Theory.** The majority of studies investigating the intergenerational transmission of aggression have used SLT to investigate this phenomenon. Social Learning Theory provides a broad framework for examining aggression, including its triggers and the methods by which individuals attain and maintain its use (Snethen & Van Puymbroeck, 2008). Social Learning Theory asserts that all individuals are born with the neurophysiological capacity to behave aggressively, but whether they exercise this ability depends on environmental stimulation and level of cortical control (Bandura, 1973).

Early research on social learning focused mainly on children's use of physical aggression. This research found that children learned appropriate behavior by observing the behavior of models, particularly their primary caregivers (e.g., parents). When these children witness or experience aggression, they become more likely to replicate these behaviors in the future (Bandura, 1973). Because of the attachment and respect children feel towards their primary caregivers, researchers suggest that they are especially likely to replicate behaviors modeled by these individuals (Bandura, 1973; Hines & Saudino, 2002; Kalmuss, 1984; Skuja & Halford, 2004).

Following the theoretical assertion that primary caregivers are especially important in children's learning of appropriate behavior through modeling, researchers have utilized SLT to examine the impact of familial violence and aggression on children's understanding and acceptance of appropriate relationship behaviors (Bandura, 1973; Halford et al., 2000; Hines & Saudino, 2002; Kalmuss, 1984; Skuja & Halford, 2004; Wekerle & Wolfe, 1999). These studies have reported findings consistent with SLT. Namely, when one or both parents behave aggressively, this models for children an appropriate response to conflict, consequently increasing their likelihood of using aggression in the future (Bandura, 1973; Halford et al., 2000; Hines & Saudino, 2002; Kalmuss, 1984; Skuja & Halford, 2004).

Parent gender appears to be important to whether the modeling of aggressive behavior will result in children's use of subsequent aggressive behavior. Specifically, SLT research suggests that the relationship between parental use of aggression and children's use of aggression in their intimate relationships may be stronger when aggressive behavior is modeled by a same-sex parent (Palazzolo et al., 2010). By

observing the behavior of their same-sex parent, children learn what constitutes appropriate behaviors for members of their gender, thus constructing gender schemas. Upon observing their same-sex parent's behavior over time, they mentally organize this information in terms of their current gender schemas and/or adapt these schemas as necessary. For instance, Palazzo et al. (2010) found that the modeling of various forms of aggression by fathers had a significantly stronger impact on sons than it did on daughters' subsequent behavior. Likewise, when mothers modeled these same forms of aggression, results showed a significantly stronger impact on daughters' subsequent use of these same aggressive tactics than on sons' use of these tactics.

Social Learning Theory research shows that parental modeling of appropriate behaviors for their children in two distinct ways (Kalmuss, 1984). When parents communicate to children, whether verbally or behaviorally, that aggression is an acceptable way to resolve conflict in the family of origin, they are using what Kalmuss (1984) called generalized modeling. Children then are likely to begin to replicate the specific types of aggressive behaviors that have been modeled in their families, a process which Kalmuss (1984) refers to as specific modeling. While these findings help us to understand the way that children comprehend and are influenced by interparental conflict, there are few studies examining this phenomenon in the normative adult populations broadly, and college populations specifically. Further, this paradigm fails to acknowledge the role of culture in the shaping of understandings of violence and the contexts in which they occur or operate.

**Social Constructionism.** To understand the ways in which the process of labeling and giving values to IPV within families occurs, it is useful to examine Social

Constructionism (SC). This paradigm requires that researchers interpret “the process by which people come to describe, explain, or otherwise account for the world in which they live” (Gergen, 1985, p. 3-4). Definitions of behavior are dependent upon who gets to define them, and for what reasons they define it in a particular way. Feminist researchers assert that central to this understanding are the power dynamics surrounding the individuals involved (Blume, 1996; Richardson & May, 1999). Constructionist theories of violence focus on shared meanings that either justify violent acts or redefine these behaviors so they are acceptable (Blume, 1996). The discourse around violence is formed within a specific context (e.g., the family, society, or culture), thus meanings about violence are defined and redefined by the contexts in which they occur (Blume, 1996). For example, some research has shown that Hispanic women who utilize religious support systems, are not American citizens, or have greater social isolation due to lack of English speaking skills are more likely to accept some level of blame for their domestic violence victimization (Bloom et al., 2009; Klevens, 2007).

Social Constructionism has been an important tool for feminist researchers studying sexual violence and assault. For example, this approach has been used in research seeking to challenge widely accepted definitions of violence to include events that were previously considered acceptable (Kelly & Radford, 1998; Muehlenhard & Kimes, 1999). This is evident by the fact that today we have terms to define violence occurring in relationships (e.g., wife rape, wife beating, dating violence). Prior to the 1970’s researchers and broader society conceptualized violence as something that occurred between strangers while familial or intimate conflicts were private matters. English common law defined rape as a property crime against men, with women- be it a

wife or daughter- being men's property (Brownmiller, 1975). Further, as the socially constructed framework of appropriate femininity was/is to be a sexual gatekeeper, women were required to be responsible for men's moral behaviors and sexual decision making at all times— regardless of whether their actions are consensual or non-consensual. For example, in a study investigating rapists' motivations, Abrahamsen (1960) interviewed their wives to see how they had contributed to their husbands' decision to rape women. Through the use of SC, the rearticulating of the roles that men and women play in these violence processes has led to a reconceptualization of violence. This has, in turn, contributed to shifts in social attitudes, legal responses, and cultural beliefs associated with these behaviors. Along with this, the social category of violence has been expanded to better include the multiple layers that influence its processes (Blume, 1996).

These examples highlight the relevance of gender roles in the social construction of violence. Typically, gender plays a significant role in terms of expectations of 'behavioral responsibility' when examining violence victimization and perpetration (Richardson & May, 1999). On a broader scale, typically women are seen as victims and men as perpetrators of violence. While we cannot ignore the reality of this phenomenon, research has clearly noted that men are more likely to engage in violent behavior than women. However, those that find themselves in positions that juxtapose traditional beliefs about IPV and gender often face negative social consequences. For example, researchers and support services staff (e.g., police, medical services) traditionally viewed college male IPV victimization as non-existent (Stephens & Eaton, 2014). Further, males were unwilling to report being victims for fear of negative reactions tied to beliefs about

appropriate gender responses (e.g., disbelief, or homophobic innuendos; Stephens & Eaton, 2014; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1994, 1996). This reflects the influence of socially constructed gender beliefs individuals hold, and the ways in which they can affect their experiences with IPV. For example, Moreno (2007) found that HIV-positive Hispanic women reconceptualized their IPV experiences as a form of situational abuse that is exacerbated by their HIV status (e.g., threats of deportation).

Clearly, SC can provide a useful perspective for exploring the relevance of unique culturally specific gender role beliefs to IPV in Hispanic college women. Through this framework, how behavior gets defined as violent, under what circumstances, who decides this, and what are deemed appropriate responses can be approached through an examination of engendered cultural values. For Hispanic college women, the combined influence of parental modeling and unique culturally informed gender expectations are important when considering the constructions of meanings and beliefs about violence in this population. As discussed later in this chapter, this paradigm allows for the inclusion of Hispanic cultural values surrounding male gender roles and female gender roles in the study of psychological aggression, in turn acknowledging the existence of differing constructions of violence that may be occurring through engendered processes.

### **Parental Influence**

Building upon the integration of SLT and SC paradigms, it is important to examine the ways in which parents are the proximal influence in their children's lives. Parent-child interactions play a vital role in modeling appropriate relationship behaviors and interactions for daughters. Parental interactions influence daughters' ideas about themselves as a member of a relationship dyad (O'Sullivan et al., 2001; Raffaelli, &

Ontai, 2001; Stephens et al., 2012). This becomes even more salient when examining populations where parental values are viewed as valuable and central to intimate relationship formation, as noted in Hispanic populations (Alleyn-Green et al., 2012; Castillo, Perez, Castillo, & Ghosheh, 2010).

The current literature examining parental influence on Hispanic daughters' dating behaviors focuses mainly on partner selection (e.g., Buunk & Solano, 2010), sexuality expectations (e.g., O'Sullivan et al., 2001; Raffaelli, & Ontai, 2001), and physical aggression (e.g., Lehrer et al., 2010), ignoring the effects of psychological aggression in the parent-child relationship. This is concerning given prior research has clearly shown that direct and indirect parental communications influence intimate relationship behavioral outcomes in Hispanic adolescent and young adult daughters (Dennis, Basañez, & Farahmand, 2010; Fuligni, Tseng, & Lam, 1999; Galanti, 2003; Lorenz-Blanco, Unger, Baezconde-Garbanati, Ritt-Olson, Soto, 2012; Unger, Ritt-Olson, Soto, & Baezconde-Garbanati, 2009; Stephens et al., 2012; Stephens & Thomas, 2014). Thus, it is important to investigate parental use of psychological aggression in order to assess the ways that this may inform daughters' use and acceptance of psychological aggression in their own intimate relationships.

When parents both directly and indirectly communicate their acceptance, affection, and positive regard through their interactions with each other as well as their interactions with their children, daughters' tend to be involved in more healthy intimate relationships (Andrews, Foster, Capaldi, & Hops, 2000; Crockett & Randall, 2006). This further reinforces parental conflict resolution techniques and their daughters' views of appropriate relationship conflict tactics. For example, aversive communication in the

interparental and parent-child relationships has been found to predict aversive communication, less overall satisfaction, and more physical aggression in children's subsequent intimate relationships. However, some studies have suggested that gender may play a moderating role in this relationship. Specifically, Palazzolo et al. (2010) found that mothers' use of psychological aggression is predictive of daughters' use of psychological aggression in intimate relationships, while fathers' use of psychological aggression is predictive of sons' use of psychological aggression in intimate relationships. Alternatively, other studies have suggested that parental use of aggression in the family of origin may only predict daughters' use of dating violence tactics (Luthra & Gidycz, 2006).

Hispanic-American parents may be especially at risk for experiencing conflict with their young adult children because of the unique issues they face, such as differences in expectations related to intimate relationship values and behaviors (Dennis et al., 2010; Stephens et al., 2012). Thus it is important to note that expectations regarding abusive behavior or behaviors that deviate from "norms" can vary drastically in form and rate depending on the cultural lenses they are being viewed through (Korbin, 1991). Thus, some researchers point to the importance of acknowledging across and within group differences in beliefs about IPV for men and women. In the Hispanic communities, for example, intimate relationship gender role expectations can differ between men and women depending on various cultural factors such as nationality, acculturation, and geographic region (see Castillo et al., 2010). For example, Stephens and Eaton (2014) found that while Hispanic college men viewed IPV as unacceptable, they perceived female initiated IPV as less harmful when compared to male initiated IPV. Further, less

acculturated Hispanic males were more likely to hold more traditional views about male IPV perpetration as compared to those who were more acculturated and had attained higher levels of education (Stephens & Eaton, 2014).

### **Cultural Influences**

Examining the ways that parental use of aggression may influence young adult children is particularly important in the Hispanic population, as the family, or *familismo*, is an important socialization institution among this population (Sabogal et al., 1987). Familismo refers to the importance of “connectiveness” in the family and views every individual within the unit as having attachments, reciprocity, and loyalty to family members beyond the boundaries of the nuclear family (Andres-Hyman, Ortiz, Anez, Paris, & Davidson, 2006).

Familismo has been found to help protect women from IPV victimization since family members- particularly parents- are given privilege and access to intimate relationships and are heavily involved in most social relationships of all family members (see Gonzalez-Guarda, Cummings, Bacerra, Fernandez, & Mesa, 2013; Howard, Beck, Kerr, & Shattuck, 2005). However, familismo frameworks also may make it more difficult for victims to leave abusive partners since many family members have a vested interest in the continuation of the nuclear family (Edelson et al., 2007). The messages that Hispanic parents model for their daughters about appropriate behavior in intimate relationships are especially likely to shape their beliefs about IPV (Hovell et al., 1994; Raffaelli & Ontai, 2001; Raffaelli & Suárez-al-Adam, 1998; Villaruel, 1998). Thus, it is important to investigate the cultural messaging processes about gender roles and IPV being transmitted within Hispanic familial units.

## **Gender Role Beliefs**

Much of the research linking gender role beliefs to relationship aggression has focused on physical abuse (Firestone, Harris, & Vega, 2003; Harris, Firestone, & Vega, 2005; Nabors & Jasinski, 2009), with most research findings indicating that gender roles play an important role in the development of IPV. Harris et al. (2005), for example found that traditional gender role beliefs were related to higher levels of abuse in intimate relationships as well as an increased likelihood that this abuse would go unreported.

**Traditional Hispanic Women's Gender Roles.** Gender roles are important to consider in the context of IPV as they are often linked to attitudes and beliefs about the acceptability of violence and aggression. When specifically looking at culturally informed gender roles within Hispanic communities, women are often expected to behave in ways consistent with the femininity framework of *marianismo* (Castillo et al., 2010; Galanti, 2003). Marianismo is a socially constructed traditional gender role that outlines the behavioral expectations for Hispanic women. Structured around a patriarchal framework, it encourages women to be passive, submissive, humble, non-sexual, and sacrifice for the good of her family (Castillo et al., 2010). The term itself comes from Catholicism's Virgin Mary, an iconic figure that represents moral integrity, spiritual strength, and self-sacrifice for the benefit of her family (Comas- Diaz, 1995; Galanti, 2003). Tied to this spiritual superiority over men is the belief of her capability to endure suffering and conflict, particularly when inflicted by men (Comas- Diaz, 1995).

These traits inform marianismo beliefs about appropriate familial roles for women; being the perfect wife, mother, and daughter centers on the subordination of

women in the presence of a heterosexual male authority. The importance of marianismo beliefs can be transmitted to daughters at an early age through direct and indirect modeling. For example, studies on parental socialization processes in traditional Hispanic families have shown young girls are taught to make homemaking and childbearing their key priorities in life (Galanti, 2003). As women age, the importance and roles associated with marianismo also change. While women are thought of as being strong and capable, they are expected not to exert their power outside of the family. More specifically, their limited power should only be exerted within the home for the purpose of caring for the family (Galanti, 2003). This socially constructed concept guides women to be fully dependent on their husbands and as well fulfilling their maternal family responsibilities, making them more vulnerable to patriarchal values and therefore more likely to become oppressed. Denham et al. (2007) found that Hispanic women who experienced IPV were more likely to lack social support and to have children in the home when compared to White populations.

When specifically considering intimate partnerships and IPV, marianismo encourages women to be sexually passive and submissive, accepting male partners' decisions on all sexual matters (Cianelli et al., 2008). These marianismo beliefs directly affect women's ability to negotiate and make decisions during sexual encounters (Davila, Bonilla, Gonzalez-Ramirez, & Villarruel, 2007; Moreno, 2007). Clearly, this places women in vulnerable positions not only for IPV, but also other negative sexual health outcomes. The influence of marianismo can be so important that it overrides educational and prevention efforts. Villegas et al.'s (2014) study with Chilean women found that traditional marianismo gender role beliefs influenced women's acceptance of

violence in relationships as a social norm, despite improvements in their IPV prevention education and sense of empowerment. Further, research has shown that even when women in very traditional contexts challenge marianismo beliefs, they can face physical and verbal abuse (Galanti, 2003).

**Traditional Hispanic Male Gender Roles.** Research on masculinity in Hispanic cultures has traditionally focused on the concept of *machismo*. This socially constructed framework of masculine gender roles is characterized by authoritarian behavior in the family, including aggressiveness, promiscuity, and virility (Arciniega, Anderson, Tovar-Blank, & Tracey, 2008; Salyers Bull, 1998). Although the term is widely used to describe hypermasculinity among other racial/ethnic men of color, machismo as a Hispanic cultural concept is grounded within Christianity-oriented beliefs about patriarchy and appropriate male rights and roles (Brusco, 1995).

The concept of machismo is particularly powerful in sexual contexts, as it has the added expectation that Hispanic men will “prove” their masculinity through their sexuality and sexual performance in various contexts (Ford, Vieira & Villela, 2003; Galanti, 2003; Glass & Owen, 2010; Sobralske, 2006b; Torres, Solberg, & Carlstrom, 2002). Characterized by physical prowess, aggression, toughness, being in charge, and risk taking (Abreau, Goodyear, Campos, & Newcomb, 2000; Falicov, 2010; Ford et al., 2003; Glass & Owen, 2010; Sobralske, 2006a), intimate relationship behaviors associated with machismo include having multiple partners, infidelity, controlling one’s partners by any means necessary, and sexual risk taking (see Stephens & Eaton, 2014). Thus, it is important to recognize the implications for placing a high value on machismo as it can foster situations where men utilize hostility and aggression, and place an emphasis on

obedience, dominance and control with their partners (National Hispanic Healthy Marriage Initiative, 2011).

When specifically looking at IPV, there is a growing body of research specifically examining the intersection between machismo and IPV in North American contexts (e.g., Gonzalez-Guarda, Vasquez, Urrutia, Villarruel, & Peragallo, 2011; Moreno, 2007; Torres, 1998). Much of this work has focused on the disparity between traditional Hispanic and supposedly “more egalitarian” American gender roles (e.g., Brabeck, & Guzman, 2009; Coleman- Mason, 2010; Fragoso & Kashubeck, 2000). This dynamic has been identified as a contributing factor for IPV, as Dutton, Orloff and Aguilar Hass, (2000) found that nearly half of the Hispanics in their study reported an increase in partner violence since their immigration to the United States. It has been suggested that IPV occurs at a much higher rate among Hispanic men oriented toward machismo because they may use violence as a means of establishing power and authority when dealing with a partner holding less traditional gender role views (Davila et al., 2007).

Recently scholars have been moving from just a one dimensional framework of masculinity within Hispanic cultures to examine the influence of both machismo and *caballerismo* gender role expectations (Arciniega et al., 2008). Behaviors consistent with *caballerismo* include being chivalrous, proper, and respectful (Arciniega et al., 2008). It also encompasses traits traditionally associated with *marianismo*, including nurturance, family centeredness, social responsibility, and emotional connectedness. This positive framework of Hispanic masculinity is important as it has been found to serve as a protective factor against the role of machismo on men’s self-esteem, coping strategies,

and positive reframing of negative life incidents (Ojeda & Liang, 2014; Ojeda & Piña-Watson, 2014)

Unfortunately, *caballerismo* is a concept largely ignored in research studies examining health and behavioral outcomes among Hispanic men in the United States. Instead research tends to focus on the more negative aspects of *machismo* for defining gender role expectations within this population. It has been suggested that this reflects the limited frameworks through which racial/ethnic minority men are viewed, such that dominance, control, and inequality are central characteristics in traditional research examining their sexuality and intimate relationships (Galanti, 2003; Liang, Salcedo, & Miller, 2011; Stephens & Eaton, 2014). However, Arciniega and colleagues (2008) assert that both constructs are independent from each other and that it is possible for a man to support *caballerismo* yet still manifest *machismo* traits, and vice versa.

Intimate Partner Violence research that has included these two engendered cultural frameworks has found a direct link between *caballerismo* and the use of adaptive styles of conflict resolution in intimate relationships, while *machismo* has been found to predict the use of aggression as a conflict resolution tactic in men's intimate relationships (Arciniega et al., 2008; Pardo, Weisfeld, Hill, & Slatcher, 2012). Research suggests that men who display behaviors consistent with *machismo* are likely to perpetrate violence toward their intimate partners. For example, Straus (2008) found a positive association between male domination in intimate relationships and male-perpetrated violence toward their significant others. Given the assumption of *machismo* beliefs possibly being normalized and informing behaviors in Hispanic families, there is a need to identify the

degree to which psychological aggression is occurring and utilized within Hispanic college students' dating relationships.

### **Attitudes Toward and Support of IPV**

Taken together, cultural influences and familial processes have been found to shape individuals' attitudes toward and support of IPV. This is important to consider as current research asserts that holding attitudes and beliefs which support the use of intimate partner violence may have both direct and indirect influences on experiences of violence in romantic relationships. This link has been reported for both perpetration (Simmons, Lehmann, & Cobb, 2008; Stith, Smith, Penn, Ward, & Tritt, 2004; Tontodonato & Crew, 1992) and victimization (Machado, Caridade, & Martins, 2010; Stith et al., 2004). More specifically, research has found that attitudes supporting relationship aggression predicted perpetration of intimate partner aggression by both males (Dardis, Edwards, Kelley, & Gidycz, 2013; Woodin, Caldeira, & O'Leary, 2013) and females (Dardis et al., 2013; Edwards, Desai, Gidycz, & VanWynsberghe, 2009).

There is also a gender component that must be considered as this relationship is further strengthened in males endorsing both traditional gender-roles and attitudes in support of IPV. Specifically, males who were approving of both traditional gender roles and attitudes supporting IPV were more likely to physically assault partners than were those endorsing either traditional gender-role ideology or attitudes supporting relationship violence alone (Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001). The relationship between attitudes supporting IPV and the perpetration of IPV may be explained by the subconscious operation of these beliefs in the context of intimate partner conflict. More specifically, Reese-Weber (2008) found males to be more accepting of the perpetration of

IPV by both males and females. Further, female initiated violence was considered to be more acceptable than male perpetrated violence by both males and females (Reese-Weber, 2008). This means that attitudes that favor the use of IPV may determine individuals' perceptions and acceptance of relationship conflict according to gender perpetration and victimization (Eckhardt, Samper, Suhr, & Holtzworth-Munroe, 2012; Jouriles, Grych, Rosenfield, McDonald, & Dodson, 2011).

The acquisition of attitudes favoring the use of aggression in intimate relationships appears to be an important mediator in the intergenerational transmission of intimate partner violence. Several studies have found a link between parental use of aggression in the family of origin, beliefs endorsing the acceptability of aggression in relationships, and involvement in dating violence (O'Keefe, 1998; Temple, Shorey, Tortolero, Wolfe, & Stuart, 2013). More specifically, aggression in the family of origin appears to be predictive of the acceptance of aggression, which in turn predicts the use of aggression in intimate relationships (O'Keefe, 1998; Temple et al., 2013). The relationship between attitudes endorsing IPV and experiencing IPV in intimate relationships may be particularly strong when aggression is viewed as instrumental (Archer & Graham-Kevan, 2003), suggesting that these individuals give meaning to violent tactics as being successful methods of achieving their goals.

### **Current Study**

Clearly, attitudes endorsing the acceptability of IPV may vary by gender and cultural beliefs. Unfortunately, no studies have examined this within Hispanic college populations. To address this void in the literature, this two-part study seeks to identify the ways in which Hispanic college women perpetrate and are victimized by psychological

aggression in their intimate relationships. Specifically, the role of interparental psychologically aggressive tactics, and culturally specific gender role beliefs will be explored.

Study 1 of the current research explored the relationship between parental use of psychologically aggressive tactics in families of origin, beliefs consistent with machismo and caballerismo, attitudes endorsing boyfriends' use of psychological aggression, and Hispanic college women's psychological aggression victimization in their intimate relationships. It was expected that higher rates of psychological aggression in families of origin, higher levels of machismo beliefs, and higher levels of endorsement of boyfriends' perpetration of psychological aggression will predict higher rates of psychological aggression victimization in Hispanic college women's intimate relationships. It was further expected that holding beliefs consistent with caballerismo will be associated with less psychological aggression victimization in intimate relationships.

Study 2 investigated the relationship between parental use of psychologically aggressive tactics in families of origin, beliefs consistent with marianismo, attitudes endorsing participants' own use of psychological aggression, and Hispanic college women's perpetration of psychological aggression in their intimate relationships. It is expected that higher rates of psychological aggression in families of origin and higher levels of endorsement of participants own perpetration of psychological aggression will predict higher rates of Hispanic college women's perpetration of psychological aggression in their intimate relationships. It is further expected that Hispanic college

women who hold beliefs consistent with marianismo will report less perpetration of psychological aggression in their intimate relationships.

### **Hypotheses**

- H1: Higher rates of psychological aggression in the family of origin, beliefs consistent with traditional Hispanic male gender roles (i.e., machismo and caballerismo), and attitudes endorsing boyfriends' use of psychological aggression will predict higher rates of victimization of psychological aggression in Hispanic college women's intimate relationships.
- H2: Higher rates of psychological aggression in the family of origin, beliefs consistent with traditional Hispanic female gender roles (i.e., marianismo), and attitudes endorsing the acceptability of participants' own use of psychological aggression toward boyfriends will predict higher rates of perpetration of psychological aggression in Hispanic college women's intimate relationships.

### III. METHODOLOGY

#### **Participants**

A convenience sample of 687 female Hispanic college students participated in this study. Students between the ages of 18 and 24 were recruited through the Department of Psychology Research pool known as Sona Systems. Participants earned Sona Systems credit for their participation in this study which could be exchanged for course credit. Participants' mean age was 20.87 years ( $SD=1.79$ ). All participants reported having been in a committed heterosexual relationship in the year prior to their participation and were of Hispanic origin. Familial nations of origin varied widely with 314 (45.7%) self-identifying as Cuban, 75 (10.9%) self-identifying as Colombian, 50 (7.3%) self-identifying as Puerto Rican, 43 (6.3%) self-identifying as Dominican, 42 (6.1%) self-identifying as Venezuelan, 40 (5.8%) self-identifying as Nicaraguan, and the remaining 123 (17.5%) self-identifying as being from various South American and Caribbean countries (see Table 1). Nearly half of participants were first generation American (45.4%), followed by those who were not born in the United States (32.5%), those who were second generation American (16.2%) and those who were third or more generation American (6%; see Table 2). When responding to questions about their parents' use of psychological aggression, the majority of participants were referring to their biological mothers (99%; see Table 3) and biological fathers (89.8%; see Table 4). When considering living situation, the majority of participants were living at home with both parents (55.6%) or with just their mother (20.4%; see Table 5). Participants most often reported their mothers' highest level of education to be some college (24.5%), followed by a high school diploma/GED (22.6%), Bachelor's Degree (22%), Associate's

Degree (14%), Master's Degree (8.6%), and less than high school (4.9%; see Table 6). When considering fathers' highest level of education, participants most often reported their fathers' highest level of education to be a high school diploma/GED (23.6%), followed by some college (21.8%), Bachelor's Degree (20.4%), Associate's Degree (10.5%), Master's Degree (9.5%), and less than high school (8.4%; see Table 7).

The majority of participants were juniors (37.3%), followed by seniors (29.7%), sophomores (14.3%), freshmen (14.1%), and "senior plus" (4.7%; see Table 8). When considering their dating status and experience, the majority of participants reported they were in a committed relationship with one person at the time of data collection (46.7%; see Table 9), and a greater percentage reported having been in one committed relationship in the previous year (93.4%; see Table 10).

## **Measures**

**Demographic questionnaire.** Participants were asked to report demographic information regarding age, nationality, their intimate relationship status, number of committed relationships they have been involved in during the previous 12 months, relationship to the mother and father they referred to in the survey, highest level of education completed by mother and father figures, living situation at the time of survey completion, and year in school.

**Age.** Participants were asked to report the month and year of their birth in order to calculate their age.

**Nationality.** Participants were asked to select their nationality from a list of 19 options, including "Cuban," "Colombian," "Puerto Rican," "Venezuelan," "Nicaraguan," "Peruvian," "Mexican," "Dominican," "Honduran," "Argentinean," "Ecuadorian,"

“Chilean,” “Panamanian,” “Brazilian,” “Costa Rican,” “Paraguayan,” “Uruguayan,” “Portuguese,” and “Guatemalan.” If their nationality was not listed, they also had the option to select “Other” and report their nationality in an open-ended format so as not to limit participants’ answers.

***Participants’ relationship status.*** Participants were asked to report their relationship status at the time of survey completion in terms of whether they are “Not dating anyone,” “Dating one person,” “Dating two people,” “Dating several people,” “I am in a committed relationship with one person,” “In a committed relationship with two people,” or “Married.”

***Number of committed relationships involved in.*** Participants were asked to report the number of self- defined committed relationships they have been involved in over the previous 12 months. They were asked to choose from the following options: “1”, “2”, “3”, or “4 or more.”

***Year in school.*** Participants were presented with a drop-down menu and asked to report their year in school based on the number of credits they have obtained. Options presented were “Freshman (0-29)”, “Sophomore (30-59)”, “Junior (60-89)”, and “Senior (90-120),” “Senior Plus (120+).”

***Current living situation.*** Participants’ current living situation was assessed by asking whether they presently reside with: “Two parents,” “Just my mother,” “Just my father,” “foster parent(s),” “Aunt or Uncle,” “Grandparents,” “Significant Other,” “Roommate(s),” or “Other.”

***Relationship to mother figure.*** Participants were asked whether the mother figure they are referring to in this study is their” biological mother,” “adoptive mother,”

“stepmother,” “father’s girlfriend,” “grandmother,” “aunt,” “godmother,” “other,” or “not applicable.”

***Relationship to father figure.*** Participants were asked whether the father figure they are referring to in this study is their “biological father,” “adoptive father,” “stepfather,” “mother’s boyfriend,” “grandfather,” “uncle,” “godfather,” “other,” or “not applicable.”

***Highest level of education completed by mother and father figures.*** Participants were asked to report the highest level of education completed by their mother and father figures. They were presented with the following options: “Less than high school,” “High school/GED,” “Some college,” “2-year college degree (Associate degree),” “4-year college degree (BA,BS),” “Master’s Degree,” “Doctoral Degree,” or “Professional Degree (MD, JD).”

***Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS2).*** The Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS2; Straus, Hamby, Bone-McCoy, & Sugarman, 1996) measures styles of conflict resolution between family members as well as between intimate partners. As we were only interested in parent-participant and participant-boyfriend psychological aggression responses, the current study utilized the psychological aggression items from the Conflict with Parents and Conflict With Intimate Partner forms. The psychological aggression portion of the CTS2 asks respondents questions such as how many times each person involved in the conflict “Shouted or yelled at (the other person),” “Insulted or swore (at the other person),” and “Threatened to hit or throw something (at the other person).” The CTS2 has been shown to have good validity in the factor structure of all aggression subscales (Straus et al., 1996). Straus et al. (1996) reported good internal consistency of

the psychological aggression subscale, with an alpha of .79. Furthermore, evidence exists to support the construct validity of the CTS2, as the physical and psychological aggression subscales have been shown to be highly correlated, as theoretically expected. Individual forms have not been evaluated for reliability or validity.

The Conflict with Parents form assesses how adolescents/young adults and parents handle conflict with each other. Participants were asked to report the number of times they and their parents had participated in certain actions in response to conflict with each other over the previous year on a scale of 0 (This did not happen during the past year) to 6 (More than 20 times in the past year).

The Conflict with Intimate Partner form includes questions about how participants and their significant others handle conflict with each other. Participants were asked to report the number of times they or their significant others have used certain actions in response to conflict with each other over the previous year on a scale of 0 (This did not happen during the past year) to 6 (More than 20 times in the past year).

***Machismo Scale.*** The Machismo Scale (Arciniega et al., 2008) is composed of two subscales, which include a total of 20 items. The Traditional Machismo subscale asks participants how much they agree with statements such as “Men are superior to women” and “A man should be in control of his wife” on a scale of 1(very strongly disagree) to 7 (very strongly agree). The Caballerismo subscale asked participants to rate how much they agreed with statements such as “Men should be affectionate with their children” and “The family is more important than the individual” using this same Likert scale. Both subscales were found to have good internal consistency. The Traditional Machismo subscale has an  $\alpha$  of .85, and the Caballerismo scale has an  $\alpha$  of .80. The Traditional

Machismo ( $r = .83$ ) and Caballerismo ( $r = .79$ ) subscales also correlated highly with expert ratings.

***Marianismo Beliefs Scale.*** The Marianismo Beliefs Scale (Castillo et al., 2010) is a 24-item measure which was used to assess the extent to which participants agreed with the traditional ideals of marianismo. This scale is comprised of five subscales, including Family Pillar, Virtuous and Chaste, Subordinate to Others, Silencing Self to Maintain Harmony, and Spiritual Pillar. Alpha coefficients of .77, .79, .76, .78, and .85 were found for each of these subscales, respectively.

***Intimate Partner Violence Attitudes Scale (IPVAS).*** The IPVAS (Smith, Thompson, Tomaka, & Buchanan, 2005) is a 23-item measure used to assess attitudes toward various forms of intimate partner violence. This scale is comprised of three subscales: Abuse, Control, and Physical Violence. Only the Abuse subscale was used in these studies. This subscale was used to assess the extent to which participants agreed with statements such as “Threatening a partner is okay as long as I don’t hurt him”, “I don’t mind my partner doing something just to make me jealous”, and “It is okay for me to blame my partner when I do bad things” on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). The internal consistency coefficient for this subscale was found to be .81, and test-retest reliability coefficient (over 14 weeks) was .53 (Fincham, Cui, Braithwaite, & Pasley, 2008). This subscale was further divided into two subscales. The first assessed participants’ endorsement of their own perpetration of psychological forms of violence toward their boyfriends, and the second assessed participants’ endorsement of boyfriends’ perpetration of this same form of violence toward them.

## **Procedure**

Prior to beginning the survey, students were directed to a Qualtrics survey where they were shown a screen containing a Consent Form and asked to click a link acknowledging their consent to participate in the study. Once consent was obtained, students were allowed to complete the online survey anonymously. Upon completing the survey, students were directed back to the Sona Systems website where they were shown a screen containing a confirmation that they had received credit for their participation in the study.

The completed demographic survey and conflict questionnaire data were downloaded from a locked research lab computer in the Principal Investigators' office at Florida International University. All data were entered into an SPSS data file on a computer with a login and access code known only to the Principal Investigators and research assistants.

## **Primary Analyses**

Simultaneous regressions were used to assess whether parental use of psychological aggression, beliefs endorsing the use of psychological aggression by both participants and their boyfriends in their intimate relationships, and traditional Hispanic gender role beliefs were predictive of actual victimization and perpetration in intimate relationships. Multiple regression analyses were selected in order to allow for the simultaneous analyses of multiple independent variables on the dependent variable of interest in each study. This allows for a more complete picture of the various factors that may contribute to Hispanic college women's experiences with psychological aggression in their intimate relationships. Further, it allows for the assessment of the strength of the

impact of each of the independent variables on the dependent variable, providing further information regarding the extent to which each of the independent variables in a given model influence the dependent variable of interest.

Prior to running multiple regression analyses, the data was assessed to check for multicollinearity. This was done in order to ensure that variables were sufficiently independent of one another. This is vital as it prevents potential distortions in the beta weights provided by the multiple regression analyses, which are likely to occur in the presence of multicollinearity. Multicollinearity was assessed using three methods. First, Pearson correlations were assessed to ensure that all correlation coefficients were smaller than .08 (see Tables 11 and 12). Tolerance levels were then checked to ensure that all tolerance levels were above .20 (see Tables 13 and 14). Finally, the variance inflation factor (VIF) was assessed to ensure that all scores were below 10 (see Tables 13 and 14). These analyses showed that there was no multicollinearity between any of the independent variables in either Study 1 or Study 2.

#### IV. STUDY 1 –Women’s Psychological Aggression Victimization

##### **Results**

Table 15 presents the means and standard deviations for all of the continuous variables included in study 1. The median values for each of the variables (not reported) were close to the mean values. The majority of participants reported holding beliefs endorsing their boyfriend’s perpetration of psychological aggression toward them (72.9%; see Table 16). When considering traditional gender role beliefs, participants’ mean score on the Machismo Subscale was 20.21 ( $SD=8.16$ , range: 8-51; see Table 17), and 25.97 on the Caballerismo Subscale ( $SD=18.32$ , range: 0-60; see Table 18).

A total of 74.1% and 45.4% of participants reported experiencing psychological aggression perpetrated by their mothers and fathers, respectively, at least once in the past year (see Tables 19 and 20). The majority (63.2%) reported that their boyfriends had perpetrated psychological aggression toward them at least once in the past year (see Table 21).

Outliers were evaluated prior to analysis by calculating a mean leverage score for each participant based on their multivariate profile for the six variables included in study 1. The mean leverage score across respondents for study 1 was .007. An outlier was defined as anyone having a leverage score four times the value of the mean. A small number of outliers were found and discarded ( $N=11$ ). The model contained no missing data.

Study 1 used a simultaneous multiple regression analysis to test the hypothesis that mothers’ perpetration of psychological aggression toward daughters, fathers’ perpetration of psychological aggression toward daughters, daughters’ beliefs consistent

with machismo, daughters' beliefs consistent with caballerismo, and daughters' beliefs endorsing their boyfriends' perpetration of psychological aggression toward them would each predict the actual victimization of psychological aggression that daughters' experienced in their intimate relationships. Figure 1 visually represents the model used for Study 1. The results of the regression indicated that the 5 predictors explained 7.3% of the variance ( $R^2=.07$ ,  $F(5,681) = 10.78$ ,  $p<.001$ ). Analyses were conducted to test the unique contribution of each predictive variable on the dependent variable. When looking specifically at the parental variables, fathers' perpetration of psychological aggression towards daughters significantly predicted daughters' psychological aggression victimization in their intimate relationships ( $\beta=.20$ ,  $p<.05$ ), as did mothers' perpetration of psychological aggression toward daughters ( $\beta=.08$ ,  $p<.05$ ). When looking specifically at the gender role variables, beliefs consistent with caballerismo was found to negatively predict daughters' psychological aggression victimization in their intimate relationships ( $\beta=-.08$ ,  $p<.05$ ), while beliefs consistent with machismo did not significantly predict daughters' psychological aggression victimization in their intimate relationships ( $\beta=-.07$ ,  $p=.06$ ). Finally, results showed that beliefs endorsing boyfriends' perpetration of psychological aggression toward participants did not significantly predict participants' psychological aggression victimization ( $\beta=.03$ ,  $p=.38$ ).

## **Discussion**

Study 1 investigated the hypothesis that mothers' and fathers' perpetration of psychological aggression toward daughters, daughters' beliefs consistent with machismo and caballerismo, and daughters' beliefs endorsing their boyfriends' perpetration of psychological aggression toward them would predict the actual victimization of

psychological aggression that daughters experience in their intimate relationships. The results of this study provided partial support for this hypothesis.

First, parents' use of psychological aggression toward daughters significantly predicted daughters' victimization of psychological aggression by boyfriends. This finding is consistent with past research and SLT frameworks which assert that parents' behavior toward daughters influences their ideas about themselves as members of a relationship dyad (Palazzolo et al., 2010; Stephens et al., 2012). Specifically, SLT research examining IPV has asserted that parents serve to model appropriate behaviors for their sons and daughters, including conflict tactics and appropriate relationship behaviors. Further, because of the value that Hispanic families tend to place on family connectiveness, Hispanic daughters are more likely to repeat and normalize behaviors modeled by their parents.

It is also particularly noteworthy that fathers' perpetration of psychological aggression toward daughters was the strongest predictor of daughters' victimization of psychological aggression in their intimate relationships. This again supports the SLT assertion that women may "learn" appropriate and acceptable male behavior through interactions with their fathers and the modeling of their fathers' behaviors. Although Hispanic fathers exert less control over their children in shared kinship contexts when compared to White fathers, they tend to be more involved in childrearing (Hofferth, 2003). This involvement, particularly for daughters, increases the level of communication, modeling, and influence they have on perceptions of interpersonal relationship development (Hofferth, 2003). Future research should build upon these results to focus specifically on Hispanic father-daughter relationships given the

importance of familial processes and paternal influence noted in previous research (Hofferth, 2003; Raffaelli & Ontai, 2001; Raffaelli & Suárez-al-Adam, 1998; Villaruel, 1998).

Mothers' perpetration of psychological aggression toward daughters was also significantly predictive of women's psychological aggression victimization in their intimate relationships. As noted in the previous discussion about the influence of fathers' psychological aggression, it is clear that SLT can contribute to our understandings of this result. This finding opens the door to future research examining reciprocal relationship aggression. While this study did not specifically assess female perpetration, this result suggests that it is possible that victimization is impacted indirectly via reciprocal relationship aggression. More specifically, mothers' use of psychological aggression toward daughters may predict daughters' perpetration of psychological aggression, thus making it more likely that they will also be victimized by this same type of aggression. This is consistent with prior research, which suggests that relationship aggression tends to be reciprocal in nature (Atkin et al., 2002; Infante et al., 1990; Rancer & Avtgis, 2006). It appears that when one member of a relationship dyad uses psychological aggression, it may prompt the other member to retaliate using an equally aggressive tactic, creating a potential cycle of psychological aggression within the relationship (Atkin, et al., 2002; Infante, et al., 1990). While this is an important finding, there is still a void in the knowledge about this phenomenon as it specifically relates to Hispanic women's experiences. [This question is addressed in Study 2, which investigates this potential direct relationship between mothers' use of psychological aggression toward daughters' and daughters' perpetration of psychological aggression toward their boyfriends.]

When considering the role of traditional Hispanic gender role beliefs, results showed that caballerismo significantly predicted less victimization of psychological aggression in participants' intimate relationships. This suggests that holding beliefs consistent with caballerismo, which dictates that men should be chivalrous, proper, and respectful (Arciniega et al., 2008), may serve as a protective factor against women's psychological aggression victimization. This highlights the ways in which SC theory notes the importance of context and culture in shaping understandings of IPV (Blume, 1996). Specifically, SC would assert that Hispanic women would give positive meaning to what feminist researchers traditionally label as benevolent sexism actions. Caballerismo shares many characteristics with benevolent sexism, which asserts that women require the protection of men (Falicov, 2010). Both caballerismo and benevolent sexism perpetuate power inequities between men and women, requiring women to behave submissively.

Interestingly, while caballerismo was significantly related to women's psychological aggression victimization in their intimate relationships, machismo was not. In other words, holding beliefs consistent with machismo did not significantly predict women's psychological aggression victimization in their intimate relationships. It is possible that although they believe that men are expected to behave in ways consistent with machismo, such as displaying dominance, superiority, and strength (Marrs Fuchsel et al., 2012), this may not mean they accept these behaviors in their intimate relationships. Clearly, SC theory's assertions regarding culturally and contextually unique influences on the creations of IPV meanings is important to examine here. Specifically, prior research has noted marianismo, machismo and caballerismo gender

role frameworks play an important role in Hispanic emerging adults intimate relationship processes (CDC, 2014; Marrs Fuchsel et al., 2012; Wessel & Campbell, 1997). Through the identification of the meanings and perceptions women hold about machismo and caballerismo research can better address the ways in which these masculinity beliefs impact experiences with psychological aggression, specifically, and IPV, broadly.

Holding beliefs endorsing boyfriends' perpetration of psychological aggression did not significantly predict participants' actual victimization of psychological aggression. This result suggests that women's acceptance of male perpetrated aggression does not put them at risk for victimization in their intimate relationships. This finding may be explained by prior research which shows that psychological aggression often goes unrecognized and may therefore go unreported by victims in intimate relationships. Future research should examine this relationship from the perspective of both partners in an intimate relationship to get a better understanding of the levels and types of psychological aggression that may be occurring in Hispanic college women's intimate relationships.

This finding also reinforces the need for research examining the diverse gender role beliefs within Hispanic communities and their relevance to IPV. Specifically, this study's finding regarding machismo points to the fact that the support of highly traditional masculinity gender roles, including beliefs that endorse male aggression toward women, has little effect on women's victimization of psychological aggression in their intimate relationships. SC theory would be a useful framework for guiding future research examining whether the acceptability of male-perpetrated aggression would increase women's willingness to remain in long-term abusive relationships. Clearly, there

are unique meanings and understandings about male-female gender roles, particularly as it relates to masculinity expectations; SC theory would be useful for guiding the identification of these subtle, culturally specific gender role nuances.

## V. STUDY 2 – Women’s Perpetration of Psychological Aggression

### Results

Table 22 presents the means and standard deviations for all of the continuous variables included in Study 2. The median values for each of the variables (not reported) were close to the mean values. The majority of participants reported holding beliefs endorsing their perpetration of psychological aggression toward their boyfriends (78.5%; see Table 23). Participants’ mean score on the Marianismo Beliefs Scale was 52.40 ( $SD=10.01$ , range: 24-93; see Table 24). Further, the majority (73.7%) of participants reported having perpetrated psychological aggression toward their boyfriends at least once in the past year (see Table 25).

Outliers were evaluated prior to analysis by calculating a mean leverage score for each participant based on their multivariate profile for the five variables included in study 2. The mean leverage score across respondents was .006 for study 2. An outlier was defined as anyone having a leverage score four times the value of the mean. A small number of outliers were found and discarded ( $N=23$ ). The model contained no missing data.

Study 2 used a simultaneous multiple regression analysis to analyze the predictive roles of mothers’ perpetration of psychological aggression toward daughters, fathers’ perpetration of psychological aggression toward daughters, daughters’ beliefs consistent with marianismo, and daughters’ beliefs endorsing their own perpetration of psychological aggression toward boyfriends on daughters’ actual perpetration of psychological aggression in their intimate relationships. Figure 2 visually represents the model used for Study 2. The results of the regression indicated that the 4 predictors

explained 10.8% of the variance ( $R^2=.10$ ,  $F(4,682) = 20.75$ ,  $p<.001$ ). Analyses were conducted to test the unique contribution of each predictive variable on the dependent variable. Fathers' perpetration of psychological aggression toward daughters significantly predicted daughters' perpetration of psychological aggression in their intimate relationships ( $\beta=.12$ ,  $p<.05$ ), as did mothers' perpetration of psychological aggression toward daughters ( $\beta=.19$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and beliefs endorsing their own perpetration of psychological aggression toward their intimate partners ( $\beta=.17$ ,  $p<.05$ ). Further, results showed that beliefs consistent with marianismo negatively predicted participants' perpetration of psychological aggression in their intimate relationships ( $\beta=-.08$ ,  $p<.05$ ).

## **Discussion**

Study 2 investigated the hypothesis that mothers' and fathers' perpetration of psychological aggression toward daughters, daughters' beliefs consistent with marianismo, and daughters' beliefs endorsing their perpetration of psychological aggression toward their boyfriends would predict their actual perpetration of psychological aggression in their intimate relationships. The results of this study supported this hypothesis.

Results showed that mothers' and fathers' use of psychological aggression toward daughters significantly predicted daughters' perpetration of psychological aggression toward their boyfriends. Overall, mothers' use of psychological aggression was the strongest predictor of daughters' perpetration of psychological aggression in their intimate relationships. These results are consistent with SLT, which states that individuals learn appropriate behavior from parents, who serve as models (Bandura, 1973; Halford et al., 2000; Hines & Saudino, 2002; Palazzolo et al., 2010; Skuja &

Halford, 2004). This is particularly true when these behaviors are modeled by same-sex parents. It appears that when mothers use psychological aggression, daughters learn to view it as an appropriate response to conflict through the process of specific modeling (Kalmuss, 1984). This is consistent with past research which shows that mothers' use of psychological aggression predicts daughters' use of psychological aggression in their intimate relationships (Palazzolo et al., 2010).

Results further showed that holding beliefs endorsing their perpetration of psychological aggression also significantly predicted women's actual perpetration of psychological aggression toward their boyfriends. More specifically, women who believe it is acceptable for them to perpetrate psychological aggression in their intimate relationships are significantly more likely to behave in ways consistent with this belief. This is consistent with prior research which shows that women who believe aggression is acceptable in intimate relationships are more likely to perpetrate aggression toward their significant others (Singer, 2003; Temple et al., 2013).

This finding contributes to the research on SC and IPV, which has shown that culturally constructed understandings of violence are always changing across groups and over time (Blume, 1996). Traditionally, women were not viewed as perpetrators of aggression; we know that this has significantly changed over time. Some researchers suggest that women use this form of IPV because it does not require significant physical strength and may therefore be a relatively easy, yet effective, conflict tactic for them to carry out (Bjorkqvist, 1994). Others note that society has shifted such that women are increasingly becoming more violent across all forms of aggression (Eaton & Matamala, 2014; Stephens & Eaton, 2014). Given the significant increase in women's use of these

aggressive tactics, there is a need for more research like this to examine what factors are influencing their increased acceptability of the perpetration of psychological aggression.

The finding that holding beliefs consistent with marianismo negatively predicted participants' perpetration of psychological aggression in their intimate relationships contributes to our understandings of the importance of gender role beliefs in IPV. This finding suggests that holding beliefs consistent with marianismo may protect against women's perpetration of psychological aggression in their intimate relationships. This result may be reflective of the marianismo characteristics that expect women to be submissive in their relationships with men (Brabeck & Guzman, 2009; Marrs Fuchsel et al., 2012). By definition, a woman that is accepting of marianismo would not engage in aggressive tactics as a means of ensuring her partner maintains his reciprocal machismo elevated status (Marrs Fuchsel et al., 2012; Wessel & Campbell, 1997). Thus, the question arises of whether it is a buffer for engagement in psychological aggression or simply reflects their submissiveness in the face of traditional gender role expectations. Thus future research should investigate the relationship between marianismo and victimization to determine whether women's beliefs that they should be submissive to men put them at risk for the victimization of aggression in intimate relationships.

## VI. GENERAL DISCUSSION

### **Summary**

The current dissertation sought to evaluate the influence of parental use of psychological aggression, traditional Hispanic gender role beliefs (i.e., *marianismo*, *machismo*, and *caballerismo*), and attitudes endorsing the use of psychological aggression on Hispanic college women's experiences with psychological aggression in their intimate relationships. No studies to date investigating psychological aggression have focused exclusively on Hispanic women, particularly when considering their victimization and perpetration of this type of aggression in their intimate relationships. In an attempt to fill this void in the literature, the current dissertation investigated several possible contributors to Hispanic college women's experiences with psychological aggression with their boyfriends, including familial, cultural, and attitudinal factors.

Study 1 investigated the roles of parental use of psychological aggression, beliefs consistent with *machismo* and *caballerismo*, and attitudes endorsing boyfriends' use of psychological aggression in Hispanic college women's psychological aggression victimization in their intimate relationships. Results of this study show that both mother's and father's use of psychological aggression are predictive of participants' psychological aggression victimization in their intimate relationships. This finding is consistent with SLT's assertion that relationship behaviors are modeled by parents in the family of origin (Cui, Durtschi, Donnellan, Lorenz, & Conger, 2010; Luthra & Gidycz, 2006; Palazzolo et al., 2010). Further, the results of this study suggest that holding beliefs consistent with *caballerismo* appears to serve as a protective factor against psychological aggression victimization in intimate relationships. This finding lends support to SC, which

acknowledges the key role of gender role beliefs on the social construction of aggression and its appropriateness. However, results also found that machismo beliefs and attitudes endorsing the acceptability of psychological aggression did not significantly predict participants' victimization in their intimate relationships. Further research is needed to investigate the potential long term impacts of these variables longitudinally on Hispanic college women's experiences with psychological aggression.

Study 2 investigated the roles of parental use of psychological aggression, beliefs consistent with marianismo, and attitudes endorsing participants' own use of psychological aggression on their perpetration of psychological aggression in their intimate relationships. The results of this study show that mothers' and fathers' use of psychological aggression and attitudes endorsing participants' use of psychological aggression significantly predicted participants' perpetration of psychological aggression toward their boyfriends. These results lend support to SLT's assertion that parents serve as models for appropriate relationship behaviors. Further, holding beliefs consistent with marianismo appears to serve as a protective factor against the perpetration of psychological aggression in intimate relationships. This is consistent with SC which asserts that gender role beliefs influence the acceptability of violence within relationships. Because marianismo dictates that women should behave submissively toward their male significant others, it stands to reason that they may be less inclined to use aggressive tactics when in conflict with them.

### **Limitations**

Although this study provides foundational research information about an understudied population and phenomenon, there are limitations that must be considered.

First, when considering the methodology, the use of online data collection methods limited participants' ability to ask questions that may have arisen while completing the survey, and decreased their ability to provide more meaningful or detailed explanations about their answers. These factors have been found in previous research to affect the accuracy in the data (see Lefever, Dal, & Matthíasdóttir, 2007). For instance, while participants were asked to report experiences of psychological aggression in their committed relationships, this term was not defined for them and was thus left open to their interpretation. This may consequently lead to inconsistencies in the data, as participants may have differing ideas of what constitutes a committed relationship. Online data collection has many benefits, however, such as access to a large pool of participants and the ability for participants to respond to questionnaires entirely anonymously, which is particularly important when disclosing sensitive information. Future research should replicate these studies using paper surveys in order to assess any differences in findings that may exist.

Another potential methodological limitation is that data about parental and partner aggression was only collected from the perspective of the one participant. As a result, only the participants' recollections of psychological aggression in these relationship dyads are provided. Future research should replicate these studies using data from parents and significant others as well as participants to investigate any differences that may exist between participants' perceptions of aggression and parents' and boyfriends' reports of aggression.

Similarly, there is a need for greater depth in questioning about the quality and quantity of relationship interactions. For example, mothers were found to be a more

significant influence than fathers on daughters' perpetration of psychological aggression in intimate relationships while fathers were a more significant influence on daughters' victimization than were mothers. While this is an important finding, it does not address the fact that these differences between mother and father were statistically non-significant. This is assumed to be primarily due to methodological limitations where the specific living situations (e.g. time spent at home, amount of time spent interacting, influence of other family members in the home, influence of step-parents, etc.) and quality of the mother-daughter and father-daughter relationships were not assessed. Future work should tease out perceptions of these relationships and separately examine the experiences of the 76% of daughters living with mothers and the 57.6% living with fathers.

A final methodological consideration would be that these data are not longitudinal. While this makes it difficult to definitively pinpoint the temporal order of variables, the current studies provide preliminary insight into the relationships between the independent and dependent variables. Future studies should assess these relationships using longitudinal data in order to better understand how parental use of psychological aggression, traditional Hispanic gender role beliefs, and attitudes endorsing the use of psychological aggression influence Hispanic college women's experiences with psychological aggression in their intimate relationships long-term.

There are also demographic limitations that must be considered. For example, the majority of participants reported residing with one or both parents, a living situation that is not viewed in the current research as typical of college students (see Bishaw, 2013). This reality may have also influenced their perceptions of psychological aggression as

they have ongoing and increased exposure to their parental relationships. Students who are not residing at home may have differing recollections and experiences. Further, given that college is a period of transition toward greater independence, there is the possibility of increased or new conflicts about the changing nature of the parent-child roles (Flannagan, Schulenberg, & Fuligni, 1993).

There is also a need for examination of within-group differences and experiences with psychological aggression. For example, it is plausible that these findings would differ if the sample were larger or more diverse (e.g., Afro-Hispanics, sexual minority Hispanic women). Further, these women attended a HSI in an urban center where over 60% of the population self-identifies as Hispanic. As such, the findings may not be applicable to those living outside the college context or region where this research took place. Future research must be attuned to these diverse identifications among Hispanic college populations.

## **Conclusions**

Despite these limitations, this study provides new insights regarding Hispanic college women's experiences with psychological aggression. There was clear support for the notion that parental use of psychological aggression, traditional female gender role beliefs, and attitudes endorsing the use of psychological aggression impacted women's perpetration of psychological aggression in their intimate relationships. Further, parental use of psychological aggression and beliefs consistent with *caballerismo* impacted women's psychological aggression victimization in their intimate relationships. These findings enhance our knowledge about a significantly understudied population, which constitutes the largest group of ethnic minority women on college campuses across the

United States (Fry, 2011). This contributes to our ability to understand the process by which Hispanic college women come to experience psychological aggression in their intimate relationships. Specifically, Study 1 contributes to the literature of psychological aggression victimization in Hispanic college women's relationships, while Study 2 contributes to the literature on the perpetration of psychological aggression in this population. The findings of these studies assists in further understanding processes of aggression in Hispanic populations and may contribute to the development of prevention programs aimed at this population, which may be particularly at risk for intimate partner aggression. This also points to the need for future research to specifically assess acculturation and its impact on gender identity and IPV perceptions.

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## TABLES

Table 1

*Participants' Nationality*

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Cuban	314	45.7
Colombian	75	10.9
Puerto Rican	50	7.3
Venezuelan	42	6.1
Nicaraguan	40	5.8
Peruvian	27	3.9
Mexican	12	1.7
Dominican	43	6.3
Honduran	17	2.5
Argentinean	11	1.6
Ecuadorian	8	1.2
Chilean	6	0.9
Panamanian	4	0.6
Brazilian	7	1.0
Costa Rican	4	0.6
Uruguayan	2	0.3
Portuguese	1	0.1
Guatemalan	7	1.0
Other	17	2.5

Table 2

*Participants' American Generation*

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
I was not born in the US	223	32.5
First generation American	312	45.4
Second Generation American	111	16.2
Third (or more) generation American	41	6.0

Table 3

*Mother Figure*

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Biological Mother	680	99
Adoptive Mother	3	0.4
Stepmother	1	0.1
Grandmother	1	0.1
Aunt	2	0.3

Table 4

*Father Figure*

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Biological Father	617	89.8
Adoptive Father	10	1.5
Stepfather	54	7.9
Grandfather	5	0.7
Uncle	1	0.1

Table 5

*Participants' Living Situation*

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Two parents	382	55.6
Just my mother	140	20.4
Just my father	14	2.0
Aunt or Uncle	4	0.6
Grandparent(s)	8	1.2
Roommate(s)	56	8.2
Alone	14	2.0

Table 6

*Mother's Highest Level of Education Achieved*

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Less than high school	34	4.9
High school/GED	155	22.6
Some college	168	24.5
Associate's degree	96	14.0
Bachelor's degree	151	22.0
Master's degree	59	8.6

Table 7

*Father's Highest Level of Education Achieved*

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Less than high school	58	8.4
High school/GED	162	23.6
Some college	150	21.8
Associate's degree	72	10.5
Bachelor's degree	140	20.4
Master's degree	65	9.5

Table 8

*Participant's Class Level (Based on Number of Credits Obtained)*

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Freshman (0-29)	97	14.1
Sophomore (30-59)	98	14.3
Junior (60-89)	256	37.3
Senior (90-120)	204	29.7
Senior Plus (more than 120)	32	4.7

Table 9

*Participant's Relationship Status at the Time of Survey Completion*

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Not dating anyone	138	20.1
Dating one person	200	29.1
Dating two people	3	0.4
Dating several people	9	1.3
I am in a committed relationship with one person	321	46.7
I am in a committed relationship with two or more people	1	0.1

Table 10

*Participant's Number of Past-Year Relationships*

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
One	641	93.3
Two	42	6.1
Three	0	0
Four or more	3	0.4

Table 11

*Study 1 Intercorrelation of Variables*

Variable	2	3	4	5	6
1. Mother to Participant Psych Aggression	.336	.035	-.091	.008	.195
2. Father to Participant Psych Aggression	---	.019	-.046	-.001	.235
3. Machismo Beliefs		---	.149	.155	.070
4. Caballerismo Beliefs			---	.176	-.084
5. Attitudes Endorsing Boyfriend's Perpetration				---	.029
6. Boyfriend to participant Psych Aggression					---

Table 12

*Study 2 Intercorrelation of Variables*

Variable	2	3	4	5
1. Mother to Participant Psych Aggression	.336	-.012	-.019	.240
2. Father to Participant Psych Aggression	---	-.075	.043	.208
3. Marianismo Beliefs		---	.136	-.071
4. Attitudes Endorsing Own Perpetration			---	.164
5. Participant to Boyfriend Psych Aggression				---

Table 13

*Study 1 Tolerance Levels and Variance Inflation Factors (VIF)*

Variable	Tolerance	VIF
Mother to Participant Psych Aggression	.879	1.137
Father to Participant Psych Aggression	.887	1.128
Machismo Beliefs	.959	1.043
Caballerismo Beliefs	.944	1.059
Attitudes Endorsing Boyfriend's Perpetration	.952	1.051

Table 14

*Study 2 Tolerance Levels and Variance Inflation Factors (VIF)*

Variable	Tolerance	VIF
Mother to Participant Psych Aggression	.886	1.129
Father to Participant Psych Aggression	.879	1.138
Marianismo Beliefs	.975	1.026
Attitudes Endorsing Own Perpetration	.977	1.023

Table 15

*Study 1 Means and Standard Deviations (SD)*

Variable	Mean	SD
Mother to Participant Psych Aggression	6.649	7.145
Father to Participant Psych Aggression	2.710	4.308
Machismo Beliefs	20.207	8.160
Caballerismo Beliefs	25.969	18.323
Attitudes Endorsing Boyfriend's Perpetration	7.661	2.403
Boyfriend to Participant Psych Aggression	4.788	6.513

Table 16

*Intimate Partner Violence Attitudes Scale: Abuse Subscale (Victimization)*

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
As long as my partner doesn't hurt me, "threats" are excused		
Strongly Disagree	477	69.4
Disagree	173	25.2
Agree	32	4.7
Strongly Agree	5	0.7
I don't mind my partner doing something just to make me jealous		
Strongly Disagree	471	68.6
Disagree	176	25.6
Agree	34	4.9
Strongly Agree	6	0.9
It is no big deal if my partner insults me in front of others		
Strongly Disagree	548	79.8
Disagree	106	15.4
Agree	26	3.8
Strongly Agree	7	1.0
It is okay for me to accept blame for my partner doing bad things		
Strongly Disagree	495	72.1
Disagree	156	22.7
Agree	29	4.2
Strongly Agree	7	1.0
It is not acceptable for my partner to bring up something from the past to hurt me		
Strongly Disagree	182	26.5
Disagree	96	14.0
Agree	162	23.6
Strongly Agree	247	36.0

Table 17

*Machismo Scale (Questions Assessing Machismo Beliefs)*

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
<b>Men are superior to women</b>		
Strongly Disagree	531	77.3
Disagree	78	11.4
Somewhat Disagree	18	2.6
Neither Agree nor Disagree	34	4.9
Somewhat Agree	14	2.0
Agree	6	0.9
Strongly Agree	6	0.9
<b>In a family, a father's wish is law</b>		
Strongly Disagree	420	61.1
Disagree	140	20.4
Somewhat Disagree	38	5.5
Neither Agree nor Disagree	39	5.7
Somewhat Agree	34	4.9
Agree	9	1.3
Strongly Agree	7	1.0
<b>The birth of a male child is more important than the birth of a female child</b>		
Strongly Disagree	562	81.8
Disagree	86	12.5
Somewhat Disagree	7	1.0
Neither Agree nor Disagree	18	2.6
Somewhat Agree	8	1.2
Agree	3	0.4
Strongly Agree	3	0.4
<b>It is important not to be the weakest man in a group</b>		
Strongly Disagree	296	43.1
Disagree	107	15.6
Somewhat Disagree	51	7.4
Neither Agree nor Disagree	93	13.5
Somewhat Agree	80	11.6
Agree	43	6.3
Strongly Agree	17	2.5

Table 17 (Continued)

*Machismo Scale (Questions Assessing Machismo Beliefs)*

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Real men never let down their guard		
Strongly Disagree	341	49.6
Disagree	122	17.8
Somewhat Disagree	64	9.3
Neither Agree nor Disagree	75	10.9
Somewhat Agree	43	6.3
Agree	29	4.2
Strongly Agree	13	1.9
It would be shameful for a man to cry in front of his children		
Strongly Disagree	438	63.8
Disagree	153	22.3
Somewhat Disagree	40	5.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	27	3.9
Somewhat Agree	20	2.9
Agree	6	0.9
Strongly Agree	3	0.4
A man should be in control of his wife		
Strongly Disagree	478	69.6
Disagree	108	15.7
Somewhat Disagree	41	6.0
Neither Agree nor Disagree	31	4.5
Somewhat Agree	18	2.6
Agree	6	0.9
Strongly Agree	5	0.7
It is necessary to fight when challenged		
Strongly Disagree	236	34.4
Disagree	164	23.9
Somewhat Disagree	69	10.0
Neither Agree nor Disagree	81	11.8
Somewhat Agree	89	13.0
Agree	32	4.7
Strongly Agree	16	2.3

Table 17 (Continued)

*Machismo Scale (Questions Assessing Machismo Beliefs)*

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
It is important for women to be beautiful		
Strongly Disagree	133	19.4
Disagree	99	14.4
Somewhat Disagree	61	8.9
Neither Agree nor Disagree	149	21.7
Somewhat Agree	126	18.3
Agree	75	10.9
Strongly Agree	44	6.4
The bills (electric, phone, etc.) should be in the man's name		
Strongly Disagree	272	39.6
Disagree	159	23.1
Somewhat Disagree	61	8.9
Neither Agree nor Disagree	138	20.1
Somewhat Agree	31	4.5
Agree	14	2.0
Strongly Agree	12	1.7

Table 18

*Machismo Scale (Questions Assessing Caballerismo Beliefs)*

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Men must display good manners in public		
Strongly Disagree	18	2.6
Disagree	8	1.2
Somewhat Disagree	7	1.0
Neither Agree nor Disagree	35	5.1
Somewhat Agree	71	10.3
Agree	230	33.5
Strongly Agree	318	46.3
Men should be affectionate with their children		
Strongly Disagree	10	1.5
Disagree	4	0.6
Somewhat Disagree	4	0.6
Neither Agree nor Disagree	17	2.5
Somewhat Agree	27	3.9
Agree	155	22.6
Strongly Agree	470	68.4
Men should respect their elders		
Strongly Disagree	6	0.9
Disagree	2	0.3
Somewhat Disagree	1	0.1
Neither Agree nor Disagree	20	2.9
Somewhat Agree	27	3.9
Agree	171	24.9
Strongly Agree	460	67.0
A woman is expected to be loyal to her husband		
Strongly Disagree	14	2.0
Disagree	4	0.6
Somewhat Disagree	5	0.7
Neither Agree nor Disagree	54	7.9
Somewhat Agree	60	8.7
Agree	206	30.0
Strongly Agree	344	50.1

Table 18 (Continued)

*Machismo Scale (Questions Assessing Caballerismo Beliefs)*

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Men must exhibit fairness in all situations		
Strongly Disagree	11	1.6
Disagree	4	0.6
Somewhat Disagree	10	1.5
Neither Agree nor Disagree	52	7.6
Somewhat Agree	64	9.3
Agree	214	31.1
Strongly Agree	332	48.3
Men should be willing to fight to defend their family		
Strongly Disagree	11	1.6
Disagree	4	0.6
Somewhat Disagree	10	1.5
Neither Agree nor Disagree	57	8.3
Somewhat Agree	118	17.2
Agree	199	29.0
Strongly Agree	288	41.9
The family is more important than the individual		
Strongly Disagree	21	3.1
Disagree	20	2.9
Somewhat Disagree	26	3.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	135	19.7
Somewhat Agree	119	17.3
Agree	166	24.2
Strongly Agree	200	29.1
Men hold their mothers in high regard		
Strongly Disagree	11	1.6
Disagree	1	0.1
Somewhat Disagree	7	1.0
Neither Agree nor Disagree	76	11.1
Somewhat Agree	106	15.4
Agree	241	35.1
Strongly Agree	245	35.7

Table 18 (Continued)

*Machismo Scale (Questions Assessing Caballerismo Beliefs)*

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
A real man does not brag about sex		
Strongly Disagree	15	2.2
Disagree	6	0.9
Somewhat Disagree	9	1.3
Neither Agree nor Disagree	77	11.2
Somewhat Agree	51	7.4
Agree	182	26.5
Strongly Agree	347	50.5
Men want their children to have better lives than themselves		
Strongly Disagree	6	0.9
Disagree	3	0.4
Somewhat Disagree	1	0.1
Neither Agree nor Disagree	37	5.4
Somewhat Agree	35	5.1
Agree	192	27.9
Strongly Agree	413	60.1

Table 19

*Conflict Tactics Scale 2 (Mother's Use of Psychological Aggression toward Participant)*

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Mother insulted or swore at you		
Once that year	57	8.3
Twice that year	75	10.9
3-5 times that year	80	11.6
6-10 times that year	54	7.9
11-20 times that year	35	5.1
More than 20 times that year	62	9.0
This did not happen during that year	324	47.2
Mother shouted or yelled at you		
Once that year	27	3.9
Twice that year	34	4.9
3-5 times that year	70	10.2
6-10 times that year	77	11.2
11-20 times that year	55	8.0
More than 20 times that year	98	14.3
This did not happen during that year	326	47.5
Mother stomped out of the room		
Once that year	36	5.2
Twice that year	43	6.3
3-5 times that year	84	12.2
6-10 times that year	44	6.4
11-20 times that year	24	3.5
More than 20 times that year	21	3.1
This did not happen during that year	435	63.3
Mother Threatened to hit or throw something at you		
Once that year	20	2.9
Twice that year	28	4.1
3-5 times that year	25	3.6
6-10 times that year	10	1.5
11-20 times that year	9	1.3
More than 20 times that year	11	1.6
This did not happen during that year	584	85.0

Table 19 (Continued)

*Conflict Tactics Scale 2 (Mother's Use of Psychological Aggression toward Participant)*

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Mother destroyed something belonging to you		
Once that year	18	2.6
Twice that year	6	0.9
3-5 times that year	10	1.5
6-10 times that year	4	0.6
11-20 times that year	1	0.1
More than 20 times that year	1	0.1
This did not happen during that year	647	94.2
Mother did something to spite you		
Once that year	28	4.1
Twice that year	20	2.9
3-5 times that year	36	5.2
6-10 times that year	10	1.5
11-20 times that year	7	1.0
More than 20 times that year	7	1.0
This did not happen during that year	579	84.3
Mother called you fat or ugly		
Once that year	30	4.4
Twice that year	22	3.2
3-5 times that year	22	3.2
6-10 times that year	25	3.6
11-20 times that year	10	1.5
More than 20 times that year	19	2.8
This did not happen during that year	559	81.4

Table 20

*Conflict Tactics Scale 2 (Father's Use of Psychological Aggression toward Participant)*

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Father insulted or swore at you		
Once that year	33	4.8
Twice that year	35	5.1
3-5 times that year	36	5.2
6-10 times that year	21	3.1
11-20 times that year	14	2.0
More than 20 times that year	15	2.2
This did not happen during that year	533	77.6
Father shouted or yelled at you		
Once that year	33	4.8
Twice that year	39	5.7
3-5 times that year	49	7.1
6-10 times that year	39	5.7
11-20 times that year	21	3.1
More than 20 times that year	29	4.2
This did not happen during that year	477	69.4
Father stomped out of the room		
Once that year	7	1.0
Twice that year	13	1.9
3-5 times that year	4	0.6
6-10 times that year	7	1.0
11-20 times that year	2	0.3
More than 20 times that year	1	0.1
This did not happen during that year	653	95.1
Father Threatened to hit or throw something at you		
Once that year	12	1.7
Twice that year	8	1.2
3-5 times that year	6	0.9
6-10 times that year	1	0.1
11-20 times that year	0	0.0
More than 20 times that year	1	0.1
This did not happen during that year	659	95.9

Table 20 (Continued)

*Conflict Tactics Scale 2 (Father's Use of Psychological Aggression toward Participant)*

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Father destroyed something belonging to you		
Once that year	7	1.0
Twice that year	5	0.7
3-5 times that year	1	0.1
6-10 times that year	0	0.0
11-20 times that year	0	0.0
More than 20 times that year	0	0.0
This did not happen during that year	674	98.1
Father did something to spite you		
Once that year	7	1.0
Twice that year	13	1.9
3-5 times that year	4	0.6
6-10 times that year	7	1.0
11-20 times that year	2	0.3
More than 20 times that year	1	0.1
This did not happen during that year	653	95.1
Father called you fat or ugly		
Once that year	16	2.3
Twice that year	10	1.5
3-5 times that year	18	2.6
6-10 times that year	1	0.1
11-20 times that year	3	0.4
More than 20 times that year	2	0.3
This did not happen during that year	637	92.7

Table 21

*Conflict Tactics Scale 2 (Boyfriend's Use of Psychological Aggression toward Participant)*

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
My boyfriend insulted or swore at me		
Once that year	54	7.9
Twice that year	63	9.2
3-5 times that year	53	7.7
6-10 times that year	31	4.5
11-20 times that year	24	3.5
More than 20 times that year	24	3.5
This did not happen during that year	438	63.8
My boyfriend shouted or yelled at me		
Once that year	61	8.9
Twice that year	51	7.4
3-5 times that year	76	11.1
6-10 times that year	48	7.0
11-20 times that year	27	3.9
More than 20 times that year	43	6.3
This did not happen during that year	381	55.5
My boyfriend stomped out of the room		
Once that year	64	9.3
Twice that year	65	9.5
3-5 times that year	79	11.5
6-10 times that year	31	4.5
11-20 times that year	17	2.5
More than 20 times that year	20	2.9
This did not happen during that year	411	59.8
My boyfriend threatened to hit or throw something at me		
Once that year	3	0.4
Twice that year	5	0.7
3-5 times that year	5	0.7
6-10 times that year	0	0
11-20 times that year	2	0.3
More than 20 times that year	2	0.3
This did not happen during that year	670	97.5

Table 21 (Continued)

*Conflict Tactics Scale 2 (Boyfriend's Use of Psychological Aggression toward Participant)*

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
My boyfriend destroyed something belonging to me		
Once that year	16	2.3
Twice that year	12	1.7
3-5 times that year	3	0.4
6-10 times that year	0	0
11-20 times that year	1	0.1
More than 20 times that year	1	0.1
This did not happen during that year	654	95.2
My boyfriend did something to spite me		
Once that year	29	4.2
Twice that year	51	7.4
3-5 times that year	40	5.8
6-10 times that year	16	2.3
11-20 times that year	5	0.7
More than 20 times that year	10	1.5
This did not happen during that year	536	78.0
My boyfriend called me fat or ugly		
Once that year	17	2.5
Twice that year	13	1.9
3-5 times that year	16	2.3
6-10 times that year	5	0.7
11-20 times that year	2	0.3
More than 20 times that year	2	0.3
This did not happen during that year	632	92.0
My boyfriend accused me of being a lousy lover		
Once that year	26	3.8
Twice that year	19	2.8
3-5 times that year	14	2.0
6-10 times that year	4	0.6
11-20 times that year	5	0.7
More than 20 times that year	6	0.9
This did not happen during that year	613	89.2

Table 22

*Study 2 Means and Standard Deviations (SD)*

Variable	Mean	SD
Mother to Participant Psych Aggression	6.649	7.145
Father to Participant Psych Aggression	2.710	4.308
Marianismo Beliefs	52.396	10.006
Attitudes Endorsing Own Perpetration	10.862	3.351
Participant to Boyfriend Psych Aggression	6.667	7.342

Table 23

*Intimate Partner Violence Attitudes Scale: Abuse Subscale (Perpetration)*

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Threatening a partner is okay as long as I don't hurt him or her		
Strongly Disagree	449	65.4
Disagree	201	29.3
Agree	27	3.9
Strongly Agree	10	1.5
During a heated argument, it is okay for me to bring up something from my partner's past to hurt him or her		
Strongly Disagree	362	52.7
Disagree	265	38.6
Agree	58	8.4
Strongly Agree	2	0.3
During a heated argument it is okay for me to say something to hurt my partner on purpose		
Strongly Disagree	419	61.0
Disagree	224	32.6
Agree	39	5.7
Strongly Agree	5	0.7
I think it helps our relationship for me to make my partner jealous		
Strongly Disagree	398	57.9
Disagree	231	33.6
Agree	53	7.7
Strongly Agree	5	0.7
My partner is egotistical so I think it's okay to "put down" my partner's looks		
Strongly Disagree	445	64.8
Disagree	205	29.8
Agree	34	4.9
Strongly Agree	3	0.4
It is okay for me to blame my partner when I do bad things		
Strongly Disagree	496	72.2
Disagree	157	22.9
Agree	28	4.1
Strongly Agree	6	0.9
It is not appropriate to insult my partner in front of others ( <i>reversed</i> )		
Strongly Disagree	177	25.8
Disagree	75	10.9
Agree	118	17.2
Strongly Agree	317	46.1

Table 24

*Marianismo Beliefs*

A Latina...	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
must be a source of strength for her family		
Strongly Disagree	13	1.9
Disagree	61	8.9
Agree	416	60.6
Strongly Agree	197	28.7
is considered the main source of strength of her family		
Strongly Disagree	32	4.7
Disagree	239	34.8
Agree	323	47.0
Strongly Agree	93	13.5
mother must keep the family unified		
Strongly Disagree	18	2.6
Disagree	89	13.0
Agree	395	57.5
Strongly Agree	185	26.9
should teach her children to be loyal to the family		
Strongly Disagree	7	1.0
Disagree	33	4.8
Agree	366	53.3
Strongly Agree	281	40.9
should do things that make her family happy		
Strongly Disagree	15	2.2
Disagree	60	8.7
Agree	375	54.6
Strongly Agree	237	34.5
should (should have) remain(ed) a virgin until marriage		
Strongly Disagree	211	30.7
Disagree	321	46.7
Agree	107	15.6
Strongly Agree	48	7.0
should wait until after marriage to have children		
Strongly Disagree	61	8.9
Disagree	159	23.1
Agree	305	44.4
Strongly Agree	162	23.6

Table 24 (Continued)

*Marianismo Beliefs*

A Latina...	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
should be pure		
Strongly Disagree	109	15.9
Disagree	264	38.4
Agree	255	37.1
Strongly Agree	59	8.6
should adopt the values taught by her religion		
Strongly Disagree	103	15.0
Disagree	226	32.9
Agree	281	40.9
Strongly Agree	77	11.2
should be faithful to her partner		
Strongly Disagree	7	1.0
Disagree	16	2.3
Agree	233	33.9
Strongly Agree	431	62.7
should satisfy her partner's sexual needs without argument		
Strongly Disagree	221	32.2
Disagree	305	44.4
Agree	126	18.3
Strongly Agree	35	5.1
should not speak out against men		
Strongly Disagree	425	61.9
Disagree	210	30.6
Agree	44	6.4
Strongly Agree	8	1.2
should respect men's opinions even when she does not agree		
Strongly Disagree	295	42.9
Disagree	171	24.9
Agree	194	28.2
Strongly Agree	27	3.9
should avoid saying no to people		
Strongly Disagree	395	57.5
Disagree	258	37.6
Agree	30	4.4
Strongly Agree	4	0.6

Table 24 (Continued)

*Marianismo Beliefs*

A Latina...	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
should do anything a male in the family asks her to do		
Strongly Disagree	464	67.5
Disagree	186	27.1
Agree	32	4.7
Strongly Agree	5	0.7
should not discuss birth control		
Strongly Disagree	457	66.5
Disagree	200	29.1
Agree	23	3.3
Strongly Agree	7	1.0
should not express her needs to her partner		
Strongly Disagree	517	75.3
Disagree	140	20.4
Agree	19	2.8
Strongly Agree	11	1.6
should feel guilty about telling people what she needs		
Strongly Disagree	505	73.5
Disagree	159	23.1
Agree	17	2.5
Strongly Agree	6	0.9
should not talk about sex		
Strongly Disagree	452	65.8
Disagree	209	30.4
Agree	21	3.1
Strongly Agree	5	0.7
should be forgiving in all aspects		
Strongly Disagree	259	37.7
Disagree	251	36.5
Agree	148	21.5
Strongly Agree	29	4.2
should always be agreeable to men's decisions		
Strongly Disagree	433	63.0
Disagree	221	32.2
Agree	30	4.4
Strongly Agree	3	0.4

Table 24 (Continued)

*Marianismo Beliefs*

A Latina...	Frequency	Percent
should be the spiritual leader of the family		
Strongly Disagree	130	18.9
Disagree	218	31.7
Agree	300	43.7
Strongly Agree	39	5.7
is responsible for taking family to religious services		
Strongly Disagree	185	26.9
Disagree	298	43.4
Agree	177	25.8
Strongly Agree	27	3.9
is responsible for the spiritual growth of the family		
Strongly Disagree	148	21.5
Disagree	260	37.8
Agree	245	35.7
Strongly Agree	34	4.9

Table 25

*Conflict Tactics Scale 2 (Participant's Use of Psychological Aggression toward Boyfriend)*

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
I insulted or swore at my boyfriend		
Once that year	54	7.9
Twice that year	78	11.4
3-5 times that year	84	12.2
6-10 times that year	60	8.7
11-20 times that year	39	5.7
More than 20 times that year	47	6.8
This did not happen during that year	325	47.3
I shouted or yelled at my boyfriend		
Once that year	38	5.5
Twice that year	70	10.2
3-5 times that year	86	12.5
6-10 times that year	68	9.9
11-20 times that year	39	5.7
More than 20 times that year	75	10.9
This did not happen during that year	311	45.3
I stomped out of the room		
Once that year	71	10.3
Twice that year	71	10.3
3-5 times that year	82	11.9
6-10 times that year	59	8.6
11-20 times that year	19	2.8
More than 20 times that year	28	4.1
This did not happen during that year	357	52.0
I threatened to hit or throw something at my boyfriend		
Once that year	9	1.3
Twice that year	14	2.0
3-5 times that year	13	1.9
6-10 times that year	7	1.0
11-20 times that year	6	0.9
More than 20 times that year	5	0.7
This did not happen during that year	633	92.1

Table 25 (Continued)

*Conflict Tactics Scale 2 (Participant's Use of Psychological Aggression toward Boyfriend)*

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
I destroyed something belonging to my boyfriend		
Once that year	23	3.3
Twice that year	4	0.6
3-5 times that year	4	0.6
6-10 times that year	1	0.1
11-20 times that year	3	0.4
More than 20 times that year	1	0.1
This did not happen during that year	651	94.8
I did something to spite my boyfriend		
Once that year	68	9.9
Twice that year	46	6.7
3-5 times that year	41	6.0
6-10 times that year	17	2.5
11-20 times that year	4	0.6
More than 20 times that year	6	0.9
This did not happen during that year	505	73.5
I called my boyfriend fat or ugly		
Once that year	16	2.3
Twice that year	13	1.9
3-5 times that year	13	1.9
6-10 times that year	3	0.4
11-20 times that year	3	0.4
More than 20 times that year	4	0.6
This did not happen during that year	635	92.4
I accused my boyfriend of being a lousy lover		
Once that year	43	6.3
Twice that year	32	4.7
3-5 times that year	30	4.4
6-10 times that year	15	2.2
11-20 times that year	4	0.6
More than 20 times that year	7	1.0
This did not happen during that year	556	80.9

Figure 1

*Study 1 Results*

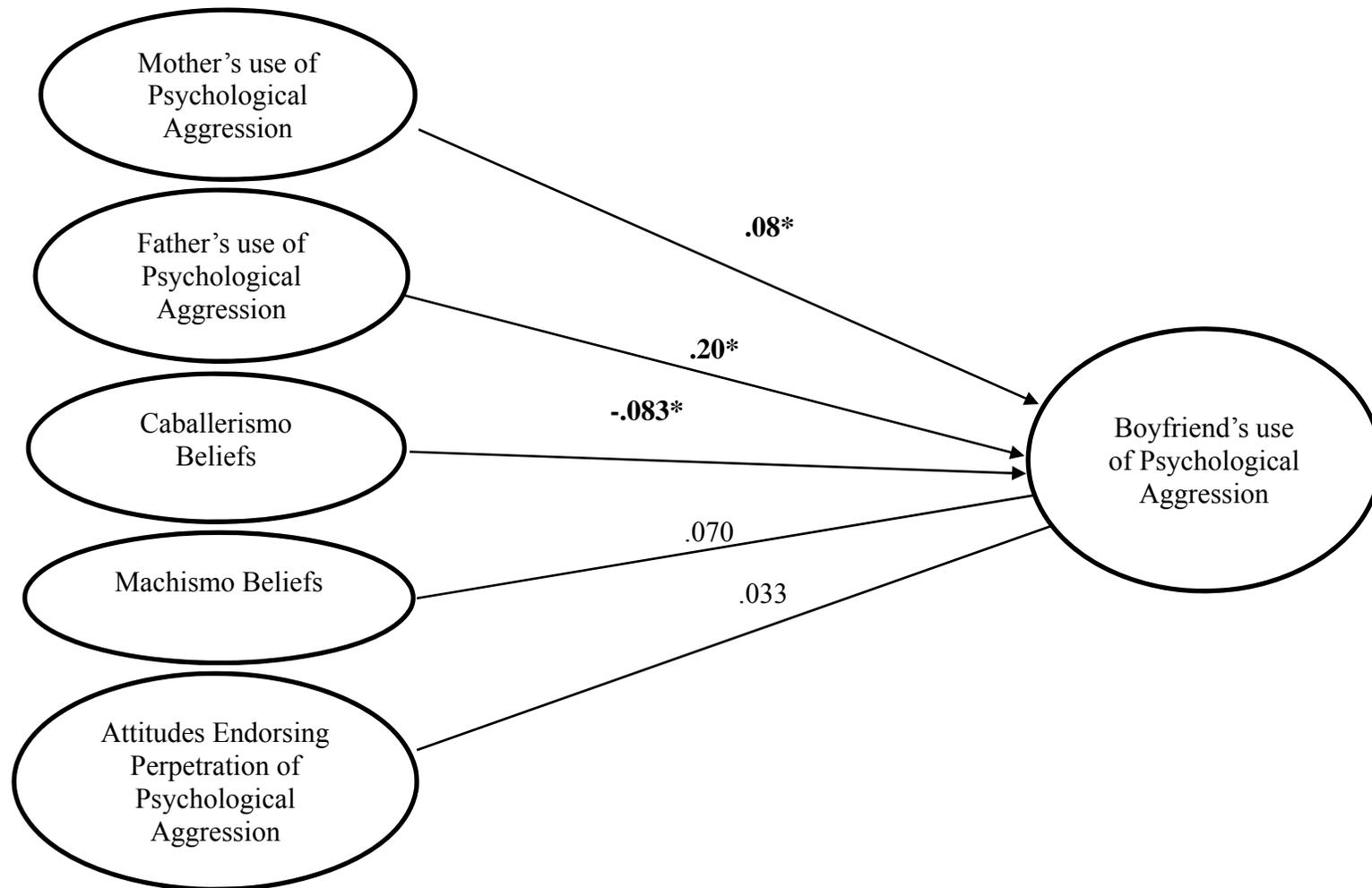
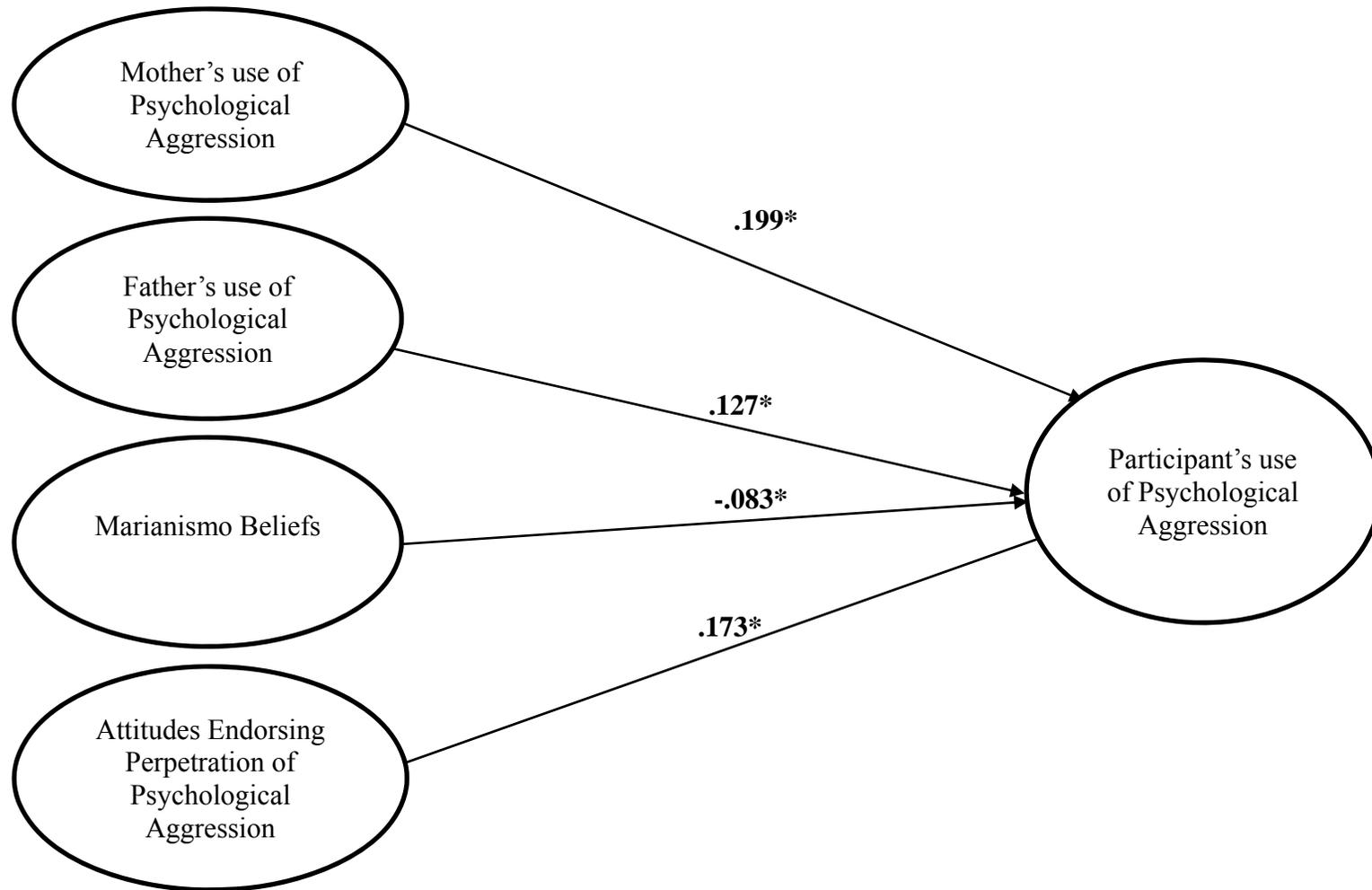


Figure 2

*Study 2 Results*



## VITA

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### PUBLICATIONS AND PRESENTATIONS

Oramas, L. A., Stephens, D. P., & Whiddon, M. (in press). The influence of parental conflict resolution strategies on Hispanic college women's experiences with verbal aggression. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*.

Oramas, L. A. & Quintana, S. (2013, November). *Maternal Influence on Hispanic College Women's Perpetration of Physical Intimate Partner Violence*. Poster session presented for the Society for the Study of Human Development, Fort Lauderdale, FL

Quintana, S. & Oramas, L. A. (2013, November). *Hispanic College Females Perpetration of Verbal Intimate Partner Violence: The Role of Maternal Modeling*. Poster session presented for the Society for the Study of Human Development, Fort Lauderdale, FL.

Oramas, L. A. (2013, July). *The Influence of Parental Verbal Aggression on Hispanic College Women's Intimate Relationships*. Poster session presented for the American Psychological Association, Honolulu, HI.

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