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Cyber Dating Abuse Among Emerging Adult Latina Women

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CYBER DATING ABUSE AMONG EMERGING ADULT LATINA WOMEN

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Yanet Ruvalcaba

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To: Dean Michael R. Heithaus
      College of Arts, Sciences, & Education

This dissertation, written by Yanet Ruvalcaba, and entitled Cyber Dating Abuse Among Emerging Adult Latina Women, 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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Vice President for Research and Economic Development
and Dean of the University Graduate School

Florida International University, 2021

DEDICATION

For my beautiful mother, who has crossed worlds, and sacrificed so much so I could have

this incredible life.

DEDICATORIA

Para mi bella madre, quien ha cruzado mundos y se ha sacrificado tanto para que yo

pudiera tener esta vida increíble.

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

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This dissertation examines the experience of cyber dating abuse victimization among Latina women in emerging adulthood. There is particular emphasis on investigating the relationship between cyber dating abuse victimization and risk and protective factors. Study one implemented a strength-based approach to investigating culturally relevant factors against cyber dating abuse victimization. The relationship between acculturation and familial social support varied based on the subtypes of abuse. Specifically, the best fitting pathways in the structural equation model indicated that Latinx cultural orientation was protective against sexual cyber dating abuse victimization, and this relationship was mediated by family support.

Study two focused on examining the relationship between cyber dating abuse victimization and later experience of mental health symptoms and overall wellbeing, as well as polyvictimization. A longitudinal design was implemented with a three-month lag to test these relationships among a sample of Latina emerging adults. Findings indicated no relationship with these health outcomes. The existence of polyvictimization was supported by this study. Cyber dating abuse victimization increased likelihood of later in-person abuse. Findings highlight important considerations for violence prevention efforts.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

I. INTRODUCTION

Intimate partner violence (IPV), a term used to describe all forms of abuse within intimate relationships (Wallace, 2015), is globally and nationally recognized as a major public health concern primarily affecting women (CDC, 2018; WHO, 2017). There are four categories of "traditional" or in-person IPV: physical violence, sexual violence, stalking, and psychological aggression (Breiding et al., 2015). One type of IPV that has gained increasing attention from the psychological scientific community is cyber dating abuse (Brem & Shorey, 2019; Borrajo et al., 2015). Cyber dating abuse is a type of IPV that emphasizes the role of technology-based communication platforms, such as texts and social media, to inflict harm on a romantic partner (Watkins et al., 2018).

This emergent form of partner violence is unique in that the technological component makes victims accessible at any time or location and enables the abuse to be public via online social platforms, amplifying the humiliation of victims (Lu et al., 2018; Zweig et al., 2014). Like in-person forms of non-physical partner abuse (e.g., psychological aggression), there is evidence that cyber dating abuse precedes psychological violence that escalates to physical violence (Madlock & Westerman, 2011). In fact, a longitudinal analysis of cyber dating abuse perpetration finds that cyber dating abuse at baseline positively predicted psychological and physical partner violence three months later (Brem & Shorey, 2019). Thus, cyber dating abuse has implications for traditional forms of IPV and their associated harms.

Prevalence rates of cyber dating abuse victimization among individuals in the developmental stage of emerging adulthood (ages 18-29 years) are high. Seventy three percent of adults in this developmental stage report cyber dating abuse victimization

(Marganski & Melander, 2018). This is substantially higher than national prevalence rates of first IPV victimization experiences of adults in early emerging adulthood, with an estimated 45% for women and 41% for men (Marganski & Melander, 2018; Smith et al., 2018). Another important consideration is gender; more specifically, the differential experiences of IPV victimization among men and women. Although men also experience IPV victimization, a greater proportion of women report in-person IPV and cyber dating abuse (Smith et al., 2018; Marganski & Fauth, 2013).

An important limitation in this field is that most studies on cyber dating abuse among adults are composed of predominately White samples (Brem & Shorey, 2019; Madlock & Westerman, 2011; Marganski & Melander, 2018). The exclusion of racial/ethnic minorities in this research is problematic given that these populations are at increased risk of IPV (Black et al., 2011; Eaton & Stephens, 2018; Reingle et al., 2014). Moreover, the risk factors, protective factors, and consequences of cyber dating abuse in ethnic minority populations may differ quantitatively and qualitatively from their White counterparts.

Therefore, the aim of the subsequent papers is to examine the nature of cyber dating abuse victimization among Latina emerging adults. The first paper investigates Latinx culturally specific factors as protective against cyber dating abuse victimization, specifically ethnic identity, acculturation, and familial social support. The second paper in this series employs longitudinal methods to understand how cyber dating abuse victimization relates to later mental health, alcohol use, sexual risk taking, and polyvictimization. In conjunction, these studies will contribute to our understanding of risk and protective factors associated with cyber dating abuse victimization, which will

contribute to violence prevention efforts for this growing marginalized group in the

Unites States.

II. STUDY ONE: CYBER DATING ABUSE AMONG EMERGING ADULT LATINAS: THE ROLES OF ETHNIC IDENTITY, ACCULTURATION, AND FAMILIAL SOCIAL SUPPORT

Abstract

Cyber dating abuse is an emerging form of intimate partner violence (IPV) that includes stalking, psychological, and sexual forms of victimization (Flach & Deslandes, 2017). Although 32% of Latinx emerging adults in the U.S. reported IPV victimization in the past year (Grest et al., 2018), research on cyber dating abuse in this population is lacking. The purpose of this strengths-based study was to examine culturally-specific factors that protect against cyber dating abuse victimization in emerging adult Latinas. Based on intersectionality theory and IPV research among Latinx populations (Cole, 2009; Umana-Taylor, 2004), we examined the protective potential of ethnic identity, Latinx cultural orientation, and familial social support. All individuals in the sample self-identified as Latina women between the ages of 18 – 29 (M = 22.03; SD = 2.63) and were undergraduate students attending a large Hispanic-serving university. The best fitting structural equation model had an adequate RMSEA fit = .048. Perceived family social support was a mediating variable between Latinx cultural orientation and sexual cyber dating abuse, though this effect was not found for psychological and stalking cyber dating abuse. Surprisingly, ethnic identity commitment had an inverse relationship with victimization. Results highlight the importance of understanding the dynamics of culturally relevant protective factors among different types of dating victimization.

Keywords: Hispanic, Latina, IPV, family support, partner abuse

Intimate partner violence (IPV) is a form of abuse that occurs within current or former romantic relationships and includes a variety of tactics used to harm a partner (Breiding et al., 2015). IPV is globally accepted as a major public health concern and a form of gender-based violence (WHO, 2021), disproportionately affecting women. Current estimates find that approximately one third of all women globally who reported ever being in an intimate relationship were physically or sexually victimized by a partner at least once in their lifetime (WHO, 2021). Domestic violence was the first form of IPV systematically studied and addressed in Western society (Wallace, 2015), with the movement towards criminalizing partner violence focusing specifically on heterosexual domestic partnerships (Wallace, 2015). In the early 2000s, the phrase IPV became a widely accepted umbrella term that includes all forms of romantic partner abuse, including those in LGBT relationships and outside of marriage or domestic partnerships (Wallace, 2015). The term "IPV" today covers all forms of intimate partner abuse, including domestic violence and dating violence (Wallace, 2015).

The subtypes of IPV are as follows: physical violence, sexual violence, stalking, and psychological aggression (Breiding et al., 2015). According to this characterization, physical IPV is the use of physical force to harm another person. Sexual IPV is characterized as the use of force to get a partner to engage in a sexual act without consent. Stalking is a behavior characterized as a pattern of attention and contact that compromises the perceived security of a person. Psychological aggression in IPV is the use of verbal and nonverbal communication strategies to non-physically harm their partner. Intimate partner relationships are categorized as current or former spouses,

boyfriends/ girlfriends, dating partners, and ongoing sexual partners (Breiding et al., 2015).

In the U.S., the lifetime prevalence of sexual violence, physical violence, and/or stalking victimization among women from an intimate partner is 36.4%, and 33.6% for men (Smith et al., 2018). Although the prevalence rates of IPV for women and men are similar, a greater percentage of women report significant IPV-related impact, with 1 in 4 women vs 1 in 10 men reporting experiencing concern for safety, need for medical care, legal services, among many other (Smith et al., 2018). This is in part because women are more often subject to sexual violence and severe physical violence than men (Smith et al., 2018).

Technological advancements have shifted the platform, context, and tactics that can be used to perpetrate intimate partner abuse. One form of technology-facilitated intimate partner violence (IPV), cyber dating abuse, is when technology is used to perpetrate abuse among dating partners (Flach & Deslandes, 2017). Research finds that 73% of emerging adults ages 18-25 years are victims of cyber dating abuse, which is much higher in comparison to first sexual, physical, and/or stalking IPV victimization by women and men ages 18-24 nationally (45.2% and 41.2%, respectively; Marganski & Melander, 2018; Smith et al., 2018). Moreover, this increasingly prevalent form of abuse has a host of negative correlates. For example, Lindsay and colleagues (2016) examined intimate partner online harassment among emerging adults and found that it was positively associated with depression and anxiety. Similarly, another study reported that men and women expect to experience more distress from cyber dating abuse than electronic victimization from a friend (Bennett et al., 2011).

Unfortunately, most studies examining cyber dating aggression within the United States have used predominately White samples, inhibiting our understanding of this phenomenon among racial/ethnic minorities (Bennett et al., 2011; Lindsay et al., 2016; Marganski & Melander, 2018; Wolford-Clevenger et al., 2016). Although existing studies provide insight into the relationship between cyber dating abuse and wellbeing, the lack of focus on racial/ethnic samples is especially problematic because research suggests that adolescents and young adults of color are the most vulnerable for IPV victimization (Black et al., 2011; Eaton & Stephens, 2018). According to the National Intimate Partner Violence Survey, the 12-month prevalence of sexual, physical, and/or stalking IPV victimization by racial/ethnic background is 12.5% for multiracial, 9.4% for Black, 8.2% for American Indian/ Alaska Native, 8.6% for Hispanic, and 5.7% for White (Smith et al., 2017). In fact, when compared to Whites, Blacks and Latinx[1] had a higher likelihood of reporting IPV victimization, perpetration, or both (Reingle, Jennings, Connell, Businelle, & Chartier, 2014).

Focusing on cyber dating abuse among Latina women, in particular, is crucial given that the Latinx population is shifting national demographics (Flores, 2017). The Latinx community currently represents approximately 18% of the population, making it the second largest group in the US, and it is the second fastest growing racial/ethnic group (Flores, 2017). Additionally, Latinx individuals report high rates of IPV (Black et al., 2011; Flores, 2017; Forster et al., 2017; Nowotny et al., 2013). When compared to

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[1] The term Latinx refers to individuals who self-identity with Latin American ancestry (Salinas & Lozano, 2017).

White couples, Latinx couples have a greater likelihood for severe IPV recurrence (Caetano et al., 2005). Also, in early young adulthood, the prevalence rates for minor non-sexual IPV victimization was 24.1% among Latina women, 22.8% among Black women, and 22.6% for White women (Nowotny et al., 2013). The same prevalence pattern was present in major non-sexual IPV victimization with 15.8% for Latina women, 14.3% for Black women, and 11.9% for White women (Nowotny et al., 2013). A variety of reasons for these disparities have been posited and examined with regard to in-person dating violence, including the unique cultural factors that could mitigate or facilitate experiences of dating violence (Caetano et al., 2000; Forster et al., 2017; Sabina et al., 2016).

Culturally Relevant Predictors of Cyber Dating Abuse

Ethnic Identity

One factor relevant to the experience of IPV among young people from marginalized racial-ethnic backgrounds is ethnic identity. Ethnic identity is a self-concept and social identity that is acquired by one's relationship with their ethnic group membership (Phinney, 1992; Tajfel, 1981). In other words, it is the sense of identification an individual has to their respective ethnic group (Phinney, 1992). Ethnic identity acquisition is considered a developmental process since there is stability and instability in an individual's ethnic identity over time- especially during adolescence and emerging adulthood (Phinney, 2007).

The two processes involved in ethnic identity formation are exploration and commitment (Phiney & Ong, 2007)   . Exploration consists of an individual's engagement in seeking knowledge and experiences within their self-identified ethnic

group (Phiney & Ong, 2007). For example, an individual's self-exposure to cultural events and practices is part of the exploration process (Forster et al., 2017), such as when a Cuban American takes a guided tour of Little Havana District in Miami to learn more about Cuban history and culture. The commitment component of ethnic identity refers to an individual's level of attachment, or sense of belonging, to their respective ethnic group, which is also conceptualized as ethnic-identity affirmation (Phinney & Ong, 2007; 1992; Forster et al., 2017; Schwartz et al., 2010). For example, even if two individuals are first generation Americans, one may feel a stronger belonging to their parents' nation of origin while another may not, showing different degrees of commitment. When individuals engage in both exploration and commitment, this is indicative of ethnic identity achievement, while a lack of exploration and achievement is ethnic identity diffusion (Phinney, 1992).

Ethnic identity is an important cultural construct related to the wellbeing of members of the Latinx community, which includes people of Latin American descent (Ai et al., 2014; Williams et al., 2014). For example, ethnic identity has been identified as a protective factor against substance use, physical and mental health, emotional wellbeing, and discrimination for Latinx individuals (Ai et al., 2014; Chun et al., 2016; Perreira et al., 2019; Umaña-Taylor & Updegraff, 2007). A national study using a diverse Latinx sample, including Cubans, Mexicans, Puerto Ricans, and others, found a direct relationship between ethnic identity and self-rated mental health and physical health (Ai et al., 2014). Specifically, ethnic identity was associated with an improvement in mental and physical health. This finding is consistent with recent research on Latinx youth, in which a positive ethnic identity was associated with better mental health and a decrease

in alcohol and smoking susceptibility (Perrieria et al., 2019). Ethnic identity served as a source of resilience even with acculturation and acculturative stress explaining variance in the model. Among Latinx emerging adults, ethnic identity has been found to protect against hopelessness, depressive symptoms, and suicidal ideation (Cheref et al., 2019; Polanco-Roman & Miranda, 2013).

Despite the growing evidence that ethnic identity serves a source of resilience, the role of ethnic identity in partner abuse has been understudied, and the little evidence that does exist is in conflict. One study, using a sample of Latina women, examined the mediating role of cultural values (i.e. machismo, marianismo, and familism) on ethnic identity and perceptions of IPV, and on acculturation and perceptions of IPV (Oxtoby, 2012). Perceptions of IPV were about the perceived causes for IPV, such as violation of gender roles, behavioral responses, and seriousness of the IPV event. There was no effect found to support machismo and marianismo as mediators for the relationship between either of the two predictors (acculturation and ethnic identity) and the outcome variable of perceptions of IPV due to violating gender roles. Additionally, cultural values, acculturation level, and ethnic identity were found to not be significant predictors of acceptability for male-perpetrated or female-perpetrated violence, or perceptions of seriousness.

Another study reported a negative relationship between ethnic identity and psychological aggression perpetration and victimization among Black youth in high school, and males in middle school, but a positive relationship for females in high school (Edwards, Green, & Perkins, 2006). This finding was supported by a study examining discrimination, community violence, and IPV experiences among a sample of 80.4%

Black 13.8% Latina emerging adult women (Stueve & O'Donnell, 2008). There was no association between ethnic identity and physical and emotional victimization and perpetration.

On the other hand, ethnic identity sometimes exhibits protective effects with regard to IPV and related outcomes (Eaton & Stephens, 2018). For example, it is related to decreased odds of IPV victimization for Latina adolescents, but not Latinos (Sanderson et al., 2004). Further, Forster and colleagues (2017) examined the relationship between cultural identity development and partner abuse among Latinx emerging adults. They found that ethnic identity affirmation, or sense of belonging to their ethnic group, was a protective factor against IPV among men and women. Specifically, stronger ethnic identity affirmation, or commitment, was associated with decreased odds of IPV victimization and bidirectional IPV, which is conceptualized as individuals who reported both perpetration and victimization in their relationships.

The conflicting evidence between ethnic identity and IPV present in the literature could be potentially due to the differential ethnic/racial groups being examined or the differences in IPV related outcomes. For example, Oxtoby (2012) examined causes of IPV and seriousness while Forster et al., (2017) examined rates of IPV experience. Thus, an aim of this study is to examine the relationship of ethnic identity and cyber dating abuse victimization for Latina emerging adults. Specifically, to assess whether ethnic identity affirmation and commitment serve as a protective factor against victimization, consistent with Forster's et al., (2017) study that examined IPV rates as the outcome. Ethnic identity will be examined separately from acculturation given that it is distinctly

different since it is about self-concept and "subjective sense of belonging to a group or culture" (Phinney et al., 2001 p.3). Therefore, the first prediction is as follows:

> **Hypothesis 1**. Higher ethnic identity affirmation will be related to a decrease in cyber dating abuse victimization (1a). Higher ethnic identity achievement will also be related to decrease in cyber dating abuse victimization (1b).

Self-Esteem

Studies find that self-esteem, also referred to as "positive psychosocial functioning," is related to ethnic identity among Latinx samples (Wang et al., 2010, p. 2869). It is important to highlight that most studies examining the role of self-esteem and ethnic identity among Latinx samples is focused on the developmental stage of adolescence (Armenta & Hunt, 2009; Fisher et al., 2017; Hernandez et al., 2017; Phinney, 1997, 2000; Romero & Roberts, 2003; Schwartz; Zamboanga et al., 2007; Umaña-Taylor, 2004; Umaña-Taylor & Updegraff, 2007; Umana-Taylor et al., 2009). Overall ethnic identity and different stages of ethnic identity, like search, commitment, and affirmation, have been found to be correlated with self-esteem (Phinney, 2000; Romero & Roberts, 2003; Umana-Taylor, 2004). Other studies have supported ethnic identity as a predictor of higher self-esteem (Armenta & Hunt, 2009; Phinney et al., 1997), or explored self-esteem as a potential mediator between ethnic identity and behavioral and health outcomes (Fisher et al., 2017; Schwartz et al., 2007; Umaña - Taylor & Updegraff, 2007).

For example, self-esteem has been found to mediate the effect of ethnic identity on externalizing symptoms, academic grades, and depressive symptoms (Schwartz et al., 2007; Umaña -Taylor & Updegraff, 2007), and partially mediate the relationship between

ethnic identity and substance use (Fisher et al., 2017). There is evidence to the contrary, however, where ethnic identity was not supported as a predictor or self-esteem longitudinally, or as a mediator between ethnic identity and proactive coping (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2008). However, other research finds that across time ethnic pride predicts self-esteem among boys (Hernandez et al., 2017), and that an increase in ethnic identity exploration predicted an increase in self-esteem among adolescents (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2009).

Research on the relationship between self-esteem and ethnic identity among adult samples is limited. One study using a sample of young adult Cubans in Miami reported that both Latinx orientation and ethnic identity were related to self-esteem, with pressure to acculturate as the mediator between ethnic identity and self-esteem (Wang et al., 2010). Another study, using a sample of young adult ethnic minority college students, found that individuals with a positive ethnic identity and not involved in ego identity search reported higher levels of self-esteem (Louis & Liem, 2005). It is important to highlight that although the role of self-esteem and IPV among Latinx women has been examined (Gonzalez-Guarda et al., 2009; 2011; 2013), the relationship between self-esteem and ethnic identity within the context of IPV has not been explored. The only study to date that has examined ethnic identity affirmation as a predictor of in person IPV, has suggested that self-esteem could be a potentially explanatory factor for higher ethnic identify affirmation predicting lower levels of victimization (Forster et al., 2017). Given the lack of IPV research among Latinx emerging adults and ethnic identity, self-esteem will be explored as a mediator between ethnic identity affirmation and achievement and victimization. The prediction is as follows:

13

Hypothesis 2: Self -esteem will mediate the relationship between the predictor variables of ethnic identity affirmation (H2a) and achievement (H2b) with outcome variable cyber dating abuse victimization.

Acculturation

Acculturation is the cultural change that occurs in a group of individuals when they enter a cultural context different from their own (Doucerain et al., 2017). The model of acculturation was initially conceptualized as a unidimensional process (Schwartz et al., 2010). The individual encountering a different cultural context either (a) retained their heritage culture or (b) adhered to the receiving culture along a continuum (Schwartz et al., 2010). The multidimensional model of acculturation posits that there are multiple strategies to navigate this process, including assimilation, separation, integration and marginalization (Berry, 1997), and that biculturalism is possible. Assimilation is when the heritage culture is replaced with the receiving culture. Separation is when the heritage culture is maintained, and the receiving culture is rejected. Integration, also known as biculturalism, is when both the heritage and receiving culture are maintained. Marginalization is when both heritage and receiving cultures are rejected.

The role of acculturation in IPV victimization and perpetration among Latinx samples has been examined in the past two decades (Jasinki, 1998; Grest et al., 2018). Within this research, high acculturation is conceptualized as assimilation, where a highly acculturated individual identifies more with the dominant culture (Caetano et al., 2000; Caetano et al., 2004; Garcia et al., 2005; Harris et al., 2005; Jasinki, 1998; Smokowski et al., 2009). Although there are studies that fail to find an association between acculturation and IPV among Latinx samples (e.g. Cunradi, 2009; Grest et al., 2018; Beas, 2009;

14

Ramirez, 2007, Sabina et al., 2016), most have found a significant relationship (e.g. Alvarez et al., 2018; Caetano et al., 2000b; Cuevas et al., 2010; Garcia et al., 2005; Grest et al., 2018; Jasinki, 1998; Sabina et al., 2015; Sanderson et al., 2004). In particular, greater acculturation, conceptualized as high assimilation, is associated with an increased likelihood of IPV victimization and perpetration (Garcia et al., 2005; Jasinski, 1998; Sabina et al., 2015). Among Latina women, a greater orientation towards Latinx culture has been shown to be related to a decreased likelihood of IPV victimization (Sabina et al., 2015).

This finding is consistent developmentally, where the likelihood of perpetration and victimization in emerging adulthood decreased if participants reported higher Latinx orientation (Grest et al., 2018). Further, higher Latinx orientation in adolescence was associated with a lower likelihood of perpetrating physical IPV and seeking medical attention because of victimization in emerging adulthood among men and women. The only significant gender by acculturation interaction found that higher U.S. orientation was associated with increased likelihood of perpetrating physical IPV in emerging adulthood among boys only. Cumulatively, these studies provide evidence for Latinx culture being protective (Alvarez et al., 2018; Garcia et al., 2005; Grest et al., 2017; Gonzalez-Guarda et al., 2012; Jasinski, 1998; Sabina et al., 2015). In the present study, the multidimensional framework of acculturation will be used by assessing Latinx cultural orientation and Anglo cultural orientation orthogonally. The degree of Anglo cultural orientation affiliation within the acculturation process will be examined as an explanatory variable, as such no specific prediction is present for Anglo cultural orientation. Thus, the second prediction is as follows:

15

Hypothesis 3. Higher Latinx orientation will be related to lower rates of cyber dating abuse victimization.

Familism

Familism, or familismo, is an important cultural value among the Latinx population, which emphasizes "a strong orientation and commitment toward the family" (Toro-Morn, 2012, p. 672). This cultural value is present pan-ethnically across Latino subgroups (Calzada et al., 2012). There are attitudinal and behavioral aspects of familism. The attitudinal component of familism includes familial support, familial interconnectedness, familial honor, and subjection of self for family (Steidel & Contreras., 2003). Familial support is the belief that support should be provided to family members daily and in circumstances characterized with struggle. Familial interconnectedness is the belief that the family unit should be geographically and emotionally close. Familial honor is the belief that the role of the individual is to protect and defend the family's reputation. Subjugation of self for family is the belief that there should be submission and respect to the family unit. The behaviors that are guided and supported by these beliefs are known as behavioral familism, which include instrumental support, like financial help (Calzada et al., 2012), and social support provided by family (Knight et al., 2010).

Within the IPV literature, different components of familism have been found to be either detrimental or protective. Familial honor and subjugation of self for family are aspects of familism that have been linked to low levels of IPV or sexual assault victimization disclosure (Ahrens et al., 2010; Fuchsel, 2013). Latina women refrain from disclosing their experience with IPV or sexual violence, in part, to protect the family

from shame and adhere to the cultural norm of hiding family secrets (Ahrens et al., 2010; Fuchsel, 2013). Generally, they expect their family to support them in these experiences of abuse (Fuchsel, 2013; Klevens et al., 2007); however, some studies find differential experiences of familial support, where some women report supportive families and others report unsupportive families (Fuchsel, 2013; Kasturirangan & Williams, 2003; Klevens et al., 2007). Further, familism emphasizes the importance of togetherness, and in cases of IPV it can be harmful for victims. Latinx IPV victims report that the belief of family togetherness prevented them from leaving an abusive relationship (Vidales, 2010). On the other hand, the value of familism also emphasizes motherhood, which would encourage women to leave the relationship in order to protect the children (Acevedo, 2000; Alcalde, 2010). As presented in the previous studies, the evidence of how familism is connected with IPV victimization is mixed in that different aspects of familism are related to different IPV experiences.

Familism has been examined as a composite score that includes different components of this value, like family support and subjugation of self. When a composite score is used it can obscure the fact that these different components operate differently. Among a sample of Latina emerging adults, familism was negatively associated with IPV victimization related to injury tactics from a romantic partner (Camacho, 2009). Endorsement of attitudinal familism predicted lower physical injury in the relationship. In this case, however, analyses were based on the overall measure of familism, which included familial support, interconnectedness, honor, and subjugation of self. Santis and colleagues (2016) reported similar results, where higher endorsement of familism was related to a decrease in IPV history and sexual risk taking. A total score of familism,

which included familial obligations, perceived family support, and family as referent, was again used. However, Cuevas (2009) did not report a significant relationship between attitudinal familism and IPV among Latina women.

It is important to emphasize that specific factors within familism are associated with differential effects. For example, subjugation of self and family honor have been shown to be harmful for victims of IPV, while familial social support has been shown to be helpful. Cueves and colleagues (2015) reported results from a longitudinal study consisting of two time points with a sample of Latinx youth. An increase in social support at the final time point decreased the likelihood of victimization among non-victims and victims at the initial time point. Social support included general perceived social support and familial social support. There was also an effect of the number of children in household, where the increase was associated with a decrease in revictimization. This was postulated to be a proxy indicator of familial support. Similarly, Sabina and colleagues (2016) analyzed the same data set and reported that among Latinx youth that experienced dating violence across two time points, family social support decreased their likelihood of abuse. Direct parent support is also protective against dating violence for Latinx youth (Kast et al., 2016). Cumulatively these studies suggest that familial social support is a protective Latinx cultural asset. It must be acknowledged, however, that general social support, regardless of the source, could potentially be more important than familial support (Gonzalez-Guarda et al., 2011). Therefore, in the proposed model, general social support will be controlled for when examining familial social support. The third prediction is as follows

Hypothesis 4. Higher perceived familial support will be related to lower rates of cyber dating abuse victimization, controlling for general social support.

Familial Social Support and Acculturation

The literature examining explanatory factors for the relationship between acculturation and IPV is limited. To the author's knowledge, there is one study that has tested the role of an explanatory variable, i.e., acculturative stress, between acculturation and IPV (Caetano et al., 2007). Studies that have found a relationship between acculturation and IPV often lack a potential explanation as to how this happens (Cuevas et al., 2010; Jasinski, 1998). Other studies suggest that specific cultural factors influence this relationship like traditional gender roles, acculturative stress, and familism (Alvarez et al., 2018; Garcia et al., 2005; Caetano et al., 2000; 2004; Grest et al., 2018; Sabina et al., 2015; Sanderson et al., 2004), but they do not directly test these explanations. One explanation is that it could be attributed to conflict that occurs due to the incongruence in traditional gender roles between the man and woman in the relationship (Sanderson et al., 2004), or the stress that occurs when partners have different levels of acculturation (Caetano et al., 2000). Another explanation is that Latinx culture has a strong emphasis on family, also known as familism. Family support is part of this cultural factor (Rodriguez et al., 2007), which could potentially buffer the risk for victimization (Garcia et al., 2005; Sabina et al., 2015; Sanderson et al., 2004).

One avenue that has yet to be explored is the role of familial social support, a specific component of familism, as the explanatory variable between Latinx orientation on the acculturation process and IPV victimization. IPV research using Latinx samples has examined familism, or aspects of familism, and acculturation orthogonally, but not in

conjunction, e.g., in a mediational analysis. For example, in one study, familism and acculturation were examined as predictors for the mediator of IPV attitudes, which then predicted actual IPV victimization (Camacho, 2009). This model supported attitudes of IPV as a mediator between acculturation and IPV victimization, and attitudes of IPV as a partial mediator between familism and IPV victimization.

Similarly, other studies have examined the role of acculturation and familism, among other variables, as separate predictors of IPV among Latinx adult and adolescent samples (Beas, 2006; Sabina et al., 2016; Sabina & Cuevas, 2013), or family social support as a control in the model (Garcia et al., 2005). Other research finds that more acculturated women reported IPV victimization at higher rates, but no relationship of attitudinal familism and IPV experience (Beas, 2009). Among Latinx youth, one study found an effect of family support on dating violence experience, but no effect of acculturation (Sabina et al., 2016). Another study found Latinx orientation on the acculturation scale decreased the likelihood of dating violence, and attitudinal familism increased the likelihood of formal help seeking, and social support, which included familial, friends, and others, was also protective (Sabina & Cuevas, 2013).

Although scarce, the studies that have examined acculturation and familism as IPV- related predictors provide correlational evidence about the relationship between acculturation and overall familism score or the individual components of familism. The overall familism score has been found to be positively associated with ethnic identity and Latinx orientation (Oxtoby, 2012), and negatively associated with Anglo orientation (Camacho, 2009; Oxtoby, 2012). Albeit exceptions exist (Camacho, 2009), a positive relationship between family social support and Latinx orientation has been endorsed

(Beas, 2009). This relationship is also present across other areas of study related to health and overall wellbeing. When compared to non-Latinx Whites, foreign and U.S. born Latinxs report higher levels of perceived familial social support (Almeida, Molnar, Kawachi, & Subramanian., 2009; Campos et al., 2008), and overall familism (Ramirez et al., 2004; Steidal & Contreras, 2003). In fact, retention of origin culture, as measured by language spoken at home, was also associated with greater perceived familial support for those in predominately Spanish speaking households when compared to predominately English-speaking households (Almeida et al., 2009).

There are studies which find that an increase in familial support was positively related to American-culture orientation (Rodriguez & Kosloski; 1998), or no association between level of acculturation and familial support (Steidal & Contreras, 2003). However, the majority support familism, or specific components like familial support, to be related to greater identification with heritage-culture (e.g. Curry et al., 2008). For example, among a sample of emerging adults (57% Latinx, 18% non-Latinx Blacks, 16% Whites, 7% Asians, and 2% mixed-ethnicity) American-culture orientation was not associated with familism, but heritage culture orientation was.

Although this evidence supports the assumption that a closer affiliation with Latinx culture is associated with a greater degree of familial social support, these two variables have been examined as separate predictors to an IPV related outcome, as such a mediational analysis has not been tested. This gap in the literature presents a unique opportunity to contribute to the literature on Latinx cultural factors and IPV. An additional aim of this study is to examine familism, specifically perceived family support,

as a potential explanatory factor for why Latinx culture is protective against IPV

victimization. The final prediction (also depicted in Figure 1) is as follows:

Hypothesis 5: Family social support will mediate the relationship between Latinx

orientation in the acculturation process and cyber dating aggression victimization.

Study Purpose

The purpose of this study is to examine the protective role of specific components

of Latinx culture and identity against cyber dating abuse victimization. The first aim is to

test the component of familism, perceived family social support, as an explanatory

pathway between Latinx culture is and victimization. An additional aim is to examine the

relationship between of ethnic identity affirmation and cyber dating abuse victimization.

This study contributes to the field of Latinx psychology by providing insight about the

relationship between unique cultural factors and cyber dating abuse victimization (see

Figure 1 for conceptual model).
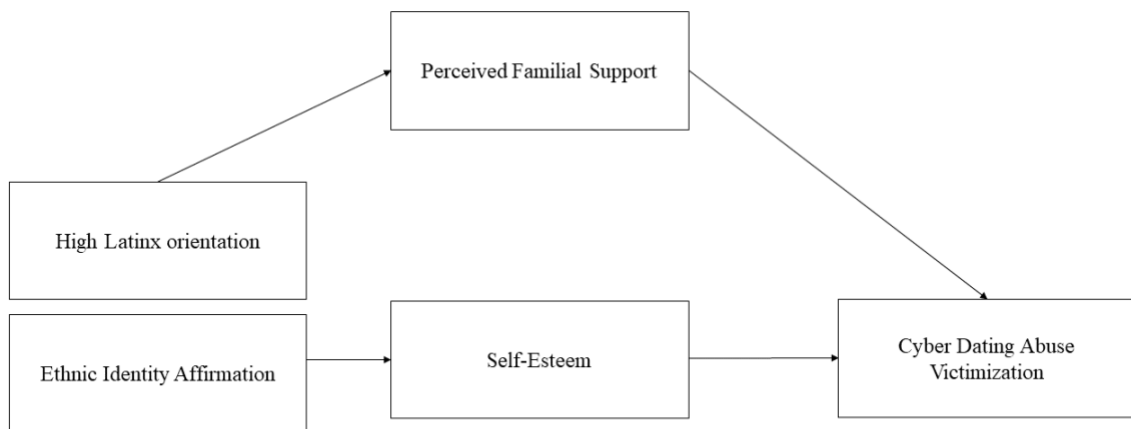
Figure 1. Conceptual Diagram of Hypothesized Model for Study 1

Methods

The study was conducted in a large Hispanic serving institution in the southeastern United States. A virtual recruitment process was implemented with an online recruitment flyer posted in a university platform, Sona Systems. This online platform allows university researchers to recruit undergraduate students. Participants in this study were compensated with course extra credit. The eligibility criteria to participate in this study was for individuals to self-identify as woman, as part of the Latinx culture, be in a romantic relationship at the time of recruitment and be between the ages of 18 – 29 years. Survey was linked to Sona System and online capabilities were supported by Qualtrics.

Participant Demographics

The participant sample was homogenous in terms of age group, gender, and ethnicity. All individuals in the sample self-identified as Latina women between the ages of 18 – 29 ($M = 22.03$; $SD = 2.63$). Another pre-requisite for study participation was being in a current romantic relationship. Most of the sample reported being in a romantic relationship with a male dating partner at the time of survey completion (95.2%, $n = $ 913/959), with the average relationship length being 22.54 months. The victimization rates within the sample were 11.57% for sexual CDA ($n = 110/951$), 25.39% for psychological CDA ($n = 242/953$), and 37.41% for stalking CDA ($n = 355/949$) within the last six months. A total of 83.42% of participants self-identified as heterosexual ($n = $ 800/959), 2.71% as lesbian ($n = 26/959$), 10.74% as bisexual ($n = 103/959$), 1.35% as "other" ($n = 13/959$), and 1.78% prefer not to respond or did not respond ($n = 17/959$).

Most of the sample reported being 2nd generation immigrants (42.44%, n = 407/959), followed by 1st generation status (38.48%, n = 369/959), 2.5th generation status (10.53%, n = 101/959), 3rd generation status (5.94%, n = 57/959), 4th generation status (2.19%, n = 21/959), 5th generation (0.31%, n = 3/959), with three non-responses. The highest reported familial nation of origin was Cuba (46.19%, n = 443/959; see Table 1. The descriptive statistics for the endogenous and exogenous variables along with their respective correlations are in Table 2.

Table 1

Study 1 First Familial Nation of Origin

First Familial Nation of Origin	N	%
Afghanistan	1	0.1%
USA	24	2.5%
USA/Colombia	1	0.1%
USA/Cuba	1	0.1%
Argentina	14	1.5%
Belize	2	0.2%
Bolivia	4	0.4%
Brazil	9	0.9%
Chile	13	1.4%
Colombia	81	8.5%
Costa Rica	2	0.2%
Cuba	443	46.6%
Cuba/USA	1	0.4%
Cuba/Peru	2	0.2%
Dominican Republic	47	4.9%
Dominican Republic/USA	1	0.1%
Dominican Republic/Haiti	1	0.1%
Ecuador	14	1.5%
Egypt	1	0.1%
Eritrean	1	0.1%
France/Cuba	1	0.1%
Guatemala	8	0.8%
Honduras	34	3.6%
Ireland	1	0.1%
Israel/Spain	1	0.1%
Italia	4	0.4%
Jamaica	3	0.3%
Jamaica/Dominican Republic	1	0.2%
Lebanon	1	0.2%

Mexico	31	3.3%
Mexico/Cuba	1	0.1%
Nicaragua	40	4.2%
Pakistan	1	0.1%
Panama	5	0.5%
Peru	40	4.2%
Puerto Rico	42	4.4%
Puerto Rico/Dominican Republic	1	0.1%
Romania	1	0.1%
Salvador	1	0.2%
Spain	7	0.7%
Spain/Nicaragua	1	0.1%
Uruguay	1	0.1%
Venezuela	56	5.9%

Table 2

Study 1 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Age	22.03	2.63								
2. Ethnic Identity Achievement	4.07	0.73	-.02 [-.08, .05]							
3. Family Support	5.71	1.44	.08* [.01, .14]	.19** [.13, .25]						
4. Friend Support	5.94	1.28	.01 [-.05, .08]	.16** [.10, .23]	.37** [.32, .43]					
5. LOS	3.99	0.65	-.02 [-.09, .04]	.41** [.36, .47]	.24** [.18, .30]	.16** [.09, .22]				
6. Psychological CDA	0.37	0.78	.03 [-.03, .10]	.05 [-.02, .11]	-.07* [-.13, -.00]	-.10** [-.16, -.04]	-.04 [-.11, .02]			
7. Self Esteem	22.87	6.14	-.09** [-.16, -.03]	-.08* [-.14, -.02]	-.07* [-.14, -.01]	-.06 [-.13, .00]	-.02 [-.09, .04]	.01 [-.05, .07]		
8. Sexual CDA	0.19	0.63	-.07* [-.13, -.00]	-.01 [-.08, .05]	-.12** [-.18, -.05]	-.07* [-.13, -.00]	-.04 [-.10, .03]	.36** [.31, .42]	.02 [-.05, .08]	
9. Stalking CDA	0.98	1.69	.02	.06	-.05	-.09**	-.04	.56**	-.02	.35**

[-.05, .08]	[-.01, .12]	[-.11, .02]	[-.16, -.03]	[-.10, .03]	[.52, .60]	[-.08, .05]	[.29, .40]

Note. *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. Values in square brackets indicate the 95% confidence interval for each correlation. * indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$

Measures

After affirming consent, participants reported their demographic information, followed by questions about their current romantic relationship experiences. Participants were also asked to answer a series of questions related to self-esteem, ethnic identity, acculturation, and social support. An attention check in the form of a question was incorporated to help reduce bias due to unreliable answers. The end of the survey included a page with resources at the local and national level related to intimate partner violence.

Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans-II (ARMSA-II)**.** The ARMSA-II measures the acculturation process (Cuéllar et al., 1995). This 30-item measure originally was intended to measure Mexican cultural orientation but has been adapted across other Latinx nationalities (Dennis et al., 2016; Kazak et al., 2018). The scale was modified by replacing mention of Mexico to "my nation of origin [e.g., Mexico, El Salvador, etc.,]" (Dennis et al., 2016) and changing "Mexican" to "Latino/Hispanic" (Kazak et al., 2018). There are two subscales within this measure, the 17 item Mexican orientation subscale (e.g., "My family cooks Latino/Hispanic foods") and the 13 item Anglo orientation subscale (e.g., "I enjoy listening to English language music"). All items were answered five-point Likert scale from not at all (0) to extremely often or almost always (5). The Mexican orientation subscale was adapted to be the Latinx cultural orientation subscale (Cuéllar et al., 1995; Dennis et al., 2016). These subscales were intended to capture affiliation with cultural of origin and majority culture. The ARMSA-II had a reliability of Cronbach's α = .84 in this study.

Cyber Aggression in Relationships Scale. The Cyber Aggression in

Relationships scale captured digital dating abuse victimization within the last 6 months

(Watkins et al., 2018). Response options for each question were on a 7-point Likert scale

from (0) *this has never happened* to (6) *more than 20 times in the past 6 months*, and (7)

not in the past 6 months, but it did happen before (7). As recommended by Watkins and

colleagues (2018) items were combined and transformed to represent degree of cyber

dating abuse endorsement, i.e., continuous variable of cyber dating abuse victimization.

This 17-item measure is composed of three subtypes of abuse: psychological, stalking,

and sexual. Two items were aggregated into the sexual cyber dating abuse subscale (1)

"Has your romantic partner ever threatened to share a sexually-explicit image or video of

you without your consent?" (2) "Has your romantic partner ever threatened to share a

sexually-explicit image or video of you without your consent?". These items capture

additional forms of digital sexual abuse supported by empirical evidence (Eaton et al.,

2020; Eaton et al., 2017; Ruvalcaba & Eaton, 2020). The unidimensional measure of

cyber dating abuse had an adequate reliability at Cronbach's α = 0.84. The corresponding

Cronbach's α for the psychological, sexual, and stalking cyber dating abuse subscales

were 0.60, 0.66, 0.81.

Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure – Revised (MEIM-R). The MEIM-R is a 6-

item scale that measures the process of ethnic identity by identifying the degree to which

is the individual is in the exploration, commitment, or achievement (Phiney & Ong,

2007). Questions were answered in agreement or not from *strongly agree* (1) to *strongly*

disagree (5). This measure is composed of two subscales, the exploration subscale and

commitment subscale. The commitment subscale was included as part of the analysis and

produced an adequate reliability of .89. An example item is "I have a strong sense of belonging to my own ethnic group" (Phinney & Ong, 2007).

Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support. The Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support measured perceived social support from family, friends, and significant other (Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet, & Farley, 1988). This scale has been administered to Latinx samples (Diaz & Bui, 2017). It contained three subscales composed of 4-items with Likert scale type answer choices from *very strongly disagree* (1) to *very strongly agree* (7). In line with aims of the study, the Family subscale was included as part of the analytical model, which had reliability of Cronbach's α = .93. An example item of the Family subscale is "I can talk about my problems with my family" (Zimet et al., 1988).

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale is a ten-item measure that assess self-esteem (Rosenberg, 1979). Participants rated their level of agreement on the statements using a Likert scale ranging from *strongly agree* (1) to *strongly disagree* (4). An example item is "I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others". The scale has an adequate reliability of Cronbach's α = .91 and has been previously used within a sample of Latinx emerging adults (Cano et al., 2016).

Results

Power

An a priori power analysis was conducted with the R package semPower, using α = .05 and power level at .80. A minimum sample size of 819 was required to detect a

misfit of .04 (Moshagen, 2018). The total sample size of 959 was large enough to detect effects.

Analytic strategy.

In the hypothesized model, family support was expected to partially account for the effect of LOS on the three types of CDA: psychological CDA, stalking CDA, and sexual CDA. Another path included in the model was self-esteem as the mediator between ethnic identity commitment and the three CDA typologies.

Structural equation modeling analysis (SEM) was executed with R software in the Lavaan package (Rosseel, 2012). Nonnormality was examined within the data, and after conducting a series of test with psych package, data nonnormality was confirmed (Revelle, 2004). Maximum likelihood estimation with bootstrapping was used as a robust method of estimation for standard errors and as a test of indirect effects with 1000 bootstrap samples (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Instead of incorporating traditional deletion methods to missing data, full information maximum likelihood was included within the model specificities in the Lavaan package (Rosseel, 2012; Kline, 2010). Additionally, the chi square test of model fit was examined, but with caution given the influence of a large sample size on statistical significance (Yuan & Bentler, 2000). Additional fit statistics were examined to determine the overall fit of the model to the data: root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI). The thresholds for cutoff points were RMSEA< .08, SRMR < .08, TFI > .95, CFI > .95 to determine acceptable model fit (Hoyle, 2012; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2015).

Structural Model

SEM with ML estimation was used to test the hypothesized model. Global fit

statistics indicated adequate model fit, RMSEA = .048 with 90% confidence intervals

inside acceptable parameters (.036 < RMSEA CL$_{90}$ < .061), SRMR = .037, CFI = .977,

TLI = .930. Modification indices were then explored. The data driven modification

indices did not support theoretically driven paths, therefore the model was retained.

Model Effects

Sexual CDA Victimization. The parameter estimates produced by the hypothesized

model are presented in Table 3. There were statistically significant direct pathways

between Latinx cultural orientation and familial support, $b = 0.421$, SE = 0.067, $p < .001$,

95% CI [0.291, 0.550] and between ethnic identity commitment and self-esteem, $b = $ -

0.686, SE = 0.289, $p = 0.021$, 95% CI [-1.243, -0.090]. There was also a direct pathway

between family support and sexual CDA victimization, $b = -0.041$, SE = 0.016, $p = $

0.008, 95% CI [-0.073, -0.011]. A one-unit increase in familial support produced a 0.041-

unit increase in sexual CDA victimization. As expected, the indirect effect of Latinx

cultural orientation on sexual CDA through family support was statistically significant, b

$= -0.017$, SE = 0.007, $p = 0.015$ 95% CI [-0.032, -0.005]. A one-unit change in Latinx

cultural orientation predicted a 0.017 decrease in sexual CDA because of family support

increasing by 0.421 units. All other tested indirect effects were non-significant.

Stalking and Psychological CDA Victimization. There was a different pattern of

effects for stalking CDA and psych CDA. Friend support was the only exogenous

variable with a direct effect onto stalking CDA, $b = -0.121$, SE = 0.047, $p = 0.011$, 95%

CI (-0.212, -0.027). For psychological CDA, there was a direct path from friend support,

32

to psychological CDA, $b = -0.056$, SE $= 0.022$, $p = 0.013$, 95% CI [-0.101, -0.013].

Contrary to expectation, a different pattern between ethnic identity commitment and

psych CDA was observed. There was a positive and statistically significant relationship

between ethnic identity commitment and psych CDA, $b = 0.113$, SE $= 0.056$, $p = 0.042$,

95% CI [-0.005, 0.223]. All other paths were nonsignificant.

Table 3

Study 1 Unstandardized Parameter Estimates of Hypothesized Structural Equation Model

Predictor	DV	Path Values	SE	sig	p	Lower.CI	Upper. CI
Direct Effect							
Family Support	LOS	0.42	0.07	*	0.00	0.29	0.55
Self Esteem	EI Commitment	0.69	0.30	*	0.02	-1.24	-0.09
Age	Psych CDA	0.01	0.01		0.39	-0.01	0.03
Income	Psych CDA	0.01	0.02		0.36	-0.02	0.05
Generation	Psych CDA	-0.02	0.03		0.37	-0.08	0.02
LOS	Psych CDA	-0.09	0.05		0.05	-0.19	0.00
EI Commitment	Psych CDA	0.11	0.06	*	0.04	-0.01	0.22
EI Exploration	Psych CDA	-0.03	0.04		0.53	-0.11	0.05
Family Support	Psych CDA	-0.03	0.02		0.22	-0.07	0.02
Friend Support	Psych CDA	-0.06	0.02	*	0.01	-0.10	-0.01
Self Esteem	Psych CDA	0.00	0.00		0.65	-0.01	0.01
Age	Stalking CDA	0.01	0.02		0.55	-0.03	0.06
Income	Stalking CDA	0.01	0.04		0.84	-0.06	0.08
Generation	Stalking CDA	0.03	0.06		0.59	-0.09	0.16
LOS	Stalking CDA	-0.02	0.11		0.29	-0.34	0.11
EI Commitment	Stalking CDA	0.10	0.13		0.43	-0.16	0.37
EI Exploration	Stalking CDA	0.10	0.10		0.31	-0.10	0.29
Family Support	Stalking CDA	-0.03	0.04		0.51	-0.10	0.05
Friend Support	Stalking CDA	-0.12	0.05	*	0.01	-0.21	-0.03
Self Esteem	Stalking CDA	-0.00	0.00		0.56	-0.02	0.01
Age	Sexual CDA	-0.01	0.01		0.05	-0.03	0.00
Income	Sexual CDA	0.00	0.01		0.87	-0.02	0.03
Generation	Sexual CDA	-0.04	0.02		0.05	-0.09	0.00
LOS	Sexual CDA	-0.04	0.05		0.41	-0.13	0.05
EI Commitment	Sexual CDA	-0.03	0.05		0.48	-0.14	0.05
EI Exploration	Sexual CDA	0.04	0.04		0.33	-0.04	0.12
Family Support	Sexual CDA	-0.04	0.02	*	0.01	-0.07	0.01
Indirect Effect of Family Support							
LOS	Psych CDA	-0.01	0.01		0.24	-0.03	0.01

LOS	Stalking CDA	-0.01	0.02		0.53	-0.04	0.02
LOS	Sexual CDA	-0.02	0.00	*	0.02	-0.03	-0.01
Indirect Effect of Self Esteem							
EI Commitment	Psych CDA	0.00	0.00		0.68	-0.01	0.00
EI Commitment	Stalking CDA	0.00	0.02		0.60	-0.01	0.02
EI Commitment	Sexual CDA	0.00	0.00		0.86	0.00	0.00

Exploratory Analysis

The unexpected positive association between psychological CDA and ethnic identity commitment was further explored. One reason ethnic identity might be positively related to psychological CDA may have to do with the effect of Latinx gender role endorsement. Literature and theory suggest that culturally specific gender role beliefs are risk factors for victimization for intimate partner violence among Latinx populations (Faria, 2021, Gonzalez-Guarda et al., 2013). Research further suggests that those high in Latinx ethnic identity can show greater support for these culturally specific gender roles (Sanchez et al., 2019). Therefore, correlations between negative gender role beliefs, i.e., negative marianismo and traditional machismo, and psychological CDA were examined. Marianismo and psychological CDA were positively correlated, $r(902) = .13, p > .001$. A similar pattern was present for traditional machismo and psychological CDA, $r(902) = .62, p > .001$. Thereafter, the hypothesized model was revised to incorporate traditional machismo, marianismo, and caballerismo as meditators between ethnic identity commitment and psychological CDA (see Table 4). Marianismo and traditional machismo were included in the model as mediators between ethnic identity commitment and psychology cyber dating abuse. The direct pathways between these two variables on psychological cyber dating abuse were also incorporated. The revised model global fit statistics indicated good model fit, RMSEA = .046 with 90% confidence intervals inside

34

acceptable parameters (.037 < RMSEA CL$_{90}$ < .055), SRMR = .042, CFI = .97, TLI = .92.

There were no mediating effects of traditional machismo and negative marianismo between ethnic identity commitment and psychological CDA. However, the direct effect of ethnic identity commitment on psychological cyber dating abuse was below the threshold for significance when traditional machismo and negative marianismo were included in the model. Although a direct effect between traditional machismo and psychological CDA was not present, there was a statistically significant direct effect between marianismo and psychological CDA, $b = 0.132$, SE = 0.057, $p = 0.022$, 95% CI [0.020, 0.245]. In other words, there was a positive relationship between marianismo and psychological CDA, as such marianismo served as a risk factor for this form of abuse.

Table 4

Study 1 Unstandardized Parameter Estimates of Exploratory Structural Equation Model

Predictor	DV	Path Values	SE	sig	p	Lower .CI	Upper .CI
Direct Effect							
Family Support	LOS	0.44	0.07	*	0.00	0.32	0.57
Self Esteem	EI Commitment	-0.69	0.30	*	0.02	-1.26	-0.09
Age	Psych CDA	0.01	0.01		0.48	-0.01	0.03
Income	Psych CDA	0.02	0.02		0.30	-0.01	0.05
Generation	Psych CDA	-0.03	0.03		0.35	-0.08	0.02
LOS	Psych CDA	-0.08	0.05		0.07	-0.18	0.01
EI Commitment	Psych CDA	0.10	0.06		0.06	-0.01	0.21
EI Exploration	Psych CDA	-0.03	0.04		0.51	-0.11	0.06
Family Support	Psych CDA	-0.03	0.02		0.14	-0.07	0.01
Friend Support	Psych CDA	-0.06	0.02	*	0.01	-0.1	0.01
Self Esteem	Psych CDA	0.00	0.00		0.69	-0.01	0.01
Marianismo	Psych CDA	0.13	0.06	*	0.02	0.02	0.25
Traditional Machismo	Psych CDA	-0.03	0.03		0.27	-0.09	0.03
Caballerismo	Psych CDA	0.00	0.02		0.94	-0.03	0.04
Age	Stalking CDA	0.01	0.02		0.55	-0.03	0.06
Income	Stalking CDA	0.01	0.04		0.85	-0.06	0.08
Generation	Stalking CDA	0.04	0.06		0.59	-0.09	0.16

		Est	SE		p	LL	UL
LOS	Stalking CDA	-0.12	0.11		0.30	-0.34	0.11
EI Commitment	Stalking CDA	0.10	0.13		0.44	-0.17	0.36
EI Exploration	Stalking CDA	0.10	0.10		0.31	-0.10	0.29
Family Support	Stalking CDA	-0.02	0.04		0.55	-0.10	0.06
Friend Support	Stalking CDA	-0.12	0.05	*	0.01	-0.21	-0.03
Self Esteem	Stalking CDA	0.00	0.01		0.56	-0.02	0.01
Age	Sexual CDA	-0.01	0.01		0.05	-0.03	0.00
Income	Sexual CDA	0.00	0.01		0.87	-0.02	0.03
Generation	Sexual CDA	-0.04	0.02		0.05	-0.09	0.00
LOS	Sexual CDA	-0.04	0.05		0.43	-0.13	0.05
EI Commitment	Sexual CDA	-0.04	0.05		0.47	-0.14	0.05
EI Exploration	Sexual CDA	0.04	0.04		0.33	-0.04	0.12
Family Support	Sexual CDA	-0.04	0.02	*	0.01	-0.07	-0.01
Indirect Effect of Family Support							
LOS	Psych CDA	-0.01	0.01		0.15	-0.03	0.01
LOS	Stalking CDA	-0.01	0.02		0.56	-0.04	0.03
LOS	Sexual CDA	-0.02	0.01	*	0.01	-0.03	0.01
Indirect Effect of Self Esteem							
EI Commitment	Psych CDA	0.00	0.00		0.72	0.00	0.00
EI Commitment	Stalking CDA	0.00	0.01		0.60	-0.01	0.02
EI Commitment	Sexual CDA	0.00	0.00		0.87	0.00	0.00
Indirect Effect of Marianismo							
EI Commitment	Psych CDA	0.00	0.00		0.73	-0.01	0.01
Indirect Effect of Traditional Machismo							
EI Commitment	Psych CDA	0.01	0.01		0.31	0.00	0.02
Indirect Effect of Caballerismo							
EI Commitment	Psych CDA	0.00	0.00		0.96	0.00	0.00

Discussion

This study provides insight into the relationship between cyber dating abuse and protective factors among Latina emerging adults in the U.S. This research contributes to the literature by examining a population with a disproportionately high experience of IPV, but scarce literature on their experiences with cyber dating abuse (Cano-Gonzalez et al., 2020; Reed et al., 2020). In addition, we contribute to the literature on cyber dating abuse by examining it as multidimensional construct (Ali et al., 2016; Brown et al., 2021;

Mennicke, 2019). Most research on cyber dating abuse has examined this form of violence as unidimensional, despite various measures of cyber dating abuse confirming the existence of multiple constructs both statistically and qualitatively (Borrajo et al., 2015; Brown & Hegarty, 2018; Caridad et al., 2019; Lu et al., 2018). Finally, we contribute to theory on culture and IPV by examining culturally-relevant protective factors from a strengths-based perspective. We find significant links between culturally-relevant protective factors and the different dimensions of cyber dating abuse.

Among victims of sexual cyber dating abuse, Latinx cultural orientation was found to serve as a protective factor. This finding is consistent with previous research on acculturation and IPV among Latinx populations. Specifically, higher affiliation to Latinx cultural orientation has been associated with lower levels of IPV experience (Sabina et al., 2015; Zavala, 2020). Scholars have consistently hypothesized Latinx cultural orientation as protective against IPV, in part, due to familism since this cultural value emphasizes the importance of family support (Sabina et al., 2015). Yet no research we could find tested this prediction. This study additionally provides empirical support for family support as an explanatory variable between Latinx cultural orientation and cyber dating abuse victimization for sexual cyber dating abuse.

One potential reason why family support was protective against sexual cyber dating abuse, and not psychological and stalking abuse, could be that this form of abuse is uniquely situated as both sexual violence and IPV (Wright et al., 2021). The sexualized nature of violence brings in unique disclosure barriers and experiences specific to sexual violence (Wright et al., 2021). For example, there perceived social stigma and shame among women who experience sexual violence (Wright et al., 2021). Also, among

37

Latina women there are specific cultural considerations (Faria, 2021), where matters of sexuality are not openly discussed (Villarreal, 2020), in addition, to there being a strong familial orientation (Faria, 2021). This informs the duality of family involvement post sexual violence victimization. Some studies among Latina victims of both sexual and intimate partner violence have identified family as a barrier to disclosure, due to privacy of personal issues and protecting the family unit from shame (Christensen et al., 2021; Lewis et al., 2005). Yet other studies among Latina women have found more a positive outlook in the role of families for sexual violence survivors (e.g., Villarreal 2020). The key differentiation is the reaction received from their families and the degree of support victims perceived post disclosure (Gonzalez-Guarda et al., 2016; Ligiéro et al., 2009). In fact, among Latina sexual violence victims, family support weighs more heavily given that it is more common among Latinas to disclose sexual violence victimization to their kin network rather than friends or formal supports (Cuevas et al., 2014; Ligiéro et al., 2009; Villareal, 2020; Yoshioka et al., 2003).

Thus, the effects of social support systems may be different for sexual vs. nonsexual forms of abuse for Latina women. This is further substantiated by findings indicating that friend unlike family support was protective for nonsexual forms of cyberdating abuse (i.e., psychological and stalking cyber dating abuse). Therefore, the effect of friends and family supports both appear to differ by the characterization of abuse. Although there is substantial research supporting friends and family as important social supports for IPV survivors (for review see Sylaska & Edwards, 2014), this is one of the few studies that distinguishes between sources of social support and different forms of partner abuse (Yoshioka et al., 2003). Additional research is warranted to more

deeply understand the meanings and reasons for differential effects of social system

supports on different forms of IPV among Latina women.

In terms of ethnic identity as a predictive factor, literature among Latinx

populations has supported ethnic identity as promoting well-being and protecting against

negative mental health, risky taking attitudes, and health compromising behaviors

(Perreira et al., 2020; Serrano-Villar & Calzada, 2016; risky attitudes, Forster et al.,

2019). The substantial research on the positive effects of ethnic identity among Latinx

adolescents and adults gained the attention of IPV researchers (Eaton & Stephens, 2018;

Forster et al., 2017; Sanderson et al., 2004). In light of the fact that ethnic identity has

been found to be protective against dating violence (Forster et al., 2017), the results from

this study were unexpected. Specifically, we found a positive association between ethnic

identity and psychological cyber dating abuse.

One potential explanation for this effect is the connection between ethnic identity

and culturally-specific gender role norms (Scott, 2017). Ethnic identity socialization and

development occurs in conjunction with and relative to other forms of socialization, like

gender role socialization (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2013; Acevedo-Polakovich et al., 2014;

Martinez et al., 2012). Gender role socialization within the context of culture also informs

identity development (Castillo et al., 2010; Miville et al., 2016). In Latinx culture,

marianismo represents one of the primary elements of the female gender role (Faria 2021,

Morales & Pérez, 2020). Because these culturally-specific beliefs are socialized in

conjunction with ethnic identity, and because marianismo may increase the risk of IPV

(Gonazez-Guarda et al., 2013; Terrazas-Carrollo & Sabina, 2019), we examined

marianismo as a mediator of the relationship between ethnic identity commitment and

psychological cyber dating abuse, as well as the direct pathway between marianismo and psychological cyber dating abuse. As expected, endorsement of negative marianismo beliefs statistically accounted for the positive relationship between psychological cyber dating abuse and ethnic identity commitment. Although research has examined ethnic identity and gender role beliefs among Latinas, the topic of "gendered ethnic identity" is understudied (Scott, 2017 p. 53), a comprehensive and dynamic understanding of identities and behavioral outcomes among Latinas is warranted.

Limitations

The empirical contributions of this study must be considered within a number of limitations. First, the associations between protective factors and cyber dating abuse typologies cannot be extended to perpetration experiences given the etiological and characterological differences between them (Ali et al., 2016, Carlson & Jones, 2010; Dixon & Graham-Kevan, 2011). Additionally, violence in this study was examined from a victim only perspective, with abuse being conceptualized as one directional, from perpetrator to victim. Therefore, the influence of bidirectional violence and context was not captured in this study. A systematic review of IPV typologies recommends that unidirectional violence and bidirectional violence experiences should be understood separately (Mennicke, 2019). Other limitations pertain to the design of the study. The effects captured from a cross sectional design are stagnant and represent a snapshot in time of culturally-relevant construct that have been theorized and documented to be fluid (Acevedo-Polakovich et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2020; Shadish et al., 2001; Steiner et al., 2009; Wang & Cheng, 2020). Thus, while the directionality of pathways between

protective factors was theoretically supported, causality cannot be assumed (Shadish et al., 2001).

Future Directions

Given the findings of this study, we make a few recommendations for future studies. Researchers that intend to test the role of known risk and protective factors of in-person IPV should examine cyber dating abuse as multidimensional and be cognizant that the qualitative differences in cyber dating abuse categories could impact results. To further advance a violence prevention agenda, studies should focus on identifying cyber dating abuse prevalence rates and accompanying risk and protective factors among at risk groups like same sex couples (Butchart et al., 2002; CDC, 2021; Graham et al., 2021). Same-sex couples have a higher likelihood of engaging in in-person IPV, and additional research is necessary to understand how sexual orientation status and IPV risk translates to technological forms of abuse.

Another suggestion is to extend this line of research to include individuals who self-identify in another gender category other than women, e.g., non-binary individuals. Although there are commonalities in violence victimization and perpetration experiences, social identity, especially those that are marginalized and oppressed, is related to differential protective and risk factors, physical and mental health outcomes, and life trajectories post victimization (Cardenas, 2020; Censhaw, 1993; Cho et al., 2015; Hereth, 2021; Peitzmeier et al., 2020; Whitfield et al., 2021; Whitton et al., 2019). For example, individuals who identity as transgender or gender non-confirming have greater likelihood of experiencing IPV victimization when compared to cisgender gender women (Valentine et al., 2017).

At the intersection of multiple social identities, like self-identifying as Latinx and gender nonconforming, or self-identifying as Latinx and non-heterosexual, there are unique culturally relevant risk and protective factors for IPV. The finding that family support mediated the relationship between Latinx cultural orientation and sexual cyber dating abuse is specific to Latina heterosexual women. Literature supports the construct of familism and perceptions of family support among Lesbian Gay Bisexual Transgender and Queer (LGBTQ) individuals as complex and multifaceted (Laboy, 2008; Messinger et al., 2021; Weinhardt et al., 2019). The pathways between Latinx cultural orientation and family support as protective against sexual IPV may be different among LGBTQ couples. For example, transgender individuals report seeking support for IPV victimization from formal services rather than family and friends (Messinger et al., 2021). Additional research should examine culturally protective factors, or risk factors, among these populations.

This extension of scope should not be limited to gender identity, but also include exploring the potential differential experiences of various racial and ethnic identities with cyber dating abuse. A social identity in psychological science that has systematically been rendered invisible is race among Latinx samples; especially the implications of being a Black Latinx person (Adames et al., 2021; Stephens et al., 2012). Moving forward, studies could implement the Entering Racial Ethnic Identity Framework to contextualize violence research with Latinx communities (Adames et al., 2021).

Conclusions

Social media platforms, cell phone use, and other technology -mediated communication platforms have created a space for intimate partner abuse (Duerksen et

al., 2020; Hertlein et al., 2020), transforming understandings and experiences of IPV (Flach & Deslandes, 2017; Lu et al., 2018; Zweig et al., 2014). Among racial/ethnic minority groups in the US, there has been a disproportionate experience of IPV (Black et al., 2011; Caetano et al., 2005; Eaton & Stephens, 2018; Reingle et al., 2014). In the most extreme case of death among intimate partners, researchers have found that racial/ethnic minorities die nearly a decade earlier than the White majority by those killed by an intimate partner (Graham et al., 2021). Gender disparities are also present, where a higher proportion of women have suffered from intimate partner violence fatalities than men (Graham et al., 2021). Therefore, IPV prevention focused research among racial/ethnic minority populations is necessary, especially among novel forms of violence. This study builds on the scare cyber dating abuse research among Latinx communities (Cano-Gonzalez et al., 2020; Reed et al., 2020), and contributes to furthering the research agenda of reducing health disparities and increasing equitable living conditions.

III. STUDY TWO: CYBER DATING ABUSE AMONG EMERGING ADULT LATINAS: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CYBER DATING ABUSE, IN-PERSON ABUSE, HEALTH BEHAVIORS, AND WELL-BEING

Abstract

Technological modalities have created novel avenues for abuse to be perpetrated. Within the context of romantic relationships, cyber dating abuse has emerged as another type of intimate partner violence (IPV). Like in-person forms of IPV, studies are consistently finding that when women are compared to men, women experience a disproportionate amount of victimization (Marganski & Fauth, 2013; Zweig et al., 2014). Yet cyber dating abuse research among racial/ethnic minority groups is lacking. The purpose of this study is to examine the experience of cyber dating abuse victimization among Latina women. Using a longitudinal design, we examined the relationship between cyber dating abuse victimization and IPV risk and protective factors. Findings indicated no relationship between victimization and later depression, anxiety, sexual risk taking, and alcohol use. Additionally, there were concurrent and prospective relationships between in-person forms of IPV and cyber dating abuse subtypes. This study provides evidence for the importance of including technological forms of relationship abuse into violence prevention and intervention efforts.

Keywords: Hispanic, Latina, IPV, partner abuse, polyvictimization

One growing form of dating violence is the use of technology to perpetrate harm within the context of a romantic relationship (Flach & Deslandes, 2017). Researchers have labeled this "cyber aggression in relationships" (Watkins et al., 2018), "cyber dating abuse" (Borrajo, Gámez-Guadix, & Calvete, 2015a), "intimate partner cyberaggression" (Marganski & Melander, 2018), and "intimate partner cyberharassment" (Melander, 2010), among other terms (see Flach & Deslandes, 2017 for a review). Cyber dating abuse is characterized as intimate partner abuse facilitated by technology, such that technology is used to enact harm and control towards a romantic partner (Watkins et al., 2018).

Cyber dating abuse contains three dimensions: direct aggression (Borrajo, Gámez-Guadix, Pereda, & Calvete, 2015b), control monitoring (Borrajo et al., 2015b), and a sexual component (Stonard et al., 2014; Zweig, Dank, Lachman, & Yahner, 2013). Direct aggression behaviors include the use of technology, like social media or texts, to insult or threaten a romantic partner (Borrajo et al., 2015b). Control monitoring cyber dating abuse includes behaviors intended to control the partner and monitor partner behaviors, such as checking personal social media messages (Watkins et al., 2018). These two elements are categorized as nonsexual components of cyber dating abuse (Dick et al., 2014; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017; Zweig et al., 2013). Sexual cyber dating abuse, on the other hand, includes forms of sexual aggression, like pressuring a romantic partner to send sexually explicit pictures or threatening the partner if they refused to send sexualized context (Dick et al., 2014; Fernet et al., 2019; Watkins et al., 2018; Zweig et al., 2013).

Although there is overlap in definitions between cyber dating abuse and other forms of intimate partner violence (IPV), there is a qualitative difference in that the

technological component of cyber dating abuse allows the victim to be accessed without time constraints and physical presence (Lu et al., 2018; Zweig, Lachman, Yahner, & Dank, 2014). Also, given the interconnectedness that technological and cyber platforms provide public degradation and humiliation of a victim may be achieved more quickly and easily through cyber dating abuse than other forms of IPV (Zweig et al., 2014). However, despite this being a unique form of IPV, legislative definitions for criminalizing IPV have yet to incorporate this technological component (United States Department of Justice, 2020).

Latina Emerging Adults

While the majority of the research on cyber dating abuse has used adolescent samples (Dick et al., 2014; Lu et al., 2018; Temple et al., 2016; Van Ouystel, Ponnet, Walrave, & Temple, 2016; Van Ouystel, Ponnet, & Walrave, 2017; Zweig et al., 2014), research on emerging adults is of equal importance. Emerging adulthood (ages 18-29; Arnett et al., 2014) is a developmental period specific to Western countries where the identity formation and exploration that began in adolescence continue to progress (Arnett, 2010). Identity formation is the process of individual self-reflection on personal views, values, beliefs, and goals (Schwartz et al., 2010; Schwartz, Côté, Arnett, 2005) while identity exploration is the process of the individual weighing different identities to find which one best fits with their personal sense of self (Allem, Sussman, & Unger, 2017; Luyckx, Schwartz, Goossens, Beyers, & Missotten, 2011). During this developmental period, engagement with and exploration of romantic and sexual intimacy is integral (Shulman, & Connolly, 2013, Zimmer-Gembeck, Hughes, Kelly, & Connolly, 2012). Therefore, it is important to examine healthy and unhealthy romantic relationship

46

behaviors during this stage, like cyber dating abuse. This is especially true since age has

also been identified as an important risk factor for IPV, with perpetration risk being

highest in the early twenties (Johnson, Giordano, Manning, & Longmore, 2015). In fact,

a total of 71.1% women and 55.8% of men had their first experience with IPV

victimization before age 25 (Smith et al., 2018).

A second limitation in the cyber dating abuse literature is the focus on

predominately White samples within the United States. It is crucial to examine this

modern form of dating violence among adults from racial/ethnic minority backgrounds

given that these communities are often at a heightened risk for IPV (Black et al., 2011;

Eaton & Stephens, 2018; Reingle, Jennings, Connell, Businelle, & Chartier, 2014). For

instance, a study examining risk factors for IPV reported that racial/ethnic minority

groups, specifically Blacks and Latinx and women, were more likely to report

victimization and perpetration in comparison to Whites and men (Reingle et al., 2014).

Further, racial/ethnic minorities have the lowest median household income and highest

rates of poverty (Macartney, Bishaw, & Fontenot, 2013; Semega, Fontenot, Kollar,

2017), which are associated with higher lifetime levels of IPV victimization (Breiding,

Black, & Ryan, 2008). Community level risk factors are also associated with IPV, in

particular community violence and neighborhood disorder (Cummings, Gonzalez-

Guarda, & Sandoval, 2013; Cunradi, 2009; Raghavan, Mennerich, Sexton, & James,

2006; Raghavan, Rajah, Gentile, Collado, & Kavanagh, 2009). Among men and women

who self-identify as Latinx, there is an association between neighborhood disorder,

characterized as crime in the neighborhood, street fights, desolate and graphitized

buildings, and IPV (Cunaldi, 2009). Neighborhood disorder increases the likelihood of

IPV perpetration among Latino men, and neighborhood disorder and alcohol abuse increase the likelihood for IPV victimization among Latina women (Cunradi, 2009).

Among heterosexual Latinx couples, the recurrence of severe IPV is four times higher when compared to White couples over a five-year period (Caetano et al., 2005). Among Latinx emerging adults, an estimated 32% report IPV victimization while an estimated 27% report IPV perpetration in the past year (Grest, Lee, Gilreath, & Unger, 2018). For Latina emerging adult women, psychological (9.8%) followed by sexual (8.3%) IPV was the most common type of perpetration, and sexual (15.6%) followed by psychological (10.8%) was the most common type for victimization (Grest et al., 2018). Interestingly, IPV prevalence rates for Latinas decrease from their early twenties to their late twenties, indicating that Latinas are at increased risk for IPV in early emerging adulthood (Nowotny & Graves, 2013). Therefore, an objective of this study is to examine cyber dating abuse among Latina emerging adults and its relationship to mental health and health risk behaviors, and polyvictimization.

Cyber Dating Abuse and Gender

At the intersection of technology and abuse, gender differences have been found in technology-facilitated sexual violence, which is when technology is used as a mechanism to enact physical and virtual sexual harms (Henry & Powell, 2018). A review of the literature finds that women are the most common targets for online sexual harassment and "revenge porn," which is when a sexually explicit image is distributed without consent with the intent to harm (Henry & Powell, 2018). This finding is consistent with research on nonconsensual porn, which includes the nonconsensual distribution of sexually explicit images (Ruvalcaba & Eaton, 2019). Nonconsensual porn

is an umbrella term which includes revenge porn as well as the distribution of sexually explicit images for any reason (e.g., profit, humor, etc.). Nonconsensual porn is considered a gendered form of digital sexual abuse, where women are at higher risk for victimization and men are at higher risk for perpetration (Ruvalcaba & Eaton, 2019). These forms of abuse postulate that when the type of abuse is sexual in nature, women will be at a higher risk for victimization than men (Henry & Powell, 2018; Ruvalcaba & Eaton, 2019; Smith et al., 2018).

Other findings suggest that college women are three times more likely to experience victimization by technology-facilitated dating aggression than men (Marganski & Fauth, 2013). Martinez-Pecino & Durán (2016) found that men perpetrated cyber dating abuse more often than women, and that hostile sexist beliefs towards women accounted for the variance in this relationship. Other studies reported no gender differences in perpetration (Reed, Tolman, & Ward, 2016), and victimization (Wolford-Clevenger et al., 2016) of digital dating abuse among college students. Being female is one of the strongest correlates with cyber dating abuse among youth (Zweig et al., 2014), with females ages 13-19 years reporting higher rates of cyber dating abuse victimization than males (Dick et al., 2014).

Acculturation and Intimate Partner Violence

Guided by intersectionality theory, an additional cultural and identity consideration in understanding cyber dating violence among Latinx emerging adults is acculturation, or "…the process of culture change and adaptation that occurs when individuals with different cultures come into contact" (Gibson, 2001, p. 19). Within the context of the United States, acculturation refers to the process of adopting White

American culture, or the "receiving cultures'" practices, values, and identification (Schwartz, Unger, Zamboanga, & Szapocznik, 2010). Initially the acculturation model was unidimensional, describing individuals as moving along a continuum from immersion in their heritage culture to immersion in the receiving culture. In this old model, accepting one culture meant departure from the other culture. Now understood as a multidimensional model, integration into the receiving culture does not diminish or erase the individual's heritage culture (Schwartz et al., 2010). This updated model posits that the dimensions of receiving-culture acquisition and heritage-culture retention are independent (Schwartz et al., 2010).

Within IPV and acculturation research, the concept of high acculturation is consistent with assimilation in the multidimensional model, whereby a highly acculturated individual is highly immersed in the dominant culture (Caetano, Schafer, Clark, Cunradi, & Raspberry, 2000; Caetano, Ramisetty-Mikler, & McGrath, 2004; Garcia, Hurwitz, & Kraus, 2005; Harris, Firestone, & Vega, 2005; Jasinki, 1998). In other words, high acculturation is synonymous to high levels of host culture assimilation (Smokowski et al., 2009). Research using Latinx samples has supported a significant relationship between acculturation and IPV, with increased acculturation being associated with increased IPV perpetration for males and victimization for females (Garcia et al., 2005; Grest et al, 2017; Jasinki, 1998; Sabina, Cuevas, & Zadnik, 2015), albeit not all (Cunradi, 2009; Grest et al., 2018; Ramirez, 2007). The finding consistent across the majority of studies is that high acculturation is associated with increased IPV experience, while Latinx orientation decreases odds of IPV victimization and perpetration; this supports Latinx culture as protective against IPV (Alvarez, Ramirez, Frietze, Field, &

Zárate, 2018; Garcia et al., 2005; Grest et al., 2017; Gonzalez-Guarda et al., 2012; Jasinki, 1998; Sabina et al., 2015). In fact, a meta-analysis reported a significant positive relationship between acculturation and IPV victimization among Latinx samples, although small $r = .11$ (Alvarez et al., 2018). Guided by intersectionality theory, the acculturation framework will be used to contextualize cyber dating abuse victimization.

Cyber Dating Abuse and Polyvictimization

Ample research finds that the various forms of in-person IPV usually co-occur (Flanagan, Jaquier, Gordon, Moore, & Stuart, 2014; Halpern-Meekin, Manning, Giordano, & Longmore, 2013; Jun, Rich-Edwards, Boynton-Jarrett, & Wright, 2008; Sullivan, McPartland, Armeli, Jaquier, & Tennen, 2012) - a phenomenon called "polyvictimization" (Sabina & Straus, 2008). For example, among unmarried young adults being in an unstable romantic relationship increased the likelihood of experiencing physical and verbal abuse (Halpern-Meekin et al., 2013). A study across 19 U.S. colleges reported that approximately 50% of men and women who reported IPV victimization experienced polyvictimization, with the most common combination being psychological, physical, and sexual victimization (Sabina & Straus, 2008).

Previous research has also found a positive relationship between the occurrence of cyber dating abuse and psychological, physical, and sexual in-person IPV (Borrajo et al., 2015a, Marganski & Melander, 2018; Paat et al., 2019; Reed et al., 2016; Wolford-Clevenger et al., 2016; Zweig et al., 2013). Among U.S. college students, there is a positive association between cyber dating abuse with psychological and sexual abuse (Reed et al., 2016). Similarly, cyber dating abuse co-occurs with physical and psychological abuse, sexual coercion, and depressive symptoms among college students

(Wolford-Clevenger et al., 2016). Further, the odds of experiencing in-person IPV victimization are significantly increased with the experience of intimate partner cyber aggression (Marganski & Melander, 2018). Previous studies find similar results, where there is a positive relationship between cyber dating abuse with psychological and physical offline dating violence (Borrajo et al., 2015a; Borrajo et al., 2015b; Borrajo et al., 2015c; Hinduja & Patchin, 2011). In the same way that verbal victimization tends to precede physical victimization (Straus, Gelles, & Steinmetz, 2006), highlighting the escalation of partner abuse from nonphysical to physical, evidence that supports the escalation from cyber dating abuse to verbal aggression, and subsequently to physical aggression (Madlock & Westerman, 2011).

Most of the research on cyber dating abuse originates from the United States and Spain. In Spain prevalence rates for perpetration range from 47% - 80%, and victimization from 50% - 57.2% among samples of young adults ages 18-30 years (Borrajo et al, 2015a; Borrajo et al., 2015c; Martinez-Pecino & Durán, 2016; Segura & Pecino, 2015). Within the United States, Marganski and Melander (2018) conducted a study to examine intimate partner cyber aggression among college students, age 18 - 25, and its relationship with intimate partner polyvictimization, and found that approximately 70% of college students reporting cyber aggression victimization (Marganski & Melander, 2018). Results also indicated that over 90% of respondents that reported in person intimate partner victimization, also reported intimate partner cyber aggression victimization. Reed and colleagues (2016) examined digital dating abuse among college students, age 17 – 22. Digital dating abuse was conceptualized as behaviors aimed to control, pressure, or threaten by means of cell phones or online platforms. Approximately

74% of their sample reported victimization, and 69.5% of their sample reported perpetration, where monitoring partner's locations and social networks were the most frequent reported behaviors. Although there was overlap between perpetration and victimization, the bidirectionality of the abusive behaviors could not be established in this study (Reed et al., 2016).

Temple and colleagues (2016) established the reciprocity of cyber dating abuse perpetration and victimization using longitudinal methods, across a year, among a sample of high school students. Results indicated a positive relationship between cyber dating abuse victimization and perpetration at the initial and final time point. Research shows that emerging adults experience high rates of cyber dating abuse victimization at 73%, which is higher than the national average of 36.4% IPV victimization for women, and 33.6% (Marganski & Melander, 2018; Smith et al., 2018). Taken together, these findings suggest that college students, especially those in emerging adulthood, are a high-risk group for cyber dating abuse, and are at higher risk for other types of IPV. Thus, the second aim of this study is to examine the relationship between cyber dating abuse and other forms of intimate partner aggression over time.

Cyber Dating Abuse and Mental Health

In-person forms of IPV are associated with worse mental health among adult victims when compared to non victims (Caldwell, Swan, & Woodbrown, 2012; Johnson, Giordano, Longmore, & Manning, 2014; Sabina & Straus, 2008; Saewyc et al., 2009; Shorey et al., 2011). Specifically, victims of IPV report more symptoms of anxiety and depression than non-victims (for review see Caldwell et al., 2012). Like in-person partner abuse, cyber dating abuse victimization has been associated with negative mental

health correlates. A cross-sectional study of adolescents reported a positive relationship between cyber dating abuse victimization and depressive symptoms, as well as anger/ hostility (Zweig et al., 2014). Only one study has used longitudinal data to examine mental health and substance use related to cyber dating abuse victimization, which focused on adolescents (Lu et al., 2018). They found a positive relationship between victimization and problematic mental health, like anxiety, depression, and post-traumatic stress disorder. The effect was present cross-sectionally, not longitudinally, which was a year after reporting victimization. The authors suggested that the mental health effects could potentially be more acute shortly after the incident, rather than prolonged.

The rest of the investigations on this topic have applied cross sectional designs. For example, the only study among emerging adults, with a predominately White sample, reported that electronic harassment by an intimate partner increased the odds of experiencing depression and anxiety, and among women this victimization was associated with fear (Lindsay, Booth, & Messing, 2016). Cantu and colleagues (2020) found similar results, where depression was positively associated with psychological and sexual cyber dating abuse. To address this gap in the literature, this will be the first study to examine depression and anxiety as an outcome of cyber dating abuse victimization among Latinx young adults using longitudinal methods.

Cyber Dating Abuse and Substance Use

Research also finds a positive association between in-person partner abuse victimization and substance use (Cafferky, Mendez, Anderson, & Stith, 2018; Devries et al., 2014). A meta-analysis examined the association between substance use, drug and alcohol use, and physical IPV victimization and perpetration using a combined sample of

54

over 600,000 heterosexual men and women, excluding university students (Cafferky et al., 2018). The aggregate analysis of overall substance use on victimization and perpetration was positive and statistically significant, though this meta-analysis did not provide information about causality related to substance use and IPV. Devries and colleagues (2014) also conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis on alcohol use and physical and sexual IPV victimization among women and found that alcohol use and IPV victimization are linked. Again, however, directionality in the relationship between alcohol use and IPV victimization was conflicting given that the meta-analyses provided support for both.

Some individual studies have found that substance use precedes IPV victimization (Railford et al., 2007; Stappenbeck & Fromme, 2010; Testa et al., 2003). Heavy drinking during sophomore year in college, for example, predicted dating violence victimization and perpetration for women in their junior year, but not men (Stappenbeck & Fromme, 2010). The predominant explanations are that (a) potentially both partners may use substances, creating a context of aggression resulting in victimization experience (Shorey et al., 2011; Stappenbeck & Fromme, 2010) and this link could be explained by difficulty in managing conflict by the substance user (Testa et al., 2003), or that conflict arises because of substance use of partners or the victim (Smith et al., 2012; Testa et al., 2003).

Substantial research also supports substance use as an outcome of victimization. One explanation as to why IPV victimization is related to subsequent substance use is the self-medication hypothesis, or self-medication theory, which posits that individuals turn to substances to alleviate negative affect (Khantzian, 1997; La Flair et al., 2012). This theory has been supported by research that finds that IPV victimization can precede

substance use (Ahmadabadi et al., 2019; Derrick & Testa, 2017; Martino et al., 2005; Testa & Leonard, 2001; Salomon et al., 2002; Shorey et al., 2016). Tied to this self-medication theory is that self-medication, or engagement in substance use, is a form of coping among victims of IPV (Ahmadabadi et al., 2019; Testa & Leonard, 2001; Øverup, DiBello, Brunson, Acitelli, & Neighbors, 2015; Shorey et al., 2016; Temple et al., 2008; Weiss, Duke, & Sullivan, 2014). This is evidenced by results that support drinking to cope as a mediator between IPV victimization and problematic alcohol use (Kaysen et al., 2007; Øverup et al., 2015), and that high and low levels of avoidance coping are predictive of drug use problems following IPV experience (Weiss et al., 2014).

Although the relationship between substance use and in-person IPV among adults has been extensively examined, there is limited research on these domains as they relate to cyber dating abuse. Most research on this topic has focused on adolescents. This work finds that adolescent victims report higher levels of binge drinking than non-victims (Van Ouystel et al., 2016), and adolescent perpetrators of cyber dating abuse report higher levels of substance use, including the use of alcohol, cigarettes, and prescription medications (Van Ouytsel et al., 2017). This is further substantiated by longitudinal evidence, which finds an association between cyber dating abuse victimization and subsequent substance use over one year (Lu et al., 2018). There are currently two studies that focus on young adults (Bennett, Guran, Ramos, & Margolin, 2011; Brem et al., 2019). One study employed a design and found a positive correlation between female electronic dating partner victimization and substance use, but no effect for males (Bennett et al., 2011). A more recent study used a longitudinal design and found that alcohol problems were not predictive of cyber dating abuse perpetration (Brem et al., 2019).

56

Thus, guided by previous research supporting self-medication theory and coping model, alcohol use will be examined as an outcome of cyber dating abuse victimization using longitudinal methods.

Cyber Dating Abuse and Sexual Risk Taking

Victims of partner violence are also at an increased risk of being diagnosed with an STI/ STD, which has been connected to engagement in sexual risk-taking behaviors and (Bauer et al., 2002; Coker, 2007; Fair & Vanyur, 2011; Lévesque et al., 2016; Mittal, Senn, & Carey, 2012). IPV and sexual risk taking is related through sexual decision-making factors (Campbell et al., 2008; Minton et al., 2016). One of these factors includes fear, where women in abusive relationships refrain from negotiating condom use due to fear of partner's reaction (Campbell et al., 2008). Another factor has been identified is relationship power, which reflects decision making capabilities within the partnership and the degree to which one partner influences and controls the other partner's behaviors (Minton et al., 2016). Women in abusive relationships report low relationship power, which is associated with unprotected sex (Minton et al., 2016). Partner dependence across economic, safety, and emotional domains has also been identified as a factor associated with a decrease in condom use among abused women (Minton et al.., 2016).

Within cyber dating abuse literature, there is a strong positive correlation between youth engagement in sexual intercourse and cyber dating abuse victimization, as well as unsafe sexual practices, contraceptive non-use among females, and more lifetime sexual partnerships (Dick et al., 2014; Van Ouystel et al., 2016; Zweig et al., 2014). The cyber dating abuse literature and risky sexual behaviors with emerging adult samples is lacking, with only one study addressing this issue (Bennett et al., 2011). This study

57

reported a positive correlation among electronic victimization by a dating partner and risky sex in their female sample. Thus, a final aim of this study is to extend the research by exploring the longitudinal association of sexual risk taking as an outcome cyber dating victimization among Latina emerging adults.

Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses

This study is grounded by intersectionality theory, which is a culturally competent theoretical framework ideal for contextualizing and exploring experiences of violence among marginalized groups. In this case, the experience of cyber dating abuse among Latina heterosexual emerging adults. Intersectionality theory states that to understand a phenomenon, an individual's multiple intersecting social identities must be considered (Cole, 2009; Bowleg, 2012). An intersection of social identities refers to an individual encompassing multiple categorizations within their identity, which can include gender, race, and class. For example, the intersection of gender, sexual orientation, and ethnicity as a social identity is a Latina woman or a Latino man. This intersection of social identities is important because they shape the lived experiences of the individual, and the kinds of privileges and oppressions they live with (Cole, 2009).

When examining IPV experience among Latina emerging adults, cultural identity must be considered in conjunction with gender identity. Given that minority groups in the United States experience systematic oppressions which lead to differential experiences in with violence and health disparities, this purpose of this study is to focus on Latina women's experience with a modern form of relationship abuse, cyber dating abuse; see Figure 2 for conceptual model. The first aim of this study is to contextualize victimization within the framework of acculturation, and test Latinx cultural orientation

as a protective factor against victimization. The second aim is to assess the relationship between cyber dating abuse and other forms of in-person dating violence over time. The third aim is to assess the longitudinal association between cyber dating abuse victimization in their current relationship and anxiety, depression, alcohol use, and sexual risk taking across two time points, three months apart, as outcomes. This is among one of the few cyber dating abuse studies to date to focus on a Latinx population (Cantu et al., 2020; Cano-Gonzalez et al., 2020; Reed et al, 2020). With the rationalization guided by intersectionality theory, and empirical evidence on cyber dating abuse, the predictions are as follows for Latinx women:

Hypothesis 1: Greater Latinx cultural orientation at T1 would decrease the frequency of cyber dating abuse victimization at T2.

Hypothesis 2: Cyber dating abuse victimization at T1 would be related to an increase in depression (2a), anxiety (2b), alcohol use (2c), and sexual risk taking (2d).

Hypothesis 3: The frequency of cyber dating abuse victimization would be associated with in-person forms of dating violence victimization, including psychological aggression, physical assault, sexual coercion, and verbal sexual coercion at Time 1 (H3a) and Time 2 (H3b).
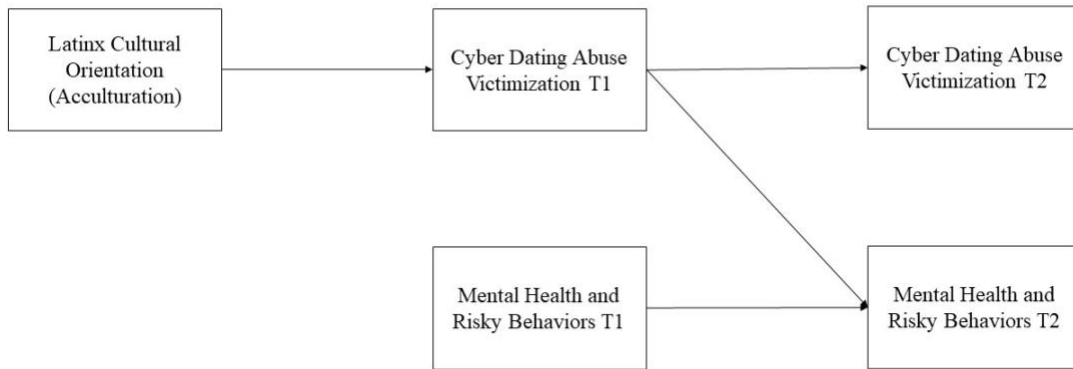
Figure 2. Conceptual Diagram of Hypothesized Model for Study 2

Methods

Procedure

A two time point longitudinal design was implemented with a three-month time lag. Participants were recruited from a large Hispanic serving institution in the southeastern United States. The survey was advertised in an online platform hosted by the university. The prerequisites for participation in this study were to self-identify as a Latina woman, be within the age range of 18 – 29 years and be involved in a current dating relationship with a male dating partner. Recruitment began in the spring of 2020. Participants who completed T1 survey were compensated with extra credit for eligible courses. For follow up survey participation, a $10.00 USD electronic Starbucks gift card was provided. There was a three-month time lag between the two data collection points. There was a 52% ($n = 295/563$) retention rate from baseline to follow up.

Participant Demographics

The average age of participants was 22.19 ($SD = 2.55$). Prevalence rates of T1 cyber dating abuse victimization within the past 6 months of taking the survey were 7.91% for sexual CDA ($n = 44/512$), 22.76% for psychological CDA ($n = 127/431$), and 32.73% for stalking CDA ($n = 182/374$). Participants also reported their generational status with 39.08% ($n = 220/563$) being 1st generation, 42.63% ($n = 240/563$) being 2nd generation, 8.90% ($n = 50/563$) being 2.5 generation, 6.04% ($n = 34/563$) being 3rd generation, 2.66% ($n = 15/563$) being 4th generation, 0.36% ($n = 2/563$) being 5th generation. Most participants indicated that their familial nation of origin was Cuba 45.2%, $n = 252/558$; see Table 5). Among those who participated at both time points, the average age was 22.04 ($SD = 2.46$). At T2, a total of 22.68% ($n = 66/291$) reported psychological CDA, a total of 31.96% ($n = 93/291$) reported stalking CDA, and a total a total of 9.28% ($n = 27/291$) reported sexual CDA. The generational status for the two time point completers, was 36.61% ($n = 108/295$) for 1st generation, 42.71% ($n = 126/295$) for 2nd generation, 8.47% ($n = 25/295$) for 2.5 generation, 7.80% ($n = 23/295$) for 3rd generation, 3.73% ($n = 11/295$) for 4th generation, and 0.34% ($n = 1/295$) for 5th generation. Within this sub sample, the most highly reported familial nation of origin was Cuba (41.36%, n = 122/295). Descriptive statistics for all variables included in the SEM model and correlations are presented in Table 6.

Table 5

Study 2 First Familial Nation of Origin

First familial nation of origin	N	%
USA	11	2%
Argentina	9	1.6%
Argentina/Ecuador	1	0.2%
Bolivia	3	0.5%
Brazil	8	1.4%
Chile	8	1.4%
Colombia	47	8.4%
Costa Rica	3	0.5%
Cuba	252	45.2%
Cuba/Mexico	2	0.4%
Cuba/Peru	1	0.2%
Cuba/Puerto Rico	1	0.2%
Dominican Republic	25	4.5%
Ecuador	13	2.3%
Egypt	1	0.2%
Guatemala	4	0.7%
Honduras	16	2.9%
Italia	3	0.5%
Jamaica	1	0.2%
Jamaica/Dominican Republic	1	0.2%
Lebanon	1	0.2%
Mexico	15	2.7%
Nicaragua	33	5.9%
Nicaragua/Spain	1	0.2%
Panama	2	0.4%
Peru	22	3.9%
Puerto Rico	26	4.7%
Puerto Rico/Dominican Republic	1	0.2%
Salvador	1	0.2%
Spain	6	1.1%
Uruguay	1	0.2%
Venezuela	39	7%

Table 6

Study 2 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Psych CDA	1.27	4.61								
2. Sexual CDA	0.28	1.38	.19** [.11, .27]							
3. Stalking CDA	3.68	13.58	.52** [.46, .58]	.22** [.14, .30]						
4. RiskySex_1	2.67	1.62	.05 [-.03, .13]	-.02 [-.10, .07]	.04 [-.04, .13]					
5. RiskySex_2	0.42	0.60	.12** [.04, .20]	-.03 [-.11, .05]	.08 [-.00, .16]	.04 [-.04, .12]				
6. Depression	5.52	5.46	.20** [.12, .28]	.14** [.06, .22]	.22** [.14, .30]	.00 [-.08, .08]	.08* [.00, .17]			
7. Anxiety	4.31	4.78	.23** [.15, .31]	.10* [.02, .19]	.24** [.16, .31]	.06 [-.03, .14]	.16** [.07, .24]	.78** [.75, .81]		
8. LOS	4.11	0.61	-.02	-.04	-.01	-.05	-.01	-.05	-.10*	

	M	SD								
			[-.11, .06]	[-.12, .05]	[-.10, .07]	[-.13, .04]	[-.10, .07]	[-.13, .04]	[-.19, -.02]	
9. Alcohol Use	4.55	3.58	.10*	.14**	.06	.08	.20**	.13**	.15**	-.13**
			[.00, .19]	[.05, .23]	[-.03, .15]	[-.01, .18]	[.11, .29]	[.04, .22]	[.05, .24]	[-.22, -.03]

Note. M and SD are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. Values in square brackets indicate the 95% confidence interval for each correlation. * indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$

Attrition

There was a 52.40% retention rate with 563 completed surveys at baseline and 295 surveys at follow up. Chi square analyses were used to examine potential differences between participants who participated in follow up and those who only participated at baseline. Analyses indicated no statistically significant differences between attrition status and ever experienced cyber dating abuse victimization, X^2 (1) = 0.00, p > .05, psychological cyber dating abuse frequency, X^2 (21) = 20.81, p = .047, stalking cyber dating abuse frequency X^2 (38) = 36.69, p = .53, sexual cyber dating abuse frequency, X^2 (8) = 6.00, p = 0.65, and in person dating abuse victimization, X^2 (1) = 0.10, p = .76. Dating abuse victimization status at T1 was not related with participant response rate at follow up. There was also no association with age at participation at follow up, X^2 (11) = 10.03, p = .53.

Measures

After participants completed the online consent form, they were asked to complete a series of questions asking about their demographic information, only at Time 1, and their experiences with their current romantic relationship at the time of survey completion at both time points. The order of measure presentation is based on the study "Technology, Teen Dating Violence and Abuse, and Bullying" (Zweig et al., 2013). Initially, demographic items, such as gender and generational status, followed by the acculturation measure, were presented to participants. Then, participants were asked questions related to multiple forms of dating violence, i.e., psychological aggression, physical assault, sexual coercion, verbal sexual coercion, and cyber dating abuse. This was followed by questions that measured level of alcohol consumption, symptoms related

to depression and anxiety, and sexual risk taking. An attention check was implemented to safeguard against surveys that would bias result estimates due to inattention. At the end of the survey, local and national intimate partner violence related resources were provided to all participants.

Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans-II. The Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans-II (ARMSA-II) is the revised version of the original Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans (Cuéllar, Arnold, and Maldonado 1995). It was developed to examine the acculturation process via cultural orientation using 30 items (Cuéllar et al., 1995). The items are not specific to Mexican cultural identity and have been administered to Latinx groups more broadly (Dennis et al., 2016; Kazak et al., 2018). To be applicable to Latinx groups the scale was adapted by changing reference to Mexico to "my culture of origin [e.g., Mexico, El Salvador, etc.,]" (Dennis et al., 2016) and changing "Mexican" to "Latino/Hispanic" (Kazak et al., 2018). This measure includes two orthogonal subscales, the 17 items Mexican Orientation Subscale, which has been adapted to the Latinx orientation subscale, and the 13 items Anglo orientation subscale (Cuéllar et al., 1995; Dennis et al., 2016). These orthogonal subscales represent the degree to which the participant affiliates with their heritage culture, Latinx cultural orientation, and to the majority culture, Anglo orientation (Dennis et al., 2016). An example item reflecting Anglo orientation is "I enjoy listening to English language music", and "My family cooks Latino/Hispanic foods" which reflects Latino orientation. Agreement with each statement was declared on five-point Likert scales from not at all (0) to extremely often or almost always (5). The ARMSA-II had adequate reliability in this study ($\alpha = 0.82$)

Psychological Aggression Subscale, Physical Assault Subscale, and Sexual

Coercion Subscale. The Psychological Aggression Subscale, Physical Assault Subscale, and Sexual Coercion Subscale are part of the Revised Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS-2; Straus et al., 1996). Across the three subscales participants indicated the frequency in which each behavior occurred from (0) this has never happened to (7) not in the past year, but it did happen before. An example of the 8-item psychological aggression subscale is "Insulted or swore at partner". The Physical Assault Subscale is a 12-item subscale (e.g., "Kicked, bit, or punched partner"). The Sexual Coercion Subscale is a seven-item subscale. An example item is "Used threats to make partner have sex". CTS-2 had adequate reliability ($\alpha = 0.92$), as did the subscales with an $\alpha = .80$ for psychological, an $\alpha = 0.86$ for physical, and an $\alpha = 0.77$ for sexual.

Verbal Sexual Coercion Scale. Verbal sexual coercion was measured by 15 items from the Influence Tactics Scale. The items described verbal tactics used by dating partners to engage an intimate partner into more sexual activity than they want, e.g., "dropping hints" (Eaton & Matamala, 2014; Howard et al., 1986). Participants reported on the frequency of their experiences with verbal sexual coercion from never (1) to always (7). An example item is "Tell your partner that if he/she did this you will love him/her forever". The verbal sexual coercion measure had adequate reliability ($\alpha = 0.85$).

Cyber Aggression in Relationships Scale. The Cyber Aggression in Relationships scale examined participant experience with abuse in a romantic relationship through digital platforms (Watkins et al., 2018). This 17-item measure was answered on a 7-point scale from (0) this has never happened to (6) more than 20 times in the past 6 months, and (7) not in the past 6 months, but it did happen before (7). Likert scale

responses were transformed to provide estimates of cyber dating abuse frequency as recommended by Watkins and colleagues (2018). This multidimensional cyber dating abuse scale include subscales for three distinct types of abuse: psychological, stalking, and sexual. Emergent literature has identified two other types of sexual abuse that are facilitated by technological spaces (Eaton et al., 2020; Eaton et al., 2017; Ruvalcaba & Eaton, 2020). The questions were adapted from a nationwide study of nonconsensual pornography (1) "Has your romantic partner ever threatened to share a sexually-explicit image or video of you without your consent?" (2) "Has your romantic partner ever threatened to share a sexually-explicit image or video of you without your consent?" The 19 items produced an adequate reliability at Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.92$. The subtypes also had an adequate reliability with an $\alpha = .78$ for psychological, an $\alpha = 0.86$ for stalking, and an $\alpha = 0.82$ for sexual.

The Alcohol Use Disorder Identification Test. Alcohol use was measured by the 10-item Alcohol Use Disorder Identification Test (Babor et al., 2001; Saunders et al., 1993). A global continuum of risk score was calculated by adding all response scores (Babor et al., 2001). The AUDIT had acceptable reliability ($\alpha = 0.73$)

Depressive Symptoms Subscale and Anxiety Subscale. To assess psychological wellbeing the Depressive symptoms Subscale and Anxiety Subscale from the Symptom Assessment45 (SA-45) Questionnaire (Strategic Advantage, Inc. 1998). The SA-45 is a valid and reliable measure of general psychological distress among patient and non-patient populations (Maruish, 2004; Maruish, Bershadsky, & Goldstein, 1998). Both these subscales contain response items ranging from (0) not at all to (4) extremely, and score value from zero to 20, with higher values being indicative of more symptoms. The

Depressive Symptoms Subscale is composed of five items (e.g., "Feeling of worthlessness"). The Anxiety Subscale is composed of five items as well (e.g., "Having urges to break or smash things"). The Depressive Symptoms ($\alpha = 0.90$) and Anxiety Symptoms Subscales had adequate reliability ($\alpha = 0.87$)

Risky Sexual Behaviors. The Risky Sexual Behavior questions were developed for a study examining emerging adults' experiences with risky sexual behavior longitudinally (Lam & Lefkowitz, 2013). The two items are "In the past 12 weeks, how frequently did you use a condom when you had sex?", which will be referred to as Risky Sex Q1, and "In the past 12 weeks, how frequently did you consume alcohol before or during sexual encounters?", which will be referred to as Risky Sex Q2. Both questions were answered on a five-point Likert scale from (0) never to (4) every time. The two items were not combined, and each question was assessed separately (Lam & Lefkowitz, 2013).

<div align="center">

Results

</div>

Power

An a priori power analysis was conducted with the R package semPower, using $\alpha = .05$ and power level at .80. A minimum sample size of 279 was required to detect a misfit of .04 which was considered an indicator of good model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Moshagen, 2018). The total sample size of 563 was large enough to detect effects.

Analytic strategy.

The hypothesized paths are presented in Figure 1. Cyber dating abuse victimization at T1 was expected to positively relate to sexual risk taking, depression symptoms, anxiety symptoms, and alcohol use at T2. Latinx cultural orientation at T1

was also included in the model as predictor of cyber dating abuse victimization at T2. It was hypothesized that Latinx cultural orientation would serve as a protective factor for later victimization.

All analysis were conducted using R software version 4.1.0 with Lavaan package (R Core Team, 2020; Rosseel, 2012). The hypothesized paths were tested with a Structural Equation Model (SEM). SEM is ideal for statistical inferences given its ability to test multivariate pathways simultaneously and its ability to test autoregressive effects (Kline, 2015, Selig & Little, 2016). Psych package was used to examine nonnormality within the data (Rosseel, 2012). Given that data was nonnormal, maximum likelihood with robust standard error estimator was used to account for parameter bias caused by nonnormality (Revelle, 2004). Full information maximum likelihood was added to the model because it produces better parameter estimates over traditional deletion strategies (Kline, 2010). To determine model fit, the following statistics were considered: root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI). The threshold for good model fit was based on these criterias: RMSEA< .08, SRMR < .08, TFI > .95, CFI > .95 to determine acceptable model fit (Hoyle, 2012; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2015). Chi square test of model fit is reported but given less weight to these other fit statistics since its statistical significance is largely based on sample size (Yuan & Bentler, 2000).

Structural Model

Global fit statistics were within the threshold of acceptable model fit, RMSEA = .039 with 90% confidence intervals inside acceptable parameters (.027 < RMSEA CL90

70

< .050), SRMR = .06, CFI = .967, TLI = .926. Modification indices were explored, and

the recommended theoretically driven pathways were included in the model. Specifically,

risky sex as proxied by condom efficacy and alcohol use at T1 were included as

predictors of alcohol use prior to sex at T2. Additionally, alcohol use prior to sex at T1

was included as a predictor for alcohol use at T2. Model fit slightly improved: RMSEA

= 0.038, SRMR = .06, CFI = .96 TLI = .909.

Model Effects

The autoregressive effects were all significant which indicated that the constructs

measured were stable across time (Selig & Little, 2012). Latinx cultural orientation at

Time 1 was not significantly associated with cyber dating abuse victimization at Time 2;

thus hypothesis 1 was not supported. Analysis also indicated that there was no

relationship between cyber dating abuse victimization at T1 with sexual risk taking at T2,

depressive symptoms at T2, anxiety symptoms at T2, and alcohol use atT2. Hypothesis 2

was therefore not supported. SEM parameter estimates are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Study 2 Unstandardized Parameter Estimates of Hypothesized Structural Equation Model

Predictor	DV	Path Values	SE	*	p	Lower. CI	Upper. CI
LOS T1	Psych CDA T2	0.33	0.22		0.14	-0.11	0.77
Age	Psych CDA T2	0.00	0.04		.78	-0.08	0.06
Income	Psych CDA T2	0.05	0.07		0.53	-0.09	0.18
Generation	Psych CDA T2	0.04	0.12		0.80	-0.26	0.20
Psych CDA T1	Psych CDA T2	0.25	0.09	*	0.00	0.08	0.43
Stalking CDA T1	Psych CDA T2	0.04	0.04		0.30	-0.04	0.12
Sexual CDA T1	Psych CDA T2	-0.15	0.31		0.64	-0.75	0.46
LOS T1	Stalking CDA T2	0.94	0.61		0.12	-0.25	2.13
Age	Stalking CDA T2	0.10	0.11		0.33	-0.10	0.31
Income	Stalking CDA T2	-0.14	0.16		0.38	-0.45	0.17
Generation	Stalking CDA T2	-0.14	0.31		0.65	-0.76	0.47

Psych CDA T1	Stalking CDA T2	0.30	0.34		0.37	-0.36	0.96
Stalking CDA T1	Stalking CDA T2	0.24	0.12	*	0.04	0.01	0.48
Sexual CDA T1	Stalking CDA T2	1.87	1.25		0.14	-0.59	4.33
LOS T1	Sexual CDA T2	-0.08	0.10		0.43	-0.28	0.12
Age	Sexual CDA T2	-0.01	0.01		0.39	-0.04	0.02
Income	Sexual CDA T2	-0.02	0.01	*	0.02	-0.04	0.00
Generation	Sexual CDA T2	0.01	0.02		0.74	-0.04	0.06
Psych CDA T1	Sexual CDA T2	0.00	0.01		0.90	-0.02	0.02
Stalking CDA T1	Sexual CDA T2	0.00	0.00		0.56	-0.01	0.00
Sexual CDA T1	Sexual CDA T2	0.18	0.05	*	0.00	0.08	0.28
Age	Risky Sex Q1 T2	-0.01	0.01		0.45	-0.03	0.01
Income	Risky Sex Q1 T2	0.03	0.01	*	0.02	-0.06	0.00
Generation	Risky Sex Q1 T2	0.03	0.03		0.22	-0.02	0.09
Psych CDA T1	Risky Sex Q1 T2	0.01	0.01		0.27	0.01	0.02
Stalking CDA T1	Risky Sex Q1 T2	0.00	0.00		0.42	0.00	0.01
Sexual CDA T1	Risky Sex Q1 T2	-0.03	0.02		0.18	-0.07	0.01
Age	Risky Sex Q2 T2	-0.01	0.01		0.45	-0.03	0.01
Income	Risky Sex Q2 T2	-0.03	0.01	*	0.02	-0.06	0.00
Generation	Risky Sex Q2 T2	0.03	0.03		0.22	-0.02	0.09
Psych CDA T1	Risky Sex Q2 T2	0.01	0.01		0.27	0.00	0.02
Stalking CDA T1	Risky Sex Q2 T2	0.00	0.00		0.42	0.00	0.00
Sexual CDA T1	Risky Sex Q2 T2	-0.03	0.02		0.18	-0.01	0.01
Risky Sex Q1 T1	Risky Sex Q2 T2	0.40	0.06	*	0.00	0.28	0.52
AUDIT_sum_T1	Risky Sex Q2 T2	0.01	0.01		0.33	-0.01	0.03
Age	Depression T2	-0.11	0.11		0.33	-0.32	0.1
Income	Depression T2	0.07	0.13		0.61	-0.19	0.33
Generation	Depression T2	0.38	0.2		0.13	-0.11	0.86
Psych CDA T1	Depression T2	0.05	0.08		0.49	-0.10	0.20
Stalking CDA T1	Depression T2	-0.01	0.02		0.83	-0.05	0.04
Sexual CDA T1	Depression T2	-0.02	0.27		0.96	-0.52	0.55
Age	Anxiety T2	0.06	0.09		0.52	-0.12	0.23
Income	Anxiety T2	0.13	0.11		0.22	-0.08	0.34
Generation	Anxiety T2	0.12	0.19		0.53	-0.25	0.49
Psych CDA T1	Anxiety T2	0.05	0.07		0.46	-0.08	0.18
Stalking CDA T1	Anxiety T2	-0.01	0.02		0.72	-0.05	0.03
Sexual CDA T1	Anxiety T2	-0.18	0.22		0.41	-0.61	0.25
Age	Alcohol T2	0.03	0.06		0.60	-0.09	0.15
Income	Alcohol T2	0.00	0.09		1.00	-0.17	0.17
Generation	Alcohol T2	-0.15	0.13		0.25	-0.39	0.10
Psych CDA T1	Alcohol T2	0.02	0.04		0.50	-0.05	0.10
Stalking CDA T1	Alcohol T2	-0.01	0.01		0.58	-0.03	0.02
Sexual CDA T1	Alcohol T2	0.38	0.26		0.13	-0.12	0.89
LOS T1	LOS T2	0.80	0.04	*	0.00	0.72	0.87
Generation	LOS T2	-0.09	0.02	*	0.00	-0.13	-0.05

Note. * denotes p < .05

Polyvictimization

Table 8 demonstrates the relationship between cyber dating abuse victimization by in-person dating abuse victimization. Chi square analysis indicated different patterns of associations by violence types. Psychological cyber dating abuse at T1 was positively associated with psychological aggression at T1, $X^2(1) = 42.366$, $p < .001$, and at follow up, $X^2(1) = 11.26$, $p < .001$. Stalking cyber dating abuse at T1 was positively related to psychological aggression, $X^2(1) = 42.34$, physical abuse, $X^2(1) = 52.852$, $p < .001$, and verbal sexual coercion, $X^2(1) = 5.91$, $p = .015$, at T1, and later psychological aggression, $X^2(1) = 25.725$, $p < .001$. Sexual cyber dating abuse at T1 was related to psychological aggression, $X^2(1) = 9.6288$, $p = .001$, physical abuse, $X^2(1) = 42.502$, $p > .001$, at T1. This type of cyber dating abuse was also positively associated with psychological aggression, $X^2(1) = 5.99$, $p = .01$, sexual abuse, $X^2(1) = 17.173$, $p > .001$, and physical abuse, $X^2(1) = 7.74$, $p = .005$, at T2. The most notable difference in proportion is between stalking cyber dating abuse and verbal sexual coercion. Individuals who reported sexual cyber dating abuse were 17 time more likely to report verbal sexual coercion at baseline.

Table 8.

Study 2 Percent of Cyber Dating Abuse Victims That Reported In-Person Victimization

In-Person Victimization	Type of CDA		X^2	
	No Psychological CDA T1	Psychological CDA T1		
Psychological Aggression T1	3.79	18.95	42.37	*
Physical Abuse T1	11.82	10.91	28.14	*
Sexual Abuse T1	13.31	9.38	18.50	*
Verbal Sexual Coercion T1	1.25	21.51	3.11	
Psychological Aggression T2	7.02	15.79	11.26	*
Physical Abuse T2	14.54	8.16	8.93	*
Sexual Abuse T2	16.55	6.34	1.28	
Verbal Sexual Coercion T2	1.79	21.43	0.74	
	No Stalking CDA T1	Stalking CDA T1		
Psychological Aggression T1	5.43	27.36	69.15	*

Physical Abuse T1	16.61	16.24	52.85	*
Sexual Abuse T1	19.31	13.81	25.84	*
Verbal Sexual Coercion T1	1.8	30.94	5.91	*
Psychological Aggression T2	8.77	23.51	25.73	*
Physical Abuse T2	22.7	9.57	3.99	*
Sexual Abuse T2	22.89	9.51	3.46	
Verbal Sexual Coercion T2	2.5	30	1.35	
	No Sexual CDA T1	Sexual CDA T1		
Psychological Aggression T1	1.45	6.34	9.63	*
Physical Abuse T1	2.01	5.66	42.50	*
Sexual Abuse T1	2.53	5.42	40.78	
Verbal Sexual Coercion T1	0.18	7.73	2.34	
Psychological Aggression T2	2.46	7.02	5.98	*
Physical Abuse T2	5.32	4.26	7.74	*
Sexual Abuse T2	4.23	5.28	17.17	*
Verbal Sexual Coercion T2	0.36	9.29	1.02	

Discussion

The findings of this study provide insight to cyber dating abuse victimization among Latina women. To date, the cyber dating abuse literature with racial/ethnic minority samples is scarce. To the author's knowledge only three studies exist in the literature that focus specifically on Latinx samples (Cano-Gonzalez et al., 2020; Cantu et al., 2020; Reed et al., 2020). This study found that 41.77% ($n = 231/533$) of Latina women in emerging adulthood experienced cyber dating abuse victimization. When examined within the different dimensions of this abuse, 22.76% ($n = 127/558$) reported psychological, 32.73% ($n = 182/556$) reported stalking, and 7.91% ($n = 44/556$) reported sexual cyber dating abuse. Reed and colleagues (2020) found a similar pattern. A greater proportion of Latinx youth experienced nonsexual forms of cyber dating abuse, i.e., direct aggression and monitoring, than sexual cyber dating abuse. The same pattern was also found for cyber dating abuse perpetration in a sample of Latinx emerging adults (Cano-

Gonzalez et al., 2020). In conjunction, the findings from this study and these aforementioned studies provide insight to the pattern of cyber dating abuse prevalence rates. However, nationally representative studies are warranted to get a more reliable pattern of cyber dating abuse experience within the Latinx community.

Another novel contribution to this study was the examination of acculturation, specifically Latinx cultural orientation, as a predictor for later cyber dating abuse victimization. No association was found to support Latinx cultural orientation as protective against cyber dating abuse victimization. Given this null finding, there are a couple considerations. First, the measure of Latinx cultural orientation is composed of items mainly tied to language (Cuéllar et al., 1995), as such the unique characteristics of Latinx culture were not captured directly. Future research situating Latinx cultural orientation should consider adding measures that capture specific constructs on Latinx culture, including but not limited to familism, family support, respeto, fatalism, machismo, caballerismo, and marianismo, in addition to the Latinx cultural orientation sub scale (Arciniega et al., 2008; Castillo et al., 2010; Díaz et al., 2014; Hernández & Bámaca-Colbert, 2016; Steidel et al., 2003). Second, the Latinx community in the United States is composed of different heterogenous subgroups (Berdahl et al., 2009; Roth et al., 2020). The heterogeneity among Latinx subgroup is not only tied to nation of origin, but it also includes their experiences from the receiving culture, migration history, and differential United States policies targeting certain Latinx groups (Berdahl et al., 2009; Cooper et al., 2020, Durand & Massey, 2019; Garcini et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2019). These multilevel contextual factors play a role in the acculturative process among Latinx subgroups (Roth et al., 2020). Therefore, it is recommended that future studies examining

75

the role of Latinx cultural orientation and IPV should consider recruiting enough sub

samples of Latinx groups and incorporating a latent variable of the acculturation process

to ensure that this complex construct is measured with certain validity (Roth et al., 2020).

An unexpected finding was that there was no temporal association between cyber

dating abuse victimization and negative health outcomes, i.e., mental health and alcohol

use. The longitudinal association between cyber dating abuse victimization and mental

health outcomes has been assessed by other researchers (Lu et al., 2018). Consistent with

this study's null finding, Lu et al., (2018) also found no association between victimization

and negative mental health outcomes. Lu and colleagues (2018) implemented a one-year

time gap between cyber dating abuse victimization and mental health. Given that this

study had a much shorter time lag of three months, perhaps a longitudinal design that

captured more frequent and shorter moments, like a daily diary study, would be better

suited for the examination of cyber dating abuse and negative health outcomes (Dardis et

al., 2020; Shorey et al., 2014; Shorey et al., 2016; Waterman et al., 2021).

The lack of temporal association between cyber dating abuse victimization and

negative well-being could also be attributed to the internal validity threat of history effect

(Shadish et al., 2002; Lavrakas, 2008). The timing for data collection also overlapped

with the initial stages of the coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic in the United States.

County wide stay at home orders and virtual learning was implemented by the university

hosting this study (Piquero et al., 2021). Even at the end of the final wave of data

collection the catastrophic effects of COVID-19 pandemic were still ongoing (CDC,

2021). The effects between victimization and negative mental health captured in this

study could have been confounded by the greater global crisis at hand. In fact, empirical

evidence indicates that the pandemic worsened the experience of partner abuse by victims of IPV (Agüero, 2021; Evans & Ferreira, 2020; McLay, 2021). The stay-at-home orders created an environment where victims were quarantined with their abusers and limiting their access to support services (Agüero, 2021; Evans & Ferreira, 2020; Roesch et al., 2020; Slakoff et al., 2020). These conditions increased the opportunity for further violence (Bullinger et al., 2020; Evans et al., 2020; Lyons & Brewer, 2021; McLay 2021).

Therefore, another consideration is potential bias in participant self-selection into the study. Although the sample represents Latina women in emerging adulthood, it does not reflect all Latina women within this developmental stage group. Additionally, the sample is university enrolled and represents one spectrum of socio-economic status. There are important qualitative differences between college enrolled emerging adults and non-college enrolled (Henrich et al., 2010). The women who completed the survey were able to do so, most likely, without fear of repercussions or violence for their responses, or constant surveillance from living in the same space as their abusers. Thus, not representing the group of women most at risk for IPV during the pandemic. Given this study's findings and COVID-19 pandemic related circumstances, future studies focused on the health outcomes of cyber dating abuse victimization should extend recruitment outside of the college setting and into community-based samples to capture a diversity of lived experiences.

This study also investigated the relationship between in person sexual risk taking and cyber dating abuse victimization. Findings indicated a null relationship between sexually risky behaviors and victimization. As previously stated, data collection for both

time points overlapped with the reorganization of how society functioned within virtual spaces, like the widespread movement of educational systems to remote learning and the closing of social spaces (Oster et al., 2021). This could have impacted the sexual risk-taking findings in this study because of the new norm of social distancing (Cato et al., 2020).

An expected finding was the positive relationship between cyber dating abuse victimization and in-person dating abuse, which is consistent with previous studies. For example, Reed and colleagues (2020) conducted a cross sectional study of cyber dating abuse among Latinx adolescents, and consistent with this study, in person forms of abuse were positively correlated with online forms of abuse. Unique to this study was that the association between violence types was able to be tested across time. This further strengthens the polyvictimization research, which advocates for the understanding of violence types as interrelated and not as isolated domains (Grych & Swan, 2012; Krebs et al., 2011). This has important implications for prevention and intervention efforts aimed at reducing IPV (Krebs et al., 2011). Programmatic efforts aimed at increasing healthy romantic relationships among young adults should incorporate different dating abuse types.

Limitations

Although the findings of this study contribute uniquely to the cyber dating abuse literature, these findings should be situated within its methodological limitations. The implementation of a two-time point design limits the ability to make inferences about growth trajectories. In comparison to a panel model, a growth curve model can provide a more nuanced understanding about inter and intra individual differences across time

(Laursen et al., 2012). Additionally, the use of quantitative methods limits the amount of information that could be gathered from participants to contextualize their experience with cyber dating abuse. A mixed methodological approach would have provided additional information to help understand the relationship between Latinx cultural orientation, abuse, and health outcomes (Byman, 2006; Trafimow, 2016).

Conclusions

This study contributes to the literature by providing foundational evidence to understand cyber dating abuse among Latina women. Nationwide surveillance of risk behaviors like the Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System or the National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey should consider integrating technological modalities for violence (Basile et al., 2011; CDC, 2019). Also, this study echoes findings from other violence prevention researchers about abuse dynamics, where different abuse typologies co-occur (Grych & Swan, 2012; Krebs et al., 2011). This can inform future programmatic efforts to support survivors of relationship abuse.

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1. Ruvalcaba, Y., Rodriguez, A. Eaton, A.A., Stephens, D., Madhivanan, P. [under review] The effectiveness of American college sexual assault interventions in high-risk settings: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Submitted to Aggression and Violent Behavior.*

2. Ruvalcaba, Y., Stephens, D., Eaton, A.A., Boyd, B. (2020). Hispanic women's perceptions of teen sexting: Qualitative analyses using a sexual scripting framework. *Culture Health and Sexuality Journal*, 1-16. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13691058.2020.1767805

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