

Macrosocial and individual factors involved in violence against women by their partners
in Europe: a multilevel analysis.

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Abstract

Although ecological models of intimate partner violence against women (IPVAW) highlight the importance of different types of causal factors, the relationships among them have hardly been studied. To provide empirical evidence for these models, we explored the interrelationships among gender-related ideological (sexism, traditional masculinity, gender role stress, IPVAV myths), relational (jealousy, dysfunctional communication, peer support for IPVAV) and individual (aggressiveness-anger, violence in childhood) variables and psychological and sexual IPVAV. In Study 1 (exploratory), participants completed measures of gender ideology, aggressiveness, jealousy, and likelihood of committing psychological and sexual IPVAV. We found an indirect effect of aggressiveness and jealousy on IPVAV likelihood through gender ideology. In Study 2, we additionally explored the role of violence in childhood, peer support to IPVAV and the mediating role of other variables (traditional masculinity, benevolent sexism, IPVAV myths, dysfunctional communication) through a structural equation model. Gender ideology was key: aggressiveness, jealousy, violence in childhood and peer support for IPVAV were indirectly related to psychological IPVAV through gender-related variables. Aggressiveness and jealousy were also related to psychological IPVAV through dysfunctional communication. The results reinforce the need of ecological perspectives in IPVAV and suggest that prevention strategies should consider the relations among different risk factors triggering IPVAV.

Keywords: intimate partner violence against women (IPVAW), gender-related ideology, ecological models, structural equation model.

Intimate partner violence against women (IPVAW) is one of the most widespread forms of gender violence and occurs in all types of cultures and societies (Ellsberg et al., 2015). Recent data estimate that more than 27% of women worldwide have experienced physical or sexual violence at the hands of their partners at some point in their lives (World Health Organization, 2021). Official statistics and available empirical evidence allow us to affirm that IPVAW is a gender-based violence suffered by women and that it has its roots in the historical structural inequalities that have shaped and continue to shape relationships between men and women (World Health Organization, 2012).

One of the most widely accepted explanatory models of violence against women in intimate relationships is the ecological model proposed by Lori Heise (1998). This model highlights the multicausal nature of IPVAW and the need to consider the interrelationship between risk factors at different levels. That is, the model advocates that unicausal approaches be abandoned and that instead the simultaneous influences of variables at the individual (e.g., aggressiveness), relational (e.g., peer influence) and macrosocial (e.g., social norms on the IPVAW) levels, among others, be considered in attempt to explain and prevent this social problem. However, while there has been an increase in the number of studies using such an approach, most of these studies have focused on the role of individual and relational variables, ignoring the macrosocial factors related to socialization and gender attitudes that are especially relevant in this type of violence (for review, see Ali & Naylor, 2013a, 2013b). In this research, we followed an ecological approach (Heise, 1998) and studied the role of some of these ideological macrosocial factors related to gender in the perpetration of IPVAW, examining these variables in the same model with the individual and relational variables of the perpetrator.

Individual and Relational Factors of the Perpetrator and IPVAV

Although there is no accepted profile of partner aggressors, certain personal and relational factors have been consistently associated with the perpetration of IPVAV. Given the extensive body of existing research, in our work, we focused on only some of the most relevant variables. Specifically, regarding individual variables, we analyzed age, aggressiveness-anger and a history of suffering or witnessing violence in childhood. Regarding relational variables, we studied communication problems with the partner; the expression of controlling behaviors, such as jealousy; and the influence of the peer group.

Previous studies and reviews have shown that age is one of the sociodemographic variables that are usually negatively related to IPVAV, with the youngest groups being the most vulnerable to perpetrating and suffering this type of violence (Capaldi et al., 2012; Miller-Graff & Graham-Bermann, 2016). Psychopathological theories (Ali & Naylor, 2013a) have highlighted other personal characteristics, such as the aggressiveness-anger trait, as an important risk factor in the perpetration of IPVAV. In their favor, different studies have found that aggressors experience more anger/hostility towards their partners than nonviolent men (Ali & Naylor, 2013a; Valdivia-Peralta et al., 2016); however, other study has shown inconsistent findings and thus questioned the relevance of this variable (Norlander & Eckhardt, 2005). A history of witnessing or suffering violence in childhood has been emphasized by social learning theories as one of the factors most strongly associated with the perpetration of IPVAV, and this relation has been found in several empirical studies (O'Leary et al., 2007; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001) (for reviews, see Delsol & Margolin, 2004; Gil-González, Vives-Cases, Ruiz, Carrasco-Portiño, & Alvarez-Dardet, 2008).

Regarding the sphere of interpersonal relationships, some of the variables most frequently associated with the perpetration of IPVAV include dysfunctional communication patterns between the aggressor and the partner (Ali & Naylor, 2013a), the jealousy of the partner and the influence of the partner's peer group. Various studies have shown that compared to nonviolent men, male partner aggressors exhibit poorer communication skills (Babcock et al., 1993) and use less positive and less constructive communication with their partners (Berns, Jacobson, & Gottman, 1999; Feldman & Ridley, 2000). In fact, the demand-withdrawal communication pattern (when one member of the couple tries to discuss an issue or request a change in behavior and the other withdraws from the discussion, maintains silence or refuses to argue; Christensen & Heavey, 1990) is one of the communication patterns most strongly associated with perpetration (Fournier et al., 2011; Love et al., 2018) and IPVAV victimization (Pickover et al., 2017). On the other hand, the expression of controlling behaviors, such as jealousy, has been found to be a significant predictor of IPV in adolescent samples (Giordano et al., 2010) and in clinical and nonclinical samples (for a review, see Love et al., 2018). Finally, the evidence suggests that having friends who support or engage in IPVAV influences the perpetration of this type of violence in university students (Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001), the adult population (Cunradi et al., 2008) and convicted offenders (Basile et al., 2013) and in many cases is even one of the most important predictors of sexual violence and other types of IPVAV in dating relationships (DeKeseredy & Kelly, 1993; DeKeseredy et al., 2019; Schwartz et al., 2001).

Gender-related Macrosocial Factors and IPVAV

Following the ecological proposal of Lori Heise (1988), gender-related macrosocial factors include the traditional beliefs, norms and attitudes that are shared by a society about gender roles and stereotypes and the relationship between men and

women. Feminist theories suggest that these factors are fundamental to understanding IPVAV since they define the sociocultural context that underlies this phenomenon: in patriarchal societies, men have more political, economic and social power than women, which legitimizes and promotes the use of violence to subordinate them (Bograd, 1990) and maintain unequal relationships (Marin & Russo, 1999). This sociocultural influence transmitted through traditional gender socialization promotes hostile attitudes towards women and a traditional masculine identity, which in turn increase the chances that IPVAV will be perceived as acceptable. Some studies have analyzed the relationships of these variables, measured at the macro and cross-cultural levels, with the prevalence of IPVAV (Zapata-Calvente et al., 2019). In this study, we instead measured these variables at the individual level; that is, we analyzed the extent to which men's adherence to some of these socially shared beliefs influences their individual tendencies to exert IPVAV.

Several studies have pointed out that a traditional, stereotyped view of gender roles is related to the perpetration of IPVAV (Stith et al., 2004). For example, maintaining hostile attitudes towards women has been associated with the perpetration of sexual, physical and psychological assaults by university students (Anderson & Anderson, 2008) and with the perpetration of physical and sexual IPVAV in males with dominant personalities (Malamuth et al., 1995). Studies with aggressors have also shown that they hold more hostile views towards women than nonabusive men (Gilchrist, 2009). In this sense, hostile sexism (HS) has been related to the perpetration of psychological aggression in university students (Forbes, Adams-Curtis, & White, 2004), sexual coercion against the female partner in men with alcohol problems (Lisco et al., 2012) and more tolerant and justifying attitudes towards IPVAV in university students (Valor-Segura et al., 2011). In close connection with these attitudes, men with

greater adherence to HS and patriarchal beliefs also show more agreement with certain myths about abuse (Megías, Toro-García & Carretero-Dios, 2018; Sakall, 2001). These myths, understood as a set of false beliefs about IPVAV, victims and perpetrators, have also consistently been associated with physical IPVAV (Yoshikawa et al., 2014), victim blaming and exoneration of the aggressor and minimization of his violence (Megías et al., 2018; Peters, 2008). On the other hand, greater adherence to benevolent sexism (BS) has been related to greater blame of victims under certain conditions (Abrams et al., 2003; Durán et al., 2010) and less intention to help them (Lila et al., 2010).

Other constructs included in traditional gender ideologies have also been linked to IPVAV. Parrott and Zeichner (2003) found that hypermasculinity (or traditional masculinity) predicted the perpetration of physical IPVAV, while Próspero (2008) showed that hypermasculinity was also associated with the perpetration of psychological IPVAV. On the other hand, masculine gender role stress (Eisler & Skidmore, 1987), understood as the psychological and physiological discomfort experienced by men in situations in which their traditional gender roles are challenged, has also been related to IPVAV (Baugher & Gazmararian, 2015; Eisler et al., 2000; Franchina et al., 2001). For example, compared to participants low in masculine gender role stress (MGRS), participants high in MGRS expressed more irritation, anger and jealousy towards their partners and chose more aggressive responses to resolve a conflict (Eisler et al., 2000). In other studies, participants with high MGRS scores showed more negative attributions and affect and used more verbal aggression strategies against their partners than those with low MGRS scores when they engaged in behaviors that threatened their masculinity (Franchina et al., 2001).

Individual, Relational and Gender-related Ideological Factors

Beyond examining the individual role that each of the reviewed variables plays in IPVAV, ecological models advocate studying the synergies and interrelationships between these variables. Thus, these models suggest that some individual and relational factors could not only exert direct effects on IPVAV but also interact with gender-related macrosocial factors that are present in society and that have individual effects, such as the social justification of violent male behavior. Different studies have highlighted that attitudes related to gender, beyond having a direct effect on IPVAV, have a possible mediating and/or moderating effect on other factors; for example, hostile sexist beliefs moderate the relation between individual variables such as alcohol consumption and IPV (Foran & O'Leary, 2008; Lisco, Parrott, & Tharp, 2012), and hypermasculinity moderates the relation between anger and IPVAV (Parrott & Zeichner, 2003). On the other hand, Reitzel-Jaffe and Wolfe (2001) found that negative beliefs about gender roles and the acceptance of interpersonal violence directly influenced IPVAV and mediated the relation of violence in the family of origin with IPVAV. Basile et al. (2013) showed that men's adherence to male-dominant attitudes mediated the relation between witnessing violence in the community and perpetrating psychological IPVAV. Likewise, Temple, Shorey, Tortolero, Wolfe, and Stuart (2013) found that witnessing violence from mother to father in childhood increased their attitudes of acceptance towards violence in boys and that these attitudes were associated with their physical IPVAV behaviors in adolescence. However, although there are increasing studies on IPVAV that take an ecological perspective, most of them still have not incorporated analysis of gender-related factors (e.g., Smith Slep et al., 2014) especially the possible influences of these factors as mediators of variables at other levels (Basile et al., 2013; Delsol & Margolin, 2004).

The Current Study

We took an ecological perspective to explore the direct effects and interrelations between individual, relational and gender-related ideological factors on the perpetration of IPVAV, with a special emphasis on the possible mediating role of ideological gender factors. (Gil-González et al., 2008). In the first study (S1), which is exploratory in nature, we analyzed the possible mediating roles of gender-related ideological variables (HS and MGRS) in the associations between aggressiveness (individual variable), jealousy (relational variable) and the tendency of men to exert psychological and sexual IPVAV. In Study 2, we replicated the main effects of the first study and used structural equation models, incorporating into the predictive model other individual (witnessing violence in childhood) and relational (peer support) variables that have also been related to IPVAV; in addition, we explored the possible mediating role of communication skills with the partner that has been reported by other studies (e.g., ineffective argumentation mediates the relationship between unemployment and psychological IPVAV; Basile et al., 2013).

Although we initially measured the likelihood of the three common forms of IPVAV (physical, psychological and sexual), we ultimately decided to analyze the data related to psychological and sexual violence because, since we used nonclinical samples, there was practically no variability in physical IPVAV.

Study 1. Exploratory Study

We aimed to analyze the possible mediating role of HS and MGRS on the relation of the aggressiveness trait (individual variable) and jealousy (relational variable) with IPVAV in men. IPVAV was measured as the likelihood of committing psychological and sexual violence in hypothetical scenarios. We hypothesized the following:

H1. Aggression will positively predict the likelihood of committing psychological and sexual IPVAV, both directly (H1a) and indirectly through an increase in hostile sexist beliefs (H1b) and MGRS (H1c).

H2. Jealousy will be directly and positively related to the likelihood of committing psychological and sexual IPVAV (H2a) and indirectly related to the likelihood of committing psychological and sexual IPVAV through hostile sexist beliefs (H2b) and MGRS (H2c).

Method

Participants. Sixty male students from a university in southern Spain participated. All participants had Spanish as their mother tongue or a high level of Spanish. Among this sample, 83.4% ($n = 50$) of the students had a partner at the time of the study or had previously had a partner, and 13.3% ($n = 8$) reported having same-sex partners. We used only the responses of those who reported having or having had a relationship with a woman, so the final sample consisted of 42 students (mean age = 20.67 years, $SD = 2.88$; range: 18-29).

Materials. We used the following questionnaires.

Aggression questionnaire (BPAQ, Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire, Buss & Perry, 1992; shortened Spanish version by Vigil-Colet, Lorenzo-Seva, Codorniu-Raga, & Morales, 2005). This scale measures the instrumental, motor, emotional and cognitive components of aggression using the subscales of verbal aggression, physical aggression, anger and hostility. The participants were asked to indicate on a scale from 1 (*Completely false for me*) to 5 (*Completely true for me*) the degree to which phrases related to physical aggression (3 items; e.g., "Given enough provocation, I may hit another person"), verbal aggression (4 items; e.g., "I can't help getting into arguments when people disagree with me"), anger (4 items; e.g., "I flare up quickly, but get over it

quickly”) and hostility (e.g., “I sometimes feel that people are laughing at me behind my back”) applied to them. The internal consistency of the scale for this study was $\alpha = .76$.

Multidimensional Jealousy Scale (MJS; Pfeiffer & Wong, 1989; shortened version of Elphinston, Feeney, & Noller, 2011). We used a Spanish back-translation of this scale, which measures cognitive and behavioral aspects and emotional reactions to situations that could provoke jealousy. The participants reported the frequency with which they had had a series of thoughts (cognitive jealousy subscale; 5 items; e.g., "I suspect that my partner is secretly seeing someone of the opposite sex") and performed certain behaviors (behavioral subscale; 6 items, e.g., "I look through my partner's drawers, handbag or pockets") on a scale from 1 (*Never*) to 7 (*Continuously*) and how they would react emotionally to different hypothetical situations on a scale from 1 (*Very happy*) to 7 (*Very disgusted*) (subscale of emotional reactions, 6 items; e.g., "My partner comments to you on how great looking a particular member of the opposite sex is"). The global score of the scale was used, with an internal consistency of $\alpha = .79$.

Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI; Glick & Fiske, 1996; Spanish version by Expósito et al., 1998). We used the 11-item HS subscale (e.g., “Women seek to gain power by getting control over men”) (in this study, $\alpha = .89$). The participants had to indicate their level of agreement with these statements from 0 (*Totally disagree*) to 5 (*Totally agree*).

Masculine Gender Role Stress Scale (Eisler & Skidmore, 1987). We used a Spanish back-translation of this scale. To present a short version of this scale to the participants, we selected 24 of the 45 original items, choosing the items from each subscale that had the highest factor loadings and that were best adapted for the university sample (for example, those referring to childcare were not chosen). The scale evaluates the extent to which men experience stress in situations that challenge cultural

standards of traditional masculinity in five subscales: physical incompetence (5 items; e.g., "Losing in a sports competition"), emotional inexpressiveness (4 items; e.g., "Admitting that you are afraid of something"), subordination to women (6 items; e.g., "Being outperformed at work by a woman"), intellectual inferiority (5 items, e.g., "Having to ask for directions when you are lost"), and failure to perform (4 items; e.g., "Being unable to become sexually aroused when you want"). The participants indicated how stressful each of these situations would be for them on a scale from 1 (*Not at all stressful*) to 7 (*Extremely stressful*). The total score of the scale ($\alpha = .84$) was used.

Likelihood of Perpetrating Intimate Partner Violence against Women questionnaire (LIPVAW; Megías, Montañés, Romero-Sánchez & Durán, 2009). This scale comprised six hypothetical scenarios that represent a man committing violence against his female partner (two scenarios to represent each type of violence: psychological, sexual and physical violence) to assess the participants' likelihood of committing those two forms of violence. We finally analyzed four scenarios (the psychological and sexual ones) given that there was practically no variability in the scenarios of physical IPVAV. The participants had to imagine themselves in the role of the men in each of the scenarios and report (a) how activated they would feel in that situation (filler item) on a scale from 1 (*Not at all excited*) to 5 (*Very excited*), (b) whether they would behave like the man in the story on a scale from 1 (*Surely not*) to 5 (*Surely yes*) and (c) whether they would enjoy the situation on a scale from 1 (*Surely not*) to 5 (*Surely yes*). The internal consistency values of the psychological and sexual subscales were $\alpha = .51$ and $\alpha = .71$, respectively.

Results and Discussion

The descriptive statistics and the correlations between the main measures are shown in Table 1.

Main analyses. To explore whether aggressiveness predicted the likelihood engaging in psychological and sexual IPVAV directly (H1a) and indirectly through the participants' HS (H1b) and MGRS (H1c), simple mediation models were tested using model 4 of the PROCESS macro, version 2.16.3 (Hayes, 2013) (for a detailed description of the coefficients of the significant models, see the supplementary material). Indirect effects were assessed with a bias-corrected bootstrap (95%) confidence interval based on 5000 samples.

The mediation models of the effects of aggressiveness and HS on the likelihood of committing psychological and sexual IPVAV are depicted in Figures 1 and 2, respectively. The analyses showed that aggressiveness predicted the extent to which the participants supported hostile sexist beliefs, $b = .66$, $t(40) = 2.32$, $p = .02$, $\Delta R^2 = .12$, but not their likelihood to commit IPVAV (H1a; psychological: Figure 1, $b = .22$, $t(39) = 1.24$, $p = .22$; sexual: Figure 2, $b = -.19$, $t(39) = -.94$, $p = .35$). The bootstrap analysis showed significant indirect effects of aggressiveness on the likelihood of committing psychological IPVAV (indirect effect = .15, bias-corrected 95% CI [0.03, 0.37]) and sexual IPVAV (indirect effect = .16, bias-corrected 95% CI [0.02, 0.45]) through HS (H2b).

To test H1c, we conducted the same models using MGRS instead of HS as the mediator. The same pattern was observed: aggressiveness predicted the extent to which the participants experienced MGRS, $b = .52$, $t(40) = 2.42$, $p = .02$, $\Delta R^2 = .13$. We found significant indirect effects of aggressiveness on the likelihood of committing psychological IPVAV (indirect effect = .14, bias-corrected 95% CI [0.01, 0.41]) and sexual IPVAV through MGRS (indirect effect = .18, bias-corrected 95% CI [0.04, 0.43]) (H2c).

To explore whether jealousy predicted the likelihood of committing psychological and sexual IPVAV directly (H2a) and indirectly through the participants' hostile sexist beliefs (H2b) and MGRS (H2c), several simple mediation models were tested. The mediation models of the effects of jealousy and HS on the likelihood of committing psychological and sexual IPVAV are depicted in Figures 3 and 4, respectively. The analyses showed that jealousy predicted the extent to which the participants supported hostile sexist beliefs, $b = .91$, $t(40) = 3.67$, $p = .0007$, $\Delta R^2 = .25$, but not their likelihood of committing IPVAV (psychological: Figure 3, $b = .05$, $t(39) = .27$, $p = .79$; sexual: Figure 4, $b = -.06$, $t(39) = -.29$, $p = .77$). The bootstrap analysis showed significant indirect effects of jealousy on the likelihood of committing psychological IPVAV through HS (indirect effect = .24, bias-corrected 95% CI [0.05, 0.55]) and on the likelihood of committing sexual IPVAV (indirect effect = .21, bias-corrected 95% CI [0.04, 0.48]) (H2b).

The same pattern was observed when we used MGRS as the gender-related ideological mediator variable (H2c): jealousy predicted the extent to which the participants experienced MGRS, $b = .56$, $t(40) = 2.82$, $p = .007$, $\Delta R^2 = .17$. Jealousy showed significant indirect effects on the likelihood of committing psychological IPVAV (indirect effect = .16, bias-corrected 95% CI [0.01, 0.46]) and sexual IPVAV (indirect effect = .17, bias-corrected 95% CI [0.03, 0.44]) through MGRS (H3c).

In summary, the results of this exploratory study revealed that neither aggressiveness nor jealousy directly predicted the likelihood of committing psychological or sexual IPVAV but that both factors indirectly influenced IPVAV through HS and MGRS. Given the limited sample size used in this work, in the following study, we aimed to replicate these results and evaluate additional variables.

Study 2

The objective of this study, using structural equation models, was twofold: (a) to replicate the main findings found in the exploratory study (S1) with a larger sample and (b) to incorporate other individual and relational factors into the predictive model to analyze their relationships with the likelihood of committing IPVAV. Specifically, regarding the exploratory study, we added a) individual and relational factors (age of the participants, history of witnessing or being a victim of violence in the family of origin and peer support for/perpetration of IPVAV), b) new gender-related ideological variables (BS, myths about IPVAV and traditional masculinity) and c) another possible mediating variable (the participant's communication skills with his partner).

Some of the predictive factors incorporated in Study 2 have close theoretical relationships with each other, so we aimed to group them into three latent variables: 1) "traditional gender ideology", composed of sexism, traditional masculinity, MGRS and myths about IPVAV; 2) "violence in the environment", comprising violence witnessed/suffered in childhood and peer support for and perpetration of IPVAV; and 3) "dysfunctional communication with the partner", constituted by demand-withdrawal and aggressive communication patterns. These latent constructs and the relationships examined to replicate the results of Study 1 are represented in Figure 5. The evaluation of the new expected relationships (represented by thick lines) is represented in Figure 6 (although it is not graphically illustrated, the model assumes that covariances between exogenous variables may occur and takes into account the possible interrelationships between them).

To replicate the results of the Study 1, we formulated the following hypothesis:

H1. Jealousy and aggressiveness will be related to the likelihood of committing psychological or sexual IPVAV through traditional gender ideology.

Based on the model including violence in childhood, peer support and communication skills with the partner, we hypothesized the following:

H2. Aggression and jealousy will continue to be indirectly related to the likelihood of committing psychological or sexual IPVAV through traditional gender ideology controlling the effects of the new variables included (H2a). Age will be negatively related to the likelihood of committing IPVAV (H2b).

Jealousy and aggressiveness have been linked to IPVAV and other negative consequences for the relationship (Guerrero, 2014); therefore, they could deteriorate the communication of the couple, and previous studies have found an association of problematic communication styles with psychological IPVAV (but not with sexual IPVAV; e.g., Basile et al., 2013). Therefore, we hypothesized the following:

H3. Jealousy and aggressiveness will be indirectly related to the likelihood of committing psychological IPVAV through dysfunctional communication with the partner.

H4. The latent constructs of traditional gender ideology (H4a) and violence in the environment (H4b) will be positively related to the likelihood of committing psychological and sexual IPVAV. Furthermore, since peer support for IPVAV (Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001) and exposure to family violence (Lee, Walters, Hall, & Basile, 2013) could favor negative attitudes about women that lead to IPVAV, we hypothesized that violence in the environment (composed of both variables) will also be indirectly related to both the likelihood of committing psychological IPVAV and the likelihood of committing sexual IPVAV through traditional gender ideology (H4c).

Method

Participants. Two hundred forty-five students from a university in southern Spain completed a questionnaire booklet in their regular class. Four participants with a random response pattern were eliminated, and only those who were in a relationship or had been in a relationship were selected, so the final sample consisted of 212 male university students ($M = 21.25$ years; $SD = 2.97$; range: 18-32). All participants had Spanish as their mother tongue or a high level of Spanish.

Materials. We used the following questionnaires (the internal consistency of each of the measures is shown in Table 2).

Likelihood of Perpetrating Intimate Partner Violence against Women questionnaire. We used the LIPVAW (Megías et al., 2009) as in Study 1. To shorten the length of the questionnaire, we used only one scenario per type of violence (psychological and sexual) and removed the filler item.

Individual variables. The participants first reported demographic information, including their age, nationality, university degree and course in the current academic year. Then, they completed the following questionnaires.

Aggression questionnaire. We used the same version that was used in Study 1.

Violence in the family of origin during childhood. Based on the WHO instrument developed to study the prevalence of violence against women (Navarro-Mantas et al., 2015) and the work of Basile et al. (2013), we created 3 items to measure the frequency of psychological aggression (1 item; “Insulting, yelling or cursing, or threatening to hit or throw something at the other”) and physical aggression (2 items: “Throwing something against the other, pushing, grabbing, shaking or slapping” and “Kicking, hitting with a fist or an object, hitting the other, or threatening with a knife or

weapon") between family members during childhood. The participants responded on a scale from 1 (*Never*) to 5 (*Weekly*) if they had seen or experienced the former forms of aggression from father to mother, mother to father, father to participant, or mother to participant. The responses across all the items were averaged, with higher scores indicating having experienced or witnessed more violence in the family of origin during childhood.

Relationship variables. We used the following scales.

Multidimensional Jealousy Scale. We used the same version as that in Study 1.

Communication Patterns Questionnaire (CPQ; Christensen & Sullaway, 1984; Spanish version by (Montes-Berges, 2008). The participants were asked to indicate on a scale from 1 (*Not at all possible*) to 9 (*Very possible*) the extent to which they used different strategies that represented their dyadic communication patterns with their partners, and they were also asked to report the strategies used by their partners. We used two subscales from the Spanish version of the questionnaire: communication/avoidance, transfer, and demand/withdrawal (14 items, e.g., "Your partner makes a request and you disagree" and "You make a request and your partner disregards it") and aggressive communication (4 items, e.g., "You tend to use verbal aggressiveness" and "Your partner tends to use verbal aggressiveness"). The responses across the items were averaged for each subscale, with higher scores indicating more demand/withdrawal or aggressive communication patterns with the partner.

Peer support and perpetration of IPVAV. We used three items extracted from Basile et al., (2013) to measure how many friends of the participant had committed violence against their partners on a scale from 1 (*None*) to 5 (*More than ten*) (e.g., "To the best of your knowledge, how many of your friends insulted their spouses or partners, swore at them, and/or withheld affection?"). To measure the support of their

friends for IPVAV, the participants answered 6 items (*Yes/No*) about whether they had received certain comments or advice from their friends about solving relationship problems (e.g., "Did any of your male friends ever tell you that it is alright for a man to physically force a woman to have sex with him under certain conditions?"). We developed a single peer support/perpetration index, computing the mean score of the 9 items (after transforming the perpetration responses to dichotomous responses).

Traditional Gender Ideology. We included four questionnaires to measure attitudes and beliefs linked to a traditional gender ideology.

Ambivalent Sexist Inventory. We used a short form of the ASI (Glick & Fiske, 1996; Spanish version by Expósito et al., 1998) proposed by Bohner, Ahlborn, & Steiner (2010; 6 items on HS and 6 on BS).

Male Role Norms Scale (MRNS; Thompson & Pleck, 1986; Spanish version by Martínez, Paterna, López, & Velandrino, 2010). We used a shortened version of the Spanish adaptation of this scale, which measures beliefs about male gender roles related to status (men's respect and professional and economic success are associated with high income; 6 items, e.g., "Success in his work has to be the man's central goal in this life"), toughness (men must be physically, mentally and emotionally strong as well as independent and self-sufficient; 4 items; e.g., "When a man is feeling a little pain, he should try not to let it show very much") and antifemininity (men should avoid emotions, behaviors, activities and tasks attributed to women; 5 items; e.g., "It is a bit embarrassing for a man to have a job that is usually filled by a women"). The participants indicated their degree of agreement with the content of the items on a scale from 1 (*Totally disagree*) to 7 (*Totally agree*). The responses across all the items were averaged, with higher scores indicating stronger agreement of these male role norms.

Masculine Gender Role Stress (MGRS). We used the same version as that in Study 1.

Acceptance of Myths about Intimate Partner Violence Against Women Scale (AMIVAW) (Megías et al., 2018). To measure acceptance of myths about IPVAV, the participants indicated their degree of agreement with 15 statements that represented prejudiced and stereotypical beliefs on this topic (e.g., “The man who mistreats his partner does so because he does not know how to behave otherwise”) on a scale from 1 (*Totally disagree*) to 7 (*Totally agree*). The final score was the average of the 15 item scores.

Results

We calculated the descriptive statistics and the reliability indices of the scales with SPSS 21, and we built structural equation models with AMOS 21. All the parameters and the estimated indirect effects were generated using maximum likelihood estimation. Missing values, which accounted for less than 5% of the data, were replaced by the mean values (Rubin et al., 2007).

Development of the model. Several steps were followed: (a) a review of previous theoretical and empirical models (e.g., O’Leary et al., 2007), (b) an analysis of the correlations between the variables, and (c) the performance of exploratory factor analyses to identify the indicators of the hypothesized latent constructs. We built the model based on these steps and used an iterative respecification process to define a theoretically sound model with a good fit to the data, consulting the modification indices to identify unspecified relationships that could be added to improve the model fit (relationships were added only if they were theoretically justified). As a final step, we calculated potential mediations with a bootstrapping approach (Efron & Tibshirani, 1994; Shrout & Bolger, 2002), calculating the indirect effects, standard errors, and 90%

bias-corrected bootstrap confidence intervals using data from 1,000 bootstrap samples. The mediation effects were contrasted in separate models (one mediating relationship was analyzed at a time to facilitate the identification of the unique contributions of the specific indirect effects).

In addition, following Tanha et al. (2010), we designed an inclusive model (Figure 7) and restricted models with fewer interrelations to determine the model that revealed the best fit. To further investigate possible significant differences between the inclusive model and the various restricted models, we run “difference” test. “Difference” statistical and practical indices of fit reveal any possible gain or loss of fit for the model due to the elimination of relations between variables by comparing the restricted model to the inclusive model (Figueredo & McCloskey, 1993; Tanha et al., 2010). To evaluate the fit of the models, the chi-square test and the chi-square ratio between the degrees of freedom were used since the former is sensitive to the sample size (Hayduk, 1987). Ratio values between 1 and 5 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993) indicate a satisfactory fit between the theoretical model and the empirical data. Due to the non-normality of the distribution of some variables (e.g., likelihood to commit IPVAV), robust adjustment statistics were used (Smith Slep et al., 2014), including the robust comparative fit index (robust CFI > .90), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and robust Tucker-Lewis index (robust TLI > .90). RMSEA values less than 0.06 indicate a good fit between the model and the observed data, and values up to 0.08 represent reasonable approximation errors (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Preliminary analysis. The descriptive statistics and reliability indices of the scales, as well as the correlations between the scales, are presented in Tables 2 and 3.

The interrelationships between the variables (Table 3) confirmed that some were strongly associated and that they should be combined into latent variables. An

exploratory factor analysis of the principal components with varimax rotation identified the potential indicators of the latent variables and yielded three factors with eigenvalues greater than one: a) traditional gender ideology, b) dysfunctional communication with the partner and c) violence in the environment (violence in childhood and peer support for/perpetration of IPVAV). Aggression and jealousy had relevant factor loadings on factor 2, but they were not added as indicators because they were not conceptually justifiable. Thus, aggressiveness, jealousy, and age were kept as separate observed variables.

Model to replicate Study 1. The designed model showed an adequate fit: $\chi^2(21) = 40.89, p < .01, \chi^2/df = 1.95, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .067, TLI = .93, AIC = 88.89$; replicated the results of Study 1 (Figure 7); and explained 4% and 15% of the variance in the likelihood of committing sexual and psychological IPVAV, respectively. Neither jealousy nor aggressiveness was directly related to the likelihood of committing IPVAV, but both were related to traditional gender ideology ($\beta = .30, p < .001$ y $\beta = .27, p < .01$, respectively), and traditional gender ideology was in turn related to the likelihood of committing sexual IPVAV ($\beta = .17, p = .057$) and psychological IPVAV ($\beta = .39, p < .001$). Jealousy was related to the likelihood of committing psychological IPVAV ($\beta = .12, p < .001$) and sexual IPVAV ($\beta = .05, p < .05$) through traditional gender ideology, and aggressiveness also showed an indirect effect on the likelihood of committing IPVAV through traditional gender ideology (psychological: $\beta = .10, p < .001$; sexual: $\beta = .04, p < .05$) (H1).

Final model. The fit indices of the full model were acceptable: $\chi^2(63) = 121.31, p < .001, \chi^2/df = 1.93, CFI = .91, RMSEA = .066, TLI = .87, AIC = 205.31$, and the model explained 14% and 17% of the variance in the likelihood of committing sexual and psychological IPVAV, respectively (Figure 8). Each latent variable was well

represented by its indicators. As in Study 1, neither jealousy nor aggressiveness was directly related to the likelihood of committing psychological or sexual IPVAV but was indirectly (albeit marginally) related to the likelihood of committing psychological IPVAV (but not sexual IPVAV) (H2a; jealousy \rightarrow traditional gender ideology \rightarrow psychological IPVAV: $\beta = .08, p = .06$; aggressiveness \rightarrow traditional gender ideology \rightarrow psychological IPVAV: $\beta = .05, p = .09$). Age (H2b) was negatively related to the likelihood of committing sexual IPVAV ($\beta = -.16, p < .05$) but not psychological IPVAV. Aggressiveness and jealousy were indirectly related to the likelihood of committing psychological IPVAV through dysfunctional communication with the partner (H3; aggressiveness: $\beta = .08, p < .05$; jealousy: $\beta = .08, p < .05$). On the other hand, traditional gender ideology (H4a) was associated with a greater likelihood of committing psychological IPVAV ($\beta = .28, p < .01$) but not sexual IPVAV (although it was in the preliminary model), and violence in the environment (H4b) was associated with a greater likelihood of committing sexual IPVAV ($\beta = .33, p < .05$) but not psychological IPVAV. Finally, violence in the environment was indirectly related with the likelihood of committing psychological IPVAV ($\beta = .10, p < .05$) through traditional gender ideology (H4c) but not with the likelihood of committing sexual IPVAV.

Restricted models. To test whether the interrelations between different factors contributed more than their separate analysis, we compared the fit indices between the inclusive model and the two restricted models that did not include any of the mediations (Table 4). In restricted model 1, the relations of violence in the environment, aggressiveness and jealousy with traditional ideology were eliminated. Their fit indices were not acceptable. The difference test revealed that restricted model 1 had a significantly worse fit than the inclusive model, and it was therefore rejected. In restricted model 2, we maintained the mediation of ideology but eliminated aggressive

and jealous relationships with dysfunctional communication with the partner. The fit indices of this model were also not acceptable (Table 4), and the difference test with the inclusive model showed significant differences; therefore, restricted model 2 was also rejected.

Discussion

Study 2 partially replicated the main results of the exploratory study: aggressiveness and jealousy were indirectly related to the likelihood of committing psychological IPVAV through traditional gender ideology, but this relation was not observed with the likelihood of committing sexual IPVAV (H1); furthermore, these indirect effects became marginal in the inclusive model (H2a). Age negatively predicted the likelihood of committing sexual IPVAV but not psychological IPVAV, as we predicted (H2b). Jealousy and aggressiveness showed an indirect effect on the likelihood of committing psychological IPVAV through dysfunctional communication with the partner, confirming H3. On the other hand, traditional gender ideology was positively associated with the likelihood of committing psychological IPVAV (but not sexual IPVAV), while violence in the environment was associated with the likelihood of committing sexual IPVAV (but not psychological IPVAV), providing partial support for hypotheses H4a and H4b. In addition, violence in the environment showed an indirect effect on the likelihood of committing psychological IPVAV but not sexual IPVAV through traditional gender ideology, so H4c was only partially confirmed. Finally, the comparison of the models revealed that the inclusive model presented significantly better fit indices than the restricted models, providing support for ecological approaches and the need to deepen the examination of the interconnection between factors to better understand IPVAV.

General Discussion

The objective of this research was to explore the direct effects and interrelationships between individual, relational and gender-related ideological factors on IPVAV from an ecological perspective given the scarcity of studies that jointly take into account variables at different levels in their models. Specifically, based an ecological perspective (e.g., Heise, 1998), we evaluated the relations between individual factors (age, aggressiveness, and violence in childhood), relational factors (jealousy, peer support for IPVAV, and dysfunctional communication patterns with the partner) and gender-related ideological factors (ambivalent sexism, MGRS, traditional masculinity, and myths about IPVAV) and the likelihood of committing IPVAV. Given the relevance of gender-related ideological factors for IPVAV (Yount et al., 2018), we placed special emphasis on their possible mediating roles. In the exploratory study (S1), we analyzed whether aggressiveness and jealousy indirectly predicted the likelihood of committing psychological and sexual IPVAV through traditional gender ideology. In Study 2, in addition to replicating the results of the first, we added individual, relational and gender-related ideological variables.

The results of S1 revealed that aggressiveness and jealousy were not directly associated with psychological and sexual IPVAV beyond the correlations, despite our predictions in hypotheses H1a and H2a (S1). These direct relationships have been found in other studies for both the aggressiveness-anger trait (Birkley & Eckhardt, 2015) and jealousy (Love et al., 2018; O'Leary et al., 2007). The lack of these direct relations in our study may be due to the influence of gender-related ideological variables. In fact, aggressiveness was related to psychological and sexual IPVAV through SH and MGRS (H1b, H1c; S1), and jealousy showed the same pattern of results (H2b, H2c; S1). In the case of aggressiveness, previous studies have already shown a relation between anger

and beliefs about traditional masculinity, with IPVAV predicting anger only in men with high hypermasculinity (Parrot & Zeichner, 2003). Recent studies have found positive correlations between anger and HS (Garaigordobil, 2015). In this sense, although we measured aggressiveness as a personality trait, the items used to measure aggressiveness can also be understood as reflecting behavioral tendencies. The instructions provided with the questionnaires prevent us from ruling out that the participants thought about couple situations when responding to items such as “I flare up quickly but get over it quickly”, which could partly explain the indirect effects of aggressiveness through traditional gender ideology beliefs (hostile beliefs...). Future studies should add clarification in the instructions to monitor partner activation when participants respond to scales. The relation between jealousy and traditional gender ideology was expected (Hartwell et al., 2015) because jealousy represents a form of control and domination over women (Gage & Hutchinson, 2006). In other studies that measured jealousy and related constructs (e.g., dominance in the relationship), jealousy also did not predict the perpetration of IPVAV (Goussinsky et al., 2017). However, the indirect effects of jealousy and aggressiveness through traditional gender ideology in the inclusive model in Study 2 (S2) were no longer significant for the likelihood of committing sexual IPVAV and remained only marginally significant for psychological IPVAV (H2a; S2).

Age (H2b; S2) was negatively associated with the likelihood of committing sexual IPVAV but not psychological LIPVAV. Although some reviews have indicated a negative relation between age and IPVAV perpetration (Stith et al., 2004; Tekkas Kerman & Betrus, 2018), some studies with adolescents and young people have found contradictory results (Dardis et al., 2015).

On the other hand, as we expected in H3 (S2), the association of individual and relational factors also predicted IPVAV: jealousy and aggressiveness were indirectly related to the likelihood of committing psychological IPVAV through dysfunctional communication with the partner. These results are congruent with previous evidence showing that jealousy was related to negative consequences for the relationship (Guerrero, 2014) and that dysfunctional communication styles were directly and indirectly associated with psychological IPVAV (Basile et al., 2013). The relations among aggressiveness, communication problems with the partner, and greater psychological IPVAV were in line with the finding that when abusers are exposed to situations that increase anger, they present more irrational beliefs and cognitive biases than nonviolent men (Eckhardt & Jamison, 2002), which could lead them to communicate more aggressively with their partners. In addition, the direct and positive relation between dysfunctional partner communication and psychological IPVAV echoed recent work linking demand/withdrawal communication patterns with psychological IPVAV (Pickover et al., 2017) and previous studies reporting that partner aggressors, compared to nonaggressors, showed less positive communication with their partners (Berns et al., 1999) and were less constructive and engaged in more blaming, threats, and mutual verbal assaults (Feldman & Ridley, 2000).

Our results partially supported the hypothesis that traditional gender ideology and violence in the environment would be positively related to the likelihood of committing psychological and sexual IPVAV (H4a; S2). In both studies, we found a direct relations between gender-related ideological variables and psychological IPVAV, in line with studies that have shown that hostile attitudes towards women predict psychological violence towards them (Anderson & Anderson, 2008; Forbes et al., 2004) and with cross-cultural studies showing that the existence of a patriarchal family

structure (Yuksel-Kaptanoglu et al., 2012) and adherence by the male partner to traditional gender roles (Herrero et al., 2017) were associated with a higher risk of IPVAV victimization. However, although traditional gender ideology predicted the likelihood of committing sexual IPVAV in the exploratory study, this result was no longer significant in the inclusive model (S2), although the relation between hostile attitudes towards women and sexual IPVAV has been well established (Lisco et al., 2012). Violence in the environment (H4b) also had a direct relation with sexual likelihood, in line with studies showing that being a victim or witness of violence in the family of origin (Delsol & Margolin, 2004; Gil-González et al., 2008; O'Leary et al., 2007; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001) and having friends who support or exert IPVAV (Basile et al., 2013; Cunradi et al., 2008; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001) influence the perpetration of IPVAV (DeKeseredy & Kelly, 1993; Schwartz et al., 2001). However, violence in the environment and psychological IPVAV were not directly related in our study, although there is evidence in the literature that supports this association (Gil-González et al., 2008). This result could have been influenced by the fact that our latent variable combined factors distant from the participants' personal histories, such as violence suffered or witnessed in childhood, as well as other closer factors such as the support and perpetration of IPVAV by their friends.

As we predicted in H4c (S2), violence in the environment was indirectly related to psychological LIPVAV but not sexual IPVAV likelihood through traditional gender ideology, so this hypothesis was only partially confirmed. Given that this latent construct included witnessing/suffering violence in childhood and peer support for/perpetration of violence, our results coincided with Lee et al. (2013), who highlighted that violence in childhood could lead to the development of hostile attitudes towards women that in turn led to IPV. In this vein, in the study by Temple et al.

(2013), witnessing violence in childhood from mother to father increased the participants' acceptance of male violent attitudes, and these attitudes were positively associated with the perpetration of physical IPVAV during adolescence. Delson and Margolin (2004) showed that having positive attitudes towards marital violence mediated and moderated the effects of violence in the family of origin on the perpetration of IPV. Reitzel et al. (2001) found that having friends who were violent with their partners also increased negative beliefs about gender roles, which in turn were associated with the perpetration of IPVAV.

Limitations and Future Studies

This work has some limitations. First, we used samples of nonclinical university students, so we must be cautious when extrapolating the results to both the general population and samples of perpetrators with a judicial sentence. The use of this type of sample could explain why we did not find some relations that have been reported in the previous literature (e.g., between traditional gender ideology and sexual IPVAV). A recent study indicated that certain risk factors were associated with different strengths in clinical vs. nonclinical samples (Love et al., 2018). Therefore, it is possible that in university samples such as that used in this study, which are usually characterized by low levels of violence and high awareness of IPVAV, the relationships between some risk factors and the likelihood of committing IPVAV were not strong enough. Second, the reliability of the LIPVAV scale was lower than expected, which could be due to the small sample in S1 and our limitation of using one scenario for each type of violence in S2 to reduce the length of the questionnaire. To avoid these limitations, future research should focus on committed violence and the use of samples of convicted partner offenders. On the other hand, some of the variables such as jealousy and aggressiveness may overlap with actual psychological IPAV in ways that may influence results.

Additionally, although we have measured several cultural factors highlighted by socio-ecological perspectives, we do so at the individual level, therefore, the influence of these variables at the community level is absent and should be addressed in future studies. Finally, although the inclusive model had acceptable fit indices and was significantly better than the restricted models, some of the fit indices could be improved (a robust TLI should be $> .90$, and we obtained a TLI of $.87$).

Practical Implications

Despite the limitations of the present work, there are a number of practical implications that can be derived from our results. A first general message to consider in IPVAV prevention strategies is the need to address the interrelationships among individual, relational, and gender-related ideological risk factors. Individuals who work to address the problem of IPVAV may find it especially useful to know that certain traditional gender beliefs are linked to other characteristics that do not seem sufficient to trigger IPVAV (e.g., jealousy and aggressiveness). The connections among aggressiveness, jealousy and traditional gender ideology found in our sample of men corresponds to recent findings indicating relationships among romantic beliefs, controlling behaviors and IPVAV experiences in women (Papp et al., 2017). For this reason, one important step for preventing IPVAV, especially in younger people who are also at higher risk of perpetrating and suffering from IPVAV, is implementing educational campaigns and programs aimed at deconstructing traditional gender socialization and the understanding of gender roles and relationships. Second, working on communication problems in the couple can be another focus of interventions. Communication problems directly influence the likelihood of committing psychological IPVAV and exacerbate the relations of jealousy and aggressiveness with the tendency to commit such violence. This strategy could be especially relevant for what (Johnson,

2006) calls situational intimate partner violence (Love et al., 2018), which is necessary to address in the early stages of the relationship or before communication problems activate the link between jealousy or aggressive behavior and psychological IPVAV, as our model seems to suggest. Finally, our results underscore that the relation between peers and the perpetration of IPVAV, which is receiving more empirical support (Mulawa et al., 2018), urgently requires community actions to break the cycles of the legitimization of violence in the peer group. These actions are particularly relevant in the current era, when peer groups have the means to share and exacerbate traditional male behaviors (e.g., through instant messaging mobile applications), which frequently support the viral spread of violence against women.

Conclusions

It is currently widely accepted that intimate partner violence against women cannot be explained by any single factor. Understanding and identifying not only what the risk factors are but also how they interact with each other is a critical task in designing IPVAV prevention strategies and campaigns. The main results of our studies reinforce the theses of ecological models and the need to carry out research that examines risk factors at different levels of the social environment. Our findings especially highlight the relevance of traditional gender ideology factors, which might play key mediating roles in the relations of individual and relational variables such as aggressiveness, jealousy, violence in the family of origin and peer support for/perpetration of IPV with the likelihood of committing IPVAV. In this sense, in our work, the gender-related ideological framework that encourages and reinforces structural inequalities between men and women is shown to function as a link between some variables that by themselves do not have direct significant relationships with the IPVAV (e.g., aggressiveness and jealousy). These results are relevant to the IPVAV

literature because despite the relevance of the gender-related ideological variables to IPVAV (Bosch & Ferrer-Pérez, 2013), these variables are still not usually included in studies of IPVAV, even those that take an ecological perspective (Godbout et al., 2009; Smith Slep et al., 2014).

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Factors related to male's proclivity to IPVAV

Table 1

Descriptive statistics and the bivariate associations between the main measures

| | M (DT) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) |
|--|------------|-----|-------|-------|-------|------|
| (1) Aggressiveness ¹ | 2.81 (.50) | .26 | .34* | .36* | .32* | -.02 |
| (2) Jealousy ² | 3.00 (.53) | | .50** | .41** | .25 | .12 |
| (3) HS ³ | 1.76 (.96) | | | .54** | .44** | .33* |
| (4) MGRS ⁴ | 3.03 (.72) | | | | .40** | .35* |
| (5) Likelihood to Psychological IPVAV ⁵ | 1.69 (.59) | | | | | .37* |
| (6) Likelihood to Sexual IPVAV ⁵ | 1.57 (.63) | | | | | |

Note. HS = Hostile Sexism; MGRS = Masculine Gender Role Stress; IPVAV: Intimate Partner Violence Against

Women. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

¹Range 1–6: 1 = *Completely false for me*, 6 = *Completely true for me*.

²Range 1–7: 1 = *Never*, 7 = *Continuously* (cognitive and behavioural subscales); 1 = *Very happy*, 7 = *Very disgusted* (emotional subscale)

³Range 0–5: 0 = *Totally disagree*, 5 = *Totally agree*.

⁴Range 1–7: 1 = *Not at all stressful*, 7 = *Extremely stressful*.

^{5,6}Range 1–5: 1 = *Surely not*, 5 = *Surely yes*.

Factors related to male's proclivity to IPVAV

Table 2

Descriptive statistics, bivariate correlations and reliability of the main measures of Study 2

| | α | # items | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>Range</i> |
|---|----------|---------|----------|-----------|--------------|
| Aggressiveness | .81 | 15 | 2.62 | .60 | 1-5 |
| Violence in childhood (witness or victim) | .82 | 12 | 1.44 | .43 | 1-5 |
| Peer support/perpetration of IPVAV | .71 | 9 | .15 | .18 | 0-1 (NO/YES) |
| Jealousy | .84 | 17 | 3.03 | .69 | 1-7 |
| Demand-withdraw communication | .81 | 14 | 3.90 | 1.22 | 1-9 |
| Aggressive communication | .72 | 4 | 1.60 | .92 | 1-9 |
| BS | .77 | 6 | 2.23 | 1.11 | 0-5 |
| HS | .80 | 6 | 2,25 | 1.03 | 0-5 |
| AMIVAW | .84 | 15 | 3.23 | 1.06 | 1-7 |
| MGRS | .86 | 24 | 3.07 | .74 | 1-7 |
| TM | .82 | 15 | 3.06 | .88 | 1-7 |
| LIPVAW (psychological and sexual) | .62 | 4 | 1.78 | .60 | 1-5 |
| Psychological LIPVAW | .46 | 2 | 1.81 | .66 | 1-5 |
| Sexual IPVAV | .83 | 2 | 1.76 | .87 | 1-5 |

Note. BS: Benevolent Sexism; HS: Hostile Sexism; AMIVAW: Acceptance of Myths about Intimate Partner Violence

Against Women; MGRS: Masculine Gender Role Stress; TM: Traditional Masculinity; IPVAV: Intimate Partner

Violence Against Women; LIPVAW: Likelihood to Perpetrate Intimate Partner Violence Against Women.

Factors related to male's proclivity to IPVAW

Table 3

Bivariate correlations between the main measures of Study 2

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) | (9) | (10) | (11) | (12) | (13) |
|---|-----|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| Age | .01 | .08 | .15 [*] | -.11 | -.06 | -.01 | -.18 [*] | .00 | -.00 | -.11 | -.11 | -.14 [*] | -.05 |
| (1) Aggressiveness | | .22 ^{**} | .23 ^{**} | .38 ^{**} | .39 ^{**} | .29 ^{**} | .03 | .13 ¹ | .09 | .38 ^{**} | .35 ^{**} | .12 ³ | .17 [*] |
| (2) Violence in childhood (witness or victim) | | | .32 ^{**} | .19 ^{**} | .26 ^{**} | .31 ^{**} | .01 | .11 | .11 | .11 | .24 ^{**} | .13 ² | .07 |
| (3) Peer support/perpetration of IPVAW | | | | .22 ^{**} | .26 ^{**} | .12 ³ | .09 | .24 ^{**} | .26 ^{**} | .18 ^{**} | .33 ^{**} | .20 ^{**} | .21 ^{**} |
| (4) Jealousy | | | | | .40 ^{**} | .25 ^{**} | .21 ^{**} | .27 ^{**} | .20 ^{**} | .31 ^{**} | .35 ^{**} | .10 | .11 |
| (5) Demand-withdraw communication | | | | | | .47 ^{**} | .15 [*] | .22 ^{**} | .19 ^{**} | .31 ^{**} | .38 ^{**} | .09 | .26 ^{**} |
| (6) Aggressive communication | | | | | | | .00 | .10 | .09 | .09 | .18 ^{**} | .10 | .18 ^{**} |
| (7) BS | | | | | | | | .32 ^{**} | .30 ^{**} | .33 ^{**} | .40 ^{**} | .04 | .13 ² |
| (8) HS | | | | | | | | | .57 ^{**} | .44 ^{**} | .58 ^{**} | .16 [*] | .32 ^{**} |
| (9) AMIVAW | | | | | | | | | | .29 ^{**} | .43 ^{**} | .22 ^{**} | .27 ^{**} |
| (10) MGRS | | | | | | | | | | | .69 ^{**} | .12 ³ | .29 ^{**} |
| (11) TM | | | | | | | | | | | | .16 [*] | .33 ^{**} |
| (12) Sexual LIPVAW | | | | | | | | | | | | | .22 ^{**} |
| (13) Psychological LIPVAW | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; ¹ $p = .054$; ² $p = .054$ a $.070$; ³ $p = .077$ a $.082$

Notes. BS: Benevolent Sexism; HS: Hostile Sexism; AMIVAW: Acceptance of Myths about Intimate Partner Violence Against Women; MGRS: Masculine Gender Role Stress; TM: Traditional Masculinity; IPVAW: Intimate Partner Violence Against Women; LIPVAW: Likelihood to Perpetrate Intimate Partner Violence Against Women.

Factors related to male's proclivity to IPVAV

Table 4

Statistical and Practical Indices of Fit for Nested Factor Analytic Structural Equation Models (Study 2)

| | χ^2 | <i>Df</i> | TLI | CFI | RMSEA | AIC |
|-----------------------|----------|-----------|-------|-------|-------|---------|
| Models | | | | | | |
| Inclusive model (I) | 121.311* | 63 | .873 | .912 | .066 | 205.311 |
| Restricted model (R1) | 178.151* | 66 | .767 | .831 | .090 | 256.151 |
| Restricted model (R2) | 178.904* | 65 | .760 | .829 | .091 | 258.904 |
| Differences | | | | | | |
| (R1) – (I) | 56.840* | 3 | -.106 | -.081 | .024 | 50.84 |
| (R2) – (I) | 57.593* | 2 | -.113 | -.083 | .025 | 53.593 |

* $p < .001$

Note. *Df*: Degrees of Freedom, *CFI*: Comparative Fit Index, *TLI*: Turcker Lewis Index, *RMSEA*: Root Mean Square

Error of Approximation; *AIC*: Akaike Information Criteria

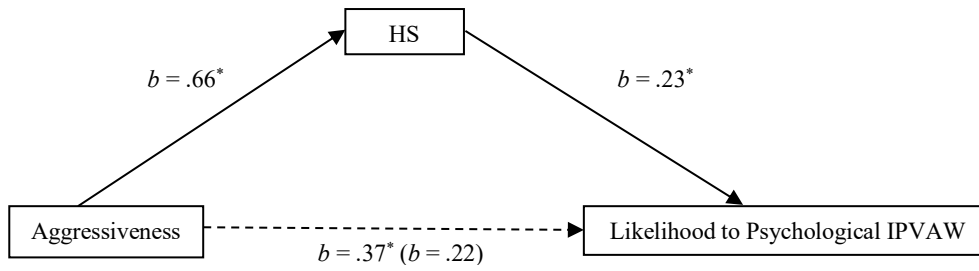


Figure 1 Aggressiveness Increases the Likelihood to Psychological Intimate Partner Violence Against Women through an Increase in Hostile Sexist Beliefs. HS = Hostile Sexism; IPVAW: Intimate Partner Violence Against Women. $p < .05$

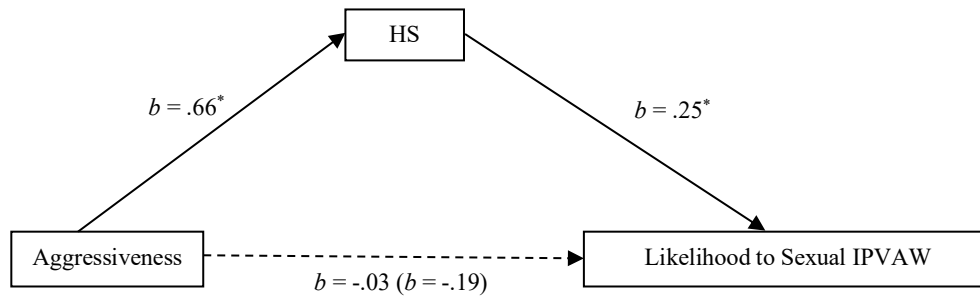


Figure 2 Aggressiveness Increases the Likelihood to Sexual Intimate Partner Violence Against Women through an Increase in Hostile Sexist Beliefs. HS = Hostile Sexism; IPVAW: Intimate Partner Violence Against Women. $*p < .05$

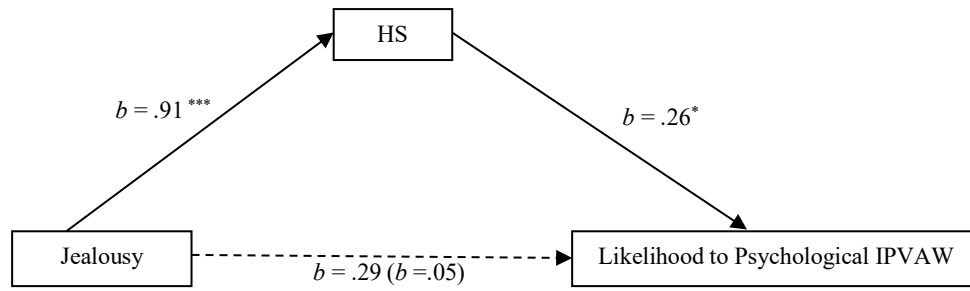


Figura 3 Jealousy Increases the Likelihood to Psychological Intimate Partner Violence Against Women through an Increase in Hostile Sexist Beliefs. HS = Hostile Sexism; IPVAW: Intimate Partner Violence Against Women. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

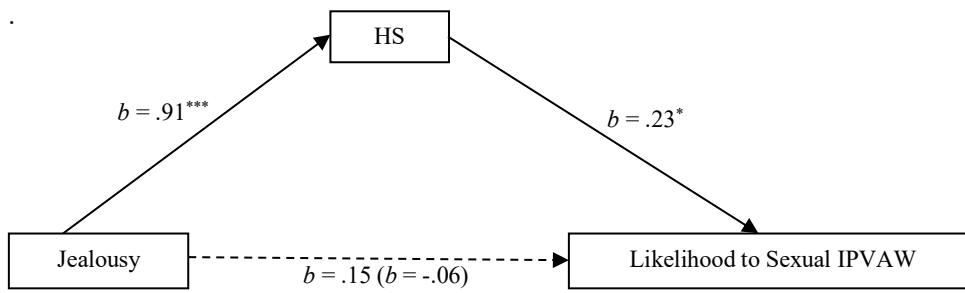


Figure 4 Jealousy increases the likelihood to exert sexual Intimate Partner Violence Against Women through an increase in hostile sexist beliefs. HS = Hostile Sexism; IPVAW: Intimate Partner Violence Against Women. $*p < .05$, $**p < .01$, $***p < .001$

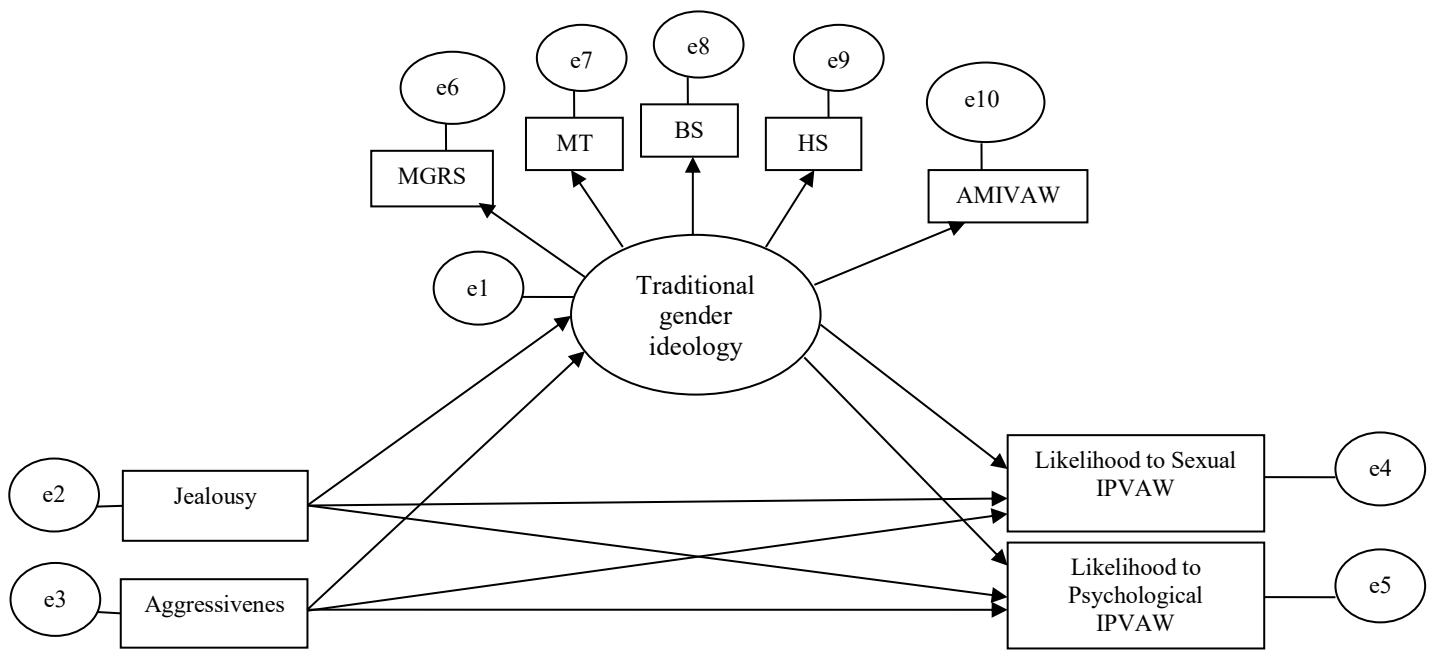


Figure 5 Proposed Model to Replicate the Results of the Exploratory Study (Study 1). MGRS: Masculine Gender Role Stress; MT: Traditional Masculinity; BS: Benevolent Sexism; HS: Hostile Sexism; AMIVAW: Acceptance of Myths about Intimate Partner Violence Against Women; IPVAW: Intimate Partner Violence Against Women; LIPVAW: Likelihood to Perpetrate Intimate Partner Violence Against Women

Factors related to male's proclivity to IPVAW

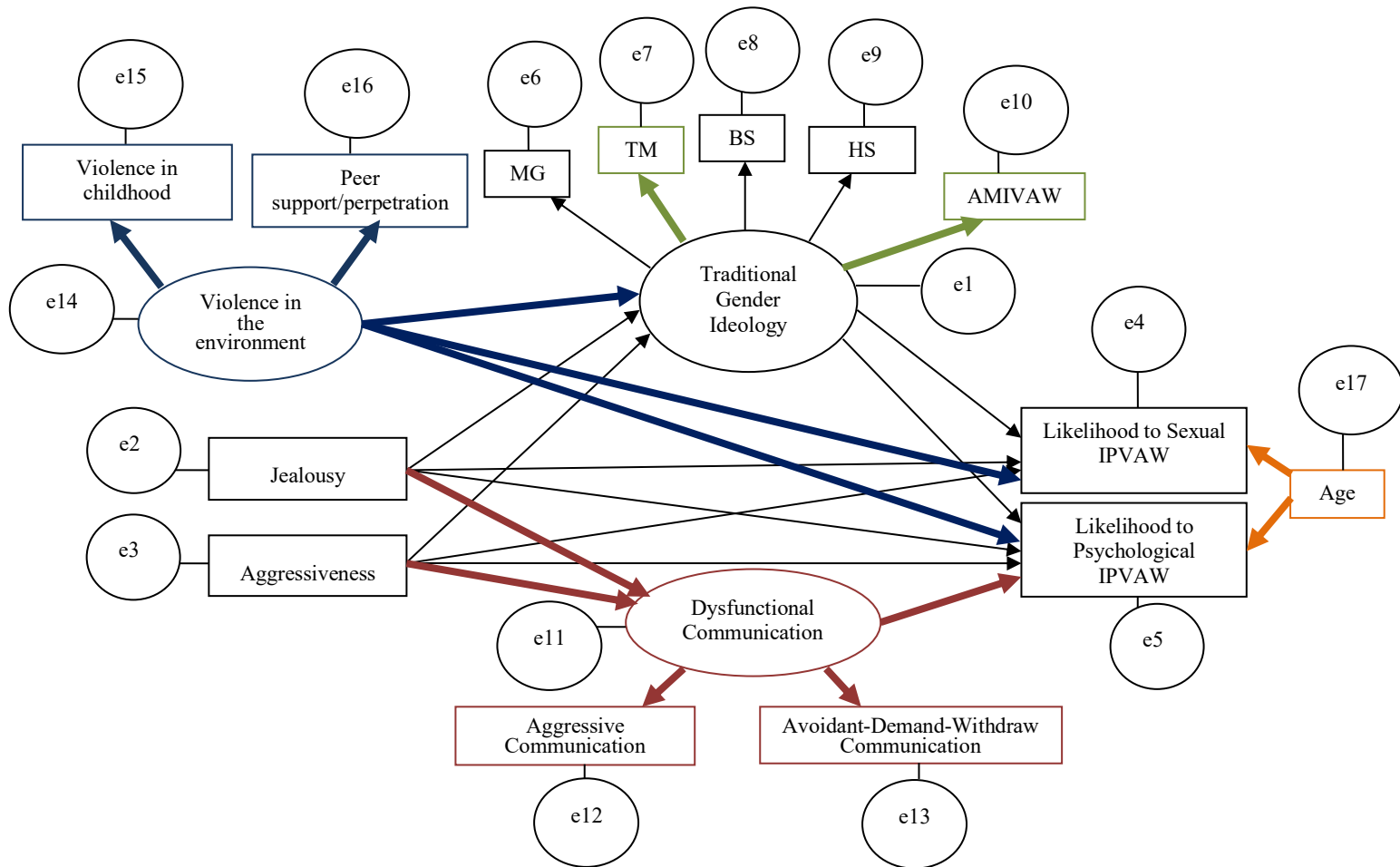


Figure 6 Structural Equation Model to Replicate the Relations of the Study 1 (black lines) and the New Hypothesized Relations (thick and coloured lines). MGRS: Masculine Gender Role Stress; MT: Traditional Masculinity; BS: Benevolent Sexism; HS: Hostile Sexism; AMIVAW: Acceptance of Myths about Intimate Partner Violence Against Women; IPVAW: Intimate Partner Violence Against Women; LIPVAW: Likelihood to Perpetrate Intimate Partner Violence Against Women

Factors related to male's proclivity to IPVAW

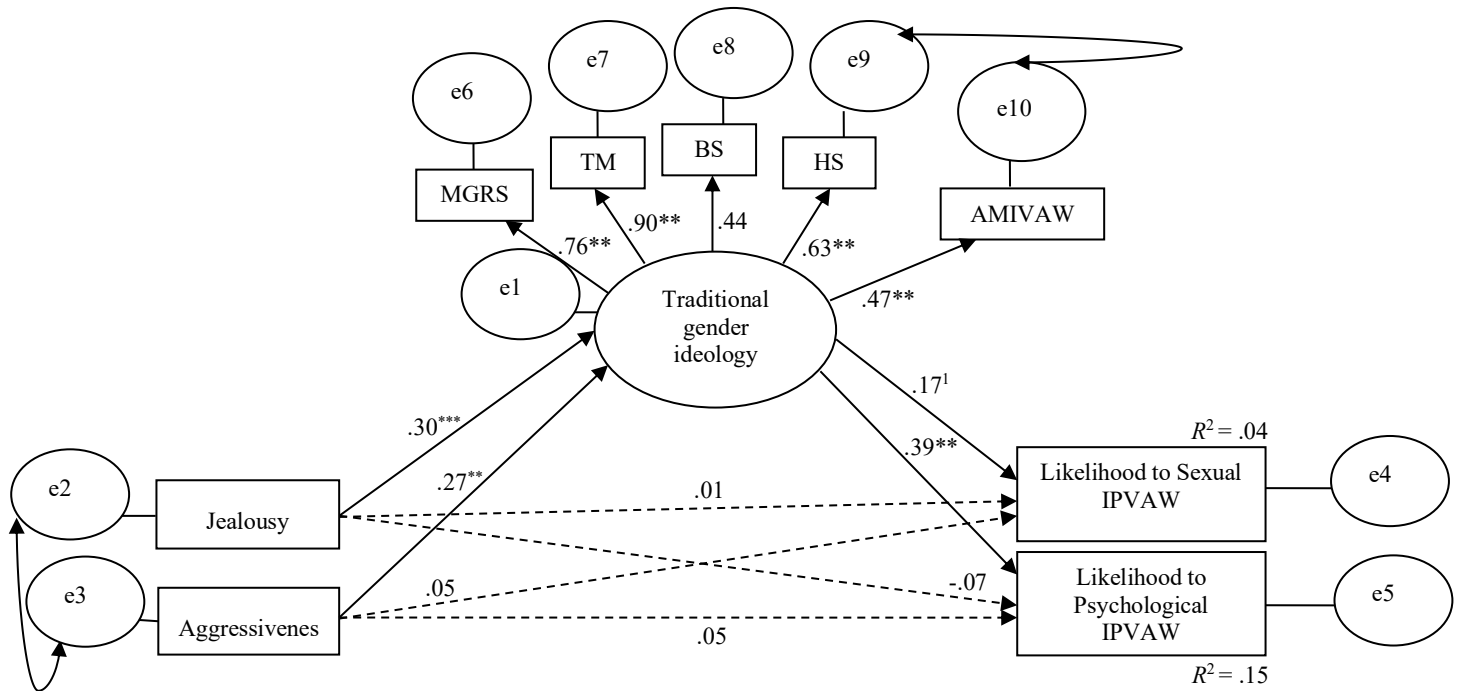


Figure 7 Structural Equation Model with Standard Coefficients to Replicate the Results of Study 1.

MGRS: Masculine Gender Role Stress; MT: Traditional Masculinity; BS: Benevolent Sexism; HS:

Hostile Sexism; AMIVAW: Acceptance of Myths about Intimate Partner Violence Against Women;

IPVAW: Intimate Partner Violence Against Women; LIPVAW: Likelihood to Perpetrate Intimate Partner

Violence Against Women. ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$; ¹ $p = .057$. Dotted line: non significant

Factors related to male's proclivity to IPVAW

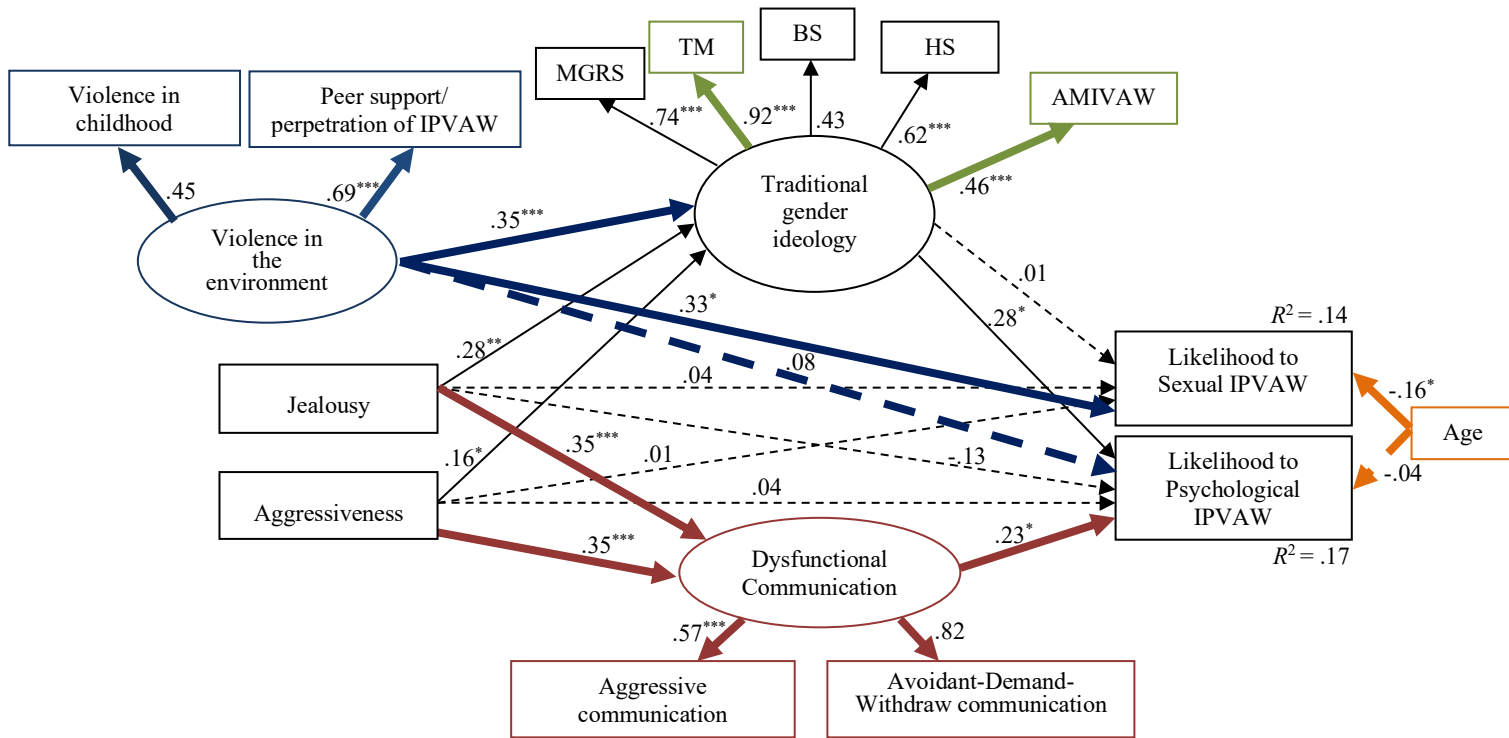


Figure 8 Final Structural Equation Model with Standard Coefficients. MGRS: masculine gender role stress; MT: traditional masculinity; BS: benevolent sexism; HS: hostile sexism; AMIVAW: acceptance of myths about intimate partner violence against women; IPVAW: intimate partner violence against women; LIPVAW: likelihood to perpetrate intimate partner violence against women. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$. Dotted line: non significant