Latinx Gender Role Attitudes, Attachment, and Intimate Partner Violence Attitudes Among Latinx Adults Formerly Incarcerated in California

Xochitl Ibarra
The Chicago School of Professional Psychology

Joselito Faustino
The Chicago School of Professional Psychology

Cheryl Banull
The Chicago School of Professional Psychology

Aldwin Domingo
Touro University Worldwide

ABSTRACT

This study examined the extent to which traditional Latinx gender role attitudes (*machismo* and *marianismo*) and attachment styles (anxious and avoidant) predict intimate partner violence attitudes (IPVA) among Latinx adults formerly incarcerated in California. A cross-sectional, correlational design was employed with a sample of 119 participants who completed an online survey that included four measures, the Marianismo Beliefs Scale, Traditional Machismo and Caballerismo Scale, Experiences in Close Relationships Scale-Revised, and the Intimate Partner Violence Attitude Scale-Revised. Multiple regression analyses revealed that avoidant attachment was a significant positive predictor of IPVA, while anxious attachment was a marginally significant predictor. Traditional Latinx gender role attitudes, specifically beliefs about women's subordination and self-silencing, emerged as strong IPVA predictors, while other Latinx gender role attitude dimensions were not significant. The hierarchical regression model demonstrated that the combined predictors explained 41.6% of the variance in IPVA, with traditional Latinx gender role attitudes exerting a stronger influence than attachment styles. Findings highlighted the role of cultural and relational dynamics in shaping IPVA and emphasized the need for culturally tailored prevention and early IPV interventions.

Keywords: Latinx, intimate partner violence attitudes, attachment, *machismo*, *marianismo*, formerly incarcerated.

INTRODUCTION

Intimate partner violence (IPV) involves the perpetration of physical or sexual violence, stalking, or psychological abuse among intimate partners, including current or former spouses, dating partners, or other romantic partnerships (Leemis et al., 2022; Spencer et al., 2020; MacMillan et al., 2020; McDermott & Lopez, 2013). The National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey (NISVS) was designed by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC)

to collect national and state level data regarding instances of IPV, sexual violence, and stalking victimization in the United States (US). CDC data compiled by Leemis et al. (2022) indicated that 42.1% of Hispanic women reported a lifetime prevalence of IPV, and 7.2% reported IPV victimization 12 months before the survey. Similarly, 40.3% of Hispanic men reported a lifetime prevalence of IPV victimization, and 7.6% reported IPV victimization 12 months before the survey (Leemis et al., 2022).

In a US Department of Justice (DOJ) report based on data from the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS), Kena and Morgan (2023) reported state estimates of violent crime victimization, including sexual assault, robbery, aggravated assault, and simple assault. Notably, California estimated that violent crime was above the national average from 2017 to 2019 among people ages 12 and over, (Kena & Morgan, 2023). An executive summary of state homicides provided by the California Department of Justice (2023) reported that 6.8% of known homicides were domestic violence (DV)-related. Across ethnic and racial groups for which homicides were DV-related, 5.2% of victims were Hispanic (California Department of Justice, 2023). The upward trend prompts consideration of violence perpetrators and the state's incarcerated population. According to DOJ state-level total prison population data compiled by Carson (2023), California experienced the most significant growth in the number of individuals under its prison jurisdiction compared to any other state, increasing by 1,000 from 2020 to 2021.

Addressing IPV requires an understanding of risk and protective factors contributing to IPV. Notably, literature gaps highlighted the importance of exploring IPV-related factors among diverse populations. For example, although government agencies collect violent crime and incarceration data on Hispanics, Taylor et al. (2014) highlighted that the pan-ethnic terms Latino and Hispanic often do not align with individuals' personal identities or demographic realities, complicating the interpretation of data and underscores the importance of disaggregating IPV research across subgroups. Compounding this issue is the lack of comprehensive studies examining IPV within specific Latinx subpopulations (Soller & Kuhlemeier, 2017; Mancera et al., 2015; Cummings et al., 2012). Moreover, existing literature has largely overlooked how multiple, potentially confounding factors interact to influence IPV (Cano-Gonzalez et al., 2020; Capaldi et al., 2012), and these dynamics remain underexplored within incarcerated and formerly incarcerated populations (Jones et al., 2019; Juarros-Basterretxea et al., 2019; Ruiz-Hernández et al., 2015; Watt & Scrandis, 2013). These gaps highlighted the urgent need to investigate IPV risk factors in more culturally and contextually specific ways.

Attachment theory and its theoretical expansions (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2007) and Albert Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory (SCT) are the theoretical frameworks underlying this study. Although attachment theory has limitations and calls for exploration within broader cultural contexts (Mesman et al., 2016; Brown et al., 2008), it remains a valuable framework for understanding relational dynamics in intimate relationships (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2007). SCT complements attachment theory in understanding IPV by incorporating socio-cognitive factors (Hall & Jones, 2022; Forsyth & Ward, 2021; Kazemi et al., 2018) and by underscoring cultural considerations, such as traditional Latinx gender role attitudes (Kim, 2010; Piña-Watson et al., 2014).

Evcili and Dağlar (2021) indicated that IPVA reflect an individual's tendency to approve or disapprove of IPV. IPVA have increasingly been identified as risk factors for IPV (Ayubi & Satyen, 2023; Hall & Jones, 2022; Zark & Satyen, 2021; Spencer et al., 2017; Wang, 2016; Ruiz-Hernández et al., 2015; Finchman et al., 2008; Simon et al., 2001). Research has indicated that secure attachment is linked to fewer IPV-accepting attitudes, while insecure attachment—particularly anxious and avoidant styles—is associated with greater acceptance of IPV and related maladaptive relational behaviors (Valdez et al., 2012; McDermott & Lopez, 2013; Çelik & Tanriverdi, 2023). Additionally, traditional gender role attitudes have been found to influence IPVA (Berkel et al., 2004; Beauchamp et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2015; Li et al., 2017; Alexander et al., 2017; Evcili & Daglar, 2021), with cross-national studies confirming their contribution to varying levels of IPV tolerance (Lin et al., 2015; Li et al., 2017). Within Hispanic populations, research has shown *machismo* and *marianismo* significantly influence IPVA (Haglund et al., 2018; Terrazas-Carrillo et al., 2019; Terrazas-Carrillo & Sabina, 2019).

Despite the growth of IPV research since the 1970s, Wang (2016, 2020) noted that the scientific literature focusing on IPV-related attitudes and cognitions—and the factors influencing them—remains underdeveloped. This gap is especially evident in research focused on Latino populations (Smith et al., 2005) and incarcerated or other justice-involved individuals (Juarros-Basterretxea et al., 2019; Ruiz-Hernández et al., 2015). Notably, few studies have examined the combined effects of attachment style and gender role attitudes on IPVA. For example, only one US study has investigated how adult attachment and masculine gender role stress influence IPVA (McDermott & Lopez, 2013). Furthermore, only one international study has since explored the role of egalitarian gender roles and attachment in dating violence attitudes (Çelik & Tanriverdi, 2023). The current study contributes to this underexplored area by examining these dynamics among formerly incarcerated Latinx individuals.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study aimed to examine the relationship between traditional Latinx gender roles (*machismo* and *marianismo*), attachment style (anxious and avoidant), and violence attitudes (IPVA) among Latinx adults formerly incarcerated in California. This research sought to address a notable gap in literature and contribute to the understanding of personal and sociocultural factors impacting IPV. Given that IPV prevention and intervention efforts often focus on modifying attitudes related to IPV (McDermott & Lopez, 2013) and emphasize the importance of culturally specific programming (Terrazas-Carrillo & Sabina, 2019), this study intended to inform the development of culturally competent prevention and intervention programs.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

RQ1: Is there a linear relationship between attachment style (anxious and avoidant) and IPVA among Latinx adults formerly incarcerated in California?

> ➢ $H_0 1$: There is no statistically significant linear relationship between attachment style (anxious and avoidant) and IPVA among Latinx adults formerly incarcerated in California.

> ➢ $H_a 1$: There is a statistically significant linear relationship between attachment style (anxious and avoidant) and IPVA among Latinx adults formerly incarcerated in California.

RQ2: Is there a linear relationship between traditional Latinx gender role attitudes (*machismo* and *marianismo*) and IPVA among Latinx adults formerly incarcerated in California?

> ➢ H_02: There is no statistically significant linear relationship between traditional Latinx gender role attitudes (*machismo* and *marianismo*) and IPVA among Latinx adults formerly incarcerated in California.

> ➢ H_a2: There is a statistically significant linear relationship between traditional Latinx gender role attitudes (*machismo* and *marianismo*) and IPVA among Latinx adults formerly incarcerated in California.

RQ3: Does attachment style (anxious and avoidant) and traditional Latinx gender role attitudes (*machismo* and *marianismo*) jointly influence IPVA among Latinx adults formerly incarcerated in California?

> ➢ H_03: There is no statistically significant cumulative linear relationship between attachment style and traditional Latinx gender role attitudes upon IPVA among Latinx adults formerly incarcerated in California.

> ➢ H_a3: There is a statistically significant cumulative linear relationship between attachment style and traditional Latinx gender role attitudes upon IPVA among Latinx adults formerly incarcerated in California.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

Eligible participants met the following inclusion criteria: (1) 18 years or older, (2) fluent in English, (3) identified as Latino/a/x, and (4) had a history of incarceration in California. Individuals were excluded if they were currently incarcerated, under 18 years of age, unable to provide consent, awaiting adjudication, or under criminal supervision. Of the 225 individuals who responded to the survey, 67 were excluded due to not being eligible and 39 for incomplete data on main measures, resulting in a final sample of 119 participants. Most participants were aged 25–34 years (n = 49, 41.2%), followed by those aged 35–44 years (n = 38, 31.9%), 18–24 years (n = 21, 17.6%), and 45–54 years (n = 11, 9.2%). Most were cis gender men (n = 76, 63.9%), followed by cis gender women (n = 39, 32.8%), non-binary individuals (n = 3, 2.5%), and one person did not self-describe (n = 1, 0.8%). Most held a bachelor's degree (n = 56, 47.1%), followed by an associate's degree (n = 24, 20.2%), a graduate degree (n = 20, 16.8%), some college (n = 12, 10.1%), a high school diploma or GED (n = 3, 2.5%), some high school (n = 2, 1.7%), and trade school (n = 2, 1.7%). Most participants resided in California (n = 81, 77.9%), followed by Florida (n = 3, 2.9%). Other resident states included Arizona, Colorado, District of Columbia, Illinois, and New York (each n = 2, 1.9%), and Alabama, Connecticut, Delaware, Georgia, Idaho, Michigan, Nevada, New Mexico, Texas, and Washington (each n = 1, 1.0%). Data was missing for 15 participants (12.6%). Most participants were married (n = 73, 61.3%), followed by being single (n = 30, 25.2%), in a domestic partnership (n = 9, 7.6%), separated (n = 4, 3.4%), widowed (n = 2, 1.7%), or divorced (n = 1, 0.8%). Most participants reported full-time employment (n = 75, 63.0%), while 29.4% worked part-time (n = 35). A smaller proportion were unemployed (n = 5, 4.2%) or employed students (n = 4, 3.4%). The most reported income range was between $75,000 and $99,999 (n = 27, 22.7%), followed by $30,000 to $49,999 (n = 21, 17.6%) and $50,000 to $74,999 (n = 21, 17.6%). Other participants reported incomes under $15,000 (n = 17, 14.3%), between $100,000 and $150,000 (n = 15, 12.6%), $15,000 to $29,999 (n = 13, 10.9%), and over $150,000 (n = 5, 4.2%). Nearly half of the

participants identified as renters (n = 54, 45.4%), while others reported living with family members (n = 35, 29.4%) or being homeowners (n = 24, 20.2%). A smaller portion reported living with friends (n = 5, 4.2%) or in sheltered homeless conditions (n = 1, 0.8%). Most participants were incarcerated for 1 to 5 years (n = 52, 43.7%) or 6 months to 1 year (n = 47, 39.5%). Smaller proportions reported being incarcerated for 5 to 10 years (n = 12, 10.1%), less than 6 months (n = 6, 5.0%), or more than 10 years (n = 2, 1.7%).

Instrumentation

Participants answered demographic questions on their age, gender, ethnicity, race, education, geographic location, marital status, employment status, income, living status, and incarceration history. Quantitative data on traditional Latinx gender role attitudes were collected using the validated scales of the Marianismo Beliefs Scale (MBS; Castillo et al., 2010) and the Traditional Machismo and Caballerismo Scale (TMCS; Arciniega et al., 2008). The Experiences in Close Relationships Scale-Revised (ECR-R; Fraley et al., 2000) assessed attachment style, while the Intimate Partner Violence Attitude Scale-Revised (IPVAS-R; Fincham et al., 2008) measured attitudes toward intimate partner violence.

Marianismo Beliefs Scale (MBS; Castillo et al., 2010):

The MBS is a 24-item, five-subscale instrument designed to assess the extent to which a Latina adopted the cultural gender role of *marianismo* (Castillo et al., 2010). Normed on 326 Latina university students aged 18 to 67, it uses a 4-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). The five subscales include the Family Pillar, Virtuous and Chaste, Subordinate to Others, Silencing Self to Maintain Harmony, and Spiritual Pillar (Castillo et al., 2010). Final scores range from 24 to 96 points, with higher scores on each subscale indicating a stronger endorsement of *marianismo* beliefs (Castillo et al., 2010). The MBS subscale coefficient alphas ranged from 0.76 to 0.85, indicating good internal consistency (Castillo et al., 2010). Additionally, research has supported its use with male and female participants (Woloshchuk et al., 2022; Castillo et al., 2020; Terrazas-Carrillo & Sabina, 2019; Piña-Watson et al., 2014).

Traditional Machismo and Caballerismo Scale (TMCS; Arciniega et al., 2008):

The TMCS was the other measure that was used to assess traditional Latinx gender role attitudes. It was a 20-item instrument that used a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (very strongly disagree) to 7 (very strongly agree) to measure two gender role expectations: *traditional machismo* and *caballerismo* (Arciniega et al., 2008). The *traditional machismo* subscale assessed aggression, emotional avoidance or restrictedness, antisocial behavior, chauvinism, and hypermasculinity, while the *caballerismo* subscale related to emotional connectedness, respectful conduct, and duty to and nurturance of the family (Arciniega et al., 2008). The authors validated the TMCS across two separate samples of men. Study 1 included 157 men aged 18–74 who self-identified as having Mexican heritage, with internal consistency ratings of 0.85 for *traditional machismo* and 0.80 for *caballerismo* (Arciniega et al., 2008). Study 2 consisted of 477 men who self-identified as Latino, 403 of whom identified as Mexican American, with internal consistency ratings of 0.84 for *traditional machismo* and 0.71 for *caballerismo* (Arciniega et al., 2008).

Experiences in Close Relationships Scale-Revised (ECR-R; Fraley et al., 2000):

The ECR-R was a revised version of Brennan et al.'s (1998) Experiences in Close Relationships (ECR) questionnaire (Fraley et al., 2000). Items for the ECR-R were selected using Item

Response Theory (IRT) techniques and were drawn from the same item pool as the original ECR (Fraley et al., 2000). The ECR-R was a 36-item self-report measure that used a 7-point Likert-type scale (0 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree) to assess attachment-related anxiety and avoidance (Fraley et al., 2000). The anxious subscale assessed fear of abandonment and hypervigilance, while the avoidant subscale measured discomfort with intimacy (Fraley et al., 2000). Both subscales demonstrated excellent internal consistency. For instance, Sibley and colleagues (2005) found that the anxious and avoidant subscales sustained Cronbach alphas of 0.91 and 0.94, respectively. In another study, Fairchild and Finney (2006) found that the avoidance and anxiety subscales sustained Cronbach's coefficient alphas of 0.927 and 0.917, respectively.

Intimate Partner Violence Attitude Scale- Revised (IPVAS-R; Fincham et al., 2008):
The IPVAS-R was adapted from Smith and colleagues (2005). The IPVAS-R consisted of 17 self-report items measuring attitudes toward IPV (Fincham et al., 2008). Using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree), it assessed the condoning of physical and psychological abuse and controlling behaviors in intimate relationships. The IPVAS-R contained three subscales: abuse ($\alpha = 0.91$), control ($\alpha = 0.77$), and violence ($\alpha = 0.71$) (Fincham et al., 2008). The IPVAS-R also demonstrated good test-retest reliability and good discriminant, convergent, and predictive validity (Fincham et al., 2008).

Procedure
Participant recruitment was via snowball sampling, which encouraged the personal and professional contacts of the primary researcher to share the survey link to reach additional individuals who fit the inclusion criteria for the current research study. Participants accessed the survey by clicking a link or scanning the QR code provided in the recruitment flyer and accompanying message, which redirected them to the SurveyMonkey platform. To encourage study participation, participants had the option to accept a $20 Visa electronic gift card (e-gift card) as compensation for their participation. The survey was open for two days in April 2025. After completing the screening questionnaire, confirming eligibility, and providing electronic informed consent, participants were redirected to complete demographic questions and four main assessment measures. As part of safety planning, the resources provided in the informed consent document and debriefing section were accessible throughout the survey. Such resources included the three-digit national Suicide and Crisis Lifeline, 988 (Federal Communications Commission, 2024), the information for the National Domestic Violence Hotline, and local resources provided by the California Partnership to End Domestic Violence (2017). The estimated completion time for the survey was approximately 40-60 minutes, based on the cumulative completion time for the measures. Upon finishing the survey, participants were directed to a debriefing page. The debriefing page included the study title, investigator's name, study explanation, a summary of procedures, a disclosure that deception was not used, confirmation of the anonymity of their responses and confidentiality, a statement regarding the results of the study, a data withdrawal option, follow-up contact information, a list of available resources for additional support, and the option to claim a $20 e-gift card compensation.

RESULTS
Results of Research Question 1
Multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the extent to which attachment styles (anxious and avoidant) predicted attitudes toward intimate partner violence (IPV) among

Latinx adults formerly incarcerated in California. Results of the multiple regression analysis are listed in Table 1. Results indicated that the overall model was statistically significant, $F(2, 118)$ = 6.78, p = .002, providing evidence to reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis. The overall R-squared value of .105 reflects that 10.5% of the variance in IPVA among Latinx adults formerly incarcerated in California is explained by their attachment style (anxious and avoidant). Notably, anxious attachment was a marginally significant positive predictor of IPVA (β = .185, p = .054). However, avoidant attachment emerged as a significant positive predictor (β =.203, p = .036). According to Cohen's (1988) guidelines, the observed effect size (R^2 = .105) represents a small to medium effect.

Table 1: Multiple Regression Predicting IPVA from Insecure Attachment Styles.

Predictor	B	SE B	β	p	95% CI
(Constant)	1.938	.203	—	< .001	[1.537, 2.340]
ECR-R Anxiety Subscale	.082	.042	.185	.054	[−.001, .165]
ECR-R Avoidance Subscale	.122	.057	.203	.036	[.008, .236]

Note. Dependent variable: IPVAS-R Total Score (average of subscales). ECR-R = Experiences in Close Relationships–Revised. CI = Confidence Interval. * p < .05.

Results of Research Question 2

Another multiple regression analysis was performed to investigate the second research question. Results of the multiple regression analysis are listed in Table 2. Results indicated that the overall model was statistically significant, $F(7, 118)$ = 10.564, p < .001, providing evidence to reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative. The model accounted for approximately 40% of the variance in attitudes toward IPV among Latinx adults formerly incarcerated in California (R^2 = .40). Examination of individual predictors revealed that attitudes toward IPV was significantly and positively predicted by the Subordinate subscale (β = .327, p = .013), and Self Silencing subscale (β = .476, p < .001) of the MBS. However, attitudes toward IPV were not significantly predicted by the Family Pillar subscale (β = -.138, p = .211), Virtuous Chaste subscale (β = -.102, p = .391), and Spiritual Pillar subscale (β = -.131, p = .167) of the MBS. Additionally, attitudes toward IPV were not significantly predicted by the Machismo subscale (β = -.111, p = .455), and Caballerismo subscale (β = -.099, p = .504) of the TMCS. According to Cohen's (1988) guidelines, the observed effect size (R^2 = .40) represents a large effect.

Table 2: Multiple Regression Predicting IPVA from Traditional Latinx Gender Role Attitudes.

Predictor	B	SE B	β	p	95% CI
(Constant)	2.891	.286	—	< .001	[2.325, 3.457]
MBS Family Pillar Subscale	−.140	.111	−.138	.211	[−.360, .081]
MBS Virtuous Chaste Subscale	−.103	.119	−.102	.391	[−.339, .133]
MBS Subordinate Subscale	.236	.093	.327	.013	[.051, .421]
MBS Silencing Self Subscale	.296	.071	.476	< .001	[.156, .436]
MBS Spiritual Pillar Subscale	−.088	.065	−.131	.176	[−.217, .040]
TMCS Machismo Subscale	−.060	.080	−.111	.455	[−.218, .098]
TMCS Caballerismo Subscale	−.140	.111	−.099	.504	[−.210, .104]

Note. Dependent variable: IPVAS-R Total Score (average of subscales). MBS = Marianismo Beliefs Scale. TMCS = Traditional Machismo and Caballerismo Scale. CI = Confidence Interval. * p < .05.

Results of Research Question 3

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to assess the incremental contribution of attachment and traditional Latinx gender role attitudes to IPVA. The full model was statistically significant, $F(9, 118) = 8.613$, $p < .001$, accounting for approximately 41.6% of the variance ($R^2 = .416$). Within the full model, the MBS Subordinate Subscale ($\beta = .343$, $p = .009$) and MBS Silencing Self Subscale ($\beta = .428$, $p = .001$) emerged as significant positive predictors of IPVA. The other dimensions of Latinx gender role attitudes and the attachment dimensions were significant predictors of IPVA in the full model. These results, illustrated in Table 3, suggest that while attachment styles initially contribute to the prediction of IPVA, traditional Latinx gender role attitudes- specifically beliefs about woman's subordination and silencing- exert a stronger influence when all predictors are considered simultaneously.

Table 3: Multiple Regression Predicting IPVA from Traditional Latinx Gender Role Attitudes and Insecure Attachment Styles.

Predictor	B	SE B	β	p	95% CI
(Constant)	2.376	.414	—	< .001	[1.555, 3.198]
MBS Family Pillar Subscale	–.135	.111	–.133	.228	[–.355, .086]
MBS Virtuous Chaste Subscale	–.102	.119	–.101	.391	[–.337, .133]
MBS Subordinate Subscale	.247	.094	.343	.009	[.062, .433]
MBS Silencing Self Subscale	.266	.079	.428	.001	[.110, .423]
MBS Spiritual Pillar Subscale	–.048	.069	–.072	.484	[–.185, .088]
TMCS Machismo Subscale	–.059	.080	–.109	.466	[–.217, .100]
TMCS Caballerismo Subscale	–.026	.081	–.048	.749	[–.186, .134]
ECR-R Anxiety Subscale	–.014	.041	–.031	.740	[–.095, .068]
ECR-R Avoidance Subscale	.100	.060	.166	.098	[–.019, .219]

Note. Dependent variable: IPVAS-R Total Score (average of subscales). MBS = Marianismo Beliefs Scale. TMCS = Traditional Machismo and Caballerismo Scale. ECR-R = Experiences in Close Relationships–Revised. CI = Confidence Interval. * $p < .05$.

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between attachment style (anxious and avoidant), traditional Latinx gender role attitudes (*machismo* and *marianismo*), and IPVA among Latinx adults formerly incarcerated in California. The first hypothesis tested whether attachment style (anxious and avoidant) significantly predicted IPVA. Results indicated that insecure attachment styles do help predict people's views on IPV. Specifically, people with avoidant attachment were more likely to have beliefs that are more accepting of IPV. These results suggested that people who tend to avoid closeness in relationships were more likely to hold beliefs that are accepting of IPV. Although this finding was not as strong, anxious attachment also showed a positive relationship with IPVA, suggesting higher IPV-accepting attitude as anxious attachment increases. Overall, how people relate to others emotionally helped explain some of the differences in their views about IPV.

These findings aligned with prior research suggesting that attachment insecurities, particularly avoidant attachment, contribute to maladaptive relational beliefs and attitudes condoning violence (Çelik & Tanriverdi, 2023; Valdez et al., 2012). Notably, results also differed from previous literature that has documented varying levels of statistical significance or insignificance between anxious and avoidant attachment styles and IPVA (Robertson & Murachver, 2007; Robertson & Murachver, 2009; Bondac et al., 2022). These differences may

reflect the unique relational, sociodemographic, or incarceration experiences of the current sample.

Importantly, the present study extended previous research (Robertson & Murachver, 2007; Robertson & Murachver, 2009; Bondac et al., 2022) by including gender role attitudes as an independent factor in the model. Findings showed that traditional Latinx gender role attitudes, specifically *marianismo* beliefs related to subordination and self-silencing were stronger predictors of IPVA than attachment styles alone, accounting for a larger proportion of variance in this sample. Overall, these findings support the influence of attachment and culturally specific gender role beliefs in shaping IPVA, effectively highlighting the added explanatory power of *marianismo* beliefs in this population. In this way, the results validate the attachment theory framework for this study while supporting the additional SCT framework underpinning this study.

The second hypothesis posited that traditional Latinx gender role attitudes would predict IPVA. The results supported this hypothesis, indicating that traditional Latinx gender role attitudes are meaningfully and positively associated with how participants view IPV. Two specific *marianismo* subscales—Subordinate and Self-Silencing—emerged as significant positive predictors. The Subordinate subscale reflects the belief that women should be obedient and deferential, while the Self-Silencing subscale emphasizes the idea that women should suppress their voices to maintain harmony. Higher endorsement of these beliefs was associated with greater acceptance of IPV. In contrast, other *marianismo* dimensions (e.g., Family Pillar, Virtuous Chaste, Spiritual Pillar) and traditional male role beliefs (*machismo* and *caballerismo*) did not significantly predict IPVA. These findings are broadly consistent with a growing body of literature indicating that traditional gender role beliefs—especially those aligned with patriarchal or hierarchical gender norms—are associated with greater acceptance of IPV (Alexander et al., 2017; Berkel et al., 2004; Beauchamp et al., 2012; Çelik & Tanriverdi, 2023; Evcili & Daglar, 2021; Haglund et al., 2018; Li et al., 2017; Terrazas-Carrillo et al., 2019).

Notably, the current study did not find *machismo* or *caballerismo* to be significant predictors of IPVA. This divergence from prior findings (e.g., Terrazas-Carrillo & Sabina, 2019) may be due to the nuanced nature of these constructs. While *traditional machismo* includes traits such as dominance and aggression, *caballerismo* emphasizes honor, protection, and familial responsibility. It is possible that among this sample, the positive, prosocial elements of *caballerismo* mitigated the negative influence of machismo, resulting in no significant association when both were included in the model. Additionally, participants may have endorsed *machismo* in ways that reflect cultural identity rather than aggression or control.

Regarding the combined influence of attachment style and gender role attitudes on IPVA, the results showed that when both factors were considered together, traditional gender role attitudes, particularly beliefs about women's subordination and the need for self-silencing, were the strongest predictors of IPV-supportive attitudes. While attachment styles initially appeared to play a role, their influence was reduced when gender role beliefs were included in the model. These findings suggest that cultural expectations around gender, especially those that encourage obedience and silence in women, may have a more powerful impact on how individuals view IPV than attachment patterns alone. The findings that traditional Latinx gender role attitudes had a stronger influence on IPVA than insecure attachment styles are

consistent with prior research that highlighted the central role of cultural norms in shaping beliefs about IPV (Çelik & Tanrıverdi, 2023; McDermott & Lopez, 2013).

Future research should explore additional factors that may influence IPVA and can be examined in relation to gender role beliefs and attachment patterns. For example, considering gender differences, or incorporating protective cultural factors such as familismo, spirituality, and community resilience may yield important insights into the strengths and buffers that influence IPVA. There are also methodological improvements that can be implemented in future research. Longitudinal designs would allow for the examination of how IPVA evolve over time, particularly in relation to the reintegration process after incarceration. Qualitative approaches, such as narrative or phenomenological interviews, could offer deeper insights into participants' lived experiences of gender, attachment, and IPV. Researchers may also benefit from focusing on the immediate post-release period, as this is a critical window for changes in relationship dynamics and identity formation.

The findings of this study highlighted the importance of developing and implementing culturally responsive IPV prevention and early interventions efforts that specifically address attachment insecurities and gender role socialization. Therapeutic approaches that integrate culturally grounded and attachment-informed strategies may enhance clinical outcomes by addressing the core psychological and cultural factors shaping IPVA among formerly incarcerated Latinx individuals. Clinicians serving this population should be trained in trauma-informed care that acknowledges the impact of systemic oppression, incarceration-related stigma, and cultural identity development on clients' relational functioning and worldview. Culturally responsive IPV interventions should include gender-specific programming that allows clients to critically explore constructs such as *machismo*, *caballerismo*, and *marianismo*. These culturally rooted beliefs can influence how individuals perceive power dynamics, emotional expression, and roles in romantic relationships. Facilitating critical reflection and emotional insight in these areas may help reduce endorsement of violence-supportive attitudes and promote healthier relational patterns.

In closing, this study underscored the vital importance of contextualizing IPVA within the intersections of culture, attachment, and incarceration experience. Addressing these interconnected factors through culturally informed research, clinical practice, and policy initiatives holds promise for disrupting cycles of violence and fostering healthier relationships and communities within the Latinx population. As the landscape of IPV intervention continues to evolve, it is imperative that efforts center around the lived realities and cultural identities of justice-involved Latinx individuals, empowering them toward healing, resilience, and lasting change.

References

[1]   Alexander, K. A., St Vil, N. M., Braithwaite-Hall, M. A., Sanchez, M., Baumann, A., Callwood, G. B., Campbell, J. C., & Campbell, D. (2017). 'Some men just don't want to get hurt': Perspectives of U.S. Virgin Islands men toward partner violence and HIV risks. Ethnicity & Health, 25(1), 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1080/13557858.2017.1395816

[2]   Arciniega, G. M., Anderson, T., Tovar-Blank, Z. G., & Tracey, T. J. G. (2008). Toward a fuller conception of Machismo: Development of a traditional Machismo and Caballerismo Scale. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 55(1), 19–33. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.55.1.19

[3]   Ayubi, M., & Satyen, L. (2023). Factors associated with intimate partner violence perpetration among migrant men: A systematic review. Trauma, Violence, & Abuse. https://doi.org/10.1177/15248380231178758

[4]   Bandura, A., & National Inst of Mental Health. (1986). Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory. Prentice-Hall, Inc.

[5]   Beauchamp, R., Lindsay, S. P., Hunter, L. P., & Talavera, G. A. (2012). Patriarchal beliefs and attitudes toward intimate partner violence among Spanish-Speaking adults. Hispanic Health Care International, 10(3), 137–145. https://doi.org/10.1891/1540-4153.10.3.137

[6]   Berkel, L. A., Vandiver, B. J., & Bahner, A. D. (2004). Gender role attitudes, religion, and spirituality as predictors of domestic violence attitudes in white college students. Journal of College Student Development, 45(2), 119–133. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2004.0019

[7]   Brown, D., Rodgers, Y. H., & Kapadia, K. (2008). Multicultural considerations for the application of attachment Theory. American Journal of Psychotherapy, 62(4), 353–363. https://doi.org/10.1176/appi.psychotherapy.2008.62.4.353

[8]   California Department of Justice. (2023). Homicide in California - 2022. In State of California Department of Justice Office of the Attorney General. California Department of Justice.

[9]   California Partnership to End Domestic Violence. (2017, July 27). Domestic violence organizations in California - California Partnership to End Domestic Violence. https://www.cpedv.org/domestic-violence-organizations-california

[10]   Cano-Gonzalez, I., Charak, R., Gilbar, O., Viñas-Racionero, R., & Strait, M. (2020). Witnessing parental violence and cyber IPV perpetration in hispanic emerging adults: The mediating role of attitudes toward IPV. Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 37(9–10), NP8115–NP8137. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260520975834

[11]   Capaldi, D. M., Knoble, N. B., Shortt, J. W., & Kim, H. (2012). A Systematic review of risk factors for Intimate partner violence. Partner Abuse, 3(2), 231–280. https://doi.org/10.1891/1946-6560.3.2.231

[12]   Carson, A. (2022). Prisoners in 2021 – statistical tables. U.S. Department of Justice.

[13]   Castillo, L. G., Perez, F. V., Castillo, R., & Ghosheh, M. R. (2010). Construction and initial validation of the Marianismo Beliefs Scale. Counselling Psychology Quarterly, 23(2), 163–175. https://doi.org/10.1080/09515071003776036

[14]   Çelik, A. K., & Tanriverdi, E. Ç. (2023). Gender differences in insecure attachment styles, egalitarian gender roles, and attitudes toward dating violence among college students: A moderated mediation model. Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma, 1–22. https://doi.org/10.1080/10926771.2023.2189041

[15]   Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences (2nd ed.). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

[16]   Cummings, A. M., Gonzalez-Guarda, R. M., & Sandoval, M. F. (2012). Intimate partner Violence among Hispanics: A Review of the literature. Journal of Family Violence, 28(2), 153–171. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-012-9478-5

[17]   Evcili, F., & Dağlar, G. (2021). Attitudes of students studying in various fields related to health services toward gender roles and intimate partner violence. Perspectives in Psychiatric Care, 57(3), 1299–1304. https://doi.org/10.1111/ppc.12690

[18]   Fairchild, A. J., & Finney, S. J. (2006). Investigating validity evidence for the experiences in Close Relationships-Revised questionnaire. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 66(1), 116–135. https://doi.org/10.1177/0013164405278564

[19]   Federal Communications Commission. (n.d.). 988 Suicide and Crisis Lifeline. https://www.fcc.gov/988-suicide-and-crisis-lifeline

[20] Fincham, F. D., Cui, M., Braithwaite, S. R., & Pasley, K. (2008). Attitudes toward intimate partner violence in dating relationships. Psychological Assessment, 20(3), 260–269. https://doi.org/10.1037/1040-3590.20.3.260

[21] Fraley, R. C., Waller, N. G., & Brennan, K. A. (2000). An item response theory analysis of self-report measures of adult attachment. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 78(2), 350–365. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.78.2.350

[22] Haglund, K., Belknap, R. A., Edwards, L. M., Tassara, M. H., Van Hoven, J., & Woda, A. (2018). The influence of masculinity on male Latino adolescents' perceptions regarding dating relationships and dating violence. Violence Against Women, 25(9), 1039–1052. https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801218808395

[23] Hall, N. M., & Jones, J. M. (2022). The relationship between attitudes, racial identity, and perceived mate availability on experiences of intimate partner violence among black women attending HBCUs. Psychology of Violence, 12(5), 314–323. https://doi.org/10.1037/vio0000442

[24] Jones, M. S., Peck, B. M., Sharp, S. F., & McLeod, D. A. (2019). Childhood adversity and intimate partner violence in Adulthood: The Mediating influence of PTSD in a sample of women Prisoners. Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 36(15–16), NP8590–NP8614. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260519844277

[25] Juarros-Basterretxea, J., Overall, N. C., Herrero, J., & Rodríguez-Díaz, F. J. (2019). Considering the Effect of Sexism on Psychological Intimate Partner Violence: A Study with Imprisoned Men. The European Journal of Psychology Applied to Legal Context, 11(2), 61–69. https://doi.org/10.5093/ejpalc2019a1

[26] Kazemi, K., Allahverdipour, H., Pourrazavi, S., Nadrian, H., & Jafarabadi, M. A. (2018). What psycho-social factors determine intimate partner violence of men against women? A social cognitive theory-based study. Health Care for Women International, 40(11), 1197–1211. https://doi.org/10.1080/07399332.2018.1495722

[27] Kena, G., & Morgan, R. E. (2023). Criminal victimization in the 22 largest U.S. states, 2017–2019. U.S. Department of Justice.

[28] Kim, Y. (2010). Gender role and the use of university library website resources: A social cognitive theory perspective. Journal of Information Science, 36(5), 603–617. https://doi.org/10.1177/0165551510377709

[29] Leemis, R. W., Friar, N., Khatiwada, S., Chen, M. S., Kresnow, M., Smith, S. G., Caslin, S., & Basile, K. C. (2022). The national intimate partner and sexual violence survey: 2016/2017 report on intimate partner violence. In Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

[30] Li, L., Sun, I. Y., & Button, D. M. (2017). Tolerance for intimate partner violence: A comparative study of Chinese and American college students. Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 35(21–22), 4533–4557. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260517716941

[31] Lin, K., Sun, I. Y., Wu, Y., & Liu, J. (2015). College Students' Attitudes Toward Intimate Partner Violence: a Comparative Study of China and the U.S. Journal of Family Violence, 31(2), 179–189. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-015-9759-x

[32] MacMillan, H. L., Kimber, M., & Stewart, D. E. (2020). Intimate partner violence. JAMA, 324(12), 1201. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.11322

[33] Mancera, B. M., Dorgo, S., & Provencio-Vasquez, E. (2015). Risk factors for Hispanic male intimate partner violence perpetration. American Journal of Men's Health, 11(4), 969–983. https://doi.org/10.1177/1557988315579196

[34] McDermott, R. C., & Lopez, F. G. (2013). College men's intimate partner violence attitudes: Contributions of adult attachment and gender role stress. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 60(1), 127–136. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0030353

[35] Mesman, J., van IJzendoorn, M. H., & Sagi-Schwartz, A. (2016). Cross-cultural patterns of attachment. In J. Cassidy & P. R. Shaver (Eds.), Handbook of attachment: Theory, research, and clinical applications (3rd ed., pp. 852–877). Guilford Press.

[36]   Mikulincer, M., & Shaver, P. (2007). Attachment in adulthood: Structure, dynamics, and change. Guilford Press

[37]   Ojeda, L., & Piña-Watson, B. (2014). Caballerismo may protect against the role of machismo on Mexican day laborers' self-esteem. Psychology of Men and Masculinity, 15(3), 288–295. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0033450

[38]   Piña-Watson, B., Castillo, L. G., Jung, E., Ojeda, L., & Castillo-Reyes, R. (2014). The Marianismo Beliefs Scale: Validation with Mexican American adolescent girls and boys. Journal of Latina/O Psychology, 2(2), 113–130. https://doi.org/10.1037/lat0000017

[39]   Robertson, K., & Murachver, T. (2007). Correlates of partner violence for incarcerated women and men. Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 22(5), 639–655. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260506298835

[40]   Robertson, K., & Murachver, T. (2009). Attitudes and attributions associated with female and male partner violence. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 39(7), 1481–1512. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2009.00492.x

[41]   Ruiz-Hernández, J. A., García-Jiménez, J., Llor-Esteban, B., & Godoy-Fernández, C. (2015). Risk factors for intimate partner violence in prison inmates. The European Journal of Psychology Applied to Legal Context, 7(1), 41–49. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejpal.2014.11.003

[42]   Sibley, C. G., Fischer, R., & Liu, J. H. (2005). Reliability and Validity of the Revised Experiences in Close Relationships (ECR-R) Self-Report Measure of Adult Romantic Attachment. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 31(11), 1524–1536. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167205276865

[43]   Simon, T. R., Anderson, M., Thompson, M. P., Crosby, A. E., Shelley, G. A., & Sacks, J. J. (2001). Attitudinal acceptance of intimate partner violence among U.S. adults. Violence & Victims, 16(2), 115–126. https://doi.org/10.1891/0886-6708.16.2.115

[44]   Smith, B. J., Thompson, S. V., Tomaka, J., & Buchanan, A. S. (2005). Development of the intimate partner violence attitude scales (IPVAS) with a predominantly Mexican American college sample. Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 27(4), 442–454. https://doi.org/10.1177/0739986305281233

[45]   Soller, B., & Kuhlemeier, A. (2017). Gender and intimate partner violence in Latino immigrant neighborhoods. Journal of Quantitative Criminology, 35(1), 61–88. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10940-017-9370-9

[46]   Spencer, C., Keilholtz, B., & Stith, S. M. (2020). The association between attachment styles and physical intimate partner violence perpetration and victimization: A Meta-Analysis. Family Process, 60(1), 270–284. https://doi.org/10.1111/famp.12545

[47]   Spencer, C., Morgan, P., Bridges, J. G., Washburn-Busk, M., & Stith, S. M. (2017). The relationship between approval of violence and intimate partner violence in college students. Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 36(1–2), NP212–NP231. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260517731315

[48]   Taylor, P., Lopez, M. H., & Velasco, G. (2014). When labels don't fit: Hispanics and their views of identity | Pew Research Center. In Pew Research Center's Hispanic Trends Project. Pew Research Center. https://www.pewresearch.org/hispanic/2012/04/04/when-labels-dont-fit-hispanics-and-their-views-of-identity/

[49]   Terrazas-Carrillo, E., Garcia, E., Briseño, J., & De La Cruz, I. (2019). Dating violence perspectives of Latino college students: Considerations for violence prevention programming. Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory and Practice, 23(2), 410–433. https://doi.org/10.1177/1521025119837675

[50]   Terrazas-Carrillo, E., & Sabina, C. (2019). Dating violence attitudes among Latino college students: An examination of gender, machismo, and marianismo. Violence & Victims, 34(1), 194–210. https://doi.org/10.1891/0886-6708.vv-d-17-00172

[51]   Valdez, C. E., Lilly, M. M., & Sandberg, D. A. (2012). Gender differences in attitudinal acceptance of intimate partner violence perpetration under Attachment-Relevant contexts. Violence & Victims, 27(2), 229–245. https://doi.org/10.1891/0886-6708.27.2.229

[52]   Wang, L. (2016). Factors influencing attitude toward intimate partner violence. Aggression and Violent Behavior, 29, 72–78. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2016.06.005

[53]   Wang, L. (2020). Education, gender, residence, and attitude toward intimate partner violence: An empirical study. Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma, 29(7), 808–825. https://doi.org/10.1080/10926771.2020.1725208

[54]   Watt, M., & Scrandis, D. A. (2013). Traumatic childhood exposures in the lives of male perpetrators of female intimate partner violence. Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 28(14), 2813–2830. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260513488694

[55]   Woloshchuk, C. J., Frietze, G. A., & Cooper, T. V. (2022). Cultural and psychosocial moderators of the association between adverse childhood experiences and alcohol and marijuana use among Latinx college students on the U.S./Mexico border. Child Abuse & Neglect, 133, 105859. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2022.105859

[56]   Zark, L., & Satyen, L. (2021). Cross-Cultural Differences in student attitudes toward intimate partner violence: A systematic review. Trauma, Violence, & Abuse, 23(3), 1007–1022. https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838020985565