

This version is provided for non-commercial use. Users only may print, download, or email this article for individual use.

How to cite this article: Gonzalez-Mendez, R., Aguilera, L., & Ramírez-Santana, G. (2021). Weighing risk factors for adolescent victimization in the context of romantic relationship initiation. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 36 (15-16), NP8395-NP8413. doi: 10.1177/0886260519843284

Weighing Risk Factors for Adolescent Victimization in the Context of Romantic Relationship Initiation

Rosaura Gonzalez-Mendez*, Laura Aguilera, and Gustavo Ramírez-Santana
Universidad de La Laguna, Spain

* Corresponding author: mrglez@ull.edu.es

Research has paid little attention to the link between the characteristics of the relational context where adolescents are likely to initiate their romantic relationships and teen dating violence (TDV). Hence, the findings are still scattered. This study examined different risks in the female teenagers' relational context (peer group characteristics, participants' risky activities, and pressure to start dating) and their TDV victimization, which had not been previously studied in the Spanish population. The moderating role of parental monitoring strategies was also analyzed. Participants were 1248 Spanish female teenagers who completed measures of the aforementioned factors. Highly victimized girls reported having more deviant and older male peers, receiving more pressure to start dating, and using more alcohol and drugs than participants with low victimization did. High parental monitoring was only effective to prevent TDV victimization in low-risk relational contexts. The findings extend prior research by providing evidence of the risk of pressure to start dating and low effectiveness of parental monitoring against high-risk peers. They also highlight the need to reduce specific risks for TDV in the adolescent relational context.

Keywords. teen dating violence, peer group, parental monitoring, victimization, adolescents, romantic relationship initiation, risk factors

Weighing Risk Factors for Adolescent Victimization in the Context of Romantic Relationship Initiation

Ensuring that female adolescents can establish romantic relationships that are free of violence is an important investment to ensure their future well-being (Stöckl et al., 2014), and is of particular concern to the institutions focused on preventing violence against women in Spain. Evidence indicates that TDV is a widespread problem among adolescents (Hébert et al., 2017; Wincentak, Connolly, & Card, 2017). Female TDV victimization may have long-lasting negative repercussions, including physical and psychological health problems, social maladjustment, and negative educational outcomes (Exner-Cortens, Eckenrode, & Rothman, 2013). Particularly in girls, research has found that physical/sexual violence may be associated with pronounced adverse health consequences (Bonomi, Anderson, Nemeth, Rivara, & Buettner, 2013; Muñoz-Rivas, Graña, O'Leary, & González, 2007; Vagi, Olsen, Basile, & Vivolo-Kantor, 2015) and a decline in opportunities for education and earnings (Adams, Greeson, Kennedy, & Tolman, 2013). In addition, the mental health consequences of experiencing physical TDV seem to contribute more clearly to future victimization in females than in males (Jouriles, Choi, Rancher, & Temple, 2017).

Most of the evidence accumulated on TDV has to do with individual and family risk factors. For example, early initiation of dating relationships is related to TDV victimization and perpetration (Vagi et al., 2013). Early initiation is also predicted by advanced pubertal development, parents' divorce and perceived rejection, and poor supervision (Ivanova, Veenstra, & Mills, 2012). However, the influence of individual and family factors does not occur in a social vacuum, as evidenced by findings such as that advanced pubertal development also relates to membership in higher-risk peer groups (Halpern, Kaestle, & Hallfors, 2007). Significant others in different relational contexts influence adolescents' romantic trajectories, and peers usually play an important role in this process (van de Bongardt, Yu, Deković, & Meeus, 2015).

The purpose of the current study was to examine different risks in the relational context where adolescents are likely to initiate their romantic relationships and TDV victimization experienced by female teenagers, as well as the moderating role of parental monitoring strategies. Hence, peer group characteristics and risky leisure activities were relevant for the analysis. Peers are powerful socialization agents whose influence may be exerted both directly, serving as a behavioral model of what is expected in romantic

relationships (Baker, 2017), and in a range of indirect ways. For example, spending time with older peers may facilitate adolescents' contact with deviant subcultures (Harding, 2009). This contact may lead them to endorse a risky lifestyle, which has been found to mediate the relationship between deviant peer affiliation and different forms of TDV victimization in females (Vézina et al., 2011). This may be because deviant lifestyles increase acceptance of violence in dating relationships, thus increasing the risk of TDV victimization (Karlsson, Temple, Weston, & Le, 2016). However, it may also be because of the influence such lifestyles have on dating partner selection processes.

In the adolescent years, romantic relationships tend to form within the peer group or in the course of peer-promoted activities (van de Bongardt et al., 2015). In this way, peer groups may increase the risk of TDV victimization among female adolescents because of the availability of certain dating partners. For instance, it is known that having an older boyfriend has been associated with early sexual onset and unwanted sexual experiences, as well as with involvement in risky activities. Specifically, a wider age gap between opposite-sex romantic partners increases the likelihood of involvement in risky lifestyles, emotional and physical victimization, and unwanted sexual behavior (Oudekerk, Guarnera, & Reppucci, 2014). In a similar vein, teenagers who had a partner who was two or more years younger than them were more likely to exhibit controlling and physically violent behavior (Vivolo-Kantor, Massetti, Niolon, Foshee, & McNaughton-Reyes, 2016).

Considering these findings, it seems clear that the relational context where adolescents are likely to initiate their dating relationships may influence girls' romantic trajectories, making it more likely for them to experience victimization in their relationships. For example, being involved in risky activities may contribute to constraining available partners in subsequent romantic relationships, thus facilitating victimization across different relationships (Carbone-Lopez & Kruttschnitt, 2010, Gonzalez-Mendez, Martín, & Hernández-Abrante, 2014). However, parental monitoring strategies should also be considered in this analysis, because they may modify the influence of peers. Parents may inhibit adolescents' involvement in risk behaviors by expressing care and constraining opportunities to engage in risky activities (Longmore, Manning, & Giordano, 2012). In fact, lower parental support and monitoring has been found to predict adolescents' involvement in TDV (Maas, Fleming, Herrenkohl, & Catalano, 2010). Parental *monitoring* refers to parents' knowledge of their children's

whereabouts, activities, and associations (Stattin & Kerr, 2000), and research points to three strategies to obtain this knowledge. Specifically, parents can directly request information on their children's activities and associations (*solicitation*), impose rules and restrictions (*control*), or expect that children will freely disclose their activities (*disclosure*). Most studies indicate that *disclosure* of activities is usually more effective in avoiding the involvement in risky behaviors than other strategies (Stattin & Kerr, 2000; Kerr, Stattin, & Burk, 2010). Controlling behavior, for example, can exacerbate the behavior that parents are trying to manage, as adolescents often oppose control attempts (Longmore et al., 2012). However, evidence also indicates that any strategy can be an effective deterrent against adolescent misbehavior in some cases. In fact, parents may adapt their monitoring strategies to dangers that their children are likely to face, in an attempt to make them more effective (Giordano, Johnson, Manning, & Longmore, 2014). Therefore, it would be necessary to analyze the relationships between different parental monitoring strategies and TDV victimization according to the risk of the relational context.

The current study

Although there is evidence connecting TDV and the characteristics of the relational context where adolescents are likely to initiate their romantic relationships, the findings are still scattered. In Spain, research on TDV has focused mainly on individual and dyadic factors (Cava, Buelga, & Tomás, 2018; Fernández-González, Calvete, & Orue, 2017; Gonzalez-Mendez, Yanes, & Ramírez-Santana, 2017; Bonache, Gonzalez-Mendez, & Krahe, 2017; Perles, San Martín, & Canto, 2016), and only a few studies have explored the potential role of perceived peer violence (Aizpitarte, Alonso-Arbiol, & Van de Vijver, 2017). This study examines the link between different risks of the context of relationship initiation (peer group characteristics, involvement in risky activities, and pressure to start dating) and TDV, which has not been previously analyzed in the Spanish adolescent population. As far as we know, prior research has not considered the pressure to start a relationship as a risk factor for TDV victimization. However, findings obtained utilizing mixed methods have led us to consider the relevance of this variable. Specifically, we found numerous references to the pressure to start dating among girls who had experienced TDV victimization. Moreover, alcohol and drug use have not been studied in relation to TDV, despite the fact that binge drinking has become frequent among Spanish teenagers and young people (Moral, Molleda, Bernal, Quintero, & Díaz, 2017).

Based on the above review of literature, we expect that adolescents who have been highly victimized in their dating relationships will report greater risk in their relational context (older and deviant peers, participants' risky activities, and pressure to start dating) than those who are low in victimization (Hypothesis 1). Given the association between poor parental monitoring and different types of victimization, we expect that adolescents who are high in victimization in their dating relationships will report lower parental monitoring, support, and warning than those who are low in victimization, and will indicate more deception of their parents than the latter (Hypothesis 2). Finally, it is possible that the parental monitoring strategies are more or less effective depending on the relational context. Therefore, it is hypothesized that high parental monitoring, support, and warning will relate to lower TDV victimization, but only in low-risk relational contexts, not in those of high-risk (Hypothesis 3).

Method

Participants

Participants in this study were 1248 Spanish female adolescents with ages ranging from 13 to 18 ($M = 15.33$, $SD = 1.13$). All teenagers claimed to have or have had at least one opposite-sex romantic partner, with an average duration of 8.41 months ($SD = 9.13$). The average age at the first date was 13.30 ($SD = 1.83$). Participants whose parents had divorced represented 33.50% of the total. This divorce had occurred at the age of 6.87 years on average ($SD = 4.55$). All participants were born in Spain and of European ethnic origin.

Procedure

Before initiating the study, compliance with ethical standards was positively assessed by the Institutional Review Board of the authors' university. Consent was obtained from the heads of the participating high schools, from participants' parents, and from all participants. The data set was collected in the classrooms, with voluntary participation. No incentives were provided for participating in this study. All students responded to the same questionnaire, and all received identical instructions. Only 0.2% refused to participate. The confidentiality and anonymity of the data collected were guaranteed at all times.

Instruments

Peer-Group Characteristics. A scale to assess peer-group characteristics was developed through various stages. Using semi-structured interviews, we first explored the

characteristics of the relational context where teenagers start their romantic relationships ($N = 36$). Based on those findings, we developed an initial 15-item scale that was refined via exploratory factor analyses ($N = 130$). The EFA led to a single-factor structure composed of six items ($KMO = .794$; $\chi^2(15) = 1081.4$; $VAR = 47.0\%$). Finally, a CFA ($\chi^2(1) = 2.3$; $RMSEA = .02$; $SRMR = .01$; $CFI = .99$) confirmed the obtained factor structure of the six-item scale for a larger sample ($N = 2511$). Participants were asked to indicate if their friends could be described by each of those six risky activities (“my friends often miss classes”, “my friends like to go to parties”, “my friends get drunk at parties”, “my friends use some type of drugs”, “my friends are sexually active”, and “my friends have had problems with the police”). Response options to each of these items ranged from 0 (*total disagreement*) to 10 (*total agreement*). Internal consistency of this factor, obtained through Cronbach’s alpha, reached a value of .80.

To determine other participants’ peer group characteristics, a set of questions were also included in the questionnaire (e.g., number, gender, and age of the members of their peer group). Finally, two additional items were used for assessing whether participants’ peers had suffered or perpetrated dating violence. Participants indicated their level of agreement with each of these two items on a scale ranging from 0 (*total disagreement*) to 10 (*total agreement*).

Relationship Initiation. Through the qualitative study already mentioned, we also developed four indicators for assessing how teenagers’ dating relationships start. A subsequent EFA indicated that those items did not show a common factor structure ($KMO < .40$). Hence, we decided to use them as independent indicators. Specifically, participants indicated the extent to which they had chosen their partners (‘We were both attracted to each other’, ‘I insisted we go out’) or whether someone else had insisted on initiating the relationship (‘My partner insisted’, ‘Others insisted’). The response options ranged from 0 (*total disagreement*) to 10 (*total agreement*).

Parental Monitoring Strategies. Parental monitoring was assessed with different questions taken from Kerr and Stattin (2000). The instrument measured Monitoring (or parental knowledge of leisure activities) using five items ($\alpha = .80$), child Disclosure using four items ($\alpha = .84$), Control using four items ($\alpha = .82$), and Solicitation using four items ($\alpha = .81$). Responses ranged from 1 (never) to 5 (very often).

Moreover, some questions were added to assess (a) parental support: ‘Do your parents help you when you have problems?’; (b) parental warning: ‘Do your parents warn

you of the dangers of drugs, pregnancies, and so on?’, ‘Did your parents tell you that there are people and places that can be dangerous?’; and (c) deception: ‘Do you manage to fool your parents to go where you want and see who you want?’, ‘Are you going to places or doing things your parents would not approve of if they knew?’. In this case, response options also ranged from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*very often*). These questions were treated as independent indicators.

TDV Victimization. Psychological and physical victimization in dating relationships was measured by means of a modified version of the Safe Dates–Psychological Abuse Victimization subscale (Foshee et al., 1998). The original subscale consists of 14 items which measure verbal aggression (said things to hurt my feelings on purpose, brought up something from the past to hurt me, etc.), control of intimate partner (told me I could not talk to someone of the opposite sex, etc.), and interrupted physical aggression (threw something at me but missed, etc.). Three items were added for assessing physical aggression (pushing, hitting, and causing injury). Participants were required to estimate how often their partners shown different behaviors. Responses ranged from 0 (*never*) to 3 (*very often*). Cronbach’s alpha reached a value of .87.

Data analysis

For data analysis, all scale scores were first standardized by converting to z-scores. This allowed us to compare scales with different range, as well as to calculate the percentile scores to classify the participants before testing the hypotheses. In this sense, the 33rd and 66th percentile scores on TDV victimization were determined. Then, 406 participants were classified as “low” (those who scored below the 33rd percentile), 433 as “medium” (between the 33rd and the 66th percentile), and 409 as “high” (higher than the 66th percentile) in TDV victimization. After confirming the linear relationships between these levels of TDV victimization and the other variables, we selected the two more extreme groups (low and high) to better identify the risk factors that contribute to above-average victimization.

To test Hypotheses 1 and 2, univariate analyses of variance were carried out separately for contrasting participants’ scores in two sets of factors: (1) factors of the relational context; and (2) factors assessing the parental monitoring strategies. After confirming that participants’ age at the time of the study was a significant covariate, it

was controlled in all cases. Participants' age at their parents' divorce and at their first romantic relationship did not turn out to be significant as covariates in any case.

To test Hypothesis 3, a stepwise logistic-regression was carried out to evaluate the moderating role of the risk factors on the parental strategies. All parental strategies and all measures of risk in the relational context were examined, as well as the different interactions between them.

Results

Table 1 shows the zero-order correlation coefficients between study variables. Univariate analyses of variance were carried out with factors relating to the relational context. All the analyses exhibited significant differences between participants classified as low or high in victimization (Table 2), except older female peers' age, peers victimized by partners, mutual attraction, and participant's insistence to start dating. As proposed in Hypothesis 1, girls who were highly victimized in their dating relationships reported greater risk in their relational context (more deviant and older male peers, more frequent use of alcohol and drugs, and more pressure to start dating from partner and others) than those classified as low in victimization.

Univariate analyses of variance were again carried out to compare parental monitoring, support, and warning, and teenagers' deception in the two participant groups (Table 3). The results partially supported Hypothesis 2, since all parental monitoring strategies were significantly higher in the low victimization group than in the highly victimized one. In addition, contrasting with female teenagers from the highly victimized group, those in the low victimization group scored lower in deception (doing things their parents do not approve of and deceiving them). However, no differences in parental support and warning strategies were detected.

All risk factors and parental strategies, as well as their interactions, were analyzed using a stepwise logistic-regression procedure. As shown in Table 4, belonging to the most victimized group was predicted by alcohol use and the partner's and others' insistence to start dating. In addition, a significant interaction between deviant peer group and parental monitoring was detected (Figure 1). This model allows for the correct classification of 69.1% of highly victimized girls (61.6% of the true-negatives and 75.4% of the true-positives). No other significant interaction between risk factors and parental strategies was found.

Discussion

This study was aimed at analyzing the relationship between different risks of the relational context where adolescents are likely to initiate their romantic relationships (peer group characteristics, participants' risky activities, and pressure to start dating) and TDV victimization experienced by female adolescents. In addition, the moderating role of parental monitoring strategies on this association was considered.

Hypothesis 1 was confirmed by comparing the results by the level of TDV victimization. Participants classified in the highly victimized group reported more pressure to start dating (from their partners and others), and more risk activities (alcohol and drug use) than those in the low victimization group. In addition, the former also reported more risk in their peer groups than the latter, i.e., they were more likely to have older and deviant peers who missed classes, got drunk, had problems with the police, were violent with dating partners, etc. These results are consistent with previous research that point to the peer group as a risk context for TDV victimization. First, they support the importance of peers' age and their deviant lifestyle, as well as involvement in risky activities (Oudekerk et al., 2014; Vézina et al., 2011). Specifically, our results confirm that female adolescents who spend time with deviant and male older peers are also more likely to be involved in risky activities, such as alcohol and drug use, and TDV. Second, our results indicate that those whose peers are perceived to be violent with their dating partners are also more likely to experience TDV victimization, which is also consistent with previous studies (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Arriaga & Foshee, 2004).

As far as we know, prior research has not considered the pressure to start dating as a risk factor for TDV victimization. However, pressure may facilitate a situation by which female adolescents begin dating sooner and progress more quickly in their relationships, which has been found to differentiate between victims and non-victims of TDV (Warner, Warner, & Kuhl, 2017). While the studies reviewed point to the endorsement of a risky lifestyle or the acceptance of violence to explain the increased risk of TDV victimization (Karlsson et al., 2016; Vézina et al., 2011), the partners' strategies to start dating are also relevant.

Research on victimology indicates that both male and female adolescents are more likely to suffer different types of victimization during and because of exposure to risky situations (Averdijk & Bernasco, 2015). For example, drug and alcohol use is related to victimization because it takes place in risky social settings, away from parents and under

conditions that make it difficult to anticipate a possible aggression. Consistent with this research background, participants classified in this study as high in victimization reported lower scores in four parental monitoring strategies (control, monitoring, solicitation, and disclosure) than those low in victimization. The former also scored higher in deception than the latter, which is likely motivated by their peers' age and lifestyle.

Besides largely confirming Hypothesis 2, the results depicted above are also consistent with previous research that associates lower parental monitoring with TDV victimization (Maas et al, 2010). By contrast, no differences in parental support or warning were detected in this study, which indicates a similar degree of concern in the parents of both groups, and partially contradicts our expectations. Since highly victimized participants' parents display lower monitoring, they seem mainly to rely on warning. Although this result is based on daughters' perceptions, it suggests lower confidence on the part of parents in their ability to monitor their children, and it connects with studies on parental self-efficacy. This construct has been defined as a set of parents' beliefs about being able to influence their child in a way that fosters the child's positive development and adjustment (Bandura, 1997). These beliefs are affected by both adolescents' externalizing behavior and cultural messages questioning parental efficacy during this period (Glatz & Buchanan, 2015). In this sense, the results found for the high victimization group are consistent with what would be expected for parental self-efficacy in the difficult cases.

The results showed a strong association between disclosure and monitoring, which is consistent with what has been pointed out so far (Kerr et al., 2010). However, logistic regression indicated that the effectiveness of parental monitoring in preventing victimization depends on the peer group characteristics, thus confirming the third hypothesis. No other parental strategy was moderated by deviant peers. As shown in Figure 1, a significant interaction between monitoring of leisure activities and deviant peer group indicates that this strategy is only effective when peers do not have deviant behaviors. Therefore, parental knowledge does not seem to be enough to prevent victimization when faced with risk environments. Although parents try to adapt their monitoring strategies (Giordano et al., 2014), the results suggest that there is little room for action. Not only could increasing control be counterproductive (Longmore et al., 2012), but it could be beyond the reach of many families. Hence, it seems essential to reduce environmental risks through community intervention.

Moreover, alcohol use and the partner's and others' insistence on initiating the dating relationship predict belonging to the most victimized group. While alcohol use and peers' deviant lifestyle has been related to different forms of victimization among females (Vézina et al., 2011), it is worth noting the relevance of the partner's and others' insistence in this study. These two measures did not significantly relate to the other factors analyzed, which suggests insistence is a specific risk factor for adolescent female initiation into dating relationships. Since such pressure does not seem to depend on either relational context or parental strategies, future research could look for explanations among some individual characteristics both in girls and in their abusive partners. For example, lack of assertiveness is likely to be a vulnerability factor against pressure to start dating, as it has been found to increase the risk of female sexual victimization (Katz, May, Sörensen, & DelTosta, 2010). In the same vein, male characteristics such as anxious attachment could predict pressure to initiate dating relationships in males.

In short, the results confirmed that female adolescents who report a high level of TDV victimization face more risk in the relational context where relationships are likely to start than those who report low victimization. Specifically, female adolescents who have older and deviant peers and are under pressure to start dating are more likely to experience TDV victimization, as well as those who use alcohol and drugs more frequently. According to self-reports from participants, the highly victimized girls' parents scored lower in different strategies (monitoring, control, solicitation, and disclosure) but no differently in warning or support than the parents of the girls in the low victimization group. In addition, the parents were reported to be deceived more by their daughters in the former cases than in the latter. Finally, the interaction detected indicates that parental monitoring is only effective to prevent TDV victimization when risk in the peer group context is low.

Limitations and Research Implications

This study has some limitations that should be taken into account. First, the cross-sectional design of this study does not allow us to ensure any causal direction of the relationships analyzed. Therefore, a longitudinal design would be necessary to demonstrate that the risks of the relational context predict the subsequent victimization. Second, all measures were taken through participants, which means that we have no parental information about their monitoring strategies, support, or warning. In addition, friends' risk characteristics need to be interpreted as participants' perceptions, as we did

not use any measure to support those self-reports. Future research would need to compare the correspondence between parent- and adolescent-reports. Finally, the current study has not paid attention to victimization experienced by adolescent boys. This was due to the special relevance of female adolescent victimization for the institutions responsible for preventing violence against women in Spain, a problem that can begin in adolescence. However, future studies would need to include male adolescents, which would permit the analysis of the relationship between exercising / suffering pressure to start dating and involvement in TDV.

Prevention and Policy Implications

The sample size in this study allows us to draw conclusions about the general population of female adolescents, which offers valuable insights for the design of interventions and policy. The findings of this study highlight the importance of intervening in the social context where romantic relationships are initiated. This study has also allowed us to validate a six-item scale, designed for this purpose, that has proven its usefulness in assessing the level of risk of the peer group. This short scale can be used in a Spanish-speaking adolescent population.

Alcohol use is one of the risk factors detected among participants. Although there may be cultural variations, alcohol use is part of the social experience of adolescents in Spain and other European countries (Katainen & Rolando, 2015). In recent years, binge drinking has become a major health problem among adolescents (Moral et al., 2017), which requires an appropriate response from the health authorities. In this sense, it seems necessary to place more controls on the purchase and consumption of alcohol by minors, and to carry out prevention among adolescents and their families.

Moreover, pressure may facilitate situations by which female adolescents begin dating sooner, engage in unwanted relationships, and face greater risk of TDV victimization. Hence, warning adolescents against succumbing to pressure to start unwanted dating relationships, and preparing peers for supporting those who receive such pressure, might help prevent victimization in romantic relationships.

The results also indicate that parents should be made more aware of the situation and trained to gain confidence in their ability to monitor their teenage children. To increase closeness with parents may be a difficult goal in adolescence. However, empowering parents as a group within the community could increase their effectiveness against adolescents' pressure to relax monitoring. Sensitizing teenagers about the

importance of choosing their peers would enhance parents' credibility and reduce victimization. Being involved in a positive social network could make exposure to peer groups that tolerate abuse less likely. In addition, dating boys with positive characteristics could be more likely (Hébert et al., 2017). However, it is important to keep in mind that some teenagers may experience adjustment difficulties that lead them to accept any company. Therefore, this vulnerability needs to be addressed, and interpersonal skills and social support reinforced.

References

- Adams, A. E., Greeson, M. R., Kennedy, A. C., & Tolman, R. M. (2013). The effects of adolescent intimate partner violence on women's educational attainment and earnings. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 28*, 3283-300. doi: 10.1177/0886260513496895
- Aizpitarte, A., Alonso-Arbiol, I., & Van de Vijver, F. J. R. (2017). An explanatory model of dating violence risk factors in Spanish adolescents. *Journal of Research on Adolescence, 27*, 797-809. doi: 10.1111/jora.12315
- Arriaga, X., & Foshee, V. (2004). Adolescent dating violence: Do adolescents follow in their friends' or their parents' footsteps? *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 19*, 162–184. doi: 10.1177/0886260503260247
- Averdijk, M., & Bernasco, W. (2015). Testing the situational explanation of victimization among adolescents. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency, 52*, 151-180. doi: 10.1177/0022427814546197
- Baker, C. K. (2017). What role do peers play in adolescent dating? Insights from adolescents with a history of dating violence. *Violence Against Women, 23*, 178-201. doi: 10.1177/1077801216638769
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman. doi: 10.1017/cbo9780511527692.003
- Bonache, H., Gonzalez-Mendez, R., & Krahé, B. (2017). Romantic attachment, conflict resolution styles, and teen dating violence victimization. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 46*, 1905-1917. doi: 10.1007/s10964-017-0635-2
- Bonomi, A. E., Anderson, M. L., Nemeth, J., Rivara, F. P., & Buettner, C. (2013). History of dating violence and the association with late adolescent health. *BMC Public Health, 13*, 821. doi: 10.1186/1471-2458-13-821

- Carbone-Lopez, K., & Kruttschnitt, C. (2010). Risky relationships?: Assortative mating and women's experiences of intimate partner violence. *Crime & Delinquency*, *56*, 358–384. doi: 10.1177/0011128709333727
- Cava, M.-J., Buelga, S., & Tomás, I. (2018). Peer victimization and dating violence victimization: The mediating role of loneliness, depressed mood, and life satisfaction. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, doi: 10.1177/0886260518760013
- Exner-Cortens, D., Eckenrode, J., & Rothman, E. (2013). Longitudinal associations between teen dating violence victimization and adverse health outcomes. *Pediatrics*, *131*, 71-78. doi:10.1542/peds.2012-1029
- Fernández-González, L., Calvete, E., & Orue, I. (2017). Adolescent dating violence stability and mutuality: A 4-year longitudinal study. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*. doi: 10.1177/0886260517699953
- Foshee, V. A., Bauman, K. E., Arriaga, X. B., Helms, R. W., Koch, G. G., & Linder, G. F. (1998). An evaluation of safe dates, an adolescent dating violence prevention program. *American Journal of Public Health*, *88*, 45-50. doi: 10.2105/ajph.88.1.45
- Glatz, T., & Buchanan, C. M. (2015). Over-time associations among parental self-efficacy, promotive parenting practices, and adolescents' externalizing behaviors. *Journal of Family Psychology*, *29*, 427-437. doi: 10.1037/fam0000076
- Giordano, P. C., Johnson, W. L., Manning, W. D., & Longmore, M. A. (2014). Parenting in adolescence and young adult intimate partner violence. *Journal of Family Issues*, *37*, 443-465. doi: 10.1177/0192513X13520156
- Gonzalez-Mendez, R., Martín, A., & Hernández-Abrante, L. (2014). At the end of a fairy tale: romantic relationships in female juvenile offenders. *Journal of Forensic Psychiatry & Psychology*, *25*, 584-599. doi:10.1080/14789949.2014.943794
- Gonzalez-Mendez, R., Yanes, J. M., & Ramírez-Santana, G. (2017). Witnessing partner violence: Exploring the role of partner preferences on dating violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, *32*, 1235-1248. doi:10.1177/0886260515588533
- Halpern, C. T., Kaestle, C. E., & Hallfors, D. D. (2007). Perceived physical maturity, age of romantic partner, and adolescent risk behavior. *Prevention Science*, *8*, 1-10. doi: 10.1007/s11121-006-0046-1

- Harding, D. J. (2009). Violence, Older Peers, and the Socialization of Adolescent Boys in Disadvantaged Neighborhoods. *American Sociological Review*, *74*, 445-464. doi: 10.1177/000312240907400306
- Hébert, M., Daspe, M.-E., Lapierre, A., Godbout, N., Blais, M., Fernet, M., & Lavoie, F. (2017). A Meta-analysis of risk and protective factors for dating violence victimization: The role of family and peer interpersonal context. *Trauma, Violence and Abuse*. doi: 10.1177/1524838017725336
- Ivanova, K., Veenstra, R., & Mills, M. (2012). Who dates? The effects of temperament, puberty, and parenting on early adolescent experience with dating: The TRAILS study. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, *32*, 340-363. doi: 10.1177/0272431610393246
- Jouriles, E. N., Choi, H. J., Rancher, C., & Temple, J. R. (2017). Teen dating violence victimization, trauma symptoms and revictimization in early adulthood. *Journal of Adolescent Health*. doi: 10.1016/j.jadohealth.2017.01.020
- Karlsson, M. E., Temple, J. R., Weston, R., & Le, V. D. (2016). Witnessing interparental violence and acceptance of dating violence as predictors for teen dating violence victimization. *Violence against Women*, *22*, 625-46. doi: 10.1177/1077801215605920
- Katainen, A., & Rolando, S. (2015). Adolescents' understandings of binge drinking in Southern and Northern European contexts-cultural variations of 'controlled loss of control'. *Journal of Youth Studies*, *18*, 151-166. doi: 10.1080/13676261.2014.933200
- Katz, J., May, P., Sörensen, S., & DelTosta, J. (2010). Sexual revictimization during women's first year of college: Self-blame and sexual refusal assertiveness as possible mechanisms. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, *25*, 2113-2126. doi: 10.1177/0886260509354515
- Kerr, M., Stattin, H., & Burk, W. J. (2010). A reinterpretation of parental monitoring in longitudinal perspective. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, *20*, 39-64. doi: 10.1111/j.1532-7795.2009.00623.x
- Longmore, M. A., Manning, W. D., & Giordano, P. C. (2012). Parent-child relationships in adolescence. In M. A. Fine & F. D. Fincham (Eds), *Handbook of family theories. A content-based approach* (pp. 28-50). London: Routledge. doi: 10.4324/9780203075180.ch3

- Maas, C. D., Fleming, C. B., Herrenkohl, T. I., & Catalano, R. F. (2010). Childhood predictors of teen dating violence victimization. *Violence and Victims, 25*, 131-149. doi:10.1891/0886-6708.25.2.131.
- Moral, M., Molleda, C. B., Bernal, A. O., Quintero, L. A. M., & Díaz, F. J. R. (2017). Socio health emergency risk of alcohol consumption and symptoms of reliance on youth. *Health and Addictions, 17*, 91-99.
- Muñoz-Rivas, M. J., Graña, J. L., O'Leary, K. D., & González, M. P. (2007). Aggression in adolescent dating relationships: Prevalence, justification, and health consequences. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 40*, 298-304. doi: 10.1016/j.jadohealth.2006.11.137
- Oudekerk, B. A., Guarnera, L. A., & Reppucci, N. D. (2014). Older opposite-sex romantic partners, sexual risk, and victimization in adolescence. *Child Abuse and Neglect, 38*, 1238-1248. doi: 10.1016/j.chiabu.2014.03.009
- Perles, F., San Martín, J., & Canto, J. M. (2016). Gender and conflict resolution strategies in Spanish teen couples: Their relationship with jealousy and emotional dependency. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*. doi: 10.1177/0886260516651316
- Stattin, H., & Kerr, M. (2000). Parental monitoring: a reinterpretation. *Child Development, 71*, 1072-1085. doi: 10.2307/1132345
- Stöckl, H., March, L., Pallitto, C., & Garcia-Moreno, C. (2014). Intimate partner violence among adolescents and young women: prevalence and associated factors in nine countries: a cross-sectional study. *BMC Public Health, 14*, 751. doi: 10.1186/1471-2458-14-751
- Vagi, K. J., Olsen, O. E., Basile, K. C., & Vivolo-Kantor, A. M. (2015). Teen dating violence (physical and sexual) among US high school students. *JAMA Pediatrics, 169*, 474-482. doi: 10.1001/jamapediatrics.2014.3577
- Vagi, K. J., Rothman, E. F., Latzman, N. E., Tharp, A. T., Hall, D. M., & Breiding, M. J. (2013). Beyond correlates: A review of risk and protective factors for adolescent dating violence perpetration. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 42*, 633-649. doi: 10.1007/s10964-013-9907-7
- van de Bongardt, D., Yu, R., Deković, M., & Meeus, W. H. J. (2015). Romantic relationships and sexuality in adolescence and young adulthood: The role of parents, peers, and partners. *European Journal of Developmental Psychology, 12*, 497-515. doi: 10.1080/17405629.2015.1068689

- Vézina, J., Hébert, M., Poulin, F., Lavoie, F., Vitaro, F., & Tremblay, R. E. (2011). Risky lifestyle as a mediator of the relationship between deviant peer affiliation and dating violence victimization among adolescent girls. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *40*, 814-824. doi: 10.1007/s10964-010-9602-x
- Vivolo-Kantor, A. M., Massetti, G., Niolon, P., Foshee, V., McNaughton-Reyes, L. (2016). Relationship characteristics associated with teen dating violence perpetration. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment, & Trauma*, *25*, 936-954. doi:10.1080/10926771.2016.1223774.
- Warner, T. D., Warner, D. F., & Kuhl, D. C. (2017). *Cut to the quick: The consequences of youth violent victimization for the timing of dating debut and first union formation. American Sociological Review*. doi: 10.1177/0003122417734353
- Wincentak, K., Connolly, J., & Card, N. (2017). Teen dating violence: A meta-analytic review of prevalence rates. *Psychology of Violence*, *7*, 224-241. doi: 10.1037/a0040194

Table 1
Zero order correlations between victimization, the factors of the relational context, and parental monitoring strategies

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Victimization	.282**	.111**	.110**	.053	.163**	.188**	.160**	.054	-.089**	.201**	.176**	-.044	-.085**	-.078**	-.102**	-.006	.048	-.004	.127**	.071*
Peer group characteristics																				
1. Deviant peers		.185**	.392**	.247**	.232**	.047	-.009	-.027	.143**	.598**	.402**	-.204**	-.277**	-.234**	-.326**	-.062*	.043	-.006	.388**	.238**
2. Peers violent with partners		.088**	.088**	.045	.425**	.044	.020	.004	-.012	.061*	.009	-.072*	-.064*	-.078**	-.096**	-.015	-.031	-.006	.086**	.090**
3. Older male peers' age			.623**	.126**	.126**	-.031	-.028	-.061	.104**	.273**	.224**	-.026	-.147**	-.100**	-.098**	-.002	.050	-.046	.161**	.116**
4. Older female peers' age				.072*	.072*	-.065	-.065	-.079*	.042	.215**	.114**	-.007	-.099**	-.047	-.054	.028	.028	-.025	.075*	.008
5. Peers victimized by partners					.094**	.094**	.087**	.044	-.014	.099**	.088**	-.053	-.043	-.069*	-.100**	-.004	-.008	.004	.111**	.135**
Relationship Initiation																				
6. Partner's insistence							.312**	.383**	-.120**	.037	-.071*	-.073*	.015	-.031	-.039	-.041	.004	.007	.020	.088**
7. Others' insistence							.237**	.237**	-.133**	-.050	-.041	-.063	.025	-.053	-.064	.011	-.024	-.013	.042	.054
8. Participant's insistence								-.012		.006	-.047	-.032	-.002	.015	-.005	-.034	-.013	-.058	.015	.039
9. Mutual attraction										.073*	.053	.063	-.034	.053	.044	.063	.071*	.038	.016	.031
Participant's risk activities																				
10. Participant's Alcohol use										.349**	.349**	-.203**	-.268**	-.187**	-.276**	-.044	.043	-.042	.381**	.240**
11. Participant's Drug use											-.126**	-.180**	-.180**	-.173**	-.200**	-.014	-.053	-.137**	.264**	.113**
Parental strategies																				
12. Monitoring													.349**	.616**	.797**	.457**	.250**	.207**	.330**	-.252**
13. Control													.281**	.281**	.429**	.098**	.110**	.235**	.097**	-.026
14. Solicitation														.718**	.718**	.403**	.259**	.194**	-.280**	-.242**
15. Disclosure															.406**	.406**	.206**	.220**	-.394**	-.277**
16. Support																.380**	.380**	.250**	-.173**	-.127**
17. Warning of dangers																	.421**	.421**	-.018	-.030
18. Warning of people																				
Deception of their parents																				
19. Do things parents do not approve of																				
20. Deceive parents																				.447**

Note. * $p \leq .05$. ** $p \leq .01$.

Table 2

Descriptives and univariate analyses for contrasting female adolescents with different levels of victimization regarding the relational context

	Low		High		<i>F</i> (1,813)	<i>p</i>	μp^2
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			
<i>Peer group characteristics</i>							
Deviant peers	-.13	.85	.46	.95	48.55	.000	.098
Peers violent with partners	-.16	.26	.17	1.48	10.58	.001	.023
Older male peers' age	.03	.66	.20	.67	6.75	.010	.015
Older female peers' age	.00	.74	.08	.66	1.40	.237	.003
Peers victimized by partners	-.01	.94	.10	.99	1.59	.207	.004
<i>Relationship Initiation</i>							
Partner's insistence	-.25	.99	.01	1.03	13.72	.000	.030
Others' insistence	-.31	.99	.10	1.03	14.85	.001	.032
Participant's insistence	-.07	.85	.07	1.06	2.37	.123	.005
Mutual attraction	.09	.93	.01	.95	2.39	.123	.005
<i>Participant's risk activities</i>							
Participant's alcohol use	-.10	.93	.38	.99	28.87	.000	.061
Participant's drug use	-.16	.67	.13	1.16	10.19	.002	.022

Table 3

Descriptives and univariate analyses for contrasting female adolescents with different levels of victimization regarding parental monitoring strategies

	Low		High		<i>F</i> (1,813)	<i>p</i>	μp^2
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			
<i>Parental strategies</i>							
Monitoring	.30	.84	.02	.94	15.30	.000	.022
Control	.34	.85	.10	.91	7.03	.008	.010
Solicitation	.25	.84	.02	.91	9.02	.003	.013
Disclosure	.31	.89	.10	.95	8.42	.004	.012
Support	.04	.98	-.06	1.06	2.11	.147	.003
Warning of dangers	.02	1.00	.03	.97	.04	.947	.000
Warning of people	.08	.93	-.04	1.06	2.79	.095	.004
<i>Deception of their parents</i>							
Do things parents do not approve of	-.11	.96	.16	1.05	11.85	.001	.017
Deceive parents	-.09	.81	.09	.86	7.30	.007	.011

Table 4

Results of the binary logistic regression to predict TDV victimization

	<i>B</i>	Wald's Test	<i>df</i>	<i>SE</i>	odds ratio	<i>p</i>	confidence interval
Deviant peer group	0.51	14.55	1	.14	1.67	.000	[1.28, 2.17]
Alcohol use	0.43	12.99	1	.12	1.54	.000	[1.22, 1.95]
Others' insistence	0.25	5.93	1	.10	1.28	.015	[1.05, 1.57]
Partner's insistence	0.33	7.38	1	.12	1.39	.007	[1.10, 1.77]
Deviant peer group \times Monitoring	0.21	4.31	1	.10	1.23	.038	[1.01, 1.50]

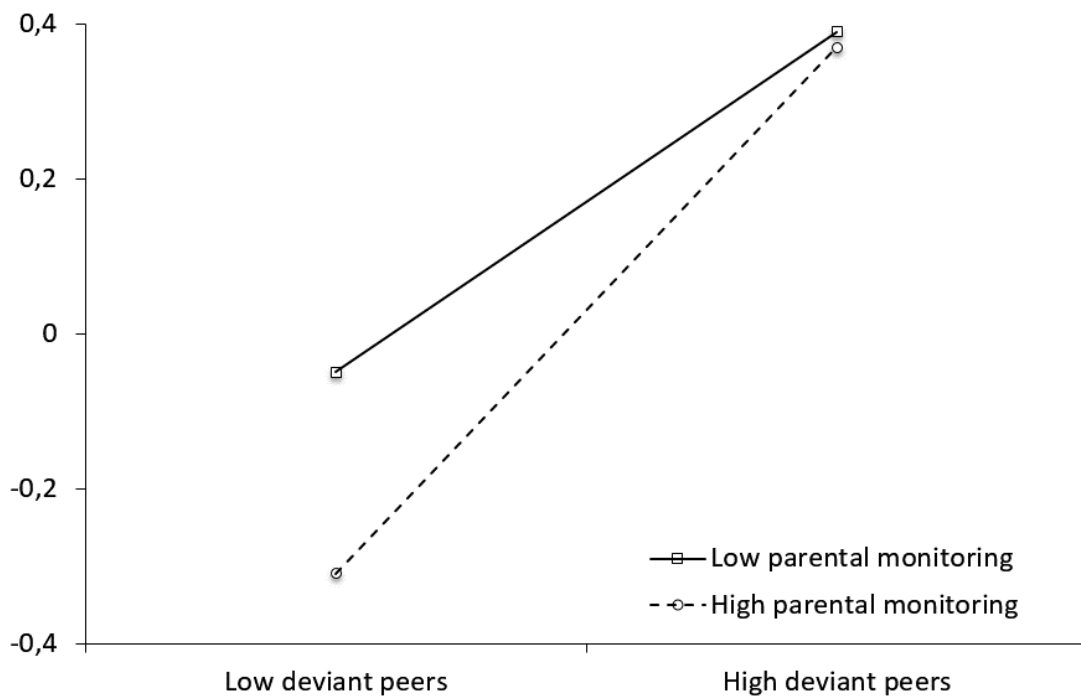


Figure 1. Interaction between parental monitoring and deviant peers