



Psychological Outcomes of Within-Group Sexual Violence: Evidence of Cultural Betrayal

Jennifer M. Gómez¹ · Jennifer J. Freyd²

Published online: 29 December 2017
© Springer Science+Business Media, LLC, part of Springer Nature 2017

Abstract

Cultural betrayal trauma theory is a new framework for understanding trauma-related mental health outcomes in immigrant and minority populations. The purpose of the current study is to empirically test cultural betrayal trauma theory. We hypothesized that the association between within-group sexual violence and mental health outcomes would be stronger for minorities. Participants ($N=368$) were minority and majority college students, who completed online measures of sexual violence victimization and mental health outcomes. A MANOVA revealed that the link between within-group sexual violence and total trauma symptoms, depression, sexual abuse sequelae, sleep disturbance, and sexual problems was stronger for minorities. This study provides evidence for cultural betrayal trauma theory, as the findings suggest that outcomes from the same experience—within-group sexual violence—is affected by minority status. This work has implications for how mental health is understood, investigated, and treated in immigrant and minority populations.

Keywords Cultural betrayal trauma theory · Rape · Dissociation · Trauma symptom checklist · College students

Background

Interpersonal violence is prevalent, with some minority populations being at increased risk for victimization based on race/ethnicity [multiracial; African American; Latino/a American; Native American], sexual orientation [lesbian; gay; bisexual], and disability [physically disabled or mentally handicapped] (National Center for Victims of Crime [50], National Coalition Against Domestic Violence [51], Rape, Abuse, and Incest National Network [54]). Interpersonal violence victimization is linked with many outcomes, including posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD; Kelley et al. [40]), depression, anxiety (e.g., Goldsmith et al. [24]), dissociation, hallucinations [30, 32], non-suicidal self injury, and suicidality [20, Gomez and Freyd [30]. Though the majority of trauma work has been focused on White American samples [3, 58], contextual factors, such as societal trauma (e.g.,

[5]), societal status [41], and cultural values (e.g., [20]), may impact outcomes of violence victimization [4, 5, 8, 37].

Theoretical Framework

Cultural betrayal trauma theory (CBTT; [29]) is a new theoretical framework that is derived from the literatures that document the harm of violence victimization (e.g., [14, 22, 35]) and stress the importance of contextual factors in trauma sequelae (e.g., [4]). According to CBTT (e.g., [29]), societal trauma (e.g., oppression; discrimination) creates the context for violence perpetrated by a perceived fellow minority to be a harmful contributor to posttraumatic distress (Fig. 1).

Similar to how interpersonal relationships are conceptualized in betrayal trauma theory (e.g., [15, 21]), some individuals in minority populations may feel attachment towards other in-group minority members. This bond, termed (*intra*) *cultural trust*, is similar to racial loyalty [1, 56] and may serve as a protective factor against the effects of discrimination. Given that CBTT (e.g., [29]) contextualizes relationships within larger sociocultural dynamics, (*intra*) *cultural trust* creates a vulnerability for cultural betrayal to be harmful. In immigrant and minority populations, within-group

✉ Jennifer M. Gómez
jennifer.gomez@wayne.edu

¹ Merrill Palmer Skillman Institute, Wayne State University, 71 East Ferry St., Detroit, MI 48202, USA

² Department of Psychology, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR, USA

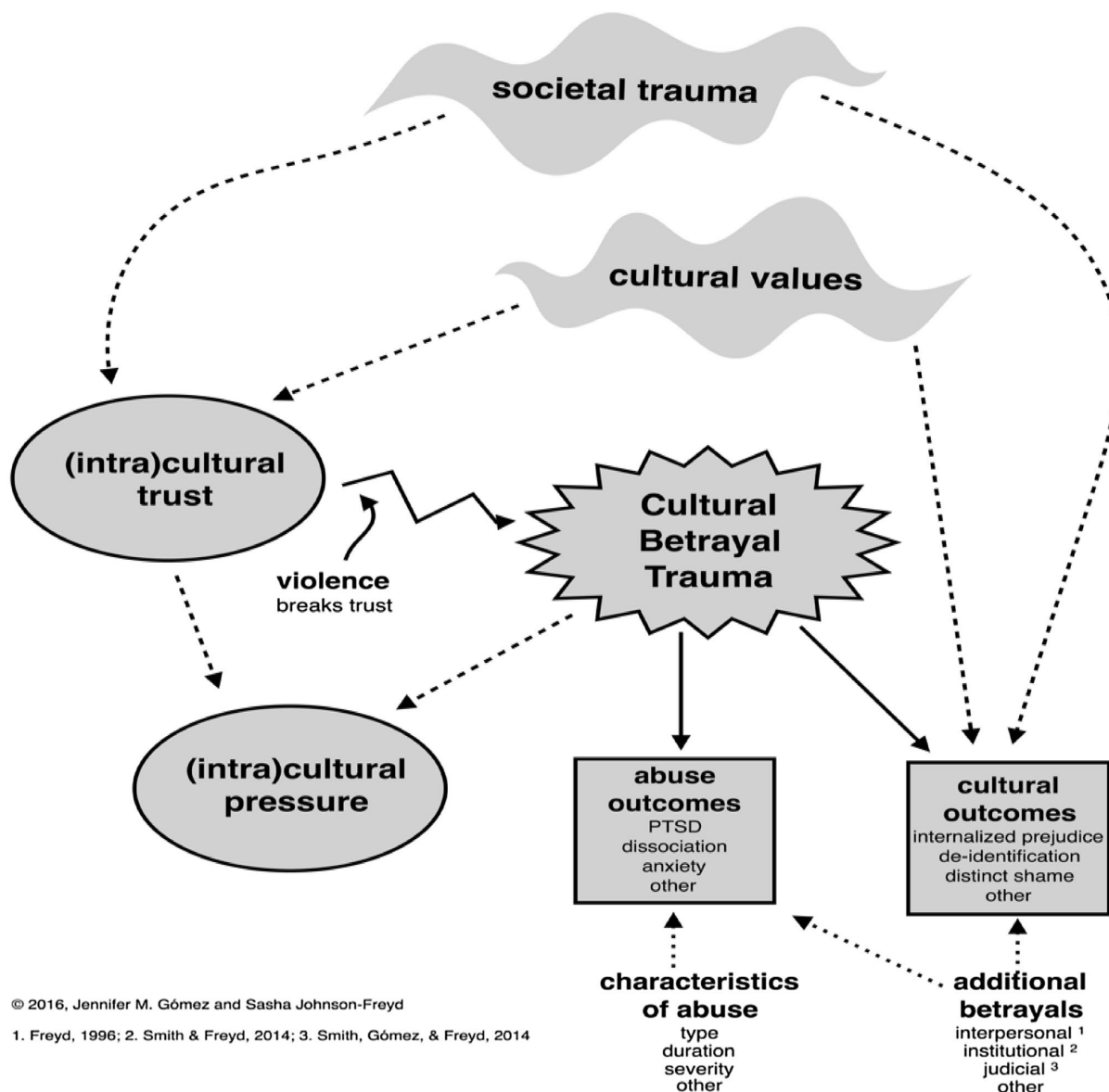


Fig. 1 Cultural Betrayal Trauma Theory, *reprinted with permission*

violence is conceptualized as a *cultural betrayal trauma* and predicts diverse outcomes (Fig. 2). Though within-group violence happens across all groups, according to CBTT [e.g., 26], the cultural betrayal would be present only in violence perpetrated within cultural minorities; within-group violence between majority members (e.g., White and otherwise societally privileged Americans in the U.S.) would not be conceptualized as a cultural betrayal and therefore, would not be presumed to have the same deleterious effects.

While the tenets of CBTT are promising in understanding immigrant and minority mental health outcomes, there

has been little empirical work to test the theory. Given the high rates of sexual assault on college campuses (e.g., [34, 53]), the purpose of the current study was to use a diverse sample of minority and majority college students to test cultural betrayal trauma theory. Specifically, within-group sexual violence victimization will be assessed to determine if there is evidence for this type of violence being a “cultural betrayal trauma” in immigrant and minority populations. In doing so, this study has implications for understanding how violence victimization may differentially affect immigrant and minority mental health. We hypothesized that:

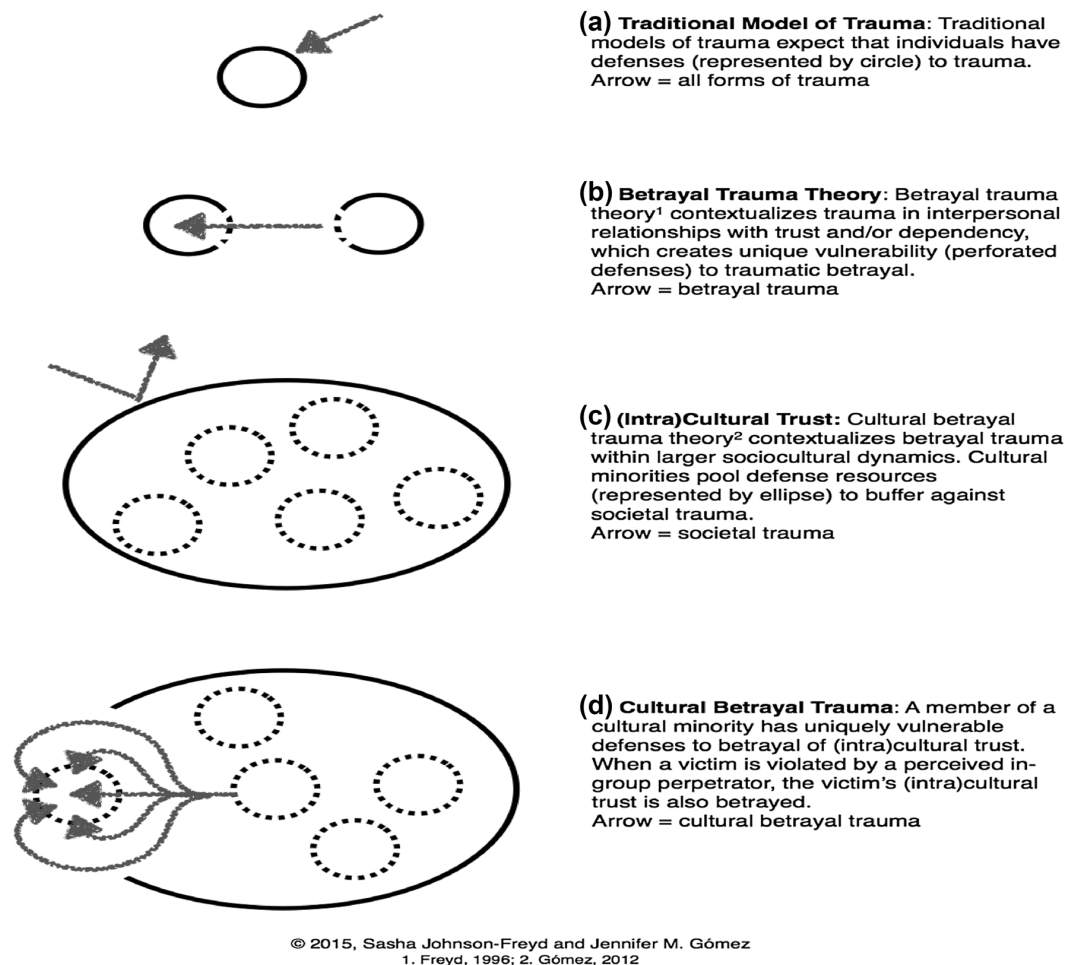


Fig. 2 Impact of societal trauma on within-group violence, *reprinted with permission*

- (1) Minorities would have experienced higher rates of sexual violence compared with their majority member counterparts.
- (2) In the entire sample, within-group sexual violence victimization would impact outcomes from the Trauma Symptoms Checklist [17]: trauma symptoms (total), dissociation, anxiety, depression, sexual abuse sequelae, sleep disturbance, and sexual problems.
- (3) Minority status would not independently impact the aforementioned outcomes: trauma symptoms (total), dissociation, anxiety, depression, sexual abuse sequelae, sleep disturbance, and sexual problems.
- (4) Minority status would moderate the association between within-group sexual violence victimization and trauma outcomes, with the associations being stronger for minority members.

Methods

Participants

Participants ($N = 368$) were students at a large, public Northwestern university. The university institutional review board (IRB) reviewed and approved the current study. Participants were coded as ‘minority’ ($N = 179$) and ‘majority’ ($N = 189$). Minority participants (coded as ‘1’) were those who self-identified as an ethnic minority, Muslim, foreign national, and/or non-heterosexual by answering affirmatively to: “I identify as a racial/ethnic minority, a Muslim, a foreign national (e.g., born and raised outside of the U.S.), or a non-heterosexual (e.g., gay, lesbian, bisexual).” Majority participants (coded as

‘0’) self-identified as *not* having any of those minority identities: “I do not identify as a racial/ethnic minority, a Muslim, a foreign national (e.g., born and raised outside of the U.S.), or a non-heterosexual (e.g., gay, lesbian, bisexual).” Participants wrote in their age, gender, and ethnicity. Minorities were slightly older than majority members (minority: $M = 20.12$ years, $SD = 2.58$; majority: $M = 19.49$ years, $SD = 2.00$; $t(332.798) = 2.60$, $p = .010$), but similar in gender distribution (minority: 65% female, 34% male, 1% transgender, 1% gender queer; majority: 66% female, 33% male, 1% gender queer). The majority members were 87% White/Caucasian (13% other ethnicities; all participants in this group self-identified as not being a minority), whereas the minority participants were ethnically diverse, with 35% Asian/Asian American/Pacific Islander, 21% White/Caucasian, 14% Hispanic/Latino, 12% Mixed Race or Other, 8% Black/African American, 7% Arab/Middle Eastern, 1.1% Jewish, and 0.5% Native American.

Data Collection

Students in the university human subjects pool chose to participate in research or complete an alternate assignment for class credit. Students who elect to be participants select studies based on time availability without prior knowledge of the study content. Participants gave informed consent and completed the 30-min online study at a location of their own choosing. Participants could decline to answer any question and could withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.

Measures

These data are part of a larger study (*author citation*), therefore only some of the measures are listed here.

Sexual Experiences Survey—Modified for Cultural Betrayal [SES-CB]

The authors modified the Sexual Experiences Survey [44], a 14-item questionnaire, to retrospectively assess for sexual violence victimization perpetrated by in-group member(s). Participants responded on a Likert scale, 1- never to 4- often. The modified instructions define an in-group member as “someone who holds the same Group Identity.” The instructions further provide the primary group identity that the participant reported in the previous section and indicate that questions should be answered based on this group identity. A sample item is: “A trusted or depended upon in-group member obtained sexual acts with you such as anal or oral intercourse when you didn’t want to by using threats or physical force (twisting your arm, holding you down, etc.).” An alpha score is not appropriate to calculate for this

measure because the SES-CB assesses incidents of abusive events, not an underlying construct. An original SES version has reported stable responses in test re-test reliability [43]. Though the adapted measure has not been independently validated, the original victimization items of the SES have been shown to be a valid measure of sexual violence victimization [43]. Items from the SES-CB, along with the items from the BBTS-CB (see below Goldberg and Freyd [23]) were averaged to create a mean score of within-group sexual violence.

Brief Betrayal Trauma Survey—Modified for Cultural Betrayal [BBTS-CB]

The authors modified two items from the 12-item BBTS [23] to retrospectively assess for sexual violence victimization perpetrated by in-group member(s). The instructions and Likert scale were the same as those for the SES-CB [44]. A sample item is: “You were made to have some form of sexual contact, such as touching or penetration, by an in-group member with whom you were not close.” Like the SES-CB, a measure of internal consistency is not appropriate for the BBTS-CB, as it is not a measure of an underlying construct. Though the adapted measure has not been independently validated, the original BBTS demonstrated good test re-test reliability and is considered a valid measure of victimization [23]. As mentioned, the BBTS-CB items were added to the SES-CB items to calculate a single variable that is the mean score of within-group sexual violence.

Trauma Symptom Checklist (TSC-40; Elliott and Briere [17])

The TSC-40 [17] is a 40-item measure that assesses trauma symptoms with the following scale and subscales: trauma symptoms (total scale; 40 items), dissociation (6 items), anxiety (9 items), depression (9 items), sexual abuse trauma index (for clarity, hereafter labeled *sexual abuse sequelae*; 7 items), sleep disturbance (6 items), and sexual problems (8 items). Some items are present in more than one subscale, thus, the number of items from all subscales exceeds the total number of items for the scale. Response choices are on a Likert scale from 1- never to 4- very often. A sample item is: *How often have you experienced each of the following in the last two months? Flashbacks (sudden, vivid, distracting memories)*. The TSC-40 has good predictive validity of post-traumatic states [2]. In our sample, internal consistency ranged from good to excellent: total TSC ($\alpha = 0.96$), dissociation ($\alpha = 0.77$), anxiety ($\alpha = 0.82$), depression ($\alpha = 0.85$), sexual abuse sequelae ($\alpha = .76$), sleep disturbance ($\alpha = 0.81$), and sexual problems ($\alpha = 0.86$). Items from each subscale were averaged to create mean variables for trauma symptoms [total], dissociation, anxiety, depression, sexual abuse sequelae, sleep disturbance, and sexual problems, respectively.

Analysis

Descriptive statistics were run to assess means, standard deviations, and proportions for sexual violence

Table 1 Percentages of within-group sexual violence and mental health outcomes in minorities and majority members

	Minorities ^a (%)	Majority members ^b (%)	χ^2 (df=1)
Within-group sexual violence [1–4]	18	14	0.77
Trauma symptom checklist [1–4]	90	88	0.62
Dissociation	78	66	8.74**
Anxiety	83	78	1.64
Depression	86	83	0.71
Sexual abuse sequelae	89	82	6.23*
Sleep disturbance	84	77	3.54
Sexual problems	89	84	3.62

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

^aIn U.S.: identify as racial/ethnic minority, Muslim, foreign national, non-heterosexual (e.g., gay, lesbian, bisexual)

^bIn U.S.: do not identify as racial/ethnic minority, Muslim, foreign national, non-heterosexual (e.g., gay, lesbian, bisexual)

victimization, trauma symptoms [total], dissociation, anxiety, depression, sexual abuse sequelae, sleep disturbance, and sexual problems. T-tests and Chi square analyses were run to assess group differences between minority and majority members. A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was run with trauma symptoms [total], dissociation, anxiety, depression, sexual abuse sequelae, sleep disturbance, and sexual problems as the dependent variables and within-group sexual violence, minority status, and the interaction between within-group violence and minority status as the independent variables. Finally, two separate MANOVAs with the aforementioned variables were run for minorities and majority members, respectively.

Results

The greater proportion of minorities and majority members reported experiencing any within-group violence and psychological distress, with significantly more minorities experiencing dissociation and sexual abuse sequelae (Table 1). Contrary to Hypothesis 1, minorities did not experience more sexual violence victimization than their majority member counterparts (Table 2). A MANOVA revealed that within-group sexual violence was associated with all outcomes in the entire sample (Hypothesis 2). Contrary to Hypothesis 3, minority status was indeed associated with

Table 2 Means and standard deviations of within-group sexual violence and posttraumatic distress for minorities and majority members

Variable [range]	Minorities ^a	Majority members ^b	T test
Within-group sexual violence [1–4] ^c	1.05 (0.16) [1.00–2.06]	1.07 (0.29) [1.00–4.00]	–0.58
Trauma symptom checklist [1–4] ^d	1.60 (0.50) [1.00–3.85]	1.52 (0.50) [1.00–3.70]	1.42
Dissociation	1.47 (0.50) [1.00–4.00]	1.39 (0.48) [1.00–3.67]	1.60
Anxiety	1.53 (0.49) [1.00–3.67]	1.46 (0.51) [1.00–3.78]	1.29
Depression	1.66 (0.55) [1.00–3.78]	1.60 (0.57) [1.00–3.78]	1.05
Sexual abuse sequelae	1.59 (0.47) [1.00–4.00]	1.53 (0.47) [1.00–3.43]	1.34
Sleep disturbance	1.68 (0.57) [1.00–4.00]	1.61 (0.58) [1.00–3.50]	1.09
Sexual problems	1.77 (0.59) [1.00–3.88]	1.66 (0.58) [1.00–3.63]	1.69

Mean (Standard Deviation)
[Range]

^aIn U.S.: identify as racial/ethnic minority, Muslim, foreign national, non-heterosexual (e.g., gay, lesbian, bisexual)

^bIn U.S.: do not identify as racial/ethnic minority, Muslim, foreign national, non-heterosexual (e.g., gay, lesbian, bisexual)

^cDegrees of freedom = 355

^dDegrees of freedom = 346

some outcomes, specifically trauma symptoms [total], depression, sexual abuse sequelae, and sexual problems.

Hypothesis 4 examined the moderating role of minority status on outcomes. Partially supporting Hypothesis 4, the interaction between within-group sexual violence and minority status was associated with trauma symptoms [total], depression, sexual abuse sequelae, sleep disturbance and sexual problems, but not dissociation or anxiety (Table 3). Furthermore, the strength of the associations of within-group sexual violence with trauma symptoms [total], depression, sexual abuse sequelae, sleep disturbance, and sexual problems—but not dissociation and anxiety—were stronger for minorities (Table 4). Meaning, compared to majority members, within-group violence explained more of the variance in the aforementioned mental health outcomes among minorities. Taken together, these results suggest that minorities may be at increased risk for some trauma-related mental health problems, even when victimization rates are comparable between minorities and majority members. This provides evidence for CBTT, as it suggests that cultural betrayal may be a contributing factor to trauma-related mental health in minorities, but not majority members.

Discussion

The current study provided support for CBTT as a new framework for examining trauma-related mental health in immigrant and minority populations. Contrary to Hypothesis 1 and national statistics (e.g., Rape, Abuse, and Incest National Network [54]), minorities did not report higher rates of sexual violence victimization. Our findings may be explained by our college student, as opposed to community, sample. In support of Hypothesis 2 and prior literature (e.g., [32]), in the entire sample, within-group sexual violence was

Table 4 Within-group sexual violence: multivariate analysis of variance assessing main effects separately for minorities and majority members

	Minorities ^a <i>F</i> (1, 166) [<i>R</i> ²]	Majority members ^b <i>F</i> (1, 175) [<i>R</i> ²]
Trauma symptoms [total]	16.99*** [0.09]	6.81* [0.03]
Dissociation	10.07** [0.05]	11.73** [0.06]
Anxiety	10.29** [0.05]	9.68** [0.05]
Depression	15.99*** [0.08]	4.17* [0.02]
Sexual abuse sequelae	16.11*** [0.08]	6.26* [0.03]
Sleep disturbance	12.75*** [0.07]	6.44* [0.03]
Sexual problems	13.23*** [0.07]	2.12 [0.01]

**p* < .05

***p* < .01

****p* < .001

^aIn U.S.: identify as racial/ethnic minority, Muslim, foreign national, non-heterosexual (e.g., gay, lesbian, bisexual)

^bIn U.S.: do not identify as racial/ethnic minority, Muslim, foreign national, non-heterosexual (e.g., gay, lesbian, bisexual)

linked with all outcomes: trauma symptoms (total), dissociation, anxiety, depression, sexual abuse sequelae, sleep disturbance, and sexual problems. Contrary to Hypothesis 3, minority status alone was linked with some outcomes, specifically trauma symptoms [total], depression, sexual abuse sequelae, and sexual problems. Future research that incorporates other forms of violence, as well as societal

Table 3 Cultural betrayal for minorities: multivariate analysis of variance assessing within-group sexual violence, minority status, and the interaction of within-group sexual violence and minority status on posttraumatic distress

	Within-group sexual violence <i>F</i> (1, 341)	Minority status ^a <i>F</i> (1, 341)	Interaction term <i>F</i> (1, 341)
Trauma symptoms [total]	23.52***	4.44*	6.19*
Dissociation	19.65***	1.14	2.18
Anxiety	18.20***	1.26	2.12
Depression	19.59***	5.02*	6.47*
Sexual abuse sequelae	22.41***	4.50*	6.22*
Sleep disturbance	18.68***	2.94	4.10*
Sexual problems	15.52***	4.89*	6.97**

**p* < .05

***p* < .01

****p* < .001

^aMinorities (coded as '1'): Minorities- in U.S.: identify as racial/ethnic minority, Muslim, foreign national, non-heterosexual (e.g., gay, lesbian, bisexual); Majority Members- in U.S.: do not identify as racial/ethnic minority, Muslim, foreign national, non-heterosexual (e.g., gay, lesbian, bisexual)

trauma (e.g., [7]) is needed to better understand the factors that put immigrant and minority populations at higher risk for some mental health problems. Hypothesis 4 tested predictions of CBTT specifically [26]. Partially supporting Hypothesis 4, the interaction between within-group sexual violence victimization and minority status impacted trauma symptoms [total], depression, sexual abuse sequelae, sleep disturbance and sexual problems, but not dissociation or anxiety. Specifically, these associations were stronger for minorities. Reasons behind the null findings for dissociation and anxiety are unknown. It is possible that relatively high rates of dissociation [39] and anxiety [49] generally makes finding differences between groups more difficult. Future work should first if these findings are replicated, and if so, what moderators may be impacting the findings.

Our results suggest that the impact of within-group sexual violence cannot be explained through perceived similarity or in-group status of perpetrator(s) alone, as minority status affected the outcomes of sexual violence victimization. Thus, the evidence from the current study points to the usefulness of the construct of *cultural betrayal trauma* to signify within-group violence that occurs in immigrant and minority populations. This conceptualization has implications for how mental health is understood, investigated, and treated in immigrant and minority populations.

Future studies can build upon this knowledge by addressing some of its limitations. Future studies should present demographic information at the end of the survey, as opposed to the beginning. Specifically, priming participants with their cultural minority identity/ies may contribute to reduced disclosure of cultural betrayal trauma due to racial loyalty (e.g., Tillman et al. [56]) and/or (intra)cultural trust (e.g., [29]). Similar to previous studies [28, 29], the current study used adapted trauma measures to assess in-group status of perpetrators; therefore, future studies should create specific measures for cultural betrayal trauma to establish psychometric properties (e.g., reliability; validity).

CBTT is an umbrella conceptualization for multiple types of cultural betrayal (e.g., ethno-cultural betrayal—between members of the same ethnicity). In the current study, we did not differentiate amongst cultural betrayal types or minority identities in an effort to first determine if evidence supported the existence and impact of cultural betrayal. Though there is theoretical reason to believe that various forms of oppression may have a cross-cutting negative impact across minority groups, future studies should examine specific kinds of cultural betrayal in distinct minority populations as communities of interest in order to avoid ethnic gloss [57] and other overgeneralizations. Doing so will also take into account intersectionality and multiplicity (e.g., [12, 13, 36]): that one's self concept is shaped through multiple minority and majority identities (e.g., race, gender, sexuality, etc.).

Specifically, future studies could identify communities of interest and focus on cultural betrayal trauma in those contexts. For example, a future study could assess cultural betrayal trauma between self-identified queer people of color, delineating the impact of the separate and overlapping racial and sexual minority identities on the meaning given to cultural betrayal trauma and its impact on mental health. Another study could explore cultural betrayal trauma in Arab immigrant and/or Muslim populations, with specific hypotheses around how knowledge and perception of interpersonal and systemic discrimination (e.g., travel ban in the U.S. as reported by Sheer and Nixon [55]) increases the need for (intra)cultural trust and exacerbates outcomes of cultural betrayal trauma (e.g., reduced disclosure to official sources, such as police). With this more nuanced examination, CBTT can provide direct specifications for how different types of cultural betrayal and other sociocultural dynamics can be incorporated into mental health interventions for diverse immigrant and minority victims of violence.

In CBTT (e.g., [29]), there are several assumptions about sociocultural contributors of violence outcomes. Though we found some evidence for cultural betrayal by examining within-group sexual violence in a diverse sample, CBTT indicates that harm from cultural betrayal trauma occurs within the context of lowered status (e.g., effects of discrimination) that is in itself harmful. Our findings that minority status predicted depression and other forms of distress lends credence to this supposition. Thus, future studies should utilize quantitative and qualitative methods to examine perceptions of societal trauma and (intra)cultural pressure. Finally, the focus of the current study was on psychological and behavioral outcomes. Future studies should expand the scope of outcomes to include physical health outcomes, as well as those outcomes that particularly may be affected by cultural betrayal, such as reduced disclosure (e.g., [56]), resistance to engage with the police following within-group violence (e.g., [16], as reported by Fisher et al. [18], Gómez [26]), and internalized prejudice [28].

New Contribution to the Literature

In an effort to advance the field, there have been numerous calls for the meaningful incorporation of cultural minorities, aspects of the sociocultural context, and cultural values/norms to be included in the study of trauma-related outcomes [5, 6, 10, 11, 19, 20, 26–29, 34, 37, 38, 42, 48, 52]. However, the extant literature in this area remains relatively sparse. Empirical research that predominantly informs what is known of violence victimization outcomes and treatment is based primarily on White American women, without reference to the context in which the trauma occurs [58]. Thus,

Table 5 Cultural betrayal trauma theory (CBTT): frequently asked questions

Question	Answer
Does CBTT treat all minorities as if they are the same?	No. With CBTT, both within-group differences and between-group differences can be systematically examined
Does CBTT propose that there is more violence within minority groups?	No. CBTT says nothing about prevalence of trauma, as within-group violence occurs across majority and minority groups
Does CBTT assume that between-group violence—particularly with majority perpetrators and minority victims—is not harmful?	No. CBTT focuses on one facet of trauma (within-group) and does not speak to other forms of trauma (between-group) that themselves may be uniquely harmful in their own way
Does CBTT ignore all the other harmful aspects of trauma (e.g., severity, high betrayal)?	No. CBTT highlights cultural betrayal as a specific contributing factor of trauma sequelae, but also includes characteristics of trauma, interpersonal betrayal, institutional betrayal, judicial betrayal, and other factors
Does CBTT presume that perpetrators of cultural betrayal trauma are actively trying to betray?	No. Similar to BTT (e.g., [21]), the intent of perpetrators is distinct from the betrayal implicit in within-group violence in minority populations
Does CBTT ignore the complexity of identity?	No. CBTT is informed by intersectionality (e.g., [13]) and multiplicity [36]. There are multiple types of cultural betrayal that a single individual could experience (e.g., ethno-cultural betrayal; gender cultural betrayal)
Do victims of trauma need to explicitly feel cultural betrayal for it to count as such?	No. However, future research should explore if outcomes vary based on individuals' perceptions of cultural betrayal in the trauma
Isn't CBTT a cultural betrayal in and of itself, as it highlights trauma, violence, and abuse that occurs within minority groups?	No. The ultimate determinant of cultural betrayal is societal trauma, which promotes silence in order to protect the in-group. The next responsible party are perpetrators for violating (intra)cultural trust. Disclosing and/or discussing cultural betrayal trauma is not a cultural betrayal

© Jennifer M. Gómez [28], *reprinted with permission*

the current study has implications that can contribute to this literature.

Theoretically, CBTT (e.g., [29]) provides a nuanced, contextualized framework for understanding sociocultural contributors to violence outcomes for immigrant and minority populations. This theoretical basis can provide concepts and language for understanding the meaning-making of violence and the differential outcomes for some members of cultural minorities, while being sensitive to within-group differences, stereotyping, and oppression (Table 5). Additionally, a fundamental goal of theories is to engender research. Thus, the value of theories lies not only in their veracity, which data will refine over time, but also in their ability to foment inquiry of particular phenomena. Specifically, CBTT (e.g., [29]) aids in the ability to do the needed contextualized and culturally relevant research on cultural minorities [25]. This research can examine multiple facets unique to violence victimization mental and physical health outcomes for cultural minorities specifically, including: similarities across cultural minority groups that are a function of societal trauma generally; between group differences related to type of societal trauma experienced and cultural values endorsed; and within-group differences between individuals who are societally conceptualized as members of the same group(s).

The current study demonstrates that posttraumatic distress from the same experience—within-group sexual

violence—is affected by minority status. Therefore, this study is in line with many others that have discussed the importance of clinical interventions being both culturally adapted and culturally sensitive to minorities [9, 45–47]. Furthermore, given that CBTT suggests that societal trauma is implicated in interpersonal violence outcomes, psychotherapeutic approaches to healing should further be sensitive to sociocultural dynamics [33], including cultural betrayal. This is particularly important in these clinical settings, as mental healthcare institutionally has a potential for further harm through discrimination [27]. Finally, as future work builds upon the evidence base begun in the current study, implications for policy on mental and physical health disparities can include prioritizing government funding to address the primary cause of cultural betrayal in trauma: societal inequality.

References

1. BentGoodley TB. Eradicating domestic violence in the African American community: a literature review and action agenda. *Trauma Violence Abuse* 2001;2:316–30.
2. Briere J. Psychometric review of the Trauma Symptom Checklist-40. In: Stamm BH, editor. *Measurement of stress, trauma, and adaptation*. Lutherville: Sidran Press; 1996.

3. Briere J, Scott C. Principles of trauma therapy: A guide to symptoms, evaluation, and treatment. Thousand Oaks: Sage; 2006.
4. Brown L. Cultural competence in trauma therapy: Beyond the flashback. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association; 2008.
5. Bryant-Davis T. Thriving in the wake of trauma: a multicultural guide. Westport: Praeger Publishers; 2005.
6. Bryant-Davis T. Cultural considerations of trauma: physical, mental and social correlates of intimate partner violence exposure. *Psychol Trauma Theor Res Pract Policy*. 2010;2(4):263–5.
7. Bryant-Davis T, Ocampo C. Racist incident–based trauma. *Couns Psychol* 2005;33(4):479–500.
8. Bryant-Davis T, Chung H, Tillman S, Belcourt A. From the margins to the center: ethnic minority women and the mental health effects of sexual assault. *Trauma Violence Abuse*. 2009;10:330–57.
9. Bryant-Davis T, Ullman SE, Tsong Y, Tillman S, Smith K. Struggling to survive: sexual assault, poverty, and mental health outcomes of African American women. *Am J Orthopsychiatry*. 2010;80:61–70.
10. Christopher M. A broader view of trauma: A biopsychosocial-evolutionary view of the role of the traumatic stress response in the emergence of pathology and/or growth. *Clin Psychol Rev*. 2004;24:75–98.
11. Cohen J, Deblinger E, Mannarino A, de Arellano M. The importance of culture in treating abused and neglected children: an empirical review. *Child Maltreatment*. 2001;6:148–57.
12. Crenshaw K. Demarginalizing the intersection of race and sex: a Black feminist critique of antidiscrimination doctrine, feminist theory and antiracist politics. *University of Chicago Legal Forum*. 1989;140:139–67.
13. Crenshaw K. Mapping the margins: intersectionality, identity politics, and violence against women of color. *Stanford Law Rev*. 1991;43:1241–99.
14. DePrince AP, Brown LS, Cheit RE, Freyd JJ, Gold SN, Pezdek K, Quinta K. Motivated forgetting and misremember: perspectives from betrayal trauma theory. In: Belli RF, editor. True and false recovered memories: toward a reconciliation of the debate. Nebraska symposium on motivation (193–242). New York: Springer Science + Business Media, xii; 2012.
15. DePrince AP, Freyd JJ. The harm of trauma: Pathological fear, shattered assumptions, or betrayal. In: Kauffman J, editor. Loss of the assumptive world: a theory of traumatic loss. New York: Brunner-Routledge; 2002. pp. 71–82.
16. Dukes RL, Mattley CL. Predicting rape victim reportage. *Sociology Soc Res*. 1977;62:63–84.
17. Elliott DM, Briere J. Sexual abuse trauma among professional women: validating the Trauma Symptom Checklist-40 (TSC-40). *Child Abuse Neglect*. 1992;16:391–8.
18. Fisher BS, Daigle LE, Cullen FT, Turner MG. Reporting sexual victimization to the police and others: results from a national-level study of college women. *Crim Justice Behavior*. 2003;30:6–38.
19. Ford JD, Gómez JM. Self injury & suicidality: The impact of trauma and dissociation. *J Trauma Dissociation*. 2015;6:225–31.
20. Ford JD, Gómez JM. The relationship of psychological trauma, and dissociative and posttraumatic stress disorders to non-suicidal self-injury and suicidality: a review. *J Trauma Dissociation*. 2015;6:225–31.
21. Freyd JJ. Betrayal trauma: the logic of forgetting childhood abuse. Harvard University Press; 1996.
22. Freyd JJ. Violations of power, adaptive blindness and betrayal trauma theory. *Feminism Psychology*. 1997;7:22–32.
23. Goldberg LR, Freyd JJ. Self-reports of potentially traumatic experiences in an adult community sample: gender differences and test-retest stabilities of the items in a Brief Betrayal-Trauma Survey. *J Trauma Dissociation*. 2006;7:39–63.
24. Goldsmith RE, Freyd JJ, DePrince AP. Betrayal trauma: associations with psychological and physical symptoms in young adults. *J Interpers Violence*. 2012;27:547–67.
25. Gómez JM. Ebony in the ivory tower: Dismantling the stronghold of racial inequality from the inside out. In: Fasching-Varner KJ, Reynolds R, Albert K, Martin L, editors. Trayvon martin, race, and american justice: writing wrong. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers; 2014. pp. 113–7.
26. Gómez JM. Conceptualizing trauma: in pursuit of culturally relevant research. *Trauma Psychology Newsletter (American Psychological Association Division 56)*. 2015;10:40–4.
27. Gómez JM. Microaggressions and the enduring mental health disparity: Black Americans at risk for institutional betrayal. *J Black Psychol*. 2015;41:121–43.
28. Gómez JM. Cultural betrayal trauma theory [Dissertation]. Retrieved from <http://dynamic.uoregon.edu/jjf/theses/gomez16.pdf> 2016.
29. Gómez JM. Does ethno-cultural betrayal in trauma affect Asian American/Pacific Islander college students' mental health outcomes? An exploratory study. Advanced online publication. *J Am Coll Health*. 2017. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07448481.2017.1341896>.
30. Gómez JM, Freyd JJ. High betrayal child sexual abuse and hallucinations: a test of an indirect effect of dissociation. *J Child Sex Abuse*. 2017;26:507–18. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10538712.2017.1310776>.
31. Gómez JM, Becker-Blease K, Freyd JJ. A brief report on predicting self-harm: is it gender or abuse that matters? *J Aggress Maltreatment Trauma*. 2015;24:203–14.
32. Gómez JM, Kaehler LA, Freyd JJ. Are hallucinations related to betrayal trauma exposure? A three-study exploration. *Psychol Trauma*. 2014;6:675–82.
33. Gómez JM, Lewis JK, Noll LK, Smidt AM, Birrell PJ. Shifting the focus: nonpathologizing approaches to healing from betrayal trauma through an emphasis on relational care. *J Trauma Dissociation*. 2016;17:165–85.
34. Gómez JM, Rosenthal MN, Smith CP, Freyd JJ. Participant reactions to questions about gender-based sexual violence: Implications for campus climate surveys. *eJournal Public Aff* 2015;4:39–71.
35. Gómez JM, Smith CP, Freyd JJ. Zwischenmenschlicher und institutioneller Verrat [Interpersonal and institutional betrayal]. In: Vogt RR, editor. Verleumdung und Verrat: Dissoziative Störungen bei schwer traumatisierten Menschen als Folge von Vertrauensbrüchen. Roland: Asanger Verlag; 2014. pp. 82–90.
36. Hames-García MR. Identity complex: making the case for multiplicity. U of Minnesota Press; 2011.
37. Harvey MR. Towards an ecological understanding of resilience in trauma survivors: implications for theory, research, and practice. *J Aggress Maltreatment Trauma*. 2007;14:9–32.
38. Harvey MR, Tummalanarra P. Sources and expression of resilience in trauma survivors: ecological theory, multicultural perspectives. *J Aggress Maltreatment Trauma*. 2007;14:1–7.
39. Karpel MG, Jerram MW. Levels of dissociation and nonsuicidal self-injury: a quartile risk model. *J Trauma Dissociation*. 2015 16(3):303–21
40. Kelley LP, Weathers FW, Mason EA, Pruneau GM. Association of life threat and betrayal with posttraumatic stress disorder symptom severity. *J Trauma Stress*. 2012;25:408–15.
41. Klest B, Freyd JJ, Foyes MM. Trauma exposure and posttraumatic symptoms in Hawaii: gender, ethnicity, and social context. *Psychol Trauma Theor Res Pract Policy*. 2013;5(5):409–16. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0029336>.
42. Korbin JE. Culture and child maltreatment: Cultural competence and beyond. *Child Abuse Neglect*. 2002;26:637–44.

43. Koss MP, Gidycz CA. Sexual experiences survey: reliability and validity. *J Consult Clin Psychol*. 1985;53:422.
44. Koss MP, Oros CJ. Sexual experiences survey: a research instrument investigating sexual aggression and victimization. *J Consult Clin Psychol*. 1982;50:455–7.
45. Lindquist CH, Barrick K, Krebs C, Crosby CM, Lockard AJ, Sanders-Phillips K. The context and consequences of sexual assault among undergraduate women at historically Black colleges and universities (HBCUs). *J Interpers Violence*. 2013;28:2437–61.
46. Littleton HL, Grills-Taquechel AE, Buck KS, Rosman L, Dodd JC. Health risk behavior and sexual assault among ethnically diverse women. *Psychol Women Q*. 2013;37:7–21.
47. Littleton H, Ullman SE. PTSD symptomatology and hazardous drinking as risk factors for sexual assault revictimization: Examination in European American and African American women. *J Trauma Stress*. 2013;26:345–53.
48. Long LM, Ullman SE, Starzynski LL, Long SM, Mason GE. Age and educational differences in African American women's sexual assault experiences. *Feminist Criminol*. 2007;2:117–36.
49. Misra R, McKean M. College students' academic stress and its relation to their anxiety, time management, and leisure satisfaction. *Am J Health Stud*. 2000;16(1):41.
50. National Center for Victims of Crime: National Center for Victims of Crime: Crime Information & Statistics. Retrieved from: <http://victimsofcrime.org/library/crime-information-and-statistics>; n.d.
51. National Coalition Against Domestic Violence: National Coalition Against Domestic Violence: Facts about Domestic Violence and Psychological Abuse. Retrieved from <https://ncadv.org/files/Domestic%20Violence%20and%20Psychological%20Abuse%20NCADV.pdf>; n.d.
52. Pole NE, Triffleman EE. Introduction to the special issue on trauma and ethnoracial diversity. *Psychol Trauma*. 2010;2:1–3.
53. Porter J, McQuiller Williams L. Intimate violence among under-represented groups on a college campus. *J Interpers Violence*. 2011;26:3210–24.
54. Rape Abuse, and Incest National Network: Rape, Abuse, and Incest National Network: Statistics. Retrieved from: <https://www.rainn.org/statistics>; n.d.
55. Sheer MD, Nixon R. Trump's travel ban to be replaced by restrictions tailored to certain countries. *New York Times* 2017. Retrieved from <https://www.nytimes.com/2017/09/22/us/politics/trump-travel-ban-replacement-restrictions.html>.
56. Tillman S, Bryant-Davis T, Smith K, Marks A. Shattering silence: exploring barriers to disclosure for African American sexual assault survivors. *Trauma Violence Abuse* 2010;11:59–70.
57. Trimble JE. Ethnic gloss. In: Fisher CB, Lerner RM, editors. *Encyclopedia of applied developmental science*. Vol. 1. Thousand Oaks: Sage; 2005. pp. 412–5.
58. Tyagi SV. Incest and women of color: a study of experiences and disclosure. *J Child Sex Abuse*. 2002;10:17–39.