

The Impact of Asian Values and Victim–Perpetrator Closeness on the Disclosure of Emotional, Physical, and Sexual Abuse

Melissa Ming Foynes
VA Boston Healthcare System, Boston, Massachusetts

Melissa Platt, Gordon C. N. Hall,
and Jennifer J. Freyd
University of Oregon

Prior research indicates that survivors of abuse characterized by very close victim–perpetrator relationships (VC traumas) are significantly more likely to delay disclosure for 1 or more years, or never to disclose, than survivors of abuse characterized by not very close victim–perpetrator relationships (NVC traumas) (M. M. Foynes, J. J. Freyd, & A. P. Deprince, 2009, *Child Abuse & Neglect*, 33, 209–217). Nondisclosure of abuse may serve a protective function in that it allows for the maintenance of a necessary, albeit abusive, relationship. This dynamic may be particularly relevant for people who adhere strongly to Asian cultural values of interdependence and may be differentially applicable to disclosure of physical, sexual, and emotional abuse. An online study was conducted with Asian Americans (AAs) and European Americans (EAs; $N = 266$) to test the hypothesis that Asian values, rather than ethnic group membership, would be associated with decreased disclosure of VC abuse, but not affect disclosure of NVC abuse. The impact of Asian values was expected to be the strongest for disclosure of VC sexual abuse. A series of backward stepwise logistic regressions revealed that Asian values, but not ethnicity, were significantly associated with nondisclosure of VC sexual and emotional abuse, but not VC physical abuse. Neither ethnicity nor Asian values was associated with disclosure of any type of NVC abuse. Female gender increased the odds of VC abuse disclosure only. By examining the impact of cultural values on disclosure of particular abuse types and uncovering the limitations of attending to ethnicity alone, we hope to inform efforts toward facilitating recovery from trauma and creating more supportive environments for survivors.

Keywords: emotional abuse, physical abuse, sexual abuse, disclosure, Asian values

Prior research indicates that survivors of abuse characterized by very close victim–perpetrator relationships (VC events) are significantly more likely to delay disclosure for 1 or more years, or never to disclose, than survivors of abuse characterized by not very close victim–perpetrator relationships (NVC events) (Foynes, Freyd, & Deprince, 2009). Nondisclosure may serve a protective function by allowing survivors to continue depending on perpetrators, and/or to remain relatively emotionally or physically safe from potential escalation of abuse. However, without disclosure, the abuse may continue for longer and the survivor may not receive treatment. This dynamic may be particularly relevant for

people who adhere strongly to traditional Asian values (AV) of interdependence.

Despite the possibility that AV play a role in disclosure of abuse, no studies to date have examined the relationship between AV and disclosure. Moreover, few studies have systematically examined disclosure of abuse in ethnically diverse samples that have included either Asians (Yoshioka, Gilbert, El-Bassel, & Baig-Amin, 2003) or Asian Americans (AAs) (Rao, DiClemente, & Ponton, 1992; Ullman & Filipas, 2005). In addition, to our knowledge, no studies including Asians or AAs have examined disclosure of more than one type of abuse within the same study. This is characteristic of the majority of the literature on disclosure of abuse in non-AA populations, with only one known study examining disclosure of different abuse types (Foynes et al., 2009). Therefore, the main aim of the present study was to identify whether degree of adherence to AV, rather than ethnic group membership, would differentially affect disclosure of VC and NVC physical, sexual, and emotional abuse in a sample of both AAs and European Americans (EAs).

Prior Research on AAs and Disclosure of Abuse

According to U.S. Census data from 2010, the population of people with Asian ancestry and mixed ethnic backgrounds that include Asian ancestry, both grew from 2000 until 2010 at a rate that surpassed any other racial group (Hoeffel, Rastogi, Kim, & Shahid, 2010). Yet, few studies on abuse disclosure focus on AAs. In one of the only studies to date examining disclosure in ethnic

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Melissa Ming Foynes, Psychology and National Center for PTSD, Women's Health Sciences Division, VA Boston Healthcare System, Boston, Massachusetts; Melissa Platt, Gordon C. N. Hall, and Jennifer J. Freyd, Department of Psychology, University of Oregon.

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Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Melissa Ming Foynes, VA Boston Healthcare System (116B), 150 South Huntington Ave, Boston, MA 02130. E-mail: melissa.foynes2@va.gov

minority groups that included AA participants, AAs reported more negative reactions to disclosure of childhood sexual abuse (CSA) than all other groups (Ullman & Filipas, 2005). Interestingly, the reported rates of CSA were lowest for AAs and Hispanics, suggesting that rates of CSA could be confounded with disclosure, particularly if AAs are more likely to receive negative reactions to disclosure. Other researchers have also suggested that lower rates of abuse in AAs may be partially attributable to underreporting (Zhai & Gao, 2009). These possibilities underscore the importance of understanding the nature of disclosure of abuse in AA groups.

AV and Disclosure of Abuse

Due to wide variation in adherence to AV (Abe-Kim, Okazaki, & Goto, 2001), it was predicted that AV, rather than ethnic group membership, would influence abuse disclosure and disclosure-related processes. Despite this possibility, the majority of existing research examining abuse disclosure and barriers to disclosure in ethnic minority samples tends to examine ethnic group membership exclusively (e.g., Glover et al., 2010; Long, Ullman, Starzynski, Long, & Mason, 2007; Ullman & Filipas, 2005; Washington, 2001), rather than other correlates of abuse disclosure such as acculturation or cultural values. As mentioned previously, very few include AA samples. The only study to our knowledge that has examined the impact of a cultural variable other than ethnic group membership on abuse disclosure focused on acculturation, defined as number of years in the United States (Yoshioka et al., 2003). However, this and other operationalizations of acculturation have been criticized for not capturing values-based components central to acculturative processes (e.g., Kim, Atkinson, & Yang, 1999).

Although some researchers have hypothesized that AV may decrease likelihood of abuse disclosure (e.g., Futa, Hsu, & Hansen, 2001; Zhai & Gao, 2009), to our knowledge, this has not been directly investigated empirically. However, some findings (e.g., Allard, 2009; Tang, 2009) have pointed toward the important impact of AV on disclosure of abuse, highlighting the need for more direct examinations of these constructs. For instance, Tang (2009) found that concerns with face loss had a significant direct impact on symptoms of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) after accounting for the role of trauma, such that higher concerns with face loss were associated with increased symptoms of PTSD. Since concerns with face loss did not moderate the relationship between trauma and PTSD symptoms, it was hypothesized that an association between increased concerns with face loss and increased hesitancy to disclose both trauma and PTSD symptoms may have contributed to this finding (Tang, 2009). In addition, while Allard (2009) found that endorsement of interdependence-based cultural values did not moderate the betrayal effect found for psychological symptoms and memory disruption, it was suggested that strong adherence to AV may have had an impact on low estimated rates of participation and comfort with disclosure in that study.

For survivors who strongly adhere to traditional AV of interdependence (e.g., maintenance of interpersonal harmony, preservation of the group's moral reputation and social integrity) (Kim et al., 1999; Sue & Sue, 2013; Zane & Mak, 2003), the impact of victim–perpetrator closeness on disclosure may be particularly salient, especially if such values carry the expectation that others will not act in ways that jeopardize interpersonal harmony (Allard, 2009). Specifically, in the case of VC abuse, the risk of disrupting

group harmony and losing important relationships if the abuse were revealed may decrease the likelihood of disclosure. When a perpetrator is a stranger or acquaintance, however, disclosure is less likely to carry the same degree of risk. Therefore, we predicted that AV would have a stronger influence on disclosure of VC than NVC abuse.

Since AV promote preservation of social integrity over attainment of individual goals (Sue & Sue, 2013) a person may be expected to handle a traumatic experience without disclosure if disclosure would reflect negatively on the group or result in the loss of an important social relationship. Some specific AV that may decrease likelihood of disclosure include “face,” belief in an interdependent self, and emotional suppression (see Futa et al., 2001 and Zhai & Gao, 2009 for other possibilities). *Face* is a composite of the moral reputation and social integrity accorded to a group or an individual based on fulfillment of prescribed social roles, norms, and expectations (Zane & Mak, 2003). Since individuals are viewed as representatives of the collective unit, non-disclosure may prevent loss of face (Liao, Rounds, & Klein, 2005; Sue, Zane, & Young, 1994). An interdependent sense of self involves regarding personal attributes as secondary to those of the group (Kito, 2005) and extending one's sense of responsibility beyond immediate family. This may involve prioritizing others' potential reactions to their disclosure over personal consequences and internal experiences. Disclosure could also be seen as counter to an ideal of emotional suppression, which is valued as an indication of strength and self-control (Hwang, Wood, Lin, & Cheung, 2006), particularly when it is used to enhance relationships (Butler, Lee, & Gross, 2007).

Although we are not aware of any empirical work addressing the differential impact of AV on disclosure of various abuse types, there is reason to believe that such differences exist. For instance, in contrast to lower reported rates of sexual abuse in AAs compared to other ethnic groups (e.g., Rao et al., 1992; Ullman & Filipas, 2005), it has been suggested that AAs may be more accepting of physical punishment compared to non-Hispanic Whites (e.g., Hong & Hong, 1991). Specifically, for Asian parents, “physical punishment is often considered an expression of concern and care that should be tolerated and even appreciated by children” (Zhai & Gao, 2009, p. 215). However, findings regarding the acceptance of physical punishment have been found to vary according to acculturative stress and AV (Lau, 2010). While to the best of our knowledge no empirical work exists examining the impact of AV on disclosure of emotional abuse in AAs, the handful of studies that have examined rates of emotional abuse within Asian populations (e.g., Allard, 2009; Jirapramukpitak, Prince, & Harpham, 2005; Meston, Heiman, Trapnell, & Carlin, 1999), suggest that rates of disclosure are consistently higher than for physical and sexual abuse. Thus, in light of these findings, we predicted that the effects of AV on disclosure would be the strongest for sexual abuse.

Current Study

The purpose of the current study was to determine how adherence to AV (operationalized by endorsement of items on the Asian Values Scale—Revised) influenced abuse disclosure in both AAs and EAs. Our primary hypothesis was that AV, rather than ethnic group membership, would relate to disclosure of abuse. Specifi-

cally, we predicted that greater adherence to AV would relate to decreased likelihood of disclosure of VC, but not NVC abuse. While we expected AV to decrease odds of disclosure of all forms of VC abuse, we predicted that sexual abuse disclosure would be most strongly associated with AV compared to physical and emotional abuse disclosure. Our focus on the associations between AV, the closeness of the victim-perpetrator relationship, and disclosure of multiple abuse types in both AAs and EAs, addresses several gaps in a currently limited research area.

Method

Participant Recruitment and Study Procedure

Prior to data collection, approval was granted by the University's Institutional Review Board. Participants were required to be at least 18 years of age, identify as either AA or EA and be able to read and understand English. Participants were recruited from Craigslist in U.S. cities with a high proportion of AAs (e.g., New York City, Los Angeles, San Francisco, San Diego, Honolulu, Chicago, Seattle) via online postings. However, the postings were public and therefore participants in other U.S. cities could have participated.

Recruitment materials stated that AA and EA individuals were invited to participate in an online study seeking to improve understanding of factors that affect AA mental health and the first 100 EAs and AAs would receive compensation in the form of a \$10 electronic gift certificate. The next 50 participants from each group were eligible to enter a raffle for one of two \$25 gift certificates. In order to receive payment or to be entered into the raffle, participants were informed that they would be asked to provide an e-mail address that would not be linked to the data. They were reminded that providing this information was not a requirement and participation without expectation of payment was possible if anonymity was preferred.

Recruitment materials directed potential participants to a website for study completion. After giving informed consent, participants were asked demographic questions in order to ensure they

met the eligibility criteria. If they were eligible and agreed to participate, measures regarding cultural values and trauma history (see "Measures" section below) were administered in a randomized order, after which all participants underwent an online debriefing. If they were not eligible, they were directed to a web page thanking them for their interest and informing them that they were not eligible for monetary compensation based on participation criteria but could still participate on a volunteer basis if they chose. In order to protect against participants completing the survey multiple times, the survey program was structured so that it could not be completed more than once from the same IP address. If participants attempted to do so, they were directed to a web page informing them that they were not eligible for participation.

Participant Characteristics

The majority of the sample ($n = 196$) identified as female (74%). Approximately 58% ($n = 159$) of the participants identified as AA and 42% as EA. Ages ranged from 18 to 68, ($M = 29.55$, $SD = 9.75$) and approximately 75% reported receiving at least a 4-year college degree. Of participants identifying as Asian American, 44% identified as Chinese American, 12% Filipino, 11% Japanese, 10% Korean, 8% Indian, 5% Vietnamese, and 11% other. Approximately 11% reported currently receiving mental health treatment. See Table 1 for demographic differences between AAs and EAs.

Measures

Asian Values Scale-Revised. (AVS-R; Kim & Hong, 2004). The AVS-R is a 25-item self-report measure derived from the original 36-item AVS (Kim et al., 1999) using the Rasch model. The AVS-R assesses adherence to values of conformity to norms, family recognition through achievement, emotional self-control, collectivism, humility, and filial piety. Items are rated using a 4-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 4 (*strongly agree*). The AVS-R correlates strongly with the original AVS (Pearson correlation coefficient = .93, $p < .01$), and has

Table 1
Gender, Age, Foreign-Born Status, AVS Score, and Abuse Exposure by Ethnicity

	AA	EA	Total
Demographic characteristics			
Male	42 (26%)	28 (25%)	70
Female	112 (70%)	84 (74%)	196
Other gender	5 (3%)	2 (2%)	7
Age: M (SD)*	27.60 (7.67)	32.27 (11.57)	266
Foreign-born*	40 (25%)	13 (11%)	53
AVS score: M (SD)*	59.84 (9.19)	54.03 (10.97)	266
VC and NVC abuse exposure			
Male	29 (69%)	19 (68%)	48
Female	76 (68%)	62 (74%)	138
Physical	30 (19%)	23 (20%)	53
Sexual	27 (17%)	31 (27%)	58
Emotional	33 (21%)	35 (31%)	68

Note. Main effects were tested for age, foreign-born status, and AVS score only. The VC and NVC abuse exposure category included people who experienced VC abuse only, NVC abuse only, and both VC and NVC abuse.

* $p < .05$.

demonstrated adequate reliability (person separation reliability = .80; Kim & Hong, 2004). As recommended by Kim et al. (1999), participants' total scores on this measure were used in statistical analyses. Cronbach's alphas in the current study were adequate for both EAs and AAs ($\alpha = .86$ and $\alpha = .80$, respectively).

Betrayal Trauma Inventory. (BTI; Freyd, DePrince, & Zurbriegen, 2001). Experiences of interpersonal trauma were assessed using a shortened version of the BTI (see Freyd et al., 2001). The original BTI was adapted from an existing, well-validated measure. The BTI assesses physical, emotional, and sexual abuse characterized by VC and NVC victim–perpetrator relationships using behavioral terms. The version used in this study included six items assessing traumas with minimal betrayal (e.g., major natural disaster, auto accident, witnessing violence perpetrated against a close other, witnessing violence perpetrated against someone not close, witnessing a close other attack a family member, witnessing a not close other attack a family member), three items assessing traumas with low betrayal (physical, emotional and sexual abuse perpetrated by NVC others), and three items assessing traumas with high betrayal (physical, emotional and sexual abuse perpetrated by VC others). For each item, participants were asked to rate whether they experienced that event before the age of 18 as well as after the age of 18.

Following each endorsement of a traumatic experience, participants were asked to answer questions related to disclosure of the experience, perpetrator characteristics, and whether others found out about the trauma in a way other than the participant's disclosure. If participants endorsed multiple perpetrators or incidents within a particular trauma type, they were asked to select the "most significant or distressing event(s)" in that category and answer the remaining questions with respect to that selection.

The BTI has been used in several other studies (e.g., Becker-Blease, Freyd, & Friend, 2005; Freyd et al., 2001; Freyd, Klest, & Allard, 2005), and adheres to recommendations of screening for multiple types of trauma and multiple events within those types (DePrince, 2001; Green et al., 2000).

Statistical Analyses

Using a series of regressions, we tested the main hypothesis that AV would decrease the likelihood of disclosure of VC, but not NVC abuse. Disclosure of each of the six abuse types (sexual, physical, and emotional abuse by a VC or NVC other) was dichotomously coded (i.e., disclosure and nondisclosure). For each of the six logistic regressions, only the participants who endorsed

having experienced that trauma type were included. Using a backward stepwise approach to obtain the most parsimonious models, we predicted that compared to AV, ethnicity would account for less of the variance in disclosure and would therefore be removed first in each of the six regressions. Ethnicity (dichotomously coded) and AV were entered as predictors, and the predictor explaining the smallest amount of variance (which was, in fact, ethnicity in all six cases) was eliminated in a second step. Disclosure of the particular trauma type was entered as the outcome variable for each of the six regressions.

Results

In all analyses excluding gender, the seven participants not identifying as male or female were included in the data. Gender analyses included only male and female participants. The majority of participants reported that they had experienced at least one type of traumatic event. See Table 2 for rates of physical, sexual, and emotional VC and NVC abuse by ethnicity and gender. Exploratory bivariate relationships revealed significant associations between AV scores and ethnicity ($r = .28$, $p < .001$), gender (excluding participants not identifying as male or female) ($r = .22$, $p < .01$), and age ($r = .19$, $p < .01$). AV were higher for AAs ($M = 59.84$, $SD = 9.19$) compared to EAs ($M = 54.03$, $SD = 10.97$), $t(271) = 4.75$, $p < .001$, males ($M = 61.63$, $SD = 8.15$) compared to females ($M = 56.30$, $SD = 11.10$), $t(291) = 3.89$, $p < .001$, and younger people compared to older people ($r = .19$, $p < .01$). No additional demographic variables were associated with AV. Independent samples t tests were conducted to assess significant ethnic differences in endorsements of individual items on the AVS. Significant differences were found for 13 of the 25 items (all $ps < .05$), with AAs endorsing stronger AV. Effect sizes were moderate for four of these items (Cohen's $d = .4-.5$), and small for the remainder. There was no difference in AV between U.S.-born and foreign-born participants, and no difference in AV according to Asian subgroupings, $F(6, 172) = 2.25$, ns .

In order to determine whether to include demographic variables in model testing, omnibus regressions were run for VC and NVC abuse with age, education, foreign-born status, and gender as predictors of disclosure. Gender was the only variable significantly predicting disclosure of VC abuse with females disclosing more than males ($\beta = .35$, $p = .001$). No demographic variables predicted NVC abuse disclosure.

Table 2
Abuse Type and Victim–Perpetrator Closeness

	Male	Female	Total	AA	EA	Total
VC Physical	5 (7%)	37 (19%)	42 (16%)	25 (16%)	17 (15%)	42 (16%)
VC Sexual	5 (7%)	32 (16%)	37 (14%)	14 (9%)	23 (20%)	37 (14%)
VC Emotional	12 (17%)	55 (28%)	67 (26%)	33 (21%)	34 (27%)	67 (25%)
At least one VC event	15 (26%)	35 (40%)	50 (19%)	29 (34%)	21 (40%)	50 (19%)
NVC Physical	8 (11%)	9 (5%)	17 (7%)	5 (3%)	12 (11%)	17 (6%)
NVC Sexual	3 (4%)	30 (15%)	34 (13%)	19 (12%)	16 (14%)	35 (13%)
NVC Emotional	0 (0%)	14 (7%)	14 (5%)	7 (4%)	7 (6%)	14 (5%)
At least one NVC event	9 (15%)	28 (22%)	37 (14%)	18 (17%)	19 (25%)	37 (14%)

Note. Discrepancies between the two total columns result from the inclusion of participants not identifying as male or female in the AA/EA cells.

Hypothesis Testing

The main hypothesis was partially supported. Logistic regression results revealed that AV were associated with decreased odds of disclosure for VC sexual and emotional, but not VC physical abuse (see Table 3). Due to space constraints, only the final models excluding ethnicity are presented here. For VC sexual abuse, for every one point increase on the AV Scale, likelihood of disclosure decreased by nine percent ($\beta = -.09, p < .05$). For VC emotional abuse, for every one point increase in AV, odds of disclosure decreased by seven percent ($\beta = -.07, p < .05$). AV did not relate to disclosure of any of the NVC abuse types (see Table 4). Ethnicity did not relate to disclosure of any of the six abuse types.

Given that gender significantly predicted VC abuse disclosure in the omnibus regression, backward stepwise regressions were run for overall disclosure of VC and NVC abuse with gender, ethnicity, and AV as predictors. Due to sample size limitations, it was not possible to test the contribution of gender to each of the six abuse type models. Results revealed that being female substantially increased the odds of disclosure of VC, but not NVC abuse (see Table 5). In the models with gender, AV remained predictive of VC abuse disclosure and ethnicity remained nonsignificant.

Discussion

The findings in the present study suggest that AV play a role in disclosure of abuse characterized by VC victim–perpetrator relationships. However, results also suggest that even among VC events, there is variation in whether or not AV may influence disclosure of different abuse types. Specifically, AV were associated with lower odds of disclosure of emotional and sexual abuse, but not physical abuse. Ethnicity was not associated with disclosure for any abuse type and AV were not associated with disclosure of NVC abuse. Gender significantly predicted VC abuse disclosure, with females demonstrating higher odds of disclosure. No other demographic variables predicted VC abuse disclosure and none predicted NVC abuse disclosure.

The finding that cultural values may be more relevant to disclosure of VC than NVC abuse may be attributable to the greater salience of AV in events that involve higher levels of betrayal by

a perpetrator that is trusted, cared for, and/or depended upon. In the case of VC abuse, disclosure may not only result in the loss of that important (albeit abusive) attachment relationship, but may also lead to negative effects such as disruption of group harmony, loss of face, and withdrawal of support. Thus, people who adhere strongly to AV may be more hesitant to disclose VC as compared to NVC abuse because of these risks and more motivated not to disclose as a way of protecting and preserving relationships and social integrity. These dynamics may be less pertinent to NVC events because disclosure of abuse perpetrated by someone upon whom the survivor is less dependent emotionally or physically may be less likely to reflect negatively upon the group and disrupt interpersonal harmony.

We expected AV to decrease odds of disclosure of all forms of VC abuse, but we predicted that the strongest effects would be observed for sexual abuse. Findings were partially supportive of this hypothesis. Although prior research has indicated that AAs may be more accepting of physical punishment compared to EAs (Hong & Hong, 1991), we did not expect the relationship between AV and disclosure of VC physical abuse to be nonsignificant given that AA acceptance of physical punishment has been found to be moderated by acculturative stress and AV (Lau, 2010). Replication of these findings will help strengthen the evidence that disclosure of VC physical abuse may be less affected by AV than sexual and emotional abuse.

Although it has been suggested that the power differential between men and women often present in Asian culture may make disclosure of abuse more difficult for women compared to men, particularly when the perpetrator is male and/or a family member, we found the opposite in our study. After accounting for the impact of AV, being female increased odds of disclosure, but only for VC abuse. It is important that this finding be replicated before strong conclusions are drawn, particularly given the small sample of men endorsing VC and NVC abuse compared to women. Nonetheless, this finding suggests that it is important to take gender, and possibly gender-linked values, into account when examining the effect of Asian values on disclosure.

Even though ethnicity was not associated with disclosure for any abuse type, these null results should be interpreted with caution considering that there is some, though minimal, evidence

Table 3
Backward Stepwise Logistic Regression Models of Disclosure of Abuse by Someone Very Close as a Function of Ethnicity and Asian Values for Each Abuse Type

Step 1	Sexual abuse $\chi^2(3, 37) = 8.03^*$				Physical abuse $\chi^2(3, 41) = 3.84$				Emotional abuse $\chi^2(3, 66) = 6.52^*$			
	B	OR	Wald	95% CI	B	OR	Wald	95% CI	B	OR	Wald	95% CI
Ethnicity	.50	.61	1.12	.24 to 1.53	.46	1.59	1.01	.65 to 3.91	.33	.72	1.10	.39 to 1.33
Asian values	-.11	.90	5.60*	.82 to .98	-.04	.96	1.29	.90 to 1.03	-.08	.93	5.00*	.87 to .99
Step 2	$\chi^2(2, 37) = 6.82^{**}$				$\chi^2(2, 41) = 2.75$				$\chi^2(2, 66) = 5.38^*$			
	B	OR	Wald	95% CI	B	OR	Wald	95% CI	B	OR	Wald	95% CI
Asian values	-.09	.91	5.17*	.85 to .99	-.05	.95	2.46	.89 to 1.01	-.07	.93	4.69*	.88 to .99

Note. CI = confidence interval.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

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Table 4

Backward Stepwise Logistic Regression Models of Disclosure of Abuse by Someone Not Very Close as a Function of Ethnicity and Asian Values for Each Abuse Type

Step 1	Sexual abuse $\chi^2(3, 38) = .81$				Physical abuse $\chi^2(3, 20) = 1.62$				Emotional abuse $\chi^2(3, 14) = .00$			
	B	OR	Wald	95% CI	B	OR	Wald	95% CI	B	OR	Wald	95% CI
Ethnicity	.04	.97	.01	.44 to 2.12	.00	.99	.00	.31 to 3.20	.00	.99	.00	31 to 3.20
Asian values	-.04	.97	.77	.44 to 2.12	.02	1.02	.12	.90 to 1.17	.00	1.00	.00	.91 to 1.10

Step 2	$\chi^2(2, 38) = .81$				$\chi^2(2, 20) = 1.50$				$\chi^2(2, 14) = .00$			
	B	OR	Wald	95% CI	B	OR	Wald	95% CI	B	OR	Wald	95% CI
Asian values	-.04	.97	.77	.89 to 1.04	.02	1.02	.12	.90 to 1.17	.00	1.00	.00	.91 to 1.10

Note. CI = confidence interval; all Table 4 results n.s.

suggesting a possible relationship between Asian American ethnicity and likelihood of abuse disclosure (e.g., Rao et al., 1992). Nonetheless, consistent with prior recommendations for research with ethnic minorities (e.g., Phinney, 1996), these findings highlight the importance of focusing on cultural values, rather than ethnic group membership alone. In fact, although AAs endorsed significantly higher AV than EAs, the mean level of AV endorsed by EAs approached that of AAs and scores were comparable in variance and range. However, there were several significant ethnic differences in individual item endorsements, suggesting that future research clarify the nature of these differences. In light of these findings, treatment providers must strive to understand how adherence to cultural values affects likelihood of disclosure and multiple levels of the recovery process (e.g., beliefs about treatment, meaning attributed to trauma), regardless of survivors' ethnicities.

Despite the important implications of these findings, most research on abuse disclosure has looked solely at the impact of ethnic group membership (e.g., Glover et al., 2010; Ullman & Filipas, 2005) and has not assessed the impact of cultural values. Such examinations are limited in that individuals vary in adherence to cultural values believed to characterize the groups to which

they belong and in the extent to which they identify as a member of those groups and attach meaning to that membership. Although this study represents an important initial step in this limited research area, additional examinations are warranted.

One limitation was our reliance on a single measure of AV. In the future, using multiple measures to assess AV and to identify how specific AV might differentially influence disclosure and disclosure-related processes is recommended. The impact of AV that were not a focus of the present study could also be examined in future research. Some possibilities include the impact of indirect communication strategies (Park & Kim, 2008), emphasis on silence and introspection (Kim, 2002), implicit support-seeking (e.g., Kim, Sherman, & Taylor, 2008), and fatalism (Ho, 1990). The impact of other constructs such as acculturation, ethnic identity, discrimination, and marginalization could also be examined.

It is possible that the small sample sizes in the NVC emotional abuse and physical abuse groups may explain the non-significant effect of AV on disclosure of these abuse types. However, the sample sizes for VC and NVC sexual abuse were nearly identical and the results for those data matched the predicted patterns such that AV mattered for disclosure of VC,

Table 5

Backward Stepwise Logistic Regression Models of Disclosure of Abuse by Someone Very Close or Not Very Close as a Function of Ethnicity, Asian Values, and Gender

Step 1	VC abuse combined (sexual + physical + emotional) $\chi^2(3, 107) = 19.45^{***}$				NVC abuse combined (sexual + physical + emotional) $\chi^2(3, 60) = .27$			
	B	OR	Wald	95% CI	B	OR	Wald	95% CI
Ethnicity	-.19	.83	.47	.49 to 1.41	-.01	.99	.00	.51 to 1.91
Asian values	-.06	.95	4.44*	.90 to .998	-.01	.99	.07	.93 to 1.06
Gender	1.79	5.99	9.62**	1.93 to 18.58	.33	1.40	.19	.30 to 6.41

Step 2	$\chi^2(2, 107) = 18.98^{***}$				$\chi^2(2, 60) = .27$			
	B	OR	Wald	95% CI	B	OR	Wald	95% CI
Asian values	-.05	.95	4.08*	.90 to .998	-.01	.99	.07	.93 to 1.06
Gender	1.83	6.25	10.17**	2.03 to 19.30	.34	1.40	.19	.30 to 6.40

Note. CI = confidence interval.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

but not NVC, sexual abuse. Thus, the sexual abuse results suggest that the discrepancy between the effect of AV on disclosure of VC and NVC abuse in this study is not simply an artifact of sample size. In any case, the retained null hypotheses should be interpreted conservatively.

In addition, the present study was conducted online and the sample was not random, which may reduce the generalizability of the findings. Although respondents can more easily complete a survey multiple times via the Internet than in other survey methods (Wright, 2005), the present study did not allow participants to complete the survey more than once from the same IP address. However it is possible that this precaution did not protect fully against this issue.

Despite the disadvantages of Internet research, self-administered surveys, such as those administered via Internet, may elicit more accurate responses to sensitive questions than other modalities (e.g., Fricker & Schonlau, 2002) and decrease variation due to interviewer demand characteristics (Buchanan & Hvizdak, 2009). Further support for this method of data collection comes from research suggesting that Internet-based trauma surveys are highly correlated with both paper-and-pencil and interview methods, regardless of level of symptomatology (Read, Farrow, Jaanimägi, & Ouimette, 2009), and demonstrate similar psychometric properties (Fortson, Scotti, Del Ben, & Chen, 2006). Moreover, prior focus group recommendations regarding effective trauma research with a Japanese population encouraged utilizing a more anonymous method of disclosure, such as the Internet (Allard, 2009), in light of AV that may hinder disclosure.

The current findings have important implications for our conceptualization and development of culturally informed therapeutic interventions for abuse survivors. For instance, many trauma-focused treatments that originated in Western culture rely not only on a survivor's disclosure that a traumatic event has occurred, but also on the survivor's willingness to share details of the event and one's emotional and cognitive responses (e.g., Prolonged Exposure, Foa, Hembree, & Rothbaum, 2007; Cognitive Processing Therapy, Resick, Monson, & Chard, 2008). Therefore, identifying specific cultural values that differentially impede and encourage disclosure could be helpful in formulating culturally sensitive treatment recommendations that consider disclosure-related decisions and the consequences of those decisions within one's cultural context (cf. Hall, Hong, Zane, & Meyer, 2011).

Efforts must also be made to assist people in identifying culturally consistent coping strategies and forms of support in order to prevent the exacerbation of distress (Kim et al., 2008). For instance, values promoting the acceptance of fate and endurance of suffering without complaint, may necessitate indirect coping strategies that involve adapting to, rather than altering, the environment (Bjorck, Cuthbertson, Thurman, & Lee, 2001; Hall et al., 2011; Lam & Zane, 2004), instead of more direct coping strategies and explicit disclosure. Being sensitive to the ways in which cultural values may have an impact on various aspects and types of trauma, as well as trauma recovery, may also involve embracing less traditional treatments and challenging our assumptions about what is helpful and necessary. This requires openness to a variety of approaches and attention to our own biases, beliefs, and values regarding traumatic disclosure and its benefits.

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