

Rapport de recherche

PROGRAMME ACTIONS CONCERTÉES

Les cyberviolences dans les relations intimes en contexte de séparation : une synthèse des connaissances pour mieux comprendre le phénomène et orienter les actions

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Annexes

Liste des annexes

| | |
|--|-----------|
| 1. Recension systématique des écrits | 1 |
| 2. Trousse médias en collaboration avec l’Institut National de Santé Publique | 56 |
| 3. Fiche synthèse à l’intention des intervenants jeunesse | 61 |
| 4. Fiche synthèse à l’intention des ressources d’hébergement | 66 |
| 5. Campagne socio-numérique | 70 |
| 6. Affiche vulgarisant le projet de recherche | 72 |
| 7. Recommandations issues de la journée d’échanges et de réflexion sur la violence faite aux femmes et aux adolescentes | 73 |
| 8. Bibliographie complète | 74 |

A Systematic Review of Literature on Cyber
Intimate Partner Victimization in Adolescent Girls and Women

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Running head: CYBER VICTIMIZATION IN INTIMATE RELATIONSHIPS

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Abstract

Intimate partner violence (IPV), and dating violence are major health issues, causing negative outcomes and even unnecessary deaths every year. In a lifetime, nearly one out of two individuals will have reported being victimized by a current or a former partner, with higher victimization rates in women. The development of communication technologies, and infatuation for online social networks created new tools to stalk, harass, and pressure current or former partners. Until now, major discrepancies have been noted in the literature regarding prevalence rates for cyber IPV. Risk factors of victimization remain unknown, making intervention targets hazardous. To address these limitations, this systematic review used a mixed-method approach to gather available data on adolescent girls and women cyber IPV victimization. Complementary perspectives will be offered by quantitative and qualitative publications. On the 1,036 screened studies, 33 were retained, which resulted in a final sample of $N = 13,055$. Analysis of qualitative studies resulted in a typology for cyber IPV, identifying forms of direct and indirect victimization in women (stalking and control, harassment, sexual). Quantitative results showed that prevalence rates varied from < 1% to 78% across studies, and that only a few correlates of victimization have been examined, with limited information on possible protective factors. To orient prevention effort, it is urgent that we identify women who present a higher risk of victimization with population-based studies relying on longitudinal designs.

Highlights

- Prevalence rates of cyber IPV vary greatly from < 1 % to 78 %
- Different direct and indirect forms of cyber IPV victimization were identified: stalking and control, harassment, and sexual violence.
- Being a woman, sustaining or using traditional IPV, and feeling psychologically distress

are among factors that have been associated with cyber IPV victimization.

- Few studies have explored potential protective factors

Results underscore the necessity for the development of concerted definition and measure of cyber IPV.

Keywords: Systematic review, cyber IPV, intimate relationships, prevalence, risk and protective factors.

**A Systematic Review of Literature on Cyber
Intimate Partner Victimization in Adolescent Girls and Women**

1. Introduction

The emergence of technology in the last decade has helped facilitating human communication. However, some of these tools also provide new opportunities for some individuals to exert control on others. It is easier, now than ever, to stalk, collect information, as well as harass someone in multiple contexts. Intimate relationships are no exception. Technology has transformed the ways in which psychological and sexual violence can be perpetrated. Violence can now be instantaneous, beyond physical limits, and reach a broad social network with minimal effort, having a faster and greater impact on different spheres of the victim's life (Hinduja & Patchin, 2014). According to data collected by judicial authorities in 2012 (Sinha, 2013), the majority (69%) of victims who have reported acts of violence perpetrated online were women. For the most part (73%), they knew the alleged perpetrator, who was usually a man (76% of cases reported) (Sinha, 2013). Youths under the age of 25 (King-Ries, 2011), especially women (Bates, 2015), are particularly at risk of cyber intimate partner violence (IPV) by a current or former partner. High cyber IPV rates have also been observed among youth recruited in university settings (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2002). However, because of multiple definitions and measures used for cyber IPV, prevalence rates differed widely across studies (Brown & Hegarty, 2018).

Gaps between prevalence rates and definitions prevent public health agencies from developing programs adapted to victims and their characteristics. Without clear scientific knowledge about individuals most likely to be victimized, it is difficult to implement prevention programs that target potential victims, and intervention programs that meet the needs of the current victims. There is an urge to summarize available scientific information in order to

propose recommendations to practitioners and social health services. IPV can be experienced in a broad spectrum of frequency, intensity and gravity, from situational violence (e.g. ordinary violence, mutual violence) to intimate terrorism (Johnson & Leone, 2005). Intimate terrorism is a type of violence where, typically, women sustain domination from her partner who exerts general power and control over different aspects of the relationship through several tactics, including violence. Since the population that is the most vulnerable to violence is women, especially to its most serious form (Chan, 2011), and that cyber IPV is no exception (Sinha, 2013), it is important to focus on the female population to understand how this new form of IPV is deployed. As relationship patterns, communication strategies (Connolly & McIsaac, 2009), and violent tactics of conflict resolution and control are developed in the first experiences of intimate relationship in adolescence, and because youths are the main users of Internet and online social networks (Morning Consult, 2018), it is critical to document experiences of cyber IPV of women and adolescent girls in the context of an intimate relationship or a separation.

2. Background

Considering the definitions that are available in the scientific literature, cyber IPV consist in the use of technological devices (e.g., cellphones, hidden cameras or remote web cameras), online resources (e.g., online social networks, blogs, video sharing websites), software (e.g., spying, password hacking, and key recording software), or applications (e.g., emails, geolocation functions) to exert control or surveillance, to humiliate or to isolate a current or a former partner. Cyber IPV usually involves repeated and intentional tactics, and compromises the tranquility of the victim by inducing fear or psychological distress. Victims now have a harder time than before finding a safe space, as they can be contacted in multiple ways, and on several platforms. They can also be followed remotely without their knowledge with geolocation functions. Cyber IPV is characterized by the anonymity and ease of use conferred to the authors. Not being face-to-face

with the victim provides an impersonal nature that facilitates perpetration and provides a de-individuation of actions, which may become even more destructive to the victims (Aoyama, Barnard-Brak, & Talbert, 2012; Hinduja & Patchin, 2010; 2014; Kowalski, Limber, Limber, & Agatston, 2012). Cyber IPV has deleterious impacts on victims: anxiety and depressive symptoms, psychological distress, isolation, social phobia, perception of loss of control over one's life, suicidal ideation, suicidal attempts and suicide (Bates, 2015; Blaauw, Winkel, Arensman, Sheridan, & Freeve, 2002; Romito, 2011). Several cases of youth suicide following cyber-harassment, including revenge porn, have been reported in recent years by the media in North America and Europe (Fairbairn, 2016; Marsh, 2015), showing that adolescents, even if they experience less formal intimate relationship than adults, sustain consequences as serious as adults. In adolescence and in adulthood, cyber IPV can occur in an intimate relationship or in the context of a separation. The particularities of each of these contexts will first be explained, and then, limits of actual scientific knowledge will be presented. Lastly, the objectives of the current systematic review will be enunciated.

2.1. Cyberviolence in intimate relationships

Online harassment as a cyber IPV form is generally seen in conjunction with more traditional forms of harassment (Davies, 2013), and associations between cyber IPV and IPV have been shown both in adolescent populations (Hinduja & Patchin, 2011; Zweig, Dank, Yahner, & Lachman, 2013) and in adult populations (Davies, 2013). However, the characteristics of women who are at greater risk of being victimized in such circumstances remain unknown. Only a few studies have examined risk factors and even fewer have explored the same factors and achieved consistent results. For example, two studies examined insecure attachment in emerging adult samples (Strawhun, Adams, & Huss, 2013; Wang, Zhou, & Zhang, 2017), but only one found an association with cybervictimization, making it hard to conclude on the

contribution of attachment in the risk of sustaining cyber IPV. A few other factors, such as insufficient knowledge of technology and their use, have been associated with an increased risk of cyber IPV (Davies, 2013; King-Ries, 2011).

2.2. Cybervictimization in ex-intimate relationships

Cyber IPV may occur during or after the course of an intimate relationship. It can also be experienced in both contexts. Several studies have shown that the moment when a woman tries to leave a relationship is a critical time, where she is most likely to experience violence from her partner (Brownridge, 2006; Dimond, Fiesler, & Bruckman, 2011; Kiesel, 2007). Difficulty in accepting the separation, as well as the feeling of loss of control over the ex-partner, could foster the occurrence of harassment or its frequency (Dubé & Drouin, 2014). During the separation process, women are particularly at risk of cyber IPV, including cyber harassment and other forms of violence (Catalano, 2012; Davies, 2013). In addition, being harassed by an intimate partner (Catalano, 2012), or having sustained or perpetrated traditional IPV during the relationship (Bates, 2015; Davies, 2013; Dimond et al., 2011; King-Ries, 2011), or in past relationships (Ferreira & Matos, 2013), increases the risk of sustaining cyber IPV by a former partner during the separation process. In Canada, according to the General Social Survey on Victimization (2014), 41% of adults who have experienced violence from a former spouse report having been abused after the end of the relationship and for 49% of them, the severity of violence increased after the separation (Ibrahim & Burczycka, 2016). Several tactics are used by a former partner to control their victims through isolation, deprivation, exploitation, imposition of rules and acts of coercion, such as humiliation, intimidation, harassment, violence, death threats, forced sex, etc. (Hotton, 2001; Stark, 2014). In addition to psychological, verbal and physical violence, women are also victims of sexual, economic and spiritual violence (to be forced to have faith in certain beliefs or to engage in religious behaviors against its wish) that can have serious consequences

on their physical and mental health (Dubé & Drouin, 2014). Only two studies have examined cyber IPV risk factors other than traditional IPV victimization in the context of a separation. Their results showed that anxious attachment, cyber IPV perpetration, anger arousal, psychological and physical traditional IPV perpetration (Strawhun et al., 2013), gender (being a woman), the intensity of the separation and the relationship length (Lee & O'Sullivan, 2014) increase the risk of being victimized online by a former partner.

2.3. Limits of actual scientific work

Some researchers conceptualize online violence as the violence of the future, given its rising prevalence and its use that is facilitated with the rapid development of communications technology (King-Ries, 2011). Cyber IPV cases are on the rise and are part of the current patterns of harassment in the context of separation (Davies, 2013). Like most emerging concepts, the boundaries of cyber IPV remain unclear. Indeed, in the current scientific literature several terms are used interchangeably, for example "cyber-harassment", "cyber-abuse", "technological stalking", and "stalking with technology" (Davies, 2013). This lack of consensus around the terminology, which results in the use of very disparate measurement tools, leads to scientific knowledge that is difficult to compare. For example, some studies considered cyber IPV as being specific forms of harassment or stalking activities on the web (Finkelhor, Mitchell, & Wolak, 2000; Jerin & Dolinsky, 2001), while others considered more inclusively all data transmission devices (McFarlane & Bocij, 2003). Since studies use different definitions, it is difficult to estimate the actual prevalence of cyber IPV (Ministry of Justice, 2016), and identify characteristics of the population most vulnerable to this form of victimization. A recent literature review on digital dating violence measures (Brown & Hegarty, 2018) showed the complexity of the interpretation of the results currently available and of their comparison; because of the impressive number of terms used to describe the phenomenon, the important lack in definitions

(often missing), and the variability in measure instruments (22 counted). However, the literature review from Brown and Hegarty (2018) did not take in consideration the context in which the victimization took place (in a current/former or past intimate relationship), even though the scientific literature suggests that this victimization may differ in terms of risk factors, prevalence rates, and associated consequences. Moreover, it omitted an important proportion of the literature, especially in the context of an emerging phenomenon: qualitative studies. Qualitative studies contain precious data that help describe, define, and conceptualize human behaviors and experiences (Erwin, Brotherson, & Summers, 2011).

Moreover, traditional and cyber IPV victimization often co-occur (Davies, 2013; Yahner, Dank, Zweig, & Lachman, 2015; Zweig et al., 2013), but we do not know in which context this co-occurrence is most likely to happen. Until now, some studies have identified risk factors for cyber IPV in active relationships (Reed, Tolman, & Ward, 2016; 2017; Temple et al., 2016; Yahner et al., 2015; Zweig, Lachman, Yahner, & Dank, 2014). However, they either explored different risk factors or came with divergent results. Only two studies (Lee & O'Sullivan, 2014; Strawhun et al., 2013) specifically investigated the context of separation. Because of those challenges, recommendations for prevention and intervention with IPV victims and at-risk girls and women become less accurate in the context of an increasing internet use. Statistics Canada (2013), among others, reiterates the importance of better understanding the phenomenon of cyber IPV in order to develop prevention tools and offer a better and more modern response to violence against women and adolescent girls.

3. Objectives of the current literature review

This study aims to document cyber IPV victimization of adolescent girls and women in the context of an intimate relationship or a separation. More specifically, the review aims to: 1) provide a definition of cyber IPV that takes into consideration all published scientific work; 2)

document types of technology reported being used to victimize girls and women in former or current relationship; 3) describe the different forms of cyber IPV; and 4) identify risk and protective factors for cyber IPV victimization. The present review used a mixed-methods approach to obtain an extensive overview of the cyber IPV phenomenon in intimate and ex-intimate relationship in adolescence and adulthood. Complementary analysis will be offered by quantitative (prevalence, correlates, risk factors) and qualitative (definitions, experiences) publications. A metasynthesis of qualitative victimization experiences of girls and women in addition to a review of quantitative data will allow scholars to have a richer, thus more complete understanding of cyber IPV phenomenon. It will thus be possible to have an overview of the problem and distinguish what it is shared across individual experiences (Erwin, Brotherson & Summers, 2011). To our knowledge, prevention or intervention programs developed for victims of cyber IPV have not been evaluated despite the rise of online social networks in the last decade. A synthesis of scientific knowledge may offer precious information to develop such programs. Yet, no comprehensive mixed-method meta-synthesis is available to summarize the accumulating knowledge in the field of cyber IPV victimization. This review will offer a precious summary of research findings to inform prevention and intervention practices and policies.

4. Method

The systematic literature review was conducted according to the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) guidelines (Moher et al., 2009), recommendations from the Cochrane Collaboration (Higgins & Green, 2011) and the Standard Quality Assessment Criteria for Evaluating Primary Research Papers from Kmet, Lee, and Cook (2004). This review identified quantitative and qualitative empirical studies examining cyber IPV victimization of girls and women.

4.1. Literature search

PsycInfo and Psycarticle, Google Scholar as well as Sociological Abstract, Medline and Scopus databases were examined between May 2017 and February 2018 to identify articles that met the inclusion criteria. Filters were applied in order to include only peer-reviewed articles published from 2005 onward. Multiple keywords sets were used to identify relevant articles. Some keywords were included to refer to cyberviolence victimization and others to refer to intimate or ex-intimate relationship context, for example: cybervictimization, stalking with technology, cyber-harassment, technological stalking, cyber unwanted pursuit, cyberstalking, revenge porn, online coercive control, obsessive relational intrusion, online unwanted pursuit, online abuse, online harassment, dating, romantic relationship, intimate partner violence, breakup, separation, post-separation, ex-partners. Various combinations of keywords were created using operators, truncation and abbreviations until no new article was found. Titles and abstracts of manuscripts were screened for eligibility by the second author. When meeting inclusion criteria, articles were retrieved and its content was entirely coded to ensure eligibility. This process led to a final sample of 33 studies (scientific qualitative, $n = 7$, quantitative empirical, $n = 25$, and mixed-method articles, $n = 1$), as shown by the flowchart presented in Figure 1.

4.2. Coding procedures and data extraction

A codebook was developed to gather information about the study characteristics: sample (sample size, gender, age of the participants), forms of cyberviolence, characteristics of the cyberviolence measurement tool, data collection and analysis methods, qualitative experience of victimization, prevalence rates, risk/protective factors, and study quality. One third of the articles that were retrieved by the titles/abstracts screening process were coded with an inter-raters' process. Two members of the research team coded articles to ensure eligibility and extracted all available data. Inter-rate agreement was 95.7% for qualitative studies and 95.2% for quantitative

studies. Disagreements were resolved through discussion between coders, and when necessary with other authors. All remaining articles were coded by the second author.

4.3. Inclusion and exclusion criteria

4.3.1. Participants. To be included, studies had to be conducted on female participants aged 12 or older who reported being in an intimate relationship or having previously experienced a separation. Studies with samples of only male victims, and samples where none of the results were distinguishable for men victims and women victims ($n = 22$) were excluded from this review. Studies that were included were classified in three distinct populations of interest: adult samples (> 18 years old), emerging adult samples (18 to 25 years old), and adolescent samples (< 18 years old). College student samples were included and considered as emerging adult samples since a substantial proportion of the sample was included in the 18 to 25 years old range. Based on available information from the studies included in this review, the mean age of college student samples is 20.4 years old. Studies conducted on participants from other populations (e.g. women receiving services from battered women's shelters, female juvenile offenders) were also included in the analyses.

4.3.2. Independent variables. This study reviewed all risk and protective factors associated with online victimization in an intimate or an ex-intimate context. Risk factors included individual characteristics (age, gender, ethnicity, etc.), behaviors (alcohol and drug use, risky sexual behaviors), and psychological functioning (insecure attachment style, jealousy, anger), as well as interpersonal characteristics (perpetration of traditional intimate partner/dating violence, perpetration of cyberviolence, intimate partner/dating violence victimization, bullying, characteristics of relationship, breakup intensity). Protective factors included psychological functioning (secure attachment) and interpersonal support (family and peers).

4.3.3. Outcomes. To be included, studies needed to have assessed presence, frequency

or severity of cyberviolence in an intimate or ex-intimate relationship or to report experiences of the victims. Studies were included if they assessed victimization separately from perpetration, and if cyberviolence was perpetrated specifically from a romantic partner or an ex romantic partner. Studies in which the identity of the perpetrator could not be determined were excluded. Studies focusing only on traditional intimate partner violence (physical, psychological or sexual), or in which traditional violence could not be distinguished from cyberviolence, were also excluded, just like studies that did not consider cyberviolence as an outcome but rather as a predictor of another phenomenon (e.g. traditional intimate partner violence). Finally, only studies available in French or in English have been reviewed, and studies that did not present original data (editorial, commentary or literature review) have been excluded.

4.4. Quality of the studies

The assessment of study quality was based on recommendations from the Cochrane collaboration (Higgins & Green, 2011) for the quantitative studies and from the Kmet, Lee and Cook (2015) guide for the qualitative studies. Mixed-method studies were evaluated with both methods by applying the criteria to the different sections of the study, in respect to their qualitative or quantitative nature. Quantitative studies' quality was evaluated by using six criteria: sampling, representativeness, sample size, missing data, quality of the measurement tools and selective reporting. For qualitative studies, quality of study was evaluated by using ten criteria: clarity of objectives, appropriateness of design, clarity of the study context, pertinence of the theoretical framework; justification and relevance of sampling strategies, systematic nature and clarity of data collection; exhaustivity and systematic nature of data analysis; inclusion of verification procedures to establish credibility of the study; adequacy between objectives and results; and subjectivity regarding the overall research process.

4.5. Data analyses

This section will document terminology, definitions, manifestations, prevalence, risk factors, contexts of vulnerability and experiences of women victims. A summary table (see Table 1) first describes definitions of cyberviolence in intimate or ex-intimate relationships, terminology used for cyberviolence, and method of assessment, for each study.

4.5.1. Quantitative synthesis. Prevalence rates of victimization were collected and are presented in Table 2. Because of the small number of studies with women samples ($n = 9$) and large gaps in prevalence rates between studies (< 1% to 78%), no summary prevalence rate was computed. Risk and protective factors examined by studies were included in table 2, indicating whether they showed a significant effect or not or whether they were part of a cross-sectional or a longitudinal study. Risk factors found to be significant were identified with an asterisk. Because there were not enough studies that examined risk ($n = 10$) and protective ($n = 2$) factors, and because factors varied across studies, results for risk and protective factors were only presented descriptively.

4.5.2. Qualitative synthesis. The qualitative synthesis was conducted by following Noblit and Hare's (1988) procedures. For each study, qualitative results were read several times by the coders to identify key themes and concepts. Coders first identified similarities between themes and concepts across studies to generate conceptual categories. They then classified the woman experiences in conceptual categories. Since the goal was to compare studies in order to discover similarities and differences in women's experiences of cyberviolence victimization by a partner or an ex-partner. Qualitative analysis informed the quantitative analysis in supporting the identification of categories of cyber IPV victimization, and further examination of prevalence rates according to this classification. To ensure credibility of qualitative findings, peer scrutiny and description of the phenomena under study were used (Shenton, 2004; Patton, 2014). Peer scrutiny is the communication and the validation of coding procedures and of conceptual

categories' creation by a third party, also involved in the coding. Coders mutually validated the procedures to ensure the "findings are the result of the experiences and ideas of the informants, rather than the characteristics and preferences of the researchers" (Shenton, 2004, p. 72). Detailed descriptions of experiences were also used, and helped the validity of findings by limiting the loss of contextual information. Various extracts of verbatim were presented to illustrate each of conceptual category.

4.5.3. Quality of the studies. According to the recommendations of the Cochrane Collaboration's guidelines (Higgins & Green, 2011) for quantitative studies and the Standard Quality Assessment Criteria for Evaluating Primary Research Papers (Kmet et al., 2004) for qualitative studies, a similar process was used to evaluate the quality of the studies. For quantitative studies, when they met good standard of quality for most criteria, they were considered at low risk of bias. When not, or when a major flaw on one criterion was likely to influence the results, studies were considered at high risk of bias. When lack of information (i.e. information was not available for several criteria) leads to a hazardous global judgment of quality, studies were classified as unclear risk of bias. For qualitative studies, the same logical procedure was used to ensure scientific rigor of the studies, classifying them in highly rigorous, weakly rigorous, and unclearly rigorous. These three categories were used to interpret the gap between prevalence rates for quantitative studies and divergences in qualitative studies (see the analyses section). The categorical classification of studies according to their risk of bias was suggested by Cochrane Collaboration's guidelines (Higgins & Green, 2011), rather than the computation of a continuous summary score that assumes equal weights for each criterion, which can lead to misleading evaluations of the study quality. For example, a study with a major flaw on one criterion could obtain a higher summary quality score than a study with minor flaws on two criteria, even if that one major flaw could bias more the results than two minor ones.

5. Results

5.1. Description of the study set

From the 33 eligible studies, seven used a qualitative method for a total subsample size of 214 participants, one used a mixed-method design, for a total subsample size of 46, and 25 studies used a quantitative method, for a total subsample size of 13,055 participants. In the quantitative studies sample, 13 studies presented distinct results for men and women or were conducted on women sample only, which allowed us to present results for women ($N = 6,679$). The remaining 12 studies presented undifferentiated results for men and women ($N = 6,376$). Overall sample size for the 33 studies is 13,315 participants. Studies included were conducted in USA (72 %), in Canada (9.4 %), in Europe (12 %), in Australia (3%), in New-Zealand (3%), or in China (3%), and examine the intimate relationship context (55%), the post-separation context (21%) or both (24%).

5.1.1. Qualitative studies. For qualitative studies, woman participants were aged from 12 to 54 years old, with a mean age of 24.74 ($SD = 9.1$). From the seven studies, two were conducted on general population samples and 5 on vulnerable population samples (i.e. cyber IPV victims sample, female juvenile offenders case study or sample of women receiving services from a women's shelter). Only three studies focused specifically on women's experiences. The other studies included both men and women in their sample but presented results differentiated according to gender. All eligible studies described cyber IPV victimization experiences, but only four studies included information on definitions and forms of cyber IPV perpetrated by an actual or a past intimate partner. Methods of data collection and analysis are presented in Table 2. Finally, only one study presented information on contexts of vulnerability.

5.1.2. Quantitative studies. All quantitative studies used self-report questionnaires to collect data (see Table 2 to obtain details about measures). For woman-only samples ($n = 13$),

age ranged from 13 to 53 years old ($M = 20.5$, $SD = 7.8$) with 4 studies on general populations, seven studies on college student samples and 2 studies on vulnerable population samples.

Regarding study design, one was longitudinal, one was prospective, and the others were cross-sectional. From the 12 studies, nine examined actual intimate relationships, one examined breaking-up context and three examined both. Definitions and forms of cyber IPV were reported by eight studies, prevalence rates by nine, risk factors by four, and protective factors by two.

For the 12 mixed-gender samples (both male and female were included in the analyses), age ranged from 12 to 79 years old ($M = 20.5$, $SD = 1.5$). A majority of the studies were conducted with college student samples ($n = 7$) and the other studies were conducted on general population samples. All studies used a cross-sectional design and four studies examined the intimate relationship cyber IPV, while four studies looked at the post-separation cyber IPV, and four examined both. Only three studies presented a definition of cyber IPV, and all but one presented prevalence rates. Regarding risk and protective factors, five studies examined risk factors and only one considered protective factors.

5.1.3. Mixed-method studies. Only one mixed-method study was included in this review. The average age of the 46 participants of the study was 35-year-olds (no information provided for standard deviation). The sample comprised of women who reported being victims of cyber IPV. The study presented definitions, forms of cyber IPV, experiences of victimization, and explored the victimization in intimate relationship context. It examined some risk factors but no protective factors.

5.2. Cyber IPV terminology

First of all, terminology in cyber IPV studies has to be presented in order to underscore the broad range of wording used to describe the same phenomenon. In opposition with IPV literature, cyber IPV literature uses a large variety of terms to describe victimization:

cyberbullying in relationship, technology in romantic relationship, information communication technologies in domestic violence, technology assisted dating violence, technological violence, digital dating abuse, mediated contact strategies in conflict, cyber dating abuse, and so on. In this review, we have identified 30 terms (in 33 studies) to describe cyber IPV victimization.

Terminology used in each study is presented in Table 1.

5.2.1. Definitions. Definitions for each term used, when available, are presented in Table 1. Approximately half of quantitative studies and 29% of qualitative studies did not clearly define or did not define at all cyber IPV. Among all studies that have defined cyber IPV, only 29.4% highlighted the context (intimate or ex-intimate) in which violence occurred. A majority of studies included in the present study set conceptualized cyber IPV as a specific form of IPV, rather than a context in which traditional (psychological or sexual) IPV is perpetrated, or rather than new tools with which violence can be exerted. In this review, only two studies recognize cyber IPV as a context of perpetration (Baker & Carreño, 2016; Rueda, Lindsay, & Williams, 2015), but did not give explicit details of this conceptualization, while 11 studies stated that cyber IPV is a form of violence perpetrated with the facilitation of technology (Alvarez, 2012; Bates, 2015; Curtis, 2012; Davies, 2013; Draucker et al., 2012; Heinrich, 2015; Pereira, Spitzberg, & Matos, 2016; Reed et al., 2017; Reed, Tolman, Ward, & Safyer, 2016; Sargent, Krauss, Jouriles, & McDonald, 2016; Stonard, Bowen, Walker, & Price, 2017). Most studies included in the study set (Angela Frederick Amar, 2006; Borrajo, Gámez-Guadix, Pereda, & Calvete, 2015; Cattaneo, Cho, & Botuck, 2011; Chaulk & Jones, 2011; Cho & Huang, 2017; Dank, Lachman, Zweig, & Yahner, 2014; Dimond et al., 2011; Edwards & Gidycz, 2014; Lee & O'Sullivan, 2014; Morelli et al., 2016; Nguyen, Spitzberg, & Lee, 2012; Strawhun et al., 2013; Temple et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2017; Wisternoff, 2008; Wolak et al., 2018; Woodlock, 2017; Yahner et al., 2015) did not elaborate on their position concerning cyber IPV as a form or a

context of perpetration, but defined, conceptualized, or measured cyber IPV in a distinct way from traditional violence, suggesting that they expected this phenomenon to be a different from IPV. Other studies presented cyber IPV as a distinct form of IPV. They stated that it should be seen as a specific form because it induces fear to the victim, in a way from which she could hardly escape. Because of the omnipresence of online social networks and communication technologies, permanence of traces, ramifications with extended social and work networks, and the rapidity in which it is possible to perpetrate violence and have impacts in different spheres of life of the victim (Bennett, Guran, Ramos, & Margolin, 2011; Lindsay, Booth, & Messing, 2016). Thus, our review suggests that in the actual scientific literature, cyber IPV seems to be a specific form of interpersonal violence.

5.3. Technologies involved and tools

The present review also examined technology used by a current or ex-partner to perpetrate cyber IPV. In total, 4 categories of tools emerged from analyses: online social network strategies, email use, mobile use, and other devices. *Online social network strategies* include, but is not restricted to, instant messaging services (e.g. Messenger, Snapchat), publication of content (written, audio or video) about victims on Wall, Thread, Stories, Podcast, etc. (e.g. YouTube, YouPorn, Instagram, Twitter), exclusion from online groups (e.g. on Facebook), and online publications on blogs and forums. *Emails* strategies consist (but is not restricted to) on the disruption of one's email flow by repeated mailings, the use of the email identity of the victim to send emails, make purchases or to subscribe, and the monitoring of one's emails. *Mobile use* strategies consist of sending content (psychologically disturbing, e.g. threats or sexual, e.g. pictures of genitals) without the victim's consent or contacting the victim repeatedly by phone calls or texts. It also includes geolocation functions that can be activated by a partner or an ex without consent, which permits real time or delayed tracking of the victims. Finally, *other*

devices include online research and compilation of information about the victim (sometimes called stalking), password hacking software, spying software and key recording software, hidden cameras or remote activation of web cameras.

5.4. Forms of violence and technologies involved

Qualitative studies were analyzed in order to understand experiences of victimization. Two major forms of victimization emerged from analyses: direct and indirect cyber IPV. Direct cyber IPV is the use of technology directed toward an intimate partner or ex-intimate partner in a private context. In this form of cyber IPV, aggression is directly addressed to the partner via mobile, instant messages service or other devices and the perpetrator does not intend that others witness the aggression. Indirect violence is the online dissemination of content (written, audio, photo or video) about his/her partner or ex-partner in a social or public setting. This content may be sexual (nude pictures of victims, video of sexual intercourse) or not (e.g. pictures or messages attempting reputation) and may be published publicly online, for example on Wall or Thread, or sent to acquaintances or colleagues through mailing list. The peculiarity of this form of violence (examined by 4 studies) is the use of the victim's social or work network to pressure her to do something, to hurt her, or to seek revenge. All technologies and tools mentioned before could be used in different violent settings (direct or indirect cyber IPV). Analyses of content result in discriminating three forms of direct cyber IPV (see 5.4.1. to 5.4.3), and two forms of indirect cyber IPV (see 5.4.4 and 5.4.5.). Each form is presented below.

5.4.1. Stalking and control. Direct aggression may take the form of stalking and control, which is commonly defined as the use of technology and data available online to obtain information about current or former partner, to know where she is, with whom, and what she does. For example, someone could use the Facebook account of his partner to look at the instant

messages she received. This category has been found in all reviewed studies ($n = 8$). These narratives from Adele and Nikki particularly show how this form of cyber IPV was distinct from others by the control exerted on victims:

Adele: “And, he saw that we were friends and that we were still talking and he started going, “Why are you still friends with him? Why are you still talking with him? You guys are over. You shouldn’t be doing that.” And he actually asked for my password and username, logged in, and de-friended him” (Baker & Carreño, 2016).

Nikki: “I was home in Arizona and I get a text from him one night when I’m at my parents’ house, he’s like “oh I just saw that you’re at your parents’ house, so I’m gonna finish up what I’m doing here and I’ll be back in a half hour and you and I can talk and you can own up to what you’ve been doing, you piece of shit” (Bates, 2015).

5.4.2. Harassment. In 5 studies, harassment was a type of direct cyber IPV behavior toward a partner or ex-partner. It consists in the use of technologies to contact his partner or ex-partner (e.g. through SMS) repeatedly or to try to contact her even if she does not want it, as these narratives show:

Judith: “I need a couple weeks where we don’t talk,” and then he just bombarded me with e-mails, like really, really failing to respect that boundary, [...] And I would get once a day five pages in Microsoft word e-mails, like huge, long, rambling e-mails” (Bates, 2015).

Anonymous: “He would just keep texting or calling and even like at 2 a.m. if I didn’t pick up he’d call like 10 times until I actually picked up” (Baker & Carreño, 2016).

5.4.3. Sexual cyberviolence. Sexual cyber IPV has been presented as a form of direct cyber IPV in three studies. It consists in being forced (or pressure) to send or to receive messages with sexual content (written, audio, photo or video) through technology (e.g. sexting, photos of genitals), as shown by the narratives of two anonymous women:

Anonymous: “Most of the abuse I experienced was of a sexual nature, and this abuse was often filmed on his phone; he would threaten that he would send these videos to my family” (Woodlock, 2017).

Anonymous: “Much of the texts were threatening, [e]specially regarding sexual things, which was particularly painful and shameful” (Woodlock, 2017).

It can also take the form of sexual content published without a recipient, this sexual content is not

sent to victims nor to her acquaintances, as demonstrated by Delia's narrative:

Delias: "I Google my name and the porn website, [...] He had posted the pictures of me, pretending to be me, he had like pictures of my face, and ya know my body, my full name, first and last, the town where I lived, the college and campus where I teach, um all of my personal information..." (Davies, 2013).

5.4.4. Indirect sexual cyber IPV. Sexual victimization may also be indirectly enacted toward victims. Karla relates her experience of indirect cyberviolence of sexual nature:

Karla: "I was... checking my e-mails on my phone, and I see an e-mail from myself, so it's like an e-mail to Karla from Karla, and I was like, "what? [...] But I do open it... and it was basically along the lines of like, "now that I'm dating so-and-so... I'm free as a bird and I thought you'd like to see these pictures." That was the message. And then there were, I think 5 or 6 naked pictures of me. [...] And then I check the recipient list and it was to 25 faculty members including the President of the University" (Bates, 2015).

5.4.5. Indirect cyber IPV of non-sexual nature. Indirect cyber IPV could also be of other nature than sexual, as demonstrated the narrative of an anonymous woman: "He harassed my family to try to find me with constant phone calls, but I have moved states (losing contact with most of my supports) to be free of him" (Woodlock, 2017).

5.5. Prevalence.

To document how widespread cyber IPV victimization is, we examined prevalence rates reported in the quantitative studies. Table 2 shows that prevalence ranges across studies from less than 1% to 78%. Results are presented for adolescent girls, 18 to 25 years old women and adult women (above 18 years old) samples first. Then, results are presented for mixed-gender samples for each age group. Only one study examined victimization in adolescent girls while five studies examined victimization for adolescent boys and girls. All studies but one looked at victimization in the context of a current dating relationship. For the adolescent age group, sexual victimization is the most studied form of cyber IPV ($n = 5$) with prevalence from 18.0 % to 66.4%, followed by harassment ($n = 4$). It is important to note that prevalence rates presented are not exclusively

for this form of violence, since in studies prevalence rates were not necessarily specified for each form of violence. When a unique prevalence rate is presented for a study, it means that only a global prevalence rate was available. When a range of prevalence rates is presented for a study, it means that forms or acts of cyber IPV were differentiated by the authors when examining how widespread this problem is. Emerging adults is the most studied age group ($n = 18$) with college student samples ($n = 13$). Among 18 studies, six presented separate results for men and women. In this sub-sample, intimate relationship contexts of victimization were studied nearly as much as separation contexts. Harassment is the most examined form of violence and is experienced by less than 1% to 70 % of women. For the mixed-gender sub-sample of emerging adults, harassment is still the most frequent form of cyber IPV measured. It is experienced by 2% to 49% of emerging adults. Only two studies examined victimization of women over 18 years old and they both were conducted with woman-only samples, and both examined stalking (6 – 78%). Only Woodlock (2017) examined harassment and indirect cyber IPV, with prevalence rates from 7.3 to 72.0%. The gap between prevalence rates may certainly be explained by differences in instruments used to measure cyber IPV (see table 1 for the list of instruments).

5.6. Risk and protective factors

Another objective of our review was to explore, quantitatively, characteristics that increase or decrease the risk of being cybervictimized by a partner or an ex-partner. For adolescents, five studies, all conducted with a cross-sectional design examined potential risk factors. Therefore, it is impossible to know whether these correlates are risk factors or consequences of cyber IPV victimization, and no conclusion could be made about causality. No protective factor was considered for this age group in the studies included in the review. These studies examined adolescent boys and girls cyber IPV experiences of victimization, and for two studies results were presented by gender. Gender and psychological distress were the only factors

examined by more than one study. Being a girl has been associated with a higher risk of being victimized by two studies (out of 3), and being psychologically distressed by two studies out of two. The perpetration and victimization of traditional dating violence, and of violence in peer relationships have also been associated with cyber IPV. For emerging adults, stalking perpetration and avoidant attachment of partner have been identified as risk factors for women victimization. Being a woman has also been reported as a risk factor. For both men and women of this age group, cyberviolence perpetration is a factor associated with a greater risk of cyberviolence victimization. Traditional IPV victimization and perpetration seem to also play a role in the risk of victimization, suggesting that mutual violence may be observed in cyberviolence in intimate and ex-intimate relationship, and that co-occurrence of traditional and online form of violence is a problem to further explore. Secure attachment (Strawhun et al., 2013), friends and family support, and significant others in their network (Nguyen et al., 2012) are the only protective factors inventoried in this review. They have been examined in two studies conducted with emerging adults. Only secure attachment and significant others have been identified as significantly associated with a decreased risk of being victimized. For adult women, no characteristic of vulnerability or protection have been examined in the studies included in the present review. Contexts of vulnerability identified in qualitative studies have not been examined as risk factors in quantitative studies, which prevents us from crossing the results, and make comparisons.

5.9. Impact study quality on findings

5.9.1. Quantitative finding. To consider the impact of the individual studies' quality on the prevalence rates reported and risk and protective factors described, studies were classified in three categories according to their quality: low risk of bias, high risk of bias and unclear risk of bias. This classification is presented in table 2 and should be considered when interpreting

results. In our review, 10 studies were classified in the low-risk category, 13 in the high risk category and 3 in the unclear risk category. Regarding prevalence rates, we observed that with exception for Bennett et al. (2011) and for Cattaneo et al. (2011), studies with high risk of bias has reported higher prevalence rates, and wider gaps between rates reported, within each study, and across studies. Studies with unclear risk of bias reported relatively high rates of victimization. Regarding risk factors, six studies that examined risk factors were at low risk, 5 at high risk and 1 at unclear risk of bias. Protective factors were examined by one study at high risk of bias (friend and family support), and by one study with an unclear risk of bias (secure attachment). Considering risk of bias, gender, perpetration of traditional IPV and of cyber IPV, IPV victimization, substance use, and insecure attachment should be retained as risk factors.

5.9.2. Qualitative findings. Regarding the quality of the qualitative studies, all the multiple-case studies met the criterion, of a sufficient quality score, to be included in the review (score of 14 out of 20), with no major flaws in their methodology, and have been classified as highly rigorous. Only the case-study (Alvarez, 2012) was classified in the unclear rigor category, since our criteria were not adapted for this type of design. Because the methodology of this study did not raise sufficient doubt about its quality to be excluded, it was kept in the study set.

6. Discussion

The aim of this review was to provide an overview of the prevalence and the experience of girls and women victims of cyber IPV and to explore the risk and protective factors associated with cyber IPV victimization. More specifically, we examined these objectives for samples of women and for mixed-gender samples, for different age groups (under 18 years old, 18 to 25 years old, and 18 years and older) and in the context of current and former relationship. Previous narrative reviews (Brown & Hegarty, 2018; Henry & Powell, 2018) have helped recognize limitations with definitions and measurement of intimate cyber IPV victimization and have

identified risk factors for online sexual violence (not necessarily perpetrated by an intimate partner). The current study expands on this work in several aspects. First, we reviewed qualitative and quantitative work, giving a portrait of how women experience this victimization. Second, we compared available data across age groups and across victimization contexts (by a current or a former partner). Third, we classified studies according to their victimization form: direct (stalking and control, harassment, sexual) and indirect (sexual, non-sexual) and compared if prevalence, experiences, and risk factors differ according to the specific form of violence sustained. Finally, we are not aware of any systematic effort to summarize qualitative knowledge about cyberviolence in intimate and ex-relationships, or to inventory the risk and protective factors. The current review is the first to explore both quantitative and qualitative literature and to review risk and protective factors in an attempt to provide a more comprehensive picture of the multiple experiences of cyber IPV victimization. This review is also a first step toward a better understanding of the characteristics that can influence one's involvement in a technologically abusive intimate relationship.

6.1. Issues with terminology, definitions, and measurements.

Cyber IPV has been increasingly studied in the last decade, without a consensual definition or identification of behaviors considered as online intimate partner violence. Across the 33 studies included in our study set, we identified 30 different terms for cyber IPV victimization. Similarly, Brown and Hegarty (2018) recent review on digital dating abuse measures found 17 terms in the literature to describe cyber IPV. The smaller number of terms they found may be explained by the fact that they did not consider sexting victimization. In concordance with unsystematic reviews (Curtis, 2012; Heinrich, 2015), the present systematic review shows that a debate is still going on (but about to be closed) regarding whether cyber IPV is only an extension of traditional IPV, meaning in that case that being online is a context in

which psychological or sexual violence is perpetrated, or whether cyber IPV is a new form of violence with its own implications (behaviors, risk factors, and consequences). Some early studies excluded from our review (because perpetration specifically from a partner or ex-partner could not be ensured) argue that communication technologies are new tools that facilitate perpetration of traditional IPV (Roberts, 2005; Sheridan & Grant, 2007). However, this review suggested that cyber IPV is a new form of IPV, with its own manifestations and implications. Future research should compare cyber IPV with traditional IPV to examine if they differ in terms of risk and protective factors, and in their consequences on victims.

In addition to the complexity caused by the wide terminology and the presence of several definitions, differences in measures were noted (as many operationalization of cyber IPV as number of quantitative studies) making comparisons difficult across studies. Brown and Hegarty's (2018) review on cyber IPV measures reached the same conclusions, as they found 16 different instruments were used in past studies. There is an urge to define the cyber IPV construct, and to agree on a robust instrument to measure this phenomenon with reliability and validity. For example, three studies have used parts of the same instrument to measure a construct they labeled differently (Dank et al., 2014; Temple et al., 2016; Yahner et al., 2015): digital dating abuse, cyberabuse, and cyberdating abuse. Notwithstanding, their results may easily be compared. Conversely, the same terms are sometimes used with different definitions and measures, which may lead to misunderstandings, a problem clearly exposed by Brown and Hegarty. For example, in the present review, "cyberstalking" was used by Bennett et al. (2011) and Heinrick (2015) although they use different definitions and measures for that term. Currently, definitions, terms, and measures are too numerous, and without assurance that the phenomenon under study is the same and that the operationalization is equivalent, no comparison should be made across studies.

6.3. Forms of cyber IPV victimization. In an attempt to provide a better overview of cyber IPV, the present qualitative metasynthesis leads to the distinction of two general forms of cyberviolence : *direct* and *indirect*, which respectively included *stalking and control*, *harassment*, and *sexual violence* (for direct cyber IPV), and *sexual* and *non-sexual violence* (for indirect cyber IPV). We argue that using that typology makes cyberviolence easier to define, describe, and understand because it relies on the nature of gestures (as for the traditional classification of forms of IPV – verbal/emotional, physical, sexual) rather than on the aggressor's intention, which is hard to determine, or on the impact on victims, which can be very different from a victim to another for the same inflicted act (for e.g. of this type of classification, see Baker & Carreno, 2016; Bennett et al., 2011; Woodlock, 2017). The classification emerging from this review meets the one proposed by Davies (2013) in suggesting to classify technologically violent acts in directly directed vs indirectly directed toward victims. It also converges with the one proposed by Reed et al. (2017) that included digital sexual coercion, digital direct aggression, and monitoring and control. However, Reed and his colleagues (2017) did not explore at harassment and did not highlight the indirect nature of acts outside his “digital direct aggression” category. Using the proposed typology, all the prevalence rates reported by quantitative studies have been examined (see Table 1). Because of the lack of information about items' endorsement, it was hard to determine the prevalence of the category of acts for studies that examined multiple forms of cyberviolence (stalking and control, harassment, sexual, and indirect violence), making the comparison across studies dubious. A surprising finding in quantitative studies, when looking at categorization, was the confusion in the use of terms to identify forms of cyber IPV and in definitions used for those terms. For example, Curtis (2012) used the term “cyberpursuit and stalking” and exclusively look at victimization of sexual nature; Pereira, Spitzberg, & Matos (2016) talked about cyberharassement and looked at harassment

victimization, but also at stalking and sexual victimization with technology. Finally, Edward and Gidycz (2014) looked at harassment but called it stalking. All those examples, added to the alarming prevalence rates, underscore the critical need of an internationally clear classification and definition of cyberviolence in the context of intimate and ex-intimate relationships. The difficulty faced by our review in classifying the quantitative studies according to the form of victimization they examined, supports the argument that forms of cyber IPV victimization should also be defined and illustrated by the scientific community, to facilitate comparison of prevalence rates across studies. As it is done in domestic violence research, where verbal/emotional, physical and sexual violence is generally similarly understood, defined, and operationalized.

6.4. Risk and protective factors. Only two studies in this review documented protective factors and nine studies on risk factors have been identified, showing a major gap in the literature. With the exception of gender (Dank et al., 2014; Morelli et al., 2016; Reed et al., 2016; 2017; Yahner et al., 2015), traditional IPV victimization (Sargent et al., 2016; Temple et al., 2016) and perpetration (Strahun et al., 2013; Temple et al., 2016; Wang, Zhou, & Zhang, 2017), cyber IPV perpetration (Bennett et al., 2011; Strahun et al., 2013; Temple et al., 2016), psychological distress (Reed et al., 2016) and insecure attachment (Strahun et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2017), no other factors have been studied by multiple studies. Being a female, a perpetrator of cyber IPV, or sustaining physical violence in intimate relationship are the only factors that are significantly associated more than once, and with consistent results, with online cyber IPV victimization of women in intimate relationship. Further studies are clearly needed to be able to conclude about risk and protective factors for specific forms of cyberviolence, and between context of perpetration (current or former relationship).

6.5. Quality of the studies

In the current review, a similar number of studies was considered at low risk of bias or in

the highly rigorous methods category and in the high risk of bias or in the lowly rigorous category. Therefore, results presented should be considered with reserve. This issue, added to the discrepancy used in definitions and measures, resulted in a wide range of prevalence rates. These divergences noted in the scientific literature underscore the necessity for the development of concerted definition and measure of cyber IPV shared across researchers.

6.6. Implications for research

The current review sheds light on some major challenges for the scientists' community working on IPV. First, in accordance with Brown and Hegarty (2018), we showed that there is no common definition for cyber IPV victimization. This review also highlights that different forms of victimization are not defined and are often confused, and that a typology based on the nature of gestures should be preferred to classify victimization experiences, in conformity with traditional intimate partner violence approach. Moreover, in addition to Brown and Hagarty (2018) work, we examined qualitative literature to enlighten contexts in which cyberviolences take place, giving a more comprehensive understanding of the cyber IPV victimization phenomenon. Experiences narrated by victims demonstrated that diverse forms of victimization exist and that they could be clearly distinguished, since they imply different gestures, contexts of perpetration, and impacts on victims.

6.7. Implications for practice

For practitioners, the need to develop best practices for the use of computers and digital telecommunication technologies, and to implement measures to ensure the safety of adolescent girls and women who are vulnerable to cyber IPV and cyberbullying in an intimate setting, especially during periods of separation, has been repeatedly raised (Davies, 2013; Dimond et al., 2011; Hand, Chung, & Peters, 2009). Several studies point to the urgent need to strengthen the training of practitioners working in the field of violence against women so that they are more

sensitive to the specific needs of victims of cyber IPV and cyberstalking (Ferreira & Matos, 2013). Training seems to be a key, not only for the prevention of cyber IPV, by offering tools to protect adolescent girls and women against potentially violent challenges posed by information and communication technologies (Dimond et al., 2011), but also for proper care of cyber IPV victims. Indeed, offering appropriate training would increase the receptiveness of practitioners who are likely to receive disclosures of women who are targets of cyber IPV or cyberstalking (Cass & Rosay, 2012). To do this, practitioners need to be aware of the wide range of cyber IPV events, to provide a more receptive response, and refer victims to appropriate resources (Amar, 2007; King-Ries, 2011). This systematic review of the scientific literature lists numerous victimization forms and all technologies involved in cyberviolence. This summary of knowledge will be useful to inform practitioners who intervene with woman victims and vulnerable women, and to support them in adopting a common understanding of the phenomenon, in order to offer a concerted intervention for victims. Before the current review, the lack of knowledge about cyber IPV victimization may have led to a trivialization of its consequences not only by the victims, but also by the practitioners who follow them. Although traditional harassment and cyberstalking share many similarities, including the dynamics of violence involved (in both cases, harassment is often preceded by a tumultuous relationship marked by intimate partner violence), female victims of cyberviolence feel less credible in the eyes of some social and health-care professionals and may not receive the support they need (Cass & Rosay, 2012; Davies, 2013). Some professionals can have a negative attitude towards victims who lodge complaints against an ex-intimate partner, thus increasing the feeling of revictimization of some women (Davies, 2013). Social workers from the various fields of practice (school, community, health and social services, police, judicial) also encounter situations where they must support victims of cyberviolence. Their needs for a better-informed practice could be fulfilled by proper

identification of controlling and harassing behaviors exerted online, and by inventoried risk and protective factors.

This review will also be useful to target prevention and intervention efforts and to inform decision and policy makers. Providing a clear understanding of adolescent girls and women need for protection against intimate partner violence, will help justify the necessity to invest in developing services for victims. It is indeed crucial for decision and policy makers to understand the characteristics of high and low-risk women, to better target populations that needs interventions. In a more global perspective, the present review may contribute to influence social norms by participating in the promotion of harmonious and egalitarian intimate relationships and by raising awareness of the different forms of cyberviolences and their implications for adolescent girls and women (Amar, 2007). Awareness of cyberviolence and cyberbullying will encourage victims to disclose (Cass & Rosay, 2012), frontline workers to adopt an open attitude to receive such disclosures (Bates, 2015, Cass & Rosay, 2012), and witnesses to report situations of cyberviolence that they encountered on social networks (King-Ries, 2011). In addition, a better knowledge of cyber IPV may contribute to the definition of laws and policies to better protect victims

6.8. Limitations and future research

Despite its relevance, the present literature review has limitations. First, because of the chosen focus in women, it overshadowed experiences of male victims. In reviewing studies, we, however, noted that adult men are understudied, and that boys under 18 reported being cyber IPV victimized. Thus, future research is needed to document experiences of victimization of men, and to synthesize available information on adolescent boys. Second, from another perspective, the inclusion of men in some samples of our set made the understanding of women's experience and comparisons across studies more complicated. Now that we have a better grasp of women's

victimization, the first at-risk subgroup identified, we must compare men and women's experiences of victimization in terms of prevalence, frequency, risk and protective factors, consequences and subjective experience. Third, too few risk factors have been identified to compare results across studies and to conclude of their respective contribution. Moreover, all risk factors were examined within cross-sectional designs and should be considered as correlates. It is impossible to know if they are risk factors or consequences of cyber IPV victimization. Therefore, further studies, particularly longitudinal and replication studies and large representative surveys are needed to identify who present a greater risk of being victimized. Only with this approach will allow health agencies to be sufficiently informed to develop prevention programs for population and intervention programs for victims. Before doing so, it is essential that a common definition and operationalization of cyber IPV are adopted by the scientific community, and that a typology of cyber IPV forms is shared, based on the traditional IPV literature. Finally, our study highlighted that to date, little efforts have been made in regard to protective factors for cyber IPV victimization. Future research is needed in this area to develop prevention programs with a positive approach that centers on strength and competencies already present in youth and their family, school, and neighborhood environment.

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Table 1.

Terminology, definitions and measurements used for cyber IPV

| Study | Definition of cyber IPV | Terminology used (forms of violence included) | Measures or methodology used |
|--|--|--|--|
| Quantitative | | | |
| Strawhun, Adams, & Huss (2013) | The use of electronics to perpetrate intentional, repetitive, unwanted, and fear-inducing behaviors toward victims | Electronic use pursuit (Harassment) | Electronic Use Pursuit Behavioral index (Huss & Strawhun, 2008); Cyber Pursuit (Spitzberg & Cupack, 1998) |
| Sargent et al., (2016) | Experiencing intentional interpersonal aggression perpetrated via technology (e.g., cellular phones, online forums). | Cybervictimization (Harassment and indirect) | Modified version of Partner Cyber-Abuse Questionnaire (Wolford-Clevenger, et al., 2015) |
| Chaulk & Jones (2011) | Repeated, unwanted pursuit and invasion of one's sense of physical or symbolic privacy by another person who desires and/or presumes an intimate relationship. | Obsessive relational intrusion (Harassment, stalking, indirect) | Online Obsessive relation intrusion tactics (Chaulk & Jones, 2011). |
| Reed et al. (2017) | Problematic dating behaviors using social media and mobile phones can include: monitoring someone's activities and whereabouts, controlling who they talk to and are friends with, threats and hostility, spreading embarrassing and sexual photos with others, and pressuring for sexual behaviors. | Digital dating abuse (Harassment, stalking, sexual, indirect) | 18 items adapted from Borrajo, Gamez-Guadix, Pereda et al. (2015) and from Reed et al. (2016) |
| Lindsay et al. (2016) | Use of electronic devices to inflict fear to the victim in the context of an intimate relationship. | Online harassment (Harassment) | 5 items from Fine (2004) |
| Pereira, Spitzberg, & Matos (2016) | Information and communication technology mediated harassment, intrusion and surveillance. | Cyberharassment (Harassment, stalking, sexual) | 18 items adapted from Spitzberg & Hoobler (2002) |
| Bennett et al. (2011) | Electronic aggression includes similar elements as relational and psychological aggression—namely, revealing private information, insulting and derogatory language, humiliation, obsessive monitoring, and threats. | Electronic aggression and cyberstalking (Harassment, stalking, indirect) | 22 items originally developed for the study |

Table 1. (continued)

Terminology, definitions and measurements used for cyber IPV

| Study | Definition of cyber IPV | Terminology used (forms of violence included) | Measures or methodology used |
|----------------------------------|---|---|--|
| Quantitatives | | | |
| Lee & O'Sullivan (2014) | No definition provided. | Online and offline post relationship contact and tracking (Stalking, harassment, indirect) | 12 items developed for the present study. |
| Morelli et al., (2016) | No definition provided. | Sexting (indirect, sexual) | Adaptation of the Sexting Behavior Questionnaire (Dir, 2012) |
| Temple et al. (2016) | No definition provided. | Cyber dating abuse (indirect, sexual) | 12 items adapted from Zweig et al. (2013) and Picard (2007) |
| Cattaneo, Cho & Botuck (2011) | No definition provided. | Intimate partner stalking (Stalking, harassment, indirect) | 33 items developed for this study (inspired by Supplemental Victimization Survey, U.S. Department of Justice, 2006) |
| Curtis (2012) | The use of the Internet by someone to pursue, harass, or contact [his/her partner or ex-partner] in any way. | Cyber pursuit and stalking (sexual) | 3 items from the National Violence Against Women Survey and the National Crime Victimization Survey (Baum et al., 2009; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998). |
| Heinrich (2015) | Followed, spied on, communicated with, and/or threatened in a way in which the reasonable person [which is a partner or an ex-partner] felt fearful, through the use of an electronic device (i.e., telephone calls, text messages, or emails, or through the use of social networking sites, etc.). | Cyberstalking (Stalking, indirect) | 9 items adapted from Buhi et al., 2008; Chaulk & Jones, 2011; DeBing, Bailer, Anders, Wagner, & Gallas, 2014) |
| Wisternoff (2008) | No definition provided. | Unwanted pursuit and stalking (Harassment) | 4 items from the Self- and Partner-stalking Sub-scale (Stenswick, 2002) |

Table 1. (continued)

Terminology, definitions and measurements used for cyber IPV

| <i>Definition of cyber IPV</i> | <i>Terminology used (forms of violence included)</i> | <i>Measures or methodology used</i> |
|---------------------------------------|--|---|
| Quantitatives | | |
| Nguyen, Spitzberg, & Lee (2008) | No definition provided. | Mediated contact strategies (Harassment) 5 items from the ORI-42 (Spitzberg & Cupach, 2007) |
| Edwards & Gidycz (2014) | No definition provided. | Stalking (Harassment) The Harassment subscale of the Composite Abuse Scale (Hegarty, Sheehan, & Schonfeld, 1999) |
| Amar (2006) | No definition provided. | Unsolicited or harassing phone calls or emails (Harassment) 2 items from The National Violence Against Women Survey |
| Borrajo et al (2015) | No definition provided. | Cyber dating abuse(Stalking, harassment, indirect) 20 item questionnaire developed for this study (Cyber Dating Abuse Questionnaire) |
| Cho & Huang (2017) | No definition provided. | Technological violence (Harassment) 2 items from Southworth et al. (2007). |
| Dank et al. (2014) | No definition provided. | Digital dating abuse (Stalking, harassment, indirect, sexual) 5 items adapted from Picard (2007) and Griezel (2007) |
| Wang, Zhou, & Zhang (2017) | Discovering his or her partner's online and offline behaviors by simply clicking on a profile page, monitoring, or stalking. | Stalking (Stalking) IES scale from Tokunaga (2011) |
| Reed et al. (2016) | Monitoring a dating partner's activities and whereabouts and using digital media to invade a partner's privacy. | Electronic intrusion (Harassment, stalking) 6 items from Electronic intrusion questionnaire (Reed, Tolman, & Safyer, 2015; Reed, Tolman, & Ward, 2016) |
| Yahner, Dank, Zweig, & Lachman (2015) | Digitally perpetrated cyber abuse. | Cyberabuse (Harassment, sexual, indirect) 16 items adapted from Picard (2007) and Griezel (2007) |

Table 1. (continued)

Terminology, definitions and measurements used for cyber IPV

| <i>Definition of cyber IPV</i> | <i>Terminology used (forms of violence included)</i> | <i>Measures or methodology used</i> |
|--------------------------------|---|---|
| Quantitatives | | |
| Burke et al., (2011) | Interpersonal intrusion to the point of obsessive relational intrusion using communication technology to monitor or control partners in their intimate relationships. | No specific term (Harassment, stalking) |
| Wolak et al. (2017) | Sextortion refers to situations in which perpetrators threaten to expose sexual images to coerce victims to provide additional pictures, engage in sexual activity, or agree to other demands, even if exposure of the image never actually occurs. Other terms, such as sexting (i.e., self-production and distribution of sexually explicit images via digital media), nonconsensual pornography (i.e., distribution of sexual images without consent), and revenge pornography (i.e., malicious distribution of sexual images) may include sextortion. | Sextortion (Indirect, sexual) |
| Qualitatives | | |
| Alvarez (2012) | Cyberbullying can be generally defined as the intentional bullying or harassment of another person using technology including texts, cell phones, pagers, computers, websites, chat rooms, instant messages and social networking sites (Shariff, 2008). | Cyberbullying in dating relationship (Harassment, stalking) |
| Rueda et al. (2015) | No definition provided. Cyberviolence is understand as a context in which intimate partner violence occurs. | Technologies in romantic conflict (Stalking) |
| Baker & Carreno (2016) | No definition provided. Cyberviolence is understand as a context in which intimate partner violence occurs. | Technologies in dating violence (Stalking) |
| Bates (2015) | A form of sexual abuse that involves the distribution of nude/sexually explicit photos and/or videos of an individual without their consent. Revenge porn, is usually posted by a scorned ex-lover [...] to seek revenge after a relationship has gone sour (endrevengeporn.org; 2015). | Revenge porn (Sexual) |
| Davies (2013) | Harassment or stalking through the electronic transmission of threats, false accusations, or computer surveillance that caused the target to suffer emotional distress, [...] fear, [...] mild annoyance and irritation, as well as those who had experienced psychological and somatic distress. | Technological stalking (Stalking) |

Aggressor has utilized technology to disrupt the life of the target [...]
through] data transmission, such as landlines and mobile phones, GPS, as
well as the internet through email, blog posts, and social media.

Table 1. (continued)

Terminology, definitions and measurements used for cyber IPV

| <i>Definition of cyber IPV</i> | <i>Terminology used (forms of violence included)</i> | <i>Measures or methodology used</i> | |
|-----------------------------------|--|---|---|
| Dimond, Fiesler & Bruckman (2011) | No definition provided. | Information communication technologies in domestic violence (Harassment) | Semi-structured interviews and thematic analysis. |
| Stonard et al. (2017) | Coercion, threats, harassment, intimidation, emotional and verbal abuse, stealing online identity, controlling behaviors, sexual abuse, and cyberstalking [using electronic communication technologies]. Sexting has been defined as “the creating, sharing and forwarding of sexually suggestive nude or nearly nude images by teens” (Lenhart, 2009, p. 3). | Electronic communication technologies (ECT) in romantic relationship or Technology assisted adolescent dating violence and abuse (TAADVA) (Stalking) / Sexting (Sexual) | Focus groups and thematic analysis. |
| Mixed-methods | | | |
| Woodlock (2017) | No definition provided. | Partner stalking with technologies (Stalking, indirect) | Homemade questionnaire. No details provided. / Thematic analysis. |

Notes. PS = Post-separation victimization. IR = Intimate relationship victimization.

Table 2.

Critical findings in quantitative studies

| Study | Design | Sample size | Sample type | Context of victimization | Prevalence [†] | Risk and protective Factors | Quality |
|--|--------|-------------|-------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|--|---------|
| Samples of adolescent girls | | | | | | | |
| Pereira, Spitzberg, & Matos (2016) | C | 344 | GP | IR | 66.4 (StHSe) | | UC |
| Samples of 18 to 25 years old women | | | | | | | |
| Lindsay et al., (2016) | C | 154 | CS | IR | 21.0 (H) | | Low |
| Edward & Gidycz (2014) | P | 56 | CS | PS | 51.8 (H) | | Low |
| Burke et al. (2011) | C | 500 | CS | IR | < 1.0 – 65.0(StH) | | Low |
| Wang, Zhou, & Zhang (2017) | C | 250 | CS | IR | n/a (St) | Stalking perpetration*, avoidant attachment of partners*, anxious attachment, avoidant attachment, partner's anxious attachment. | Low |
| Wolak et al. (2016) | C | 1,148 | VP | IR | 69.8-74.5(Sel) | | High |
| Amar (2006) | C | 601 | CS | PS/RI | 19.0-70.0 (H) | | High |
| Sample of adult women | | | | | | | |
| Cattaneo, Cho, & Botuck (2011) | L | 82 | VP | IR/PS | 7.3 – 72.0 (StHI) | | Low |
| Woodlock (2017) | M | 46 | VP | n/a | 6.0 – 78.0 (St) | | High |

Table 2. (continued)
Critical findings in quantitative studies

| Study | Design | Sample size | Sample type | Context of victimization | Prevalence [†] | Risk and protective Factors | Quality |
|---|--------|-------------|-------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--|---------|
| Samples of girls and boys, results indicated for girls | | | | | | | |
| Yahner, et al. (2015) | C | 2,880 | GP | IR | 18.0 (HSeI) | Bullying victimization/perpetration*, physical bullying victimization/perpetration *, psychological bullying victimization/perpetration *, cyberbullying victimization/perpetration * | Low |
| Reed et al. (2016) | C | 394 | GP | IR | n/a (StH) | Gender* ^Δ , psychological distress*. | Low |
| Temple et al. (2016) | C | 604 | GP | IR | 22.3 -24.0 (Sel) | Physical DV victimization* ^Δ , cyber DV perpetration* ^Δ , gender, ethnicity, age, parental education, psychological DV victimization and perpetration, physical DV perpetration. | Low |
| Reed et al. (2017) | M | 530 | GP | IR/PS | 34.3-54.9 (StHSel) | Gender* (only for sexual victimization). | High |
| Dank et al. (2014) | C | 1,959 | GP | IR | 26.3 ^Δ (Se) | Gender* ^Δ , Being lesbian, gay or bisexual* ^Δ , being transgender* ^Δ . | Low |
| Samples of 18 to 25 years old men and women, results indicated for women | | | | | | | |
| Sargent et al. (2016) | C | 172 | CS | IR | 48.8 (StHI) | Psychological IPV victimization*, race, sex, gender. | High |
| Bennett et al. (2011) | C | 299 | CS | IR | 76.5(StHI) | Alcohol use*, substance use*, risky sex*, cyberviolence perpetration*, psychological IPV victimization* physical IPV victimization*. | Low |
| Lee & O'Sullivan (2014) | C | 181 | GP | PS | 44.2 ^Δ (StHI) | Gender* ^Δ , relationship length* ^Δ , breakup intensity* ^Δ relationship type ^Δ . | High |

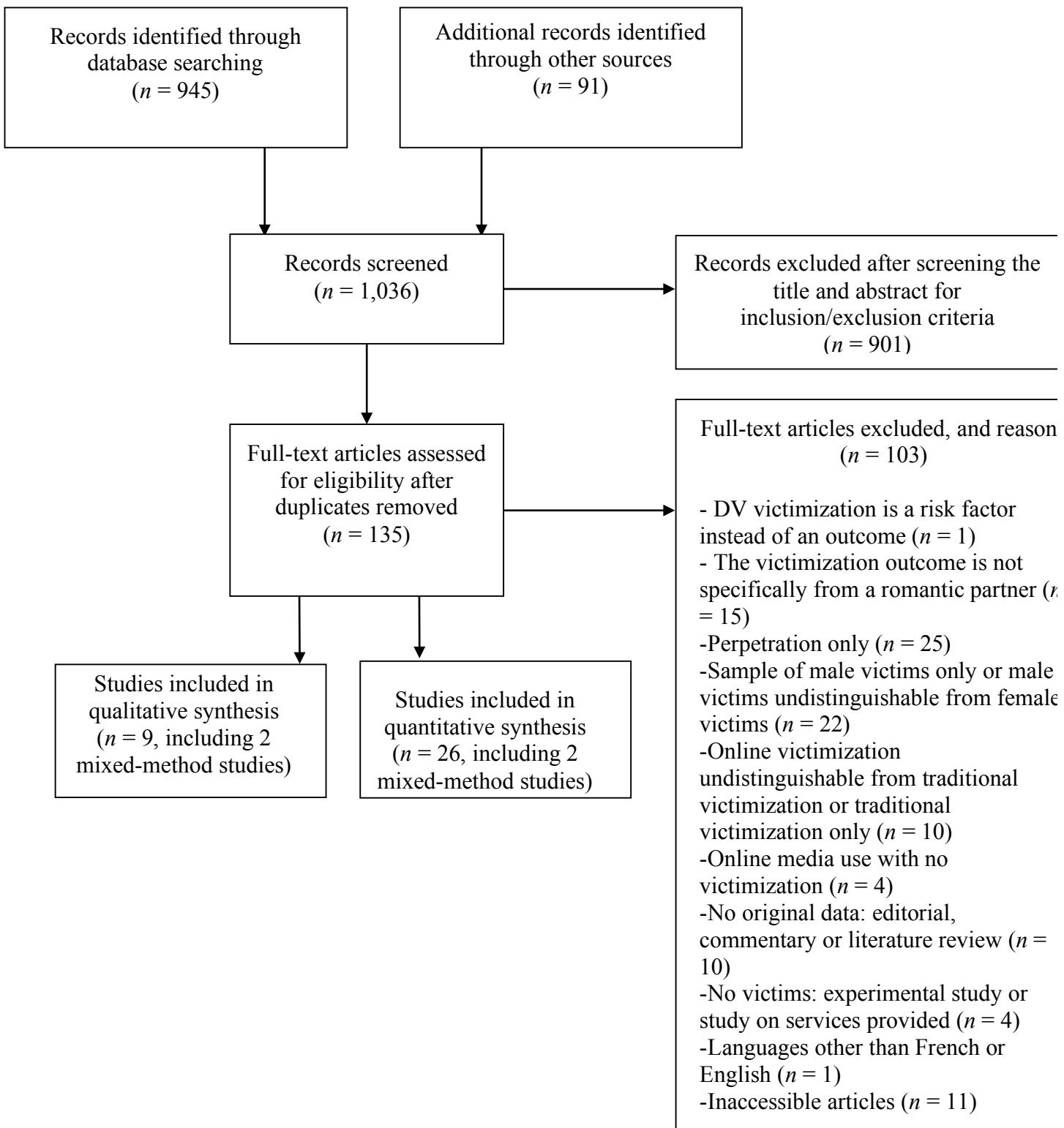
Table 2. (continued)

Critical findings in quantitative studies

| Study | Design | Sample size | Sample type | Context of victimization | Prevalence ^f | Risk and protective factors | Quality |
|---|--------|-------------|-------------|--------------------------|---|---|---------|
| Samples of 18 to 25 years old men and women, results indicated for women (continued) | | | | | | | |
| Chaulk & Jones (2011) | C | 150 | CS | PS | 2.0 – 55.0 ^A (StHI) | | UC |
| Morelli et al. (2016) | C | 907 | GP | IR/PS | 3.3 ^A (Se) | Gender* ^A , being a moderate or heavy sexting user* ^A | High |
| Curtis (2012) | C | 264 | CS | IR/PS | 52.9 ^A (SeI) | | High |
| Borrajo et al. (2015) | C | 609 | GP | IR | 14.0 – 75.0 ^A (StHI) | | High |
| Heinrich (2015) | C | 575 | CS | IR/PS | IR : 8.5 ^A (StI) PS : 45.4 ^A (StI) | | High |
| Wisternoff (2008) | C | 100 | CS | PS | 20.6 ^A (H) | | High |
| Cho & Huang (2017) | C | 216 | CS | IR | 9.8 ^A (H) | | High |
| Nguyen, Spitzberg & Lee (2012) | C | 651 | CS | IR/PS | 46.5 ^A (SeI) | Coping tactics* ^A , resilience* ^A , negative symptoms* ^A , significant others* ^{Ap} , friends support ^{Ap} , family support ^{Ap} | High |
| Strawhun, Adams, & Huss (2013) | C | 159 | GP | PS | 27.0 (H) | Cyber IPV perpetration* ^A , anxious attachment* ^A , secure attachment* ^{Ap} , jealousy* ^A , anger arousal* ^A , psychological IPV perpetration* ^A , physical IPV perpetration* ^A , preoccupied attachment ^A , avoidant attachment ^A , | UC |

Notes. No study included have examined samples of adult men and women. C = Cross-sectional study. L = Longitudinal study. P = Prospective study. M = Mixed-method study. GP = general population, CS = college students, VP = vulnerable population. PS = Post-separation victimization. IR = Intimate relationship victimization.^f Letters in parentheses indicate forms of cyber IPV examined: H = Harassment. St = Stalking. Se = Sexual violence. I = Indirect violence. ^A Results are presented for overall sample: women are not differentiated from men. IPV = intimate partner violence. DV = dating violence. ^{Ap} protective factor. * $p < .05$. Low = low risk of bias, High = high risk of bias, UC = unclear risk of bias.

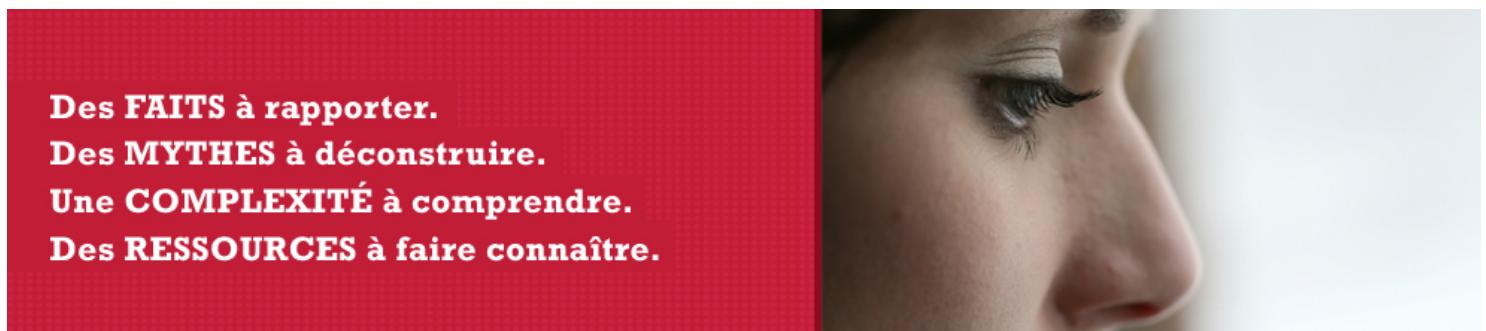
CYBER VICTIMIZATION IN INTIMATE RELATIONSHIPS

*Figure 1.* Flowchart of the systematic review process.

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Rechercher



Cyberviolences dans les relations intimes

Avec la collaboration de Mylène Fernet, Université du Québec à Montréal, Andréanne Lapierre, Université du Québec à Montréal, Martine Hébert, Université du Québec à Montréal, Marie-Marthe Cousineau, Université de Montréal, Julie Laforest, Institut national de santé publique du Québec

Note : Ce texte est tiré des résultats d'une synthèse de connaissances financée par le Fonds de recherche du Québec – Société et culture et par le ministère de la Santé et des Services sociaux dans le cadre des Actions concertées - Programme de recherche sur la violence conjugale.

Faits saillants

- Les cyberviolences dans les relations intimes et en contexte de séparation réfèrent à l'usage des technologies pour surveiller, contrôler, harceler un partenaire intime ou un ex-partenaire ou pour mettre de la pression sur ce dernier. Différents dispositifs technologiques sont employés par les partenaires et les ex-partenaires intimes pour exercer ces formes de violence (ex. : géolocalisation, services de messagerie instantanée, chaîne de diffusion vidéos, réseaux sociaux).
- Des études conduites auprès de femmes victimes de violence conjugale établissent que jusqu'à 78 % d'entre elles ont subi des cyberviolences.
- Les facteurs qui augmentent le risque d'être cybervictimisé par un partenaire intime ou un ex-partenaire sont :
 - Être une femme ;
 - Avoir été victime de violence physique, psychologique ou sexuelle dans sa relation intime ;
 - Avoir exercé de la violence physique, psychologique ou sexuelle dans sa relation intime;
 - Avoir exercé des cyberviolences envers son partenaire.

Comment peut-on définir les cyberviolences en contexte intime et de séparation?

- Les cyberviolences sont une forme spécifique de violence dans les relations intimes qui se produisent également en contexte de séparation. Elles se manifestent par l'utilisation des technologies pour harceler, surveiller, contrôler ou exercer des pressions sur un partenaire ou un ancien partenaire.
- L'omniprésence des médias sociaux et des technologies permettant la communication instantanée, la rapidité avec laquelle l'information peut être diffusée à une multiplicité de personnes connues et inconnues, ainsi que le caractère permanent des contenus publiés en ligne engendrent pour les victimes des conséquences différentes des formes traditionnelles de violence conjugale. Il est en effet de plus en plus complexe pour les victimes de trouver un espace où se sentir en sécurité, libre des influences et du contrôle du partenaire intime ou de l'ex-partenaire. Même si ce dernier n'est pas en présence de la victime, il a le potentiel d'entrer en contact avec elle, à tout moment, peu importe où elle se trouve.

Quelles sont les formes de cyberviolences?

Plusieurs formes de cyberviolences ont été distinguées dans les études scientifiques menées sur le sujet. Les définitions suivantes sont tirées de la recension systématique des écrits de Fernet, Lapierre, Hébert et Cousineau¹. Deux catégories principales sont d'abord présentées : la cyberviolence directe et la cyberviolence indirecte. La typologie proposée par Fernet et ses collaborateurs repose sur la nature des gestes posés, comme c'est le cas pour la violence conjugale traditionnelle.

La cyberviolence directe

Cette forme de cyberviolence réfère à une utilisation des technologies dans un contexte privé c'est-à-dire sans l'intention première que de tierces personnes soient témoins de l'agression. La violence est exercée envers un partenaire intime ou un ex-partenaire à l'aide d'un téléphone cellulaire, d'un service de messagerie instantanée ou d'autres dispositifs technologiques.

La cyberviolence directe

| Formes | Description | Exemples |
|---------------------------------------|---|--|
| La surveillance et le contrôle | Utilisation des technologies ou des données hébergées en ligne pour obtenir de l'information au sujet d'un partenaire actuel ou d'un ancien partenaire intime, afin de savoir notamment ce qu'il fait, où il se trouve et avec qui. Ces informations permettent généralement d'exercer de l'influence et du contrôle sur le partenaire intime ou l'ex-partenaire. | Examiner le contenu du téléphone cellulaire de la partenaire afin de lire les messages instantanés qu'elle reçoit. |
| Le harcèlement | Comportement de cyberviolence directe où un partenaire ou un ex-partenaire utilise les technologies pour contacter ou pour tenter de contacter, contre son gré, son partenaire ou son ex-partenaire, et ce, à répétition. | Envoyer des messages textes ou des messages instantanés à son partenaire à répétition et contre son gré. |
| La cyberviolence sexuelle | Comportement qui consiste à forcer son partenaire ou son ex-partenaire à recevoir ou à envoyer des contenus écrits, audio, photos ou vidéos à caractère sexuel à l'aide des technologies, ou à exercer des pressions pour qu'il ou elle le fasse. | Transmettre ou faire des pressions pour recevoir des photos des parties génitales. |

La cyberviolence indirecte

La cyberviolence indirecte est la diffusion publique de contenus en ligne au sujet d'un partenaire ou d'un ancien partenaire. Ce contenu peut être sexuel (ex. : photos de la victime nue, vidéos de relations sexuelles impliquant la victime) ou non (ex. : photos ou messages portant atteinte à la réputation de la victime, ou menaçant son entourage).

Ce contenu peut être diffusé publiquement en ligne (ex : sur le mur Facebook ou un dans un fil d'actualité) ou être directement envoyé à des individus, généralement connus de la victime (famille, collègues, nouveau partenaire, etc.) à l'aide d'une liste d'envoi courriel ou d'un service de messagerie instantanée.

La particularité de cette forme de violence est l'utilisation du réseau social de la victime pour exercer une pression sur elle et l'agresser indirectement.

Quelles sont les moyens technologiques utilisés?

La recension de Fernet et de ses collaborateurs¹ a permis de faire l'inventaire des moyens technologiques utilisés pour exercer des cyberviolences dans un contexte de relations intimes ou de séparation. Tous ces moyens peuvent être utilisés pour exercer l'une ou l'autre des formes de cyberviolences, qu'elles soient directes ou indirectes.

- Les **médias sociaux** incluent les plateformes de partage comme Facebook, Twitter et Instagram. Ils incluent aussi les services de messagerie instantanée comme Messenger, WhatsApp et Snapchat et les blogues, les forums de discussion ainsi que les émissions baladodiffusées. Les cyberviolences peuvent être exercées à différents niveaux sur les médias sociaux. Par exemple, les contenus (écrits, audio, photos ou vidéos) ou des discussions au sujet de la victime peuvent être diffusés sur les murs, les fils d'actualité, par des stories, par des émissions en balado, sur des blogues ou des forums et par l'exclusion de la victime de groupes en ligne.
- Les **services de messagerie** (courriel) peuvent également être utilisés pour exercer les différentes formes de cyberviolence décrites. Différentes stratégies rapportées par les victimes peuvent prendre la forme d'une perturbation du service de courriel par l'envoi répété de messages, l'utilisation de l'identité courriel de la victime pour souscrire à des listes d'envoi, des services en ligne ou pour effectuer des achats, ainsi que la surveillance des courriels entrants (lecture du contenu des courriels reçus par la victime).
- Les cyberviolences peuvent aussi être exercées à l'aide d'un **téléphone cellulaire**. Cette stratégie comprend l'envoi, contre le gré de la victime, de contenus qui ont un impact sur son bien-être psychologique (ex. : contenu menaçant ou à caractère sexuel), ainsi que des appels ou des textos répétés et non désirés. Cette stratégie inclut également l'activation des fonctions de géolocalisation qui peut être faite à l'insu de la victime et qui permet de suivre en temps réel ou en différé ses déplacements.
- D'autres **dispositifs technologiques** sont aussi utilisés afin de surveiller son partenaire ou son ex-partenaire. La recherche d'informations en ligne et la compilation de données au sujet de la victime (stalking), les logiciels de piratage de mots de passe, les logiciels espions (qui enregistrent les activités en ligne de la victime comme les habitudes d'achats ou de fréquentation de sites) ou d'enregistrement de frappes (qui compilent toutes les informations écrites par la victime à l'aide de son clavier comme les courriels rédigés et les messages instantanés envoyés), ainsi que les caméras cachées ou les caméras activées à distance sont autant de dispositifs disponibles à l'heure actuelle pour exercer la cyberviolence.

Ampleur des cyberviolences

Les cyberviolences sont un phénomène répandu, mais il est encore difficile d'en cerner l'ampleur. Selon la recension des écrits de Fernet et ses collaborateurs¹, jusqu'à 78 % des femmes rapportent avoir déjà subi un geste de cyberviolence de la part d'un partenaire ou d'un ex-partenaire.

Les études réalisées auprès d'**adolescentes et d'adolescents** sont peu nombreuses. Elles montrent que la cyberviolence sexuelle est la forme de violence la plus étudiée, suivie du harcèlement et de la surveillance. Ces trois formes de cyberviolence directe touchent entre 18 % et 55 % des adolescentes et des adolescents, la proportion variant selon l'étude. Une seule étude² recensée a permis de spécifier les résultats concernant la victimisation des adolescentes. Dans cette étude, 66 % des adolescentes sont victimes de cyberviolences (surveillance et contrôle, harcèlement et cyberviolence sexuelle)². Finalement, la cyberviolence indirecte, elle, concerne entre 18 % et 55 % des adolescentes et des adolescents.

Les jeunes adultes (18-25 ans) sont le sous-groupe le plus étudié; la majorité des études au sujet des cyberviolences ont été réalisées auprès d'échantillons d'étudiants collégiaux ou universitaires¹. Le harcèlement, qui est la forme de violence qui a été la plus documentée dans ces études, est

subi dans une proportion variant entre 2 % et 70 % chez les jeunes femmes et entre 2 % et 77 % des jeunes dans les études incluant des hommes et des femmes. La surveillance et le contrôle sont des formes subies dans une proportion variant entre 1 % et 65 % des femmes et par 2 % à 77 % des jeunes adultes dans les études qui ont considéré les femmes et les hommes. La cyberviolence sexuelle varie entre 3 % et 53 % chez les jeunes adultes dans les études dont les échantillons comprennent à la fois des hommes des femmes, mais elle pourrait s'élèver jusqu'à 70 % à 75 % des jeunes femmes adultes, bien que de telles proportions ne sont rapportées que dans une seule étude. Finalement, la violence indirecte toucherait entre 70 % à 75 % des jeunes femmes (résultat rapporté par une seule étude) et entre 2 % à 77 % des jeunes adultes¹. En somme, la prévalence de la victimisation varie beaucoup d'une étude à l'autre en fonction des définitions utilisées pour conceptualiser la cyberviolence et des instruments utilisés pour la mesurer.

Seules deux études ont examiné la prévalence de la victimisation auprès des **femmes adultes (18 ans et plus)**. Elles ont toutes deux documenté la surveillance et le contrôle et ont rapporté des proportions de victimisation variant entre 6 % et 78 %^{3,4}. L'une d'entre elles a aussi examiné le harcèlement en ligne et la cyberviolence indirecte et a révélé que 7 % à 72 % des femmes en étaient victimes³.

Facteurs de vulnérabilité et de protection de la cybervictimisation par un partenaire ou un ex-partenaire intime

La recension systématique des écrits de Fernet et ses collaborateurs¹ a permis de dégager quelques facteurs de vulnérabilité et de protection identifiés dans les écrits scientifiques comme étant associés à la victimisation. Très peu d'études ont examiné ces facteurs et elles utilisaient toutes un devis transversal (un seul temps de mesure). Ainsi, il est impossible de savoir si les facteurs identifiés sont une cause ou une conséquence des cyberviolences : il est seulement possible d'affirmer qu'ils y sont associés. Ces facteurs sont présentés dans le tableau suivant. Le fait d'être une femme se distingue comme le facteur ayant été le plus fréquemment associé au risque d'être victime de cyberviolence^{5,6,7,8}.

| | Facteurs de vulnérabilité | Facteurs de protection |
|---|--|--|
| À tout âge ^{5,6,7,8} | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Être une femme | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Non documenté spécifiquement |
| À l'adolescence ^{5,8,9,10,11} | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vivre de la détresse psychologique • Avoir des antécédents de violence (physique, psychologique ou sexuelle) commise ou subie dans des relations amoureuses • Vivre de la violence commise par des pairs | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Non documenté spécifiquement |
| Chez les jeunes adultes ^{6,7,12,13,14,15,16} | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exercer de la cyberviolence dans sa relation intime • Exercer ou subir de la violence physique, psychologique ou sexuelle dans sa relation intime • Surveiller les comportements du partenaire en ligne • Avoir un attachement de style évitant | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Avoir un attachement sécurisant • Vivre des relations significatives dans son réseau de soutien |
| À l'âge adulte | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aucune étude n'a examiné spécifiquement les facteurs de vulnérabilité ou de protection à l'âge adulte. | |

Mythes et réalité entourant les cyberviolences en contexte de relation intime ou de séparation

Des mythes entourant la violence conjugale sont véhiculés dans la population. Certains d'entre eux ont trait à la violence exercée en ligne par un partenaire ou un ex-partenaire intime.

Mythe : Les cyberviolences ont moins de répercussions sur les victimes puisqu'aucun contact n'a lieu dans la réalité entre l'agresseur et la victime.

Réalité : Même si les cyberviolences exercées par des partenaires ou d'ex-partenaires se produisent en ligne, elles ont des conséquences importantes sur les victimes. Le harcèlement en ligne, la surveillance et le contrôle exercés à l'aide des technologies, ainsi que la diffusion de contenu à caractère sexuel peuvent avoir d'importantes répercussions^{2,8,14}:

- **Physiques** : fatigue, perte de poids, automutilation, suicide et tentatives de suicide;
- **Psychologiques** : détresse émotionnelle, pensées suicidaires, symptômes anxieux et dépressifs, peur;
- **Interpersonnelles** : perte de relations significatives, difficultés à s'engager avec un nouveau partenaire intime;
- **Financières** : perte d'emploi, déménagements, réabonnement à des services technologiques, médication, services pour suppression du contenu;
- **Autres** : temps investi pour porter plainte aux autorités, interruption de sa participation à des activités sociales dans sa communauté et en milieu de travail, difficultés à trouver un nouvel emploi, peur de perdre la garde de ses enfants en cour en raison du contenu pornographique diffusé en ligne, etc.

Mythe : Pour s'en sortir, les victimes de cyberviolences en contexte intime et de séparation n'ont qu'à couper le contact avec leur partenaire.

Réalité : Étant donné la rapidité avec laquelle les informations sont propagées sur Internet et la facilité avec laquelle il est possible de créer des profils pour entrer en contact avec des individus, il est très difficile pour une victime de limiter les échanges avec son agresseur et d'interrompre la diffusion d'informations qui la concerne.

- Le contenu diffusé publiquement en ligne au sujet de la victime peut difficilement être retracé et effacé.
- Le contenu diffusé aux proches de la victime (ex. : des photos de la victime nue transmises à partir d'une liste d'envoi) peut difficilement être récupéré et il est difficile d'en limiter la diffusion et les répercussions.
- Des logiciels espions (ex. : logiciel de géolocalisation) peuvent être installés à l'insu de la victime sur ses appareils électroniques (ex. : cellulaire) rendant la désactivation difficile.
- L'agresseur peut continuer de contacter la victime sur les réseaux sociaux 1) directement, par la création de nouveaux comptes ou 2) indirectement, par les publications de contacts communs (ex. : en commentant du contenu publié par un tiers), et ce, même si la victime a bloqué le profil de l'agresseur.

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- ¹³ Nguyen, L. K., Spitzberg, B. H., Lee, C. M. (2012). Coping With Obsessive Relational Intrusion and Stalking: The Role of Social Support and Coping Strategies, *Violence and Victims*, 27(3), 414-433.
- ¹⁴ Sargent, K. S., Krauss, A., Jouriles, E. N., McDonald, R. (2016). Cyber Victimization, Psychological Intimate Partner Violence, and Problematic Mental Health Outcomes Among First-Year College Students. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior, and Social Networking*, 19(9), 545–550. doi: [10.1089/cyber.2016.0115](https://doi.org/10.1089/cyber.2016.0115)
- ¹⁵ Strawhun, J., Adams, N., Huss, M. T. (2013). The assessment of cyberstalking: An expanded examination including social networking, attachment, jealousy, and anger in relation to violence and abuse. *Violence and Victims*, 28(4), 715–730.
- ¹⁶ Wang, K., Zhou, M., Zhang, Z. (2017). Computers in Human Behavior Can insecurely attached dating couples get compensated on social network sites? The effect of surveillance. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 73, 303–310. doi: [10.1016/j.chb.2017.03.046](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2017.03.046)
- ¹⁷ Lindsay, M., Booth, J. M., Messing, J. T. (2016). Experiences of Online Harassment Among Emerging Adults: Emotional Reactions and the Mediating Role of Fear. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 31(3), 3174-3195. doi: [10.1177/0886260515584344](https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260515584344)

De quoi parle-t-on?

Définition

Formes de violence conjugale

Cycle de la violence conjugale

Mythes et réalités

Facteurs de risque

Victimes

Femmes

Hommes

Enfants exposés

Conséquences

Sur les victimes

[Sur les enfants exposés](#)

[Sur la société et l'économie](#)

[Conjoints ayant des comportements violents](#)

[Homicide conjugal](#)

[Circonstances](#)

[Facteurs de risque](#)

[Signes de danger imminent](#)

[Homicide-suicide](#)

[Autres homicides intrafamiliaux](#)

[Contextes de vulnérabilité](#)

[Adolescence](#)

[Femmes âgées](#)

[Femmes autochtones](#)

[Femmes handicapées](#)

[Femmes immigrantes](#)

[Personnes LGBT](#)

[Cyberviolences dans les relations intimes](#)

Québec 

[© 2001-2018 Gouvernement du Québec](#)

Parlons de CYBER VIOLENCE

dans les relations amoureuses



CYBERVIOLENCE DIRECTE

Utilisation des technologies pour exercer de la violence envers un partenaire ou un ex-partenaire dans un contexte privé, c'est-à-dire sans avoir l'intention que d'autres personnes en soient témoins.

CYBERVIOLENCE INDIRECTE

Diffusion de contenus en ligne au sujet de son partenaire amoureux ou d'un ex-partenaire amoureux qui portent atteinte à sa réputation ou qui engendrent une pression sociale.

Peut être publié publiquement (fil d'actualité) ou directement envoyé à des individus.

VOUS PENSEZ CONNAÎTRE UNE PERSONNE VICTIME ?

Vous pouvez l'inviter à

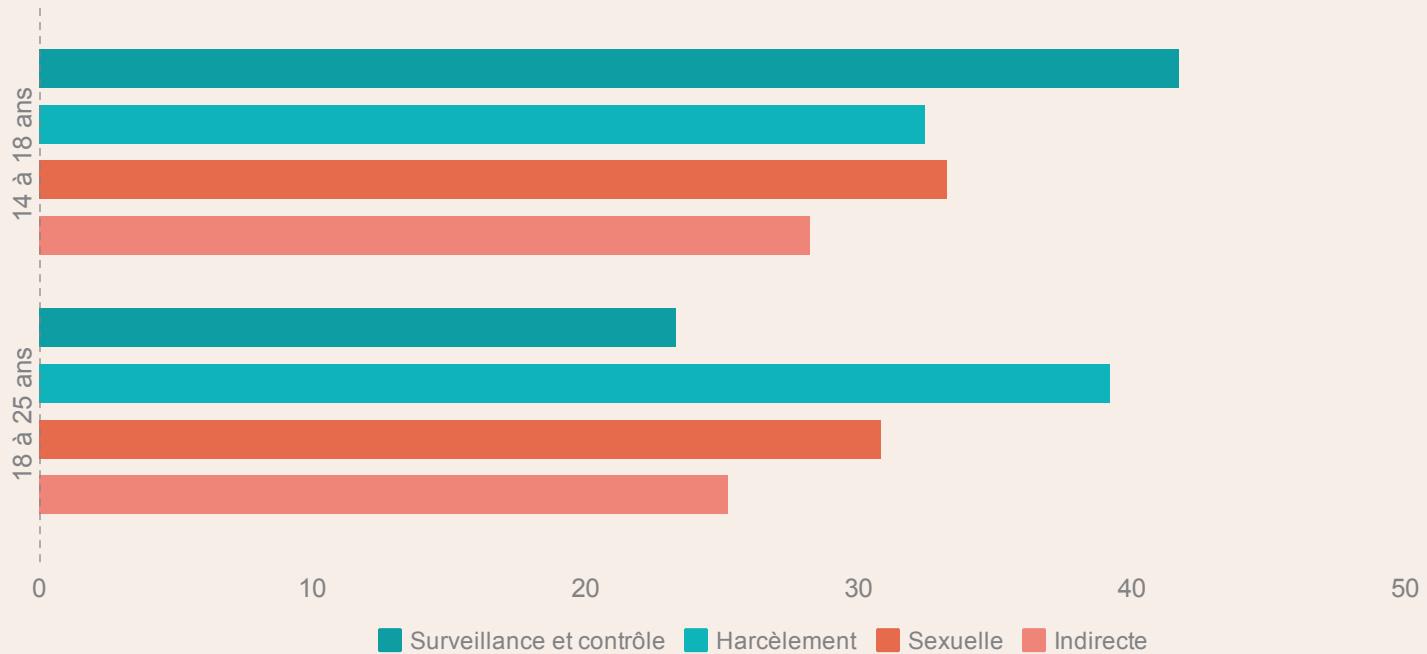
- 1 En parler à quelqu'un de confiance.
- 2 Garder des traces de ce qu'elle vit.
- 3 Contacter Tel Jeune - teljeunes.com

Tél. : 1 800 263-2266

Texto: 514 600-1002

Formes de cyberviolence

Est-ce qu'elles sont répandues ?!



Cyberviolences directes

Surveillance et contrôle

Utilisation des technologies et des données en lignes pour obtenir de l'information au sujet de son partenaire, pour savoir ce qu'il fait, où il se trouve et avec qui.

Harcèlement

Utilisation des technologies pour contacter son partenaire de manière répétée ou pour tenter de le contacter même si ce comportement n'est pas désiré par celui-ci.

Sexuelle

Être forcée par son partenaire de faire parvenir des « sextos », d'autres types de messages, des photos ou des vidéos à caractère sexuel ou en recevoir de sa part contre son gré.

Cyberviolences indirectes

Sexuelle / non sexuelle

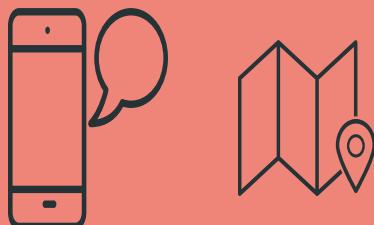
Dissémination de contenus, de photos ou de rumeurs au sujet de son partenaire en public ou envois à ses proches.

Ce contenu peut être de nature sexuelle ou non.

Technologies utilisées

Peu importe la forme de cyberviolence, plusieurs technologies peuvent être utilisées...

Cellulaires



SMS
Géolocalisation

Réseaux sociaux

Réseaux sociaux
Messagerie instantanée
Blog
Forums



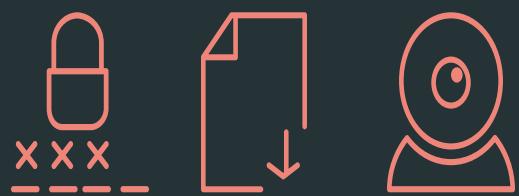
Courriels et données



Compilation de données au sujet de la victime
Envois répétés de courriels
Utilisation de l'identité pour s'inscrire à des abonnements et faire des achats en ligne

Dispositifs de surveillance

Logiciels espions
Piratage de mots de passe
Caméra cachée ou activée à distance



Facteurs de RISQUE et de PROTECTION

64



Facteurs associés à un plus haut risque de cybervictimisation :

- Être une femme
- Faire partie de la diversité sexuelle
- Avoir un attachement anxieux
- Consommation alcool
- Être victime de violence dans son couple
- Utiliser la violence dans son couple
- Utiliser la cyberviolence dans son couple
- Être victime de bullying ou cyberbullying
- Utiliser le sexting avec consentement
- Comportements sexuels à risque



Facteur associé à un plus faible risque de victimisation :

- Attachement sécurisant



D'autres facteurs ont été examinés, mais leur effet sur la victimisation est incertain :

- Support des amis
- Support des pairs
- Âge
- Origine ethnique
- Niveau d'éducation des parents
- Attachement évitant et préoccupé
- Être jaloux ou colérique
- Consommation de drogues

Présentation de l'étude

Les informations présentées sont tirées d'une recension systématique des écrits scientifiques qui ont été publiés sur le sujet.

Méthodologie :

Au total, 1036 études ont été recensées. Parmi celles-ci, 135 ont été sélectionnées à l'aide de leur titre et de leur résumé et ont été examinées afin de savoir si elles répondraient aux critères d'inclusion.

Finalement, 32 études correspondaient aux critères d'inclusion. Elles examinaient toutes la prévalence de la cybervictimisation des femmes ou des adolescentes ou leur expérience de victimisation. Certaines études incluaient des hommes ou des garçons, ou encore des femmes en situation de vulnérabilité (p.ex. qui étaient sans domicile fixe ou qui recevaient des services d'aide dans des maisons d'hébergement pour femmes).

Des informations concernant leurs méthodes de recherche, leurs instruments de mesure, ainsi que leurs résultats ont été codifiées. Environ 30 % des études ont été codifiées par deux codeurs indépendants. Ils étaient en accord 95% du temps. Ce taux d'accord montre la validité de la codification

Les études sélectionnées étaient généralement de bonne qualité : elles employaient des méthodes de recherche rigoureuses.

Recommandations :

D'autres études sont nécessaires pour mieux comprendre qui est le plus à risque de subir de la cyberviolence dans ses relations amoureuses.

Cette capsule est tirée de

Fernet M., Lapierre, A., Hébert, M., & Cousineau, M.-M. A Systematic Review of Literature on Cyber Intimate Partner Victimization in Adolescent Girls and Women. Journal of Computers in Human Behavior. 50 pages.

Elle a été réalisée en collaboration avec
 Association Québécoise Plaidoyer-Victime
 Centre Cyber-aide
 CIUSS du Bas-St-Laurent
 Institut national de santé publique du Québec
 Jude-Mary Cénat, Ph.D.
 Trajetvi

Des questions ?

Consulte teljeunes.com

Pour des ateliers et des conférences sur le sujet



centrecyber-aide.com

@ fernet.mylene@uqam.ca



Parlons de CYBER VIOLENCE

dans les relations intimes



CYBERVIOLENCE DIRECTE

Utilisation des technologies pour exercer de la violence envers un partenaire intime ou un ex-partenaire intime dans un contexte privé, c'est-à-dire sans avoir l'intention que d'autres personnes en soient témoins.

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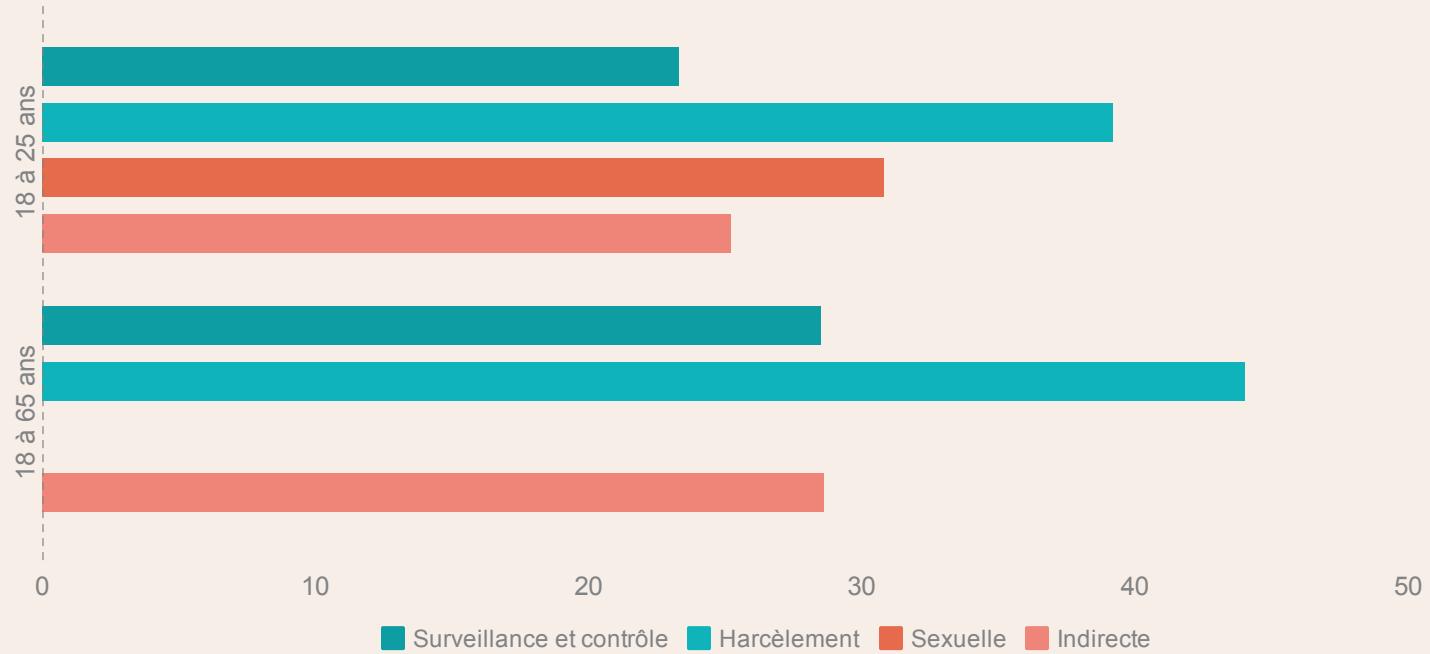
VOUS PENSEZ ÊTRE VICTIME ou CONNAÎTRE UNE PERSONNE VICTIME ?

Vous pouvez l'inviter à

- 1 En parler à quelqu'un de confiance.
- 2 Garder des traces.
- 3 Consulter l'INSPQ au bit.ly/2Rd83Mu
- 4 Appeler ou écrire à SOS violence conjugale au 1 800 363-9010 ou au sos@sosviolenceconjugale.com

Formes de cyberviolence

Est-ce qu'elles sont répandues ?!



Les données ne sont pas disponible pour la cyberviolence sexuelle chez les 18 à 65 ans.

Cyberviolences directes

Surveillance et contrôle

Utilisation des technologies et des données en lignes pour obtenir de l'information au sujet de son partenaire, pour savoir ce qu'il fait, où il se trouve et avec qui.

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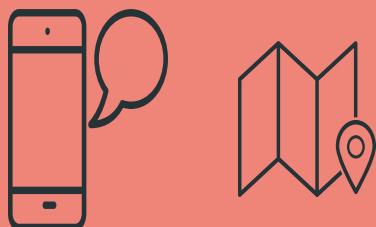
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Réseaux sociaux
Messagerie instantanée
Blog
Forums



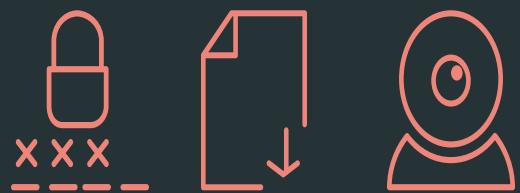
Courriels et données



Compilation de données au sujet de la victime
Envois répétés de courriels
Utilisation de l'identité pour s'inscrire à des abonnements et faire des achats en ligne

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Logiciels espions
Piratage de mots de passe
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Facteurs de RISQUE et de PROTECTION



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Trajetvi

Des questions ?

Consulte le
www.cyberaide.com

@ fernet.mylene@uqam.ca



Campagnes socionumériques

JEUNESSE – Campagne pour les filles

- 5 publications Facebook et Instagram

| Texte en haut de la publication | Texte sur la photo | Photo |
|--|--|---|
| La cyberviolence peut être subtile. | « Je suis juste curieuse. Je regarde à qui il parle même si c'est toujours la même chose à chaque fois » - Anonyme. |  |
| Dans une relation intime, on n'a pas à tout partager. | Même sur son cell chacun a droit à sa vie privée. |  |
| *SONDAGE | Vrai ou Faux ? 1 jeune sur 3 dit avoir subi de la cyberviolence sexuelle par un partenaire intime. |  |
| Il existe plusieurs formes de cyberviolences dans les relations amoureuses : | <p>Surveillance et contrôle : Chercher à savoir où et avec qui est son partenaire amoureux ou son ex.</p> <p>Harcèlement : Contacter à répétition son partenaire amoureux ou son ex contre son gré.</p> <p>Cyberviolence sexuelle : Diffuser du contenu sexuel par message texte ou le publier en ligne contre le gré de son partenaire amoureux ou son ex</p> |  |
| « Sur Facebook, j'allais voir depuis combien de temps il s'était connecté. Sur Snapchat, il y a une map sur laquelle où je peux voir où il se trouve » - Anonyme | Tu as parfois de la difficulté à faire confiance ? |  |

ADULTE – Campagne pour les femmes

- 5 publications Facebook et Instagram

| Texte en haut de la publication | Texte sur la photo | Photo |
|---|--|---|
| Si ton partenaire ou ton ex ne veut pas te laisser tranquille et qu'il/elle cherche à savoir où tu te trouves, il existe des services d'aide http://sosviolenceconjugale.ca | Il t'arrive d'avoir juste envie d'être seule ? |  |
| “Je regardais mes emails sur mon téléphone, j'avais reçu un email de moi à moi. Ça disait que je commençais à fréquenter quelqu'un et que j'aurais bien aimé partager ces photos. Et là il y avait comme 5 ou 6 photos de moi nue. La liste d'envoi était tous mes collèges. » K. | Ton partenaire ou ton ex peut envoyer des infos à ton sujet à d'autres personnes pour faire pression sur toi. |  |
| *Sondage | Vrai ou Faux ? 1 femme sur 3 est victime de cyberviolences. | VRAI FAUX |
| Il existe plusieurs formes de cyberviolences dans les relations intimes : | <p>Surveillance et contrôle : Chercher à savoir où et avec qui est son partenaire amoureux ou son ex.</p> <p>Harcèlement : Contacter à répétition son partenaire amoureux ou son ex contre son gré.</p> <p>Cyberviolence sexuelle : Diffuser du contenu sexuel par SMS ou le publier en ligne.</p> |  |
| Subir de la pression de la part de son partenaire pour faire parvenir des sextos ou recevoir des sextos contre son gré, c'est pas sexy. | Parfois, c'est pas sexy. |  |

CYBERVIOLENCES

En contexte de relation intime et de séparation

Recension systématique des écrits au sujet de la victimisation des femmes

*Département de psychologie, Université du Québec à Montréal; **Département de sexologie, Université du Québec à Montréal; ***École de criminologie, Université de Montréal

Pourquoi une recension?

Comment?

Les constats ?

Les cyberviolences, c'est quoi ?

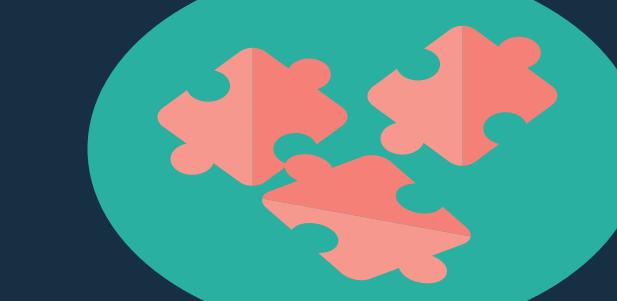
Comportements abusifs exercés à l'aide des technologies...

...qui font appel à des tactiques de contrôle comme la surveillance, l'isolement, la menace et le contrôle des activités quotidiennes.

...qui sont répétitifs et intentionnels, et qui ont pour but de déranger la quiétude.

...qui engendrent de la peur ou de la détresse émotionnelle.

...qui ont le plus souvent été initiés avant que la relation ne prenne fin.



Manque consensus
définitions cyberviolences
Difficulté à dépister et à mesurer les cyberviolences



Amplitude du phénomène
inconnue
Difficile de cerner l'expérience d'es victimes



Individus les + vulnérables
sont inconnus
Difficile d'identifier les facteurs de risque

Objectifs

Définir les cyberviolences.
Documenter l'expérience de victimisation chez les femmes et les adolescentes, ainsi que sa prévalence.
Documenter les facteurs de risque et de protection associés à la victimisation.

Codification

Taux d'accord de 95,5%.

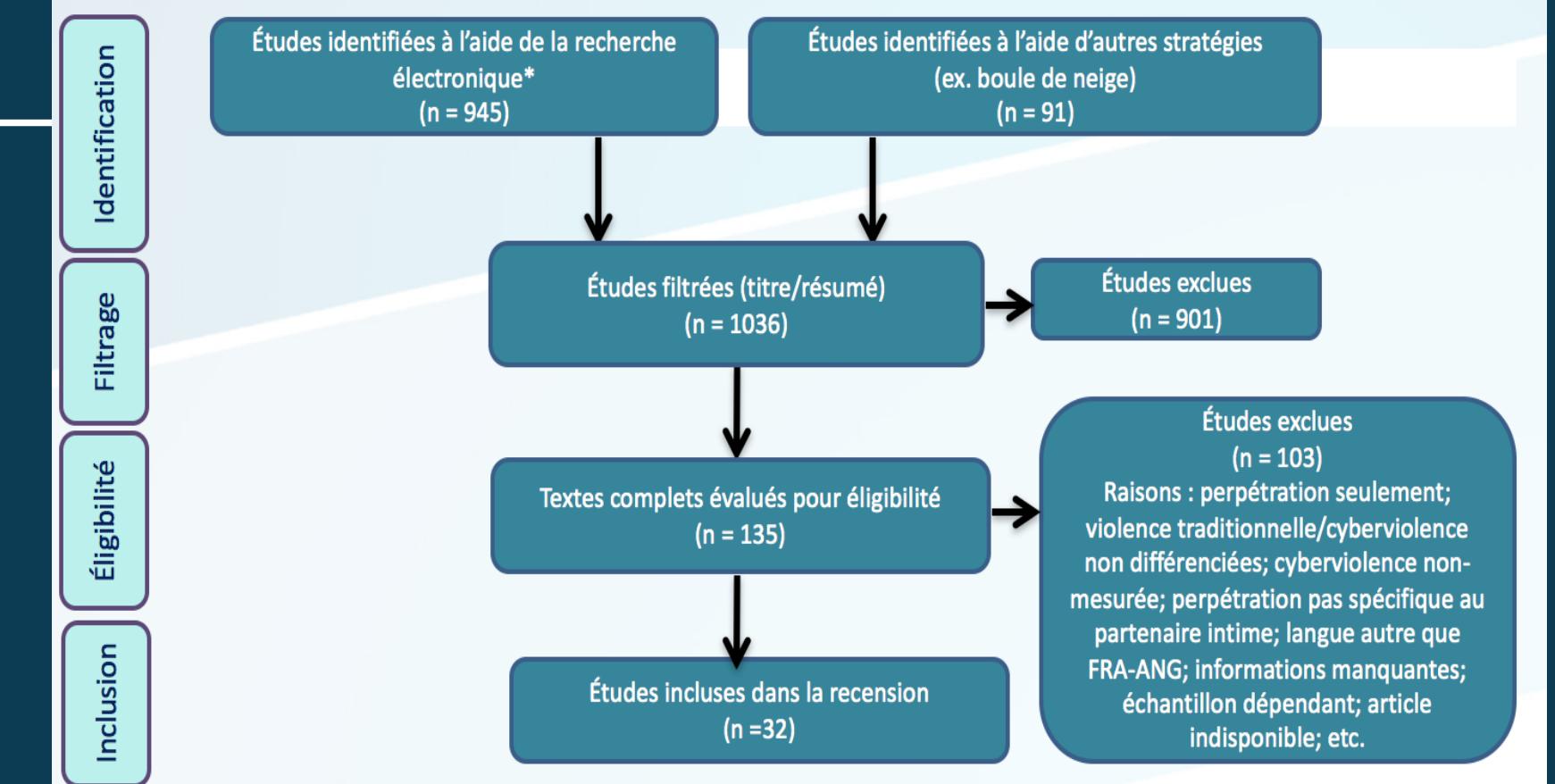
Analyses

Prévalence moyenne et description des facteurs de risque

Analyse de contenu

1
2
3
4

Recension et évaluation de l'éligibilité



Quelles technologies sont utilisées ?

Cellulaires
SMS
Géolocalisation



Réseaux sociaux

Réseaux sociaux
Messagerie instantanée
Blog
Forums



Courriels et données

Compilation de données au sujet de la victime
Enviro d'répétés de courriels
Utilisation de l'identité pour s'inscrire à des abonnements et faire des achats en ligne

Dispositifs de surveillance

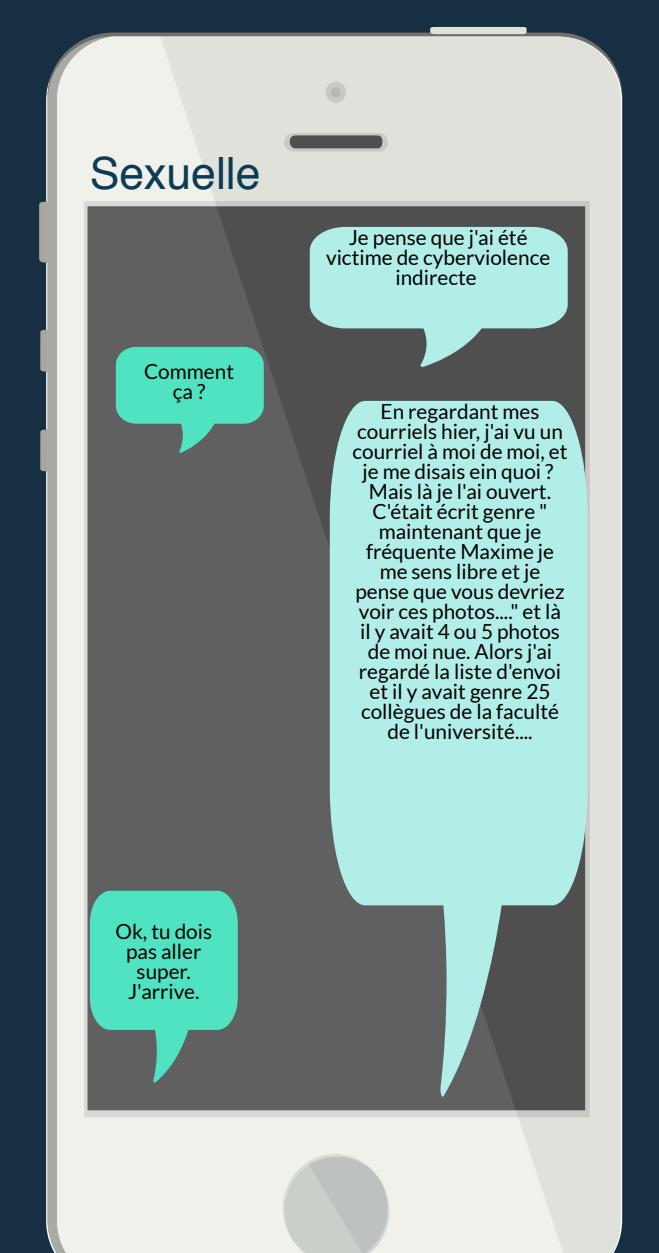
Logiciels espions
Piratage de mots de passe
Caméra cachée ou activée à distance



Cyberviolences indirectes

Utiliser les proches de son partenaire ou de son ex-partenaire pour lui faire du mal à l'aide des technologies

Cyberviolences indirectes

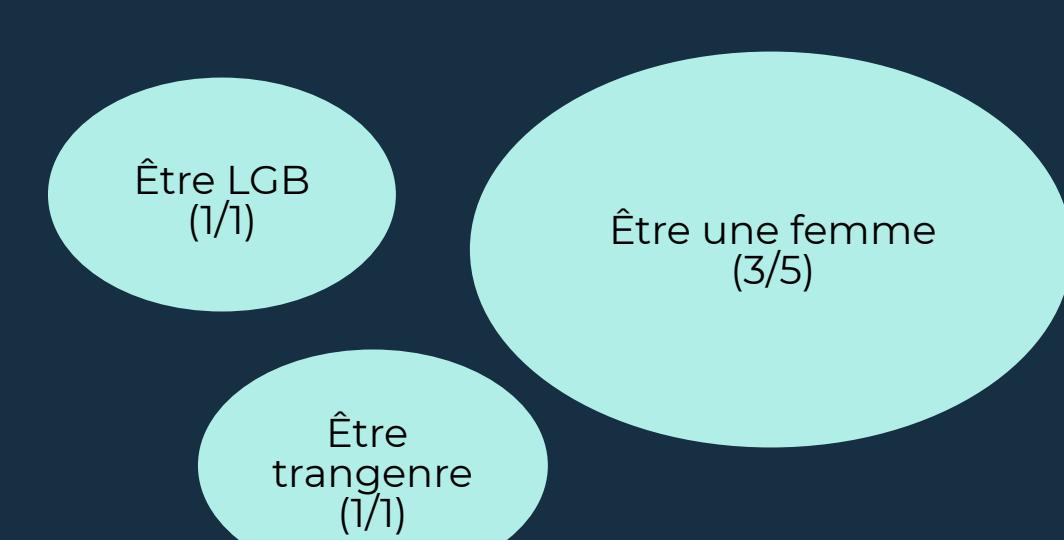


28,2% 25,2% 28,6%

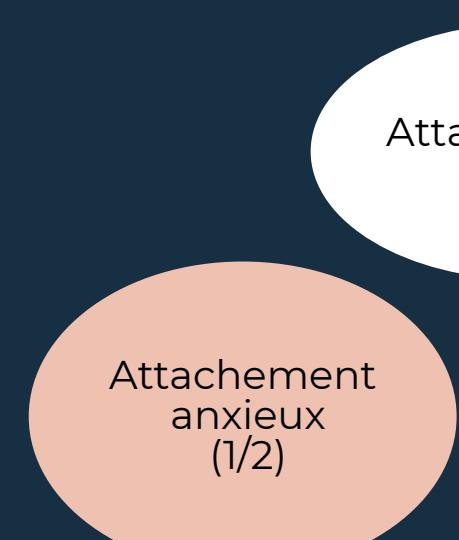
12-18 ans 18-25 ans 18 ans et +

Facteurs de risque et de protection

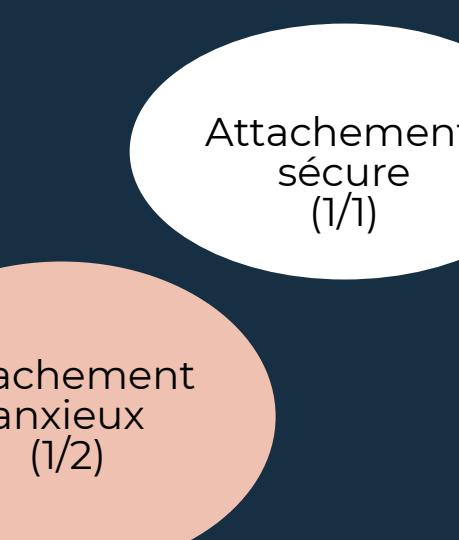
(n études sig./ n études qui ont examiné le facteur). RI = Relations intimes, V. = violence, CV = cyberviolences. Les facteurs de protection sont en blanc.



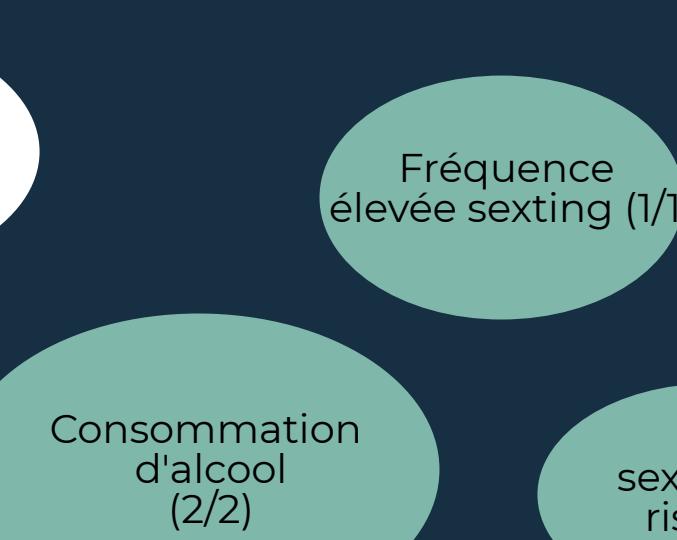
Âge (0/1)
Origine ethnique (0/2)
Éducation des parents (0/1)



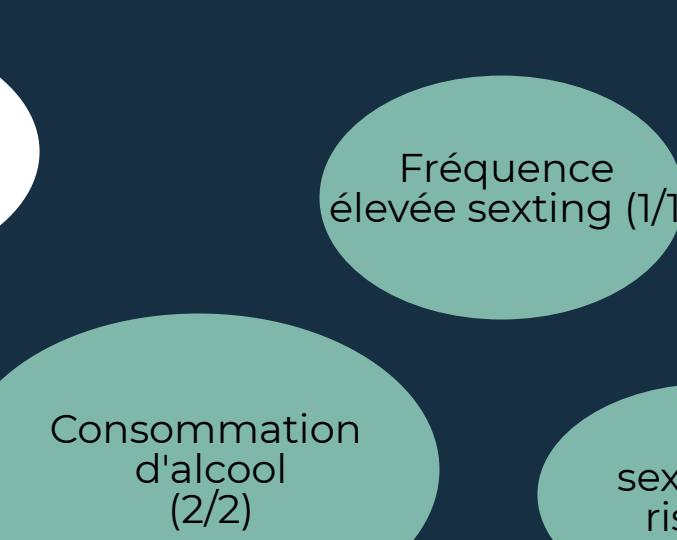
Facteurs examinés non significatifs



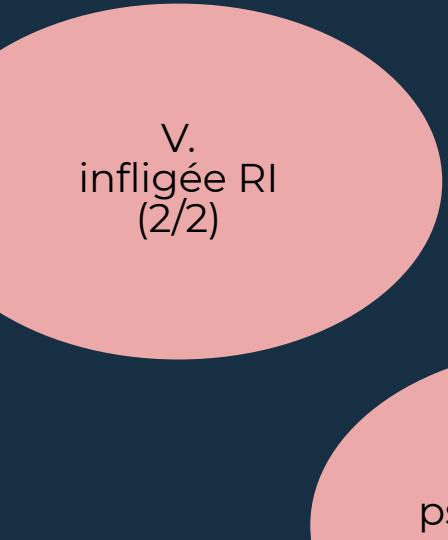
Attachement sécurisé (1/1)



Fréquence élevée sexting (1/1)
Consommation d'alcool (2/2)



Cpt sexuels à risque (1/1)



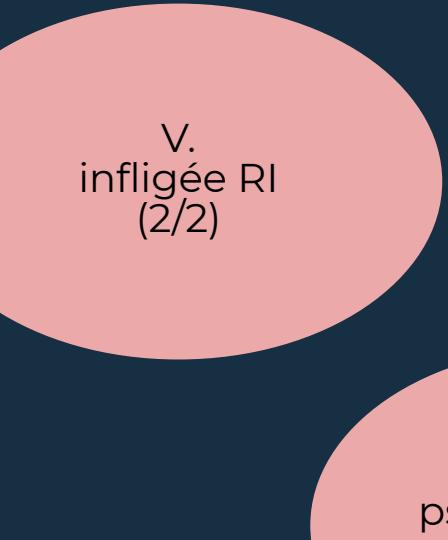
V. infligée RI (2/2)



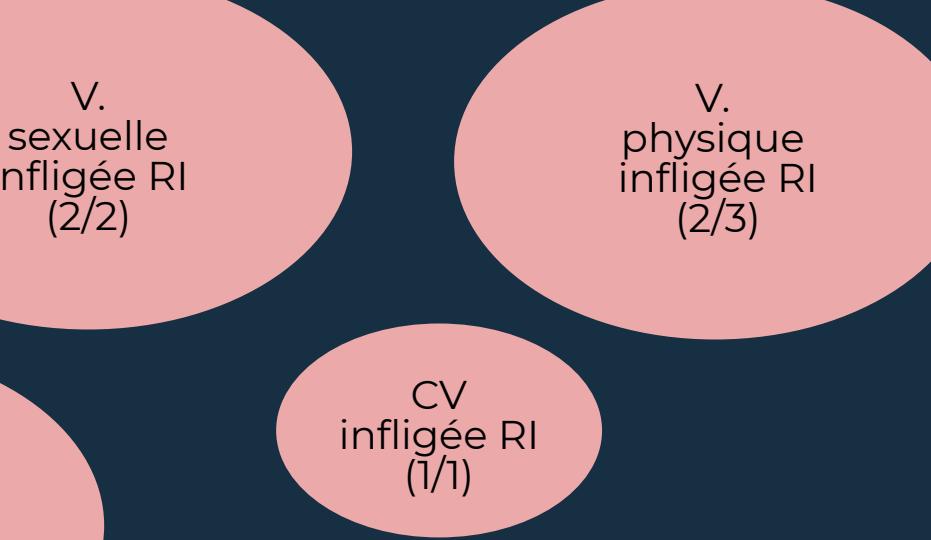
V. sexuelle infligée RI (2/2)



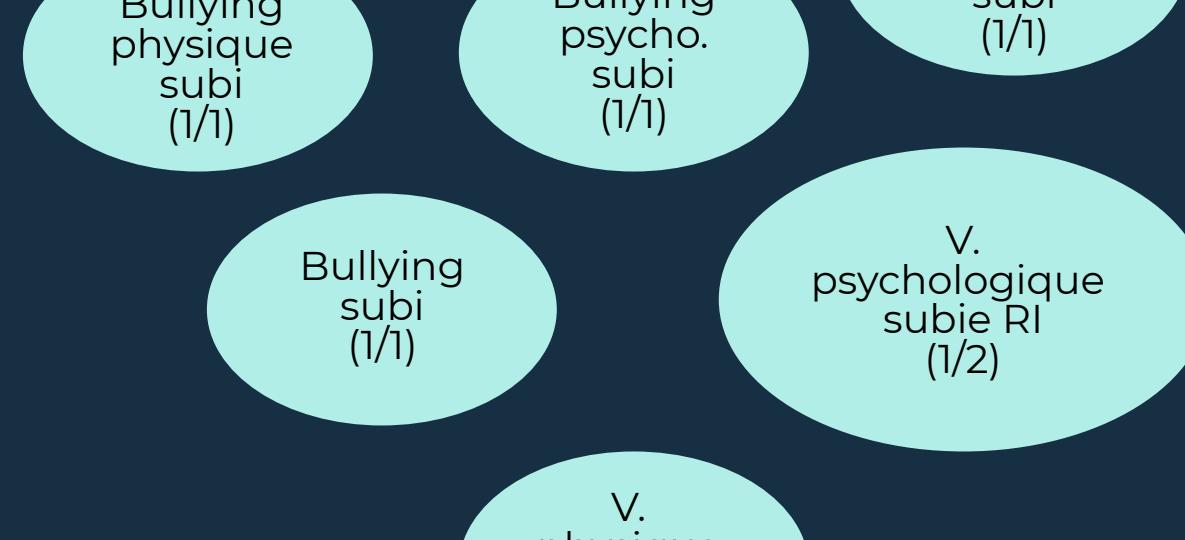
V. psychologique infligée RI (2/3)



CV infligée RI (1/1)



Durée de la relation (0/1)
Type de relation (0/1)
Anxiété d'attachement du partenaire (0/1)



Soutien des pairs (0/1)
Soutien de la famille (0/1)

Et maintenant ? Pour la recherche

D'autres études sont nécessaires

Si vous avez
besoin d'aide
ou voulez
aider quelqu'un

Cyberaide : cyberaide.ca
Service de police de votre ville
Maisons d'hébergement pour femmes : hébergementfemmes.ca

Pour plus d'informations sur ce projet

- 1) Mieux définir les cyberviolences.
- 2) Différencier l'expérience de victimisation des femmes et des adolescentes.
- 3) Différencier l'expérience de victimisation des hommes et des femmes.
- 4) Cerner les facteurs de risque pour identifier les cibles d'intervention en fonction des spécificités des groupes vulnérables.
- 5) Cerner les facteurs de protection pour intervenir plus efficacement en prévention.

- 1) Intensifier les efforts de prévention et de dépistage des cyberviolences en période de séparation.
- 2) Cerner les facteurs de risque des cyberviolences permettrait d'améliorer les interventions et de développer de nouvelles interventions ciblées pour les personnes les plus vulnérables.
- 3) Cerner les facteurs de protection qui diminuent le risque qu'ont les femmes d'être victimes de cyberviolences permettrait de renforcer le soutien des femmes et les forces des milieux d'intervention.

Pour l'intervention

Plusieurs pistes sont à explorer.

Recommandations issues de la journée d'échanges

Cette annexe est à produire.

La journée d'échange se tiendra en mars prochain et permettra de faire le lancement des outils découlant du projet d'actions concertées.

Les intervenants des milieux scolaires, des milieux communautaires adultes (maison d'hébergement pour femmes violentées, organisme d'aide aux femmes en difficultés) et jeunesse (maison des jeunes, organismes œuvrant en prévention de la violence), ainsi que les décideurs seront invités à prendre part aux échanges et à émettre des recommandations concernant

- 1) la diffusion et l'implantation optimale des outils dans les différents milieux d'intervention jeunesse et les ressources pour femmes violentées et en difficultés;
- 2) la mise en place d'un protocole d'intervention concerté afin de soutenir les milieux d'hébergement offrant des services aux femmes victimes de violence conjugale et de cyberviolences.

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