

NATIVITY AND HISPANIC VICTIMIZATION: AN EXAMINATION OF
MEDIATING AND MODERATING EFFECTS

by

Kristina Marie Lopez, M.S.

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Council of
Texas State University in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
with a Major in Criminal Justice
August 2015

Committee Members:

Mark C. Stafford, Chair

Bob E. Vasquez

Christine S. Sellers

Holly V. Miller

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my beloved grandfather, Pedro Lopez Sr., who provided me with unending love and support. He exemplified commitment and hard work and instilled that in his family till his very last day. When I move, you move, always and forever with all my love popo.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge the support and assistance of those who helped in the culmination of my dissertation. This journey would not have been possible without the support of my family, professors and mentors, and friends.

I would like to give special thanks to my exceptional dissertation committee who has supported me during this process. First and foremost I offer my sincerest gratitude to my supervisor and committee chair, Dr. Mark C. Stafford, who was a constant source of guidance throughout this journey with his patience, knowledge and encouragement. At times when I felt most discouraged, you never stopped believing in my potential or this journey together. I have accomplished this dissertation and Ph.D. degree through your constant professorship, mentorship, and support. In the end of this all, I am forever grateful to look to you as a mentor and always have as a friend.

To Dr. Holly V. Miller who has mentored me for almost eight years, your insight into what makes a great professor and researcher inspired me to launch this path to earning a Ph.D. degree altogether. You have taught me so much throughout my entire academic career and words are simply not enough to show my gratitude for the mentorship and friendship you have given me over the years. Thank you for enriching me with your knowledge, encouragement, and advice. You are truly a gifted professor, researcher, and mentor. I was so fortunate to have you as a mentor, and I look forward to the day I have my own mentoree and can instill in them so much of what you have instilled in me. As I continue on with my career, the combination with what I have

achieved and will accomplish in the future will always be result of you recognizing and believing in a young 22-year-old, and I am forever indebted to you. I look forward to being colleagues soon and a continued lifetime of friendship.

To Dr. Bob E. Vasquez, I would like to express appreciation who assisted me graciously with his expertise, insight, and advice from initial to final product that were instrumental to this dissertation and my time in the doctoral program. I am eternally grateful for you modeling exemplary professorship that I hope to attain in my future endeavors. You have always challenged me to further my research skills and taught me that even as researchers and professors we must continue to learn throughout our careers. I would also like to thank Dr. Christine E. Sellers for her assistance in providing better understanding of the literature and your insight and feedback during this process. Your dedication, professionalism, and commitment to this program is providing the key elements to produce future researchers in this field and is very much appreciated.

In addition to my committee, I have been so fortunate to have had the support of many professors. I would like to also recognize Dr. Donna Vandiver for lending so much of her time and assistance to this dissertation. You acted as an informal committee member when you had no obligation to do so. Your careful attention to detail and untiring support and guidance throughout this journey was extremely important in completing this dissertation. You helped keep me focused, and your humor assisted with me maintaining my sanity during those late work nights. To Dr. J. Mitchell Miller, you have always stressed the importance of quality work, and pushed me to continue working

hard to achieve many goals that have led to this point. Thank you for providing me with research opportunities, years of mentorship, and willingness to contribute in my growth to greater potential than I saw in myself so many years ago. I am forever grateful to you and only hope that I have made you and Holly proud. To Dr. Beth Sanders, thank you for advice and assistance during my time in this program. You are an exceptional professor, and my teaching philosophy and skills have evolved so much due to you. The endless hours of chats and laughs were crucial in helping maintain my sanity.

To my friends and fellow doctoral colleagues, thank you for listening, offering me advice, being patient, and supporting me throughout this entire process. Special thanks to my fellow doctoral friends: Jessica, Erin, Steven, Anne, Barbara, and Dina. The endless amounts of overnights at the school, comforting advice, venting sessions, support, and general help are all greatly appreciated. To my dear friends scattered all over the states, thank you for your constant thoughts, well-wishes/prayers, and being there whenever I needed a friend. My dear lifetime friends, I could never express how essential each and every one of your friendships were in shaping who I am and comforting me on this journey. I thank you and love you all so very much.

To all my family, especially my parents Pete Lopez Jr. (Zulema Lopez), and Armandina G. Lopez (Arleen Marin), my sisters Erica and Vanessa, aunt Patsy, grandparents Pete and Adelfa Lopez, and grandmother Estella Gonzalez, who have provided me with a lifetime of support and love throughout my studies that have pushed me to continue following my dreams. Each and every one of you have all contributed in

various aspects in this academic journey, and I appreciate the years of encouraging words and continued belief in dreams and love you all very much. Also, I have so much love and gratitude to Lori and Gary Brown, the Smith family, Omi, the Borders family, Jess and Gene Brown, Mark and Lisa Garcia, Stephanie, and the Benavides who have provided constant support and encouragement. A sincere thank you to my parents, who supported me emotionally and always believed in me. Thank you for teaching me to follow my own path, continue learning, to always be happy, to know and understand myself and always remain humbled. To my best sister friend Vanessa, thank you for coping with my stress, housing me during my term of gypsy life, indulging in pointless shopping with me to relax, and reminding me there is a light at the end of the tunnel when I felt defeated. You helped me more than you know, and I love you so much. Last but not least, thank you to my fiancé Trey Smith for embracing a woman with goals and encouraging her to fulfill those dreams. Thank you for willingly living apart so I can finish my dissertation. Your constant love, patience, support, and sacrifices have been crucial during this program and in this achievement. They are so graciously appreciated and do not go unnoticed. Most of all, thank you for loving me through this all with all your heart, and I look forward to starting my next chapter in life with you. I love you.

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation contributes to an emerging literature in criminology with a thorough examination of the effects of nativity (foreign-born vs. native-born) on violent victimization among Hispanic and non-Hispanic youth. Specifically, this study focuses on theoretical explanations for differences in violent victimization risk across Hispanic generations. For example, it is hypothesized that the link between nativity and violent victimization may be mediated by various social bonds (e.g., maternal/paternal attachment, time with mothers and fathers, and school attachment). In an effort to address the shortcomings of previous research, this study utilizes more refined measures of social bond variables to examine how Hispanic nativity affects the likelihood of a youth experiencing violent victimization.

Data for this dissertation come from the public use version of the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health (Add Health; Harris, 2009), a longitudinal study of the role of social environments on behavior and psychological development of children and adolescents (Udry, 2003). The researchers collected data from students enrolled in American middle schools and high schools across the United States, ranging from Grades 7-12 at Wave 1 (Udry, 2003). Researchers collected data in four waves. The analysis sample was taken from Waves 1 and 2, with respondents ranging in age from 9 to 16.

The analysis compares native-born Hispanics, foreign-born Hispanics, and non-Hispanic youth. The Hispanic sample is comprised of multiple Hispanic sub-groups, which include Mexicans, Chicanos, Cubans, Puerto Ricans, and Central/South Americans. However, this study examines Hispanics as a single group (i.e., foreign-born and native-born Hispanics) rather than Hispanic subgroups.

The findings presented in the current study were largely inconsistent with predictions. Most important, social bonds did not tend to mediate the link between nativity and violent victimization. The findings do, however, support existing research (Eggers & Jennings, 2013; Miller, 2014; Reingle, Jennings, & Maldonado-Molina, 2011) in that native-born Hispanics are at a greater violent victimization risk compared to non-Hispanics and foreign-born Hispanics. Overall, this study presents many avenues to be further explored as possible explanations for differences in Hispanic and non-Hispanic victimization.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The increase in the Hispanic population in the U.S. has prompted an increase in empirical examinations of these groups relative to a range of social, health, and behavioral outcomes. A key construct of interest in this research area is nativity status. Nativity status denotes whether an individual is native-born (i.e., born in the U.S.) or foreign-born (i.e., born outside the U.S.). Researchers have examined nativity relative to various outcomes, such as family dynamics, socialization, environment, mental health status, substance use and abuse, and educational attainment (Amaro, Whitaker, Coffman, & Heeren, 1990; Barrett, Joe, & Simpson, 1991; Bauman, 2005; Caetano, 1987; De La Rosa, 1998, 2002; Gilbert, 1987; Hirschman, 2001; Marin, Sabogal, Marin, Otero-Sabogal, & Perez-Stable, 1987). Additionally, researchers have examined the extent to which nativity may act as a preventative or risk factor for crime and victimization for different generations of groups. Recent research suggests children and grandchildren of immigrants (i.e. native-born generations) have a greater likelihood of experiencing negative outcomes, such as crime and victimization (Alaniz, Cartmill, & Parker, 1998; Harris, 1999; Sampson, Morenoff, & Raudenbush, 2005; Smokowski, David-Ferdon, & Stroupe, 2009; Lopez & Miller, 2011; Miller, 2012). This dissertation is intended to add to this extant research literature on the “Latino paradox” – the term given to these unexpected findings regarding nativity and life outcomes. Overall, prior research has indicated that foreign-born Latinos are less likely to experience negative life outcomes relative to the native-born, including those related to crime and delinquency.

This study is designed to add to this growing body of research by examining the effects of nativity (foreign-born vs. native-born) on violent victimization among Hispanic youth. Previous studies have found an association between Hispanic nativity and victimization; however, a main focus of this study is to determine *why* there is an association, in particular, whether nativity directly or indirectly affects violent victimization among Hispanic and non-Hispanic youth (Eggers & Jennings, 2013; Gibson & Miller, 2010; Jennings, Higgins, Tewksbury, Gover, & Piquero, 2010; Jennings, Piquero, & Reingle, 2012; Maldonado-Molina, Jennings, Tobler, Piquero, & Canino, 2010; Miller, 2012). This study specifically examines the extent to which various social bonds mediate the relationship between nativity and violent victimization and also whether nativity and social bonds interact to affect violent victimization. Three main questions are the foci of this study: (1) does nativity affect the likelihood of Hispanic violent victimization? (2) to what extent is the effect of nativity on violent victimization mediated by one or more social bonds? and last, (3) does nativity moderate the effects of one or more social bonds on violent victimization?

Key predictors of victimization that have been identified in previous studies are also used in this study: (1) parental attachment, (2) direct parental monitoring, (3) school attachment, (4) self-control, (5) delinquent peers, and (2) nativity (Eggers & Jennings, 2013; Gibson & Miller, 2010; Jennings et al., 2010; Jennings et al., 2012; Maldonado-Molina et al., 2010; Miller, 2012). For example, Gibson and Miller (2010) found that delinquent peers and self-control partially mediated the relation between nativity and both Hispanic offending and victimization. Eggers and Jennings (2013) reported that the relation between nativity and victimization risk was reduced to marginal significance

once parental attachment was controlled. However, there was little evidence in this study of *how* parental attachment impacted the relationship between nativity and violent victimization. Was it attachment to mothers? To fathers? The rationale for the current study is to examine such questions by using better measures of key variables than those used in previous studies. This permits a more thorough examination of how Hispanic nativity affects the likelihood of a youth experiencing violent victimization. For example, Figure 1 presents a diagram of how the link between nativity and violent victimization may be mediated by social bonds (e.g., maternal/paternal attachment, maternal/paternal time, school attachment). In this case, nativity may impact violent victimization only indirectly through social bonds. Figure 2 proposes that nativity moderates the relation between social bonds and violent victimization. There may be an interactions between social bonds and nativity. For example, social bonds may have stronger effects on violent victimization for native-born Hispanics.

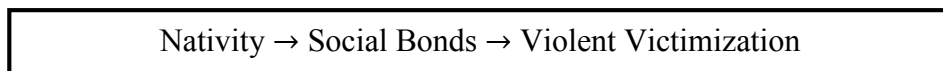


Figure 1: Proposed Model of Factors Affecting Violent Victimization

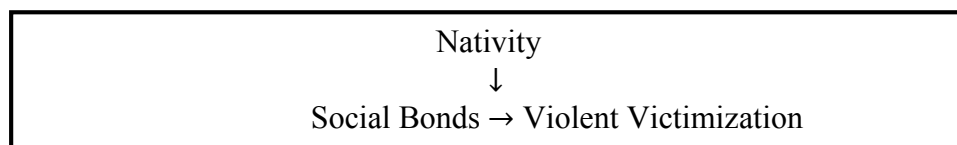


Figure 2: Proposed Model of Moderating Effects of Nativity on the Relationship between Social Bond and Violent Victimization

Though research on Hispanic groups has expanded immensely over the last decade, there is much that remains unexamined. Additional research is still necessary to conclusively investigate whether immigrants or native-born Hispanics are more or less at risk for negative outcomes, and why that is the case. “Conclusively investigate” is

emphasized because existing research has presented preliminary conclusions that native-born Hispanics are at greater risk of criminal behavior and victimization than foreign-born Hispanics, but have failed to explain clearly the theoretical mechanisms underlying these relationships (Eggers & Jennings, 2013; Jennings et al., 2010; Jennings et al, 2012; Lopez & Miller, 2011; Maldonado-Molina et al., 2010; Miller, 2012). The intent of the current study is to advance the research in this area, specifically focusing on theoretical explanations for the differences in violent victimization risk between native-born and foreign-born Hispanics. Building on existing research (Eggers & Jennings, 2013; Tillyer et al., 2011), the current study utilizes more refined measures of social bond variables (e.g., attachment, involvement) to examine *how* nativity impacts the likelihood of violent victimization for both Hispanics and non-Hispanics.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Researchers have found consistently that criminal victimization varies by race and ethnicity. For example, prior research suggests that blacks are more likely to be crime victims than non-blacks (Gottfredson, 1984; Miethe, Stafford, & Long, 1987; Rennison, 2002). However, the findings about Hispanic victimization, especially from early studies, were inconsistent (Arroyo, Simpson, & Aragon, 1997; Catalano, 2006; Walker, Maxson, & Newcomb, 2007). Some studies have indicated that Hispanics were at greater violent victimization risk than other populations for some crimes, such as aggravated assault, robbery, and domestic and childhood sexual abuse (Catalano, 2004; Fitzpatrick, 1999; Perkins, Klaus, Bastian, & Cohen, 1996; Ringel, 1997; Sorenson & Telles, 1991; Kercher & McShane; Walker, Spohn, & DeLone, 1996). Subsequent studies, however, reported that rates of victimization do not differ significantly between Hispanics and non-Hispanics for simple assault, sexual assault, or theft, thus highlighting the need for more research (Rennison, 2000; Rennison, 2002).

Research on Hispanic crime and victimization largely began in the 1970s. Prior research has found a greater risk of victimization for Hispanics living in Texas than non-Hispanic white residents (Kercher & McShane, 1984), while higher levels of spousal violence have also been found among Mexican-Americans born in the U.S., compared to non-Hispanic whites and Mexican Americans born in Mexico (Sorenson & Telles, 1991). During the mid-1990s, data from the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) revealed Hispanics were at greater risk of violent victimization compared to non-

Hispanics for such crimes as robbery and aggravated assault (Perkins, Klaus, Bastian, & Cohen, 1996; Ringel, 1997).

Researchers began collecting data on victimization among Hispanic adolescents between the late 1990s and early 2000s; however, these data have also produced inconsistent findings. For example, Arroyo et al., (1997) found that Hispanic (33.1%) and non-Hispanic (27.1%) college women had similar rates of childhood sexual abuse. Other research revealed that Hispanic teenagers had a greater likelihood of experiencing violent victimization than other non-Hispanic groups (Fitzpatrick, 1999; Hill & Drolet, 1999). At the same time, examination of 1999 NCVS data found no significant differences between Hispanics and non-Hispanics in violent crime victimization, including rape and sexual assault (Rennison, 2000, 2002).

A study of 1,956 children at 14 different elementary schools found that Hispanic youth were less likely to be victimized by peers, compared to both African American and non-Hispanic white children (Hannish & Guerra, 2000). However, Crouch, Hanson, Saunders, Kilpatrick, and Resnick (2000) found that Hispanic youth were more prone to victimization than non-Hispanic white youth when controlling for socioeconomic status, but remained at a lower risk than black children (Crouch et al., 2000). Consistent with earlier research, a series of studies suggested that Hispanics faced greater risk of intimate partner violence compared to other racial/ethnic groups (Caetano, Cunradi, Schafer, & Clark, 2000; Cunradi, Caetano, Clark, & Shafer, 2000; Field & Caetano, 2003). Lau and colleagues' (2003) findings challenged Crouch et al.'s (2000) prior work in a study of 1,045 racial/ethnic minorities. Lau and colleagues (2003) examined youth reports of

physically aggressive mistreatment and found no significant victimization differences between Hispanic youth and other minority children.

Evidence regarding differences between Hispanic and non-Hispanic victimization rates remained inconsistent throughout the early 2000s. The 2003 NCVS reported there were no significant differences in violent victimization rates between Hispanics and non-Hispanics for sexual assault, robbery, aggravated assault, and theft (Catalano, 2004). However, shortly after this report, other studies found that Hispanics experienced greater victimization risk for aggravated assault and robbery violence and lower victimization risk for assault, sexual assault, and theft (Catalano, 2006). Conversely, Ingram's (2007) analysis of 2003 NCVS data suggested Hispanics experienced less domestic abuse than non-Hispanics. Using victimization data collected in Brownsville, Texas high schools, Brown and Benedict (2004) reported immigrant youth were more fearful than non-immigrant youth of experiencing weapon-associated victimization.

Most recently, Hispanic victimization rates have been found to be lower for such offenses as sexual assault, robbery, and aggravated assault. Like-Haislip and Warren (2011) utilized a combination of data sources from NCVS, Bureau of Justice Statistics (BJS), and Office of Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS) to examine risk of violent and property victimization in 12 cities. Consistent with early research, Hispanics were more likely to be violently victimized than non-Hispanic whites, but remained at a lower risk than blacks (Crouch et al., 2000; Like-Haislip & Warren, 2011). Specifically, their analysis indicated that Latin women had a greater or equal risk of victimization compared to non-Hispanic white women, depending on their daily routines.

Overall, recent reports point to greater rates of violent victimization and aggravated assault among non-Hispanic blacks than both non-Hispanic whites and Hispanics (Truman, 2011). Specifically, non-Hispanic blacks had higher rates of victimization for rape or sexual assault, robbery, aggravated assault, and simple assault. According to the 2011 NCVS report, Hispanics had higher rates of victimization than non-Hispanic whites for rape or sexual assault, robbery, and overall assault (Truman, 2011). However, some of the differences between Hispanic and non-Hispanic white victimization rates were only marginally different, and Hispanics reportedly experienced less aggravated assault than non-Hispanic whites (Truman, 2011).

Truman and Planty (2012) reported the 2010 rates of violent victimization for different populations were as follows: non-Hispanic blacks (10.8%); Hispanics (7.2%); and non-Hispanic whites (6.5%). However, their examination of 2011 violent victimization rates found no statistically significant differences between non-Hispanic whites (21.5 per 1,000), non-Hispanic blacks (26.4 per 1,000), and Hispanics (23.8 per 1,000) (Truman & Planty, 2012). Tucker, Finkelhor, Shattuck, and Turner (2013) later challenged this conclusion when they examined a sample of 1,705 children from the National Survey of Children's Exposure to Violence dataset. They found sibling victimization to be greatest among non-Hispanic white youth.

Overall, prior research suggests that differences between Hispanics and non-Hispanics may be dependent upon type of victimization. Moreover, inconsistent evidence about the relationship between race/ethnicity and victimization suggests that differences between groups may be dependent on factors beyond race and ethnicity, such as nativity or acculturation. Prior researchers have studied Hispanic populations relative

to birth location, immigrant status, and ethnicity (e.g., Mexican, Puerto Rican, or Cuban) or a combination of measures (Eggers & Jennings, 2013; Miller, 2012; Reingle, Jennings, & Maldonado-Molina, 2011; Maldonado-Molina, Reingle, Tobler, Jennings, & Komro, 2010; Morenoff & Astor, 2006). This study expands on this extant literature by examining the role of social bonds in mediating the link between nativity and victimization and possible interaction between social bonds and nativity.

Immigration and Criminological Outcomes

Sociologists and criminologists have examined the link between Hispanic immigration and crime for decades. The current interest in immigration and crime comes from the co-occurrence of the post-1965 wave of immigrants and the rise in the country's crime rates during the late 1960s and 1970s (Martinez & Lee, 2000). Prior to Shaw and McKay's (1942) examination of migrants in Chicago, researchers predicted that crime rates would be substantially greater in areas with greater immigrant concentration, but there was little supporting evidence to confirm it. Shaw and McKay's (1942) findings challenged this notion that less assimilated immigrants (e.g., foreign-born) were more likely to commit delinquent behavior. Instead, Shaw and McKay provided the earliest modern sociological explanations for crime-prone areas that did not attribute the cause to large numbers of immigrants.

Shaw and McKay's findings revealed that the delinquency rate of an area was not attributable to particular racial/ethnic groups. Instead, it was attributed to the social disorganization in the area. Therefore, the findings suggested that immigrants were not criminally prone, and rather, delinquency among immigrants was a function of deteriorating social environments.

Today, there is still little evidence for a strong connection between immigration and crime. However, there is a continued perception of immigrants as criminally prone. This perception is perpetuated by mass media, politicians, and the general public who assign immigrants a disproportionate share of crime (Alaniz, Cartmill, & Parker, 1998; Bankston, 1998; Gurr, 1989; Lee, Martinez, & Rosenfeld, 2001; Merton, 1938; Morenoff & Astor, 2006; Yeager, 1997).

Positive Immigration-Crime Relationship

Many recent empirical findings have disputed the common perception of immigrants as criminally-prone; however, it is not unreasonable to expect a positive association between immigration and crime. It has been common for researchers to draw from major sociological and criminological theories to provide explanations for why immigration may increase crime, including social disorganization, social learning/differential association, and opportunity theories.

Immigrants generally populate in already socially disorganized neighborhoods characterized by an abundance of ethnic heterogeneity, residential instability, and poverty that may result in greater vulnerability to crime (Hagan & Palloni, 1999; Shaw & Mckay, 1942; Shaw & McKay, 1969; Thomas & Znaniecki, 1920). Moreover, immigration may contribute to further social disorganization in neighborhoods that are already characterized by poverty, residential instability, and racial/ethnic heterogeneity (Martinez, 1996; Martinez, Lee, & Rosenfeld, 2001; Martinez, Stowell, & Lee, 2010). With continued immigration contributing to more social disorganization, crime may increase.

If immigrants reside in high-crime neighborhoods, they also may be differentially exposed to definitions favorable to crime, according to differential association theory (Anderson, 1999; Akers, 1998; Surtherland & Cressey, 1960). By immigrants differentially associating with residents who already possess positive definitions and rationalizations for crime, immigrants are more likely to adopt and assimilate into an urban, inner-city criminal culture. An immigrant has a greater likelihood of assimilating into a subculture conducive to criminal conduct if consistently exposed to it for an extended amount of time. This would be much more likely to occur among second- and third-generation immigrants who are born and raised in the U.S. compared to first-generation immigrants who were born outside of the U.S.

Immigrants often come to the U.S. to increase their chances of economic success. However, it is commonly recognized that many immigrants arrive poor, minimally educated, with poor labor-market skills, and little to no English-speaking ability; therefore, most immigrants continue to struggle economically even long after arriving (Ousey & Kubrin, 2009; Clark, 1998). Consequently, immigrant employability is reduced and limited to low-wage employment. A lack of stable income results in immigrants concentrating into impoverished neighborhoods located in or around urban ghettos with high crime rates (Ousey & Kubrin, 2009; Hagan & Palloni, 1999; Shaw & McKay, 1969). As a result of experiencing economic deprivation and a constant pressure to achieve economic success, some researchers suggest that immigrants may be more inclined to resort to illegitimate means to achieve economic success (Ousey & Kubrin, 2009; Lee, Martinez, & Rosenfeld, 2001; Mears, 2002; Reid, Weiss, Adelman, & Jaret, 2005; Cloward & Ohlin, 1960; Merton, 1938).

There are then, legitimate reasons drawn from both individual-level and macro-level criminological theories for expecting that immigration will cause high rates of crime. At the same time, there is also a body of evidence which suggests that immigration may result in less crime and violence. These studies are discussed in the following section.

Negative Immigration-Crime Relationship

Much extant research suggests that immigrants commit less crime than the native-born, and potentially reduce overall crime in areas where they live (Hagan & Palloni, 1998; Sellin, 1938; Tonry, 1997). For example, Morenoff and Astor (2006) conducted an online search of articles listed in the Social Science Citation Index (SSCI) published between 1970 and 2004. Their search of the keywords “immigration” and “crime” or “delinquency” produced 77 articles published in a 34-year span. Their meta-analysis concluded that immigrants were less likely to be involved in crime, both as offenders and victims.

A study of 43 metropolitan areas found that violent and overall crime rates were unaffected by growing immigrant populations (Butcher & Piehl, 1998) despite immigrants often settling in high-crime areas. Other studies have mirrored these findings, reporting no differences for immigrants with strong attachments to work and family (Lee, et al., 2001). Martinez and colleagues have conducted multiple studies that consistently supported the notion that immigrant residency in a community does not necessarily increase negative occurrences in the neighborhood, such as poverty, high crime rates, or other social problems (Martinez & Lee, 2000; Martinez, Stowell, & Cancino, 2008, Nielsen & Martinez, 2009; Nielsen, Lee, & Martinez, 2005; Stowell &

Martinez, 2009). For example, Nielsen and Martinez (2009) examined race-specific violent differences in neighborhoods and reported that an increase in immigrant groups in the neighborhoods was linked to less Black and Latino suicides. After examining neighborhood-level homicide data, Stowell and Martinez (2009) reported that increases in lethal violence were not associated with greater immigration into a community. In fact, more Latino immigration into the neighborhood was found to be associated with lower levels of violence.

Acculturation and Nativity

Linking Nativity and Acculturation

Another factor that has been examined and may provide additional understanding about the relationship between nativity and criminal victimization is acculturation (Collins & Shay, 1994; Guendelman & Abrams, 1995; Landale, Oropesa, Llanes, & Gorman, 1999; Morenoff & Astor, 2006). The origination of the concept of acculturation is attributed to 19th-century American anthropologists who observed the experiences of Native Americans when exposed to Europeans (Hunt, Schneider, & Comer, 2004). Early researchers saw acculturation involving cultural changes that result from different groups continuously interacting (Siatkowski, 2007). Generally, acculturation has been defined as members of a minority group adopting the culture of the host group (Negy & Woods, 1992; Mena, Padilla, & Maldonado, 1987). More specifically for this study, acculturation is defined as a minority group's adoption of a host society's cultural patterns, including language, dress, modes of emotional expression, personal values, beliefs, and behavior during the period of time a group resides in the host society (Gordon, 1964).

Acculturation is a process such that immigrant groups will gradually shift from their native culture and adapt to a host society by adopting its culture (Landrine & Klonoff, 2004; Gordon, 1964). Therefore, in order for acculturation to occur, people must be consistently exposed to a new environment and culture. The extent of influence a host society will have on a person can depend on the length of time an immigrant has resided in the area in order to be exposed to the new culture. For this reason, nativity or generational status are concepts commonly used as a foundation for researchers to explain why native-born minority groups have higher rates of crime and victimization than foreign-born immigrants (Hagan & Palloni, 1998; Sellin, 1938; Sutherland, 1934). Therefore, nativity is used in this study as a predictor of acculturation in order to examine if this variable is linked to an increased risk of victimization (Siatkowski, 2007).

The logic is as follows: a Hispanic who is foreign-born and migrates to the U.S. has been exposed to a new culture for less amount of time and, therefore, should be more likely to remain tied to the native culture despite migration. Alternatively, for a Hispanic youth born in the U.S., there is greater chance he/she has not been extensively exposed to a traditional Latin culture. Further, if a native-born Hispanic youth is raised in a traditional Hispanic household, despite being born in the U.S., there is a greater chance of the youth's Hispanic culture gradually dissipating after entering the school system. This is because the Hispanic youth will spend extensive amounts of time around peers in school. Therefore, native-born Hispanic youth will likely have greater amounts of exposure to mainstream U.S. cultures than foreign-born Hispanic youth because they have been immersed in the culture for a longer period of time and during a critical developmental period of socialization.

The acculturation framework has been used previously by researchers to examine the relationship between immigrant status and crime (Brown & Benedict, 2004; Kaplan & Marks, 1990; Collins & Shay, 1994; Guendelman & Abrams, 1995; Landale et al., 1999; Morenoff & Astor, 2006). It has been argued that the acculturation process weakens social control in immigrant communities by creating a conflict between cultural immigrant values and legal codes of native groups (Martinez & Lee, 2000). Therefore, an immigrant group's acculturation into a host community can impact both the neighborhood and the migrant negatively (Amaro et al., 1990; Barrett et al., 1991; Caetano, 1987; De La Rosa, 1998, 2002; Gilbert, 1987; Hirschman, 2001). For example, newly arrived immigrants may negatively disrupt a neighborhood by weakening community cohesion. However, the neighborhood may have a negative impact on the immigrants, exposing them to the native-born population's delinquent behavior (Lee, Martinez, & Rosenfeld, 2001).

Consistent with the broader literature on Hispanic victimization, whether immigrants or less acculturated Hispanics are more or less likely to be victimized has not been clearly determined (Decker, Raj, & Silverman, 2007; Garcia, Hurwitz, & Kraus, 2005; Lopez & Brummett, 2003; Silverman, Decker, & Raj, 2007). In a study of Los Angeles households, foreign-born Mexicans had lower rates of victimization, compared to native-born Mexicans and non-Hispanic whites who shared similar levels of victimization (Sorenson & Telles, 1991). On the other hand, Lopez and Brummett (2003) found greater gang membership among Hispanic adolescents who were less acculturated. Decker et al. (2007) examined the link between immigration and acculturation for possible associations with sexual assault prevalence among high school girls. Immigrant

status was associated with more sexual assault victimization, but these findings were not consistent across demographic groups, such as age and racial/ethnic groups.

Furthermore, Decker et al. (2007) concluded that sexual assault victimization was not dependent on acculturation. The current study has taken one further step to investigate the effects of nativity by determining if it has direct or indirect effects on the likelihood of violent victimization among Hispanic youth. Critical to understanding acculturation is the notion of assimilation.

Competing Assimilation Theories

Classical Assimilation Theory. Rooted in the work of Robert Park and Ernest Burgess (1924), the classical assimilation theory describes ethnic minorities as progressing along a “straight-line” assimilation process once it has begun (Morenoff & Astor, 2006). Ultimately, assimilating steadily into a mainstream culture by this fashion will progress toward more positive socioeconomic outcomes (Morenoff & Astor, 2006). Emphasis on intimate and intense interaction between ethnic minorities and the “primary group” of a host society is necessary to navigate successfully through common neighborhoods and schools (Morenoff & Astor, 2006). Economic recession/depression, however, may create barriers for incoming immigrants. Consequently, new immigrant generations may have increased exposure to crime through proximity to the native poor in disadvantaged areas (Morenoff & Astor, 2006).

Segmented Assimilation Theory. Portes and Zhou (1993) introduced the segmented assimilation theory as an alternative explanation of how new immigrant groups acculturate. Two main differences distinguish this theory from the traditional classical assimilation theory. First, Portes and Zhou (1993) suggested immigrant youth

who assimilate into impoverished neighborhoods without strong family ties and community support from co-ethnics have a greater likelihood of adopting inner-city subcultural values. These researchers identified this inner-city subculture as placing less emphasis on educational advancement and gravitation toward criminal behavior (Portes & Zhou, 1993). Therefore, in contrast to the classical assimilation theory, the segmented assimilation perspective hypothesizes that immigrants can have less success if socially integrated into a host group with criminal values. Furthermore, as immigrant generations progress, they are more likely to be exposed to features of deleterious inner-city culture. Thus, second and third-generation immigrants should be more likely to commit crime and delinquency as compared to their first-generation counterparts due to extended time spent in the host society.

Significant Conclusions. Morenoff and Astor (2006) analyzed data based on self-reported violent offending among adolescents living in Chicago neighborhoods and offered four main conclusions: (1) immigrants face negative assimilation by becoming more involved in crime as they acculturate into American culture; (2) immigrants with longer U.S. residency have higher odds of various types of violent behavior; (3) the relationship between age of arrival into the U.S. and crime was not as strong in comparison to the closer link between full acculturation and involvement in violence; and (4) data did suggest various associations between generational status (i.e., first-generation, second-generation) and violence (Morenoff & Astor, 2006). Third-generation youth had the highest risk for violence from residing in disadvantaged neighborhoods. In contrast, the first and second-generations have a lower probability of violent acts from living in disadvantaged neighborhoods.

Morenoff and Astor's (2006) study provided supporting evidence for the notion that immigrants who assimilate further into American mainstream will commit more crime. Thus, it could be hypothesized these same immigrants are at greater victimization risk. For this reason and additional supporting literature provided subsequently, the effect of a migrant's birth location should predict differences in both social bonds and behavior and, therefore, affect victimization risk among Hispanics.

Nativity and Hispanic Populations

Nativity and Negative Outcomes. Dating back to the early 1800s, researchers have examined the relationship between immigration and crime. Sanderson (1856) reported Irish immigrants were arrested almost 10 times more frequently than native-born individuals. However, German immigrants' arrest rates were relatively low in comparison to both Irish immigrants and native-born individuals (Sanderson, 1856). On the one hand, some findings were consistent with the idea of a criminally-prone immigrant, although it was also shown that "immigrant" did not universally mean the individual was more likely to commit crime. In 1911, the Immigration Commission concluded immigration did not increase the likelihood of crime and instead, suggested immigrant populations may contribute to decreasing crime rates (Tonry, 1997). Soon after, the 1931 Wickersham Report reported that immigrants had lower overall crime rates than natives (Martinez & Lee, 2000). This is an early indication that "non-criminal immigrant" populations existed much earlier than many would assume.

A robust body of literature has been developed over the past three decades highlighting what researchers refer to as the Latino paradox. Prior studies indicate that native-born Hispanics are more likely than foreign-born Hispanics to suffer from a wide

range of negative social, health, and behavioral outcomes, including offending and victimization (Aldrich & Variyam, 2000; Amaro, Whitaker, Coffman, & Heeren, 1990; Borrell, 2005; Buriel, Calzada, & Vasquez, 1982; Burnam, Hough, Kamo, Escobar, & Telles, 1987; Caetano, 1987; Chappin & Brook, 2001; Gilbert, 1987; & Kaplan & Marks, 1990). Numerous negative psychological and health outcomes, such as depression, psychological distress, poor nutrition, and prenatal health, are also more common among native-born Hispanics (Cortes, 2003; Gong, Takeuchi, Agbayani-Siewert, & Tacata, 2003; Love, Yin, Codina, & Zapata, 2006; Zambrana, Scrimshaw, Collins, & Dunkel-Schetter, 1997). Researchers have also found most foreign-born experience fewer health disorders than native-born (Burnam, Hough, Kamo, Escobar, & Telles, 1987; Grant, Stinson, Hasin, Dawson, Chou, & Anderson, 2004; Griffith, 1983; Kaplan & Marks, 1990).

Other deviant or problem behaviors, such as abuse of alcohol, drugs, or disengagement from school, have been found to vary across generations of Hispanics (Amaro et al., 1990; Barrett, Joe, & Simpson, 1991; Caetano, 1987; De La Rosa, 2002; Gilbert, 1987; Miller, Schreck, & Tewksbury, 2011; Neff, Hoppe, & Perea, 1987; Hirschman, 2001). More specifically, there is extensive evidence that native-born Hispanics (i.e., second and third generation) are more likely to use and abuse a range of both licit and illicit substances, including alcohol, marijuana, inhalants, cocaine, and cigarettes (Caetano, 1987; Gilbert, 1987; Amaro et al., 1990; J. Miller et al., 2008; Barrett et al., 1991; De La Rosa, 1998; Marin, Perez-Stable, & Marin, 1989).

Nativity and Hispanic Victimization. Existing research has indicated nativity may be a strong predictor of Hispanic victimization risk. Drawing from general victim-

offender overlap literature (Klevens, Duque, & Ramirez, 2002; Maldonado-Molina et al., 2010) researchers have speculated that predictors of Hispanic criminal behavior are also predictors of Hispanic victimization. For example, Gibson and Miller (2010) examined the effects of generational status on both Hispanic offending and victimization. Their research considered the intervening effects of a variety of variables, such as delinquent peers and self-control. Using a sample of first-, second-, and third-generation immigrants from the Project on Human Development in Chicago Neighborhoods (PHDCN) dataset, Gibson and Miller (2010) found that second-generation Hispanic youth were significantly more likely to be violently victimized than first-generation Hispanic youth. Second- and third-generation Hispanics also had a greater likelihood of committing delinquency than first-generation youth.

Researchers have consistently reported that Hispanic offenders and victims share similar factors that increase their vulnerability to crime in general (Broidy, Daday, Crandall, Klar, & Jost, 2005; Chang, Chen, & Brownson, 2003; Chen, 2009; Higgins, Jennings, Tewksbury, & Gibson, 2009; Maldonado-Molina et al., 2010; Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2000). Criminal offending increases the odds of criminal victimization (Jennings et al., 2012; Maldonado-Molina, et al., 2010), and researchers have found that foreign-born Hispanics are at lower risk of victimization than native-born Hispanics (Eggers & Jennings, 2013; Desmond & Kubrin, 2009; Morenoff & Astor, 2006; Rumbaut, Gonzales, Komaie, Morgan, & Tafoya-Estrada, 2006; Butcher & Piehl, 1998). For example, Miller (2012), using a Hispanic sub-sample from the PHDCN, reported first-generation Hispanic youth were significantly less likely to commit delinquency and be violently victimized, compared to native-born Hispanics, even after controlling for

level of parental supervision. These findings also warrant further research in explaining why variation in victimization risk exists between Hispanic groups, and specifically, between native-born and foreign-born.

Nativity has been linked to Hispanic victimization; however, there are still few relevant studies explaining why this is the case (Catalano, 2006; Like-Haislip & Warren, 2011; Truman, 2011; Truman & Planty, 2012; Rennison, 2002). Only a few researchers have investigated specific risk and protective factors associated with crime among Hispanic adolescents (Eggers & Jennings, 2013; Gibson & Miller, 2010; Jennings, Maldonado-Molina, Piquero, & Canino, 2010; Jennings, Reingle, Staras, & Maldonado-Molina, 2012; Maldonado-Molina, Piquero, Jennings, Bird, & Canino, 2009; Maldonado-Molina, Reingle, Jennings, & Prado, 2011; Miller, 2012; Miller & Gibson, 2011; Tillyer, Tillyer, Miller, & Pangrac, 2011), and they draw from a variety of theoretical perspectives (Eggers & Jennings, 2013; Gibson & Miller, 2010; Miller, 2012; Miller, Jennings, Alvarez-River, & Lanza-Kaduce, 2009). For example, researchers have found self-control, delinquent peers, and parental supervision were significant predictors of both Hispanic youth crime and victimization outcomes (Gibson & Miller, 2010; Miller, 2012).

Gibson and Miller (2010) reported delinquent peers and self-control partially mediated the relationships between nativity and both offending and victimization, but still failed to completely explain these relationships. Eggers and Jennings (2013) reported familial attachment affected the relation between nativity and victimization, but also reported that this effect was reduced once delinquent peers and violent offending were added to the statistical model. Existing research has examined the effect of various sociological perspectives on nativity and Hispanic victimization. However, researchers

have only included basic social control measures and failed to investigate further with refined measures of these variables.

The following section will discuss evidence of similar theoretical predictors for offending and victimization. Next, research on the relationship between social bonds and victimization will be outlined. This section will be followed with brief discussion of delinquent peer and self-control research examining Hispanic victimization. Since researchers have found evidence to suggest these two variables mediate the effects of nativity on Hispanic victimization, measures of them are included in the current study. Finally, the objectives, importance, and contribution of this study will be specified.

Theoretical Framework

Victim-Offender Overlap

Early research, such as that by Hindelang, Gottfredson, and Garofalo (1978), has suggested that criminal offending and victimization may have the same predictors, including demographic characteristics or the risky situations to which individuals expose themselves. Additionally, Sampson and Lauritsen (1990) provided further evidence of overlapping predictors of criminal offending and victimization related to lifestyle characteristics, such as frequenting bars or nightclubs. Schreck (1999) suggested that people with low self-control, who have an increased risk of offending according to self-control theory (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990), will engage in risky behavior that will likely place them in vulnerable and risky situations that increase the likelihood of victimization (Gibson, Sullivan, Jones, & Piquero, 2009; Piquero & Hickman, 2003; Schreck, Wright, & Miller, 2002). Consistent reports of victim-offender overlap

encouraged researchers to explore common predictors among specific population groups, such as Hispanics.

For this study, similar theoretical arguments will be applied to predicting Hispanic victimization as applied by previous studies of offending among Hispanic adolescents (Eggers & Jennings, 2013; Reingle et al., 2011; Tillyer, Tillyer, Miller, & Pangrac, 2011, Jennings et al., 2010; Maldonado-Molina et al., 2009). These studies have found evidence of prevalent risk factors among Hispanic populations that can assist in predicting victimization (i.e., self-control, delinquent peers, and familial attachment). For this study, social bonds will be analyzed to investigate how different types and levels of attachment affect the relationship between nativity and Hispanic victimization.

Attachment Bonds

Previously, researchers have examined the effects of parental attachment on victimization. For example, Schreck and Fisher's (2004) research explored the interaction effects of parental attachment and guardianship on victimization. Their findings indicated a diminished risk of violent victimization when adolescents had close relationships with parents. Adolescents who maintain strong attachments to parents should be more likely to remain home, where family can act as positive influences and protective guardians and prevent exposure to delinquent peers (Lauritsen, Laub, & Sampson, 1992; Schreck, 2002; Schreck & Fisher 2004). Thus, attachment bonds among Hispanics (and non-Hispanics) are critical for this study, and therefore will be included.

Parental attachment has been found previously to partially mediate the relationship among Hispanics between immigration and victimization (Eggers & Jennings, 2013; Feldmeyer & Steffensmeier, 2009; Martinez & Lee, 2000; Tonry, 1997).

What is lacking is knowledge of what specific kinds of parental attachments are relevant. Are they maternal attachments to mothers only? Are they paternal attachments to fathers only? Could it be attachments to both mother and father produce a Hispanic youth's smallest chance of victimization? For example, Eggers and Jennings (2013) used only one parental attachment scale composed of three items (family understands you, family has fun together, and family pays attention to you). The only additional social bond Eggers and Jennings (2013) examined was a five-item school attachment scale. By using minimal and basic measures of social bonds, it is possible that the effects of parental attachment are underestimated. It is not known, for example, if, parental variables, such as supervision and time spent with parents, are better predictors of Hispanic youth victimization than maternal or paternal attachments in general. Eggers and Jennings (2013) found parental attachment's effects on violent victimization were reduced to marginal significance after controlling for self-control, strain, delinquent peers, age, and gender. They also found the effects of nativity on violent victimization were reduced to non-significance after controlling for the same variables (Eggers & Jennings, 2013).

Given that both native-born Hispanics and non-Hispanics were born and raised in the U.S., it is predicted the findings will be similar for the two groups. However, if results are significantly different, this raises interesting speculation as to what factors are contributing to differences between the two groups in regards to victimization risk. Additionally, if findings are similar for foreign-born Hispanics and non-Hispanics, and both are reported to have lower risk of victimization than native-born Hispanics, new inquiries would be needed, such as investigating a culture of distress (Rusch, Frazier, & Atkins, 2015; Polo & Lopez, 2009) among native-born Hispanics. Furthermore, if

parental attachments are irrelevant to victimization outcomes, then this study will be able to reveal which alternative attachments, such as school attachment, or other control variables, play a vital role in Hispanic youth's risk of victimization. However, if significant differences are uncovered between native-born and foreign-born Hispanic youth pertaining to types of parental attachments each group possesses, then there will be increased awareness that different cultures do exist within Hispanic populations.

Possessing strong family values is rooted in Hispanic culture and is passed on between generations and commonly termed "la familia" (Quintero & Estrada, 1998; Saenz, Casado, & Wade, 2009), which refers to both immediate and extended family. Moreover, Hispanics tend to be oriented toward group values rather than individualism; therefore, honoring family and avoiding shame is of heightened priority in comparison to some other racial/ethnic groups (Sabogal, Marin, & Otero-Sabogal, 1987). This is a sense of collectivism that emphasizes the needs, objectives, and points of view of the group rather than the individual. Managing close-knit ties among the family is commonly maintained by generations of a Hispanic family living near one another. This has been commonly achieved by residing in the same household, neighborhood, or in close proximity in the community. Researchers have identified "familialism" as one of the most important values of Hispanics and suggest this cultural characteristic may possibly explain why foreign-born Hispanics are able to, in general, avoid conflict in the U.S. compared to native groups (Cohen, 1979; Rumbaut & Rumbaut, 1976; Szalay, Ruiz, Strhol, Lopez, & Turbiville, 1978; Moore, 1970).

The traditional Hispanic culture can be interpreted as enforcing informal social controls, where parents are not, generally, the only authority figures to be respected.

Extended family members, such as grandparents, aunts, uncles, or siblings, often contribute to raising children. Given that it is commonplace to consistently have multiple generations living and interacting near/with each other, an alternative form of supervision exists when parents are not always present. Similar to many other cultures, children are the central focus of Hispanic families. Young Hispanics are socialized to respect all Hispanic elders, and disrespecting elders or one's guardians can inflict shame on a family. Traditionally, it is not uncommon for Hispanic children to be encouraged to remain living with their family for an extended period of time until they are married. Specifically, in past times, young Hispanic females were discouraged from leaving home independently or unmarried. Rather, young, female Hispanic women brought more honor to their families by being married to an established Hispanic male and bearing children at relatively young ages. This is contrary to progressive modern norms where considerable emphasis is placed on individuality, independence, and monetary success (Morenoff & Astor, 2006).

The collectivism among Hispanics may minimize offending and victimization risks for youth through enforced informal social controls. Therefore, according to Hirschi's (1969; 2002) social bond theory, those individuals with stronger attachments, such as attachment to families, are less likely to commit crime and be victimized. It has been proposed that family perceptions and obligations diminish with acculturation (Sabogal, Marin, Otero-Sabogal, Marin, & Perez-Stable, 1987). For these reasons, this study draws from Hirschi's social bond theory and hypothesizes that foreign-born Hispanics are less likely to be victimized than native-born Hispanics, as native-born

Hispanics should have stronger attachments to parents based on a continued commitment to Hispanic culture.

Current Study

This study examines the relationship between nativity and violent victimization among foreign-born and native-born Hispanic and non-Hispanic youth. The present research is intended to expand the extant literature by examining whether the effects of nativity on violent victimization are mediated by social bonds, controlling for age, gender, family structure, delinquent peers, and self-control and also whether nativity and social bonds interact to affect violent victimization.

The present study has three foci. First, this study will identify the differences in violent victimization between foreign-born Hispanics (first-generation), native-born Hispanics (second- and third-generation), and non-Hispanic youth. Second, this study will explore the extent to which the effects of nativity on violent victimization are mediated by social bonds. Third, the possibility that nativity impacts the effects of social bonds on the risks of violent victimization also will be examined.

Nativity status will be measured by place of birth (i.e., born in the U.S. or native-born versus born outside of the U.S. or foreign-born). Based on existing research, it is predicted that foreign-born Hispanics will be less likely to be victimized than native-born Hispanics (Eggers & Jennings, 2013; Gibson & Miller, 2010; Lopez & Miller, 2011; Miller & Gibson, 2011; Reingle et al., 2011). It is also predicted that the effects of nativity on victimization risk will be at least partially mediated by one or more social bond variables.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

Data

This study utilizes data from the public use version of the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health (Add Health; Harris, 2009), a longitudinal study of the effects of social environments on behavior and psychological development of children and adolescents (Udry, 2003). The researchers collected data from students enrolled in American middle and high schools across the United States, ranging from Grades 7-12 at Wave 1 (Udry, 2003). To obtain this nationally representative sample, stratified random sampling techniques were employed. The school sample comprised 80 high schools and 52 middle schools. Researchers collected data in four stages: Wave 1 in 1994-1995 (in-school = 90,000; in-home = 20,750), Wave 2 in 1996 ($n = 14,738$), Wave 3 in 2001-2002 ($n = 15,197$), and Wave 4 in 2007-2008 ($n = 15,701$).

A combination of computer-assisted personal interviews and audio computer-assisted self-interviews was used (Harris, Florey, Tabor, Bearman, Jones, & Udry, 2003). These data are appropriate for assessing the effects of both nativity and other variables on the probability of violent victimization among Hispanic adolescents due to the oversampling of Hispanics in the original research design. These data also provide an opportunity to develop scales relevant to the foci of this study with numerous components related to respondents' social relationships, family dynamics, behaviors, and health.

Sample

The analysis sample was taken from Wave 1 and 2 cohorts, ranging in age from 9 to 16. All independent variables are drawn from Wave 1, while dependent variables are drawn from Wave 2. A comparison analysis is conducted between native-born Hispanics, foreign-born Hispanics, and non-Hispanic youth. The Hispanic sample is comprised of multiple Hispanic sub-groups, which include Mexicans, Chicanos, Cubans, Puerto Ricans, and Central/South Americans. This study examines Hispanics as a single category (i.e., foreign-born and native-born Hispanics) rather than Hispanic subgroups. Overall, the sample consists of 6,504 youth, specifically containing 88.2% ($n = 5,738$) non-Hispanics, 8.4% ($n = 547$) native-born Hispanics, 3.0% ($n = 196$) foreign-born Hispanics, and .4% ($n = 23$) missing. The youth sample (both non-Hispanics and Hispanics) used for the current analysis is 51.6% female and 48.4% male.

Variables

Dependent Variable

Violent Victimization. The dependent variable is a dichotomous measure of violent victimization (yes/no). One year following initial data collection, researchers surveyed the respondents about their violent victimizations in the past year. This variable is created using four items measuring whether violent victimization occurred in the 12-month period between the Wave 1 and Wave 2 interviews. These items include whether the youth: (1) had a knife or gun pulled on him or her; (2) been shot; (3) been cut or stabbed; and/or (4) been jumped in the last 12 months. Due to the rarity of violent victimization and consistent with previous studies, the dependent variable is expressed dichotomously (1 = violent victimization; 0 = no violent victimization) (Eggers &

Jennings, 2013; Schreck, Burek, & Clark-Miller, 2007; Schreck, Burek, Stewart, & Miller, 2007; Schreck & Fisher, 2004; Tillyer, Tillyer, Miller, & Pangrac, 2010).

Independent Variables

Demographic Characteristics. Family structure is measured from one question posed to each youth's primary caregiver at Wave 1, with values of 1 for two-parent households and 0 for single-parent households. Gender is dummy coded (1 = male; 0 = female). The respondent's age at Wave 1 is measured as a continuous variable.

Nativity. Nativity status is assessed using a one-item measure from Wave 1, which queried respondents on whether they had been born within or outside of the U.S., and is dummy coded (1 = native-born; 0 = foreign-born). The non-Hispanic youth are not differentiated by nativity in this study.

Parental Attachment. The strength of influence of family on a youth is measured with a series of multi-item measures. First, to explore parental attachment, both paternal and maternal parental attachment scales were created. Each parental scale consists of the following five items: (a) mother/father is warm and loving toward you most often, (b) satisfied with communication between you and your mother/father, (c) overall satisfaction with mother/father relationship, (d) how close do you feel to your mother/father, and (e) amount you think she/he cares about you. These measures are similar to those used in prior research on parental attachment (Miller et al., 2009). These items are measured by Likert-type scales, and responses have been coded so that higher values indicate stronger relationships with parents. Reliability analyses indicated a Cronbach's $\alpha = .83$ for paternal attachment and a Cronbach's $\alpha = .77$ for maternal attachment, indicating acceptable reliability.

Time Spent with Parents. An additional measure of family influence is the amount of time a respondent spent with parents. A factor analysis revealed the nine-item maternal/paternal parental time scale should be sub-divided into three separate components to measure time spent with each parent. A total of six scale components were constructed: (1) maternal school time, (2) maternal leisure time, (3) maternal personal time, (4) paternal school time, (5) paternal leisure time, and (6) paternal personal time. The amount of time spent with parents is operationalized by how many various activities a respondent has engaged in with mother/father in the past four weeks. For school time, activities include (a) discussing school work or grades, (b) working on a school project together, and (c) talking about other things pertaining to school. The amount of leisure time youth spent with each parent is measured by (a) shopping, (b) playing a sport, (c) attending religious services or event, and (d) going to movie, play, museum, concert, or sporting event. Last, a youth's amount of personal time spent with each parent was measured by whether he/she (a) discussed dating or partying or (b) discussed personal problems. In each scale, the items were added together, and higher scores represented greater school, leisure, or personal time spent with parents.

Direct Parental Control. Similar to previous research (Eggers & Jennings, 2013; Tillyer et al., 2011), direct parental control is measured with seven dichotomous items. The items included in the scale asked respondents if parents allowed their children to make their own decisions about: (1) curfew time on weekend nights; (2) which people they hung around with; (3) what they wore; (4) amount of television they watched; (5) types of television programs they watched; (6) bedtime on weeknights; and (7) what

they ate (Tillyer et al., 2010). Responses have been reverse coded so that higher values indicate greater direct parental control.

School Attachment. The extent to which attachment influences a youth aside from peers and family is assessed through the youth's impression of his/her school environment. Also, attachment to school may provide an explanation for differences in risk of violent victimization between foreign-born and native-born Hispanics and non-Hispanic youth, provided one group prioritizes school more than another or has divergent experiences. Similar to previous studies (Eggers & Jennings, 2013; Maldonado-Molina, Reingle, Tobler, Jennings, & Komro, 2010), an attachment-to-school scale is created with five items: (a) feel close to people at school, (b) feel part of your school, (c) students are prejudiced at school, (d) you are happy at school, and (e) teachers treat students fairly (reverse-coded). Participants responded to a Likert-type scale ranging from (1) strongly agree to (5) strongly disagree and were coded with higher values indicating greater school attachment. The Cronbach's α for this scale is .77, indicating acceptable reliability.

Delinquent Peers. To examine the effects of delinquent peers on youth, a delinquent peer scale was created. Consistent with previous research (Eggers & Jennings, 2013; Reingle et al., 2011; Schreck & Fisher, 2004; Tillyer et al., 2010), the three-item delinquent peer scale includes: (a) of your three best friends, how many smoked cigarettes on a daily basis; (b) of your three best friends, how many drink alcohol over the course of a month; and (c) of your three best friends, how many smoked marijuana over the course of a month (Cronbach's $\alpha = .75$). These items are measured

on a scale ranging from (0) no friends to (3) three friends, and the responses were summed and averaged (Schreck & Fisher, 2004; Tillyer et al., 2010).

Self-Control. An individual's level of self-control has consistently been demonstrated to be a predictor of violent victimization (Pratt & Cullen, 2000; Schreck, 1999). A five-item scale generated from previous studies is used to measure self-control (Eggers & Jennings, 2013; Tillyer et al., 2010). This scale includes: when you have a problem to solve, one of the first things you do is: get as many facts about the problem as possible; (2) attempt to find a solution to a problem by thinking of many ways to approach the problems; (3) use systematic methods for making decisions by judging and comparing alternatives; (4) try to analyze what went right and wrong after carrying out solution; and (5) when you get what you want, it's usually because you worked hard for it (Eggers & Jennings, 2013; Miller et al., 2009; Tillyer et al., 2010; Vazsonyi, Cleveland, & Wiebe, 2006). These items are measured with a Likert-type scale ranging from (1) strongly agree to (5) strongly disagree. After reverse coding, higher values indicated greater self-control. The Cronbach's α for this scale is .71.

Analytic Strategy

This study utilizes a variety of statistical techniques, with the analysis proceeding in four stages. First, due to multiple scale constructions, exploratory factor analysis is conducted. Specifically, this preliminary step provides confirmation for whether each set of items empirically represents the same factor and should be combined. Second, descriptive statistics are generated to provide an overview of the foreign-born Hispanics, native-born Hispanic and non-Hispanic samples from the Add Health data. The

descriptive statistics will also reveal the prevalence of violent victimization among these groups.

Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) Regression

This study uses ordinary least squares (OLS) regression to examine the effects of nativity (i.e., foreign-born Hispanic; native-born Hispanic) on the continuous outcome measures of social bonds. The (OLS) regression technique reveals the relationship strength between “Y” (outcome/dependent variable) and “X” (predictor/independent variable) when the dependent variable is continuous. The regression analysis is a step toward ultimately determining whether nativity is linked with victimization through social bonds. Ten OLS regression models are considered to examine the direct effects of nativity on various social bonds (see Figure 3).

<i>Foreign-born Nativity</i>	→	<i>Maternal Attachment</i>
<i>Native-born Nativity</i>	→	<i>Maternal Attachment</i>
<i>Foreign-born Nativity</i>	→	<i>Maternal School Time</i>
<i>Native-born Nativity</i>	→	<i>Maternal School Time</i>
<i>Foreign-born Nativity</i>	→	<i>Maternal Leisure Time</i>
<i>Native-born Nativity</i>	→	<i>Maternal Leisure Time</i>
<i>Foreign-born Nativity</i>	→	<i>Maternal Personal Time</i>
<i>Native-born Nativity</i>	→	<i>Maternal Personal Time</i>
<i>Foreign-born Nativity</i>	→	<i>Paternal Attachment</i>
<i>Native-born Nativity</i>	→	<i>Paternal Attachment</i>
<i>Foreign-born Nativity</i>	→	<i>Paternal School Time</i>
<i>Native-born Nativity</i>	→	<i>Paternal School Time</i>
<i>Foreign-born Nativity</i>	→	<i>Paternal Leisure Time</i>
<i>Native-born Nativity</i>	→	<i>Paternal Leisure Time</i>
<i>Foreign-born Nativity</i>	→	<i>Paternal Personal Time</i>
<i>Native-born Nativity</i>	→	<i>Paternal Personal Time</i>
<i>Foreign-born Nativity</i>	→	<i>Parental Direct Monitoring</i>
<i>Native-born Nativity</i>	→	<i>Parental Direct Monitoring</i>
<i>Foreign-born Nativity</i>	→	<i>School Attachment</i>
<i>Native-born Nativity</i>	→	<i>School Attachment</i>

Figure 3: OLS Models

Logistic Regression

Next, due to the dichotomous dependent variable, this study employs a series of logistic regression analyses. This analytic method is used to test the effects of the independent variables on the likelihood of experiencing violent victimization. Logistic regression applies maximum likelihood estimation after transforming the outcome into the natural log of the odds (logit) of violent victimization. Twelve logistic regression models are estimated to examine the effects of the various social bonds on violent victimization.

The logistic regression models are estimated in a step-by-step fashion. First, there is an analysis of the effects of nativity on violent victimization, while including age, sex, family structure, delinquent peers, and self-control. This is referred to as the baseline model or Model 1. Next, another analysis is conducted for Model 2 and comprises all variables included in the baseline model (foreign-born Hispanic nativity, native-born Hispanic nativity, age, sex, family structure, delinquent peers, and self-control) with maternal attachment added. This is continued for Model 3 by removing the maternal attachment bond measure and adding maternal school time. There are 12 models in all.

This step-by-step strategy continues until violent victimization has been regressed on each social bond. These analyses reveal whether any effects of nativity on violent victimization remain stable, are marginally reduced, or are eliminated entirely after controlling for the added social bond. To fully determine a social bond is responsible for changes in the effect of nativity on violent victimization, the Sobel test of mediation is conducted after existence of mediation is established. An all-inclusive model is

examined with all control, social bond variables, and nativity as independent variables to examine their independent effects on violent victimization risk.

Another series of logistic regression analyses is conducted in a similar step-by-step fashion to observe the interaction effects of social bonds and nativity on violent victimization. Non-Hispanics is the reference group, and therefore, is omitted from the models. Given that nativity consists of two dummy variables (native-born and foreign-born Hispanics), there are two interaction terms created from maternal attachment and nativity (maternal attachment X native-born Hispanic and maternal attachment X foreign-born Hispanic). In this set of analyses, Model 1 consists of the maternal attachment variable, two interaction terms (maternal attachment X foreign-born Hispanic; maternal attachment X native-born Hispanic), and all other independent control variables. This process continues with Model 2, which removes the two maternal attachment and nativity interaction terms and adds the maternal school time activity measures. Therefore, Model 2 includes maternal school time, two interaction terms (maternal school time X foreign-born Hispanic; maternal school time X native-born Hispanic), and all other independent control variables. There are 12 models in all.

Results of these analyses are compared with findings in previous logistic regression analyses. This includes referencing the baseline model (Model 1), which consisted of the effects of foreign-born and native-born Hispanic nativity on violent victimization, while controlling for age, sex, family structure, delinquent peers, and self-control. An all-inclusive model (Model 12) is examined last with all variables, including all bonding variables and interaction terms to examine how violent victimization risk is impacted and predictor effects are altered after taking into account all variables.

Generalized Structural Equation Modeling (GSEM)

In order to better model and quantify the indirect effects, the hypotheses are tested in a structural equation modeling framework using STATA 13. This software allows standard logistic regression equations to be run as generalized structural equation models (GSEM). By using this analytic method, two logistic regression equations are estimated simultaneously in one model and with both dichotomous and continuous measures of dependent variables.

Similar to previous step-by-step formats in the ordinary least squares and logistic regression models, 11 GSEM models are analyzed. Model 1 entails an analysis of the effects of maternal attachment on violent victimization, while including native-born Hispanic, foreign-born Hispanic, age, sex, family structure, delinquent peers, and self-control. At the same time, in Model 1 GSEM, there is an analysis of the effects of nativity (e.g., foreign-born Hispanic; native-born Hispanic) on maternal attachment. Next, another analysis is conducted for Model 2 GSEM; however, maternal attachment is replaced by maternal school time for both equations in Model 2 GSEM. Therefore, Model 2 GSEM includes an analysis of the effects of maternal school time on violent victimization, and an analysis of the effects of nativity (e.g., foreign-born Hispanic; native-born Hispanic) on maternal school time. This stepwise strategy continues until violent victimization is regressed on each social bond, while controlling for all other variables, and nativity is regressed on each social bond. An all-inclusive equation is analyzed in Model 11 GSEM that entails violent victimization regressed on all variables.

Finally, to allow for an examination of the direct effects of each social bond on violent victimization, and taking into account all other variables, 11 GSEM models are

analyzed without nativity measures. For example, Model 1 entails an analysis of the effects of maternal attachment on violent victimization, while including age, sex, family structure, delinquent peers, and self-control. At the same time, in Model 1 GSEM, there remains an analysis of the effects of nativity (e.g., foreign-born Hispanic; native-born Hispanic) on maternal attachment. Next, another analysis is conducted for Model 2 GSEM; however, maternal attachment is replaced by maternal school time for both equations in Model 2 GSEM. Therefore, Model 2 includes an analysis of the effects of maternal school time on violent victimization with no nativity measures, and an analysis of the effects of nativity (e.g., foreign-born Hispanic; native-born Hispanic) on maternal school time. This stepwise strategy continues until violent victimization is regressed on each social bond and excluding both nativity variables. An all-inclusive equation is analyzed in Model 11 that entails violent victimization regressed on all variables, removing both nativity measures.

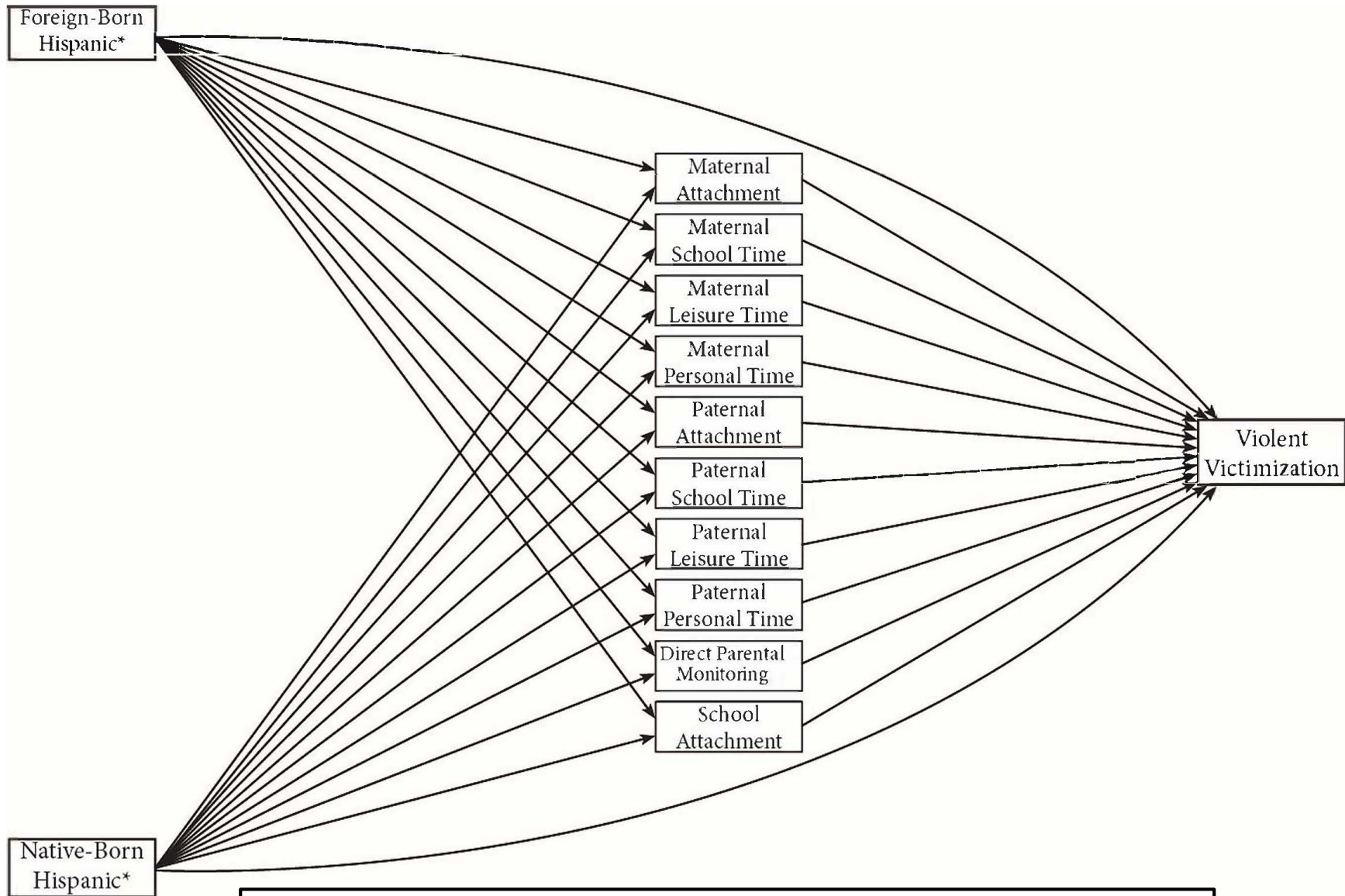


Figure 4: Proposed Generalized Structural Equation Modeling (GSEM) Path Diagram

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

Sample Description

Table 1.1 presents descriptive information about the study's sample of 6,504 adolescents. The sample is comprised of 11.4% ($n = 743$) Hispanic and about 88% ($n = 5,738$) non-Hispanic. The remaining .4% of the sample did not answer the nativity question. Three percent ($n = 196$) of the Hispanics are foreign-born, and about eight percent ($n = 547$) are native-born. The Hispanic portion of the sample is comprised of Mexicans, Chicanos, Cubans, Puerto Ricans, and Central/South Americans. Of those who are Hispanic, approximately half are male ($n = 358$) and half are female ($n = 385$). Similarly, for the total sample, approximately half of the sample (48 percent; $n = 3,136$) are male and approximately half are female (52 percent; $n = 3,345$). The measure of family structure is dichotomous with one being living with two parents and zero being living with one parent. Of the sample, 60.8% ($n = 3,941$) of the youth have married parents.

During wave 2, a year after initial data collection, respondents were asked a combination of questions about their past violent victimization experiences. The self-reported violent victimization measure combined four items asking youth whether (1) they had a knife or gun pulled on him or her; (2) been shot; (3) been cut or stabbed; and/or (4) been jumped in the last 12 months. All four items were measured dichotomously and indicated whether or not the respondent had experienced that type of victimization or was exposed to that form of violence within the past year. Out of the total sample 15.1 percent reported violent victimizations.

Table 1.1 Descriptive Statistics (*N* = 6,481)

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Foreign-born Hispanic (FBH) (<i>N</i> = 6,481)	196	3.0
Native-born Hispanic (NBH) (<i>N</i> = 6,481)	547	8.4
Non-Hispanic (<i>N</i> = 6,481)	5,738	88.5
Gender (1 = male) (<i>N</i> = 6,481)	3,136	48.4
Violent Victimization (1 = yes) (<i>N</i> = 4,787)	724	15.1
Family Structure (1 = two parent) (<i>N</i> = 5,625)	3,941	70.1

Figure 5 shows the frequency distribution of violent victimizations for the foreign-born Hispanics, native-born Hispanics, non-Hispanics, and for those who were missing on the nativity question. As expected because there are more non-Hispanics in the sample, there are more non-Hispanics who reported violent victimizations, compared to the others. Similarly, more of the native-born Hispanics reportedly suffered a violent victimization than the numerically fewer foreign-born Hispanics. More important, 15.4% of the native-born Hispanics reported being violently victimized; 8.5 percent of the non-Hispanics reported being violently victimized; and only 6.6% of the foreign-born Hispanics reported being violently victimized. Most important for this study, then, there was proportionately more violent victimization among the native-born than the foreign-born Hispanics.

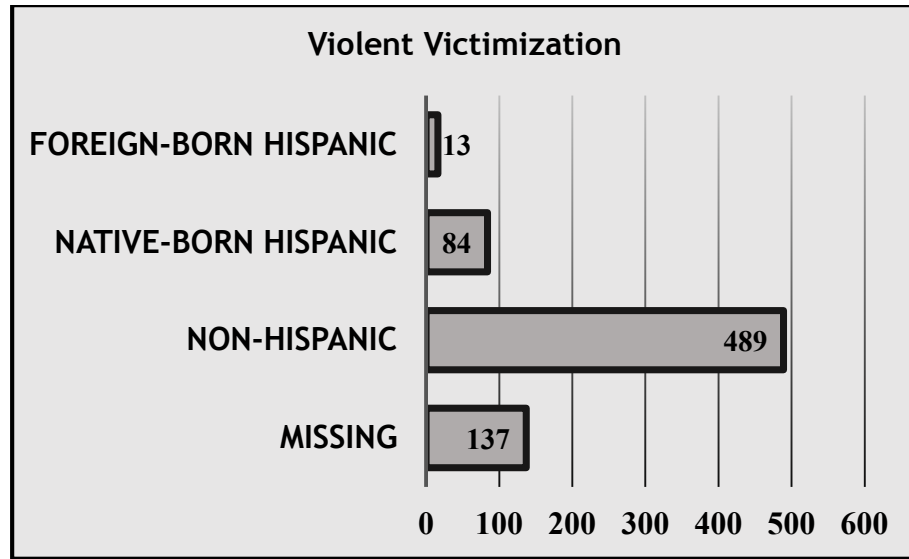


Figure 5: Frequency of Violent Victimization

Table 1.2 reports that the sample is comprised of adolescents between ages 12 and 21 (Mean = 16 years, $SD = 1.77$). Additional descriptive information about other variables is provided, including respondent's delinquent peer associations, which ranges from zero to three (Mean = .83, $SD = .87$) with higher scores reflecting more associations with delinquent peers. The self-control measure ranges from zero to four (Mean = 2.83, $SD = .57$), with higher scores indicating greater self-control.

Table 1.2 Descriptive Statistics ($N = 6,481$)

Variable	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Minimum	Maximum
Age ($N = 6,480$)	16	1.77	12	21
Delinquent Peers ($N = 6,256$)	.83	.87	0	3
Self-Control ($N = 6,368$)	2.83	.57	0	4

OLS Regression

Ordinary least squares (OLS) regression is utilized to examine the association between nativity (foreign-born Hispanics and native-born Hispanics) and the 10 types of social bonds (maternal attachment, maternal school time, maternal leisure time, maternal personal time, paternal attachment, paternal school time, paternal leisure time, paternal personal time, direct parental monitoring, and school attachment). The omitted (or reference) group is non-Hispanics.

In the maternal-focused Models 1-4 in Table 2.1, neither the native-born nor the foreign-born dummy variable was significantly associated with maternal attachment and leisure activities spent with mother. In Model 2, being a foreign-born Hispanic significantly affects how many school-related activities a youth and mother engage in or discuss together. A foreign-born Hispanic, on average, is more likely to have a mother involved with school activities ($\beta = .08$; $p < .05$). For Model 4, being a foreign-born Hispanic is significantly associated with maternal personal time; foreign-born Hispanics spend significantly less personal time with mothers ($\beta = -.15$; $p < .05$).

Table 2.1 OLS Regression Models

Variable	Model 1 _a			Model 2 _b			Model 3 _c			Model 4 _d		
	Maternal Attachment			Maternal School Time			Maternal Leisure Time			Maternal Personal Time		
	β	(SE)	t-value	β	(SE)	t-value	β	(SE)	t-value	β	(SE)	t-value
Intercept	23.02	.03**	793.10	.63	.01**	96.02	1.49	.01**	111.96	.87	.01**	79.74
FB-Hispanic	-.25	.17	-1.48	.08	.04*	2.16	-.12	.07	-1.66	-.15	.06*	-2.45
NB-Hispanic	.04	.10	.35	-.04	.02	-1.87	-.06	.05	-1.42	-.04	.04	-1.06

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .001$

^a Model statistics: $N = 5,321$; $F = 1.192$, $R^2 = .000$, $RMSE = 1.99740$

^b Model statistics: $N = 6,105$; $F = 4.293$, $R^2 = .001$, $RMSE = .48281$

^c Model statistics: $N = 6,105$; $F = 2.267$, $R^2 = .001$, $RMSE = .97946$

^d Model statistics: $N = 6,105$; $F = 3.439$, $R^2 = .001$, $RMSE = .80037$

Table 2.2 presents results for Models 5-8. Contrary to expectations, the results for Model 5 indicated that foreign-birth location negatively affected relationships with fathers. Foreign-born Hispanics reportedly had, on average, weaker attachments to their fathers ($\beta = -.78, p < .05$). This is a noteworthy finding in that it is inconsistent with extant literature that characterizes immigrant groups, particularly Hispanics, as more family-oriented than other Americans (Berry, Phinney, Sam, & Vedder, 2006; Lichter, & Anderson, 1994; Portes & Zhou, 1993). Foreign-born Hispanic youth are believed to maintain cultural traditions, such as close-knit relationships, and it was predicted in this study that they would have close bonds with parents. While foreign-born Hispanics were more likely to have a mother involved with school activities (Model 2, in Table 2.1), native-born Hispanics reportedly spent, on average, less time on school-related activities with their fathers ($\beta = -.24; p < .05$). The amount of leisure time spent with fathers was significantly negatively related to the foreign-born Hispanic dummy ($\beta = -.24; p < .05$). Moreover, hispanic youth born in the U.S. reportedly spent, on average, less personal bonding time with a father ($\beta = -.07; p < .05$).

Table 2.2 OLS Regression Models

Variable	Model 5 ^a			Model 6 ^b			Model 7 ^c			Model 8 ^d		
	Paternal Attachment			Paternal School Time			Paternal Leisure Time			Paternal Personal Time		
	β	(SE)	t-value	β	(SE)	t-value	β	(SE)	t-value	β	(SE)	t-value
Intercept	22.43	.04**	546.87	1.42	.02**	68.32	1.15	.02**	67.68	.47	.01**	44.43
FB-Hispanic	-78	.24*	-3.29	-08	.12	-.66	-.24	.10*	-2.56	-.05	.06	-.86
NB-Hispanic	-.08	.15	-.55	-.24	.07*	-3.30	-.09	.06	-1.51	-.07	.04*	-1.99

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .001$

^a Model statistics: $N = 3,808$; $F = 5.479$, $R^2 = .003$, $RMSE = 2.39663$

^b Model statistics: $N = 4,526$; $F = 5.575$, $R^2 = .002$, $RMSE = 1.31513$

^c Model statistics: $N = 4,526$; $F = 4.238$, $R^2 = .002$, $RMSE = 1.07458$

^d Model statistics: $N = 4,526$; $F = 2.278$, $R^2 = .001$, $RMSE = .67551$

The results for the last two OLS models are displayed in Table 2.3. In Model 9, foreign-born Hispanic youths, on average, reported more direct parental monitoring activities ($\beta = .43, p < .001$). This suggests parents of those Hispanic youth born outside the U. S. will, on average, implement more direct controls, such as what the youth eats, amount and type of TV watched, and a bedtime. For model 10, there was no significant association between native-born nativity and attachment to school. However, foreign-born Hispanics, on average, had weaker school attachments ($\beta = -.57; p < .05$).

Table 2.3 OLS Regression Models

Variable	Model 9 ^a			Model 10 ^b		
	Direct Parental Monitoring			School Attachment		
	β	(SE)	t-value	β	(SE)	t-value
Intercept	1.82	.02**	87.38	11.47	.05**	226.41
FB-Hispanic	.43	.12**	3.71	-.57	.28*	-2.02
NB-Hispanic	.17	.07*	2.41	.24	.17	1.38

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .001$

^a Model statistics: $N = 6,318$; $F = 9.345$, $R^2 = .003$, $RMSE = 1.55529$

^b Model statistics: $N = 6,341$; $F = 3.140$, $R^2 = .001$, $RMSE = 3.79813$

Mediation

Preacher and Hayes (2004, p. 879) state that “mediation hypotheses posit how, or by what means, an independent variable (X) affects a dependent variable (Y) through one or more potential intervening variables, or mediators (M).” For the current study, the mediation hypothesis proposes that nativity (foreign-born Hispanic or native-born Hispanic) indirectly affects violent victimization through one or more bonds. A four-step approach is used to establish whether mediating effects exist (Baron & Kenny, 1986) and whether the Sobel test (Preacher & Hayes, 2004, 2008; Sobel, 1982) of mediation should be conducted. The Sobel test is a method of testing the significance of a mediating effect. In the current study, the Sobel test will be used to examine the extent of a social bond’s mediating effect on the relationship between nativity and violent victimization after

mediating effects are established. The Sobel test (Sobel 1982; Zimmerman & Vásquez, 2011) involves the following equation:

$$Z = \frac{A \times B}{\sqrt{B^2 \times SE_A^2 + A^2 \times SE_B^2}}$$

The values required to calculate the equation are identified when four conditions are met (Baron & Kenny, 1986). First, the independent variable (foreign-born Hispanic or native-born Hispanic nativity) must significantly predict the proposed mediating variable (bonds) (see OLS Tables 2.1-2.3). This first condition involves the A and SE_A in the Sobel equation and represents the coefficient and standard error of the independent variable's effect on the mediator. Second, the independent variable (foreign-born Hispanic or native-born Hispanic nativity) must significantly predict the dependent variable (violent victimization). Third, the mediator (bonds) must significantly predict the dependent variable (violent victimization). The third condition is reflected in the Sobel equation above by B and SE_B and represent the coefficient and standard error of the effect of a mediator on the dependent variable. Last, the direct effect of the independent variable (foreign-born Hispanic or native-born Hispanic nativity) on the dependent variable (violent victimization) must be significantly reduced when the mediator (bond) is added to the the model. If all conditions are not met, complete mediation is not indicated, and the Sobel test is not conducted.

The next section discusses the logistic regression analyses and focuses on models indicative of possible mediating effects. The assessment of logistic regression models presented in Tables 3.1-3.6 and previously discussed OLS models (Tables 2.1-2.3) will determine whether the four conditions are met and a mediation effect is indicated. For models satisfying all four conditions, the Sobel test is conducted.

Logistic Regression Original Analyses

Tables 3.1-3.6 present the results of the series of original logistic regression analyses. These models do not include interaction terms. Table 3.1 presents the results of Models 1-3. The first model, also referred to as the “baseline model” regresses violent victimization on foreign-born Hispanic, native-born Hispanic, age, gender, family structure, delinquent peers, and self-control. Results from Model 1 reveal that native-born Hispanic, age, gender, family structure, and delinquent peers are significantly related to violent victimization before any social bond variables are added. Model 1 indicates that being a native-born Hispanic significantly increases the odds of being violently victimized such that native-born Hispanics had a nearly 200% greater odds of being the victim of violence (odds ratio [OR] = 1.93; $p \leq .001$ ¹). Also in Model 1, it is revealed that gender (male) (OR = 3.02; $p \leq .001$) and having delinquent peers (OR = 1.78; $p \leq .001$) were significantly related to an increased likelihood of self-reported violent victimization. The baseline model also indicates older (OR = .94; $p < .05$) youth with married parents (OR = .62; $p \leq .001$) were less likely to be violently victimized.

The next series of logistic regression models in Tables 3.1-3.5 regressed violent victimization on the different social bonds and all of the other variables in the baseline model (Model 1). This step-by-step strategy was carried out in order to observe how each type of social bond independently affected violent victimization risk. By adding each social bond one-by-one, any change in nativity can be observed, when compared to the baseline model. For example, when maternal attachment was included in Model 2 in Table 3.1, the results were similar to the baseline model. Native-born Hispanic (OR = 1.76; $p \leq .05$), gender

¹ The significance levels correspond to coefficients in the model.

(male) (OR = 3.01; $p \leq .001$), and delinquent peers (OR = 1.73; $p \leq .001$) significantly increased the odds of violent victimization. In other words, youth who were U.S. born Hispanic, males, and had more delinquent peers were at greater risk of violent victimization. There were two small shifts in the findings of Model 2 from the baseline model (Model 1). While the native-born Hispanic youth had an increased odds of being violently victimized compared to non-Hispanic youth, the native-born Hispanic coefficient was reduced, though it remained significant at the .05 level in Model 2. Older (OR = .96; $p < .05$) youth with married parents (OR = .67; $p \leq .001$) had a lower likelihood of being violently victimized.

Despite the reduction in the native-born Hispanic coefficient in Model 2, it is concluded that maternal attachment did not have a mediating effect on the relationship between native-born Hispanic and violent victimization. When referring to the four conditions (Baron & Kenny, 1986) for establishing mediation, only two were met. In Model 2, native-born Hispanic is significantly related to violent victimization, and the effect of native-born Hispanic on violent victimization is reduced after adding maternal attachment. However, Model 1 (see Table 2.1) in the OLS analysis indicates that native-born Hispanic is not significantly related to maternal attachment and this does not satisfy the first condition. Additionally, in Model 2 (see Table 3.1) of the logistic regression analyses, maternal attachment, is not significantly related to violent victimization and, therefore, does not satisfy condition three. The Sobel test was not conducted, given that a mediating effect did not occur.

Table 3.1: Logistic Regression – Maternal Original Test

Variables	Violent Victimization											
	Model 1 (Baseline Model)				Model 2				Model 3			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald
Intercept	-1.82**	.16	.51	12.93	-1.09	.34	.82	1.79	-1.75*	.17	.53	11.06
Maternal Attachment					-.02	.98	.03	.46				
Maternal School Time									-.08	.92	.10	.67
FB-Hispanic	-.07	.94	.34	.04	-.09	.92	.37	.05	-.12	.89	.35	.12
NB-Hispanic	.66**	1.93	.14	21.66	.52*	1.76	.16	10.84	.65**	1.92	.15	20.20
Age	-.07*	.94	.03	4.77	-.08*	.96	.04	5.71	-.06*	.94	.03	3.83
Gender	1.10**	3.02	.10	130.54	1.05**	3.01	.11	94.42	1.09**	2.98	.10	120.10
Family Structure	-.48**	.62	.10	25.15	-.52**	.67	.11	23.68	-.48**	.62	.10	23.61
Delinquent Peers	.58**	1.78	.05	125.73	.55**	1.73	.06	89.31	.55**	1.73	.05	105.25
Self-control	.09	1.09	.08	1.17	.08	1.12	.09	.68	.06	1.06	.08	.52
N	4,092				3,449				3,921			
df	7				8				8			
χ^2	329.23**				243.03**				291.00**			

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p \leq .001$

In Model 3 in Table 3.1, maternal attachment was removed, and maternal school time was added. Again, native-born Hispanic (OR = 1.92; $p \leq .001$), gender (male) (OR = 2.98; $p \leq .001$), and delinquent peers (OR = 1.73; $p \leq .001$) significantly increased the likelihood of violent victimization. Consistent with previously discussed models, family structure (two parents) (OR = .62; $p \leq .001$) and older (OR = .94; $p \leq .05$) youth are significantly related to lower odds of violent victimization. The same is true of Models 4 and 5 in Table 3.2, which include maternal leisure time and time with mother for personal activities. Native-born Hispanic (Model 4: OR = 1.93; $p \leq .001$; Model 5: OR = 1.94; $p \leq .001$), gender (male) (Model 4: OR = 2.98; $p \leq .001$; Model 5: OR = 3.12; $p < .001$); and delinquent peers (Model 4: OR = 1.73; $p \leq .001$; Model 5: OR = 1.71; $p \leq .001$) increased the odds of violent victimization. For Models 4 and 5, having married parents (OR = .62; $p \leq .001$) significantly reduced the odds of a youth being violently victimized. Overall, none of the different maternal bond measures significantly affected the odds of violent victimization, and therefore, cannot mediate any effects of nativity on violent victimization.

Table 3.2: Logistic Regression – Maternal Original Test

Variables	Violent Victimization											
	Model 1 (Baseline Model)				Model 4				Model 5			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald
Intercept	-1.82**	.16	.51	12.93	-1.79*	.17	.54	10.91	-1.73*	.18	.53	10.82
Maternal Leisure Time					^a	1.00	.05	^a				
Maternal Personal Time									.12	1.12	.06	3.39
FB-Hispanic	-.07	.94	.34	.04	-.13	.88	.35	.14	-.11	.89	.35	.10
NB-Hispanic	.66**	1.93	.14	21.66	.66**	1.93	.15	20.29	.66**	1.94	.15	20.68
Age	-.07*	.94	.03	4.77	-.06	.94	.03	3.85	-.07*	.93	.03	5.06
Gender	1.10**	3.02	.10	130.54	1.09**	2.98	.10	118.96	1.14**	3.12	.10	122.19
Family Structure	-.48**	.62	.10	25.15	-.48**	.62	.10	23.58	-.47**	.62	.10	22.56
Delinquent Peers	.58**	1.78	.05	125.73	.55**	1.73	.05	102.16	.54**	1.71	.05	100.80
Self-control	.09	1.09	.08	1.17	.06	1.06	.08	.49	.05	1.05	.08	.34
N	4,092				3,921				3,921			
df	7				8				8			
χ^2	329.23**				290.34*				293.72**			

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p \leq .001$

^a = positive fractional value below .01 in absolute value.

^b = negative fractional value below .01 in absolute value.

Tables 3.3 and 3.4 present the results of the logistic regression analyses that included paternal bonds (Models 6-9). Family structure did not significantly reduce the odds of being violently victimized in Model 6 as it did in all of the maternal bond models (Models 2-5) and most paternal bond models (Models 7-8, 10-11). After controlling for paternal activity measures, the findings once again revealed that native-born Hispanics (OR = 1.96; $p \leq .05$), males (OR = 3.06; $p \leq .001$), and those who frequently associated with delinquent peers (OR = 1.83; $p \leq .001$) had greater odds of violent victimization. According to Model 6, older youth had significantly lower odds of violent victimization (OR = .90; $p < .05$).

Interestingly, after adding a paternal attachment measure, the significance level of being a U.S. born Hispanic was marginally reduced compared to the baseline model (native born-Hispanics in Model 1: OR = 1.93; $p \leq .001$; native-born Hispanics in Model 6: OR = 1.96; $p \leq .05$). The reason is probably the sizable reduction in the sample (from 4,092 to 2,506). However, when considering the four-step approach (Baron & Kenny, 1986) to establishing mediating effects, this finding could meet condition four. Also indicated in Model 6, native-born Hispanic is significantly related to violent victimization, therefore, meeting condition two. However, native-born Hispanic nativity is not significantly related to paternal attachment; also, paternal attachment (see Table 2.2); also paternal attachment is not significantly related to violent victimization (see Table 3.3). Thus, conditions one and three are not satisfied, and no Sobel test was conducted.

Model 7 in Table 3.3, presented results similar to baseline Model 1. Native-born Hispanic nativity (OR = 2.08; $p \leq .001$), gender (male) (OR = 3.03; $p \leq .001$), and delinquent peers (OR = 1.78; $p \leq .001$) significantly increased the odds of violent victimization. In other

words, youth who were U.S. born Hispanics, males, and had more delinquent peers have greater risk of violent victimization than non-Hispanics. There were one small shift in the findings of Model 7 from the baseline model (Model 1). While family structure (two parents) decreased the odds of being violently victimized, compared to non-Hispanic youth, the family structure coefficient was reduced from the baseline (Model 1), though it remained significant at the .05 level in Model 7 (OR = .70; $p \leq .05$). Last, older respondents have lower odds of violent victimization.

The results for both Models (8 and 9) indicate that native-born Hispanics have significantly greater odds of being violently victimized (Model 8 [OR = 2.09; $p \leq .001$], Model 9 [OR = 2.13; $p \leq .001$]). Parallel to the baseline Model 1, the findings for Models 8 and 9 also indicate male (Model 8 [OR = 3.07; $p \leq .001$], Model 9 [OR = 3.02; $p \leq .001$]) and delinquent peers significantly increase the odds of violent victimization (Model 8 [OR = 1.82; $p \leq .001$], Model 9 [OR = 1.82; $p \leq .001$]). Youth living with two parents (Model 8 [OR = .70; $p \leq .05$]) and who are older (Model 8 [OR = .91; $p \leq .05$], Model 9 [OR = .91; $p \leq .05$]) have significantly reduced odds of violent victimization. Another notable finding in Model 9 is that after controlling for paternal personal time, family structure was no longer significantly associated with violent victimization as found in previous models.

In Model 7, only two of four conditions were met to establish a mediating effect (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Native-born Hispanic is significantly related to paternal school time (see Table 2.2) and violent victimization (see Table 3.1). However, paternal school time has no significant effect on violent victimization (see Table 3.3), and the effect of native-born Hispanic nativity on violent victimization is not reduced after adding paternal school time

(see Table 3.3). In Model 8, only the first condition is satisfied by foreign-born Hispanic nativity having a significant effect on paternal leisure time (see Table 2.2). The results in Model 9 only meet two of the four conditions. Specifically, native-born Hispanic is significantly related to paternal personal time (see Table 2.2) and violent victimization (see Table 3.4). However, there is no significant relationship between paternal personal time and violent victimization, and the effect of native-born Hispanic on violent victimization is not reduced as a result of controlling for paternal personal time. Given that all four conditions of establishing mediation were not met in Models 7-9, the Sobel test was not conducted.

Table 3.3: Logistic Regression – Paternal Original Test

Variables	Violent Victimization											
	Model 1 (Baseline Model)				Model 6				Model 7			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald
Intercept	-1.82**	.16	.51	12.93	-.31	.73	.96	.11	-1.55*	.21	.66	5.46
Paternal Attachment					-.05	.95	.03	3.35				
Paternal School Time									-.03	.97	.04	.58
FB-Hispanic	-.07	.94	.34	.04	-1.15	.32	.74	2.46	-.94	.39	.61	2.41
NB-Hispanic	.66**	1.93	.14	21.66	.67*	1.96	.20	11.20	.73**	2.08	.18	17.55
Age	-.07*	.94	.03	4.77	-.11*	.90	.04	6.28	-.09*	.92	.04	5.08
Gender	1.10**	3.02	.10	130.54	1.12**	3.06	.14	65.25	1.11**	3.03	.12	82.28
Family Structure	-.48**	.62	.10	25.15	-.35	.70	.21	2.93	-.36*	.70	.18	4.07
Delinquent Peers	.58**	1.78	.05	125.73	.61**	1.83	.08	65.66	.57**	1.78	.08	58.37
Self-control	.09	1.09	.08	1.17	.11	1.11	.12	.82	.06	1.07	.10	.39
N	4,092				2,506				2,938			
df	7				8				8			
χ^2	329.23**				167.50**				205.94**			

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p \leq .001$

^a = positive fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^b = negative fractional value below .01 in absolute value

Table 3.4: Logistic Regression – Paternal Original Test

Variables	Violent Victimization											
	Model 1 (Baseline Model)				Model 8				Model 9			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald
Intercept	-1.82**	.16	.51	12.93	-1.47*	.23	.68	4.70	-1.51*	.22	.67	5.19
Paternal Leisure Time					-.04	.96	.05	.46				
Paternal Personal Time									.15	1.17	.08	3.49
FB-Hispanic	-.07	.94	.34	.04	-.96	.38	.61	2.51	-.97	.38	.61	2.55
NB-Hispanic	.66**	1.93	.14	21.66	.74**	2.09	.18	17.82	.75**	2.13	.18	18.57
Age	-.07*	.94	.03	4.77	-.09*	.91	.04	5.59	-.10*	.91	.04	6.05
Gender	1.10**	3.02	.10	130.54	1.12**	3.07	.12	82.90	1.11**	3.02	.12	81.91
Family Structure	-.48**	.62	.10	25.15	-.36*	.70	.18	4.02	-.32	.73	.18	3.17
Delinquent Peers	.58**	1.78	.05	125.73	.60**	1.82	.07	81.44	.60**	1.82	.07	81.68
Self-control	.09	1.09	.08	1.17	.06	1.06	.10	.36	.04	1.04	.10	.18
N	4,092				2,938				2,938			
df	7				8				8			
χ^2	329.23**				205.82**				208.78**			

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p \leq .001$

^a = positive fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^b = negative fractional value below .01 in absolute value

The findings for Model 10 in Table 3.5 reveal that a one-unit increase in direct parental monitoring changes the odds of victimization by a factor of 1.08 ($p \leq .05$). It was hypothesized that greater parental supervision would reduce a youth's odds of being violently victimized (Schreck & Fisher, 2004; Schreck, Fisher, & Miller, 2004; Wilcox, Tillyer, & Fisher, 2009). However, this hypothesis was not supported by Model 10's findings. Oddly, youth in a household with enforced parental rules and supervision have greater odds of being violently victimized. The rest of the values in Model 10 were consistent with prior models despite controlling for direct parental monitoring. The Model 10 results show that native-born Hispanics (OR = 1.89; $p \leq .001$), gender (male) (OR = 2.97; $p \leq .001$), and delinquent peers (OR = 1.78; $p \leq .001$) all significantly increased the odds of being violently victimized. Again, having married parents (OR = .62; $p \leq .001$) significantly decreased the odds of a youth being violently victimized.

After adding direct parental monitoring in Model 10, there was a marginal reduction in the effect of native-born Hispanic on violent victimization from the baseline Model 1. This finding meets condition four in establishing mediation. Additionally, conditions two and three are also met, given that native-born Hispanic and direct parental monitoring are both significantly related to violent victimization in Model 10. Moreover, condition one was met. In OLS Model 9 (see Table 2.3) native-born Hispanic is significantly positively related to direct parental monitoring ($\beta = .17$; $p < .05$). Therefore, all four conditions were met and indicate a mediating effect occurred in the Model 10 analysis. The Sobel test is calculated with $A (.17)$ and $SE_A (.07)$, representing the coefficient and standard error of the effect of native-born Hispanic on direct parental monitoring (see Table 2.3). The coefficient and standard error of the effect of direct

parental monitoring on violent victimization are represented by B (.07) and SE_B (.03) in Model 10 of Table 3.5. The Sobel test indicates that the effect of native-born Hispanic on violent victimization is not significantly mediated by direct parental monitoring ($z = 1.61$; $p > .05$ [p-value = .11]). Furthermore, the Sobel test determines that the reduction in the effect of native-born Hispanic on violent victimization, after controlling for direct parental monitoring, is not a significant reduction or significant mediating effect.

Table 3.5 also presents findings for Model 11, which examined the effects of a youth's bond to school on the likelihood of violent victimization. Interestingly, stronger school attachment significantly increases a youth's odds of being violently victimized (OR = 1.07; $p \leq .001$). Therefore, instead of a youth's close bonds to school reducing the odds of victimization, an adolescent with stronger bonds to school has greater odds of being violently victimized. Also, and consistent with most prior models, native-born Hispanic (OR = 1.88; $p \leq .001$), gender (male) (OR = 3.03; $p \leq .001$), and delinquent peers (OR = 1.67; $p \leq .001$) produced increased odds of being violently victimized. Living with two parents (OR = .65; $p \leq .001$) and being older (OR = .92; $p \leq .05$) significantly reduced the likelihood of violent victimization. Another notable finding in Model 11 is that after controlling for school attachment, greater self-control (OR = 1.20; $p \leq .05$) significantly increased the odds of violent victimization. Therefore, a youth's odds of reporting violent victimization increases by about 20% given a one-unit increase in self-control. This is contrary to existing research (Hirschi, 2004; Schreck, 1999) that low self-control increase individual's victimization risk.

After controlling for school attachment, Model 11 also indicates a reduction in the effect of native-born Hispanic on violent victimization, compared to baseline Model 1. By meeting condition four, a continued assessment for mediating effects in Model 11 reveals that

conditions two and three are also met. Specifically, native-born Hispanic is significantly related to violent victimization, and school attachment is significantly related to violent victimization in Model 11. However, in OLS Model 10 (see Table 2.3), native-born Hispanic nativity is not significantly related to school attachment; thus, the first condition is not met. Therefore, it is concluded that school attachment does not mediate the effects of native-born Hispanic on violent victimization, and a Sobel test is not conducted.

Table 3.5: Logistic Regression – Other Bonds Original Test

Variables	Violent Victimization											
	Model 1 (Baseline Model)				Model 10				Model 11			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald
Intercept	-1.82**	.16	.51	12.93	-2.19**	.11	.54	16.29	-2.63**	.07	.55	23.03
Direct Parental Monitoring					.07*	1.08	.03	5.75				
School Attachment									.07**	1.07	.01	28.52
FB-Hispanic	-.07	.94	.34	.04	-.19	.82	.35	.30	.02	1.02	.34	^a
NB-Hispanic	.66**	1.93	.14	21.66	.64**	1.89	.14	20.15	.63**	1.88	.15	18.86
Age	-.07*	.94	.03	4.77	-.05	.95	.03	2.61	-.08*	.92	.03	6.61
Gender	1.10**	3.02	.10	130.54	1.09**	2.97	.10	125.20	1.11**	3.03	.10	126.56
Family Structure	-.48**	.62	.10	25.15	-.47**	.62	.10	24.35	-.43**	.65	.10	19.34
Delinquent Peers	.58**	1.78	.05	125.73	.58**	1.78	.05	124.26	.52**	1.67	.05	93.31
Self-control	.09	1.09	.08	1.17	.08	1.09	.08	1.05	.18*	1.20	.08	4.79
<i>N</i>	4,092				4,049				4,023			
df	7				8				8			
χ^2	329.23**				324.35**				335.94**			

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p \leq .001$

^a = positive fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^b = negative fractional value below .01 in absolute value

Table 3.6 presents the results of Model 12 (all-inclusive model), which includes all social bonds simultaneously. Of the 10 different social bond variables examined, only three were significantly associated with increased odds of violent victimization. Youth who had greater direct parental monitoring are marginally more likely to be violently victimized (OR = 1.15; $p \leq .05$). A one-unit increase in attachment to school changes the odds of violent victimization by a factor of 1.06. Therefore, a youth's odds of reporting violent victimization increase by about 6% given a unit increase in attachment to school (OR = 1.06; $p \leq .05$). Oddly, youth who spent more personal time with their father are more likely to be violently victimized. A one-unit increase in paternal personal time changes the odds violent victimization by a factor of 1.29 ($p \leq .05$). A one-unit increase in attachment to father changes the odds of victimization by a factor of .90. In other words, the respondent's odds of reporting violent victimization are reduced by about 10% given a unit increase in attachment to father (OR = .90; $p \leq .05$). Despite including all social bond measures in Model 12, the effects of the other variables were the same as in the analyses of previous models. These included native-born Hispanic (OR = 2.11; $p \leq .05$), gender (male) (OR = 2.88; $p \leq .001$), and delinquent peers (OR = 1.70; $p \leq .001$). Therefore, after controlling for various social bonds, native-born Hispanic males and those who associate with more delinquent peers had greater odds of being violently victimized. Model 12 indicates that whether a youth had married parents did not significantly affect the odds of being violently victimized, after controlling for all social bond measures. Overall, results again indicated bonds did not mediate the effects of nativity.

Table 3.6: Logistic Regression – All-Inclusive Bonds Original Test

Variables	Violent Victimization							
	Model 1 (Baseline Model)				Model 12			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald
Intercept	-1.82**	.16	.51	12.93	-3.16*	.04	1.37	5.32
Maternal Attachment					.08	1.08	.05	3.24
Maternal School Time					-.09	.92	.14	.35
Maternal Leisure Time					-.07	.94	.09	.56
Maternal Personal Time					.08	1.08	.11	.50
Paternal Attachment					-.10*	.90	.04	7.22
Paternal School Time					.01	1.01	.06	.02
Paternal Leisure Time					.06	1.07	.08	.68
Paternal Personal Time					.26*	1.29	.12	4.42
Direct Parental Monitoring					.14*	1.15	.05	8.64
School Attachment					.06*	1.06	.02	7.17
FB-Hispanic	-.07	.94	.34	.04	-.95	.39	.74	1.63
NB-Hispanic	.66**	1.93	.14	21.66	.75*	2.11	.22	11.57
Age	-.07*	.94	.03	4.77	-.07	.94	.05	1.56
Gender	1.10**	3.02	.10	130.54	1.06**	2.88	.16	41.43
Family Structure	-.48**	.62	.10	25.15	.03	1.03	.31	.01
Delinquent Peers	.58**	1.78	.05	125.73	.53**	1.70	.09	34.73
Self-control	.09	1.09	.08	1.17	.14	1.15	.14	1.01
N	4,092				2,171			
df	7				17			
χ^2	329.23**				150.72**			

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p \leq .001$

^a = positive fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^b = negative fractional value below .01 in absolute value

Logistic Regression Models with Interaction Terms

Tables 4.1- 4.6 present the results of the series of logistic regression models that include various interaction variables (product terms). These interactions include the same bonds analyzed in the previous logistic regression models. For these analyses, the various bonds are each multiplied with the nativity measures for the Hispanic youth (native-born Hispanic and foreign-born Hispanic). The results from the second logistic regression model (Model 2) in this series of analyses demonstrate that after adding product terms for maternal attachment and nativity, only age (OR = .92; $p \leq .05$), gender (male) (OR = 2.86; $p \leq .001$), family structure (two parent) (OR = .60; $p \leq .001$), and delinquent peers (OR = 1.73; $p \leq .001$) are significantly related to violent victimization risk. Both males and youth with more delinquent peers have greater odds of violent victimization. Older youth have 8% (OR = .92; $p \leq .05$) higher odds of reporting violent victimization. Youth who reported living with two parent have 40% lower odds of reporting violent victimization than the odds of youth living with one parent (OR = .60; $p \leq .001$). Overall in Model 2, neither maternal attachment interaction with nativity was significant.

Table 4.1: Logistic Regression – Maternal Interaction Terms

Variables	Violent Victimization											
	Model 1 (Baseline Model)				Model 2				Model 3			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald
Intercept	-1.82**	.16	.51	12.93	-1.14	.32	.84	1.82	-1.74*	.18	.53	10.84
Maternal Attachment					-.02	.98	.03	.32				
Maternal Attachment FB-Hispanic					.13	1.14	.20	.41				
Maternal Attachment NB-Hispanic					-.04	.96	.08	.25				
Maternal School									-.10	.90	.10	.95
Maternal School FB-Hispanic									-.25	.78	.76	.10
Maternal School NB-Hispanic									.22	1.24	.30	.52
FB-Hispanic	-.06	.94	.34	.04	-3.10	.05	4.75	.43	.06	1.06	.64	.01
NB-Hispanic	.66**	1.93	.14	21.66	1.50	4.48	1.94	.60	.53*	1.69	.23	5.16
Age	-.07*	.94	.03	4.77	-.08*	.92	.04	5.70	-.06*	.94	.03	3.82
Gender	1.10**	3.02	.10	130.54	1.05**	2.86	.11	94.63	1.09**	2.98	.10	119.71
Family Structure	-.48**	.62	.10	25.15	-.52**	.60	.11	23.55	-.48**	.62	.10	23.34
Delinquent Peers	.58**	1.78	.05	125.73	.55**	1.73	.06	89.01	.55**	1.73	.05	105.33
Self-control	.09	1.09	.08	1.17	.08	1.18	.09	.66	.06	1.06	.08	.49
N	4,092				3,449				3,921			
df	7				10				10			
χ^2	329.26**				243.76**				291.65**			

Note. * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .001$

^a = positive fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^b = negative fractional value below .01 in absolute value

The next three models (Models 3-5) examine the product terms of youth activities spent with mother, which included school activities, leisure activities, and personal activities. The results for all three models (3-5) indicate that native-born Hispanics have significantly greater odds of being violently victimized (Model 3 [OR = 1.69; $p \leq .05$], Model 4 [OR = 2.08; $p \leq .05$], Model 5 [OR = 2.00, $p \leq .05$]). Similar to Model 2, the findings for Models 3-5 also indicate being male and having more delinquent peers significantly increase the odds of violent victimization. Also, youth living with two parents have significantly lower odds of violent victimization than youth in single-parent households (Model 3 [OR = .62; $p \leq .001$], Model 4 [OR = .62; $p \leq .001$], Model 5 [OR = .63; $p \leq .001$]). Overall, the results from Models 3-5 in this series of analyses demonstrate neither maternal school activities, maternal leisure activities, nor maternal personal activities significantly interact with nativity.

Table 4.2: Logistic Regression – Maternal Interaction Terms

Variables	Violent Victimization											
	Model 1 (Baseline Model)				Model 4				Model 5			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald
Intercept	-1.82**	.16	.51	12.93	-1.80*	.17	.54	10.98	-1.72*	.18	.53	10.64
Maternal Leisure					-.01	1.01	.05	.05				
Maternal Leisure FB-Hispanic					-.18	.84	.39	.21				
Maternal Leisure NB-Hispanic					-.05	.95	.14	.13				
Maternal Personal FB-Hispanic									.13*	1.14	.07	3.95
Maternal Personal NB-Hispanic									-.95	.39	.59	2.65
Maternal Personal NB-Hispanic FB-Hispanic									-.04	.96	.18	.05
FB-Hispanic	-.06	.94	.34	.04	.10	1.10	.60	.03	.44	1.56	.44	1.02
NB-Hispanic	.66**	1.93	.14	21.66	.73*	2.08	.25	8.33	.69*	2.00	.21	11.42
Age	-.07*	.94	.03	4.77	-.06*	.94	.03	3.89	-.08*	.93	.03	5.32
Gender	1.10**	3.02	.10	130.54	1.09**	2.98	.10	119.00	1.14**	3.13	.10	122.91
Family Structure	-.48**	.62	.10	25.15	-.48**	.62	.10	23.64	-.47**	.63	.10	22.35
Delinquent Peers	.58**	1.78	.05	125.73	.55**	1.73	.05	102.31	.54**	1.72	.05	101.11
Self-control	.09	1.09	.08	1.17	.06	1.06	.08	.48	.05	1.05	.08	.34
N	4,092				3,921				3,921			
df	7				10				10			
χ^2	329.26*				290.66**				296.84**			

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p \leq .001$

^a = positive fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^b = negative fractional value below .01 in absolute value

Table 4.3: Logistic Regression – Paternal Interaction Terms

Variables	Violent Victimization											
	Model 1 (Baseline Model)				Model 6				Model 7			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald
Intercept	-1.82**	.16	.51	12.93	-.10	.91	.98	.01	-1.54*	.21	.66	5.40
Paternal Attachment					-.06*	.94	.03	4.21				
Paternal Attachment FB-Hispanic					.89	2.43	.73	1.48				
Paternal Attachment NB-Hispanic					.05	1.05	.09	.34				
Paternal School Time									-.02	.98	.05	.18
Paternal School FB-Hispanic									.17	1.18	.52	.11
Paternal School NB-Hispanic									-.14	.87	.14	.94
FB-Hispanic	-.06	.94	.34	.04	-22.03	^a	17.85	1.52	-1.26	.28	1.19	1.13
NB-Hispanic	.66**	1.93	.14	21.66	-.46	.63	1.95	.06	.89**	2.44	.24	14.14
Age	-.07*	.94	.03	4.77	-.11*	.90	.04	6.19	-.09*	.91	.04	5.24
Gender	1.10**	3.02	.10	130.54	1.12**	3.06	.14	65.26	1.11**	3.03	.12	82.37
Family Structure	-.48**	.62	.10	25.15	-.36	.70	.21	3.04	-.37*	.69	.18	4.15
Delinquent Peers	.58**	1.78	.05	125.73	.60**	1.83	.08	65.02	.60**	1.82	.07	82.61
Self-control	.09	1.09	.08	1.17	.11	1.11	.12	.82	.06	1.07	.10	.41
N	4,092				2,506				2,938			
df	7				10				10			
χ^2	329.26**				170.96**				207.03**			

Note. * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .001$

^a = positive fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^b = negative fractional value below .01 in absolute value

The results for Models 6-9 parallel previous logistic regression models, indicating that being male and having delinquent peers significantly increased odds of violent victimization. Also in Models 7-8, youth living with two parents have significantly lower odds of violent victimization (Model 7 [OR = .69; $p \leq .05$], Model 8 [OR = .70; $p \leq .05$]. Last, the results presented in Models 6-9 reveal that neither paternal school activities, paternal leisure activities, nor paternal personal activities significantly interact with nativity to affect the likelihood of violent victimization.

Table 4.4: Logistic Regression – Paternal Interaction Terms

Variables	Violent Victimization											
	Model 1 (Baseline Model)				Model 8				Model 9			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E	Wald	β	Exp(B)	S.E	Wald	β	Exp(B)	S.E	Wald
Intercept	-1.82**	.16	.51	12.93	-1.46*	.23	.68	4.60	-1.49*	.23	.67	4.99
Paternal Leisure Time					-.05	.95	.06	.87				
Paternal Leisure FB-Hispanic					.56	1.75	.62	.81				
Paternal Leisure NB-Hispanic					.11	1.12	.16	.50				
Paternal Personal Time									.18*	1.20	.09	4.44
Paternal Personal FB-Hispanic									-18.57	^a	6239.99	^a
Paternal Personal NB-Hispanic									-.15	.86	.27	.30
FB-Hispanic	-.06	.94	.34	.04	-1.58	.21	1.01	2.44	-.09	.92	.62	.02
NB-Hispanic	.66**	1.93	.14	21.66	.61*	1.83	.26	5.48	.82**	2.27	.21	15.34
Age	-.07*	.94	.03	4.77	-.09*	.91	.04	5.51	-.10*	.90	.04	6.36
Gender	1.10**	3.02	.10	130.54	1.12**	3.06	.12	82.78	1.12**	3.05	.12	82.97
Family Structure	-.48**	.62	.10	25.15	-.36*	.70	.18	4.07	-.33	.72	.18	3.27
Delinquent Peers	.58**	1.78	.05	125.73	.60**	1.82	.07	80.82	.60**	1.82	.07	81.63
Self-Control	.09	1.09	.08	1.17	.06	1.06	.10	.35	.04	1.06	.10	.18
N	4,092				2,938				2,938			
df	7				10				10			
χ^2	329.26**				207.01**				214.23**			

Note. * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .001$

^a = positive fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^b = negative fractional value below .01 in absolute value

Model 10 in Table 4.5 examines direct parental monitoring. Specifically, Model 10 adds two product terms comprised of the product of direct parental monitoring with foreign-born Hispanic and the product of direct parental monitoring with native-born Hispanic. There are no significant interaction effects in Model 10. Interestingly, a one-unit increase in direct parental monitoring changes the odds of violent victimization by a factor of 1.08. Furthermore, the youth's odds of reporting violent victimization increase by about 8% given a one-unit increase in how closely parents monitor and impose rules. Consistent with prior models, Model 10 reveals that native-born Hispanics (OR = 1.84; $p \leq .05$) have more than 80% greater odds of reporting violent victimization than their non-Hispanic counterparts (the omitted dummy). Gender (male) (OR = 2.97; $p \leq .001$), family structure (OR = .62; $p \leq .001$), and delinquent peers (OR = 1.78; $p \leq .001$) remained significantly related to victimization.

Table 4.5 Logistic Regression – Other Bond Interaction Terms

Variables	Violent Victimization											
	Model 1 (Baseline Model)				Model 10				Model 11			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald
Intercept	-1.82**	.16	.51	12.93	-2.18**	.11	.55	15.88	-2.67**	.07	.55	23.57
Direct Parental Monitoring					.08*	1.08	.03	5.00				
Direct Parental Monitoring FB-Hispanic					-.15	.86	.20	.55				
Direct Parental Monitoring NB-Hispanic					.02	1.02	.09	.03				
School Attachment									.07**	1.07	.01	28.27
School Attachment FB- Hispanic									-.19*	.83	.10	3.75
School Attachment NB- Hispanic									^b	1.00	.04	^a
FB-Hispanic	-.06	.94	.34	.04	.16	1.17	.56	.08	2.12*	8.36	1.07	3.95
NB-Hispanic	.66**	1.93	.14	21.66	.61*	1.84	.23	7.05	.66	1.93	.47	1.97
Age	-.07*	.94	.03	4.77	-.05	.95	.03	2.71	-.08*	.92	.03	6.55
Gender	1.10**	3.02	.10	130.54	1.09**	2.97	.10	125.03	1.11**	3.05	.10	127.65
Family Structure	-.48**	.62	.10	25.15	-.47**	.62	.10	24.52	-.43**	.65	.10	19.99
Delinquent Peers	.58**	1.78	.05	125.73	.58**	1.78	.05	124.40	.51**	1.67	.05	92.32
Self-Control	.09	1.09	.08	1.17	.08	1.09	.08	1.06	.18*	1.20	.08	4.80
N	4,092				4,049				4,023			
df	7				10				10			
χ^2	329.26**				324.96**				340.24**			

Note. * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .001$

^a = positive fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^b = negative fractional value below .01 in absolute value

The results for Model 11 in Table 4.5, reveal that the log odds of violent victimization are a linear function of the following two predictors and their interactions: school attachment and nativity. Most noteworthy, the effect of school attachment on violent victimization is moderated by where a youth is born. For example, the results reveal a .83 change in odds of victimization for every one-unit increase in the foreign-born Hispanic and school attachment product term. Therefore, foreign-born Hispanics with stronger school attachment had 17% lower odds of reporting violent victimization given a one-unit increase in this interaction term (OR = .83; $p \leq .05$). This is also demonstrated by examining the initial effects of school attachment on violent victimization.

Initially, a unit increase in school attachment changed the odds of victimization by a factor of 1.07; and therefore, a youth's odds of reporting violent victimization were increased by about 7% given a one-unit increase in attachment to school (OR = 1.07; $p \leq .001$). However, the effect of school attachment changes when examining the interaction of school attachment and foreign-born Hispanic youth. In fact, the interaction term of school attachment and foreign-born Hispanics revealed a decrease in odds of violent victimization for a one-unit increase in the product term. These results, therefore, reveal the effects of school attachment on violent victimization risk are greater for foreign-born Hispanics than non-Hispanics. It is possible these results provide a possible explanation for the 8.36 ($p \leq .05$) change in log odds of violent victimization among foreign-born Hispanics also indicated in Model 11. Foreign-born Hispanics have significantly greater odds of violent victimization than non-Hispanics but less odds of violent victimization when a youth's birth location is moderated by the effects of school attachment.

In Model 11, the effects of the other variables remained consistent with previous models. For example, gender (male) (OR = 3.05; $p \leq .001$) and delinquent peers (OR = 1.67; $p \leq .001$) are associated with greater odds of violent victimization. Also consistent, age (OR = .92; $p \leq .05$) and living with two parents lower the odds of being violently victimized (OR = .65; $p \leq .001$). It should be noted that self-control (OR = 1.20; $p \leq .05$) was significantly related in Model 11 to violent victimization. However, the results indicated youth with higher self-control had a greater likelihood of violent victimization, which is contrary to most of the existing literature (Augustine, Wilcox, Ousey, & Clayton, 2002; Hirsch, 2004; Schreck, 1999; Wilcox et al., 2009).

Model 12 in Table 4.6 is an all-inclusive model comprised of all control variables, bonds (maternal and paternal), and product terms of each bond (maternal and paternal) with nativity. Maternal attachment is significantly related to violent victimization in the model and the results indicate a one-unit increase in maternal attachment increases a youth's odds of violent victimization by 10% (OR = 1.10; $p \leq .05$). A one-unit increase in a youth's paternal attachment reduced the odds of violent victimization by 10% (OR = .90; $p \leq .05$). A one-unit increase in a youth's paternal personal time increased the odds of violent victimization by 31% (OR = 1.31; $p \leq .05$). These are noteworthy given that it was assumed that strong attachments to either parent would reduce the odds of violent victimization for youth. However, this was only true of paternal attachment and time spent with fathers and not mothers.

Table 4.6: Logistic Regression – All-Inclusive Interaction Terms

Variables	Model 1 (Baseline Model)				Model 12			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald
Intercept	-1.82**	.16	.51	12.93	-3.31*	.04	1.43	5.35
Maternal Attachment					.09*	1.10	.05	3.84
Maternal Attach FB-Hispanic					5.60	269.87	6820.98	a
Maternal Attachment NB-Hispanic					-.15	.86	.16	.94
Maternal School Time					-.12	.89	.15	.57
Maternal School FB-Hispanic					14.04	1253012.78	9824.99	a
Maternal School NB-Hispanic					.38	1.47	.47	.66
Maternal Leisure Time					-.06	.94	.10	.38
Maternal Leisure FB-Hispanic					3.98	53.54	8943.49	a
Maternal Leisure NB-Hispanic					-.11	.89	.28	.16
Maternal Personal Time					.11	1.11	.12	.80
Maternal Personal FB-Hispanic					2.82	16.74	9294.83	a
Maternal Personal NB-Hispanic					-.13	.88	.32	.17
Paternal Attachment					-.11*	.90	.04	7.13
Paternal Attachment FB-Hispanic					-2.27	.10	4746.12	a
Paternal Attachment NB-Hispanic					.05	1.05	.13	.14
Paternal School Time					.01	1.01	.06	.02
Paternal School FB-Hispanic					6.60	732.60	2789.10	a
Paternal School NB-Hispanic					b	.10	.20	a
Paternal Leisure Time					.01	1.01	.08	.03
Paternal Leisure FB-Hispanic					16.28	11707270.46	6405.42	a
Paternal Leisure NB-Hispanic					.46	1.58	.27	2.78
Paternal Personal Time					.27*	1.31	.13	4.07
Paternal Personal FB-Hispanic					-36.78	a	13508.58	a

Table 4.6: Logistic Regression – All-Inclusive Interaction Terms Continued

Variables	Model 1 (Baseline Model)				Model 12			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Wald
Paternal Personal NB-Hispanic					-.10	.91	.39	.06
Direct Parental Monitoring					.15*	1.16	.05	8.35
Direct Parental Monitoring FB- Hispanic					7.98	2913.83	2320.78	a
Direct Parental Monitoring NB-Hispanic					-.08	.93	.14	.33
School Attachment					.06*	1.06	.02	7.07
School Attachment FB-Hispanic					-5.80	a	2603.36	a
School Attachment NB-Hispanic					.02	1.02	.07	.05
FB-Hispanic	-.06	.94	.34	.04	-117.78	a	101612.97	a
NB-Hispanic	.66**	1.93	.14	21.66	2.61	13.54	3.20	.66
Age	-.07*	.94	.03	4.77	-.07	.94	.05	1.56
Gender	1.10**	3.02	.10	130.54	1.08**	2.94	.17	41.63
Family Structure	-.48**	.62	.10	25.15	.03	1.03	.32	.01
Delinquent Peers	.58**	1.78	.05	125.73	.53**	1.70	.09	33.75
Self-control	.09	1.09	.08	1.17	.13	1.14	.14	.92
<i>N</i>	4,092				2,171			
df	7				37			
χ^2	329.26**				176.18**			

Note. * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .001$

^a = positive fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^b = negative fractional value below .01 in absolute value

The results for Model 12 also indicate a one-unit increase in direct parental monitoring changes the odds of a youth reporting violent victimization by a factor of 1.16. Furthermore, a youth's odds of violent victimization increased by 16% given a one-unit increase in direct parental monitoring (OR = 1.16; $p \leq .05$). Consistent with previous models, a youth had six percent greater odds of violent victimization given a one-unit increase in attachment to school (OR = 1.06; $p \leq .05$). Both of these outcomes are contrary to theoretical assumptions that would suggest more direct parental monitoring and stronger school attachment would reduce the odds of violent victimization (Nye, 1958; Rankin & Wells, 1990; Spano & Nagy, 2005). The findings

for gender (male) (OR = 2.94; $p \leq .001$) and delinquent peers (OR = 1.70; $p \leq .001$) remained consistent with the findings for previous models, showing that males and youths with more delinquent peers have significantly increased odds of violent victimization. It is important to note that, in some instances, large exponents possibly mean zero cells and small variability in variables with interaction terms. Furthermore, some results show quasi-complete separation of the data, and, as such, the conclusions may be limited.

Generalized Structural Equation Modeling (GSEM)

Full generalized structural equation modeling (GSEM) was used to consider latent variables. GSEM accounts for the unobservable and multidimensional nature of the social bonds (using multiple indicators for each latent variable) and captures their influence on the likelihood of violent victimization.

In Model 1 in Table 5.1, neither nativity (native-born; foreign-born) were found to affect maternal attachment directly (see second analysis in Tables 5.1). Neither foreign-born nor maternal attachment was found to significantly affect violent victimization risk. However, native-born Hispanics have 69% (OR = 1.69; $p \leq .05$) greater log odds of violent victimization than non-Hispanics. Age (OR = .92; $p \leq .05$), gender (male) (OR = 2.85; $p \leq .001$), and family structure (OR = .60; $p \leq .001$) were significantly negatively associated with violent victimization. The results also revealed that delinquent peers significantly increased the likelihood of violent victimization (OR = 1.74; $p \leq .001$).

In Model 2 in Table 5.1, maternal school time was included. Interestingly, when removing maternal attachment and including maternal school time, nativity was found to be significantly associated with violent victimization. Native-born Hispanics have 92% ($p \leq .001$) greater log odds of violent victimization than non-Hispanics. Moreover, the

inclusion of maternal school time failed to mediate the influence of native-born nativity on violent victimization. Simultaneously, only foreign-born Hispanic nativity was found to be significantly influential on maternal school time in the second analysis of Model 2 (OR = 1.08; $p \leq .05$). This also suggests that nativity may indirectly or directly affect a Hispanic youth's likelihood of violent victimization. Age (OR = .94; $p \leq .05$), gender (male) (OR = 2.98; $p \leq .001$), family structure (OR = .62; $p \leq .001$), and delinquent peers (OR = 1.73; $p \leq .001$) remained significantly associated with violent victimization as in Model 1.

Table 5.1: Generalized Structural Equation Model – Maternal Familial Bonds

Variables	Violent Victimization							
	Model 1				Model 2			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	23.02	.33	.03	794.81	-1.75*	.17	.53	-3.33
Maternal Attachment	-.02	.98	.03	-.68	-	-	-	-
Maternal School Time	-	-	-	-	-.08	.92	.10	-.82
FB-Hispanic	-.09	.92	.37	-.23	-.12	.89	-.35	.73
NB-Hispanic	.52*	1.69	.16	3.29	.65**	1.92	.15	4.49
Age	-.08*	.92	.03	-2.39	-.06*	.94	.03	-1.96
Gender	1.05**	2.85	.11	9.72	1.09**	2.98	.10	10.96
Family Structure	-.52**	.60	.11	-4.87	-.48**	.62	.10	-4.86
Delinquent Peers	.55**	1.74	.06	9.45	.55**	1.73	.05	10.26
Self-control	.08	1.08	.09	.83	.06	1.06	.08	.72
	Maternal Attachment ^c				Maternal School Time ^d			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	23.02**	10.00	.03	794.81	.63**	1.88	.01	96.16
FB-Hispanic	-.25	.78	.17	-1.50	.08*	1.08	.04	2.16
NB-Hispanic	.03	1.03	.10	.32	-.04	.96	.02	-1.86

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .001$

^N = 6,123, ^{df} = 13

^a = positive fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^b = negative fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^c ^N = 5,334, ^{df} = 13; BIC = 25220.24; AIC = 25134.68

^d ^N = 6,123, ^{df} = 13; BIC = 11542.33; AIC = 11454.97

Model 3 in Table 5.2 reveals that maternal leisure time does not affect the association between native-born Hispanic (OR = 1.09; $p \leq .05$) and violent victimization. Specifically, the amount of leisure time a native-born Hispanic spends with mother does not explain differences in violent victimization among native-born Hispanics and non-Hispanics. However, the second analysis in Model 3 shows that neither foreign-born Hispanics, nor native-born Hispanics have significantly greater odds of spending leisure time with mothers (OR = 1.01; $p \leq .05$). Age (OR = .94; $p \leq .05$), gender (male) (OR = 2.96; $p \leq .001$), family structure (two parent) (OR = .62; $p \leq .001$), and delinquent peer associations (OR = 1.74; $p \leq .001$) were significantly related to violent victimization risk.

For Model 4, maternal personal time did not mediate the impact of native-born Hispanic nativity on violent victimization risk. Furthermore, native-born Hispanic youth have (OR = 1.09; $p \leq .05$) significantly greater odds of violent victimization than non-Hispanics. Again, being male (OR = 3.10; $p \leq .001$) and having delinquent peers (OR = 1.73; $p \leq .001$) were significantly associated with increased odds of violent victimization. Older youth (OR = .93; $p \leq .05$) and those living in households with two parents (OR = .62; $p \leq .001$) had significantly lower odds of violent victimization. Only foreign-born Hispanic was significantly negatively related to maternal personal time in the second analysis in Model 4 .

Table 5.2: Generalized Structural Equation Model - Maternal Familial Bonds

Variables	Violent Victimization							
	Model 3				Model 4			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	-1.79*	.17	.54	-3.30	-1.73*	.18	.53	-3.29
Maternal Leisure Time	^a	1.00	.05	.05	-	-	-	-
Maternal Personal Time	-	-	-	-	.12	1.12	.06	1.84
FB-Hispanic	-.13	.88	.35	-.37	-.11	.89	.35	-.32
NB-Hispanic	.66**	1.93	.15	4.50	.66**	1.94	.15	4.55
Age	-.06*	.94	.03	-1.96	-.07*	.93	.03	-2.25
Gender	1.09**	2.98	.10	10.91	1.14**	3.12	.10	11.05
Family Structure	-.48**	.62	.10	-4.86	-.47**	.62	.10	-4.75
Delinquent Peers	.55**	1.73	.05	10.11	.54**	1.71	.05	10.04
Self-control	.06	1.06	.08	.70	.05	1.05	.08	.58
	Maternal Leisure Time ^c				Maternal Personal Time ^d			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	1.49**	4.44	.06	112.17	.87**	2.38	.01	79.89
FB-Hispanic	-.12	.88	.07	-1.66	-.15*	.86	.06	-2.45
NB-Hispanic	-.06	.94	.05	-1.41	-.04	.96	.04	1.06

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .001$

^a = positive fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^b = negative fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^c $N = 6,123$, $df = 13$; BIC = 20203.23; AIC = 20115.87

^d $N = 6,123$, $df = 13$; BIC = 17728.21; AIC = 17640.85

Model 5 in Table 5.3 shows the insignificant effect of paternal attachment on violent victimization. Furthermore, paternal attachment fails to influence the effect of both foreign-born Hispanic and native-born Hispanic on violent victimization. A one-unit increase in foreign-born Hispanic changes the odds of violent victimization by a factor of .32 ($p \leq .05$). Results for native-born Hispanics indicated respondents' odds of reporting a violent victimization increase by a factor of 1.95 ($p \leq .05$). Therefore, native-born Hispanic youth had a greater likelihood of violent victimization than non-Hispanic and foreign-born Hispanic youth. Consistent with previous models, age ($OR = .90$; $p \leq .05$), gender (male) ($OR = 3.06$; $p \leq .001$), and delinquent peers ($OR = 1.83$; $p \leq .001$) were significantly influential on violent victimization risk. In Model 5, whether a youth lived in a single-parent household or with two parents was no longer statistically

significant. In the second analysis in Model 5, only foreign-born Hispanic is significantly related (negatively) to paternal attachment (OR = -.78; $p \leq .05$).

Table 5.3 also presents the results of Model 6. The findings reveal that paternal school time was not significantly related to violent victimization, and, therefore, did not reduce the effect of nativity on violent victimization. A one-unit increase in native-born Hispanic increases the log odds of violent victimization by a factor of 2.08 ($p \leq .001$). Again, for males (OR = 3.03; $p \leq .001$) and those who associated with more delinquent peers (OR = 1.83; $p \leq .001$), there was an increase in a respondent's log odds of reporting violent victimization. The log odds of older respondents reporting violent victimization are reduced by a factor of .92 ($p \leq .05$). A youth's log odds of reporting violent victimization are reduced by a factor of .70 ($p \leq .05$) for every unit increase in family structure. The second analysis of Model 6 indicated native-born Hispanic nativity has a negative and direct effect on paternal school time. Specifically, native-born Hispanics spend less time with a father doing homework or discussing school related topics (OR = .79; $p \leq .05$).

Table 5.3: Generalized Structural Equation Model - Paternal Familial Bonds

Variables	Violent Victimization							
	Model 5				Model 6			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	-.31	.73	.96	-.32	-1.55*	.21	.66	-2.34
Paternal Attachment	-.05	.95	.03	-1.83	-	-	-	-
Paternal School Time	-	-	-	-	-.03	.97	.04	-.76
FB-Hispanic	-1.15*	.32	.74	-1.57	-.94	.39	.61	-1.55
NB-Hispanic	.67*	1.95	.20	3.35	.73**	2.08	.17	4.19
Age	-.11*	.90	.04	-2.51	-.09*	.92	.04	-2.25
Gender	1.12**	3.06	.14	8.08	1.11**	3.03	.12	9.07
Family Structure	-.35	.70	.20	-1.71	-.36*	.70	.18	-2.02
Delinquent Peers	.61**	1.83	.07	8.10	.60**	1.83	.07	9.10
Self-Control	.11	1.11	.12	.91	.06	1.06	.10	.62
	Paternal Attachment ^c				Paternal School Time ^d			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	22.43*	5.52	.04	548.65	1.42**	4.12	.02	68.52
FB-Hispanic	-.78*	.46	.24	-3.30	-.08	.93	.12	-.67
NB-Hispanic	-.08	.92	.15	-.57	-.24*	.79	.07	-3.32

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .001$

^a = positive fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^b = negative fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^c $N = 3,823$, $df = 13$; BIC = 19332.87; AIC = 19251.63

^d $N = 4,542$, $df = 13$; BIC = 17564.88; AIC = 17481.41

The results from Model 7 in Table 5.4 show that paternal leisure time did not impact the effects of either foreign-born Hispanic (OR = .38; $p \leq .05$) or native-born Hispanic (OR = 2.09; $p \leq .001$) on violent victimization. For each one-unit increase in foreign-born Hispanics, the respondent's odds of reporting violent victimization were reduced by about 62%. Consistent with prior models, given a one-unit increase in native-born Hispanics, a youth's odds of reporting violent victimization increased by a factor of 2.09 ($p \leq .001$). Older youth have (OR = .91; $p \leq .05$) lower log odds of violent victimization for every one-unit increase in age, while males (OR = 3.07; $p \leq .001$) had significantly greater log odds of violent victimization. Youth with more delinquent peers (OR = 1.82; $p \leq .001$) had greater odds of violent victimization. The second analysis in Model 7 shows that foreign-born Hispanics (OR = .78; $p \leq .05$) had lower odds of spending leisure time with fathers compared to non-Hispanics. Despite results indicating a direct effect of foreign-born Hispanic on paternal leisure time, paternal leisure time was not significantly related to violent victimization in the first analysis of Model 7. Since foreign-born Hispanic impacts violent victimization and is not mediated by paternal leisure time, the findings in Model 7 suggest that nativity may be a direct predictor of violent victimization among Hispanic youth.

In Model 8, the results indicate that the effects of paternal personal time did not influence the effect of native-born Hispanic on violent victimization. Native-born Hispanics have more than 100% (OR = 2.13; $p \leq .05$) greater odds of violent victimization given a unit increase in native-born Hispanic nativity. The results in the second analysis in Model 8 also indicates foreign-born Hispanic nativity does not significantly affect paternal personal time. The results in Model 8 suggest a direct

relation between native-born Hispanic and violent victimization. That is, a one-unit increase in native-born Hispanic reduces the log odds of paternal personal time by a factor of .93 ($p \leq .05$). The effect of native-born Hispanic on violent victimization was not mediated by paternal personal time in the first analysis of Model 8. Therefore, this finding suggests a possible direct effect of native-born Hispanic nativity on violent victimization.

Table 5.4: Generalized Structural Equation Model - Paternal Familial Bonds

Variables	Violent Victimization							
	Model 7				Model 8			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	-1.47*	.23	.68	-2.17	-1.51*	.22	.66	-2.28
Paternal Leisure Time	-.04	.96	.05	-.68	-	-	-	-
Paternal Personal Time	-	-	-	-	.15	1.17	.08	1.87
FB-Hispanic	-.96*	.38	.61	-1.58	-.97	.38	.61	-1.60
NB-Hispanic	.74**	2.09	.17	4.22	.75**	2.13	.17	4.31
Age	-.09*	.91	.04	-2.36	-.10*	.91	.04	-2.46
Gender	1.12**	3.07	.12	9.10	1.11**	3.02	.12	9.05
Family Structure	-.36*	.70	.18	-2.00	-.32	.73	.18	-1.78
Delinquent Peers	.60**	1.82	.07	9.02	.60**	1.82	.07	9.04
Self-control	.06	1.06	.10	.60	.04	1.04	.10	.42
	Paternal Leisure Time _c				Paternal Personal Time _d			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	1.15**	3.14	.02	67.7	.47**	1.60	.01	44.55
FB-Hispanic	-.24*	.78	.09	-2.56	-.05	.95	.06	-.87
NB-Hispanic	-.09	.91	.06	-1.51	-.07*	.93	.04	-2.00

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .001$

^a = positive fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^b = negative fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^c $N = 4,542$, $df = 13$; BIC = 15736.4; AIC = 15652.92

^d $N = 4,542$, $df = 13$; BIC = 11506.76; AIC = 11423.28

In addition to parental attachment, direct parental monitoring and school attachment were examined in Models 9 and 10 in Table 5.5. In Model 9, the results reveal that both direct parental monitoring and native-born Hispanic positively and significantly affect violent victimization. Direct parental monitoring was included to observe how parental control of a youth's day-to-day activities and behavior (e.g., bedtimes or curfews) impact the chances of being violently victimized. Direct parental

monitoring increases a youth's odds of violent victimization (OR = 1.08; $p \leq .05$).

Specifically, for every one-unit increase in direct parental monitoring, a youth's log odds of reporting violent victimization increase by 8%. Oddly, this would suggest that youth monitored closely by parents were more likely to be violently victimized, and this is inconsistent with related empirical literature (Rankin & Wells, 1990; Spano & Nagy, 2005). However, existing, but limited, research has reported findings of a positive relationship between direct parental control and victimization risk (Tillyer et al., 2010).

The second analysis in Model 9 also indicates that native-born Hispanic and foreign-born Hispanic have positive and direct effects on direct parental monitoring. That is, a one-unit increase in native-born Hispanic raises the log odds of reporting violent victimization by almost 90% (OR = 1.18; $p \leq .05$). Further, a one-unit increase in foreign-born Hispanic raises the odds of direct parental monitoring by 1.53 ($p \leq .001$). At the same time, direct parental monitoring did not appear to mediate the effect of native-born Hispanic on violent victimization in the first analysis of Model 9. Therefore, direct parental monitoring does not account for the significant link between native-born Hispanic nativity and violent victimization as indicated in the first analysis of Model 9. Not surprisingly, the odds of a male (OR = 2.97; $p \leq .001$) reporting violent victimization increase by a factor of 2.97 for every unit increase gender. In addition, the effect of delinquent peers (OR = 1.78; $p \leq .001$) and family structure (two parent) (OR = .62; $p \leq .001$) on violent victimization remained significant.

Model 10 revealed that school attachment (OR = 1.07; $p \leq .001$) has a positive and significant influence on violent victimization. Furthermore, a one-unit increase in school attachment changes the odds of a youth reporting violent victimization by a factor

of 1.07. Specifically, a youth's odds of reporting violent victimization is increased by 7% (OR = 1.07; $p \leq .001$) given a one-unit increase in attachment to school. This finding was not anticipated, given that this would suggest youth who reported greater safety and acceptance in school have greater odds of being violently victimized. This is contrary to existing findings that attachment to others, through family or school, can reduce the risk of violent victimization (Wilcox et al., 2009).

Table 5.5: Generalized Structural Equation Model - Other Bonds

Variables	Violent Victimization							
	Model 9				Model 10			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	-2.19**	.11	.54	-4.04	-2.63**	.07	.55	-4.80
Direct Parental Monitoring	.07*	1.08	.03	2.40	-	-	-	-
School Attachment	-	-	-	-	.07**	1.07	.01	5.34
FB-Hispanic	-.19	.82	.35	-.55	-.02	1.02	.34	.05
NB-Hispanic	.64**	1.89	.14	4.49	.63**	1.88	.15	4.34
Age	-.05	.95	.03	-1.61	-.08*	.92	.03	-2.57
Gender	1.09**	2.97	.10	11.19	1.11**	3.03	.10	11.25
Family Structure	-.47**	.62	.10	-4.93	-.43**	.65	.10	-4.40
Delinquent Peers	.58**	1.78	.05	11.15	.51**	1.67	.05	9.66
Self-control	.08	1.09	.08	1.02	.18*	1.20	.08	2.19
	Direct Parental Monitoring ^c				School Attachment ^d			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	1.82**	6.16	.02	87.60	11.47**	95828.67	.05	226.43
FB-Hispanic	.43**	1.53	.12	3.70	-.57*	.56	.28	-2.03
NB-Hispanic	.17*	1.18	.07	2.39	.23	1.26	.17	1.36

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .001$

^a = positive fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^b = negative fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^c $N = 6,337$, $df = 13$; BIC = 26806.58; AIC = 26718.77

^d $N = 6,360$, $df = 13$; BIC = 38211.81; AIC = 38123.96

Model 10 in Table 5.5 also shows native-born Hispanics have almost 90% (OR = 1.88; $p \leq .001$) greater odds of violent victimization than non-Hispanics for every unit increase in native-born nativity. This also indicates that school attachment did not change the effect of native-born Hispanic on violent victimization to insignificance. Therefore, school attachment cannot account for the differences in violent victimization risk between native-born Hispanic and non-Hispanic youth. In the second analysis of Model 10, there was no association between native-born Hispanics and school attachment. However, there was a significant relationship between foreign-born Hispanic and school attachment. For every one-unit increase in foreign-born Hispanic, a youth's attachment to school is reduced by a factor of .56 ($p \leq .05$). When the effect of foreign-born Hispanic on violent victimization was examined, there was no significant effect. Therefore, Model 10 suggests foreign-born Hispanic may only indirectly affect violent victimization through school attachment.

Also presented in Model 10, delinquent peers (OR = 1.67; $p \leq .001$) and greater self-control (OR = 1.20; $p \leq .05$) are positively, significantly related to violent victimization among youth. Again, males (OR = 3.03; $p \leq .001$) have greater odds of violent victimization than females. At the same time, older (OR = .92; $p \leq .05$) youth and those who reported living in households with two parents (OR = .65; $p \leq .001$) had lower log odds of violent victimization.

Model 11 in Table 5.6 (also see Figure 5) is a full model that includes all variables (i.e., maternal/paternal attachment, maternal/paternal school time, maternal/paternal leisure time, maternal/paternal personal time, direct parental monitoring, school attachment, foreign-born Hispanic, native-born Hispanic, and control

variables) in predicting violent victimization. As shown, only paternal attachment and paternal personal time had significant effects on violent victimization in Model 11. The results indicate that a one-unit increase in paternal attachment changes the odds of a respondent reporting violent victimization by a factor of .90 ($p \leq .05$). Specifically, the odds of a youth reporting violent victimization are reduced by 10% (OR = .90; $p \leq .05$) given a unit increase in their attachment to father. Oddly, a one-unit increase in more personal time with father increased the odds of a youth reporting violent victimization by 29% (OR = 1.29; $p \leq .05$).

Consistent with results in prior models, direct parental monitoring (OR = 1.15; $p \leq .05$), school attachment (OR = 1.06; $p \leq .05$), and delinquent peers (OR = 1.70; $p \leq .001$) have significant and positive effects on violent victimization. Self-control and family structure are no longer significantly related to violent victimization. Regarding demographics, only gender (male) (OR = 2.88; $p \leq .001$) and native-born Hispanic (OR = 2.11; $p \leq .05$) were significantly related to violent victimization. Males have more than 150% greater log odds of violent victimization than females. Also consistent with prior models, given a one-unit increase in native-born Hispanic, violent victimization will increase by a factor of 2.11 ($p \leq .05$).

The results in the second analysis of Model 11, indicate that foreign-born Hispanic has a significant, direct effect on maternal school time (OR = 1.08; $p \leq .05$), maternal leisure time (OR = .88; $p \leq .05$), maternal personal time (OR = .86; $p \leq .05$), paternal attachment (OR = .46; $p \leq .05$), paternal leisure time (OR = .78; $p \leq .05$), direct parental monitoring (OR = 1.53; $p \leq .001$), and school attachment (OR = .56; $p \leq .001$). It is possible that the effect of foreign-born Hispanic on violent victimization is mediated

by the significant effects of paternal attachment, direct parental monitoring, or school attachment on violent victimization in the first analysis of Model 11. Therefore, the effect of foreign-born Hispanic on violent victimization may only occur indirectly through paternal attachment, direct parental monitoring, and school attachment.

The results in the second analysis of Model 11 also indicate native-born Hispanic nativity has a significant on paternal school time (OR = .79; $p \leq .05$), paternal personal time (OR = .93; $p \leq .05$), and direct parental monitoring (OR = 1.18; $p \leq .05$).

Table 5.6: Generalized Structural Equation Model - All-Inclusive Bonds

Variables	Violent Victimization			
	Model 11			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	-3.16*	.04	1.37	-2.31
Maternal Attachment	.08	1.08	.04	1.80
Maternal School Time	-.08	.92	.14	-.59
Maternal Leisure Time	-.07	.93	.09	-.75
Maternal Personal Time	.08	1.08	.11	.71
Paternal Attachment	-.10*	.90	.04	-2.69
Paternal School Time	.01	1.01	.06	.12
Paternal Leisure Time	.06	1.07	.08	.83
Paternal Personal Time	.26*	1.29	.12	2.10
Direct Parental Monitoring	.14*	1.15	.05	2.94
School Attachment	.05*	1.06	.02	2.68
FB-Hispanic	-.95	.39	.74	-1.28
NB-Hispanic	.75*	2.11	.22	3.40
Age	-.07	.94	.05	-1.25
Gender	1.06**	2.88	.16	6.44
Family Structure	.03	1.03	.31	.11
Delinquent Peers	.53**	1.70	.09	5.89
Self-Control	.14	1.14	1.00	1.15
Maternal Attachment				
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	23.02**	1.00	.03	794.81
FB-Hispanic	-.25	.78	.17	-1.50
NB-Hispanic	.03	1.03	.10	.32
Maternal School Time				
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	.63**	1.88	.01	96.16
FB-Hispanic	.08*	1.08	.04	2.16
NB-Hispanic	-.04	.96	.02	-1.86
Maternal Leisure Time				
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	1.49**	4.44	.01	112.17
FB-Hispanic	-.12*	.88	.07	-1.66
NB-Hispanic	-.06	.94	.05	-1.41
Maternal Personal Time				
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	.87**	2.38	.01	79.89

Table 5.6: Generalized Structural Equation Model - All-Inclusive Bonds Continued

Variables	Violent Victimization			
	Model 11			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
FB-Hispanic	-.15*	.86	.06	-2.45
NB-Hispanic	-.04	.96	.04	-1.06
Paternal Attachment				
Intercept	22.43**	5.52	.04	548.65
FB-Hispanic	-.78*	.46	.24	-3.30
NB-Hispanic	-.08	.92	.15	-.57
Paternal School Time				
Intercept	1.42**	4.12	.02	68.52
FB-Hispanic	-.08	.93	.12	-.67
NB-Hispanic	-.24*	.79	.07	-3.32
Paternal Leisure Time				
Intercept	1.15**	3.14	.02	67.79
FB-Hispanic	-.24*	.78	.09	-2.56
NB-Hispanic	-.09	.91	.06	-1.51
Paternal Personal Time				
Intercept	.47**	1.60	.01	44.55
FB-Hispanic	-.05	.95	.06	-.87
NB-Hispanic	-.07*	.93	.04	-2.00
Direct Parental Monitoring				
Intercept	1.82**	6.16	.02	87.60
FB-Hispanic	.43**	1.53	.12	3.70
NB-Hispanic	.17*	1.18	.07	2.39
School Attachment				
Intercept	11.47**	95828.67	.05	226.43
FB-Hispanic	-.57*	.56	.28	-2.03
NB-Hispanic	.23	1.26	.17	1.36

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p \leq .001$;

$N = 6,481$, $df = 58$; BIC = 179045; AIC = 178652

^a = positive fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^b = negative fractional value below .01 in absolute value

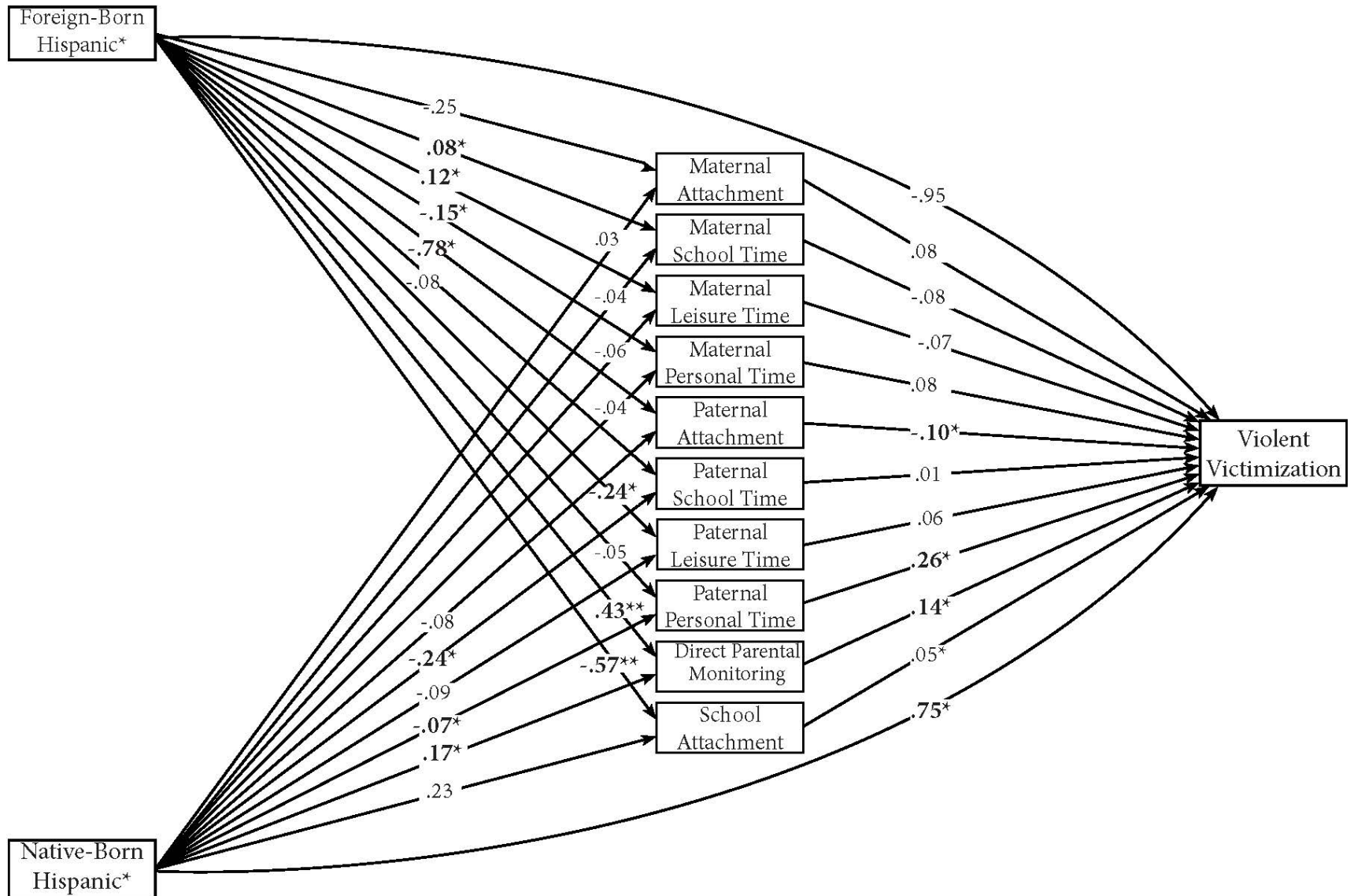


Figure 6: Generalized Structural Equation Modeling (GSEM) Path Diagram of Model 11

Last, all of the generalized structural equation models were examined for a second time. In the second series of analyses, each model removed both nativity measures (foreign-born Hispanic; native-born Hispanic). This allowed observation of any direct associations between social bonds and violent victimization. Further, the reexamination of the GSEM models reveals whether any initial effect on violent victimization changed after removal of nativity measures. All results remained consistent with findings from the original GSEM models (Tables 5.1-5.6) except for one variable. The only shift in the results of the second GSEM analyses involves maternal leisure time. Model 11 in Table 5.6 of the original GSEM analyses indicates maternal leisure time was significantly, negatively related to violent victimization. However, after removal of the nativity measures, Model 11 in Table 6.6 reveals maternal leisure time is no longer significantly associated with violent victimization.

Table 6.1: Generalized Structural Equation Model - Maternal Familial Bonds
(nativity removed)

Variables	Violent Victimization							
	Model 1				Model 2			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	-1.03	.33	.81	-1.27	-1.63*	.20	.52	-3.11
Maternal Attachment	-.02	.98	.03	-.68	-	-	-	-
Maternal School Time	-	-	-	-	-.09	.92	.10	-.89
Age	-.09*	.92	.03	-2.54	-.07*	.93	.03	-2.13
Gender	1.05**	2.84	.11	9.72	1.09**	2.96	.10	10.94
Family Structure	-.51**	.60	.11	-4.84	-.48**	.62	.10	-4.85
Delinquent Peers	.56**	1.75	.06	9.69	.56**	1.75	.05	10.52
Self-control	.08	1.08	.09	.85	.07	1.07	.08	.79
	Maternal Attachment ^c				Maternal School Time ^d			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	23.02**	10.00	.03	794.81	.63**	1.88	.01	96.16
FB-Hispanic	-.25	.78	.17	-1.50	.08*	1.08	.04	2.16
NB-Hispanic	.03	1.03	.10	.32	-.04	.96	.02	-1.86

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .001$

^a = positive fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^b = negative fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^c $N = 5,334$, $df = 11$; BIC = 25213.35; AIC = 25140.95

^d $N = 6,123$, $df = 11$; BIC = 11543.87; AIC = 11469.95

Table 6.2: Generalized Structural Equation Model - Maternal Familial Bonds
(nativity removed)

Variables	Violent Victimization							
	Model 3				Model 4			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	-1.67*	.19	.54	-3.09	-1.61*	.20	.52	-3.08
Maternal Leisure Time	^a	1.00	.05	.04	-	-	-	-
Maternal Personal Time	-	-	-	-	.11	1.12	.06	1.76
Age	-.07*	.93	.03	-2.14	-.08*	.93	.03	-2.41
Gender	1.09**	2.96	.10	10.89	1.13**	3.09	.10	11.02
Family Structure	-.48**	.62	.10	-4.84	-.47**	.63	.10	-4.75
Delinquent Peers	.55**	1.75	.05	10.36	.55**	1.73	.05	10.30
Self-control	.06	1.07	.08	.78	.05	1.06	.08	.66
	Maternal Leisure Time ^c				Maternal Personal Time ^d			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	1.49**	4.44	.01	112.17	.87**	2.38	.01	79.89
FB-Hispanic	-.12	.88	.07	-1.66	-.15*	.86	.06	-2.45
NB-Hispanic	-.06	.94	.05	-1.41	-.04	.96	.04	1.06

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .001$

^a = positive fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^b = negative fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^c $N = 6,123$, $df = 11$; BIC = 20204.9; AIC = 20130.98

^d $N = 6,123$, $df = 11$; BIC = 17730.16; AIC = 17656.25

Table 6.3: Generalized Structural Equation Model - Paternal Familial Bonds (*nativity removed*)

Variables	Violent Victimization							
	Model 5				Model 6			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	-.26	.77	.95	-.27	-1.38*	.25	.66	-2.11
Paternal Attachment	-.05	.95	.03	-1.76	-	-	-	-
Paternal School Time	-	-	-	-	-.04	.96	.04	-1.00
Age	-.12*	.89	.04	-2.66	-.10*	.91	.04	-2.47
Gender	1.12**	3.06	.14	8.09	1.10**	3.01	.12	9.07
Family Structure	-.33	.72	.20	-1.60	-.35*	.71	.18	-1.95
Delinquent Peers	.61**	1.84	.07	8.24	.60**	1.83	.07	9.23
Self-Control	.11	1.11	.12	.93	.07	1.07	.10	.68
	Paternal Attachment _c				Paternal School Time _d			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	22.43**	5.52	.04	548.65	1.42**	4.12	.02	68.52
FB-Hispanic	-.78*	.46	.24	-3.30	-.08	.93	.12	-.67
NB-Hispanic	-.08	.92	.15	-.57	-.24*	.79	.07	-3.32

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .001$

^a = positive fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^b = negative fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^c $N = 3,823$, $df = 11$; BIC = 19330.5; AIC = 19261.76

^d $N = 4,542$, $df = 11$; BIC = 17567.77; AIC = 17497.14

Table 6.4: Generalized Structural Equation Model - Paternal Familial Bonds
(nativity removed)

Variables	Violent Victimization							
	Model 7				Model 8			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	-1.31*	.27	.67	-1.95	-1.35*	.26	.66	-2.06
Paternal Leisure Time	-.04	.96	.05	.49	-	-	-	-
Paternal Personal Time	-	-	-	-	.14	1.15	.08	1.66
Age	-.10*	.90	.04	-2.60	-.11*	.90	.04	-2.68
Gender	1.12**	3.05	.12	9.11	1.10**	3.01	.12	9.06
Family Structure	-.34*	.71	.18	-1.93	-.31	.74	.18	-1.72
Delinquent Peers	.60**	1.83	.07	9.16	.60**	1.82	.07	9.18
Self-control	.06	1.07	.10	.64	.05	1.05	.10	.49
	Paternal Leisure Time ^c				Paternal Personal Time ^d			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	1.15**	3.14	.02	67.79	.47**	1.60	.01	44.55
FB-Hispanic	-.24*	.78	.09	-2.56	-.05	.95	.06	-.87
NB-Hispanic	-.09	.91	.06	-1.51	-.07*	.93	.04	-2.00

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .001$

^a = positive fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^b = negative fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^c $N = 4,542$, $df = 11$; BIC = 15739.7; AIC = 15669.07

^d $N = 4,542$, $df = 11$; BIC = 11510.77; AIC = 11440.14

Table 6.5: Generalized Structural Equation Model- Other Bonds (*nativity removed*)

Variables	Violent Victimization							
	Model 9				Model 10			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	-2.07**	.13	.54	-3.83	-2.50**	.08	.54	-4.60
Direct Parental Monitoring	.07*	1.08	.03	2.42	-	-	-	-
School Attachment	-	-	-	-	.06**	1.07	.01	5.34
Age	-.06	.94	.03	-1.80	-.09*	.92	.03	-2.74
Gender	1.08**	2.95	.10	11.18	1.10**	3.01	.10	11.23
Family Structure	-.47**	.63	.10	-4.90	-.42**	.66	.10	-4.38
Delinquent Peers	.59**	1.80	.05	11.42	.52**	1.68	.05	9.88
Self-control	.09	1.09	.08	1.08	18*	1.20	.08	2.22
	Direct Parental Monitoring ^c				School Attachment ^d			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	1.82**	6.16	.02	87.60	11.47**	95828.67	.05	226.43
FB-Hispanic	.43**	1.53	.12	3.70	-.57*	.56	.28	-2.03
NB-Hispanic	.17*	1.18	.07	2.39	.23	1.26	.17	1.36

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .001$

^a = positive fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^b = negative fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^c $N = 6,337$, $df = 11$; BIC = 26808.37; AIC = 26734.07

^d $N = 6,360$, $df = 11$; BIC = 38211.83; AIC = 38137.49

Table 6.6: Generalized Structural Equation Model - All-Inclusive Bonds
(nativity removed)

Variables	Violent Victimization			
	Model 11			
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	-3.08*	.05	1.36	-2.27
Maternal Attachment	.08	1.08	.04	1.79
Maternal School Time	-.10	.90	.14	-.73
Maternal Leisure Time	-.06	.94	.09	-.72
Maternal Personal Time	.08	1.08	.11	.68
Paternal Attachment	-.10*	.91	.04	-2.60
Paternal School Time	^b	1.00	.05	-.03
Paternal Leisure Time	.07	1.07	.08	.86
Paternal Personal Time	.25*	1.28	.12	2.04
Direct Parental Monitoring	.14*	1.15	.05	2.87
School Attachment	.05*	1.06	.02	2.63
Age	-.07	.93	.05	-1.38
Gender	1.06**	2.88	.16	6.47
Family Structure	.06	1.06	.31	.19
Delinquent Peers	.53**	1.71	.09	6.01
Self-Control	.14	1.16	.13	1.08
Maternal Attachment				
Variables	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	23.02**	1.00	.03	794.81
FB-Hispanic	-.25	.78	.17	-1.50
NB-Hispanic	.03	1.03	.10	.32
Maternal School Time				
Variables	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	.63**	1.88	.01	96.16
FB-Hispanic	.08*	1.08	.04	2.16
NB-Hispanic	-.04	.96	.02	-1.86
Maternal Leisure Time				
Variables	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	1.49**	4.44	.01	112.17
FB-Hispanic	-.12	.88	.07	-1.66
NB-Hispanic	-.06	.94	.05	-1.41
Maternal Personal Time				
Variables	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	.87**	2.38	.01	79.89
FB-Hispanic	-.15*	.86	.06	-2.45
NB-Hispanic	-.04	.96	.04	-1.06
Paternal Attachment				
Variables	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	22.43**	5.52	.04	548.65
FB-Hispanic	-.78*	.46	.24	-3.30
NB-Hispanic	-.08	.92	.15	-.57
Paternal School Time				
Variables	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	1.42**	4.12	.02	68.52
FB-Hispanic	-.08	.93	.12	-.67
NB-Hispanic	-.24*	.79	.07	-3.32
Paternal Leisure Time				
Variables	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z

Table 6.6: Generalized Structural Equation Model - All-Inclusive Bonds Continued

Intercept	1.15**	3.14	.02	67.79
FB-Hispanic	-.24*	.78	.09	-2.56
NB-Hispanic	-.09	.91	.06	-1.51
Paternal Personal Time				
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	.47**	1.60	.01	44.55
FB-Hispanic	-.05	.95	.06	-.87
NB-Hispanic	-.07*	.93	.04	-2.00
Direct Parental Monitoring				
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	1.82**	6.16	.02	87.60
FB-Hispanic	.43**	1.53	.12	3.70
NB-Hispanic	.17*	1.18	.07	2.39
School Attachment				
	β	Exp(B)	S.E.	Z
Intercept	11.47**	95828.67	.05	226.43
FB-Hispanic	-.57*	.56	.28	-2.03
NB-Hispanic	.23	1.26	.17	1.36

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p \leq .001$

$N = 6,481$, $df = 56$; BIC = 179040.4; AIC = 178661

^a = positive fractional value below .01 in absolute value

^b = negative fractional value below .01 in absolute value

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

A series of statistical techniques are utilized in this study to address three main foci about nativity and violent victimization among a sample of adolescents from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health (Add Health; Harris, 2009). First, this study focused on differences in violent victimization risk among foreign-born Hispanics, native-born Hispanics, and non-Hispanic youths. Based on existing literature, native-born Hispanics were predicted to be at greater risk of violent victimization compared to foreign-born Hispanics and non-Hispanics (Eggers & Jennings, 2013; Gibson & Miller, 2010; Lopez & Miller, 2011; Miller & Gibson, 2011; Reingle et al., 2011). Second, the current study examined whether the effect of nativity on violent victimization was mediated, or at least partially mediated, by one or more social bonds. Nativity was predicted to have an indirect effect on violent victimization through one or more social bonds. Third, the study investigated whether nativity moderated the effects of one or more social bonds on violent victimization. This study was guided by cornerstones of social bond theory (Hirschi, 1969), such as attachment bonds (e.g., familial and school) and parental control.

This chapter revisits and considers the overall study within the context of the extant literature. First, a brief summary of key findings from the analytic models are discussed. Second, the implications of the findings are explained. Next, the limitations of the study are addressed. Finally, future research recommendations guided by the findings are offered.

Summary of Key Findings

This study proposed that the effect of nativity on violent victimization risk is mediated by social bonds. However, social bonds were not able to fully mediate the relationship between nativity and violent victimization. Several important findings warrant further discussion.

Mediation studies have yet to fully explain the link between nativity and risk of victimization. In the current study, social bonds did not mediate the relationship between nativity and the likelihood of violent victimization. After examining models controlling for social bonds and baseline measures, the overall findings indicate that native-born Hispanics are at greater odds of violent victimization than non-Hispanics, whereas foreign-born Hispanics were more similar to non-Hispanics in their probability of victimization (Eggers & Jennings, 2013; Gibson & Miller, 2010; Lopez & Miller, 2011; Miller & Gibson, 2011; Reingle et al., 2011). Native-born Hispanics were considerably more likely to be violently victimized compared to non-Hispanics even after controlling for all of the other independent variables. It is plausible that in having an aggregated measure of non-Hispanics, African Americans may act as a confounding factor. Another possible explanation is that foreign-born Hispanics may underreport victimization, and therefore, different findings may emerge with better measures of violent victimization.

In the all-inclusive GSEM model, the effects of paternal attachment, paternal personal time, direct parental monitoring, and school attachment did not eliminate the effects of native-born Hispanic on violent victimization risk. Furthermore, evidence of direct relationships between nativity and bonds were not strong enough for direct parental monitoring to eliminate the significant effects of native-born Hispanic on violent

victimization. Therefore, the inclusion of social bond measures into the models did not fully mediate nativity effects on violent victimization risk, and suggests the direct relationships should be further explored (e.g., perhaps with routine activities variables).

The influence of foreign-born Hispanic on violent victimization risk was minimal in comparison to the native-born Hispanic effect. The findings indicated that foreign-born Hispanic youths had lower odds of violent victimization compared to non-Hispanics. Consistent with existing research, males with more delinquent peers had greater odds of violent victimization (see Tables 5.1-5.6) (Eggers & Jennings, 2013; Reingle et al., 2011; Tillyer et al., 2010). Older youth and those living with two parents were also at reduced risk of violent victimization (e.g., see Tables 5.1-5.5).

There was only one significant interaction term on violent victimization (e.g., see Table 4.5). School attachment interacted with foreign-born Hispanic and had a negative, significant effect on violent victimization ($\beta = -.19$; $p \leq .05$). This significantly reduced the likelihood of violent victimization for foreign-born Hispanics. This was contrary to the findings for school attachment ($\beta = .07$; $p \leq .001$) (without interaction), which indicated a significant increase in the likelihood of violent victimization risk.

Oddly, the analyses also demonstrated greater direct parental monitoring and school attachment had positive relationships with violent victimization risk (see Tables 5.5-5.6). It was presumed that more direct parental control would increase supervision and reduce the likelihood of violent victimization. Therefore, this finding is inconsistent with prior research which suggests that an increase in supervision, such as being married or living with others, can act as preventative to violent victimization (Kennedy & Forde, 1990; Miethe & Meier, 1990; Miethe, Stafford & Long, 1987). On the other hand,

researchers have proposed support and potential explanations for positive relationships between direct parental control and victimization risk (Tillyer et al., 2010). Tillyer et al. (2010) found that direct parental control may only be effective in the immediate presence of parents. Further, a youth's ability to protect himself/herself may be reduced by parents who strongly shelter their children. A second explanation is that direct parental control may be a parent's reaction to a youth being victimized previously (Tillyer et al., 2010). Therefore, the temporal order can be questioned since it is unknown whether heightened parental monitoring is affecting victimization risk or is a result of experiencing prior victimization, since prior victimization was not measured.

Other explanations for a positive relationship between school attachment and violent victimization risk have been proposed. For example, foreign-born Hispanic youth who report less school attachment may be less involved in extracurricular school activities (see Tables 5.5-5.6). Furthermore, extracurricular school activities remove a youth from parental supervision and increase exposure to violent victimization risk (Fisher, Sloan, Cullen, & Lu, 1998; Schreck & Fisher, 2004; Wilcox et al., 2009). Therefore, if foreign-born Hispanics are less involved in extracurricular activities, then it is possible they are removed from parental supervision less often and at reduced exposure to risk of violent victimization.

Limitations

While this study has contributed to the extant literature in a number of ways, such as looking at the effects of nativity on violent victimization, there are limitations worth mentioning. First, the data from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health study are a nationally representative sample of adolescents from the United States, and

therefore, it is unclear if the findings of this study can be generalized to adolescents beyond American youth or beyond the time period of data collection (mid to late 1990s). It is possible that alternative findings may be revealed when utilizing samples from other countries, especially in locations where the Hispanic population is not the minority (e.g., Mexico, Cuba, and Puerto Rico). Second, collapsing Hispanics into nativity sub-groups may overshadow variability among Hispanic nations of origin (e.g., Mexican, Cuban, Puerto Rican, and Central/South American). Ethnicity may prove to alter the findings in the current study.

Findings in this study indicate that native-born Hispanics have greater odds of reporting violent victimization than foreign-born Hispanics and non-Hispanics. Empirical findings from the early 1990s indicate Hispanics were more vulnerable to victimization, while research conducted later in the decade suggest Hispanics were equally or less likely to be victimized compared to non-Hispanics (Catalano, 2004, 2006; Hannish & Guerra, 2000; Rennison, 2000, 2002; Tillyer et. al, 2011; Truman, 2011;). In the current study, the likelihood of violent victimization for Hispanics and non-Hispanics may be different if non-Hispanics had not been clustered. Specifically, by combining black and white respondents, black respondents can be acting as a confounding factor and masking further variation in prevalence of violent victimization between Hispanics and non-Hispanic blacks or non-Hispanic whites. A next step may be to continue to explore nativity and race-specific risk and protective factors among Hispanics and between separate non-Hispanics groups.

Third, the school-based sample also limits conclusions to be generalized beyond the age group or initial date of data collection. Since 20 years have passed since original

data collection in the mid-1990s, the findings may not be representative of the current adolescent population. Specifically, the Hispanic population has increased substantially and more recent data may reveal alternative findings about American youth victimization. Next, as result of using longitudinal self-report data, attrition may be a factor. Validity of self-reports also may be affected due to reluctance of youth, especially foreign-born Hispanics, to honestly report violent victimization (Ammar, Orloff, Dutton, & Aguilar-Hass, 2005; Brown & Benedict, 2004). Last, nativity is only a proxy measure for acculturation for adolescents. Despite the frequent use of this variable to measure acculturation, it is not a perfect measure and limits the accuracy of the concept. Better measures of acculturation that capture the multidimensionality of the construct may be capable of more valid and extended explanations of the effects of the acculturation (Bauman, 2005; Marin & Gamba, 1996). For example, the revised Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans II (ARSMA-II), designed by Cuellar, Arnold, and Maldonado (1995), is a multidimensional approach that assesses the acculturation process by using separate subscales to “reflect the growing interest in orthogonal, multidirectional typologies” (Bauman, 2005, p. 427).

Future Directions

The findings produced in the current study should be revisited using other samples from public-use National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health data or datasets containing more Hispanic subjects, including non-U.S. samples. Second, National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health data are a longitudinal dataset that offer a wide range of variables that can be analyzed for Hispanic populations to conduct multiple studies. Future research with the public and/or restricted data can assess more

predictions of violent victimization risk among youth, such as those related to routine activities. Studies have linked routine activities with victimization (Kennedy & Forde, 1990; Like-Haislip & Warren, 2011; Sampson & Lauritsen, 1990; Schreck & Fisher, 2004). Therefore, by examining differences in daily activities between native-born Hispanics, foreign-born Hispanics, and non-Hispanics, researchers can explore whether any significant differences in daily activities affects violent victimization.

Third, the differences revealed between Hispanic sub-groups present contrasting realities that are dependent, in part, upon nativity. Furthermore, comparisons among Hispanics (delineated by national origin) may also provide a fruitful area for criminological research related to direct and indirect effects on violent victimization. Hispanics represent one of the fastest growing populations in the U.S., and better understanding of differences among Hispanics subgroups should be prioritized. Thus, further inquiry, with alternative variables, in addition to nativity, may produce measures that are better capable of mediating or moderating the influence of nativity.

A mixed-methods (quantitative and qualitative) design may prove to be most effective. Such designs should be undertaken by examining social bond variability first-hand among Hispanics, and between Hispanics and non-Hispanics. In order to first-hand explore and compare violent victimization between different youth populations, observations and face-to-face interviews may reveal more informative data.

More research is needed to determine the extent of differences between Hispanics and non-Hispanic youth. Thus, future research may consider whether certain situational and daily routines increase the odds of victimization risk for youth in general, or specifically, among Hispanic sub-groups (Like-Haislip & Warren, 2011).

Contribution of Research and Conclusion

The findings presented in the current study were largely inconsistent with predictions. The study does, however, support some existing research (Eggers & Jennings, 2013; Gibson & Miller, 2010; Lopez & Miller, 2011; Miller, 2014; Miller & Gibson, 2011; Reingle et al., 2011) such as that native-born Hispanics are at a greater violent victimization risk compared to non-Hispanics and foreign-born Hispanics. Thus, findings from the current study support existing literature that nativity may serve as a protective factor or increase vulnerability to violent victimization risk. Also consistent with prior work, males and youth with more delinquent peers have significantly greater odds of violent victimization. In addition, older adolescents and those living with two parents reported less violent victimization. Interestingly, direct parental control and school attachment had overall positive, significant effects on violent victimization risk.

Furthermore, social bonds did not mediate the effects of nativity, despite indications of some direct relationships between nativity and social bond measures. In some instances, a bond's effect on violent victimization would be moderated and the nativity effect on violent victimization risk remained significant. This occurred in the generalized structural equation analyses despite the bivariate analyses revealing nativity having direct effects on bonds. Most interestingly, the findings indicated paternal bonds may have significantly stronger effects on violent victimization risk than maternal bonds. These findings offer preliminary evidence of interrelated effects of parent-specific bonds and violent victimization risk among adolescents. On the other hand, the findings may be consistent with recent findings of gender-specific influences and effects between parent-youth relationships (Di Pietro & Cwick, 2014).

This study has a number of strengths. First, it used a nationally representative sample of Hispanics with a longitudinal study design. Second, this study included a measure of nativity along with a number of key theoretical constructs, allowing the investigation of the direct, indirect, and interactive effects of nativity and social bonds on violent victimization. Third, the study compares victimization across three distinct groups – native-born Hispanics, foreign-born Hispanics, and non-Hispanics. The current study offers a nuanced picture of the role of Hispanic nativity in violent victimization risk controlling for social bonds and other known correlates of victimization. Future research can benefit from similar methodologies using alternative variables and samples. Thus, this study presents many avenues to be further explored as possible explanations for distinctions between Hispanics and non-Hispanics and therefore proves to be beneficial to literature in future research.

APPENDIX SECTION

APPENDIX A: Variable Measures

**higher scores indicate greater levels*

Violent Victimization

Self-Reported Violent Victimization

1. During the past 12 months, how often has someone pulled a knife or gun on you?
2. During the past 12 months, how often have you been shot?
3. During the past 12 months, how often has someone cut or stabbed you?
4. During the past 12 months, how often have you been jumped?

Parental Attachment (maternal; paternal)

*Likert-type Scale (*higher values = stronger relationship with parents)*

- 5 - Strongly agree
- 4 - Agree
- 3 - Neither agree nor disagree
- 2 - Disagree
- 1 - Strongly Disagree

Maternal 5-items

1. Most of the time, your mother is warm and loving toward you?
2. You are satisfied with the way your mother and you communicate with each other?
3. Overall, you are satisfied with your relationship with your mother?
4. How close do you feel to your (mother/adoptive mother/stepmother/foster mother/etc.)?
5. How much do you think she cares about you?

Paternal 5-items

1. Most of the time, your father is warm and loving toward you?

2. You are satisfied with the way your father and you communicate with each other?
3. Overall, you are satisfied with your relationship with your father?
4. How close do you feel to your (father/adoptive father/stepfather/foster father/etc.)
5. How much do you think he cares about you?

Time with Parents (maternal; paternal)

1. Which of the things on this card have you done with your (mother/adoptive mother/stepmother/foster mother/etc.) in the past 4 weeks?

0 - No

1 - Yes

Maternal Leisure Time (4-item additive scale)

- a. Played a sport
- b. Gone to a religious service or church-related event
- c. Gone to a movie, play, museum, concert, or sports event

Maternal Personal Time (2-item additive scale)

- a. Talked about someone you're dating, or a party you went to
- b. Had a talk about a personal problem you were having

Maternal School Time (3-item additive scale)

- a. Talked about your school work or grades
- b. Worked on a project for school
- c. Talked about other things you're doing in school

2. Which of these things have you done with your (father/adoptive father/stepfather/foster father/etc.) in the past 4 weeks?

Paternal Leisure Time (4-item additive scale)

- a. Gone shopping
- b. Played a sport
- c. Gone to a religious service or church-related event
- d. Gone to a movie, play, museum, concert, or sports event

Paternal Personal Time (2-item additive scale)

- a. Talked about someone you're dating, or a party you went to
- b. Had a talk about a personal problem you were having

Paternal School Time (3-item additive scale)

- a. Talked about your school work or grades

- b Worked on a project for school
- c. Talked about other things you're doing in school

Direct Parental Control

Reversed Coded

- 0 – Yes
- 1 – No

Direct Parental Monitoring

1. Do your parents let you make your own decisions about the time you must be home on weekend nights?
2. Do your parents let you make your own decisions about the people you hang around with?
3. Do your parents let you make your own decisions about what you wear?
4. Do your parents let you make your own decisions about how much television you watch?
5. Do your parents let you make your own decisions about which television programs you watch?
6. Do your parents let you make your own decisions about what time you go to bed on week nights?
7. Do your parents let you make your own decisions about what you eat?

School Attachment

*Likert-type Scale (*higher values = greater school attachment)*

- 5 - Strongly agree
- 4 - Agree
- 3 - Neither agree nor disagree
- 2 - Disagree
- 1 - Strongly Disagree

1. You feel close to people at your school?
2. You feel like you are part of your school?
3. Students at your school are prejudiced?
4. You are happy to be at your school?
5. The teachers at your school treat students fairly?

Delinquent Peers

Responses summed and averaged

- 0 - No friends*
- 1 - One friend*
- 2 - Two friends*
- 3 - Three friends*

Peer Delinquency

1. Of your 3 best friends, how many smoke cigarettes at least 1 cigarette a day?
2. Of your 3 best friends, how many drink alcohol at least once a month?
3. Of your 3 best friends, how many use marijuana at least once a month?

Self-Control

*Likert-type Scale (*higher values = greater levels of self-control)*

- 5 - Strongly agree
- 4 - Agree
- 3 - Neither agree nor disagree
- 2 - Disagree
- 1 - Strongly Disagree

1. When you have a problem to solve, one of the first things you do is get as many facts about the problem as possible?
2. Attempt to find a solution to a problem by thinking of many ways to approach the problems?
3. Use systematic method for making decisions by judging and comparing alternatives?
4. Try to analyze what went right and wrong after carrying out solution?
5. When you get what you want, it is usually because you worked hard for it?

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