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Disaggregating the Paradox: Foreign-born victimization by "immigration" status and nationality

Krystle Lynn Caraballo

ABSTRACT

DISAGGREGATING THE PARADOX: VIOLENT VICTIMIZATION BY "IMMIGRATION" STATUS AND NATIONALITY

By

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Much of the literature on immigrant victimization suggests that foreign nationals are less likely to be victimized than US-born citizens, a phenomenon labeled the "immigrant paradox." However, McDonald (2018) identifies two primary issues with the current body of immigrant victimization literature: lack of data and overaggregating "immigration status." Since foreign-born individuals are not homogenous, vulnerability risk and victimization experiences may vary across statuses and nationalities. The purpose of this study is to delineate the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization in the US among foreign nationals based on their status and nationality. Using the "immigrant paradox" as a guiding framework, foreign nationals' odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US are analyzed relative to US-born citizens and naturalized citizens. This dissertation used the restricted version of the National Latino and Asian American Survey (NLAAS), a nationally representative, complex dataset that oversampled foreign-born individuals based on target nationalities using a stratified area sampling design and weighting.

Disaggregating the Paradox: Foreign-born victimization by status and nationality

The present study utilizes a novel approach to categorizing "residency status" based on legal criteria to expand our understanding of violent victimization of foreign nationals. Additionally, panethnic/panracial categories are disaggregated into six nationalities and two "other" ethnic groups to delineate the impact of nationality on the odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US. Consistent with conventions for reporting complex survey data, weighted descriptive statistics, bivariate statistics, and a series of multivariate logistic regression models were estimated using STATA 17. All final models controlled for demographics, acculturation variables, risk factors/ lifestyle measures, mental health, and region. In Chapter IV, a series of models using a measure of any violent victimization found that, when a dichotomized measure of "US-born/ foreign-born" status is used, the differences in the odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US are masked. To ensure differences found in Chapter IV were not a function of pre-migratory victimization, Chapter V used four sets of models to estimate the odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US by panethnic group, within the Latino/ Asian nationalities and across all nationalities. Within each set, one model included US-born citizens and one that excluded them. These analyses found that using a dichotomized panethnic label masked the differences across nationalities. Additionally, subanalyses within each panethnic label found that differences across nationalities were present when US-born citizens were included in the analyses, but not when limited to foreign nationals.

DISAGGREGATING THE PARADOX: VIOLENT VICTIMIZATION BY "IMMIGRATION" STATUS AND NATIONALITY

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KRYSTLE LYNN CARABALLO

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Disaggregating the Paradox: Foreign-born victimization by status and nationality

ACCEPTANCE

This dissertation was prepared under the direction of the candidate's Dissertation Committee. It has been approved and accepted by all members of that committee, and it has been accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor in Philosophy in Criminal Justice and Criminology in the Andrew Young School of Policy Studies of Georgia State University.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my big bro, Lil Lou and my baby sis, Daisia. Reach for the stars baby girl.

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They say, “it takes a village to raise a child…” Likewise, it takes a community to raise a scholar.

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Chapter I: Introduction

Scholars have long held that foreign-born individuals[1] are vulnerable to various forms of victimization, but the extent to which they are actually victimized is debated. McDonald (2018) highlighted two main issues with the study of the victimization of foreign-born individuals: a) lack of good data and b) the over aggregation of "immigrants." Specifically, the former is better construed as legal status being an endogenous variable in most widely available datasets (Comino et al., 2020). With regards to the latter, McDonald (2018) argued, "the concept 'immigrant' over aggregates, lumping into one category people with widely differing characteristics… The status of being an immigrant does not represent a singular dimension of social status or experience" (pp. 1-4). As a result, there is a gap in our understanding as to how "immigration" status influences the extent to which victimization is experienced.

Some research has attempted to address this gap by categorizing individuals using foreign-born status or generational statuses as proxies for "immigration status." However, such classifications are also problematic as each assumes all first-generation immigrants have the same pre-migratory traumas, vulnerabilities for victimization, and post-migratory protective factors. This is simply not the case. Immigration law outlines an intricate classification system that categorizes foreign-born individuals into a hierarchical set of statuses with various admission requirements, benefits, and regulations, thereby influencing vulnerability and access to resources. Foreign nationals may share many individual risk factors as United States (US) born citizens, but may also experience added structural vulnerabilities based on their designated residency status. Some brief examples that will be discussed in subsequent chapters include

[1] The term "foreign national" or "foreign-born individual" is used in lieu of "immigrant." Although more prevalent in research, "immigrant" has a specific meaning in immigration law and is often inaccurately used. As this dissertation centers around specific "statuses" and their impact on vulnerability, the terminology used must depict the individuals' legal classification in the US as accurately as possible.

naturalized citizens who possess the same rights and protections as domestically born US citizens, permanent residents which comprise dozens of visa categories with varying levels of access to social resources which buffer against victimization, refugees, and temporary nonimmigrants such as students and tourists. Foreign nationals who are unable to navigate the complex and expensive US immigration process may opt to enter the US without inspection (i.e., without permission) or gain entry with a nonimmigrant visa and overstay the expiration date, thus becoming part of the "undocumented" population. These groups represent different categories of individuals who are often conflated since data delineating immigration statuses are rarely available (Devanney et al., 2020).

Another important nuance regularly omitted from the immigration-crime-nexus research is nationality. That is, data on the country of birth or family origin is often not collected or utilized in analyses. Broad "panethnic" or "panracial" categories consolidate ethnic, tribal, religious, or national groups into homogenous classifications (Okamoto & Mora, 2014) and are often used as control variables in criminological research with little regard for the influences national origin has had on multiple factors, including migration patterns, preferred settlements, employment prospects, and cultural norms (Portes & Rumbaut, 2014). The national origin of foreign-born individuals is salient to the study of victimization as the context of reception they receive in the US and the risk factors they face vary based on perceived country of origin.

Criminological research was long criticized for its focus on black-white dichotomies (Liu, 2018; Schuck et al., 2004; Weitzer, 2014; Wu & Altheimer, 2013). Contemporary studies often control for race/ethnicity, but these variables often are not the primary independent variable or available comparisons are mainly concentrated on blacks, whites, and Latinos (Painter-Davis & Harris, 2018). This omits Asians from many crime studies, often due to small sample sizes or

lack of data entirely (Hishinuma et al., 2005). Likewise, research with Latinos is fraught with issues, including inconsistent data collection on ethnicity, variations in measurement across time, and self-identification (Sabol et al., 2019).

US foreign relations with various countries fundamentally shape immigration law and policy changes domestically, directly impacting the lives of many of the country's nationals prior to and post-arrival. Such impacts influence the vulnerabilities experienced across groups.

Examples of pre-migratory impacts include types of available visas. National origin has a profound influence on the migratory patterns and context of reception of its nationals in the US. By omitting these complexities, criminological research oversimplifies the intricacies of foreign nationals' experiences and subsequent vulnerability. Understanding the odds of violent victimization across different nationalities requires disentangling the relationship between national origin, migration, and the risk factors that influence vulnerability. Much of the criminological literature on the immigration-crime-nexus thus overaggregates groups by "immigration status," broad racial/ethnic categories, and acculturation patterns. Akin to the intersectionality framework, criminologists and victimologists' growing interest in the relationship between immigration and crime – either as perpetrators or victims – must extend beyond dichotomized immigration statuses and typical race categories. Further, victimization research with Latinx and minority groups such as Asians must exhibit cultural competency, language inclusion, and an understanding of the community (Lockwood & Cuevas, 2020). Unfortunately, criminological research is still lacking in many such regards.

Previous literature notes the presence of a phenomenon known as the "Immigrant Paradox," which suggests that foreign nationals have better outcomes than their US-born counterparts in a variety of areas, including victimization (Bui, 2013; Chun & Mobley, 2014;

Lau et al., 2013; Peguero, 2013). Lack of specificity in previous research leaves gaps in our understanding regarding a) the extent to which disaggregated residency status and nationalities influence the odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US, b) the impact migration patterns and acculturation has on violent victimization in the US, and c) the differences in the odds of violent victimization within foreign-born groups and panracial/panethnic categories.

The present study aims to expand our understanding of violent victimization of foreign nationals by utilizing a novel approach to categorizing "residency status" and testing the impact of six proxy residency statuses based on legal criteria and disaggregated nationalities on violent victimization experiences in the US. The purpose of this study is twofold. First, to delineate the utility of proxy statuses in lieu of traditional dichotomous methods of classifying "immigration status." Secondly, to provide a more nuanced narrative of vulnerability and victimization among foreign nationals by isolating the effects of "foreign-born status" and comparisons of nationalities within their panethnic categories. To disentangle these intricacies, chapter IV focuses on the impact of residency statuses on any violent victimization experienced in the US using univariate, bivariate, and three multivariate logistic regression models to test the following research questions.

1. Does violent victimization experienced in the US vary across foreign-born groups?
2. Is there evidence of an "immigrant paradox?"
3. Does delineating residency status demonstrate variations of the likelihood of violent victimization across foreign-born groups when compared to US-born citizens?

The first multivariate model examines violent victimization using a dichotomized US-born/foreign-born category for residency status. This type of analysis is typical of immigrant victimization literature that seeks to determine if a paradox exists. Model 2 examines any violent victimization in the US across the different foreign-born subgroups to determine if all foreign-

born individuals experience an equivalent risk of victimization. By using naturalized citizens as the reference category, this model will determine if scholars should be aggregating all foreign-born individuals when analyzing data. Finally, Model 3 examines the relative likelihood of experiencing any violent victimization across US-born citizens and all foreign-born groups to determine if any differences between groups in the first two models hold when all groups are analyzed together.

Chapter V focuses on the influence "nationality" has on experiencing violent victimization only in the US using univariate, bivariate, and four sets of multivariate logistic regression models to test the following research questions:

1. Is nationality a primary predictor of experiencing violent victimization only in the US?
2. Do predictors of vulnerability vary across ethnic groups and location of birth?
3. When disaggregated, do nationalities within each panethnic group demonstrate differential odds of experiencing violent victimization in comparison to other intraethnic groups?
4. When disaggregated, do nationalities across panethnic groups demonstrate differential odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US?

The first set of multivariate models (models 4A and 4B) examine violent victimization only in the US using a dichotomized ethnicity category (Latino/ non-Latino). This type of analysis is typical of criminological literature that seeks to determine if differences in victimization exist between "ethnic" groups. Since the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) categorizes Latino as an "ethnicity," regardless of racial identification and Asians are classified as a race, this analysis uses Latinos as the predictor variable and Asians (i.e., non-Latinos) as the reference category. Model 4A includes US-born citizens in the analysis and Model 4B uses a subsample of only foreign nationals. Models 5A and 5B seek to determine if differences in the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US exist

between Latino respondents of different nationalities. Thus, Model 5A includes US-born citizens of Latino descent in the analysis and Model 5B excludes US-born citizens. Models 6A and 6B seek to determine if differences in the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US exist between Asian respondents of different nationalities. Thus, Model 6A includes US-born citizens of Asian descent in the analysis and Model 6B uses a subsample of only foreign-born Asian respondents. The final set of models include all disaggregated nationalities to determine the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US across groups. As with previous sets of models, Model 7A includes US-born citizens and Model 7B uses a subsample of foreign nationals.

Combined, this series of models explore the differences between results when dichotomized status or nationality are used compared to disaggregated measures. Additionally, they delineate the odds of experiencing violent victimization in three key ways. First, by measuring the difference between experiencing any violent victimization in the US versus experiencing violent victimization only in the US. Secondly, by panethnic group and location of birth to delineate vulnerability against US-born citizens and foreign-born naturalized citizens. Finally, these models explore predictors of vulnerability within panethnic nationalities by location of birth. Further nuances are detailed in the corresponding sections. Chapter VI concludes with a summary and discussion of the implications of the findings from each set of models and compares the results across chapters.

Chapter II: Literature Review / Prior Research

Risk Factors for Victimization

According to the National Crime Victimization Survey, the average rate of violent victimization in the US in 2001-2002 was 24.1 per 1,000 persons aged 12 or older. The rate of robbery was 2.5 per 1,000, and assault was 6.2 per 1,000. The annual rate of violent victimization in the US for 2001-2002 was 26.4 for males, 21.9 for females, 23.6 for Whites, 29.5 for Blacks, and 16.4 for other. The annual rate of violent victimization was 26.5 for Hispanics/ Latinos and 23.8 for non-Hispanics/ non-Latinos. The rates of victimization during this period also varied regionally, with an average annual rate of 19.5 in the Northeast, 25.1 in the Midwest, 21.7 in the South, and 30.8 in the West (Rennison & Rand, 2003).

Although the definition varies across studies, research suggests that vulnerability is multidimensional, intersecting various individual and situational factors (Keay & Kirby, 2018). Keay and Kirby (2018) consolidated attributes found to contribute to vulnerability into three broad categories: physical/personal, social, and environmental/situational. Keay and Kirby (2018) include gender, age, health, sexuality, physical (dis)abilities, psychological abilities (i.e., mental illness, developmental disability) in their categorization for physical/personal risk factors for victimization. Likewise, Corcoran and Starks' (2020) cross-national, multilevel study analysis of 112 countries found that males, youths, and single individuals are at increased risk of victimization compared to females, older individuals, and married people. Additionally, Teasdale (2009) found that homelessness and alcohol problems increase the risk of violent victimization. Tertiary education has been found to increase the odds of victimization compared to those with primary or secondary education (Corcoran & Stark, 2020). Employment increases the odds of assault respective to those out of the workforce or unemployment (Corcoran & Stark, 2020).

Finally, although not included in Keay and Kirby's (2018) categorization, lifestyles – particularly in relation to risky behaviors – have been found to influence the likelihood of victimization (Cudmore et al., 2017; Cuevas et al., 2020).

Keay and Kirby (2018) include race, class, and socio-economic status among social attributes. Environmental/situational risk factors include locality, neighborhood characteristics, deprivation, physical layout, social isolation, and housing (Keay & Kirby, 2018). Residence in an urban environment significantly increased the risk of victimization compared to those in non-urban areas (Corcoran & Stark, 2020). The categorization of attributes may vary across studies, and the above is not an exhaustive list, but highlights attributes that have been linked to the vulnerability of victimization.

Foreign Nationals' Vulnerability

Foreign nationals' vulnerability to victimization stems from a multidimensional set of conditions that intersect individual and structural factors, which are often interrelated. Individual-level factors suspected of increasing foreign nationals' vulnerability to victimization include (but are not limited to) assumed undocumented status (Barranco & Shihadeh, 2015; Fussell, 2011; Negi et al., 2019), lack of formal education, English illiteracy or accented speech (Cepeda et al., 2012; Shihadeh & Barranco, 2010b; Vidales et al., 2009), race/ethnicity (Chavez & Provine, 2009; Wu & Altheimer, 2013), type of employment (Fernández-Esquer et al., 2017; Maldonado, 2009), length of time in the United States (US) (Bucher et al., 2010; Sabina et al., 2013) and chosen destination (Bucher et al., 2010; Painter-Davis, 2016; Sabina et al., 2013).

Migrants who first arrive to the US may be at greater risk for victimization because they are not familiar with their surroundings or the language (Bucher et al., 2010), especially when such vulnerabilities are "obvious" (Velazquez & Kempf-Leonard, 2010). Rumbaut (1997) states,

"Race and place become critical structural determinants of the degree of assimilation precisely insofar as they delimit possible forms of primary social contact" (p. 944). New arrivals may not have access to social support, know where to obtain services, and may experience social isolation (Gonçalves & Matos, 2016). The chosen destination, which influences the context of reception, thus also influences vulnerability. Established destinations – often referred to as ethnic enclaves – have structured social support networks that facilitate access to employment, housing, and other services that may mitigate vulnerability. Alternatively, "new destinations" have been found to increase violence as newcomers and established residents compete for scarce resources (Barranco et al., 2017; Shihadeh & Barranco, 2010a). Literature has also demonstrated that assimilation to US culture, partially through the length of time in the US, increases the likelihood of victimization. Although each of these attributes may have separate influences on vulnerability, risk may also be additive.

Social perceptions of such attributes can increase the hostility and tension between "native-born" and "foreign-born" groups and are often openly condemned in public and political discourse, increasing social exclusion from the larger society. Social exclusion includes the restriction of a person's access to institutions and practices based on their economic, social and political conditions (Gaetz, 2004). The ensuing social isolation is applied differently across statuses and nationalities. Research has suggested that perception of such vulnerabilities may signal to potential offenders that foreign nationals are unable or reluctant to defend themselves, retaliate (Negi et al., 2013), or report victimization to law enforcement (Pitts, 2014; Sung et al., 2016). Foreign nationals at greatest risk for victimization may include the undocumented and those with temporary or expired visas (Menjívar, 2006). To illustrate, research supports that the perception of undocumented status increases immigrants' vulnerability to wage theft (Cepeda et

al., 2012; Fussell, 2011), street victimization (Caraballo & Topalli, forthcoming), and, among domestic violence victims (Gonçalves & Matos, 2016; Reina et al., 2014; Villalón, 2010), can increase batterers' attempts to control victims. As Caraballo and Topalli (forthcoming) explained, offenders are not wholly distinct from mainstream society and are exposed to the political and social climate through their own interactions, media exposure, and awareness of laws that impact their illicit activities.

For decades, the political environment has been hostile to foreign-born groups. However, this hostility varies based on location and individual characteristics such as residency status and nationality. Established "ethnic enclaves" have a more politically welcoming environment as previous generations of migrants established political strongholds (Beck & Shklyan, 2021), thereby easing access to resources in those communities. As will be elaborated below, residency status is a structural characteristic assigned to an individual that acts as a "master status" (Hughes, 1945; Valdez & Golash-Boza, 2020) and strongly influences social belonging and access to structural resources. However, this attribute is invisible. Nationality, on the other hand, is also a source of political animosity and, unlike residency status, is often marked by physical features that make group identification easier. While migration patterns have long intertwined these two key traits, the rhetoric surrounding this relationship is key to dissecting the vulnerabilities across groups.

Residency Status

Residency status is not an inherent attribute as could be argued of sex, skin complexion, or physiological characteristics. Instead, obtaining residency status is a structural process by which a series of legal decisions determine eligibility. As a result, immigration law develops a social/legal hierarchy of belonging vis-a-vis immigration statuses. Menjívar (2006) argued

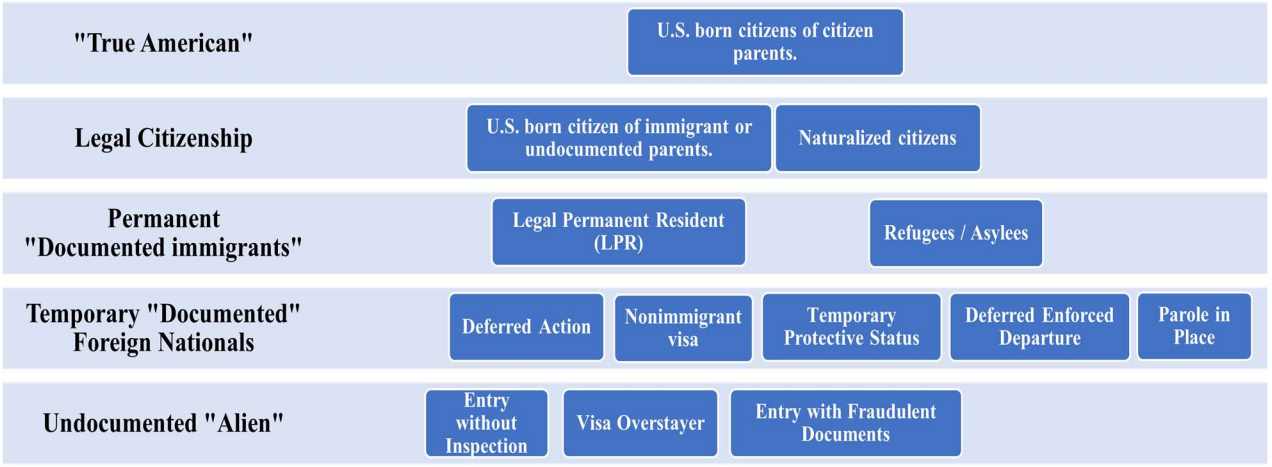
foreign nationals' "legal status shapes who they are, how they relate to others, their participation in local communities, and their continued relationship with their homelands" (p. 1000). The statuses assigned dictate many aspects of foreign nationals' lives. Different legal statuses endow foreign-born nationals with varying levels of access to employment, social resources, and legal protections, shaping their experience so much that documented and undocumented immigrants can be regarded as two different social classes (Menjivar, 2006). Importantly, immigration status cannot be treated as a dichotomy, as "it is not simply an undocumented status that matters theoretically and analytically, but the long-term uncertainty inherent in these immigrants' legal status" (Menjivar, 2006, p. 1001).

Despite repeated calls for disaggregated immigration statuses, research continues to use binary categories to differentiate "immigrants" from "nonimmigrants" (see Polczynski et al., 2009 for an exception). Such categories include US-born/foreign-born (Wheeler et al., 2010), native/immigrant (Gonçalves & Matos, 2020), documented/undocumented (Arbona et al., 2010), legal/illegal (Koo et al., 2021), deportable/non-deportable (Hickman & Suttorp, 2008), permanent legal resident/undocumented (Zadnik et al., 2016), refugee/voluntary migrants (Rasmussen et al., 2012), among other broad categorizations. Contributing factors to this lacuna include lack of disaggregated immigration data (Devanney et al., 2020) in many official data sources, difficulty in accessing this population through conventional data collection methods (McDonald, 2018), and lack of standardization in data collection and operationalization of measures across datasets (Devanney et al., 2020). Current operationalization of "status" variables such as the previously noted dichotomized measures do not align with the legally defined statuses outlined by US Immigration Law.

Disaggregating the Paradox: Foreign-born victimization by status and nationality

Immigration law designates two primary classifications for foreign nationals seeking entry into the US: immigrants and nonimmigrants. Immigrants seeking permanent relocation must meet one set of admissions criteria, while nonimmigrants seeking temporary admission (such as for travel, education, or limited-term employment) must meet a separate – more lenient – set of admission criteria. Within each category, foreign nationals are designated a visa based on various factors, including the primary purpose of travel, sponsorship (i.e., family or employment), and additional qualifying characteristics (i.e., skills). Restrictions, benefits, and the lengths of time each individual is allowed to be present on US soil vary based on visa categories. Upon admission, those classified as immigrants enjoy a wider range of benefits than nonimmigrants, including "permanent" relocation so long as they do not engage in deportable conduct, limited access to government-provided benefits, and employment opportunities not available to most categories of nonimmigrants. Although beyond the scope of this discussion, it is worth noting that an adjustment of status from a nonimmigrant to an immigrant classification is possible but heavily regulated to prevent fraud. Figure 1 illustrates the "hierarchy" of residency statuses based on citizenship, social perception of "belonging," and rights provided.

Figure 1: Hierarchy of Belonging based on Legal and Social Factors



The highest "status" among foreign nationals are naturalized citizens. Naturalization results in full *legal* assimilation into the US, with access to all the rights, privileges, and legal protections available to domestically born citizens. Naturalized citizens cannot be removed from the US without first undergoing denaturalization, a process initiated only under egregious circumstances (i.e., terrorism, espionage, war crimes) to revoke their US citizenship.

The next "highest" status is legal permanent residency. Lawfully admitted foreign-born individuals admitted for "permanent" relocation are known as legal permanent residents (LPR). A foreign-born individual granted LPR status is given documentary proof of status known as a "green card." In addition to proof of status, green cards act as identification, evidence of eligibility to work, and entry documents for returning from temporary trips abroad (Legomsky & Thronson, 2019). Although LPR status is theoretically permanent, green cards have expiration dates and require renewal, typically every ten years. At any time, an LPR who commits a deportable offense may lose their status and be put through removal[2] proceedings. Legal permanent residents are eligible to naturalize after five years of continuous residence,[3] must demonstrate good moral character,[4] pass civic and English exams, clear background checks, and pay the application fees.[5]

A refugee is defined as a person fleeing their country because of persecution based on race, religion, nationality, membership in a particular social group, or political opinion (Bruno, 2018). To be admitted into the US, a prospective refugee must be admissible under the

[2] Removal is the current, appropriate term for the expulsion of foreign-born individuals from the US. The outdated term "deportation" may be more familiar to those not intimately involved in the immigration system.
[3] Three years if married to a US citizen.
[4] The US Citizenship and Immigration Services define "good moral character" as character which measures up to the standards of average citizens of the community in which the immigrant resides. Any conduct or act that offends the accepted moral character standards of the community in which the applicant resides should be considered without regard to whether the applicant has been arrested or convicted of an offense. (https://www.uscis.gov/policy-manual/volume-12-part-f-chapter-1).
[5] At the time of data collection (2001-2003), application costs were $225 in 2001, $260 in 2002, and $320 in 2003.

Immigrant Nationality Act of 1952 (INA), just as any other foreign national seeking entry. However, certain requirements are not applicable or can be waived for refugees, such as certain criminal histories or potential public charges.[6] Additionally, due to the humanitarian nature of their admission, refugees are eligible for work authorization, government benefits, including financial assistance and "overseas refugees" are eligible for medical assistance and language courses. Other foreign nationals do not qualify for such benefits or must be in the US for a certain period of time before they are eligible,[7] granting refugees greater access to social and financial support during their acclimation to the US.

Nonimmigrant visas confer temporary permission for foreign nationals to be on US soil for a designated time period and a specific purpose. There are 24 major nonimmigrant visa categories and more than 80 specific types of nonimmigrant visas. Current law and regulations set terms for nonimmigrant lengths of stay in the US, typically include foreign residency requirements, and often limit what foreigners are permitted to do while in the US. For example, most nonimmigrants are not allowed to work in the US, must demonstrate that they do not plan to relocate permanently, and have limited options to adjust to an LPR status. These visas, by design, are not conducive to permanent relocation. Commonly known examples of nonimmigrant visas are student (F1 or M1) and travel (J1) visas. These visas outline a specific purpose of travel, a timeframe in which the visa is valid, and regulations are placed on employment and activities. Select nonimmigrant visas relax these requirements. For example, the H2A and H2B visas are specifically meant for the seasonal recruitment of foreign agricultural laborers,

[6] Certain "criminal" histories such as arrest may be a function of persecution in the country of origin. Likewise, refugees are provided financial assistance that other classes of migrants are not, thus the possibility of being a financial burden to the host country (i.e. public charge) is accounted for in the refugee process.
[7] Under the Immigration and Nationality Act (INA), an alien may be denied admission into the United States or lawful permanent resident (LPR) status if he or she is "likely at any time to become a public charge" (8 U.S.C. §1182(a)(4)) (Kolker, 2020).

farmworkers, and other "guest workers" during peak harvest seasons and require an employer sponsor (Bruno, 2020). However, nonimmigrant visa applications may be rejected due to suspicions that an applicant intends to overstay their visa and live in the US without authorization (Wilson, 2019). Additionally, it is important not to conflate the "temporary" nature of such visas with "short-term" residence. Some nonimmigrant visas – though theoretically temporary – allow foreign nationals to stay in the US for decades with no direct path to citizenship or option to adjust to legal permanent residency (Menjivar, 2006).[8]

Menjívar (2006) argued that "immigration law creates and recreates an excluded population by blurring the boundaries of legality and illegality to create grey areas of incertitude, with the potential to affect broader issues of citizenship and belonging" (p.1002). She refers to this "grey area" or "in-between" status as liminal legality. She describes this uncertain status as "not fully documented or undocumented, but often straddling both" (p.1001). She characterizes this "status" as temporary, ambiguous, and limiting to many aspects of immigrants' lives including job prospects, housing, family, and community engagement.

Foreign nationals who lack lawful immigration status generally fall into three categories: 1) those who are admitted legally and then overstay their nonimmigrant visas, 2) those who enter the country without inspection, and 3) those admitted based on fraudulent documents (Wilson, 2020). These groups comprise what is commonly called the "undocumented" population. There

[8] Statuses that may fit into this category include Temporary Protective Status (TPS), Deferred Enforced Departure (DED), and Parole in Place (PIP). TPS provides temporary relief from removal and work authorization to foreign nationals – regardless of their immigration status – from countries experiencing armed conflict, natural disaster, or extraordinary circumstances preventing their safe return (Wilson, 2020). The Secretary of the DHS can designate a country for TPS for periods of 6 to 18 months, with no limit on the number of extensions if the country continues to meet the eligibility conditions. DED, likewise, is a temporary, discretionary, administrative stay of removal granted to foreign nationals from designated countries, as authorized by the President of the US. Parole in place may be granted to noncitizens who are present on US soil without having been admitted. Thus, they are deemed "applicants for admission" by the DHS, but this is most frequently used for spouses or children of members of the military (Legomsky & Thronson, 2019). These temporary statuses can last decades and be revoked at any time.

is no comprehensive system in place to track the departures of those with nonimmigrant visas within their authorized time, contributing to the frequency of visa overstayers. According to the Department of Homeland Security (2020), only 1.21% of nonimmigrants overstay their visas, but visa overstayers represent approximately 62% of the undocumented population (Warren, 2019), which far exceeds the percentage of undocumented individuals based on entry without inspection or through the use of fraudulent documents. Estimates of the undocumented population vary based on methodology (Velazquez & Kempf-Leonard, 2010). All three categories are present in violation of the INA and are subject to removal with few options for reprieve.

Context of Reception in the US

The "welcome" or reception migrants have received throughout history has been influenced by nationality, perceived residency status, political climate, and economic standing of the receiving country. This multifaceted phenomenon is known as the "context of reception." At the micro-level, context of reception may be influenced by stereotypical beliefs of certain groups. International relations with specific countries – particularly those perceived as hostile – may increase targeting and violence against its nationals (or those perceived to be). The form of victimization most explicitly linked to race/ethnicity/national origin is the experience of hate crimes. Since data collection on hate crimes began in the 1990s, several groups have been found to be at increased likelihood for hate crimes and other forms of violent victimization at different points in time. Recently, there has been an increase in racialized discourse and anti-Asian hate crime in response to the coronavirus pandemic (Gover et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2021).

While contemporary discussions of immigration often center on "immigration status" – particularly those who are undocumented – the reception that foreign-born individuals have historically received in the US has long been tied to the national origin of incoming migrants.

The Minority Threat Hypothesis/Framework suggests that prejudice and intergroup hostility stem from perceived threats to the economic standing, political influence, and public safety of the dominant group members by subordinate groups (Berg, 2009; Blalock, 1967; King & Wheelock, 2007; Wang, 2012). Natives' perception of foreigners as threatening often led to social exclusion, as experienced by the Irish (Guelman, 1973), Italian (Luconi, 1999), Chinese (Miller, 1969), Japanese (Higgs, 1978), and, most recently, Mexicans and Central Americans (Chavez, 2013; Frank et al., 2010). Such xenophobic fears have often disregarded even the most humanitarian needs for migration. To illustrate, the majority of Americans opposed granting refugee status to Jews during World War II, even after the atrocities of the Holocaust became worldwide knowledge (Fussell, 2014).

Perception of foreignness by way of ethnicity or nationality has often been conflated with discrimination against immigrants. Scholars argue that "immigration" has become a color-coded term tied specifically to Latinx immigrants such as Mexicans and Central Americans (Alcalde, 2016; Armenta, 2017b; López, 2006). Such xenophobia has thus shaped the admission, economic prospects, and social support systems available to individuals based on their nationality.

At the macro-level, structural risk factors experienced may vary based on nationality. Factors such as type of visa provided, employment prospects, structural disadvantage of community, and experience of over-policing may influence vulnerability to victimization, but not directly result in targeting. Many of these factors are intertwined. Migratory patterns may influence the risk or protective factors, while differences in the context of reception may inhibit or exacerbate these factors, leading to vulnerability to victimization.

Influence of Nationality on Risk Factors

Unlike the institutionalized nature of residency status, nationality is an inherent attribute that impacts vulnerability of foreign nationals. Nationality is implicit in the study of "race" but more directly affects migration patterns, including the assignment of statuses, which further influences other risk factors. As previously noted, the “statuses” assigned to foreign nationals dictate the restrictions, benefits, and resources available to classes of migrants, including employment prospects, income, housing, etc. However, historical patterns and research demonstrate that many statuses are also concentrated along national origins.

Migration Patterns and Residency Statuses

The historical wealth, conflict histories, and migration patterns across nationalities greatly influence which "residency status" individuals are assigned, the wealth they are able to "invest" into the US economy, and the skills they can offer upon arrival (Portes & Rumbaut, 2014). The diversity of nationalities in the US results in divergent assimilation experiences. Rumbaut (1997) states,

> among all ethnic groups in America today, native and foreign-born, different immigrant nationalities account at once for the highest and lowest rates of education, self-employment, homeownership, poverty, welfare dependency, and fertility, as well as the decreased rates of divorce and female headed single-parent families, and the highest proportions of children under age 18 residing with both natural parents. (p.947)

Portes and Rumbaut (2014) outlined a typology of migration patterns of contemporary[9] immigrants to the US that breaks down four categories of "legal status" (unauthorized, legal – temporary, legal – permanent, and refugees/asylees) and the nationalities most often associated with each status. For example, focusing specifically on the Latino and Asian nationalities included in the NLAAS, Mexicans represented every legal status category except refugees.

[9] Based on the time of writing.

Cubans are exclusively classified as refugees, highlighting their "privileged legal status" (Weitzer, 2014). Other Latino groups, such as Central Americans, are present across legal statuses. Among the Asian nationalities in Portes and Rumbaut's typology, the Vietnamese were exclusively categorized as refugees/asylees. Filipinos were listed exclusively as legal permanent residents. Finally, Chinese individuals represented every legal status except refugees. This typology is not to imply that individuals were restricted to only the legal status categories listed. Statuses provide insight into the social, political, and economic conditions of the country of origin. The correlation between status categories and nationalities is critical to understanding migration patterns across groups.

The development of new statuses also illustrates ties between migration patterns and nationality. For example, Temporary Protective Status (TPS) was developed in response to the American Baptist Church v Thorburgh[10] lawsuit whereby the plaintiffs alleged unjust standards in adjudicating asylum applications, discriminating against El Salvadorians (Mountz et al., 2002). As previously noted, TPS offers temporary relief from removal and employment authorization but often does not provide a pathway for naturalization.

Employment

Employment opportunities – and their associated attributes (i.e., type, dangerousness, income, etc.) – may influence vulnerability to victimization and other factors such as housing and educational attainment. Using data from INS, Rumbaut (1997) states that close to half (44-48%) of all "occupationally active migrants" from Asia, Africa, and Europe consisted of managers and professionals in 1993, compared to less than 10% from Latin America and the Caribbean. He further notes that Indians, Koreans, Filipinos, and the Chinese dominated the

[10] Filed in 1985, settled out of court in 1991.

flows of highly skilled migrants. Their proportions soared after the passage of the Immigration Act of 1990, which nearly tripled the number of available employment visas. In contrast, legal immigration from Mexico, El Salvador, and the Dominican Republic has consisted primarily of manual laborers and low-wage service workers (Rumbaut, 1997). Refugees from Laos, Cambodia, Vietnam, Cuba, and Haiti have also made up large portions of manual laborers and low-wage service workers.

Latinos are overrepresented in "bad jobs" associated with low wages, instability, lack of benefits, and poor prospects for advancement (Maldonado, 2009). This disparity is illustrated by Portes and Rumbaut's (2014) typology, classifying nationals into three categories of "human capital" (unskilled/semi-skilled laborers, skilled workers and professionals, and entrepreneurs). Among the Latino nationalities, Mexicans were concentrated in the unskilled/ semi-skilled human capital category except for unauthorized entrepreneurs operating "informal businesses" in ethnic enclaves and neighborhoods (Portes & Rumbaut, 2014, p.30). Cubans were concentrated among skilled workers/professionals and entrepreneurs. Other Latino groups, such as Central Americans, were present across legal statuses but focused among unskilled/semi-skilled laborers (Portes & Rumbaut, 2014). Mexicans and Central Americans' concentration in unskilled/semi-skilled jobs coincides with their overrepresentation among day laborers and agricultural workers (Cepeda et al., 2012; Duke et al., 2010; Maldonado, 2009), who often have temporary H2A or H2B visas or lack documentation (Menjívar, 2006; Menjívar & Abrego, 2012). Alternatively, Cubans' higher-skilled occupations may reflect the resources provided to refugees. Turning to the Asian nationalities, Filipinos were categorized as skilled workers/ professionals. The Vietnamese constituted unskilled/semi-skilled laborers and entrepreneurs. Finally, Chinese individuals were concentrated among skilled workers/professionals and entrepreneurs.

These patterns of legal status and employment prospects are indicative of the social structures in place in the US and the disproportionate concentration of resources available based on nationality. As a result, collateral consequences of the exclusion of resources influence other factors contributing to vulnerability such as housing, education, and access to social support systems, further concentrating victimization risk on select nationalities. To illustrate, Mexicans and Central Americans who are unable to obtain immigrant or nonimmigrant visas due to long waitlists stemming from high outmigration may be relegated to undocumented or temporary statuses, unskilled/semi-skilled occupations, and at-risk environments that increase the likelihood of victimization.

Acculturation

The definition of acculturation varies somewhat across studies; however, generally, acculturation is the process of psychological change or shift in cultural patterns due to contact between two or more cultural groups (Lui & Rollock, 2012; Sabina et al., 2013). Acculturation is a fluid, nonlinear process involving a complex interplay of variables such as socioeconomic status, culture of origin, and reasons for migration (Lui & Rollock, 2012). Measures of acculturation often include preferred language at home, language proficiency, generational status, immigration status, time in the US, or a combination of these factors. Integration into the host society may differ considerably across migrant groups (Weitzer, 2014), including their embrace of its mainstream culture, values, and behavioral norms (Le & Wallen, 2009). Lui and Rollock (2012) argued that different ethnocultural backgrounds might report unique experiences in acculturation or engage in different acculturating behaviors. For example, some foreign nationals are exposed to aspects of American mainstream culture through mass media or US-based relatives prior to arrival (Rumbaut, 1997). Alternatively, Arbona et al. (2010) found that

one-third of "documented" Latino immigrants in their sample avoided activities such as walking in the street or requesting government services for fear of deportation due to enhanced surveillance of Latino immigrants. Such fear limits integration into the host culture.

Despite the nativist assumption that foreign nationals have no English proficiency or face linguistic barriers upon arrival to the US, US Census data suggests that many foreign-born individuals have varying degrees of proficiency in English prior to their arrival (Rumbaut, 1997). Filipinos, for example, may have increased levels of English proficiency compared to other Asian groups since English is an official language in the Philippines. Age of migration and social structural also affect foreign nationals' ability to learn and sustain bilingualism, with younger migrants at a greater advantage (Rumbaut, 1997). Those with the lowest levels of English proficiency often include the elderly (especially residents of ethnic enclaves), the undocumented, and the least educated among recent arrivals (Rumbaut, 1997).

Acculturation – particularly the associated stress – can negatively impact outcomes for foreign nationals. Research on the psychological consequences has found acculturative stress to be positively associated with anxiety, depression, and suicidal ideation (Lui & Rollock, 2012). Research has also supported that longer time in the US and intergenerational acculturation increases the odds of delinquency and violent victimization, with the children and grandchildren of foreign-born individuals at greater risk than the first generation (Jiang & Peguero, 2017; Zatz & Smith, 2012). First-generation foreign nationals have been consistently found to have lower rates of offending than their US-born peers. Bersani et al. (2014) found that offending patterns of the second generation (i.e., children of foreign nationals) had a higher probability of continued offending. Second-generation "immigrants" who also live in disadvantaged neighborhoods were more likely to display a persistent trajectory of offending compared to disadvantaged, first-

generation peers and non-disadvantaged second-generation peers. Le and Wallen (2009) found that arrest history, violent offending, peer delinquency, and gang membership proved to be the strongest risk factors for violent physical victimization among Asians in their sample.

Research findings on the impact of acculturation – using immigration status/ generation/ years in the US – on victimization is mixed. Some studies have found no discernable effect between acculturation and victimization (Decker et al., 2007). Others have found that acculturation was a protective factor (Wheeler et al., 2010), or, alternatively, that acculturation increases victimization risk or severity (Sabina et al., 2013). Sabina et al. (2013) found that increased levels of acculturation and being born in the US are associated with increased rates of interpersonal victimization among a nationally representative sample of Latinas. Victims were more likely to be US citizens, have higher education, have full-time employment, less likely to be married, and reported higher incomes than non-victims (Sabina et al., 2013).

Victimization of Foreign Nationals

The victimization of foreign nationals has been studied in various locations and circumstances. These experiences can be grouped into three primary contexts: 1. "pre-migratory trauma" in the country of origin, 2. victimization during migration, and 3. victimization on US soil. Scholars have studied pre-migratory trauma in relation to political persecution (Hein, 1993; Mollica & Caspi-Yavin, 1991; Norris et al., 2011), gang violence (Martinez Jr & Stowell, 2012), and war (Morina & Nickerson, 2018). Empirical research suggests the primary motivations for relocation are economic opportunities and the search for asylum from political and drug-related violence (Cabot, 2014; Hiskey et al., 2018; Stanley, 1987). Such circumstances "push" migrants out of their countries of origin in search of safety and opportunities in other locations.

Pre-migratory victimization is a primary "push" factor for emigration and the use of panethnic labels mask unique pre-migratory factors by country. Take the case of "Central Americans." Using the 2014 Americas Barometer surveys for Guatemala, El Salvador, and Honduras, Hiskey et al. (2018) found that the ongoing violence in Honduras and El Salvador significantly increased the probability of individuals expressing their intention to migrate, despite US deterrence campaigns warning migrants of the migratory dangers and low likelihood of a successful asylum claim in the US. Individuals reporting multiple victimizations in the previous year had the highest probability of fleeing the violence in Honduras and El Salvador. Alternatively, analyses of Guatemalans revealed that criminal victimization was not a significant predictor of their intention to migrate, but rather economic factors were found to be significant, which is suggestive of economic migration (Hiskey et al., 2018). Placing all three nationalities under a broad label such as "Central Americans" or "Latinos" would mask these effects. Pre-migratory victimization may also be a risk factor for migratory or US victimization experiences.

The method of migration is particularly important to victimization risk as those who are granted visas can enter the US through any port of entry, including airports. Unfortunately, visa waitlists can be decades long, pushing individuals desperate for relief to embark on dangerous cross-national migration journeys. Literature on the migration phase has studied victimization at the hands of smugglers (Chacón, 2010), in refugee camps (Rymond-Richmond & Hagan, 2012), by fellow migrants (Rosas, 2012), corrupt law enforcement in other countries (Canache & Allison, 2005; Culver, 2004; Pogrebin & Poole, 1990), and others. In particular, kidnappings, rape, extortion, and involuntary servitude or prostitution have become common elements of human smuggling (Zatz & Smith, 2017). Asylum seekers who travel by land to a checkpoint

along the Southern border may be returned to Mexico[11] to await an asylum hearing, may be separated from family and detained pending a hearing (Hailbronner, 2007), or may be rejected and returned to their country of origin (Hiskey et al., 2018).

On US soil, victimization can occur in border patrol or ICE custody (Trevino, 1998), by US vigilantes who take border defense into their own hands (Chavez, 2013; Navarro, 2008), in the workplace (Sung et al., 2013; Theodore et al., 2006), or during the ordinary course of residence in the US. During this phase, foreign nationals are theoretically susceptible to the same forms of interpersonal violence and property victimization as US citizens. Research has documented foreign-born victimization with regard to homicide (Lee et al., 2000; Martinez Jr, 2000; Martinez Jr & Martinez, 2014), robbery (Barranco & Shihadeh, 2015; Cepeda et al., 2012; Negi et al., 2013), sexual assault (Mindlin et al., 2013; Raj & Silverman, 2002), rape (Narayan, 1995), domestic violence (Erez, 2000; Erez et al., 2009; Fuchsel, 2013), wage theft (Castrejón, 2017; Fussell, 2011), scam (McDonald, 2018), and violence at the hands of law enforcement (Canache & Allison, 2005; Seligson, 2002; Weyland, 1998).

While many of these forms of victimization are prevalent among US citizens, the foreign nationals at particularly high risk for victimization are refugees, those who traveled by land to the US, and those who lack formal documentation. Using rates of crime victimization as reported by the 2004 NCVS and published estimates of the undocumented foreign national population, Kittrie (2005) suggests that there would have been 200,000 violent crimes against unauthorized adult migrants in the US and over a million property crimes against their households in 2004. Immigration law makes certain classes of foreign nationals more susceptible to select forms of

[11] In January 2019, the Migrant Policy Protocols (MPP)—frequently referred to its moniker the "remain in Mexico" policy— sent thousands of asylum seekers to await their asylum hearings in Mexico or designated US locations. In June 2021, the MPP program was terminated (https://www.dhs.gov/migrant-protection-protocols).

victimization than others by virtue of the differing access to social resources previously discussed. For example, undocumented individuals are more vulnerable than other subgroups of foreign nationals because increasingly punitive immigration laws have decreased the threshold for a deportable offense; therefore, they may be subject to immigration detention, criminal prosecution, and removal should they seek legal recourse for victimization (Chacón, 2010; Zadnik et al., 2016). Therefore, many studies have shown that certain groups of foreign nationals will not report victimization to law enforcement (Comino et al., 2020; Kittrie, 2005) or will avoid using other social services for fear of removal (Berk & Schur, 2001), making them attractive targets to some perpetrators.

Panethnic Categories, Nationality, and Victimization

Panethnic labels such as "Asian" or "Hispanic/Latino"[12] are the norm in contemporary research but are problematic as they aggregate groups with various linguistic, cultural, and regional differences into a single, homogenous category. Panethnicity is an "integral part of the social and political landscape of the United States" (Okamoto, 2014, p. 220). The Office of Management and Budget's (OMB) 1997 guidance outline the racial categories federal agencies must use in data collection. Such closed response categories are used in various data collection procedures to account for race/ethnicity across contexts, from census data to crime reporting.

Even studies that have used the CPES or NLAAS dataset relied on panethnic groupings due to small sample sizes in specific victimization variables (Cho & Kim, 2012). Previous research has called for disaggregating such broad categorizations (Devanney et al., 2020; Miller & Gibson, 2011; Teruya & Bazargan-Hejazi, 2013), arguing that they obscure differences in risk, vulnerabilities, and victimization across nationalities (Grubb & Bouffard, 2014; Le & Wallen,

[12] A debate on the terms "Hispanic" versus "Latino" is beyond the scope of this paper. See Martínez and Gonzalez (2021) for a discussion on the use and utility of each term.

2009; Teruya & Bazargan-Hejazi, 2013). These arguments have been made of both Latino (Devanney et al., 2020; Miller & Gibson, 2011; Teruya & Bazargan-Hejazi, 2013) and Asian populations (Grubb & Bouffard, 2014; Hishinuma et al., 2005; Le & Wallen, 2009). As Leon (2021) notes, the term "Latino" has been used to represent different purposes, such as country of origin, cultural identity, ethnicity, human geography, skin tone, or racial subjectivity.

Asian. In the United States, the Asian category includes "a person having origins in any of the original peoples of the Far East, Southeast Asia, or the Indian subcontinent including, for example, Cambodia, China, India, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Pakistan, the Philippine Islands, Thailand, and Vietnam" (US Census Bureau., 2001). In 1997, the OMB issued guidance that distinguished "Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander" from the Asian category, which had previously been incorporated.

A series of legislation heavily restricted or outright banned Asian immigration for almost a century. The Immigration and Nationality Act (INA) of 1965 eliminated the race-based national quota system that restricted Asian immigration. As a result, Asian immigration has increased substantially and Asians are currently one of the fastest-growing racial/ethnic groups (Zhang et al., 2021). Since Asian immigration was almost exclusively nonexistent until 1965, literature on the victimization of many Asian nationalities prior to 1965, and even through the 1990s, is scarce. Contemporary research on the victimization of Asians is concentrated on hate crime (Gover et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2021), domestic/sexual violence (Dasgupta, 2000), and school-based victimization (Koo et al., 2012).

Using data from the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS), the Bureau of Justice Statistics (BJS) reported that Asians, Native Hawaiians, and other Pacific Islanders were victims of approximately 105,000 nonfatal violent crimes (rape, sexual assault, aggregated assault, and

simple assault) on average every year between 2002 and 2006 (Harrell, 2009). Despite the large number of cases, Asians had the lowest rate of nonfatal violent victimization among all racial or ethnic groups (Harrell, 2009). During this period, the average annual rate of nonfatal violent victimization was less than half of non-Asians (11 to 24 per 1,000, respectively). Harrell (2009) reported that Asians were less vulnerable than non-Asians for nearly all types of nonfatal violent crime. For simple assault, the rate among Asians was less than half of that for non-Asians. However, there was no statistically significant difference between Asians and non-Asians in their rates of robbery.

The intersection of nationality and immigration status has also influenced violent victimization experiences. Koo et al. (2012) argued that Asian American youth face increased exposure to violence and victimization due to language barriers or insecurity (Peguero, 2008), fear of complicating legal and citizenship matters for themselves or their families (Segal, 2002), government turmoil or persecution in the country of origin. Using a sample of 6,750 immigrant youth from the Educational Longitudinal Study of 2002, Koo et al. (2012) found that Asian American youth – as a homogenized group – are less likely to experience victimization at school. However, once immigration status and gender are considered, Asian American youth have an increased likelihood of being victimized at school. Both foreign-born Asian American males and females were significantly more likely than white males to experience strong-arm robbery in their schools. Foreign-born female Asian students had increased experiences with being threatened at school compared to US-born white males.

Studies disaggregating Asian "ethnic" groups have found varying violent victimization rates (Hishinuma et al., 2005; Le & Wallen, 2009). Hishinuma et al. (2005) disaggregated approximately 5,000 Asian/Pacific Islanders into six ethnicities (Chinese, Filipino, Japanese,

Korean, Native Hawaiian, Samoan, Tongan) as well as by part/full nationalities using the 1992-1996 Native Hawaiian Mental Health Development program sampling youth in Hawaii. There were statistically significant differences in rates of violent victimization across ethnic groups. Among the adolescent respondents, the authors found lower rates of violent victimization for Chinese, Filipino, Japanese, and other Asians, but increased risk for mixed ethnicity adolescents and among Tongons (Hishinuma et al., 2005). The overall rate of violent victimization among youth within the previous six months was 3.3%, 6.97% among family members, and 10.75% among close friends. Likewise, Le and Wallen (2009) used a community sample of 329 Chinese, Cambodian, Lao/Mien, and Vietnamese youth in Oakland, California, to gauge non-familial physical and emotional victimization. Le and Wallen (2009) found that contrary to the national estimate of 5-8% violent victimization for Asians, 26% of Cambodian youth and 22% of Lao/Mien youth in their sample reported experiencing violent physical victimization.

Some studies have accounted for both Asian and Latinx groups. Using the Seattle Neighborhood and Crime Survey, Wu and Altheimer (2013) found that foreign-born Asians and – to a lesser degree – foreign-born Latinos have lower risks of violent victimization than their US-born counterparts. However, foreign-born status did not influence such risks for Whites or Blacks. Harrell (2009) compared rates of individual forms of victimization among Asians to that of other racial/ethnic groups. Specifically, in comparison to Hispanic/Latinos, Asians had statistically significant lower rates of total violent crime (10.6 to 24.1 per 1,000, respectively), serious violent crime (4.7 to 9.7 per 1,000, respectively), robbery (2.1 to 3.6 per 1,000, respectively), aggravated assault (2.2 to 5.3 per 1,000, respectively), and simple assault (5.9 to 14.5 per 1,000, respectively). This study also revealed that Asians were equally likely to be victims of violent crime regardless of annual household income. In every US region, Asians were

less vulnerable to violent crime than non-Asians. Domestic violence accounted for approximately 13% of violence against Asian females, which was lower than the percentage found for non-Asian females (Harrell, 2009).

The crimes most often linked to racial/ethnic bias are hate crimes. Hate crimes, by definition, are “crimes that manifest evidence of prejudice based on race, religion, sexual orientation, or ethnicity" (Department of Justice, n.d.). Using the 1992 – 2014 National Incident Based Reporting System (NIBRS) data, Zhang and colleagues (2021) found that when compared with Blacks, hate crimes against Asians are more likely to be committed by non-White offenders, strangers, near schools/colleges, and result in minor injury. When compared to Latinos, Asians continue to be targeted by non-White offenders. Zhang et al. (2021) suggested that animosity attributed to the "model minority" stereotype may be a driving factor in non-White offenders' hate crime motivations.

While the data collection of hate crimes presents a starting point for determining violent victimization risk across nationalities, hate crime literature has noted several data and methodological shortcomings that inhibit the utility of this data as the sole source of racial/ethnic targeting. For example, the lack of data collection on hate crime prior to 1990 omits several key events in which social issues and nationality were often intertwined. In addition, select groups are known to underreport, and offenses may not be classified as hate crimes if there is no overt indication of discrimination (i.e., use of racial/ethnic slur). The absence of such overt discrimination places an assumption on the perpetrators’ motivation. For example, studies have found stereotyping may play a role in target selection (Barranco & Shihadeh, 2015; Caraballo & Topalli, forthcoming; Negi et al., 2013). Thus, scholars cannot depend solely on hate crime statistics to determine if the likelihood of violent victimization is influenced by nationality.

Latinx. In recent decades, the public and political discourse around immigration has concentrated attention on foreign-nationals of Latinx descent – specifically Mexicans (Burns & Gimpel, 2000; Chavez, 2013; Cobb et al., 2017), thereby linking certain nationalities with a higher probability of foreign-born status. As a result, enforcement practices, including the sanctioned use of racial profiling, have increasingly focused on Latinx populations, raising fear to seek legal or medical services, creating the associated structural vulnerabilities optimal for victimization (Caraballo & Topalli, forthcoming). Using a sample of 910 Latinx adults recruited from three major US metropolitan areas, Cuevas et al. (2021) found that their sample's overall lifetime bias victimization rate was 52.9%. The lifetime rate of hate crime victimization was 28.4%, while the non-criminal bias victimization rate was 50%. A quarter (25.6%) of respondents had experienced a bias victimization in the previous year, with some variation across study locations. The hate crime rate in the previous year was 9.5%, while the noncriminal bias event rate was 23.7% (Cuevas et al., 2021). Thus, a sizable portion of Latino adults are likely to have experienced at least one bias victimization, even if not severe enough to rise to a "criminal" designation.

Official reporting of hate crime perpetration increased 18.5% between 2015-2017 but was disproportionately higher for Latinx populations, increasing 30% over the same period (Lockwood & Cuevas, 2020). Even among unreported crime, studies of robberies against Latino day laborers have found that victims implicated their immigration status, occupation, and ethnicity as reasons they are targeted for street-level crime (Negi et al., 2019). Finally, some research suggests that over half of Latinas are exposed to interpersonal violence throughout their lifetimes (Cuevas et al., 2012).

Theoretical Frameworks

Scholars have tested three propositions related to foreign nationals' risk for victimization: foreign-born individuals are equally, more, or less likely to be victimized than US-born citizens. As Mammadov et al. (2020) outlined, various studies have supported all three propositions. The first – and least supported – proposition is that US-born citizens and foreign nationals have an equal likelihood of victimization. Even research finding support for this proposition has cautioned that future studies should delineate immigrant groups (Wheeler et al., 2010). The second proposition is that foreign nationals are more likely to experience victimization than US-born citizens by virtue of their unique vulnerabilities. Criminology has typically focused on the relationship between immigrants and vulnerability to victimization using the Lifestyle/Routine Activities Theory (Corcoran & Stark, 2020). The third proposition is that foreign nationals are less likely to experience victimization than US citizens by virtue of cultural or familial protective factors. This is often referred to as the Immigrant Paradox (Mammadov et al., 2020; Peguero, 2013; Peguero & Jiang, 2014). The discussion below centers on the contradicting propositions posed by the Lifestyle/Routine Activities Theory and the Immigrant Paradox Frameworks.

Lifestyle/Routine Activities Theory

Routine Activities Theory (RAT) is a macro-level theoretical framework commonly associated with victimization risk (Cohen & Felson, 1979). The theory posits that crime occurs when three key elements intersect in time and space: the absence of a capable guardian, a suitable target, and a motivated offender. In addition, it is often combined with lifestyle theory (Hindelang et al., 1978) which emphasizes the micro-level factors introduced through individuals' lifestyles. RAT has been used in several immigrant-focused victimization studies (Barranco & Shihadeh, 2015; Bucher et al., 2010; Eggers & Mitchell, 2016; Peguero, 2013; Wu

& Altheimer, 2013) to suggest that certain subgroups of foreign nationals have an elevated risk of victimization based on unique risk factors that reduce access to capable guardians, increase their suitability as targets, and increase proximity to motivated offenders.

The lifestyle exposure theory put forth by Hindelang et al. (1978) maintained that there were differences in victimization rates across demographic groups due to the variations in role expectations and lifestyles of individuals across groups. Such demographic attributes include age, sex, race[13], marital status, income, education, and occupation. These theoretical explanations are often combined into a more general explanation of crime (McNeeley, 2015), although this merging has received some resistance (Pratt & Turanovic, 2016).

Guardianship. Cohen and Felson's (1979) original concept of guardianship consisted of a social and physical dimension. The social aspect of guardianship measured capable and willing protectors such as relatives and neighbors. Physical guardianship included weapons, security systems, and other tools to deter or defend against victimization (Cohen & Felson, 1979). Reynald (2011) extended the guardianship literature and categorized social guardianship into three subgroups: formal, semi-formal, and informal guardians. Reynold's reformulation of guardianship is especially relevant to the study of foreign nationals.

Categories of formal guardianship include law enforcement and regulatory agencies such as the Department of Labor. These legal guardians are generally perceived as an available resource to all law-abiding citizens, regardless of whether victims report. However, foreign nationals across residency statuses may not report victimizations to formal agents of social control for various reasons, including past experience with corrupt police in their country of origin (Pogrebin & Poole, 1990a; Menjivar & Bejarano, 2004), language barriers (Cepeda et al.,

[13] Hindelang et al.'s (1978) original work compared blacks and whites.

2012; Kubrin, 2013), state and local immigration laws (Armenta, 2017a; Vidales et al., 2009), awareness of their rights (Theodore et al., 2006), perceived access to services or resources (Berk & Schur, 2001), cultural norms (Messing et al., 2015), having undocumented relatives (López, 2015), involvement in criminal or stigmatized behavior (Cepeda, 2012), among other factors.

Semi-formal guardians include managers and overseers of companies (Reynald, 2011). IRCA and IIRIRA criminalize an employer's conscious hiring of undocumented migrants; however, this practice continues "off the books" to decrease costs (Theodore et al., 2006). Undocumented employees pose a legal risk for employers, but research also has long noted that foreign nationals who are undocumented are particularly vulnerable to experiencing workplace abuses (Theodore et al., 2006), wage theft (Claghorn, 1923; Fussell, 2011), threats (Cepeda et al., 2012), and even violence (Villalón, 2010) by employers. Even having documentation does not guarantee protection against employer abuse. Some visa categories – particularly nonimmigrant employment visas – are tied to sponsorship by specific companies, resulting in underreporting by migrants who fear retaliation (i.e., firing) and losing their right to work in the US.

Foreign nationals' potentially limited access to formal guardianship and weak or non-existent connections to semi-formal guardianship implies virtually complete reliance on informal guardianship for some subgroups. New arrivals, especially, may not have yet formed the social bonds necessary to have reliable informal guardians (Gonçalves & Matos, 2016). Likewise, the context of reception at a destination influences the social structures in place fostering protection by informal guardians. The community ties formed by ethnic enclaves increase cohesion between residents and may protect new or vulnerable inhabitants (Shihadeh & Barranco, 2010c).

Target Suitability. Foreign nationals' previously noted vulnerabilities also increase their suitability as targets for victimization. According to Cohen and Felson (1979),

> "[t]arget suitability is likely to reflect such things as value (i.e., the material or symbolic desirability of a personal or property target for offenders), physical visibility, access, and the inertia of a target against illegal treatment by offenders (including the weight, size, and attached or locked features of property inhibiting its illegal removal and the physical capacity of personal victims to resist attackers with or without weapons" (p. 591).

Value. Certain classes of foreign nationals are hypothesized by potential offenders to carry large quantities of cash and engage in a cash economy (Bucher et al., 2010; Fussell, 2011; Martinez & Valenzuela Jr, 2006), thus increasing their targeting for victimization by offenders seeking untraceable goods (Caraballo & Topalli, forthcoming). The targeting of foreign nationals due to their use of cash combined with the reluctance to report victimization has been dubbed the "walking ATM phenomenon" (Barranco & Shihadeh, 2015).

Physical visibility and access. Cohen and Felson (1979) argued the "visibility of potential sites of crime affects the risk that crimes will occur" (p. 591). Later iterations of LRAT often referred to this as exposure. Exposure is often measured as public activities or activities that lure individuals away from their homes, potentially increasing the likelihood of encountering offenders (Cohen et al., 1981; McNeeley, 2015). Thus, the visibility of certain migrant-heavy locations may become targets for motivated offenders (Barranco & Shihadeh, 2015). This may be particularly true when these locations are publicly known and accessible, such as ethnic enclaves or day labor locations. Cepeda et al. (2012) noted that "employment and payment of day laborers is highly visible, making many day laborers easy targets for quick cash…" (p. 223). In addition, access can result from power dynamics in the home or work. Individuals in positions of power – such as employers or abusive spouses – may take advantage of foreign nationals' physical or social vulnerabilities to victimize them.

Inertia. The inability to resist victimization may be based on limited physical capabilities among victims of personal crimes or perceived social vulnerabilities (Cohen & Felson, 1979). Visible physical handicaps may increase the perception of vulnerability, regardless of residency status. However, foreign nationals who experienced victimization in the country of origin may have experienced physical trauma. Additionally, just as an absence of security features signals a lack of protection, foreign nationals' perceived lack of guardianship (specifically from law enforcement) can be argued to reduce the inertia of a target to resist "illegal treatment." Victims may be perceived as ideal targets by offenders and incapable of accessing police protection, regardless of the accuracy of discourse or the availability of legal resources (Caraballo & Topalli, forthcoming). Subsequently, victims influenced by public discourse who do not report victimization may inadvertently reinforce offenders' perceptions, unintentionally encouraging further victimization (Sung et al., 2013). Alternatively, Cohen and Felson (1979) state, "[p]otential victims of predatory crime may take evasive actions which encourage offenders to pursue targets other than their own." (p. 590). These evasive measures may range from hiding funds in a "safe" location to engaging in retaliatory behavior (Valenzuela Jr, 2006). Likewise, structural vulnerabilities such as access to bank accounts have been addressed in some locations to decrease vulnerability to victimization. Foreign nationals in established destinations may have access to a greater range of resources to reduce structural-based vulnerabilities.

Motivated Offenders. US-based studies have demonstrated the variation in potential offenders who are motivated to exploit foreigners' vulnerability, including street offenders (Barranco & Shihadeh, 2015; Caraballo & Topalli, forthcoming), employers (Fussell, 2011; Theodore et al., 2006), lawyers (Shannon, 2009; Unger, 2011), coethnics (Cepeda et al., 2012; Velazquez & Kempf-Leonard, 2010), and domestic partners (Erez et al., 2009). Day laborers, in

particular, "encounter violence primarily from other day laborers, police, and their employers, and to a lesser extent, from merchants and local residents…" (Valenzuela, 2006, p. 187). Farrell et al. (1995) argue that when rewards are high (cash, control, etc.) and risk is low (no guardian interference), the victim is more likely to be revictimized either by the same offender or by other offenders seeking the same vulnerabilities.

The motivations of potential offenders depend on the stage of migration in the journey as well as any potential relationship to the target. For example, in the country of origin, the "perpetrators" may be gangs extorting or murdering local community members, government representatives persecuting minority groups, or even family or community members engaging in violence against other members (i.e., women). During migration – once again dependent on the mode of travel – motivated offenders include scammers, traffickers, robbers, and even corrupt law enforcement that may prey on traveling migrants (Rojas, 2012). Finally, in the US, residency status, socioeconomic standing, and/or lifestyles may increase foreign nationals' proximity to motivated offenders by virtue of reliance on others for visa sponsorship or living in the same communities (Cohen & Felson, 1979; Velazquez & Kempf-Leonard, 2010) or engaging in delinquent or risky behaviors (Cepeda et al., 2012; Hindelang et al., 1978).

There are several shortcomings of LRAT in the study of the victimization of foreign nationals. First, much of the research using LRAT focus on the vulnerabilities of the undocumented or "liminally legal" and is less consistently applied to foreign nationals with more stable residency statuses, higher socioeconomic standing, and residing across destination types. Wu and Altheimer (2013) argued that Routine Activities and Lifestyle Theory failed to adequately account for the differential risks of victimization by foreign-born and racial/ethnic status. Foreign nationals across ethnicities and nationalities may share similar lifestyle

characteristics while experiencing different degrees or types of victimization. For example, LRAT does not explicitly incorporate stereotyping into targeting, which may influence the perception of suitability.

The Immigrant Paradox

Research has used the Immigrant Paradox to support the proposition that foreign nationals are less likely to be victimized than native-born US citizens (Peguero, 2013; Wright & Benson, 2010). Although there is no consistent definition across the literature, research has found that foreign-born individuals, particularly those of Latinx/Hispanic origin, have better outcomes than their US-born counterparts, which has come to be known as the "Immigrant Paradox." These outcomes include higher academic achievement (Pong et al., 2005), reduced delinquency (Jiang & Peguero, 2017), reduced substance use (Bui, 2013; Salas-Wright et al., 2014), reduced engagement in violence (Lyons et al., 2013), and lower rates of victimization (Peguero, 2013).

The "Immigrant Paradox" suggests that contrary to the inverse relationship between economic deprivation and violence, migrant communities that suffer from extreme deprivation do not experience the same level of violence as other native-born, disadvantaged groups (Martinez & Valenzuela Jr, 2006). With regard to victimization, the immigrant paradox suggests that cultural differences and strong social networks related to foreign nationals account for lower involvement in crime as victims and offenders. This, scholars argue, explains foreign nationals' lower rates of criminality and victimization in official data. Unfortunately, since underreporting cannot be measured using the NLAAS, the focus will be on testing the Immigrant Paradox.

A key issue with the "immigrant paradox" literature is the conflation of status and Latino ethnicity. The immigrant paradox should be discussed with regard to foreign-born individuals and should be applicable across racial and ethnic groups. A systematic review by Teruya and

Bazargan-Hejazi (2013) found that studies testing the "immigrant paradox" were "inconsistent and equivocal" and were not generalizable across all foreign-born groups. The benefits of foreign-born status varied based on the outcome of interest. Such findings highlight the bias introduced when broad immigration categories are used, likely producing misleading or incomplete results.

Although Teruya and Bazargan-Hejazi (2013) did not address victimization specifically, other studies have debated the immigrant paradox's generalizability across victimized groups based on status, nationality, and location. Setting aside residency status and nationality, Shihadeh and Barranco (2010b) argue that the "paradox" is only found in "traditional" destinations where immigrants have long settled and established themselves. In line with the context of reception literature, new destinations are communities that have not traditionally experienced immigration settlements and are not as protective to new arrivals (Painter-Davis, 2016; Terrazas, 2011). Shihadeh and Barranco (2010b) argue that these communities lack formal and informal social support networks for migrants, increasing conflict between the native residents and new arrivals, resulting in increased homicide rates.

Latino Paradox or Victimological Enigma. Brown (2009) refers to Latinos as a "victimological enigma" and chronicles the dissonance between various studies that found that prior to 2000, Latinos were consistently found to have greater rates of victimization with regard to interpersonal violence, robbery, sexual assault, while several studies using post-2000 data found that Latinos were victimized at similar rates or less than non-Latinos. The "Latino Paradox" argues that Latinos/Hispanics have better outcomes when compared to other racial/ethnic groups with similar levels of disadvantage (Ulmer et al., 2012). However, existing literature has frequently conflated the "Immigrant Paradox" and the "Latino Paradox" in much

the same way that people of Latinx origin have become conflated with immigration discourse. These terms have often been used interchangeably, although they are not equivalent. In their systemic review, Teruya and Bazargan-Hejazi (2013) found that the Latino/Hispanic paradox was not generalizable to all Hispanic/Latino nationalities and benefits also varied based on the outcome of interest. This parallels their finding discussed previously that the "Immigrant Paradox" was not equally applicable across foreign-born groups.

Brown (2009) argued that the research on Latino victimization is fraught with methodological limitations, including a) survey research being compromised by inadequate representation of and low response rates among economically-disadvantaged Latinos, especially immigrants and migrants, b) underreporting among Latino immigrants, which negatively impacts the validity of official crime data; and c) conducting analyses of ethnic variation in victimization wherein all non-Latinos (Asians, Blacks, Whites, etc.) are grouped together, potentially producing misleading results. In addition, some studies use Hispanic/Latino proportions as a proxy for undocumented status (Comino et al., 2020).

Many scholars argue that official statistics do not capture true crime involvement and victimization rates since noncitizens are known to be distrusting of authority and therefore underreport (Comino et al., 2020; Messing et al., 2015). Although not directly tested in the current study, underreporting provides a theoretical rationale for research findings that support an immigrant paradox using “official” data sources such as police reports. Koo et al. (2012) stated, “it is often a foregone conclusion that when an individual is a victim of a crime, the victim’s commonsense response is to call the police; however, this assumption is culturally biased and ethnocentric” (p.131). Various studies have argued that underreporting is prevalent among both Latinx (Comino et al., 2020; Pitts, 2014) and Asian (Koo et al., 2012) populations;

however, the reasons may differ. Latinx immigrants' precarious status of self or family has often been cited as a reason for underreporting victimization (Messing et al., 2015; Sung et al., 2016). Alternatively, the "model minority" stigma assumes that Asians are self-sufficient (i.e., address problems within families and communities), leaving critical needs unaddressed. Asian and Asian Americans are rarely seen as "at-risk" populations (Chheang & Connolly, 2018), which often poses an additional barrier to support (Koo et al., 2012).

Gaps in Previous Research

To summarize, previous criminological research leaves several gaps in our understanding of victimization across foreign-born groups due to data limitations, methodological shortcomings, and inadequate theoretical rationales. Data limitations include historical shortcomings in accounting for groups based on nationality or residency status, lack of data on victimization experiences, and use of ungeneralizable samples. Many datasets simply do not track respondents' country of birth or residency status. Several criminal justice agencies do not collect victimization data, leaving data heavily concentrated on offending. Concerning foreign-born populations specifically, literature on the "immigration-crime nexus" often accounts for criminality but not victimization. Even datasets that account for victimization rarely distinguish pre-migratory experiences from victimization in the US. Finally, the victimization of minority groups has received unequal attention. For example, literature on the victimization of Asians and specific nationalities is scarce, as studies often exclude them due to small sample sizes or merge them with "other" racial classifications.

Even datasets with country of birth or racial/ethnic measures often share a methodological shortcoming: overaggregating groups. Overaggregation has resulted in broad categorizations of culturally distinct groups, inconsistent measurement of racial/ethnic groups,

and inadequate inclusion of migration factors in victimization data among foreign nationals. The use of broad “panethnic” and “panracial” terminology treats groups with distinct characteristics as homogenous, potentially further stigmatizing individuals sharing some characteristics. Individuals may also not identify with the “options” available, providing inaccurate estimates. For example, according to a PEW (2012) survey among 1,220 Hispanic/Latino participants, over half (51%) preferred to be identified by their family's country of origin or place of birth compared to 24% who used the terms "Hispanic" or "Latino." Latinos, in particular, are divided in identifying with the “white” racial category (Frank et al., 2010).

Additionally, the measurement of race/ethnicity has changed repeatedly over time across various administrative agencies. Administrative data collected by criminal justice agencies have inconsistently measured race/ethnicity and altered the way racial categories have been measured across time. For example, the US Department of Justice has collected Hispanic origin data in their hate crime statistics since the early 1990s, whereas the Uniform Crime Report (UCR) did not provide any data on persons of Hispanic origin prior to 2013. Individuals of "Hispanic origin" were initially not included, then counted separately from racial categories. In addition, localities, states, and different agencies vary in the extent to which they report ethnicity, the means of data collection (self-report/ outsider perception), and the degree to which data are comparable (Sabol et al., 2019). Such inconsistencies and gaps in available data limit our ability to draw inferences about specific nationalities across time.

Finally, criminological theories do not account for the longstanding interrelationship between immigration and nationality, which has influenced migration patterns, legal/structural vulnerabilities, and victimization trends experienced by groups. The longstanding focus on black and white dichotomies in criminological research excluded other minority groups. Such theories

often overlook key assimilation factors, aggregate differences between distinct groups, or only account for the victimization experiences in certain circumstances. Contemporary research tests theoretical frameworks that were not developed or tested with these groups in mind.

The Current Study

Using individual-level data from the National Latino and Asian American Survey collected between 2001 and 2003 (Alegria et al., 2001-2003), the current study estimated a series of logistic regression models to investigate the impacts of residency status and nationality on violent victimization in the US. The present study advances upon prior research in several ways. Chapter IV addresses prior calls for disaggregation of "immigration status" (McDonald, 2018) by using a novel approach informed by US immigration law to categorize and test the likelihood of violent victimization across six proxy statuses compared to US-born citizens. Additionally, this chapter compares the likelihood of violent victimization of foreign nationals against each other, delineating the impact of residency status on subgroups of foreign nationals. In this way, I expand the potential operationalization of "status" using immigration law as a framework, broaden our understanding of the "immigrant paradox," and bridge elements of criminological theory with migration-specific factors. No other studies, to my knowledge, have simultaneously addressed these components. Chapter IV focuses on three main research questions.

1. Does violent victimization experienced in the US vary across foreign-born groups?
2. Is there evidence of an "immigrant paradox?"
3. Does delineating residency status demonstrate variations of violent victimization risk across foreign-born groups when compared to US-born citizens?

Drawing insights from recent research outlining the differential vulnerabilities across foreign nationals and measurement issues with dichotomized measures of status, I hypothesize that disaggregating residency status will reveal differences in the relative likelihood of

experiencing violent victimization in the US across groups. Once disaggregated, I hypothesize some statuses – such as naturalized citizens – will have statistically lower odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US compared to US-born citizens, thus providing some evidence of an "immigrant paradox." Alternatively, I also hypothesize that some residency statuses – such as temporary statuses – will have a significantly higher odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US, thus refuting the "immigrant paradox." Finally, once disaggregated, I hypothesize there will be differences in the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization in the US when foreign national subgroups are compared to naturalized citizens.

Chapter V presents a series of logistic regression models to investigate the effects of nationality on violent victimization in the US. Unlike chapter IV, the analyses in chapter V focus on violent victimization only within the US. This distinction ensures the results from chapter IV are not influenced by the violent victimization experiences that occurred in the country of origin. This distinction may also provide insight into discrimination against certain nationalities or ethnic groups after arrival in the US. This chapter further advances prior research in several ways. First, it disaggregates the two largest foreign-born racial/ethnic groups in America – Latinx and Asians – based on nationality. Secondly, by comparing violent victimization within each panethnic category, it delineates groups that are often combined. Prior studies have argued that broad racial categories aggregate cultural and social distinctions, obscuring disparities in vulnerabilities across groups (Grubb & Bouffard, 2014; Teruya & Bazargan-Hejazi, 2013). Victimization within each panethnic group can be analyzed as well as compared across nationalities, allowing for delineation of risk factors and differences that influence victimization. McCann and Boateng (2021) assert that scholars should address whether migration patterns have an impact on victimization. This study takes this call further by accounting for the migration

patterns (vis-à-vis residency statuses) using subanalyses within each panethnic group and distinguishing by location of birth (US/ other), providing important distinctions regarding the relationship between ethnicity, foreign-born status, and odds of violent victimization in the US.

Chapter V focuses on the following research questions.

4. Is nationality a primary predictor of experiencing violent victimization only in the US?
5. Do predictors of vulnerability vary across ethnic groups and location of birth?
6. When disaggregated, do nationalities within each panethnic group demonstrate differential odds of violent victimization compared to other intraethnic groups?
7. When disaggregated, do nationalities across panethnic groups demonstrate differential odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US?

Based on previous research and victimization trends, I hypothesize that a) nationality will be a salient predictor in the odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US, b) predictors of vulnerability will vary in magnitude and significance based on panethnic group and whether or not citizens are included in the models, c) within each panethnic group, there will be differences in the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization between nationalities, and d) when all nationalities are compared, Latino nationalities will be more likely to experience violent victimization in the US than Asian nationalities.

The NLAAS is an appropriate dataset to address the seven research questions in this dissertation because it directly collected data on various immigration-specific variables, nationalities, and victimization data that are not typically available jointly in datasets. These immigration-specific variables included naturalization status, refugee status, US or other citizenship, and primary country of residence. These variables allowed for the creation of proxy statuses. In addition, the dataset disaggregates panethnic labels into six nationalities and two

"other" groups that allow for delineation of ethnic groups. The "trauma" events collected as part of the PTSD assessment included several criminal victimizations were used to create the violent victimization measures. Although there is no means of measuring underreporting, the focus on mental health may have swayed participants into responding when they may have declined to file a police report. In addition, the "fear of INS" and "fear deportation" variables may provide insight as to whether participants who experienced violent victimization were also fearful of immigration enforcement. The dataset allows for gauging violent victimization in the country of origin and in the US, allowing for comparisons between the total likelihood of violent victimization or specific locations. The NLAAS also accounts for risk factors that may not appear in "official data" sources such as police reports or crime data. Though not enough for a formal test of LRAT, the NLAAS also includes "risk factors" such as offending behavior that can gauge "risky lifestyles." The sampling design – which oversampled groups based on national origin and, consequently, foreign-born status – and weighting mechanisms allow for a nationally representative sample, addressing previous concerns of small, ungeneralizable samples (Gonçalves & Matos, 2016). Finally, the dataset focuses on Latinos and Asians, two groups historically underrepresented in criminological research.

Chapter III: Methods

Data

The data used in this dissertation are drawn from the restricted version of the National Latino and Asian American Study (NLAAS), which includes detailed demographic, migration, and victimization measures. The NLAAS is one of three nationally and geographically representative datasets of the United States' (US) racial and ethnic populations comprising the Collaborative Psychiatric Epidemiological Surveys (CPES).[14] These data were collected by Alegria, Jackson, Kessler, Ronald, and Takeuchi from 2001 – 2003.[15] Specifically, the NLAAS is a community household survey that estimates the prevalence of mental disorders and rates of mental health service utilization by Latinos and Asian Americans in the US.

The NLAAS had three central aims. First, to describe the lifetime and 12-month prevalence of psychiatric disorders and the rates of mental health service use for Latino and Asian American populations. Second, to assess the associations among social position, environmental context, and psychosocial factors with the prevalence of psychiatric disorders and utilization rates of services. Finally, to compare the prevalence of psychiatric disorders and use of mental health services of Latinos and Asian Americans with nationally representative samples of non-Latino whites (using the National Comorbidity Study-Replication – NCS-R) and African Americans (using the National Survey of American Life - NSAL).[16] Since language barriers may discourage survey participation for non-English speakers or those not fluent in it, the NLAAS instrument was translated into Tagalog, Vietnamese, Chinese, and Spanish (Alegria et al., 2004).

[14] https://www.icpsr.umich.edu/web/ICPSR/studies/20240
[15] Data were collected post-September 11th and includes questions regarding the World Trade Center attack. The timing of data collection is important as the political climate was particularly hostile to "foreigners" in response to some of the hijackers entering the US using visas (Sampaio, 2015).
[16] This dissertation draws only from the NLAAS and therefore comparisons across groups are not feasible.

Sampling

The NLAAS survey was administered to a sample of non-institutionalized Latino and Asian American adults aged 18 or older residing in households in the US, excluding those living on military bases.[17] The NLAAS identified four target Latino survey populations (Puerto Rican, Cuban, Mexican, and others of Latino descent), four target Asian American survey populations (Chinese, Filipino, Vietnamese, and others of Asian descent). This stratification of the NLAAS survey populations relied on self-reports by household members during the household screening. Twenty-seven thousand and twenty-six sample housing units were screened for eligible adults. According to the codebook, "many area segments in the core sample had very low density of the population of interest in NLAAS, and there was a need to screen large numbers of households to identify the targeted samples…" (Alegria et al., 2004, p.8). The NLAAS project yielded 4,649 interviews: 2,095 Asian respondents and 2,554 Latino respondents.

The NLAAS is based on a stratified probability sample design that includes multiple area probability sample components: an NLAAS Core sampling of PSUs, area segments, and housing units that are designed to be nationally representative of all US populations, including Latinos and Asians. However, as designed, the core sample would not have provided sufficient interviews for separate analyses of individuals of Puerto Rican, Cuban, Chinese, Filipino, and Vietnamese descent. Thus, the core sample was augmented with the NLAAS High Density (HD) supplemental area probability samples, which targeted geographic areas with greater than 5% residential density for the targeted national groups with low prevalence.[18] Thus, eligible

[17] Institutionalized persons including individuals in prisons, jails, nursing homes, and long-term medical or dependent care facilities were excluded from the study populations. Military personnel living in civilian housing were eligible for the study, but due to security restrictions residents of housing located on a military base or military reservation were excluded.

[18] In line with the migration patterns discussed in the previous chapter, Puerto Ricans, Cubans, Chinese, Filipinos, and Vietnamese groups resided in higher density areas, often among other coethnics. Specifically, 64% of Puerto

prospects who resided in higher density areas had two chances of being selected for an interview; through the core area probability sample and secondly through the supplemental area probability sample (Heeringa et al., 2004). The NLAAS Core sample is designed to provide a nationally representative sample of Latinos and Asian Americans without regard to geographic residential patterns. Each NLAAS-HD supplemental sample was not entirely nationally representative for its target population due to the census parameters set to ensure oversampling. However, when combined with the NLAAS core and properly weighted for sample inclusion probabilities, the pooled sample would – theoretically – provide sample-based coverage of the full national population (Heeringa et al., 2004).[19] The NLAAS comprised 63 National Sample PSUs, including Hawaii, to ensure full representation of Asian ancestry populations. The final weighted response rates for the combined NLAAS samples were 73.2% for the total sample, 75.5% for the Latino sample, and 65.6% for the Asian sample (Heeringa et al., 2004).

Stratified random sampling classified the population elements into strata and samples separately from each stratum. This technique was used for multiple reasons. First, the sampling variance can be reduced if strata are internally homogenous. Secondly, separate estimates can be obtained for strata. Third, administration of fieldwork can be organized using strata. Finally, different sampling needs can be accommodated in separate strata. Allocation of the sample across the strata is proportionate when the sampling fraction is uniform across the strata or disproportionate when, for example, a higher sampling fraction is applied to a smaller stratum to select a sufficient number of subjects for comparative studies (Lee & Forthofer, 2005).

Ricans lived in high-density Puerto Rican areas. Comparable proportions were 61% for Cubans, 57% for Chinese, 50% for Filipinos, and 48% for Vietnamese (Heeringa et al., 2004).

[19] For a detailed methodology description of the NLAAS HD supplemental samples, see Heeringa et al. (2004),

Data Collection

Participants were contacted/recruited through a variety of techniques including persuasion letters, special respondent recruitment offers, distinctive mailings, a toll-free respondent telephone line, and use of travelling interviewers. Participants were paid $50 for their participation, but increased incentives (up to $150) were used to entice respondents who did not initially accept the invitation. The personal interviews for the NLAAS were collected from May 2002 and December 2003 (Alegria et al., 2001-2003). Most interviews were conducted using laptop computer-assisted personal interview methods in the respondents' homes. The sample was collected using a four-stage national area probability sample with special supplements for adults of Puerto Rican, Cuban, Chinese, Filipino, and Vietnamese national origin.

Within primary stage units, area segments were stratified at the county level by geographic location (region) and the racial/ethnic composition of residents' households. The designated second-stage sampling units (SSUs) in the sampling design are referred to as “area segments.” Area segments were formed by linking geographically contiguous census blocks to form units with a minimum number of housing units. The racial/ethnic stratification of area segments was particularly important as it was used to improve the sampling precision of the design and as a basis for more cost-effective oversampling in area segments with higher densities of households for targeted race and ethnicity subpopulations. Within each second-stage stratum, the actual probability sampling of area segments was performed with probabilities proportionate to census counts of the occupied housing units for the census blocks that comprise the area segment. The Survey Research Center field staff conducted an up-to-date enumeration or 'listing' of all housing units located within the physical boundaries of the selected area segments for each CPES sample design (Heeringa et al., 2004).

A third-stage sample of housing units was then selected for screening interviews according to a predetermined sampling rate. This sampling rate was computed for each selected area segment in the CPES sample design and then used to select a systematic random sample of actual housing units from the area segment listing (see Heeringa et al., 2004) for mathematical computations). Each sample housing unit was contacted in person by an interviewer. Within each cooperating household, the interviewer administered a short screening interview with a knowledgeable adult to determine if household members met the study eligibility criteria. If the informant reported that one or more eligible adults lived at the sample housing unit address, the interviewer prepared a complete list of residents and randomly selected an adult respondent for the study interview. The random selection of the respondent was performed using a special adaptation of the objective household roster/selection table method developed by Kish (1949).

Weighting

Due to the multistage sampling design for the NLAAS survey, any inferences drawn from the data must account for the variance estimation procedures for the complex design. Weighting is used to adjust for unequal probabilities of selection, nonresponse, and minimize bias. In poststratification, weights adjust for the residual differences between the sample and the US population. Complex designs do not assume the independence of observations due to clustering. Assuming a simple random sample results in underestimating variable estimates due to effective loss of sample size due to clustering.

Separately, the NCS-R, NSAL, and NLAAS are assigned 1 of 12 distinct racial/ ancestry groups. Then, the cases in each dataset are assigned to 1 of 11 distinct geographic areas based on the racial composition of the census tract in which each respondent lived at the time of the interview. Hawaii was only represented in the NLAAS data. The total size of the adult

population in each racial/ ancestry stratum was estimated using the March 2002 Current Population Survey. Separately, the study-specific weights for each dataset were stratified to a 12x11 grid of population totals for race/ancestry by geography. Full geographic linkage of the NLAAS national sample area segments to the NCS-R maximized the two samples' geographic and socioeconomic correlation. Since both the NCS-R and the NLAAS Core were designed to be nationally representative, this 'correlation of designs' produced no major concerns for a standalone analysis of the NLAAS survey.

To account for the sampling design, STATA uses the following code sequence:

svyset psu [weight] [, design_options] [|| ssu , design_options] ... [options]

where, the psu equals the primary sampling unit. In the NLAAS, this was the region of recruitment. The [weight] for the NLAAS is a pweight (i.e., sampling weight). This denotes the inverse of the probability that the observation is included due to the sampling design. The purpose of the sampling weight is to make the distribution of select variables in the dataset approximate to the distribution of those variables in the population from which the sample was drawn (Winship & Radbill, 1994). There were three sampling weights included in the NLAAS dataset: (NLAASWGT) variable for use with the full dataset, and the Latino (NLSWTLAT) and Asian (NLSWTASN) sampling weights for use with subanalyses with each panethnic group. The [design_options] in the NLAAS is the strata. In the NLAAS, this pre-calculated variable is SESTRAT. The ssu= the sampling unit clusters in subsequent stages of the survey design. In the NLAAS, these were the area segments but were not included in the dataset. An additional option used is singleunit(centered) for strata with a single sampling unit.

Subanalyses with the Latino and Asian groups used the appropriate sampling weight in conjunction with Stata's "subpop" command. Subgroup analyses of complex survey cannot be conducted by selecting out the observations in the model, as it may unravel the basic design and lead to an incorrect estimation of variance (Lee & Forthofer, 2005). Stata's "subpop" command is designed to conduct a subgroup analysis without selecting out the observations.

Measures

Dependent Variables

This dissertation utilizes two variations of violent victimization in the United States (US): *any* violent victimization and violent victimization *only* experienced in the US. The operationalization of the violent victimization variables relied on a series of stressful life events measures as part of the assessment for post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Of the 27 stress events, violent victimization was limited to six measures of non-sexual violence that would constitute criminal victimization. Using the age at victimization and the age at migration variables, trauma experiences were distinguished based on the location of the event. Though not ideal, such proxy measures were necessary as the variable that explicitly asked for the "country of traumatic event" was missing 4,451/4,649 (95.74%) cases. The pages below detail the definitions, rationale, and development of each variable.

Chapter IV uses any violent victimization in the US as the dependent variable. Any violent victimization in the US is dichotomous, whereby respondents who experienced any violent victimization in the US were coded as one (1), and those who had no history of violent victimization in either country were coded as zero (0). Individuals with at least one violent victimization event in the US are coded as "1" in this variable, regardless of whether or not they also experienced violent victimization in the country of origin. For instance, a respondent who

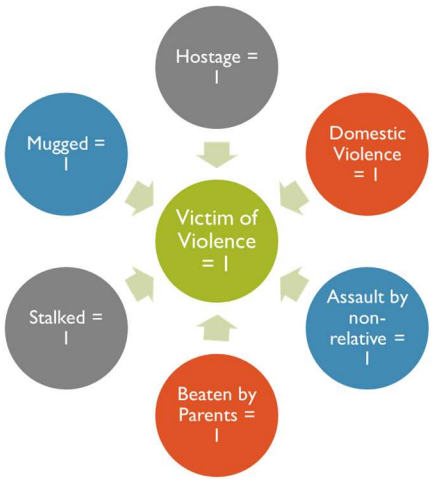
was victimized both before and after arrival in the US would be coded as one (1), while an individual who was only victimized prior to arrival was coded as missing (.). The second dependent variable, which is utilized in the models in chapter V, violent victimization only in the US, is dichotomous, whereby respondents who only experienced violent victimization in the US were coded as one (1) and those who did not experience violent victimization in either country were coded as zero (0). Foreign nationals who experienced violent victimization in the country of origin or experienced violent victimization in both countries were coded as missing (.). The rationale for the exclusion of foreign nationals who only experienced violent victimization in the country of origin is elaborated on below.

The distinction between these variables serves an important purpose. First, the any violent victimization in the US variable gauges the extent to which foreign nationals across residency statuses and nationalities experience violent victimization in the US, regardless of prior victimization history in the country of origin. Alternatively, by limiting violent victimization to events that only occurred in the US, chapter V attempts to gauge if there are characteristics that increase the odds of violent victimization in the US, despite having no prior history of victimization. Additionally, although only 84 foreign nationals experienced violent victimization in both the country of origin and the US, removing them from the analysis attempts to address any potential bias introduced by having "repeat" victims in the sample.

The creation of these variables required multiple steps. First, violent victimization was operationalized using six types of violent experiences across the lifetime: hostage, stalked, mugged, beaten by parents, domestic violence, and assault. The hostage variable was constructed by merging two "have you ever been kidnapped or held hostage" questions (PT6 and PT34). The stalked variable was constructed by merging two "have you ever been stalked" questions (PT19

and PT47). The mugged variable was constructed by combining two "have you ever been mugged, held up, or threatened with a weapon" questions (PT16 and PT44). The beaten-by-parents variable was constructed by merging two "have you ever been badly beaten by your parents" questions (PT13 and PT41). The domestic violence variable was constructed by merging two "have you ever been badly beaten by a spouse or romantic partner" questions (PT14 and PT42). Finally, the assault variable was constructed by merging two "have you ever been badly beaten by someone other than your parents or spouse" questions (PT15 and PT43). Once all of the measures were created, the second step was to consolidate the six measures into a binary violent victimization variable (violentbn). A value of 1 was assigned to respondents who experienced at least one form of violent victimization, and a value of 0 was assigned to respondents who did not experience any of the listed forms of violent victimization.

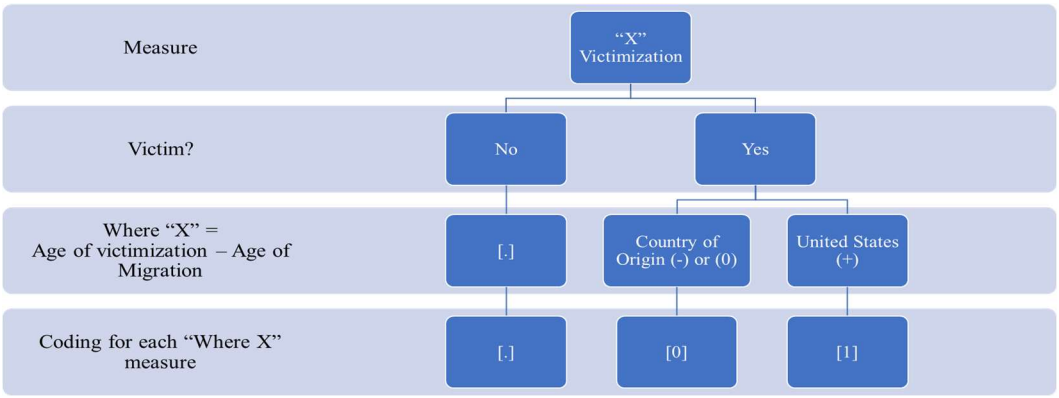
Figure 2: Creating the Victim of Violence variable



The next step required determining the location of victimization among foreign nationals. Each form of victimization had a "how old first time [X trauma] occurred" follow-up question. Following the methodology used by Li (2016), the age of migration variable and age of exposure to trauma variables were used to determine if each victimization occurred pre-migration or post-migration among foreign nationals. To illustrate, the "*where hostage"* variable was created by

using the age at victimization variable (kidnapped/ hostage) and the age at migration variable. The event was coded to occur in the country of origin (0) or during migration if the age at victimization was smaller than the age at migration or equal to it and the age at victimization was not missing.[20] Since age at victimization was a follow-up variable, missing was simply the participants who did not experience that form of violence. Alternatively, victimization was said to occur in the United States if the age at victimization was larger than the age of migration. While it cannot be certain that participants who were victimized during the same year of migration (measured by the age at migration) were victimized in the country of origin, the victimization likely occurred either during migration or immediately beforehand.[21] This procedure was done for each of the six violent victimization experiences used to identify the location of each victimization. Additionally, all US citizens were coded as experiencing victimization in the US for each measure of violent victimization. Unfortunately, as there was no equivalent to the age at migration variable for citizens, there was no way to determine if victimization had occurred abroad.

Figure 3: Determining location of victimization for each measure of violence



[20] Syntax available upon request.
[21] No variable had more than 18 cases in which the age of migration and age of victimization variables were equal. (Hostage=2, domestic violence=4, assault=4, beaten by parents=9, stalked=4, mugged=18). Including cases in the US victimization count did not yield any statistically significant differences in the models. However, the cases were ultimately grouped in the pre-migratory measure to ensure conservative estimates.

There were 141 affirmative responses for the hostage measure, foreign nationals represented 83.69% (118) of cases and US-born citizens represented 16.31% (23) of cases. Among foreign nationals, of the 118 occurrences, 83.05% (98) were categorized as occurring pre-migration and 16.95% (20) were categorized as occurring in the US. Domestic violence occurrences were recorded among 223 respondents, 89 foreign-born and 134 US-born. Of the foreign nationals, 35.96% (32) occurred in the country of origin and 64.04% (57) occurred in the US. Of the 298 affirmative responses to being assaulted by a non-relative, foreign nationals represented 48.32% (144) and US-born citizens represented 51.68% (154). Among the foreign nationals, 63.19% (91) were categorized as occurring pre-migration and 36.81% (53) were categorized as occurring in the US. Three hundred and ninety-six respondents reported being beaten by their parents. Almost two-thirds of victims were foreign-born (62.37%; n=247) and over one-third (37.63%; n=149) were US-born. Among the foreign nationals, 83% (205) occurred pre-migration and 17% (42) occurred after arrival in the US. Of the 365 initial affirmative responses to the stalking questions, foreign nationals represented over half of the cases (56.16%; n=205) compared to US-born citizens (43.84%; n=160). Among the foreign nationals, 53.66% (110) were categorized as occurring pre-migration and 46.34% (95) were categorized as occurring in the US. Finally, 768 respondents reported being mugged, including 398 foreign nationals and 370 US-born citizens. Among the foreign nationals, 40.95% (163) occurred pre-migration and 59.05% (235) occurred post-migration.

Table 1: Victimization categories by location and US-born/ foreign-born status

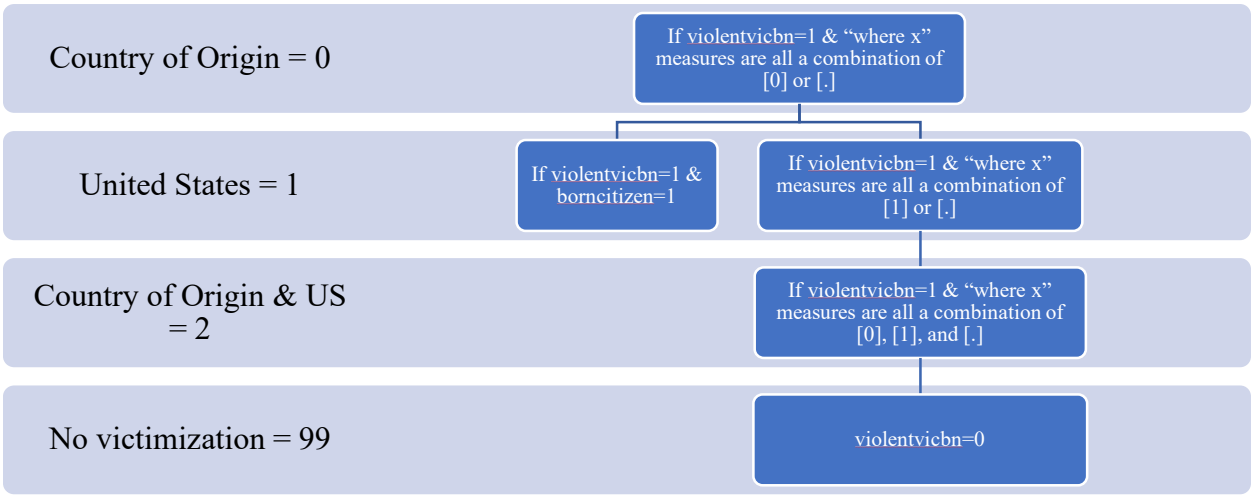
	Total Observations	Victimization Location	US-born Citizens	Foreign Nationals
Hostage	n=141	Pre-migratory	-	98
		United States	23	20
Domestic Violence	n=223	Pre-migratory	-	32
		United States	134	57
Assault	n=298	Pre-migratory	-	53
		United States	154	91
Beaten by Parents	n=396	Pre-migratory	-	205
		United States	149	42
Stalking	n=365	Pre-migratory	-	110
		United States	160	95
Mugged	n=768	Pre-migratory	-	163
		United States	370	235

Table 1 displays the number and percentages of each victimization category by location and US-born/ foreign-born status. After identifying the location of each particular form of violent victimization, a new ordinal variable (violentviclocale) was generated. All respondents who were coded as "0" (no victimization) in the violentbn variable were coded as "99" for violentviclocale. This allowed for respondents who did not experience violent victimization to be included as a potential reference group. The country-of-origin category was created by merging victims of any form of violence (violentbn=1) with every potential combination of locations in which at least one of the "where X" variables were coded as zero (country of origin) and none were coded as one (US). Since not all victims experienced all forms of victimization, syntax incorporated the missing data for each "where x" variable, which, as noted earlier, represented cases in which the respondent did not experience that form of victimization.[22] This pattern resulted in 69 unique

[22] Example syntax: [replace violentviclocale=0 if violentbn==1 & wherehostage==. & wheredvassault==0 & whereassault==0 & wherebeatenbyparents==. & wheremugged==0 & wherestalked==.]
Here, Stata is directed to classify any victims of violence [violentbn==1] as occurring in the country of origin if the respondent did not experience hostage victimization, experienced domestic violence in the country of origin, experienced assault in the country of origin, was not beaten by their parents, was mugged in the country of origin, and was never stalked. This pattern was replicated across locations.

combinations of syntax. For the second category, violent victimization only in the US, the same coding pattern was used as the country-of-origin category except the "where X" variables were coded as "1" and none were coded as "0." This also resulted in 69 unique syntax combinations.

Figure 4: Coding schema used to create Location of Violent Victimization variable

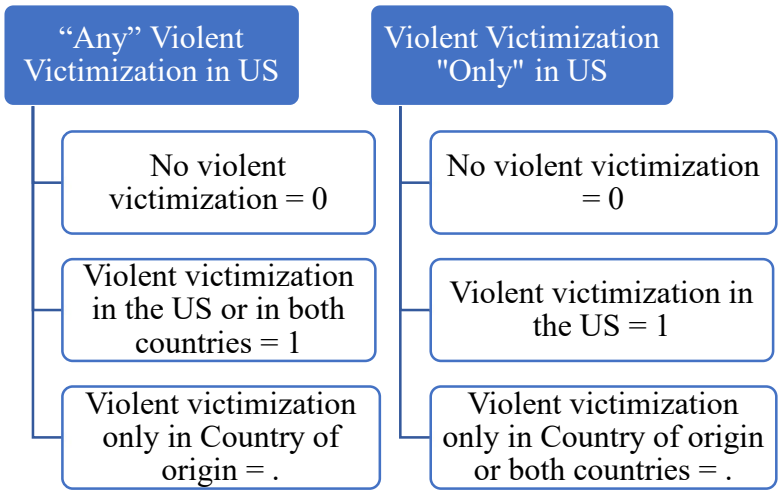


The final category for the violentviclocale variable is the experience of violent victimization in both the country of origin and the US. Respondents were coded as a "2" if they were a victim of violence [violentbn==1] and experienced at least one form of violent victimization in the country of origin and at least one in the US. This pattern resulted in 162 different combinations of syntax.

The variable violentvicUS was then created whereby any victims of violence [violentbn==1] who experienced any form of victimization in the US [violentviclocale==1; violentviclocale==2] were coded as "1" and any individuals who were not victims of violence [violentbn==0] were coded as "0." Since there was no comparable comparison group for foreign nationals who only experienced violent victimization in the country of origin, they were coded as missing in the violentvicUS variable.

The variable violentvicUSonly was then created whereby any victims of violence [violentbn==1] who only experienced violent victimization in the US [violentviclocale==1] were coded as "1" and any individuals who were not victims of violence [violentbn==0] were coded as "0." Since there was no comparable comparison group for foreign nationals who only experienced violent victimization in the country of origin, they were coded as missing in the violentvicUSonly variable. In addition, as previously noted, the 84 participants who experienced violent victimization in the country of origin and the US were also marked as missing.

Figure 5: Coding schema for "Any" or "Only" Violent Victimization in the US



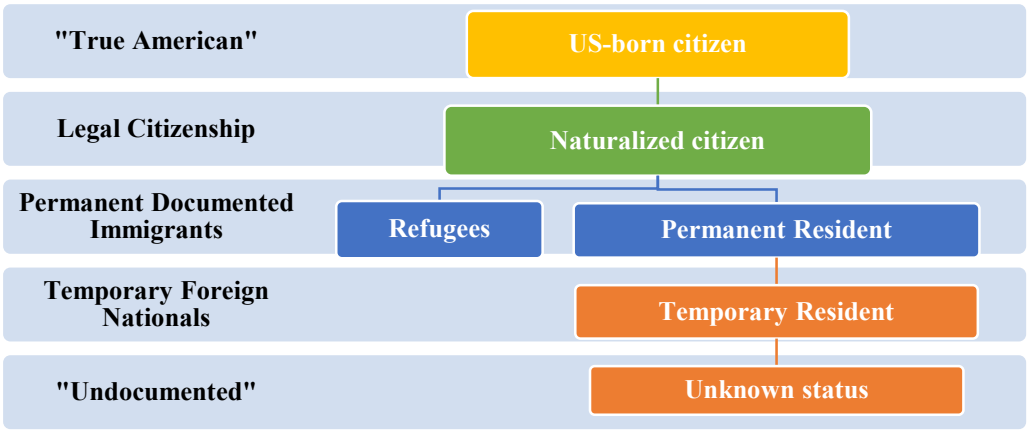
The rationale for the exclusion of victims who only experienced violent victimization in the country of origin are threefold. First, foreign nationals who only experience violent victimization in the country of origin are qualitatively different than non-victims in a key variable of interest, violent victimization. Secondly, since history of violent victimization in the country of origin may influence refugee status in the US, time ordering becomes problematic, potentially biasing the status estimates. Thus, any violent victimization in the US allows for victims in the country of origin to be included in the analyses if they also experienced violent victimization in the US, but respondents who experienced any violence in the country of origin

are later excluded from analyses on violent victimization only in the US to ensure that pre-migratory victimization was not influencing the estimates. Finally, the immigrant paradox literature provides little to no guidance on the expected impact of pre-migratory violence on the likelihood of victimization in the US, primarily since the "paradox" compares US-born citizens to foreign nationals. Including victims who experienced violence in the country of origin as "non-victims" for the purpose of these analyses would fundamentally alter the dynamic of the comparisons between the groups. Thus, excluding this group from analyses was the most conservative and theoretically sound alternative.

Independent Variables

Residency Statuses. The primary independent variable of interest is the residency status held by respondents. These "statuses" include US citizens, naturalized citizens, naturalized refugees, non-naturalized refugees, permanent residents, temporary residents, and unknown. Three variations of residency status were used to test the research questions in chapter IV: 1) a dichotomous US-born/foreign-born variable (Born Citizen), 2) a categorical variable consisting of all foreign-born subgroups (Foreign national statuses), and 3) a categorical variable with US Citizens and all foreign national subgroups.

Figure 6: Proxy variables created to differentiate residency status



First, a born-citizen variable was created whereby US citizens were coded as a 1 and foreign-born individuals were coded as 0. *Born Citizen* was operationalized using the responses to the "Country in which you were born" question where the respondents selected the United States. Respondents who selected "other" were cross-referenced with the "nationality"[23] variable. Participants who identified "other" as their place of birth but identified as "Puerto Rican" were recoded as born citizens, as Puerto Ricans born on the island are US citizens by the Jones-Shafroth Act of 1917.[24]

Next, a foreign-born categorical variable was created and comprised of six mutually exclusive subcategories: naturalized citizen (0), naturalized refugee (1), not-naturalized refugees (2), permanent resident (3), temporary resident (4), and unknown (5). The first category, *naturalized citizen,* was created using the responses to the question "were you born citizen or naturalized," where respondents selected naturalized. Respondents who selected naturalized were cross-referenced with the "Nationality" variable. Participants who identified as "naturalized" but also identified as "Puerto Rican" were recoded as citizens, as Puerto Ricans born on the island are US citizens and do not undergo naturalization.[25] Participants who responded yes to "have you ever been a refugee?" were excluded from this category. *Refugee status* was created by merging two "have you ever been a refugee?" variables. For the second category, respondents were coded as a *naturalized refugees* if they were identified as both a naturalized citizen and a refugee. The third category, *non-naturalized refugee,* included respondents who identified as refugees but

[23] In the dataset, this variable is labeled "race/ ancestry." Since these categories do not align with the US census "race" categories, the term "Nationality" is used instead.
[24] Variable was cross referenced with age to ensure no Puerto Ricans were born prior to the law's enactment. No cases were found.
[25] There were six cases in which non-Puerto Rican individuals identified as both born citizens and naturalized citizens. Cross tabulations were run to identify the country of birth, why they chose to leave the country of origin, whether or not they possessed citizenship in another country, among other demographics. Based on their responses, all six were recoded as born citizens and removed from the naturalized category.

were not naturalized. The fourth category, *permanent resident,* consisted of non-naturalized, non-refugee foreign nationals who reported having citizenship in another country but identified their primary country of residence as the US. The fifth status, *temporary resident,* consisted of non-naturalized, non-refugee foreign nationals who reported having citizenship in another country and whose primary country of residence was not the US. The sixth and final status, *unknown,* consists of respondents who do not fit the criteria for citizenship, naturalization, refugee, permanent residence, or temporary residence. Additionally, individuals who claimed US citizenship but declined being born in the US or naturalized were recoded as unknown.

The final residency status variable was a categorical variable that included all residency variables. The foreign-born categorical variable was duplicated, and US citizens – using the born citizen variable described earlier – were coded as "9." Table 2 includes all the variables and combinations used to create the proxy statuses.

Table 2: Variables and coding schema used to create residency statuses

Original Variables	Born Citizen	Naturalized Citizen	Naturalized Refugee	Non-naturalized refugee	Permanent Residents	Temporary Residents	Unknown Status
Born in the US?	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Born citizen or naturalized?	0	1	1	.	.	.	.
Ever a refugee?	0	0	1	1	0	0	0
Have citizenship in another country	0	0 / 1*	0	0	1	1	0 / 1
Primary country of residence is the US	0	0	0	0	1	0	0 / 1
Race/Ancestry *Puerto Rican	1	0	0	0	0	0	0

*Naturalized citizens may have dual citizenship. Due to data deidentification, there is no way to determine if dual citizenship is feasible based on each country's citizenship laws.

Other Independent Variables

Multivariate models control for demographic variables including *age* (measured in years), sex (0 = female; 1 = male), and nationality. Nationality is a categorical variable that delineates eight groups (1 = Vietnamese; 2 = Filipino; 3 = Chinese; 4 = All other Asian; 5 = Cuban; 6 = Puerto Rican; 7 = Mexican; 8 = All other Latino). Acculturation measures[26] include the number of years in the US (measured in years), fear of INS[27] (0 = no fear; 1 = avoids social services due to fear of INS or deportation) and English proficiency. English proficiency is a self-report categorical variable such that 0 denotes poor English skills, 1 is fair, 2 is good, and 3 is excellent English language skills. To account for lifestyle and known risk factors for victimization, all multivariate models controlled for employment status (0 = unemployed or not actively seeking work; 1 = employed at the time of interview), ever homeless (0 = never; 1 = has experienced homelessness), lifetime illegal substance use (0 = never; 1 = ever used illegal drugs or abused prescriptions), ever arrested (0 = never; 1 = arrested), assault (0 = never; 1 = has ever assaulted or threatened to assault someone), DSM_IV alcohol dependence or abuse (0 = no; 1 = yes), and has a physical disability or impairment (0 = no; 1 = yes). Finally, context of reception region and feel unsafe in their neighborhood (0 = feel very or somewhat safe; 1 = feel not very or not at all safe) were included to gauge context of reception.

To address skewness in the continuous variables age, years in USA, and household income, the Stata command "gladder" was used to determine which transformation of each variable would generate a normal distribution. The purpose of transforming variables includes reducing heteroskedasticity and normalizing variables. For the age variable, the transformation

[26] Years in the US and fear of INS are only used in models excluding US citizens due to multicollinearity.
[27] The Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) agency was formerly responsible for many immigration related functions. The Homeland Security Act of 2002 established the Department of Homeland Security, which oversees all immigration related functions today.

used was the log. For the income variable, the square root transformation was used. Finally, for the years in USA variable, the square root transformation was used. The transformed variables were used in the regression models. A key drawback to the use of transformed variables is that the interpretation of the regression does not use the original variables, thus the relationship between the transformed variables and the original variables may be difficult to interpret.

Analytic Plan

For chapters IV and V, a series of logistic regression models were used to examine the impacts of the variables of interest on violent victimization in the US. Regression with a dummy dependent variable violates the assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity (Pampel, 2000). It also likely violates the assumption of additivity since the values of the dependent variable do not change, regardless of the levels of other independent variables (Pampel, 2000). Logistic regression is used to model dichotomous outcome variables and a set of predictor variables. Traditionally, logistic regression assumes that the observations are a random sample from a population. When fitting logistic regression models using survey data, the sampling weight is calculated as the inverse of the product of the inclusion probabilities at each stage of sampling, representing the number of units that the given sampled observation represents in the total population. Expanding each observation by its sampling weight produces a dataset for the N units in the total population. Hence, a logistic regression model fitted using sampling weights is essentially a fit to the "census" data (Archer & Lemeshow, 2006). Analyses for each chapter were conducted in three stages using STATA 17.

For chapter IV, univariate analyses were conducted first. The second stage examines the bivariate relationship between the predictors of interest and any violent victimization in the US. Pairwise correlations were analyzed to measure the correlations between all variables in each

model. Chi-square analyses were also conducted on the dependent variable comparing any violent victimization on US soil across all predicted indicators, including the dichotomized and disaggregated forms of residency status, and migrant-specific predictors that would not apply to US-born citizens such as years in the US and fear of the INS or deportation.

Finally, a series of multivariate logistic regression models were run to compare any violent victimization in the US across variations of residency status. Model 1 examined violent victimization using a dichotomized US-born/foreign-born category for residency status. This type of analysis is typical of immigrant victimization literature that seeks to determine if a paradox exists. Model 2 examined any violent victimization in the US across the different foreign-born subgroups to determine if all foreign-born individuals experience an equivalent risk of victimization. By using naturalized citizens as the reference category, this model will determine if the differences in vulnerability across foreign-born subgroups and if scholars should be aggregating all foreign-born individuals when analyzing data. Model 3 examines the outcome variables across US-born citizens and all foreign-born groups to determine if any differences between groups in the first two models hold when all groups are analyzed together.

For chapter V, univariate analyses were conducted first. The second stage examines the bivariate relationship between the predictors of interest and violent victimization experienced only in the US. Chi-square analyses were conducted on the dependent variable comparing violent victimization only on US soil across all predicted indicators, including the dichotomized and disaggregated forms of nationality and migrant-specific predictors that would not apply to US-born citizens such as years in the US and fear of the INS or deportation. Finally, a series of multivariate logistic regression models were run to compare violent victimization only in the US across variations of nationality measures. In addition, subanalyses were run within panethnic

labels and US-born/foreign-born status. The first set of models (4A and 4B) examined violent victimization only in the US using a dichotomized Latino/non-Latino category for ethnicity. This type of analysis is typical of criminological research seeking to understand differences across ethnicity, whereby all non-Latino/non-Hispanic groups across racial categories are aggregated. One model included citizens and one focused on foreign nationals only to determine if patterns were stables across country of birth. The second set of models (5A and 5B) disaggregated the Latino "ethnicity" variable into the eight "nationalities." Similarly, the third set of models (6A and 6B) disaggregate the Asian variable into nationalities. Finally, the fourth set of models include all disaggregated nationalities to determine the relative likelihood of experiencing victimization only in the US across groups. Model 7A includes US-born citizens, while Model 7B uses a subsample of foreign nationals.

Diagnostic Process

Each of the multivariate models described above underwent a building process to document the impact of groups of variables on the primary predictor of interest. Once each model had all theoretically relevant variables included, diagnostic analyses were examined. First, to determine if the full models had all the relevant predictors included, the STATA command "linktest" was used to detect specification error. The linktest command demonstrates that if a model is properly specified, one should not find any additional statistically significant predictors except by chance. To do so, the linktest command uses the linear predicted value (_hat) and the linear predicted value squared (_hatsq) to rebuild the model. The variable _hat should be a statistically significant predictor unless the model is completely misspecified. Alternatively, the variable _hatsq should not be significant if the model is properly specified, thus suggesting it has a low predictive power except by chance. If _hatsq is significant, it suggests that there are

omitted relevant variable(s), or the link function is not correctly specified. It is important to note that omitted variable bias may still be present, even if models are correctly specified. Secondly, to test for multicollinearity, the variance inflation factors were estimated. Once models passed the appropriate diagnostic tests, they were analyzed and interpreted.

The complex design of this dataset limited model diagnostic techniques available. Common model fit information such as the pseudo-variance explained (pseudo R^2) is not provided due to the weights used in the dataset. Similarly, the pseudo R^2 is often omitted from published articles using logistic regression analysis (Pampel, 2000). Likewise, the Akaike information criterion (AIC) and Bayesian information criteria (BIC) are not allowed due to the use of pweights. Another goodness-of-fit test ordinarily used with fitted logistic regression – the Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test – is not available after the svy estimation command.

Missing Data

Listwise deletion is used due to low counts of missing data in the variables of interest.

Interpretation: Odds Ratios

The effect sizes are presented as odds ratios. The use of odds ratios is prevalent in research testing the impact of "immigration status" on victimization (Decker et al., 2007; Mammadov et al., 2020; Wheeler et al., 2010; Zadnik et al., 2016). Odds express the likelihood of an occurrence relative to the likelihood of a nonoccurrence (Pampel, 2000). The effect of each variable on the odds stems from taking the antilog of the of the coefficients (Pampel, 2000). Odds ratios refer to the ratio of odds (or a ratio of probability ratios). Odds below 1 suggest that the event has a lower likelihood of occurrence to nonoccurrence. When comparing groups, the closer the odds ratio is to zero, the lower the likelihood of occurrence to nonoccurrence relative to the likelihood of occurrence to nonoccurrence of another group. Though cumbersome, this

interpretation is hereafter expressed as the "relative likelihood." An odds ratio of 1 means the relative likelihood across groups are identical. The use of odds ratios rather than probabilities provides for meaningful interpretation of the likelihood of events, but eliminates the upper boundary (Pampel, 2000). Thus, odds ratios over 1 suggest that the event has a higher likelihood of occurrence relative to the likelihood of nonoccurrence. These differences are presented as percentages.

Chapter IV: Results – Residency Status

A primary focal point of victimization research among foreign nationals has been the impact that "status" has on victimization experiences. However, analyses testing statuses that align with the parameters of immigration law and using nationally representative samples have been rare. Additionally, tests of the immigrant paradox often only compare foreign nationals to US-born citizens, with few comparisons between naturalized citizens and other foreign-born statuses. This chapter seeks to address these gaps by testing any violent victimization in the US across three classifications of residency status: a dichotomous US-born/foreign-born variable, a foreign-born only categorical variable, and a categorical variable comparing US-born citizens to all foreign-born statuses. Specifically, this chapter tests the following research questions:

1. Does violent victimization experienced in the US vary across foreign-born groups?
2. Is there evidence of an "immigrant paradox?"
3. Does delineating residency status demonstrate variations of violent victimization risk across foreign-born groups when compared to US-born citizens?

Drawing insights from prior research outlined in previous chapters, I hypothesize that disaggregating residency status will demonstrate differences in the likelihood of experiencing violent victimization in the US across foreign-born groups. Once disaggregated, I hypothesize that some statuses will have statistically lower odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US compared to US-born citizens, thus providing some evidence of an "immigrant paradox." Alternatively, I also hypothesize that some residency statuses will have a significantly higher relative likelihood of experiencing any violent victimization in the US, thus contradicting the "immigrant paradox." Finally, I hypothesize that once disaggregated, there will be differences in the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization in the US when foreign national subgroups are compared to naturalized citizens versus US-born citizens.

Demographic Profile

Table 3 provides a descriptive overview of the complete dataset, accounting for the survey weights. The dataset yields 4,649 cases. Approximately one-quarter of respondents experienced at least one form of violent victimization in the US (26.85%; n=1,005). In terms of residency status, there are 1,596 US-born citizens (39.92%) and 3,053 foreign nationals (60.01%). Among foreign-nationals, 1,035 (31.33%) are naturalized (non-refugee) citizens, 471 (6.35%) are naturalized refugees, 186 (3.63%) are non-naturalized refugees, 857 (35.37%) are permanent residents, 270 (0.14%) are temporary residents and 234 (9.29%) are of unknown status. The nationalities of the sample consisted of 520 Vietnamese (3.42%), 508 Filipino (5.71%), 600 Chinese (7.59%), 467 all other Asian (9.73%), 577 Cuban (3.40%), 495 Puerto Rican (7.39%), 868 Mexican (41.65%), and 614 all other Latino (21.10%). The average weighted age for all participants was 38.92 years. The average weighted household income for all respondents was $50,617.85. There are 2,125 males in the dataset, representing 50.43% of the total sample and 2,523 women (49.57%).

Three measures of acculturation were used. English language proficiency varied considerably within the sample, with poor representing 38.68% (n=1,116) of the total sample, 25.24% (n=935) reporting fair, 22.49% (n=1,195) selecting good, and 13.59% (n=1,388) reporting excellent proficiency. Among foreign nationals, the average number of years in the US was 17.61 years and the majority did not fear INS or deportation (85.69%; n=2,807).

Turning to the risk factors/ lifestyle variables, about three-quarters (77.23%; n=3,637) reported feeling safe in their neighborhoods, while about one-quarter reported feeling not very safe or not at all safe (22.77%; n=956;). About two-thirds (64.02%; n=2,951) of respondents were employed at the time of the interview, while slightly over one-third were either not in the

labor force or unemployed (35.98%; n=1,698). A small fraction experienced homelessness at least once in their lives (4.22%; n=196). Over one-quarter of the sample had ever used illegal substances or abused prescription drugs (26.31%; n=3,423). A fraction had been arrested at least once (13.11%; n=621) or ever assaulted or threatened to assault someone (13.11%; n=609). A small percentage of respondents met the DSM-IV criteria for lifetime alcohol dependence or abuse (6.43%; n=299). Approximately 13% of respondents had a physical disability or impairment (13.14%; n=611). Participants' self-reported mental health rating was largely rated as excellent (31.24%; n=1,452), followed by very good (30.10%; n=1,399), good (27.65%; n=1,285), fair (9.49%; n=441), and poor (1.53%; n=71). The regions in which participants were recruited were predominantly from the West (49.11%; n=2,402), followed by the South (25.57%; n=1,187), Northeast (17.80%; n=805), and the Midwest (8.52%; n=255).

Table 3 Descriptive Statistics of Total Sample

					Unweighted		Design-Based	
Variables	**Valid N**	**Observations**	**Minimum**	**Maximum**	**% / M**	**SD**	**% / M**	**SD**
Any Violent Victimization in the US (1=yes)	4,219	1,005	0	1	23.82%	0.43	26.85%	0.44
Demographics								
Born in the US								
0 = Foreign-born	4,649	3,053	0	1	65.67%	0.47	60.08%	0.49
1 = US Born	4,649	1,596	0	1	34.33%	0.47	39.92%	0.49
Foreign Nationals								
Naturalized citizens	4,649	1,035	0	1	33.90%	0.47	31.33%	0.46
Naturalized refugees	4,649	471	0	1	15.43%	0.36	6.35%	0.24
Non-naturalized refugees	4,649	186	0	1	6.09%	0.24	3.63%	0.19
Permanent Residents	4,649	857	0	1	28.07%	0.45	35.37%	0.48
Temporary Residents	4,649	270	0	1	8.84%	0.28	0.14%	0.35
Unknown Status	4,649	234	0	1	7.66%	0.27	9.29%	0.29
Residency Status								
Naturalized citizens	4,649	1,035	0	1	22.26%	0.42	18.82%	0.39
Naturalized refugees	4,649	471	0	1	10.13%	0.30	3.82%	0.19
Non-naturalized refugees	4,649	186	0	1	4.00%	0.20	2.18%	0.15
Permanent Residents	4,649	857	0	1	18.43%	0.39	21.25%	0.41
Temporary Residents	4,649	270	0	1	5.81%	0.23	8.43%	0.28
Unknown Status	4,649	234	0	1	5.03%	0.22	5.58%	0.23
US-Born Citizens	4,649	1,596	0	1	34.33%	0.47	39.92%	0.49
Nationality								
Vietnamese	4,649	520	0	1	11.19%	0.32	3.42%	0.18
Filipino	4,649	508	0	1	10.93%	0.31	5.71%	0.23
Chinese	4,649	600	0	1	12.91%	0.34	7.59%	0.26
All other Asian	4,649	467	0	1	10.05%	0.30	9.73%	0.3
Cuban	4,649	577	0	1	12.41%	0.33	3.40%	0.18
Puerto Rican	4,649	495	0	1	10.65%	0.31	7.39%	0.26
Mexican	4,649	868	0	1	18.67%	0.39	41.65%	0.49
All Other Latino	4,649	614	0	1	13.21%	0.34	21.10%	0.41
Age	4,649	4,649	18	97	40.88	15.25	38.92	15.28

Household income	4,649	4,649	0	200,000	57,592.94	53942.26	50,617.85	49,216.27
Sex								
0 = Female	4,649	2,524	0	1	54.30%	0.50	49.57%	0.5
1 = Male	4,649	2,125	0	1	45.70%	0.50	50.43%	0.5
Acculturation								
English Proficiency								
Poor	4,634	1,116	0	1	24.08%	0.43	25.70%	0.44
Fair	4,634	935	0	1	20.18%	0.40	19.43%	0.40
Good	4,634	1,195	0	1	25.79%	0.44	23.25%	0.42
Excellent	4,634	1,388	0	1	29.95%	0.46	31.62%	0.47
Years in the US[ǂ]	3,260	3,260	0	80	18.00	12.73	17.64	12.53
Fear of INS or Deportation[‡]								
0 = No	3,008	2,807	0	1	93.32%	0.25	85.69%	0.35
1 = Yes	3,008	201	0	1	6.68%	0.25	14.31%	0.35
Risk Factors/ Lifestyle								
Feel safe in neighborhood								
0 = Very or somewhat true	4,593	3,637	0	1	79.19%	0.41	77.23%	0.42
1 = Not very or not at all true	4,593	956	0	1	20.81%	0.41	22.79%	0.42
Employed								
0 = Not in labor force or unemployed	4,649	1,698	0	1	36.52%	0.48	36.42%	0.48
1 = Employed	4,649	2,951	0	1	63.48%	0.48	63.58%	0.48
Ever Homeless								
0 = No	4,640	4,444	0	1	95.78%	0.20	94.80%	0.22
1 = Yes	4,640	196	0	1	4.22%	0.20	5.20%	0.22
Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs								
0 = No	4,645	3,423	0	1	73.69%	0.44	70.21%	0.46
1 = Yes	4,645	1,222	0	1	26.31%	0.44	29.79%	0.46
Ever Arrested								
0 = No	4,638	4,017	0	1	86.61%	0.34	82.82%	0.38
1 = Yes	4,638	621	0	1	13.39%	0.34	17.18%	0.38
Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone								

0= No	4,646	4,037	0	1	86.89%	0.34	86.22%	0.34
1 = Yes	4,646	609	0	1	13.11%	0.34	13.78%	0.34
Lifetime Alcohol Dependence or Abuse								
0 = No	4,646	4,350	0	1	93.57%	0.25	91.26%	0.28
1 = Yes	4,646	299	0	1	6.43%	0.25	8.74%	0.28
Physical Impairment								
0 = No	4,649	4,038	0	1	86.86%	0.34	87.78%	0.33
1 = Yes	4,649	611	0	1	13.14%	0.34	12.22%	0.33
Mental Health Rating								
Excellent	4,648	1,452	0	1	31.24%	0.46	31.14%	0.46
Very Good	4,648	1,399	0	1	30.10%	0.46	28.95%	0.45
Good	4,648	1,285	0	1	27.65%	0.45	28.89%	0.45
Fair	4,648	441	0	1	9.49%	0.29	10.14%	0.30
Poor	4,648	71	0	1	1.53%	0.12	0.87%	0.09
Region								
Northeast	4,649	805	0	1	17.32%	0.38	17.75%	0.38
Midwest	4,649	255	0	1	5.49%	0.23	8.46%	0.28
South	4,649	1,187	0	1	25.53%	0.44	24.65%	0.43
West	4,649	2,402	0	1	51.67%	0.50	49.14%	0.50

Bivariate Analyses

Bivariate relationships between the predictors and any violent victimization in the US were examined. Table 4 presents the weighted percentages and means of the sample. The percentage of victims who were US-born citizens was 63.90% compared to 36.10% of foreign-born individuals. When the foreign-born group is separated into the six statuses, there are differences between the groups. Naturalized citizens represent 13.12% of victims, followed by permanent residents (12.34%), temporary residents (3.14%), naturalized refugees (3.07%), unknown status (2.83%), and non-naturalized refugees (1.60%). The differences between these groups are statistically significant at the $p<0.001$ level. The nationalities with the highest percentage of any violent victimization were Mexican (44.43%), all other Latinos (24.42%), Puerto Rican (14.08%), and all other Asian (5.10%), followed by Chinese (4.87%), Filipino (3.32%), Cubans (11.14%), and Vietnamese (4.68%). The differences between these groups are statistically significant at the $p<0.001$ level. Males were more represented among victims of violence than females (57.89% v 42.11%, respectively). The difference between these groups is statistically significant at the $p<0.01$ level. Victims were slightly younger, on average, than non-victims (37.72 v 39.00, respectively). The difference in household income was not statistically significant across victims and nonvictims.

Turning to the acculturation measures, violent victimization was heavily concentrated among individuals with excellent English proficiency (45.11%), followed by good proficiency (25.05%), fair (18.54%), and poor (11.09%). The differences between these groups are statistically significant at the $p<0.001$ level. Among foreign nationals, the average number of years in the US is 17.64. Foreign nationals who have experienced any violent victimization in the US had an average of 23.99 years in the US compared to the 16.87-year average reported by non

-victims. The difference between these groups was significant at the $p<0.001$ level. Alternatively, the difference in fear of INS or deportation reported by foreign nationals was not statistically significant between victims and non-victims.

Among the risk factors/ lifestyle measures often found to increase victimization, several in this analysis were significant. About one-quarter (24.79%) of victims felt not very safe or not at all safe in their neighborhoods. The differences between these groups are not statistically significant. Nearly two-thirds of victims (62.73%) were employed at the time of the interview, but this variable was not statistically significant. Only 13.68% of victims experienced homelessness, but this was statistically significant at the $p<0.001$ level. Over half (54.99%) of victims had ever used illegal substances or abused prescription drugs. The differences between these groups are statistically significant at the $p<0.001$ level. Roughly 30% of victims were arrested (36.27%) or ever assaulted or threatened to assault someone (29.93%) at least once throughout their lifetimes. Around 21% of victims met the DSM_IV criteria for lifetime alcohol dependence or abuse. Arrest, assault, and alcohol dependence were all significant at the $p<0.001$ level. Nearly one-fifth of victims reported a physical disability or condition that limits activity (19.23%). This difference was significant at the $p<0.001$ level. Mental health followed a similar pattern for victims and non-victims. Approximately one-third of victims reported excellent mental health (31.32%), followed by very good (29.67%), good (26.39%), fair (11.04%), and poor (1.54%). Finally, victims and non-victims also followed similar recruitment patterns. Almost half of victims were recruited from the West (48.66%), followed by the South (23.95%), Northeast (17.22%), and the Midwest (10.17%). The differences between groups in the mental health and region variables were not significant. Correlation matrices providing significance tests between all variables for each model are provided in Appendix B (see Tables B.1. – B.3.).

Table 4: Bivariate Analyses of Any Violent Victimization in the US

	Unweighted				Weighted			
Variables (Unweighted)	**Total Sample**	**Non-victims**	**Violent Victimization in US**		**Total Sample**	**Non-victims**	**Any Violent Victimization in US**	
	% or Mean (N or s.d.)	**% or Mean (N or s.d.)**	**% or Mean (N or s.d.)**	**X^2 or f**	**% or Mean (N or s.d.)**	**% or Mean (N or s.d.)**	**% or Mean (N or s.d.)**	**X^2 or f**
Residency Status								
Born in the US	4,219			298.4604***				146.9639***
No (0)	62.17% (2,623)	69.38% (2,230)	39.10% (393)		56.33% (2,623)	63.76% (2,230)	36.1% (393)	
Yes (1)	37.83% (1,596)	30.62% (984)	60.90% (612)		43.67% (1,596)	36.24% (984)	63.90% (612)	
Foreign National Subgroups	2,623			21.8292**				2.3237
Naturalized Citizens	36.10% (947)	36.10% (805)	36.13% (142)		33.23% (947)	32.58% (805)	36.33% (142)	
Naturalized Refugees	14.75% (387)	13.72% (306)	20.61% (81)		6.12% (387)	5.62% (306)	8.51% (81)	
Non-Naturalized Refugees	5.11% (134)	4.75% (106)	7.12% (28)		3.02% (134)	2.73% (106)	4.44% (28)	
Permanent Residents	28.02% (735)	28.92% (645)	22.90% (90)		34.97% (735)	35.13% (645)	34.18% (90)	
Temporary Residents	8.43% (221)	8.83% (197)	6.11% (24)		13.23% (221)	14.17% (197)	8.71% (24)	
Unknown Status	7.59% (199)	7.67% (171)	7.12% (28)		9.42% (199)	9.75% (171)	7.84% (28)	
All Residency Statuses	4,219			313.7835***				27.8420***
US Born Citizens	37.83% (1,596)	30.62% (984)	60.90% (612)		43.67% (1,596)	36.24% (984)	63.90% (612)	
Naturalized Citizens	22.45% (947)	25.05% (805)	14.13% (142)		18.72% (947)	20.78% (805)	13.12% (142)	
Naturalized Refugees	9.17% (387)	9.52% (306)	8.06% (81)		3.45% (387)	3.59% (306)	3.07% (81)	
Non-Naturalized Refugees	3.18% (134)	3.30% (106)	2.79% (28)		1.70% (134)	1.74% (106)	1.60% (28)	
Permanent Residents	17.42% (735)	20.07% (645)	8.96% (90)		19.70% (735)	22.40% (645)	12.34% (90)	
Temporary Residents	5.24% (221)	6.13% (197)	2.39% (24)		7.46% (221)	9.04% (197)	3.14% (24)	
Unknown Status	4.72% (199)	5.32% (171)	2.79% (28)		5.31% (199)	6.22% (171)	2.83% (28)	
Demographics								
Nationality	4,219			244.5537***				15.0655***
Vietnamese	10.31% (435)	12.07% (388)	4.68% (47)		3.19% (435)	3.94% (388)	1.16% (47)	
Filipino	11.02% (465)	12.10% (389)	7.56% (76)		5.73% (465)	6.62% (389)	3.32% (76)	
Chinese	12.92% (545)	14.16% (455)	8.96% (90)		7.48% (545)	8.44% (455)	4.87% (90)	
All other Asian	10.45% (441)	11.64% (374)	6.67% (67)		10.05% (441)	11.87% (374)	5.10% (67)	
Cuban	11.85% (500)	12.07% (388)	11.14% (112)		3.20% (500)	3.41% (388)	2.63% (112)	
Puerto Rican	11.73% (495)	8.28% (266)	22.79% (229)		8.08% (495)	5.88% (266)	14.08% (229)	
Mexican	19.06% (804)	17.83% (573)	22.99% (231)		41.92% (804)	41.00% (573)	44.43% (231)	
All other Latino	12.66% (534)	11.85% (381)	15.22% (153)		20.34% (534)	18.84% (381)	24.42% (153)	
Sex	4,219			25.7120***				24.5000**
Female (0)	55.98% (2,362)	58.15% (1,869)	49.05% (493)		50.57% (2,362)	53.68% (1,869)	42.11% (493)	
Male (1)	44.02% (1,857)	41.85% (1,345)	50.95% (512)		49.43% (1,857)	46.32% (1,345)	57.89% (512)	
Age	40.41 (15.14)	40.91 (15.41)	38.80 (14.10)	3.86***	38.9207 (15.2794)	38.9997 (15.8582)	37.7174 (13.3481)	1.35
Household Income	$57,816.42 (54,014.26)	$58,062.99 (54,236.67)	$57,027.90 (53,315.86)	0.5302	$50,617.85 (49,216.27)	$50,579.14 (50,708.46)	$51,324.70 (44,904.55)	0.10
English Proficiency	4,206			139.2438***				29.5159***
Poor	21.90% (921)	25.06% (803)	11.78% (118)		23.39% (921)	27.92% (803)	11.09% (118)	

Fair	19.45% (818)	20.22% (648)	16.79% (170)		18.67% (818)	18.72% (648)	18.54% (170)	
Good	26.44% (1,112)	26.69% (855)	25.65% (257)		23.82% (1,112)	23.37% (855)	25.05% (855)	
Excellent	32.22% (1,355)	28.03% (898)	45.61% (457)		34.11% (1,355)	29.99% (898)	45.32% (457)	
Years in the US[‡]	18.60 (12.88)	17.15 (12.31)	25.35 (13.37)	-13.30***	17.64 (12.53)	16.87 (12.26)	23.99 (12.51)	69.87***
Fear of INS or Deportation[‡]	2,588			3.2442				0.60
0= No	94.01% (2,433)	94.36% (2,076)	92.01% (357)		86.97% (2,433)	87.33% (2,076)	85.25% (357)	
1= Yes	5.99% (155)	5.64% (124)	7.99% (31)		13.03% (155)	12.67% (124)	14.75% (31)	
Risk/ Lifestyle Factors:								
Feel safe in neighborhood	4,173			9.7668**				3.0865
Very or somewhat true (0)	79.44% (3,315)	80.54% (2,557)	75.95% (758)		77.96% (3,315)	78.98% (2,557)	75.21% (758)	
Not very or not at all true (1)	20.56% (858)	19.46% (618)	24.05% (240)		22.04% (858)	21.02% (618)	24.79% (240)	
Employed	4,219			0.284				0.5156
Not in labor force or Unemployed (0)	36.19% (1,527)	35.75% (1,149)	37.61% (378)		36.25% (1,527)	35.87% (1,149)	37.27% (378)	
Employed (1)	63.81% (2,692)	64.25% (2,065)	62.39% (627)		63.75% (2,692)	64.13% (2,065)	62.73% (627)	
Ever Homeless	4,211			209.5583***				92.0338***
No (0)	95.82% (4,035)	98.32% (3,154)	87.84% (881)		94.94% (4,035)	98.11% (3,154)	86.32% (881)	
Yes (1)	4.18% (176)	1.68% (54)	12.16% (122)		5.06% (176)	1.89% (54)	13.68% (122)	
Ever used illegal substances/ abused prescriptions	4,215			405.0166***				151.8408***
Never (0)	72.86% (3,071)	80.57% (2,587)	48.21% (484)		69.32% (3,071)	78.25% (2,587)	45.01% (484)	
Used one or more drugs (1)	27.14% (1,144)	19.43% (624)	51.79% (520)		30.68% (1,144)	21.75% (624)	54.99% (520)	
Ever Arrested	4,209			353.6245***				82.7740***
Never (0)	87.27% (3,673)	92.67% (2,971)	69.99% (702)		82.45% (3,673)	89.33% (2,971)	63.73% (702)	
Yes (1)	12.73% (536)	7.33% (235)	30.01% (301)		17.55% (536)	10.67% (235)	36.27% (301)	
Ever assaulted or threatened to assault someone	4,216			298.1669***				153.9439***
Never (0)	86.93% (3,665)	91.94% (2,954)	70.89% (711)		85.99% (3,665)	91.83% (2,954)	70.07% (711)	
Yes (1)	13.07% (551)	8.06% (259)	29.11% (292)		14.01% (551)	8.17% (259)	29.93% (292)	
DSM-IV Lifetime Alcohol Dependance or Abuse	4,219			240.0718***				81.6833***
No (0)	93.39% (3,940)	96.70% (3,108)	82.79% (832)		90.82% (3,940)	95.16% (3,108)	78.97% (832)	
Yes (1)	6.61% (279)	3.30% (106)	17.21% (173)		9.18% (279)	4.84% (106)	21.03% (173)	
Physical disability or condition that limits activity	4,219			68.2514***				57.3617***
No (0)	87.20% (3,679)	89.58% (2,879)	79.60% (800)		87.86% (3,679)	90.47% (2,879)	80.77% (800)	
Yes (1)	12.80% (540)	10.42% (335)	20.40% (205)		12.14% (540)	9.53% (335)	19.23% (205)	
Mental Health Self-Rating	4,219			24.2989***				2.1581
Excellent	31.50% (1,329)	32.11% (1,032)	29.55% (297)		31.39% (1,329)	31.41% (1,032)	31.32% (297)	
Very Good	30.86% (1,302)	31.49% (1,012)	28.86% (290)		29.35% (1,302)	29.23% (1,012)	29.67% (290)	
Good	26.93% (1,136)	26.91% (865)	26.97% (271)		28.82% (1,136)	29.71% (865)	26.39% (271)	
Fair	9.29% (392)	8.37% (269)	12.24% (123)		9.65% (392)	9.13% (269)	11.04% (123)	
Poor	1.42% (60)	1.12% (36)	2.39% (24)		8.00% (60)	0.52% (36)	1.59% (24)	
Region of Settlement	4,219			33.5334***				0.9258

Northeast	17.26% (728)	15.96% (513)	21.39% (215)	17.23% (728)	17.23% (513)	17.22% (215)
Midwest	5.43% (229)	4.85% (156)	7.26% (73)	8.22% (229)	7.51% (156)	10.17% (73)
South	25.41% (1,072)	25.14% (808)	26.27% (264)	25.10% (1,072)	25.53% (808)	23.95% (264)
West	51.91% (2,190)	54.04% (1,737)	45.07% (453)	49.45% (2,190)	49.74% (1,737)	48.66% (453)

Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

*Design-based percentages, chi-square and f statistics account for sampling weights.

ǂ Variables used in analysis of foreign nationals analysis.

Multivariate Analyses

Three sets of multivariate logistic regression models were examined to delineate the impact of residency status on any violent victimization in the US. Model 1 uses a dichotomized residency status variable (US-born citizen=1; foreign-born=0) to estimate any violent victimization in the US. Model 2 uses a categorical measure of only foreign-born groups to estimate the odds of experiencing any violent victimization among foreign nationals. Model 3 uses a categorical variable with all US-born citizens and foreign national residency statuses to estimate the odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US. All multivariate models accounted for the sampling design using the weights included in the dataset. All models controlled for demographic characteristics, English proficiency, risk factors/ lifestyle, and region.

Model 1 uses a dichotomized residency status variable (US-born citizen=1; foreign-born=0) to predict any violent victimization in the US. Table 5 presents the odds ratios and associated 95% confidence intervals for Model 1 while also showing the model building process. The maximum effect the dichotomized US-born citizen measure had on any violent victimization was 3.11 ($p<0.001$) in the base model, which only included that variable as a predictor. Subsequently, adding the other demographic variables (sex, age, and household income) only decreased the odds ratio by 0.03. Adding English proficiency – a measure of acculturation – reduced the odds ratio effect of the citizenship variable to 1.79 ($p<0.001$). Inclusion of risk factors/ lifestyle measures suggested to be of theoretical importance by Lifestyle/Routine Activities Theory reduced the citizenship variable to non-significance. The citizenship measure remained insignificant in the final model, which introduced a self-rated mental health measure and the region of recruitment.

Once all available and theoretically relevant variables were included, diagnostic analyses were run. First, the linktest command was used to determine if there was any specification error in the model (see the Analytical Plan section in chapter III). In line with diagnostic requirements, the linear predictive value (_hat) for the model was significant (t=12.21; p=0.000) and the linear predictive value squared (_hatsq) was not (t=-1.87; p=0.086). Thus, the linktest diagnostic suggests that the model is properly specified. Subsequently, variance inflation factors (VIFs) were estimated to test for multicollinearity. The VIFs for Model 1 were all under two, suggesting that multicollinearity is not a cause for concern in this model.[28]

After including all predictive measures, US-born citizens had 21% greater odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US compared to foreign-born individuals, but this difference was not statistically significant (t=1.49; p=0.163). Among the nationality categories, the Mexican group had the largest n and was therefore chosen as the reference category. Three of the four Asian groups were significantly less likely to experience any violent victimization in the US than Mexicans. Specifically, Vietnamese had 52% lower odds (t=-3.16; p=0.008), Filipinos had 57% lower odds (t=-4.81; p=0.000), and all other Asians had 56% lower odds (t=-3.13; p=0.009). The Chinese subgroup also had lower odds, but this difference was not statistically significant. Among Latinos, the risk of experiencing any violent victimization in the US was 62% higher for Puerto Ricans (t=2.93; p=0.013). Cubans had an almost identical odds (OR=0.98), and the odds for violent victimization was 21% higher for all other Latinos, but neither of these differences were statistically significant.

[28] An earlier model found that the yearsinUSA and fearofINS variables were collinear with US-born citizens, since citizens are missing on these variables. Thus, these variables are only included in models analyzing foreign nationals.

Turning to other predictors, sex, age, and household income were not significantly related to experiencing any violent victimization in the US. Compared to individuals with poor language proficiency, increased proficiency increased the likelihood of violent victimization with fair increasing odds by 108% (t=4.27; p=0.001), good increasing odds by 133% (t=4.23; p=0.001), and excellent increasing odds by 146% (t=3.92; p=0.002). Individuals who reported not feeling safe in their neighborhoods had 41% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US (t=2.55; p=0.025). Employment at the time of the interview was not significantly related to the outcome variable. Those who had ever experienced homelessness had 228% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US (t=4.34; p=0.001). Those who had ever used illegal substances had 110% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization (t=8.57; p=0.000). Ever having been arrested increased the odds of violent victimization by 108% (t=3.60; p=0.004) and ever assaulting or threatening to assault someone increases odds of violent victimization by 139% (t=6.35; p=0.000). Meeting the DSM_IV criteria for alcohol dependence or abuse was not significantly related to violent victimization. Having a physical handicap was related to having 95% greater odds of experiencing any violent victimization (t=5.57; p=0.000). With excellent mental health as a reference, the only category of mental health that was significantly related to violent victimization was poor mental health which resulted in 307% greater odds (t=2.95; p=0.012). However, given the small affirmative responses and large confidence interval, such results should be interpreted with caution. None of the region categories were significantly related to experiencing violent victimization.

Table 5: Model 1: Weighted Logistic Regression Model Predicting Any Violent Victimization in the US using Dichotomous US-born/ Foreign-Born Status												
	OR	**95% C.I.**	**OR**	**95% C.I.**	**OR**	**95% C.I.**	**OR**	**95% C.I.**	**OR**	**95% C.I.**	**OR**	**95% C.I.**
Demographics	**N=4,219**		**N=4,219**		**N=4,219**		**N=4,206**		**N=4,158**		**N=4,158**	
Born US Citizen (1=yes)	3.11***	(2.53, 3.84)	2.66***	(2.21, 3.21)	2.63***	(2.17, 3.18)	1.79***	(1.38, 2.33)	1.21	(0.93, 1.58)	1.21	(0.91, 1.60)
Nationality												
Vietnamese	-	-	0.43**	(0.26, 0.71)	0.44**	(0.27, 0.71)	0.39**	(0.24, 0.64)	0.53*	(0.33, 0.85)	0.48**	(0.29, 0.80)
Filipino	-	-	0.52**	(0.34, 0.79)	0.52**	(0.34, 0.79)	0.41**	(0.26, 0.64)	0.43***	(0.28, 0.63)	0.43***	(0.30, 0.63)
Chinese	-	-	0.69	(0.42, 1.13)	0.69	(0.41, 1.13)	0.57*	(0.33, 0.99)	0.81	(0.48, 1.34)	0.80	(0.48, 1.33)
All other Asian	-	-	0.45*	(0.25, 0.79)	0.45*	(0.25, 0.79)	0.34*	(0.19, 0.62)	0.44**	(0.25, 0.78)	0.44**	(0.25, 0.78)
Cuban	-	-	0.98	(0.66, 1.46)	0.97	(0.66, 1.43)	0.90	(0.61, 1.33)	0.99	(0.68, 1.44)	0.98	(0.62, .1.53)
Puerto Rican	-	-	1.38	(0.93, 2.04)	1.41	(0.95, 2.10)	1.48*	(1.01, 2.19)	1.53*	(1.09, 2.13)	1.62*	(1.13, 2.32)
Mexican	-	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
All other Latino	-	-	1.25	(0.88, 1.76)	1.27	(0.92, 1.77)	1.15	(0.81, 1.61)	1.16	(0.83, 1.61)	1.21	(0.85, 1.71)
Sex (1=Male)	-	-	-	-	1.57***	(1.28, 1.94)	1.53**	(1.23, 1.91)	1.12	(0.85, 1.47)	1.11	(0.83, 1.49)
Age (Logged)	-	-	-	-	1.01	(0.67, 1.51)	1.23	(0.79, 1.90)	1.28	(0.85, 1.92)	1.25	(0.82, 1.91)
Household Income (Square Root)	-	-	-	-	1	(1.00, 1.00)	1	(1.00, 1.00)	1	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)
Acculturation												
English Proficiency												
Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
Fair	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.34**	(1.57, 3.50)	2.05**	(1.40, 3.00)	2.08**	(1.43, 3.03)
Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.47**	(1.62, 3.77)	2.28**	(1.48, 3.52)	2.33**	(1.51, 3.61)
Excellent	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.02**	(1.81, 5.05)	2.48**	(1.60, 3.84)	2.46**	(1.50, 4.03)
Risk Factors/ Lifestyle (1=yes)												

Doesn't Feel Safe in Neighborhood	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.39*	(1.04, 1.87)	1.41*	(1.05, 1.90)
Employed	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.85	(0.67, 1.07)	0.86	(0.69, 1.08)
Ever Homeless	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.28**	(1.80, 5.96)	3.28**	(1.81, 5.96)
Ever Used Substance	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.10***	(1.71, 2.56)	2.10***	(1.74, 2.53)
Ever Arrested	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.08**	(1.35, 3.20)	2.08**	(1.33, 3.23)
Ever or Threated to Assault Someone	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.38***	(1.78, 3.19)	2.39***	(1.77, 3.22)
Alcohol Dependence or Abuse (DSM-IV)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.21	(0.76, 1.92)	1.20	(0.77, 1.86)
Physical Handicap	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.00***	(1.57, 2.54)	1.92***	(1.49, 2.48)
Mental Health												
Excellent	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-
Very Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.90	(0.60, 1.35)
Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.83	(0.57, 1.22)
Fair	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.08	(0.58, 2.03)
Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.07*	(1.45, 11.48)
Region												
West	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-
Northeast	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.89	(0.61, 1.31)
Midwest	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.13	(0.78, 1.63)
South	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.97	(0.74, 1.27)
Constant	0.21***	(0.17, 0.25)	0.24***	(0.18, 0.32)	0.17*	(0.04, 0.77)	0.06**	(0.10, 0.31)	0.03***	(0.01, 0.16)	0.04**	(0.01, 0.20)

*Note. *p< 0.05. **p < 0.01. ***p < 0.001*

Disaggregating the Paradox: Foreign-born victimization by status and nationality

Model 2 uses a disaggregated categorical foreign-born residency status variable (Naturalized (nonrefugee) citizens=0; naturalized refugees=1, non-naturalized refugees=2, permanent residents=3, temporary residents=4, unknown statuses=5) to predict any violent victimization in the US. Table 5 presents the odds ratios and associated 95% confidence intervals for Model 2 while also showing the model building process. In the base model, with only residency statuses predicting any violent victimization in the US among the foreign national subgroup, temporary status was the only classification to reach significance. The odds ratio indicates that temporary residents have 45% lower odds of experiencing any violent victimization compared to the relative likelihood of naturalized citizens. When nationalities are included in the model, naturalized refugees, temporary residents, and unknown status become significant. Naturalized refugees' relative likelihood of experiencing any violent victimization in the US compared to naturalized citizens is 149% higher. Temporary residents had 61% lower odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US compared to the naturalized citizen reference group. Unknown status had 47% decreased odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US compared to naturalized citizens. Subsequently, adding the other demographic variables (sex, age, and household income) did not have a large impact on the odds across statuses. Naturalized refugees had 158% greater odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US than naturalized citizens. Temporary residents had 64% decreased odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US than the reference group. The relative likelihood of foreign nationals with unknown statuses experiencing any violent victimization in the US compared to naturalized citizens was 49% lower. Adding acculturation measures – English proficiency, years in the US, and fear of INS or deportation – reduced the odds ratio effect of the naturalized refugee category to 2.19 ($p<0.05$), indicating that the relative likelihood

of naturalized refugees experiencing any violent victimization in the US was 119% higher than for naturalized citizens. Non-naturalized refugees became significant at the $p<0.05$ level. The relative likelihood of non-naturalized refugees experiencing any violent victimization in the US compared to naturalized citizens was 211% higher. Inclusion of the acculturation measures reduced the temporary resident and unknown status categories to non-significance. Inclusion of risk factors/lifestyle measures suggested to be of theoretical importance by Lifestyle/Routine Activities Theory increased the odds ratio for naturalized refugees to 2.43, indicating that the relative likelihood of naturalized refugees experiencing any violent victimization in the US was 143% higher compared to naturalized citizens. Additionally, the inclusion of the risk factors/ lifestyle measures reduced the non-naturalized refugee category to non-significance. The final model, which introduced a self-rated mental health measure and the region of recruitment, did not have a large impact on the odds ratios estimated in the previous model. Specifically, the odds ratio for naturalized refugees increased to 2.47 ($p<0.01$), indicating that the relative likelihood of naturalized refugees experiencing any violent victimization in the US was 147% higher compared to naturalized citizens.

Once all available and theoretically relevant variables were included, diagnostic analyses were run. First, the linktest command was used to determine if there was any specification error in the model. In line with diagnostic requirements, the linear predictive value (_hat) for the model was significant ($t=13.44$; $p=0.000$) and the linear predictive value squared (_hatsq) was not ($t=0.03$; $p=0.974$). Thus, the linktest diagnostic suggests that the model is properly specified. Subsequently, variance inflation factors (VIFs) were estimated to test for multicollinearity. The VIFs for the second model were all under 2.10, suggesting that multicollinearity is not a cause for concern in this model.

The final model in the far right column in Table 6 presents the estimated odds ratios and associated confidence intervals for only foreign-born subgroups in predicting any violent victimization in the US with all theoretically relevant variables included in the model. Using naturalized, nonrefugee citizens as the reference category, naturalized refugees had 147% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US (t=3.64; p=0.004). The effect size of non-naturalized refugees was also large, but did not quite meet the 95% threshold for significance (t=2.14; p=0.056). The effect sizes for permanent residents and temporary residents were also positive, but not significant (p=0.328 and p=0.565, respectively). Finally, unknown status demonstrated no difference in odds and was not statistically significant (p=0.992). Among the nationality categories, once again three of the four Asian groups were statistically significant. Specifically, the odds for experiencing any violent victimization in the US was 57% lower for Vietnamese (t=-2.25; p=0.045) compared to Mexicans, 53% lower for Filipinos (t=-2.51; p=0.029), and 61% lower for all other Asians (t=-2.36; p=0.038). Chinese had 2% increased odds, but this was not significant (t=0.05; p=0.959). Among the Latino groups, Cubans had 23% lower odds, but this difference was not statistically significant (t=0.82; p=0.431). All other Latinos had 14% increased odds, but this was also not statistically significant (t=0.48; p=0.638). Puerto Ricans were excluded because they are coded as US citizens. Sex and household income were again not statistically significant (p=0.643 and p=0.628, respectively), but the log of age showed a 75% decrease in odds (t=-3.67; p=0.004). Compared to foreign nationals with poor English proficiency, only those with fair proficiency had significantly higher odds of experiencing any violent victimization, with the results showing their odds were 95% greater (t=2.96; p=0.013). Every additional year in the US significantly increased odds of victimization by approximately 84% (t=6.21; p=0.000). Fear of INS or deportation was not a significant

predictor of any violent victimization in the US (t=0.70; p=0.496). Foreign nationals who reported not feeling safe in their neighborhood had 67% greater odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US (t=2.88; p=0.015). Employment at the time of the interview was again not significantly related to the outcome variable (t=0.95; p=0.886). Foreign nationals who had ever experienced homelessness had 317% greater odds of experiencing any violent victimization (t=3.62; p=0.004). Ever engaging in illegal substance use increased the odds of violent victimization by 164% (t=4.65; p=0.001). Ever having been arrested increased the odds of violent victimization by 128% (t=3.85; p=0.003) and ever assaulting or threatening to assault someone increased the odds of violent victimization by 228% (t=4.63; p=0.001). Again, DSM_IV criteria for alcohol dependence or abuse was not significant (t=1.48; p=0.166). Having a physical handicap was related to having 160% greater odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US (t=5.16; p=0.000). None of the mental health or region categories were significant.

Table 6 – Model 2: Weighted Logistic Regression Model Predicting Any Violent Victimization in the US using only Foreign Nationals to Examine the Impact of Residency Status												
	OR	**95% C.I.**	**OR**	**95% C.I.**	**OR**	**95% C.I.**	**OR**	**95% C.I.**	**OR**	**95% C.I.**	**OR**	**95% C.I.**
Demographics	**N=2,623**		**N=2,623**		**N=2,623**		**N=2,579**		**N=2,542**		**N=2,542**	
Residency Status												
Naturalized Citizens	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
Naturalized Refugees	1.36	(0.90, 2.04)	2.49**	(1.50, 4.14)	2.58**	(1.57, 4.25)	2.19*	(1.25, 3.86)	2.43**	(1.39, 4.23)	2.47**	(1.43, 4.26)
Non-Naturalized Refugees	1.46	(0.68, 3.14)	1.82	(0.71, 4.63)	1.69	(0.67, 4.23)	3.11*	(1.27, 7.63)	2.51	(0.94, 6.71)	2.61	(0.97, 7.02)
Permanent Residents	0.87	(0.57, 1.33)	0.66	(0.42, 1.01)	0.63	(0.39, 1.02)	1.32	(0.74, 2.35)	1.33	(0.66, 2.71)	1.37	(0.69, 2.72)
Temporary Residents	0.55*	(0.31, 0.98)	0.39**	(0.20, 0.75)	0.36**	(0.20, 0.75)	1.1	(0.42, 2.91)	1.32	(0.41, 4.25)	1.37	(0.43, 4.37)
Unknown Status	0.72	(0.43, 1.22)	0.53*	(0.30, 0.96)	0.51*	(0.27, 0.98)	1.18	(0.58, 2.42)	0.94	(0.45, 1.97)	1	(0.47, 2.15)
Nationality												
Vietnamese	-	-	0.16***	(0.08, 0.34)	0.16***	(0.08, 0.33)	0.37*	(0.17, 0.82)	0.47	(0.21, 1.05)	0.43*	(0.19, 0.98)
Filipino	-	-	0.35**	(0.19, 0.63)	0.35**	(0.20, 0.63)	0.54	(0.27, 1.08)	0.48*	(0.25, 0.92)	0.47*	(0.24, 0.91)
Chinese	-	-	0.41**	(0.23, 0.73)	0.41**	(0.23, 0.73)	0.72	(0.37, 1.41)	1.09	(0.54, 2.17)	1.02	(0.51, 2.04)
All other Asian	-	-	0.26**	(0.12, 0.56)	0.25**	(0.12, 0.52)	0.36*	(0.15, 0.88)	0.39*	(0.16, 0.98)	0.39*	(0.16, 0.94)
Cuban	-	-	0.42*	(0.23, 0.79)	0.46*	(0.26, 0.82)	0.69	(0.39, 1.25)	0.73	(0.41, 1.29)	0.77	(0.38, 1.55)
Puerto Rican	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mexican	-	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
All other Latino	-	-	0.99	(0.63, 1.58)	1.02	(0.66, 1.58)	1.23	(0.75, 2.02)	1.18	(0.75, 1.87)	1.14	(0.63, 2.06)
Sex (1=Male)	-	-	-	-	1.54**	(1.14, 2.07)	1.35	(0.99, 1.84)	0.96	(0.68, 1.38)	0.93	(0.66, 1.31)
Age (Logged)	-	-	-	-	0.7	(0.39, 1.24)	0.21**	(0.08, 0.53)	0.27**	(0.12, 0.62)	0.25**	(0.11, 0.57)
Household Income (Square Root)	-	-	-	-	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)
Acculturation												
English Proficiency												
Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-

Fair	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.19**	(1.37, 3.51)	1.93*	(1.17, 3.17)	1.95*	(1.19, 3.20)
Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.74	(0.90, 3.36)	1.71	(0.78, 3.76)	1.69	(0.77, 3.74)
Excellent	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.82	(0.90, 3.70)	1.66	(0.82, 3.38)	1.61	(0.79, 3.29)
Years In USA[ǂ] (Square Root)	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.99***	(1.56, 2.54)	1.81***	(1.45, 2.26)	1.84***	(1.48, 2.28)
Fear INS or Deportation[ǂ]	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.76	(0.99, 3.11)	1.29	(0.66, 2.49)	1.26	(0.61, 2.62)
Risk Factors/ Lifestyle (1=yes)												
Doesn't Feel Safe in Neighborhood	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.68*	(1.15, 2.49)	1.67*	(1.13, 2.48)
Employed	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.01	(0.75, 1.36)	1.02	(0.74, 1.40)
Ever Homeless	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.29**	(1.74, 10.33)	4.17**	(1.75, 9.95)
Ever Used Substance	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.65**	(1.66, 4.22)	2.64**	(1.67, 4.17)
Ever Arrested	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.30**	(1.47, 3.60)	2.28**	(1.42, 3.64)
Ever or Threated to Assault Someone	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.17**	(1.84, 5.46)	3.23**	(1.85, 5.63)
Alcohol Dependence or Abuse (DSM-IV)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.58	(0.78, 3.23)	1.64	(0.79, 3.43)
Physical Handicap	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.78***	(1.88, 4.13)	2.60***	(1.73, 3.91)
Mental Health												
Excellent	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-
Very Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.82	(0.45, 1.48)
Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.71	(0.43, 1.17)
Fair	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.99	(0.54, 1.82)
Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.36	(0.75, 15.04)
Region							-	-				
West	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-
Northeast	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.99	(0.58, 1.70)
Midwest	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.71	(0.26, 1.91)

South	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.82	(0.49, 1.37)
Constant	0.23***	(0.17, 0.31)	0.39**	(0.24, 0.62)	0.96	(0.08, 11.42)	1.54	(0.07, 35.48)	0.54	(0.20, 11.69)	0.85	(0.04, 19.86)

*Note: *p< 0.05. **p < 0.01. ***p < 0.001*

ǂ Variables included only in analyses of foreign nationals.

Finally, Model 3 uses a disaggregated categorical residency status variable: Naturalized (nonrefugee) citizens=0; naturalized refugees=1, non-naturalized refugees=2, permanent residents=3, temporary residents=4, unknown statuses=5, US-born citizens=9) to predict any violent victimization in the US. Table 7 displays the estimated odds ratios and associated 95% confidence intervals for all residency statuses while showing the model building process.

In the base model with only the residency statuses predicting any violent victimization in the US and US-born citizens as the reference category, five of the six foreign national categories reached significance. Specifically, the relative likelihood of experiencing any violent victimization in the US was 64% lower for naturalized citizens compared to that of US-born citizens. This difference was significant at the $p<0.001$ level. The relative likelihood of naturalized refugees experiencing any violent victimization in the US was 51% lower compared to US-born citizens. The difference between the non-naturalized refugees and the US-born reference group was not statistically significant. Permanent residents had 69% lower odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US compared to the relative likelihood of US-born citizens. Likewise, the odds ratio for temporary residents indicates they have 80% lower odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US compared to the relative likelihood of US-born citizens. This difference was significant at the $p<0.001$ level. Finally, the relative likelihood of foreign nationals with unknown statuses experiencing any violent victimization in the US was 74% lower compared to US-born citizens.

When nationalities are included in the model, naturalized citizens, permanent residents, temporary residents, and unknown status retain their significance, but naturalized refugees are reduced to nonsignificance. Naturalized citizens' relative likelihood of experiencing any violent victimization in the US compared to US-born citizens is 51% lower. Permanent residents had

66% lower odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US compared to US-born citizens. Temporary residents had 79% lower odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US compared to the US-born citizen reference group. Finally, unknown status had 72% decreased odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US compared to US-born citizens. Subsequently, adding the other demographic variables (sex, age, and household income) did not have a large impact on the odds across status categories. Naturalized citizens had 50% lower odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US than US-born citizens. Permanent residents had 65% lower odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US than US-born citizens. Temporary residents had 79% decreased odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US than the reference group. Finally, the relative likelihood of foreign nationals with unknown statuses experiencing any violent victimization in the US compared to US-born citizens was 71% lower.

Adding acculturation measures – English proficiency, years in the US, and fear of INS or deportation – had moderate impacts on the naturalized citizen, permanent resident, temporary resident, and unknown status categories. The odds ratio effect of the naturalized citizen category to 0.58 ($p<0.01$), indicating that the relative likelihood of naturalized citizens experiencing any violent victimization in the US was 42% lower than for US-born citizens. The relative likelihood of permanent residents experiencing any violent victimization in the US compared to US-born citizens was 48% lower. Inclusion of the acculturation measures reduced the odds ratios for temporary residents to 0.36 ($p<0.01$), suggesting that their relative likelihood of experiencing any violent victimization in the US was 64% lower than US-born citizens. Likewise, the relative likelihood of foreign nationals with unknown statuses to experience any violent victimization in the US was 55% lower than the US-born reference group.

Inclusion of risk factors/lifestyle measures suggested to be of theoretical importance by Lifestyle/ Routine Activities Theory reduced the naturalized citizen, permanent resident, temporary resident, and unknown status categories to non-significance. Additionally, naturalized refugees became significant. The odds ratio for naturalized refugees was 1.88, indicating that the relative likelihood of naturalized refugees experiencing any violent victimization in the US was 88% higher compared to naturalized citizens. The final model, which introduced a self-rated mental health measure and the region of recruitment, did not have a large impact on the odds ratios estimated in the previous model. Specifically, the odds ratio for naturalized refugees decreased to 1.85 ($p<0.05$), indicating that the relative likelihood of naturalized refugees experiencing any violent victimization in the US was 85% higher compared to US-born citizens.

Once all available and theoretically relevant variables were included, diagnostic analyses were run. First, the linktest command was used to determine if there was any specification error in the model. In line with diagnostic requirements, the linear predictive value (_hat) for the model was significant ($t=12.27$; $p=0.000$) and the linear predictive value squared (_hatsq) was not ($t=-1.88$; $p=0.084$). Thus, the linktest diagnostic suggests that the model is properly specified. Subsequently, variance inflation factors (VIFs) were estimated to test for multicollinearity. The VIFs for the third model were all under 2.0, suggesting that multicollinearity is not a cause for concern in this model.

The final model containing all available and theoretically relevant variables is shown in the far right column in Table 7. Using US-born citizens as the reference group, the directionality of coefficients among foreign nationals provides important insight into their odds of victimization. The odds ratio for naturalized citizens was lower than US-born citizens, but was not statistically significant. Naturalized refugees had 85% greater odds of experiencing any

violent victimization in the US compared to US-born citizens (t=2.42; p=0.032). Refugees who were not naturalized also had an effect size that indicated higher odds of any violent victimization, but this was not statistically significant. Permanent residents demonstrated lower odds, but this difference was not statistically significant. Likewise, temporary residents and unknown status indicated lower odds of experiencing any violent victimization than US-born citizens, but these differences did not meet the threshold for significance (p=0.091 and p=0.076, respectively). Among the nationality categories, three of the four Asian categories demonstrated significantly lower odds for victimization when Mexicans were the reference category. Specifically, the odds for experiencing any violent victimization in the US was 72% lower for Vietnamese (t=-4.32; p=0.001), 57% lower for Filipinos (t=-4.98; p=0.000), and 58% lower for all other Asians (t=-3.33; p=0.006). The odds ratio for Chinese were also lower, but this difference was not statistically significant (t=-1.38; p=0.192). Once again, the odds ratio for Cubans indicated lower odds and increased odds for all other Latinos, but these differences were not statistically significant. On the other hand, Puerto Ricans had 53% higher odds of violent victimization (t=2.52; p=0.027). Again, sex, the log of age, and household income were not significantly related to experiencing any violent victimization in the US. Compared to individuals with poor English proficiency, increased proficiency increased odds of violent victimization with fair increasing odds by 95% (t=3.85; p=0.002), good increasing odds by 113% (t=3.82; p=0.002), and excellent increasing odds by 124% (t=3.33; p=0.006).

Turning to the risk factors, individuals who reported not feeling safe in their neighborhood had 42% greater odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US (t=2.55; p=0.025). Employment at the time of the interview was not significantly related to the outcome variable (t=-1.40, p=0.186). Those who had ever experienced homelessness had 235% greater

odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US (t=4.44; p=0.001). Those who had ever used illegal substances had 108% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization (t=8.43; p=0.000). Ever having been arrested increased the odds of experiencing violent victimization by 106% (t=3.58; p=0.004), and ever assaulting or threatening to assault someone increases the odds of any violent victimization by 138% (t=6.45; p=0.000). Meeting the DSM_IV criteria for alcohol dependence or abuse was again not significant (t=0.87; p=0.404). Having a physical handicap was related to having 91% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization (t=5.65; p=0.000). With excellent mental health as the reference, the only category of mental health that was significantly related to violent victimization was poor mental health, with 281% greater odds (t=2.81; p=0.016). However, given the low number of affirmative responses and the large confidence interval, such results should be interpreted with caution. None of the region categories were significantly related to experiencing any violent victimization in the US.

Table 7 - Model 3: Multivariate Logistic Regression Model Predicting Any Violent Victimization in the US – All Residency Statuses – Weighted

Demographics	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**
Residency Status	**N=4,219**		**N=4,219**		**N=4,219**		**N=4,206**		**N=4,158**		**N=4,158**	
US Born Citizens	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference		Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
Naturalized Citizens	0.36***	(0.27, 0.48)	0.48***	(0.36, 0.65)	0.50***	(0.36, 0.69)	0.58**	(0.42, 0.81)	0.85	(0.62, 1.17)	0.85	(0.61, 1.17)
Naturalized Refugees	0.49**	(0.32, 0.74)	1.06	(0.63, 1.77)	1.11	(0.66, 1.88)	1.33	(0.77, 2.28)	1.88*	(1.09, 3.24)	1.85*	(1.06, 3.23)
Non-Naturalized Refugees	0.52	(0.22, 1.22)	0.81	(0.31, 2.10)	0.79	(0.31, 2.01)	1.2	(0.46, 3.14)	1.51	(0.63, 3.62)	1.39	(0.56, 3.44)
Permanent Residents	0.31***	(0.22, 0.44)	0.34***	(0.25, 0.47)	0.35***	(0.26, 0.48)	0.52**	(0.34, 0.81)	0.78	(0.50, 1.23)	0.79	(0.50, 1.26)
Temporary Residents	0.20***	(0.12, 0.32)	0.21***	(0.13, 0.36)	0.21***	(0.12, 0.36)	0.36**	(0.18, 0.70)	0.55	(0.28, 1.09)	0.56	(0.28, 1.11)
Unknown Status	0.26***	(0.15, 0.43)	0.28***	(0.17, 0.48)	0.29**	(0.16, 0.51)	0.45*	(0.25, 0.83)	0.62	(0.37, 1.04)	0.63	(0.37, 1.06)
Nationality												
Vietnamese			0.22***	(0.11, 0.42)	0.22***	(0.12, 0.42)	0.22***	(0.12, 0.42)	0.31**	(0.17, 0.55)	0.28**	(0.15, 0.53)
Filipino			0.46**	(0.30, 0.72)	0.47**	(0.30, 0.73)	0.40**	(0.26, 0.63)	0.42***	(0.29, 0.62)	0.43***	(0.30, 0.62)
Chinese			0.57*	(0.33, 0.96)	0.57*	(0.33, 0.97)	0.52*	(0.30, 0.90)	0.73	(0.44, 1.21)	0.72	(0.44, 1.20)
All other Asian			0.39**	(0.22, 0.71)	0.39**	(0.21, 0.70)	0.32**	(0.18, 0.59)	0.42**	(0.24, 0.74)	0.42**	(0.24, 0.74)
Cuban			0.60*	(0.36, 1.00)	0.61*	(0.37, 0.99)	0.61*	(0.39, 0.97)	0.69	(0.45, 1.06)	0.69	(0.42, 1.14)
Puerto Rican			1.31	(0.87, 1.96)	1.36	(0.91, 2.03)	1.44	(0.97, 2.14)	1.48*	(1.04, 2.09)	1.53*	(1.06, 2.22)
Mexican			Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
All other Latino			1.14	(0.78, 1.67)	1.16	(0.81, 1.68)	1.09	(0.75, 1.57)	1.1	(0.78, 1.56)	1.14	(0.80, 1.63)
Sex (1=Male)					1.58***	(1.29, 1.94)	1.53**	(1.23, 1.91)	1.13	(0.86, 1.47)	1.12	(0.84, 1.49)
Age (Logged)					0.92	(0.59, 1.41)	1.14	(0.70, 1.87)	1.19	(0.75, 1.89)	1.17	(0.72, 1.89)
Household Income					1	(1.00, 1.00)	1	(1.00, 1.00)	1	(1.00, 1.00)	1	(1.00, 1.00)
Acculturation												
English Proficiency												

Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
Fair	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.20**	(1.48, 3.26)	1.92**	(1.30, 2.83)	1.95**	(1.34, 2.85)
Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.24**	(1.46, 3.43)	2.07**	(1.33, 3.21)	2.13**	(1.38, 3.28)
Excellent	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.72**	(1.58, 4.70)	2.24**	(1.37, 3.64)	2.24**	(1.32, 3.81)
Risk Factors/ Lifestyle (1=yes)												
Doesn't Feel Safe in Neighborhood	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.40*	(1.04, 1.89)	1.42*	(1.05, 1.91)
Employed	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.85	(0.68, 1.07)	0.86	(0.69, 1.08)
Ever Homeless	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.34**	(1.84. 6.06)	3.35**	(1.85, 6.06)
Ever Used Substance	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.08***	(1.69, 2.55)	2.08***	(1.72, 2.52)
Ever Arrested	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.07**	(1.34, 3.18)	2.06**	(1.33, 3.21)
Ever or Threated to Assault Someone	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.38***	(1.79, 3.16)	2.38***	(1.78, 3.20)
DSM_IV Alcohol Dependency or Abuse	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.2	(0.76, 1.90)	1.2	(0.77, 1.86)
Physical Handicap	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.98***	(1.56, 2.51)	1.91***	(1.49, 2.45)
Mental Health												
Excellent	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-
Very Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.90	(0.60, 1.35)
Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.83	(0.57, 1.23)
Fair	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.08	(0.58, 2.01)
Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.81*	(1.35, 10.73)
Region												
West (Reference)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-
Northeast	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.93	(0.63, 1.36)
Midwest	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.11	(0.77, 1.60)
South	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.98	(0.73, 1.30)

Constant	0.65***	(0.54, 0.78)	0.67*	(0.48, 0.94)	0.67	(0.13, 3.53)	0.15	(0.02, 1.25)	0.06**	(0.01, 0.40)	0.06*	(0.01, 0.50)

*Note: *p< 0.05. **p < 0.01. ***p < 0.001*

Chapter Summary

Having presented all three models, it is important to briefly consider the findings in relation to the research questions and hypotheses stated earlier. This will be expanded upon in the discussion and conclusions in Chapter VI. The first research question of this study asked, "Does violent victimization experienced in the US vary across foreign-born groups?" The short answer is yes. The ways in which it differs will be elaborated upon under research questions two and three. The second research question asked, "Is there evidence of an 'immigrant paradox?'" Recall that the immigrant paradox literature suggests that foreign-born individuals have better outcomes than their domestically born counterparts. In Model 1 (see Table 5), the effect size of a dichotomized US-born/foreign-born variable (where US-born=1) was positive, but was not a significant predictor of violent victimization in the US after controlling for nationality, demographic variables, and numerous risk factors. Thus, this model did not support the notion of an immigrant paradox.

In order to further delineate the immigrant paradox across foreign national subgroups, Model 2 excluded US-born citizens and used US naturalized citizens as the reference group (see Table 6). Doing so seeks to determine variations across foreign-born subgroups. When violent victimization in the US is compared only within foreign-born groups, naturalized refugees have 172% greater odds of violent victimization than their non-refugee naturalized counterparts. Non-naturalized refugees also show a large positive effect size, but this difference is not statistically significant. Likewise, permanent residents and temporary residents show slightly higher risk for violent victimization in the US, but these are not statistically significant. Unknown status shows a slightly decreased risk of violent victimization, but this is also not statistically significant. The "immigrant paradox," when expanded beyond US-born citizens as the reference group,

demonstrates that not all foreign-nationals have equivalent odds of victimization. When naturalized citizens, who have the same legal rights as US-born citizens and, theoretically, similar experiences as other foreign nationals, there is greater variability across the statuses. Thus, these findings demonstrate that scholars should not use dichotomized measures of "immigration" status, as such variables mask important differences in odds of violent victimization between groups.

Finally, Model 3 (see Table 7) addressed research questions two and three. The third research question asked, "Does delineating residency status demonstrate variations of violent victimization risk across foreign-born groups when compared to US citizens?" When US-born citizens are compared with all foreign-national subgroups, the directions and magnitudes of some effects change from the previous model. Naturalized citizens, permanent residents, temporary residents, and unknown status show lower odds of violent victimization in the US, but these results are not statistically significant. Naturalized refugees retain their significance from the previous model and demonstrate 87% higher odds of violent victimization than US-born citizens. Non-naturalized refugees also show greater odds of violent victimization than US-born citizens, but this difference was not statistically significant. These findings contradict the immigrant paradox, suggesting naturalized refugees have the highest risk of violent victimization in the US when compared to all foreign-born groups as well as US-born citizens. The change in directions and effect size across all other foreign-born residency statuses when compared to only foreign-born subgroups and when including US-born citizens suggests that there are structural mechanisms influencing the odds of violent victimization within each status.

Lack of significance can be attributed to three potential rationales. First, despite the effect sizes, there are no statistically significant differences in the odds of violent victimization across the different groups, either between the US citizens and the non-significant groups or when comparing the foreign national groups to each other. This null finding suggests that there is no statistically significant difference in violent victimization risk between various foreign national groups and US-born citizens, which thus contradicts the immigrant paradox. Second, the small sample sizes in some categories made it difficult to determine effects. This may be more likely among the statuses with smaller Ns, but does not explain findings for statuses such as permanent resident or naturalized citizens. Third, the heterogeneity within each status continues to mask differences across groups. As noted, each classification, particularly temporary residents and permanent residents, encompass dozens of potential visa categories.

Risk factors, assimilation, and additional variables

Although not directly linked to a research question, there are additional results worth highlighting. The nationality variables demonstrated much greater predictive power in determining violent victimization risk than the proxy statuses. The mechanisms underlying the relationship between the likelihood of experiencing violent victimization and nationality will be discussed in more detail in the following chapter. With regard to the assimilation variables included in the models, the likelihood of victimization increases with English proficiency in Models 1 and 3. This may support assimilation theories that suggest assimilation into the US increases violent victimization risk, but this finding could also be explained by the US citizens in the model. To disentangle these effects, we turn to the foreign-born only analyses, which demonstrate the opposite effect. Violent victimization risk decreases with improved English proficiency, although good and excellent proficiency are not statistically significant. This

supports previous literature suggesting that vulnerability to victimization among foreign nationals with poor or limited English proficiency. Two variables, due to multicollinearity with US citizens, were only analyzed in the foreign-born model: years in the US and fear of INS or deportation. Consistent with assimilation studies, years in the US was significantly associated with increased odds of violent victimization, suggesting that the length of time in the US increases the opportunity for violent victimization. However, fear of INS or deportation was not statistically associated with violent victimization in the US among foreign nationals. This is surprising given its potential to proxy for a sense of status insecurity; however, it may be an indication that endogeneity based on the likelihood of stable statuses agreeing to engage in data collection.

Several risk factors were statistically significant in the expected directions across all three models, including not feeling safe in ones neighborhood, lifetime measures of homelessness, illegal substance use, arrested, assaulting or threatening to assault someone, and having a physical handicap. These support propositions of Lifestyle/Routine Activities Theory, but it is important to note that time order cannot be determined for these variables, thus, it is possible that these variables were, in fact, outcomes of victimization rather than risk factors. Being employed at the time of the interview, meeting the DSM_IV criteria for alcohol dependence or abuse, and self-rated mental health were either not significant or inconsistently significant across models. Specifically, poor mental health was significant in models that included US citizens, but not in the foreign-born only analysis. In addition, the low number of affirmative responses and large confidence interval suggests that this finding should be interpreted with caution.

Chapter V: Results – Nationality

A key finding in chapter IV was that naturalized refugees consistently demonstrated significantly higher odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US than US-born or naturalized citizens. Additionally, nationality was consistently a stronger predictor of any violent victimization than the proxy residency statuses. To ensure that these effects were not a function of victimization experienced in the country of origin, the violent victimization measure in this chapter is restricted to violent victimization experiences that only occur on US soil. This chapter focuses on the influence "nationality" has on violent victimization using univariate, bivariate, and four sets of multivariate logistic regression models to test the following research questions:

5. Is nationality a primary predictor of experiencing violent victimization only in the US?
6. Do predictors of vulnerability vary across ethnic groups and location of birth?
7. When disaggregated, do nationalities within each panethnic group demonstrate differential odds of violent victimization in comparison to other intraethnic groups?
8. When disaggregated, do nationalities across panethnic groups demonstrate differential odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US?

The first set of multivariate models (Models 4A and 4B) examined violent victimization only in the US using a dichotomized ethnicity category (Latino/non-Latino). This type of analysis is typical of criminological literature that seeks to determine if differences in victimization exist between "ethnic" groups. Since the OMB categorizes Latino as an "ethnicity," regardless of race and Asians are classified as a race, this analysis uses a heterogeneous Latino measure as the predictor variable and Asians (i.e., non-Latinos) as the reference category. Model 4A includes US-born citizens in the analysis and Model 4B uses a subsample of only foreign nationals. Models 5A and 5B seek to determine if differences in the relative likelihood of experiencing

violent victimization only in the US exist between Latino respondents of different nationalities. Thus, Model 5A includes US-born citizens of Latino descent in the analysis and Model 5B excludes US-born citizens. Models 6A and 6B seek to determine if differences in the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US exist between Asian respondents of different nationalities. Thus, Model 6A includes US-born citizens of Asian descent in the analysis and Model 6B uses a subsample of only foreign-born Asian respondents. The final set of models include all disaggregated nationalities to determine the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US across groups. As with previous sets of models, Model 7A included US-born citizens and Model 7B uses a subsample of foreign nationals.

Demographic Profile

The dataset yields 4,649 cases and the weighted descriptive statistics are presented in Table 8 below. Approximately one-quarter of respondents experienced violent victimization only in the US (25.05%; n=921). There are 2,095 Asians and 2,554 Latinos in the dataset. The nationalities of the sample consisted of Vietnamese (3.42%), Filipino (5.71%), Chinese (7.59%), all other Asian (9.73%), Cuban (3.40%), Puerto Rican (7.39%), Mexican (41.65%), and all other Latino (21.10%). In terms of residency status, there are 1,596 US-born citizens (39.92%) and 3,053 foreign nationals (60.01%). Among foreign-nationals, 1,035 (31.33%) are naturalized (non-refugee) citizens, 471 (6.35%) are naturalized refugees, 186 (3.63%) are non-naturalized refugees, 857 (35.37%) are permanent residents, 270 (0.14%) are temporary residents and 234 (9.29%) are of unknown status. The average weighted age for all participants was 38.92 years. The average weighted household income for all respondents was $50,617.85. There are 2,125 males in the dataset, representing 50.43% of the total sample and 2,523 women (49.57%).

Three measures of acculturation were used. English language proficiency varied considerably within the sample, with poor representing 38.68% (n=1,116) of the total sample, 25.24% (n=935) reporting fair, 22.49% (n=1,195) selecting good, and 13.59% (n=1,388) reporting excellent proficiency. Among foreign nationals, the average number of years in the US was 17.61 years and the majority did not fear INS or deportation (85.69%; n=2,807).

Turning to the risk factors/ lifestyle variables, about three-quarters (77.23%; n=3,637) reported feeling safe in their neighborhoods, while about one-quarter reported feeling not very safe or not at all safe (22.77%; n=956;). About two-thirds (64.02%; n=2,951) of respondents were employed at the time of the interview, while slightly over one-third were either not in the labor force or unemployed (35.98%; n=1,698). A small fraction experienced homelessness at least once in their lives (4.22%; n=196). Over one-quarter of the sample had ever used illegal substances or abused prescription drugs (26.31%; n=3,423). A fraction had been arrested at least once (13.11%; n=621) or ever assaulted or threatened to assault someone (13.11%; n=609). A small percentage of respondents met the DSM-IV criteria for lifetime alcohol dependence or abuse (6.43%; n=299). Approximately 13% of respondents had a physical disability or impairment (13.14%; n=611). Participants' self-reported mental health rating declined with each reduced rating, with excellent as the largest category (31.24%; n=1,452), followed by very good (30.10%; n=1,399), good (27.65%; n=1,285), fair (9.49%; n=441), and poor (1.53%; n=71). The regions in which participants were recruited were predominantly from the West (49.11%; n=2,402), followed by the South (25.57%; n=1,187), Northeast (17.80%; n=805), and the Midwest (8.52%; n=255).

Table 8: Descriptive Statistics of Total Sample

					Unweighted		Design-Based	
Variable	**Valid N**	**Observations**	**Minimum**	**Maximum**	**% / M**	**SD**	**% / M**	**SD**
Dependent Variable								
Violent Victimization in US only								
0 = No	4,135	3,214	0	1	77.73%	0.42	74.95%	0.43
1 = Yes	4,135	921	0	1	22.27%	0.42	25.05%	0.43
Demographics								
Latino Dichotomized								
0 = Non-Latino (Asian)	4,649	2,095	0	1	45.06%	0.5	26.45%	0.44
1 = Latino	4,649	2,554	0	1	54.94%	0.5	73.55%	0.44
Nationality								
Vietnamese	4,649	520	0	1	11.19%	0.32	3.42%	0.18
Filipino	4,649	508	0	1	10.93%	0.31	5.71%	0.23
Chinese	4,649	600	0	1	12.91%	0.34	7.59%	0.26
All other Asian	4,649	467	0	1	10.05%	0.30	9.73%	0.3
Cuban	4,649	577	0	1	12.41%	0.33	3.40%	0.18
Puerto Rican	4,649	495	0	1	10.65%	0.31	7.39%	0.26
Mexican	4,649	868	0	1	18.67%	0.39	41.65%	0.49
All Other Latino	4,649	614	0	1	13.21%	0.34	21.10%	0.41
Residency Status								
Naturalized citizens	4,649	1,035	0	1	22.26%	0.42	18.82%	0.39
Naturalized refugees	4,649	471	0	1	10.13%	0.30	3.82%	0.19
Non-naturalized refugees	4,649	186	0	1	4.00%	0.20	2.18%	0.15
Permanent Residents	4,649	857	0	1	18.43%	0.39	21.25%	0.41
Temporary Residents	4,649	270	0	1	5.81%	0.23	8.43%	0.28
Unknown status	4,649	234	0	1	5.03%	0.22	5.58%	0.23
US-Born Citizens	4,649	1,596	0	1	34.33%	0.47	39.92%	0.49
Age	4,649	4,649	18	97	40.88	15.25	38.92	15.28
Household income	4,649	4,649	0	200,000	57,592.94	53,942.26	50,617.85	49,216.27

Sex								
0 = Female	4,649	2,524	0	1	54.30%	0.50	49.57%	0.5
1 = Male	4,649	2,125	0	1	45.70%	0.50	50.43%	0.5
Acculturation								
English Proficiency								
Poor	4,634	1,116	0	1	24.08%	0.43	25.70%	0.44
Fair	4,634	935	0	1	20.18%	0.40	19.43%	0.4
Good	4,634	1,195	0	1	25.79%	0.44	23.25%	0.42
Excellent	4,634	1,388	0	1	29.05%	0.46	31.62%	0.47
Years in the US[ǂ]	3,260	3,260	0	80	18	12.73	17.64	12.53
Fear of INS or Deportation[ǂ]								
0= No	3,008	2,807	0	1	93.32%	0.25	85.69%	0.35
1= Yes	3,008	201	0	1	6.68%	0.25	14.31%	0.35
Risk Factors/ Lifestyle measures								
Feel safe in neighborhood								
Very or somewhat true	4,593	3,637	0	1	79.19%	0.41	77.23%	0.42
Not very or not at all true	4,593	956	0	1	20.81%	0.41	22.79%	0.42
Employed								
0= Not in labor force or unemployed	4,649	1,698	0	1	36.52%	0.48	36.42%	0.48
1= Employed	4,649	2,951	0	1	63.48%	0.48	63.58%	0.48
Ever Homeless								
0= No	4,640	4,444	0	1	95.78%	0.20	94.80%	0.22
1= Yes	4,640	196	0	1	4.22%	0.20	5.20%	0.22
Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs								
0= No	4,645	3,423	0	1	73.69%	0.44	70.21%	0.46
1= Yes	4,645	1,222	0	1	26.31%	0.44	29.79%	0.46
Ever Arrested								
0= No	4,638	4,017	0	1	86.61%	0.34	82.82%	0.38
1= Yes	4,638	621	0	1	13.39%	0.34	17.18%	0.38

Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone								
0= No	4,646	4,037	0	1	86.89%	0.34	86.22%	0.34
1= Yes	4,646	609	0	1	13.11%	0.34	13.78%	0.34
Lifetime Alcohol Dependence or Abuse								
0= No	4,646	4,350	0	1	93.57%	0.25	91.26%	0.28
1= Yes	4,646	299	0	1	6.43%	0.25	8.74%	0.28
Physical Impairment								
0= No	4,649	4,038	0	1	86.86%	0.34	87.78%	0.33
1= Yes	4,649	611	0	1	13.14%	0.34	12.22%	0.33
Mental Health Rating								
Excellent	4,648	1,452	0	1	31.24%	0.46	31.14%	0.46
Very Good	4,648	1,399	0	1	30.10%	0.46	28.95%	0.45
Good	4,648	1,285	0	1	27.65%	0.45	28.89%	0.45
Fair	4,648	441	0	1	9.49%	0.29	10.14%	0.30
Poor	4,648	71	0	1	1.53%	0.12	0.87%	0.09
Region								
Northeast	4,649	805	0	1	17.32%	0.38	17.75%	0.38
Midwest	4,649	255	0	1	5.49%	0.23	8.46%	0.28
South	4,649	1,187	0	1	25.53%	0.44	24.65%	0.43
West	4,649	2,402	0	1	51.67%	0.50	49.14%	0.50

[ǂ] Foreign-born respondents only

Bivariate Analyses

Violent victimization only in the US

Bivariate relationships between the predictors and violent victimization only experienced in the US were examined. Table 9 presents the unweighted and weighted percentages of the sample who experienced violent victimization across various predictors, but only the design-based (weighted) data are discussed. Among the dichotomized ethnicity variable (Asian=0; Latino=1), the patterns of victimization showed stark contrasts. Asians represented a fraction of victims (14.55%) compared to Latinos, who comprised over four-fifths of victims (85.45%). The nationalities with the highest percentage of violent victimization were Mexican (42.97%), all other Latinos (24.51%), Puerto Rican (15.46%), all other Asian (5.10%), and Chinese (4.91%) followed by Cubans (3.18%), Filipino (3.58%), and Vietnamese (0.96%). The differences between these groups are statistically significant at the $p<0.001$ level. Victims of violent victimization were overwhelmingly US-born citizens (70.17%). Among foreign nationals, naturalized citizens represent 10.79% of victims, followed by permanent residents (10.79%), naturalized refugees (10.41%), non-naturalized refugees (2.76%), temporary residents (2.60%), and unknown status (1.73%). The differences between these groups are statistically significant at the $p<0.001$ level. Males were more represented among victims than females (59.30% v 40.70%, respectively). The differences between these groups are statistically significant at the $p<0.001$ level. Victims were slightly younger, on average, than non-victims (37.49 v 39.00, respectively), but this difference was insignificant. The difference in household income was not statistically significant across victims and nonvictims.

Among the acculturation variables, violent victimization was heavily concentrated among individuals with excellent English proficiency (48.72%), followed by good (26.05%), fair (16.83%), and poor proficiency (8.40%). The differences between these groups are statistically significant at the $p<0.001$ level. Years in the US, a variable specific to foreign nationals, revealed that the average foreign-born victim was in the US 24.89 years at the time of the interview compared to 16.87 years among non-victims. The differences between these groups are statistically significant at the $p<0.001$ level. The difference in fear of INS or deportation reported by foreign nationals was not statistically significant between victims and non-victims.

Among the lifetime risk factors measures often found to increase victimization, several were significant in this analysis. There were no statistically significant differences in not feeling safe in their neighborhoods or employment status between victims and nonvictims. Only 13.67% of victims experienced homelessness, but this was statistically significant at the $p<0.001$ level. Over half (56.02%) of victims had ever used illegal substances or abused prescriptions. About 30% of victims had been arrested (36.10%) or ever assaulted or threatened to assault someone (30.00%) at least once throughout their lifetimes. Over one-fifth (21.86%) of victims met the DSM_IV criteria for lifetime alcohol dependence or abuse. Substance use, arrest, assault, and alcohol dependence were all significant at the $p<0.001$ level. Approximately 20% of victims (18.29%) reported a physical disability or condition that limits activity. This difference was significant at the $p<0.001$ level. Mental health followed a similar pattern for victims and non-victims, however, the differences between these groups were not statistically significant. Finally, victims and non-victims also followed similar recruitment patterns. Almost half of victims were recruited from the West (49.16%), followed by the South (23.33%), Northeast (16.97%), then the Midwest (10.54%), but these differences were not statistically significant.

Table 9: Bivariate Analyses of Violent Victimization only in the US_ Weighted

Variables	Total Sample	Non-victims (n=3,214)	Violent Victimization in US (n=921)		Total Sample	Non-victims (n=3,214)	Violent Victimization in US (n=921)	
Race/ Ethnicity/ Nationality	**% or Mean (N or s.d.)**	**% or Mean (N or s.d.)**	**% or Mean (N or s.d.)**	**X^2 or f***	**% or Mean (N or s.d.)**	**% or Mean (N or s.d.)**	**% or Mean (N or s.d.)**	**X^2 or f***
Latino Dichotomized	4,135			142.1842***	4,135			55.2917***
0 = Non-Latino (Asian)	45.03% (1,862)	49.97% (1,606)	27.80% (256)		26.78% (1,862)	30.87% (1606)	14.55% (256)	
1 = Latino	54.97% (2,273)	50.03% (1,608)	72.20% (665)		73.22% (2,273)	69.13% (1608)	85.45% (665)	
Nationality	4,135			264.8960***	4,135			15.9633***
Vietnamese	10.28% (425)	12.07% (388)	4.02% (37)		3.19% (425)	3.94% (388)	0.96% (37)	
Filipino	11.20% (463)	12.10% (389)	8.03% (74)		5.85% (463)	6.62% (389)	3.58% (74)	
Chinese	13.01% (538)	14.16% (455)	9.01% (83)		7.56% (538)	8.44% (455)	4.91% (83)	
All other Asian	10.54% (436)	11.64% (374)	6.73% (62)		10.17% (436)	11.87% (374)	5.10% (62)	
Cuban	11.70% (484)	12.07% (388)	10.42% (96)		3.18% (484)	2.51% (96)	3.18% (484)	
Puerto Rican	11.97% (495)	8.28% (266)	24.86% (229)		8.28% (495)	5.88% (266)	15.46% (229)	
Mexican	18.74% (775)	17.83% (573)	21.93% (202)		41.50% (775)	41.00% (573)	42.97% (202)	
All other Latino	12.55% (519)	11.85% (381)	14.98% (138)		20.26% (519)	18.84% (381)	24.51% (138)	
All Residency Statuses	4,135			400.4768***	4,135			41.2715***
US-Born Citizens	38.60% (1,596)	30.62% (984)	66.45% (612)		44.74% (1596)	36.24% (984)	70.17% (612)	
Naturalized Citizens	22.32% (923)	25.05% (805)	12.81% (118)		18.27% (923)	20.78% (805)	10.79% (118)	
Naturalized Refugees	9.00% (372)	9.52% (306)	7.17% (66)		3.38% (372)	3.59% (306)	2.76% (66)	
Non-Naturalized Refugees	3.02% (125)	3.30% (106)	2.06% (19)		1.69% (125)	1.74% (106)	1.54% (19)	
Permanent Residents	17.22% (712)	20.07% (645)	7.27% (67)		19.40% (712)	22.40% (645)	10.41% (67)	
Temporary Residents	5.20% (215)	6.13% (197)	1.95% (18)		7.43% (215)	9.04% (197)	2.60% (18)	

Unknown Status	4.64% (192)	5.32% (171)	2.28% (21)		5.09% (192)	6.22% (171)	1.73% (21)	
Demographics								
Sex	4,135			30.6176***	4,135			26.1648**
Female (0)	55.86% (2,310)	58.15% (1,869)	47.88% (441)		50.43% (2310)	53.68% (1869)	40.70% (441)	
Male (1)	44.14% (1,825)	41.85% (1,345)	52.12% (480)		49.57% (1825)	46.32% (1345)	59.30% (480)	
Age	40.36 (15.15)	40.91 (15.41)	38.44 (14.04)	4.3684***	38.92 (15.28)	39.00 (15.83)	37.49 (13.40)	1.74
Household Income	$58,354.18 (54,247.04)	$58,062.99 (54,236.67)	$59,370.31 (53,315.86)	-0.6447	$50,617.85 (49,216.27)	$50,579.14 (50,602.62)	$53,652.83 (45,806.10)	1.86
English Proficiency	4,122			185.4615***	4122			32.6055***
Poor	21.54% (888)	25.06% (803)	9.26% (85)		23.02% (888)	27.92% (803)	8.40% (85)	
Fair	19.17% (790)	20.22% (648)	15.47% (142)		18.25% (790)	18.72% (648)	16.83% (142)	
Good	26.64% (1,098)	26.69% (855)	26.47% (243)		24.04% (1098)	23.37% (855)	26.05% (243)	
Excellent	32.65% (1,346)	28.03% (898)	48.80% (448)		34.69% (1346)	29.99% (898)	48.72% (448)	
Years in USA	18.54 (12.91)	17.15 (12.31)	26.29 (13.51)	-13.7334***	17.64 (12.53)	16.87 (12.20)	24.89 (12.94)	75.74***
Fear INS or Deportation	2,505			0.1751	2505			0.2268
No (0)	94.29% (2,362)	94.36% (2,076)	93.77% (286)		87.51% (2,362)	87.33% (2,076)	88.70% (286)	
Yes (1)	5.71% (143)	5.64% (124)	6.23% (19)		12.49% (143)	12.76% (124)	11.30% (19)	
Risk Factors/ Lifestyle measures								
Feel safe in neighborhood				4.7728*	4,089			0.7255
Very or somewhat true (0)	79.80% (3,263)	80.54% (2,557)	77.24% (706)		78.48% (3263)	78.98% (2557)	76.99% (706)	
Not very or not at all true (1)	20.20% (826)	19.46% (618)	22.76% (208)		21.52% (826)	21.02% (618)	23.01% (208)	
Employed	4,135			0.4228	4,135			0.2323
Not in labor force or Unemployed (0)	36.01% (1,489)	35.75% (1,149)	36.92% (340)		36.11% (1489)	35.87% (1149)	36.82% (340)	
Employed (1)	63.81% (2,692)	64.25% (2,065)	63.08% (581)		63.89% (2646)	64.13% (2065)	63.18% (581)	

Ever Homeless	4,127			198.0750***	n=4,127			88.1100***
No (0)	96.03% (3,963)	98.32% (3,154)	88.03% (809)		95.16% (3963)	98.11% (3154)	86.33% (809)	
Yes (1)	3.97% (164)	1.68% (54)	11.97% (110)		4.84% (164)	1.89% (54)	13.67% (110)	
Ever used illegal substances/ abused prescriptions	4,131			417.9341***	n=4,131			149.9186***
Never (0)	73.01% (3,016)	80.57% (2,587)	46.63% (429)		69.66% (3016)	78.25% (2587)	43.98% (429)	
Used one or more drugs (1)	26.99% (1,115)	19.43% (624)	53.37% (491)		30.34% (1115)	21.75% (624)	56.02% (491)	
Ever Arrested	4,125			347.2686***	n=4,125			79.5373***
Never (0)	87.54% (3,611)	92.67% (2,971)	69.64% (640)		82.95% (3611)	89.33% (2971)	63.90% (640)	
Yes (1)	12.46% (514)	7.33% (235)	30.36% (279)		17.05% (514)	10.67% (235)	36.10% (279)	
Ever assaulted or threatened to assault someone	4,133			287.8723***	n=4,133			136.8818***
Never (0)	87.22% (3,605)	91.94% (2,954)	70.76% (651)		86.36% (3605)	91.83% (2954)	70% (751)	
Yes (1)	12.78% (528)	8.06% (259)	29.24% (269)		13.64% (528)	8.17% (259)	30.00% (269)	
DSM-IV Lifetime Alcohol Dependence or Abuse	4,135			244.0602***	n=4,135			82.2757***
No (0)	93.49% (3,866)	96.70% (3,108)	82.30% (758)		90.90% (3866)	95.16% (3108)	78.14% (758)	
Yes (1)	6.51% (269)	3.30% (106)	17.70% (163)		9.10% (269)	4.84% (106)	21.86% (163)	
Physical disability or condition that limits activity	4,135			53.4141***	n=4,135			36.7966**
No (0)	87.57% (3,621)	89.58% (2,879)	80.56% (742)		88.27% (3,621)	90.47% (2,879)	81.71% (742)	
Yes (1)	12.43% (514)	10.42% (335)	19.44% (179)		11.73% (514)	09.53% (335)	18.29% (179)	
Mental Health Self-Rating	4,135			11.7418*	n=4,135			1.6993
Excellent	31.68% (1,310)	32.11% (1,032)	30.18% (278)		31.52% (1,310)	31.41% (1,032)	31.85% (278)	
Very Good	31.08% (1,285)	31.49% (1,012)	29.64% (273)		29.45% (1,285)	29.23% (1,012)	30.12% (273)	
Good	26.94% (1,114)	26.91% (865)	27.04% (249)		28.85% (1,114)	29.71% (865)	26.27% (249)	
Fair	9.00% (372)	8.37% (269)	11.18% (103)		9.44% (372)	9.13% (269)	10.37% (103)	

Disaggregating the Paradox: Foreign-born victimization by status and nationality

Poor	1.31% (54)	1.12% (36)	1.95% (18)		0.74% (54)	0.52% (36)	1.40% (18)	
Region of Settlement	4,135			33.5065***	n=4135			1.1194
Northeast	17.24% (713)	15.96% (513)	21.72% (200)		17.16% (713)	17.23% (513)	16.97% (200)	
Midwest	5.44% (225)	4.85% (156)	7.49% (69)		8.27% (225)	07.51% (156)	10.54% (69)	
South	25.22% (1,043)	25.14% (808)	25.52% (235)		24.98% (1,043)	25.53% (235)	23.33% (235)	
West	52.09% (2,190)	54.04% (1,737)	45.28% (417)		49.59% (2,154)	49.74% (1,737)	49.16% (417)	

Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

*Design-based percentages, chi-square, and f statistics account for sampling weights.

ǂ Variables used in foreign nationals analysis only.

To provide additional bivariate data, correlation matrices providing significance tests between all variables for each model are provided in Appendix B (see Tables B.4.-B.11.).

Nationality and migration patterns

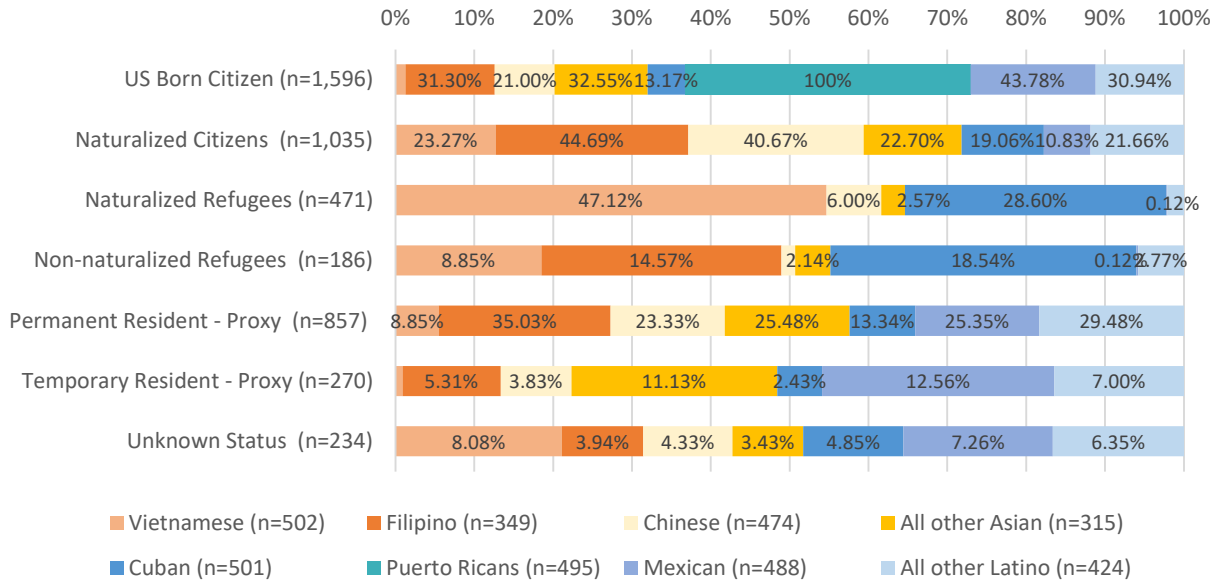
Bivariate analyses between the residency statuses and nationality were run to determine if there were distinct migration patterns. This relationship was of primary interest since immigration law is a form of foreign policy and the nation of origin plays a role in determining statuses. As detailed in chapter II, each status has its own set of structural risk factors and impact on vulnerabilities.

As displayed in Figure 7, foreign-born participants are not equally represented across each residency status. Starting with the Asian nationalities, Vietnamese were heavily concentrated among the naturalized statuses. Specifically, 47% of Vietnamese foreign nationals were classified as naturalized refugees and 23.27% were categorized as naturalized (non-refugee) citizens. Less than 10% of Vietnamese were classified as non-naturalized refugees (8.85%), permanent residents (8.85%), or unknown statuses (8.08%). Finally, less than 1% of Vietnamese foreign nationals were classified as temporary residents (0.38%). Filipinos had a high percentage of naturalized citizens (44.69%). Over a third (35.03%) had permanent resident status and about 15% (14.57%) were classified as non-naturalized refugees. Less than 10% of Filipinos were classified as temporary residents (5.31%) or unknown status (3.94%). None were classified as naturalized refugees. Among Chinese foreign nationals, two-fifths (40.67%) were naturalized (non-refugee) citizens. Approximately a quarter (23.33%) were classified as permanent residents. Less than 10% of Chinese foreign nationals comprised naturalized refugees (6%), unknown status (4.33%), temporary residents (3.83%), or non-naturalized refugees (0.83%). Finally, approximately one-quarter of all other Asians were categorized as permanent residents (25.48%)

or naturalized citizens (22.70%). Over 10% (11.13%) of all other Asians were classified as temporary residents. Less than 5% of all other Asians were classified as unknown status (3.43%), naturalized refugee (2.57%), or non-naturalized refugee (2.14%).

Figure 7 illustrates how interweaved nationality and residency status are. The clustering of certain nationalities on select statuses is indicative of the vulnerabilities (or benefits) experienced across foreign nationals.

Figure 7: Residency Status By Nationality



Among the Latino nationalities, Cubans, Mexicans, and all other Latino are represented among foreign nationals. Over a quarter (28.60%) of Cubans were categorized as naturalized refugees. Approximately one-fifth of Cubans were classified as either naturalized citizens (19.06%) or non-naturalized refugees (18.54%). Permanent residents account for 13.34% of Cuban's residency status. Finally, unknown status and temporary residents each account for less than 5% of Cubans residency status (4.85% and 2.43%, respectively). Permanent residents accounted for approximately one-quarter (25.35%) of Mexicans' residency status, followed by temporary residents (12.56%), naturalized citizens (10.83%), and unknown status (7.26%).

Naturalized or non-naturalized refugees accounted for less than 0.5% of Mexican's residency status, combined (0.12% and 0.12%, respectively). All other Latinos were often classified as permanent residents (29.48%) and naturalized citizens (21.66%). All other statuses each accounted for less than 10% of all other Latinos' residency statuses, including temporary resident (7%), unknown status (6.35%), non-naturalized refugees (2.77%), and naturalized refugees (1.79%).

Multivariate Analyses

In order to delineate the impact of nationality on violent victimization experienced only in the US, four sets of multivariate logistic regression models were examined. As outlined above, Models 4A and 4B use a dichotomized ethnicity variable (Latino=1; Asian=0) to estimate the experience of violent victimization only in the US. Model 4A includes citizens into the analyses and Model 4B uses a foreign national subpopulation. Models 5A and 5B use a categorical measure of Latino nationalities to estimate the odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US among the Latino subgroups. Model 5A includes US-born citizens and Model 5B focuses on foreign-born Latino groups. Models 6A and 6B use a categorical measure of Asian nationalities to estimate the odds of experiencing any violent victimization among the Asian subgroups. Model 6A includes US-born citizens and Model 6B focuses on foreign-born Asian nationals. Model 7A and 7B use a categorical variable with all Latino and Asian nationalities to estimate the odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US. Model 7A includes US-born citizens and Model 7B focuses on foreign nationals. All multivariate models accounted for sampling design using the weights included in the dataset. All models controlled for demographic characteristics, English proficiency, risk factors/ lifestyle, mental health and region.

Dichotomized Nationality Variable-US Citizens Included

Models 4A and 4B use a dichotomized ethnicity variable (Latino=1; Asian=0) to predict the odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US. Table 9 presents the odds ratios and associated 95% confidence intervals for Model 4A while also showing the model building process. The maximum effect the dichotomized Latino measure had on experiencing violent victimization only in the US when US citizens are included was 2.62 ($p<0.001$) in the baseline model with only that predictor included. This suggests that the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US was 162% higher for Latinos than non-Latinos. When the residency statuses are included, the odds ratio decreased to 2.16 ($p<0.001$). Subsequently, adding the other demographic variables (sex, age, and household income) increased the odds ratio to 2.24 ($p<0.001$). Adding English proficiency – a measure of acculturation – increased the odds ratio to 2.53 ($p<0.001$). Inclusion of risk factors/ lifestyle measures suggested to be of theoretical importance by Lifestyle/ Routine Activities Theory reduced the odds ratio effect to 2.07 ($p<0.001$). The odds ratio increased to 2.13 ($p<0.001$) in the final model, which introduced a self-rated mental health measure and the region of recruitment.

Once all available and theoretically relevant variables were included, diagnostic analyses were run. First, the linktest command was used to determine if there was any specification error in the model. In line with diagnostic requirements, the linear predictive value (_hat) for the model was significant ($t=11.07$; $p=0.000$) and the linear predictive value squared (_hatsq) was not ($t=-1.23$; $p=0.241$). Thus, the linktest diagnostic suggests that the model is properly specified. Subsequently, variance inflation factors (VIFs) were estimated to test for multicollinearity. The VIFs for Model 4A were all under 2.0, suggesting that multicollinearity is not a cause for concern in this model.

Table 10 – Model 4A: Logistic Regression Models Violent Victimization only in the US - Dichotomized Panethnic Label - Weighted												
Demographics	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**
Race/ Ancestry	N=4,135		N=4,135		N=4,135		N=4,122		N=4,075		N=4,075	
Latino (1)	2.62***	(1.96, 3.50)	2.16***	(1.63, 2.86)	2.24***	(1.69, 2.97)	2.53***	(1.87, 3.42)	2.07***	(1.59, 2.70)	2.13***	(1.65, 2.74)
Residency Status												
US Born Citizens	-	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
Naturalized Citizens	-	-	0.34***	(0.26, 0.45)	0.35***	(0.26, 0.47)	0.41***	(0.30, 0.55)	0.60**	(0.43, 0.82)	0.59**	(0.43, 0.82)
Naturalized Refugees	-	-	0.56*	(0.36, 0.89)	0.59*	(0.38, 0.92)	0.74	(0.45, 1.20)	1.13	(0.43, 1.84)	1.11	(0.67, 1.81)
Non-Naturalized Refugees	-	-	0.53	(0.21, 1.33)	0.53	(0.22, 1.30)	0.81	(0.31, 2.11)	1.09	(0.45, 2.66)	1.06	(0.43, 2.62)
Permanent Residents	-	-	0.25***	(0.18, 0.35)	0.25***	(0.18, 0.35)	0.39**	(0.25, 0.61)	0.57*	(0.36, 0.91)	0.57*	(0.36, 0.93)
Temporary Residents	-	-	0.15***	(0.08, 0.28)	0.15***	(0.08, 0.28)	0.27**	(0.13, 0.58)	0.41*	(0.20, 0.86)	0.41*	(0.19, 0.87)
Unknown Status	-	-	0.15***	(0.08, 0.26)	0.15***	(0.09, 0.27)	0.25***	(0.13, 0.47)	0.36**	(0.19, 0.86)	0.36**	(0.19, 0.69)
Sex (1=Male)	-	-	-	-	1.66***	(1.34, 2.06)	1.62**	(1.29, 2.04)	1.23	(0.92, 1.65)	1.22	(0.89, 1.67)
Age (Logged)	-	-	-	-	0.91	(0.59, 1.40)	1.15	(0.70, 1.88)	1.20	(0.76, 1.89)	1.18	(0.74, 1.90)
Household Income (Square Root)	-	-	-	-	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)
Acculturation												
English Proficiency												
Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
Fair	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.47**	(1.55, 3.93)	2.10**	(1.27, 3.45)	2.11**	(1.28, 3.46)
Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.64**	(1.58, 4.43)	2.35**	(1.41, 3.93)	2.44**	(1.46, 4.07)
Excellent	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.08**	(1.62, 5.82)	2.48**	(1.40, 4.38)	2.52**	(1.34, 4.72)
Risk Factors/ Lifestyle (1=yes)												
Doesn't Feel Safe in Neighborhood	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.36	(0.97, 1.92)	1.35	(0.95, 1.92)
Employed	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.81	(0.64, 1.03)	0.83	(0.66, 1.04)

Ever Homeless	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.45**	(1.92, 6.21)	3.42**	(1.89, 6.18)
Ever Used Substance	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.91***	(1.52, 2.39)	1.92***	(1.56, 2.38)
Ever Arrested	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.92**	(1.22, 3.01)	1.91*	(1.20, 3.03)
Ever or Threated to Assault Someone	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.19***	(1.58, 3.01)	2.18***	(1.55, 3.06)
Alcohol Dependency or Abuse	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.23	(0.75, 2.01)	1.23	(0.76, 1.98)
Physical Handicap	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.75**	(1.34, 2.28)	1.68**	(1.26, 2.23)
Mental Health												
Excellent	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-
Very Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.88	(0.60, 1.30)
Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.87	(0.58, 1.31)
Fair	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.1	(0.59, 2.03)
Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.39*	(1.26, 9.12)
Region												
West	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-
Northeast	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.12	(0.78, 1.60)
Midwest	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.12	(0.79, 1.61)
South	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.92	(0.69, 1.24)
Constant	0.03**	(0.12, 0.20)	0.33***	(0.26, 0.42)	0.3	(0.06, 1.58)	0.05*	(0.01, 0.47)	0.03**	(0.00, 0.20)	0.03**	(0.00, 0.26)

*Note: *p< 0.05. **p < 0.01. ***p < 0.001*

The full version of Model 4A shown in the far-right column of Table 10 presents the odds ratios and associated 95% confidence intervals for a dichotomized nationality variable (Latinx=1; Non-Latino/Asian=0) in predicting violent victimization experienced only in the US. Latinx individuals – including US citizens - had 113% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US compared to non-Latinx individuals. This difference was statistically significant at the $p<0.001$ level. Among the residency status categories, US-born citizens had the largest n and was therefore chosen as the reference category. Naturalized citizens had 41% lower odds (t=-3.51, p=0.004) of experiencing violent victimization only in the US than US-born citizens. Neither naturalized and non-naturalized refugees had statistically significant differences compared to the US-born citizen reference category. The relative likelihood of permanent residents experiencing violent victimization only in the US was 43% lower (t=-2.53, p=0.027) than US-born citizens. Likewise, relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US was 59% lower (t=-2.60, p=0.023) for temporary residents and 64% lower (t=-3.44, p=0.005) for unknown status compared to US-born citizens.

Turning to other predictors, sex, age (logged), and household income (square root) were not significantly related to experiencing violent victimization only in the US. Compared to individuals with poor English proficiency, increased proficiency increased the relative likelihood of violent victimization only in the US with fair increasing odds by 111% (t=3.28; p=0.007), good increasing odds by 144% (t=3.79; p=0.003), and excellent increasing odds by 152% (t=3.20; p=0.008). Not feeling safe in their neighborhoods and employment at the time of the interview were not significantly related to the outcome variable. Those who had ever experienced homelessness had 242% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US (t=4.53; p=0.001). Those who had ever used illegal substances had 92% greater odds of

experiencing violent victimization (t=6.74; p=0.000). Having ever been arrested increased the odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US by 91% (t=3.05; p=0.01) and ever assaulting or threatening to assault someone increases the risk of violent victimization by 118% (t=5.01; p=0.000). Meeting the DSM_IV criteria for alcohol dependence or abuse was not significantly related to experiencing violent victimization only in the US. Having a physical handicap was related to having 68% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization (t=3.93; p=0.002). With excellent mental health as a reference, the only mental health category related to violent victimization was poor mental health, which resulted in 239% greater odds (t=2.69; p=0.020). However, given the small affirmative responses and large confidence interval (1.26, 9.12), such results should be interpreted with caution. None of the region categories were significantly related to experiencing violent victimization.

Dichotomized Nationality Variable-Foreign Born Only

Model 4B provided a delineated examination of the impact of foreign-born status on violent victimization in the US. Table 11 presents the estimated odds ratios and associated confidence intervals for only foreign-born Latinos in predicting violent victimization only in the US while also showing the model building process. The maximum effect the dichotomized Latino measure had on experiencing violent victimization only in the US when US citizens are excluded was 1.99 ($p<0.01$) in the baseline model with only that predictor included. This suggests that the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US was 99% higher for foreign-born Latinos than non-Latinos. When the residency statuses are included, the odds ratio increased to 2.53 ($p<0.001$). Subsequently, adding the other demographic variables (sex, age, and household income) increased the odds ratio to 2.89 ($p<0.001$). Adding acculturation measures – English proficiency, years in the US, and fear of INS or deportation –

decreased the odds ratio to 1.87 ($p<0.01$). Inclusion of risk factors/lifestyle measures suggested to be of theoretical importance by Lifestyle/Routine Activities Theory further reduced the odds ratio to 1.63 ($p<0.05$). The odds ratio increased to 1.76 ($p<0.01$) in the final model, which introduced a self-rated mental health measure and the region of recruitment.

Once all available and theoretically relevant variables were included, diagnostic analyses were run. First, the linktest command was used to determine if there was any specification error in the model. In line with diagnostic requirements, the linear predictive value (_hat) for the model was significant ($t=11.41$; $p=0.000$) and the linear predictive value squared (_hatsq) was not ($t=1.84$; $p=0.094$). Thus, the linktest diagnostic suggests the model is properly specified. Subsequently, variance inflation factors (VIFs) were estimated to test for multicollinearity. The VIFs for Model 4B were under 2.1, suggesting that multicollinearity is not a cause for concern.

The far-right column of Table 11 presents the full version of Model 4B. Foreign-born Latinos show 76% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization than non-Latinos ($t=3.26$; $p=0.008$). Among the residency status categories, the exclusion of US-born citizens reverses the previously noted effects. Including US-born citizens resulted in all non-refugee categories to be significant and in the negative direction. Excluding US-born citizens resulted in only the refugee categories being significant and in the positive direction. Using naturalized citizens as the reference category, naturalized refugees had 148% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US ($t=3.95$; $p=0.002$). Likewise, non-naturalized refugees had 252% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US ($t=2.76$; $p=0.018$). However, given the large confidence interval (1.29, 9.59), this finding should be interpreted with caution. The effect sizes for permanent residents and temporary residents were also positive but not significant. Finally, unknown status was negative but not statistically significant.

Sex and the square root of household income were again not statistically significant, but the log of age showed an 82% decrease in odds (t=1.09; p=0.001). Compared to individuals with poor English proficiency, none of the other levels of proficiency significantly predict violent victimization in the US. Every additional year in the USA significantly increased odds of victimization by approximately 109% (t=7.19; p=0.000). Fear of INS or deportation was not statistically significant. Turning to the risk/ lifestyle factors, not feeling safe in their neighborhood and employment at the time of the interview were not significantly related to the outcome variable. Foreign nationals who had ever experienced homelessness had 340% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization (t=3.49; p=0.005). However, given the low number of affirmative responses and wide confidence interval (1.73, 11.21), this finding should be interpreted with caution. Ever engaging in illegal substance use increases the odds of violent victimization by 118% (t=3.73; p=0.003). Ever having been arrested increased the odds of violent victimization by 84% (t=2.74; p=0.019) and ever assaulting or threatening to assault someone increases the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization by 142% (t=3.92; p=0.002). Again, DSM_IV criteria for alcohol dependence or abuse was not significant. Having a physical handicap was related to having 78% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US (t=2.60; p=0.025). None of the mental health or region categories were significantly related to the outcome variable.

Table 11 – Model 4B: Logistic Regression Models Violent Victimization only in the US - Dichotomized Panethnic Label _ Foreign-Born Only - Weighted												
Demographics	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**
Race/ Ancestry	n=2,539		n=2,539		n=2,539		n=2,496		n=2,460		n=2,460	
Latino (1)	1.99**	(1.33, 2.99)	2.53***	(1.72, 3.73)	2.89***	(1.98, 4.23)	1.87**	(1.21, 2.89)	1.63*	(1.08, 2.46)	1.76**	(1.20, 2.57)
Residency Status												
US Born Citizens	-	-	-	-								
Naturalized Citizens	-	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
Naturalized Refugees	-	-	1.67*	(1.07, 2.63)	1.86*	(1.20, 2.87)	2.06*	(1.23, 3.44)	2.34**	(1.41, 3.90)	2.48**	(1.50, 4.12)
Non-Naturalized Refugees	-	-	1.53	(0.65, 3.58)	1.48	(0.63, 3.49)	3.52*	(1.30, 9.51)	3.05*	(1.03, 9.03)	3.52*	(1.29, 9.59)
Permanent Residents	-	-	0.7	(0.47, 1.06)	0.67	(0.44, 1.04)	1.64	(0.95, 2.83)	1.62	(0.82, 3.21)	1.63	(0.83, 3.20)
Temporary Residents	-	-	0.42*	(0.21, 0.83)	0.40*	(0.18, 0.85)	1.49	(0.53, 4.23)	1.8	(0.55, 5.86)	1.81	(0.55, 6.04)
Unknown Status	-	-	0.41**	(0.23, 0.74)	0.41*	(0.22, 0.79)	0.98	(0.47, 2.06)	0.86	(0.39, 1.93)	0.93	(0.42, 2.04)
Sex (1=Male)	-	-	-	-	1.81**	(1.27, 2.60)	1.61*	(1.10, 2.35)	1.21	(0.79, 1.84)	1.17	(0.77, 1.77)
Age (Logged)	-	-	-	-	0.58	(0.31, 1.06)	0.15**	(0.06, 0.37)	0.20**	(0.08, 0.48)	0.18**	(0.08, 0.42)
Household Income (Square Root)	-	-	-	-	1.00**	(1.00, 1.00)	1	(1.00, 1.00)	1	(1.00, 1.00)	1	(1.00, 1.00)
Acculturation												
English Proficiency												
Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
Fair	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.44**	(1.32, 4.52)	1.93	(0.98, 3.79)	1.88	(0.95, 3.69)
Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.95	(0.93, 4.09)	1.74	(0.76, 4.01)	1.67	(0.72, 3.87)
Excellent	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.05	(0.94, 4.43)	1.79	(0.81, 3.96)	1.71	(0.77, 3.79)
Years in USA (Square Root)	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.23***	(1.73, 2.87)	2.03***	(1.61, 2.57)	2.09***	(1.67, 2.61)
Fear of INS or Deportation	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.31	(0.72, 2.38)	0.97	(0.50, 1.90)	0.93	(0.44, 1.96)
Risk Factors/ Lifestyle (1=yes)												
Doesn't Feel Safe in Neighborhood	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.59	(0.95, 2.65)	1.56	(0.91, 2.65)
Employed	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.94	(0.68, 1.29)	0.93	(0.66, 1.33)

Ever Homeless	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.57**	(1.77, 11.76)	4.40**	(1.73, 11.21)
Ever Used Substance	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.18**	(1.37, 3.48)	2.18**	(1.38, 3.44)
Ever Arrested	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.87*	(1.17, 2.99)	1.84*	(1.13, 3.00)
Ever or Threated to Assault Someone	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.45**	(1.50, 4.00)	2.42**	(1.47, 3.97)
Alcohol Dependency or Abuse	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.83	(0.91, 3.68)	1.92	(0.94, 3.91)
Physical Handicap	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.93*	(1.14, 3.25)	1.78*	(1.09, 2.89)
Mental Health												
Excellent	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-
Very Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.77	(0.43, 1.38)
Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.76	(0.44, 1.31)
Fair	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.98	(0.54, 1.76)
Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.9	(0.64, 13.23)
Region												
West	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-
Northeast	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.06	(0.62, 1.82)
Midwest	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.5	(0.14, 1.80)
South	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.65	(0.41, 1.05)
Constant	0.10***	(0.07, 0.13)	.10***	(0.07, 0.15)	0.31	(0.03, 3.76)	0.83	(0.03, 20.67)	0.36	(0.01, 9.03)	0.6	(0.02, 15.16)

*Note: *p< 0.05. **p < 0.01. ***p < 0.001*

Latino Subanalysis-US Citizens Included

Tables 12 and 13 presents the odds ratios and associated 95% confidence intervals for all Latinx nationalities in predicting violent victimization experienced only in the US. Models 5A and 5B use a categorical Latino nationality variable (Cuban=0, Puerto Rican=1, Mexican=2, and All other Latino=3) to predict the odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US. Table 12 presents the odds ratios and associated 95% confidence intervals for Model 5A while also showing the model building process. With only the Latino nationalities predicting violent victimization only in the US and Mexicans as the reference category, the only nationality that was a significant predictor were Puerto Ricans (OR= 2.51; $p<0.001$). This suggests that the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US was 151% higher for Puerto Ricans than the Mexican reference group. When the residency statuses are included, the Puerto Rican nationality is reduced to nonsignificance. All three nationalities remain insignificant after adding the other demographic variables (sex, age, and household income). Adding English proficiency – a measure of acculturation – increased the odds ratio for Puerto Ricans to 1.55, which was statistically significant ($p<0.05$). Inclusion of risk factors/ lifestyle measures suggested to be of theoretical importance by Lifestyle/ Routine Activities Theory further increased the odds ratio for Puerto Ricans to 1.60 ($p<0.05$). The odds ratio for Puerto Ricans increased to 1.62 ($p<0.05$) in the final model, which introduced a self-rated mental health measure and the region of recruitment.

Once all available and theoretically relevant variables were included, diagnostic analyses were run. First, the linktest command was used to determine if there was any specification error in the model. In line with diagnostic requirements, the linear predictive value (_hat) for the model was significant (t=11.54; p=0.000) and the linear predictive value squared (_hatsq) was

not (t=-0.83; p=0.427). Thus, the linktest diagnostic suggests that the model is properly specified. Subsequently, variance inflation factors (VIFs) were estimated to test for multicollinearity. The VIFs for the Model 5A were all under 2.0, suggesting that multicollinearity is not a cause for concern in this model.

The Mexican group had the largest n, and therefore was used as the reference category. The final model is shown in the far-right column of Table 12. Although the odds ratio for Cubans was negative, the difference was not statistically significant. Puerto Ricans had 62% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US. This difference was statistically significant at the $p<0.05$ level (t=2.77, p=0.022). Finally, the effect size for all other Latinos was positive, but not statistically significant.

Among the residency status categories, with US-born citizens as the reference category, naturalized citizens had 35% lower odds of experiencing violent victimization than US-born citizens, but did not quite meet the threshold of significance (t=-2.21, p=0.055). On the other hand, naturalized refugees had 102% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization than US-born citizens (t=2.28; p=0.049). Non-naturalized refugees did not have statistically significant differences in the odds of violent victimization compared to US-born citizens. Permanent residents and temporary residents both displayed lower odds (t=-0.95, p=0.366) of experiencing violent victimization than US-born citizens; however, neither were statistically significant. Finally, unknown status had 58% lower odds (t=-2.44, p=0.037) of experiencing violent victimization in the US compared to US-born citizens.

Table 12 – Model 5A: Logistic Regression Models Violent Victimization only in the US - Latino Nationalities - With Citizens _Weighted

Demographics	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**
Race/ Ancestry	n=2,273		n=2,273		n=2,273		n=2,265		n=2,246		n=2,246	
Cuban	0.7	(0.46, 1.08)	0.58	(0.31, 1.08)	0.58	(0.32, 1.02)	0.58	(0.34, 1.00)	0.65	(0.41, 1.03)	0.66	(0.38, 1.14)
Puerto Rican	2.51***	(1.70, 3.71)	1.39	(0.92, 2.10)	1.43	(0.95, 2.18)	1.55*	(1.03, 2.34)	1.60*	(1.13, 2.28)	1.62*	(1.09, 2.39)
Mexican	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
All other Latino	1.24	(0.81, 1.91)	1.2	(0.82, 1.76)	1.23	(0.85, 1.76)	1.14	(0.80, 1.64)	1.18	(0.85, 1.64)	1.21	(0.85, 1.72)
Residency Status												
US Born Citizens	-	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
Naturalized Citizens	-	-	0.36***	(0.25, 0.54)	0.36***	(0.25, 0.54)	0.45**	(0.30, 0.67)	0.66*	(0.44, 0.99)	0.66	(0.43, 1.01)
Naturalized Refugees	-	-	1.17	(0.55, 2.48)	1.2	(0.59, 2.45)	1.47	(0.72, 3.00)	2.01*	(1.01, 3.99)	2.02*	(1.00, 4.07)
Non-Naturalized Refugees	-	-	0.76	(0.21, 2.75)	0.76	(0.22, 2.54)	1.3	(0.36, 4.67)	1.74	(0.56, 5.40)	1.64	(0.51, 5.25)
Permanent Residents	-	-	0.30***	(0.20, 0.44)	0.31***	(0.21, 0.44)	0.53*	(0.32, 0.88)	0.78	(0.45, 1.37)	0.78	(0.43, 1.41)
Temporary Residents	-	-	0.16***	(0.07, 0.34)	0.16**	(0.07, 0.36)	0.34*	(0.14, 0.87)	0.54	(0.22, 1.32)	0.54	(0.21, 1.36)
Unknown Status	-	-	0.14***	(0.07, 0.29)	0.15***	(0.07, 0.32)	0.28**	(0.12, 0.63)	0.41*	(0.18, 0.94)	0.42*	(0.19, 0.94)
Sex (1=Male)	-	-	-	-	1.77***	(1.40, 2.23)	1.71**	(1.32, 2.22)	1.26	(0.87, 1.81)	1.25	(0.85, 1.85)
Age (Logged)	-	-	-	-	1	(0.59, 1.70)	1.3	(0.71, 2.39)	1.33	(0.75, 2.36)	1.31	(0.72, 2.37)
Household Income (Square Root)	-	-	-	-	1	(1.00, 1.00)	1	(1.00, 1.00)	1	(1.00, 1.00)	1	(1.00, 1.00)
Acculturation												
English Proficiency												
Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
Fair	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.67**	(1.50, 4.75)	2.25*	(1.18, 4.29)	2.23*	(1.16, 4.26)
Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.30**	(1.76, 6.19)	2.94**	(1.52, 5.70)	2.96**	(1.51, 5.82)
Excellent	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.53**	(1.67, 7.44)	2.75*	(1.36, 5.57)	2.68*	(1.21, 5.95)
Risk Factors/ Lifestyle (1=yes)												

Doesn't Feel Safe in Neighborhood	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.22	(0.84, 1.78)	1.23	(0.84, 1.80)
Employed	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.75*	(0.57, 0.99)	0.76*	(0.58, 0.99)
Ever Homeless	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.67**	(1.78, 7.56)	3.75**	(1.82, 7.72)
Ever Used Substance	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.92***	(1.51, 2.43)	1.92***	(1.53, 2.41)
Ever Arrested	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.94*	(1.18, 3.20)	1.93*	(1.16, 3.20)
Ever or Threated to Assault Someone	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.09**	(1.37, 3.19)	2.09**	(1.34, 3.24)
Alcohol Dependency or Abuse	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.17	(0.66, 2.06)	1.16	(0.66, 2.04)
Physical Handicap	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.72**	(1.25, 2.38)	1.67**	(1.18, 2.36)
Mental Health												
Excellent	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-
Very Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.92	(0.57, 1.46)
Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.88	(0.53, 1.48)
Fair	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.98	(0.45, 2.16)
Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.5	(0.90, 22.63)
Region												
West	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-
Northeast	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.97	(0.59, 1.58)
Midwest	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.21	(0.75, 1.97)
South	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.92	(0.67, 1.26)
Constant	0.35***	(0.26, 0.47)	0.63*	(0.45, 0.89)	0.38	(0.06, 2.58)	0.06*	(0.00, 0.71)	0.03**	(0.00, 0.31)	0.03*	(0.00, 0.45)

*Note: *p< 0.05. **p < 0.01. ***p < 0.001*

Turning to other predictors, sex, age (logged), and household income (square root) were not significantly related to experiencing violent victimization in the US among Latinos. Compared to individuals with poor language proficiency, increased proficiency increased the odds of experiencing violent victimization with fair increasing odds by 123% (t=2.79; p=0.021), good increasing odds by 196% (t=3.64; p=0.005), and excellent increasing odds by 168% (t=3.92; p=0.002). Not feeling safe in their neighborhoods was not significantly related to the outcome variable. Employment at the time of the interview decreased odds of violent victimization by 24% (t=-2.23, p=0.046). Those who had ever experienced homelessness had 275% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US (t=4.314; p=0.003). Those who had ever used illegal substances had 92% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization (t=6.54; p=0.000). Ever being arrested increased the odds of violent victimization by 93% (t=2.92; p=0.017) and ever assaulting or threatening to assault someone increases the risk of violent victimization by 109% (t=3.77; p=0.004). Meeting the DSM_IV criteria for alcohol dependence or abuse was not significantly related to violent victimization. Having a physical handicap was related to 67% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization (t=3.34; p=0.009). None of the mental health or region categories were significantly related to experiencing violent victimization.

Latino Subanalysis – Foreign-Born Only

Table 13 presents the odds ratios and associated 95% confidence intervals for Model 5B while also showing the model building process for all foreign-born Latinx nationalities in predicting violent victimization experienced only in the US, thus excluding Puerto Ricans. With Mexicans as the reference category, neither Cubans nor all other Latinos were significant. When the residency statuses are included, each nationality remains insignificant. Both nationalities

remain insignificant after adding the other demographic variables (sex, age, and household income), acculturation variables (English proficiency, years in the US, and fear of INS or deportation), risk factors/ lifestyle measures, a self-rated mental health measure and the region of recruitment.

Once all theoretically relevant, available variables were included, diagnostic analyses were run. First, the linktest command was used to determine if there was any specification error in the model. In line with diagnostic requirements, the linear predictive value (_hat) for the model was significant (t=12.00; p=0.000) and the linear predictive value squared (_hatsq) was not (t=1.30; p=0.241). Thus, the linktest diagnostic suggests that the model is properly specified. Subsequently, variance inflation factors (VIFs) were estimated to test for multicollinearity. The VIFs for Model 5B were all under 2.5, suggesting that multicollinearity is not a cause for concern in this model. However, replicating previous models using only foreign-born Latinos demonstrated significant power issues.

The final version of Model 5B is shown in the far right column of Table 13. Only foreign nationals are included in this analysis. Thus, as citizens, Puerto Ricans were excluded from this model. Foreign-born Cubans had demonstrated lower odds of violent victimization compared to foreign-born Mexicans, but this difference was not statistically significant. Alternatively, the effect size for all other foreign-born Latino was larger, but statistically insignificant, than the foreign-born Mexican reference group.

Naturalized refugees had 295% increased odds of experiencing violent victimization compared to naturalized citizens (t=5.61; p=0.001). Non-naturalized refugees displayed a large positive effect size, and although significant (t=2.60; p=0.041), the confidence interval is extremely wide, indicative of power issues. Permanent displayed a positive effect size, but did

not reach the threshold for significance (t=2.02; p=0.089). Temporary residents also had a positive, but statistically insignificant effect size. The large confidence interval for temporary residents (0.40, 11.94) is indicative of power issues related to the small sample sizes within the status. Unknown status had a negative effect size, but was also insignificant.

With regards to the control variables, sex was not a statistically significant predictor of violent victimization. Logged age reduced the odds of violent victimization by 84% (t=-3.54; p=0.012). Using poor English proficiency as the reference group, none of the other levels of proficiency displayed significantly different odds. The square root of years in the USA increased odds of violent victimization by 145% (t=6.20; p=0.001). Fear of INS or deportation, not feeling safe in one's neighborhood and employment at the time of the interview were not significant predictors of experiencing violent victimization. Experiencing homelessness increased the odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US by 805% (t=3.52; p=0.013), but this result should be interpreted with caution given the wide confidence interval (1.96, 41.90). The relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization for respondents who had ever used illegal substances was 97% higher than those who had never used illegal substances, but this difference did not quite reach significance (t=2.35; p=0.057). Ever having been arrested increased the odds of violent victimization by 111% (t=2.93; p=0.026). Ever assaulting or threatening to assault someone increased the relative likelihood of violent victimization by 106%, but this difference did not meet the threshold for significance (t=2.36; p=0.056). Meeting the DSM_IV criteria for alcohol dependence or abuse was not a significant predictor of the outcome variable. Having a physical handicap was related to having 125% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization (t=2.72; p=0.035). None of the categories for mental health or region were significant predictors of the dependent variable.

Table 13 – Model 5B: Logistic Regression Models Violent Victimization only in the US - Latino Nationalities - Foreign-Born Only_ Weighted												
Demographics	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**
Nationality	n=1,132		n=1,132		n=1,132		n=1,118		n=1,104		n=1,104	
Cuban	1.15	(0.66, 2.00)	0.42	(0.16, 1.10)	0.44	(0.19, 1.01)	0.61	(0.26, 1.41)	0.74	(0.36, 1.49)	0.89	(0.35, 2.30)
Mexican	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
All other Latino	1.48	(0.96, 2.27)	1.13	(0.67, 1.90)	1.15	(0.70, 1.90)	1.43	(0.81, 2.54)	1.64	(0.95, 2.81)	1.56	(0.71, 3.41)
Residency Status												
Naturalized Citizens	-	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
Naturalized Refugees	-	-	3.91*	(1.55, 9.83)	4.10**	(1.88, 8.92)	3.98**	(1.92, 8.24)	3.99**	(2.11, 7.53)	3.96**	(2.17, 7.20)
Non-Naturalized Refugees	-	-	2.31	(0.58, 9.27)	2.4	(0.69, 8.37)	6.82*	(1.81, 25.68)	5.51*	(1.21, 25.06)	5.88*	(1.11, 31.17)
Permanent Residents	-	-	0.8	(0.45, 1.43)	0.85	(0.47, 1.54)	2.11*	(1.02, 4.36)	2.15	(0.86, 5.36)	2.14	(0.85, 5.36)
Temporary Residents	-	-	0.42	(0.16, 1.14)	0.45	(0.15, 1.33)	1.78	(0.42, 7.55)	2.22	(0.43, 11.51)	2.17	(0.40, 11.94)
Unknown Status	-	-	0.39*	(0.16, 0.96)	0.43	(0.16, 1.20)	1.11	(0.34, 3.65)	0.9	(0.26, 3.19)	0.98	(0.28, 3.43)
Sex (1=Male)	-	-	-	-	2.05**	(1.32, 3.20)	1.78*	(1.05, 3.01)	1.32	(0.70, 2.51)	1.32	(0.69, 2.51)
Age (Logged)	-	-	-	-	0.71	(0.30, 1.68)	0.13*	(0.30, 0.51)	0.13*	(0.03, 0.58)	0.11*	(0.02, 0.51)
Household Income (Square Root)	-	-	-	-	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)
Acculturation												
English Proficiency												
Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
Fair	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.72*	(1.20, 6.12)	1.96	(0.76, 5.04)	1.84	(0.69, 4.86)
Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.21	(0.75, 6.47)	1.83	(0.51, 6.61)	1.68	(0.43, 6.56)
Excellent	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.91	(0.69, 5.33)	1.57	(0.53, 4.64)	1.42	(0.43, 4.69)
Years in USA (Square Root)	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.47**	(1.68, 3.63)	2.40**	(1.66, 3.48)	2.45**	(1.72, 3.48)
Fear of INS or Deportation	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.4	(0.65, 3.00)	1.04	(0.80, 3.32)	1	(0.38, 2.63)
Risk Factors/ Lifestyle (1=yes)												

Doesn't Feel Safe in Neighborhood	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.63	(0.80, 3.32)	1.56	(0.76, 3.35)
Employed	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.98	(0.60, 1.59)	0.96	(0.57, 1.62)
Ever Homeless	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8.38*	(1.78, 39.51)	9.05*	(1.96, 41.90)
Ever Used Substance	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.00	(0.95, 4.22)	1.98	(0.97, 4.03)
Ever Arrested	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.15*	(1.21, 3.85)	2.11*	(1.13, 3.95)
Ever or Threated to Assault Someone	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.13*	(1.03, 3.85)	2.06	(0.97, 4.36)
Alcohol Dependency or Abuse	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.72	(0.66, 4.46)	1.71	(0.62, 4.72)
Physical Handicap	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.29*	(1.10, 4.75)	2.25*	(1.09, 4.68)
Mental Health												
Excellent	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-
Very Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.87	(0.39, 1.92)
Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.76	(0.36, 1.61)
Fair	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.76	(0.31, 1.90)
Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.20	(0.23, 21.50)
Region												
West	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-
Northeast	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.98	(0.37, 2.59)
Midwest	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.82	(0.30, 2.24)
South	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.68	(0.34, 1.36)
Constant	0.17***	(0.11, 0.24)	0.24**	(0.14, 0.42)	0.29	(0.01, 9.92)	0.98	(0.01, 95.83)	0.84	(0.00, 159.98)	1.74	(0.01, 404.87)

*Note: *p< 0.05. **p < 0.01. ***p < 0.001*

Comparison between Latinos with and without US-born citizens

Table 14 – Models 5A and 5B: Comparison of Violent Victimization only in the US Logistic Regression Models - Latino Nationalities - Weighted

	With Citizens (N = 2,246)		Foreign born only (N=1,104)	
Demographics	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**
Nationality				
Cuban	0.66	(0.38, 1.14)	0.89	(0.35, 2.30)
Puerto Rican	1.62*	(1.09, 2.39)		
Mexican	Reference	-	Reference	-
All other Latino	1.21	(0.85, 1.72)	1.56	(0.71, 3.41)
Residency Status				
US Born Citizen	Reference	-	-	-
Naturalized Citizen	0.66	(0.43, 1.01)	Reference	-
Naturalized Refugee	2.02*	(1.00, 4.07)	3.96**	(2.17, 7.20)
Non-Naturalized Refugee	1.64	(0.51, 5.25)	5.88*	(1.11, 31.17)
Permanent Residents	0.78	(0.43, 1.41)	2.14	(0.85, 5.36)
Temporary Residents	0.54	(0.21, 1.36)	2.17	(0.40, 11.94)
Unknown Status	0.42*	(0.19, 0.94)	0.98	(0.28, 3.43)
Sex (1=Male)	1.25	(0.85, 1.85)	1.32	(0.69, 2.51)
Age (Logged)	1.31	(0.72, 2.37)	0.11*	(0.02, 0.51)
Household Income (Square Root)	1	(1.00, 1.00)	1	(1.00, 1.00)
Acculturation				
English Proficiency				
Poor	Reference	-	Reference	-
Fair	2.23*	(1.16, 4.26)	1.84	(0.69, 4.86)
Good	2.96**	(1.51, 5.82)	1.68	(0.43, 6.56)
Excellent	2.68*	(1.21, 5.95)	1.42	(0.43, 4.69)
Years in USA (Square Root)			2.45**	(1.72, 3.48)
Fear of INS or Deportation			1	(0.38, 2.63)
Risk Factors/ Lifestyle (1=yes)				
Doesn't Feel Safe in Neighborhood	1.23	(0.84, 1.80)	1.56	(0.76, 3.35)
Employed	0.76*	(0.58, 0.99)	0.96	(0.57, 1.62)
Ever Homeless	3.75**	(1.82, 7.72)	9.05*	(1.96, 41.90)
Ever Used Substance	1.92***	(1.53, 2.41)	1.98	(0.97, 4.03)
Ever Arrested	1.93*	(1.16, 3.20)	2.11*	(1.13, 3.95)
Ever or Threated to Assault Someone	2.09**	(1.34, 3.24)	2.06	(0.97, 4.36)
Alcohol Dependency or Abuse	1.16	(0.66, 2.04)	1.71	(0.62, 4.72)
Physical Handicap	1.67**	(1.18, 2.36)	2.25*	(1.09, 4.68)
Mental Health				
Excellent (Reference)	Reference	-	Reference	-
Very Good	0.92	(0.57, 1.46)	0.87	(0.39, 1.92)
Good	0.88	(0.53, 1.48)	0.76	(0.36, 1.61)
Fair	0.98	(0.45, 2.16)	0.76	(0.31, 1.90)

Poor	4.5	(0.90, 22.63)	2.20	(0.23, 21.50)
Region				
West	Reference	-	Reference	-
Northeast	0.97	(0.59, 1.58)	0.98	(0.37, 2.59)
Midwest	1.21	(0.75, 1.97)	0.82	(0.30, 2.24)
South	0.92	(0.67, 1.26)	0.68	(0.34, 1.36)
Constant	0.03*	(0.00, 0.45)	1.74	(0.01, 404.87)

*Note: *p< 0.05. **p < 0.01. ***p < 0.001*

There are several differences in the Latino-only models including and excluding US-born citizens that are worth highlighting. Once US citizens are excluded, there are no differences in the odds of experiencing violent victimization across Latino nationalities. Instead, some residency statuses were stronger predictors of violent victimization. With US-born citizens as the reference category, the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US was 102% higher for naturalized refugees. With US-born citizens excluded and naturalized (non-refugee) citizens as the reference category, the relative likelihood of naturalized refugees experiencing violent victimization only in the US swells to 296%. The odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US are not statistically significant between US-born citizens and non-naturalized refugees. However, when US-born citizens are excluded, the odds ratio increases to 5.88 ($p<0.05$). Caution should be given when interpreting this finding given the wide confidence interval (1.11, 31.17). When US-born citizens are the reference category, foreign nationals with unknown status had 58% lower odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US. This effect was reduced to insignificance when naturalized citizens were the reference group. The increase in odds of violent victimization based on English proficiency is likely a function of citizens' increased odds of violent victimization, as none of the English proficiency categories were significant in the foreign national model. Instead, for every year in the US, the odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US increased by 145%.

Regarding risk factors/lifestyle measures, employment at the time of the interview, ever using an illegal substance and ever assaulting or threatening to assault someone were significant when US-born citizens were included in the analysis but were reduced to insignificance when US citizens are excluded. The relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization in the US was 275% for those who had ever experienced homelessness when included in the model. When US citizens were excluded, the relative likelihood ballooned to 805% among those who had experienced homelessness; however, this finding should be interpreted with caution given the large confidence interval (1.96, 41.90). When US-born citizens are included, the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US is 67% higher among those with a physical handicap or impairment than those without a physical disability. Among foreign nationals, the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization among those with a physical handicap or impairment is 125% higher. Mental health and region were not statistically significant predictors in either model.

Asian Subanalyses – US Citizens Included

Tables 15 and 16 presents the odds ratios and associated 95% confidence intervals for all Asian nationalities in predicting violent victimization experienced only in the US. Models 6A and 6B use a categorical Asian nationality variable (Vietnamese=0, Filipino=1, Chinese=2, and All other Asian=3) to predict the odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US. Table 15 presents the odds ratios and associated 95% confidence intervals for Model 6A while also showing the model building process. In the baseline model, with only the Asian nationalities predicting violent victimization only in the US and Chinese as the reference category, the only nationality that was a significant predictor was Vietnamese. The relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US was 58% lower for individuals of Vietnamese

descent than the Chinese reference group and was significant at the $p<0.05$ level. When the residency statuses are included, the odds ratio for Vietnamese decreases slightly, but remains significant. Adding the other demographic variables (sex, age, and household income) has a small effect on the odds ratio (OR= 0.42; $p<0.05$). Adding English proficiency – a measure of acculturation – reduced the effect to insignificance. When risk factors/ lifestyle measures suggested to be of theoretical importance by Lifestyle/ Routine Activities Theory were included, Filipinos became significant, thus suggesting that the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US was 51% lower for individuals of Filipino descent than the Chinese reference group ($p<0.05$). In the final model, which introduced a self-rated mental health measure and the region of recruitment, both Vietnamese and Filipino demonstrated significantly lower odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US than the Chinese reference group.

Once all available and theoretically available variables were included, diagnostic analyses were run. First, the linktest command was used to determine if there was any specification error in the model. In line with diagnostic requirements, the linear predictive value (_hat) for the model was significant ($t=7.69$; $p=0.000$) and the linear predictive value squared (_hatsq) was not ($t=-0.19$; $p=0.851$). Thus, the linktest diagnostic suggests that the model is properly specified. Subsequently, variance inflation factors (VIFs) were estimated to test for multicollinearity. The VIFs for Model 6A were all under 2.0, suggesting that multicollinearity is not a cause for concern in this model.

Table 15 – Model 6A: Logistic Regression Models Violent Victimization only in the US - Asian Nationalities – With Citizens_ Weighted												
Demographics	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**
Nationality	n=1,862		n=1,862		n=1,862		n=1,857		n=1,829		n=1,829	
Vietnamese	0.42*	(0.22, 0.78)	0.39*	(0.17, 0.92)	0.37*	(0.15, 0.89)	0.41	(0.16, 1.03)	0.39	(0.14, 1.06)	0.37*	(0.14, 0.97)
Filipino	0.93	(0.56, 1.54)	0.74	(0.44, 1.25)	0.72	(0.42, 1.24)	0.69	(0.38, 1.24)	0.49*	(0.26, 0.96)	0.49*	(0.26, 0.95)
Chinese	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
All other Asian	0.74	(0.33, 1.64)	0.60	(0.26, 1.36)	0.57	(0.25, 1.29)	0.52	(0.22, 1.25)	0.45	(0.18, 1.13)	0.47	(0.18, 1.25)
Residency Status												
US Born Citizens	-	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
Naturalized Citizens	-	-	0.30***	(0.17, 0.51)	0.34**	(0.20, 0.60)	0.40**	(0.24, 0.65)	0.56	(0.29, 1.09)	0.57	(0.30, 1.11)
Naturalized Refugees	-	-	0.48	(0.18, 1.29)	0.59	(0.21, 1.67)	0.69	(0.25, 1.89)	1.03	(0.33, 3.24)	0.99	(0.33, 2.97)
Non-Naturalized Refugees	-	-	0.46	(0.10, 2.04)	0.47	(0.10, 2.11)	0.61	(0.13, 2.91)	0.72	(0.11, 4.59)	0.77	(0.13, 4.62)
Permanent Residents	-	-	0.11***	(0.06, 0.21)	0.11***	(0.06, 0.20)	0.15***	(0.08, 0.25)	0.23**	(0.10, 0.50)	0.24**	(0.11, 0.52)
Temporary Residents	-	-	0.18*	(0.04, 0.77)	0.20*	(0.05, 0.76)	0.28	(0.06, 1.20)	0.44	(0.11, 1.80)	0.52	(0.13, 2.08)
Unknown Status	-	-	0.24*	(0.06, 0.93)	0.26*	(0.07, 0.97)	0.36	(0.10, 1.30)	0.43	(0.12, 1.52)	0.42	(0.12, 1.53)
Sex (1=Male)	-	-	-	-	1.37	(0.93, 2.02)	1.38	(0.95, 2.00)	1.1	(0.76, 1.60)	1.19	(0.82, 1.73)
Age (Logged)	-	-	-	-	0.53*	(0.33, 0.84)	0.65	(0.40, 1.07)	0.88	(0.50, 1.57)	0.82	(0.47, 1.42)
Household Income (Square Root)	-	-	-	-	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)
Acculturation												
English Proficiency												
Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
Fair	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.54	(0.65, 3.64)	1.51	(0.60, 3.85)	1.51	(0.58, 3.89)
Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.15	(0.46, 2.85)	1.13	(0.45, 2.85)	1.29	(0.47, 3.52)
Excellent	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.23	(1.00, 5.00)	2.25	(0.96, 5.25)	2.68*	(1.10, 6.53)
Risk Factors/ Lifestyle (1=yes)												
Doesn't Feel Safe in Neighborhood	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.15**	(1.36, 3.40)	2.20**	(1.41, 3.44)

Employed	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.11	(0.71, 1.75)	1.16	(0.73, 1.85)
Ever Homeless	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.31*	(1.08, 4.92)	2.08	(0.92, 4.71)
Ever Used Substance	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.04**	(1.27, 3.26)	1.93*	(1.18, 3.16)
Ever Arrested	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.38*	(1.20, 4.71)	2.44*	(1.21, 4.92)
Ever or Threated to Assault Someone	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.47**	(1.58, 3.87)	2.31**	(1.49, 3.59)
Alcohol Dependency or Abuse	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.96	(0.83, 4.64)	2.06	(0.86, 4.93)
Physical Handicap	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.6	(0.88, 2.89)	1.43	(0.75, 2.73)
Mental Health												
Excellent	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-
Very Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.89	(0.50, 1.61)
Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.98	(0.57, 1.67)
Fair	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.36*	(1.05, 5.28)
Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.64	(0.99, 13.37)
Region												
West	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-
Northeast	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.64	(0.28, 1.44)
Midwest	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.73	(0.40, 1.33)
South	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.19	(0.68, 2.10)
Constant	0.19***	(0.12, 0.31)	0.53*	(0.30, 0.95)	4.50	(0.80, 25.28)	1.19	(0.14, 10.40)	0.19	(0.01, 2.61)	0.2	(0.02, 2.77)

*Note: *p< 0.05. **p <0 .01. ***p < 0.001*

Table 15 presents the odds ratios and associated 95% confidence intervals for all Asian nationalities in predicting violent victimization experienced only in the US, with the final model in the far right column. The Chinese group had the largest n and therefore was used as the reference category. Vietnamese individuals had 63% lower odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US than the Chinese reference group (t=-2.27; p=0.044). Likewise, Filipinos had 51% lower odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US than the Chinese reference group (t=-238; p=0.037). Finally, all other Asians demonstrated a negative effect size, but the difference was not statistically significant.

Among the residency status categories, with US-born citizens as the reference category, naturalized citizens, naturalized refugees, and non-naturalized refugees each demonstrated a negative, but statistically insignificant relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization. Permanent residents had 76% lower odds (t=-4.00, p=0.002) of experiencing violent victimization than US-born citizens. Temporary residents and unknown status had lower odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US compared to US-born citizens, but these differences were not statistically significant.

Turning to other predictors, sex, age (logged), and household income (square root) were not significantly related to experiencing violent victimization only in the US among Asians. Compared to individuals with poor language proficiency, only excellent proficiency was significantly related to violent victimization, increasing the odds by 168% (t=2.43; p=0.033). Not feeling safe in their neighborhoods significantly increased odds of violent victimization by 120% (t=3.88, p=0.003). Employment at the time of the interview was not significantly related to the outcome variable. Homelessness increased the odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US, but did not reach the threshold for significance (t=1.96; p=0.075). Those who had ever

used illegal substances had 93% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US (t=2.94; p=0.013). Ever having been arrested increased the odds of violent victimization by 144% (t=2.80; p=0.017), and ever assaulting or threatening to assault someone increases the odds of violent victimization by 131% (t=4.19; p=0.002). Meeting the DSM_IV criteria for alcohol dependence or abuse or having a physical handicap were not significantly related to experiencing violent victimization. Compared with excellent mental health, having very good and good mental health were not related to experiencing violent victimization. Having fair mental health increased the odds of violent victimization by 136% (t=2.34, p=0.039). Poor mental health showed a large positive effect size, but did not meet the significance threshold (t=2.19; p=0.051). In addition, the large confidence interval suggests power issues (0.99, 13.37). None of the region categories were significantly related to experiencing violent victimization.

Asian Subanalysis – Foreign-Born Only

Table 16 presents the odds ratios and associated 95% confidence intervals for Model 6B while demonstrating the model building process. With only the Asian nationalities predicting violent victimization only in the US and Chinese as the reference category, none of the nationalities are significant. When the residency statuses are included, the odds ratio for Vietnamese became significant ($p<0.05$), suggesting the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US was 63% lower for foreign-born individuals of Vietnamese descent than the reference group. The odds ratio for Vietnamese remained significant when sex, age, and household income were added to the model. Adding measures of acculturation – English proficiency, years in the US, and fear of INS or deportation – reduced the effect to insignificance. All nationalities remained insignificant when risk factors/lifestyle measures, self-rated mental health measures, and the region of recruitment were each added to the model.

Once all available and theoretically relevant variables were included, diagnostic analyses were run. First, the linktest command was used to determine if there was any specification error in the model. In line with diagnostic requirements, the linear predictive value (_hat) for the model was significant (t=4.58; p=0.001) and the linear predictive value squared (_hatsq) was not (t=0.07; p=0.949). Thus, the linktest diagnostic suggests that the model is properly specified. Subsequently, variance inflation factors (VIFs) were estimated to test for multicollinearity. The VIFs for Model 6B were all under 2.0, suggesting that multicollinearity is not a cause for concern in this model.

Table 16 – Model 6B: Logistic Regression Models Violent Victimization only in the US - Asian Nationalities - Foreign-Born Only_ Weighted												
Demographics	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**
Nationality	n=1,407		n=1,407		n=1,407		n=1,378		n=1,378		n=1,356	
Vietnamese	0.57	(0.29, 1.13)	0.37*	(0.15, 0.94)	0.36*	(0.13, 0.97)	0.44	(0.14, 1.34)	0.39	(0.12, 1.27)	0.36	(0.12, 1.10)
Filipino	0.84	(0.42, 1.70)	0.84	(0.43, 1.64)	0.89	(0.44, 1.79	0.75	(0.33, 1.71)	0.47	(0.19, 1.20)	0.50	(0.21, 1.15)
Chinese	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
All other Asian	0.53	(0.20, 1.38)	0.54	(0.21, 1.39)	0.47	(0.18, 1.22)	0.41	(0.12, 1.38)	0.33	(0.10, 1.18)	0.38	(0.10, 1.43)
Residency Status												
Naturalized Citizens	-	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
Naturalized Refugees	-	-	1.70	(0.68, 4.24)	1.89	(0.69, 5.20)	1.66	(0.55, 5.02)	1.95	(0.62, 6.13)	1.92	(0.64, 5.75)
Non-Naturalized Refugees	-	-	1.67	(0.47, 5.96)	1.48	(0.40, 5.49)	1.65	(0.37, 7.35)	1.75	(0.33, 9.22)	2.19	(0.67, 7.16)
Permanent Residents	-	-	0.38*	(0.19, 0.75)	0.31**	(0.14, 0.67)	0.81	(0.32, 2.08)	0.78	(0.28, 2.21)	0.72	(0.24, 2.19)
Temporary Residents	-	-	0.63	(0.13, 3.13)	0.6	(0.13, 2.70)	2.56	(0.46, 14.15)	2.56	(0.42, 15.50)	2.84	(0.44, 18.25)
Unknown Status	-	-	0.81	(0.23, 2.88)	0.75	(0.24, 2.40)	1.37	(0.41, 4.56)	1.19	(0.33, 4.26)	1.07	(0.31, 3.74)
Sex (1=Male)	-	-	-	-	1.43	(0.75, 2.71)	1.45	(0.82, 2.56)	1.26	(0.72, 2.20)	1.26	(0.75, 2.11)
Age (Logged)	-	-	-	-	0.34*	0.14, 0.83)	0.13**	(0.04, 0.43)	0.27	(0.07, 1.13)	0.21*	(0.06, 0.78)
Household Income (Square Root)	-	-	-	-	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)
Acculturation												
English Proficiency												
Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
Fair	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.81	(0.30, 2.16)	0.87	(0.33, 2.34)	0.84	(0.32, 2.19)
Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.55	(0.21, 1.47)	0.62	(0.22, 1.71)	0.60	(0.21, 1.78)
Excellent	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.89	(0.28, 2.87)	1.04	(0.30, 3.55)	1.03	(0.30, 3.59)
Years in USA (Square Root)	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.06***	(1.53, 2.79)	1.71**	(1.26, 2.32)	1.69**	(1.25, 1.27)
Fear of INS or Deportation	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.78	(0.06, 9.89)	0.59	(0.04, 9.15)	0.41	(0.02, 10.83)
Risk Factors/ Lifestyle (1=yes)												

Doesn't Feel Safe in Neighborhood	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.54	(0.72, 3.26)	1.66	(0.77, 3.55)
Employed	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.77	(0.38, 1.56)	0.83	(0.39, 1.78)
Ever Homeless	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.5	(0.73, 3.26)	0.47	(0.09, 2.48)
Ever Used Substance	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.79**	(1.41, 5.52)	2.85**	(1.45, 5.56)
Ever Arrested	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.28	(0.57, 2.87)	1.3	(0.51, 3.34)
Ever or Threated to Assault Someone	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.89**	(1.46, 5.74)	2.79*	(1.36, 5.72)
Alcohol Dependency or Abuse	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.59	(0.30, 8.48)	1.31	(0.26, 6.69)
Physical Handicap	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.39	(0.63, 3.11)	1.40	(0.68, 2.91)
Mental Health												
Excellent	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-
Very Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.63	(0.27, 1.45)
Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.73	(0.37, 1.42)
Fair	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.79	(0.69, 4.62)
Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.60	(0.61, 21.06)
Region												
West	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-
Northeast	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.60	(0.24, 1.48)
Midwest	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.31	(0.06, 1.75)
South	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.75	(0.32, 1.78)
Constant	0.13***	(0.08, 0.22)	0.16***	(0.09, 0.26)	6.09	(0.24, 154.25)	12.6	(0.22, 735.40)	1.38	(0.01, 220.24)	3.92	(0.04, 374.57)

*Note: *p< 0.05. **p < 0.01. ***p < 0.001*

Chinese had the largest n and was therefore chosen as the reference category. Foreign-born Vietnamese, Filipino, and all other Asians had lower odds of violent victimization compared to foreign-born Chinese, but these differences did not meet the threshold for statistical significance. With naturalized citizens as the reference group, naturalized refugees and non-naturalized refugees had positive effect sizes, but neither were significant. Permanent residents had lower, but statistically insignificant, odds of violent victimization than the naturalized citizens reference group. Temporary residents and unknown status had large, positive effect sizes, but were not statistically significant.

With regards to the control variables, sex was not a statistically significant predictor of violent victimization. Logged age reduced the odds of violent victimization by 79% (t=-2.65; p=0.024). None of the English proficiency variables were significant predictors of violent victimization. The square root of years in the USA increased odds of violent victimization by 69% (t=3.93; p=0.003). Doesn't feel safe in neighborhood, employment at the time of the interview, and ever experiencing homelessness were not significant predictors of experiencing violent victimization. Those who had ever used illegal substances had 185% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US than those with no history of substance use (t=3.47; p=0.006). Ever having been arrested had a positive, but insignificant effect size. Ever assaulting or threatening to assault someone increases the odds of violent victimization by 179% (t=3.18; p=0.010). Neither meeting the DSM-IV criteria for alcohol dependence or abuse or having a physical handicap or impairment were statistically significant predictors of experiencing violent victimization only in the US. Finally, none of the mental health or region categories were significant.

Comparison between Asians with and without US-born citizens

Table 17 – Model 6A and 6B: Comparison of Violent Victimization only in the US Logistic Regression Models - Asian Nationalities – Weighted

	With Citizens (N = 1,829)		Foreign born only (N = 1,378)	
Demographics	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**
Nationality				
Vietnamese	0.37*	(0.14, 0.97)	0.36	(0.12, 1.10)
Filipino	0.49*	(0.26, 0.95)	0.50	(0.21, 1.15)
Chinese	Reference	-	Reference	-
All other Asian	0.47	(0.18, 1.25)	0.38	(0.10, 1.43)
Residency Status				
US Born Citizen	Reference	-		
Naturalized Citizen	0.57	(0.30, 1.11)	Reference	-
Naturalized Refugee	0.99	(0.33, 2.97)	1.92	(0.64, 5.75)
Non-Naturalized Refugee	0.77	(0.13, 4.62)	2.19	(0.67, 7.16)
Permanent Residents	0.24**	(0.11, 0.52)	0.72	(0.24, 2.19)
Temporary Residents	0.52	(0.13, 2.08)	2.84	(0.44, 18.25)
Unknown Status	0.42	(0.12, 1.53)	1.07	(0.31, 3.74)
Sex (1=Male)	1.19	(0.82, 1.73)	1.26	(0.75, 2.11)
Age (Logged)	0.82	(0.47, 1.42)	0.21*	(0.06, 0.78)
Household Income (Square Root)	1	(1.00, 1.00)	1	(1.00, 1.00)
Acculturation				
English Proficiency				
Poor (Reference)	Reference	-	Reference	-
Fair	1.51	(0.58, 3.89)	0.84	(0.32, 2.19)
Good	1.29	(0.47, 3.52)	0.60	(0.21, 1.78)
Excellent	2.68*	(1.10, 6.53)	1.03	(0.30, 3.59)
Years in USA (Square Root)			1.69**	(1.25, 1.27)
Fear of INS or Deportation			0.41	(0.02, 10.83)
Risk Factors (1=yes)				
Doesn't Feel Safe in Neighborhood	2.20**	(1.41, 3.44)	1.66	(0.77, 3.55)
Employed	1.16	(0.73, 1.85)	0.83	(0.39, 1.78)
Ever Homeless	2.08	(0.92, 4.71)	0.47	(0.09, 2.48)
Ever Used Substance	1.93*	(1.18, 3.16)	2.85**	(1.45, 5.56)
Ever Arrested	2.44*	(1.21, 4.92)	1.3	(0.51, 3.34)
Ever or Threated to Assault Someone	2.31**	(1.49, 3.59)	2.79*	(1.36, 5.72)
Alcohol Dependency or Abuse	2.06	(0.86, 4.93)	1.31	(0.26, 6.69)
Physical Handicap	1.43	(0.75, 2.73)	1.40	(0.68, 2.91)
Mental Health				
Excellent	Reference	-	Reference	-
Very Good	0.89	(0.50, 1.61)	0.63	(0.27, 1.45)
Good	0.98	(0.57, 1.67)	0.73	(0.37, 1.42)
Fair	2.36*	(1.05, 5.28)	1.79	(0.69, 4.62)

Poor	3.64	(0.99, 13.37)	3.60	(0.61, 21.06)
Region				
West	Reference	-	Reference	-
Northeast	0.64	(0.28, 1.44)	0.60	(0.24, 1.48)
Midwest	0.73	(0.40, 1.33)	0.31	(0.06, 1.75)
South	1.19	(0.68, 2.10)	0.75	(0.32, 1.78)
Constant	0.2	(0.02, 2.77)	3.92	(0.04, 374.57)

*Note: *p<0.05. **p <0.01. ***p <0.001*

There are several noteworthy differences in the models based on the inclusion or exclusion of US-born citizens. Such comparisons highlight the differences of foreign-born subgroups. When US-born citizens are included, the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization is 63% lower for Vietnamese and 51% lower for Filipinos than the Chinese reference group. There is no statistically significant difference between all other Asians and the Chinese reference group. Once US-born citizens are excluded, there are no differences in the odds of experiencing violent victimization across Asian nationalities. With US-born citizens as the reference group, the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization in the US is 76% lower for permanent residents (OR=0.24; $p<0.01$). When US-born citizens are excluded, none of the residency statuses are significantly different than the naturalized citizen reference group. When US-born citizens are included, sex, the log of age, and household income are also insignificant. In the foreign nationals model, sex and household income are also insignificant, but the log of age denotes a 79% decrease in odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US (OR=0.21; $p<0.05$). When US-born citizens are included, the odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US are 168% higher among those with excellent English proficiency than those with poor proficiency (OR=2.68; $p<0.05$). However, once the model is limited to foreign nationals, this effect is reduced to insignificance. Among foreign nationals, for each year in the US, the odds of experiencing violent victimization increase by 69% (OR=1.69; $p<0.01$).

With regards to risk factors/ lifestyle measures, employed at the time of the interview and ever homeless were not significant predictors in either model. Not feeling safe in their neighborhood and ever arrested were significant predictors of violent victimization in the US when US-born citizens were included, but were reduced to nonsignificance in the foreign national model. The relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization in the US is 93% higher among those who have used illegal substances compared to those who have never used illegal substances when US-born citizens are included in the model. The relative likelihood increases to 185% when only foreign nationals are analyzed (OR=2.85; $p<0.01$). When US-born citizens are included, the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization in the US is 131% higher among those who have assaulted or threatened to assault someone. The odds increased to 179% when the model was limited to foreign nationals. There were no significant differences in meeting the DSM-IV criteria for alcohol dependency or abuse, or having a physical handicap in either model. When US-born citizens are included in the model, the only category of mental health that was significant was fair (OR=2.36; $p<0.05$). This suggests that those with fair mental health had 136% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US than those with excellent mental health. This effect is reduced to non-significance when US-born citizens are excluded from the model. The region variable was insignificant across both models.

All Nationalities-US Citizens Included

The final research question asks, "Is nationality a primary predictor of experiencing violent victimization only in the US?" Models 7A and 7B use an eight category nationality variable (Vietnamese=1, Filipino=2, Chinese=3, all other Asian=4, Cuban=5, Puerto Rican=6, Mexican=7, all other Latino=8) to predict the odds of experiencing violent victimization only in

the US. As with prior analyses, Model 7A includes US-born citizens and Model 7B focuses on a foreign-born subsample, thus excluding Puerto Ricans. Such nuance is necessary for delineating the effect of nationality among all groups and foreign nationals only.

Table 18 presents the odds ratios and associated 95% confidence intervals for Model 7A while also showing the model building process. In the baseline model with nationalities predicting violent victimization only in the US, all Asian nationalities displayed a reduced relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization, while Puerto Ricans showed increased relative likelihood compared to the Mexican reference category. Specifically, the odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US was lower by 77% for Vietnamese ($p<0.001$), 48% for Filipinos ($p<0.01$), 44% for Chinese ($p<0.05$), 59% for all other Asians ($p<0.01$), and 151% higher for Puerto Ricans ($p<0.001$) compared to foreign-born Mexicans. When the residency statuses are included, the odds ratios for Filipino become significant, while Puerto Ricans become insignificant. Thus, the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US was lower by 78% for Vietnamese ($p<0.01$), 45% for Filipinos ($p<0.05$), and 67% for all other Asians ($p<0.05$) relative to that of Mexicans. Adding the other demographic variables (sex, age, and household income) to the model had a small effect on the odds ratio among Vietnamese, Filipino, and all other Asians, but did not impact their significance levels. Vietnamese, Filipino, and all other Asians each retained their significance when English proficiency was added to the model. Puerto Ricans became significant and exhibited 52% greater odds of violent victimization compared to the Mexican reference group. When risk factors/ lifestyle measures were included, the odds ratios for Vietnamese, Filipino, all other Asians, and Puerto Rican remained significant. These nationalities remained significant after adding self-rated mental health and the region of recruitment to the model.

Once all available and theoretically relevant variables were included, diagnostic analyses were run. First, the linktest command was used to determine if there was any specification error in the model. In line with diagnostic requirements, the linear predictive value (_hat) for the model was significant (t=11.20; p=0.000) and the linear predictive value squared (_hatsq) was not (t=-1.22; p=0.246). Thus, the linktest diagnostic suggests that the model is properly specified. Subsequently, variance inflation factors (VIFs) were estimated to test for multicollinearity. The VIFs for Model 7A were all under 2.0, suggesting that multicollinearity is not a cause for concern in this model.

The final version of Model 7A is shown in the far-right column of Table 18. The model, which includes US-born citizens, found that among the Asian nationalities, Vietnamese, Filipino, and all other Asians are significantly less likely to experience violent victimization than the Mexican reference group. Specifically, Vietnamese had 73% lower odds (t=-4.35; p=0.001), Filipinos had 50% lower odds (t=-4.13; p=0.001), and all other Asians had 57% lower odds (t=-3.16; p=0.008). The Chinese subgroup had 19% lower odds, but this difference was not statistically significant (t=-0.86; p=0.406). Among Latinos, the risk of experiencing violent victimization in the US was 67% higher for Puerto Ricans (t=3.15; p=0.008). Compared to Mexicans, Cubans had 23% lower odds of violent victimization only in the US and all other Latinos had 25% higher odds, but neither of these differences was statistically significant.

Table 18 – Model 7A: Logistic Regression Models Violent Victimization only in the US - All Nationalities – With Citizens_ Weighted

Demographics	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**
Nationality	n=4,135		n=4,135		n=4,135		n=4,122		n=4,075		n=4,075	
Vietnamese	0.23***	(0.14, 0.38)	0.22**	(0.11, 0.46)	0.22**	(0.11, 0.49)	0.22**	(0.11, 0.45)	0.29**	(0.16, 0.55)	0.27**	(0.14, 0.52)
Filipino	0.52**	(0.33, 0.81)	0.55*	(0.36, 0.86)	0.55*	(0.36, 0.85)	0.47**	(0.31, 0.73)	0.50**	(0.35, 0.72)	0.50**	(0.35, 0.72)
Chinese	0.56*	(0.33, 0.94)	0.67	(0.39, 1.33)	0.66	(0.39, 1.18)	0.60	(0.34, 1.05)	0.83	(0.50, 1.38)	0.81	(0.48, 1.37)
All other Asian	0.41**	(0.23, 0.73)	0.43*	(0.23, 0.79)	0.41**	(0.22, 0.75)	0.34**	(0.18, 0.63)	0.44**	(0.25, 0.79)	0.43**	(0.24, 0.77)
Cuban	0.7	(0.46, 1.07)	0.67	(0.39, 1.14)	0.67	(0.40, 1.12)	0.67	(0.41, 1.10)	0.75	(0.49, 1.16)	0.77	(0.47, 1.26)
Puerto Rican	2.51***	(1.72, 3.66)	1.36	(0.91, 2.02)	1.42	(0.95, 2.12)	1.52*	(1.03, 2.25)	1.57*	(1.17, 2.20)	1.67**	(1.17, 2.38)
Mexican	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
All other Latino	1.24	(0.82, 1.88)	1.22	(0.85, 1.75)	1.24	(0.88, 1.76)	1.16	(0.82, 1.64)	1.21	(0.88, 1.66)	1.26	(0.90, 1.76)
Residency Status												
US Born Citizens	-	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
Naturalized Citizens	-	-	0.35***	(0.26, 0.47)	0.36***	(0.26, 0.50)	0.43***	(0.32, 0.59)	0.63*	(0.46, 0.87)	0.63*	(0.45, 0.89)
Naturalized Refugees	-	-	0.81	(0.46, 1.45)	0.87	(0.48, 1.56)	1.07	(0.58, 1.97)	1.54	(0.83, 2.85)	1.5	(0.80, 2.81)
Non-Naturalized Refugees	-	-	0.67	(0.24, 1.82)	0.66	(0.25, 1.73)	1.04	(0.37, 2.87)	1.34	(0.53, 3.38)	1.24	(0.48, 3.19)
Permanent Residents	-	-	0.26***	(0.19, 0.37)	0.27***	(0.19, 0.37)	0.42**	(0.27, 0.66)	0.63*	(0.40, 1.00)	0.63	(0.39, 1.02)
Temporary Residents	-	-	0.16***	(0.09, 0.30)	0.16***	(0.09, 0.31)	0.30**	(0.14, 0.63)	0.47*	(0.23, 0.98)	0.47*	(0.23, 0.99)
Unknown Status	-	-	0.16***	(0.09, 0.28)	0.16***	(0.09, 0.30)	0.28**	(0.15, 0.53)	0.40**	(0.21, 0.75)	0.40**	(0.22, 0.75)
Sex (1=Male)	-	-	-	-	1.69***	(1.36, 2.10)	1.65**	(1.31, 2.09)	1.24	(0.92, 1.67)	1.23	(0.89, 1.70)
Age (Logged)	-	-	-	-	0.89	(0.58, 1.38)	1.13	(0.69, 1.86)	1.19	(0.74, 1.89)	1.16	(0.72, 1.88)
Household Income (Square root)	-	-	-	-	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)
Acculturation												
English Proficiency	-	-	-	-								
Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-

Fair	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.42**	(1.50, 3.92)	2.06*	(1.23, 3.44)	2.06**	(1.24, 3.42)
Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.64**	(1.56, 4.48)	2.36**	(1.38, 4.03)	2.40**	(1.41, 4.10)
Excellent	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.19**	(1.70, 6.01)	2.58**	(1.45, 4.57)	2.55**	(1.36, 4.79)
Risk Factors / Lifestyle Measures (1=yes)												
Doesn't Feel Safe in Neighborhood	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.33	(0.95, 1.87)	1.35	(0.95, 1.90)
Employed	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.82	(0.65, 1.03)	0.83	(0.66, 1.04)
Ever Homeless	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.35**	(1.82, 6.16)	3.35**	(1.82, 6.18)
Ever Used Substance	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.94***	(1.55, 2.43)	1.94***	(1.57, 2.39)
Ever Arrested	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.95**	(1.22, 3.12)	1.95**	(1.22, 3.12)
Ever or Threated to Assault Someone	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.19***	(1.57, 3.03)	2.19***	(1.57, 3.06)
Alcohol Dependency or Abuse	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.23	(0.75, 2.03)	1.22	(0.75, 1.98)
Physical Handicap	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.75**	(1.34, 2.29)	1.70**	(1.28, 2.27)
Mental Health	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-				
Excellent	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-
Very Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.88	(0.59, 1.30)
Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.86	(0.57, 1.30)
Fair	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.06	(0.58, 1.98)
Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.64*	(1.31, 10.13)
Region	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
West	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-
Northeast	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.89	(0.59, 1.34)
Midwest	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.09	(0.74, 1.59)
South	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.93	(0.70, 1.24)

Constant	0.35***	(0.26, 0.47)	0.65*	(0.47, 0.89)	0.63	(0.12, 3.21)	0.11*	(0.01, 0.98)	0.05**	(0.01, 0.34)	0.06*	(0.01, 0.47)

*Note: *p< 0.05. **p < 0.01. ***p < 0.001*

Using US citizens as the reference group, the directionality of coefficients among foreign nationals provides important insight into their vulnerability risk. Naturalized citizens had 37% lower odds of experiencing violent victimization than US-born citizens (t=-2.92; p=0.013). Naturalized refugees and non-naturalized refugees had effect sizes that indicated higher odds of violent victimization, but these were not statistically significant. Permanent residents demonstrated 37% lower odds, but this difference did not meet the threshold for significance (t=-2.08; p=0.059). On the other hand, both temporary residents and unknown status indicated lower odds of experiencing violent victimization than US-born citizens (53% and 60%, respectively). Temporary residents were significant at the $p<0.05$ level (t=-2.21; p=0.048) and unknown status were significant at the $p<0.01$ level (t=-3.16; p=0.08).

Turning to other predictors, sex, logged age, and the square root of household income were not significantly related to experiencing violent victimization in the US. Compared to individuals with poor language proficiency, increased proficiency increased risk of violent victimization with fair increasing odds by 106% (t=3.10; p=0.009), good increasing odds by 140% (t=3.57; p=0.004), and excellent increasing odds by 155% (t=3.25; p=0.007). Not feeling safe in their neighborhoods and employment at the time of the interview were not significantly related to the outcome variable. Those who had ever experienced homelessness had 235% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US (t=4.31; p=0.001). Those who had ever used illegal substances had 94% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization (t=6.90; p=0.000). Ever having been arrested increased the odds of violent victimization by 95% (t=3.10; p=0.009) and ever assaulting or threatening to assault someone increases the odds of violent victimization by 119% (t=5.13; p=0.000). Meeting the DSM_IV criteria for alcohol dependence or abuse was not significantly related to violent victimization. Having a physical handicap was

related to 70% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization (t=3.98; p=0.002). With excellent mental health as a reference, the only mental health category related to violent victimization was poor mental health which resulted in 264% greater odds (t=2.75; p=0.018). However, given the small affirmative responses and large confidence interval (1.30, 10.13), such results should be interpreted with caution. None of the region categories were significantly related to experiencing violent victimization in the US.

All Nationalities-Foreign born only

Table 19 presents the odds ratios and associated 95% confidence intervals for Model 7B while also showing the model building process. In the baseline model with only the nationalities predicting violent victimization only in the US among foreign nationals, Vietnamese and all other Asians displayed reduced relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization, while all other Latinos displayed increased relative likelihood compared to the foreign-born Mexican reference category. Specifically, the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US was 55% lower for foreign-born Vietnamese ($p<0.05$), 58% lower for all other Asians ($p<0.05$), and 48% higher for all other Latinos ($p<0.05$) compared to foreign-born Mexicans. When the residency statuses are included, the odds ratios for Filipino and Chinese become significant, while all other Latinos become insignificant. Thus, the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US was 82% lower for foreign-born Vietnamese ($p<0.01$), 50% lower for foreign-born Filipinos ($p<0.05$), 46% lower for foreign-born Chinese ($p<0.05$), and 70% lower for all other Asians ($p<0.01$) relative to that of foreign-born Mexicans. Adding the other demographic variables (sex, age, and household income) to the model did not greatly impact the odds ratios or significance levels among Vietnamese, Filipino, Chinese, and all other Asians. Adding measures of acculturation – English proficiency, years in the US, and

fear of INS or deportation – reduced the effect of Filipinos, Chinese, and all other Asians to nonsignificance. Foreign-born Vietnamese, however, still displayed 63% lower odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US compared to the foreign-born Mexican reference group. When risk factors/ lifestyle measures were added to the model, foreign-born Vietnamese became insignificant. However, all other Latinos demonstrated 61% higher odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US compared to foreign-born Mexicans. Finally, all nationalities were reduced to nonsignificance when self-rated mental health and the region of recruitment were added to the model.

Once all available and theoretically relevant variables were included, diagnostic analyses were run. First, the linktest command was used to determine if there was any specification error in the model. In line with diagnostic requirements, the linear predictive value (_hat) for the model was significant (t=10.63; p=0.000) and the linear predictive value squared (_hatsq) was not (t=1.27; p=0.229). Thus, the linktest diagnostic suggests that the model is properly specified. Subsequently, variance inflation factors (VIFs) were estimated to test for multicollinearity. The VIFs for Model 7B were all under 2.05, suggesting that multicollinearity is not a cause for concern in this model.

Table 19 – Model 7B: Logistic Regression Models Predicting Violent Victimization only in the US - All Nationalities - Foreign-born _ Weighted

Demographics	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**
Nationality	n=2,539		n=2,539		n=2,539		n=2,496		n=2,460		n=2,460	
Vietnamese	0.45*	(0.26, 0.80)	0.18**	(0.08, 0.40)	0.17***	(0.08, 0.38)	0.37*	(0.16, 0.88)	0.5	(0.22, 1.11)	0.47	(0.22, 1.00)
Filipino	0.66	(0.35, 1.24)	0.50*	(0.28, 0.90)	0.48*	(0.27, 0.85)	0.79	(0.40, 1.53)	0.77	(0.40, 1.46)	0.74	(0.39, 1.44)
Chinese	0.79	(0.45, 1.40)	0.54*	(0.30, 0.96)	0.49*	(0.27, 0.87)	1.01	(0.52, 1.96)	1.5	(0.78, 2.86)	1.39	(0.71, 2.72)
All other Asian	0.42*	(0.19, 0.91)	0.30**	(0.13, 0.67)	0.30**	(0.13, 0.67)	0.40	(0.15, 1.07)	0.46	(0.17, 1.24)	0.46	(0.18, 1.21)
Cuban	1.15	(0.70, 1.89)	0.50	(0.24, 1.02)	0.55	(0.28, 1.02)	0.78	(0.38, 1.59)	0.86	(0.46, 1.61)	1.06	(0.53, 2.10)
Puerto Rican												
Mexican	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
All other Latino	1.48*	(1.01, 2.17)	1.15	(0.74, 1.81)	1.19	(0.78, 1.82)	1.48	(0.91, 2.43)	1.61*	(1.01, 2.89)	1.67	(0.89, 3.14)
Residency Status												
US Born Citizens	-	-	-	-							-	-
Naturalized Citizens	-	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
Naturalized Refugees	-	-	2.61**	(1.47, 4.64)	2.81**	(1.57, 5.01)	2.68**	(1.41, 5.08)	2.81**	(1.52, 5.21)	2.78**	(1.54, 5.02)
Non-Naturalized Refugees	-	-	2.03	(0.76, 5.38)	1.91	0.75, 4.89)	4.12**	(1.54, 11.01)	3.45*	(1.19, 10.03)	3.53*	(1.24, 10.01)
Permanent Residents	-	-	0.71	(0.47, 1.05)	0.69	(0.45, 1.06)	1.75*	(1.01, 3.03)	1.77	(0.90, 3.48)	1.75	(0.89, 3.47)
Temporary Residents	-	-	0.43*	(0.21, 0.88)	0.41*	(0.19, 0.90)	1.67	(0.59, 4.70)	2.08	(0.65, 6.68)	2.09	(0.63, 6.91)
Unknown Status	-	-	0.42*	(0.23, 0.78)	0.43*	(0.22, 0.84)	1.06	(0.50, 2.28)	0.92	(0.40, 2.10)	0.97	(0.43, 2.20)
Sex (1=Male)	-	-	-	-	1.85**	(1.29, 2.65)	1.67*	(1.14, 2.43)	1.26	(0.83, 1.91)	1.22	(0.80, 1.87)
Age (Logged)	-	-	-	-	0.58	(0.31, 1.08)	0.14**	(0.05, 0.35)	0.18**	(0.07, 0.45)	0.16**	(0.06, 0.41)
Household Income (Square root)	-	-	-	-	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)
Acculturation												
English Proficiency												
Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-

Fair	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.30*	(1.23, 4.33)			1.75	(0.88, 3.50)
Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.81	(0.84, 3.91)	1.79	(0.90, 3.54)	1.53	(0.62, 3.81)
Excellent	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.94	(0.85, 4.42)	1.61	(0.67, 3.86)	1.58	(0.66, 3.78)
Years in USA (Square Root)	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.31***	(1.80, 2.97)	2.13***	(1.68, 2.69)	2.15***	(1.71, 2.71)
Fear of INS or Deportation	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.33	(0.71, 2.51)	1	(0.50, 1.99)	0.94	(0.44, 2.00)
Risk Factors / Lifestyle Measures (1=yes)												
Doesn't Feel Safe in Neighborhood	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.62	(0.97, 2.69)	1.6	(0.94, 2.72)
Employed	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.92	(0.66, 1.28)	0.91	(0.64, 1.30)
Ever Homeless	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.53**	(1.67, 12.30)	4.56**	(1.69, 12.30)
Ever Used Substance	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.21**	(1.37, 3.56)	2.19**	(1.37, 3.50)
Ever Arrested	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.97*	(1.22, 3.17)	1.92*	(1.17, 3.16)
Ever or Threated to Assault Someone	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.42**	(1.52, 3.85)	2.35**	(1.46, 4.02)
Alcohol Dependency or Abuse	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.92	(0.97, 3.86)	1.93	(0.93, 4.02)
Physical Handicap	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.97*	(1.20, 3.21)	1.85*	(1.17, 2.93)
Mental Health	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
Excellent	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-
Very Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.76	(0.42, 1.39)
Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.76	(0.44, 1.29)
Fair	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.92	(0.51, 1.66)
Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.82	(0.60, 13.14)
Region	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
West	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Reference	-
Northeast	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.82	(0.42, 1.60)

Midwest	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.55	(0.17, 1.72)
South	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.67	(0.41, 1.09)
Constant	0.17***	(0.12, 0.23)	0.25***	(0.16, 0.40)	0.82	(0.06, 10.41)	1.53	(0.06, 38.85)	0.57	(0.20, 16.12)	1.18	(0.04, 39.30)

*Note: *p< 0.05. **p < 0.01. ***p < 0.001*

The final version of Model 7B is shown in the far-right column of Table 19. Only foreign-born individuals are included in this analysis, and Mexican was used as the reference group. Vietnamese had 53% lower odds of violent victimization, but this finding did not quite meet the threshold for significance (t=-2.20; p=0.05). Filipino and all other Asians had lower odds of experiencing violent victimization than the Mexican reference group, but these findings were not statistically significant. Chinese, Cuban, and all other Latino had positive effect sizes indicating higher odds of violent victimization, but none were statistically significant. These null findings were unexpected given the previous models.

In terms of residency status, using naturalized citizens as the reference group, the directionality of coefficients among foreign nationals provides important insight into their vulnerability risk. Naturalized refugees displayed 178% greater odds of victimization than the naturalized reference group (t=3.80, p= 0.003). Similarly, non-naturalized refugees had 253% greater odds of violent victimization (t=2.66, p=0.022); however, the wide confidence interval (1.24, 10.01) suggests this finding should be interpreted with caution. Permanent residents, temporary residents, and unknown statuses were not significantly different than the reference group.

Turning to other predictors, sex and the square root of household income were not significantly related to experiencing violent victimization in the US. The log of age was not significant when US-born citizens were included, but showed an 84% decrease in odds (t=-4.29; p=0.001) in the foreign national model. Unlike the model with US-born citizens, increased English proficiency had no statistically significant effect on violent victimization compared to those with poor English proficiency. Each unit increase in the square root of years in the USA increased the odds of experiencing violent victimization by 115% (t=7.29; p=0.000). Not feeling

safe in their neighborhoods and employment at the time of the interview were not significantly related to the outcome. Those who had ever experienced homelessness had 356% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US (t=3.37; p=0.006); however, the large confidence interval (1.69, 12.30) on this variable suggests that the results should be interpreted with caution. Those who had ever used illegal substances had 119% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization (t=3.69; p=0.004). Ever having been arrested increased the odds of violent victimization by 92% (t=2.88; p=0.015) and ever assaulting or threatening to assault someone increases the odds of violent victimization by 135% (t=3.97; p=0.002). Meeting the DSM_IV criteria for alcohol dependence or abuse was not significantly related to violent victimization. Having a physical handicap was related to having 85% greater odds of experiencing violent victimization (t=2.96; p=0.013). None of the mental health or region categories were significantly related to experiencing violent victimization.

Comparison between all Nationalities with and without US-born citizens

Table 20 – Model 7A and 7B: Comparison of Violent Victimization only in the US Logistic Regression Models - All Nationalities – Weighted

	With US Born Citizens (N = 4,075)		**Foreign-born Only (N=2,460)**	
Demographics	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**
Nationality				
Vietnamese	0.27**	(0.14, 0.52)	0.47	(0.22, 1.00)
Filipino	0.50**	(0.35, 0.72)	0.74	(0.39, 1.44)
Chinese	0.81	(0.48, 1.37)	1.39	(0.71, 2.72)
All other Asian	0.43**	(0.24, 0.77)	0.46	(0.18, 1.21)
Cuban	0.77	(0.47, 1.26)	1.06	(0.53, 2.10)
Puerto Rican	1.67**	(1.17, 2.38)		
Mexican	Reference	-	Reference	-
All other Latino	1.26	(0.90, 1.76)	1.67	(0.89, 3.14)
Residency Status				
US-Born Citizens	Reference	-	-	-
Naturalized Citizens	0.63*	(0.45, 0.89)	Reference	-
Naturalized Refugees	1.50	(0.80, 2.81)	2.78**	(1.54, 5.02)
Non-Naturalized Refugees	1.24	(0.48, 3.19)	3.53*	(1.24, 10.01)

Permanent Residents	0.63	(0.39, 1.02)	1.75	(0.89, 3.47)
Temporary Residents	0.47*	(0.23, 0.99)	2.09	(0.63, 6.91)
Unknown Status	0.40**	(0.22, 0.75)	0.97	(0.43, 2.20)
Sex (1=Male)	1.23	(0.89, 1.70)	1.22	(0.80, 1.87)
Age (Logged)	1.16	(0.72, 1.88)	0.16**	(0.06, 0.41)
Household Income (Square root)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)
Acculturation				
English Proficiency				
Poor	Reference	-	Reference	-
Fair	2.06**	(1.24, 3.42)	1.75	(0.88, 3.50)
Good	2.40**	(1.41, 4.10)	1.53	(0.62, 3.81)
Excellent	2.55**	(1.36, 4.79)	1.58	(0.66, 3.78)
Years in USA (Square Root)	[redacted]		2.15***	(1.71, 2.71)
Fear of INS or Deportation			0.94	(0.44, 2.00)
Risk Factors/ Lifestyle (1=yes)				
Doesn't Feel Safe in Neighborhood	1.35	(0.95, 1.90)	1.6	(0.94, 2.72)
Employed	0.83	(0.66, 1.04)	0.91	(0.64, 1.30)
Ever Homeless	3.35**	(1.82, 6.18)	4.56**	(1.69, 12.30)
Ever Used Substance	1.94***	(1.57, 2.39)	2.19**	(1.37, 3.50)
Ever Arrested	1.95**	(1.22, 3.12)	1.92*	(1.17, 3.16)
Ever or Threated to Assault Someone	2.19***	(1.57, 3.06)	2.35**	(1.46, 4.02)
Alcohol Dependency or Abuse	1.22	(0.75, 1.98)	1.93	(0.93, 4.02)
Physical Handicap	1.70**	(1.28, 2.27)	1.85*	(1.17, 2.93)
Mental Health				
Excellent	Reference	-	Reference	-
Very Good	0.88	(0.59, 1.30)	0.76	(0.42, 1.39)
Good	0.86	(0.57, 1.30)	0.76	(0.44, 1.29)
Fair	1.06	(0.58, 1.98)	0.92	(0.51, 1.66)
Poor	3.64*	(1.31, 10.13)	2.82	(0.60, 13.14)
Region				
West	Reference	-	Reference	-
Northeast	0.89	(0.59, 1.34)	0.82	(0.42, 1.60)
Midwest	1.09	(0.74, 1.59)	0.55	(0.17, 1.72)
South	0.93	(0.70, 1.24)	0.67	(0.41, 1.09)
Constant	0.06*	(0.01, 0.47)	1.18	(0.04, 39.30)

*Note: *p< 0.05. **p < 0.01. ***p < 0.001*

There are several noteworthy differences in the models based on the inclusion and exclusion of US-born citizens. Such comparisons seek to highlight differences across foreign-born subgroups. When US-born citizens are included, the relative likelihood of experiencing

violent victimization is significantly lower for individuals of Vietnamese, Filipino, or all other Asian ancestry compared to the Mexican reference group. On the other hand, Puerto Ricans demonstrate significantly higher odds of experiencing violent victimization than the Mexican reference group. Alternatively, when US citizens are excluded, there is no statistically significant difference between any of the nationalities and the Mexican reference group. With US-born citizens as the reference group, the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization in the US is significantly lower for temporary residents and unknown status. When US-born citizens are excluded, naturalized refugees and non-naturalized refugees are significantly more likely to experience violent victimization only in the US than the naturalized citizen reference group. When US-born citizens are included, sex, the log of age, and household income are insignificant. In the foreign nationals model, sex and household income are also insignificant, but the log of age demonstrates an 84% decrease in odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US. When US-born citizens are included in the model, the odds of experiencing violent victimization incrementally increase with each category of improved English proficiency compared to those with poor proficiency. However, once the model is limited to foreign nationals, this effect is reduced to insignificance. Among foreign nationals, for each year in the US, the odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US increase by 115%, however fear of INS or deportation is not significant.

With regards to risk factors/ lifestyle measures, not feeling safe in their neighborhood and being employed at the time of the interview were not significant in either model. Ever experiencing homelessness and ever using illegal substances were both positively related to experiencing violent victimization only in the US, with stronger odds when limited to only foreign nationals. Ever being arrested was a positive, significant predictor of violent

victimization in the US across both models. Having assaulted or threatened to assault someone was positively related to experiencing violent victimization only in the US, with greater odds when limited to foreign nationals. There were no significant differences in meeting the DSM-IV criteria for alcohol dependency or abuse across either model. Having a physical handicap or impairment was a positive predictor of violent victimization in the US across both models, with slightly larger odds in the foreign national model. When US-born citizens are included in the model, only the poor mental health category was a significant predictor of violent victimization when compared to excellent mental health. When US-born citizens are excluded, this effect is reduced to non-significance. The region categories were insignificant across both models.

Chapter Summary

The main research question posited in this chapter is, "Is nationality a primary predictor of experiencing violent victimization in the US?" To address this question, four sets of models were used to first determine the baseline predictive value of a dichotomized ethnicity variable, differences within each disaggregated panethnic category, and finally using all nationalities within a single model. To address the second research question, "Do predictors of vulnerability vary across ethnic groups and location of birth," each set was divided into an "A" model, which included US-born citizens and a "B" model that focused only on foreign nationals. This structure sought to isolate the effect of "US-born/ foreign-born" within each set, thus expanding our understanding of the impact of known predictors of violent victimization on different groups.

The first set – Models 4A and 4B – used a dichotomized ethnicity variable to test if differences existed between Latinos and non-Latinos (Asians). This type of analysis is typical of criminological literature and provided a baseline for determining if any differences existed between the two groups. Model 4A found that, when US citizens are included, the relative

likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US was 113% higher for Latinos compared to Asians, controlling for residency status, demographic variables, English proficiency, risk factors/ lifestyle measures, mental health, and region (OR=2.13; $p<0.01$). Model 4B restricts the sample to foreign nationals and finds that the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US is 76% greater for foreign-born Latinos, after controlling for residency status, demographic variables, English proficiency, risk factors/ lifestyle measures, mental health, and region (OR=1.76; $p<0.01$). Thus, these models suggest that Asians should have lower odds of violent victimization only in the US than Latinos, but do not address if the nationalities within each panethnic category have differential odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US when compared to other intraethnic groups or if the relative likelihood will be equivalent when all nationalities are compared.

To address the third research question, "When disaggregated, do nationalities within each panethnic group demonstrate differential odds of violent victimization in comparison to other intraethnic groups," the panethnic categories "Latino" and "Asian" are analyzed separately and disaggregated into their respective nationalities. Models 5A and 5B restricted the sample to only the "Latino" category to determine if the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US is constant across nationalities. Model 5A finds when US-born citizens are included, only Puerto Ricans have significantly increased odds of experiencing violent victimization compared to the Mexican reference group after controlling for residency status, demographic variables, English proficiency, risk factors/ lifestyle measures, mental health, and region. Model 5B further restricted the sample to foreign-born Latinos – thus excluding Puerto Ricans – and found no significant differences in the odds of experiencing violent victimization among Cubans and all other Latinos compared to the Mexican reference group.

Models 6A and 6B restricted the sample to only the panracial "Asian" category to determine if the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US is consistent across Asian nationalities. Model 6A found that, when US citizens are included, Vietnamese and Filipinos demonstrate significantly reduced odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US compared to the Chinese reference group after controlling for residency status, demographic variables, English proficiency, risk factors/ lifestyle measures, mental health, and region. Model 6B further restricted the sample to foreign-born Asians and found no significant differences in the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization among Vietnamese, Filipino, or other Asians compared to the Chinese reference group.

Finally, models 7A and 7B disaggregated Latinos and Asians into the eight "nationalities" to determine if nationality is a primary predictor of experiencing violent victimization in the US and if nationalities demonstrate differential odds when compared. Model 7A included US-born citizens and sought to determine the impact of nationality on experiencing violent victimization only in the US. Mexicans served as the reference group for theoretical and practical reasons. First, as the nationality with the largest n, it is best suited to serve as the reference group for statistical analyses. Additionally, the conflation of immigration discourse and Mexican nationality over the last several decades also make it theoretically the most appropriate reference group. The final model found that three of the four Asian nationalities have significantly lower odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US than the Mexican reference group. Additionally, the magnitude of the differences varied across nationalities. The relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US is 73% lower for Vietnamese (OR=0.27; $p<0.01$), 50% lower for Filipinos (OR=0.50; $p<0.01$), and 57% lower for all other Asians (OR=0.43; $p<0.01$) compared to the Mexican reference group. The difference in

the relative likelihood between individuals of Chinese and Mexican descent was not statistically significant. Among the Latino nationalities, the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US was 67% higher for Puerto Ricans than that of the Mexican reference group (OR=1.67; $p<0.01$). The differences in the odds between Cubans and all other Latinos compared to the Mexican reference group were not statistically significant.

Model 7A highlights the utility of using nationality in lieu of panethnic categories compared to Model 4A. The differential odds in experiencing violent victimization only in the US suggest that select nationalities are indeed varied in their likelihood of experiencing violence, even after controlling for residency status, demographic variables, English proficiency, risk factors/ lifestyle measures, mental health, and region. Thus, rather than simply suggesting that Latinos have an increased likelihood of experiencing violent victimization than Asians, we were able to determine that a) Puerto Ricans had the highest odds of experiencing violent victimization of all nationalities, b) the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization was not consistently lower for all Asian nationalities compared to the Mexican reference group, and c) Latino nationalities were not unilaterally more at greater odds of experiencing violent victimization across the models.

Model 7B restricted the sample to only foreign nationals. Doing so sought to isolate the vulnerability to victimization specifically among the foreign-born. Once US citizens were removed from the model, nationality on experiencing violent victimization only in the US is no longer a primary predictor of experiencing violent victimization only in the US. Thus, this model suggests that other variables may mediate the impact of nationality among foreign nationals.

Chapter VI: Discussion

The prevalence of violent victimization among foreign nationals has been a topic of growing academic interest in recent years, but research has been limited by a lack of data on "immigration" statuses, nationality in lieu of broad racial categories, unreported crimes, and whether victimization occurred in the country of origin or the US. This exploratory study sought to address these gaps by using the restricted version of the National Latino and Asian American Survey to determine the extent of post-migration violent victimization experienced by foreign nationals using proxy residency statuses, disaggregated nationalities, and self-reported violent victimization. Violent victimization was measured in two ways: a) any violent victimization experienced in the US and b) violent victimization only in the US. Using the "any" measure of violent victimization, chapter IV sought to address three main questions:

1. Does violent victimization experienced in the US vary across foreign-born groups?
2. Is there evidence of an "immigrant paradox?"
3. Does delineating residency status demonstrate variations of violent victimization risk across foreign-born groups when compared to US-born citizens?

Using violent victimization only in the US, chapter V sought to address four research questions:

4. Is nationality a primary predictor of experiencing violent victimization only in the US?
5. Do predictors of vulnerability vary across ethnic groups and location of birth?
6. When disaggregated, do nationalities within each panethnic group demonstrate differential odds of violent victimization in comparison to other intraethnic groups?
7. When disaggregated, do nationalities across panethnic groups demonstrate differential odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US?

Chapter IV: Residency Status

Chapter IV found that using a dichotomized US-born/foreign-born variable (where US-born=1) resulted in a positive, but insignificant predictor of violent victimization in the US after controlling for nationality, demographic variables, and numerous risk factors (see Model 1). Thus, if following the conventions of typical "immigrant victimization" literature, this result would not support the notion of an immigrant paradox and would not be able to determine if any meaningful differences existed between foreign nationals of different statuses.

Model 2 excluded US-born citizens and used US naturalized citizens as the reference group to further delineate the immigrant paradox across foreign national subgroups. When violent victimization in the US was compared only within foreign-born groups, naturalized refugees displayed greater odds of violent victimization than their non-refugee naturalized counterparts. Non-naturalized refugees, permanent residents, and temporary residents each showed a large positive effect size indicating increased odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US, but these statuses were not statistically significant. The relative likelihood of unknown status was lower than the naturalized citizen reference group, but was also insignificant.

Finally, Model 3 addressed research questions two and three. When US-born citizens were compared with all foreign-national subgroups, naturalized refugees had significantly higher odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US. Naturalized citizens, permanent residents, temporary residents, and unknown status showed lower odds of violent victimization in the US, but these results are not statistically significant. Non-naturalized refugees also demonstrated greater odds of violent victimization than US citizens, but this difference was not statistically significant.

Thus, the results from Models 2 and 3 demonstrate that scholars should not use dichotomized measures of "immigration" status such as the one used in Model 1, as such variables mask important differences in the relative likelihood of experiencing any violent victimization in the US across groups. These findings contradict the immigrant paradox, suggesting that naturalized refugees have the highest relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization in the US when compared to all foreign-born groups as well as US-born citizens. The null findings among the other statuses are also of value, suggesting that there are no statistically significant differences in the odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US between various foreign national groups and US-born citizens. In other words, this model did not find support for the proposition that foreign nationals have better victimization outcomes than US-born citizens.

Chapter V: Nationality

Chapter V found that using a dichotomized panethnic variable, as is typical of most criminological research, masks the impact of nationality on the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US. Chapter V used four sets of models to determine the baseline predictive value of a dichotomized ethnicity variable, differences within each disaggregated panethnic category, and comparisons of all nationalities within a single model. The first set of analyses – Models 4A and 4B – used a dichotomized ethnicity variable to test if differences existed between Latinos and non-Latinos (Asians). Both models found that the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US was higher for Latinos compared to Asians controlling for residency status, demographic variables, English proficiency, risk factors/ lifestyle measures, mental health, and region.

Models 5A and 5B restricted the sample to only the panethnic "Latino" category to determine if the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US was consistent across Latino nationalities. Model 5A found that, when US citizens are included, Puerto Ricans were the only nationality with significantly increased odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US compared to the Mexican reference group after controlling for residency status, demographic variables, English proficiency, risk factors/ lifestyle measures, mental health, and region. Model 5B further restricted the sample to foreign-born Latinos – thus excluding Puerto Ricans – and found no significant differences in the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization among Cubans and all other Latinos compared to the Mexican reference group.

Models 6A and 6B restricted the sample to only the panracial "Asian" category to determine if the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US was consistent across Asian nationalities. Model 6A found that, when US citizens are included, Vietnamese and Filipinos demonstrated significantly reduced odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US compared to the Chinese reference group after controlling for residency status, demographic variables, English proficiency, risk factors/ lifestyle measures, mental health, and region. Model 6B further restricted the sample to foreign-born Asians and found no significant differences in the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization among Vietnamese, Filipino, or other Asians compared to the Chinese reference group.

Finally, Models 7A and 7B disaggregated Latinos and Asians into the eight "nationalities" to determine if nationality was a primary predictor of experiencing violent victimization in the US and if nationalities demonstrated differential odds when compared. Model 7A found that three of the four Asian nationalities had significantly lower odds of

experiencing violent victimization in the US than the Mexican reference group. Additionally, the magnitude of the differences varied across nationalities. Among the Latino nationalities, the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization only in the US was higher for Puerto Ricans than that of the Mexican reference group, but insignificant for Cubans and all other Latinos. Model 7A highlighted the utility of using nationality in lieu of panethnic categories compared to Model 4A. The differential odds in experiencing violent victimization only in the US suggest that select nationalities are indeed varied in their likelihood of experiencing violence, even after controlling for residency status, demographic variables, English proficiency, risk factors/ lifestyle measures, mental health, and region. Model 7B restricted the sample to only foreign nationals. Doing so sought to isolate the vulnerability to victimization specifically among the foreign-born. Once US citizens were removed from the model, nationality was no longer a primary predictor of experiencing violent victimization only in the US. Thus, this model suggested that other variables may mediate the impact of nationality among foreign nationals.

Comparison of models between Chapter IV and Chapter V

Since chapters IV and V use slightly different measures of violent victimization, a brief discussion of the differences is warranted. Chapter IV focused on any violent victimization experienced in the US – including foreign nationals who had been previously victimized in the country of origin – and chapter V focused on violent victimization only experienced in the US, eliminating any "repeat" victims. The distinction between these variables served an important purpose. First, *any* violent victimization in the US gauged the extent to which foreign nationals across residency statuses and nationalities experienced violent victimization in the US, regardless of prior victimization history in the country of origin. Alternatively, by limiting violent victimization to events that only occurred in the US, chapter V attempted to gauge if there were

unique characteristics that increase the odds of violent victimization in the US, despite having no prior history of victimization. Additionally, although there are only 84 foreign nationals that experienced violent victimization in the country of origin and the US, removing them from the analysis sought to address any potential bias introduced by having "repeat" victims in the sample. By comparing the final models from these chapters, we can further delineate the so-called "immigrant paradox" and estimate the extent to which residency status and nationality influenced the odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US compared to experiencing victimization solely in the US. A side-by-side comparison of the final models from each chapter is provided in Table 21 below.

Table 21 – Comparison of Final Violent Victimization Models In Chapters IV and V - All Residency Statuses and Nationalities – Weighted								
	With US-born Citizens				Foreign-Born Subgroups			
	Any Violent Vic - US (Chapter IV)		Only Violent Vic - US (Chapter V)		Any Violent Vic - US (Chapter IV)		Only Violent Vic - US (Chapter V)	
Demographics	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**	**O.R.**	**C.I.**
Residency Status	**N=4,158**		**N=4,075**		**N=2,542**		**N=2,460**	
US Born Citizens	Reference	-	Reference	-				
Naturalized Citizens	0.85	(0.61, 1.17)	0.63*	(0.45, 0.89)	Reference	-	Reference	-
Naturalized Refugees	1.85*	(1.06, 3.23)	1.5	(0.80, 2.81)	2.47**	(1.43, 4.26)	2.78**	(1.54, 5.02)
Non-Naturalized Refugees	1.39	(0.56, 3.44)	1.24	(0.48, 3.19)	2.61	(0.97, 7.02)	3.53*	(1.24, 10.01)
Permanent Residents	0.79	(0.50, 1.26)	0.63	(0.39, 1.02)	1.37	(0.69, 2.72)	1.75	(0.89, 3.47)
Temporary Residents	0.56	(0.28, 1.11)	0.47*	(0.23, 0.99)	1.37	(0.43, 4.37)	2.09	(0.63, 6.91)
Unknown Status	0.63	(0.37, 1.06)	0.40**	(0.22, 0.75)	1	(0.47, 2.15)	0.97	(0.43, 2.20)
Nationality								
Vietnamese	0.28**	(0.15, 0.53)	0.27**	(0.14, 0.52)	0.43*	(0.19, 0.98)	0.47	(0.22, 1.00)
Filipino	0.43***	(0.30, 0.62)	0.50**	(0.35, 0.72)	0.47*	(0.24, 0.91)	0.74	(0.39, 1.44)
Chinese	0.72	(0.44, 1.20)	0.81	(0.48, 1.37)	1.02	(0.51, 2.04)	1.39	(0.71, 2.72)
All other Asian	0.42**	(0.24, 0.74)	0.43**	(0.24, 0.77)	0.39*	(0.16, 0.94)	0.46	(0.18, 1.21)
Cuban	0.69	(0.42, 1.14)	0.77	(0.47, 1.26)	0.77	(0.38, 1.55)	1.06	(0.53, 2.10)
Puerto Rican*	1.53*	(1.06, 2.22)	1.67**	(1.17, 2.38)				
Mexican	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
All other Latino	1.14	(0.80, 1.63)	1.26	(0.90, 1.76)	1.14	(0.63, 2.06)	1.67	(0.89, 3.14)
Sex (1=Male)	1.12	(0.84, 1.49)	1.23	(0.89, 1.70)	0.93	(0.66, 1.31)	1.22	(0.80, 1.87)
Age (Logged)	1.17	(0.72, 1.89)	1.16	(0.72, 1.88)	0.25**	(0.11, 0.57)	0.16**	(0.06, 0.41)
Household Income (Square Root)	1	(1.00, 1.00)	1	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1	(1.00, 1.00)
Acculturation					-	-		
English Proficiency					-	-		
Poor	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
Fair	1.95**	(1.34, 2.85)	2.06**	(1.24, 3.42)	1.95*	(1.19, 3.20)	1.75	(0.88, 3.50)
Good	2.13**	(1.38, 3.28)	2.40**	(1.41, 4.10)	1.69	(0.77, 3.74)	1.53	(0.62, 3.81)
Excellent	2.24**	(1.32, 3.81)	2.55**	(1.36, 4.79)	1.61	(0.79, 3.29)	1.58	(0.66, 3.78)
Years in USA (Square Root) ǂ					1.84***	(1.48, 2.28)	2.15***	(1.71, 2.71)
*Fear of INS or Deportation*ǂ					1.26	(0.61, 2.62)	0.94	(0.44, 2.00)
Risk Factors/ Lifestyle (1=yes)								

Doesn't Feel Safe in Neighborhood	1.42*	(1.05, 1.91)	1.35	(0.95, 1.90)	1.67*	(1.13, 2.48)	1.6	(0.94, 2.72)
Employed	0.86	(0.69, 1.08)	0.83	(0.66, 1.04)	1.02	(0.74, 1.40)	0.91	(0.64, 1.30)
Ever Homeless	3.35**	(1.85, 6.06)	3.35**	(1.82, 6.18)	4.17**	(1.75, 9.95)	4.56**	(1.69, 12.30)
Ever Used Substance	2.08***	(1.72, 2.52)	1.94***	(1.57, 2.39)	2.64**	(1.67, 4.17)	2.19**	(1.37, 3.50)
Ever Arrested	2.06**	(1.33, 3.21)	1.95**	(1.22, 3.12)	2.28**	(1.42, 3.64)	1.92*	(1.17, 3.16)
Ever or Threated to Assault Someone	2.38***	(1.78, 3.20)	2.19***	(1.57, 3.06)	3.23**	(1.85, 5.63)	2.35**	(1.46, 4.02)
Alcohol Dependency or Abuse	1.2	(0.77, 1.86)	1.22	(0.75, 1.98)	1.64	(0.79, 3.43)	1.93	(0.93, 4.02)
Physical Handicap	1.91***	(1.49, 2.45)	1.70*	(1.28, 2.27)	2.60***	(1.73, 3.91)	1.85*	(1.17, 2.93)
Mental Health								
Excellent	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
Very Good	0.90	(0.60, 1.35)	0.88	(0.59, 1.30)	0.82	(0.45, 1.48)	0.76	(0.42, 1.39)
Good	0.83	(0.57, 1.23)	0.86	(0.57, 1.30)	0.71	(0.43, 1.17)	0.76	(0.44, 1.29)
Fair	1.08	(0.58, 2.01)	1.06	(0.58, 1.98)	0.99	(0.54, 1.82)	0.92	(0.51, 1.66)
Poor	3.81*	(1.35, 10.73)	3.64*	(1.31, 10.13)	3.36	(0.75, 15.04)	2.82	(0.60, 13.14)
Region								
West	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
Northeast	0.93	(0.63, 1.36)	0.89	(0.59, 1.34)	0.99	(0.58, 1.70)	0.82	(0.42, 1.60)
Midwest	1.11	(0.77, 1.60)	1.09	(0.74, 1.59)	0.71	(0.26, 1.91)	0.55	(0.17, 1.72)
South	0.98	(0.73, 1.30)	0.93	(0.70, 1.24)	0.82	(0.49, 1.37)	0.67	(0.41, 1.09)
Constant	0.06*	(0.01, 0.50)	0.06*	(0.01, 0.47)	0.85	(0.04, 19.86)	1.18	(0.04, 39.30)

*Note: *p< 0.05. **p < 0.01. ***p < 0.001*

[ǂ] Variables used in foreign nationals analysis only.

Residency Status

With US-born citizens included in the analyses and as the reference group, there are numerous differences between the impacts of residency status across chapters. Although naturalized citizens did not show a statistically significant difference when considering any form of violent victimization, they had 37% lower odds of experiencing violent victimization only in the US compared to US-born citizens. Alternatively, although naturalized refugees demonstrated an 85% increase in odds of experiencing any violent victimization, the effect was no longer significant when limited to experiencing violent victimization only in the US. The effects of non-naturalized refugees and permanent residents remained insignificant across both models, though the effect size and magnitude remained consistent. Temporary residency status was insignificant in Model 3, but demonstrated 53% lower odds of violent victimization only in the US compared to US-born citizens. Unknown status followed a similar pattern whereby insignificant when analyzing any violent victimization in the US but demonstrating 60% lower odds than US-born citizens when limited to violent victimization experienced only in the US. These findings suggest that when analyzing any violent victimization in the US, five of the six statuses showed no statistically significant differences in the odds of experiencing violent victimization than US citizens and the sixth status demonstrated increased odds. These findings do not support the immigrant paradox. However, when limited to experiencing violent victimization only in the US, three of the six foreign-born statuses demonstrated significantly lower odds of violent victimization, thus supporting the immigrant paradox.

To ensure the directionality of each foreign-born status was not a function of the way location of violent victimization was coded, foreign-born only analyses removed US-born citizens used naturalized citizens as the reference group. Using naturalized citizens as the

reference group is ideal as they are also US citizens with all the same legal rights and protections as US-born citizens while – theoretically – having many of the same vulnerabilities as other foreign-born individuals. Naturalized refugees demonstrated 147% greater odds of experiencing any violent victimization in the US and 178% greater odds of violent victimization only in the US. Non-naturalized refugees demonstrated a large effect size in both models, but was only significant when the model was limited to violent victimization only in the US. Although insignificant, the effect size for permanent residents flipped from negative with US-born citizens as the reference group to positive when naturalized citizens were the reference group. This change in direction may suggest that there are underlying mechanisms varying the likelihood of victimization between the groups. A similar pattern is noted for temporary residents. Unknown status is insignificant and demonstrates almost identical odds of violent victimization as the naturalized citizens reference group across both models.

These findings support the hypothesis that aggregating all foreign nationals into a single dichotomized variable masks differences in vulnerability to violent victimization. Even when limited to violent victimization that only occurred in the US, refugees exhibited greater odds of experiencing violence than the other foreign-born statuses. Thus, there are factors inherent to refugees that extend their victimization history beyond the country of origin and are worthy of attention in future studies.

Nationality

When US-born citizens were included, the impact of nationality on violent victimization was consistent across both models. Vietnamese individuals showed consistently lower odds of experiencing violent victimization in the US than the Mexican reference group, even when limited to violent victimization only experienced in the US (72% versus 73%, respectively).

Filipinos had 67% lower odds of any violent victimization in the US compared to the Mexican reference group, but were reduced to 50% when limited to violent victimization only experienced in the US. Across both models, the violent victimization of Chinese individuals was lower, but not statistically different from the Mexican reference group. All other Asians had 58% lower odds of any violent victimization and 57% lower odds of violent victimization only in the US compared to the Mexican reference group. Cubans had lower, but insignificant odds of violent victimization across both models compared to the Mexican reference group. Puerto Ricans, the only group comprised solely of US citizens, demonstrated increased odds of violent victimization compared to the Mexican reference group. The relative likelihood of experiencing any violent victimization in the US was 53% higher for Puerto Ricans compared to the Mexican reference group and 67% higher when limited to experiencing violent victimization only in the US. Finally, all other Latinos demonstrated elevated, but statistically insignificant odds of violent victimization than the Mexican reference group.

Puerto Ricans occupy a unique dynamic in the discussion of "foreign-born victimization" given their status as a US territory and, as a result, US-born citizens. Some Puerto Ricans were coded as foreign-born in the initial dataset and thus "pre-migratory" victimization occurred in Puerto Rico as opposed to the US mainland. The elevated odds may be indicative of an increased likelihood of violent victimization on the US mainland as opposed to the island of Puerto Rico. Some scholars have argued that the Puerto Rican experience should be viewed through a transnational perspective and have suggested that their experience is similar, in some ways, to those of foreign nationals (Adams et al., 2015). Further analysis of this particular group is warranted in future studies.

Disaggregating the Paradox: Foreign-born victimization by status and nationality

To ensure the effects of groups was not a function of the way the location of violent victimization was coded among US-born citizens, foreign-born only analyses removed them – thereby excluding Puerto Ricans. Mexicans remained the reference group. With regard to any violent victimization in the US, foreign-born Vietnamese had 57% lower odds and foreign-born Filipinos had 53% lower odds, but neither group was statistically significant when limited to violent victimization only in the US. Violent victimization among foreign-born Chinese individuals was not statistically significant from the reference group in either model. All other Asians demonstrated 61% lower odds of any violent victimization in the US compared to foreign-born Mexicans, but this was not significant when limited to violent victimization experiences only in the US. The difference in violent victimization experiences between foreign-born Cubans and Mexicans was not statistically significant. Likewise, all other Latinos demonstrated elevated, but insignificant odds of violent victimization across both models compared to foreign-born Mexicans.

The use of two versions of the violent victimization variable illustrated differences in the relative likelihood across the models. Any violent victimization accounted for any violence experienced on US soil, but also included foreign nationals who experienced violent victimization both in the country of origin and the US. A drawback of including "repeat" victims in this context is that the trauma of violent victimization in the country of origin may have produced vulnerabilities not captured by the dataset. For example, the coping mechanisms used by prior victims may have made them more susceptible to victimization in the US, but without a larger sample size to tease out the interactions between variables, a more detailed analysis was not feasible. To account for this possibility, Chapter V eliminated all "repeat" victims from the models, thus providing a more conservative estimate of vulnerability to violent victimization in

the US. This allowed for analysis of vulnerability among foreign nationals who had no prior history of violent victimization. A key drawback of this variable stems from the coding of US-born victims as occurring in the US, due to a lack of data on the location of victimization among this group. Thus, it is a possibility that the reduced odds of violent victimization are a function of coding and not vulnerability.

The use of each variable has theoretical and practical implications for research on the victimization of foreign nationals. Accounting for all violent victimization experiences in the US provides a more comprehensive overview of vulnerability among foreign nationals. Limiting the analysis to violent victimization only experienced in the US highlights the vulnerabilities that influence victimization among foreign nationals with no prior victimization history. The consistent finding that naturalized refugees have a higher likelihood of experiencing violent victimization in the US than US-born citizens contradicts the "Immigrant Paradox." Thus, the implications for the "immigrant paradox" are nuanced and require further research to delineate the impact of residency status and nationality on victimization in the US.

Strengths of the Current Study

The main strength of this study is its unique methodological approach to analyzing residency status. Using the foundations of immigration law as the parameters for developing these statuses has a twofold function. First, it establishes the foundation for studies to improve measures of immigration status to provide more delineated and nuanced results. In doing so, research can better determine risk and protective factors among foreign-born groups. These results may become more useful to policymakers, as research looking at outcomes among foreign nationals provides no meaningful evidence if broad, arbitrary measures of status decrease the utility of research findings. Additionally, criminological theories cannot advance if the measures

utilized in research do not adequately represent the real-world nuances of foreign nationals' lives. As a result, these findings and future studies may also aid in providing targeted policy recommendations and resources among groups most at risk for violent victimization in the US.

The second strength of this study is the use of multiple models to demonstrate differences when examining residency status as a dichotomous variable, only among foreign nationals, and across US-born citizens and six proxy "immigration statuses." Though many statuses were not statistically significant, the methodology provides a first step to reexamining outcomes. The lack of significance may be attributed to small observations within each status or the heterogeneity in the violent victimization measure. The changes in effect sizes across models for some variables suggest that further analyses with new datasets are needed to explore these dynamics.

The third strength of this study is the use of nationality instead of dichotomized racial or ethnic categories. By delineating nationality, we are better able to contextualize the odds of victimization based on historical migration patterns, culturally specific risk or protective factors, and previous research on specific groups. The three multivariate models in chapter IV point to nationality as a stronger predictor of violent victimization than the proxy immigration statuses, but the analyses in chapter V suggest further research is needed to tease out the effects. As Figure 3 demonstrates, some nationalities are concentrated within particular statuses, supporting a previous observation by Portes and Rumbaut (2014). This is not surprising given that migration patterns and the legal structures used to determine status are heavily influenced by national origin and international relations. All other Latino and all other Asian categories have the greatest variety of statuses, likely because they are merging various national origins into a single category, thereby blurring historical migration patterns from those countries.

Limitations of the current study

This study, like all others, has limitations. Statuses are proxies based on available measures and dependent on self-reported data. This, of course, leads to measurement error. Participants may intentionally answer questions falsely depending on their status or may answer incorrectly based on lack of familiarity with certain terms or requirements. Puerto Ricans are a prime example of such measurement error. Even if born in Puerto Rico, they are US citizens by birth and do not legally qualify for naturalization or refugee status. This error may be, in part, a function of the age of the dataset. More recent data collection efforts such as the 2020 census have addressed the "where were you born" question in a manner that accounts for citizens born in a US territory. Researchers should also be more mindful in their use of status-related terminology, as "Puerto Rican immigrants" has been incorrectly used in previous studies. In addition, not having key information such as green card status in this dataset may have increased the measurement error of statuses, particularly those categorized as permanent residents. The word "legal" is not used with "permanent residents" as is done in immigration law because although respondents were asked about their primary country of residence and foreign citizenship, the lack of data on green card status and the "validity" of documentation could have resulted in long term undocumented immigrants being incorrectly categorized. Likewise, it is possible that foreign nationals who are undocumented are unlikely to be well represented in this dataset. The "in the shadows" lifestyle and distrust of formal agencies among undocumented foreign nationals have long been recognized as barriers to representativeness in research (Brown, 2009). The "unknown" category was used as a proxy for undocumented status, but may not directly capture undocumented respondents. Respondents who did not fit into other categories or provided conflicting answers that would classify them as more than one category were listed as

"unknown." Coding these cases as unknown rather than missing served a theoretical purpose, as it sought to gauge conflicting responses as a potential measure of undocumented status. A more direct measure of undocumented status may be difficult to gauge given foreign nationals' reluctance to provide such information; however, a stronger measure would provide a more accurate picture of their vulnerability. Future studies should seek to address if conflicting responses to status related questions are indeed a measure of undocumented status or lack of understanding of the questions being asked.

Despite the generalizable nature of the data, the small sample sizes made sub-analyses difficult. Attempts to account for migration patterns across groups were challenging, as several models lacked sufficient power for meaningful analyses. Chapter V attempted to account for variations in victimization profiles across panethnic groups, however, models limited to foreign nationals of either Asian or Latino ancestry resulted in small sample sizes and large confidence intervals among several variables. Sub analyses based on residency status or nationality were thus not feasible.

It is also important to note that victimization, as used in this study, is not operationalized in the manner common in traditional crime datasets as the NLAAS data were not collected with criminological studies in mind. Specifically, victimization experiences in future studies should follow the behavioral-specific question framework advocated in the victimization literature in lieu of using terms like "mugged," "assaulted," or "raped." In addition, it is important to note that self-definitions of various forms of violence and victimization vary across cultures, so accounting for the "acceptability" of victimization experiences – especially those related to family violence – is a key detail to consider (Fuchsel, 2013; Sabina et al., 2013).

The measures that operationalized victimization in this study stem from the traumatic experiences reported as part of the section on post-traumatic stress experiences. Aggregating six forms of violent victimization into a single measure was necessary due to low affirmative responses across each specific form of violence as well as the further reduction of variability based on the location of victimization (i.e., country of origin or US). Supplemental models were run – see table 20 in the appendix – showing how each grouping of violence (street crime, family violence, and other violence) influenced the predictors.[29] Though not ideal data, the emphasis on migration factors often unavailable in traditional crime surveys is ample reason to rationalize the use of this dataset that was not designed or collected by criminologists or victimologists.

Additionally, it is important to remind the reader that the location of victimization (i.e., country of origin, US, both) was based on the age at victimization and age at migration variables. It is possible to foreign nationals to have inaccurately recalled the exact age at migration or victimization, leading to measurement error. Additionally, there was no means of determining victimization during migration or differentiating the location of victimization for respondents who reported migration and victimization during the same year. To ensure conservative measures, these cases were coded to occur in the country of origin, but better measures are needed to distinguish the location of victimization.

The findings for risk factors, particularly the offending variables, should be interpreted with caution. Most risk/lifestyle measures used lifetime measures, which did not allow for the determination of time-order. Engaging in risky behaviors, such as substance use, may have resulted from victimization rather than a contributing risk factor. To illustrate, supplemental

[29] A noteworthy difference, for example, is while sex was not significant in most models in chapters IV or V, it is significant in the expected directions across the three supplemental models, thus suggesting that the category of violence (i.e., family-based, street violence, and other) are more likely to occur to one sex compared to the other. When violence is aggregated, these differences are masked.

analyses based on residency status showed that refugees had surprisingly high percentages of arrests. Based on the lifetime measure, the arrest may have been part of the persecution experienced in the country of origin, which then allowed them to apply for refugee status in the US as opposed to experiencing an arrest on US soil. The link between certain risk factors in the country of origin in the US has yet to be explored and is a worthy endeavor for a future study. Thus, these "risk factors" may not have directly contributed to violent victimization in the US. Similarly, the self-reported mental health measure relies on respondents' self-assessment of mental health and cultural norms surrounding the discussion of mental health, as well as

Two additional possibilities are worth noting. First, there is the possibility for omitted variable bias as foreign nationals who engaged in such behaviors on US soil may be underrepresented in the dataset. Legislation passed in 1996 made most of the "risk" behaviors measured herein deportable offenses, so foreign nationals who were not naturalized at the time of the offense – and were caught – may have been removed from the US prior to data collection. Similarly, although the medical focus of this dataset may have mitigated underreporting, it is still possible that many foreign nationals – particularly those who were not naturalized at the time of the interview, would be reluctant to answer such questions truthfully. Thus, while the Lifestyle/Routine Activities Theory may seem to be supported in these models, such interpretation is premature due to the inability to determine directionality and possible omitted variable bias.

Future Directions

This study contributes to the literature in several ways. First, it demonstrated that disaggregating "immigration statuses" beyond dichotomized measures is feasible and can be done using the parameters outlined in immigration law. Secondly, it used nationality to

disaggregate Latino and Asian groups, and reveals differences in the odds of experiencing violent victimization among groups. However, as outlined in the previous section, there are several limitations that present potentially fruitful directions for future work, including data, methodological, and theoretical advancements in research.

As with any cross-sectional dataset, causal inferences are not possible with the present data. A longitudinal study that collects baseline victimization data upon migration to the US and follows cohorts over time would be well-positioned to track changes in risk factors, lifestyles, and victimization experiences in the US. Additionally, increases in the sample size of future data collection efforts would allow for a deeper understanding of the vulnerability profiles of targeted groups. Likewise, increased sample sizes would allow for interactions, such as between residency status and nationality, to be created and their effects to be evaluated. Such nuance is vital in understanding the vulnerability and victimization experiences among foreign nationals.

Another challenge was that context of reception was difficult to gauge using these data. Including measures of location, including states and potentially cities or neighborhood zip codes, could further determine other relevant factors such as general political orientation, racial demographics over time, sanctuary status, anti-immigrant policies, and others. Such specificity, however, should be done with caution, given the vulnerability of select groups to legal consequences of unstable statuses.

Data collected from an agency where such information is required to be collected (such as the Department of Homeland Security) would aid researchers in delineating more accurate statuses. As such information is unlikely to be readily available, researchers collecting primary data should include a series of questions that would allow for disaggregating status. Such questions can include the ones used in this dataset (see Table 2 in the methods chapter), but

could also include a) do you have a green card, b) do you have a valid visa, c) what type of visa do you have? Data could also be improved by changing the wording of select questions. For example, instead of asking if someone was "ever a refugee," ask if the respondent ever "applied for asylum or refugee status in the United States?" This change removes the potential for self-identification and instead focuses on whether or not respondents followed the legal steps required to obtain such status.

Such wording considerations should also be used in operationalizing victimization events. Migrants across cultures may have different interpretations of the meaning of "violence" or "victimization," particularly if perpetrated by relatives or acquaintances. Following recent research recommendations, behaviorally specific questions may gauge more accurate reports of victimization experiences (DiLillo et al., 2006; Fisher, 2004). Of course, having disaggregated measures of status, nationality, and victimization in the same dataset is critical.

Finally, accounting for the data and methodological limitations would provide opportunities for theoretical expansions and policy implications. The analyses presented in chapters IV and V demonstrated the need to expand criminological theory and research to address the complexity of the relationship between nationality, residency status, and victimization outcomes. The change in direction and strength of effect sizes across models suggests underlying differences between the groups that cannot be accounted for using the present data. Additionally, using the "immigrant paradox" as a framework requires acknowledgement that comparing foreign nationals to only US-born citizens masks the vulnerability across groups. In some models, statuses approached significance but did not meet the $p<0.05$ threshold. The foreign-born Latina and Asian subanalyses, for example, demonstrated insufficient power to test hypotheses. As Allison (1999) notes, "in a small sample, statistically

significant coefficients is extremely weak evidence for the absence of an effect (p. 57)." Some disciplines are moving away from the use of p-values and placing greater emphasis on the effect sizes due to p-values' dependence on sample size (Sullivan & Feinn, 2012).

Scholars have labeled immigration law as one of the pillars of systemic racism (Álvarez & Urbina, 2018). Legislation and various Supreme Court cases have upheld discriminatory policies and practices throughout history, particularly against Latinos and Asians. Criminological literature often demonstrates minimal acknowledgment of systemic racism underlying many of the "individual" risk factors that pathologize "crime" and "criminals." Risk factors such as whether or not individuals are employed ignore the hierarchy of occupations by which select nationalities have been systematically excluded. The concentration of select racial/ethnic groups in disadvantaged neighborhoods ignores the historical and systemic facets of neighborhoods that facilitate segregation and poverty. Education variables in criminological research often measure based on grade level or degree, with little acknowledgment of the quality of school districts or comparisons of "degree" value across countries. Eurocentric assumptions often equate education status with occupation; however, many immigrants with advanced degrees from their country of origin are devalued in the US, resulting in lower-wage, less prestigious positions in the US. Likewise, there may be an interaction between higher education and English proficiency, as many schools abroad offer bilingual education with the intention of making skillsets appealing to other nations (Portes & Rumbaut, 2014). Research on the "immigration-crime-nexus" must account for such nuance.

The fundamental elements of immigration statuses have not been significantly amended through legislation since the collection of this data. Thus, the age of this dataset is not of great concern given the stability of immigration laws through the present day. However, future data

collection efforts should include contemporary changes to immigration policy such as the Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) status, which were not legislatively passed as law, but remain critical policies that allow for temporary residence in the United States. Combined with longitudinal data, future studies need to be able to compare vulnerability and victimization trends across groups over a period of time, and determine if the vulnerabilities across groups change over time and if certain events – such as legislation, change in Presidential Administrations, or other factors – have differential impacts on victimization across groups.

Conclusion

The primary goal of this study was to disaggregate the "Immigrant Paradox" by addressing previous calls to disaggregate "immigration status" (McDonald, 2018) and nationality (Devanney et al., 2020). The value in doing so is in highlighting the methodological error introduced when aggregating groups into broad categories based on "US-born/foreign-born" status or homogenizing groups that have distinct characteristics based on legal parameters (i.e., immigration statuses), culture, or historical patterns of migration. This study addresses previous calls to disaggregate "immigration status" (McDonald, 2018) and finds that though differences between groups are not always statistically significant, a dichotomized US-born/foreign-born variable hides the magnitude and directionality of effect sizes across residency statuses. Therefore, the differences in the likelihood of finding an "immigrant paradox" are masked.

Likewise, the nationality variable allowed for delineation of the two largest foreign-born "immigrant" groups in the US and compared victimization within and across groups. While beyond the scope of this study, Latinos are often cited as having reduced odds of offending and victimization than other disadvantaged racial groups - typically compared against African Americans (Ulmer et al., 2012) – but this study demonstrated that excluding other groups (i.e.,

Asians) masks increases in vulnerability to victimization, particularly since racial discourse and immigration discourse are often conflated (Burns & Gimpel, 2000). Future studies should include these disaggregated groups as well as other racial/ ethnic/ nationality groups to ensure nuanced analyses that allow for the delineation of vulnerability.

Understanding phenomena connected to foreign nationals' lives requires scholars to account for nationality and historical migratory patterns, which are not the norm in criminology. However, increasing interest in the immigration-crime-nexus (Dingeman & Rumbaut, 2009; Mears, 2001), crimmigration (Armenta, 2017b; Jiang & Erez, 2017; Stumpf, 2006; Vázquez, 2016), and the victimization of foreign nationals (Comino et al., 2020; McCann & Boateng, 2021; McDonald, 2018) necessitates the collection of these data in a systematic, macro-level mechanism to expand criminological theory, adequately address disproportionate impacts of policies across foreign nationals, and delineate the effects of residency status as risk factors.

An important point should be made that the use of nationality is necessary in the context of immigration in the United States, but nationality may have different meanings (or measurements) internationally. Even nationalities represent panethnic categories to some degree – as various ethnic identities reside within each country (Okamoto & Mora, 2014). In addition, minority groups members such as particular race, ethnicity, or other groups (i.e., indigenous) may be classified under the same nationality in the US, but have unique experiences in the country of origin not captured by nationality alone. Equally relevant is the use of the term "nationality" with regard to foreign-born persons, but terms such as "family origin" or national origin may be more appropriate with later generation children of immigrants whose "nationality" is the US but still identify with the nationality or cultural identity of their parents or families. It is possible to change nationality through naturalization – used interchangeably with citizenship.

Although this study raised important implication for policy, it would be premature to make specific recommendations based on a single study. However, this study highlights the need to collect more accurate measures of status so that future research can pose realistic and feasible policy solutions that account for immigration law. The use of broad, dichotomous measures often paints a broad image of foreign-born individuals as less likely to experience violent victimization in the US than US-born citizens, further disincentivizing policymakers from modifying policies that, in fact, increase vulnerabilities for specific subgroups. The focus on "undocumented" foreign-born individuals in research is also problematic, as they do not represent the only vulnerable category of foreign national and policymakers are hesitant to take action that are perceived to "incentivize illegal immigration." The findings here suggest that there is a unique interaction between refugees and being naturalized that increase the relative likelihood of experiencing violent victimization in the US when compared to both-US-born citizens and naturalized citizens. To date, this group has not received adequate attention in victimization research. Without that initial step in research advancement, policymakers will continue to disregard research findings as they simply provide no useful evidence for policy revision. Criminology, in particular, lags behind other fields in the measurement and research of foreign nationals.

Future studies should take care to disaggregate "immigration" status using similar variables used in this study and attempt to align proxy categories to statuses as outlined in immigration law as closely as possible. Additionally, further using nationality in lieu of broad racial/ethnic categories can better determine vulnerable groups based on national origin. A recent study by Koo et al. (2021) found support for an interactive effect on nationality and residency status (US citizen, "legal" noncitizen, and "illegal" noncitizen) on sentencing outcomes. Further

research using similar methods are critical for the advancement of scholarship. In the 2020 US Census, for the first time, individuals who selected "white" or "black" as their race could select more information about their nationality or family origins (PEW, 2020). Though fraught with racist history, the racial category system is unlikely to be eliminated in the near future. Duplicating the race questions asked by the 2020 Census in criminal justice and other datasets as standard practice can aid in this advancement.

In line with the intersectionality thesis, US-based research using nationality should also track generation status, immigration status, and other features to ensure adequate representation of the dynamics critical to vulnerability and victimization. Not accounting for these combinations of variables increases the likelihood of omitted-variable bias.

Research has only begun to account for the nuances in victimization among foreign nationals. The findings of this study support the argument that the use of dichotomized “immigration” variables is an outdated and ineffective means of operationalizing status. In addition to masking outcomes within groups, such analyses do not inform policy. Likewise, the use of panethnic/panracial groups mask differences between nationalities, but requires further research. The inclusion and exclusion of US-born citizens had significant impacts on the effects of nationality as well as several of the additional predictor variables, both within the panethnic subgroup analyses and across all nationalities. Future studies should include nationalities from other “racial” groups to further delineate the “immigrant paradox” as it relates to different types of victimization and criminal justice outcomes. Although this study focused on violent victimization in the US, future studies can concentrate on sexual or exposure victimization, as well as draw comparisons based on the location of victimization. Nevertheless, the first step toward progress begins with eliminating dichotomized “immigration” statuses and panethnic

categories in research and moving toward more thoughtful and accurate measurements of residency status and disaggregated nationalities while accounting for interdisciplinary elements that inform the foreign national experience.

APPENDIX A: Disaggregating Violent Victimization in the US

Table A.1. Comparison of Disaggregated Violent Victimization in the US Multivariate Logistic Regression Models – All Nationalities and Statuses – Weighted

	Street Crime in the US				Domestic Violence in the US				Other Violence in the US			
	With US Citizen		Foreign-born Only		With US Citizen		Foreign-born Only		With US Citizen		Foreign-born Only	
Demographics	**OR**	**CI**	**OR**	**CI**	**OR**	**CI**	**OR**	**CI**	**OR**	**CI**	**OR**	**CI**
Residency Status	N=4,368		N=2,747		N=4,368		N=2,747		N=4,396		N=2,778	
US-Born Citizens	Reference	-	-	-	Reference	-			Reference	-		
Naturalized Citizens	0.70	(0.46, 1.07)	Reference	-	1.05	(0.49, 2.27)	Reference	-	1.15	(0.57, 2.35)	Reference	-
Naturalized Refugees	1.81	(0.90, 3.65)	3.61**	(1.78, 7.33)	0.67	(0.18, 2.48)	0.48	(0.13, 1.79)	1.48	(0.59, 3.72)	1.31	(0.49, 3.50)
Non-Naturalized Refugees	1.29	(0.50, 3.30)	2.86	(0.98, 8.35)	0.19*	(0.05, 0.79)	0.21	(0.03, 1.41)	1.79	(0.44, 7.39)	1.94	(0.25, 15.41)
Permanent Residents	0.72	(0.43, 1.22)	1.40	(0.64, 3.08)	0.66	(0.31, 1.39)	0.97	(0.42, 2.26)	1.05	(0.41, 2.68)	1.14	(0.40, 3.27)
Temporary Residents	0.53	(0.25, 1.12)	1.44	(0.39, 5.25)	0.42	(0.12, 1.43)	0.96	(0.15, 6.26)	0.84	(0.32, 2.22)	1.51	(0.35, 6.48)
Unknown Status	0.81	(0.49, 1.54)	1.65	(0.72, 3.82)	0.45	(0.16, 1.27)	0.44	(0.10, 2.05)	0.98	(0.35, 2.80)	0.97	(0.25, 3.80)
Nationality												
Vietnamese	0.26**	(0.14, 0.49)	0.33*	(0.14, 0.78)	0.25*	(0.10, 0.67)	0.46	(0.13, 1.61)	0.74	(0.32, 1.71)	1.17	(0.37, 3.67)
Filipino	0.41***	(0.28, 0.61)	0.54	(0.24, 1.23)	0.50	(0.24, 1.04)	0.40	(0.11, 1.46)	0.69	(0.32, 1.52)	0.51	(0.17, 1.58)
Chinese	0.88	(0.49, 1.59)	1.43	(0.62, 3.29)	0.57	(0.31, 1.05)	0.51	(0.16, 1.68)	0.86	(0.44, 1.70)	0.91	(0.30, 2.77)
All other Asian	0.42*	(0.19, 0.92)	0.51	(0.15, 1.76)	0.26**	(0.11, 0.61)	0.2	(0.04, 1.09)	0.97	(0.41, 2.30)	0.76	(0.26, 2.25)
Cuban	0.67	(0.38, 1.19)	0.62	(0.28, 1.38)	0.50	(0.21, 1.19)	0.35	(0.11, 1.10)	1.68	(0.89, 3.16)	1.37	(0.35, 5.36)
Puerto Rican	1.42	(0.97, 2.10)			1.84	(0.93, 3.63)			1.7	(0.85, 3.40)		
Mexican	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
All other Latino	1.19	(0.81, 1.75)	1.37	(0.62, 3.00)	0.88	(0.50, 1.55)	0.86	(0.22, 3.38)	1.06	(0.61, 1.84)	0.91	(0.40, 2.04)
Sex (1=Male)	2.39***	(1.75, 3.26)	1.76*	(1.09, 2.84)	0.33***	(0.23, 0.48)	0.22***	(0.12, 0.41)	0.22***	(0.12, 0.39)	0.24**	(0.12, 0.49)
Age (Logged)	1.11	(0.69, 1.78)	0.26*	(0.08, 0.83)	1.86*	(1.01, 3.42)	0.36	(0.11, 1.18)	0.54*	(0.32, 0.91)	0.09**	(0.02, 0.41)
Household Income (Square root)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00*	(1.00, 1.00)	0.99*	(0.99, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.00)	1.00	(1.00, 1.01)

Acculturation												
English Proficiency												
Poor	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
Fair	2.29**	(1.36, 3.87)	2.09*	(1.06, 4.12)	1.58	(0.87, 2.87)	2.32	(0.85, 6.36)	2.03*	(1.07, 3.84)	1.36	(0.63, 2.91)
Good	2.52**	(1.49, 4.39)	1.83	(0.79, 4.26)	1.77	(0.99, 3.16)	1.63	(0.54, 4.92)	2.47**	(1.32, 4.62)	1.4	(0.49, 4.04)
Excellent	2.52**	(1.44, 4.42)	1.45	(0.62, 3.38)	2.09*	(1.01, 4.34)	2.66	(0.96, 7.34)	2.61*	(1.26, 5.41)	1.15	(0.38, 3.48)
Years in US[‡]			1.80**	(1.37, 2.36)			1.80**	(1.29, 2.50)			1.88*	(1.16, 3.03)
Fear of INS or deportation[‡]			1.41	(0.61, 3.27)			1.27	(0.41, 3.93)			1.02	(0.26, 3.97)
Risk Factors/ Lifestyle Measures (1=yes)												
Doesn't Feel Safe in Neighborhood	1.46*	(1.02, 2.08)	1.59	(0.96, 2.64)	1.68*	(1.10, 2.54)	2.26*	(1.20, 4.25)	1.05	(0.68, 1.62)	0.79	(0.45, 1.37)
Employed	0.9	(0.69, 1.17)	1.03	(0.68, 1.56)	1.03	(0.78, 1.36)	1.67	(0.71, 3.91)	1.07	(0.69, 1.67)	1.55	(0.80, 3.01)
Ever Homeless	2.19**	(1.28, 3.75)	1.61	(0.67, 3.86)	2.66**	(1.38, 5.14)	3.27	(0.78, 13.67)	1.85*	(1.02, 3.35)	4.23**	(1.99, 8.96)
Ever Used Substance	2.07***	(1.65, 2.60)	2.69**	(1.47, 4.92)	1.57	(0.87, 2.82)	2.26*	(1.08, 4.71)	1.85*	(1.06, 3.24)	1.9	(0.81, 4.45)
Ever Arrested	2.09**	(1.38, 3.17)	2.39**	(1.41, 4.06)	1.53	(0.79, 2.97)	1.49	(0.43, 5.17)	2.55**	(1.35, 4.79)	4.18**	(1.93, 9.06)
Ever or Threated to Assault Someone	1.95**	(1.36, 2.78)	2.47**	(1.32, 4.63)	3.42***	(2.36, 4.94)	3.80**	(1.70, 8.50)	2.16**	(1.38, 3.37)	2.92*	(1.31, 6.52)
Alcohol Dependency or Abuse	1.12	(0.75, 1.68)	1.12	(0.64, 1.96)	1.17	(0.76, 1.80)	2	(0.55, 7.33)	1.66*	(1.07, 2.56)	1.53	(0.62, 3.76)
Physical Handicap	1.77**	(1.20, 2.60)	2.20**	(1.28, 3.77)	1.78*	(1.13, 2.78)	2.92	(0.99, 8.63)	2.16*	(1.24, 3.75)	5.14**	(1.93, 13.73)
Mental Health												
Excellent	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-
Very Good	0.83	(0.55, 1.25)	0.76	(0.44, 1.31)	0.79	(0.46, 1.36)	1.07	(0.26, 4.46)	0.69	(0.37, 1.28)	0.77	(0.42, 1.42)
Good	0.68	(0.46, 1.01)	0.62	(0.37, 1.05)	1.49	(0.81, 2.73)	1.07	(0.34, 3.44)	0.97	(0.61, 1.52)	0.76	(0.40, 1.46)
Fair	0.91	(0.50, 1.66)	0.71	(0.35, 1.44)	1.24	(0.57, 2.70)	2.81	(0.81, 9.77)	0.76	(0.37, 1.54)	0.57	(0.17, 1.95)
Poor	1.86	(0.91, 3.81)	0.83	(0.21, 3.35)	4.57	(0.83, 25.29)	5.24	(0.16, 168.34)	4.66**	(1.70, 12.78)	2.69	(0.54, 13.35)
Region												
West	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-	Reference	-

Northeast	1.21	(0.81, 1.80)	1.35	(0.82, 2.21)	0.64	(0.36, 1.12)	0.36	(0.10, 1.31)	0.82	(0.48, 1.40)	0.95	(0.45, 2.01)
Midwest	1.03	(0.75, 1.40)	0.62	(0.14, 2.65)	1.07	(0.49, 2.33)	0.5	(0.09, 2.90)	0.72	(0.34, 1.56)	0.23	(0.05, 1.04)
South	1.15	(0.83, 1.60)	1.16	(0.75, 1.81)	0.77	(0.52, 1.16)	0.98	(0.46, 2.12)	0.77	(0.44, 1.35)	0.81	(0.33, 1.97)
Constant	0.03**	(0.00, 0.19)	0.27	(0.01, 12.54)	0.01***	(0.00, 0.07)	0.12	(0.00, 9.75)	0.17	(0.02, 1.44)	4.83	(0.07, 352.05)

*Note: *p< 0.05. **p < .01. ***p < .001*

ǂVariables included only in foreign-born analyses.

APPENDIX B: Correlation Matrices

Table B.1. Chapter IV - Correlation Matrix - Dichotomized US-Born / Foreign-Born

Variables	*1.*	*2.*	*3.*	*4.*	*5.*	*6.*	*7.*	*8.*	*9.*
1. Violent Victimization Only in the US	1.00								
2. Dichotomized US born/ Foreign Born	0.2660***	1.00							
3. Nationality	0.1742***	0.2510***	1.00						
4. Sex	0.0779***	-0.0014	-0.0381**	1.00					
5. Age	-0.0573**	-0.1702***	-0.1133***	-0.0184	1.00				
6. Household Income	-0.0040	0.0187	-0.1883***	0.1078***	-0.0105	1.00			
7. English Proficiency	0.1774***	0.4717***	-0.0395**	0.0615***	-0.3216***	0.3242***	1.00		
8. Feel safe in neighborhood	0.0484**	-0.0200	0.1447***	-0.1272***	-0.0679***	-0.1822***	-0.1359***	1.00	
9. Employed	-0.0165	0.0037	-0.0279	0.1920***	-0.1163***	0.3390***	0.1482***	-0.1153***	1.00
10. Ever Homeless	0.2231***	0.1194***	0.0894***	0.0094	-0.0393**	-0.0821***	0.0460**	0.0643***	-0.0414**
11. Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs	0.3100***	0.3694***	0.1237***	0.1438***	-0.2043***	0.1068***	0.3363***	-0.0103	0.1071***
12. Ever Arrested	0.2899***	0.1871***	0.1423***	0.2695***	-0.0385**	-0.0327*	0.0704***	0.0037	0.0212
13. Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone	0.2659***	0.1947***	0.0468**	0.0763***	-0.1223***	0.0313*	0.1465***	0.0174	-0.0090
14. Lifetime Alcohol dependance or abuse	0.2385***	0.2038***	0.1155***	0.1590***	-0.0642**	0.0002	0.1215***	-0.0170	0.0077
15. Physical Impairment	0.1272***	0.0633***	0.0526***	-0.0489***	0.2419***	-0.1418***	-0.0998***	0.0809***	-0.2497***
16. Mental Health Rating	0.0588***	-0.0538***	0.0003	-0.0971***	0.1332***	-0.1882***	-0.2877***	0.0814***	-0.1523***
17. Region	-0.0848***	-0.1046***	-0.3828***	0.0450**	0.0094	0.1312***	0.0962***	-0.1370***	0.0396**

Table B.1. Chapter IV - Correlation Matrix - Dichotomized US-Born / Foreign-Born (continued)

Variables	*10.*	*11.*	*12.*	*13.*	*14.*	*15.*	*16.*	*17.*
1. Violent Victimization Only in the US								
2. Dichotomized US born / Foreign Born								
3. Nationality								
4. Sex								
5. Age								
6. Household Income								
7. English Proficiency								
8. Feel safe in neighborhood								
9. Employed								
10. Ever Homeless	1.00							
11. Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs	0.1838***	1.00						
12. Ever Arrested	0.2173***	0.3224***	1.00					
13. Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone	0.1764***	0.2992***	0.2071***	1.00				
14. Lifetime Alcohol dependance or abuse	0.1849***	0.3245***	0.3505***	0.2724***	1.00			
15. Physical Impairment	0.0681***	0.0047	0.0338*	0.0800***	0.0563***	1.00		
16. Mental Health Rating	0.0706***	-0.0149	0.0314*	0.0647***	0.0529***	0.2356***	1.00	
17. Region	-0.0525***	0.0064	-0.0381**	0.0003	-0.0043	-0.0652***	-0.0009	1.00

Table B.2. Chapter IV - Correlation Matrix - Foreign Born Subgroups Only

Variables	*1.*	*2.*	*3.*	*4.*	*5.*	*6.*	*7.*	8.	9.
1. Violent Victimization Only in the US	1.00								
2. Foreign Born Only	-0.0424*	1.00							
3. Nationality	0.1742***	0.2766***	1.00						
4. Sex	0.0781***	0.0181	-0.0381**	1.00					
5. Age	-0.0530***	-0.2846***	-0.1133***	-0.0184	1.00				
6. Household Income	-0.0040	-0.1971***	-0.1883***	0.1078***	-0.0105	1.00			
7. English Proficiency	0.1774***	-0.2747***	-0.0395**	0.0615***	-0.3216***	0.3242***	1.00		
8. Years In USA	0.2447***	-0.4930***	0.0783***	0.0268	0.4843***	0.1086***	0.2364***	1.00	
9. Fear of INS or Deportation	0.2661***	0.2148***	0.2487***	-0.0006	-0.1697***	0.0177	0.4722***	0.2342***	1.00
10. Feel safe in neighborhood	0.0484**	0.1122***	0.1447***	-0.1272***	-0.0679***	-0.1822***	-0.1359***	-0.0360*	-0.0205
11. Employed	-0.0165	-0.0296	-0.0279	0.1920***	-0.1163***	0.3390***	0.1482***	-0.0437*	0.0009
12. Ever Homeless	-0.2231***	0.0388*	0.0894***	0.0094	-0.0393**	-0.0821***	0.0460**	0.0368*	0.1195***
13. Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs	0.3100***	-0.0134	0.1237***	0.1438***	-0.2043***	0.1068***	0.3363***	0.1077***	0.3686***
14. Ever Arrested	0.2899***	0.0576**	0.1423***	0.2695***	-0.0385**	-0.0327*	0.0704***	0.0759***	0.1887***
15. Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone	0.2659***	-0.0255	0.0468**	0.0763***	-0.1223***	0.0313*	0.1465***	0.0244	0.1950***
16. Lifetime Alcohol dependance or abuse	0.2385***	0.0053	0.1155***	0.1590***	-0.0462**	0.0002	0.1215***	0.0686***	0.2036***
17. Physical Impairment	0.1272***	-0.0444*	0.0526***	-0.0489***	0.2419***	-0.1418***	-0.0998***	0.1687***	0.0639***
18. Mental Health Rating	0.0588***	0.0346	0.0003	-0.0971***	0.1332***	-0.1882***	-0.2877***	0.0067	-0.0537***
19. Region	-0.0848***	-0.0878***	-0.3828***	0.0450**	0.0094	0.1312***	0.0962***	-0.0506**	-0.1049***

Table B.2. Chapter IV - Correlation Matrix - Foreign Born Subgroups Only (continued)

Variables	*10.*	*11.*	*12.*	*13.*	*14.*	*15.*	*16.*	*17.*	*18.*	*19.*
1. Violent Victimization Only in the US										
2. Foreign Born Only										
3. Nationality										
4. Sex										
5. Age										
6. Household Income										
7. English Proficiency										
8. Years In USA										
9. Fear of INS or Deportation										
10. Feel safe in neighborhood	1.00									
11. Employed	-0.1153***	1.00								
12. Ever Homeless	0.0643***	-0.0414**	1.00							
13. Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs	-0.0103	0.1071***	0.1838***	1.00						
14. Ever Arrested	0.0037	0.0212	0.2173***	0.3224***	1.00					
15. Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone	0.0174	-0.0090	0.1764***	0.2992***	0.2071***	1.00				
16. Lifetime Alcohol dependance or abuse	-0.0170	0.0077	0.1849***	0.3245***	0.3505***	0.2724***	1.00			
17. Physical Impairment	0.0809***	-0.2497***	0.0681***	0.0047	0.0338*	0.0800***	0.0563***	1.00		
18. Mental Health Rating	0.0841***	-0.1523***	0.0706***	-0.0149	0.0314*	0.0647***	0.0529***	0.2356***	1.00	
19. Region	-0.1370***	0.0396**	-0.0525***	0.0064	-0.0381**	0.0003	-0.0043	-0.0652***	-0.0009	1.00

Table B.3. Chapter IV - Correlation Matrix - All Residency Statuses

Variables	*1.*	*2.*	*3.*	*4.*	*5.*	*6.*	*7.*	*8.*	*9.*
1. Violent Victimization Only in the US	1.00								
2. All Residency Statuses	0.2385***	1.00							
3. Nationality	0.1742***	0.3198***	1.00						
4. Sex	0.0781***	0.0042	-0.0381**	1.00					
5. Age	-0.0530**	-0.2395***	-0.1133***	-0.0184	1.00				
6. Household Income	-0.0040	-0.0426**	-0.1883***	0.1078***	-0.0105	1.00			
7. English Proficiency	0.1774***	0.3599***	-0.0395**	0.0615***	-0.3216***	0.3242***	1.00		
8. Feel safe in neighborhood	0.0484**	-0.0154	0.1447***	-0.1272***	-0.0679***	-0.1822***	-0.1359***	1.00	
9. Employed	-0.0165	-0.0055	-0.0279	0.1920***	-0.1163***	0.3390***	0.1482***	-0.1153***	1.00
10. Ever Homeless	0.2231***	0.1199***	0.0894***	0.0094	-0.0393**	-0.0821***	0.0460**	0.0643***	-0.0414**
11. Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs	0.3100***	0.3396***	0.1237***	0.1438***	-0.2043***	0.1068***	0.3363***	-0.0103	0.1071***
12. Ever Arrested	0.2899***	0.1881***	0.1423***	0.2695***	-0.0385**	-0.0327*	0.0704***	0.0037	0.0212
13. Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone	0.2659***	0.1744***	0.0468**	0.0763***	-0.1223***	0.0313*	0.1465***	0.0174	-0.0090
14. Lifetime Alcohol dependance or abuse	0.2385***	0.1902***	0.1155***	0.1590***	-0.0642**	0.0002	0.1215***	-0.0170	0.0077
15. Physical Impairment	0.1272***	0.0461**	0.0526***	-0.0489***	0.2419***	-0.1418***	-0.0998***	0.0809***	-0.2497***
16. Mental Health Rating	0.0588***	-0.0393**	0.0003	-0.0971***	0.1332***	-0.1882***	-0.2877***	0.0841***	-0.1523***
17. Region	-0.0848***	-0.1223***	-0.3828***	0.0450**	0.0094	0.1312***	0.0962***	-0.1370***	0.0396**

Table B.3. Chapter IV - Correlation Matrix - All Residency Statuses (continued)

Variables	*10.*	*11.*	*12.*	*13.*	*14.*	*15.*	*16.*	*17.*
1. Violent Victimization Only in the US								
2. All Residency Statuses								
3. Nationality								
4. Sex								
5. Age								
6. Household Income								
7. English Proficiency								
8. Feel safe in neighborhood								
9. Employed								
10. Ever Homeless	1.00							
11. Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs	0.1838***	1.00						
12. Ever Arrested	0.2173***	0.3224***	1.00					
13. Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone	0.1764***	0.2992***	0.2071***	1.00				
14. Lifetime Alcohol dependance or abuse	0.1849***	0.3245***	0.3505***	0.2724***	1.00			
15. Physical Impairment	0.0681***	0.0047	0.0338*	0.0800***	0.0563***	1.00		
16. Mental Health Rating	0.0706***	-0.0149	0.0314*	0.0647***	0.0529***	0.2356***	1.00	
17. Region	-0.0525***	0.0064	-0.0381**	0.0003	-0.0043	-0.0652***	-0.0009	1.00

Table B.4. Chapter V - Correlation Matrix - Dichotomized Ethnicity

Variables	*1.*	*2.*	*3.*	*4.*	*5.*	*6.*	*7.*	*8.*	*9.*
1. Violent Victimization Only in the US	1.00								
2. Dichotomized Latino Ethnicity	0.1854***	1.00							
3. All Residency Statuses	0.2748***	0.2888***	1.00						
4. Sex	0.0860***	-0.0351*	0.0042	1.00					
5. Age	-0.0620***	-0.0304*	-0.2395***	-0.0184	1.00				
6. Household Income	0.0149	-0.2362***	-0.0426***	0.1078***	-0.0105	1.00			
7. English Proficiency	0.2091***	-0.1243***	0.3599***	0.0615***	-0.3216***	0.3242***	1.00		
8. Feel safe in neighborhood	0.0342*	0.1535***	0.0154***	-0.1272***	-0.0679***	-0.1822***	-0.1359***	1.00	
9. Employed	-0.0101	-0.0495	-0.0055	0.1920***	-0.1163***	0.3390***	0.1482***	-0.1153***	1.00
10. Ever Homeless	0.2191***	0.0976***	0.1199***	0.0094	-0.0393**	-0.0821***	0.0460**	0.0643***	-0.0414**
11. Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs	0.3181***	0.1072***	0.3396***	0.1438***	-0.2043***	0.1068***	0.3363***	-0.0103	0.1071***
12. Ever Arrested	0.2901***	0.1678***	0.1881***	0.2695***	-0.0385**	-0.0327*	0.0704***	0.0037	0.0212
13. Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone	0.2639***	0.0303*	0.1744***	0.0763***	-0.1223***	0.0313*	0.1465***	0.0174	-0.0090
14. Lifetime Alcohol dependance or abuse	0.2429***	0.1123***	0.1902***	0.1590***	-0.0462**	0.0002	0.1215***	-0.0170	0.0077
15. Physical Impairment	0.1137***	0.1054***	0.0461**	-0.0489***	0.2419***	-0.1418***	-0.0998***	0.0809***	-0.2497***
16. Mental Health Rating	0.0416**	0.0281	-0.0393**	-0.0971***	0.1332***	-0.1882***	-0.2877***	0.0814***	-0.1523***
17. Region	-0.0853***	-0.4136***	-0.1223***	0.0450**	0.0094	0.1312***	0.0962***	-0.1370***	0.0396**

Table B.4. Chapter V - Correlation Matrix - Dichotomized Ethnicity (continued)

Variables	*10.*	*11.*	*12.*	*13.*	*14.*	*15.*	*16.*	*17.*
1. Violent Victimization Only in the US								
2. Dichotomized Latino Ethnicity								
3. All Residency Statuses								
4. Sex								
5. Age								
6. Household Income								
7. English Proficiency								
8. Feel safe in neighborhood								
9. Employed								
10. Ever Homeless	1.00							
11. Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs	0.1838***	1.00						
12. Ever Arrested	0.2173***	0.3224***	1.00					
13. Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone	0.1764***	0.2992***	0.2071***	1.00				
14. Lifetime Alcohol dependance or abuse	0.1849***	0.3245***	0.3505***	0.2724***	1.00			
15. Physical Impairment	0.0681***	0.0047	0.0338*	0.0800***	0.0563***	1.00		
16. Mental Health Rating	0.0706***	-0.0149	0.0314*	0.0647***	0.0529***	0.2356***	1.00	
17. Region	-0.0525***	0.0064	-0.0381**	0.0003	-0.0043	-0.0652***	-0.0009	1.00

Table B.5. Chapter V - Correlation Matrix - Dichotomized Ethnicity Foreign Nationals Only

Variables	*1.*	*2.*	*3.*	*4.*	*5.*	*6.*	*7.*	8.	9.
1. Violent Victimization Only in the US	1.00								
2. Dichotomized Latino Ethnicity - Foreign nationals	0.1854***	1.00							
3. Foreign National Residency Statuses	0.0535**	0.2168***	1.00						
4. Sex	0.0860***	-0.0351*	0.0181	1.00					
5. Age	-0.0620***	-0.0304*	-0.2846***	-0.0184	1.00				
6. Household Income	0.0149	-0.2362***	-0.1971***	0.1078***	-0.0105	1.00			
7. English Proficiency	0.2091***	-0.1243***	-0.2747***	0.0615***	-0.3216***	0.3242***	1.00		
8. Years In USA	0.2521***	0.1563***	-0.4830***	0.0268	0.4843***	0.1086***	0.2364***	1.00	
9. Fear of INS or Deportation	0.3063***	0.2386***	0.2148***	-0.0006	-0.1697***	0.0177	0.4722***	0.2342***	1.00
10. Feel safe in neighborhood	0.0342*	0.1122***	0.1122***	-0.1272***	-0.0679***	-0.1822***	-0.1359***	-0.0360*	-0.0205
11. Employed	-0.0101	-0.0495***	-0.0296	0.1920***	-0.1163***	0.3390***	0.1482***	-0.0437*	0.0009
12. Ever Homeless	0.2191***	0.0976***	0.0388*	0.0094	-0.0393**	-0.0821***	0.0460**	0.0368*	0.1195***
13. Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs	0.3181***	0.1072***	-0.0134	0.1438***	-0.2043***	0.1068***	0.3363***	0.1077***	0.3686***
14. Ever Arrested	0.2901***	0.0576**	0.0576**	0.2695***	-0.0385**	-0.0327*	0.0704***	0.0759***	0.1887***
15. Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone	0.2639***	0.0303	-0.0255	0.0763***	-0.1223***	0.0313*	0.1465***	0.0244	0.1950***
16. Lifetime Alcohol dependance or abuse	0.2429***	0.1123***	0.0053	0.1590***	-0.0462**	0.0002	0.1215***	0.0686***	0.2036***
17. Physical Impairment	0.1137***	-0.1054***	-0.0444*	-0.0489***	0.2419***	-0.1418***	-0.0998***	0.1687***	0.0639***
18. Mental Health Rating	0.0416***	0.0281	0.0346	-0.0971***	0.1332***	-0.1882***	-0.2877***	0.0067	-0.0537***
19. Region	-0.0853***	-0.4136***	-0.0878***	0.0450**	0.0094	0.1312***	0.0962***	-0.0506**	-0.1049***

Table B.5. Chapter V - Correlation Matrix - Dichotomized Ethnicity Foreign Nationals Only (continued)

Variables	*10.*	*11.*	*12.*	*13.*	*14.*	*15.*	*16.*	*17.*	*18.*	*19.*
1. Violent Victimization Only in the US										
2. Dichotomized Latino Ethnicity - Foreign nationals										
3. Foreign National Residency Statuses										
4. Sex										
5. Age										
6. Household Income										
7. English Proficiency										
8. Years In USA										
9. Fear of INS or Deportation										
10. Feel safe in neighborhood	1.00									
11. Employed	-0.1153***	1.00								
12. Ever Homeless	0.0643***	-0.0414**	1.00							
13. Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs	-0.0103	0.1071***	0.1838***	1.00						
14. Ever Arrested	0.0037	0.0212	0.2173***	0.3224***	1.00					
15. Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone	0.0174	-0.0090	0.1764***	0.2992***	0.2071***	1.00				
16. Lifetime Alcohol dependance or abuse	-0.0170	0.0077	0.1849***	0.3245***	0.3505***	0.2724***	1.00			
17. Physical Impairment	0.0809***	-0.2497***	0.0681***	0.0047	0.0338*	0.0800***	0.0563***	1.00		
18. Mental Health Rating	0.0841***	-0.1523***	0.0706***	-0.0149	0.0314*	0.0647***	0.0529***	0.2356***	1.00	
19. Region	-0.1370***	0.0396**	-0.0525***	0.0064	-0.0381**	0.0003	-0.0043	-0.0652***	-0.0009	1.00

Table B.6. Chapter V - Correlation Matrix - Latino Subgroups - With Citizens

Variables	*1.*	*2.*	*3.*	*4.*	*5.*	*6.*	*7.*	*8.*	*9.*
1. Violent Victimization Only in the US	1.00								
2. Latino Nationalities	-0.0062	1.00							
3. All Residency Statuses	0.2748***	0.0687**	1.00						
4. Sex	0.0860***	-0.0497*	0.0042	1.00					
5. Age	-0.0620***	-0.2456***	-0.2395***	-0.0184	1.00				
6. Household Income	0.0149	-0.0481***	-0.0426***	0.1078***	-0.0105	1.00			
7. English Proficiency	0.2091***	0.0393*	0.3599***	0.0615***	-0.3216***	0.3242***	1.00		
8. Feel safe in neighborhood	0.0342*	0.0392*	0.0154	-0.1272***	-0.0679***	-0.1822***	-0.1359***	1.00	
9. Employed	-0.0101	0.0390*	-0.0055	0.1920***	-0.1163***	0.3390***	0.1482***	-0.1153***	1.00
10. Ever Homeless	0.2191***	0.0195	0.1199***	0.0094	-0.0393**	-0.0821***	0.0460**	0.0643***	-0.0414**
11. Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs	0.3181***	0.0561**	0.3396***	0.1438***	-0.2043***	0.1068***	0.3363***	-0.0103	0.1071***
12. Ever Arrested	0.2901***	0.0050	0.1881***	0.2695***	-0.0385**	-0.0327*	0.0704***	0.0037	0.0212
13. Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone	0.2639***	0.0349	0.1744***	0.0763***	-0.1223***	0.0313*	0.1465***	0.0174	-0.0090
14. Lifetime Alcohol dependance or abuse	0.2429***	0.0233	0.1902***	0.1590***	-0.0462**	0.0002	0.1215***	-0.0170	0.0077
15. Physical Impairment	0.1137***	-0.1012***	0.0461**	-0.0489***	0.2419***	-0.1418***	-0.0998***	0.0809***	-0.2497***
16. Mental Health Rating	0.0416**	-0.0125	-0.0393**	-0.0971***	0.1332***	-0.1882***	-0.2877***	0.0814***	-0.1523***
17. Region	-0.0853***	-0.0292	-0.1223***	0.0450**	0.0094	0.1312***	0.0962***	-0.1370***	0.0396**

Table B.6. Chapter V - Correlation Matrix - Latino Subgroups - With Citizens (continued)

Variables	*10.*	*11.*	*12.*	*13.*	*14.*	*15.*	*16.*	*17.*
1. Violent Victimization Only in the US								
2. Latino Nationalities								
3. All Residency Statuses								
4. Sex								
5. Age								
6. Household Income								
7. English Proficiency								
8. Feel safe in neighborhood								
9. Employed								
10. Ever Homeless	1.00							
11. Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs	0.1838***	1.00						
12. Ever Arrested	0.2173***	0.3224***	1.00					
13. Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone	0.1764***	0.2992***	0.2071***	1.00				
14. Lifetime Alcohol dependance or abuse	0.1849***	0.3245***	0.3505***	0.2724***	1.00			
15. Physical Impairment	0.0681***	0.0047	0.0338*	0.0800***	0.0563***	1.00		
16. Mental Health Rating	0.0706***	-0.0149	0.0314*	0.0647***	0.0529***	0.2356***	1.00	
17. Region	-0.0525***	0.0064	-0.0381**	0.0003	-0.0043	-0.0652***	-0.0009	1.00

Table B.7. Chapter V - Correlation Matrix - Latino Only Foreign Nationals Only

Variables	*1.*	*2.*	*3.*	*4.*	*5.*	*6.*	*7.*	8.	9.
1. Violent Victimization Only in the US	1.00								
2. Latino Nationalities - Foreign nationals	-0.0062	1.00							
3. Foreign National Residency Statuses	-0.0535**	0.2238***	1.00						
4. Sex	0.0860***	-0.0497*	0.0181	1.00					
5. Age	-0.0620***	-0.2456***	-0.2846***	-0.0184	1.00				
6. Household Income	0.0149	-0.0481*	-0.1971***	0.1078***	-0.0105	1.00			
7. English Proficiency	0.2091***	-0.0393*	-0.2747***	0.0615***	-0.3216***	0.3242***	1.00		
8. Years In USA	0.2521***	-0.1793***	-0.4930***	0.0268	0.4843***	0.1086***	0.2364***	1.00	
9. Fear of INS or Deportation	0.3063***	0.0053	0.2148***	-0.0006	-0.1697***	0.0177	0.4722***	0.2342***	1.00
10. Feel safe in neighborhood	0.0342*	0.0392*	0.1122***	-0.1272***	-0.0679***	-0.1822***	-0.1359***	-0.0360*	-0.0205
11. Employed	-0.0101	0.0390*	-0.0296	0.1920***	-0.1163***	0.3390***	0.1482***	-0.0437*	0.0009
12. Ever Homeless	0.2191***	0.0195	0.0388*	0.0094	-0.0393**	-0.0821***	0.0460**	0.0368*	0.1195***
13. Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs	0.3181***	0.0561**	-0.0134	0.1438***	-0.2043***	0.1068***	0.3363***	0.1077***	0.3686***
14. Ever Arrested	0.2901***	0.0050	0.0576**	0.2695***	-0.0385**	-0.0327*	0.0704***	0.0759***	0.1887***
15. Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone	0.2639***	0.0349	-0.0255	0.0763***	-0.1223***	0.0313*	0.1465***	0.0244	0.1950***
16. Lifetime Alcohol dependance or abuse	0.2429***	0.0233	0.0053	0.1590***	-0.0462**	0.0002	0.1215***	0.0686***	0.2036***
17. Physical Impairment	0.1137***	-0.1012***	-0.0444*	-0.0489***	0.2419***	-0.1418***	-0.0998***	0.1687***	0.0639***
18. Mental Health Rating	0.0416***	-0.0125	0.0346	-0.0971***	0.1332***	-0.1882***	-0.2877***	0.0067	-0.0537***
19. Region	-0.0853***	-0.0292	-0.0878***	0.0450**	0.0094	0.1312***	0.0962***	-0.0506**	-0.1049***

Table B.7. Chapter V - Correlation Matrix - Latino Only Foreign Nationals Only (continued)

Variables	*10.*	*11.*	*12.*	*13.*	*14.*	*15.*	*16.*	*17.*	*18.*	*19.*
1. Violent Victimization Only in the US										
2. Latino Nationalities - Foreign nationals										
3. Foreign National Residency Statuses										
4. Sex										
5. Age										
6. Household Income										
7. English Proficiency										
8. Years In USA										
9. Fear of INS or Deportation										
10. Feel safe in neighborhood	1.00									
11. Employed	-0.1153***	1.00								
12. Ever Homeless	0.0643***	-0.0414**	1.00							
13. Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs	-0.0103	0.1071***	0.1838***	1.00						
14. Ever Arrested	0.0037	0.0212	0.2173***	0.3224***	1.00					
15. Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone	0.0174	-0.0090	0.1764***	0.2992***	0.2071***	1.00				
16. Lifetime Alcohol dependance or abuse	-0.0170	0.0077	0.1849***	0.3245***	0.3505***	0.2724***	1.00			
17. Physical Impairment	0.0809***	-0.2497***	0.0681***	0.0047	0.0338*	0.0800***	0.0563***	1.00		
18. Mental Health Rating	0.0841***	-0.1523***	0.0706***	-0.0149	0.0314*	0.0647***	0.0529***	0.2356***	1.00	
19. Region	-0.1370***	0.0396**	-0.0525***	0.0064	-0.0381**	0.0003	-0.0043	-0.0652***	-0.0009	1.00

Table B.8. Chapter V - Correlation Matrix - Asian Subgroups - With Citizens

Variables	*1.*	*2.*	*3.*	*4.*	*5.*	*6.*	*7.*	*8.*	*9.*
1. Violent Victimization Only in the US	1.00								
2. Asian Nationalities	0.0498*	1.00							
3. All Residency Statuses	0.2748***	0.2397***	1.00						
4. Sex	0.0860***	0.0262	0.0042	1.00					
5. Age	-0.0620***	-0.1062***	-0.2395***	-0.0184	1.00				
6. Household Income	0.0149	0.1406***	-0.0426**	0.1078***	-0.0105	1.00			
7. English Proficiency	0.2091***	0.0391***	0.3599***	0.0615***	-0.3216***	0.3242***	1.00		
8. Feel safe in neighborhood	0.0342*	-0.0100	0.0154	-0.1272***	-0.0679***	-0.1822***	-0.1359***	1.00	
9. Employed	-0.0101	0.0274	-0.0055	0.1920***	-0.1163***	0.3390***	0.1482***	-0.1153***	1.00
10. Ever Homeless	0.2191***	-0.0179	0.1199***	0.0094	-0.0393**	-0.0821***	0.0460**	0.0643***	-0.0414**
11. Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs	0.3181***	0.0711**	0.3396***	0.1438***	-0.2043***	0.1068***	0.3363***	-0.0103	0.1071***
12. Ever Arrested	0.2901***	-0.0457*	0.1881***	0.2695***	-0.0385**	-0.0327*	0.0704***	0.0037	0.0212
13. Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone	0.2639***	0.0532*	0.1744***	0.0763***	-0.1223***	0.0313*	0.1465***	0.0174	-0.0090
14. Lifetime Alcohol dependance or abuse	0.2429***	0.0595**	0.1902***	0.1590***	-0.0462**	0.0002	0.1215***	-0.0170	0.0077
15. Physical Impairment	0.1137***	-0.0656**	0.0461**	-0.0489***	0.2419***	-0.1418***	-0.0998***	0.0809***	-0.2497***
16. Mental Health Rating	0.0416**	-0.1023***	-0.0393**	-0.0971***	0.1332***	-0.1882***	-0.2877***	0.0814***	-0.1523***
17. Region	-0.0853***	-0.0608**	-0.1223***	0.0450**	0.0094	0.1312***	0.0962***	-0.1370***	0.0396**

Table B.8. Chapter V - Correlation Matrix - Asian Subgroups - With Citizens (continued)

Variables	*10.*	*11.*	*12.*	*13.*	*14.*	*15.*	*16.*	*17.*
1. Violent Victimization Only in the US								
2. Asian Nationalities								
3. All Residency Statuses								
4. Sex								
5. Age								
6. Household Income								
7. English Proficiency								
8. Feel safe in neighborhood								
9. Employed								
10. Ever Homeless	1.00							
11. Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs	0.1838***	1.00						
12. Ever Arrested	0.2173***	0.3224***	1.00					
13. Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone	0.1764***	0.2992***	0.2071***	1.00				
14. Lifetime Alcohol dependance or abuse	0.1849***	0.3245***	0.3505***	0.2724***	1.00			
15. Physical Impairment	0.0681***	0.0047	0.0338*	0.0800***	0.0563***	1.00		
16. Mental Health Rating	0.0706***	-0.0149	0.0314*	0.0647***	0.0529***	0.2356***	1.00	
17. Region	-0.0525***	0.0064	-0.0381**	0.0003	-0.0043	-0.0652***	-0.0009	1.00

Table B.9. Chapter V - Correlation Matrix - Asian Only Foreign Nationals Only

Variables	*1.*	*2.*	*3.*	*4.*	*5.*	*6.*	*7.*	8.	9.
1. Violent Victimization Only in the US	1.00								
2. Asian Nationalities	0.0498*	1.00							
3. Foreign National Residency Statuses	-0.0535**	0.1456***	1.00						
4. Sex	0.0860***	-0.0262	0.0181	1.00					
5. Age	-0.0620***	-0.1062***	-0.2846***	-0.0184	1.00				
6. Household Income	0.0149	0.1406***	-0.1971***	0.1078***	-0.0105	1.00			
7. English Proficiency	0.2091***	-0.3091***	-0.2747***	0.0615***	-0.3216***	0.3242***	1.00		
8. Years In USA	0.2521***	-0.0529*	-0.4930***	0.0268	0.4843***	0.1086***	0.2364***	1.00	
9. Fear of INS or Deportation	0.3063***	0.1992***	0.2148***	-0.0006	-0.1697***	0.0177	0.4722***	0.2342***	1.00
10. Feel safe in neighborhood	0.0342*	-0.0100	0.1122***	-0.1272***	-0.0679***	-0.1822***	-0.1359***	-0.0360*	-0.0205
11. Employed	-0.0101	0.0274	-0.0296	0.1920***	-0.1163***	0.3390***	0.1482***	-0.0437*	0.0009
12. Ever Homeless	0.2191***	-0.0179	0.0388*	0.0094	-0.0393**	-0.0821***	0.0460**	0.0368*	0.1195***
13. Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs	0.3181***	0.0711**	-0.0134	0.1438***	-0.2043***	0.1068***	0.3363***	0.1077***	0.3686***
14. Ever Arrested	0.2901***	-0.0457*	0.0576**	0.2695***	-0.0385**	-0.0327*	0.0704***	0.0759***	0.1887***
15. Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone	0.2639***	0.0532*	-0.0255	0.0763***	-0.1223***	0.0313*	0.1465***	0.0244	0.1950***
16. Lifetime Alcohol dependance or abuse	0.2429***	0.0595**	0.0053	0.1590***	-0.0462**	0.0002	0.1215***	0.0686***	0.2036***
17. Physical Impairment	0.1137***	-0.0656**	-0.0444*	-0.0489***	0.2419***	-0.1418***	-0.0998***	0.1687***	0.0639***
18. Mental Health Rating	0.0416***	-0.1023***	0.0346	-0.0971***	0.1332***	-0.1882***	-0.2877***	0.0067	-0.0537***
19. Region	-0.0853***	-0.0608**	-0.0878***	0.0450**	0.0094	0.1312***	0.0962***	-0.0506**	-0.1049***

Table B.9. Chapter V - Correlation Matrix - Asian Only Foreign Nationals Only (continued)

Variables	*10.*	*11.*	*12.*	*13.*	*14.*	*15.*	*16.*	*17.*	*18.*	*19.*
1. Violent Victimization Only in the US										
2. Asian Nationalities										
3. Foreign National Residency Statuses										
4. Sex										
5. Age										
6. Household Income										
7. English Proficiency										
8. Years In USA										
9. Fear of INS or Deportation										
10. Feel safe in neighborhood	1.00									
11. Employed	-0.1153***	1.00								
12. Ever Homeless	0.0643***	-0.0414**	1.00							
13. Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs	-0.0103	0.1071***	0.1838***	1.00						
14. Ever Arrested	0.0037	0.0212	0.2173***	0.3224***	1.00					
15. Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone	0.0174	-0.0090	0.1764***	0.2992***	0.2071***	1.00				
16. Lifetime Alcohol dependance or abuse	-0.0170	0.0077	0.1849***	0.3245***	0.3505***	0.2724***	1.00			
17. Physical Impairment	0.0809***	-0.2497***	0.0681***	0.0047	0.0338*	0.0800***	0.0563***	1.00		
18. Mental Health Rating	0.0841***	-0.1523***	0.0706***	-0.0149	0.0314*	0.0647***	0.0529***	0.2356***	1.00	
19. Region	-0.1370***	0.0396**	-0.0525***	0.0064	-0.0381**	0.0003	-0.0043	-0.0652***	-0.0009	1.00

Table B.10. Chapter V - Correlation Matrix – Disaggregated Nationalities - With Citizens

Variables	*1.*	*2.*	*3.*	*4.*	*5.*	*6.*	*7.*	*8.*	*9.*
1. Violent Victimization Only in the US	1.00								
2. All Nationalities	0.1709***	1.00							
3. All Residency Statuses	0.2748***	0.3198***	1.00						
4. Sex	0.0860***	-0.0381**	0.0042	1.00					
5. Age	-0.0620***	-0.1133***	-0.2395***	-0.0184	1.00				
6. Household Income	0.0149	-0.1883***	-0.0426**	0.1078***	-0.0105	1.00			
7. English Proficiency	0.2091***	-0.0395**	0.3599***	0.0615***	-0.3216***	0.3242***	1.00		
8. Feel safe in neighborhood	0.0342*	0.1447***	0.0154	-0.1272***	-0.0679***	-0.1822***	-0.1359***	1.00	
9. Employed	-0.0101	-0.0279	-0.0055	0.1920***	-0.1163***	0.3390***	0.1482***	-0.1153***	1.00
10. Ever Homeless	0.2191***	0.0894***	0.1199***	0.0094	-0.0393**	-0.0821***	0.0460**	0.0643***	-0.0414**
11. Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs	0.3181***	0.1237***	0.3396***	0.1438***	-0.2043***	0.1068***	0.3363***	-0.0103	0.1071***
12. Ever Arrested	0.2901***	0.1423***	0.1881***	0.2695***	-0.0385**	-0.0327*	0.0704***	0.0037	0.0212
13. Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone	0.2639***	0.0468**	0.1744***	0.0763***	-0.1223***	0.0313*	0.1465***	0.0174	-0.0090
14. Lifetime Alcohol dependance or abuse	0.2429***	0.1155***	0.1902***	0.1590***	-0.0462**	0.0002	0.1215***	-0.0170	0.0077
15. Physical Impairment	0.1137***	0.0526***	0.0461**	-0.0489***	0.2419***	-0.1418***	-0.0998***	0.0809***	-0.2497***
16. Mental Health Rating	0.0416**	0.0003	-0.0393**	-0.0971***	0.1332***	-0.1882***	-0.2877***	0.0814***	-0.1523***
17. Region	-0.0853***	-0.3828***	-0.1223***	0.0450**	0.0094	0.1312***	0.0962***	-0.1370***	0.0396**

Table B.10. Chapter V - Correlation Matrix - Disaggregated Nationalities (continued)

Variables	*10.*	*11.*	*12.*	*13.*	*14.*	*15.*	*16.*	*17.*
1. Violent Victimization Only in the US								
2. All Nationalities								
3. All Residency Statuses								
4. Sex								
5. Age								
6. Household Income								
7. English Proficiency								
8. Feel safe in neighborhood								
9. Employed								
10. Ever Homeless	1.00							
11. Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs	0.1838***	1.00						
12. Ever Arrested	0.2173***	0.3224***	1.00					
13. Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone	0.1764***	0.2992***	0.2071***	1.00				
14. Lifetime Alcohol dependance or abuse	0.1849***	0.3245***	0.3505***	0.2724***	1.00			
15. Physical Impairment	0.0681***	0.0047	0.0338*	0.0800***	0.0563***	1.00		
16. Mental Health Rating	0.0706***	-0.0149	0.0314*	0.0647***	0.0529***	0.2356***	1.00	
17. Region	-0.0525***	0.0064	-0.0381**	0.0003	-0.0043	-0.0652***	-0.0009	1.00

Table B.11. Chapter V - Correlation Matrix - Disaggregated Nationality_ Foreign Nationals Only

Variables	*1.*	*2.*	*3.*	*4.*	*5.*	*6.*	*7.*	8.	9.
1. Violent Victimization Only in the US	1.00								
2. All Nationalities	0.1709***	1.00							
3. Foreign National Residency Statuses	-0.0535**	0.2766***	1.00						
4. Sex	0.0860***	-0.0381*	0.0181	1.00					
5. Age	-0.0620***	-0.1133***	-0.2846***	-0.0184	1.00				
6. Household Income	0.0149	-0.1883***	-0.1971***	0.1078***	-0.0105	1.00			
7. English Proficiency	0.2091***	-0.0395***	-0.2747***	0.0615***	-0.3216***	0.3242***	1.00		
8. Years In USA	0.2521***	0.0783***	-0.4930***	0.0268	0.4843***	0.1086***	0.2364***	1.00	
9. Fear of INS or Deportation	0.3063***	0.2487***	0.2148***	-0.0006	-0.1697***	0.0177	0.4722***	0.2342***	1.00
10. Feel safe in neighborhood	0.0342*	0.1447***	0.1122***	-0.1272***	-0.0679***	-0.1822***	-0.1359***	-0.0360*	-0.0205
11. Employed	-0.0101	-0.0279	-0.0296	0.1920***	-0.1163***	0.3390***	0.1482***	-0.0437*	0.0009
12. Ever Homeless	0.2191***	0.0894***	0.0388*	0.0094	-0.0393**	-0.0821***	0.0460**	0.0368*	0.1195***
13. Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs	0.3181***	0.1237***	-0.0134	0.1438***	-0.2043***	0.1068***	0.3363***	0.1077***	0.3686***
14. Ever Arrested	0.2901***	0.1423***	0.0576**	0.2695***	-0.0385**	-0.0327*	0.0704***	0.0759***	0.1887***
15. Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone	0.2639***	0.0468**	-0.0255	0.0763***	-0.1223***	0.0313*	0.1465***	0.0244	0.1950***
16. Lifetime Alcohol dependance or abuse	0.2429***	0.1155***	0.0053	0.1590***	-0.0462**	0.0002	0.1215***	0.0686***	0.2036***
17. Physical Impairment	0.1137***	0.0526***	-0.0444*	-0.0489***	0.2419***	-0.1418***	-0.0998***	0.1687***	0.0639***
18. Mental Health Rating	0.0416***	0.0003	0.0346	-0.0971***	0.1332***	-0.1882***	-0.2877***	0.0067	-0.0537***
19. Region	-0.0853***	-0.3828***	-0.0878***	0.0450**	0.0094	0.1312***	0.0962***	-0.0506**	-0.1049***

Table B.11. Chapter V - Correlation Matrix - Disaggregated Nationality_ Foreign Nationals Only (continued)

Variables	*10.*	*11.*	*12.*	*13.*	*14.*	*15.*	*16.*	*17.*	*18.*	*19.*
1. Violent Victimization Only in the US										
2. All Nationalities										
3. Foreign National Residency Statuses										
4. Sex										
5. Age										
6. Household Income										
7. English Proficiency										
8. Years In USA										
9. Fear of INS or Deportation										
10. Feel safe in neighborhood	1.00									
11. Employed	-0.1153***	1.00								
12. Ever Homeless	0.0643***	-0.0414**	1.00							
13. Ever Used Illegal Substances or Abused Prescription Drugs	-0.0103	0.1071***	0.1838***	1.00						
14. Ever Arrested	0.0037	0.0212	0.2173***	0.3224***	1.00					
15. Ever Assaulted or Threatened to Assault Someone	0.0174	-0.0090	0.1764***	0.2992***	0.2071***	1.00				
16. Lifetime Alcohol dependance or abuse	-0.0170	0.0077	0.1849***	0.3245***	0.3505***	0.2724***	1.00			
17. Physical Impairment	0.0809***	-0.2497***	0.0681***	0.0047	0.0338*	0.0800***	0.0563***	1.00		
18. Mental Health Rating	0.0841***	-0.1523***	0.0706***	-0.0149	0.0314*	0.0647***	0.0529***	0.2356***	1.00	
19. Region	-0.1370***	0.0396**	-0.0525***	0.0064	-0.0381**	0.0003	-0.0043	-0.0652***	-0.0009	1.00

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VITA

Krystlelynn completed her Doctoral Degree at the Andrew Young School of Policy Studies at Georgia State University. Her research interests center on poly-victimization of foreign nationals. Specifically, she studies the impact of status on victimization, the correlates and consequences of poly-victimization, and the potential for criminal coping among poly-victims. Her dissertation utilizes a criminology, law, and society framework to theorize the risk of poly-victimization across foreign nationals' lifespans. She has published work in journals including the Journal of Interpersonal Violence and Justice Quarterly. Krystlelynn is set to begin a Presidential Postdoctoral Fellowship at the prestigious Arizona State University in January 2022.

Krystlelynn's dissertation uses the restricted version of the National Latino and Asian American Survey (NLAAS) to addresses the experience of specific victimization across legal statuses, polyvictimization across legal statuses, and the victim-offender overlap among immigrants of different groups. Using this dataset, she delineates seven distinct legal statuses – a level of specificity that is scarce in immigration research.

Krystlelynn received the 2016 American Society of Criminology Ruth D. Peterson Fellowship for Racial and Ethnic Diversity for her Master's thesis research, which examined the victimization of undocumented immigrants from the perspective of the active street offenders who target them. Prior to Georgia State University, Krystlelynn completed her Bachelor's degree in Forensic Psychology at John Jay College of Criminal Justice (JJC) in 2012 with a focus on mass incarceration and reentry. As an undergraduate, she interned under Jeremy Travis and studied incarceration-related issues with a specific interest in alternatives to incarceration. Moreover, she volunteered as a "learning exchange student" in John Jay's Prison to College

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