

ACCULTURATION STRESS AND CRIMINAL ATTITUDES AS RISK FACTORS FOR
EXTERNALIZING BEHAVIORS IN RECENTLY IMMIGRATED ADOLESCENTS

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ABSTRACT

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Violence risk assessments may fall short with ethnic minority populations because they fail to consider unique contextual and individual factors. In addition, the utility of these instruments may be diminished when administered to ethnic minorities for whom the measure was not originally developed, potentially leading to deleterious effects on the individuals and social system more broadly. This study examined (1) the concurrent validity of a risk assessment measure (i.e., Structured Assessment of Violence Risk in Youth; SAVRY) in relation to caregiver-reported youth externalizing behaviors (measured through the Caregiver-Report Questionnaire Child Behavior Checklist, Externalizing Behaviors scale, parent form; CBCL-EXT) in 39 recently immigrated youth, and (2) the effect of criminal attitudes and acculturation stress on the relation of risk for and caregiver reported externalizing behaviors. Results showed that although the total score of the SAVRY was significantly associated with the total score of the CBCL-EXT; at a subscale level, the SAVRY did not predict total or subscale scores of the CBCL-EXT. Additionally, a significant three-way interaction was found, such that the association between the SAVRY and the CBCL was significant and positive at low levels of criminal attitudes and moderate and high levels of acculturation stress, at moderate levels of both criminal attitudes and acculturation stress, and at high level of criminal attitudes and low levels of acculturation stress.

KEY WORDS: Immigrant, Violence, Criminal Attitudes, Acculturative Stress, Externalizing Behaviors

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

The assumption that nearly every immigrant represents a potential danger for the United States (U.S.) feeds contemporary concerns of national security (Gallup Opinion Survey, 2016; Martinez, Zatz, & Kubrin, 2012), despite research showing that the national crime rate decreases as immigration increases in the U.S. (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2012; Ferraro, 2013; Lee & Martinez, 2009; Sampson & Bean, 2006; Stowell, Messner, McGeever, & Raffalovich, 2009; Wadsworth, 2010). Immigrants are often blamed for crime in the U.S. (Menjivar & Bejarano, 2004) and are declared a threat to national security in political and social commentaries (Demo 2005; Percival & Currin-Percival, 2013). Adolescent immigrants, in turn, are perceived as being at risk for externalizing behaviors, such as violence and delinquent behavior perpetration as well (Mahaffey, 2004).

Whereas empirical research has highlighted the gap between perceptions of adult immigrants and their actual risk for criminal behaviors, a comparable research base does not exist regarding recently immigrated youth. Indeed, few tools exist for measuring the risk of externalizing behaviors among immigrant youth, particularly those who have limited proficiency in English (i.e., monolingual Spanish speakers). The overreliance on historical and contextual risk factors that over represent immigrant groups and the omission of important risk factors are obstacles for the study of risk for violence in recently immigrated individuals. Moreover, when this information needs to be extracted from records (e.g., justice-related and school records) that are impractical in these cases because of the lack of accessibility to documents filed in foreign countries. The broad

aim of this study was to examine the performance of a commonly used violence risk assessment tool in relation to actual caregiver-reported youth externalizing behaviors (i.e., rule breaking and aggressive behaviors) in a sample of recently immigrated youth, providing the first data on this instrument for Spanish-speaking immigrant youth.

Additionally, we sought to examine the extent to which criminal attitudes and acculturation stress affect the relation between risk for and actual caregiver-reported externalizing behaviors.

Perceived and Actual Violent Behavior among Immigrants

Studies show that negative perceptions about immigrants are out of sync with immigrants' true risk for violent and nonviolent crime. This is, the general public's negative perception toward immigrants is driven by false stereotypes (e.g., Cowan, Martinez, & Mendiola, 1997; Esses, Dovidio, & Hodson, 2002) that are based on criminal justice agencies data (e.g., police, courts, and corrections) and self-reported delinquency and victimization surveys (Hawkins, Laub, & Lauritsen, 1998); rather than empirical facts (Lee & Martinez, 2002) and community surveys. Consequently, immigration is perceived as a threat to their sense of security (Esses et al., 2002; Subervi, Torres, & Nontalvo, 2005). This fear is then, reinforced with negative labels used in the media (Fujioka, 2011; Subervi et al., 2005; Wadsworth, 2010) where immigrants are frequently portrayed in prisons (Ferraro, 2013). All these strengthen the idea of an implicit association between immigrants and criminal behavior (Ousey & Kubrin, 2009). A census done in April 2017, found that 27% of Texans ranked immigration and border security higher than any issue, stating that it was the state's most important problem (Texas Lyceum Poll, 2017).

Nevertheless, other sources show that the incarceration rates among immigrants are significantly lower than U.S. born population (Rambaut, 2015). Contrary to classic criminological theories and popular stereotypes (Allport, 1954), recent research found that immigration does not increase crime and often times suppresses it (Lee & Martinez, 2009; Ferraro, 2013). Empirical evidence shows that immigrants are not crime prone (Sampson, 2008), are less likely than native born individuals to engage in violent or non-violent criminal behavior (Harris & Feldmeyer, 2013; Maldonado-Molina, Reingle, Jennings, & Prado, 2011; Rambaut, 2015; Vaughn, Salas-Wright, DeLisi, & Maynard, 2014), and that immigration has positive effects on society, such as increasing engagement with community institutions and strengthening of relationships among neighbors (Martinez et al., 2012). Moreover, violence and delinquency are negatively associated with immigration density. This is seen in new settlement areas (i.e., areas where recent immigrants reside), which, despite socioeconomic disadvantage, experience lower rates of violent crime than urban cities (Ferraro, 2014; Wadsworth, 2010). These areas have generally strong informal social networks, are family and community oriented, have great participation in local institutions such as churches, youth groups, and civic and political associations (Wilson, 1998). Researchers suggest that strong familial and neighborhood institutions strengthen social control and decreases crime (Lee & Martinez, 2002).

With respect to immigrant mental health, studies show the same rates and or lower rates of mental illness among immigrants than U.S. born individuals (Beiser & Edwards, 1994), further countering the immigrant-as-threat narrative. Indeed, an *immigrant paradox*—that immigrants are less likely to engage in criminal behavior, have

low recidivism rates, and develop other forms of psychopathology than their U.S.-born counterparts, despite their socioeconomic disadvantages (Acevedo-Garcia & Bates, 2008; MacDonald & Saunders, 2012; Vaughn, 2014; Wolff, Baglivio, Intravia, & Piquero, 2015)— has been well-documented. The immigrant paradox has been found to extend to immigrant adolescents as well (Desmond & Kubrin, 2014).

Although most of these studies examined the perception of the dominant population about adult immigrants' criminality, some suggest that these negative perceptions also extend to adolescent minorities (Mahaffey, 2004; Schwartz, 1989) in similar ways: based on an overrepresentation of them as perpetrators of violent crimes, gang members, substance abusers and sellers, as they are seen to be the group most frequently arrested (Yung & Hammond, 1997). The 1992 addendum to the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act determined that the disproportionate placement of minority adolescent in justice system was one of the most critical issues of the nation. Moreover, these perceptions are also extended to family members and peers (Miklikowska, 2017). Contrary to these misperceptions, research shows that young immigrants are less likely to engage in criminal behaviors than native-born young people (Ewing, Martinez, & Rumbaut, 2015), and that the prevalence of conduct disorder and antisocial traits is lower in immigrant youth than in the general population (Breslau et al., 2011; Vaughn et al., 2014).

Violence Risk Assessment

The emigration rate from Central American countries has been rapidly increasing, and with it, the need for research on risk assessments in the recently immigrated population in the U.S. Since 2011, the number of Central American youth and families

arriving to the U.S. illegally through the U.S.-Mexico border increased rapidly, reaching a peak of 137,000 in 2014 (Rosenblum, 2015). In 2013, the U.S. received nearly 70,000 refugees (Martin & Yankay, 2014). Over 95% of immigrants from Central America come from Mexico, Honduras, El Salvador and Guatemala (Kennedy, 2014). In Texas, there are approximately 1.8 million undocumented immigrants, comprising 15.5% of the nation's total (Hoefer, Rytina, & Baker, 2012). A way to predict the likelihood that an individual would engage in antisocial actions in the future is through risk assessments, which refer to the study of information relevant to the youth's risk for antisocial actions, (Andrews & Hoge, 2010). Although the literature related to violence risk assessment has grown in the last few decades (Harris & Lurigio, 2007), little is known about how these findings apply to recently immigrated youth. Thus, there is a need to improve in the ability of practicing clinicians to adequately assess risk with this growing segment of the U.S. population.

Despite the growing number of young immigrants in the U.S., limited empirical research regarding risk factors, prevalence of externalizing symptoms, or violence risk assessment instrument has been conducted in this sample to date. It is known that externalizing behaviors are associated with specific individual (e.g., negative attitudes, risk taking behaviors, anger management problem, etc.) and contextual factors (e.g., peer rejection, lack of social support, etc.) in the dominant U.S. youth population (Borum, Bartel, & Forth, 2006). For instance, exposure to violence and traumatic experiences are factors that predict externalizing behaviors in U.S. born youth (Borum et al., 2006). However, less is known about how additional contextual (e.g., cultural values, beliefs, and lifestyles of families) and individual (e.g., history of victimization, acculturation

stress) factors interact in this population, and increase or decrease the likelihood for engaging in externalizing behaviors in youth immigrants. Altogether, when using risk assessments on a population that has not been well studied, it is important to acknowledge that their individual and contextual risk factors might not be the same as the dominant population.

In the U.S., risk assessments for violence are regularly used with adolescents in the legal system, psychiatric emergency services, civil psychiatric hospitals and outpatient clinics (Borum et al., 2006). These evaluation findings, in turn, are used to inform treatment and disposition (Austin, 2006; Grisso, Vincent, & Seagrave, 2005), estimate the likelihood of externalizing symptoms, and provide a judgment for the estimated level of risk (Towl & Crighton, 1997). Regrettably, the utility of common assessment tools (e.g., Psychopathy Checklist, Revised; PCL-R) may be diminished when administered to ethnic minorities—populations for whom the measure was not originally developed (Folino, 2015), potentially leading to deleterious effects on ethnic minority individuals and social systems more broadly (Grisso et al., 2005). For instance, courts recently ruled that administering risk assessment tools to adult Canadian aboriginals can produce unreliable and inaccurate scores, and that these results can negatively impact the offender by increasing his security classification and reducing his desire to request parole (*Ewert v. Canada*, 2015).

Structured professional judgment (SPJ) risk measures have outperformed unstructured clinical judgments among adolescents on probation (Child, Frick, Ryals, Lingonblad, & Villio, 2014). However, there is still room for improvement in their predictive accuracy. For instance, Hoge (2012) recommended the use of standardized

measures to assess criminogenic needs in adolescents, Andrews and Bonta (2010) suggested the use of a multi-method approach including criminogenic and non-criminogenic factors (e.g., self-esteem, lack of ambition, fear of punishment, respect for authority, etc.) to assess shortcomings associated with risk measures, and Skilling and Sorge (2014) found an increasing need for assessing criminal attitudes to improve the predictive accuracy of violence risk assessment.

The Ethics Code of the American Psychological Association (APA; American Psychological Association, 2010) and the Specialty Guidelines for Forensic Psychologists (Committee on Ethical Guidelines for Forensic Psychologists, 2013) suggest that prior to the application of a risk assessment to certain populations, the instrument must have been tested and normed on that population. Additionally, Austin (2006) suggests that inter-rater reliability and validity must have been evaluated, and the dynamic and static factors must have been well accepted and tested.

In a study with male offender adolescents, the Structured Assessment of Violence Risk in Youth (SAVRY), one of the most widely used SPJ violence risk assessment tools predicted violent behavior among races, but only predicted nonviolent behavior among White offenders. Specifically, American-born Hispanic adolescent offenders obtained lower SAVRY scores than White youth, yet had higher base rates of rearrests (Vincent, Chapman, & Cook, 2011). These findings suggest that the SAVRY may not be an appropriate measure to assess risk for externalizing symptoms in Hispanic youth. Other studies have found that the SAVRY results differed systematically by race indicating poor generalizability (Chapman, Desai, Falzer, & Borum, 2006). Furthermore, a study conducted in Argentina, a Latin American country, showed that other violence risk

assessment tools (e.g., PCL-R, HCR 20, and VRAG) performed poorly when predicting offenses in adult Hispanic offenders (Folino, 2015).

Violence risk assessment tools omit individual factors of known importance for immigrant functioning, such as acculturation stress. Indeed, even though offending behavior has been associated with higher cultural adaptation to the dominant culture in minority populations (Bersani, Loughran, & Olivero, 2014), risk assessments do not consider acculturation stress levels. To our knowledge, no study has examined the interaction between risk for violence and acculturation stress in recently immigrated samples.

To this end, the first specific aim of this study was to examine the concurrent validity of the SAVRY in relation to parent-reported externalizing behavioral problems in recently immigrated Latino youth. Additionally, this study sought to examine the relevance of additional individual factors (i.e., criminal attitudes and acculturation stress) in moderating the relation between the risk for externalizing behaviors and actual externalizing behaviors reported by caregivers. To our knowledge, there is not one single study examining the risk for violence among recently immigrated Latino youth in the U.S.

Risk Factors Associated with Youth Externalizing Problems

Contextual Risk Factors in Home Country. Contextual risk factors refer to the influence of interpersonal relationships, institutions, and the environment on the likelihood of engaging in externalizing behaviors. These include peer delinquency, peer rejection, poor parental management, lack of social support, and community disorganization (Borum et al., 2006). It is well-documented that Central American youth

are exposed to a range of these contextual risk factors, reviewed in further detail below. Still, it must be noted that although immigrants share many historical and contextual disadvantages such as a history of poverty, exposure to violence, political chaos, and discrimination (Kennedy, 2014; Stinchcomb & Hershberg, 2014), it is not our intention to assume or suggest homogeneity among Latino immigrants. Indeed, research on immigration and crime acknowledges the heterogeneity in immigrants' paths to violent behavior (Bersani et al., 2014), highlighting the importance of moderating variables in the link between contextual risk factors and violent outcomes (i.e., equifinality). Moreover, many of the contextual risk factors described below are not exclusively linked to externalizing problems but, rather, serve as cross-cutting vulnerabilities conferring risk for a range of pathological outcomes (i.e., multifinality). One of the most common contextual risk factors faced by Central American youth is violence exposure and subsequent victimization (e.g., gang threats, crime, household violence, drug trafficking (Jaycox et al., 2002). A high percentage of immigrants report having been persecuted or fearing persecution; experiencing or witnessing violence, murders and social chaos (Hodes, 2000); and having been sexually abused, physically abused, and tortured (Beiser & Edwards, 1994). Furthermore, the homicides rates in Honduras, El Salvador and Guatemala have been documented to be the first, fourth and fifth highest in the world, respectively (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2013).

In a study that asked adolescent immigrants why they left their home country, most of the Salvadoran boys reported having been pressured to join a gang, interacting with gang members on a daily basis, and fearing for their lives for refusing to join gangs. Most of the Salvadoran girls reported fearing rape or kidnapping (Kennedy, 2014) and

approximately half of adolescent immigrants reported easy access to drugs, feeling unprotected in their school and home country, feeling that authorities do not respond to crime and abuse (Kennedy, 2014; Rosenblum, 2015), and fearing the police, military and government agencies (Kennedy, 2014). Adolescent immigrants reported being at higher risk for violence and death between their early adolescence and their late twenties (Rosenblum, 2015). Indeed, one of the most dangerous and massive gangs in Central and North America, *Mara Salvatrucha* (MS13), enrolls their new gang members at the age of 13 (Schorn, 2005).

A second contextual risk factor in this population is extreme poverty and unemployment (Kennedy, 2014; Stinchcomb & Hershberg, 2014), which simultaneously affect education. Per the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC, 2013), 46% of Salvadorans, 41% of Guatemalans, and 53% of Hondurans are unemployed. Poverty forces adolescents to work at a young age to sustain the household and assume filial responsibilities (e.g., maintain the household to facilitate their parents' psychological well-being or fulfill the responsibilities of the absent parent; Kuperminc, Wilkins, Jurkovic, & Perilla, 2013; Partida, 1996). Consequently, they must discontinue their attendance to school, increasing the rate of school dropouts (Stinchcomb & Hershberg, 2014). Only 62.5% of Salvadoran, 48.6% of Honduran, and 46.9% of Guatemalan adolescents are enrolled in high school (ECLAC, 2013).

The third most common contextual risk factor among Central American youth is family separation (Kennedy, 2014; Stinchcomb & Hershberg, 2014). Over 90% of adolescent immigrants reported having a family member in the U.S. Forty percent of Latina domestic workers in California report having at least one child living in their

country of origin (Hondagneu-Sotelo & Avila, 1997). Although a parent-child separation history is not always perceived as abandonment by the child or a determinant of the child's attachment style (Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 2001), immigrant children and adolescents were found to have higher rates of insecure attachment than non-immigrant adolescents (Ecke, 2007). Factors such as the context precipitating the parents' immigration; family members' opinions about the parent's motives for leaving; and the quality of the parent-child relationship before, during, and after separation can affect the adolescent's mental health and interpersonal style (Artico, 2003; Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 2001).

Migration-Related Risk Factors. Thirty-two percent of young immigrants reported immigration-related trauma (Perreira & Spees, 2015). These include robbery, physical and sexual assaults at the hands of *coyotes* (i.e., immigrant smugglers), and pursuits by officials from the U.S. Border Patrol upon entry into the country, food deprivation, dehydration, and witnessing murder, rape and assault (Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 2001). Other migration stressors include financial adversities, difficulties planning relocation, danger on the route to the U.S. (Saldana, 1992), and stress from leaving behind family, often primary caregivers (Patel, Clarke, Eltareb, Macciomei, & Wickham, 2016), and social support (Birman, Weinstein, Chan, & Beehler, 2007).

Findings suggest that an early age of migration (commonly seen) may facilitate a smoother acculturation process, but may increase the risk for trauma-related problems and externalizing problems. This is particularly concerning, given that 19% of unauthorized young immigrants went through the migration experience when they were younger than six, and 83% were younger than 13 (Perreira & Spees, 2015). Studies have

found that adolescents who immigrated to the U.S. at a young age were more likely to report exposure to trauma prior to and during migration, more likely to engage in externalizing behaviors, and, conversely, experienced a smoother process of adaptation than adolescent immigrants who arrived to the U.S. late in their adolescence (Beiser & Edwards, 1994; Morenoff & Astor, 2006; Perreira & Spees, 2015; Perreira & Ornelas, 2013; Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 2001). Regarding gender, female immigrants were found to be at higher risk for emotional problems than males (Beiser & Edwards, 1994). Thus, the degree of immigration stress, subsequent adaptation, and risk to engage in delinquent behaviors may depend upon the adolescent's age at migration and gender.

Post-Migration Risk Factors. The high levels of distress produced by changes in social and pre-migration life events may continue in the U.S., including exposure to victimization, substance use, socioeconomic disadvantage, economic hardship and poverty (Yearwood, Crawford, Kelly, & Moreno, 2007), and subsequent caregiver separation. Approximately 65% of children are separated from parents for over a year after crossing the U.S. border (Perreira & Spees, 2015). Family reunification after migration, typically occurring 10 to 12 years after the initial separation, can be a long and confusing process (Hondagneu-Sotelo & Avila, 1997; Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 2001). Parents may treat their adolescents as children and fail to recognize development that occurred during separation. The process of adaptation to a fairly unknown family in the U.S. may rise negative emotions, such as jealousy, inadequacy, and disconnectedness (Artico, 2003). Additional feelings of loss related to the separation from the surrogate parent in the home country may be experienced (e.g., grandparents, aunts, friend of the family; Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 2001). It was found that when both parents

emigrate together, mothers tend to be idealized and perceived as responsible and sacrificing, whereas fathers are viewed as irresponsible. Once in the U.S., upon reunification, male adolescents are inclined to excuse and minimize their fathers' perceived irresponsibility, whereas female adolescents are much less forgiving, resentful, and angry towards their fathers (Artico, 2003). These parent-adolescent conflicts may result in internalizing problems (Smokowski, Chapman & Bacallao, 2007). Yet, even with these issues, adolescent immigrants who had succeeded in reunifying with their families, showed significant improvement in mental health compared with those who were residing in shelter or foster homes and still working at reunification (Bessie & Edwards, 1993).

Once reunified with their families, Latino/a adolescents tend to live in marginalized, disadvantaged neighborhoods with high rates of poverty and limited access to government services and education (Anyon, 2014), which increase their risk for engaging in externalizing behaviors and victimization (Gudiño, Nadeem, Kataoka, & Lau, 2011; Martinez et al., 2012; Roosa et al., 2005; Smokowski et al., 2007) and internalizing problems (Smokowski & Bacallao 2007; Smokowski et al. 2007). For instance, residing in disadvantaged, low-income communities is associated with increased interaction with gang members (Cruz-Santiago & Ramirez, 2011), interaction with deviant peers (Roosa et al., 2005), risky sexual activity (Delgado, Updegraff, Roosa, & Umana-Taylor, 2011), academic failure (e.g., Gándara, 2010; Laird, Cataldi, Kewal Ramani, & Chapman, 2008), substance use (Gil, Wagner, & Vega, 2000; Kulis, Marsiglia, Sicotte, & Nieri, 2007), and ultimately conflicts within the parent-child relationship (Cruz-Santiago & Ramirez, 2011; Roosa et al., 2005).

Recently immigrated Latino adolescents are found to be at particularly high risk of being victims of violence, hate crimes, and negative social pressures at school (Jaycox et al., 2002; Shihadeh & Winters, 2010). Additionally, coping with the double stigma of being outsiders and “illegal aliens” poses an additional stressor for recently immigrated adolescents (Alba & Nee, 2005; Ferraro, 2013). Discrimination, both *de facto* and *de jure*, is a common problem among immigrants (Brodie, Steffenson, Valdez, & Levin, 2002) that contributes to lower self-esteem (Smokowski & Bacallao 2007), depression (Delgado et al. 2011), and social problems (Smokowski et al. 2007). Unauthorized status negatively influences youths’ educational expectations and performance (Perreira & Spees, 2015). Latino foreign-born students have significantly higher dropout rates than Latino U.S.-born students (34 % vs. 11 %; Aud, Fox, & Kewal Ramani, 2010). Furthermore, undocumented adult and children experience significant trauma (Dettlaff, 2009), unique challenges including anxiety before the possibility to be arrested, incarceration, and imprisonment of family members due to immigration status, deportation, leading to increased child trauma and harm (Androff, 2011).

Individual Risk Factors. Certainly, a great many recently immigrated adolescents face a range of contextual risk factors in their home country, during migration, and post-migration. Still, these contextual risk factors solely do not uniformly lead to pathological outcomes (e.g., externalizing behaviors). Individual factors also have an important contribution to the likelihood for engaging in externalizing behaviors. Some of individual risk factors include, attitudes supporting criminal and violent behavior, stress, poor coping, risk taking, impulsivity, anger management problems, substance use, low empathy and remorse, attention and hyperactivity problems, poor compliance to

intervention, and poor commitment to school (Borum et al., 2006). Acculturation stress, a common experience among immigrants, has been widely studied, but is poorly understood as a factor influencing crime among minority samples (Cruz, 2008).

Acculturation and Acculturation Stress. Once in the U.S., immigrant youth are constantly exposed to new cultural norms and acculturation pressures (Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 2001). According to Berry (2001), acculturation is defined as cultural changes resulting from the adaptation to new contexts. It is a bidimensional process that includes Cultural Maintenance (i.e., identification with the culture of origin) and Contact and Participation (i.e., identification with the adopted culture). The extent to which an individual is oriented to his/her culture-of-origin and host culture reflects an acculturation strategy, specifically: Assimilation (little interest to maintain culture of origin combined with the preference for interacting with the dominant culture), Separation (cultural maintenance while avoiding involvement with others from the dominant culture), Marginalization (neither cultural maintenance nor interaction with the dominant culture), or Integration (both cultural maintenance and involvement with dominant culture).

Acculturation stress is described as psychological strain resulting from conflicts between immigrants' own culture of origin interacting with host culture values, attitudes, customs, and behaviors (Berry, 1997; Birman et al., 2007). These conflicts may include language barrier, discrimination, acculturation dissonance, and perception of a closed society; and are experienced depending on the levels of acculturation. For instance, low acculturated adolescent Latinos tend to experience stress related to cultural and language changes, whereas, high acculturated adolescent Latinos tend to experience stress related to racial prejudice and discrimination (Vega, Khoury, Zimmerman, & Gil, 1995).

Acculturation stress is also related to immigration status. Researchers showed that undocumented Latino immigrants tended to have higher levels of acculturation stress than documented immigrants (Arbona et al., 2010). Acculturation stress may also result from facing conflicts within one's own ethnic group (Berry, 2001). Adolescent immigrants frequently face intergenerational acculturation stress, which consists of difficulties in psychological, social, and economic adjustment (Beiser, 2006) and refers to finding the balance between the cultural values and expectations of their family members and their own (Forster, Grigsby, Soto, Schwartz, & Unger, 2015).

Empirical evidence widely shows the existence of links between both acculturation and acculturation stress and mental health (Gil et al. 2000; Sirin, Ryce, Gupta, & Rogers-Sirin, 2013; Zamboanga, Schwartz, Jarvis, & Van Tyne, 2009). More specifically, acculturation stress, typically present in less acculturated individuals, has been found to be positively associated with externalizing behaviors such as, antisocial behavior (Crockett et al. 2007; Duarte et al. 2008; Romero & Roberts 2003; Suarez-Morales & Lopez 2009), substance use and risky sexual behavior (Cervantes, Cardoso, & Goldbach, 2015; Ebin et al., 2001; Gil et al., 2000; Morenoff & Astor, 2006), as well as risk for persistent offending (Bersani et al., 2014).

Studies also show that antisocial behaviors increase as Latino immigrants distance themselves from their culture of origin and become assimilated to the U.S. culture (Breslau et al., 2011). A plausible explanation could be that for immigrants, assimilation often entails an incorporation into a minority status and becoming subject to economic and social disadvantages that increase the likelihood of criminal behavior the longer they live in the U. S. (Rumbaut & Ewing, 2007). Thus, it seems that the prevalence of

externalizing problems tends to progressively increase after migration. For instance, studies showed that second generation immigrants tend to engage in more externalizing behaviors than first generation and foreign-born immigrants (Breslau et al., 2011).

Furthermore, when experiencing acculturation stress, U.S. born Latino adolescents were found to be more likely to be involved with gangs than foreign-born Latino adolescents (Barrett, Kuperminc, & Lewis, 2013). In this sense, low levels of acculturation and high acculturation stress act as protective factors in foreign-born adolescent immigrants, buffering against the hypothesized link between historical risk factors and risk for externalizing problems. Indeed, when compared to acculturated Latino immigrants, low acculturated Latino immigrants are less likely to use alcohol, marijuana, and cocaine; engage in risky sexual behaviors (Gil et al., 2000; Cervantes et al., 2015; Vega et al., 1998; Morenoff & Astor, 2006); and have a history of arrests (Ebin et al., 2001). Therefore, findings suggest that the individual characteristic of acculturation stress may contribute to the prediction of violence risk and behavioral problems in immigrant adolescents (Beiser & Edwards, 1994; Forster et al., 2015).

Criminal Attitudes. Individual risk factors for externalizing problems in adolescents include substance use, anger management problems, low empathy/remorse (Lodewijks, Doreleijers, De Ruiters, & Borum, 2008), impulsivity, hyperactivity, poor attention and academic achievement, negative perceptions of justice system, and criminal attitudes (Hawkins et al., 1999). The latter, criminal attitudes, or criminal sentiments, represents a cluster of individual and peer beliefs that support the favorable evaluation of performing a criminal act and the perception of social pressure to perform or not perform the act (Gendreau, Little, & Goggin, 1996; Simourd & Oliver, 2002). Among adults and

adolescents, criminal attitudes have been found to predict and precede criminal behavior (Simourd & Oliver, 2002; Simourd & Andrews, 1994), and to predict criminal recidivism (Skilling & Sorge, 2014), with a larger effect size than criminal history, social achievement, family factors, intelligence, substance abuse, personal distress, and socioeconomic status (Gendreau et al., 1996). Moreover, stronger criminal attitudes are found among violent and recidivist adult and adolescent offenders than among first and nonviolent offenders (Skilling & Sorge, 2014; Shields & Simourd, 1991; Simourd & Oliver, 2002; Simourd, 1997). In criminal justice settings, criminal attitudes were found to be the best predictor of misconduct among incarcerated adults (Gendreau et al., 1996) and juvenile delinquents (Simourd & Andrews, 1994). Additionally, criminal attitudes are the most important criminogenic variable considered in the assessment and treatment of offenders (Simourd, & Oliver, 2002), suggesting that cognitions and attitudes that support crime are dynamic, thereby changeable and amenable to treatment (Andrews, 1980; Andrews, Young, Wormith, Searle, & Kouri, 1973; Mandracchia & Morgan, 2012; Redondo, Martínez-Catena, & Andrés-Pueyo, 2012). To our knowledge, research has not yet explored criminal attitudes in recently immigrated youth.

To this end, the second aim of this study was to explore individual factors, specifically acculturation stress and criminal attitudes, as moderating variables in the relation between risk factors (captured in the SAVRY) and externalizing behavioral outcomes (parent reported). Based on available literature, the present study expected to find moderating effects of criminal attitudes and acculturation stress on the relation between risk for and externalizing behaviors among immigrated youth.

Present Study

The current study was designed to assess the link between externalizing behavior risk (SAVRY) and actual externalizing behavior problems, as well as the influence of two additional individual risk factors (i.e., criminal attitudes and acculturation stress) in a sample of recently immigrated youth, in whom exposure to historical and contextual risk factors were expected to be quite high. The specific goals of the current study were (a) to examine the concurrent validity of the SAVRY (total score and scale scores) in relation to parent-reported externalizing problems (total and scale scores), and (b) to examine the extent to which this relation depends upon the individual's level of criminal attitudes and acculturation stress. More specifically, we expected that youth with high SAVRY scores would experience elevated externalizing behavior problems only in the context of low acculturation stress and high criminal attitudes.

CHAPTER II

Methods

Participants

The participants of this study were 39 recently immigrated foreign-born youth ($M = 19.31$, $SD = 2.70$, $range = 15$ to 23), 19 (48.7%) male and 20 (51.3%) female; who attended an alternative high school in Houston, TX, where individuals up to 26 years old must be offered free high school education (State Education Reforms, 2015). Thirty-six participants reported having born in Central and South American, two of them in the Middle East, and one in Asia. Most of the participants had been living in the U.S. for an average of 2 years. Approximately 70% of participants reported a history of victimization (e.g., adverse event, physical, sexual, and/or emotional abuse).

Procedures

The measures chosen for this project were approved by the Protection of Human Subjects Committee of Sam Houston State University and the Houston Independent School District research committee. All participants and their legal guardians underwent standardized Institutional Review Board-approved consent procedures prior to any data collection. Specifically, legal guardian consent forms were provided to students and, if returned and signed by a legal guardian, informed assent from the youth was sought. To address the possibility that some participants could experience discomfort when responding to the items of the measures, they were reminded that their involvement was voluntary and they could discontinue their participation at any time. Guardians were provided with mental health service contact information and participants were informed that they could have access to mental health services through the school counselor, if

distress was noted by the research assistant conducting the assessment. To incentivize participation, a gift certificate for \$20 (per family) was offered during the informed consent and assent processes. To ensure that the data collected remained confidential, participants received a randomized number that linked the results of their measures with their legal guardian's questionnaires. Identifying information was collected only on consent documents, which were stored separately from research data.

Self-report (Societal, Attitudinal, Familial, and Environmental Acculturation Stress Scale and Criminal Sentiment Scale Modified, Spanish and English version) and caregiver (Child Behavior Checklist, Spanish and English Versions) questionnaires were completed by participants with the assistance of bilingual undergraduate research assistants to ensure the full understanding of the items. Caregiver questionnaires were completed by phone. The Structured Assessment of Violence Risk in Youth, a structured professional interview, was conducted by bilingual doctoral candidates under the supervision of Dr. Amanda Venta, Ph.D. Doctoral students received a risk assessment training, which included studying the professional manual, observation of administration, administration check, and two practical cases were rated. Interviews were videotaped for supervision and interrater reliability is ongoing.

Measures

Demographic Form. A demographic form developed for this study asked participants to provide basic personal information relevant to the purpose of this study, such as age, education level, race (see Appendix A).

Structured Assessment of Violence Risk in Youth (SAVRY; Borum et al., 2006). The SAVRY is a structured interview that assists clinicians in assessing and

making judgments about youth's risk for violence. The measure comprises 30 items—24 risk items (historical, social/contextual, and individual/clinical) and six protective factor items. The risk item responses range from low (score 0), moderate (score of 1) to high (score of 2). The protective factor item responses have two levels: present or absent. The historical risk factor scale (i.e., SAVRY-H) consists of 10 items based on past behavior (i.e., history of violence, history of nonviolent offending, early initiation of violence, past supervision/intervention failures, history of self-harm or suicide attempts, exposure to violence in the home, childhood history of maltreatment, parental/caregiver criminality, early caregiver disruption, and poor school achievement). The social/context scale (i.e., SAVRY-C) consists of six items related to peer delinquency, peer rejection, stress and poor coping, poor parental management, lack of personal/social support and community disorganization. The individual/clinical risk factor scale (i.e., SAVRY-I) includes eight items about negative attitudes, risk taking/impulsivity, substance-use difficulties, anger management problems, low empathy/remorse, attention deficit/hyperactivity difficulties, poor compliance and low interest/commitment to school. Finally, the protective factors scale (i.e., SAVRY-P) consists of five dichotomous items related to prosocial involvement, strong social support, strong attachments and bonds, positive attitude toward intervention and authority, strong commitment to school and resilient personality traits.

Previous studies show internal consistency estimates ranging from .74 to .83 (Lodewijks et al., 2008) and interclass correlation coefficients (ICC) from .72 to .97 (Catchpole & Gretton, 2003; Dolan & Rennie, 2006; Lodewijks et al., 2008) in justice-involved adolescent samples. In a longitudinal study, the SAVRY predicted violence in a

community sample of adolescents over a period of 4 to 7 years (Sijtsema, Kretschmer, & Van Os, 2015). The SAVRY is also effective in identifying adolescents who engaged in aggressive behaviors against objects, people and violation of rules with Areas Under the Curve (AUC) ranging from .74 to .80 across studies (Lodewijks et al., 2008; Welsh, Schmidt, McKinnon, Chattha, & Meyers, 2008), and AUCs ranging from .74 to .78. for general reoffending (Catchpole & Gretton, 2003; Lodewijks et al., 2008; Vincent et al., 2011). Concurrent validity studies of the SAVRY show positive significant correlations with the Youth Level of Service/Case Management Inventory ($r = .83$ and $.73$) and with the Hare Psychopathy Checklist-Youth Version ($r = .72$ and $.66$; Hilterman, Nicholls, & Chijs van Nieuwenhuizen, 2014; Catchpole & Gretton, 2003). Studies showed that American-born Latino adolescents obtained lower SAVRY scores than White adolescents, yet had higher base rates of nonviolent re-arrest, suggesting problems predicting non-violent offenses in minorities (Vincent et al., 2011). Other studies showed poor generalizability among ethnicities (Chapman et al., 2006; Roth, 2005). For example, it was found that the SAVRY performed better in White offenders than with ethnic minority offenders (Vincent, Chapman, & Cook, 2011), and had different results by race suggesting poor generalizability (Roth, 2005; Chapman et al., 2006). To our knowledge, no previous studies have examined the use of the SAVRY with recently immigrated Hispanic adolescents.

Youth-report Societal, Attitudinal, Familial, and Environmental Acculturation Stress Scale (SAFE; Chavez, Moran, Reid, & Lopez, 1997). The SAFE measures acculturation stress in adolescents. This is a modification of the Padilla SAFE acculturation stress measure (Padilla, Wagatsume, & Lindhold, 1985). The SAFE

comprises 36 rating items and uses a 5-point Likert type, anchored with 0 (does not apply), 1 (doesn't bother me), 2 (almost never bothers me), 3 (sometimes bothers me), 4 (often bothers me), and 5 (bothers me a lot). A total score is obtained by adding the scores for each item. Reliability tests revealed high internal consistency ($\alpha = .92$ to $.97$) for White American, African American and Hispanic children (Haboush-Deloye, Oliver, Parker, & Billings, 2015; Hawley, Chavez, & St. Romain, 2007), and immigrants from Latin America ($\alpha = .93$; Capielo, Delgado-Romero, & Stewart, 2015). In first and second generation Hispanic adolescent samples, the SAFE had a satisfactory Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = .75$ to $.84$; Sirin et al., 2013). Concurrent validity was found with the Acculturation Stress Inventory for Children (ASIC; Suarez-Morales, Dillon, & Szapocznik, 2007).

Criminal Sentiment Scale Modified, Spanish Version (CSSM; Shields & Simourd, 1991). The CSSM is a modified version of the original Criminal Sentiments Scale (Gendreau, Grant, Leipziger, & Collins, 1979). Martinez and Andres-Pueyo (2015) translated the Criminal Sentiment Scale and showed satisfactory psychometric properties in a Hispanic offender sample. The CSSM was designed to measure thinking patterns and attitudes related to criminal behavior. The CSSM is comprised of 41 items, each scored on a 3-point scale, anchored with 0 (disagree), 1 (neither agree nor disagree), and 2 (agree), with higher scores reflect higher levels of criminal attitudes. The acceptance of a prosocial statement or the rejection of a criminal one yields 0 points, whereas an endorsement of a criminal statement or the rejection of a prosocial attitude yields 1 or 2 points.

A meta-analysis (Walters, 2016) found that the CSS provide the best estimate of criminal thoughts among six other measures: Texas Christian University Criminal

Thinking Scales (Knight, Garner, Simpson, Morey, & Flynn, 2006), the Measure of Offender Thinking Styles–Revised (Mandracchia & Morgan, 2011), the Criminogenic Thinking Profile (Mitchell & Tafrate, 2012), the Criminogenic Cognitions Scale (Tangney et al., 2012), the Self-Appraisal Questionnaire (Loza, Dhaliwal, Kroner, & Loza-Fanous, 2000), and the Measures of Criminal Attitudes and Associates (Mills, Kroner, & Forth, 2002). Similarly, to the CSSM English version ($\alpha = .91$ to $.92$; Simourd & Oliver, 2002; Simourd & Andrews, 1994; Skilling & Sorge, 2014), studies have found high total reliability in the Spanish version ($\alpha = .89$), and convergent validity was supported with significant associations with violent offenses and criminal recidivism (Martinez & Pueyo, 2015). Further, studies with adolescent samples show that the CSSM is a valid measure of antisocial attitudes, aggression, and externalizing behaviors (Skilling & Sorge, 2014).

The CSSM has been found to good postdictive validity with criminal history (Mills & Kroner, 1997). In adult samples, convergent validity was with the Pride in Delinquency scale (Simourd 1997; Simourd & Van de Ven, 1999), and the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles (Walters, 2016) was found. While in adolescent samples, convergent validity was proven through the Youth Self-Report (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1983; Rule-Breaking and Aggressive Behavior), and the Aggression Questionnaire (Skilling & Sorge, 2014). To our knowledge no studies have been conducted with Latino recently immigrated youth in the U.S.

Caregiver-Report Questionnaire Child Behavior Checklist, Spanish and English Versions (CBCL; Achenbach, 1991). The CBCL is a standardized measure of externalizing behavior and emotional problems among children and adolescents. For the

current study, the Spanish version parent report form was used (Rescorla et al., 2012). The 112 items were rated using a 3-point scale, anchored with 0 (Not True), 1 (Somewhat or Sometimes True), and 2 (Very True or Often True). The CBCL has two subscales: (1) Internalizing, composed of Anxious/Depressed, Withdrawn, and Somatic Complaints subscales; and (2) Externalizing (i.e., CBCL-EXT), consisting of Rule Breaking and Aggressive Behavior subscales. The current study examines only the scores of the externalizing problems. The Rule Breaking/Unaggressive Behavior subscale (i.e., CBCL-RB) includes 17 items related to lying, cheating, running away, setting fire, stealing, swearing, using alcohol and drugs, and so forth. The Aggressive Behavior subscale (i.e., CBCL-AG) includes 18 items related to arguing, being mean to others, destroying objects, fighting, screaming, attacking others, threatening, etc. Studies found the CBCL to have a total reliability of $\alpha = .83$ on institutionalized juvenile offenders (Dolan & Rennie, 2006). In Hispanic community adolescents, the externalizing domain of the CBCL parent form was found to have high levels of internal consistency with Cronbach α ranging from .71 to .92 and concurrent validity with maladjustment measures and the presence of DSM diagnoses (Rubio-Stipec, Bird, Canino, & Gould, 1990). Studies found evidence of the CBCL convergent validity with the Teacher's Report Form and the Youth Self-Report (Achenbach & Rescorla, 2001) for Rule Breaking Behavior in community adolescents (Gomez, Vance, & Miranjani, 2014).

CHAPTER III

Results

Prior to addressing the research questions, preliminary data screening, descriptive statistics, correlations, and multicollinearity among variables of interest were examined to identify potential covariates. Preliminary data screening included examination of missing values, outliers, and normal distributions through frequency tables, histograms, and scatter plots for all variables. Three cases were dropped due to missing data on at least one variable and two outliers were handled using a standard rule for exclusion of z-score greater than three in absolute value (Borden & Abbott, 2008). Consequently, for the following analyses, the sample number was 39 (19 males and 20 females). Their ages ranged from 15 to 23 ($M = 19.31$, $SD = 2.70$).

To inspect normal distribution characteristics, skewness and kurtosis values were also examined. Skewness determines if the data was distributed above or below the mean, while measure the degree to which the curve deviates from the peak of the curve of an ideal normal distribution (Warner, 2013). Results showed positive distributions in all measures (skewedness values ranged from .28 to 1.50). With respect to distribution of the data away or close to the mean, results indicated variability across measures (kurtosis values ranged from -1.07 to 1.49). Based on these results, Shapiro-Wilk tests were examined to determine if there were significant differences between the variable distribution and a normal distribution (Warner, 2013). Results indicated that except for the SAFE ($p = .62$) all measures were not normally distributed ($p < .05$).

Since the normality assumptions were violated, Spearman correlations (as opposed to Pearson correlations) were used to analyze associations between measures.

However, parametric statistical analyses were used for the rest of the study (i.e., multiple regression and moderation analyses) after examining and determining that the assumptions for each statistical analysis method were met. Mahalanobis distance of each variable (less than 18) indicated the absence of multivariate outliers. Shapiro-Wilk test on standardized residuals was used to show normally distributed residuals (Warner, 2013). Additionally, moderation analyses were conducted with PROCESS (Hayes, 2016), which does not assume normality and has been found to be robust to non-normally distributed data because of its bootstrapped confidence intervals (Hayes & Preacher, 2013).

With respect to descriptive data, Table 1 presents descriptive characteristics for each of the study measures. The observed difference between minimum and maximum score for each scale is consistent with the possible range of values reported by the original versions of the scales. Additionally, mean, standard deviation, median, mode and internal reliability values are also depicted.

Cronbach's alpha was used to examine the internal consistency, or degree to which the items on each scale covary, generally indicating that they are measuring the same construct (DeVellis, 2012), which by convention should be higher than .70 to be considered adequate. Results indicated overall fair to good internal consistency (.71 to .91) for all measures. However, at a scale level, the SAVRY subscales' internal consistency estimates ranged from poor to moderate ($\alpha = .44$ to $.68$) and the CBCL-EXT subscales' internal consistency estimates were poor ($\alpha = .47$ to $.54$).

Table 1

Descriptive characteristics of measures

	Range	Mean(SD)	Median	Mode	Alpha
SAFE	24 – 139	73.59 (27.15)	74	36	.91
CSSM	41 – 112	69.13 (14.94)	65	65	.90
SAVRY-T	0 - 26	10.60 (6.63)	9.5	4	.80
SAVRY-H	0 – 14	5.16 (3.38)	4	3	.62
SAVRY-C	0 – 7	2.37 (1.76)	2	2	.44
SAVRY-I	0 – 8	2.53 (2.36)	2	2	.64
SAVRY-P	0 – 6	.55 (1.09)	0	0	.68
CBCL-EXT	0 – 6	2.17 (1.72)	1.5	5	.71
CBCL-RB	0 – 6	1.59 (1.68)	2	1	.47
CBCL-AG	0 – 7	2.77 (2.19)	1.5	1	.54

SAVRY-T: SAVRY Total score

A more detailed examination of the SAVRY subscales (Table 2) showed that within the Historical Factor scale, the items related to early initiation of violence and early caregiver disruption had the weakest item-total correlation ($r = .11$ and $.10$, respectively). Within the Contextual Factor scale, the peer delinquency and peer rejection items had the weakest correlations ($r = -.03$ and $.07$, respectively) with the rest of the items. Within the Individual Factor scale, the item related to low empathy and remorse had the weakest correlation ($r = .10$) with the rest of the items. Finally, within the Protective Factor scale, the item related to strong commitment to school had the weakest correlation ($r = .29$) with the rest of the items.

Table 2

Item-Total correlations of SAVRY Total and its subscales

	SAVRY - H	SAVRY - C	SAVRY - I	SAVRY - P	SAVRY - T
Historical Factors					
1. History of violence	.17				.26
2. Early initiation of violence	.11				.22
3. History of nonviolent offending	.41				.53
4. Past supervision/ intervention failures	.51				.49
5. History of self-harm or suicide attempts	.41				.44
6. Exposure to violence in the home	.21				.35
7. Childhood history of maltreatment	.34				.28
8. Parent/caregiver criminality	.27				.23
9. Early caregiver disruption	.10				.07
10. Poor school achievement	.44				.52
Contextual Factors					
11. Peer delinquency		-.03			.05
12. Peer rejection		.07			.25
13. Stress and poor coping		.54			.35
14. Poor parental/caregiver management		.28			.37
15. Lack of personal/ social support		.25			.28
16. Community disorganization		.20			.17
Individual Factors					
17. Negative attitudes			.47		.35
18. Risk taking/ impulsivity			.30		.24

(continued)

	SAVRY - H	SAVRY - C	SAVRY - I	SAVRY - P	SAVRY - T
19. Substance use difficulties			.36		.50
20. Anger management problems			.31		.29
21. Low empathy/ remorse			.10		.25
22. Attention deficit/ hyperactive difficulties			.42		.24
23. Poor compliance			.35		.42
24. Low interest/ commitment to school			.34		.53
Protective Factors					
25. Prosocial involvement				.37	.11
26. Strong social support				.37	.20
27. Strong attachment and bonds				.65	.38
28. Positive attitude toward intervention and authority				.43	.45
29. Strong commitment to school				.29	.35
30. Resilient Personality traits				.50	.27
SAVRY-T: SAVRY Total score					

Regarding the internal consistency of the CBCL-EXT scales, a total of ten items were not considered in the analyses due to being consistently endorsed as a zero by all the participants. Thus, the Rule Breaking Behavior Scale internal consistency was estimated based on 12 items. The items related to drinking alcohol without parental approval ($r = -.05$) and preference to be with older kids ($r = .01$) had the weakest correlation with the rest of the items. The Aggressive Behavior Scale internal consistency was estimated based on 13 items. The items related to fighting ($r = .10$) and engaging in temper tantrums ($r = .08$) had the weakest correlation with the rest of the items.

Intercorrelations (see Table 3) among measures and subscales within measures were examined. Within the SAVRY, significant intercorrelations were found, except for between the Individual and Protective Factor subscales. All intercorrelations among CBCL-EXT subscales were significant.

With respect to correlations between measures, there was a significant positive correlation among the SAVRY total score and the CBCL-EXT. The Historical and Individual Factor subscales of the SAVRY, and the SAFE were significantly correlated with the CBCL Aggressive Behavior subscale. The CSSM did not correlate significantly with any measure.

Table 3

Correlations among measures at a total and scale score level

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. SAFE	-									
2. CSSM	-.09	-								
3. SAVRY-H	.17	.09	-							
4. SAVRY-C	.17	-.19	.42*	-						
5. SAVRY-I	-.04	.14	.61*	.33*	-					
6. SAVRY-P	.16	.10	.35*	.32*	.27	-				
7. SAVRY-T	.08	.00	.86*	.67*	.82*	.44*	-			
8. CBCL-RB	-.12	.15	.24	.12	.19	.20	.25	-		
9. CBCL-AG	.33*	.08	.45*	.17	.34*	.07	.40*	.44*	-	
10. CBCL-EXT	.25	.10	.38*	.18	.27	.11	.35*	.72*	.93*	-

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
SAVRY-T: SAVRY Total score

Three multiple regressions were conducted, in which the four scale scores of the SAVRY (Historical, Contextual, Individual and Protective) were the predictor variables and only the outcome varied: (1) CBCL-EXT total scale, (2) Rule Breaking subscale, and (3) Aggressive Behaviors subscale. Results showed that the SAVRY subscales did not significantly predict the CBCL-EXT [$F(4, 34) = 2.10, p = .10; R^2 = .20$], CBCL-RB [$F(4, 34) = 1.66, p = .18, R^2 = .16$] or the CBCL-AG [$F(4, 34) = 1.54, p = .21, R^2 = .15$] (see Table 4).

Table 4

Multiple Regression Model. SAVRY Subscales predicting CBCL-EXT and subscales

Outcome / Predictor variable	Beta	t	Sig.	Semi-Partial Correlation
CBCL-EXT				
SAVRY-H	.44	1.92	.06	.31
SAVRY-C	.02	.12	.90	.01
SAVRY-I	-.00	-.01	.99	-.00
SAVRY-P	-.02	-.11	.90	-.10
CBCL-RB				
SAVRY-H	.40	1.70	.10	.28
SAVRY-C	-.01	-.05	.96	-.01
SAVRY-I	.00	.02	.98	.00
SAVRY-P	.03	.16	.87	.03
CBCL-AG				
SAVRY-H	.39	1.65	.11	.27
SAVRY-C	.03	.17	.87	.03
SAVRY-I	-.01	-.04	.97	-.01
SAVRY-P	-.03	-.21	.83	-.04

Moderation analyses, through PROCESS (Hayes, 2016), were used to examine whether the relation between risk for violence and externalizing problems depends on levels of criminal attitudes and acculturation stress. The overall model (Figure 1) consisted of the CBCL-EXT as dependent variable, the SAVRY as independent variable, the SAFE and the CSMM as moderators. Additionally, four interactions were examined: SAFE x CSSM, SAVRY Total score x SAFE, SAVRY Total score x CSSM, and SAVRY Total score x SAFE x CSSM). Part and partial correlations of each predictor were requested in addition to the default statistics.

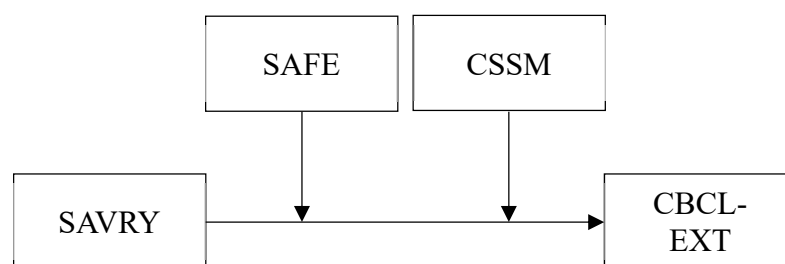


Figure 1. Moderation Model.

Results indicated that the overall model significantly predicted CBCL-EXT [$F(7, 31) = 4.55, p < .01, R^2 = .51$] (see Table 5). CBCL-EXT scores could be predicted from the set of seven predictors (independent variable, moderators, and interactions among them), with 51% of the variance accounted for by the regression. Approximately 8% of the total variance was explained by the SAVRY Total score ($B = .31, p = .03$), 8.4% by the SAVRY Total score and CSSM interaction ($B = -.37, p = .03$), 21% by the SAFE and CSSM interaction ($B = -.67, p < .05$), and 8% by the three-way interaction ($B = -.41, p = .04$).

Table 5

Moderation Effect of SAFE and CSSM on the relation between SAVRY-T and CBCL-EXT

	Beta	t	Sig.	Semi-Partial Correlations
SAFE	.01	.01	.99	.00
CSSM	-.15	-.91	.37	-.11
SAVRY-T	.31	2.25	.03*	.28
SAVRY-T x SAFE	-.06	-.39	.69	-.05
SAVRY-T x CSSM	-.37	-2.29	.03*	-.29
SAFE x CSSM	-.67	-3.61	< .01*	-.46
SAVRY-T x CSSM x SAFE	-.41	-2.18	.04*	-.28

*. Significance at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

SAVRY-T: SAVRY Total score

Unpacking the three-way interaction (see Figure 2 and Table 6) evidence of moderated mediation indicated that there was a significant, positive relation between the SAVRY Total score and the CBCL-EXT in three different instances: when CSSM was low and SAFE was moderate and high ($t = 3.41, p < .01, t = 3.38, p < .01$); when both the CSMM and the SAFE were moderate ($t = 2.25, p = .03$), and when the CSSM was high and SAFE was low ($t = 2.18, p = .03$).

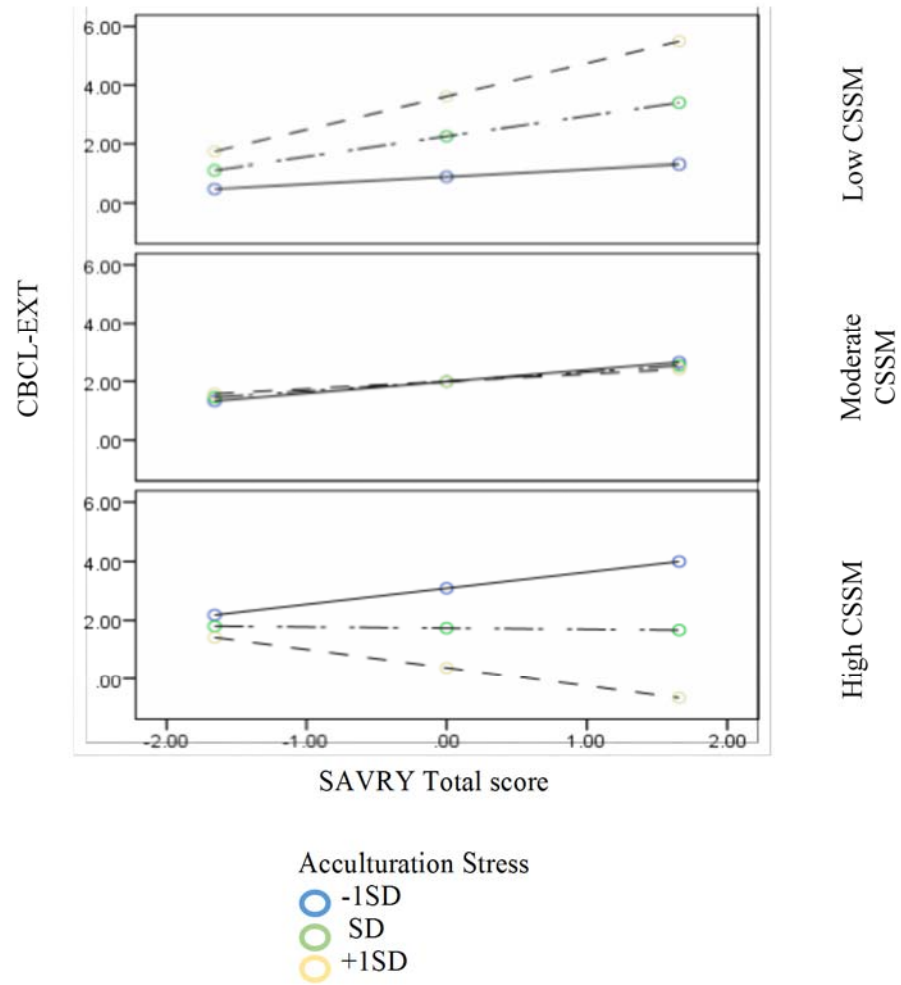


Figure 2. Moderated Moderation Effects.

Table 6

Conditional effect of the SAVRY on the CBCL-EXT at different levels of the SAFE and CSSM

CSSM	SAFE	Effect	t	Sig.
Low	Low	.25	.66	.51
Low	Moderate	.69	3.41	< .01*
Low	High	1.13	3.38	< .01*
Moderate	Low	.40	1.73	.09
Moderate	Moderate	.32	2.25	.03*
Moderate	High	.25	1.03	.31
High	Low	.54	2.18	.03*
High	Moderate	-.04	-.18	.86
High	High	-.63	-1.32	.20

*. Significance at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

CHAPTER IV

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to (a) examine the concurrent validity of a well-known youth risk assessment tool (i.e. SAVRY) with respect to externalizing behaviors reported by caregivers, and (b) to examine whether this relation depends on the levels of two individual risk factors: acculturation stress and criminal attitudes, among recently immigrated youth. There is clear evidence supporting the presence of a significant association between criminal attitudes and acculturation stress with externalizing behaviors. However, to the date, no risk assessment tool considers acculturation stress levels as influencing factors for externalizing behaviors, or examines criminal attitudes in depth. To our knowledge, this study is the first examining the value acculturation stress and criminal attitudes when assessing risk for externalizing behaviors in recently immigrated youth. The sample of the current study consisted of 39 foreign-born youth immigrants, 36 of them Latinos.

Descriptive statistical analyses showed evidence of not normally distributed data across measures except for the acculturations stress measure (i.e., SAFE). It was unclear if this matter was a unique aspect of the sample or a problem of measurement. Despite the variability in the distributions of the data, these findings did not affect the followed statistical analyses since assumptions required were met and statistical tools used (i.e. PROCESS) did not assume normality. Since previous studies reported normal distributions or failed to present normality information of these measures (e.g., Simourd & Oliver, 2002; Simourd & Andrews, 1994; Skilling & Sorge, 2014; Martinez & Andrés-Pueyo, 2015; Rescorla et al., 2012; Dolan & Rennie, 2006; Bordin et al., 2013; Rubio-

Stipec et al., 1990) these descriptive results are valuable as providing first data in this unique sample.

The total internal consistency values of all measures ranged from fair to good, indicating that the items within each measure were related to a construct. However, at a subscale level, the SAVRY (i.e., historical, contextual, individual, and protective subscales) and CBCL (i.e., rule breaking and aggressive behavior subscales) were found to have low internal consistency estimates. The low internal consistencies in the CBCL Rule Breaking and Aggressive Behaviors subscales might have been affected by a reduction of the number of items per subscale due to no variability among those items. The deletion of five items in each subscale due to scores of zero among all participants left the subscales with 12 and 13 items each, respectively. Yet, the internal reliability of the whole Externalizing Behavior scale was good, suggesting that altogether the items covary adequately and may measure the same or related constructs. Additionally, both subscales were significantly and positively intercorrelated, which is usually expected on two subscales within a measure that assesses related constructs.

Greater examination of the SAVRY subscales indicated that there were several items with weak item-total correlations. Interestingly, when frequency of response was analyzed, we found that these items were reported uniformly by a large portion of the sample. This suggests that those experiences were more consistent in their life rather than fluctuating from one case to another, and were not significantly associated with the total score of the measure. For instance, in the Historical Factor scale, the early initiation of violence and early caregiver disruption had the weakest item-total correlations; yet, they were frequently endorsed (e.g., almost 70% of the participants reported never committing

a violent act or having had an initiation of violence at the age of 14 or older; and almost 60% reported having been separated from their caregivers before the age of 12). In the Contextual Factor scale, the peer delinquency and peer rejection items (both reported at low levels by over 70% of the sample); in the Individual Factor scale, the low empathy and remorse item (reported at low levels by over 85% of the sample); and in the Protective Factor scale, the item related to strong commitment to school (reported by almost 85% of the sample) had the weakest correlation with the rest of items of their respective scale. Even though internal consistency is an important measure of reliability, interrater reliability would be more appropriate in the case of the SAVRY. This is study that is currently in progress.

With respect to the first goal of the study, the initial hypothesis was drawn based on two sources of information: available literature that indicates the presence of high rates of risk factors for externalizing behaviors in immigrants (e.g., Kennedy, 2014; Stinchcomb & Hershberg, 2014; Jaycox et al., 2002; Beiser & Edwards, 1994), and research on the Immigrant Paradox that states that, despite risk factors, immigrants are less likely to engage in externalizing behaviors than their U.S.-born counterparts (Acevedo-Garcia & Bates, 2008; MacDonald & Saunders, 2012; Vaughn, 2014; Wolff et al., 2015). Indeed, youth immigrants report a high rate of risk factors (Kennedy, 2014; Rosenblum, 2015; Stinchcomb & Hershberg, 2014), but research shows that immigrant adolescents have low rates of externalizing behaviors (Ferraro, 2013; Maldonado-Molina et al., 2011).

With respect to convergent validity of the SAVRY, results showed that the total score was significantly correlated with externalizing behaviors in the sample. The

positive and significant relation between the CBCL, Externalizing Behavior, and the SAVRY provides evidence of its validity. However, a closer analysis revealed that of all the SAVRY subscales, only the Historical and Individual Risk Factor subscales were significantly correlated with the CBCL Aggressive Behavior subscale, but not with the CBCL Rule Breaking Behavior subscale. In fact, any subscale of the SAVRY was found significantly correlated with the CBCL Rule Breaking Behavior. These results are consistent with two previous studies: individual and historical risk factors of the SAVRY were better associated to increased risk of violent offenses than contextual or protective factors in justice-involved youth (Zhou, Cao, Chen, & Wang, 2017), and the SAVRY is a better predictor of aggressive than non-aggressive behaviors (Vincent et al., 2011).

With respect to the three multiple regression models, in which the SAVRY subscales were predicting the CBCL total and subscale scores, none of the results were significant. These results are inconsistent with previous studies in samples of the dominant population, in which the SAVRY was significantly associated with externalizing behaviors (e.g., Hilterman et al., 2014). However, they support previous studies that found that the SAVRY performance is diminished when administered to minorities (e.g., Vincent et al., 2011; Chapman et al., 2006). Theoretically it is expected that the accumulation of all historical, contextual, and individual risk factors would contribute to all externalizing behaviors (Yokley, 2008). Other aspects of immigrants' histories must be considered when interpret these results. Additionally, the identification of risk and protective factors, and the prediction of externalizing behaviors require a complex examination. For years, authors have debated if a factor that has a beneficial effect on people at risk can also relate to better outcomes in groups not at risk (Rutter,

1987). For example, a study on an immigrant sample found that high parental educational attainment (typically considered as a protective factor) was associated with academic problems and delinquent behavior, whereas those whose parents had a lower education often showed less problematic outcomes (Schmitt-Rodermund & Silbereisen, 2008).

The second goal of the study, to examine how different levels of acculturation stress and criminal attitudes impact the relation between risk for and the presence of externalizing behaviors among recently immigrated youth. When adding the moderating variables (i.e., acculturation stress and criminal attitudes) to the correlation examination, no significant associations among variables were found. A plausible explanation could be based on the nature of the sample: young immigrants attending to high school in the U.S. Some have argued that immigration selects for people who are highly motivated and ambitious to achieve a higher education (Vaughn et al., 2014). Additionally, studies have shown that school context offers several protective factors, such as source of social support to cope with adaptation and integration difficulties (Cristini, Scacchi, Perkins, Santinello, & Vieno, 2011), and with that, the decrease likelihood of experiencing high levels of acculturation stress (Caplan, 2007). Furthermore, in comparison to parents and peers, social support from teachers has a positive and a greater effect and prevent negative outcomes on foreign-born youth (Hurd & Zimmerman, 2010; Walsh, Harel-Fisch, & Fogel-Grinvald, 2010). Then, it is reasonable to assume that high motivation to succeed may not be associated criminal attitudes and acculturations stress. Yet, without other comparable studies of similar samples but different settings, it would be speculative and problematic to draw further conclusions.

The moderation hypotheses were based on previous studies that showed that criminal attitudes (Simourd & Oliver, 2002; Simourd & Andrews, 1994) and acculturation stress were significantly associated with externalizing behaviors (Crockett et al. 2007; Duarte et al. 2008; Romero & Roberts 2003; Suarez-Morales & Lopez 2009). When looking at the moderation analyses, results showed that over half of the variance in the CBCL-EXT was accounted for by the seven predictors together (SAVRY, SAFE, CSSM and interactions between terms). Specifically, the SAVRY total score had a main effect on the CBCL-EXT and there were three significant interactions. Results of the three-way interaction indicated that the SAVRY demonstrated adequate validity in relation to externalizing behavior when (1) criminal attitudes were low and acculturation stress was either moderate and high, (2) when criminal attitudes and acculturation stress were both moderate, and (3) when criminal attitudes were high and acculturation stress was low.

This results warrant discussion. The first finding indicates that low levels of criminal attitudes, and moderate and/or high levels of acculturation stress strengthen the association between risk for and actual engagement in externalizing behaviors. These results are inconsistent with previous studies, in which low levels of criminal attitudes was not associated with externalizing behaviors (e.g., Andrews & Bonta, 1995) and high levels of acculturation stress were related to externalizing behaviors (Barrett et al., 2013). However, these studies did not examine the role of both variables acting together.

Secondly, in contrast to this prior research and against expectations, the SAVRY and the CBCL had a significant and positive association when acculturation stress and criminal attitudes were moderate. A tentative explanation could be that these results may

be affected by the small sample size. Another contributing factor could be that the SAVRY, in this group may be predicting psychological distress manifested through behavioral problems, rather than risk for violence or criminal behavior. Indeed, acculturation stress is associated with psychopathology across the internalizing and externalizing spectrum (Jaycox et al., 2002; Lara-Cinisomo, Xue, & Brooks-Gunn, 2013; Crockett et al. 2007; Duarte et al. 2008; Romero & Roberts 2003; Suarez-Morales & Lopez 2009). To our knowledge, this is the first study to document this relation and, thus, replication is needed. Future research regarding the SAVRY's divergent validity are needed in order to unpack this finding.

Third, these results partially supported our hypothesis that the SAVRY total scores would be associated with externalizing behavior problems only in the context of low acculturation stress and high criminal attitudes. This result reconciled with previous findings that showed that highly acculturated individuals (usually with low levels of acculturation stress) tend to engage in more externalizing behaviors than low acculturated individual (Bersani et al., 2014; Vaughn et al., 2014). Together, in this sample, acculturation stress has a dual role that leads to two risk paths; it contributes to reduce or increase the presence of externalizing behaviors depending on the individual's level of criminal attitudes and risk for violence. Given that separately, acculturation stress and criminal attitudes, have no main effect between risk of and for externalizing behaviors, but together they significantly affect the prediction of externalizing behaviors, researchers and clinicians must look at the interaction of both variables.

The current study faces four major limitations: (1) a small sample size. Future studies should include larger samples. (2) In most cases the caregivers that completed the

CBCL-EXT were family members or friends of the family who, although were residing with the youth, they could have been somewhat unfamiliar with the participants because they had recently met them or reunited with them. In average, participants had been living in the US for two to four years, and over 50% of them reported that someone else, but not their parents, were their primary caregivers in the US. Furthermore, adding to potential accuracy issues of the caregivers' report, a previous study on a similar sample found that immigrant youth who experience psychological problems may not be observed as being in distress by those around them (Patel & Kull, 2011). Future studies on this population should collect externalizing behaviors data from multiple sources such as, self-reports, other family members and friends, and school records. (3) Lack of SAVRY interrater reliability analysis. Further analysis should include the SAVRY interrater reliability, statistical analysis controlling for gender and age, and longitudinal studies where externalizing behaviors data is collected after several months, instead of concurrently with the other measures. Moreover, the present study only captures two additional individual risk factors (acculturation stress and criminal attitudes) from a potentially extensive list of them. Further studies should examine other risk and protective factors theoretically known to be linked with externalizing behaviors, such as, perception of the justice system (Kennedy, Homant, & Homant, 2004), and authorization legal status (Arbona et al., 2010). Finally, (4) the sample was largely Latinos born in Central America attending an alternative school program. Then, generalizing results to other foreign-born immigrant groups is premature. Future studies should recruit individuals from different groups, consider uniqueness of each group, and avoid drawing broad conclusions.

Despite its limitations, this study advances the current knowledge about the heterogeneity of this group by documenting the need for modified risk assessments and additional considerations when assessing recently immigrated youth. For example, a more in detail assessment of needs and dynamic risk factors (Andrews & Hoge, 2010). These findings suggest that the conventional application and interpretation of the SAVRY may not be appropriate with immigrant youth, as it may fall short because of (1) although we have evidence of convergent validity, we found no evidence to support concurrent validity, and (2) it fails to consider unique and important aspects, such as the interaction between criminal attitudes and acculturation stress.

The findings of the current study are important in contributing first data to violence risk assessment among recently immigrated youth. Considering (1) the high prevalence of difficulties related to acculturation stress in Latino immigrants (Mehta, Theodore, Mora, & Wade, 2002), (2) that the foreign-born population from Latin America is the largest in the U.S., accounting for over half (53%) of all foreign-born individuals (Fortuny, Hernandez, & Chaudry, 2010), and (3) that Latinos are the fastest growing ethnic-minority group (Fry, 2008) and one of the youngest populations in the U.S. (Patten, 2016), we urge the need for further study to increase the ability of adequately assess risk for externalizing behaviors in this growing segment of the population.

Finally, conducting research in immigrant populations is difficult due to concerns of privacy and legal sanctions (Martinez et al., 2015) that could affect their self-report. Undocumented immigrants tend to experience higher levels of acculturation stress than documented immigrants (Arbona et al., 2010), tend to experience significant trauma

(Dettlaff et al., 2009), face unique challenges including anxiety over arrest, incarceration, and imprisonment of family (Androff, 2011). Nearly 11 million immigrants are unauthorized in the U.S., approximately 1.8 million children are undocumented, and 3.1 million children are born in the U.S. to undocumented parents (Todorova, & Suarez-Orozco, 2009). Indeed, the current sample size reflects a full year of data collection at a specialty school for recently immigrated youth and, thus, findings should not be discounted.

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APPENDIX

1. ***What is your date of birth?***

2. ***Are you Hispanic?***
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
3. ***What is your race?***
 - a. White
 - b. Black
 - c. Asian
 - d. Mixed race
 - e. Other: _____
4. ***What is your gender identity?***
 - a. Male
 - b. Female
 - c. Transgender
 - d. Other: _____
5. ***What is your sexual orientation?***
 - a. Heterosexual
 - b. Homosexual
 - c. Bisexual
 - d. Other: _____
6. ***What is your relationship status?***
 - a. Single, not dating
 - b. Casually dating one person
 - c. Casually dating multiple people
 - d. Exclusively dating one person
 - e. Married
 - f. Divorced or separated
 - g. Widowed
 - h. Other: _____
7. ***Do you have any biological children of your own?***
 - a. Yes, I have _____ children
 - b. No
8. ***How many school credits do you have?***

9. What grades have you been getting this semester?

- a. Mostly A's
- b. A's and B's
- c. Mostly B's
- d. B's and C's
- e. Mostly C's
- f. C's and D's
- g. Mostly D's
- h. D's and F's
- i. Mostly F's
- j. Don't know

10. What is your overall GPA?

11. Do you consider yourself popular with your peers at school?

- a. Not at all
- b. Somewhat
- c. Very

12. Who lives in your house now?

13. Do you take care of any of these people?

- a. Yes, I take care of _____
- b. No

14. Who takes care of you most often now?

- a. Mother
- b. Father
- c. Other: _____

15. Are your parents: _____?

- a. Married
- b. Divorced
- c. Never married
- d. Other: _____

16. How tall are you?

- a. _____ ft.
- b. _____ meters/centimeters

17. How much do you weigh?

- a. _____ lbs. or
- b. _____ kgs.

18. *How many hours do you sleep per night?*
 _____ hrs.
19. *Have you ever seen a counselor or mental health doctor?*
 a. Yes
 b. No
20. *Do you take any medicines for your mental health?*
 a. Yes, I take _____
 b. No
21. *Have you ever received a psychological diagnosis?*
 a. Yes, I've been diagnosed with _____
 b. No
22. *Please circle your religious affiliation:*
- | | |
|---|---------------------------------|
| a. None (**I have no particular affiliation, but I am also NOT Agnostic or Atheist) | l. Episcopal |
| b. Agnostic | m. Hinduism |
| c. Atheist | n. Islam |
| d. Amish | o. Jehovah's Witness |
| e. Assembly of God | p. Judaism |
| f. Baptist | q. Latter Day Saints |
| g. Buddhism | r. Lutheran |
| h. Catholic (Roman Catholic) | s. Methodist |
| i. Church of Christ | t. Pentecostal |
| j. Christian (Non-Denominational) | u. Quaker |
| k. Eastern Orthodox | v. Seventh Day Adventist |
| | w. Shinto |
| | x. Taoism |
| | y. Unitarian |
| | z. Other (please list)
_____ |
23. *On average, how often do you attend religious services at your place of worship? (Circle ONE)*
- | | |
|---|----------------------------|
| a. Not applicable to me – Non-religious | j. More than once per week |
| b. Never | k. Daily |
| c. Almost never | |
| d. Once or twice a year. | |
| e. 3 to 5 times per year | |
| f. Once every two months | |
| g. Once a month | |
| h. Every two weeks | |
| i. Once a week | |

VITA

CARLA G. MUÑOZ, M.A.
Sam Houston State University

EDUCATION

- Present **Doctor of Philosophy in Clinical Psychology**
Sam Houston State University
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Dissertation: Violence Risk Assessment and Externalizing Symptoms among Recently Immigrated Adolescents from Central America and the Moderating Role of Acculturative Stress and Criminal Sentiments. (proposed June 2016).
- May 2014 **Master of Arts in Clinical Psychology**
Sam Houston State University
Huntsville, Texas
Thesis: First Sexual Experience, Impersonal Sexual Orientation, Hostile Masculinity: An Expansion of the Confluence Model of Sexual Aggression.
- December 2009 **Master of Arts in Forensic Psychology**
Argosy University, Sarasota, Florida.
- December 2004 **Bachelor of Science in Psychology**
Federico Villarreal State University, Lima, Perú.
- Satisfied requirements for licensure from the Board of Psychologists in Perú.

LANGUAGES

- Spanish
- Fluent in speaking, reading and writing Spanish.
 - Trained in administration and scoring of Spanish-adapted cognitive and achievement tests as well as assessments of adaptive functioning and emotional and behavioral symptoms.
 - Experienced conducting clinical interviews and providing feedback and recommendations in Spanish.
 - Experienced providing evidenced-based, culturally adapted psychotherapy in Spanish.
 - Conducted competency to stand trial evaluations in Spanish.

CLINICAL & PRACTICA EXPERIENCE DURING DOCTORAL STUDY
(see Appendix for measures)

- September 2017 – *Psychology Intern*
Present **Patton State Hospital**
Highland, California
- August 2016 – *Student Clinician*
July 2017 **Rusk State Hospital**
Rusk, Texas
- June 2015 – *Student Clinician*
Present **Office of Refugee Resettlement, Division of Unaccompanied
Children Services**
Houston, Texas
- July 2014 – *Volunteer Student Clinician*
Present **Harris and Montgomery County Juvenile Probation
Department**
Harris and Montgomery Counties, Texas
- September 2013 – *Assistant Forensic Evaluator.*
Present **Psychological Services Center Sam Houston State University**
Huntsville, Texas
- September 2013 – *Student Evaluator and Therapist*
Present **Psychological Services Center**
Sam Houston State University
Huntsville, Texas
- August 2015 – *Practicum Student Clinician, Assistant Neuropsychology*
July 2016 *Evaluator and Therapist.*
Transitional Learning Center
Galveston, Texas
- June 2014 – *Practicum Student Clinician*
July 2015 **Harris County Juvenile Probation Department**
Houston, Texas
- April 2015 *Student Clinician*
Texas Department of Criminal Justice
Huntsville, Texas
- May 2013 – *Student Clinician*
July 2013 **Psychological Services Center**
Sam Houston State University
Huntsville, Texas

PREVIOUS CLINICAL & PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

- February 2010 – *Psychologist Assistant I.*
 July 2012 **Downstate Correctional Facility**
Fishkill, New York
- October 2009 – *Mental Health Clinician.*
 June 2010 **New York Psychotherapy and Counseling Center**
Brooklyn, New York
- February 2009 – *Practicum Student Clinician*
 July 2009 **West Palm Beach Detention Center**
West Palm Beach, Florida
- March 2008 – *Mental Health Clinician*
 July 2009 **Multilingual Psychotherapy Center**
West Palm Beach, Florida
- March 2007 – *Family Specialist.*
 June 2009 **My First Steps Pre School**
West Palm Beach, Florida
- January 2005 – *Psychologist (licensed in Perú)*
 September 2005 **Carapongo Medical Center**
Lima, Perú
- July 2003 – *Practicum Student Clinician*
 December 2003 **Police Department-Criminology Department**
Lima, Perú
- January 2003 – *Practicum Student Clinician*
 July 2003 **Larco Herrero Psychiatric Hospital**
Lima, Perú

SUPERVISORY EXPERIENCE

- July 2016 – *Peer Supervisor*
 Present **Office of Refugee Resettlement, Division of Unaccompanied
 Children Service**
Houston, Texas
- January 2016 – *Peer Supervisor*
 Present **Sam Houston State University**
Huntsville, Texas

RESEARCH EXPERIENCE

September 2016- Present	<i>Graduate Research Assistant</i> – Youth and Family Studies Laboratory
September 2015- Present	<i>Principal Investigator (Dissertation Project)</i> Violence Risk Assessment and Externalizing Symptoms among Recently Immigrated Adolescents from Central America and the Moderating Role of Acculturative Stress and Criminal Sentiments
July 2016 - October 2016	<i>Personal Service Contractor</i> Lone Star Project: Study of Offender Trajectories Associations and Re-entry
June 2013 - July 2017	<i>Co-Investigator and co-author of several manuscripts.</i>
June 2014	<i>Graduate Research Assistant</i>
January 2014 - March 2015	<i>Principal Investigator (Master's Thesis Project)</i> First Sexual Experience, Impersonal Sexual Orientation, Hostile Masculinity: An Expansion of the Confluence Model of Sexual Aggression
September 2013 - July 2014	<i>Co-Investigator</i> Lisa Kan, Ph.D. Laboratory

PUBLICATIONS

Venta, A., **Muñoz**, C. G., & Bailey, C. A. What language does your Internal Working Model speak? *Journal of Cross Cultural Psychology*.

MANUSCRIPTS IN PREPARATION

Muñoz, C. G., Venta, A., Varela, G. J., Lyons, P., & Boccaccini, M. Violence risk assessment and externalizing symptoms among recently immigrated adolescents and the moderating role of acculturation and criminal sentiments.

Muñoz, C., Varela, J., Henderson, C., Kan, L. First Sexual Experience, Impersonal Sexual Orientation, Hostile Masculinity: An Expansion of the Confluence Model of Sexual Aggression.

Muñoz, C., Abate, A., & Venta, A. Psychometric properties of the Youth Psychopathy Inventory in a psychiatric inpatient sample and in a probation sample of juvenile offenders.

Colins, Y., **Muñoz**, C. G., & Venta, A. When does Childhood Abuse relate to Conduct Problems among Immigrant Adolescents? Examining the Role of Peer Relationships.

Waymire, K., **Muñoz**, C. G., & Venta, A. Psychometric properties of the Perception of Justice System measure

Muñoz, C. G., & Venta, A. Psychiatric residential treatment for unaccompanied minors from Central America.

POSTER PRESENTATIONS

Colins, Y., **Muñoz**, C. G., Venta, A. (2017, April). *When does Childhood Abuse relate to Conduct Problems among Immigrant Adolescents? Examining the Role of Peer Relationships*. Poster presentation at the Sam Houston State University Undergraduate Research Symposium, Huntsville, Texas.

Muñoz, C. G., M., Bailey, C. A., Camins, J., Abate, A., Varela, G. J., Lyons, P., Boccaccini, M., & Venta, A. (2017, March). *Acculturation stress and criminal attitudes as risk factors for externalizing behaviors in recently immigrated adolescents*. Poster presentation at the Annual American Psychology-Law Society Conference, Seattle, Washington.

Muñoz, C. G., Bailey, C. A., Camins, J., Abate, A., & Venta, A., (2017, March). *When does Perception of the Justice System relate to rule breaking among immigrant adolescents? Examining the role of criminal attitudes*. Poster presentation at the Annual American Psychology-Law Society Conference, Seattle, Washington.

Bailey, C. A., **Muñoz**, C. G., Camins, J., Abate, A., Varela, J. G., Boccaccini, M., Varela, J. G., Boccaccini, M., & Venta, A. (2017, March). *The effect of unpreparedness for immigration court on psychopathology in recently immigrated adolescents*. Poster presentation at the Annual American Psychology-Law Society Conference, Seattle, Washington.

Muñoz, C. G., Bate, B. P., Varela, J. G., & Henderson, C. (2016, March). *First Sexual Experience and Sexual Aggression: An Expansion of the Confluence Model*. Poster presentation at the Annual American Psychology-Law Society Conference, Atlanta, Georgia.

McLaughlin, J. L., **Muñoz**, C. G., Wang, H., Jeon, H., Varela, J. G., Kan, L. Y., & Boccaccini, M. T. (2016, March). *Proxies for Acculturation to American Society with Foreign-Born Adults*. Poster presentation at the Annual American Psychology-Law Society Conference, Atlanta, Georgia.

Lawrence, J., Varela, J. G., Laxton, K. L., Arellano, M., Colbourn, S., **Muñoz**, C., & Barrera, H. (2015, May). *The influence of interpreted testimony on mock jurors'*

decision making and perceptions of criminal defendants. Poster presentation at the Annual Conference of the American Society of Trial Consultants, Nashville, TN.

Lawrence, J., Varela, J. G., Laxton, K. L., Arellano, M., Colbourn, S., **Muñoz**, C., & Barrera, H. (2015, May). *The influence of interpreted testimony on mock jurors' decision making and perceptions of criminal defendants*. Poster presentation at the Annual American Psychology-Law Society Conference, San Diego, CA.

Muñoz, C. G., Varela, J. G., Henderson, C., & Lawrence, J. (2015, March). *First Sexual Experience and Sexual Aggression: An Expansion of the Confluence Model*. Poster presentation at the Annual American Psychology-Law Society Conference, San Diego, CA.

Manning, J. M., McKenzie, S. **Muñoz**, C. G., Wang, H. W., McLaughlin, J. L., & Kan, L. (2015, March). *A Study Space Analysis of Response Style Among Hispanics in Competency to Stand Trial Research*. Poster presentation at the Annual American Psychology-Law Society Conference, San Diego, CA.

Jeon, H., **Muñoz**, C. G., & Boccaccini, M. (2012, October). *Psychopathy traits in Male Juvenile Offenders and Predictive Accuracy of the Psychopathy Checklist-Youth Version for Recidivism*. Poster presentation at the Biannual Meeting of the Society for the Scientific Study of Psychopathy, Washington, DC.

PAPER PRESENTATIONS

Kan, L., Tomei, J., **Muñoz**, C., Jeon, H., Henderson, C., Dakof, G., & Liddle, H. (2014, March). *Parent-Adolescent Discrepancies of Parental Monitoring and Adolescent Delinquency*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychology-Law Society, New Orleans, LA.

Fraser, T., Wen, H., **Muñoz**, C., Lawrence, J., Burks, A. (2014, March). *Changes in family functioning may effect treatment effect differences for gender*. Paper presented at the annual American Psychology-Law Society conference in New Orleans, LA.

Manning, J., **Muñoz**, C., Wen, H., Lawrence, J. (2014, March). *MDFT treatment for adolescents and differences in ethnicities*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychology-Law Society, New Orleans, LA.

INVITED PRESENTATIONS

Bailey, C., **Muñoz**, C. & Venta, A. (2017). Working with immigrants. Invited presentation for Sam Houston Area Psychological Association (SHAPA) members at Sam Houston State University by Craig Henderson and Wendy Elliott, Co-presidents of SHAPA, Woodlands, TX.

Venta, A., **Muñoz**, C., & Bailey, C. (2016). Relationship building for recently immigrated adolescents in a school context. Invited presentation for teachers and administrators at Liberty High School by Monico Rivas, Principal at Liberty High School, Houston, TX.

Venta, A., Bailey, C., & **Muñoz**, C. (2016). Teaching traumatized teens: Brain, behavior, and self-care. Invited presentation for teachers and administrators at a High School in Houston, TX.

Muñoz, C. (2005). Self-care techniques and stress management. Invited presentation for staff at a medical center in Lima, Perú.

Muñoz, C (2003). Basic knowledge of psychosexual health for adolescents. Invited presentation for students at a high school by the principal in Lima, Perú.

PROFESSIONAL MEMBERSHIPS

2013 – Present	American Psychology-Law Society
2012 – Present	Graduate Student Psychology Organization, Sam Houston State University
2012 – Present	American Psychological Association, Graduate Student Affiliate
2010 – Present	Society for the Scientific Study of Psychopathy, Graduate Student Affiliate
2005 – Present	Board of Psychologists of Perú