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Relationship Between Immigration and Violent Crime in Nontraditional Immigrant Destinations

Shane Frazer
Walden University

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College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

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Walden University
2021

Abstract

Relationship Between Immigration and Violent Crime in Nontraditional Immigrant

Destinations

by

Shane Frazer

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Criminal Justice

Walden University

February 2021

Abstract

Several recent debates have occurred about the effects that immigration has on crime in the United States, and although most studies indicate that increased immigration does not increase crime, some research indicates that immigration affects crime in some ways. With some noted recent attacks by immigrants on U.S. citizens, politicians and citizens are calling for lawmakers to implement more laws that will reduce immigration. The purpose of this quantitative study was to bridge this gap in literature by comparing the number violent crimes to the number of immigrants from 1970 through 2010 in Georgia. The goal of this study was to identify any trends in the total number of violent crimes with the percentage of the different races, foreign-born population, and urbanicity. The theoretical framework for this study was Shaw and McKay's social disorganization theory. This research focused on the relationship between the total violent crimes in various counties in Georgia and the immigrant and racial populations in these same areas through the decades. Analysis of variance, binary logistic regression, and chi-square tests were employed to identify any differences between mean levels and the total number of violent crimes from decade to decade. The implications for positive social change include informing politicians and lawmakers about the data-grounded relationship between immigration and the total number of violent crimes in Georgia from 1970 to 2010 so that plans and policies can be implemented to address the causes of violent crimes.

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Table of Contents

List of Tables	iv
Chapter 1: Introduction to Study.....	1
Immigration and Georgia.....	2
Recent Laws.....	3
Recent Raids	4
Possible Consequences or Implications.....	6
Gap.....	8
Problem Statement.....	9
Purpose Statement.....	11
Research Question and Hypothesis.....	12
Theoretical Construct.....	12
Nature of the Study	13
Correlational Quantitative.....	13
Definition of Key Terms.....	14
Assumptions.....	16
Scope and Delimitations	16
Limitations	16
Significance.....	17
Chapter 2: Literature Review.....	20
Introduction.....	20
Problem Statement.....	20

Purpose Statement.....	22
Literature Search Strategy.....	23
Background.....	24
Recent Increased Interest.....	26
Media and Public Perception.....	27
Immigration Policies.....	28
Deportation and Violent Crime Rates.....	30
Traditional Versus Non-traditional Destinations.....	32
Rural Versus Urban Areas.....	34
Race.....	37
Lowering Crime Rates.....	38
Drugs, Violent Crimes, and Immigration.....	40
Increasing Crime Rates.....	42
Crime and Immigration in Other Countries.....	43
Theoretical Frameworks.....	45
Social Disorganization Theory.....	45
Immigrant Revitalization Thesis.....	47
Conclusion.....	49
Chapter 3: Methodology and Design.....	50
Purpose Statement.....	50
Research and Design.....	51
Rationale.....	51

Methodology	52
Research Questions and Hypothesis	54
Data Sources	54
Methods of Analysis	55
Theoretical Construct.....	57
Reliability and Validity.....	58
Ethical Considerations	59
Chapter 4: Results	61
Purpose Statement.....	61
Research Questions and Hypothesis	61
1970.....	63
1980.....	65
1990.....	67
2000.....	69
2010.....	71
Summary	72
Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion	73
Purpose Statement.....	73
Interpretation of Findings	74
Conclusion	76
Limitations of the Study.....	79
Recommendations for Future Studies.....	80

Implications for Social Change.....	81
References.....	83
Appendix A: SPSS Output for 1970 for All Variables.....	103
Appendix B: SPSS Output for 1980 for All Variables.....	115
Appendix C: SPSS Output for 1990 for All Variables.....	128
Appendix D: SPSS Output for 2000 for All Variables.....	141
Appendix E: SPSS Output for 2010 for All Variables.....	154
Appendix F: SPSS Output for Percentage Urbanicity.....	168
Appendix G: SPSS Output for Percentage Foreign Born.....	175
Appendix H: SPSS Output for Percentage Black.....	182
Appendix I: SPSS Output for Percentage White.....	189
Appendix J: SPSS Output for Percentage Hispanic.....	196
Appendix K: SPSS Output for Percentage Asian.....	203
Appendix L: SPSS Output for Percentage Other Races.....	210

List of Tables

Table 1. 1970 Unstandardized Coefficients ^a <i>p</i> Values and 95% Confidence Interval for β	63
Table 2. 1980 Unstandardized Coefficients ^a <i>p</i> Values and 95% Confidence Interval for β	65
Table 3. 1990 Unstandardized Coefficients ^a <i>p</i> Values and 95% Confidence Interval for β	67
Table 4. 2000 Unstandardized Coefficients ^a <i>p</i> Values and 95% Confidence Interval for β	69
Table 5. 2010 Unstandardized Coefficients ^a <i>p</i> Values and 95% Confidence Interval for β	71

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

Nearly a century ago, in 1927, Edwin Sutherland noted popular sentiments and existing policies that presupposed that foreign-born people had a higher criminality than the native-born population. A majority of Americans believe that immigration increases crime, but most academic research has shown no such effect (Spenkuch, 2014). Since advancing his theory, many scholars have explored his theory on the immigration-crime link in several cities, because there has been an influx of immigrants to the United States, and as this has remained one of the most substantive and political topics. But these studies were not conducted in Georgia or any state or city that is not a major immigrant destination. Currently, lawmakers are trying to make and pass new immigration legislation believed to help reduce the number of crimes in the United States. The crime and immigration debate is one of the foremost topics in Washington today, and how to deal with the issue is still significant for lawmakers and politicians. In this chapter, I will cover an introduction to the relationship between immigration and crime in Georgia. I will establish the current trends and laws that are present or being enacted in the state to counter the effects of crime and pursue any established relationship with immigration. I will also establish the current gap in the literature that I will be exploring in this study and explaining the significance of the study. I will then present my research questions and hypothesis for this quantitative study.

Immigration and Georgia

During the past 2 decades, the United States experienced its largest wave of immigration in this last 100 years (Light, Massoglia, & King, 2014). The immigrant population now stands at more than 38 million and the estimated number of undocumented immigrants has tripled from 3.5 million to 10.8 million in 2014 (Klein, Allison, & Harris, 2017). Between 1990 and 2012, the foreign-born population in United States more than doubled in size (Light et al., 2014). In 1990, the foreign-born population was 7%, whereas in 2012 it rose to 13% (U.S. Census Bureau 2012). Approximately 31.8 million Mexican American residents live in the United States, the majority of whom (68%) reside in California, Arizona, New Mexico, and Texas, the four states adjacent to the U.S.-Mexico border (Ennis, Rios-Vargas, & Albert, 2011; Morris-McEwen, Boyle, & Hillfingher-Messias, 2015). This leads to the debate about how increased immigration affects certain basic resources provided for U.S. citizens, such as health care, employment, social service costs, and how immigration affects crime and violence (Klein et al., 2017).

This rise in immigration also coincides with an increased number of cases related to states' rights and due process, for example, *Padilla v. Kentucky* (2009) and *State of Arizona* (2011), as well as the intense political debates and disagreements and calls for tough legislation (Light et al., 2014). The Arizona SB 1070 law required law enforcement officers to enforce the existing federal immigration laws in the state where they can stop any individual that they have a "reasonable suspicion" of not being in the country legally (Light et al., 2014). It was later refined by the U.S. Supreme Court so that the officers

could not prolong a stop, detention, or arrest solely for the purpose of verifying their immigration status. This law and several others that were enacted throughout the United States were intended to help curb the increase in illegal immigration, but many critics see these laws as violating basic human rights of these individuals (Light et al. 2014).

In the spring and summer of 2014, a sharp increase occurred in the number of border arrivals from the violence-torn countries of Guatemala, El Salvador, and Honduras (Hiskey, Cordova, Malone, & Orces, 2018). This led to the United States quickly implementing strategies designed to prevent surges by enhancing its detention and deportation efforts (Hiskey et al., 2018). This study found that even though a vast majority of the respondents were aware of the stricter U.S. immigration policy regime, the policies did not have an effect on their consideration of emigration as the best option (Hiskey et al. 2018).

The current public sentiment reveals an increasing hostility toward immigrants both in the United States and beyond (Adelman, Kubrin, Ousey, and Reid, 2018). In the United States, the election of President Donald Trump gave antipathy toward immigrants a new voice with policy-changing implications. These sentiments stem from a variety of issues in the country and may also reflect deeply held cultural and social animosity about immigration, generally, and immigrants, particularly those of color (Adelman et al. 2018).

Recent Laws

The Trump administration has expanded an immigration enforcement program in Georgia, signing new agreements to team up with the sheriff's offices in Bartow and

Floyd Counties as well as the Georgia Department of Corrections (Svajlenka, 2018). In 2018, those entities signed paperwork with U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE) to join the 287(g) program. Named after the 1996 federal law that authorizes it, the program deputizes state and local officials to help ICE investigate, apprehend, detain, and transport people facing deportation. President Donald Trump called for an expansion of the program in January of 2017. Since then, the program has grown rapidly. Before July of 2017, there were 42,287(g) agreements, nationwide. Now there are 75. Four other counties in Georgia—Cobb, Gwinnett, Hall, and Whitfield—already participate (Svajlenka, 2018). The program is seen as a way of being more proactive or another tool for use in law enforcement. Supporters of the program see it as a way to remove violent criminals from their communities and to deter illegal immigration. Opponents argue that the program drives a wedge between local sheriff's offices and immigrant communities, making illegal immigrants fearful of reporting crimes. The Washington-based Center for American Progress released a report in March 2018 that measured the economic contributions of immigrants living in communities with 287(g) agreements and pointed out that many unauthorized immigrants live in mixed-status families (Svajlenka, 2018). This means that some members of the family may be native-born citizens, whereas others may not have a legal status.

Recent Raids

In 2017, several immigration raids were conducted throughout the state of Georgia, especially in the metropolitan Atlanta area. These raids affected many businesses in these areas; even immigrants who are there legally are affected by the threat

of a raid (Alston, 2017). Some members of Chamblee, a community in Georgia, told reporters that the Latino community feels safe in Chamblee, but they are scared because of the recent uptick in immigration raids (Alston, 2017). They also stated that a business prior to these raids was brisk, but there has been a significant decrease since the raids started and the economy is in a downturn (Alston, 2017). The presence of ICE agents has deterred many individuals from coming out due to fear of being detained for a wide variety of reasons that do not necessarily relate to their immigration status (Alston, 2017). In another city in Georgia, a man walked out of his apartment complex where he and his family lived near Buford Highway and crossed the street on his way to work. He was detained by ICE agents, who notified his family that they would be back later that day to check their immigration status. This resulted in the children being fearful of even going to school because they may have been detained. In another instance, a group of workers waiting for work was picked up at a gas station in an unmarked van without explanation, and only one person was released. The frequency of these raids increased in recent years. These cases are some examples of what seems to be the new reality in Georgia and around the United States.

Concern is warranted because of these actions. It is not that existing laws are being enforced, but rather that the current practices are suggesting (a) discrimination toward one specific segment of the immigrant community, (b) disregard for the social and long-term effects of these actions in the community, and (c) double standards in the application of human rights. Although Canada has almost double the number of Mexicans overstaying their visas and are therefore staying in the country unlawfully, no

reports exist of Canadians being detained or deported for breaking federal law (Passel, & Cohn, 2016). The fact is that most of the incursions have taken place in areas that are predominantly Latino/Hispanic or Pan-Asian (Passel, & Cohn, 2016).

Possible Consequences or Implications

The economic and social consequences of these detentions and deportations are long lasting and can be a burden to the entire state and country. In Georgia, more than 80% of all Hispanic youth younger than 18 years are U.S. citizens (Passel, & Cohn, 2016). When parents are detained, children are often left without a support network as Georgia is a transitional state and many immigrants do not have extended family in the area (Passel, & Cohn, 2016). This usually results in children going to foster care, and single parents who cannot afford rent or keep full-time jobs if they have to care for children at home, which can lead to an increase in food stamp applications, emergency health care visits, homelessness, and a reduction in educational accomplishment.

Georgia has more growth in its number of Latina-owned firms than any other state (Gehrke, 2015) and a lack of workers and clients can lead to business losses and a stagnant development. According to the National Review, Georgia has already lost more than \$140 million dollars in rotten crops because of a lack of labor available to work in the fields (Gehrke, 2015). Another important factor in conducting mass detaining is the fact that detentions and deportations are costly to taxpayers. For instance in 2014, this effort cost more than \$1.8 billion, 92% of which is paid for by the states (Gehrke, 2015). Immigrants are valuable to their closest family members, but they are also a key part of the business that is fueling Georgia's economic growth.

International law (ratified by the U.S. Congress), and the U.S. Constitution, affords specific rights, freedoms, and protections to all individuals in the United States, regardless of their immigration or citizenship status, such as equal protection, due process, the right to remain silent, protection from discrimination, to be considered innocent until proven guilty, and other rights. Several organizations work to educate immigrants on these rights and protections but, lately, given the change in immigration priorities and the many reports of raids, different groups of concerned citizens and organizations are shifting priorities to join in this campaign of “Know your Rights” by widely sharing information on social media, digital platforms, and even canvassing apartment complexes along Buford Highway in different languages but predominantly Spanish. Several concerns exist with these new legislatures that the various states are attempting to pass. First, it is unknown whether punishments for citizens and noncitizens are different in criminal courts. The majority of the literature on sentencing shows more about race and ethnicity, but relatively less on the punishment of noncitizens (Light et al., 2014; Oliver, 2011). Second, it is unknown how much citizenship mediates sentencing penalties for certain racial and ethnic groups (Light et al., 2014). Studies have shown that Hispanics tend to be sentenced more harshly than their white counterparts and Hispanics have a higher incarceration rate than Whites (Oliver, 2011; Steffensmeier & Demuth, 2000, 2001). Approximately half of all offenders who are sentenced in federal courts are noncitizens, a large portion of whom originate from Latin America (U.S. Sentencing Commission, 2010). Third, it is unknown to what extent noncitizens are treated differently over time. Immigration is a divisive topic and the public discourse can be

vitriolic at times. The majority of Americans view undocumented immigration as an extremely serious threat to the well-being of the citizens and approximately 36% view immigration negatively (Morales 2009; Sourcebook of Criminal Justice Statistics, 2010). Last, the demographic context around the punishment of noncitizens remains unknown. As suggested by the group threat perspective (Blalock, 1967; Blumer, 1958), the dominant group feels threatened, whether economically, politically, criminally, or culturally, by the increase in the minority groups and their apparent loss of ability to maintain social control.

Gap

Most studies that are conducted on the relationship between crime and immigration tend to focus on the cities and states that border Mexico and established or traditional immigrant destinations. New and developing immigrant cities and states have far fewer studies and they are usually only held in conjunction with the established destinations for comparisons. A debate will continue between immigration and crime. As seen by the numerous studies reviewed throughout this study, increased immigration tends to result in a reduction in violent crimes. More distinctive research between the significance of these results should be completed to corroborate or disprove these studies, as well as studies that show the causes of any increase in crimes so that the appropriate measures can be taken to resolve the problems. My study will help explore the relationship between increased immigration and violent crime rates in Georgia from 1970 to 2010.

Problem Statement

Since 2011, Georgia has passed and enforced several new and tougher immigration measures, such as empowering the local police officers to question suspects about their immigration status (Abrego, Coleman, Martinez, Menjivar, & Slack, 2017). An increase has occurred in the perception that immigrants increase crime in the United States, especially by politicians aiming to pass more stringent immigration laws (Adelman et al., 2017). President Trump, upon winning the general election in November 2016, in a television interview, stated that approximately 2 million undocumented immigrants are in the United States who have a criminal record and must be deported or incarcerated (Abrego et al., 2017). The landscape of immigration has changed through the decades, and states and cities that were not the traditional destinations in the 1970s are now seeing an increase in the immigrant population (Ferraro, 2016). In 2000, the foreign-born population of the United States surpassed 55.9 million people (U.S. Department of State 2002), representing approximately “20.4 percent of the population, reflecting the high level of international migration since 1970” (U.S. Census Bureau 2000b:22). During 2016, the 30 largest cities in the United States saw a double-digit increase in their homicide crime rates, which contributed to the anti-immigrant rhetoric (King & Obinna, 2018). These recent changes in the immigrant population, coupled with the double-digit increase in homicide crime rates (King & Obinna, 2018), demonstrate the need to examine potential changes in the crime rate from 1960 until now.

In the 1990s, the United States experienced the largest wave in immigration within the past century (Light et al., 2014). This influx led to the debate about how

increased immigration affects certain basic resources provided for U.S. citizens, such as health care, employment, social service costs, and how immigration affects crime and violence (Klein et al., 2017). Pundits surmised that the increase in the immigrant population is linked to reduced basic resources for native-born citizens and also to an increase in violent crime rates (Klein et al., 2017). With an increase in the immigrant population, more resources are required to cater to their needs and that result in fewer resources available for native-born citizens. This, then, leads to people turning to illegal and criminal means to obtain things that they want or need. Urban locales and communities that have cultivated over time with immigration tend to have more stability with a reinforced labor market and cultural infrastructures that helps to protect against crime and violence, even with the different waves of new immigrants (Klein, 2017; Shihadeh, & Barranco, 2013). These communities offer services such as housing and child care that help instill values and tradition that will support a stable environment (Klein, 2017). However, more recently, immigrants are bypassing these communities and are settling in rural areas that have less immigration and do not have the same or similar services that established urban areas possess (Klein, 2017). Studies have been conducted in some states and some major cities to verify this information, and the focus seeks to examine these issues for the state of Georgia (Green, 2016). In this study, I will explore several factors from the social disorganization theory, such as ethnic heterogeneity, sex, age, and urbanicity to determine whether any significant changes occur in violent crime rates when these factors change. I will assess the time period of 1970 to 2010.

Purpose Statement

My purpose in this quantitative study was to explore the relationship between legal immigration and crimes committed by White, Black, and Hispanic populations in Georgia from 1960. With the increase in immigration to areas or destinations that do not usually have a high influx of immigrants, the systems and services that are established in more traditional destinations are not in place and may have negative effects on the communities, including increased crimes. There have not been any recent inquiries on crime rates in relations to immigration in Georgia. I sought to fill this gap by examining the relationship between race, violent crime rates, and legal immigration, using a longitudinal analysis of the data. I also examined associations, in terms of immigration increase or decrease, with an increase or decrease in violent crime rates. I also analyzed the effect that immigration has on crimes committed by Black, White, and Hispanic populations using specific factors associated with the social disorganization theory, such as race. I categorized violent crimes as murder and nonnegligent manslaughter, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault. I categorized immigrants as Hispanics, Asians, and others. I also categorized the various regions or counties as areas with high immigrant population and areas with low immigration populations. Crime statistics showed numbers in correlation with increases or decreases in immigration. I used a social disorganization theoretical framework to examine the relationship between violent crimes and immigration using the aforementioned factors.

Research Questions and Hypothesis

The following was the overarching research question for this quantitative study:

What is the relationship between legal immigration, race, level of urbanicity, and the number of violent crimes over the decades 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010?

The subquestions were as follows:

- What is the relationship between race and violent crimes over the decades 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010 in Georgia?
- What is the percentage immigration population of Georgia in 2010 compared to 1970, 1980, 1990, and 2000?
- What is the relationship between the level of urbanicity and violent crimes over the decades 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010 in Georgia?

Null hypothesis: There is no statistical significance difference between legal immigration and violent crimes over the decades 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010 in Georgia.

Alternate hypothesis: There is a statistical significance differences between legal immigration and violent crimes over the decades 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010 in Georgia.

Theoretical Construct

Social scientists have contended that although immigrants are not inherently predisposed to criminal behavior, they introduce certain factors and elements to the community, such as residential instability, poverty, and residential heterogeneity, that eventually lead to increase in crime rates (Boggess & Hipp, 2010; Ousey & Kubrin,

2009; Reid et al., 2005; Sampson et al., 2005; Stowell & Dipietro, 2013; Thomas, 2011; Wadsworth, 2010). This is the social disorganization theory that was first explored by Shaw and McKay (1942). This theory explores the relationship between crime rates and certain environmental factors such as population density, age, race, sex composition, poverty, and education (Cam, 2014; Steidley, Ramey, & Shrider, 2017). Other structural factors that are linked to social disorganization are socioeconomic status (SES), ethnic heterogeneity, family disruption, the level of urbanicity, and residential mobility (Cam, 2014; Steidley et al., 2017). Sampson and Groves (1989) used occupation, education, income, and social class when testing social disorganization theory. Luwenkamp, Cullen, and Pratt (2003) also used the same variables to construct a socioeconomic status or SES variable. Shaw and McKay (1942) compared urban and suburban areas when testing social disorganization theory. I will explore this theory further in Chapter 2.

Nature of the Study

Correlational Quantitative

Using a time series, longitudinal study, I intended to show information for these types of violent crimes for 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010, and reduce that data into the categories that I previously mentioned. This allowed me to observe any patterns and trends that are present over a longer period of time and will help to reduce any one-time phenomenon that may be mistaken for a pattern (O'Sullivan, Rassel, Berner, & Taliaferro, 2017). This design and methodology allows the researcher to adequately seek answers to the research questions. The databases that I used provided this information and the breakdown of the immigrant or racial population of the state of Georgia. This

information allowed me to formulate any relationship between violent crimes and any changes in the racial composition of the state of Georgia. I noted any increases or decreases between total violent crimes and the immigrant population as well. I also observed the level of urbanicity to determine whether any correlation exists between legal immigrants, race, urbanicity, and the number of violent crimes. The time series design is integral because it allowed me to use information collected at specific intervals throughout the entire time period studied so that I could make comparisons and note any trends and patterns. The other research questions pertaining to the significance of any relationship found, as well as the relationship between immigrants and the total number of violent crimes, can be easily analyzed using this design and methodology. This helped to determine whether any significant relationship exists between violent crimes and legal immigration in Georgia since 1970. I used the other sociological factors that I examined in this study to determine whether they may have any significant relationship with crime rates along with ethnic heterogeneity or without it.

Definition of Key Terms

Several terms must be defined to better understand this study.

- *Crime*: A behavior that is punishable under the statutes of the Federal government, a state, or a local government (*Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary*, 2009).
- *Immigrants*: Those individuals, who are noted as Hispanics/Latino, Asian, or any race other than White or Black, will be identified as immigrants, unless it is otherwise noted in the data.

- *Immigration*: Since this study focuses on the effect of legal immigration on crime, immigration is defined as the flow of permanent residents in the U.S. from foreign countries, with the intent to settle (*Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, 2009*).
- *Violent crimes* are categorized as homicide and nonnegligent manslaughter, rape, assault, and robbery by the Uniform Crime Report (UCR).
- *Hispanics*: This group of individuals encompasses everyone who identifies as Hispanic, even if they also identify as White or Black as well (Porter, Rader, and Cossman, 2012). They are male and female Americans who trace their roots to Spanish-speaking countries (*Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, 2009*).
- *Neighborhood*: This is a section lived in by neighbors who usually have distinguishing characteristics (*Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, 2009*).
- *Race*: This is a class or kind of people unified by shared interests, habits, or characteristics (*Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, 2009*).
- *Ethnicity*: This refers to a group of people who share similar custom, language, race, religion, and social views (*Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, 2009*). They are usually from a common background or cultural origin (*Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, 2009*).
- *Urbanicity*: This is the level or percentage of a certain city or county that is urbanized.

Assumptions

Some aspects of this study will allow researchers to make informed assumptions based on previous studies or reliable data that are available. The Uniform Crime Reports do not identify whether the criminals (or suspected criminals) are immigrants or not. The reports state only their race; therefore, in this study, I used only race to identify those accused of committing violent crimes instead of using immigration status.

Scope and Delimitations

Researchers understand that not all persons will identify their immigration/citizenship status on their census. Furthermore, not all persons charged with or incarcerated for violent crimes will identify their immigration/citizenship status. Therefore, I used race as the determining factor. For this study, I used only race to compare those who commit violent crimes. I did not use data on undocumented (illegal) immigrants. This is because the data are unreliable and are not an accurate representation of this group. I used only data pertaining to legal immigrants.

Limitations

Some limitations must be considered throughout this study. I am aware of the fact that not everyone will be accounted for in the census data. The main group that this will affect will be the undocumented immigrants for whom there is not an accurate estimate for the number in their population in Georgia. This will affect the accuracy in the number of immigrants who are accounted for in the study. Another issue that may arise from this is the number of reported crimes and their categories also. Not all crimes will be reported and also the types or causes of these crimes may not be known, which will make it

difficult to categorize them. I categorized based on the data that were made available.

Therefore, I aimed to assess the relationship between legal immigration and White, Black, Hispanic, Asian, and Others and the total number of violent crimes. In Chapter 3, I will explain how I dealt with these issues in the study.

Significance

There has been a growing focus on this issue in the state of Georgia since 2011 and several laws have been passed that allow local law enforcement agents to use their own discretion in questioning and arresting anyone they suspect may be an illegal immigrant (Abrego et al., 2017). This change in the law has led to many legal immigrants to be targeted because they look or speak similarly (Abrego et al., 2017). My goal in this study was to find whether any relationship exists between the increased immigrant population in Georgia and violent crime from 1970 to 2010. A study in 1995 was performed in Georgia on this issue and covered 2 decades (1970 to 1990) (Bouvier, & Martin, 1995). My study included data from 1970 to 2010 and was longitudinal instead of cross-sectional. My study is significant because the laws are changing and affecting the relationship between immigrant communities and law enforcement officers, and there have been no studies completed to validate these changes (Barranco, 2013). I aimed to provide the Georgia lawmakers with important information regarding the relationship between the increased immigrant population and violent crime rates. This study can help lawmakers understand where misunderstandings may occur so that laws and can be made to address this issue more effectively and appropriately.

The implications of this study may affect the state of Georgia, as well as the immigrant population there, in that the stakeholders will become aware of whether a significant relationship exists between the level of the immigrant population and the rate of violent crime present in the state of Georgia (Yob et al., 2014). Based on my inquiry, lawmakers and the public can be more informed about the issue. This enables the lawmakers to have a more accurate data that can be used to pass legislation(s) that can be used to resolve the violent crime issue. The goals of this study for social change are that after it is published, the policy makers, politicians, law enforcement officers, and citizens will be made aware of the relationship between legal immigration and violent crimes. I broke down the data by counties as well, which will allow lawmakers and law enforcement officers in each area have an accurate knowledge of violent crime breakdowns for their specific areas. As it becomes understood whether a significant relationship exists or not, steps can be determined for policy makers, and politicians may need to take to resolve the issues and help maintain or restore a healthy relationship between law enforcement officers and the immigrant community. I was guided initially by the following line of inquiry. First, what is the association between recent immigration and violent crime in 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010? Second, has the association between immigration and violence changed over time? Third, are there any specific racial differences in this relationship?

The dissertation is structured as follows. In Chapter 1, I introduced the study, stated the problem, significance, nature of the study, and defined the terms. In Chapter 2, I provide the literature review on the immigration-crime relationship, with a focus on any

associations between increased or decreased immigrant flow and violent crime rates, and any gaps in that knowledge. In Chapter 2, I also explore the broader theoretical landscape, including (a) expectations regarding ecological relationships between immigration and violence, (b) expectations of race or ethnic specificity, and (c) expectations with time. I explored the social disorganization theory to obtain a broader landscape. I also explored immigrant revitalization. Chapter 3 entails utilizing a panel data fixed-effects/change-score methodology using a longitudinal offending data and change score models to explore any relationships between immigration and changes in violence, as well as any changes over time and across racial groups. In Chapter 4, I show the results from the analytic models demonstrating the relationship between immigration and violent crime to determine whether it is conditioned by time, as well as by ethnicity. In Chapter 5, I present the discussion of the results and their contributions to the current study. I discuss the time-series analysis of the relationship between immigration and violence.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Problem Statement

Since 2011, Georgia has passed and enforced several new and tougher immigration measures, such as empowering the local police officers to question suspects about their immigration status (Abrego et al., 2017). An increase has occurred in the perception that immigrants increase crime in the United States, especially by politicians aiming to pass more stringent immigration laws (Adelman et al. 2017). President Trump, upon winning the general election in November 2016, in a television interview, stated that approximately 2 million undocumented immigrants have a criminal record and must be deported or incarcerated (Abrego et al., 2017). The landscape of immigration has changed through the decades, and states and cities that were not the traditional destinations in the 1970s are now seeing an increase in the immigrant population (Ferraro, 2016). In 2000, the foreign-born population of the United States surpassed 55.9 million people (U.S. Department of State 2002), representing approximately “20.4 percent of the population, reflecting the high level of international migration since 1970” (U.S. Census Bureau 2000b:22). During 2016, the 30 largest cities in the United States saw a double-digit increase in their homicide crime rates, which contributed to the anti-immigrant rhetoric (King & Obinna, 2018). These recent changes in the immigrant population, coupled with the double-digit increase in homicide crime rates (King & Obinna, 2018), demonstrates the need to examine potential changes in the crime rate from 1960 until now.

During the last 2 decades, the United States experienced the largest wave in immigration within the past century (Light et al., 2014). This trend leads to the debate about how increased immigration affects certain basic resources provided for U.S. citizens, such as health care, employment, social service costs, and how immigration affects crime and violence (Klein et al., 2017). Pundits surmise that the increase in the immigrant population is linked to reduced basic resources for native-born citizens and also to an increase in violent crime rates (Klein et al., 2017). With an increase in the immigrant population, more resources are required to cater to their needs and that result in fewer resources available for native-born citizens. This, in turn, leads to people to rely on illegal and criminal means to obtain things that they want or need.

Urban locales and communities that have cultivated over time with immigration tend to have more stability with a reinforced labor market and cultural infrastructures that help to protect against crime and violence, even with the different waves of new immigrants (Klein, 2017; Shihadeh, & Barranco, 2013). These communities offer services such as housing and child care that help instill values and tradition that will support a stable environment (Klein, 2017). However, more recently, immigrants are bypassing these communities and are settling in rural areas that have less immigration and do not have the same or similar services that established urban areas possess (Klein, 2017). Studies have been conducted in some states and some major cities to verify this information, and I sought to examine these issues for the state of Georgia (Green, 2016). In my study, I explored several factors from the social disorganization theory, such as ethnic heterogeneity, sex, age, and urbanicity determine whether any significant changes

exist in violent crime rates when these factors change. I assessed the period of 1970 to 2010.

Purpose Statement

My purpose in this quantitative study was to explore the relationship between legal immigration and violent crimes in Georgia from 1970. With the increase in immigration to areas or destinations that do not usually have a high influx of immigrants, the systems and services that are established in more traditional destinations are not in place and may have negative effects on the communities, including increased crimes. No recent inquiries have occurred regarding crime rates in relation to immigration in Georgia. I sought to fill this gap by examining the relationship between violent crime rates and legal immigration, using a longitudinal analysis of the data. I also examined any association over time. I also analyzed the effects that immigration has on crimes committed by Black, White, and Hispanic populations using specific factors associated with the social disorganization theory, such as sex, income, education, population density, age, ethnic heterogeneity, and urbanicity. I categorized violent crimes as murder and nonnegligent manslaughter, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault. I categorized immigrants as Hispanics, Asians, and others. I also categorized the various regions or counties as areas with high immigrant population and areas with low immigration populations. Crime statistics will showed numbers in correlation with increases or decreases in immigration. I used a social disorganization theoretical framework to examine the relationship between violent crimes and immigration using the aforementioned factors.

Literature Search Strategy

To obtain the necessary data needed to conduct this study, I used a variety of sources. The Walden University library provided a several databases that had a plethora of articles, journals, books, and other sources with vital information. The databases that I used from Walden University's library were Academic Search Complete, Criminal Justice Database, Political Science Complete, SAGE Journals, Bureau of Justice Statistics, Criminological Highlights, FindLaw, Oxford Criminology Bibliographies, Political Science Complete & Business Source Complete Combined Search, Sage Stats, and ICPSR (Inter-University Consortium for Political and Social Research Databases). These databases provided the majority of the literature that I used in this study. The local library also provided some articles and books that I used as well.

When looking for literature that may be used in the study, I used certain keywords and phrases, such as, *crimes, immigration, violent crimes, Georgia, Atlanta, United States, recent crimes, increased immigration, and relationship*. I used various combinations of these word and phrases to show a wider variety of articles and to help exhaust the literature. Initially, all years available were included to obtain a general understanding of what has been done so far. I narrowed the search to studies published in 2013 and later once I achieved an understanding of the literature. I used literature published from 2013 onward to establish the need for this study.

Background

A plethora of studies have been conducted to explore the relationship between crime and immigration. Several literature studies analyze the effect of immigration on crime rates at the macro level. The individual-level studies of immigrant criminality and victimization tend to demonstrate that immigrants generally engage in less crime than their native-born counterparts, but the net effect that immigration has on aggregate criminal offending is less clear. This was addressed by Reid, Weiss, Adelman, and Jaret (2005). Reid et al. found that immigration does not increase crime rates and in some aspects, it lessens the crime rate in metropolitan areas. Most studies focus on border states or traditional immigrant destinations; however, not many are conducted on the nontraditional or new immigrant destinations, and none has been conducted in Georgia. An increase in the levels of immigration has occurred, which, in turn, raises concern about crime and violence (Feldmeyer, Steffensmeier, Harris, & Tasharrofi, 2018). The landscape of immigration has changed through the decades, and states and cities that were not the traditional destinations in the 1970s are now seeing an increase in the immigrant population (Ferraro, 2016). In 2000, the foreign-born population of the United States surpassed 55.9 million people (U.S. Department of State 2002), representing approximately “20.4 percent of the population, reflecting the high level of international migration since 1970” (U.S. Census Bureau 2000b:22).

The five traditional immigrant destination states are New York, Illinois, California, Florida, and Texas (Ferraro, 2016). In his study, Ferraro (2016) found that the number of immigrants in the top five destination states had dropped significantly from 1980 to 2005,

whereas the other 45 states saw a significant increase, doubling in some cases. Georgia, Arizona, North Carolina, and Nevada saw their number of immigrant population triple during this period (Ferraro, 2016). The Hispanic population is now the largest ethnic minority group in the United States (Feldmeyer et al., 2018). These recent changes in the immigrant population, coupled with the double-digit increase in homicide crime rates (King & Obinna, 2018), demonstrate the need to examine potential changes in the crime rate from the 1970s until now.

Research exploring aggregate-level relationships between immigration and crime is growing (Feldmeyer et al., 2018; Abrego et al., 2017; Adelman et al., 2017; Feldmeyer and Steffensmeier, 2009; Harris and Feldmeyer, 2013; Lyons et al., 2013; Martinez et al., 2008, 2010; Nielsen et al., 2009; Ousey and Kubrin, 2009; Ramey, 2013; Reid et al., 2005; Sampson et al., 2005; Shihadeh and Barranco, 2013; Stowell, 2009; Wadsworth, 2010). These studies found that the size of the immigrant population has neutral effects or is associated with lowering rates of crime and violence in U.S. cities, when other macro-structural conditions are controlled. The relationship between crime and immigration is very complex and most studies show that immigration has positive effects on society; however, there are some aspects that produce negative or less desirable outcomes, such as higher levels of poverty, which can lead to increased violence (Stowell, 2007; Gostjev, & Nielson, 2017). We will now group and examine many studies that have taken place thus far.

This chapter serves to explore the literature and examine how other experts have studied the relationship between crime and immigration. Throughout this chapter, various aspects of this relationship will be analyzed and discussed.

Recent Increased Interest

The relationship between crime and immigration is one that has been studied for decades. Policymakers and citizens alike have expressed concerns about their relationship, especially the nexus between the two (Abrego et al., 2017). This may be due to an actual increase in the relationship between immigration and crime as well as political or economic events (Abrego et al., 2017). Public opinion surveys have been conducted which suggests that a large number of Americans believe that continued immigration leads to higher crime rates (Sohoni, & Sohoni, 2013). Many politicians and lawmakers attempt to use the relationship between immigration and crime to pass legislations and create new policies, blaming the immigration flows for the rates of crime and violence (Feldmeyer et al., 2018; Wadsworth, 2010). In 2016, President-Elect Trump claimed that there were millions of so-called “criminal aliens” living in the United States (Green, 2016). He stated that there were about two, maybe three million people in this category and his plans are to have them deported or incarcerated (Green, 2016). The most memorable sentiment occurred during the 2016 primary elections when then candidate Donald Trump claimed “When Mexico sends its people, they’re not sending their best... They’re bringing crime. They’re rapists. And some, I assume, are good people” (Rappeport, 2015; Feldmeyer et al., 2018). During that year, the 30 largest cities in the

United States saw a double-digit increase in their homicide crime rates, which contributed to the anti-immigrant rhetoric (King & Obinna, 2018).

The interest in crime and immigration relationship existed since the establishment of this country and will continue to be of interest to politicians and scholars alike. The association between the two will always be a topic that is discussed and explored and more studies can help explain this relationship.

Media and Public Perception

The news media has long overrepresented the role that race and ethnicity has on crime. A study conducted by Dixon and Williams (2015) shows that news programs overrepresent Blacks as criminals, Latinos as undocumented immigrants, Muslims as terrorists, and Whites as victims. The information presented in the various media outlets helps shape the perceptions of the general public, as people tend to associate with what they see and hear from what are supposed to be credible sources. Cable news plays an integral role in perceptions of the public towards crime and immigration (Holbert, Hmielowski, & Weeks, 2012). They further contribute to the partisanship, political divide, and stereotyping that exists today (Dixon & Williams, 2015; Holbert et al., 2012; Stroud & Lee, 2013).

News networks are often aligned with either liberals (CNN) or conservatives (FOX news) (Holbert et al., 2012; Stroud & Lee, 2013). Americans tend to watch or associate with the news outlet that aligns with their beliefs, which will help with the perceived bias related with crime and immigration (Dixon & Williams, 2015). This means that the credibility of these news outlets is usually partisan and biased. The journalists from these

news networks are only constrained by the ethics, values, standards, goals, and beliefs of their organizations, therefore, an accurate representation of the real world is not among their priorities. They emphasize on coverage that will attract and maintain their intended audience, instead focusing on accurate reporting (Dixon & Williams, 2015).

Controversial interracial, interethnic, or interfaith conflicts such as the overrepresentation of Latinos as undocumented immigrants, or Muslims as terrorists are usually highlighted as topics that will attract more viewers (Dixon & Williams, 2015).

Immigration Policies

There was a significant increase in the rates of undocumented immigration into the United States in the 1970s (Baker, 2015). This led to the enactment of the Immigration Reform and Control Act (IRCA) in 1986 and was used to restrict and control the hiring of undocumented immigrants (Baker, 2015). The most comprehensive legislations that were passed in the US were the Illegal Immigration Reform and Immigration Responsibility Act (IIRIRA), and the Antiterrorism and Effective Death Penalty Act (AEDPA), both enacted in 1996 (Abrego et al., 2017; Marcias-Rojas, 2018; Kerwin, 2018; Garcia Hernandez, 2016; Lind, 2016). This was the year that immigrant criminalization became a part of U.S. policy (Abrego et al., 2017). How immigrants are being criminalized since these policies was explained by Garcia Hernandez (2016), and also how immigration enforcement in the United States works. Garcia Hernandez noted that citizens who are convicted should not be treated less humanly than undocumented immigrants, but that most of these immigrants have not been convicted of a crime or committed minor criminal violations such as traffic citations or drug offenses, and yet they are categorized

as major criminals. These policies resulted in undocumented immigration being categorized as a crime and also fused immigration enforcement with crime control.

The IIRIRA was enacted to strengthen the rule of law by cracking down on illegal immigration at the border, in the workplace, and in the criminal justice system, without punishing those legally living in the United States (Kerwin, 2018). However, the Act has severely punished US citizens and noncitizens of all statuses (Kerwin, 2018). It has eroded the rule of law by eliminating due process from the overwhelming majority of removal cases, curtailing equitable relief from removal, mandating detention for most of those facing deportation, and erecting insurmountable, technical roadblocks to asylum (Kerwin, 2018).

Crime politics were advanced by both major political parties (Republican & Democratic). The Reagan Administration and the Grand Old Party (GOP) enacted policies that resulted in mass incarcerations, while the Clinton Administration criminalized undocumented migration which resulted in the passage of the IIRIRA (Marcias-Rojas, 2018). When former President Reagan campaigned for the presidency, he campaigned on the slogan “Let’s Make America Great Again”, which is much the same as President Trump’s “Make America Great Again” used as his campaign slogan (Marcias-Rojas, 2018). This slogan was President Reagan’s way of promising to make the streets of America safe again. This led to the “War on Drugs” by his administration, which tripled the prison population (Marcias-Rojas, 2018). This increase in the prison population led to overpopulation and resulted in a crisis for the country, in that there were not enough rooms for all the criminals, and also more people to feed as well (Marcias-

Rojas, 2018). In the 1990s the Democrats linked immigrants to criminality and passed several bills that criminalized undocumented migration. A few bills were passed that allowed immigrants who were convicted to be deported before their sentences were completed (Marcias-Rojas, 2018). This was done to help reduce the overcrowded prisons.

After the attack on 9/11, an atmosphere where those advocating restricting immigration, presented their arguments in ways that did not depend on the more overt forms of racial differentiation (Sohoni & Sohoni, 2013). The “Rule of Law” was used to justify the enactment of these policies (Sohoni and Sohoni, 2013). On January 25th, 2017, President Trump signed two immigration-related Executive Orders (EO) that allow law enforcement agents in certain western and southwestern states that borders Mexico to enforce immigration law as outlined in IIRIRA (Green, 2016). Expedited removals were also outlined in these EOs (Green, 2016). This signaled a change back towards criminalizing illegal immigrants and creating stricter policies for immigration throughout the country. The executive orders of January 25, 2017 will largely affect the immigration enforcement landscape and increase the immigrant criminalization (Abrego et al., 2017).

Deportation and Violent Crime Rates

When it comes to crime and immigration, most research focuses on in-migration, which is the arrival or entrance of immigrants into the United States, but there are only a few studies that have explored the effect of the removal of these immigrants on crime rates (Stowell, Barton, Messner, & Raffalovich, 2013). Immigrant deportation is one of the solutions to punish illegal immigrants. This form of punishment removes illegal immigrants from the United States to their home country, or country of citizenship, which

reduces the amount of money the U.S. uses from taxpayers' dollars to take care of these individuals (King, & Obinna, 2018). Studies have explored the effects of deportation on violent crimes, as well as, the extent to which violent crime rates influence deportations (Stowell et al., 2013; King, & Obinna, 2018). These were based on perceived dispositional problems and threatening behavior. The study by King and Obinna (2018) found that deportations correlate with homicide rates and are perceived on certain dispositions such as threatening behavior and administrative reasons. The impact that the removal of certain aspects of the foreign-born population, specifically undocumented or deportable aliens, has on violent crime rates was explored by Stowell et al. (2013). They found that changing levels of deportation had no significant effects on criminal violence, but there were significant interactions based on geographic location for particular violent offenses (Stowell et al., 2013).

The belief that immigrants are crossing the border in the middle of the night with the desires to bring violence, crime, and drugs into the United States has long been a part of the public imagination. The Trump administration has made calls to deport up to three million criminals. In 2013, the Supreme Court decided *United States v. Descamps*, and in 2016, *Mathis v. United States*. In *Mathis v. United States*, the Supreme Court held that because the elements of Iowa's burglary statutes were broader than those of generic burglary, the categorical approach must be used. This means that the conviction could only serve as an ACCA predicate offense if the elements of the state statute were a categorical match with the elements of generic burglary, meaning that any conviction under the state statute would have to necessarily be generic burglary. This case is not an

immigration case, but its precedent has effects on immigration law. A good example of this is immigration adjudicators and federal courts are often tasked with determining whether an alien who is convicted of an offense was convicted of an immigration aggravated felony.

In *United States v. Descamps*, the Supreme Court held that where a statute consists of a single, indivisible set of elements, the appellate court may only consider whether the most minor conduct proscribed by the statute would constitute the crime in question (burglary in this case). If the statute is divisible, the appellate court may rely upon limited evidence from the record of facts to determine which element or sets of elements of the statute yielded the conviction. The Supreme Court held that a statute is divisible if it contains alternative disjunctive elements, meaning that the statute contains more than one set of elements and permits a person to be convicted under less than all sets of elements. The *Descamps* case did not involve immigration law, but the statutory interpretation issue is analogous to that implicated when an alien argues that a given state conviction was not for an aggravated felony. These cases are highly technical decisions relating to the federal Armed Career Criminal Act (ACCA) and immigration law's Illegal Immigration and Immigrant Responsibility Act (IIRIRA).

Traditional Versus Non Traditional Destinations

There has been a recent surge in studies on the immigration-crime nexus, but only a few explore whether the rates of criminal offending are consistent across traditional, as well as, non-traditional destinations (Ferraro, 2016; MacDonald et al., 2013; Shihadeh and Barranco, 2013). These studies found that immigrants who settle in the new

destinations tend to have a more difficult time incorporating into the communities, as they have less experience with the immigration process than the traditional locations. With the recent shift in immigration patterns from traditional destinations to newer destinations, there is a more complicated immigration-crime relationship (Light, 2017). Studies show that Latino immigration has increased violence in newer destinations, but not in established destinations, and it varies across the different racial and ethnic groups (Light, 2017). Painter-Davis (2015) also examined the relationship between Latino immigration and violence in terms of geographic diversification of immigrants to new or emerging destinations. This study explored the effects of immigration on violent offending of specific ethnic or racial groups (Black, White, and Latino) based on immigrant destinations, whether it is established or an emerging destination. His findings suggest that the effect of immigration on Black and Latino violence is contextualized by the type of destination (Painter-Davis, 2015). He also found that immigration has violence-reducing effects on Latinos and Blacks in established destinations, but no effect in new and emerging destinations (Painter-Davis, 2015).

Ferraro (2016) used the social disorganization framework to explore the effect of immigration on crime within new destinations, which consisted of places that experienced a significant immigration growth over the last two decades. This study showed that new destinations experienced greater decreases in crime in comparison to the rest of the sample. New destinations with a greater increase in foreign-born individuals experienced a more significant decrease in the crime rate (Ferraro, 2016). Harris and Feldmeyer (2013) also studied Latino immigration and White, Black, and Latino violent

crime across traditional and, non-traditional immigrant destinations. Their study found that recent Latino immigration is generally not associated with violent crimes across all communities, but there is a significant relationship between decreased violent crimes in traditional destinations and a slightly increased violence in non-traditional destinations (Harris and Feldmeyer, 2013). There were some significant racial and ethnic differences in these differences (Harris and Feldmeyer, 2013).

Social scientists have long studied the effect that immigration has on crime in traditional immigrant destinations, but not until recently have there been more interest in areas that are not the established immigrant destinations. Recent studies have been conducted to determine whether there have been increases in crime rate in the areas that have a high immigrant influx (Ousey, & Kubrin, 2014). Few of these studies were conducted in areas that are non-traditional immigrant destination, such as Georgia and Nevada and none since 1995. Other comparisons have been completed in areas such as Los Angeles (MacDonald, Hipp, & Gill, 2013), and San Diego (Martinez, Stowell, & Iwana, 2016). Shihadeh and Barranco (2013), Painter-Davis (2015), and Ramey (2013) studied the effects on crime of immigration in suburban and rural areas that are located in non-traditional immigrant destinations.

Rural Versus Urban Areas

The effects of immigration on crime as it relates to whether it is in an urban area or a rural area is necessary so as to help examine what factors, if any, that may contribute to this relationship. Klein et al. (2017) explored this relationship between immigration and violence in rural versus urban counties using disorganization and immigrant

revitalization theories. They found that increases in immigration resulted in decreased violence, but varied across urban and rural areas. First generation immigrants are less likely to commit crimes than native-born citizens (Klein et al., 2017; Piquero et al., 2014). In neighborhoods where immigrants settle in over two decades have shown improvement, in terms of being rebuilt, and those whose economies were on life support are now being re-energized (Klein et al., 2017; MacDonald & Sampson, 2012; Piquero et al., 2014).

Not many studies have been done in this area as the earlier studies predominantly focused on major urban communities, especially those that are closest to the U.S.-Mexico Borders (Shihadeh & Barranco, 2013). This leaves a significant gap in the research of the rural communities and states throughout the United States. Even fewer studies used longitudinal frameworks that are designed to explore the relationship between the changes in immigration, and crime and violence (Ferraro, 2017; Klein et al., 2017; Painter-Davis, 2015; Ramey, 2013). These studies explored the criminogenic effects of immigration in the rural areas that are not the traditional destinations for immigrants. Another significant difference with these studies is that they cover an extended period of time which enables historical patterns to be observed to see any changes in crimes and violence through the various waves of immigrants and other factors that may have contributed to these changes (Klein et al., 2017). However, not many have been conducted to observe any regular or irregular patterns, and it makes it difficult to determine if the impact that immigration has on violence is dynamic or static.

Urban locales and communities that have cultivated over time with immigration tend to have more stability with a reinforced labor market and cultural infrastructures that helps to protect against crime and violence, even with the different waves of new immigrants (Klein, 2017; Shihadeh, & Barranco, 2013). These communities offer services such as housing and child care that help instill values and tradition that will support a stable environment (Klein, 2017). However, more recently, immigrants are bypassing these communities and are settling in rural areas that have less immigration and do not have the same or similar services that established urban areas possess. The economic growth in urban areas tends to be much slower than those of rural areas (Kaylen & Pridemore, 2013a; Klein et al., 2017). These areas tend to offer more low-wage job opportunities for immigrants as native-born residents tend to look for more high-paying jobs. Although jobs may be easier to obtain for immigrants in rural areas, they usually have a more difficult time assimilating in these communities as there are fewer amenities available or accessible to them (Kaylen & Pridemore, 2013a; Shihadeh, & Barranco, 2013). Growth and upward mobility are usually more difficult to obtain in rural communities when compared to their urban counterparts (Kaylen & Pridemore, 2013a; Klein et al., 2017). Rural communities are usually more isolated, mainly by language or country of origin, and there are usually fewer structural and cultural resources that are generally provided by churches, schools, and families that are present in the urban areas (Klein et al., 2017; Shihadeh, & Barranco, 2013).

There are few studies that explore how community structural characteristics are related to violent crime rates in rural versus urban areas (Kaylen & Pridemore, 2013b;

Klein et al., 2017). These studies found that low economy has little to no effect on juvenile delinquency, while ethnic heterogeneity, residential instability, and family disruption is positively related to it. However, Kaylen and Pridemore (2013b) noted that there are some discrepancies with these findings for a few reasons; including the fact that population stability is not enough to control crime when resource disadvantage is taken into account. They further explained that community disorganization does not result in violence, but that the community's social structure and crime varies across both urban and rural places (Kaylen & Pridemore, 2013b).

Race

The effects that immigration has on violent crimes can be contextualized by race (Feldmeyer et al., 2018). Few studies have focused on the ecological effects of immigration on the violent crime rates in both traditional and non-traditional immigrant destinations, as well as, across race-differentiated rates (White, Black, Hispanic comparisons). The studies performed in this area show that a higher immigrant presence has little or no effect on White and Hispanic rates of violence (Feldmeyer & Steffensmeier, 2009), while other studies indicate that Black rates of violence are increased especially in areas where there is a high level of Black unemployment (Feldmeyer et al., 2018; Shihadeh & Barranco, 2010). In his study, Stansfield (2013) states that there may be a perception among Blacks that undocumented workers take away their jobs, which leads to more unemployed Black Americans. This was also explored in other studies where it corroborated that the perception in these communities is that immigrants displace American workers and they abuse social services and

community resources (Sohoni, & Sohoni, 2013). This sometimes results in Blacks turning to crime or criminal means to make money to support themselves and their families (Stansfield, 2013).

Trends show that White native-born residents tend to pursue the higher paying jobs, which leaves the minimum wage jobs in construction, meat packing, agriculture etc., available for the new immigrants in the area (Klein et al., 2017). These jobs are predominantly performed by Black native-born residents, but increasing immigration results in immigrants acquiring these jobs at cheaper wage and they tend to work harder because of their status and fear of not being able to get another job to support their families(Sohoni, & Sohoni, 2013; Stansfield, 2013). Criminologists and social scientists have been insinuating that Blacks are being displaced from these jobs and they eventually turn to crimes or criminal means to support their families and lifestyles (Sohoni, & Sohoni, 2013). The study conducted by Klein (2017) showed no positive relationship between Black native-born residents losing minimum wage jobs and an increase in violent crime rates.

Lowering Crime Rates

Most studies tend to show that immigration leads to lower crime rates and shows no indication that increased immigration results in more violent crimes. Adelman, Reid, Markle, Weiss, and Jaret, (2017) examined this relationship from 1970 to 2010 in metropolitan areas, and found that there was a decrease in violent crimes such as murder, as well as property crimes, such as burglary, throughout this time frame. Martinez, Stowell, and Iwana, (2016) conducted a similar study in San Diego, in addition to

examining the trends in racial or ethnic specific killings. In this study, Martinez et al. observed that communities with a higher foreign-born population had a lower violent crime rate. MacDonald, John, and Gill (2013) conducted a similar study to determine if and how immigration concentration is related to reduction in crime rates in the city of Los Angeles. This study indicated that neighborhoods with a higher immigration concentration had a reduction in crime rates (MacDonald, John, & Gill, 2013).

In a study about the relationship between the revitalization of immigration and crime Ramey (2013) conducted a research in 84 cities dispersed across the country. Ramey analyzed violent crimes divided by racial and ethnic composition. The study found that neighborhoods with small and recent immigrant populations contribute to lower violent crime rates compared with those that are established immigrant destinations (Ramey, 2013). This further supports the studies above by Martinez et al. (2016) and Adelman et al. (2017) that also had similar findings. A similar study was conducted by Light (2017) where he examined the relationship between immigration and racial and ethnic homicide in U.S. metropolitan areas between 1990 and 2010. The study shows that Latino immigration is generally associated with a decrease in the homicide victimization of Whites, Blacks, and Hispanics in established immigration areas as well as non-established immigrant destinations (Light, 2017). Sohoni and Sohoni (2013) studied the perceptions of immigrant criminality and found that communities with a growing immigrant population have seen decreases in crime rates. Foreign-born Hispanic youth are less likely to participate in criminal activities than their native-born counterparts (Lopez and Miller 2011; Miller, 2012; Sohoni, & Sohoni, 2013).

Baker (2015) explored the effects of the legalization of immigrants on crime. He found that when undocumented immigrants are able to work legally, there is usually a decrease in crime rates. This supported other studies done by Freedman, Owens, and Bohn (2013), as well as, Pinotti (2014) which posits that legalization of work for undocumented immigrants results in a negative relationship between crime and recidivism rates.

Drugs, Violent Crimes, and Immigration

A connection between drugs and violent crimes are always being associated with increased immigration. Green (2016) used crime and immigration data from all the states from 2012 to 2014 and focused on the rates of violent and drug arrests and then compared them against a pooled statistic on foreign-born and Mexican nationals living in America. The results of this study showed no relationship between immigrant population size and increased violent crime, but there was a small significance found between undocumented immigrant populations and drug-related arrests (Green, 2016). A study by Light, Miller, and Kelly (2017) was conducted to examine the effects that undocumented immigrants have on four different metrics of drug and alcohol problems, namely, drug arrests, drug overdose fatalities, driving under the influence (DUI) arrests, and DUI deaths. Light et al. found that increased undocumented immigration was significantly associated with reduction in drug arrests, drug overdose deaths, and DUI arrests, and that there was no significant relationship between increased undocumented immigration and DUI deaths. These studies have not shown any indication that increasing immigration has resulted in an increase in drug arrests or other crimes associated with drugs.

Martinez and Stowell (2012) explored the relationship between crime and immigration in their study of two major cities (Miami, and San Antonio) in the 1980s and 1990s. The results of this study showed that more immigrants did not result in more homicides and are valid across time and place (Martinez and Stowell, 2012). Other studies have been conducted to explore the relationship between immigration and violent crimes (Klein et al., 2017; Ousey, & Kubrin, 2017). Ecological studies conducted across spatial neighborhoods or cities rely mainly on police reports for incidence of crime or violence. These reports show that the effects of immigration on these communities are neutral or they lower the violent crime levels (Feldmeyer et al., 2018; Harris, & Feldmeyer, 2015; Martinez et al., 2010; Ousey, & Kubrin, 2009, 2017; Wadsworth, 2010). The Southwest border has been identified as the region that is mostly plagued by violence and crime as there is a rising issue with drug-related violence in Mexico (Beittel, 2009, 2011; Carpenter, 2012; Sibila, Pollock, & Menard, 2017).

A study by Light (2017) explored the relationship between Latino immigration and racial and ethnic violence (homicide) in metropolitan areas, using a longitudinal dataset. Latino immigration is generally associated with decreases in homicide victimization for other races (Whites, Blacks, and Hispanics) in both traditional and non-traditional destinations, but this study found that it was not significant in all cases (Light, 2017). Harris and Feldmeyer (2015) studied Hispanic immigration, religious contextualization and violence. Their study showed that Hispanic immigration is positively associated with community-level Catholic adherence, and religious homogeneity, which in turn are negatively associated with violent crime rates (Harris and

Feldmeyer, 2015). Lyons, Velez, and Santoro (2013) examined the relationship between immigrant concentration and neighborhood violence. They found that immigration concentration has an inverse relationship with neighborhood violent crime and is generally enhanced in cities where the favorable immigrant political opportunities (Lyons, Velez, & Santoro, 2013). They postulated that the fate of neighborhoods across ethnicity and nativity is influenced by political actors and structures to their concern (Lyons, Velez, & Santoro, 2013). Another study by Feldmeyer, Harris, and Scroggins (2015) assessed the effects of immigrant segregation on violent crime rates. This study showed no significant relationship between immigrant segregation and violence, but showed that these effects were contextualized and dependent on the resources available in the locales (Feldmeyer, Harris, & Scroggins, 2015). They found that immigrant segregation contributes to violence in highly disadvantaged places, but linked to reduced violence in places with greater resources (Feldmeyer, Harris, & Scroggins, 2015).

All the studies that have been conducted to explore the relationship between immigration and violent crimes show that there is, generally, little to no significant relationship between the two. Few studies (Light, 2017) also show that there is a significant relationship between immigration and violent crimes across racial or ethnic groups and usually in newer immigrant destinations but not in established destinations.

Increasing Crime Rates

Studies conducted to explore the relationship between crime and immigration has mostly shown null or negative effects between the two. There are some studies that show some increase in crime in relation to increased immigration, but they are few and/or

outdated (Emerick et al., 2014; Wadsworth, 2010). Conventional wisdom argues that increased immigration usually results in increased criminal activity, although this is not supported by other recent studies (Wadsworth, 2010). A study of over 150 large cities across America between 1980 and 2010 by Ousey and Kubrin, (2014) showed a significant relationship between changes in immigration, increases and decreases, and overall homicide as well as drug homicide rates. A study of recent immigration, Hispanic-owned businesses and crime rates showed that immigration floods to the market with unskilled workers may weaken the labor worker positions, which results in the increase of criminal propensities in both immigrant and native workers (Stansfield, 2013). Not all external factors were controlled or accounted for in these studies, therefore, it is not confirmed that the increased crime rates were a direct result of increased immigration.

Crime and Immigration in Other Countries

The exploration of the correlation between immigration and crime is not only present in America. Other countries are also having the same questions being asked about the relationship between crime and immigration. Sydes (2017) used the ecological framework largely derived from the United States experience and applied it in a study in Australia which has a greater mix of ethnic groups. In this study, Sydes examined the effect of immigration on crime in two cities and did not find any significant relationship between neighborhoods with a higher concentration of immigration and crime. Bell, Fasani, and Machin (2013) studied the issue in the U.K. based on two large waves of immigration in the late 1990s and post-2004. This study showed a significant increase in

property crime during the first wave, but no increase in violent crimes (Bell, Fasani, & Machin, 2013). The second immigration wave had no significant relationship on property or violent crimes (Bell et al., 2013). These studies have helped these countries determine where to focus on to reduce these crimes and what immigration laws need to be adjusted to help reduce and eliminate the problem.

Aryna Dzmitryieva (2016) conducted a study in Russia to determine the contribution of migrants to crime based on evidence from court statistics. Both internal and external migrants were explored and the analysis showed that immigrants were more likely associated with low gravity crimes such document forgery, and illegal crossing of the border (Dzmitryieva, 2016). There were no differences noted between the types of crimes committed by Russian citizens and foreigners, however, the Russian judges do indict more foreigners than Russian citizens, and more likely to real imprisonment than suspended sentences (Dzmitryieva, 2016). There was one other notable difference in sentencing: Russian judges tend to be more lenient with the length of the sentences for foreigners compared with citizens of the Russian Federation. Foreigners tend to receive shorter sentences than Russian citizens (Dzmitryieva, 2016).

One of the most recent studies that compared the immigration and homicide rates in Europe and the United States was conducted by Martinez, Iwama, and Stowell (2015). Their research explored whether immigrant contributed a disproportionate amount of crime beyond that of the native-born populations (Martinez, Iwama, and Stowell, 2015). This study compared the level of immigration to White, Black, and Latino homicide rates between 1985 and 2009 (Martinez, Iwama, and Stowell, 2015). Racial/ethnic/immigrant

group specific homicide rates were compared and contrasted in the cities of Miami and San Diego (Martinez, Iwama, and Stowell, 2015). The findings were compared to European countries because there are some similarities on immigration into the United States and Europe (Martinez, Iwama, and Stowell, 2015). Immigration is near an all-time high in the US and this is also the same for many European countries such as Switzerland, Luxembourg, Belgium, Italy, Austria, Spain, and Sweden (Martinez, Iwama, and Stowell, 2015). However, the homicide rates are near an all-time low in US, and are relatively low in most European countries (Martinez, Iwama, and Stowell, 2015).

Most studies that are conducted to compare United States immigration crime rate with other countries have found that increased immigration lowers crime rates. This suggests that immigration acts as a buffer for crimes and supports the immigrant revitalization hypothesis which is explained later (Martinez, Iwama, and Stowell, 2015). However, there are several other contributing factors that may also result in this lowered crime rates.

Theoretical Frameworks

Social Disorganization Theory

Most studies that attempt to explore the relationship between crime and immigration uses social disorganization theory. It is the most robust theory used in the explanation of the relationship between crime and immigration (Klein et al., 2017). This framework theorizes that immigration is a disruptive force that breaks down collective social control, leading to a positive association between immigration and violence. Criminogenic effects are expected to be similar across different forms of crime, including

violent crimes, and the structural sources of crime behave in a similar way across racial and ethnic groups (Wilson, 1987). In this theory, the racial invariance hypothesis is explored to provide an opportunity to examine and refine socio-ecological theories of crime because if structural factors alone are inadequate for explaining race/ethnic differences in crime, it suggests that other factors such as culture may be at play (Ousey, 1999; Steffensmeier et al., 2010).

This framework will be used to explain how the various concentrations of immigrants in Georgia relate to the violent crime rates over the decades. According to this theory, crime is influenced by immigration through the various structural compositions of the communities (Shaw & McKay, 1942). It states that certain areas are more susceptible to crime because it has a high level of socioeconomic disadvantage, racial and ethnic diversity, and residential instability (Shaw & McKay, 1942; Stowell et al., 2018). Residents of these communities are thought to be more likely to commit crimes (crime deviancy) because of the structural disruptions and the high turnover rate of residents (Stowell et al., 2018). Residents of these communities tend to possess criminally deviant behaviors because of the cultural and language differences between the various ethnic groups, which produces roadblocks to the formation of strong informal control mechanisms to help reduce crimes.

Studies conducted across a variety of contexts and using various methodological approaches have not shown any strong evidence that crime is affected by immigration as outlined in the disorganization theory (Stowell et al., 2018). Many of the previous studies explored neighborhood level predictors of homicide victimization in traditional

immigrant destinations that have large immigrant populations, which has consistently found no (or inverse) association with violent crimes (Lee, 2003; Lee, & Martinez, 2002; Martinez, Stowell, & Cancino, 2008; Stowell, & Martinez, 2007; Stowell et al., 2018). The studies that are conducted in the large metropolitan areas usually employ both cross-sectional and longitudinal designs, and they also found that immigration has a null or negative association with extant levels of violent crime (Stowell et al., 2018).

Social scientists and criminologist have studied how the levels of criminal violence are shaped by changes in immigration to see whether increases in immigration may be a contributing factor in the well documented reductions in crime in the United States (Emerick et al., 2014; Stowell et al., 2018). The study by Stowell et al. (2009) showed that changes in immigration predict lower levels of violent crime, aggravated assault, and robbery rates, but there is no significant effect for instances of homicide and rape. Ousey and Kubrin (2009) also had similar finding in their study which showed that changes in immigration between 1980 and 2000 are associated with reduced city-level violent crime rates. They attributed these findings to immigration having a dampening influence on family instability (Ousey, & Kubrin, 2009). These studies also showed that there is a connection between immigration and violence for Latino and non-Latino Whites (Martinez, Stowell, & Lee, 2010; Stowell et al., 2018).

Immigrant Revitalization Thesis

Immigrant revitalization thesis theorizes that immigration yields protective effects that should lower rates of homicide. This theory differs from social disorganization in that it maintains that increases in immigration provide several crime-buffering advantages

to improve community social structure. Familial and neighborhood networks are generally strengthened because immigrants tend to settle in established enclaves where they share a common language, tradition, and values (Shihadeh, & Barranco, 2013). Most studies show that rather than being disruptive, higher levels of immigration are usually associated with lowering crime rates or having no effect on them (Gostjev, & Nielson, 2017; Lee, & Martinez, 2002; MacDonald et al., 2013; Martinez, 2008; Nielson et al., 2005). The underlying process of all these findings is referred to as immigrant revitalization.

The immigrant revitalization theory views how social capital resources such as family ties and business entrepreneurship may be connected with immigration and strengthened in ways that results in decreased violent crime rates (Feldmeyer et al., 2018). Feldmeyer et al. posits that these capital resources are strengthened and decrease violent crime rate because they mitigate or offset the disorganizing forces that other scholars associate with increased immigration. This suggests the opposite of the long studied social disorganization theory in that instead of increased immigration resulting in a disruption of the community, immigrants may revitalize these communities by contributing to the neighborhood, improving protective community-level forces such as traditional family structures, and labor forces, which helps to buffer against violence (Feldmeyer et al., 2018; Martinez et al., 2010). Instead of destabilizing communities, immigration attracts various resources such as new businesses, churches, schools, and social services that results in economic growth that caters to the growing immigrant

population, and eventually all members of the community (Feldmeyer et al., 2018; Martinez et al., 2010; Ousey & Kubrin, 2009).

Conclusion

After thoroughly researching, we found that most studies that are conducted on the relationship between crime and immigration tend to focus on the cities and states that border Mexico as well as established or traditional immigrant destinations. New and developing immigrant cities and states have far fewer studies and they are usually only held in conjunction with the established destinations for comparisons. There will always be a debate between immigration and crime. As seen by the numerous studies mentioned above, increased immigration tends to result in a reduction in violent crimes. More distinctive research between the significance of these results should be completed to corroborate or disprove these studies, as well as studies that show the causes of any increase in crimes so that the appropriate measures can be taken to resolve the problems. This study will help explore the relationship between increased immigration and violent crime rates in Georgia from 1970 to 2010.

Chapter three will entail utilizing a panel data fixed-effects/change-score methodology using a longitudinal analysis of data and change score models to explore any relationships between immigration and changes in violence, as well as any changes over time and across racial groups. This methodology and design aims to bridge the gap in the data for Georgia.

Chapter 3: Methodology and Design

Purpose Statement

My purpose in this quantitative study was to explore the relationship between legal immigration and violent crimes in Georgia from 1970. No recent inquiries have occurred on crime rates in relations to immigration in Georgia. I sought to fill this gap by examining the relationship between the total number of violent crimes, level of urbanicity, and legal immigration, using a longitudinal analysis of the data. I also examined any association over time. I analyzed the effects that immigration has on violent crimes using specific factors associated with the social disorganization theory, such as race/ethnic heterogeneity, and urbanicity. I categorized violent crimes as murder and nonnegligent manslaughter, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault. Crime statistics showed numbers in correlation with increases or decreases in immigration. I acknowledge that immigration may not be the cause for these changes. I used a social disorganization theoretical framework to examine the relationship between violent crimes and immigration using the aforementioned factors.

In this chapter, I explore the methodology and design that I used in this study. I explore and explain the various variables regarding the connection and relevance in relation to the violent crimes and immigration. I also explore the data sources that I used, analyses methods, theoretic construct, reliability and validity, and ethical considerations for the study.

Research and Design

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables were as follows: Violent crimes: criminal homicide, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault

Predictive Explanatory Variable

The predictive explanatory variables were as follows: Race: Black, White, Hispanic, Asian, and Other. Population: Foreign-born citizens.

Predictive Independent Variables

The predictive independent variables were as follows: Decades: 1970s, 1980s, 1990s, 2000s, 2010s. Communities: Urban, rural.

Rationale

I used a longitudinal design using secondary data. A time series study is the specific type of longitudinal study used. The research question that this design aimed to answer was: What is the relationship between legal immigration and violent crime rates? In the articles so far considered, the researchers primarily used a longitudinal framework to conduct their studies. In his article “Re-examining the relationship between Latino immigration and racial and ethnic violence,” Light (2017) implemented a longitudinal design to determine whether Latino immigrations increase crimes in newer immigrant destinations, but not in established destinations. The study used longitudinal dataset to test the relationship between immigration and racial or ethnic homicide in U.S. metropolitan areas between 1970 and 2016 (Light, 2017). This is similar to what I did in this study, as I examined the same relationship, but only in the state of Georgia.

Another study by Parker and Stansfield (2015) on “The Changing Urban Landscape: Interconnections Between Ethnic Segregation and Exposure in the Study of Race-Specific Violence Over Time” used the longitudinal design to answer their research questions, which investigated the size of the Hispanic population, racial or ethnic contact, and racial segregation patterns. They used longitudinal design because previous studies have tended to use cross-sectional designs, which often ignore shifts and changes within cities over time (Parker & Stansfield, 2015). For this reason, the longitudinal framework can help to outline any changes in crime rate through the years.

Methodology

For this study, I used a quantitative methodology. I replicated some portions of the studies done by Ousey and Kubrin (2013); Martinez, Stowell, and Iwana (2016); and MacDonald, Hipp, and Gill (2013). The data that I used were reported violent crimes in Georgia during the 1970s, 1980s, 1990s, 2000s, and 2010s. I attempted to bring together neighborhood-level and violent crime data for five decennial census periods (1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010). I used the estimated average immigrant level between 1960 and 1970 (1970 census) as the baseline, as well as the violent crime rates in that decade.

This method was chosen because it is difficult to measure the actual effect of immigration on crime. With this methodology, the number of immigrants will be examined every 10 years to observe any changes, and then the violent crime rates will be compared as well. Violent crimes are categorized as murder (homicide), rape, aggravated assault, and robbery. The changes in the composition of the immigrant population whether it increases or decreases will be compared with the total number of violent

crimes to determine whether any patterns or trends exist. This will answer the research question: What is the relationship between legal immigration and the total number of violent crimes? Comparing the total number of violent crimes from 1970 to 2010 and also immigrant population between these years, I was able to assess patterns that may be present between the variables that I analyzed. It will allow me to determine whether the total numbers of violent crimes increase or decrease with the size of the immigrant population, therefore showing any relationship between the two factors.

I also examined the level of urbanicity broken down as urban and rural areas. This allowed me to assess whether location is a key factor in determining the level of violent crimes in relation to immigration. The last factor taken from the social disorganization theory that I used in this study was race. It will be broken down as Black, White, Hispanic, Asian, and other. Population will be divided into two categories: native-born citizens and immigrants (or foreign-born). These factors will be compared with the total number of violent crimes in Georgia to determine whether a correlation exists between them and, if so, determine the level of significance..

The coding for the various datasets show that they are all aligned. Because decades are used from the census, it is aligned with the annual reports from the UCR websites, which provide data annually from January to December. The total number for each category of violent crimes will be added for every year to combine and give the total for each decade that will be analyzed. In the census, race is categorized as White, Black, Hispanic, various Asian categories, Aleut, Eskimo, and other. For this study, all the Asian

categories will be combined as one and labeled as “Asian.” Aleut, Eskimo, and other will be placed in one category as “other.” All other categories will remain unchanged.

Research Questions and Hypothesis

I used the following research question for this study: What is the relationship between legal immigration, race, level of urbanicity, and the total number of violent crimes over the decades 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010 in Georgia?

The subquestions for the study were as follows:

- i. What is the relationship between race and violent crimes for the decades 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010 in Georgia?
- ii. What is the percentage immigration population of Georgia in 2010 compared to 1970, 1980, 1990, and 2000?
- iii. What is the relationship between the level of urbanicity and violent crimes over the decades 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010 in Georgia?

Null hypothesis: There is no statistical significance between legal immigration and violent crimes over the decades 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010 in Georgia.

Alternate hypothesis: There is a statistical significance between legal immigration and violent crimes over the decades 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, 2010 in Georgia.

Data Sources

The data I used for this study were the number of immigrants, using race or ethnic group, as provided by the census published by the Federal Bureau of Investigations (FBI) every 10 years. This will be accessed through the Migration Policy Institute website as well, which gives an estimate of all types of immigrants, documented and undocumented.

The racial composition and urbanicity will be collected from the ICPSR website located on Walden University research resources. The American Fact Finder located on the Census Bureau website will also be used to compare race and urbanicity for the decades being explored in the study, so that a true representation is used. The crime data that will be used are the various types of violent crimes provided by the Uniform Crime Report (UCR). The size or population of each county will determine whether there is a high or low immigrant populations and whether it is increasing or decreasing over the period being studied. The specific crimes that will be studied are violent crimes, which are broken down into categories: murder, and non-negligent manslaughter, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault. This can help to determine what types of violent crimes have increased or decrease in relations to the change in demographics of each city or county in Georgia.

Access to the Census data from the Migration Policy Institute website was granted after getting in touch with them via email. They confirmed student status and then granted access to the data. The crime report data on the UCR website is available to the public.

Methods of Analysis

Linear regression is used when one wants to predict the value of a variable based on the value of another. The variable we want to predict is called the dependent variable (or sometimes, the outcome variable). The variable we are using to predict the other variable's value is called the independent variable (or sometimes, the predictor variable). Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), bivariate and multivariate analysis, and binary logistic

regression, will be utilized to analyze the data collected. The variables will also be examined descriptively and correlations will also be done for exploratory purposes and ancillary analyses. Cross tabulations and chi-square tests may be used to confirm any preliminary relationships that are identified among any nominal and binary variables.

ANOVA is an inferential statistics technique that involves a statistical test for the significance of differences between mean scores of at least two groups across one or more variable (Wagner, 2016). This is appropriate for analyzing the significance of any relationship between the various immigrant and racial groups with different types of violent crimes. Using MANOVA to also analyze those variables with urban and rural areas will also highlight any relationship that may exist between them.

The traditional strategy for analyzing homicide rates is to create a per capital rate by dividing the homicide counts by the relevant population and then modeling its natural logarithm using a linear regression estimator (Ousey & Kubrin, 2013). The F column allows testing the H_0 Null Hypothesis, or H_1 Alternate Hypothesis and this test consists of the ration of the MSM/MSE (mean square model/mean square error). A fixed-effects negative binomial model will be employed to analyze the data because it is one of the best modeling strategies that can be used to analyze longitudinal and repeated measures datasets, and holds the advantage of estimating the effects of measured time-varying predictor variables while controlling for time-stable omitted variables with time-stable effects (Ousey & Kubrin, 2013). We will use the fixed-effects model to analyze which will reveal any relationship between the types of violent crimes and the various ethnic groups (immigrants and native-born citizens).

Regressions coefficients table, like ANOVA, can be used for statistical inference, and includes: the t Stat which gives the computed t-statistics for H_0 Null Hypothesis, or H_1 Alternate Hypothesis; p value –which can be used to make inferences about the statistical significance of the relationship between x and y (i.e. is it statistically significant or not); and a lower and upper confidence interval for the β coefficient (Hart, & Waller, 2013).

The confidence intervals for the parameters a , β_0 , and e reflect a measure of the fitness of the regression line (Statistical Topics, Yale). Scatter plots are presented as these can provide a visual of the regression line fit, and this also provides the opportunity to visualize rapidly outliers (points distant from the regression line, and which thus have a large residual value) and unusual observations (Statistical Topics, Yale). The examination of residuals through a graphic assisted in the investigation of the validity, by plotting the residuals (y axis) and the explanatory variable in the x axis, which could show evidence of Lurking variables. One alternative to evaluate an additional factor such as time is to plot a time series plot of the data (Statistical Topics, Yale), which was implemented if there was a lurking variable is suspected.

Theoretical Construct

This refers to the variables that are measured throughout the study and their reliability and validity. Throughout this study the variables that will be observed are violent crimes, immigrants, native born citizens, race (White, Black, Hispanic, Asian, and other), urbanicity (urban, or rural), and the years 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010. The reliability of these variables depends on the measurement procedures that will be used in

the study, and whether the measurement result is repeatable. This means that if the study is repeated, then the same or similar results will be obtained. The data that will be used in this study is secondary so the numbers will not change. This makes it very reliable and will be replicable and produce the same results if done.

The second aspect of constructs pertains to the validity of the content or measurements of the variables studied. This concept deals with whether the study measure what it was intended to measure, and whether it is a good representation of the variables in the study. For decades, social scientists have been using crime rate to determine the relationship between immigration and crime. If crime rates increase when the immigrant population increases, then it can be further studied to see what the exact reason is for this relationship, but in that situation, it can be deduced that an increase in the immigrant population results in higher crime rate. The same can be said if the opposite happens. This study aims to see the relationship that exists between homicide rates and legal immigration in Georgia. By comparing the rates of the various types of violent crimes with the population of Georgia, broken down by the immigrant versus native-born population, this relationship is best analyzed and understood. It will show whether violent crimes increase or decrease with the increase or decrease of the immigrant population over these decades.

Reliability and Validity

In relations to the reliability and validity of the data collection method and sampling method used, the researcher must be concerned with the accuracy of the information gathered. Since it will be secondary data, then the researcher must ensure

that the sources are credible (O'Sullivan et al., 2017). The FBI's Census and the UCR are both credible sources and have been nationally accepted as the standard bearer for providing an accurate estimate of the population as well as the various crimes that were committed over a period of time. The researcher must be aware of the fact that not everyone will be accounted for in the census data. The main group that this will affect will be the undocumented immigrants for whom there is not an accurate estimate for the number in their population in Georgia. This will affect the accuracy in the number of immigrants that are accounted for in the study. Another issue that may arise from this is the number of reported crimes and their categories also. Not all crimes will be reported and also the types or causes of these crimes may not be known, which will make it difficult to categorize them.

To help resolve or reduce the problems stated in the paragraph above, we can utilize several different resources. The FBI's census collects information from all households, but they do not ask the legal status of any respondent. They ask for the place of birth for the mother as well as father to determine generational status of the respondent, whether first, second, third, or higher. There are an estimated number of undocumented immigrants provided and we will explain this in the study so that it is understood that it is not an exact number.

Ethical Considerations

The data that will be used in this study will be from secondary sources, which minimizes the risks for any ethical violations and moral issues. We need to validate all sources to ensure that the information is correct and reliable. If any participants are used

in collecting data, then their consent must be given in writing and all the necessary information must be disclosed to them. Once all data sources and data are verified and validated, then all the ethical considerations shall be satisfied. We look to ensure that full and accurate data are presented in the study so that there are no reasons to suspect any fixing of the results or any bias throughout the study. If any false information is placed in the study, then the validity of the study is suspect. The data can be easily verified with the initial source, which will help to deter our presenting of any false data.

We will be using data from three main public databases: the U.S. Census Data, the Migration Policy Institute website, and the Federal Bureau of Investigations' Uniform Crime Report. These databases are public records; therefore, there will be no need to obtain individual's consent to use the information in them. We will focus our efforts to obtain permission to access, analyze, and publish these data. We have been in touch with Migration Policy Institute and they confirmed student status then gave access to the Census data on its website.

Chapter three covered the methodology and design of the study. The variables were identified and explained; the rationale for the design and methodology was also discussed. This chapter also focused on the likely methods of analyzing the data that will be collected, as well as, elaborated on the reliability and validity of the data collection methods utilized. The data sources were explained and considerations were explored for any possible ethical complications or violations. After data collection is complete, we will sort and organize the appropriate information and then perform the various analytic tests that are appropriate. This will be posted in the next chapter.

Chapter 4: Results

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative study is to explore the relationship between legal immigration and violent crimes in Georgia from 1970 to 2010. To date, there have not been any other inquiries on crime rates in relations to immigration in Georgia. This research seeks to fill this gap by examining the relationship between the total number of violent crimes, level of urbanicity, with known legal immigration, using a longitudinal analysis of the data. The impact that immigration has on violent crimes will also be analyzed using specific factors that are associated with the social disorganization theory, such as race/ethnic heterogeneity, and urbanicity. We acknowledge that immigration may not be the cause for these changes. A social disorganization theoretical framework will be used to examine the relationship between violent crimes and immigration using the above named factors.

Research Questions and Hypothesis

1. What is the relationship between legal immigration, race, level of urbanicity, and the total number of violent crimes over the decades 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010 in Georgia?

Subquestions:

- i. What is the relationship between race and violent crimes for the decades 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010 in Georgia?
- ii. What is the percentage immigration population of Georgia in 2010 compared to 1970, 1980, 1990, and 2000?

- iii. What is the relationship between the level of urbanicity and violent crimes over the decades 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010 in Georgia?

Null hypothesis: There is no statistical significance between legal immigration and violent crimes over the decades 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010 in Georgia.

Alternate hypothesis: There is a statistical significance between legal immigration and violent crimes over the decades 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, 2010 in Georgia.

Chapter four consists of a short explanation of how the data was collected and also the results as well as a brief description of the analyses and statistical tests that were conducted.

The data was collected over several months from the census published by the Federal Bureau of Investigations (FBI) every ten years. This was accessed through the Migration Policy Institute website as well, which gives an estimate of all types of immigrants, documented and undocumented. The racial composition and urbanicity was collected from the ICPSR website located on Walden University research resources. The American Fact Finder located on the Census Bureau website was also used to compare race and urbanicity for the decades explored in the study, so that a true representation is used. The crime data that was used are the various types of violent crimes and the total number of violent crimes provided by the Uniform Crime Report (UCR) on their website.

Based on the data collected from the Census Bureau website, there are 159 counties in the state of Georgia, and this was used as the unit of analysis for this study. The racial composition (Black, White, Hispanic, Asian, Other), the percentage of foreign-

born citizens, and the urbanicity (percentage) of these counties were used as the predictor variables for the total number of violent crimes. Simple linear regression was used to answer the research questions.

The results of this study will be summarized on a table for each decade followed by a brief explanation of the significance for each variable. There were five models done, one for each decade. Each will be represented and displayed on a separate table.

1970

Table 1

1970 Unstandardized Coefficients^a p Values and 95% Confidence Interval for β

Variable	Unstandardized coefficient B	95.0% Confidence interval for β		p-value
		Lower bound	Upper bound	
Black				
White	-150.165	-421.067	120.738	.275
Hispanic	-11543.326	-33654.316	10567.664	.304
Asian	17065.695	-83356.541	117487.930	.738
Other	-31537.160	-83095.550	20021.231	.229
Foreign born	280.962	50.301	511.622	.017
Urbanicity	2.676	.489	4.863	.017

To investigate the relationship between *percentage of Foreign-born, Urbanicity, Black, White, Hispanic, Asian, and Other populations* and *total number of violent crimes* in 1970 a multivariate linear regression was conducted. The model explained approximately 17% of the variability [R-squared = .169], which means that approximately [83%] of the variation in total violent crime events cannot be explained by the predictor variables alone.

The predictor variables *White, Hispanic, Asian, and Other* populations were not found to be significant as the statistical significance ($p > .05$) indicating that there is no

relationship between the *percentage of White, Hispanic, Asian, and Other populations* and *total number of violent crimes*. In the model, the predictor variable: *percentage of Black population* was excluded because of multicollinearity to the predictor variable: *percentage of White population* (Collinearity Statistics Tolerance: $p < .001$).

The predictor variables *percent Foreign-born* and *percentage Urbanicity* were found to be significant in the model ($p > .05$). Controlling for *Urbanicity*, *Foreign-born* contributed to the regression model [$B = 281$, 95% C.I. (50,512), $p < .05$], indicating that for every one percentage increase in the Foreign-born population there is an increase of 281 total violent crime events. Controlling for *Foreign-born*, *Urbanicity* contributed to the regression model [$B = 3$, 95% C.I. (0,5), $p < .05$], indicating that for every one percentage increase in the urbanicity there is an increase of 3 total violent crime events. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternate hypothesis, *there is a relationship between percentage of Foreign-born, Urbanicity, Black, White, Hispanic, Asian, and Other populations and total number of violent crimes in 1970*, is retained.

1980

Table 2

1980 Unstandardized Coefficients^a p Values and 95% Confidence Interval for β

Variable	Unstandardized coefficient B	95.0% confidence interval for β		p value
		Lower bound	Upper bound	
Black				
White	127.202	-731.096	985.500	.770
Hispanic	-69812.274	-113550.186	-26074.361	.002
Asian	95570.158	-37716.883	228857.199	.159
Other	2270.351	-67617.393	72158.095	.949
Foreign born	425.383	40.735	810.031	.030
Urbanicity	6.857	.260	13.454	.042

To investigate the relationship between *percentage of Foreign-born, Urbanicity, Black, White, Hispanic, Asian, and Other populations* and *total number of violent crimes* in 1980 a multivariate linear regression was conducted. The model explained approximately 25% of the variability [R-squared = .249], which means that approximately [75%] of the variation in total violent crime events cannot be explained by the predictor variables alone.

The predictor variables *White, Asian, and Other populations* were not found to be significant as the statistical significance ($p > .05$) indicating that there is no relationship between the *percentage of White, Asian, and Other populations* and *total number of violent crimes*. In the model, the predictor variable: *percentage of Black population* was excluded because of multicollinearity to the predictor variable: *percentage of White population* (Collinearity Statistics Tolerance: $p < .001$).

The predictor variables *percentage Hispanic population, Foreign-born and Urbanicity* were found to be significant in the model ($p > .05$). Controlling for *percentage*

Urbanicity and Hispanic population, Foreign-born contributed to the regression model [B = 425, 95% C.I. (41,810), $p < .05$], indicating that for every one percentage increase in the Foreign-born population there is an increase of 425 total violent crime events.

Controlling for *percentage Foreign-born and Hispanic, Urbanicity* contributed to the regression model [B = 7, 95% C.I. (0,13), $p < .05$], indicating that for every one percentage increase in the urbanicity there is an increase of 7 total violent crime events.

Controlling for *percentage Foreign-born and Urbanicity, Hispanic population* contributed to the regression model [B = -69812, 95% C.I. (-113550,-26074), $p < .05$], indicating that for every one percentage increase in the Hispanic population there is a decrease of 69812 total violent crime events. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternate hypothesis, *there is a relationship between percentage of Foreign-born, Urbanicity, Black, White, Hispanic, Asian, and Other populations and total number of violent crimes in 1980*, is retained.

1990

Table 3

1990 Unstandardized Coefficients^a p Values and 95% Confidence Interval for β

Variable	Unstandardized coefficient B	95.0% confidence interval for β		p value
		Lower bound	Upper bound	
Black				
White	-1397.099	-2607.561	-186.637	.024
Hispanic	-81681.853	-109844.214	-53519.492	.000
Asian	15771.065	-52610.051	84152.181	.649
Other	2305.286	-102894.803	107506.455	.966
Foreign born	1235.157	825.058	1645.255	.000
Urbanicity	9.049	-.552	18.650	.065

To investigate the relationship between *percentage of Foreign-born, Urbanicity, Black, White, Hispanic, Asian, and Other populations* and *total number of violent crimes* in 1990 a multivariate linear regression was conducted. The model explained approximately 48% of the variability [R-squared = .473], which means that approximately [52%] of the variation in total violent crime events cannot be explained by the predictor variables alone.

The predictor variables *percentage Urbanicity, Asian, and Other populations* were not found to be significant as the statistical significance ($p > .05$) indicating that there is no relationship between the *percentage of Urbanicity, Asian, and Other populations* and *total number of violent crimes*. In the model, the predictor variable: *percentage of Black population* was excluded because of multicollinearity to the predictor variable: *percentage of White population* (Collinearity Statistics Tolerance: $p < .001$).

The predictor variables *percentage Foreign-born, White, and Hispanic populations* were found to be significant in the model ($p > .05$). Controlling for *percentage White and Hispanic populations, Foreign-born* contributed to the regression model [$B = 1235, 95\% \text{ C.I. } (825, 1645), p < .05$], indicating that for every one percentage increase in the Foreign-born population there is an increase of 1235 total violent crime events. Controlling for *percentage Foreign-born and Hispanic, White* contributed to the regression model [$B = -1397, 95\% \text{ C.I. } (-2608, -187), p < .05$], indicating that for every one percentage increase in the White population there is a decrease of 1397 total violent crime events. Controlling for *percentage Foreign-born and White, Hispanic population* contributed to the regression model [$B = -81682, 95\% \text{ C.I. } (-109844, -53520), p < .05$], indicating that for every one percentage increase in the Hispanic population there is a decrease of 81682 total violent crime events. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternate hypothesis, *there is a relationship between percentage of Foreign-born, Urbanicity, Black, White, Hispanic, Asian, and Other populations and total number of violent crimes in 1990*, is retained.

2000

Table 4

2000 Unstandardized Coefficients^a p Values and 95% Confidence Interval for β

Variable	Unstandardized coefficient B	95.0% confidence interval for β		p value
		Lower bound	Upper bound	
Black				
White	-5144.879	-7211.538	-3078.220	.000
Hispanic	-125996.783	-157793.273	-94200.293	.000
Asian	-81919.757	-167772.994	3933.480	.061
Other	97791.634	15760.920	179822.348	.020
Foreign-born	1869.916	1430.364	2309.469	.000
Urbanicity	-3.578	-19.564	12.409	.659

To investigate the relationship between *percentage of Foreign-born, Urbanicity, Black, White, Hispanic, Asian, and Other populations* and *total number of violent crimes* in 2000 a multivariate linear regression was conducted. The model explained approximately 59% of the variability [R-squared = .585], which means that approximately [41%] of the variation in total violent crime events cannot be explained by the predictor variables alone.

The predictor variables *percentage Urbanicity* and *Asian population* were not found to be significant as the statistical significance ($p > .05$) indicating that there is no relationship between the *percentage of Urbanicity, and Asian population* and *total number of violent crimes*. In the model, the predictor variable: *percentage of Black population* was excluded because of multicollinearity to the predictor variable: *percentage of White population* (Collinearity Statistics Tolerance: $p < .001$).

The predictor variables *percentage Foreign-born, White, Hispanic, and Other populations* were found to be significant in the model ($p > .05$). Controlling for

percentage White, Hispanic, and Other populations, Foreign-born contributed to the regression model [B = 1870, 95% C.I. (1430,2310), $p < .05$], indicating that for every one percentage increase in the Foreign-born population there is an increase of 1870 total violent crime events. Controlling for *percentage Foreign-born, Hispanic, and Other populations, White* contributed to the regression model [B = -5145, 95% C.I. (-7212,-3078), $p < .05$], indicating that for every one percentage increase in the White population there is a decrease of 5145 total violent crime events. Controlling for *percentage Foreign-born, White, and Other populations, Hispanic* contributed to the regression model [B = -125997, 95% C.I. (-157793,-94200), $p < .05$], indicating that for every one percentage increase in the Hispanic population there is a decrease of 125997 total violent crime events. Controlling for *percentage Foreign-born, White, and Hispanic populations, Other races* contributed to the regression model [B = 97792, 95% C.I. (15761,179822), $p < .05$], indicating that for every one percentage increase in the Other population there is an increase of 97792 total violent crime events. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternate hypothesis, *there is a relationship between percentage of Foreign-born, Urbanicity, Black, White, Hispanic, Asian, and Other populations and total number of violent crimes in 2000*, is retained.

2010

Table 5

2010 Unstandardized Coefficients^a p Values and 95% Confidence Interval for β

Variable	Unstandardized coefficient B	95.0% confidence interval for β		p value
		Lower bound	Upper bound	
Black				
White	-3801.676	-6208.802	-1394.550	.002
Hispanic	-18017.907	-31488.948	-4546.865	.009
Asian	106193.729	52769.599	159617.860	.000
Other	-13378.027	-84138.430	57382.376	.709
Foreign born	395.941	155.778	636.104	.001
Urbanicity	-4.893	-23.774	13.988	.609

To investigate the relationship between *percentage of Foreign-born, Urbanicity, Black, White, Hispanic, Asian, and Other populations* and *total number of violent crimes* in 2010 a multivariate linear regression was conducted. The model explained approximately 49% of the variability [R-squared = .485], which means that approximately [51%] of the variation in total violent crime events cannot be explained by the predictor variables alone.

The predictor variables *Other races*, and *percentage Urbanicity* were not found to be significant as the statistical significance ($p > .05$) indicating that there is no relationship between the *percentage of Urbanicity, and Other population* and *total number of violent crimes*. In the model, the predictor variable: *percentage of Black population* was excluded because of multicollinearity to the predictor variable: *percentage of White population* (Collinearity Statistics Tolerance: $p < .001$).

The predictor variables *percentage Foreign-born, White, Hispanic, and Asian populations* were found to be significant in the model ($p > .05$). Controlling for

percentage White, Hispanic, and Other populations, Foreign-born contributed to the regression model [B = 396, 95% C.I. (156,636), $p < .05$], indicating that for every one percentage increase in the Foreign-born population there is an increase of 396 total violent crime events. Controlling for *percentage Foreign-born, Hispanic, and Asian populations, White* contributed to the regression model [B = -3802, 95% C.I. (-6209,-1395), $p < .05$], indicating that for every one percentage increase in the White population there is a decrease of 3802 total violent crime events. Controlling for *percentage Foreign-born, White, and Asian populations, Hispanic* contributed to the regression model [B = -18018, 95% C.I. (-31489,-4547), $p < .05$], indicating that for every one percentage increase in the Hispanic population there is a decrease of 18018 total violent crime events. Controlling for *percentage Foreign-born, White, and Hispanic populations, Asian* contributed to the regression model [B = 106194, 95% C.I. (52770,159618), $p < .05$], indicating that for every one percentage increase in the Asian population there is an increase of 106194 total violent crime events. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternate hypothesis, *there is a relationship between percentage of Foreign-born, Urbanicity, Black, White, Hispanic, Asian, and Other populations and total number of violent crimes in 2010*, is retained.

Summary

Chapter 4 provided the data collection methodology, the results of the analysis conducted. The next chapter will discuss and interpret these findings, explain any limitations, recommendations, and implications for social change.

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion

Purpose Statement

My purpose in this quantitative study was to explore the relationship between legal immigration and violent crimes in Georgia from 1970 to 2010. I sought to bridge this gap by examining the relationship between the total number of violent crimes, level of urbanicity, and legal immigration, using a longitudinal analysis of the data. The effects that immigration have on violent crimes was analyzed using specific factors associated with the social disorganization theory, such as race/ethnic heterogeneity, and urbanicity.

A longitudinal study was used to show information for the total number of violent crimes for the decades 1970 to 2010. This allowed me to observe any patterns and trends that are present over a longer period and help to reduce any one-time phenomenon that may be mistaken for a pattern (O'Sullivan et al., 2017). This design and methodology allowed me to adequately seek answers to the research questions.

For this study, regression analysis was used to analyze the aggregate level data, because all variables are at the same level of measure (aggregated county level data). Applying the findings of linear regression analysis to aggregate level data is not unusual. This is commonly done by government agencies. For example, school boards examine K-12 grade schools to assess overall school performance and budgeting. Budget planning is not based on individual student performance. The findings for this study show the changes in the racial makeup of the population for the 5 decades and also the changes in the total number of crimes. The pattern for the total number of violent crime changes with the changes in the racial composition of the population was analyzed in the study. This is

applicable because stakeholders can assess the changes in the racial composition of the population for each decade and compare that with the total number of violent crimes. This can help to determine the relationship that race, nativity, and urbanicity has with the total number of violent crimes for each decade. Therefore, stakeholders may be able to determine the effects that these factors have on violent crimes and be able to move forward with informed plans and policies to help address violent crimes.

Interpretation of Findings

The descriptive statistics tables in the appendices show the average number of violent crimes as well as the average percentage of the population for each variable. They also show the total number of counties that were analyzed (unit of analysis) and standard deviation. The model summary tables show the *R*-squared values as well as the significance between the variables observed. The *R* value represents the simple correlation. The *R*-squared value indicates how much of the total variation in the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variable. The ANOVA tables also showed the significance between the variables. It reports how well the regression equation fits the data, meaning how well it predicts the dependent variable. The coefficients tables show the number of violent crimes (constant) and also the number that the predictor variable increases or decreases the dependent variable by (β value). These tables also show the lower and upper limits. Therefore, it provides the necessary information that shows the increase or decrease in total violent crimes from the various predictor

variables.

The unstandardized coefficients tables in Chapter 4 showed that the percentage of foreign-born population was statistically significant in relation to the total number of violent crimes during all 5 decades. This means that although the foreign-born population was increasing, so was the total number of violent crimes. Percentage urbanicity was statistically significant in relation to the total number of violent crimes, when other variables were controlled for in 1970 and 1980 (Tables 1 and 2). Increases in the percentage urbanicity were not predictive of an increase or decrease in the total number of violent crimes for the decades 1990, 2000, and 2010 (Tables 3, 4, and 5).

The analyses show that increases in the percentage of certain races were a reliable predictor of increases or decreases in the total number of violent crimes for all 5 decades, whereas some were predictive in only certain decades. Increases in the percentage of Asians in the various counties were not predictive of an increase in the total number of violent crimes for the first 4 decades, 1970, 1980, 1990, and 2000 (Tables 1, 2, 3, and 4). However, this population showed statistical significance for 2010 (Table 5). An increase in the percentage of Asian population was predictive of an increase of 106,194 in the total number of violent crimes for 2010.

Increases in the percentage of the White population were not predictive of an increase or decrease in the total number of violent crimes for the decades 1970 and 1980 (Tables 1 and 2). However, an increase in the percentage of the White population was predictive of a 1397 decrease in the total number of violent crimes for 1990, a 5,145

decrease in the total number of violent crimes for 2000, and a 3,802 decrease in 2010 (Tables 3, 4, and 5). The percentage of the Black population was similar to the percentage of the White population except for the fact that it was predictive of an increase in the total number of violent crimes in 1990, 2000, and 2010.

The multivariate linear regression analyses show that the percentage of Hispanic population was not predictive of an increase or decrease in the total number of violent crimes for 1970 (Table 1). However, an increase in the percentage of Hispanic population was predictive of a decrease of 69,812 in the total number of violent crimes for 1980, a 81,682 decrease in 1990, a 125,997 decrease in 2000, and a 18,018 decrease in 2010 (Tables 2, 3, 4, and 5). An increase in the percentage of Other races population was not predictive of an increase or decrease in the total number of violent crimes for the decades 1970, 1980, 1990 and 2010 (Tables 1, 2, 3, and 5). However, an increase in the percentage of Other races population was predictive of an increase of 97,792 in the total number of violent crimes for 2000 (Table 4).

Conclusion

The relationship between immigration and crime is a widely discussed and studied topic. Each study brings something new to the discussion and gives a different perspective. Several factors may cause or contribute to increases in violent crimes. In the social disorganization theory, demography and location also plays a vital role in this dynamic. In this study, I explored the relationship between crime and immigration in the state of Georgia by counties. The factors that I studied to predict violent crimes were immigrants, urbanicity, and race.

The research question that guided this study was: What is the relationship between legal immigration, race, level of urbanicity, and the total number of violent crimes over the decades 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010 in Georgia?

Subquestions

1. What is the relationship between race and violent crimes for the decades 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010 in Georgia?

The results show that the various races had different effects on the number of violent crimes in the state of Georgia. The percentage of White population was not significant the first 2 decades (1970 and 1980), but was significant for the last 3 decades. When this variable was statistically significant, it predicted a decrease in the total number of violent crimes. The relationship for the percentage of Black population was similar to the percentage of White population except for the fact that it was predictive of an increase in the total number of violent crimes in 1990, 2000, and 2010. The percentage of Hispanic population did not have a significant relationship with the total number of violent crimes in 1970. However, for the remaining 4 decades (1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010), there was statistical significance between them, as an increase in the percentage of Hispanic population was predictive of a decrease in the total number of violent crimes. The percentage of Asian population did not have a statistical significance with the total number of violent crimes for the first 4 decades (1970, 1980, 1990, and 2000). In 2010, the percentage of Asian population was predictive of an increase in total number of violent crimes. The percentage of the Other races population was not predictive of an increase or decrease in the total number of violent crimes for 1970, 1980, 1990, nor 2010.

However, it was statistically significant in 2000 and was predictive of an increase in the total number of violent crimes.

2. What is the percentage immigration population of Georgia in 2010 compared to 1970, 1980, 1990, and 2000?

The percentage of the foreign-born population was statistically significant for all five decades with each decade being predictive of an increase the total number of violent crimes. Each decade the increase was more significant. This means that as the percentage of foreign-born increases it was more predictive of an increase in the total number of violent crimes.

3. What is the relationship between the level of urbanicity and violent crimes over the decades 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010 in Georgia?

The percentage of urbanicity was statistically significant for 1970 and 1980, predicting an increase in the total number of violent crimes. However, in 1990, 2000, and 2010, the percentage of urbanicity was not statistically significant, meaning that as the counties got more urbanized, it was less predictive of an increase in the total number of violent crimes.

The study showed that race had a statistically significant relationship with the total number of violent crimes, but each race had a different type of relationship. The percentage of White population and that of Black population were similar except that an increase in the Black population predicted an increase in the total number of violent crimes while an increase in White population resulted in a decrease. An increase in the percentage of Hispanic population was predictive of a decrease in the total number of

crimes for the last 4 decades. This trend would need to be explored more to see what other factors may have influenced this. The percentage of Asian population and Other races did not have a statistical significance except for 1 decade; therefore, a trend could not be established to determine the effects or what to expect in the next decades.

Based on the study, the relationship between percentage Urbanicity and the total number of violent crimes showed a trend of increasing urbanicity predicted a decrease in total number of violent crimes. As the counties became more urbanized, the number of violent crimes decreased. The most significant relationship that was observed was between the percentage of foreign-born and the total number of violent crimes. There was an increase in the total number of violent crimes when the percentage of foreign-born increased for all the decades, and the numbers increased with each decade. This may be indicative of a trend, but would need to be explored with other factors as well. Therefore, it can be stated that race, legal immigration, and level of urbanicity have a significant relationship with the total number of violent crimes, in the state of Georgia, for the decades 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010.

Limitations of the Study

This study focused on the percentage of race, immigrants (foreign-born), and urbanicity of the counties in Georgia in determining what may predict an increase in the total number of violent crimes. This did not take into account other factors such as gender, age, education level, or household income that may also factor into predicting the total number of violent crimes for the state. Another limitation of the study was the fact that not all counties were reporting crimes from the first decade. This means that the total

number of violent crimes for each county in the first couple decades may not be accurate. The statistical tests that were run could not account for this; therefore, a full representation of all the counties in Georgia was not present in the first couple of decades. Another limitation was the fact that the different types of violent crimes were not analyzed with the predictor variables. This would have given a more accurate representation of the relationship between the predictor variables and the types of violent crimes. To explore that relationship would have required more than 50 statistical tests to account for every variable. This study also focused on the total number of violent crimes and not the crime rate. The crime rate would give a more accurate picture of how many violent crimes were committed per every 100 individual, therefore accounting for the increased total population as well.

Another limitation of this research was that the most recent decade (2020) was not included in it. There are several reasons for this. The 2020 census is not yet published and also the crime statistics for the last three years (2018-2020) are not available as well.

Recommendations

For future studies, researchers should examine other factors that may predict or affect the total number of violent crimes. This will help to narrow down the probable cause(s) for an increase in the total number of violent crimes. Examining other variables will help to eliminate or include other possible causes for increase in violent crimes.

Another area that can be explored is the crime data from the counties that did not report to the UCR in the earlier decades. Researchers can determine if the data exists and where it can be located. Some counties may have reported to other agencies. Future researchers

should also determine where those counties reported (if they reported), and also whether they were in existence in those years as well.

Several other variables or factors can be explored to determine contributing factors to any increase in the total number of violent crimes. Future studies should include exploration of the different types of violent crimes with the predictor variables. This will help to determine if the predictor variables affect all types of violent crimes or just specific ones, and if so, which. Adding other predictor variables such as age, sex, income, and education level and exploring them against the types of violent crimes can also help to explain more specifically who, what, and where is the cause for any increase in violent crimes. Studying these additional variables against crime rate will give a more accurate perspective on the dynamic relationship between violent crimes and immigration. Future studies should include the latest decade (2020) when the census and the crime statistics for the most recent years become available.

Implications for Social Change

Understanding what the root cause(s) for increases in violent crimes is one of the main objectives for local and state law enforcement officers, as well public officials such as mayors, state representatives, and senators. Finding the factors that cause or contribute to these crimes will allow these officials to have a better understanding of how to remedy the problem. This study will help these stakeholders to update old policies or make new ones to adjust to the findings so that they can better counter violent crimes in the communities.

The purpose of this study was to explore some factors in the social disorganization theory that have been researched and known to contribute to crimes. The findings of this study provide local and state authorities with a foundation for the relationship between immigration and violent crimes. It also provides an indication of where to find likely increases in violent crimes. They can gather the necessary tools to help address the needs of the various counties so as to help reduce violent crimes. From this study they can implement new programs to address the needs of the communities and help lower violent crimes. It also informs them as to what else needs to be studied to gain an improved understanding of the root cause of violent crime.

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Appendix A: 1970 SPSS Output

Regression**Descriptive Statistics**

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 1970	108.74	320.841	159
URBANICITY 1970	29.38	26.176	159
PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1970	.27	.403	159
COMPUTE BLK_PERCENTAGE_1970= BLK_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	.3001	.17712	159
COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1970= WHT_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	.6973	.17669	159
COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1970= HISP_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	.0011	.00318	159
COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1970= ASIAN_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	.0005	.00078	159
COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1970= OTHER_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	.0009	.00163	159

Correlations

	TTL VIOLEN T CRIMES 1970	URBANI CITY 1970	FOREIG N-BORN 1970	OPULAT ION1970	OPULAT ION1970	OPULAT ION1970	ULATIO N1970	ULATIO N1970
Pearson Correlation	1.000	.350	.296	.033	-.036	.072	.196	.091
	URBANICITY 1970	1.000	.530	-.046	.038	.246	.350	.242
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN- BORN 1970	.296	1.000	-.180	.159	.644	.761	.731
	COMPUTE BLK_PERCEN TAGE_1970=B LK_1970/TOTA LPOPULATION 1970	.033	-.046	-.180	1.000	-1.000	-.080	-.110
	COMPUTE WHT_PERCEN TAGE_1970=W HT_1970/TOTA LPOPULATION 1970	-.036	.038	.159	-1.000	1.000	.053	.056

	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1970=HISP_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	.072	.246	.644	-.080	.053	1.000	.612	.723
	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1970=ASIAN_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	.196	.350	.761	-.078	.056	.612	1.000	.723
	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1970=OTHER_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	.091	.242	.731	-.110	.085	.723	.723	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 1970	.	.000	.000	.341	.327	.185	.007	.126
	URBANICITY 1970	.000	.	.000	.282	.317	.001	.000	.001
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1970	.000	.000	.	.012	.023	.000	.000	.000
	COMPUTE BLK_PERCENTAGE_1970=BLK_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	.341	.282	.012	.	.000	.159	.163	.083

COMPUTE BLK_PERCEN TAGE_1970=B LK_1970/TOTA LPOPULATION 1970	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159
COMPUTE WHT_PERCEN TAGE_1970=W HT_1970/TOTA LPOPULATION 1970	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159
COMPUTE HISP_PERCEN TAGE_1970=HI SP_1970/TOTA LPOPULATION 1970	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159
COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCE NTAGE_1970= ASIAN_1970/T OTALPOPULA TION1970	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159
COMPUTE OTHER_PERC ENTAGE_1970 =OTHER_1970/ TOTALPOPUL ATION1970	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics		
					R-squaredChange	F Change	df1
1	.411 ^a	.169	.137	298.139	.169	5.163	6

Model Summary

Model	Change Statistics	
	df2	Sig. F Change
1	152	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1970=OTHER_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970, COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1970=WHT_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970, URBANICITY 1970, COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1970=HISP_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970, COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1970=ASIAN_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970, PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1970

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2753541.652	6	458923.609	5.163	.000 ^b
	Residual	13510812.780	152	88886.926		
	Total	16264354.430	158			

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 1970

b. Predictors: (Constant), COMPUTE

OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1970=OTHER_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970, COMPUTE
 WHT_PERCENTAGE_1970=WHT_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970, URBANICITY 1970,
 COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1970=HISP_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970, COMPUTE
 ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1970=ASIAN_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970, PERCENTAGE
 FOREIGN-BORN 1970

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients		
1	(Constant)	91.337	102.199		.894	.373
	URBANICITY 1970	2.676	1.107	.218	2.417	.017
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1970	280.962	116.749	.353	2.407	.017
	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1970 =WHT_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	-150.165	137.118	-.083	-1.095	.275
	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1970 =HISP_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	-11543.326	11191.506	-.114	-1.031	.304
	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1970=ASIAN_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	17065.695	50828.842	.042	.336	.738

COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1970=OTHER_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	-31537.160	26096.345	-.160	-1.208	.229
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Coefficients^a

95.0% Confidence Interval for B

Model		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	-110.576	293.251
	URBANICITY 1970	.489	4.863
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1970	50.301	511.622
	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1970=WHT_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	-421.067	120.738
	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1970=HISP_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	-33654.316	10567.664
	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1970=ASIAN_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	-83356.541	117487.930
	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1970=OTHER_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	-83095.550	20021.231

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 1970

Excluded Variables^a

Model	Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics Tolerance
1	COMPUTE BLK_PERCENTAGE_1970= BLK_1970/TOTALPOPULAT ION1970	.b	.	.	.000

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 1970

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), COMPUTE

OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1970=OTHER_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970, COMPUTE

WHT_PERCENTAGE_1970=WHT_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970, URBANICITY 1970, COMPUTE

HISP_PERCENTAGE_1970=HISP_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970, COMPUTE

ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1970=ASIAN_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970, PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1970

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1970=OTHER_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1970=WHT_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	URBANICITY 1970	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1970=HISP_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970
0				

1	Correlations	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_ 1970=OTHER_1970/TOT ALPOPULATION1970	1.000	.004	.198	-.420
		COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_19 70=WHT_1970/TOTALP OPULATION1970	.004	1.000	.071	.045
		URBANICITY 1970	.198	.071	1.000	.034
		COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_19 70=HISP_1970/TOTALP OPULATION1970	-.420	.045	.034	1.000
		COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1 970=ASIAN_1970/TOTAL POPULATION1970	-.295	.086	.006	-.075
		PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1970	-.332	-.184	-.483	-.175
		Covariances	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_ 1970=OTHER_1970/TOT ALPOPULATION1970	681019218.40 0	12602.440	5721.542
COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_19 70=WHT_1970/TOTALP OPULATION1970	12602.440		18801.240	10.714	68962.268	
URBANICITY 1970	5721.542		10.714	1.225	415.792	

COMPUTE	-	68962.268	415.792	125249799.00
HISP_PERCENTAGE_1970=HISP_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	122528532.90	0		0
COMPUTE	-	601287.590	321.526	-
ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1970=ASIAN_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	391458519.20	0		42929335.100
PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1970	-1012754.715	-2949.552	-62.411	-229024.919

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model		COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1970=ASIAN_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1970
1	Correlations	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1970=OTHER_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	-.295 -.332
		COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1970=WHT_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	.086 -.184
		URBANICITY 1970	.006 -.483
		COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1970=HISP_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	-.075 -.175

	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1970=ASIAN_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	1.000	-.419
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1970	-.419	1.000
Covariances	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1970=OTHER_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	-391458519.200	-1012754.715
	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1970=WHT_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	601287.590	-2949.552
	URBANICITY 1970	321.526	-62.411
	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1970=HISP_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	-42929335.100	-229024.919
	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1970=ASIAN_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970	2583571223.000	-2483934.041
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1970	-2483934.041	13630.378

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 1970

Appendix B: 1980 SPSS Output

Regression**Descriptive Statistics**

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
TTL VIOLENT CRIME 1980	272.62	982.408	159
URBANICITY 1980	30.61	26.612	159
PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1980	.92	.758	159
COMPUTE BLK_PERCENTAGE_1980= BLK_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980	.2813	.17329	159
COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1980= WHT_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980	.7134	.17299	159
COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1980= HISP_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980	.0019	.00490	159
COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1980= ASIAN_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980	.0018	.00229	159
COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1980= OTHER_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980	.0016	.00234	159

Correlations

	TTL VIOLENT CRIME 1980	URBANICITY 1980	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1980	COMPUTE BLK_PERCENTAGE_1980=BLACK_1980/TOTALPOPULATION 1980	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1980=WHITE_1980/TOTALPOPULATION 1980	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1980=ASIAN_1980/TOTALPOPULATION 1980	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1980=OTHER_1980/TOTALPOPULATION 1980	COMPUTE HISPANIC_PERCENTAGE_1980=HISPANIC_1980/TOTALPOPULATION 1980	COMPUTE AMERICAN_INDIAN_PERCENTAGE_1980=AMERICAN_INDIAN_1980/TOTALPOPULATION 1980
Pearson Correlation	1.000	.385	.377	.020	-.027	.088	.382	.010	
		1.000	.534	.029	-.047	.318	.608	.053	
			1.000	.139	-.174	.684	.855	.314	
				1.000	-.999	.003	-.032	-.181	
					1.000	-.047	-.004	.149	

	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1980=HISP_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980	.088	.318	.684	.003	-.047	1.000	.677	.502
	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1980=ASIAN_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980	.382	.608	.855	-.032	-.004	.677	1.000	.283
	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1980=OTHER_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980	.010	.053	.314	-.181	.149	.502	.283	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	TTL VIOLENT CRIME 1980	.	.000	.000	.402	.366	.136	.000	.451
	URBANICITY 1980	.000	.	.000	.357	.278	.000	.000	.254
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1980	.000	.000	.	.040	.014	.000	.000	.000
	COMPUTE BLK_PERCENTAGE_1980=BLK_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980	.402	.357	.040	.	.000	.487	.343	.011

COMPUTE BLK_PERCEN TAGE_1980=B LK_1980/TOTA LPOPULATION 1980	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159
COMPUTE WHT_PERCEN TAGE_1980=W HT_1980/TOTA LPOPULATION 1980	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159
COMPUTE HISP_PERCEN TAGE_1980=HI SP_1980/TOTA LPOPULATION 1980	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159
COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCE NTAGE_1980= ASIAN_1980/T OTALPOPULA TION1980	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159
COMPUTE OTHER_PERC ENTAGE_1980 =OTHER_1980/ TOTALPOPUL ATION1980	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCE NTAGE_1980=O THER_1980/TO TALPOPULATIO N1980, URBANICITY 1980, COMPUTE WHT_PERCENT AGE_1980=WH T_1980/TOTALP OPULATION198 0, COMPUTE HISP_PERCEN TAGE_1980=HI SP_1980/TOTAL POPULATION19 80, PERCENTAGE FOREIGN- BORN 1980, COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCE NTAGE_1980=A SIAN_1980/TOT ALPOPULATIO N1980 ^b		. Enter

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIME 1980

b. Tolerance = .000 limit reached.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics		
					R-squaredChange	F Change	df1
1	.499 ^a	.249	.220	867.884	.249	8.408	6

Model Summary

Model	Change Statistics	
	df2	Sig. F Change
1	152	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1980=OTHER_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980, URBANICITY 1980, COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1980=WHT_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980, COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1980=HISP_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980, PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1980, COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1980=ASIAN_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	38000148.430	6	6333358.071	8.408	.000 ^b
	Residual	114489760.900	152	753222.111		
	Total	152489909.400	158			

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIME 1980

b. Predictors: (Constant), COMPUTE

OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1980=OTHER_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980, URBANICITY 1980,
 COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1980=WHT_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980, COMPUTE
 HISP_PERCENTAGE_1980=HISP_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980, PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-
 BORN 1980, COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1980=ASIAN_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients		
1	(Constant)	-469.219	355.443		-1.320	.189
	URBANICITY 1980	6.857	3.339	.186	2.053	.042
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN- BORN 1980	425.383	194.690	.328	2.185	.030
	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1980 =WHT_1980/TOTALPOPUL ATION1980	127.202	434.429	.022	.293	.770
	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1980 =HISP_1980/TOTALPOPUL ATION1980	-69812.274	22138.000	-.349	-3.154	.002
	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_198 0=ASIAN_1980/TOTALPOP ULATION1980	95570.158	67463.406	.223	1.417	.159

COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_19 80=OTHER_1980/TOTALP OPULATION1980	2270.351	35373.771	.005	.064	.949
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Coefficients^a

95.0% Confidence Interval for B

Model		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	-1171.464	233.027
	URBANICITY 1980	.260	13.454
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1980	40.735	810.031
	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1980=WHT_1980/TO TALPOPULATION1980	-731.096	985.500
	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1980=HISP_1980/TO TALPOPULATION1980	-113550.186	-26074.361
	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1980=ASIAN_1980/ TOTALPOPULATION1980	-37716.883	228857.199
	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1980=OTHER_198 0/TOTALPOPULATION1980	-67617.393	72158.095

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIME 1980

Excluded Variables^a

Model	Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics Tolerance
1	COMPUTE BLK_PERCENTAGE_1980= BLK_1980/TOTALPOPULAT ION1980	.b	.	.	.000

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIME 1980

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), COMPUTE

OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1980=OTHER_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980, URBANICITY 1980, COMPUTE

WHT_PERCENTAGE_1980=WHT_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980, COMPUTE

HISP_PERCENTAGE_1980=HISP_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980, PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1980,

COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1980=ASIAN_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model	COMPUTE OTHER_PER CENTAGE_19 80=OTHER_1 980/TOTALPO PULATION198 0	URBANICITY 1980	COMPUTE WHT_PERCE NTAGE_1980 =WHT_1980/T OTALPOPULA TION1980	COMPUTE HISP_PERCE NTAGE_1980 =HISP_1980/T OTALPOPULA TION1980

1	Correlations	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_ 1980=OTHER_1980/TOT ALPOPULATION1980	1.000	.093	-.223	-.407
		URBANICITY 1980	.093	1.000	.021	.121
		COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_19 80=WHT_1980/TOTALP OPULATION1980	-.223	.021	1.000	.067
		COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_19 80=HISP_1980/TOTALP OPULATION1980	-.407	.121	.067	1.000
		PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1980	-.109	-.073	.337	-.209
		COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1 980=ASIAN_1980/TOTAL POPULATION1980	.099	-.362	-.280	-.286
		Covariances	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_ 1980=OTHER_1980/TOT ALPOPULATION1980	1251303654.0 00	10939.437	-3431586.421
	URBANICITY 1980	10939.437	11.151	30.269	8917.167	
	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_19 80=WHT_1980/TOTALP OPULATION1980	-3431586.421	30.269	188728.194	646429.450	

COMPUTE	-	8917.167	646429.450	490091057.50
HISP_PERCENTAGE_1980=HISP_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980	318993156.30			0
PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1980	-749957.306	-47.243	28535.312	-900562.611
COMPUTE	235351895.30	-81586.848	-8192504.367	-
ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1980=ASIAN_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980	0			426425261.80
				0

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model		PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1980	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1980=ASIAN_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980
1	Correlations		
	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1980=OTHER_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980	-.109	.099
	URBANICITY 1980	-.073	-.362
	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1980=WHT_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980	.337	-.280
	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1980=HISP_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980	-.209	-.286
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1980	1.000	-.676

	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1980=ASIA N_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980	-0.676	1.000
Covariances	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1980=OT HER_1980/TOTALPOPULATION19 80	-749957.306	235351895.300
	URBANICITY 1980	-47.243	-81586.848
	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1980=WHT_ 1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980	28535.312	-8192504.367
	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1980=HISP_ 1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980	-900562.611	-426425261.800
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1980	37904.176	-8875636.383
	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1980=ASIA N_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980	-8875636.383	4551311131.000

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIME 1980

Appendix C: 1990 SPSS Output

Regression**Descriptive Statistics**

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 1990	476.14	1729.630	159
URBANICITY 1990	32.82	26.084	159
PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1990	1.13	1.235	159
COMPUTE BLK_PERCENTAGE_1990= BLK_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990	.2730	.17263	159
COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1990= WHT_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990	.7097	.17157	159
COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1990= HISP_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990	.0112	.01244	159
COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1990= ASIAN_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990	.0040	.00573	159
COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1990= OTHER_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990	.0022	.00208	159

Correlations

	TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 1990	URBANI CITY 1990	FOREIG N-BORN 1990	COMPU TE BLK_PE RCENT AGE_19 90=BLK _1990/T OTALP OPULAT ION1990	COMPU TE WHT_P ERCEN TAGE_1 990=WH T_1990/ TOTALP OPULAT ION1990	COMPU TE HISP_P ERCEN TAGE_1 990=HIS P_1990/ TOTALP OPULAT ION1990	COMPU TE ASIAN_ PERCE NTAGE_ 1990=A SIAN_19 90/TOT ALPOP ULATIO N1990	COMPU TE OTHER _PERCE NTAGE_ 1990=O THER_1 990/TOT ALPOP ULATIO N1990
Pearson Correlation	1.000	.436	.534	.069	-.100	.170	.546	.021
	URBANICITY 1990	1.000	.500	.020	-.062	.307	.583	.039
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN- BORN 1990	.534	1.000	-.112	.026	.775	.815	.250
	COMPUTE BLK_PERCEN TAGE_1990=B LK_1990/TOTA LPOPULATION 1990	.069	.020	1.000	-.995	-.058	-.120	-.229
	COMPUTE WHT_PERCEN TAGE_1990=W HT_1990/TOTA LPOPULATION 1990	-.100	-.062	.026	1.000	-.035	.049	.188

	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1990=HISP_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990	.170	.307	.775	-.058	-.035	1.000	.507	.326
	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1990=ASIAN_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990	.546	.583	.815	-.120	.049	.507	1.000	.197
	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1990=OTHER_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990	.021	.039	.250	-.229	.188	.326	.197	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 1990	.	.000	.000	.194	.104	.016	.000	.396
	URBANICITY 1990	.000	.	.000	.402	.218	.000	.000	.314
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1990	.000	.000	.	.080	.372	.000	.000	.001
	COMPUTE BLK_PERCENTAGE_1990=BLK_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990	.194	.402	.080	.	.000	.234	.065	.002

COMPUTE BLK_PERCEN TAGE_1990=B LK_1990/TOTA LPOPULATION 1990	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159
COMPUTE WHT_PERCEN TAGE_1990=W HT_1990/TOTA LPOPULATION 1990	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159
COMPUTE HISP_PERCEN TAGE_1990=HI SP_1990/TOTA LPOPULATION 1990	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159
COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCE NTAGE_1990= ASIAN_1990/T OTALPOPULA TION1990	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159
COMPUTE OTHER_PERC ENTAGE_1990 =OTHER_1990/ TOTALPOPUL ATION1990	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCE NTAGE_1990=O THER_1990/TO TALPOPULATIO N1990, URBANICITY 1990, COMPUTE WHT_PERCENT AGE_1990=WH T_1990/TOTALP OPULATION199 0, COMPUTE HISP_PERCEN TAGE_1990=HI SP_1990/TOTAL POPULATION19 90, COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCE NTAGE_1990=A SIAN_1990/TOT ALPOPULATIO N1990, PERCENTAGE FOREIGN- BORN 1990 ^b		. Enter

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 1990

b. Tolerance = .000 limit reached.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics		
					R-squaredChange	F Change	df1
1	.688 ^a	.473	.452	1280.117	.473	22.741	6

Model Summary

Model	Change Statistics	
	df2	Sig. F Change
1	152	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1990=OTHER_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990, URBANICITY_1990, COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1990=WHT_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990, COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1990=HISP_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990, COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1990=ASIAN_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990, PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1990

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	223593634.900	6	37265605.820	22.741	.000 ^b
	Residual	249082376.000	152	1638699.842		
	Total	472676011.000	158			

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 1990

b. Predictors: (Constant), COMPUTE

OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1990=OTHER_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990, URBANICITY 1990,

COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1990=WHT_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990, COMPUTE

HISP_PERCENTAGE_1990=HISP_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990, COMPUTE

ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1990=ASIAN_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990, PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1990

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients		
1	(Constant)	627.908	472.017		1.330	.185
	URBANICITY 1990	9.049	4.860	.136	1.862	.065
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1990	1235.157	207.572	.882	5.950	.000
	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1990=WHT_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990	-1397.099	612.677	-.139	-2.280	.024
	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1990=HISP_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990	-81681.853	14254.415	-.588	-5.730	.000
	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1990=ASIAN_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990	15771.065	34611.189	.052	.456	.649

COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_19 90=OTHER_1990/TOTALPO PULATION1990	2305.826	53247.432	.003	.043	.966
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Coefficients^a

95.0% Confidence Interval for B

Model		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	-304.652	1560.469
	URBANICITY 1990	-.552	18.650
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1990	825.058	1645.255
	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1990=WHT_1990/TO TALPOPULATION1990	-2607.561	-186.637
	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1990=HISP_1990/TO TALPOPULATION1990	-109844.214	-53519.492
	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1990=ASIAN_1990/ TOTALPOPULATION1990	-52610.051	84152.181
	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1990=OTHER_199 0/TOTALPOPULATION1990	-102894.803	107506.455

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 1990

Excluded Variables^a

Model	Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Tolerance
1	COMPUTE BLK_PERCENTAGE_1990= BLK_1990/TOTALPOPULAT ION1990	.b	.	.	.000

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 1990

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), COMPUTE

OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1990=OTHER_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990, URBANICITY 1990, COMPUTE

WHT_PERCENTAGE_1990=WHT_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990, COMPUTE

HISP_PERCENTAGE_1990=HISP_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990, COMPUTE

ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1990=ASIAN_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990, PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1990

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model	COMPUTE OTHER_PER CENTAGE_19 90=OTHER_1 990/TOTALPO PULATION199 0	URBANICITY 1990	COMPUTE WHT_PERCE NTAGE_1990 =WHT_1990/T OTALPOPULA TION1990	COMPUTE HISP_PERCE NTAGE_1990 =HISP_1990/T OTALPOPULA TION1990
1	Correlations COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_ 1990=OTHER_1990/TOT ALPOPULATION1990	1.000	.079	-.202
	URBANICITY 1990	.079	1.000	.095
			.095	1.000
				-.242

	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_19 90=WHT_1990/TOTALP OPULATION1990				
	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_19 90=HISP_1990/TOTALP OPULATION1990				
	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1 990=ASIAN_1990/TOTAL POPULATION1990				
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1990				
Covariances	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_ 1990=OTHER_1990/TOT ALPOPULATION1990	2835289064.0 00	20429.799	-6592091.109	- 183934668.30 0
	URBANICITY 1990	20429.799	23.615	281.375	1433.339
	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_19 90=WHT_1990/TOTALP OPULATION1990	-6592091.109	281.375	375373.022	1095099.173
	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_19 90=HISP_1990/TOTALP OPULATION1990	- 183934668.30 0	1433.339	1095099.173	203188344.40 0
	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1 990=ASIAN_1990/TOTAL POPULATION1990	- 159331966.10 0	-55272.176	-745471.242	156415149.70 0

PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1990	655082.682	-61.307	-7297.528	-2121214.347
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Coefficient Correlations^a

Model		COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1990=ASIAN_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1990
1	Correlations	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1990=OTHER_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990	.059
		URBANICITY 1990	-.061
		COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1990=WHT_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990	-.057
		COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1990=HISP_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990	-.717
		COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1990=ASIAN_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990	-.710
		PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1990	1.000
			-.086
			-.329
			-.035
			.317
			1.000
			-.710
			1.000

Covariances	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_1990=OTHER_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990	-159331966.100	655082.682
	URBANICITY 1990	-55272.176	-61.307
	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1990=WHT_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990	-745471.242	-7297.528
	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1990=HISP_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990	156415149.700	-2121214.347
	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1990=ASIAN_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990	1197934410.000	-5101886.464
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 1990	-5101886.464	43086.107

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 1990

Appendix D: 2000 SPSS Output

Regression**Descriptive Statistics**

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 2000	887.11	3277.206	159
URBANICITY 2000	35.89	28.547	159
PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2000	3.06	3.158	159
COMPUTE BLK_PERCENTAGE_2000= BLK_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	.2739	.17388	159
COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_2000= WHT_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	.6750	.16946	159
COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_2000= HISP_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	.0336	.03527	159
COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2000= ASIAN_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	.0064	.00903	159
COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2000= OTHER_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	.0109	.00505	159

Correlations

	TTL VIOLEN T CRIMES 2000	URBANI CITY 2000	FOREIG N-BORN 2000	OPULAT ION2000	OPULAT ION2000	OPULAT ION2000	ULATIO N2000	ULATIO N2000
Pearson Correlation	1.000	.423	.503	.147	-.233	.204	.594	.276
	URBANICITY 2000	1.000	.456	.050	-.146	.231	.656	.366
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN- BORN 2000	.456	1.000	-.216	-.008	.882	.650	.373
	COMPUTE BLK_PERCEN TAGE_2000=B LK_2000/TOTA LPOPULATION 2000	.050	-.216	1.000	-.971	-.216	-.068	-.198
	COMPUTE WHT_PERCEN TAGE_2000=W HT_2000/TOTA LPOPULATION 2000	-.233	-.146	-.008	-.971	1.000	-.012	-.086

	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_2000=HISP_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	.204	.231	.882	-.216	-.012	1.000	.311	.296
	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2000=ASIAN_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	.594	.656	.650	-.068	-.063	.311	1.000	.489
	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2000=OTHER_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	.276	.366	.373	-.198	.086	.296	.489	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 2000	.	.000	.000	.032	.002	.005	.000	.000
	URBANICITY 2000	.000	.	.000	.264	.033	.002	.000	.000
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2000	.000	.000	.	.003	.459	.000	.000	.000
	COMPUTE BLK_PERCENTAGE_2000=BLK_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	.032	.264	.003	.	.000	.003	.199	.006

COMPUTE BLK_PERCEN TAGE_2000=B LK_2000/TOTA LPOPULATION 2000	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159
COMPUTE WHT_PERCEN TAGE_2000=W HT_2000/TOTA LPOPULATION 2000	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159
COMPUTE HISP_PERCEN TAGE_2000=HI SP_2000/TOTA LPOPULATION 2000	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159
COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCE NTAGE_2000= ASIAN_2000/T OTALPOPULA TION2000	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159
COMPUTE OTHER_PERC ENTAGE_2000 =OTHER_2000/ TOTALPOPUL ATION2000	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCE NTAGE_2000=O THER_2000/TO TALPOPULATIO N2000, COMPUTE WHT_PERCENT AGE_2000=WH T_2000/TOTALP OPULATION200 0, COMPUTE HISP_PERCEN TAGE_2000=HI SP_2000/TOTAL POPULATION20 00, URBANICITY 2000, COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCE NTAGE_2000=A SIAN_2000/TOT ALPOPULATIO N2000, PERCENTAGE FOREIGN- BORN 2000 ^b		. Enter

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 2000

b. Tolerance = .000 limit reached.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics		
					R-squaredChange	F Change	df1
1	.765 ^a	.585	.569	2152.125	.585	35.730	6

Model Summary

Model	Change Statistics	
	df2	Sig. F Change
1	152	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2000=OTHER_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000, COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_2000=WHT_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000, COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_2000=HISP_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000, URBANICITY 2000, COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2000=ASIAN_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000, PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2000

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	992922610.900	6	165487101.800	35.730	.000 ^b
	Residual	704009429.100	152	4631640.981		
	Total	1696932040.000	158			

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 2000

b. Predictors: (Constant), COMPUTE
 OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2000=OTHER_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000, COMPUTE
 WHT_PERCENTAGE_2000=WHT_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000, COMPUTE
 HISP_PERCENTAGE_2000=HISP_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000, URBANICITY 2000,
 COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2000=ASIAN_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000,
 PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2000

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients		
1	(Constant)	2459.004	816.531		3.012	.003
	URBANICITY 2000	-3.578	8.092	-.031	-.442	.659
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2000	1869.916	222.480	1.802	8.405	.000
	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_2000 =WHT_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	-5144.879	1046.042	-.266	-4.918	.000
	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_2000 =HISP_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	-125996.783	16093.834	-1.356	-7.829	.000
	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2000 =ASIAN_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	-81919.757	43454.725	-.226	-1.885	.061

COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2000=OTHER_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	97791.634	41519.951	.151	2.355	.020
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Coefficients^a

95.0% Confidence Interval for B

Model		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	845.790	4072.219
	URBANICITY 2000	-19.564	12.409
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2000	1430.364	2309.469
	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_2000=WHT_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	-7211.538	-3078.220
	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_2000=HISP_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	-157793.273	-94200.293
	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2000=ASIAN_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	-167772.994	3933.480
	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2000=OTHER_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	15760.920	179822.348

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 2000

Excluded Variables^a

Model	Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Tolerance
1	COMPUTE BLK_PERCENTAGE_2000= BLK_2000/TOTALPOPULAT ION2000	.b	.	.	.000

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 2000

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), COMPUTE

OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2000=OTHER_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000, COMPUTE

WHT_PERCENTAGE_2000=WHT_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000, COMPUTE

HISP_PERCENTAGE_2000=HISP_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000, URBANICITY 2000, COMPUTE

ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2000=ASIAN_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000, PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2000

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model	COMPUTE OTHER_PER CENTAGE_20 00=OTHER_2 000/TOTALPO PULATION200 0	COMPUTE WHT_PERCE NTAGE_2000 =WHT_2000/T OTALPOPULA TION2000	COMPUTE HISP_PERCE NTAGE_2000 =HISP_2000/T OTALPOPULA TION2000	URBANICITY 2000	
1	Correlations COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_ 2000=OTHER_2000/TOT ALPOPULATION2000	1.000	-.180	-.310	-.104
	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_20 00=WHT_2000/TOTALP OPULATION2000	-.180	1.000	.151	.160

	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_2000=HISP_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	-.310	.151	1.000	.074
	URBANICITY 2000	-.104	.160	.074	1.000
	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2000=ASIAN_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	-.403	.127	.709	-.288
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2000	.271	-.156	-.947	-.086
Covariances	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2000=OTHER_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	1723906291.000	-7837166.797	-	-34793.516
	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_2000=WHT_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	-7837166.797	1094203.768	2545600.005	1355.029
	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_2000=HISP_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	-	2545600.005	259011486.100	9636.621
	URBANICITY 2000	-34793.516	1355.029	9636.621	65.476
	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2000=ASIAN_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	-	5787901.051	495841051.000	-101129.418
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2000	2502341.444	-36274.135	-3389411.012	-155.382

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model		COMPUTE		
		ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2000	
1	Correlations	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2000=OTHER_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	-403	.271
		COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_2000=WHT_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	.127	-.156
		COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_2000=HISP_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	.709	-.947
		URBANICITY 2000	-.288	-.086
		COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2000=ASIAN_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	1.000	-.780
		PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2000	-.780	1.000
		Covariances	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2000=OTHER_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	-726542194.900
COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_2000=WHT_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	5787901.051		-36274.135	

COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_2000=HISP_ 2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	495841051.000	-3389411.012
URBANICITY 2000	-101129.418	-155.382
COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2000=ASIA N_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000	1888313159.000	-7543843.232
PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2000	-7543843.232	49497.337

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 2000

Appendix E: 2010 SPSS Output

Regression**Descriptive Statistics**

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 2010	1000.21	3360.266	159
URBANICITY 2010	39.51	28.964	159
PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2010	4.71	3.944	159
COMPUTE BLK_PERCENTAGE_2010= BLK_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	.2765	.17400	159
COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_2010= WHT_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	.6400	.17157	159
COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_2010= HISP_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	.0574	.05311	159
COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2010= ASIAN_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	.0104	.01309	159
COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2010= OTHER_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	.0158	.00644	159

Correlations

	TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 2010	URBANICITY 2010	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2010	COMPUTE BLK_PERCENTAGE_2010=BLACK_2010/TOTALPOPULATION 2010	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_2010=WHITE_2010/TOTALPOPULATION 2010	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2010=ASIAN_2010/TOTALPOPULATION 2010	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2010=OTHER_2010/TOTALPOPULATION 2010	COMPUTE HISPANIC_PERCENTAGE_2010=HISPANIC_2010/TOTALPOPULATION 2010	COMPUTE AMERICAN_INDIAN_PERCENTAGE_2010=AMERICAN_INDIAN_2010/TOTALPOPULATION 2010
Pearson Correlation	1.000	.427	.532	.169	-.297	.219	.644	.220	
		1.000	.495	.124	-.269	.248	.652	.455	
			1.000	-.152	-.154	.780	.701	.371	
				1.000	-.938	-.219	-.011	-.203	
					1.000	-.121	-.181	.062	

	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_2010=HISP_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	.219	.248	.780	-.219	-.121	1.000	.325	.242
	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2010=ASIAN_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	.644	.652	.701	-.011	-.181	.325	1.000	.418
	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2010=OTHER_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	.220	.455	.371	-.203	.062	.242	.418	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 2010	.	.000	.000	.017	.000	.003	.000	.003
	URBANICITY 2010	.000	.	.000	.060	.000	.001	.000	.000
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2010	.000	.000	.	.028	.026	.000	.000	.000
	COMPUTE BLK_PERCENTAGE_2010=BLK_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	.017	.060	.028	.	.000	.003	.446	.005

COMPUTE BLK_PERCEN TAGE_2010=B LK_2010/TOTA LPOPULATION 2010	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159
COMPUTE WHT_PERCEN TAGE_2010=W HT_2010/TOTA LPOPULATION 2010	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159
COMPUTE HISP_PERCEN TAGE_2010=HI SP_2010/TOTA LPOPULATION 2010	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159
COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCE NTAGE_2010= ASIAN_2010/T OTALPOPULA TION2010	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159
COMPUTE OTHER_PERC ENTAGE_2010 =OTHER_2010/ TOTALPOPUL ATION2010	159	159	159	159	159	159	159	159

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCE NTAGE_2010=O THER_2010/TO TALPOPULATIO N2010, COMPUTE WHT_PERCENT AGE_2010=WH T_2010/TOTALP OPULATION201 0, COMPUTE HISP_PERCEN TAGE_2010=HI SP_2010/TOTAL POPULATION20 10, COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCE NTAGE_2010=A SIAN_2010/TOT ALPOPULATIO N2010, URBANICITY 2010, PERCENTAGE FOREIGN- BORN 2010 ^b		. Enter

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 2010

b. Tolerance = .000 limit reached.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics		
					R-squaredChange	F Change	df1
1	.697 ^a	.485	.465	2457.748	.485	23.891	6

Model Summary

Model	Change Statistics	
	df2	Sig. F Change
1	152	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2010=OTHER_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010, COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_2010=WHT_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010, COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_2010=HISP_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010, COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2010=ASIAN_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010, URBANICITY 2010, PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2010

ANOVA^a

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
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1	Regression	865879667.300	6	144313277.900	23.891	.000 ^b
	Residual	918159974.800	152	6040526.150		
	Total	1784039642.000	158			

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 2010

b. Predictors: (Constant), COMPUTE

OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2010=OTHER_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010, COMPUTE

WHT_PERCENTAGE_2010=WHT_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010, COMPUTE

HISP_PERCENTAGE_2010=HISP_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010, COMPUTE

ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2010=ASIAN_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010, URBANICITY 2010,

PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2010

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Coefficients		
1	(Constant)	1904.942	942.883		2.020	.045
	URBANICITY 2010	-4.893	9.557	-.042	-.512	.609
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2010	395.941	121.559	.465	3.257	.001
	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_2010 =WHT_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	-3801.676	1218.370	-.194	-3.120	.002
	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_2010 =HISP_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	-18017.907	6818.385	-.285	-2.643	.009

COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2010=ASIAN_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	106193.729	27040.692	.414	3.927	.000
COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2010=OTHER_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	-13378.027	35815.468	-.026	-.374	.709

Coefficients^a

95.0% Confidence Interval for B

Model		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	42.094	3767.790
	URBANICITY 2010	-23.774	13.988
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2010	155.778	636.104
	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_2010=WHT_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	-6208.802	-1394.550
	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_2010=HISP_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	-31488.948	-4546.865
	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2010=ASIAN_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	52769.599	159617.860
	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2010=OTHER_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	-84138.430	57382.376

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 2010

Excluded Variables^a

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics Tolerance
1	COMPUTE BLK_PERCENTAGE_2010= BLK_2010/TOTALPOPULAT ION2010	. ^b000

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 2010

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), COMPUTE

OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2010=OTHER_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010, COMPUTE

WHT_PERCENTAGE_2010=WHT_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010, COMPUTE

HISP_PERCENTAGE_2010=HISP_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010, COMPUTE

ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2010=ASIAN_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010, URBANICITY 2010, PERCENTAGE
FOREIGN-BORN 2010

Coefficient Correlations^a

			COMPUTE	COMPUTE	COMPUTE	COMPUTE
			OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2010=OTHER_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	WHT_PERCENTAGE_2010=WHT_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	HISP_PERCENTAGE_2010=HISP_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2010=ASIAN_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010
Model			0	TION2010	TION2010	ULATION2010
1	Correlations	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2010=OTHER_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	1.000	-.228	-.064	-.109
		COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_2010=WHT_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	-.228	1.000	.077	.046
		COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_2010=HISP_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	-.064	.077	1.000	.448
		COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2010=ASIAN_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	-.109	.046	.448	1.000
		URBANICITY 2010	-.303	.256	.042	-.367
		PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2010	-.013	-.034	-.816	-.654
	Covariances	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2010=OTHER_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	1282747758.00	-9952414.893	-	-
				15705292.030	105583448.80	0

COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_2010=WHT_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	-9952414.893	1484425.514	643525.959	1512613.171
COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_2010=HISP_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	15705292.030	-	643525.959	46490372.130 82593972.500
COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2010=ASIAN_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	105583448.80	0	-	1512613.171 82593972.500 731199014.900
URBANICITY 2010	-103560.861	2982.236	2745.749	-94858.524
PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2010	-57892.027	-5109.259	-676637.013	-2150344.083

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model		URBANICITY 2010	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2010
1	Correlations		
	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2010=OTHER_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	-0.303	-0.013

	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_2010=WHT_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	.256	-.034
	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_2010=HISP_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	.042	-.816
	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2010=ASIAN_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	-.367	-.654
	URBANICITY 2010	1.000	-.049
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2010	-.049	1.000
Covariances	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2010=OTHER_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	-103560.861	-57892.027
	COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_2010=WHT_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	2982.236	-5109.259
	COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_2010=HISP_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	2745.749	-676637.013
	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2010=ASIAN_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010	-94858.524	-2150344.083
	URBANICITY 2010	91.332	-57.046
	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2010	-57.046	14776.577

a. Dependent Variable: TTL VIOLENT CRIMES 2010

Appendix F: Percentage Urbanicity

Statistics

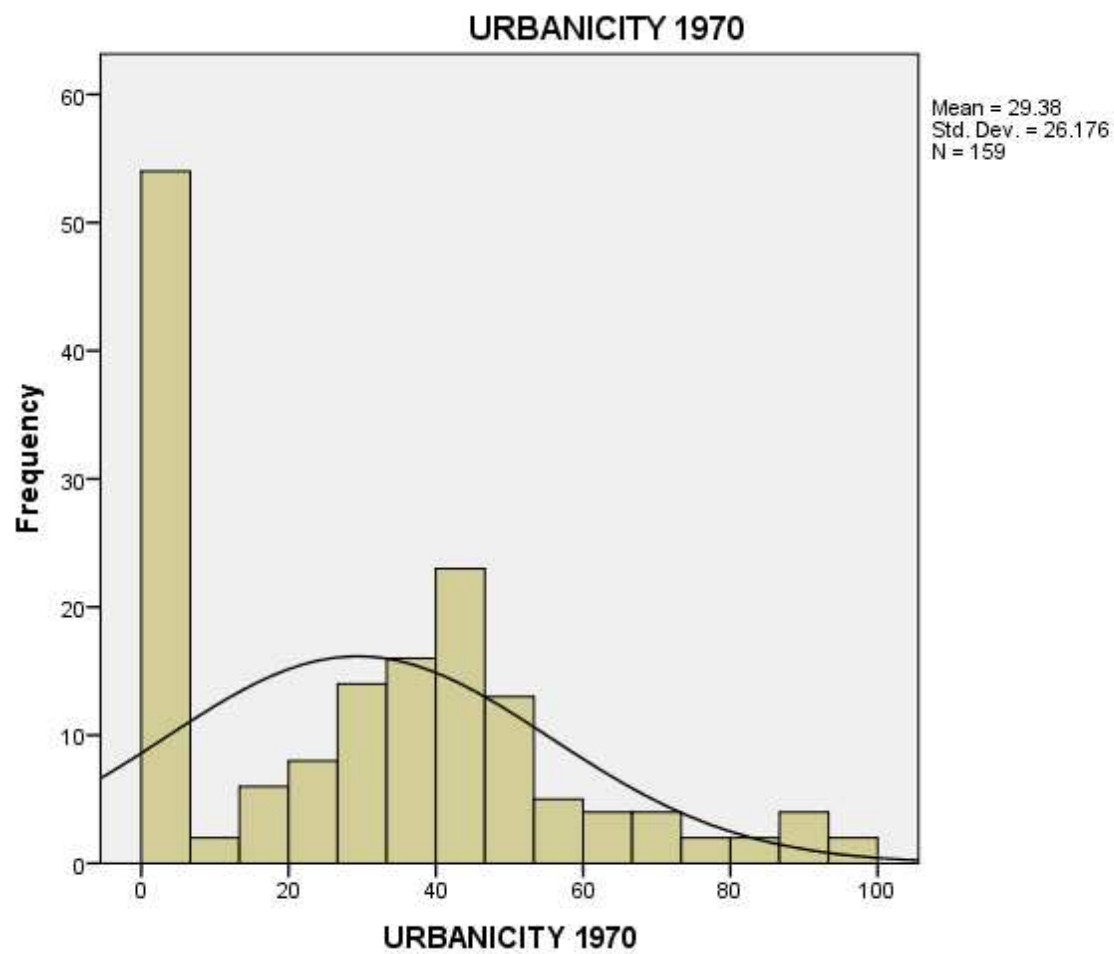
		URBANICITY 1970	URBANICITY 1980	URBANICITY 1990	URBANICITY 2000
N	Valid	159	159	159	159
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		29.38	30.61	32.82	35.89
Std. Error of Mean		2.076	2.110	2.069	2.264
Median		30.50	30.60	33.50	34.70
Mode		0	0	0	0
Std. Deviation		26.176	26.612	26.084	28.547
Variance		685.165	708.214	680.351	814.940
Skewness		.477	.582	.546	.443
Std. Error of Skewness		.192	.192	.192	.192
Kurtosis		-.519	-.240	-.210	-.640
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.383	.383	.383	.383
Range		98	99	98	100
Minimum		0	0	0	0
Maximum		98	99	98	100
Sum		4671	4866	5219	5706

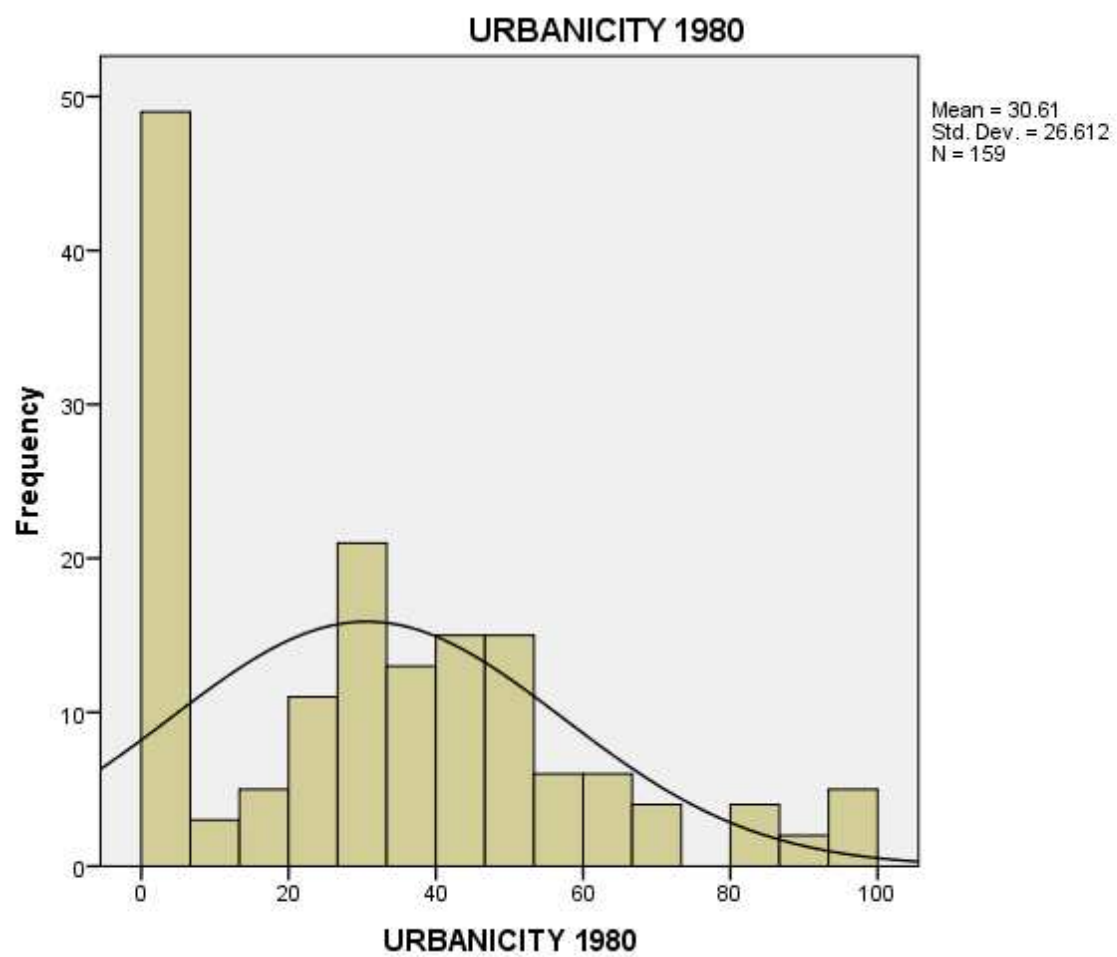
Statistics

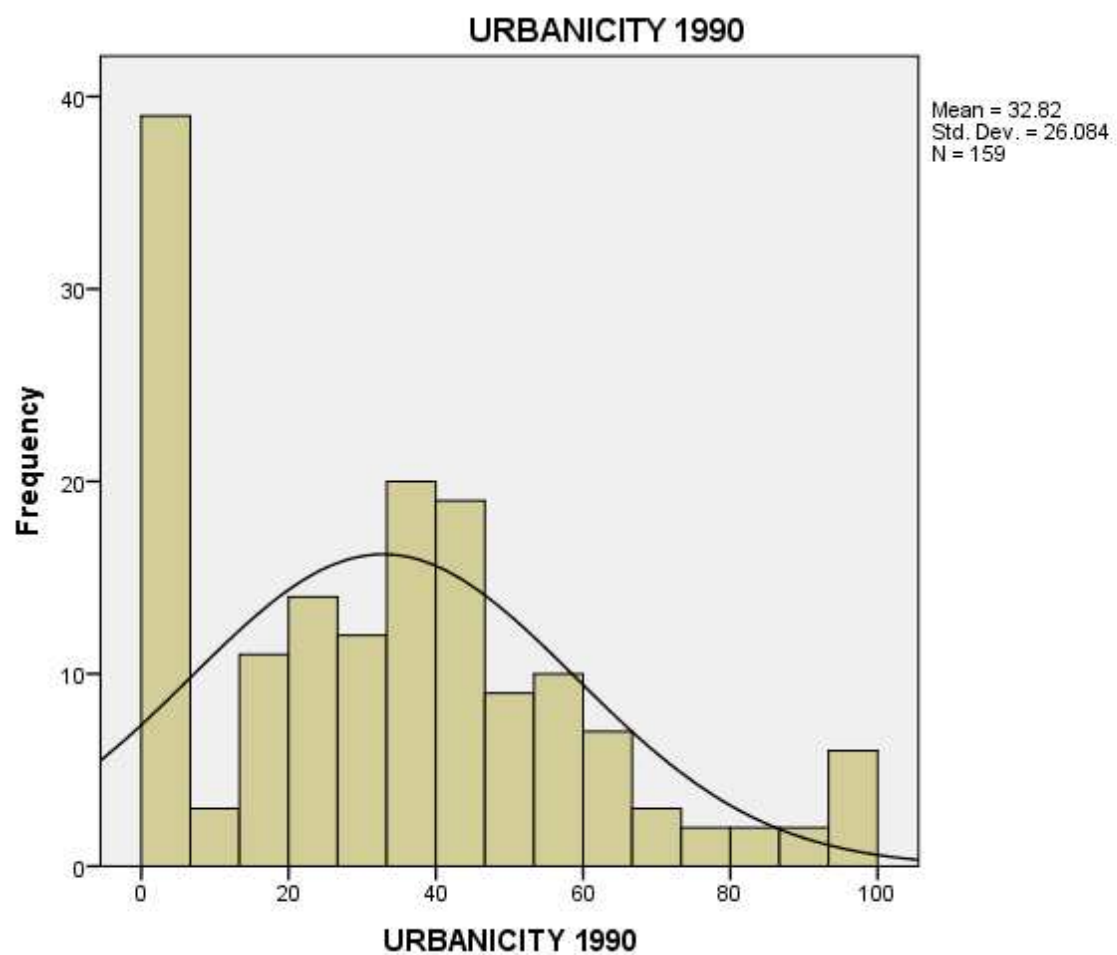
URBANICITY 2010

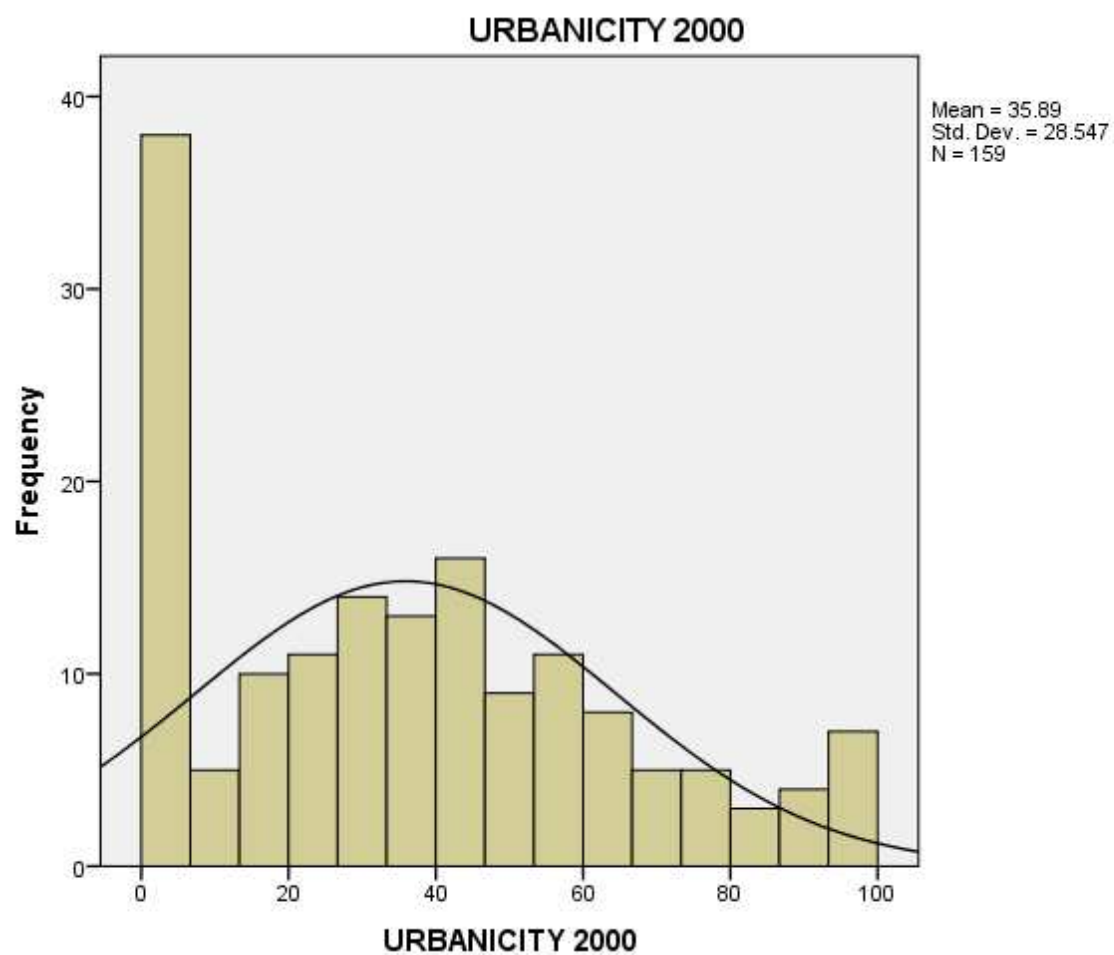
N	Valid	159
	Missing	0
Mean		39.51
Std. Error of Mean		2.297
Median		35.30
Mode		0
Std. Deviation		28.964
Variance		838.912
Skewness		.346
Std. Error of Skewness		.192
Kurtosis		-.774
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.383
Range		100
Minimum		0
Maximum		100
Sum		6282

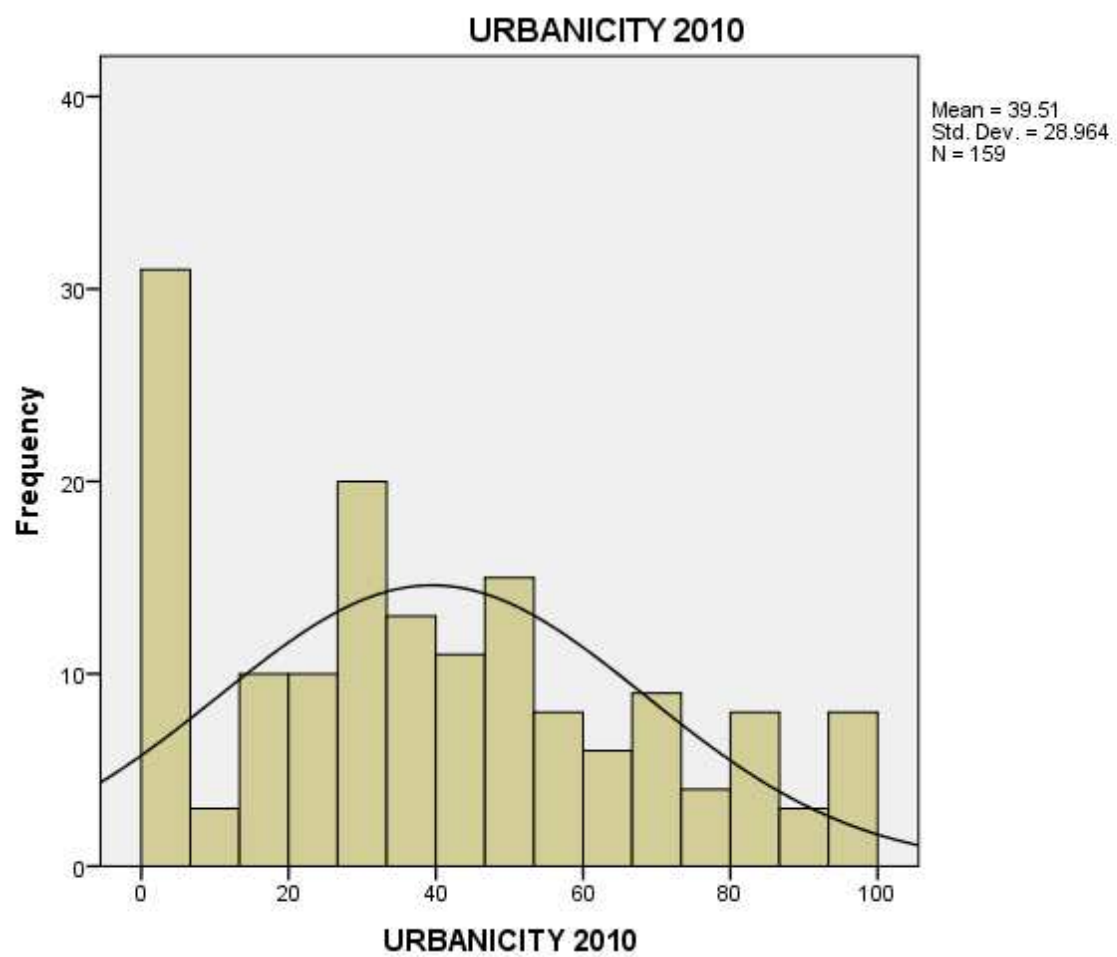
Histogram











Appendix G: Percentage of Foreign-Born Population

		Statistics			
		PERCENTAGE FOREIGN- BORN 1970	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN- BORN 1980	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN- BORN 1990	PERCENTAGE FOREIGN- BORN 2000
N	Valid	159	159	159	159
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		.27	.92	1.13	3.06
Std. Error of Mean		.032	.060	.098	.250
Median		.20	.70	.70	2.00
Mode		0	1	0	1 ^a
Std. Deviation		.403	.758	1.235	3.158
Variance		.162	.575	1.524	9.971
Skewness		3.226	2.622	2.409	2.493
Std. Error of Skewness		.192	.192	.192	.192
Kurtosis		12.749	8.175	6.326	6.981
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.383	.383	.383	.383
Range		3	5	7	17
Minimum		0	0	0	0
Maximum		3	5	7	17
Sum		43	147	179	487

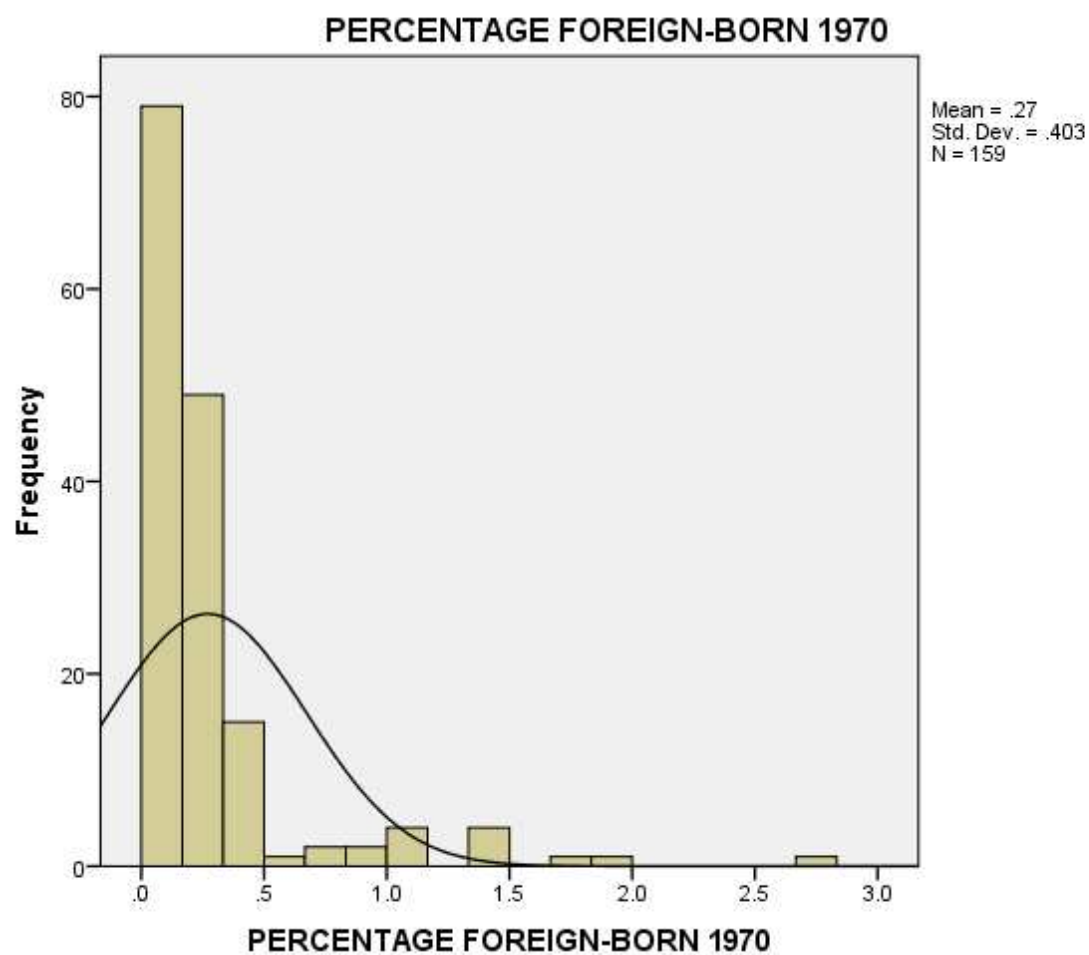
Statistics

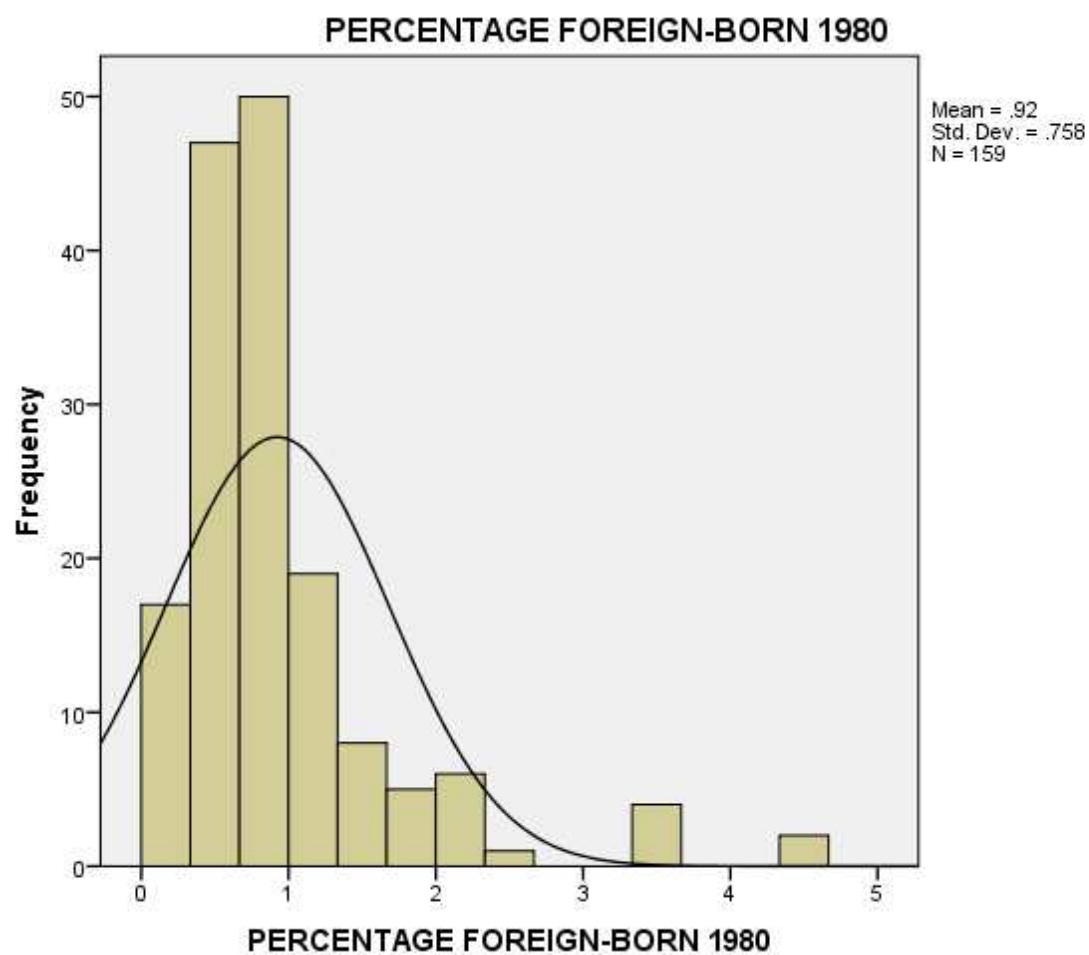
PERCENTAGE FOREIGN-BORN 2010

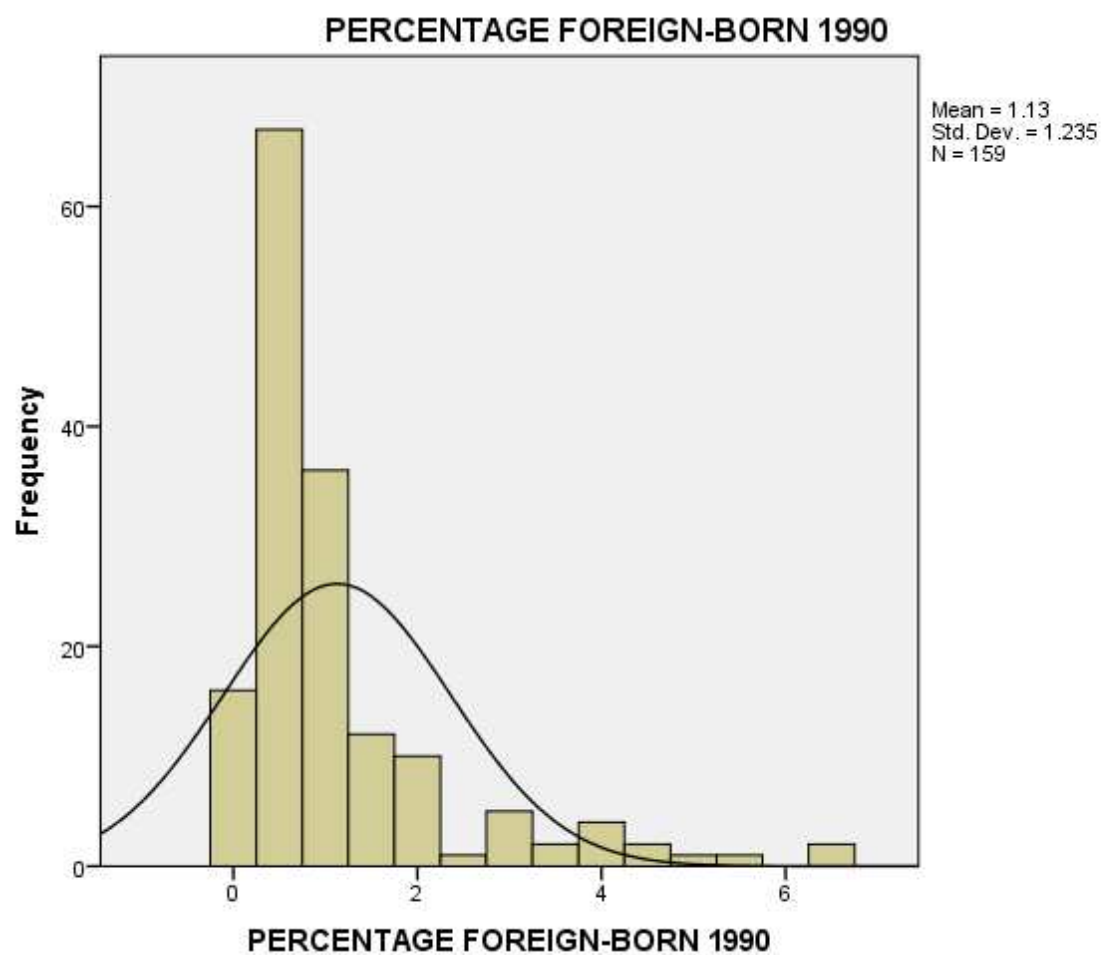
N	Valid	159
	Missing	0
Mean		4.71
Std. Error of Mean		.313
Median		3.60
Mode		2
Std. Deviation		3.944
Variance		15.557
Skewness		2.191
Std. Error of Skewness		.192
Kurtosis		6.081
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.383
Range		25
Minimum		0
Maximum		25
Sum		750

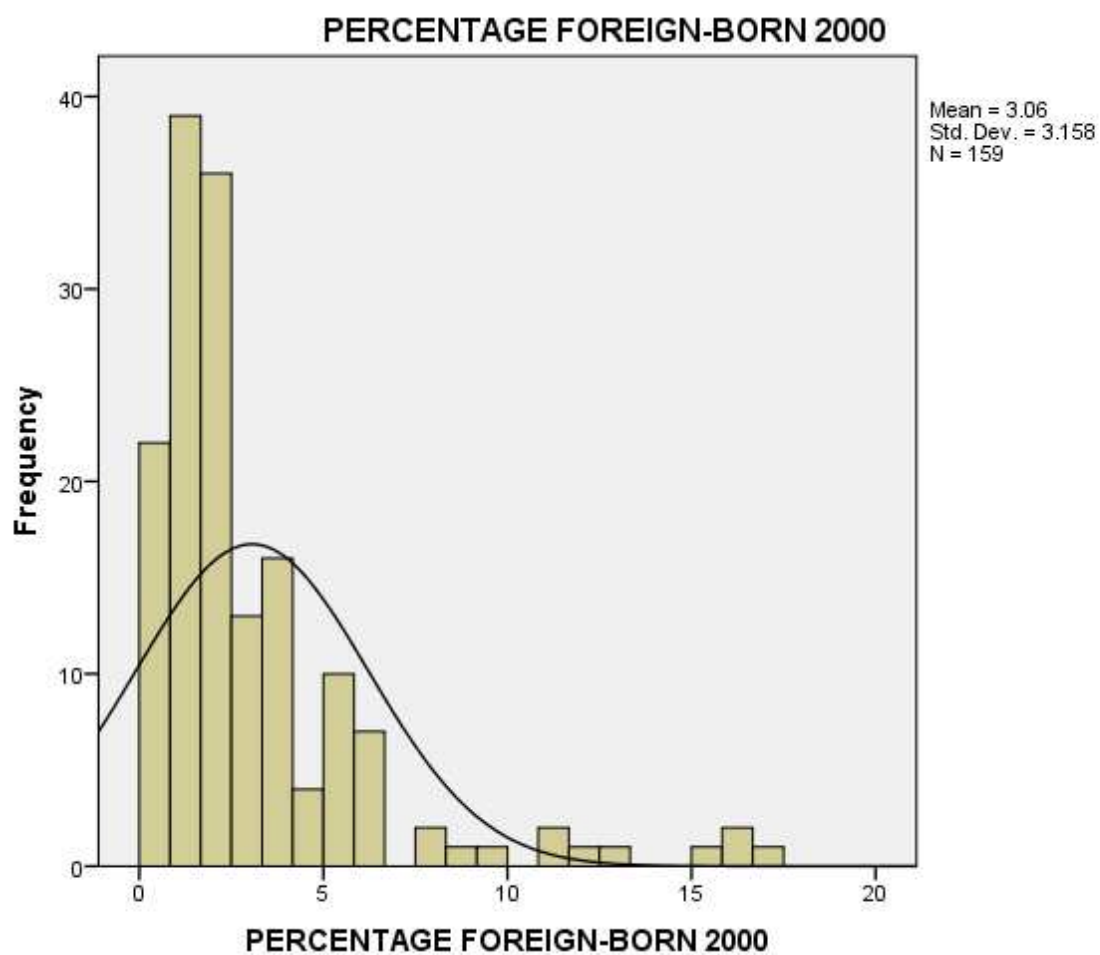
a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

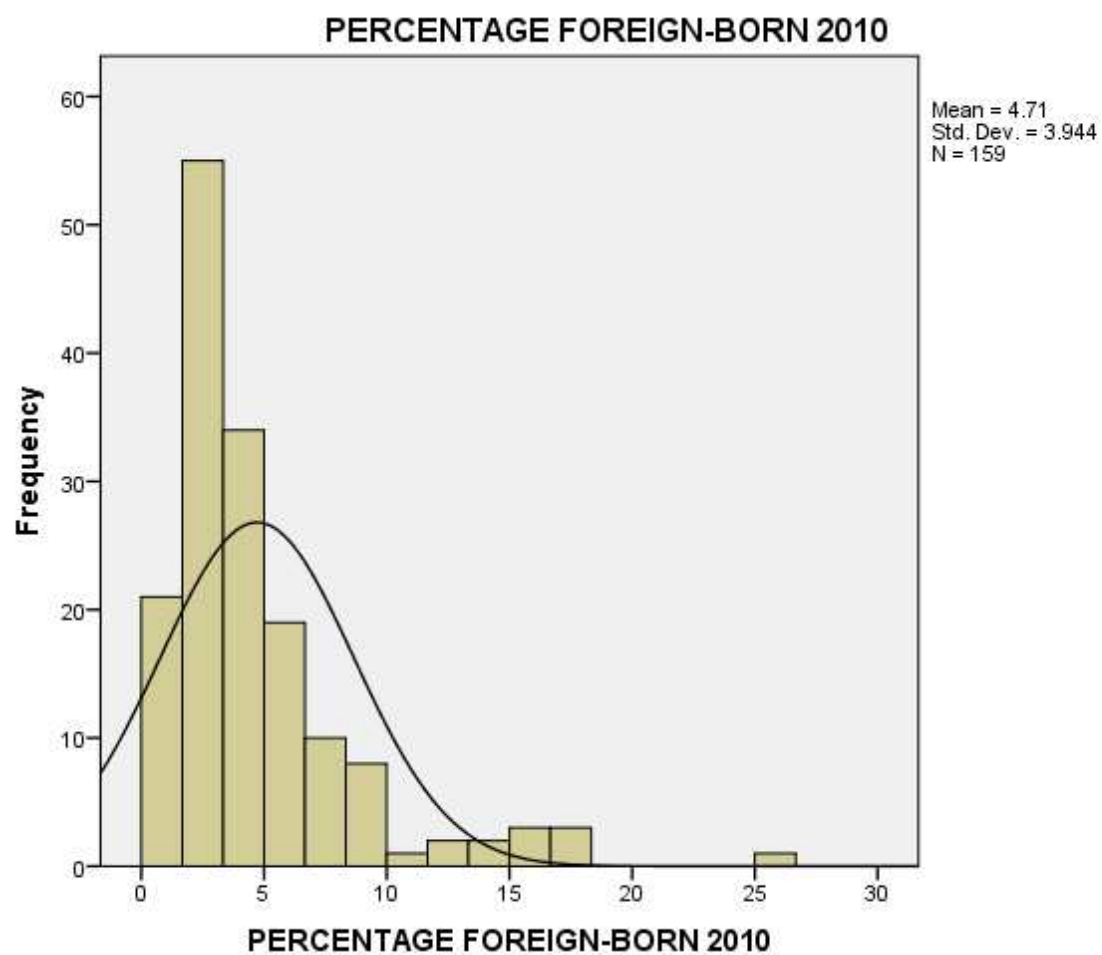
Histogram











Appendix H: Percentage of Black Population

Statistics

		COMPUTE BLK_PERCENT AGE_1970=BLK _1970/TOTALP OPULATION197 0	COMPUTE BLK_PERCENT AGE_1980=BLK _1980/TOTALP OPULATION198 0	COMPUTE BLK_PERCENT AGE_1990=BLK _1990/TOTALP OPULATION199 0	COMPUTE BLK_PERCENT AGE_2000=BLK _2000/TOTALP OPULATION200 0
N	Valid	159	159	159	159
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		.3001	.2813	.2730	.2739
Std. Error of Mean		.01405	.01374	.01369	.01379
Median		.3134	.2943	.2763	.2785
Mode		.00	.00 ^a	.00 ^a	.00 ^a
Std. Deviation		.17712	.17329	.17263	.17388
Variance		.031	.030	.030	.030
Skewness		.089	.183	.242	.265
Std. Error of Skewness		.192	.192	.192	.192
Kurtosis		-.705	-.518	-.538	-.615
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.383	.383	.383	.383
Range		.74	.78	.79	.77
Minimum		.00	.00	.00	.00
Maximum		.74	.78	.79	.78
Sum		47.71	44.73	43.40	43.56

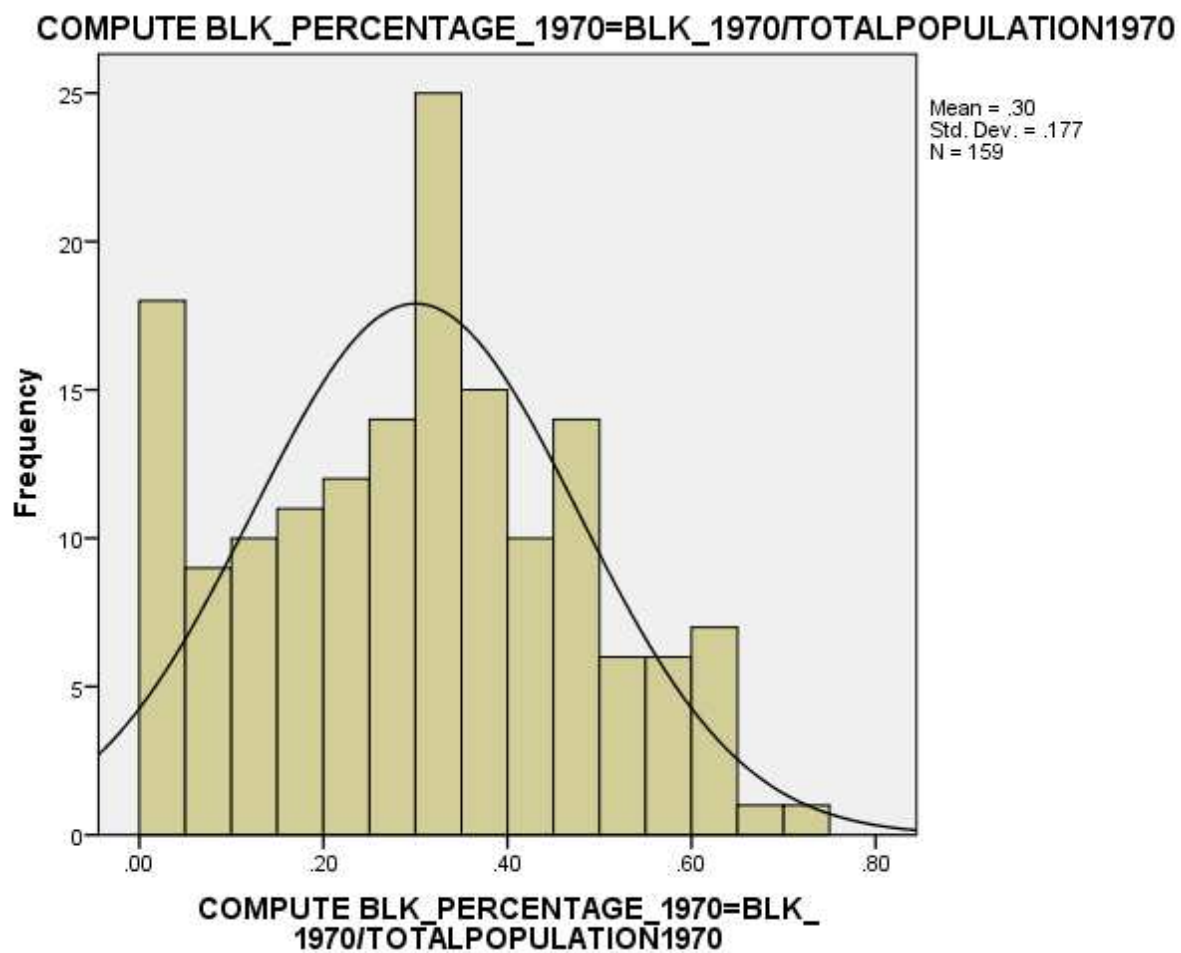
Statistics

COMPUTE
BLK_PERCENTAGE_2010=BLK_2010/TOT
ALPOPULATION2010

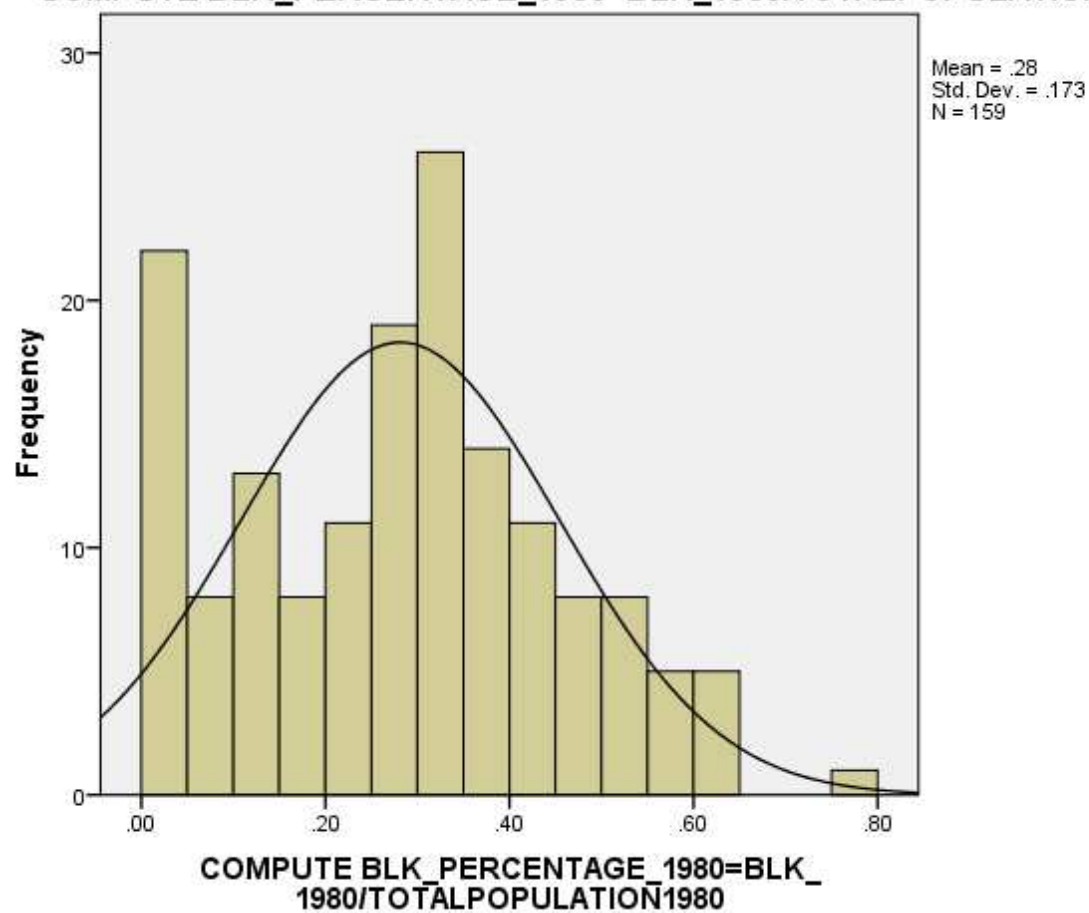
N	Valid	159
	Missing	0
Mean		.2765
Std. Error of Mean		.01380
Median		.2742
Mode		.00 ^a
Std. Deviation		.17400
Variance		.030
Skewness		.272
Std. Error of Skewness		.192
Kurtosis		-.570
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.383
Range		.73
Minimum		.00
Maximum		.74
Sum		43.96

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

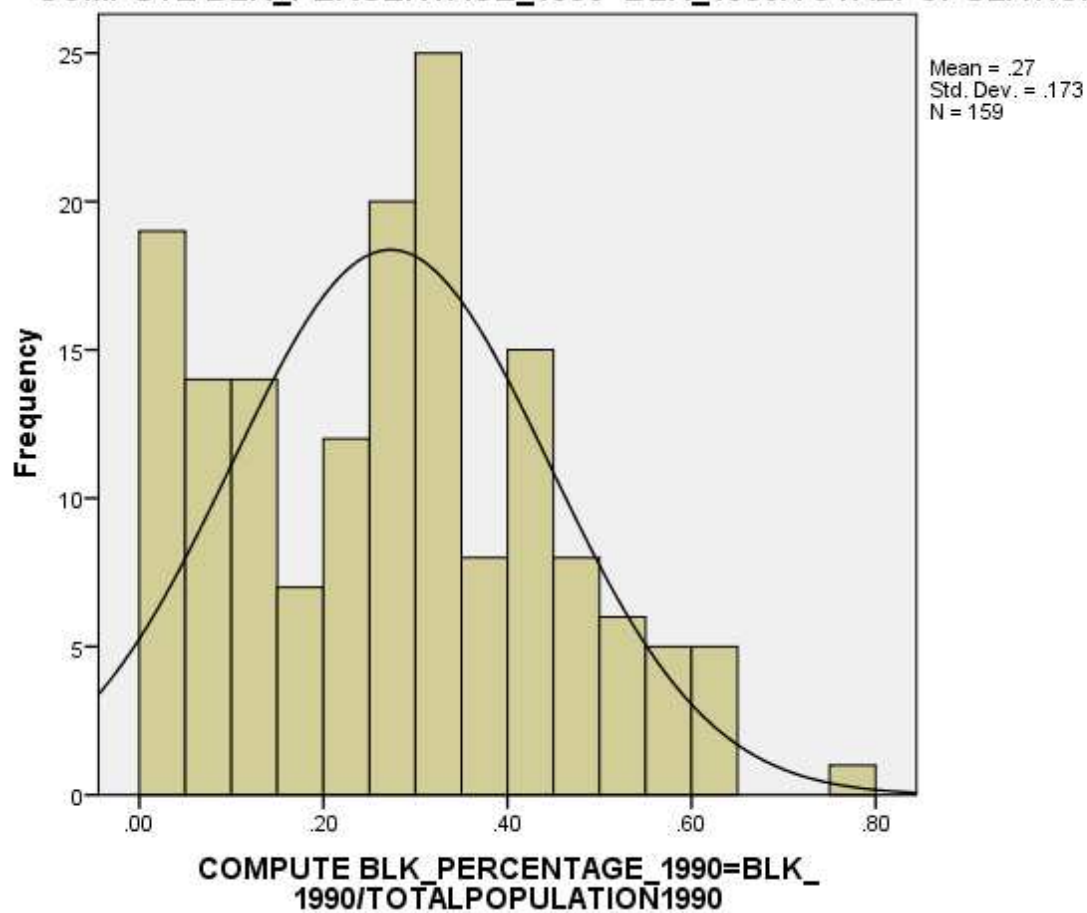
Histogram



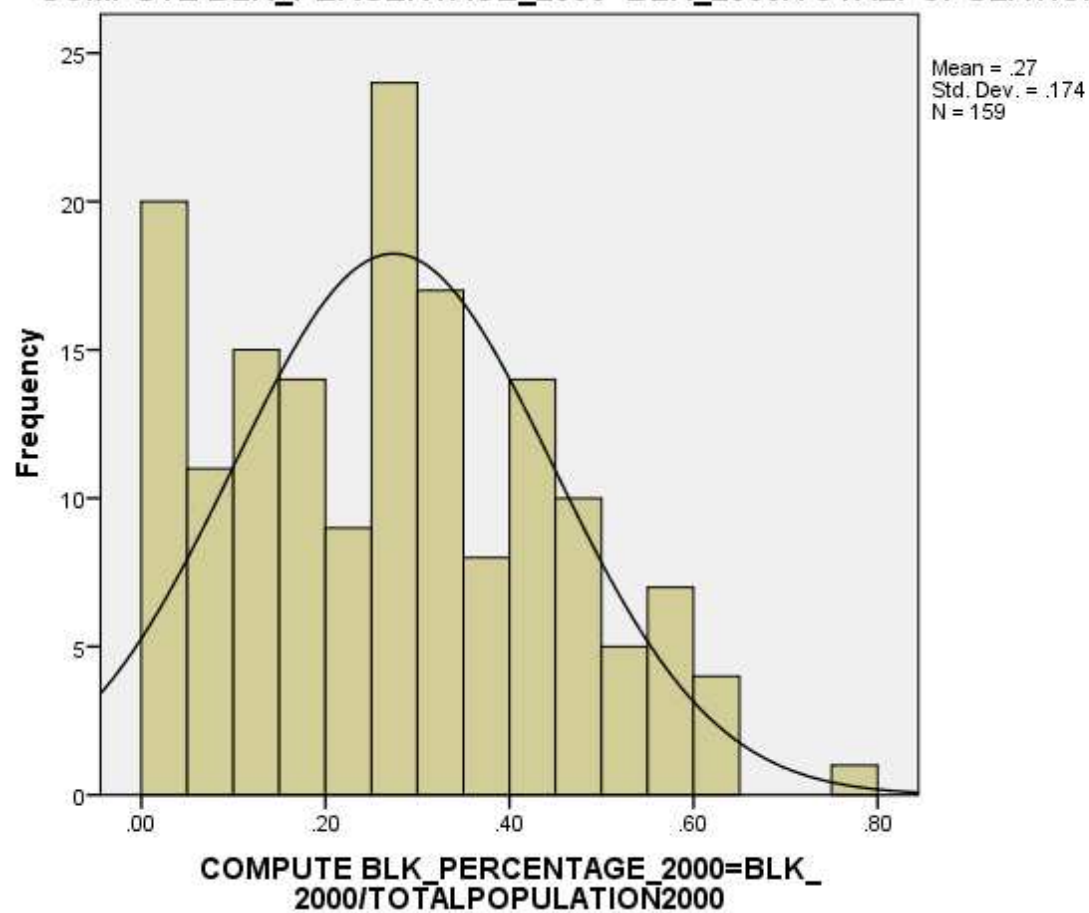
COMPUTE BLK_PERCENTAGE_1980=BLK_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980



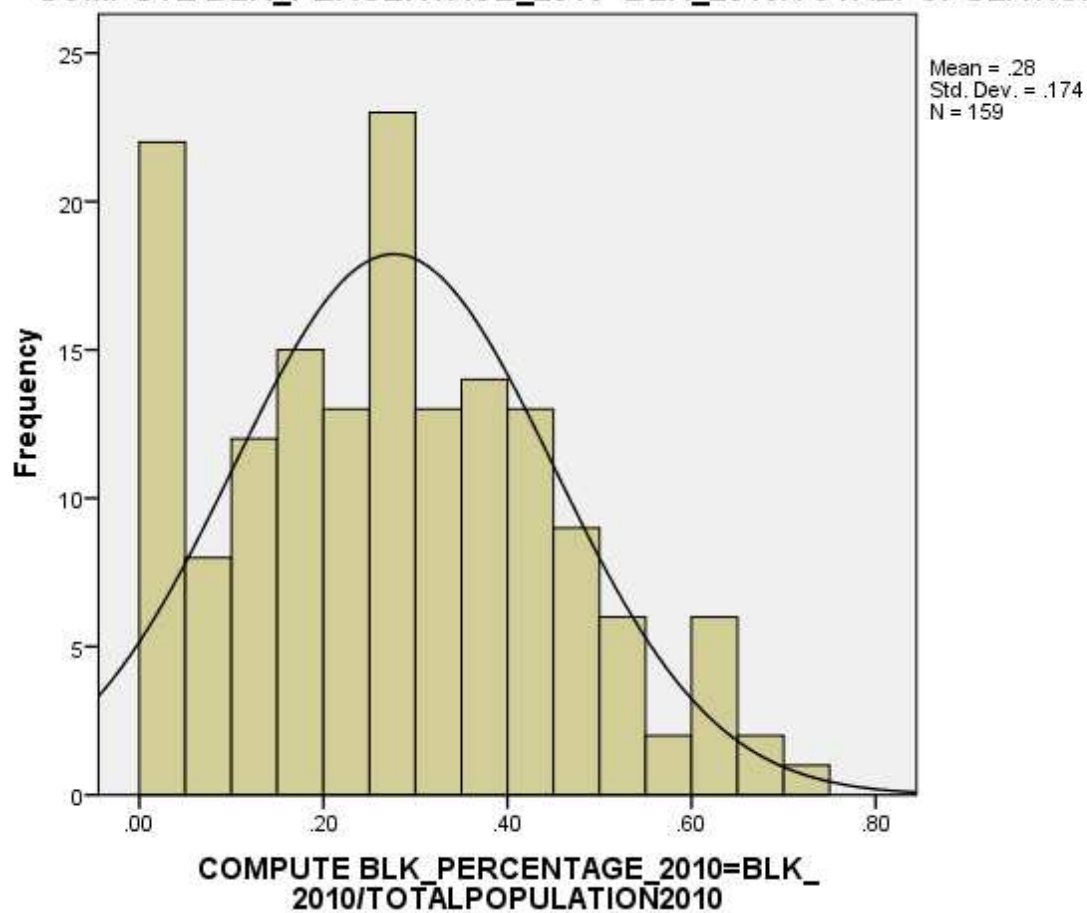
COMPUTE BLK_PERCENTAGE_1990=BLK_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990



COMPUTE BLK_PERCENTAGE_2000=BLK_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000



COMPUTE BLK_PERCENTAGE_2010=BLK_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010



Appendix I: Percentage of White Population

Statistics

		COMPUTE WHT_PERCEN TAGE_1970=W HT_1970/TOTA LPOPULATION 1970	COMPUTE WHT_PERCEN TAGE_1980=W HT_1980/TOTA LPOPULATION 1980	COMPUTE WHT_PERCEN TAGE_1990=W HT_1990/TOTA LPOPULATION 1990	COMPUTE WHT_PERCEN TAGE_2000=W HT_2000/TOTA LPOPULATION 2000
N	Valid	159	159	159	159
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		.6973	.7134	.7097	.6750
Std. Error of Mean		.01401	.01372	.01361	.01344
Median		.6855	.7018	.6988	.6787
Mode		.26 ^a	.22 ^a	.20 ^a	.21 ^a
Std. Deviation		.17669	.17299	.17157	.16946
Variance		.031	.030	.029	.029
Skewness		-.076	-.164	-.184	-.163
Std. Error of Skewness		.192	.192	.192	.192
Kurtosis		-.693	-.549	-.582	-.577
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.383	.383	.383	.383
Range		.74	.78	.79	.77
Minimum		.26	.22	.20	.21
Maximum		1.00	1.00	.99	.98
Sum		110.88	113.43	112.84	107.33

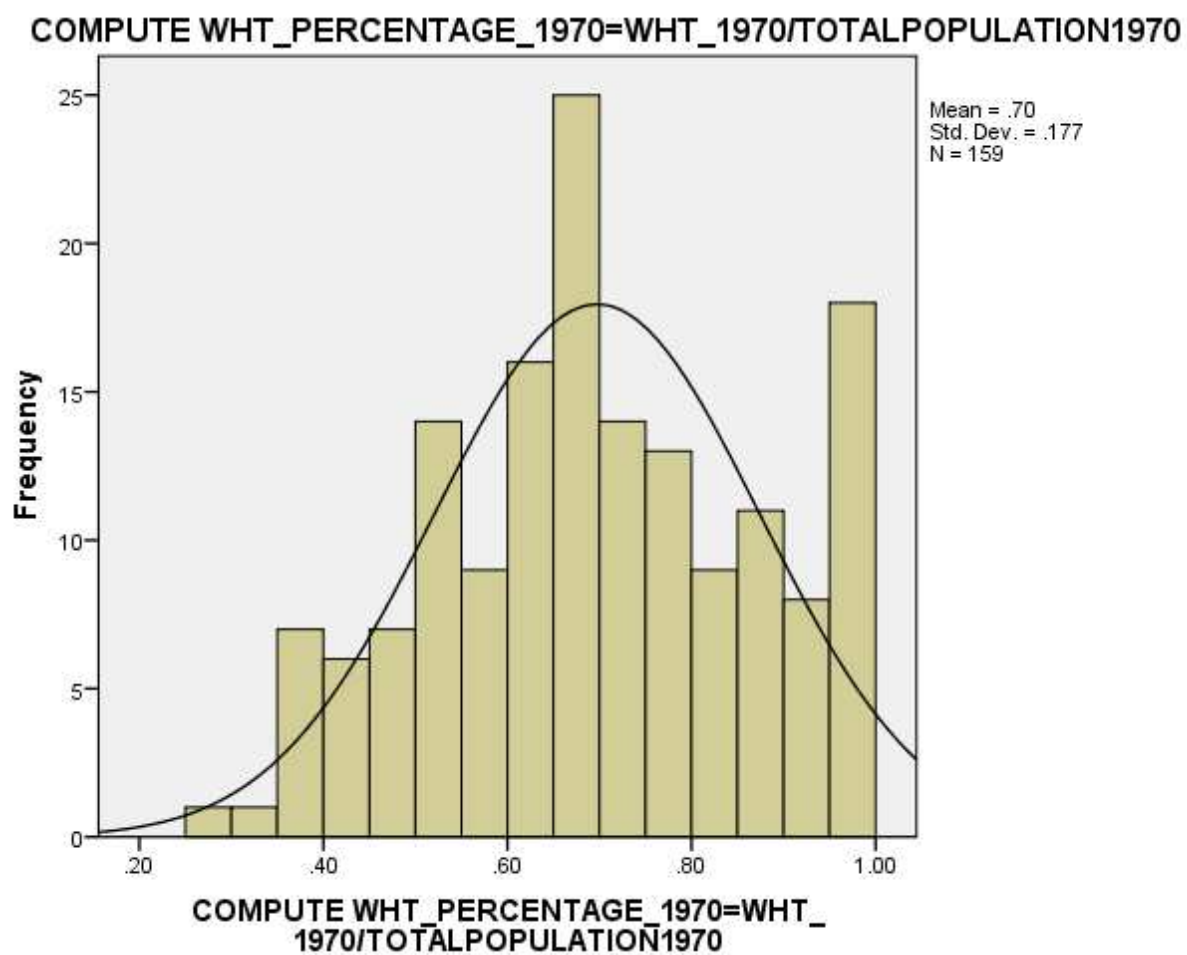
Statistics

COMPUTE
 WHT_PERCENTAGE_2010=WHT_2010/TO
 TALPOPULATION2010

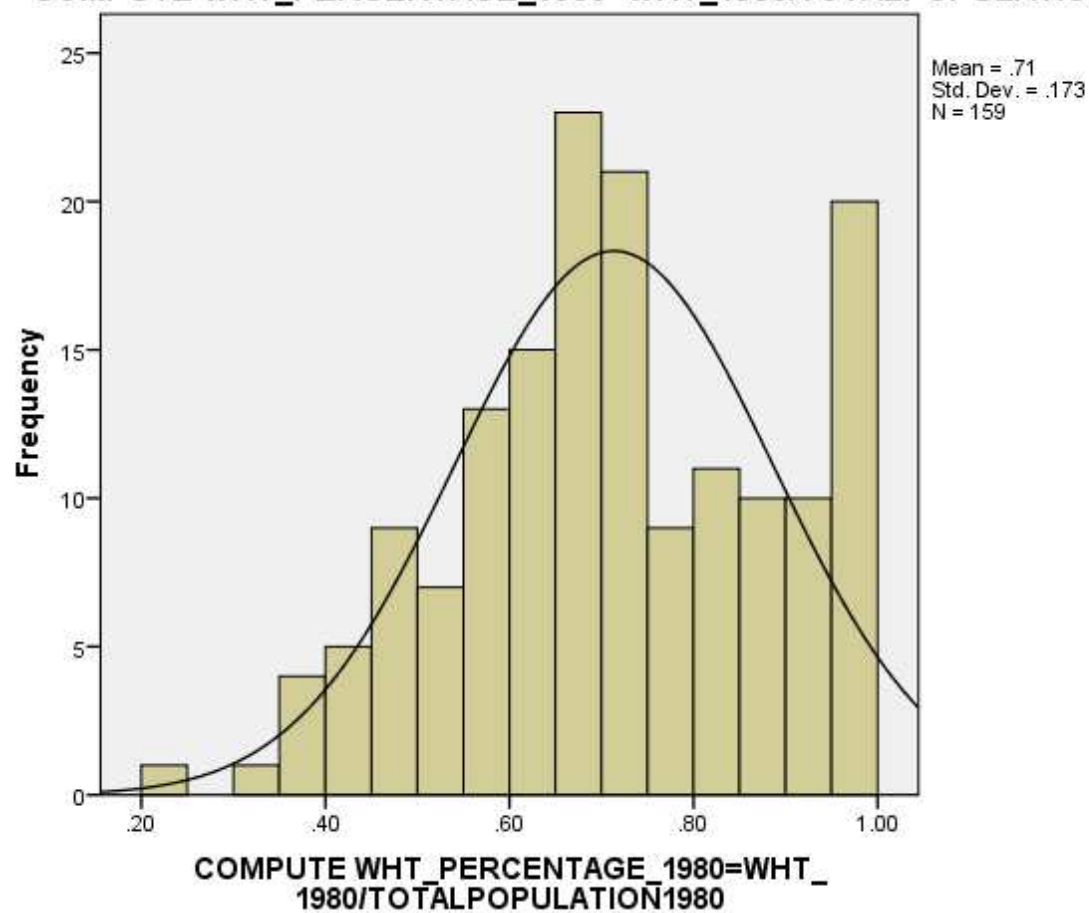
N	Valid	159
	Missing	0
Mean		.6400
Std. Error of Mean		.01361
Median		.6334
Mode		.14 ^a
Std. Deviation		.17157
Variance		.029
Skewness		-.172
Std. Error of Skewness		.192
Kurtosis		-.300
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.383
Range		.82
Minimum		.14
Maximum		.96
Sum		101.76

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

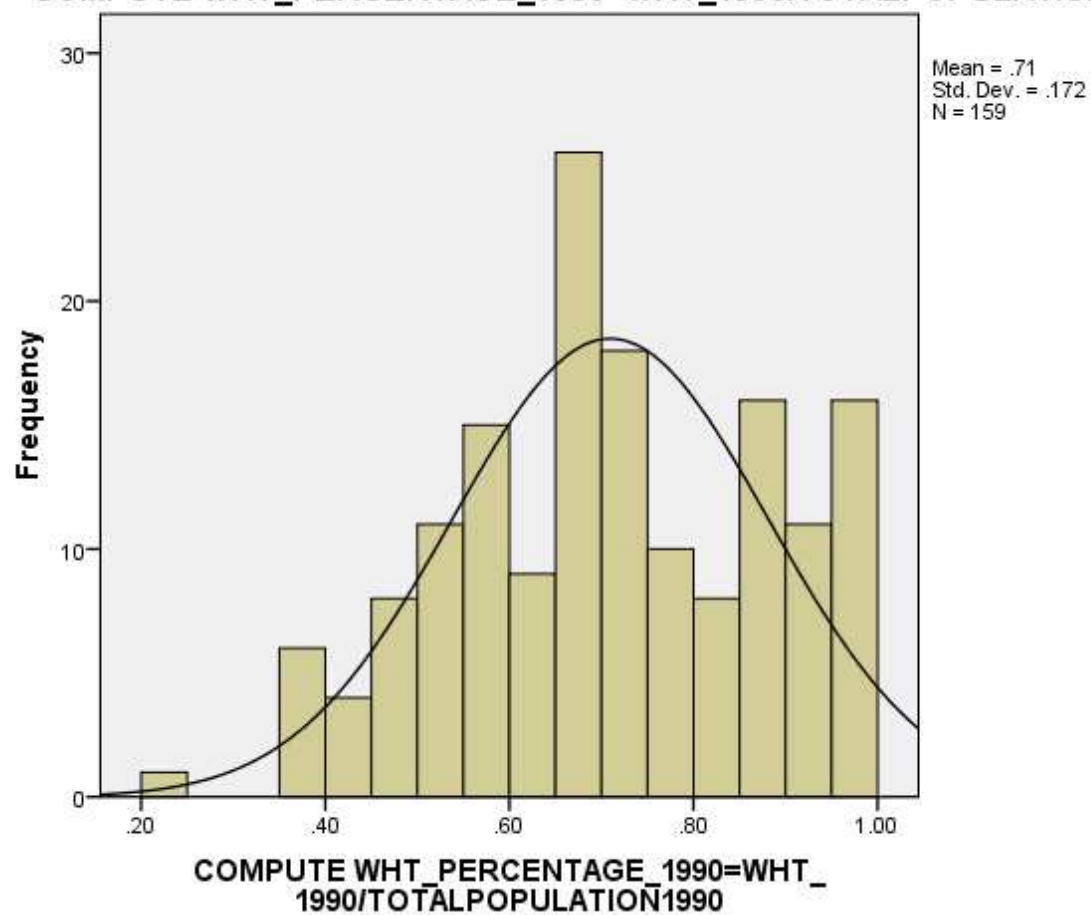
Histogram



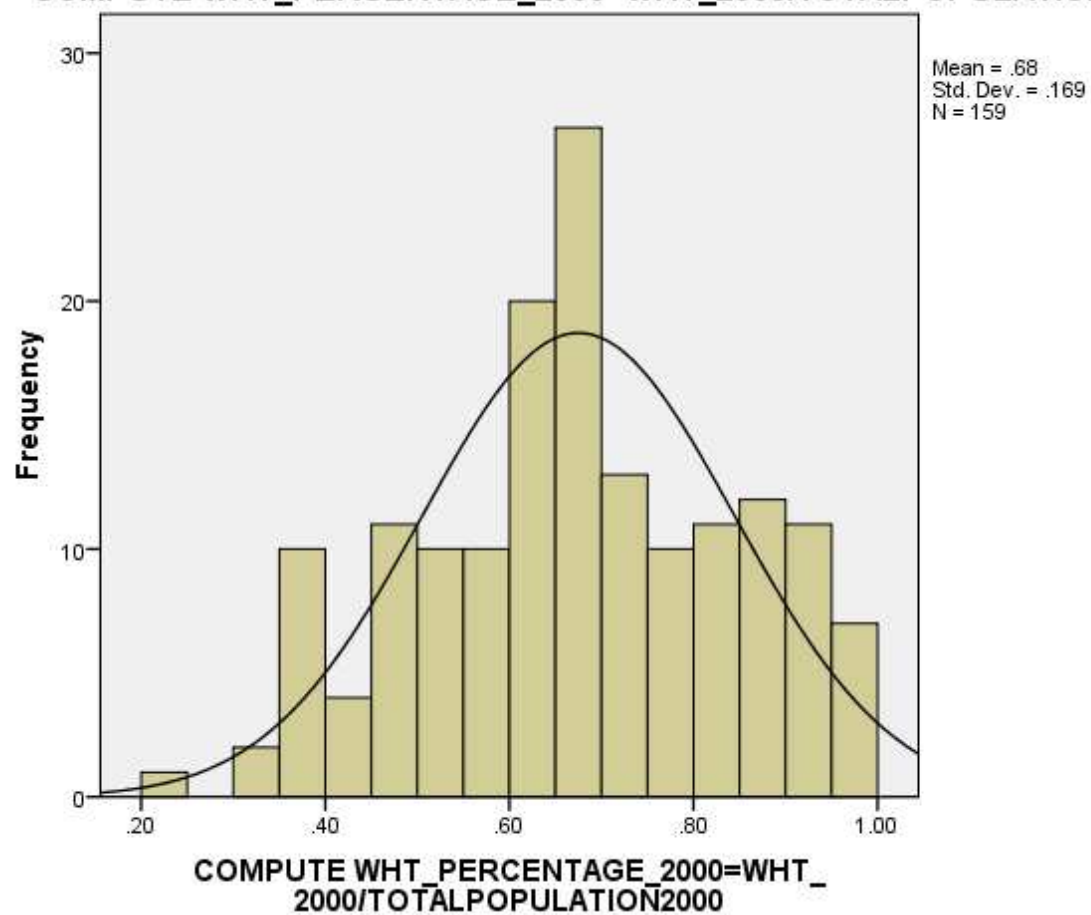
COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1980=WHT_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980



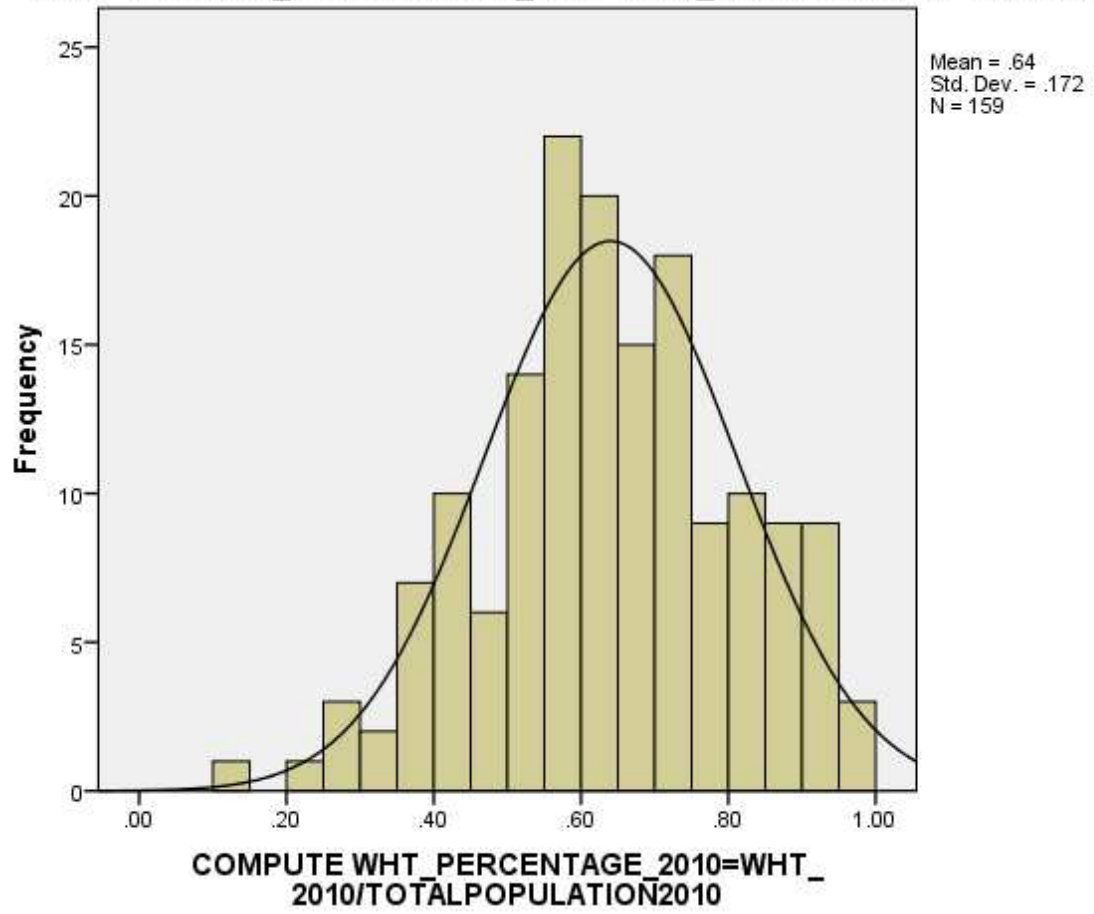
COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_1990=WHT_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990



COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_2000=WHT_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000



COMPUTE WHT_PERCENTAGE_2010=WHT_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010



Appendix J: Percentage of Hispanic Population

Statistics

		COMPUTE HISP_PERCEN TAGE_1970=HI SP_1970/TOTA LPOPULATION 1970	COMPUTE HISP_PERCEN TAGE_1980=HI SP_1980/TOTA LPOPULATION 1980	COMPUTE HISP_PERCEN TAGE_1990=HI SP_1990/TOTA LPOPULATION 1990	COMPUTE HISP_PERCEN TAGE_2000=HI SP_2000/TOTA LPOPULATION 2000
N	Valid	159	159	159	159
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		.0011	.0019	.0112	.0336
Std. Error of Mean		.00025	.00039	.00099	.00280
Median		.0004	.0008	.0075	.0216
Mode		.00	.00	.00 ^a	.00 ^a
Std. Deviation		.00318	.00490	.01244	.03527
Variance		.000	.000	.000	.001
Skewness		7.149	8.440	4.030	2.859
Std. Error of Skewness		.192	.192	.192	.192
Kurtosis		59.663	83.883	23.341	10.270
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.383	.383	.383	.383
Range		.03	.05	.11	.22
Minimum		.00	.00	.00	.00
Maximum		.03	.05	.11	.22
Sum		.18	.30	1.78	5.35

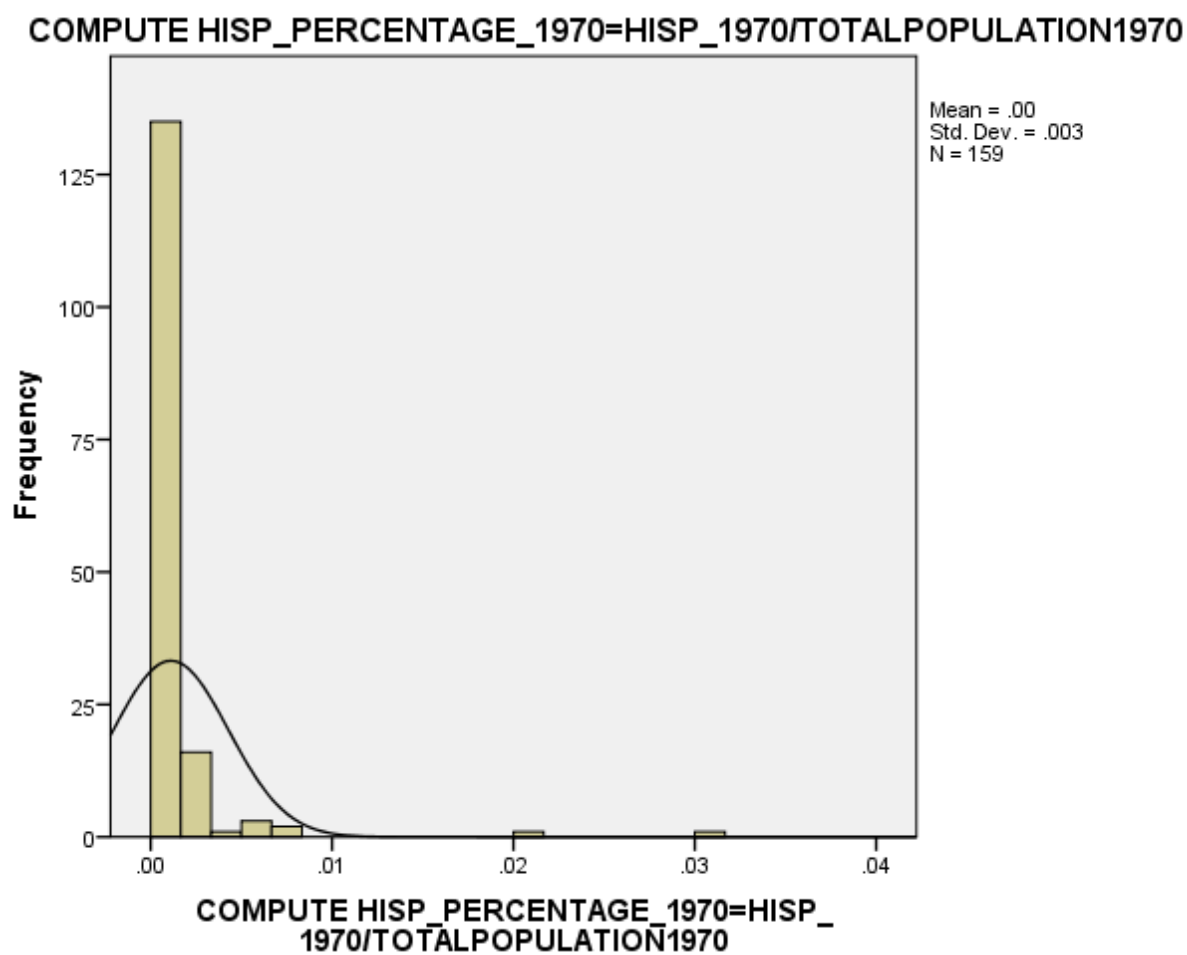
Statistics

COMPUTE
HISP_PERCENTAGE_2010=HISP_2010/TO
TALPOPULATION2010

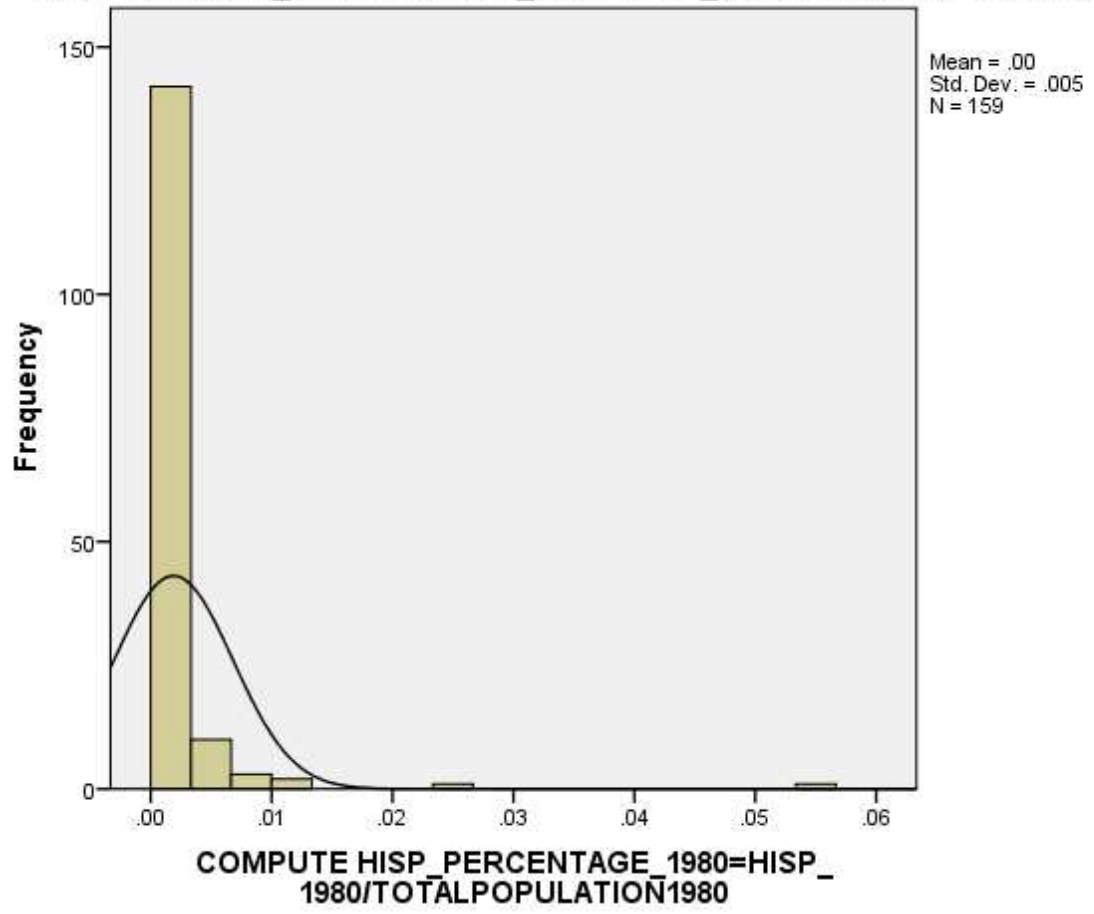
N	Valid	159
	Missing	0
Mean		.0574
Std. Error of Mean		.00421
Median		.0405
Mode		.01 ^a
Std. Deviation		.05311
Variance		.003
Skewness		2.447
Std. Error of Skewness		.192
Kurtosis		7.421
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.383
Range		.31
Minimum		.01
Maximum		.32
Sum		9.12

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

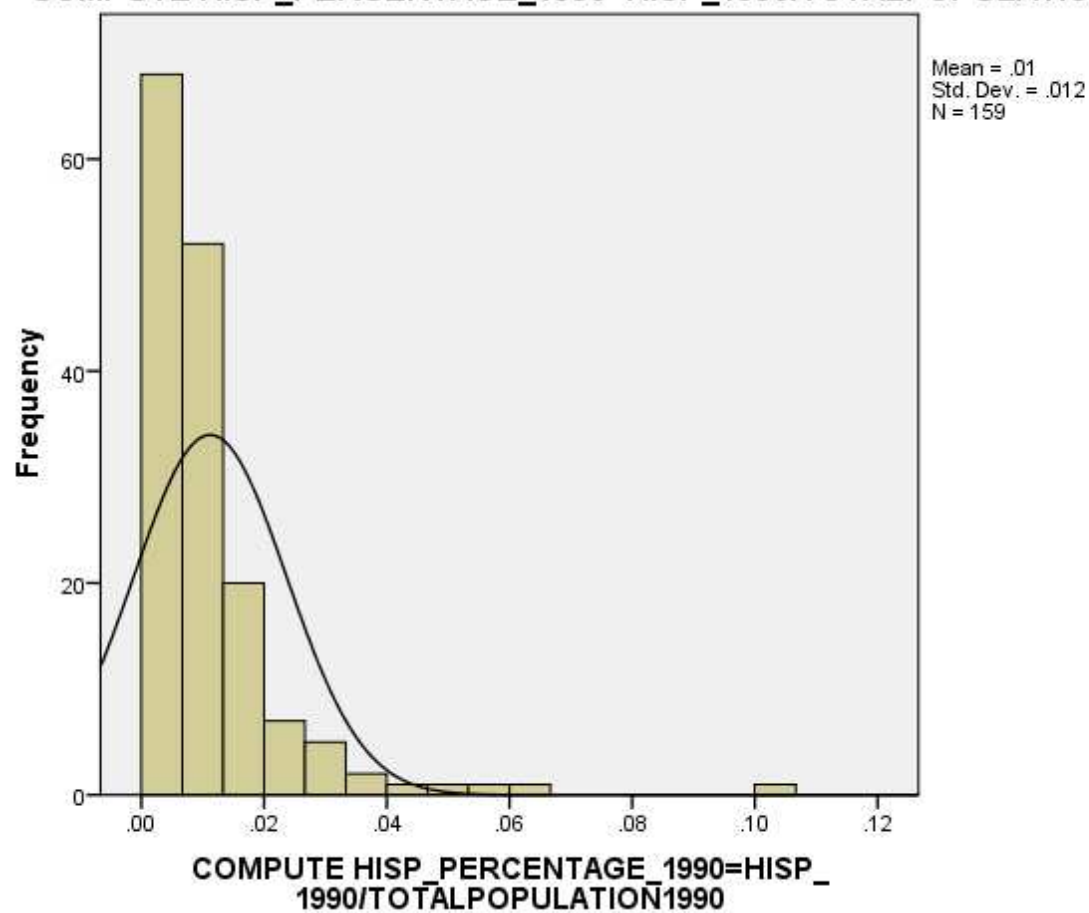
Histogram



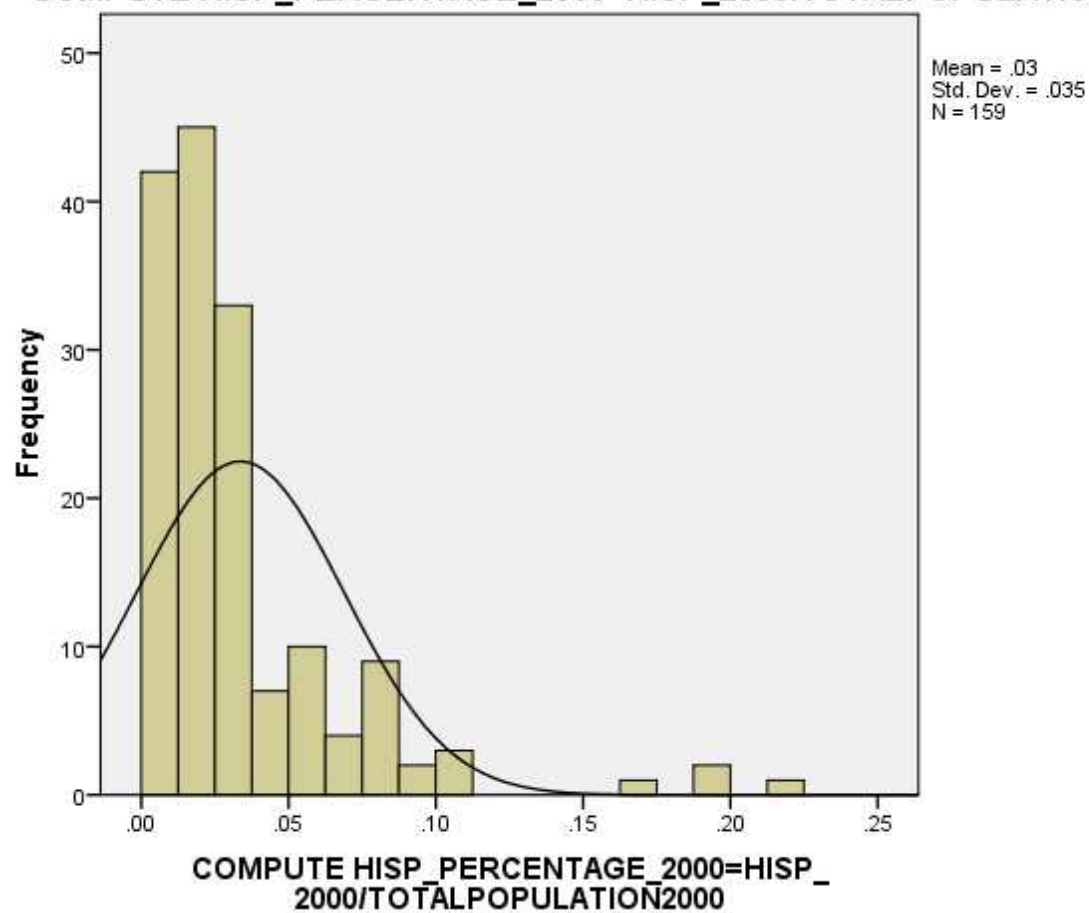
COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1980=HISP_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980



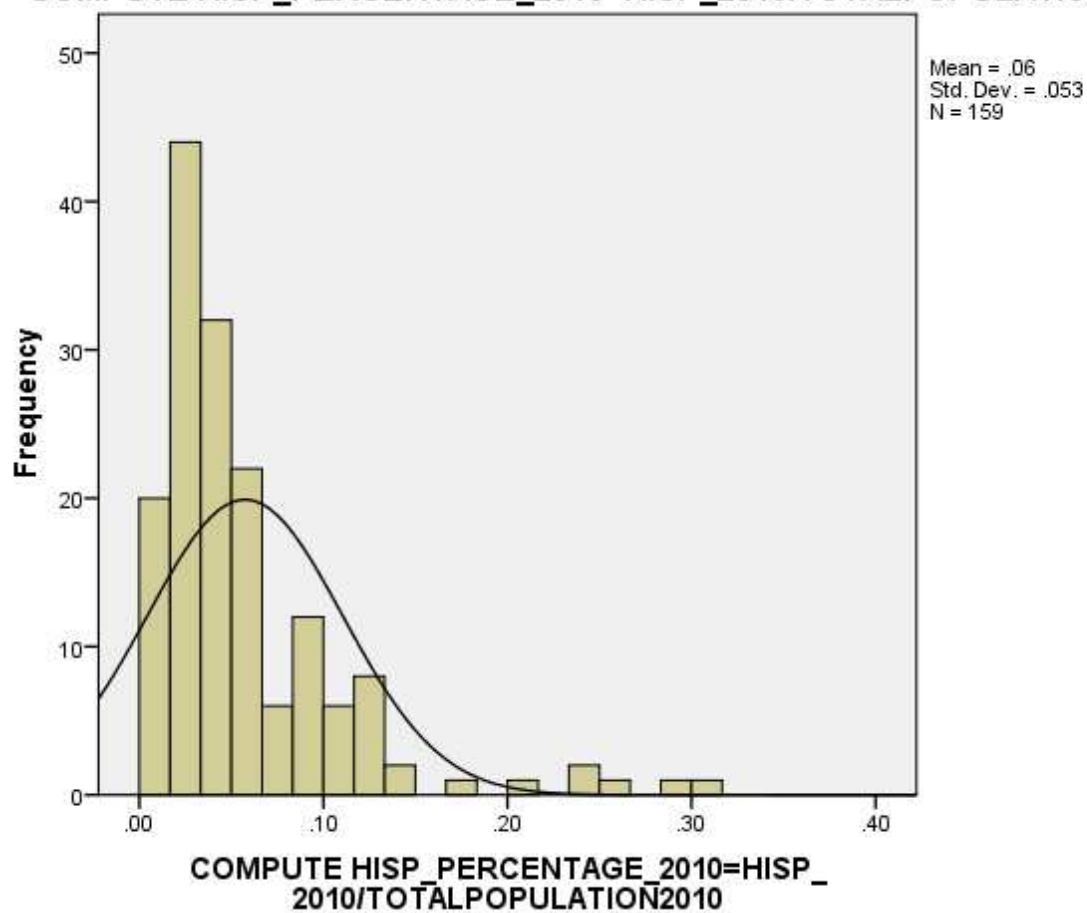
COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_1990=HISP_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990



COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_2000=HISP_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000



COMPUTE HISP_PERCENTAGE_2010=HISP_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010



Appendix K: Percentage of Asian Population

Statistics

		COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCE NTAGE_1970=A SIAN_1970/TOT ALPOPULATIO N1970	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCE NTAGE_1980= ASIAN_1980/TO TALPOPULATI ON1980	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCE NTAGE_1990= ASIAN_1990/TO TALPOPULATI ON1990	COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCE NTAGE_2000=A SIAN_2000/TOT ALPOPULATIO N2000
N	Valid	159	159	159	159
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		.0005	.0018	.0040	.0064
Std. Error of Mean		.00006	.00018	.00045	.00072
Median		.0003	.0012	.0020	.0033
Mode		.00	.00	.00	.00
Std. Deviation		.00078	.00229	.00573	.00903
Variance		.000	.000	.000	.000
Skewness		3.235	3.234	2.833	3.869
Std. Error of Skewness		.192	.192	.192	.192
Kurtosis		12.555	12.052	7.927	20.014
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.383	.383	.383	.383
Range		.01	.02	.03	.07
Minimum		.00	.00	.00	.00
Maximum		.01	.02	.03	.07
Sum		.09	.29	.63	1.03

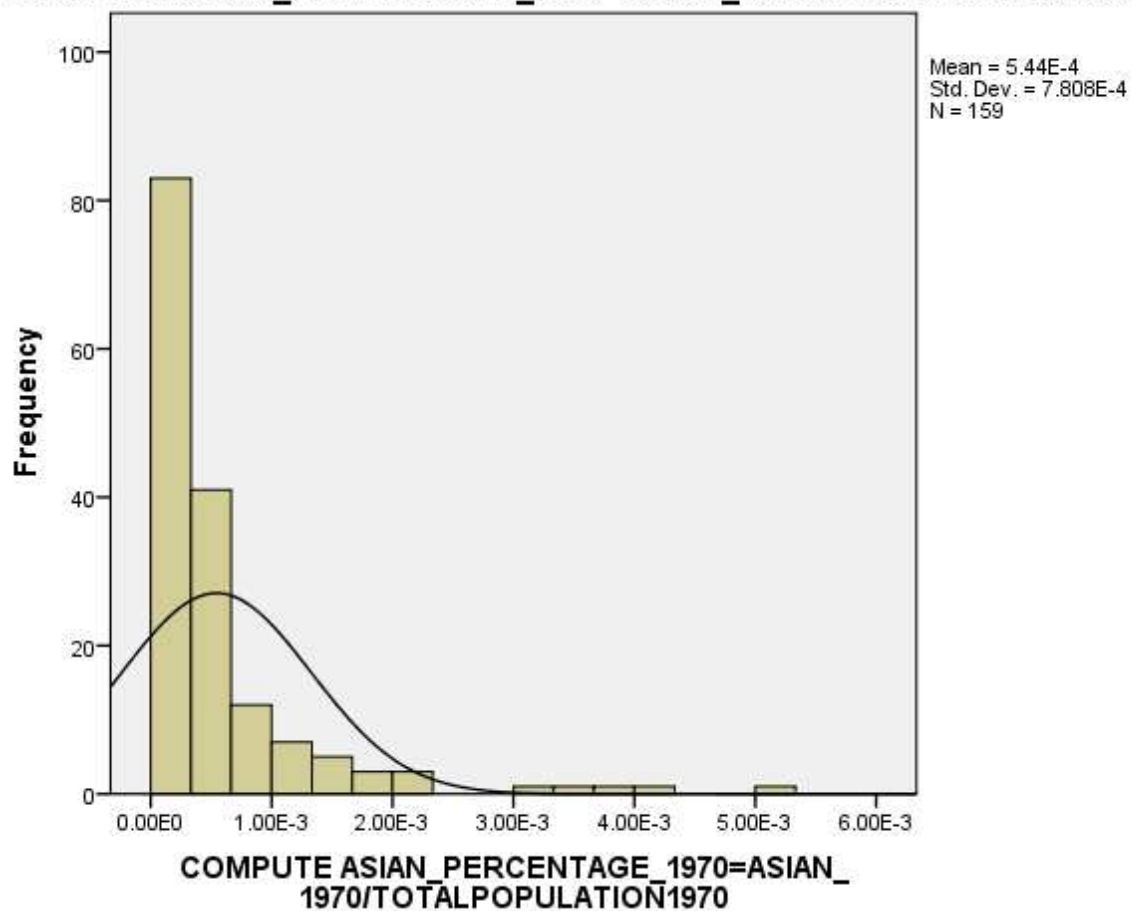
Statistics

COMPUTE
 ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2010=ASIAN_2010/
 TOTALPOPULATION2010

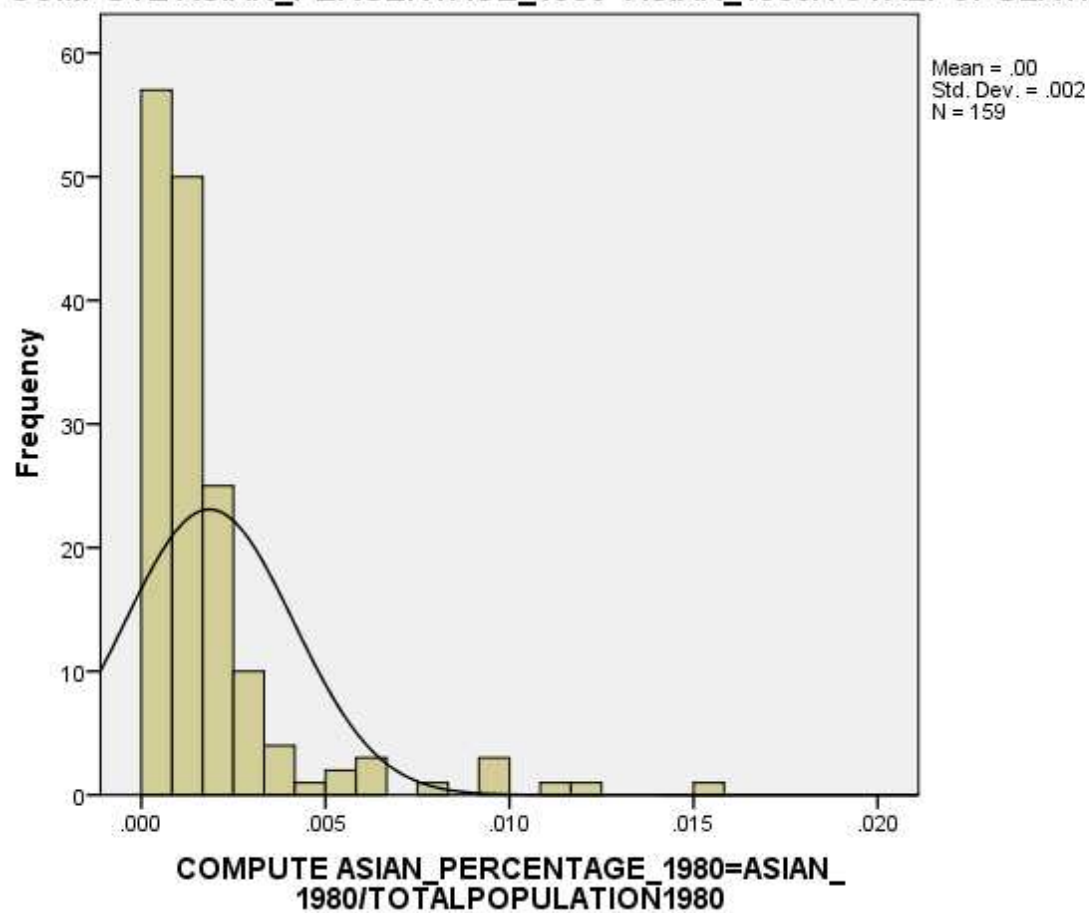
N	Valid	159
	Missing	0
Mean		.0104
Std. Error of Mean		.00104
Median		.0064
Mode		.01
Std. Deviation		.01309
Variance		.000
Skewness		3.831
Std. Error of Skewness		.192
Kurtosis		19.770
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.383
Range		.10
Minimum		.00
Maximum		.11
Sum		1.65

Histogram

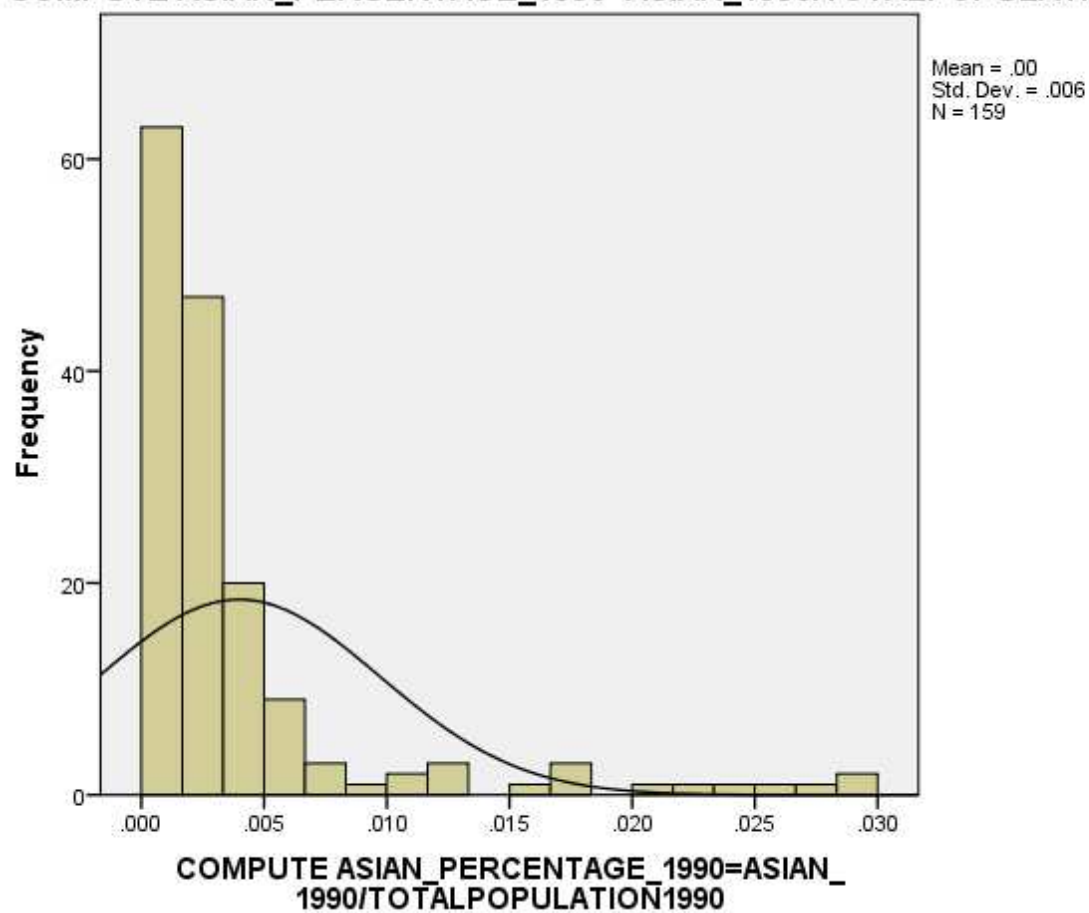
COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1970=ASIAN_1970/TOTALPOPULATION1970



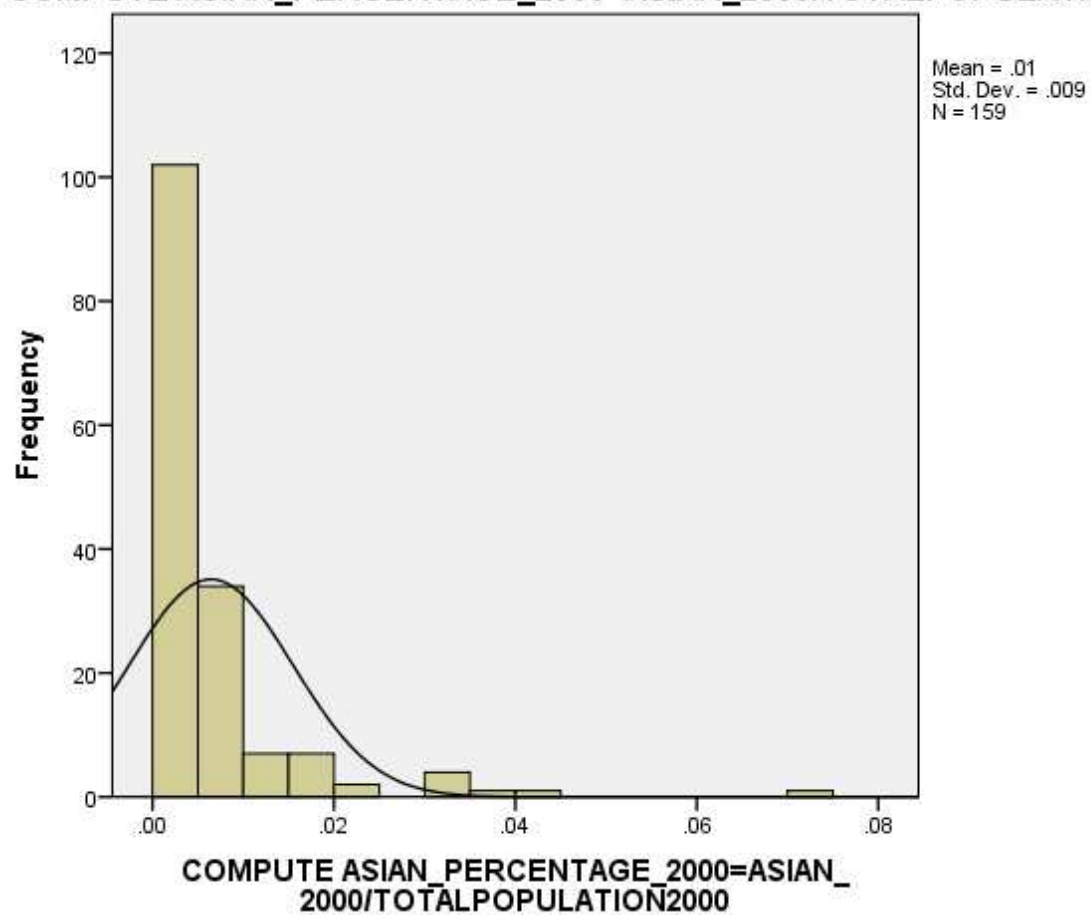
COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1980=ASIAN_1980/TOTALPOPULATION1980



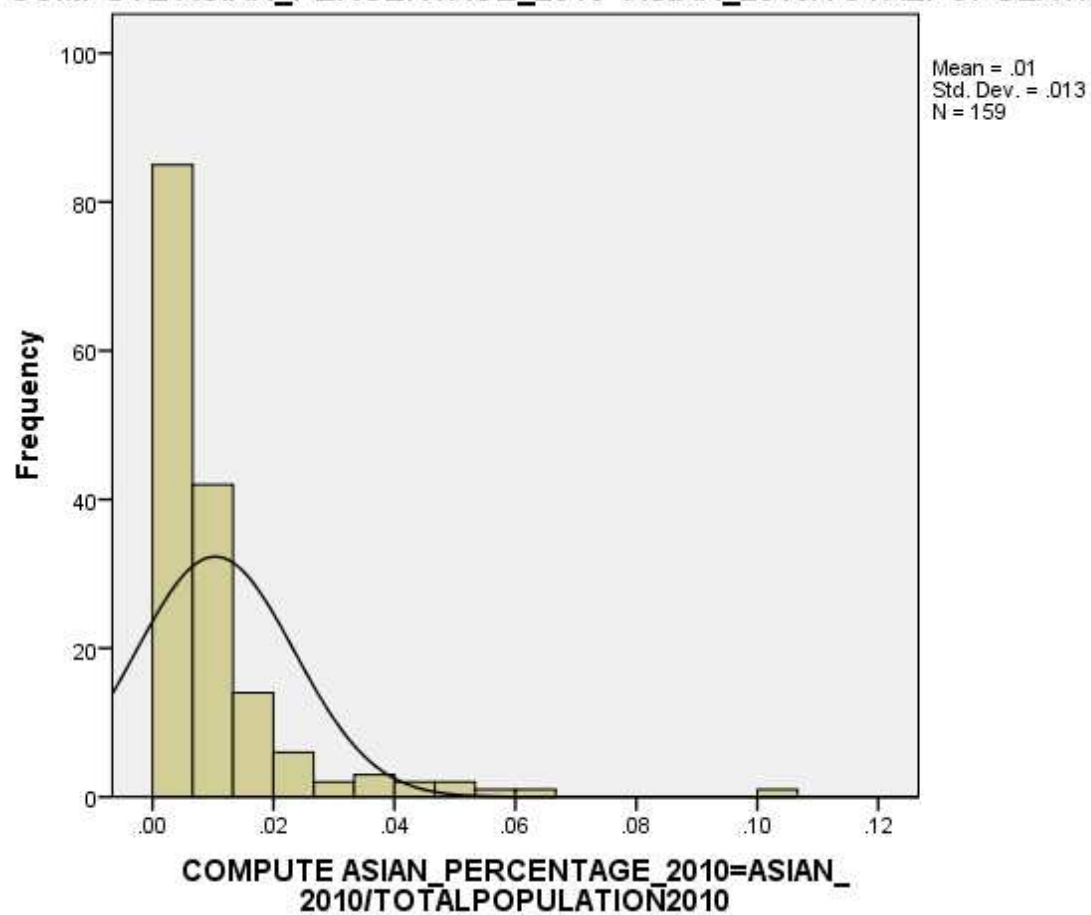
COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_1990=ASIAN_1990/TOTALPOPULATION1990



COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2000=ASIAN_2000/TOTALPOPULATION2000



COMPUTE ASIAN_PERCENTAGE_2010=ASIAN_2010/TOTALPOPULATION2010



Appendix L: Percentage of Other Races Population

Statistics

		COMPUTE OTHER_PERCE NTAGE_1970= OTHER_1970/ OTALPOPULAT ION1970	COMPUTE OTHER_PERC ENTAGE_1980 =OTHER_1980/ TOTALPOPULA TION1980	COMPUTE OTHER_PERC ENTAGE_1990 =OTHER_1990/ TOTALPOPULA TION1990	COMPUTE OTHER_PERCE NTAGE_2000= OTHER_2000/ OTALPOPULAT ION2000
N	Valid	159	159	159	159
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		.0009	.0016	.0022	.0109
Std. Error of Mean		.00013	.00019	.00017	.00040
Median		.0006	.0011	.0019	.0098
Mode		.00	.00	.00 ^a	.00 ^a
Std. Deviation		.00163	.00234	.00208	.00505
Variance		.000	.000	.000	.000
Skewness		7.701	5.013	4.809	2.212
Std. Error of Skewness		.192	.192	.192	.192
Kurtosis		75.763	28.814	29.927	7.923
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.383	.383	.383	.383
Range		.02	.02	.02	.03
Minimum		.00	.00	.00	.00
Maximum		.02	.02	.02	.04
Sum		.15	.25	.34	1.74

Statistics

COMPUTE
OTHER_PERCENTAGE_2010=OTHER_201
0/TOTALPOPULATION2010

N	Valid	159
	Missing	0
Mean		.0158
Std. Error of Mean		.00051
Median		.0143
Mode		.01 ^a
Std. Deviation		.00644
Variance		.000
Skewness		1.835
Std. Error of Skewness		.192
Kurtosis		5.655
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.383
Range		.04
Minimum		.01
Maximum		.05
Sum		2.51

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

Histogram

