

6-8-2010

Crime-Reporting Behavior: A Test of a Theoretical Model that Accounts for the Explanation of People's Crime-Reporting Behavior

Avdi S. Avdija
Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Follow this and additional works at: <http://knowledge.library.iup.edu/etd>

Recommended Citation

Avdija, Avdi S., "Crime-Reporting Behavior: A Test of a Theoretical Model that Accounts for the Explanation of People's Crime-Reporting Behavior" (2010). *Theses and Dissertations (All)*. 993.
<http://knowledge.library.iup.edu/etd/993>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by Knowledge Repository @ IUP. It has been accepted for inclusion in Theses and Dissertations (All) by an authorized administrator of Knowledge Repository @ IUP. For more information, please contact cclouser@iup.edu, sara.parme@iup.edu.

CRIME-REPORTING BEHAVIOR: A TEST OF A THEORETICAL MODEL THAT
ACCOUNTS FOR THE EXPLANATION OF PEOPLE'S CRIME-REPORTING
BEHAVIOR

A Dissertation

Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies and Research
in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

Avdi S. Avdija
Indiana University of Pennsylvania
May 2010

© 2010 by Avdi S. Avdija

All Rights Reserved

Indiana University of Pennsylvania
School of Graduate Studies and Research
Department of Criminology

We hereby approve the dissertation of

Avdi S. Avdija

Candidate for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Dennis M. Giever, Ph.D.
Professor of Criminology, Chair

Jennifer J. Roberts, Ph.D.
Associate Professor of Criminology

Daniel R. Lee, Ph.D.
Associate Professor of Criminology

Christoph E. Maier, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor of Mathematics

ACCEPTED

Timothy P. Mack, Ph.D.
Dean
The School of Graduate Studies and Research

Title: Crime-Reporting Behavior: A Test of a Theoretical Model that Accounts for the Explanation of People's Crime-Reporting Behavior

Author: Avdi S. Avdija

Dissertation Chair: Dr. Dennis M. Giever

Dissertation Committee Members: Dr. Jennifer J. Roberts
Dr. Daniel R. Lee
Dr. Christoph E. Maier

The purpose of this dissertation was to develop three theoretical models of crime-reporting behavior. One objective of this dissertation was to determine the effect of a number of crime-reporting predictors on people's willingness to report crimes to the police. Such predictors included police behavior, attitudes toward the police, individuals' demographic characteristics, prior victimization, citizen interaction with the police, and crime-reporting anonymity. The findings of this research study are based on the analyses of the data that were collected through a self-administered survey questionnaire distributed to 531 undergraduate students during the beginning of the fall 2009 semester.

The results that emerged in the current study show that crime-reporting behavior varies by the severity and the consequences of crimes. This study suggests that certain crime-reporting predictors do not predict all three crime-reporting levels, namely reporting of less serious crimes (e.g., smoking marijuana, selling illicit drugs, painting graffiti, etc.), reporting of medium-level crimes (e.g., physical threats, future terroristic threats, etc), and reporting of serious crimes (e.g., kidnapping, rape, murder, etc.). The findings of the current study show that gender, race, citizen interaction with the police,

police behavior, attitudes toward the police, and fear of criminal retaliation are the most reliable crime-reporting predictors.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First and foremost, I am heartily thankful to my dissertation chair, Dr. Dennis Giever, for his encouragement, guidance, patience, respect and support as I struggled to complete this dissertation. His constant support and knowledge has significantly changed the way I see the graduate school. I consider Dr. Giever to be a role model, a true scholar, a professor of excellence, and a friend. I am proud and fortunate to have been his student. Thanks you Dr. Giever.

I would also like to thank the members of my dissertation committee, Dr. Daniel Lee, Dr. Jennifer Roberts, and Dr. Christoph Maier, for their time, direction, excellent feedback, and assistance. I am grateful that I had a chance to work with these excellent scholars personally and professionally. I truly believe that I was able to finish this doctoral dissertation (and this degree) because I worked with the best. Dr. Denial Lee and Dr. Jennifer Roberts have been my teachers, mentors, and role models throughout the doctoral program. Dr. Christoph Maier, who served in my dissertation committee as an external examiner, had an open-door policy anytime I needed statistical assistance at the Applied Research Lab. Thank you all for giving your valuable time to assist me.

Also, my sincere gratitude goes to all individuals who helped me with the collection of the data for the final sample in all IUP's six colleges. Additionally, special thanks go to my fellow doctoral students, James Bowers, Jason Spraitz, Kendra Bowen, and Jennifer Huck, for their moral support and their readiness to help. I would also like to recognize the help and support of the previous cohort of doctoral students, Sz-de Yu, Amanda Cox, and Rebekah Rugola, who assisted me with the data collection for the pilot study.

Last but not least, I would like to thank all the staff members of the public safety at Point Park University who understood my needs for time that was required to complete an advanced graduate degree. Without their help and understanding, my graduate school would have only been a dream never really realized. Special thanks go to Jim Green, Jerry Knorr, Elvir Muslimovich, Dinu Demargosian, Ray Wilhelm, Joe Vanard, Richard Frederich, and Pam Bogan for their moral support and encouragement throughout the doctoral program.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I	INTRODUCTION 1
	Statement of the Problem 1
	Justification of This Study 4
	Objectives of This Research 7
	Definition of Frequently Used Terms 8
	Organization of This Dissertation 12
II	POLICE BEHAVIOR 15
	Introduction 15
	Defining Police Behavior in the Context of Police Use of Force 16
	Consequences of Police Behavior 20
	Approaches to Avoid Police Misconduct 23
	Data-Driven Literature on Police Behavior 25
	Summary 31
III	ATTITUDES TOWARD THE POLICE & INDIVIDUAL DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS 34
	Introduction 34
	Attitudes Influence Behavior 35
	Attitudes as a Multidimensional Construct 37
	Public Trust in the Police 38
	Fear of the Police 43
	Public Image of the Police 47
	Public Satisfaction with the Police 50
	The Influence of Attitudes as a Multidimensional Construct on Crime-Reporting Behavior 54
	Crime-Reporting Anonymity 56
	Summary 59
	Individual Demographic Factors 60
	Demographic Characteristics: An Overview 61
	Influence of Gender on Attitudes 62
	Influence of Gender on Crime-Reporting Behavior 65
	Influence of Age on Attitudes 67
	Influence of Age on Crime-Reporting Behavior 72
	Influence of Race/Ethnicity on Attitudes 75
	Influence of Race/Ethnicity on Crime-Reporting Behavior 77

Chapter	Page
Socio-Economic Status	79
Summary	82
IV PUBLIC INTERACTION WITH THE POLICE & PRIOR VICTIMIZATION	87
Personal Experiences with the Police	87
Types of Contacts with the Police	91
Citizen-initiated and Police-initiated Contacts	91
Citizen-Initiated Contacts	92
Police-Initiated Contacts	94
Frequency of Contacts with the Police	97
Media Exposure	98
Summary	100
Victimization as a Determinant of Crime-Reporting Behavior	102
Forms of Victimization	103
Effect of Victimization Experiences on Crime-Reporting Behavior	103
Personal Characteristics	105
Seriousness of Crime	107
Victimization by Stranger vs. Known Offenders	109
Summary	111
The Aim of This Study	113
V METHODOLOGY	114
Research Design	114
Research Questions and Hypotheses/Propositions	117
General Research Questions	117
Specific Research Questions	118
Research Hypotheses	118
Data Collection Instrument	129
Measures of Police Behavior	131
Measures of Attitudes toward the Police	132
Measures of Crime-Reporting Behavior	135
Measures of Crime-Reporting Anonymity	140
Measures of Personal Victimization	141
Measures of Social Desirability	142
Validation Scales	144
The Sample and Sampling Procedure	147
The Sample	147
The Sampling Procedure	149
Methods of Data Analyses	155

Chapter	Page
Phase I	155
Testing the Adequacy of the Measuring Instrument	155
Reliability.....	156
Face Validity.....	158
Content Validity.....	160
Construct Validity.....	161
Construct Validation – Results from the Pilot Study.....	167
Phase II	172
Testing Hypotheses/Propositions	172
Phase III	173
Path Analysis – Assessing Different Models	173
 VI ANALYSES AND RESULTS	 179
Phase I	180
Assessing the Adequacy of the Measuring Instrument.....	180
Sampling Characteristics	180
Psychometric Properties of the Measuring Instrument	182
Police Behavior Scale	183
Factor Analysis	183
Reliability and Validity.....	185
Distribution of the Data	187
Construct Validity	188
Attitudes toward the Police Scale	189
Factor Analysis	189
Reliability and Validity.....	191
Distribution of the Data	193
Construct Validity	195
Crime-Reporting Anonymity Scale	197
Factor Analysis	197
Reliability and Validity.....	201
Distribution of the Data	203
Construct Validity	204
Measures of Crime-Reporting Behavior for	
Less Serious Crimes.....	206
Factor Analysis	206
Reliability and Validity.....	207
Distribution of the Data	208
Construct Validity	210
Measures of Crime-Reporting Behavior for	
Medium-level Crimes	212
Factor Analysis	212
Reliability and Validity.....	213

Chapter	Page
Distribution of the Data	214
Construct Validity	216
Measures of Crime-Reporting Behavior for	
Serious Crimes	217
Factor Analysis	217
Reliability and Validity	219
Distribution of the Data	220
Construct Validity	222
Property Crimes Scale	222
Factor Analysis	222
Reliability and Validity	224
Distribution of the Data	225
Construct Validity	227
Social Desirability Scale	228
Factor Analysis	228
Reliability and Validity	230
Distribution of the Data	231
The Effects of Social Desirability	233
Summary of the Reliability of Scales	234
Phase II	236
Hypotheses Testing	236
Hypotheses about Police Behavior	237
Hypothesis One	237
Multivariate Regression Analyses	239
Hypothesis Two	242
Hypothesis about Attitudes toward the Police	245
Hypothesis Three	245
Hypotheses about Citizen Interaction with the Police	249
Hypothesis Four	249
Hypothesis Five	253
Hypothesis Six	254
Hypothesis Seven	256
Hypotheses about Citizens' Demographic Characteristics	258
Hypothesis Eight	258
Hypothesis Nine	260
Hypothesis Ten	262
Hypothesis Eleven	265
Hypothesis Twelve	266
Hypotheses about Crime-Reporting Anonymity	267
Hypothesis Thirteen	267
Hypothesis Fourteen	269
Hypothesis Fifteen	271
Hypotheses about Prior Victimization	273
Hypothesis Sixteen	273

Chapter	Page
Hypothesis Seventeen	275
Hypothesis Eighteen	276
Phase III	281
Path Analysis	281
Assumptions of Path Analysis	282
Initial Path Model for Crime-Reporting 1	283
Modified Path Model for Crime-Reporting 1	287
Final Path Model for Crime-Reporting 1	290
Initial Path Model for Crime-Reporting 2	293
Modified Path Model for Crime-Reporting 2	296
Final Path Model for Crime-Reporting 2	299
Initial Path Model for Crime-Reporting 3	302
Modified Path Model for Crime-Reporting 3	305
Final Path Model for Crime-Reporting 3	308
Summary	311
 VII DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS	 312
Introduction	312
Discussion of Research Findings	313
Measurement	313
Discussion of Research Findings in the Context of Research Hypotheses	314
Police Behavior	315
Attitudes toward the Police	316
Citizen Interaction with the Police	318
Demographic Factors	323
Anonymity Factor	326
Prior Victimization	329
Path Analysis	332
Policy Implications	336
Limitations and Strengths	340
Limitations	340
Strengths	343
Future Research	346
Conclusion	347
 REFERENCES	 350
 APPENDICES	 377
Appendix A – Survey Questionnaire	378
Appendix B – Path Models	400
Appendix C – Additional Analyses	410

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Conceptual Model and Measurement Model – Deterministic Model	116
2. Police Behavior – Scale	132
3. People’s Attitudes toward the Police – Scale	134
4. Crime-Reporting Behavior – Scale	136
5. The Factor Loadings Based on Principal Component with Varimax Rotation for 24 Items from a Longer Version of Crime-Reporting Scale Used to Construct Three Sub-Crime-Reporting Scales	138
6. Crime-Reporting 1 (Less Serious Crimes).....	139
7. Crime-Reporting 2 (Medium-Level Crimes).....	139
8. Crime-Reporting 3 (Serious Crimes).....	139
9. Reporting of Property Crimes.....	140
10. Crime-Reporting Anonymity – Scale	141
11. Personal Victimization – Index	142
12. Personal Reaction Inventory	143
13. Alternative Measuring Instrument of Police Behavior	144
14. Alternative Measuring Instrument of Attitudes toward the Police	145
15. Alternative Measuring Instrument of Crime-Reporting Behavior	146
16. Stage One of the Sampling Procedures.....	152
17. Comparing the Demographic Characteristics of the Sample for the Pilot Study & Undergraduate Population of the IUP (in Percentage)	154
18. Reliability of Scales as Assessed in the Pilot Study	157
19. Executive Plan	175

Table	Page
20. Comparing the Demographic Characteristics of the Sample & Undergraduate Population of IUP (in Percentage)	181
21. Principal Component Analysis (Varimax Rotation) of Police Behavior Items	184
22. Item-Total Correlations for Police Behavior Measure & Alpha.....	185
23. Distribution of the Data for Police Behavior Scale	187
24. Construct Validation of Police Behavior Scale (Correlation).....	189
25. Principal Component Analysis (Varimax Rotation) of Attitudes toward the Police Items.....	190
26. Item-Total Correlations for Attitudes toward the Police Measure & Alpha	192
27. Distribution of the Data for Attitudes toward the Police Scale	194
28. Construct Validation of Attitudes toward the Police Scale (Correlations)....	197
29. Principal Component Analysis (Varimax Rotation) for Crime-Reporting Anonymity Items.....	199
30. Item-Total Correlations for Crime-Reporting Anonymity & Alpha.....	202
31. Distribution of the Data for Crime-Reporting Anonymity Scale	203
32. Construct Validation of Crime-Reporting Anonymity Scale (Correlation).....	205
33. Principal Component Analysis (Varimax Rotation) of Crime-Reporting 1 Items (Less Serious Crimes).....	206
34. Item-Total Correlations for the Measure of Crime-Reporting 1 (Less Serious Crimes) & Alpha	208
35. Distribution of the Data for the Measure of Crime-Reporting 1	209
36. Construct Validation of the Crime-Reporting 1 (Measure of Less Serious Crimes).....	211

Table	Page
37. Principal Components Analysis (Varimax Rotation) of Crime-Reporting 2 Items (Medium-Level Crimes)	212
38. Item-Total Correlations for the Measure of Crime-Reporting 2 (Medium-Level Crimes) & Alpha	214
39. Distribution of the Data for the Measure of Crime-Reporting 2	215
40. Construct Validation of the Crime-Reporting 2 (Measure of Medium-Level Crimes)	217
41. Principal Component Analysis (Varimax Rotation) of Crime-Reporting 3 Items (Serious Crimes)	218
42. Item-Total Correlations for Crime-Reporting 3 (Serious Crimes) & Alpha.....	219
43. Distribution of the Data for the Measure of Crime-Reporting 3	221
44. Construct Validation of Crime-Reporting 3 (Measure of Serious Crimes) ...	222
45. Principal Components Analysis (Varimax Rotation) of Property Crimes Items	223
46. Item-Total Correlations for Property Crimes & Alpha.....	225
47. Distribution of the Data for Property Crimes Scale.....	226
48. Construct Validation of the Measure for the Reporting of Property Crimes	228
49. Principal Component Analysis (Varimax Rotation) of Social Desirability Items.....	229
50. Item-Total Correlations for Social Desirability Measure & Alpha	230
51. Distribution of the Data for Social Desirability Scale	232
52. Descriptive Statistics for the Effects of Social Desirability	234
53. Reliability Scales as Assessed in the Final Study.....	235
54. Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting Behavior on Police Behavior	238

Table	Page
55. Multivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting 1 (Reporting of Less Serious Crimes) on Independent Variables.....	240
56. Multivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting 2 (Reporting of Medium-Level Crimes) on Independent Variables	241
57. Multivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting 3 (Reporting of Serious Crimes) on Independent Variables.....	242
58. Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Attitudes toward the Police on Police Behavior	244
59. Multivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Attitudes toward the Police on Independent Variables	245
60. Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting 1 (Reporting of Less Serious Crimes) on Attitudes toward the Police.....	247
61. Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting 2 (Reporting of Medium-Level Crimes) on Attitudes toward the Police	248
62. Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting 3 (Reporting of Serious Crimes) on Attitudes toward the Police	249
63. Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting Behavior on Citizen-Initiated Contacts with the Police	251
64. Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting Behavior on Police-Initiated Contacts	252
65. Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Attitudes toward the Police on Police-Citizen Encounters.....	254
66. Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting Behavior on Frequency of Contacts with the Police	255
67. Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting Behavior on Media Exposure	257
68. Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting Behavior on Gender.....	259
69. Two-Factor ANOVA for Attitudes toward the Police as a Function of Race/Ethnicity	261

Table	Page
70. Post-Hoc Comparisons Using the Tukey HSD Test Comparing Whites and all other Racial/Ethnic Groups.....	261
71. Two-Factor ANOVA for Crime-Reporting Behavior as a Function of Race/Ethnicity	263
72. Post-Hoc Comparisons Using the Tukey HSD Test Comparing Whites and all other Racial/Ethnic Groups.....	264
73. Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting Behavior on Socio-Economic Status	266
74. Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting Behavior for Property Crimes on Socio-Economic Status	267
75. Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting Behavior on Crime-Reporting Anonymity	269
76. Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Attitudes toward the Police on Crime-Reporting Anonymity	270
77. Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting Behavior on Fear of Criminal Retaliation	272
78. One-Factor ANOVA: Comparing Means for Those Who Have Been Victimized and Those Who Have Not Been Victimized for Both Property & Crimes Against Persons	274
79. Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-reporting Behavior on Prior Victimization (for Property Crimes).....	276
80. Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting 1 on Prior Victimization (for Crimes Against Persons).....	278
81. Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting 2 on Prior Victimization (for Crimes Against Persons).....	279
82. Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting 3 on Prior Victimization (for Crimes Against Persons).....	280
83. Initial Model: Direct, Indirect, and Total Effect for the Crime-Reporting 1 (Reporting of Less Serious Crimes).....	285

Table	Page
84. Modified Model: Direct, Indirect, and Total Effect for Crime-Reporting 1 (Reporting of Less Serious Crimes).....	288
85. Final Model: Direct, Indirect, and Total Effect for Crime-Reporting 1 (Reporting of Less Serious Crimes).....	291
86. Initial Model: Direct, Indirect, and Total Effect for the Crime-Reporting 2 (Reporting of Less Serious Crimes).....	294
87. Modified Model: Direct, Indirect, and Total Effect for Crime-Reporting 2 (Reporting of Less Serious Crimes).....	297
88. Final Model: Direct, Indirect, and Total Effect for Crime-Reporting 2 (Reporting of Less Serious Crimes).....	300
89. Initial Model: Direct, Indirect, and Total Effect for the Crime-Reporting 3 (Reporting of Less Serious Crimes).....	303
90. Modified Model: Direct, Indirect, and Total Effect for Crime-Reporting 3 (Reporting of Less Serious Crimes).....	306
91. Final Model: Direct, Indirect, and Total Effect for Crime-Reporting 3 (Reporting of Less Serious Crimes).....	309
92. A Summary of Significant Variables for Each Crime-Reporting Model: Rank-Ordered Based on Their Importance	335
C1. A Summary of Significant Variables Measured Across Three Crime-Reporting Levels.....	411

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Police behavior model	33
2. Attitudes toward the police model	60
3. Attitudes and crime-reporting behavior legacy model based on parental supervision	71
4. Individual's demographic characteristics model 1 (indirect effect)	85
5. Individual's demographic characteristics model 2 (direct effect)	86
6. Public interaction with the police model	101
7. Prior victimization model	112
8. Determining sample size based on multiple regression power analysis	149
9. Construct validation of attitudes toward the police scale	169
10. Construct validation of police behavior scale	170
11. Construct validation of crime-reporting behavior scale	171
12. Scree plot for police behavior items	184
13. Histogram for police behavior scale	188
14. Scree plot for attitudes toward the police items.....	191
15. Histogram for attitudes toward the police scale	195
16. Scree plot for crime-reporting anonymity items (as a 5-item scale).....	200
17. Scree plot for crime-reporting anonymity items (as a 4-item scale).....	201
18. Histogram for crime-reporting anonymity scale.....	204
19. Scree plot for crime-reporting 1 (less serious crimes)	207

Figure	Page
20. Histogram for reporting less serious crimes (crime-reporting 1)	210
21. Scree plot for crime-reporting 2 (medium-level crimes)	213
22. Histogram for reporting medium-level crimes (crime-reporting 2).....	216
23. Scree plot for crime-reporting 3 (serious crimes)	218
24. Histogram for reporting serious crimes (crime-reporting 3).....	221
25. Scree plot for reporting of property crimes	224
26. Histogram for property crimes scale.....	226
27. Scree plot for social desirability items	229
28. Histogram for social desirability scale	232
29. Initial path model: The direct effects and indirect effects of independent variables on crime-reporting 1	286
30. Modified initial path model for crime-reporting 1	289
31. Final path model for the reporting of less serious crimes	292
32. Initial path model: The direct effects and indirect effects of independent variables on crime-reporting 2	295
33. Modified path model for crime-reporting 2	298
34. Final path model for the reporting of medium-level crimes	301
35. Initial path model: The direct effects and indirect effects of independent variables on crime-reporting 3	304
36. Modified path model for crime-reporting 3	307
37. Final path model for the reporting of serious crimes.....	310
B1. Initial path analysis for crime-reporting 1 (less serious crimes).....	401
B2. Initial path analysis for crime-reporting 2 (medium-level crimes).....	402
B3. Initial path analysis for crime-reporting 3 (serious crimes).....	403

Figure	Page
B4. Modified path analysis for crime-reporting 1 (less serious crimes)	404
B5. Modified path analysis for crime-reporting 2 (medium-level crimes).....	405
B6. Modified path analysis for crime-reporting 3 (serious crimes)	406
B7. Final path analysis for crime-reporting 1 (less serious crimes)	407
B8. Final path analysis for crime-reporting 2 (medium level crimes).....	408
B9. Final path analysis for crime-reporting 3 (serious crimes)	409

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Many people experience crime but they choose not to report it to the police. If members of the public fail to contact the police about a criminal incident they have experienced or witnessed, it will remain undetected (Mosher, Miethe, & Philips, 2002; Coleman & Moynihan, 1996). Unfortunately, a large number of crimes are never reported to the police. In fact, the number of crimes not reported to the police is much larger than the number of crimes reported to the police or recorded by police officials (Helfgott, 2008; Mosher, Miethe, & Philips, 2002; Taylor, 2003; Pilkington, 1995; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2002, 2003, 2005a, 2005b, 2005c). Research shows that in 2000, only 39% of approximately 25.4 million crimes against persons and property crimes were reported to the police (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2003). Although crime-reporting has shown an increase in recent years, still more than half of crimes do not get the attention of the police. By the type of crimes, less than 40% of property crimes get reported to the police (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2006a). Violent crimes, on the other hand, are reported at slightly higher rates (47%) compared to property crimes (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2006a).

The problem of unreported crimes to the police becomes much more disturbing when looking within the age category of those victimized. Most crimes against children, for example, are not reported to the police. Comparing the number of unreported crimes against children with the number of unreported crimes among the general population, statistics show that the number of unreported crimes against children is twice as high

(Finkelhor, Wolak, & Berliner, 2001). Research shows that most cases of sexual and physical assaults against children are kept in secrecy. Only 28% of crimes against children are reported to the police (Finkelhor & Ormrod, 2000, 1999). Demographically, statistics show that young people ages 12 to 24 comprise 22% of the population in the United States but disproportionately represent 35% of murder victims and 49% of serious violent crime victims (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1997a). Yet their crime-reporting behavior is much lower than that of the older population (Carcach, 1997; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2001b, 2002c, 2003, 2005a, 2007c; Byrne, Conway, & Ostermeyer, 2005; see also Hindelang, 1976; Tanton & Jones, 2003). This gives us grounds to believe that crime-reporting is selective, and many reasons why people do not report crimes to the police are not well understood.

It is not a coincidence that many people fail to report crimes to the police out of fear of government intrusion in their lives or lack of trust in the police (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2002; Stoutland, 2001; Hurst & Frank, 2000; Goldsmith, 2005; Macdonald & Stokes, 2006). However, the effects of this phenomenon vary by individuals' gender, race, and socio-economic status in particular. Moreover, in many cultures, masculinity is still considered a form of resistance to the embarrassment that a victimization event may bring about. In this context, reporting of victimization events suffers another loss by the gender factor. Empirical evidence shows that males are less likely to report victimization events and crimes in general compared to females (Green, 1981; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1998b; Skogan, 1984; see also Ashbaugh & Cornell, 2008; Bickman, 1976). This tells us that crime-reporting is multilevel. It scales down as it moves from one category to another. First, age factors in, then gender, socio-economic status, and finally

the fear of government intrusion in private lives. This fear is manifested in the form of negative attitudes toward the police resulting from intrusive police behavior.

Moreover, when looking at crimes that have been committed against females, specifically sexual assaults and rape, reporting of those crimes to the police is not satisfactory. Empirical studies show that females are more often victims of rape. Yet, by this type of crime, statistics show that, on average, only 32% of all completed rapes and 34% of attempted rapes are reported to the police (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2002). Even after exploring different levels of crime-reporting behavior, the number of crimes reported to the police is far below half of the total number of estimated crimes committed in a given year, a number which remains a “dark figure” after all.

The main focus of the current study is crime-reporting behavior, which is considered by many researchers to be the delta region of policing; it determines the direction and ultimately the success of social control mechanisms, namely policing (Smith & Mackei, 2007; Olson & Stone, 2005; Ferguson, 2004). The current study specifically focuses on building and testing a number of theoretical models that attempt to explain why people do or do not report crimes to the police, taking into account the fact that crime-reporting behavior is not influenced by one factor, but rather by a host of interrelated factors. Deductively, in the context of policing, an increased people’s crime-reporting behavior is an option police strategy of more effectively fighting crime and preventing the dispersion of it since large numbers of crimes that do not enter official police statistics have severe consequences for policing (Skogan, 1977, 1985).

In summation, the magnitude of unreported crimes to the police – the unknown – is much greater than we are comfortable to believe. Thus, the named “dark figure of

crime” is not just an indefinable subtotal number of crimes; it is the reality of unreported crimes.

Justification of This Study

A research study is justifiable if there are few research studies conducted in that specific area to explain a specific problem, and if prior research studies have not introduced important variables into an explanatory model, variables that account for the problem. Most prior studies in this area have studied crime-reporting behavior in part, mainly from the victimization point of view. Yet, those studies that have included other important variables (e.g., police behavior and attitudes toward the police) to study public-police relationships, have been focused exclusively on the citizens’ views of police use of force as it relates to trust in the police, confidence in the police, and satisfaction with the police (McCluskey, Rerril, & Paoline, 2005; Stoutland, 2001; Alpert & Dunham, 2004; Leighton, 1993; Schafer et al., 2003a; Schafer et al., 2003b; Pyle, 1977; Miller et al., 2005; Weitzer & Tuch, 1999; Weitzer, 2000). Comparatively, not enough research exists concerning citizens’ crime-reporting behavior as affected by a larger number of interrelated factors; specifically, an in depth examination of factors that are associated with citizens’ willingness to report crime to the police. Even less research exists that employs a theoretical context using a deductive logic that would help us better understand crime-reporting behavior toward the police. A considerable effort, however, has been made in examining the complexity of this subject only in the last decade.

There is some empirical evidence indicating that demographic variables (e.g., age, gender, race, and socio-economic status), citizen-police interactions, and prior victimization influence citizens’ attitudes toward the police (see Nihart, 2005; Taylor,

2002; Bickford, 2004; Zvikic, 1998; Davis & Henderson, 2003; Goldsmith, 2005; Stoutland, 2001; Hurst & Frank, 2000; National Institute of Justice, 2003; Alderson, 1979; Weitzer & Tuch, 2005). Furthermore, there is direct and indirect evidence indicating that police behavior is a contributing factor that plays a significant role in people's crime-reporting behavior (Holmberg, 2004; Xie, Pogarsky, Lynch, & McDowall, 2006; Hickman & Simpson, 2003, Conaway & Lohr, 1994; Salmi, Voeten, & Keskinen, 2005). The effect of police behavior on crime-reporting behavior has been manifested mostly through citizens' negative and positive attitudes toward the police (Skogan, 1996; Smith & Arian, 2006; see also Vellani & Nahoun, 2001; Singer, 1988; Brown & Delores, 2000; Beck & Yulia, 2004; Cheuprakobkit, 2000; Cheurprakobkit & Bartsch, 2001). There is not enough empirical evidence, however, showing that a combination of demographic factors, crime-reporting anonymity, police behavior, prior victimization, and negative or positive attitudes toward the police influence one's willingness to report crime to the police, or studies that have included all these factors. Therefore, one primary assumption is that attitudes – influenced by factors mentioned above – influence crime-reporting behavior toward the police. Yet, there is little or no research that has attempted to link the concern with crime-reporting anonymity (as an independent variable) and willingness to report crimes to the police.

In sum, this research is relevant to the issues at hand because it is an effort to provide fundamental, yet relative explanations, of people's willingness to report crimes to the police, the extent to which police behaviors coupled with demographic characteristics, prior victimization, and interaction with the police influence people's attitudes, and the extent to which attitudes influence people's willingness to report crime

to the police. Moreover, the interaction between these variables offers the best explanation of crime-reporting behavior. Additionally, this study contributes to a limited literature on people's desire to remain anonymous (crime-reporting anonymity) when making decisions whether or not to report witnessed crimes or victimization events to the police, an underlying construct that has not been studied by very many researchers.

While prior studies have increased our understanding of factors that have direct or indirect effect on crime-reporting behavior, there are many gaps in the literature. One gap is lack of an adequate measuring instrument that will produce reliable and valid results. Second, most prior studies suffer from a poor scientific rigor. Also, no causal model with statistically significant path coefficients has been presented in any previous study that can successfully explain the variation in people's crime-reporting behavior. This research, therefore, attempts to fill these gaps identified in prior research in this area.

To reiterate, prior research indicates that there are many contributing factors that influence one's decision whether or not to report a crime to the police. The influence of some of those factors is the substance of this research project. Furthermore, there is a need to know more about factors that have not been studied in groups and to determine the amount of influence of specific factors that affect one's willingness to report crime to the police while – through statistical procedures – controlling for the influence of other factors that produce additional theoretical links for explaining crime-reporting behavior. This research, therefore, attempts to show how the above factors are related to one another and how they work together to affect people's decisions to report crime to the police. I further argue that these factors have a direct and independent influence on people's willingness to report crime to the police, and that they exert direct influence on

one another. That is, the six clusters of variables have an independent influence on one another, which in turn have a subsequent effect on crime-reporting behavior. The relationship between variables is fragile. Theoretically, a small change in one variable creates an imbalance in another variable, which in turn creates a change in the direct and indirect effects on other variables that together and/or independently affect the main dependent variable, willingness to report crimes to the police.

Objectives of This Research

There were four idiosyncratic objectives of this dissertation. One objective was to test the adequacy of the measuring instrument – the survey questionnaire – designed to measure the underlying constructs included in the theoretical models. The second objective was to test a number of specific research hypotheses that were developed during the process of reviewing relevant literature for the purpose of constructing theoretical models. The third objective of this dissertation was to construct three new and improved causal models for the variables of interest: three parsimonious causal models with statistically significant path coefficients. In other words, the third objective was to construct three path diagrams representing the theoretical causal models that have been initially developed based on the review of the available literature. The fourth objective of this dissertation was to test the validity of the proposed theoretical casual models, describing the causal effects between underlying constructs in the models by comparing them with the newly developed path models that have been constructed based on the empirical evidence that this study has engendered.

Definition of Frequently Used Terms

This section provides the definitions of essential terms and phrases that are frequently used in this research study. The purpose of this section is to give a specific meaning to these frequently used terms and how they are conceptualized in this study.

The following terms are defined in accordance of their use in this study:

1. *Police Misconduct*. It is defined as the “actions that violate departmental guidelines (policies, procedures, rules, and regulations) that define both appropriate and inappropriate conduct for officers” (Roberg et al., 2000, p. 544). In this study, police misconduct is a theoretical construct that refers to police tendency to use force, police corruption (a form of flouting of the police code of conduct), verbal abuse, impoliteness, etc., during police-citizen encounters that negatively affect citizens’ crime-reporting behavior. This construct is discussed in Chapter II of this dissertation.
2. *Police Use of Excessive Force*. It is defined as unreasonable and unnecessary force used by the police in such cases as when the suspect is in custody, when the suspect does not resist arrest, etc. (U.S. Department of Justice, 1999). In this study, excessive force refers to illegitimate force used by the police that causes citizens to fear the police; this fear affects public trust in the police, general satisfaction with the police service, and ultimately people’s willingness to report crime to the police.
3. *Policing*. It is a general term that is defined as the regulation and control of a community by a body of people officially employed, to whom people they serve have given the authority to keep order, the control, and regulate the

affairs affecting the general welfare of the community (Jones & Newburn, 1998; Newburn & Neyroud, 2008; Newburn, 2008). The essence of policing is what we consider the universal characteristics of those who, by the people's consent, hold positions of power and authority to police the people. This term is used in Chapters II, III, and IV.

4. *Attitudes Toward the Police.* In general terms, attitudes are defined as behavioral tendencies or dispositions to act in certain ways (Cotton, 2004; Morris & Maisto, 2007). In this study, attitudes are negative or positive behavioral tendencies displayed toward the police and are hypothesized to influence people's crime-reporting behavior. Psychologically, attitudes reflect a tendency to classify objects and events and to react to them with some consistency (Breckler & Wiggins, 1992; Tesser, 1993; Fazio & Williams, 1986). Since attitudes are not directly observable, rather inferred from objective and evaluative responses a person makes, i.e., what people say and how they respond to survey questionnaires, in this study they are measured by a 30-item composite measure, which measures four dimensions of interests, namely trust in the police, satisfaction with the police, fear of the police, and public confidence in the police. This construct is discussed in Chapter III of this dissertation.
5. *Trust in the Police.* In this study, trust is one of the four dimensions of attitudes toward the police. It refers to the public belief or confidence in the integrity, honesty, reliability, and justice of the police (Pollock, 2004), which is hypothesized to have a direct effect on crime-reporting behavior.

6. *Fear of the Police*. In this study, it refers to an emotional state caused by prior victimization by the police and negative personal experiences with the police, such as police use of “excessive” force against an individual or a group of individuals, tendency to use force, police impoliteness, police officers’ rude behavior directed toward citizens, etc.
7. *Crime-Reporting Anonymity*. As a construct, it is defined as people’s willingness to report any witnessed crimes or victimization events to the police without disclosing their identities when reporting such crimes or victimization events is optional to them and totally discretionary. More specifically, crime-reporting anonymity is defined as the desire to remain anonymous when making the decision whether or not to report a witnessed crime or victimization event to the police. The term “Crime-Reporting Anonymity” is not found in literature. This construct is discussed in Chapter III.
8. *Fear of Criminal Retaliation*. As a crime-reporting predictor, fear of criminal retaliation refers to an emotional response to a perceived future criminal threat. This fear is typically manifested in the form of a failure to report witnessed crimes or victimization events to the police.
9. *The Police Role*. It is the function that the police assume in society. In other words, the police role is what is considered to be an appropriate activity and behavior that the society normatively expects the police to do and that is “determined by legal requirements, the police department, and the community” (Roberg et al., 2000, p. 28).

10. *Citizen Interaction with the Police*. It refers to the type of contact citizens have with the police, whether citizen-initiated or police-initiated contacts, the frequency of those contacts, and exposure to the media about police misconduct, police service in general, police responsibilities, etc.
11. *Citizen-Initiated Contacts with the Police*. It refers to voluntary calls to the police by citizens, which may include calls to report crimes, emergencies, suspicious persons, or noise complaints (Davis & Henderson, 2003) and informal contacts such as chatting with the police. This term is discussed in Chapter IV.
12. *Police-Initiated Contacts with the Public*. It refers to any type of contacts initiated by the police, regardless of a citizen's will. Such contacts may include traffic stops, execution of arrest warrants, summons, arrests for minor crimes, and arrests for serious crimes. This term is discussed in Chapter IV.
13. *Media Exposure*. It is defined as the degree to which people are exposed to news about police misconduct. Media exposure is considered a vicarious type of contact with the police and is discussed in Chapters III and IV.
14. *Prior Victimization*. In this study, prior victimization is treated as an independent variable (a crime-reporting predictor), which refers to the two types of crimes that people have experienced/been victims of in the past, namely property crimes and crimes against persons. This term is discussed in Chapter IV.
15. *Model*. A model is a diagram that graphically presents and explains the interrelationships between variables (Stoner, Freeman, & Gilbert, 1995). The

term “model” is found in all chapters of this dissertation. In this study, this term is utilized to refer to a visual display of the relationships between crime-reporting correlates.

Organization of This Dissertation

This dissertation consists of seven chapters. They are organized in five main segments: introduction (one chapter), review of relevant literature (three chapters), methodology (one chapter), analysis and result (one chapter), and discussion and conclusions (one chapter). Chapter I introduces the main topic as well as the purpose and objectives of this study, states the importance of this study, and defines relevant terms that are frequently used throughout this project.

Chapters II, III, and IV are dedicated to the review of existing literature in the area of interest. Generally, the main purpose of Chapters II, III, and IV was to develop a crime-reporting profile (that is based on empirical evidence) of those who are more likely to report crimes to the police, and to discuss the main factors that are associated with or influence one’s decision to report crimes to the police. Additionally, in these three chapters an attempt was made to identify conditions under which crime-reporting occurs. Three chapters are interrelated, and each one serves as a building block of this crime-reporting profile.

Chapter II focuses on police behavior as an important factor that influences both attitudes toward the police and crime-reporting behavior. This chapter starts with a broad discussion of police behavior, specifically police misconduct, by defining police behavior in the context of police use of force and its consequences on the public-police

relationship. The final section of Chapter II is an epilogue that rounds out the effect of police behavior on people's crime-reporting behavior.

Chapter III examines how people's attitudes toward the police, as a multidimensional construct, affect citizen-police relationships and ultimately citizens' crime-reporting behavior. Additionally, relevant literature has been reviewed with a focus on the effects of demographic characteristics, such as gender, age, race/ethnicity, and socio-economic status, on both attitudes toward the police and crime-reporting behavior.

Chapter IV examines public interaction with the police in the forms of citizen-initiated contacts and police-initiated contacts, the frequency of those contacts, and media exposure about police misconduct, its effects on attitudes toward the police and crime-reporting behavior, and the effects of prior victimization on crime-reporting behavior. In the second half of Chapter IV, the discussion is focused on developing a crime-reporting profile that is victimization-based. That is, the review of literature in the second half of Chapter IV is an attempt to determine the extent to which prior victimizations (by types of crime, seriousness of victimization events, victims' personal characteristics and relationship with the offender) affect crime-reporting behavior.

Chapter V provides information about the research method and procedures that have been utilized in this study. Additionally, the findings of the preliminary study (pilot study) are presented and incorporated in the discussion of the adequacy of the measuring instrument. Tables for scales that have been designed to measure the underlying constructs in this study are also presented.

The main purpose of Chapter V is to identify and sufficiently discuss the data collection method and procedure, the sample, the sampling procedure, and the survey

instrument, including issues related to reliability and validity of the measuring instrument. Furthermore, research hypotheses that were developed as a general approach to answer the research questions have been presented and discussed in the context of the literature. Finally, a four-page executive plan has been developed that outlines the steps and statistical procedures that took place in the three phases of data analyses.

Chapter VI presents the research analyses and results of this study. The analyses and results are presented in three different phases. Phase I is an exploratory phase; it tested the adequacy of the measuring instrument. In Phase II, the test results for eighteen research hypotheses are presented. And Phase III presents the results from the path analysis, which is a statistical technique that has been used to build a theoretical causal model. In this phase, ultimately, three simplistic and parsimonious theoretical causal models were built.

Chapter VII provides a summary of the entire study, discussion of the findings for all three phases of the analyses, implications of the findings for policy and practice, recommendations for future research, and a short conclusion, which briefly discusses specific findings that were achieved in this study. The implications section in this chapter discusses the positive and negative consequences of crime-reporting behavior on the current criminal justice system.

CHAPTER II

POLICE BEHAVIOR

Introduction

“Other than random attacks, all such cases (police use of force) begin with the decision of a police officer to do something, to help, to arrest, to inquire. If the officer has decided to do nothing, then no force would have been used. In this sense, the police officer always causes the trouble. But it is the trouble which the police officer is sworn to cause...” (As quoted in Rahtz, 2003, p.1)

Building on the criminologists’ contributions of an empirical understanding of police misconduct, this chapter examines how police behavior as a multidimensional construct, which includes police use of force as one of the main dimensions, affects citizen-police relationships. A universal agreement exists among researchers who have studied the police that the police are the only entity in society that are officially authorized to use force. Thus, when discussing the police, it is important to note the unique role they have in society – the authority to use coercion (Goldstein, 1977; Barker & Carter, 1986; Champion, 2001; Goldstein, 1990). The police are authorized by the government to use force when necessary. This authority, rather limited in scope, consists of coercive means used to compel individuals to comply with the requirements of criminal laws or force them to face the consequences (Roberg, Crank, & Kuykendall, 2000). However, how this police authority is used by the officers varies by officer’s gender, age, race, level of education, and a number other of factors which determine the outcome of police-citizen encounters and ultimately police-public relationships (Braithwaite, 1996; Smith, 1986; Cruse & Rubin, 1973; Fyfe, 1998; Worden, 1989, 1990; Worden & Shepard, 1996; Tuch & Weitzer, 1997; Egharevba, 2004; Delores, 2000;

Weitzer & Tuch, 2005; Holdaway, 2002; Salim, Voeten, & Keskinen, 2000, 2005; Tennyson, 2006).

Unfortunately, police use of force frequently results in police misconduct. Police misconduct refers to the “actions that violate departmental guidelines (policies, procedures, rules, and regulations) that define both appropriate and inappropriate conduct for officers” (Roberg et al., 2000, p. 544). In this study, police misconduct (frequently referred to as police inappropriate behavior) includes police behaviors that involve the use of excessive force (police brutality), tendency to use force when unnecessary, police corruption, verbal abuse, impoliteness, and other behaviors that negatively influence people’s attitudes toward the police, which in turn, affect their willingness to participate in social control mechanisms (e.g., willingness to report crime to the police). However, since prior research evidently shows that police misconduct results from police use of force, the discussion in this chapter will be focused mainly on police use of force as one of the most critical factors that affects police-citizen relationships, in addition to other contributing factors (see Etienne, 1992).

Defining Police Behavior in the Context of Police Use of Force

Historically, “theoretical explanations borrowed from other academic traditions have been the foundation of much of the research on police behavior and decision making process. This historical development has left the study of police behavior – a subset of police discretion – as a phenomenon with many potential explanations throughout this diverse literature” (McCluskey, Terrill, & Paoline, 2005, p. 20; see also Walker, 1997; Alpert & Dunham, 2004; for reviews). Consequently, there are many dimensions, yet

many ways of defining police inappropriate behavior. The police use of force is one element of policing that is most notably viewed by citizens as an inappropriate behavior. However, most definitions of police use of force do not categorize it as inappropriate behavior. One of the most common definitions of police use of force is the following: “the amount of force required by police to compel compliance by an unwilling subject” (National Institute of Justice, 1999, p. x). This type of police use of force is clearly defined for the purpose of legitimately enforcing the law and therefore it should not be confused with police inappropriate behavior. Police use of excessive force, or police brutality, on the other hand, is characterized as a serious physical and psychological harm inflicted upon civilians (National Institute of Justice, 1999, 2000b). To reiterate, police inappropriate behavior is usually characterized with verbal abusiveness, tendency to use force when unnecessary, and other illegitimate deviant behaviors that affect general societal expectations of the police (Alpert & Dunham, 2004; National Institute of Justice, 1999, 2000b).

Needless to say, most complaints about police misconduct are a consequence of police use of force (Seron, Pereira, & Kovath, 2006). The expression “police use of force” is rather subjective, and, as such, it is open to interpretation. In this context, since there is no single definition of police use of force, then we should make a distinction as to what constitutes police use of force on one hand, and what constitutes police use of excessive force on the other hand. This discussion extends to the amount of force that the police are allowed to use. The interpretation of the definition of police use of force is much more complicated than it looks at first glance. The two most arguable terms used in defining police use of force include: what constitutes “reasonable” and “necessary” for

the police action (police use of force) to be approved (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1998a; see also Klinger & Brunson, 2009; Engel & Smith, 2009; Novak, 2009; Terrill, 2009).

Furthermore, there are two points of view to consider when defining police behavior: 1) the actor's perspective and 2) the perspective of those outside the actor – those who are reacted to. In both cases, police behavior becomes the question of how the audience (the public) reacts to it. That means that the police behavior as an act is not in question but rather the interpretation of that act (see Williams & McShane, 1994). If the audience views the police action as necessary to exercise control, then the use of coercive means is justified. However, police use of force becomes an issue when the police justify their action based on the fact that the other person, or the person acted upon, has a nature that poses a threat. This attitudinal judgment does not give the police the right to use force. If the police indeed apply force, in this case, it is excessive force because the need to use force is unnecessary, and by definition, it is unreasonable. Therefore, police use of force is not justified since it negatively affects the relationship between the police and the public. This has been documented frequently when the police attempt to justify their use of physical force in encounters with minorities (see Weitzer & Tuch, 1999; Weitzer, 2000; Walker, 1997; Davis & Henderson, 2003; Gold, 2003; for reviews). In several well-publicized cases, such as those of Rodney King in 1991 and Abner Louima in 1997, the police acted prematurely, therefore, causing a major disapproval of police ability to handle cases involving people of different ethnic communities – minorities in general (Weitzer & Tuch, 1999; National Institute of Justice, 2000). This could seriously hurt how the police are perceived by the public; it could also have a negative effect on the general social control.

Moreover, the main concern of police behavior here is that when abusive behaviors resulting from police use of force or police mishandlings of cases come to light, the public has no way of knowing how often the police engage in such actions. Most police violence is hidden from the public view, and when such police violence is exposed to the public, usually by the mass media, it brings a number of problems with it (Cole & Smith, 2001; see also Manning, 2009). Ultimately, such problems result in people questioning police legitimacy, public trust is deeply affected, fear of abusive policing rises, and citizens' satisfaction with the police decreases (Tyler, 2005; Stoutland, 2001; Hurst & Frank, 2000; Goldsmith, 2005; Macdonald & Stokes, 2006; Gallagher et al., 2001; see also Salmi et al., 2000; Travis et al., 2000; Weitzer & Tuch, 1999).

Police behavior is also an issue that is closely related the general principles of promoting police integrity. Accordingly, the U.S. Department of Justice (2001) has made several suggestions on this topic, including the following:

- Law enforcement agencies must recognize and respect the value and dignity of every person. In vesting law enforcement officers with the lawful authority to use force to protect the public welfare, a careful balancing of all human interests is required.
- Courtesy in all public contacts encourages understanding and cooperation. The most desirable method for effectuating an arrest is where a suspect complies with simple directions given by an officer. When officers are confronted with a situation where control is required to affect arrest or protect the public safety, officers should attempt to achieve control through advice, warnings and persuasion. Where such verbal persuasion has not been

effective, is not feasible, or would appear to be ineffective, an officer may use force that is reasonably necessary.

- Police officers should use only an amount of force that is reasonably necessary to effectively bring an incident under control, while protecting the lives of the officers and others. (p. 3)
- Additionally, the police should avoid calorific remarks in any encounter with citizens because boorish police behavior only escalates the situation, which could inevitably result in police use of force.

Consequences of Police Behavior

One of the main concerns with police inappropriate behavior is that it can be destructive in nature. According to Robeerg and Kuykendall (1997), the police are a very powerful force in society and have the potential to use that power in both constructive and destructive ways. If the police power is used in a destructive way, it deeply hurts the public trust, cooperation with the police, and ultimately the level of social control or the police efficiency of crime prevention and control. By contrast, if the police use their power in a constructive way, it means that they should assume answerability for their actions and be accountable to the general public, elected and appointed officials, those individuals who receive police service (e.g., victims and suspects), and other components of the criminal justice system (e.g., prosecuting attorneys, judges, etc.) (Robeerg & Kuykendall, 1997; see also Alpert & Dunham, 2004; Kaplan, 1973).

When discussing police behavior in general, or police misconduct in specific, the main concern of the public remains police use of excessive force. Consequently, police use of excessive force often results from inability of the police to clearly define their

authority. Police authority is essential to make and sustain the arrest. An officer responds to a challenge of his authority by asserting authority. And when the citizen complies, there is no necessity for further attempts at assertion. Excessive force is thus exerted in a situation when it becomes unclear who is in charge. In such cases, where challenges to police authority are at stake, the police subculture becomes important, and thus it demands that the officer shows he or she is in charge (see Kaplan, 1973; Van, 1974; Walker, 2005; Skogan & Frydl, 2004). In some cases, the police use of excessive force is a direct result of citizens' ignorance of police authority (as illustrated in Figure 1, p. 33, this study). In this view, side by side, there are strong police subcultural beliefs that the officer who ignores such challenges from citizens loses the respect of the citizenry, and this fact makes it difficult for other officers to work in the community (Kaplan, 1973). In other words, the police misconduct may occur due to fear of losing the respect of the citizenry.

As discussed earlier in this chapter, police use of force in some cases is unavoidable. However, as an unavoidable factor, it is also closely tied to police discretion, especially to the decision to engage in a verbal confrontation with the arrestee. Nevertheless, when discretions are made, reasons should be given for the decisions and, whenever possible, the community should be allowed to react to those decisions and reasons. Justice is best served if people know why they are treated by the police as they are and what, if anything, they can do to change the treatments they dislike (Findlay, 2004; Kaplan, 1973).

Insofar, the argument has been extended that the police use of force may cause some form of alienation, which in turn, may affect the effectivity of social control, which

in this study is measured by the amount of crime being reported to the police. However, speaking of necessity of police use of force in certain situations, citizens also need to be aware of the fact that the police procedures are defined by the feature that they may not be opposed in their course, and that force can be used if they are opposed (Kaplan, 1973). In other words, police misconduct may be triggered by citizens themselves. During encounters with the police, many do not realize that their behavior triggers an inappropriate police response (see Figure 1, p. 33 in this study). Such behavior includes the questioning of the police legitimacy, beginning to see the police as invaders of privacy, etc. (Skogan, 1996; Braithwaite, 1996; National Institute of Justice, 2000).

Arguably, "...by law, the police have the right to use force if necessary to make an arrest, keep the peace, or maintain public order. But just how much force is necessary and under what conditions it may be used are complex and debatable questions" (Cole & Smith, 2001, p. 221). Each case is unique in its nature and it requires that the police officers make judgment calls on how they would approach the situation. Etienne (1992) argued that the police are vested with the authority and the power to deprive ordinary citizens of their freedoms within a democratic system where these very freedoms are regarded as the basic pillars of society (Etienne, 1992). Generally, most police activities do not involve the use of force or behaviors that result in citizens' dislike of the police; however, those that do involve the use of force reflect important patterns of interaction between officers and citizens (Alpert & Dunham, 2004; Cole & Smith, 2001; Kan & White, 2009).

Approaches to Avoid Police Misconduct

One of the most interesting views of the concept of contemporary policing is presented by Goldstein (1990) in his book titled *Problem-Oriented Policing*. Here, Goldstein argued that what people require of police is a fundamental self-examination. This is a call for the police to analyze and address the problems the public expects them to handle and evaluate whether or not their responses to those problems are, in fact, meeting the public needs. If not, Goldstein argued, police should be prepared to change their responses and respond in dramatically different ways as needed (Goldstein, 1990). What the police do should be approved by those being policed, i.e., the citizens. In any police-citizen encounters, the police should self-examine the course of their own action. Regularly, before a police officer takes any action, he or she should think of answering four basic questions:

1. Will the decision withstand inspection? That is, the decision to act on behalf of society must disembark fairly and be applied adequately so that the decision made by the police would be unlikely to be overturned at the review (National Institute of Justice, 2006; Walker, 2005; Champion & Vasan, 2001).
2. Is the decision ethical? This refers to the ability to think about the impact of the police actions on all the stakeholders. Stakeholders are those people affected by a police officer's decision, namely members of the community. Before a police officer does anything, he or she should determine who is likely to be helped or harmed and make every effort to avoid and/or reduce the harm that affects the effectivity of social control. Furthermore, an ethical decision involves following ethical principles such as trustworthiness, respect,

responsibility, fairness, caring, and citizenship. These principles are necessary in order to minimize harm; thus, they are ground rules for life. Therefore, an ethical decision is evaluated by asking oneself whether the options at hand are trustworthy, respectful, responsible, fair, caring, and examples of good citizenship and whether they would produce a desirable outcome (Pollock, 2004; Walker, 2005; National Institute of Justice, 2006).

3. Is the decision lawful? That is, every decision concerning the public should be approved by the public. In other words, the decision to act must be in agreement with general societal rules (Kadish & Kadish, 1973; Skolnick, 1966; Banks, 2004).
4. Is the decision fair? That is, because of the concern of public importance, the action of the police requires honesty, equality, and balance in dealing with the public (Skolnick & Fyfe, 1993; Binder & Scharf, 1980; Pollock, 2004).

In short, policing is about the ability to resolve issues that concern the community. It is about successful delivery of the police service to the communities, and that, in turn, makes communities work in support of the police service (i.e., by reporting witnessed crimes to the police) in all dealings with real community issues together. Social control can only be achieved by consent, with the cooperation and support of the community in the macro-level and individual members of society in the micro-level. How the police behave may affect the way their service is delivered to the public. Needless to say, there will always be cantankerous people who will constantly complain about police treatment and refuse to cooperate with them, but this is the nature of human behavior

(Goldsmith, 2005; Skogan, 1996; Campbell & Schuman, 1972; see also Durkheim, 1893, 1897 for a discussion of rule-breaking as a normal social phenomenon).

Data-Driven Literature on Police Behavior

The measures of crime-reporting behavior through public perceptions about the police indicate that the police themselves are those who make the difference in how the public reacts toward social control mechanisms in general and toward the police in particular. The way the police decide to deal with the public influences the very outcome of the encounters. Skogan (1996) argued that police treatment of citizens is closely linked to how citizens react toward the police. In his study on public opinion of the police, Skogan (1996) suggested that “being treated fairly and politely [by the police] and perceiving that police showed respect in what they had to say” (p. 426) were the factors related to improving the public’s general perception of the police. Common findings were also presented by Frank, Smith, and Novak (2005), who studied reasons why people hold specific attitudes toward the police. According to Frank, Smith, and Novak (2005), an officer’s friendliness during police-citizen encounters was the most influential factor in citizen’s creation of a belief that the officer was responsive to his/her concerns, problems, and feelings (see also Tankebe, 2009).

Moreover, police inappropriate behavior generates a counter-behavior of the same type. This important hypothesis is supported by the research findings of a study conducted by Braithwaite in 1996. Braithwaite (1996) in his study focused on police officers’ gender influence on the response they received from citizens through behavioral tactics during police-citizen encounters. He used gender to compare the differences in the frequency of behaviors that occurred when police dealt with citizens. The findings of his

study showed that female officers were more psychologically prepared to de-escalate the situations that may have otherwise resulted in the use of coercive means to deal with citizens compared to their male counterparts. Thus, female officers in this role were more supportive towards citizens, engaging in more information exchange and supportive behaviors. Comparatively, the findings of this study showed that male officers were more likely to use tactics involving threats, controlling statements, and physical acts in dealing with citizens compared to their female counterparts. Furthermore, when the author of this study examined the frequency of citizens' behavior as recorded by officers, male officers were more likely to bring forth defensive statements and verbal abuse from citizens compared to female officers. That is, citizens' responses to male officers were more confrontational compared to female officers, which ultimately resulted in a higher number of citizen-resistance incidents against the police. In other words, male police officers, according to Braithwaite (1996), were found to be more coercive than female officers in dealing with citizens. This study suggests that citizen behavior is confrontational only when the police behave in a way that triggers such a response (Braithwaite, 1996). Statistically, only 15% of citizens are, in any way, aggressive with the police, and only about 3% of them exceed a moderate level of aggression during the police-citizen encounters (Cruse & Rubin, 1973). Furthermore, when a citizen hostile behavior occurs during the police-citizen encounters, although rare, it increases the likelihood of an arrest (National Institute of Justice, 2000). An arrest will always be a counterproductive factor in crime-reporting behavior since people tend to create an impression of the police based on their prior experiences with the police (see Brown & Delores, 2000; Beck & Yulia, 2004; Cheuprakobkit, 2000; Cheuprakobkit & Bartsch,

2001; for reviews). A negative experience with the police thus influences public judgments about the fairness of the procedures that the police follow to execute their authority (Tyler, 2005; see also Uildriks, 2004; Tankebe, 2009).

Police behavior is also related to the race of both the officer and the civilian citizen. Walker, Spohn, and DeLeone (2004) argued that minority officers can better relate to minority citizens. However, this does not mean that the officer's race deciphers into differences in behavior; it only means that minority officers reverberate more responsiveness to minority victims (Walker et al., 2004; see also Fyfe, 1998; Worden, 1989, 1990; Worden & Shepard, 1996). The arrest behavior of minority officers, for example, is no different from that of white officers. The general hypothesis is that minority officers would be less likely to discriminate against other minority groups or individuals and thus more reluctant to use force against minority citizens (Walker et al., 2004). Empirical evidence on police behavior and race suggests that minorities are generally treated worse than whites by the police (Tuch & Weitzer, 1997; Egharevba, 2004; Weitzer & Tuch, 2005; Delores, 2000; Holdaway, 2002, see Chapter III of this dissertation for an extended review of literature on individual characteristics). Even police officers believe that whites are treated better than blacks and other minority groups (National Institute of Justice, 2000). Research also shows that coercive means are used more often against blacks or racially mixed suspects than against white suspects. Additionally, according to Smith (1986), the police have a tendency to act more aggressively toward blacks when they are encountered in predominantly white neighborhoods, but this is not much different when blacks are encountered in black neighborhoods either (Smith, 1986; see also Bates & Fasenfest, 2005).

Like race, a citizen's socio-economic status is also a determinant of police behavior. Research on police attitudes toward abuse of authority conducted by the National Institute of Justice (2000) revealed that police use of physical force is more likely to occur against the poor compared to the middle-class or the rich people. In the neighborhood context, regardless of the type of crime, the police are three times more likely to exercise coercive authority toward citizens in lower-class neighborhoods than in upper-class neighborhoods (Smith, 1986). Evidently, an increased likelihood of police use of force in disadvantaged neighborhoods inevitably affects crime-reporting behavior. Research shows that neighborhoods of low socio-economic status overall show a low police notification about crime occurrences (see Goudriann, Wittebrood, & Nieuwbeerta, 2006; Baumer, 2002; Fishman, 1974; for reviews).

Thus far, research discussed here shows that police behavior is directly linked to the creation of citizens' negative or positive perceptions about the police. The discussion of relevant research in the following few paragraphs will show that there is a direct link between police behavior and citizens' willingness to report crime to the police, largely as a result of their negative perceptions of the police.

According to Tennyson (2006), being assaulted by the police increases the odds of reporting the assault to the police. Interestingly enough, this research shows that age, education, and gender play a significant role in crime-reporting behavior. That is, if assaulted by the police (or experiencing some form of police misbehavior), the older population, as well as those more educated, reported a higher willingness to report crime to the police (Tennyson, 2006). Additionally, being female, too, increased the chance of reporting police assault to the police. Factors such as police action (in this case, police

use of force, and in some cases, police use of excessive force), as well as “victimization experiences, lead people to consider the police less friendly” (Salmi, Voeten, & Keskinen, 2000, p. 442). Police negative attitudes toward victims of crime, too, have an impact on a victim’s decision to report victimization events to the police (see Krahe, 1991). Researchers such as Salim et al. (2000), suggested that for those who were, at some point in the past, witnesses and/or suspects (due to victimization experiences including police use of force, with the police being the aggressors), such experiences had a direct negative effect on their friendliness with the police; a behavior that was manifested in a form of fear of being around the police, which in turn led to a lack of willingness to participate in social control mechanisms (i.e., unwillingness to report crime to the police). Moreover, those who had contact with the police in situations where they were questioned as suspects or witnesses to a crime, considered the police to be less close and thus less friendly (Salmi et al., 2000; Salmi, Voeten, & Keskinen, 2005).

Overall, research on victimization experiences tells us that there is a correlation between victimization by the police and crime-reporting behavior. However, the impact on willingness to report crime to the police remains unclear since research in this area has produced mixed results. Despite the fact that there is some empirical evidence supporting the hypothesis that individuals who have been victimized by the police are more likely to report victimization events to the police, more research is needed to determine the influence of police behavior on crime-reporting behavior through victimization experiences with the police.

To reiterate, it remains open to debate whether or not victimization experiences, when the police are the aggressors, have a significant influence on crime-reporting

behavior. This changes, however, when victimization is a result of a crime. In this context, police behavior has a significant impact on individuals who have been previously victimized by crime (when the aggressors are other than the police). Nonetheless, the way the police behave during encounters with the victims of crime increases or decreases the likelihood of reporting crimes (repeat victimizations) to the police (see Xie, Pogarsky, Lynch, & McDowall, 2006; Hickman & Simpson, 2003, Conaway & Lohr, 1994; for reviews). For instance, empirical evidence presented by Hickman and Simpson (2003), who studied whether there is a link between a victim's assessment of police behavior during a previous domestic violence incident and the likelihood that the victim will report subsequent victimizations to the police, confirms that there is a correlation between the way the police behaved and the frequency of reported subsequent victimization events to the police. The main hypothesis tested in this study was that a victim would be more likely to report crimes to the police if the police had been fair in following administrative procedures as viewed by the victim in previous encounters with the police. The findings of this study, which were based on 198 interviews conducted with the victims of domestic violence, indicate that victims of domestic violence were more likely to call the police on repeat victimization events when they (the victims) were satisfied with the way the police had acted in a manner consistent with the victims' preferences (Hickman & Simpson, 2003). Additionally, the likelihood of reporting crimes to the police increased when the victims of crime were satisfied with the outcome of the police response in previous reports, e.g., arresting the offender (Hickman & Simpson, 2003; see also Vardalis, 1992; Krahe, 1991).

To effectively solve crimes, it is crucial that the victims of crime provide the police with vital information. When the victims of crime come forward and report crimes to the police, during interviews with the police for instance, it largely depends on police officers' behavior that inspires victims of crime to provide or omit information about the crimes they (the victims) have witnessed or have been affected by (see Holmberg, 2004). Holmberg's (2004) research findings indicate that when victims of crime felt the police showed respect and support, they were more willing to provide information about the crimes they have been a victim of. On the other hand, distress and emotional trauma were the consequences of negative interview experiences resulting from negative police behaviors (Holmberg, 2004; see also Fisher & Geiselman, 1992; Shepherd, 1991; Dahl, 1992; for reviews).

Summary

The main objective of this chapter was to review accessible existing literature on police behavior as it relates to crime-reporting behavior. A second objective of this chapter was to focus on police behavior and its effects on relationships between the police and the public. The relationship between the police and the public is multidimensional. Thus, it relates to public trust in the police, public satisfaction with the police, and ultimately, public cooperation with the police, which is a necessary component of policing. Without public cooperation, the social control suffers in its entirety.

Prior literature on police behavior shows that there are several influencing elements that affect police-public relationships; namely, police tendency to use force or, in some cases, police use of excessive force, police sub-culture that consists of a belief

that if an officer ignores challenges from citizens, he or she loses the respect of the citizenry, which makes it difficult for other officers to work in the community. The existence of this police sub-culture is the driving force that leads to police misconduct, which, as mentioned several times, affects the relationship with the public. Additionally, as illustrated in Figure 1, police behavior in and of itself may generate citizens' responses of the same types and vice versa. Research shows that the officer in charge of the situation may escalate the situation if he/she applies a treatment (i.e., use tactics involving threats, controlling statements, and physical acts) to the point that coercive means need to be applied. In return, the citizen's response to the police officer's coercion may also contribute to the way the officer decides to handle the situation. This means that there is a bidirectional relationship between police behavior and citizens' behavior (see Figure 1). Finally, the outcome of a police-citizen encounter is largely influenced by an officer's gender, level of education, and race. The review of literature in this chapter also indicates that there is a relationship between police behavior and a citizen's prior victimization, and both of these two variables have a direct influence on crime-reporting behavior (see Figure 1). However, prior victimization in this chapter refers to victimization resulting from police misconduct, when the police are the aggressors. The most noticeable negative effect of police behavior on crime-reporting behavior is displayed through citizens' attitudes toward the police (see Figure 1).

The research studies presented in this chapter point out the importance of conducting continued research in this area because not enough is known about police behavior and its effect on people's willingness to report crime to the police. Most studies that have investigated this problem have been partial, at best. Yet, they have mostly

focused on the effect of police behavior on people's attitudes toward the police. Only a few of them have been focused on factors other than attitudes toward the police which affect crime-reporting behavior. This study will move one step beyond attitudes; it will investigate the effect of both police behavior and attitudes toward the police on crime-reporting behavior. However, police behavior in this study is only one underlying construct among many others that have been used to determine citizens' willingness to report crime to the police. An in-depth investigation of factors that influence police behavior is beyond the scope of this study and as such they will not be investigated.

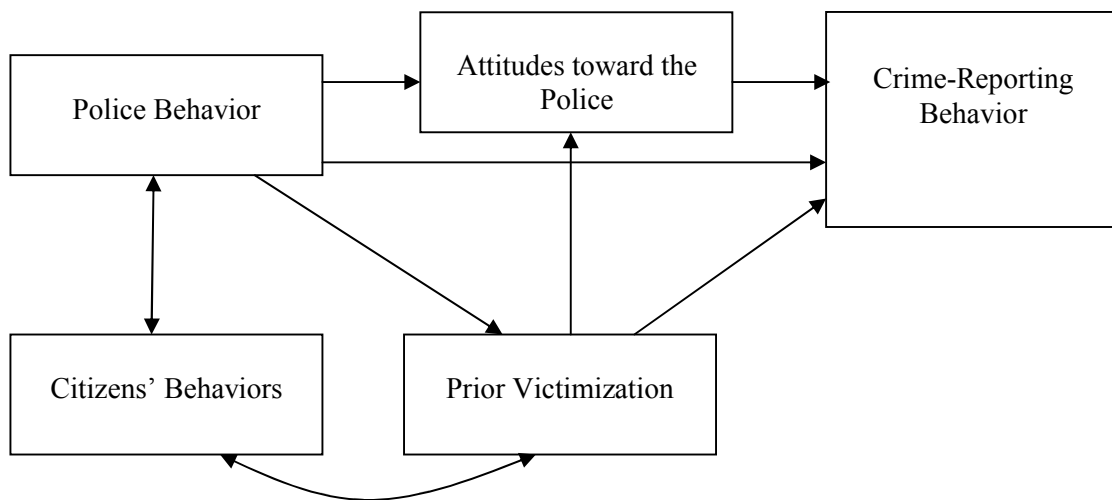


Figure 1. Police behavior model.¹

¹ This model has been developed based on the review of the literature in this chapter. It illustrates the relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variable.

CHAPTER III

ATTITUDES TOWARD THE POLICE & INDIVIDUAL DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

Introduction

This chapter examines how people's attitudes toward the police, as a multidimensional construct, affect citizen-police relationships and ultimately citizens' crime-reporting behavior. Additionally, I will review literature with a focus on the effects of demographic characteristics, such as gender, age, race/ethnicity, and socio-economic status, on attitudes toward the police and crime-reporting behavior.

Why is the link between attitudes and crime-reporting behavior worth examining? Research shows that there is a relationship between attitudes and behaviors (see Foster, 1998; Kim & Hunter, 1993; see also Eagle & Chaiken, 1993; Ross et al., 1981; Fazio & Williams, 1986). In this context, attitudes play a significant role in determining one's behavior, including willingness to report crime to the police (see Carcach, 1997; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; for reviews). The importance of attitudes is based on the fact that an attitude is a person's evaluation of an object of thought. Based on that evaluation, that person tends to respond to situations at hand (Fazio, 1990). In other words, attitudes are behavioral tendencies that have an inclination to instigate people to act in certain way (Morris & Maisto, 2007; Cotton, 2004).

The argument in this chapter is that an attitude has four dimensions, each with an independent influence on police-public relationships. Together, they measure the same thing, and thus they form a clearer picture of "attitudes toward the police" as a construct. In general, an attitude toward the police as a construct is defined as a behavioral tendency

to act in certain ways toward social control mechanisms, toward the police in particular (see Fazio, 1990; Morris & Maistro, 2007; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). The main assumption in this study is that negative or positive attitudes toward the police are formed based on four basic elements that describe the domain of attitude; namely, trust in the police, satisfaction with the police, fear of the police due to negative personal experiences with the police, and confidence in the police. These four elements are interrelated and as such they represent the full domain of attitudes toward the police, as a single construct.

Attitudes Influence Behavior

Attitudes toward the police means considering what the public wants from the police and how they feel about the police, in terms of the police service. Thus, attitudes have consequences for the way the police act toward people (see Zanden & Wilfrid, 1977). Most researchers agree that the police should pay careful attention to people's attitudes and work toward achieving more favorable attitudes toward them, toward their service (police service) in particular because one of the police goals is to have the support of the public in dealing with crime and safety problems (see Schaffer, Huebner, & Bynum, 2003a; Weitzer & Tuch, 2005a; Xie, Pogarsky, Lynch, & McDowall, Weinstein, 2002; 2006; Yung, Sun, & Triplett, 2009; for reviews).

Since the police are actually concerned with maintaining order and serving the public – serving customers – they should always be in search of public support because their performance (i.e., in solving crime, maintaining public order, and providing public safety), highly depends on how legitimate their service is considered in the eyes of the public. Thus, negative or positive attitudes toward the police can make a significant difference in how the police service is delivered to the public. For example, if one holds

negative attitudes toward the police (i.e., doesn't trust the police, fears the police, or more generally, is not satisfied with their performance), he or she is more likely not to report witnessed crimes to the police (Davis & Henderson, 2003; Laub, 1981; Sorenson & Telles, 1991; Reynolds, Semukhina, & Demidov, 2008; Carcach, 1997; Greenberg & Ruback, 1992; Bachman, 1998; Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 1987; see also MacDonald & Strokes, 2006; Rosenbaum, Schuck, et al., 2005). In this context, his or her attitudes determine the communicational behavior with the police (see Foster, 1998 for a discussion on attitudes and behavior). The problem here is that a citizen's cooperation with the police (e.g., reporting crimes to the police) determines police success since citizens' cooperation in general helps the police solve crime, confirms police legitimacy, and makes the community safer. If a person holds negative attitudes toward the police, he or she tends to form a belief that the police are no good. Thus, believing is doing something – it influences behavior. In most cases, people tend to behave consistently with their attitudes (Smith & Mackei, 2007; Olson & Stone, 2005; see also Ferguson, 2004). Therefore, it is important to seriously consider public attitudes since “attitudes, personalities, and the like play [an important] role in the translation of external events into individual behavior” (Shoemaker, 1990, p. 73).

In short, by measuring public opinions, we determine people's attitudes toward the police. By determining attitudes, we could predict the direction of behavior. By predicting the direction of behavior, we can determine what changes should be made to improve attitudes toward the police because by changing attitudes we change the behavior. The central proposition of behavior is attitudes (see Perry, Gillespie, & Lotz, 2006). That is, to obtain a desirable behavior from the public, the police in particular

must focus on working toward changing people's attitudes toward them because behaviors that are driven by attitudes can last longer compared to behaviors that are changed by control (Fazio, 1990; Snyder, 1982). This is done by delivering police service in accordance with public wants and needs. Public wants and needs, in this case, are met when the police frequently self-examine/evaluate their service (Goldstein, 1990).

In the previous chapter, the empirical evidence shows that there is a link between citizens' attitudes toward the police and police behavior, and both of these two constructs have a direct influence on crime-reporting behavior. This translates that attitudes influence behavior and the behavior influences attitudes (see Braithwaite, 1996; Guagnano, Stern, & Dietz, 1995; Tennyson, 2006). To be more specific, people create their attitudes about the police based on how the police behave toward them. So, police behavior, to a greater extent, influences people's attitudes. People's negative attitudes, in turn, influence their own crime-reporting behavior toward the police (see Davis & Henderson, 2003; Xie, Pogarsky, Lynch, & McDowall, 2006; Hickman & Simpson, 2003, Conaway & Lohr, 1994; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Reynolds, Semukhina, & Demidov, 2008; Carcach, 1997; Greenberg & Ruback, 1992; Bachman, 1998). In this chapter, the discussion will be focused on multidimensionality of attitude as a construct, and the determinants of attitudes and crime-reporting behavior, namely the demographic characteristics of individuals and groups.

Attitudes as a Multidimensional Construct

An attitude toward the police is a multidimensional construct. The argument is that each dimension equally contributes to the citizen-police relationship. Furthermore, positive or negative attitudes toward the police are formed based on trusting the police,

satisfaction with police service, fearing the police that is inflicted due to negative personal experiences with the police in the past (as a result of being victimized by the police, when the police are the aggressor, i.e., use of excessive force, verbal abusiveness, impoliteness, etc.), and confidence in the police (i.e., ability to rely on the police when their service is requested or needed).

Public Trust in the Police

Trust in the police is one dimension of attitudes toward the police. In this context, the question of trust in the police has been addressed by many researchers (Sharp & Johnson, 2009; Tyler, 2005; Stoutland, 2001; Hurst & Frank, 2000; Goldsmith, 2005; Macdonald & Stokes, 2006). However, the argument of whether or not to trust the police is twofold. On one hand, as Goldsmith (2005) argues, without public trust in police, policing would be without consent and legitimacy, which is difficult or impossible (Goldsmith, 2005). Trusting the police, on the other hand, is not as practical as it seems on paper. Why should people not trust the police? Roberg, Crank, and Kuykendall (2000) argue that “The United States is a work in progress as our experiment in democracy continues to unfold. We are all participants in this experiment and by virtue of our studies or experience we are well aware that representatives of government, like the police, should never be trusted completely” (Roberg et al., 2000, p. 5). Additionally, the police are committed to upholding the law. Some laws may not have the full support of the public. In this regard, “trust will...be elusive in situations in which the police are directed or choose to enforce laws that lack broad public support” (Goldsmith, 2005, p. 452).

Methodologically-sound research shows that public trust in the police is at a low to moderate level (see Hurst & Frank, 2000; Stoutland, 2001; Tyler, 2005; MacDonald &

Strokes, 2006). Tyler (2005) documented this phenomenon by examining the public trust and confidence in relationship to ethnic groups. In his study, he referred to trust as public “willingness to cooperate with the police.” For this study, the author used a multiethnic sample of New Yorkers. All of the respondents were interviewed over the telephone concerning their views about the NYPD and other police activities in their own neighborhood. The sample in this study was about 1,600 New Yorkers with 550 whites, 455 African Americans, 410 Hispanics and about 200 other ethnicities – mainly non-whites. The main objective of this study was to measure whether trust in the police shapes peoples’ views of the police and therefore increases public cooperation with the police in fighting crime. The findings of this study suggested that the respondents generally expressed somewhat positive levels of trust in the police. In other words, the New Yorkers were not completely mistrusting of the police. However, the author characterized this level of trust in the police as moderate but not satisfactory (Tyler, 2005). Furthermore, Tyler’s (2005, 2001a, 2001b) studies show that the level of trust is most strongly influenced by public judgments about the fairness of the procedures that the police follow when exercising their authority. Likewise, studies of Skogan (1994) and Weitzer and Tuch’s (2002, 1999) show that the general public evaluates the police through their personal encounters with them; thus, the police are those who can best gain the trust of the public by meeting public expectations and by exercising their authority in a way that the public considers fair (see also Tankebe, 2009).

This pattern can also be seen in Stoutland’s (2001) study of multiple dimensions of trust in resident-police relationships in Boston. Her main focus in this study was to analyze resident-police relations in poor urban communities that sometimes result in

many community members displaying a form of distrust in the police. In other words, the level of trust in the police was studied from the perspective of community members who live in high-crime neighborhoods. The findings of this study were somewhat surprising. Some of the youths she interviewed better understood the police officers and their position in society that sometimes looked bad in the eyes of the general public.

Stoutland's (2001) research findings show that young people did not expect the police hoping to be nice to them all the time. In other words, they did not expect the police to have only the role of social workers but rather the role of enforcers of the law. In this context, a vast majority of them suggested that the police officers should act competently and enforce the law, but they should not be nice to everyone. This translates that not trusting the police is one of society's normative expectations, and it can be considered a natural response of citizens toward the police. Moreover, other members of the community – adults – were convinced, however, that the police shared so few of their priorities that they were unwilling to cooperate with the police, avoided them, and, in general, had a negative view of them. Many residents stated that they felt disrespected when the police failed to respond when they reported an incident; this lack of police response seemed to increase residents' anger and, more importantly, distrust towards the police (Stoutland, 2001).

Similar findings were reported by Hurst and Frank (2000), who studied the nature of young people's attitudes toward the police. Hurst and Frank (2000) found that, across a broad spectrum, young people do not trust the police. In numerical terms, their findings show that a large percentage (about 41%) of juveniles reported they did not trust the police. Needless to say, trust as a factor, compared to other attitudinal factors in their

study, was not one of the main factors when it comes to shaping young people's views about the police. In terms of the strength of the influence, trusting the police in Hurst and Frank's study was ranked as the seventh factor after demographic factors, police conduct, victimization, etc., in determining young people's attitudes toward the police (Hurst & Frank, 2000; see Table 2, p. 196). Nonetheless, the authors pointed out that since juveniles make up a large portion of the population and they are likely to have more frequent contacts with the police than adults (see Skogan, 2005), a portion of their attitudes that are formed based on trust, especially those attitudes resulting from the frequency of contacts with the police early in life, are likely to persist over time. Those attitudes thus may influence young people to act as co-producers of public safety, sometimes in negative ways (Hurst & Frank, 2000; see also Byrne, Conway, & Ostermeyer, 2005; MacDonald & Stokes, 2006; for reviews).

In a study on racial differences in attitudes toward the police based on socio-economic status and community explanations of trust in local police, MacDonald and Stokes (2006) found that, by race, blacks expressed a lower level of trust in the police compared to whites. To carry out this research, the authors relied on Social Capital Benchmark Survey, a national random digit-dial telephone survey with a sample of 3,003 U.S. residents. Of the 3,003 respondents who completed the survey, by race, 500 were blacks, making them overrepresented in this sample. To measure social capital, the researchers relied on perception of community social trust toward the police and civic engagement. The outcome of interest in this research was respondents' perception of trust in their local police, which was measured using a three-point scale. The research findings show that there was a statistically significant relationship between race, class, and trust in

the police (Macdonald & Stokes, 2006). This research showed that race is the strongest predictor of the level of trust in the police (Macdonald & Stokes, 2006, p.367, see Table 2. for more details). By socio-economic status, those households that reported making less than \$30,000 annually expressed a significantly lower level of trust in the police compared to households with higher annual income. Thus, race, as well as socio-economic status, affects people's trust in the police. However, social capital did not significantly mediate the relationship between race and trust in the police. Nevertheless, it remains a strong predictor of trust in the police (Macdonald & Stokes, 2006).

Thus far, empirical evidence shows that trust is a predictor of attitudes toward the police. However, there are some studies that report contradictory findings. In 2003, the National Institute of Justice conducted a study on public opinions of the police. This methodologically advanced research study was focused on analyzing multiple variables related to public attitudes toward policing. The measuring of the variables in this study was done through a survey questionnaire that was mailed to a random sample of 375 residential addresses in four divisions of Los Angeles. The general findings in this study indicate that the level of social cohesion and informal social control present in neighborhoods influenced residents' assessments of the police. Regarding level of trust in the police, this study shows that trust is influenced mostly by race and ethnicity of the respondents (National Institute of Justice, 2003b, pp. 11-13). However, unlike other studies, this study concluded that demographic characteristics did not heavily influence respondents' attitudes toward the police in general. This study found that the most influential factors of public attitudes toward the police were contacts with the police, degree of victimization, perceived level of violent crimes in the neighborhood, etc.

Needless to say, trust in the police, according to this study, was not one of the influential factors of public attitudes toward the police (National Institute of Justice, 2003b).

Fear of the Police

Fear of the police, as a factor, is another dimension of attitudes toward the police in this study. In terms of research, this dimension of attitudes toward the police has been largely neglected (left understudied) and many researchers who have studied attitudes toward the police have failed to include it as an important factor in their studies.

Fear of the police is brought to life when people question the integrity of the police resulting largely from police misconduct (National Institute of Justice, 2000b; 2001; 2003; Pagon, 2003). Police integrity is questioned when the police exercise their authority in a discriminatory and prejudiced manner directing their actions toward violating basic civil rights of citizens. In other words, police integrity is questioned when the police do not provide equal protection under the law but rather “rely on generalized stereotypes, attitudes or beliefs about the propensity of any racial, ethnic, or national origin group to engage in unlawful activity” (e.g., use of excessive force and other forms of abuse of authority) (U.S. Department of Justice, 2001, p. 15; see also Seron, Pereira, & Kovath, 2006; Walker, 1997; Davis & Henderson, 2003; Gold, 2003; for reviews). Their unlawful activities then make people uncomfortable around the police. Fear of the police thus brings to people a sense of insecurity – a sense of powerlessness and inability to act on their behalf to bring about improvements. People who feel that they do not have a say, that their opinions and attitudes toward the police do not matter, consider the police a tyrant. This negative public view of the police causes emotional instability to residents. This instability in turn affects other aspects of people’s lives (i.e., isolation, questioning

equality, trust in police, satisfaction, perspectives for a better and civilized way of living, and ultimately, willingness to participate in social control mechanisms) (see Kittrie, 2006; Skogan, 1998; Brandl, Frank, Worden, and Bynum, 1994; Nihart, Lersch, Sellers, & Mieczkowski, 2005; Gallagher, Maguir, Mastrofski, & Reisg, 2001). In light of this, fear of the police thus is an important factor to consider when studying people's attitudes toward the police and their effect on crime-reporting behavior.

Natalie Taylor (2002) conducted a study trying to understand why some crimes are reported to the police and some are not. Her research partially focused on identifying what the true crime levels might be, as well as trying to provide an insight into why crimes are or are not reported and some of the reasons why people do not report crime to the police. In her research study, Taylor (2002) found that the reason why some of the crimes go unreported, in part, is directly linked to attitudes towards the police. That is, people tend to avoid contact with the police because there is a feeling of insecurity, which can be interpreted as fear of the police, to come forward and report to the police. In addition, this insecurity is coupled with a belief that there is little the police or other criminal justice agencies can do about the problem, a belief which reflects the lack of public trust in the police as well (see Salmi, Voeten, & Keskinen, 2005; Xie, Pogarsky, Lynch, & McDowall, 2006; Hickman & Simpson, 2003; Davis & Henderson, 2003).

Fearing the police is also closely associated with the way the police act (as discussed in Chapter II). Individuals' experiences that have resulted in police use of force or police false accusations have shown to be related to one fearing the police (Renauer, 2008; Kittrie, 2006). Moreover, the police use of force, as a leading cause of one's expression of fear, has been shown to be associated with race/ethnicity (and a number of

other variables) of citizens. In this regard, Egharevba (2005) in his study indicates that blacks have different views of the police compared to whites. Egharevba examined African immigrants' views of the police and concluded that African immigrants use their individual experience to draw conclusions about the police. The study of Egharevba (2005) on police abuse of power shows that the majority of African immigrants who had contacts with the police reported unpleasant circumstances, reflecting the use of force by the police as the result. Therefore, race/ethnicity does have a meaning when it comes to fearing the police.

Additionally, with regard to race, Howell, Perry, and Vile (2004) found in their study that "blacks are more likely than whites to report having experienced involuntary, uncivil, or adversarial contacts with the police; to be stopped, questioned, and/or searched without cause or due process" (p. 46), and to experience verbal and physical abuse personally than whites. Weitzer and Tuch (2000) also argue that race is the root cause of unequal treatment by the police. Additionally, Weitzer and Tuch (2000) noted that the police are more likely to use force against a black person than it would be the case with a white person. For instance, if a black person was in the neighborhood and the police were walking around, they might stop him just because of his skin color and because he looks like he does not belong in the neighborhood.

Davis and Henderson's (2003) research findings showed that, with regard to race, only 16% of whites reported that they were/are sometimes afraid of the police – afraid that the police will stop and arrest them even when they are completely innocent. In contrast, 43% of African Americans expressed this fear (Davis & Henderson, 2003). Thus, it is evident that "racial attitudes reflect not merely individual-level feelings and

beliefs [about police actions] but also a collective sense of group position” (Weitzer & Tuch, 2005a, p. 1010).

Other studies suggest that, when it comes to police intimidation and coercion, blacks are disproportionately represented among those against whom police used force. Garner and Maxwell (1999), in a research report published by National Criminal Justice Center, reported that of the 882 suspects against whom police force was used, 46% were black and 54% white. In addition, they found that “Anglo officers used higher levels of force against Anglo suspects than black or Hispanic officers used against Anglo suspects” (Garner & Maxwell, 1999, p. 52).

To elaborate on the disproportionality of police use of force, with regard to race/ethnicity, the International Association of Chiefs of Police (2001) reported that between 1995-2000, African Americans composed the greatest number of subjects involved in use of force incidents, followed by whites and then by Hispanics. Of the 9090 use of force incidents, 4318 of them involved African Americans. This fact also indicates that the use of force is disproportionately directed towards African Americans. Thus, it appears that fear is based upon the negative experiences with the police; more so, on police decision to use force. The police actions, in this case, police use of force, results in citizens fearing the police – a factor that shapes their attitudes toward the police (see Salim et al., 2000, 2005; Pogarsky, Lynch, & McDowall, 2006; Hickman & Simpson, 2003; for reviews).

In short, when the police exercise their authority in an oppressive manner, they inflict fear in people. This fear, in turn, affects public trust in the police, satisfaction with their service, and most importantly, questions police legitimacy. Police legitimacy, in this

case, becomes questionable when certain problems are raised while the police are practicing their duties. Such problems (e.g., use of force, use of excessive force, and overall, police misconduct) affect the way the public, subcultures in particular or members of different ethnicity and race, view the police and their willingness to participate in social control mechanisms (e.g., to report crime to the police).

Public Image of Police

Why is the image of police, as a dimension of attitudes toward the police, worth measuring? According to Gallagher, Maguire, Mastrofski, and Reisig (2001), one of the most important reasons why we measure the image of the police is that it provides an important indicator of support for the institution among its constituents. That is, if we better understand how the public views the police, then it helps us determine how we can improve the relationships between the police and communities (Gallagher et al., 2001; see also Ho & McKean, 2004; Thomas & Hyman, 1977). Second, the image of the police may affect the sorts of behaviors of the public that greatly interest the police (i.e., crime-reporting behavior or improving the quality of life in the neighborhood). In this regard, Gallagher et al. (2001) argued that communities with a poor image of the police will be less likely to support or help the police do their job. Inevitably, those communities are more likely to file complaints, civil suits, rebel against authority, and produce media problems (see Chermak, McGarrell, & Gruenewald, 2004; Weitzer & Tuch, 2005a 2005b; Miller & Davis, 2008). Another reason is to determine the illegitimacy of police authority. According to Gallagher et al. (2001), “those who view the authority exercised against them as illegitimate are more likely to rebel against authority,...or violate the law” (Gallagher et al., 2001, p. 18). In short, the public image of the police is the amount

of confidence the public has in the police. It is a contributing factor among other factors (i.e., public trust, satisfaction with the police, police effectiveness, and police behavior) that make up the construct of attitudes toward the police (see Hawdon & Ryan, 2003; Skogan, 2005; National Institute of Justice, 2000c; Chermak, McGarrell, & Gruenewald, 2004; Seron, Pereira, & Kovath, 2006).

Public confidence in the police is also affected by police friendliness and closeness to the public, yet it is also affected by the nature and the extent of police behaviors that humiliate, embarrass, or physically abuse citizens (Salmi, Voeten, and Keskinen, 2000; Weitzer & Tuch, 1999; Weitzer, 2000; National Institute of Justice, 2000c). Many studies have focused on measuring the police image. Salmi, Voeten, and Keskinen (2000), for example, conducted a study with the purpose of building a model explaining the correlation between the public image of the police and police visibility. To measure public image and police visibility, the authors distributed a questionnaire to 3,271 adults and youngsters age 15 and older. Both image and visibility in this study were components of public attitudes toward the police – measured specifically toward the police work in their own community. Several variables were included to measure both the image and visibility. Such variables included contacts with the police in different situations, victimization, and background characteristics of the respondents. Moreover, the two important dimensions of this study were friendliness and closeness of the police with the public. Both dimensions were expected to be distinguished. The results of this study indicated that police-on-foot activities had a positive effect on friendliness and closeness with the public. That is, those who had more frequent informal contacts with the on-foot police patrols (i.e., chatting with the police or giving information) considered

the police to be closer and friendlier (Salmi et al., 2000). In contrast, people who were seeing the police patrolling the area using squad cars, considered the police to be less friendly and less close.

Age, education, and family income also have an impact on police image (Ho & McKean, 2004). Salmi et al. (2000) indicated that friendliness was higher in the eyes of older population compared to younger population (Salmi et al., 2000). Race, too, has a considerable influence on police image (Howell, Perry, & Vile, 2004; see also Wu et al., 2009; Skogan, 1996). This conclusion is supported by Howell et al.'s (2004) research findings who also suggested that the police image is related to race. In their study, they found that whites' view of the police is different from blacks' view of the police. One factor that explains this difference is that blacks are not treated the same way as whites. Blacks' experiences with the police affect the evaluation of the police and, ultimately, their image (police image) (see MacDonald & Stokes, 2006). Thus, police image is the reflection of police behavior resulting from public judgment based on trust, satisfaction (i.e., effectiveness of police crime-control activities), and police fairness of the procedures that the police follow (Tyler, 2005).

Finally, one of the goals of policing is to enhance the relationship between the police and the public; to build confidence in the police by making sure the level of citizen satisfaction and the level of trust in the police are acceptable. Thus, police performance and activities can have a significant impact on how citizens view and feel about the police (Cheurprakobkit, 2001). Skogan (1996) in his study on public opinion of the police, for example, suggested that the image of policing is one of what the public wants the police to focus on. In this context, the public wants the police to focus on traditional

crime concerns such as serious violent crimes, burglary, and vehicle-related thefts. The public also expects the police to respond rapidly to situations that require such responses. More so, the public wants the police to be community-oriented, to have more direct hands-on contact with the public (e.g., foot patrol) to bridge the known and the unknown about the police (Skogan, 1996).

Public Satisfaction with the Police

Public satisfaction with the police is the fourth dimension of public attitudes toward the police and perhaps one of the most important factors associated with shaping citizens' attitudes toward policing. As a determinant of attitudes toward the police, the variation in citizen's satisfaction with the police can be linked to many factors, including prior experiences with the police, perception of the police in the forms of judgment about the police and awareness of police work, police-citizen encounters, trust, media exposure, and image of policing (Wu, Sun, & Triplett, 2009; Skogan, 2005; see also National Institute of Justice, 2002; Scheider, Rowell, & Bezdikian, 2003; Skogan, 1990; Touhy & Wrennal, 1995; & Salmi et al., 2005; Wheatzer, 2000; Weitzer & Tuch, 1999; Schafer et al., 2003). All these factors influence one another; however, the influence is not equally distributed.

Demographic characteristics, too, have been linked to satisfaction with the police. Travis, Novak, Winston, and Hurley (2000), for example, argued that the most influential factors of citizens' rating of the police include demographic characteristics of respondents, the nature of the questions asked by the police during encounters, and the nature of encounters with the police, among others. In their research they focused on factors that present the least satisfaction with the police. In this context, their findings

show that respondents' age and ethnicity were the most important correlates of reported level of satisfaction with the police (Travis et. al., 2000; see also Jana & Steve, 2004). Additionally, research shows that younger people generally report lower levels of satisfaction with the police (see Skogan, 2005; Salmi et al., 2005; for reviews). According to studies of Skogan (1990) and Touhy and Wrennal (1995), older people wished for more frequent police activities than younger people did. With regard to gender, these studies found that females, parallel with the age factor, wished for more frequent police activities in their neighborhood than males did. In other words, females in general and older people (regardless of gender) expressed greater satisfaction with the police activities compared to the younger male population (Skogan, 1990; Touhy & Wrennal, 1995; see also Hawdon & Ryan. 2003). However, some studies reported that age produced mixed results when controlling for other demographic variables. According to Salmi et al.'s (2005) study on public perception of the police, young people differed in the level of satisfaction only by gender. In this regard, girls reported on average a higher wished-for frequency of police activities in their neighborhood than boys did (Salmi et al., 2005). Race has also been brought to attention when discussing citizens' satisfaction with the police. Regarding minorities, Travis et al. (2000) found that minority groups reported less satisfaction with the police than whites did (Travis et al., 2000). Similar findings were reported by Skogan (2005) who also studies citizen satisfaction with the police (see also Cao & Garcia, 2005; Chow, 2002; for reviews).

Moreover, Weitzer and Tuch have extensively studied the police and minority relations. In a series of studies, Weitzer and Tuch (1999, 2000, 2004, 2005a) argued that race, as well as social class, greatly affect public satisfaction with the police. Their

findings indicated that black respondents expressed far greater dissatisfaction with the police compared to whites. Their main argument is that blacks' dissatisfaction with the police is as the result of unfair treatment by the police. In this context, their findings show that more than 7 in 10 blacks, compared to fewer than 4 in 10 whites, think that blacks receive harsher treatment by the police (Weitzer & Tuch, 1999; see also Weitzer, 2000). In addition to police harsher treatment of blacks, the authors argued that blacks receive less police protection in the neighborhoods. About 70% of blacks, compared to 50% of whites, believed that black neighborhoods received less police protection. With regard to confidence and equal treatment by the police, black respondents (65.8%) expressed very little confidence in the police compared to whites (28.5%). Furthermore, the most revealing measure of minorities' attitudes toward the police in their studies was respondents' personal experiences with the police. Weitzer and Tuch's (1999) research study showed that few whites said they have been mistreated by the police, whereas 4 in 10 blacks said they have experienced such mistreatment; thus, blacks were more than five times as likely as whites to answer affirmatively (Weitzer & Tuch, 1999). Consistent findings were reported by Weitzer's (2000) study on residents' perception of the police, suggesting that race makes a difference when citizens' perception of the police is in question. Weitzer's (2000) findings showed that almost twice as many blacks compared to whites believed that race made a difference during the police-citizen encounters. Additionally, blacks believed that they were more likely to be treated rudely by the police and three times more likely than whites to be subject to police brutality (Weitzer, 2000; see also Tuch & Weitzer, 1997; Egharevba, 2004). For these reasons, blacks are less

satisfied with the police work, police presence, and police-citizen encounters compared to whites.

Generally speaking, a large body of research suggests that most Americans are satisfied with the police and hold favorable feelings toward their local police (Schafer et al., 2003; Cao, Stack, & Yi, 1998). As policing moves toward community policing, it generates much interest in public perception and satisfaction with police activities (Salmit, Voeten, & Keskinen, 2005). In a recent study on public perception of the police, Scheider, Rowell, and Bezdikian (2003) found that citizens who had increased perceptions of police activities expressed much greater satisfaction with the police. Scheider et al. further argued that the police have a duty to reduce the exaggerated level of fear of crime among citizens. Thus, an increased citizen perception of community policing, stemming from police visibility and informal contacts with locals, has a strong positive effect on satisfaction with the police. In addition, they suggested that the police may need to work more on developing on-going working relationships with residents to help increase feelings of resident safety to a greater extent (see Hawdon & Ryan, 2003). Since the goal of community policing is to strengthen the relationship between the police and the public as well as citizens' positive perception of the police, satisfaction with the police can be seen as another target to be achieved in community policing (Salmi et al., 2005). Salmi et al. further indicate that there is empirical evidence showing that police and their activities, like foot patrol and close informal contacts with the public, improve public satisfaction with the police, which remains one of the objectives of community policing as a philosophy.

Finally, the above research evidently indicates that citizen's satisfaction with the police is affected by numerous factors, namely, police-citizen encounters, citizen's perception about the quality of their lives (e.g., fear of crime or their sense of safety, physical decay, social disorder, etc.), media exposure, trust in the police, and demographic characteristics of groups and individuals (Skogan, 2005; National Institute of Justice, 2002; Scheider, Rowell, & Bezdikian, 2003; Skogan, 1990; Touhy & Wrennal, 1995; & Salmi et al., 2005; Wheatzer, 2000; Weitzer & Tuch, 1999; Schafer et al., 2003).

The Influence of Attitudes as a Multidimensional Construct on Crime-Reporting Behavior

Attitudes have a direct influence on crime-reporting behavior. The effect of attitudes on crime-reporting behavior comes from both the individual level and societal level. However, research shows that this influence is more pronounced at the individual level (micro-level) rather than the societal level (macro-level). Although there is enough space to make an argument that supports either side, research studies in this area show mixed results. For example, Goudriaan, Wittebrood, and Nieuwbeerta (2006), who studied neighborhood characteristics and crime-reporting behavior, argue that neighborhood confidence in police effectiveness does not have the same effect on crime-reporting behavior as it has at the individual level. Payne and Gainey (2007) argue that although attitudes toward the police at the individual level have more influence on crime-reporting behavior, this influence is further strengthened when coupled with the characteristics of the neighborhoods. This translates that attitudes toward the police at the individual level, coupled with neighborhood characteristics, become much stronger predictors of crime-reporting behavior. Furthermore, Payne and Gainey's (2007) study

shows that socially disorganized or disadvantaged neighborhoods, which in reality produce more crime than socially organized neighborhoods (see Kubrin & Weitzer, 2003; Rice & Smith, 2002; Jensen, 2003; Kelly, 2000; Cantillon, Davidson, & Schweitzer, 2003; Messner, Baumer, & Rosenfeld, 2004; Mustaine, Tewksbury, & Stengel, 2006), create the conditions favorable to criminality, and as such victimization rates are higher than in more socially organized neighborhoods. In this context, individual attitudes toward the police coupled with victimization, as affected by neighborhood characteristics, have a significant impact on crime-reporting behavior (Payne & Gainey, 2007; Zhang et al., 2007; see also Apsler, Cummins, & Carl, 2003; Brown & Benedict, 2002).

Generally speaking, according to the U.S. Department of Justice (2007), factors relating to crime-reporting practices that make for variations in reported crime information to the police are population characteristics and attitudes toward authority. Attitudes of the citizens toward the police, crime, and their crime-reporting practices, have an impact on the amount of crime reported to the police (National Institute of Justice, 2007a). If attitudes toward the police influence crime-reporting behavior, then it follows that those who are less satisfied with the police, especially victims of crime, have less confidence in the police, and in general, they are less likely to report crimes to the police (see Figure 2, p. 60). When explaining people's dissatisfaction with the police, as related to willingness to report crimes to the police, research thus far shows that most of the dissatisfied people are those who complained about lack of police action to solve crime or police not taking reported crimes seriously enough (Smith & Arian, 2006; Tankebe, 2009; Robertshaw, Louw, & Mtani, 2001).

Another factor that concerns the effect of attitudes on crime-reporting behavior is how the police respond to citizens' calls for service. A recent research conducted by Bennett (2004), with the purpose of examining the nature and distribution of police activities through citizens' calls for service in three developing nations of the Caribbean region, found that the nature of citizens' calls for service was related to the perceptions of legitimacy of the police. That is, the better judgment of police legitimacy from the perspective of the citizens, the greater the citizens' tendency to initiate calls for service, including calls that do not involve serious criminal activities (Bennett, 2004).

The review of literature in this chapter (see also the section that follows) shows that juveniles are more likely to hold negative attitudes toward the police (see Skogan, 2005; Salmi et al., 2005; Byrne, Conway, & Ostermeyer, 2005; Nihart, Lersch, Sellers, & Mieczkowski, 2005). In this context, since they are more likely to hold negative attitudes toward the police, empirical evidence shows that juveniles are also less likely to report crime to the police (Goudriaan, 2006; see also Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2003). This tells us that age, as a factor, influences both attitudes toward the police and willingness to report crime to the police. Thus, age has a direct influence on attitudes toward the police and an indirect influence on willingness to report crime to the police. The influence of age on crime-reporting behavior becomes stronger when measured against attitudes toward the police.

Crime-Reporting Anonymity

The desire to remain anonymous, when reporting crime to the police, also affects people's willingness to report crime to the police. This effect is more pronounced when delivered through a third variable, namely attitudes toward the police (see Figure 2, p. 60

for an illustration of this relationship). Crime-reporting anonymity, as related to crime-reporting behavior, has two dimensions: 1) the desire to remain anonymous due to fear of criminal retaliation, and 2) the negative attitudes toward the police. That is, certain individuals would rather prefer to remain anonymous or will otherwise not report crimes to the police because they do not trust the police, have had bad experiences with the police (e.g., dissatisfied with police response in prior reporting), or have no confidence in the police. As illustrated in Figure 2 (p. 60), crime-reporting anonymity has a bidirectional relationship with attitudes toward the police, and both variables have a direct effect on crime-reporting behavior.

Although studies that have included anonymity as an influencing factor on individual's decision to report crime to the police are very rare, the logical explanations offered by their research findings are compelling. As of current data, the only available studies that have included anonymity as a reason why people do not report crime to the police are that of Singer (1988), Smith and Arian (2006), Goudriaan (2006), Goudriaan, Wittebrood, and Nieuwbeerta (2006), Greenfeld et al. (1998), and Bachman (1998). A number of other studies have included crime-reporting anonymity only as a transit variable, a variable that was not directly measured (see Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2002, 2003, 2005c).

Smith and Arian's (2006) study shows that individuals who possessed valuable information about witnessed crimes did not report to the police due to fear of criminals' reaction toward them. When respondents were asked why they did not report to the police information that was available to them, and that might assist the police, the reason was that they feared criminals would retaliate against them. Furthermore, this fear of reporting

crime to the police was mostly based on lack of confidence and a presence of some form of dissatisfaction with the police and their ability to help or properly deal with crimes (Smith & Arian, 2006; see also Vellani & Nahoun, 2001; Singer, 1988; Tankebe, 2009; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2002, 2003). This tells us that if one is dissatisfied with the police service and lacks confidence in the police, he or she is more likely to avoid dealing with the police by not reporting witnessed crimes or withholding information that might potentially help the police catch criminals.

The findings of Goudrianna (2006) in his study about willingness to report crime to the police, too, confirm Smith and Arian's (2006) findings about the desire to remain anonymous when such reporting is optional but that decision to report is influenced by one's attitudes toward the police. According to Goudriaan (2006), being afraid of generating more problems with the offenders was one of the most salient factors for not reporting crimes to the police. Similar to Smith and Arian's (2006) study, Goudriaan's (2006) study shows that not reporting crimes to the police (because of fear of offenders' retaliation) was mainly based on citizens' lack of confidence, satisfaction, and trust in the police (Goudrianna, 2006; Greenfeld et al., 1998; Smith & Arian, 2006; Goudriaan, Wittebrood, & Nieuwbeerta, 2006; see also Goudriaan & Nieuwbeerta, 2007; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2002, 2003). Bachman (1998) points out that women who are concerned with confidentiality, rape victims especially, are less likely to report victimization events to the police. In other words, victims who are afraid their identity will not be protected, and that the police will release information to the general public through newspapers and other media sources, are less likely to report victimization events to the police. If anonymity is assured, and their names will not be made public (i.e., will

not appear in the news media), then there will be an increase in crime-reporting behavior (see Bachman, 1998). Lack of confidence in the police appeared to be one of the primary reasons for not reporting crime to the police, when anonymity is a concern.

Summary

Finally, the review of literature in this section of Chapter III suggests that certain segments of society that are distrustful, suspicious of the police, and yet believe that the police are ineffective in dealing with problems at hand, their attitudes toward the police are displayed in lower crime-reporting behavior (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 1987; Bennett & Wiegand, 1994; Tankebe, 2009). In other words, those who hold negative attitudes toward the police are more likely to manifest that in a lower crime-reporting behavior (i.e., they are less willing to report crimes to the police).

Figure 2 shows a visual appearance of the relationships between four variables (dimensions of interest) that represent public attitudes toward the police as a single construct and the influence of this construct on crime-reporting behavior. Additionally, Figure 2 shows the relationship between attitudes toward the police, crime-reporting anonymity, and crime-reporting behavior, as discussed in the context of literature.

Dimension of Attitudes toward the Police As a Construct

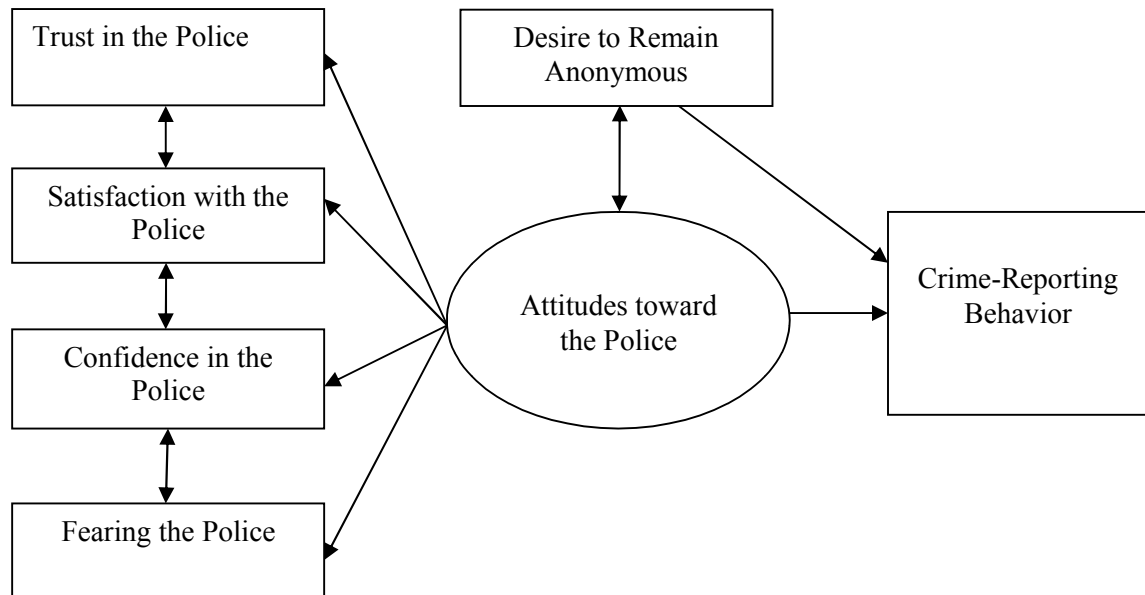


Figure 2. Attitudes toward the police model.

Individual Demographic Factors

There is a significant amount of research that shows personal characteristics affect the police-citizen relationship. This effect is not uniformly manifested in all individuals or groups; it is more pronounced in some categories while not in others. In the subsections that follow, I will review research studies that have generally or specifically tested research hypotheses about the effects of the demographic characteristics (i.e., gender, age, race/ethnicity, and socio-economic status) on both people's attitudes toward the police and crime-reporting behavior.²

² Race and ethnicity will be used interchangeably in this chapter. Most studies that have included race as a determinant of attitudes toward the police and crime-reporting behavior have used race and ethnicity interchangeably.

Demographic Characteristics: An Overview

The reason for discussing demographic characteristics in this study is that the attributes of individuals, as well as groups, are related to crime-reporting behavior. They are also the key factors in shaping individuals' attitudes toward the police, which as a construct affects an individual's or group's crime-reporting behavior. Empirical evidence shows that gender, age, race, and socio-economic status, among many other demographic variables, have a significant influence on police-citizen relationships (on attitudes toward the police and crime-reporting behavior). Research shows that by gender, females hold more positive attitudes toward the police and thus are more willing to report crimes to the police compared to males (Singer, 1988; Thurman & Reisig, 1996; Jesilow, Meyer, & Namazzi, 1995; Kennedy & Homant, 1983; Green, 1981; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1998; Skogan, 1984). With regard to age, younger people hold more negative attitudes toward the police than older people. Yet, younger people are less likely to report crime to the police compared to older people (Byrne, Conway, & Ostermeyer, 2005; Nihart, Lersch, Sellers, & Mieczkowski, 2005; Hardin, 2004; Skogan, 2005). One of the most salient reasons why younger people hold less favorable attitudes toward the police is high frequency of police contacts and arrests (Brown & Delores, 2000; Salmt, Voeten, & Keskinen, 2000; Beck & Julia, 2004). However, the effect of age disappears when introducing unemployment into the model as an influential factor. In other words, younger people and older unemployed people do not differ in their attitudes or crime-reporting behavior. Low and Durkin (2001), for instance, found unemployment to have a negative impact on people's attitudes toward the police, regardless of age (see Low &

Durkin, 2001). Since unemployment affects attitudes toward the police, it follows that unemployment affects willingness to report crime to the police also.

It has been argued by many researchers that race is a strong factor that shapes people's attitudes toward the police. In fact, empirical evidence shows that race is one of the main determinants of attitudes toward the police (Weitzer, 2000; Holdaway, 2003; Howell, Perry, & Wile, 2004; Brown & Delores, 2000; Regulus, Taylor, Jackson, & Katz, 2001). Interestingly enough, regarding crime-reporting behavior, race has not been found to be a strong predictor. Race, as a variable, does not offer a meaningful explanation of crime-reporting behavior. And there is an inverse relationship between attitudes toward the police, race, and crime-reporting behavior. Research shows that, in general, blacks are more likely to hold negative attitudes toward the police, but when it comes to reporting crimes to the police, blacks report a significantly higher percentage of crimes to the police compared to whites (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2003).

Influence of Gender on Attitudes

Females generally hold more favorable attitudes toward the police (O'Connor, 2008; Taylor et al., 2001; Weitzer & Tuch, 2002), and they are more willing to report crimes to the police compared to males (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1998; see also Greenberg & Ruback, 1992; Bachman, 1998). One of the reasons why, in this case, males hold less favorable attitudes than females is the frequency of contacts with the police. According to Bureau of Justice Statistics (2002), males had about 20% higher than females (a per capita rate of contact) with the police. About 1 out of every 4.3 males age 16 or older had contact with a police officer in the year 2002 (see Chapter IV for an extended discussion). Needless to say, gender as a demographic characteristic influences

more than just attitudes toward the police and crime-reporting behavior; it influences police behavior and crime-reporting anonymity, or the desire to remain anonymous when choosing whether or not to report crime to the police (see Smith & Arian, 2006; Goudriaan, 2006; Carcach, 1997).

Consistent with O'Connor's (2008) study, research conducted by Howdon and Ryan (2003) on police-resident interaction shows that females hold more favorable attitudes toward the police than males do. In Howdon and Ryan's (2003) study, among other things, the residents were asked to indicate whether or not they were satisfied with the policing strategies used in their neighborhood. With regard to gender, the analysis of this study shows that males (37.6%) expressed less satisfaction with the police and their work compared to females (62.4%) (Howdon & Ryan, 2003). By contrast, Thurman and Reisig (1996) argued that attitudes of males and females toward the police do not differ much. However, their study on community-oriented policing indicated that 59% of females held positive attitudes compared to 51% of males (Thurman & Reisig, 1996).

Despite some empirical support that shows females hold more favorable attitudes toward the police, methodologically advanced studies show that the influence of gender on attitudes toward the police, in most cases, is insignificant. However, gender as a factor remains relevant in predicting attitudes toward the police. Jesilow, Meyer, and Namazzi's (1995) study, for example, shows that males and female did not significantly differ in positive or negative attitudes toward the police. According to Jesilow et al. (1995), one-half of males and 54% of females had at least one positive thing to say about the police, while slightly more than one-third of the males and females had at least one negative

comment about the police (Jesilow et al. 1995). The question of relevancy and significance remains an open dilemma that this study will address in its findings.

There is also a difference in how citizens react toward a male police officers and a female police officer. This shift of analysis presents even more contradicting findings than looking at citizens' gender alone. Kennedy and Homant's (1983) research findings show that while ordinarily citizens would choose policewomen over policemen to come to their aid, "thirty-six of the ninety subjects said they would prefer two male officers to respond to a family fight, [and] (8%) preferred one male and one female officer. Thus, 60% preferred that at least one policewoman [sic] be present" (Kennedy & Homant, 1983, p. 396). The authors of this study concluded that, overall, there were significant differences in attitudes toward policewomen and policemen, leading us to believe that gender is associated with shaping public attitudes toward the police in many levels, but it is not as strong an influencing factor as other demographic factors (e.g., race, SES, etc). Schafer, Huebner, and Bynum's (2003) study also indicated that female citizens are more likely to report satisfaction with general police service than males (Schafer et al., 2003). Similarly, Frank et al. (2005) found that females (53.7%) were very satisfied with the police, whereas 46% of males were in this category (Frank et al., 2005).

Despite some contradicting findings, though not surprising, it appears that gender to some extent is associated with shaping people's attitudes toward the police. Most prior research studies show that gender is a factor that influences public opinions. In this regard, the conclusion drawn from this research is that females are more likely to have positive attitudes toward the police in general; although the difference is very small, this difference is relevant in this research and as such it should not be ignored (Howdon &

Ryan, 2003; Thurman & Reisig, 1996; Kennedy & Homant, 1983; Schafer et al., 2003; Frank et al., 2005).

Influence of Gender on Crime-Reporting Behavior

Gender differences in crime-reporting behavior are considerably high (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1998b). Previous discussions in this chapter show that gender produces mixed results with regard to attitudes toward the police. However, when assessing police-resident relationships, gender is a relevant factor and as such it should not be ignored. The discussion in the previous section shows that even with gender-neutral, attitudes (as a variable) have a great impact on crime-reporting behavior. With attitudes being the most salient influential factor on crime-reporting behavior, one can hypothesize that gender will also be highly associated with crime-reporting behavior since attitudes to some degree are influenced by gender (Schafer et al., 2003; Howdon & Ryan, 2003; Thurman & Reisig, 1996; Frank et al., 2005; Carcach, 1997; Greenberg & Ruback, 1992; Bachman, 1998).

In reality, empirical evidence shows that gender plays a significant role when it comes to making the decision whether or not to report victimization events to the police. In this context, research shows that females are more likely to report crime to the police compared to males (Green, 1981; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1998b; Skogan, 1984; see also Ashbaugh & Cornell, 2008; Bickman, 1976). However, this crime-reporting behavior differs by the type of crime and the relationship between the victim and the offender. For example, females are less likely than males to report crimes such as assaults to the police when the offender is known to them. Even for other crimes (other than assault), Carcach's (1997) study shows that gender-effect still remains a concern when

taking the victim-offender relationship into account. Furthermore, research shows that female victims of property crimes are more likely to report crimes to the police when they know the offender, but less likely to report assault crimes, for example. This is slightly different for male victims. When the offender is known to them, male victims are less likely to report property crimes to the police (Carcach, 1997; see also Chapter IV for a discussion on the effect of the victim-offender relationship on crime-reporting behavior).

In general, empirical studies show that reporting behavior for females is higher for all other types of crimes (i.e., serious crimes such as robbery, other crimes involving weapons, property crimes, etc.), except assault crimes when the offender is known to the victim (Carcach, 1997; Greenberg & Ruback, 1992; Bachman, 1998). Additionally, when categorizing by age, empirical studies show that males ages 15 to 24 are less likely to report crimes to the police compared to females of the same age category (Tanton & Jones, 2003). This age difference, by gender, remains in effect for all ages. Needless to say, regardless of sex differences, both males and females fail to report the majority of criminal events to the police (see Skogan, 1976a).

In summary, prior studies indicate that, in general, females are more likely to report victimization events to the police compared to males. What these studies do not report is the effect of gender on reporting witnessed crimes to the police. Witnessed crimes are different from victimization events. When one reports a victimization event, it means that that person has been the victim. When one reports a witnessed crime to the police, on the other hand, it means that the reporting person is not a victim but rather a witness or an observer during the occurrence of a crime (i.e., bystander, neighbors

reporting domestic violence for other neighbors, etc.). In this context, with regard to gender, most prior studies have been focused on the victimization effect on crime-reporting behavior, but they did not consider the gender effect when reporting crime to the police is optional, i.e., when the person reporting crime to the police is a witness of a criminal event. The current study is designed to address this very issue.

Influence of Age on Attitudes

The influence of age on attitudes toward the police and crime-reporting behavior has been documented by many researchers (Carcach, 1997; Bickman, 1976; McAra & McVie, 2005; Hopkins & Miles, 1992; Low & Durking, 2001; Byrne, Conway, & Ostermeyer, 2005; Thurman & Reisig, 1996; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2003, 2005a; Hopkins & Miles, 1992; Hindelang, 1976). Research studies – including methodologically advanced studies – on attitudes toward the police show that, in general, older people hold more positive attitudes toward the police than younger people. Byrne, Conway, and Ostermeyer (2005), who conducted research focusing on young people's attitudes and experiences of policing (ages 14 to 17) in North Belfast, for example, confirm that young people hold more negative attitudes toward the police than older people. The formation of young people's negative views of policing, according to Byrne et al. (2005), was a result of negative experiences with the police. Needless to say, 36% of all young people who had participated in their research had reported that verbal harassment was a frequent experience with the police. Thus, due to this negative police behavior, attitudes and beliefs of the young people had been shaped accordingly (Byrne et al., 2005; see also Hurst & Frank, 2000; U.S. Department of Justice, 2002). Cooke, Puddifoot, and Brown's (2001) study also shows that participants who witnessed or

experienced police behaving irresponsibly scored significantly higher on the negative attitudes toward police (Cook et al., 2001; see also McAra & McVie, 2005). In other words, police behavior plays a significant role in shaping young people's attitudes toward the police, which in turn affects their crime-reporting behavior (Carcach, 1997; see also Holmberg, 2004; Fisher & Geiselman, 1992; Shepherd, 1991; Dahl, 1992).

Since young people are more likely to have frequent contacts with the police, their experiences with the police may vary by the location where they live. For example, urban kids may have more frequent contacts with the police compared to kids who live in rural areas. In this case, the hypothesis is that urban kids are more likely to report negative attitudes toward the police than kids in rural areas, a hypothesis which has been empirically supported. The results of a research study conducted by Byrne, Conway, and Ostermeyer (2005), who, among other things, compared attitudes of young people living in North Belfast and young people living outside of North Belfast, showed that young people who lived outside of the city reported considerably more positive attitudes toward the police than did young people who lived within North Belfast. This research tells us that frequency of contacts with the police and exposure to police misconduct are the leading causes of negative attitudes toward the police. Urban kids are more likely to have frequent contacts with the police and thus more likely to have bad experiences with the police than kids in rural areas. The survey showed that 29% of urban kids had indicated they had experienced the police behaving violently compared to 15% of those outside of North Belfast (Byrne et al., 2005). However, regardless of the significant difference between urban kids and rural kids presented in this study, more research is needed. In other words, the generalizability of Byrne et al.'s (2005) research findings may be limited

to North Belfast, and the conclusions drawn about this difference may not be used to or applicable to other cities or countries without additional empirical evidence.

In general, research supports the hypothesis that younger people have more frequent contacts with the police than older people (see Skogan, 2005). In fact, this is why young people hold more negative attitudes toward the police and are less likely to report crime to the police compared to older people (see sub-section that follows). Research findings in Skogan's (2005) study show that 63% of 22-year-olds and 58% of 19-year-olds recalled being stopped by the police compared to less than 16% of people age 36 and older that recalled being stopped by the police (Skogan, 2005).

The effect of age on attitudes can be further categorized by gender.³ Hardin (2004) found that female juveniles hold more positive attitudes toward the police than male juveniles (see also Hopkins & Hewstone, 1992). Furthermore, within the juvenile population, attitudes are further affected by the level of delinquency involvement. Hardin's (2004) study shows that delinquents are more likely to report negative attitudes toward the police compared to non-delinquents. One of the obvious reasons why delinquents hold negative attitudes toward the police, Hardin (2004) argued, is that those who are involved in delinquent activities tend to form their own group or subculture with a different set of beliefs and values than the larger culture (see also Cohen, 1955). Thus, this different set of beliefs and values of this delinquent subculture conflicts with the values of the police and society in general (Hardin, 2004; see also Fischer, 1995; Cohen & Short, 1958; Cohen, 1955).

³ There is an overlap between age and gender regarding juveniles' attitudes toward the police and willingness to report crime to the police. The previous sub-section on gender generally shows that females, regardless of age, are more likely to hold positive attitudes toward the police and are more likely to report crimes to the police than males are. This pattern can also be seen when looking within the juveniles' gender as well.

Furthermore, some researchers argue that juveniles' attitudes toward the police, to some degree, are influenced by parental supervision. Parents, as figures of authority, play a major role in disciplining, educating, and exercising some form of informal control over their children. Thus, if young people hold negative attitudes toward their parents as authority figures, then they are also likely to hold negative attitudes toward the police. Nihart, Lersch, Sellers, and Mieczkowski (2005) in their study found that adolescents generally hold positive attitudes toward their parents, but some of them hold negative attitudes toward the police. However, their findings show that youths who hold positive attitudes toward their parents are more likely to hold favorable attitudes toward the police compared to youths who hold negative attitudes toward their parents. This conclusion has also been supported by research findings of Clark and Wenninger (1964), who studied the degree of juveniles' maladjustment to school and family authority and the formation of negative attitudes toward the police. In other words, juveniles' attitudes toward parents would accurately forecast attitudes toward the police (Nihart et al., 2005, pp. 84-86). In short, juveniles' attitudes toward the police are positively correlated to their attitudes toward their parents. As such, parental discipline can be used to determine one's attitudes toward the police when taking age into account (see Figure 3). Certain dimensions of parental supervision (i.e., good parenting, poor parenting) can also be used to explain attitudes toward the police in the context of the level of delinquency. Thus, poor parenting is a contributing factor associated with delinquency (Sampson & Laub, 1995; Jang & Smith, 1997; Fisher, 1983; see also Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). And as mentioned earlier, juvenile delinquents are more likely to display negative attitudes toward the police as opposed to non-delinquents (Hardin, 2004). As people get older,

they age-out of delinquent/criminal activities (Sampson & Laub, 2005; see also Hirschi, 2002). In this context, as the involvement in delinquent activities disappears, so do negative attitudes toward the police, changing from negative to positive. Change in attitudes is also attributed to a decrease in the frequency of contacts with the police. This change, coupled with the influence of parental supervision, is presented in Figure 3. The (+) sign in Figure 3 represents the positive attitudes and high willingness to report crime to the police. The (-) sign represents the negative attitudes toward parents and the police and low willingness to report crime to the police. The curve (or the segment) represents the time interval and the peak age when juveniles' number of contacts with the police intensifies, usually between the ages of 15 to 25.

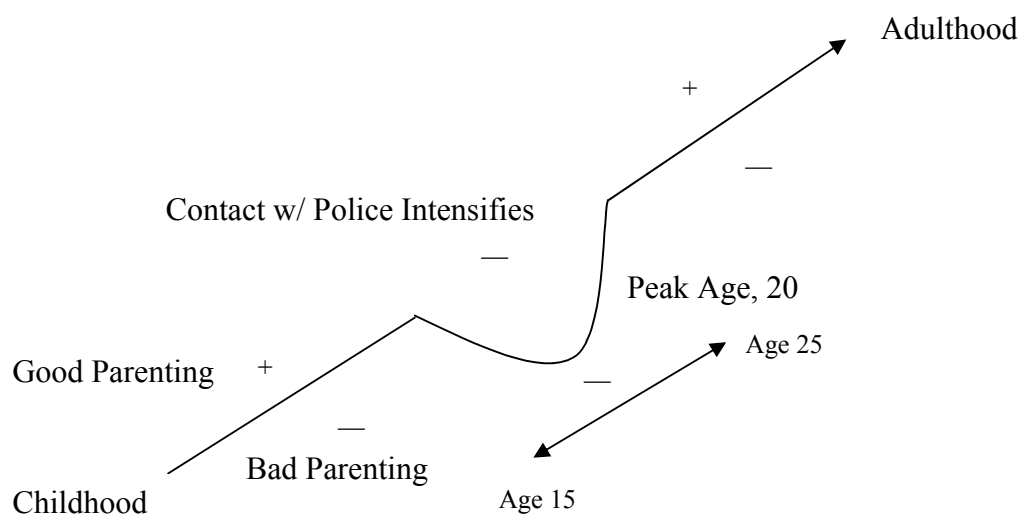


Figure 3. Attitudes and crime-reporting behavior legacy model based on parental supervision.

Additionally, empirical evidence shows that there are other sources of influence on attitudes toward the police and that differ as one gets older. Television, for instance, is a factor that has some effect on the formation of attitudes toward the police. Many

researchers contend that young people gather information about the police from television. Frequently viewing of police shows such as COPS is perceived to be influential and therefore a predictor of young people's perception of the police (Low & Durkin, 2001; see also Dowler, 2003, 2005). Researchers further argue that television images of crime and policing have little to do with the truth and realities or complexities of crime and police work (Irving, 1997). Along this line, Low and Durkin's (2001) findings showed that the more children reported watching TV police shows, and the more they perceived them contributing to their knowledge about police work, the more inaccurate their perception of law enforcement in real life was. This effect has been shown in young children, specifically in the first graders (Low & Durkin, 2001; see also Doyle, 2000; Weitzer & Tuch, 2005a; Gallagher et al., 2001).

The age factor comes down to one simple conclusion: age tends to be positively associated with attitudes toward the police – meaning older people tend to have more favorable attitudes toward the police than younger people (see Turman & Reisig, 1996). Thus, as people get older their attitudes toward the police change from less favorable to more favorable. The logic behind this assertion is that younger citizens are more likely to have negative contacts with the police; therefore, making them more inclined to form negative perceptions about the police, which inevitably affect other aspects of social control, i.e., their willingness to report crime to the police (Schaffer et al., 2003; Campbell & Schuman, 1972; Carcach, 1997).

Influence of Age on Crime-Reporting Behavior

Statistics show that young people ages 12 to 18 are the most vulnerable age category, and as such they are more frequently victimized by crime compared to other

age categories (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2007a, 2006a, 2003; 1997a; 1997b; Antunes et al., 1977). Victimization rates of young people, in terms of vulnerability level, can be compared to elderly people ages 65 and older. However, elderly people are not exposed to the same types of crimes as young people. Elderly people are more often victimized for predatory crimes (property crimes) such as robbery and personal larceny, whereas young people are more often victimized by violent crimes such as assault and rape (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2003; 1997a; 1997b).

Young people ages 12 to 24 comprise 22% of the population in the United States but disproportionately represent 35% of murder victims and 49% of serious violent crime victims (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1997a). Yet, their crime-reporting behavior to the police is much lower than that of older population (Carcach, 1997; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2003, 2005a, 2007c; Byrne, Conway, & Ostermeyer, 2005; Finkelhor et al., 2001; see also Hindelang, 1976; Tanton & Jones, 2003). The ratio of victimization and the likelihood of victimization for young people ages 12 to 20 for crimes such as assault, robbery, and rape is three to one compared to older people ages 65 and older (Antunes et al., 1977). This means that young people are three times more likely to be victimized by violent crimes compared to people ages 65 and older. The ratio of victimization and the likelihood of victimization for elderly people ages 65 and older for non-violent crimes such as larceny and theft, on the other hand, is three to one (Antunes et al., 1977; see also Skogan, 1976a). This means that elderly people ages 65 and older are three times more likely to be victimized for predatory crimes (rather than violent crimes) compared to younger people ages 12 to 20. This tells us that there is an inverse relationship between age and types of crimes. Younger people are more likely to be victimized by violent

crimes (e.g. assault, robbery, and rape), whereas older people are more likely to be victimized by non-violent crimes (e.g., larceny, theft, etc.).

A popular hypothesis about age and crime-reporting behavior is that as one gets older, he or she is more likely to report witnessed crimes or victimization events to the police. Conformingly, up-to-date research shows that older people are more likely to report crimes to the police (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2005a; see also Finkelhor & Ormrod, 1999, Figure 2, p. 3; Bennett & Wiegand, 1994). As mentioned earlier in this chapter, young people's crime-reporting behavior is influenced by many factors, but two of them that seem to be more pronounced are 1) negative attitudes toward the police and 2) police behavior. Empirical evidence shows that young people are more likely to hold negative attitudes toward the police. Yet, they are more likely to witness or become the target of police misconduct. Thus, attitudes coupled with their experience with the police influence young people's decision whether or not to report crimes to the police (see Carcach, 1997; Bickman, 1976; see also McAra & McVie, 2005; Hopkins & Miles, 1992; Low & Durking, 2001; Byrne, Conway, & Ostermeyer, 2005; Thurman & Reisig, 1996). In numerical terms, research shows that young people ages 16 to 29 have the lowest crime-reporting rates compared to other age categories (i.e., ages 35 and older). The highest reporting rates are for people ages 60 and older (Goudriaan, 2006; see also Tanton & Jones, 2003). Furthermore, Skogan's (1976a) study also shows that crimes against persons by age differ significantly. According to Skogan (1976a), persons ages 12 to 19 reported 31% of crimes to the police compared to 53% of persons ages 50 and older.

Besides their negative attitudes toward the police and personal experiences with the police, which are perceived as important determinants of juveniles' crime-reporting behavior, there are other variables that factor in when it comes to reporting behavior. Peer pressure and the amount of guilt that young people hold for engaging in frequent fights, among others, are also identified as explanations of low reporting rates for young people (Tanton & Jones, 2003; Skogan, 1994).

Influence of Race/Ethnicity on Attitudes

Previous research has established that race has an impact on attitudes toward the police, but it is a less important factor when it comes to determining one's crime-reporting behavior (Davis, 2000; Bachman, 1998; Felson et al., 2002). Johnson (1993) argued that minorities, in general, express less favorable attitudes toward the police than whites (Johnson, 1993). This conclusion is also supported by many other researchers who have studied attitudes toward the police (see Tuch & Weitzer, 1997; Egharevba, 2004; Delores, 2000; Weitzer & Tuch, 2005a, 2005b; Holdway, 2002; Chow, 2002).

Race is not an inherent factor that affects one's attitudes toward the police; rather, it is the experience and treatment that is race-based that affects attitudes toward the police. Additionally, there are other factors such as neighborhood crime conditions and socio-economic status (see sub-section that follows) that affect one's attitudes and again are race-based (Weitzer & Tuch, 2005b; Tuch & Weitzer, 1997; Howell, Perry, & Vile, 2004). Evidently, blacks experience harsher treatment by the police. Historically, blacks have always been disproportionately represented in cases where police brutality was reported. Thus, this factor has led black residents to form negative views of the police

(MORI, 2001; see also Weitzer, 2000; Weitzer & Tuch, 1999, 2000, 2004, 2005a, 2005b).

Tuch and Weitzer (1997) argued that attitudes toward the police are strongly affected by celebrated and well-publicized incidents of police brutality (i.e., the incident of Rodney King's police beating in Los Angeles in 1991 and the incident of Abner Louima, a Haitian immigrant, in 1997 in New York City) (Tuch & Weitzer, 1997; see also Chapter 2). This form of police misconduct is race-based and consequently it is manifested in less favorable attitudes toward the police. This tells us that incidents that occur between the police and citizens that are racially motivated tremendously influence public trust in the police, support for the police, confidence, and general satisfaction with the police (Tuch & Weitzer, 1997). Egharevba's (2004) study reported similar findings about the race-police relationship.

Research reviewed in this chapter thus far shows that minorities are more likely, overall, to display negative attitudes toward the police. This is mainly as a result of negative experiences with the police, i.e., police racially-motivated incidents with minorities, frequency of contacts with the police (blacks vs. whites), etc. At the neighborhood level, however, attitudes toward the police, in terms of race, have an inverse relationship. Howell, Perry, and Vile (2004), who have studied the relationships between race and evaluations of the police in majority black vs. majority white neighborhood contexts, reported that in majority black contexts, the traditional relationship between being black and having negative evaluations of the police disappears, and it disappears because whites' evaluations of the police become more negative. In other words, this important research suggests that whites' views of the police

may be more racialized than African Americans' views of the police when comparing majority white neighborhoods and majority black neighborhoods (Howell, Perry, & Vile, 2004).

Conclusively, minorities have several cogent reasons for having bleak attitudes toward the police. From the review of literature, it is evident that churlish police behavior, yet calorific, clout minorities to create more negative attitudes toward the police. Disputably, such negative attitudes are created when the police fail to understand the conundrum spectrum of public cooperation with the police.

Influence of Race/Ethnicity on Crime-Reporting Behavior

Race of the victim has not been viewed as an important factor in determining one's willingness to report crime to the police (Davis & Henderson, 2003; Skogan, 1977, 1976a). In fact, Skogan (1977, 1976a) goes as far as arguing that race is unrelated to crime-reporting behavior. However, this conclusion is too specific, and as such it cannot be used to rule-out race from the crime-reporting equation. In other words, this does not mean that race has no influence in crime-reporting behavior; it only means that race is not as strong a predictor of crime-reporting behavior as other relevant factors (i.e., age, gender, SES, seriousness of crime, victim-offender relationship, and most importantly, attitudes toward the police and police behavior). Empirical evidence shows that race becomes a predictor of crime-reporting behavior when it is studied in the context of other variables, other than victimization by crime, namely victimization by the police and attitudes toward the police (see Xie, Pogarsky, Lynch, & McDowall, 2006; Hickman & Simpson, 2003, Conaway & Lohr, 1994; Egharevba, 2004; Weitzer & Tuch, 2005a, 2005b; Delores, 2000; Holdaway, 2002; Bates & Fassenfest, 2005; Krahe, 1991).

To reiterate, race, as discussed in other chapters, becomes an important factor when taking into account police behavior, attitudes toward the police, personal experiences with the police, and crime-reporting anonymity when making the decision whether or not to report crime to the police (see Salim et al., 2000; Davis, 2000; Taylor, 2003; Weitzer & Tuch, 2005a 2005b; see also Smith & Arian, 2006; Goudriaan, 2006; Goudriaan, Wittebrood, & Nieuwbeerta, 2006; Bachman, 1998; Felson et al., 2002). Researchers have noted that there are differences in crime-reporting behavior within minority groups too. In this context, when comparing minority victims of crimes within ethnic groups, Davis and Henderson (2003) found that African Americans who were victimized by crimes were about 15% more likely to report crime to the police than other minority ethnic groups (i.e., Ecuadorians, Colombians, Dominicans, and other minority groups) (Davis & Henderson, 2003). Additionally, when comparing only African American victims of crime with white victims of crime, research shows that African Americans, overall, including all types of crimes, are more likely to report victimization events or witnessed crimes to the police than whites (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2001b, 2002c, 2007a; see also Bachman, 1998; Liska, 1992). In numerical terms, the Bureau of Justice Statistics (2003) shows that blacks have a higher reporting rate by about 7% compared to whites. That is, black victims (49%) are more likely to report crime to the police compared to (42%) whites, regardless of the type of crime or victimization event (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2003). Although these statistics vary from study to study, overall, blacks still remain higher across a number of studies in their crime-reporting rates compared to whites, even though this difference is considered low.

One way to explain this low association between race and crime-reporting behavior is disproportionate victimization rates. That is, blacks are more likely to become victims of crimes than whites. According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics (2007a), 49% of all homicide victims in 2005 were blacks (see also Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1997, p. 5). Additionally, for robbery victims, too, blacks are overrepresented. The Bureau of Justice Statistics' (2002) study shows that by gender, age, SES, and the location of residency, blacks are more likely to become victimized than whites and Hispanics/Latinos (see also Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2003b, 2004, 2005e, 2006a, 2007c). Finally, evidence shows that blacks are more likely to report crimes to the police not because of race but rather because of the influence of other factors like high crime rates, high victimization rates, etc.

Socio-Economic Status

Research reviewed in this chapter and in the previous chapter has shown that in economically disadvantaged neighborhoods, people are more likely to display negative attitudes toward the police (Hueber et al., 2004; Weitzer, 2000; Sampson & Bartusch, 1998). Yet, people who live in economically disadvantaged neighborhoods are less willing to cooperate with the police. Lack of cooperation, in this context, is manifested in the form of unwillingness to report witnessed crimes or victimization events to the police (Smith, 1986; Goudriann, Wittebrood, & Nieuwbeerta, 2006; Baumer, 2002; Fishman, 1974; Tankebe, 2009). Thus, socio-economic status at the neighborhood level and at the individual level affects both attitudes toward the police and crime-reporting behavior. This effect is observed in many levels. Caracach (1997) argued that people who find themselves in difficult financial situations (e.g., unemployed) are less likely to report

crimes to the police (see also Fisher et al., 2003). To reiterate, crime-reporting behavior is largely affected by one's attitudes toward the police. Attitudes toward the police, as indicated in other sub-sections of this chapter, are affected by many factors, including socio-economic factors (see Low & Durkin, 2001; see also Bennett & Wiegand, 1994). This tells us that there is a correlation between attitudes toward the police, socio-economic status, and crime-reporting behavior. At the neighborhood level, this translates that people who live in economically disadvantaged neighborhoods are more likely to form negative attitudes toward the police. And those who hold negative attitudes toward the police are less willing to report crimes to the police. At the individual level, Johnson (1993) in his study indicates that attitudes toward the police were the most negative among persons with income below \$20,000, the unemployed, and non-homeowners. Additionally, economically disadvantaged neighborhoods tend to have a higher level of crime compared to more developed neighborhoods. In high-crime areas the police then are more likely to exercise coercive means, including police misconduct, which as indicated in Chapter II, negatively affects residents' attitudes toward the police (Smith, 1986; see also Kane, 2002; Kubrin & Weitzer, 2003; Rice & Smith, 2002; Jensen, 2003; Kelly, 2000).

Regarding crime-reporting behavior, research shows that at the individual level, lower-income persons, overall, are slightly less likely to report crimes to the police compared to high-income persons. However, this behavior varies by the type of crimes, i.e., property crime or violent crime. For example, Goudriaan's (2006) study shows that property crime, especially, is more likely to be reported to the police by high-income families than low-income families. Skogan's (1976a) study also confirms that high-

income families are more likely to property crime. According to Skogan (1976a), families of high-income reported about 14% more property crimes to the police compared to low-income families (Skogan, 1976a). This tells us that, in most cases, crime-reporting behavior that is based on socio-economic status is explained by its consequences. That is, reporting certain property crimes to the police is done with intent of recovery, for insurance purposes, or in some cases, as an expression of anger (Goudriaan, 2006; Greenberg, 1979; see also Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2005c). This, however, should not be confused with crime-reporting behavior that is based on the seriousness of crime and other variables that have been discussed in other sections of this chapter or other chapters (see Chapter IV for an extended discussion).

Violent crimes, on the other hand, are more likely to be reported by lower-income persons. Lower-income victims of rape, for example, are more likely to report victimization events to the police than higher-income victims (Goudriaan, 2006). Skogan's (1976a) study shows that low-income families report about 19% more violent crimes than high-income families (Skogan, 1976a, 1976b; see also Liska, 1992). Perhaps low-income families are more often victimized by violent crimes than high-income families. Indeed, statistics show that low-income persons have higher victimization rates for violent crimes (47% for those who make \$7,500 or less annually) than high-income persons (18% for those who make \$75,000 or more annually) (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2006b). Conversely, high-income families are more often victims of property crime, simply because they possess more property that can be targeted by potential offenders (see Skogan, 1984). Generally, research shows that the percentage of reported crimes against persons declines as the household income increases (Bureau of Justice

Statistics, 2003; Liska, 1992; see also Zhang, Messner, & Liu, 2007). And the percentage of reported property crimes increases as the household income increases. Needless to say, these crime-reporting statistics vary from city to city.

Arguably, crime-reporting behavior is affected by one's socio-economic status. Yet, socio-economic status has an impact on one's attitudes toward the police, which in turn, affect one's willingness to report crimes to the police. In short, research shows that the effect of socio-economic status on attitudes toward the police is manifested in lower crime-reporting behavior. And the effect of socio-economic status on crime-reporting behavior varies by the type of crime (e.g., property crime vs, violent crime).

Summary

The review of the literature in this chapter suggests several concluding arguments. First, attitudes toward the police (as a construct) have the strongest effect on crime-reporting behavior. Individuals or groups that hold negative attitudes toward the police are less willing to report crimes to the police compared to those who hold more favorable attitudes toward the police. Demographic characteristics, on the other hand, to a greater extent affect both attitudes toward the police and crime-reporting behavior. Empirical evidence suggests that personal characteristics affect all four dimensions of attitudes toward the police (e.g., trust in the police, fear of the police, confidence in the police, and satisfaction with the police). All research points out that demographic characteristics of an individual or a group(s) have an indirect influence on crime-reporting behavior, namely through attitudes toward the police (see Figure 4). Additionally, research shows that demographic characteristics also have a direct influence on crime-reporting behavior (see Figure 5). Overall, most studies that have measured crime-reporting behavior show

that demographic characteristics (e.g., age, gender, race, and SES), whether at the individual level or aggregate level, are associated with willingness to report crime to the police. Some empirical studies show that this association is not as strong as the association of the seriousness and nature of the crime/victimization, attitudes toward the police, and police behavior with crime-reporting behavior, but they still remain relevant to this study.

In general, these demographic characteristics have a significant effect on crime-reporting behavior. With regard to age, prior research shows that age is identified as a strong predictor of crime-reporting behavior. The logic behind this assertion is that younger citizens are more likely to have more frequent and more negative contacts with the police; therefore, making them more inclined to form negative perceptions about the police. Gender and socio-economic status have produced mixed results. However, gender coupled with the attitude factor becomes a strong predictor of crime-reporting behavior. In this context, females in general are more likely to report crimes to the police compared to males. Socio-economic status, on the other hand, offers a two-dimensional explanation of crime-reporting behavior. Low-income residents are less likely to report property crimes compared to high-income residents. But, low-income residents are more likely to report crimes against persons than high-income residents.

Figure 4 and Figure 5 represent visual displays of the indirect and the direct effects of variables discussed in the second half of this chapter. Figure 4, for example, shows that the effect of demographic characteristics on crime-reporting behavior can be indirect. Thus, demographic variables are treated as exogenous variables; meaning that the effects on police behavior, attitudes toward the police, and prior victimization are

independent of intervening variables. Additionally, endogenous variables, in this case police behavior, attitudes toward the police, and prior victimization, are variables in this causal model whose values are determined by the amount of influence of the demographic variables such as age, gender, race, and socio-economic status. The total influence of all variables presented in Figure 4 on crime-reporting behavior is based on their independent effects and the relationship between exogenous (independent) and endogenous (intervening) variables.

While Figure 4 represents the indirect effect of demographic variables on crime-reporting behavior, Figure 5 represents the direct effect of demographic variables on crime-reporting behavior, as discussed in the review of literature. The intervening variables such as police behavior, attitudes toward the police, and prior victimization do not play a significant role in this model or are not taken into account (see Figure 5).

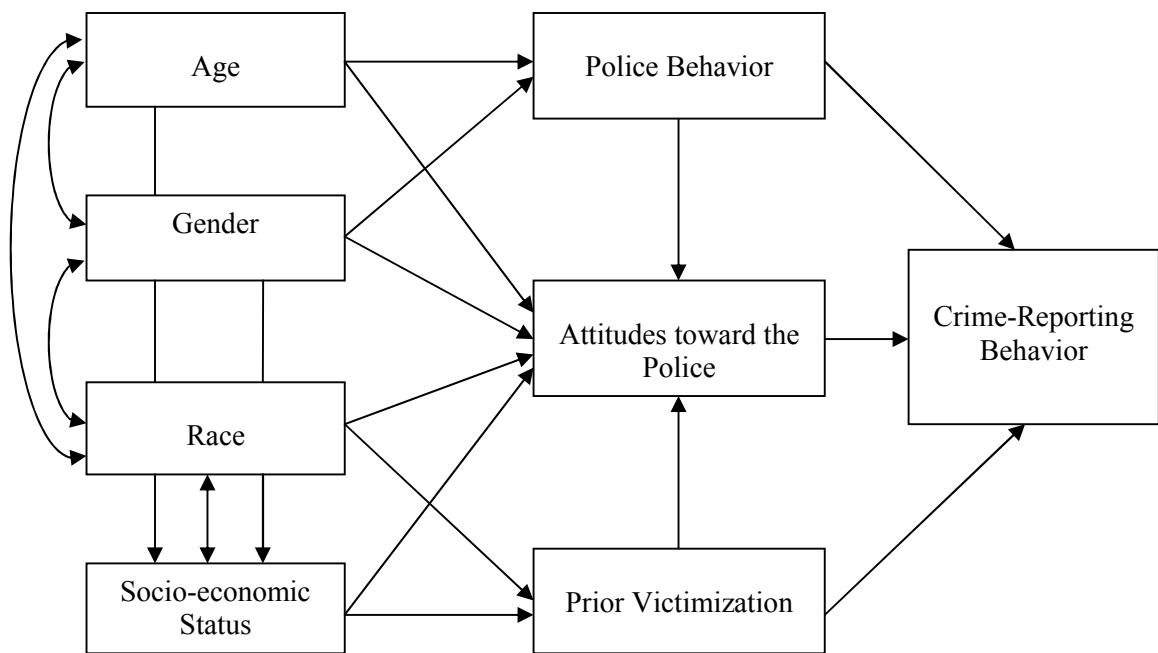


Figure 4. Individual's demographic characteristics model 1 (indirect effect). Note: This model has been developed based on the review of literature in this chapter. It represents the indirect effects of demographic characteristics (e.g., age, gender, race, and SES) on crime-reporting behavior.

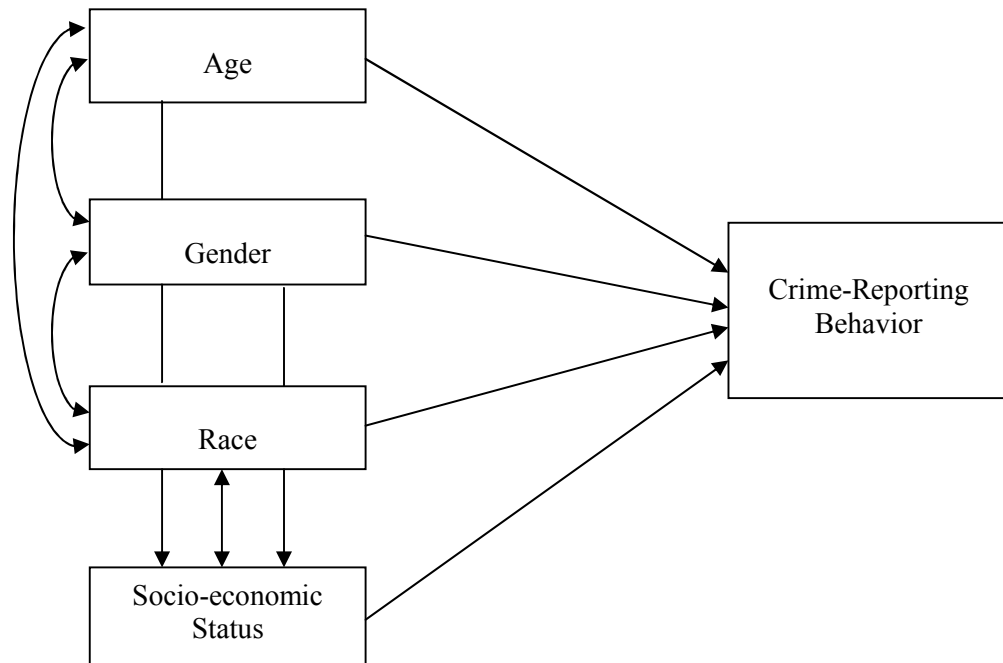


Figure 5. Individual's demographic characteristics model 2 (direct effect). Note: This model has been developed based on the review of literature in this chapter. It represents the direct effects of demographic characteristics (e.g., age, gender, race, and SES) on crime-reporting behavior.

CHAPTER IV

PUBLIC INTERACTION WITH THE POLICE & PRIOR VICTIMIZATION

Personal Experiences with the Police

The relationship between citizens and the police is comprised of two components: 1) physical and 2) emotional. The physical component relates to individuals who have had direct contact with the police through their own personal encounters. The emotional component, on the other hand, relates to both direct contacts with the police and contacts with the police that occur vicariously. This refers to opinions that are formed based on observation of others, either through the media or from friends, neighbors, etc., who have had physical contacts with the police (Brown & Delores, 2000; Chermak et al., 2004).

Personal experiences with the police as a form of the physical component of the citizen-police relationship vary by numerous factors (i.e., number of stops made by the police, type of contacts with the police, citizens' demographic characteristics, e.g., age, gender, race, and SES, personal attitudes toward law enforcement, and disregard for the safety of others). Research shows that about 21% of U.S. residents have contact with the police each year (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2001; 2005d, 2007b). This percentage has been fairly stable for several years in a row. Furthermore, the Bureau of Justice Statistics (2005d) reported that in 2002 about 28% of all those contacts with the police were to report a crime or to report a problem in the neighborhood. A greater number of contacts with the police, however, did not include reporting a crime or reporting other problems to the police. Thus, most citizen-police encounters were police-initiated (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2005d, 2001). In this context, it is hypothesized that the outcome of citizen-

police encounters leaves a positive or negative imprint on citizens' evaluation of the police (i.e., satisfaction with the police is most likely to be affected by the outcome of citizen-police encounters), which will have a positive or negative effect on crime-reporting behavior since the encounter is police-initiated, and as such, in most cases, it is involuntary (Wheitzer, 2000; Egharevba, 2004; Smith & Arian, 2006; Goudriaan, 2006; Robertshaw, Louw, & Mtani, 2001; see also Tuch & Weitzer, 1997). This tells us that negative personal experiences with the police are more likely to occur and accumulate during non-crime-reporting events.

Moreover, personal experiences can be explained by the type of contacts citizens have with the police (see subsection that follows; see also Chapters II & III). Research shows that frequent traffic stops, racial profiling, arrests made by the police, and police misconduct have a tremendous effect on the citizen-police relationship (Bates & Fasenfest, 2005; Weitzer & Tuch, 2005b, 2002; Weitzer, 2000). Again, this effect is manifested in a form of dissatisfaction with the police. This form of dissatisfaction, resulting from personal experiences with the police, is a contributing factor in the creation of negative attitudes toward the police, which ultimately result in lower crime-reporting behavior (see Cheurprakobkit, 2000; Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 1987; Byrne, Conway, & Ostermeyer, 2005; MacDonald & Stokes, 2006; see also Payne & Gainey, 2007; Skogan, 1994; Apsler, Cummins, & Carl, 2003; Brown & Benedict, 2002; see Chapter III).

Empirical evidence shows that the link between personal experiences and crime-reporting behavior is mainly based on age, gender, and socio-economic status. Based on prior research that has been discussed in other chapters, three general research hypotheses

can be generated that link personal experience to crime-reporting. Younger people are more likely to accumulate negative experiences with the police as a result of higher frequency of contacts with the police and therefore are less likely to cooperate with social control institutions (i.e., less likely to report crime to the police) than older people. This hypothesis has been tested and empirically supported by many researchers (Bickman, 1976; McAra & McVie, 2005; Hopkins & Miles, 1992; Low & Durking, 2001; Hindelang, 1976; Tanton & Jones, 2003; Byrne, Conway, & Ostermeyer, 2005; Skogan, 2005; Thurman & Reisig, 1996). By gender, males are more likely to encounter negative experiences with the police and are less likely to report crimes to the police than females (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2005d, 2001; Beck & Yulia, 2004; Weitzer & Tuch, 2005b; McAra & McVie, 2005; Piliavin & Briar, 1964; see also chapter III). And third, regardless of age and gender, people who live in socially and economically disadvantaged neighborhoods are more likely to report having had negative experiences with the police than people who live in more socially and economically developed neighborhoods. For the poor and the unemployed, such experiences have a negative influence on their attitudes toward the police and ultimately on crime-reporting behavior (Sampson & Bartusch, 1998; Weitzer, 2000; Bennett & Wiegand, 1994; Goudriaan, 2006; Skogan, 1976a, 1976b; see also Chapter III).

The argument can be extended to include race, and its correlation with personal experiences with the police, as an equally important factor in explaining crime-reporting behavior. Along this line, some researchers have reported that, by race, African Americans and whites have different experiences with the police. This difference has been documented by Howell, Perry, and Vile (2004) in their study about the evaluation of

the police by race. According to Howell et al. (2004), “blacks are more likely than whites to report having experienced involuntary, uncivil, or adversarial contacts with the police; to be stopped, questioned, and/or searched without cause or due process; and to experience verbal or physical abuse personally” (p. 46). Weitzer and Tuch’s (1999) study also supports Howell et al.’s (2004) findings about blacks reporting more negative experiences with the police than whites (see also Brown & Delores, 2000; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2005d, 2001). However, controlling for negative experiences, attitudes, and victimization rates, race has not been shown to be a strong determinant of crime-reporting behavior. Therefore, race as an independent variable cannot be used with a high degree of certainty to explain the variation in crime-reporting behavior since evidence to support this is weak and somewhat questionable. However, race is a strong factor if used to explain the variation in attitudes toward the police rather than crime-reporting behavior (see Chapter III for a discussion of the effect of race on crime-reporting behavior).

In summary, there are many factors that can be taken into account when using personal experiences to explain crime-reporting behavior. However, research shows more support for three distinguished factors: namely age, gender, and socio-economic status. This does not mean that there are no other factors that can be used to explain crime-reporting behavior in the context of personal experiences; it only means that up-to-date research shows that the effect of these three factors on crime-reporting behavior is more pronounced compared to other variables. This leaves us enough room for further testing in this area, either with the same hypotheses or by generating new hypotheses.

Overall, the research reviewed in this section suggests that negative or positive experiences with the police can result from both police-initiated and citizen-initiated

contacts. However, there is an inherent nature of negative experiences with the police to occur from police-initiated contacts rather than citizen-initiated contacts with the police. Depending on the type of contacts people have had with the police in recent years, people feel more or less confident in the police and more or less willing to cooperate with the police (see Beck & Yulia, 2004; Skogan, 2005; Rosenbaum et al., 2005).

Types of Contacts with the Police

Citizen-initiated and Police-initiated Contacts

Research indicates that the nature of the contact (voluntary versus involuntary) and perceptions of that contact have a strong influence on citizen-police relationships (Schafer et al., 2003). There are a number of different reasons why a person would have contact with the police. Notably, by type of contacts, the encounters with the police can either be citizen-initiated contacts or police-initiated contacts. According to Davis and Henderson (2003), citizen-initiated contacts include calls to report crimes, emergencies, suspicious persons, noise complaints, etc. (Davis & Henderson, 2003). Generally speaking, citizen-initiated contacts with the police pertain to how people see the police, usually as a vital community resource, one entity whom they can contact to receive or give important information (i.e., to report crimes), or discuss community problems such as demanding or suggesting appropriate solutions to reduce crime (Johnson, 1993). Police-initiated contacts, on the other hand, are contacts initiated by the police for various reasons, and they may be formal or informal in nature (Sced, 2004). Such contacts include traffic stops, execution of arrest warrants, summons, arrests for minor crimes, arrests for serious crimes, etc.

Citizen-Initiated Contacts

The link between citizen-initiated contacts and crime-reporting behavior is mostly through attitudes toward the police as an intervening variable. According to Rosenbaum, Schuck, Costello et al. (2005), citizen-initiated contacts, in general, tend to produce positive attitudes toward the police. Research shows that even in cases when citizens were not satisfied with the results of police service, their attitudes toward the police did not change (Rosenbaum et al., 2005). However, these findings are not stable when comparing them to a number of similar studies. Schafer, Huebner, and Bynum (2003), for example, argued that citizens who had voluntary contacts (citizen-initiated contacts) with the police and were dissatisfied with the results/outcome of those encounters reported a lower level of satisfaction with the police. Correspondingly, low level of satisfaction with the police is an indicator of negative attitudes toward the police (Scheider, Rowell, & Bezdikian, 2003; Skogan, 1990; Touhy & Wrennal, 1995; see also Tuch & Weitzer, 1997, 2005; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2006c). And as discussed in other chapters, negative attitudes toward the police are manifested in lower crime-reporting behavior (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 1987; Robertshaw, Louw, & Mtani, 2001; Skogan, 2005; Salmi et al. 2005; Byrne, Conway, & Ostermeyer, 2005; Sims & Myhill, 2001). In this current study, citizen-initiated contacts will be treated as an independent variable with the assumption that citizen-initiated contacts with the police, to some degree, affect crime-reporting behavior.

Furthermore, citizen-initiated contacts extend beyond satisfaction with the police. One question that researchers have asked is: are all ethnic groups equally likely to initiate contacts with the police? Empirical studies show that ethnic groups differ in terms of the

type of contacts they have with the police. Davis (2000), who has studied the attitudes toward the police of six ethnic groups, in his study shows that the differences by ethnic group in voluntary citizen-initiated contacts with the police, although small, are statistically significant. Blacks, for example, are more likely to have citizen-initiated contacts with the police compared to whites, latinos, and native Americans (Davis, 2000; see also Johnson, 1993). Citizen-initiated contacts with the police can further be categorized by contacts to report crimes and other problems to the police and contacts to express concern about community issues. Bivariate analyses of Johnson's (1993) study show that whites, by ethnicity, are more likely to contact the police to discuss community concerns than any other ethnic groups. Minority groups, on the other hand, are more likely to contact the police to report suspicious activities, nuisances, or other events compared to whites (Johnson, 1993).

Parallel to these findings, the general assumption is that those who have voluntary contacts with the police are more likely to hold positive attitudes toward the police and are more willing to cooperate with the police. However, empirical evidence tells us that blacks, regardless of the type of contact, are more likely to hold negative attitudes toward the police since their attitudes are not affected by the type of contacts as much as by the frequency of contacts with the police, police behavior, personal experiences, prior victimization, and a number of other variables (Carter, 1985; Bates & Fassenfest, 2005; Weitzer & Tuch, 2005a, 2005b; Holdaway, 2002; Egharevba, 2004; Delores, 2000; Travis et al., 2000; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2007a). Thus, the logic of using race to explain crime-reporting behavior based on the type of contacts with the police (voluntary vs. involuntary) is not philosophically nor empirically defensible. That is, based on

empirical evidence, we should not expect race to have the same effect on crime-reporting behavior as it has on attitudes toward the police, even when controlling for types of contacts with the police. When race produces negative results in trying to explain the variation in attitudes toward the police, it does not mean that race will also produce negative results in explaining the variation in crime-reporting behavior (see Johnson, 1993).

Overall, research tells us that a citizen-initiated contact with the police, when treated as an independent variable, has some influence on crime-reporting behavior. Needless to say, citizen-initiated contacts with the police do not seem to have a strong direct influence on crime-reporting behavior. Rather, this influence is projected through other variables, namely attitudes toward the police, police behavior, personal experiences, etc. To reiterate, research shows that citizen-initiated contacts, compared to police-initiated contacts, tend to have a positive influence on both crime-reporting behavior and attitudes toward the police since citizen-initiated contacts are considered voluntary.

Police-Initiated Contacts

The discussion of police-initiated contacts in this subsection is limited to its effect on crime-reporting behavior and attitudes toward the police. Police-initiated contacts in most cases are involuntary. Research shows that contacts between the police and citizens may not be as a result of actions taken by the citizens.⁴ Police-initiated contacts occur for a variety of reasons (Johnson, 1993). In a great number of cases, police-initiated contacts

⁴ In this subsection and in the previous subsection, I used the word “citizen” rather than “public” because the police are part of the public. In this context, police-initiated contacts could also mean public-initiated contacts. Hence, to make this distinction, I used citizen-initiated contacts rather than public-initiated contacts.

may carry out negative consequences (Beck & Yulia, 2004; Skogan, 2005; Rosenbaum et al., 2005). Johnson (1993) argued that police-initiated traffic stops, for example, can lead to potentially violent confrontations. Although violent confrontations with the police only occur in 1.5% of all police-initiated contacts, the negative consequences are much broader than the percentage itself (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2005d, 2002). In this view, the outcome of police-initiated contacts with citizens may have negative effects on the citizen-police relationship. The general assumption is that police-initiated contacts result in citizens' negative experiences with the police, and as such, those experiences negatively affect citizen's attitudes toward the police, a primary behavior, and eventually crime-reporting behavior, a subsequent behavior. In other words, police-initiated contacts are the source of citizens' negative experiences with the police. However, most research studies indicate that the police are not likely to randomly stop citizens without probable cause. According to Bureau of Justice Statistics (2005d, 2002, 2006b), about 84% of drivers who were stopped by the police in 1999 and 2002 considered those stops legitimate. This tells us that police-initiated contacts, although undesirable, for the most part are necessary occurrences.

What makes police-initiated contacts relevant to the current study is that some groups of people have a higher level of involvement or are more exposed to police-initiated contacts than others. In this regard, research shows that blacks and other minorities, younger people, low-income individuals, and males more than females by gender are more prone to police-initiated contacts (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2002; Byrne et al., 2005; Skogan, 2005; see also Hurst & Frank, 2000). And as mentioned earlier, their experiences with the police contribute to the development of negative

attitudes toward the police (Johnson, 1993; McAra & McVie, 2005). In many instances, such attitudes are usually caused by a negative predisposition. That is, someone may selectively recall negative encounters with the police; thus, this attitudinal predisposition is more likely to provoke a negative police response in return (Rosenbaum et al., 2005).

Race has been the most highlighted variable when discussing police-initiated contacts. A great number of studies show that, by race, blacks are more likely to become the target of police-initiated contacts (Bates & Fasnfest, 2005; see also Chiricos et al., 2004; Warren & Tomaskovic-Devey, 2009). Davis's (2000) study, for example, indicates that African Americans are more likely to have involuntary contact with the police, with 35% reporting such contacts (Davis, 2000). The Bureau of Justice Statistics's (2007a) study also shows that minorities are more likely to experience police-initiated contacts than whites (see also Cheurprakobkit, 2000; Schafer et al., 2003).

Finally, it is logical that experiences with the police, especially with police-initiated contacts, play an important role in citizen-police relationships. Most public opinions about the police are derived from past experiences with the police. Normally, past experiences, to a large extent, are predictors of crime-reporting behavior toward the police. Past negative experiences, for which it has been established that are more likely to result from police-initiated contacts than citizen-initiated contacts, produce a negative effect that is spread across crime-reporting behavior, attitudes toward the police, and a number of other variables that are vital in the functioning of social control mechanisms such as the police.

Frequency of Contacts with the Police

The effect of frequency of contacts with the police on crime-reporting behavior has not been studied. Based on available empirical studies, this effect can only be linked indirectly to crime-reporting behavior. The current study, however, will attempt to determine the amount of both direct and indirect influence of the frequency of contacts with the police on crime-reporting behavior. In addition, this study will also attempt to determine the amount of influence that frequency of contacts has on other variables such as attitudes toward the police and crime-reporting anonymity.

Most prior studies have been focused on the determinants (e.g., age, race, gender, SES, etc.) that are correlated with the frequency of contacts with the police while trying to explain citizen-police relationships. In other words, researchers have attempted to determine why certain groups of people have more frequent contact with the police than others (see Rosenbaum et al., 2005; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2005c, 2002; Sims & Myhill, 2001). Needless to say, frequency of contacts with the police, in this context, has been used as a dependent variable. In contrast, frequency of contacts with the police in the current study is used as an independent variable.

Research shows that a higher number of contacts with the police results in lower willingness to cooperate with the police. This effect is more pronounced with police-initiated contacts than citizen-initiated contacts. In other words, research shows that those who have more frequent contacts with the police are more likely to report negative attitudes toward the police (Frank & Hurst, 2005). Page, Wake, and Ames's (2004) study also shows that a higher frequency of contacts with the police negatively affects public attitudes toward the police (Page et al., 2004; see also Jesilow et al. 1995). However,

some researchers have noted that attitudes toward the police are fairly stable, and as such they are not easily influenced by one or two police-initiated contacts (Rosenbaum et al., 2005). This tells us that in order for us to use the frequency of contacts with the police as an influencing variable on crime-reporting behavior, the number of contacts should be significantly high; high enough to affect attitudes toward the police before affecting crime-reporting behavior. Moreover, if the number of police-initiated contacts affects citizens' attitudes toward the police, it follows that the number of contacts with the police will also affect crime-reporting behavior since attitudes have a significant influence on crime-reporting behavior, as discussed in Chapter III (see Jesilow et al. 1995; Carter, 1985; Holdaway, 2003; Smith & Hawkins, 1973; Skogan, 2005; Carcach, 1997; Sims & Myhill, 2001; see also see also Vellani & Nahoun, 2001; Singer, 1988; Goudrianna, 2006; Smith & Arian, 2006; Goudriaan, Wittebrood, & Nieuwbeerta, 2006; for reviews).

Media Exposure

The possibility of association between exposure to media about police misconduct and crime-reporting behavior has been investigated by very few researchers (Lurigio & Rosenbaum, 1991; Salmi, Smolej, & Kivivuori, 2007; Bachman, 1998). Most of the research currently available about media exposure is concentrated in police use of force and public attitudes toward the police (Weitzer & Tuch, 2005, 2001; Chermak et al., 2005; Miller et al., 2005). Unsurprisingly, past research studies cannot successfully explain the amount of influence that exposure to media about police misconduct has on crime-reporting behavior. By contrast, the current study makes an attempt to determine the direct and indirect influence of media exposure on crime-reporting behavior.

Needless to say, over the past few decades, television in America has become a central component of contemporary social life (Doyle, 2000). Both the public and the police are dependent on the mass media. Goldstein (1977) argued that the public depends on the media for their understanding of issues related to policing (see also Gallagher et al., 2001). This dependency, therefore, contributes to the formation of public opinions about the police that may negatively or positively affect many dimensions of policing (Goldstein, 1977). The media (e.g., newspapers, television, internet, radios, etc), like the police, have a mission to accomplish. Their mission is to inform the public about police service and police effectiveness as realistically as possible. Occasionally, this function of the media conflicts with the interests of the police as police agencies have the desire to keep certain information confidential, especially information that involves police misconduct (Wallace, Roberson, & Steckler, 1995; Cole & Smith, 2001). The media, in this regard, have been criticized and, in fact, blamed for portraying and delivering a negative image of the police to the general public (Goldstein, 1977).

Generally, the effect of media on crime-reporting behavior can be positive and negative, and this effect is linked through public trust, satisfaction with the police service, police legitimacy, and an unrealistic exaggeration of the amount of crime that occurs on a daily basis, which increases the level of fear among people. The negative effect of media on crime-reporting behavior becomes evident when exposing police misconduct to the public. This exposure considerably hurts public trust in the police (Cole & Smith, 2001; Tyler, 2005; Stoutland, 2001; Hurst & Frank, 2000; Goldsmith, 2005; Macdonald & Stokes, 2006; Dowler, 2003; see also Chapter II). Nonetheless, as hurtful as it might seem, exposing police behavior has some positive effects, at least in the long-run. That is,

exposure through media influences police institutions to become more proactive, and restricting or concealing particular operations becomes less practical in police agencies (Doyle, 2000).

The direct link between the media and crime-reporting behavior is through the publications of crime prevention strategies. That is, through the mass media campaigns, the police can reach a large audience by launching crime stoppers programs that can target specific types of crimes and specific types of offenders by encouraging individuals to come forward with information that can help the police catch criminals (Lurigio & Rosenbaum, 1991; Roehl & cook, 1984; see also Sacco & Silverman, 1981; Mendelsohn, & O'Keefe, 1982; Rosenbaum et al., 1987; Sherman et al., 2002, 2006).

Summary

Figure 6 represents a summary and a visual representation of the relationships between variables that represent public interaction with the police, as discussed in the first section of this chapter, and their influence on crime-reporting behavior, the main dependent variable in this study. Prior research shows that there are indirect links between crime-reporting behavior and personal experiences with the police, citizen-initiated contacts with the police, police-initiated contacts, and exposure to media about police misconduct. These indirect influences are delivered through an intervening variable, namely through attitudes toward the police as an independent construct. Figure 6 also shows that there is a direct effect of each one of these variables on crime-reporting behavior. However, the direct effect on crime-reporting behavior has not been well studied by other researchers. Additionally, Figure 6 shows that there is a bidirectional relationship between personal experiences with the police and citizen-initiated contacts

with the police. There is also a correlational (symmetric) relationship between personal experiences and police-initiated contacts. Prior research tells us that similar correlational (symmetric) relationships exist between citizen-initiated contacts with the police, police-initiated contacts, and exposure to media.

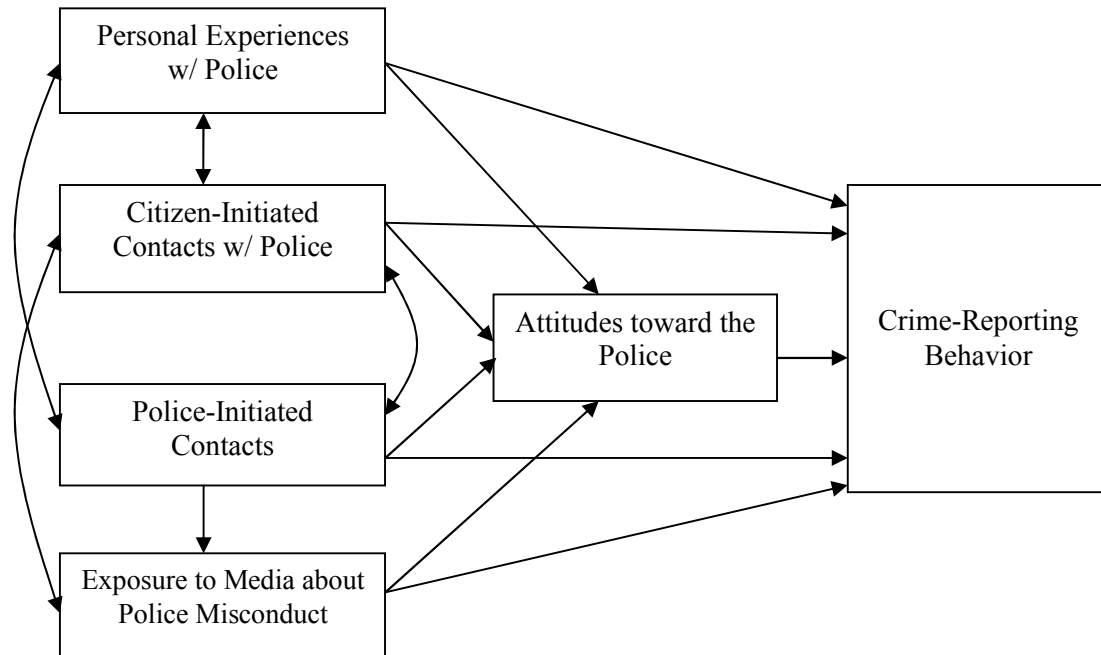


Figure 6. Public interaction with the police model. Note: This model has been developed based on the review of the literature in this chapter. A straight arrow indicates direction of influence on dependent variable. A curved line indicates correlation between variables.

Victimization as a Determinant of Crime-Reporting Behavior

In previous chapters and in the first half of this chapter, the review of literature shows that crime-reporting behavior is influenced by a variety of factors. Some of those factors have a direct effect on crime-reporting behavior; some of them have a tortuous effect on crime-reporting behavior, while others have a tangible effect through negative or positive attitudes toward the police on crime-reporting behavior. Most prior studies that have been conducted in this area have studied crime-reporting behavior in part. Yet, most prior research has been focused on one type of crime or on factors that have been vaguely conceptualized.

The current study includes prior victimization as an elementary variable that influences one's willingness to report crime to the police. After all, there are a considerable number of studies that show prior victimization is an important factor that affects crime-reporting behavior. Prior victimization in this study, as a variable, has two dimensions, victimization by crime (i.e., crimes against property and crimes against persons) and victimization by the police (e.g., police misconduct). Victimization by the police will only be considered in reference to the discussion of Chapter II. Furthermore, much of the discussion of the literature about crime-reporting in other chapters has been inclusive. This section of literature review will be exclusive. The discussion will be focused only on the effect of prior victimization on crime-reporting behavior, i.e., when the victim himself/herself reports victimization events to the police and not witnessed crimes (i.e., when the person reporting crimes is not the victim himself/herself).

Forms of Victimization

Victimization takes many different forms, including domestic abuse by individuals close to the victim, other non-domestic victimization, frequency of victimization events, time of occurrence, location of occurrence (e.g., public location vs. private location), different types of victimization (e.g., crimes against property vs. crimes against persons), and different degrees of severity of victimization (e.g., from murder, rape, repeat-assaults, to property loss). Each one of these forms of victimization differs in terms of propensity to report victimization events to the police, and each form of victimization may be explained by different sets of correlates (see, Bachman, 1998; Karmen, 1984, 1990; Skogan, 1976a, 1976b; Goudriaan, 2006; Greenberg, 1979; Doerner & Lab, 1995; Meadows, 1998; Zhang et al., 2007).

The Effect of Victimization Experiences on Crime-Reporting Behavior

Xie, Pogarsky, Lynch, and McDowall (2006) researched the relationship between factors that affect crime-reporting behavior for individuals who have been victimized by crime. The major assumptions in this study were that crime-reporting behavior will be affected by the victim's prior experience with the police, by whether or not an arrest was made by the police in an effort to investigate the crime that has affected the victim, and by the police response to an individual's own prior victimization rather than victimization of another household member. To test these hypotheses, the researchers analyzed longitudinal data borrowed from the NCVS (National Crime Victimization Survey) of 2002. Xie et al. (2006) found that the greater the police efforts following the most recent victimization of an individual, the greater the likelihood that that individual will report subsequent victimization events to the police. Furthermore, consistent with Hickman and

Simpson's (2003) and Holmberg's (2004) research findings, Xei et al.'s research shows that a positive police response to prior victimization (i.e., if the offender who committed the crime against the victim was arrested) encouraged victims to report subsequent crimes to the police. Regarding vicarious reporting to the police, Xei et al.'s (2006) research shows that victimization of another household member did not have an effect on an individual's crime-reporting behavior. This study points out that prior victimization is strongly associated with crime-reporting behavior. Therefore, those who have been previously victimized by a crime are more likely to report subsequent crimes to the police (Xei et al., 2006). The findings of an earlier study conducted by Conaway and Lohr (1994) also confirm that crime-reporting behavior is strongly associated with one's prior victimization status. Conaway and Lohr's analysis of factors associated with reporting violent crimes to the police show that people who have been previously victimized, regardless of the type of victimization, are more likely to report subsequent victimization events to the police (Conaway & Lohr, 1994).

Furthermore, research shows that as the frequency of victimization events increases, reporting victimization events to the police also increases. This hypothesis has been empirically supported by the research findings of Unnever and Cornell's (2004) study. According to Unnever and Cornell (2004), who examined factors that influence students' decisions to report being bullied to school officials, victims who reported bullying to school officials increased as the persistency of victimization increased. In other words, this study shows that the higher the repetition of victimization is, the higher the reporting rates will be (Unnever & Cornell, 2004; see also Tilley, 2005). Research findings of Williams and Cornell (2006) also show that there is a positive influence on

students' willingness to seek help for a threat of violence when they have been previously victimized by crime. This tells us that there is a reason to believe that an increased number of victimization events is positively correlated with willingness to report subsequent victimization events to the police.

This conclusion is not universally supported by all prior research studies, however. Zhang, Messner, and Liu (2007), for example, found that there is a negative effect of prior victimization on reporting subsequent victimization events. This study shows that individuals who have been previously victimized by crimes were less likely to report subsequent crimes to the police. The authors explained that following a victimization event, victims of crime may submerge into an increased isolation from the mainstream society, creating a defensive shield, which is perceived by the victims to serve as a mechanism against future victimizations (Zhang et al., 2007). Nonetheless, Zhang et al. maintain that crime-reporting behavior is explained by incident-specific correlates, individual-specific correlates, and environmental-specific correlates.

Personal Characteristics

Prior research on victimization and crime-reporting behavior shows that, in general, there is a relationship between a victim's personal characteristics (e.g., age and gender, and SES) and his or her willingness to report repeat victimizations to the police (see previous chapter for a general discussion of the influence of demographic characteristics on crime-reporting behavior).⁵ By gender, female victims are more likely to report their victimization experiences to the police than male victims (Ashbaugh &

⁵ This section will focus only on the effect of prior victimization (those who have actually been repeatedly victimized by crime) on willingness to report crime to the police. Chapter III discusses the effect of personal characteristics (as it pertains to the general population) on crime-reporting behavior. This subsection focuses on personal characteristics of those who have been victimized by crimes.

Cornell, 2008; Snyder, 2000; Durose et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2007; see also Tanton & Jones, 2003; Fisher et al., 2003). Some researchers argue that the answer to the question of why female victims are more likely than male victims to report victimization events to the police is linked to repeat victimization events. That is, the frequency of victimization for females is higher than for males (Snyder, 2000; Durose et al., 2005; Carcach, 1997). However, research shows that the frequency of victimization varies by the type of crime. For example, males are more often victims of robbery than females. Females, on the other hand, become more often victims of rape and personal theft than males (Zhang et al., 2007). This tells us that the results of research studies should be interpreted with caution since they vary by the type of crime and the location of their occurrences.

By age, research shows that crimes against young people are less likely to be reported to the police compared to crimes against adults (Durose et al., 2005; Finkelhor & Wolak, 2003; Finkelhor, Wolak, & Berliner, 2001). Research further shows that younger people are more often victims of crime, yet they are less likely to report crimes to the police (see Chapter III). Thus, it is safe to say that most crimes against young victims go unnoticed (see Snyder, 2000; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1997a). Moreover, with regard to age, research shows that as one gets older, the frequency of victimization events decreases while the likelihood of reporting victimization events to the police increases (Durose et al., 2005; Watkins, 2005; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2003, 2005a; Byrne, Conway, & Ostermeyer, 2005; see also Hindelang, 1976; Tanton & Jones, 2003; Bennett & Wiegand, 1994). Following gender and age, socio-economic status is the third most important personal characteristic that assists in developing a victim's crime-reporting profile (see discussed in Chapter III for a more detailed account).

Seriousness of Crime

The decision whether or not to report a crime to the police is affected by the severity or the consequences of the criminal event. Thus, individual perception about the seriousness of crime plays an important role in crime-reporting behavior (see Carcach, 1997; Bennett & Wiegand, 1994). Skogan (1984) argued that crime-reporting behavior is a form of individual evaluation of the events in terms of cost-benefit rational. Thus, according to Skogan (1984), crimes that tend to produce some form of personal gain (e.g., property crimes) are more likely to be reported to the police, for insurance purposes (see also Goudriaan, 2006; Tanton & Jones, 2003).⁶ For example, those who have insured property, and that the property will be fully compensated by the insurance companies, are more likely to report property theft to the police (84%) compared to those who do not have property insurance (51%) (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 1987). However, the seriousness of crime does not stop at the value of property. In fact, it is much broader than property crime; it includes crimes against persons as well. Research shows that the severity of crime becomes a stronger determinant of crime-reporting behavior when including violent crimes (e.g., victim injuries, repeat victimization events, etc.) (Snyder, 2000; Durose et al., 2005; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2003; Greenberg & Ruback, 1992; Block & Block, 1980; Greenberg & Ruback, 1992). Tanton and Jones's (2003) study shows that victims of serious crimes have a higher propensity to report crimes to the police than victims of less serious crimes. For example, victims who have experienced injuries during an assault were associated with higher reporting of the event to the police (Tanton & Jones, 2003; see also Gartner & Macmillan, 1995). According to the Bureau

⁶ See discussion in the previous chapter (under *Socio-Economic Status* section) for a more detailed account of the influence of SES on crime-reporting behavior.

of Justice Statistics (2003), 56% of victimizations that resulted in injuries were reported to the police compared to 40% of victimization events that did not involve injuries. Additionally, crime-reporting is further influenced by the degree of the severity of injury (i.e., severe injuries are more likely to get reported than light injuries). The Bureau of Justice Statistics's (2003) study shows that 70% of victims who received medical treatment for their injuries reported the event to the police compared to 46% of victims who did not receive medical treatment for their injuries (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2003).

The impetus behind crime-reporting behavior for violent crimes is the victims' perception that they will have a greater benefit from police involvement. That is, if victims of violent crimes report their victimization events to the police, it means that they can put a stop to their victimization (see Watkins, 2005). This argument is consistent with Skogan's (1984, 1976a) cost-benefit rational; a form of rational choice perspective in which victims of crime perceive crime-reporting as beneficial (see also Block, 1974).

Furthermore, Watkins (2005) argued that the severity of crime differs by age.⁷ That is, juveniles are more likely to witness or become victimized by less severe crime. Watkins's (2005) findings indicate that juveniles are less willing to report crime to the police, not entirely because of their age, but because of the seriousness of the crime. This translates that juveniles are more likely to engage in less serious crimes; thus, their victimization is not as severe as that of adults (see Skogan, 1984, 1976a). Additionally, people are more likely to report crimes when such events result in injuries and great

⁷ Age in this subsection is discussed only in terms of seriousness of crime (a partial discussion). Age is more extensively discussed in the previous chapter (under section titles *Influence of Age on Crime-Reporting Behavior*).

property loss. For juveniles, property loss, in most cases, is not applicable (Greenberg & Ruback, 1992; Bachman, 1998, 1993).

Victimization by Strangers vs. Known Offenders

Reporting crime to the police, in many cases, is incident-specific and it relates to the relationship between the victim and the offender (Skogan, 1984; Zhang et al., 2007; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2005b). A small number of prior studies reported that victims of property crimes, and in some cases, victims of rape, for example, are more likely to report victimization events to the police if the offender is known to the victims (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1996; 2005b; see also Goudriaan & Nieuwbeerta, 2007). There are other studies that show the victim-offender relationship does not affect reporting behavior (Felson, Messner, Hoskin, 2006). Yet, there are studies that report a very low correlation between victim-offender relationship and willingness to report crime to the police (Carcach, 1997). However, there is a much greater number of studies that have produced some contradicting results, showing that an increased social distance between the victim and the offender results in an increased reporting of victimization events to the police (Bachman, 1993; Kaukinen, 2002; Gartner & Macmillan, 1995; Williams, 1994; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2002, 2003; see also Pescosolido, 1992). Bachman (1993), for example, found that victims of rape were more likely to report victimization events to the police when the perpetrator was unknown to them (Bachman, 1993, 1998; see also Williams, 1994). In this context, research shows that most sexual assaults (including rape) are committed by someone known to the victim (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1997b; 2002; 2005b). This tells us that a great number of violent crimes (i.e., rape and sexual assault) go unreported.

Yet, as mentioned earlier, the likelihood of reporting victimization events to the police increases when the victim sustains injuries (Bachman, 1998). Greenberg and Ruback (1992) found that victims of crime were more likely to report victimization events to the police when the attacker had some kind of weapon present (Greenberg & Ruback, 1992). In all these cases, the victim-offender intimacy plays a significant role in the decision whether or not to report victimization events to the police. Gartner & Macmillan (1995) argued that the more intimate the relationship between the victim and the offender is (e.g., spouses, ex-spouses, relative, work, friend, or stranger), the less likely the police will be aware of the crime occurrences (Gartner & Macmillan, 1995; see also Kaukinen, 2002; Skogan, 1977). This conclusion was also supported by the research findings of the Bureau of Justice Statistics's (2002) study. According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics (2002, 2003), 61% of completed rapes and 82% of sexual assaults, offenses that were committed by someone known to the victim, were not reported to the police. On the other hand, 54% of completed rapes and 44% of attempted rapes were reported to the police when the offender was a stranger (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2002, 2003). Thus, the number of reported crimes committed by offenders that are strangers to the victim is greater than the number of reported crimes committed by offenders known to the victim.

In short, research tells us that the relationship between the victim and the offender plays a significant role in deciding whether or not to report victimization events to the police. In many instances, women and men view their relationship as private. Even when there is violence involved, police involvement in these situations would be considered as a source of embarrassment and shame (Gartner & Macmillan, 1995). Generally, research

on victim-offender relationships shows that the closer the relationship between the victim and the offender, the less likely that the police will be informed about the offenses (Kaukinen, 2002; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2002, 2003).

Summary

For the most part, there is consistency in the research findings among studies reviewed in this section of this chapter. Empirical evidence thus suggests that prior victimization is a strong predictive variable that positively influences one's willingness to report crime to the police. With the increase of frequency of victimization, increases willingness to report victimizations to the authorities. However, there are a few research studies that question the veracity of this conclusion.

Figure 7 represents a summary of the research discussed in this section and a visual representation of the relationships between variables that explain the effect or correlation of prior victimization on crime-reporting behavior. Research reviewed in this section shows that the victim's personal characteristics (i.e., age and gender, and SES), victim's relationship with the offender (e.g., spouses, ex-spouses, relative, work, friend, or stranger), seriousness of crime (i.e., from murder, rape, repeat-assaults, to property loss), and type of victimization (e.g., crimes against property vs. crimes against persons) have a direct influence on crime-reporting behavior. These variables also have a direct influence on attitudes toward the police, which in turn have a direct effect on crime-reporting behavior. Research also shows that there is a bidirectional relationship between victim-offender relationship and attitudes toward the police. Additionally, Figure 7 shows that there is a direct influence of the victim's personal characteristics on the victim-offender relationship. This influence is related to the victim's gender and age in

particular. Figure 7 shows that there are correlational (symmetric) relationships between the victim's personal characteristics, seriousness of crime, and type of victimization. A similar correlational (symmetric) relationship exists between the victim-offender relationship and the type of victimization.

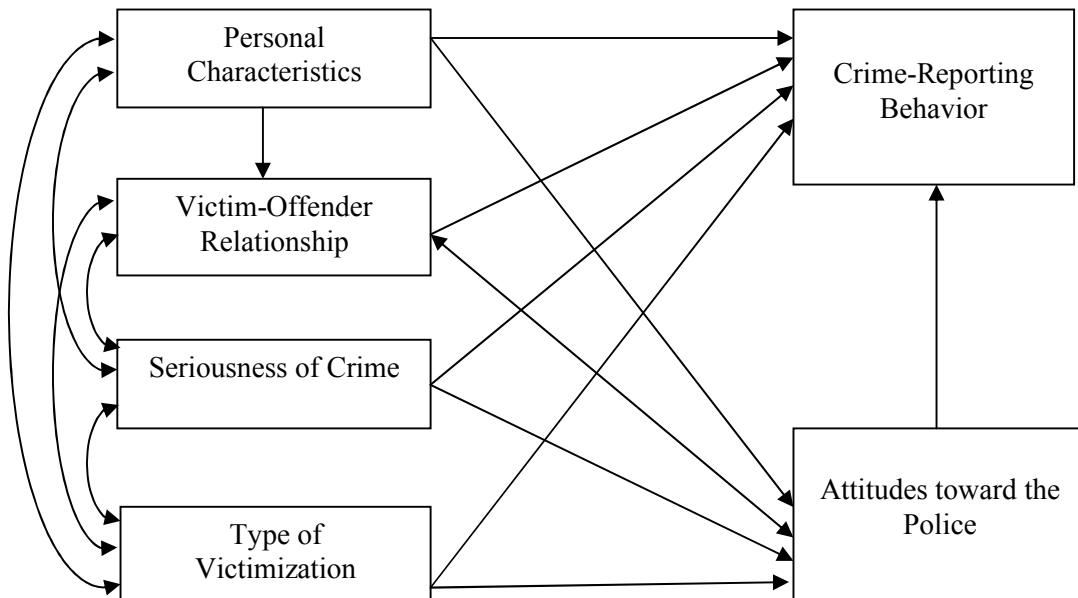


Figure 7. Prior victimization model. Note: This model has been developed based on the review of literature in this chapter. Type of victimization includes crimes against persons vs. crimes against property. Personal characteristics include age, gender, and income. Victim-offender relationship refers to whether or not the victim knew the offender.

The Aim of This Study

The main purpose of this literature review has been to create a profile of those who are more likely to report crimes to the police, to discuss the main factors that are associated with one's decision whether or not to report crimes to the police, and under what conditions crime-reporting occurs. The aim of the current study is to put this profile to the test.

This literature review has demonstrated that any new element which modifies people's crime-reporting behavior can introduce a change in the propensity to report crime to the police. In this case, an introduction of variables such as police behavior, crime-reporting anonymity (the desire to remain anonymous when making the decision whether or not to report a crime to the police), prior victimization, and most importantly, attitudes toward the police, causes new patterns of crime-reporting behavior. Moreover, when introducing "anonymity" and "fear of criminal retaliation" into the crime-reporting theoretical model, it is hypothesized that they will produce a significant change in people's crime-reporting behavior, which most prior studies have ignored entirely.

Without a doubt, the conceptual models tested in this study show that people's willingness to report crime to the police is substantially maximized in cases in which new variables mentioned above were introduced into the models while controlled for existing variables – one at the time – which prior studies have used to explain crime-reporting behavior (see Phase II & III in the Analyses and Results chapter).

CHAPTER V

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

This is a survey-based research study with a cross-sectional design. A cross-sectional design implies the collection of data at one-point-in-time only (Maxfield & Babbie, 2008, 2001; Bachman, & Schutt, 2003; Jones, 1996). Additionally, this research study is rather explanatory in nature. Being of this nature, it attempts to explain, not just report, crime-reporting behavior and the influencing factors associated with it. It also includes descriptive components as well, but in terms of the nature of this research, the main purpose is to determine which of the several explanations presented in the review of the relevant literature, or a combination of them, is the best. In other words, since there is a considerable amount of literature in this area, this research has tried to find out which competing explanations of crime-reporting behaviors are better. After all, an explanatory study is about expanding new principles into new areas by providing evidence to support or refute existing explanations of crime-reporting behavior (see Johnson, Christensen, & Christensen, 2007; Neuman, 1991; Bryman, 2004; Bachman, & Schutt, 2003; Baxter, 1994). By and large, this research study was designed to answer the question: why certain people do or do not report crimes to the police? The goal was to understand crime-reporting behavior as a phenomenon, mainly at the individual level.

Furthermore, a cross-sectional design for this study seemed more appropriate for two reasons. One reason related to time. Since time was a major concern, a cross-sectional design was a quick procedure and it required only a one-time examination of the problem (see Page, Cole, & Timmreck, 1995; Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997; for the

advantages of adopting a cross-sectional design). And two, a cross-sectional design is generally useful for determining the extent to which variables of interest are associated. Along this edge, a cross-sectional design allowed us to generate specific research hypotheses that we were able to test in this study, and that with little concern of the effects that other research designs (e.g., longitudinal designs, experimental designs, etc.) may have suffered, such effects as subject drop-outs, history effect, compensatory rivalry effect, and all other effects that have to do with changes that may occur as a result of time (Maxfield & Bobbie, 2008; Cook & Campbell, 1979; Brown & Melamed, 1990; Liebert & Lievert, 1995; Bachman & Schutt, 2003).

Since this was a cross-sectional design, I took extra precautions to make sure the measuring instrument was adequate for measuring underlying constructs and testing the research hypotheses in this study. The adequacy of the measurement (reliability and validity) was assessed first, before the analyses of research findings were presented. The main elements of the research design that were employed in this study are discussed in the sections that follow.

Table 1

Conceptual Model and Measurement Model: Deterministic Model

Constructs	Dimensions of Interest	Measures (specific questions)
Police Behavior	1. Rude/Impolite 2. Verbally abusive 3. Disrespectful 4. Tendency to use force	22 Items (questions) (i11 to i32)
Attitudes T/ the Police	1. Trust 2. Fear 3. Satisfaction 4. Confidence	30 Items (questions) (i33 to i63)
Crime-Reporting Anonymity	Unidimensional	4 Items (questions) (i65 & i68)
Crime-Reporting Behavior	Unidimensional	24 Items (questions) (i69 to i92)
Victimization	Unidimensional	7 Items (questions) (i93 to i99)
Social Desirability	Unidimensional	12 Items (questions) (i100 to i111)

Table 1 shows the conceptualization and operationalization of constructs in this study. In this conceptual model, there are a total of six constructs. For each construct, I have developed a composite measure – a scale – that consists of multiple items (questions) specifically designed to measure the underlying constructs. The scales have been developed after an extensive review of relevant literature in this topic.

The conceptual definitions of police behavior include four concepts: namely, rudeness, verbal abuse, disrespect for citizens, and tendency to use force. The conceptual definition of attitudes toward the police includes four concepts: namely, trust in the

police, fear of the police, satisfaction with the police, and confidence in the police. The crime-reporting anonymity as a construct in this study is conceptually defined as the desire to remain anonymous when making the decision whether or not to report a witnessed crime to the police. Crime-reporting behavior (the dependent variable) is conceptually defined as people's willingness to report any witnessed crimes to the police when reporting such crimes is optional to them and totally discretionary.

Research Questions and Hypotheses/Propositions

In this subsection, I present the general and specific research questions and research hypotheses that were tested in Phase II of the analyses. The research questions have been developed purely based on the review of literature discussed in Chapters II, III, and IV. The general research questions in this study were developed to guide specific research questions which, in turn, guided research hypotheses. In this regard, the general research questions were merely guiding principles of this study. They served as the basis of logical reasoning in this study from which specific research questions and testable research hypotheses have been developed. The research hypotheses have been developed with the purpose of clarifying some of the mixed research results that have been reported in the literature review about a number of variables that influence crime-reporting behavior and attitudes toward the police.

General Research Questions

1. Why do some people report crimes to the police and some do not?
2. What factors are related to crime-reporting behavior?
3. How much of the total variance in crime-reporting behavior can be explained by the following set of variables: attitudes toward the police, prior victimization,

police behavior, crime-reporting anonymity, fear of criminal retaliation, demographic characteristics (e.g., gender, race, and SES), and interaction with the police (e.g., police-initiated contacts, citizen-initiated contact with the police, frequency of contacts, and exposure to media about the police)?

Specific Research Questions

1. Does police misconduct influence crime-reporting behavior?
2. Are people who hold favorable attitudes toward the police more likely to report crimes to the police compared to people who hold negative attitudes toward the police?
3. Does citizen interaction with the police influence crime-reporting behavior?
4. Do individual demographic characteristics (i.e., gender, race, and socio-economic status) influence crime-reporting behavior?
5. Does crime-reporting anonymity influence crime-reporting behavior?
6. Are people who have been previously victimized by crimes more likely to report crimes to the police compared to those who have not been victimized by crimes?

Research Hypotheses

The lists of hypotheses in the subsections that follow were developed to address each one of the six specific research questions listed above. These research hypotheses were directly tested in the current study.

The first set of hypotheses is about the influence of police misconduct on crime-reporting behavior. Research shows that police inappropriate behavior generates a counter-behavior of the same type (Braithwaite, 1996). This counter-behavior can be

manifested in different forms, one of them being low reporting of crimes to the police. Citizens often evaluate social control mechanisms – the police – based on how they are treated by them, the police. In this case, research shows that when a citizen hostile behavior occurs during the police-citizen encounters, although rare, it increases the likelihood of an arrest (National Institute of Justice, 2000). And an arrest will always be a counterproductive factor in crime-reporting behavior since people tend to create an impression of the police based on their prior experiences with the police (see Brown & Delores, 2000; Beck & Yulia, 2004; Cheuprakobkit, 2000; Cheuprakobkit & Bartsch, 2001). A negative experience with the police thus influences public judgments about the fairness of the procedures that the police follow to execute their authority (Tyler, 2005; Xei et al., 2006; see also Uildriks, 2004).

Furthermore, empirical evidence on police behavior suggests that minorities are generally treated worse by the police than whites (Tuch & Weitzer, 1997; Egharevba, 2004; Weitzer & Tuch, 2005; Delores, 2000; Holdaway, 2002). This leads us to conclude that personal experiences with the police, especially when the police are disposed to abuse their position of authority, create unsympathetic feelings toward social control mechanisms in general. These feelings are often manifested in lower crime-reporting behavior (Salmi et al., 2000; Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 1987; Salmi, Voeten, & Keskinen, 2005; Fisher & Geiselman, 1992; Shepherd, 1991; Dahl, 1992; Xie, Pogarsky, Lynch, & McDowall, 2006; Hickman & Simpson, 2003; Conaway & Lohr, 1994). Moreover, when the police exercise their authority in a coercive way, the victims of this coercion are citizens. Research on victimization experiences tells us that there is a correlation between victimization by the police and crime-reporting behavior. However,

the impact on willingness to report crime to the police remains unclear since research in this area has produced mixed results. To address the influence of police misconduct on crime-reporting behavior, the following research hypotheses were developed:

Hypotheses about Police Behavior

Ha (1): Individuals who have been exposed to police misconduct (i.e., the police treated them disrespectfully, the police were rude, verbally abusive, and showed inclination to use force) are less likely to report crimes to the police. This means that police misconduct has a negative effect on crime-reporting behavior.

Ha (2): Individuals who have been exposed to police misconduct are more likely to hold negative attitudes toward the police compared to those who have not been exposed to such police behavior.

A second set of hypotheses is about the influence of people's attitudes toward the police on crime-reporting behavior. The review of literature, as discussed in Chapter III, suggests that certain segments of society that are distrustful, suspicious of the police, and yet believe that the police are ineffective in dealing with problems at hand, their attitudes toward the police are displayed in lower crime-reporting behavior (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 1987; Bennett & Wiegand, 1994). In other words, those who hold negative attitudes toward the police are more likely to manifest that in a lower crime-reporting behavior (i.e., are less willing to report crimes to the police). In this context, research shows that attitudes of the citizens toward the police, crime, and their crime-reporting practices, have an impact on the amount of crime reported to the police (National

Institute of Justice, 2007a). To address the influence of attitudes toward the police on crime-reporting behavior, the following research hypothesis has been developed:

Hypothesis about Attitudes toward the Police

Ha (3): Controlling for race, individuals who hold positive attitudes toward the police are more likely to report crimes to the police compared to those who hold negative attitudes toward the police.

The third set of hypotheses is about the influence of citizen interaction with the police on crime-reporting behavior and attitudes toward the police. Earlier studies show that citizen interaction with the police is multilevel. In this context, citizens may decide to initiate direct contacts with the police (citizen-initiated contacts), a form of contact that is considered voluntary. However, citizen interaction with the police can also be involuntary. This form of contact is rather police-initiated. The review of literature in Chapter IV suggests that negative or positive experiences with the police can result from both police-initiated and citizen-initiated contacts (Johnson, 1993; Rosenbaum et al., 2005; Bates & Fassenfest, 2005). Nonetheless, there is an inherent nature of negative experiences with the police to originate from police-initiated contacts rather than citizen-initiated contacts with the police. Depending on the type of contacts people have had with the police in the recent years, people feel more or less confident in the police and more or less willing to cooperate with them (see Beck & Yulia, 2004; Skogan, 2005; Rosenbaum et al., 2005). Moreover, research shows that citizen-initiated contacts in general tend to produce positive attitudes toward the police (Rosenbaum, Schuck, Costello et al., 2005). And attitudes toward the police have a direct influence on crime-reporting behavior (see Carcach, 1997; Robertshaw, Louw, & Mtani, 2001; Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 1987;

Bennett & Wiegand, 1994). Police-initiated contacts, on the other hand, may have negative consequences. This means that police-initiated contacts are rather involuntary, and as such they tend to negatively influence citizen-police relationships (Bennett, 2004; Beck & Yulia, 2004; Skogan, 2005; Rosenbaum et al., 2005).

In addition to citizen-initiated and police-initiated contacts, research shows that public opinions about the police and cooperation with the police are influenced by what people see or read in the media, e.g., television, radio, newspapers, internet, etc. (Brown & Delores, 2000; Chermak et al., 2004; Weitzer & Tuch, 2005). However, regarding media exposure, there is no conclusive evidence as to what extent media influences crime-reporting behavior. Most research in this area has been focused on the influence of media on attitudes toward the police (Weitzer & Tuch, 2005, 2001; Chermak et al., 2005; Miller et al., 2005). Nevertheless, media remains an important factor of public interaction with the police. To address the influence of public interaction with the police on crime-reporting behavior, the following research hypotheses were developed:

Hypotheses about Citizen Interaction with the Police

Ha (4): Individuals who have citizen-initiated (voluntary) contacts with the police are more likely to report crimes to the police compared to those who have police-initiated (involuntary) contacts with the police. In other words, citizen-initiated contacts with the police have a positive influence on crime-reporting behavior since citizen-initiated contacts are considered as voluntary.

Ha (5): Individuals who have voluntary (citizen-initiated) contacts with the police are more likely to hold positive attitudes toward the police compared to

those who have involuntary (police-initiated) contacts with the police. In other words, citizen-initiated contacts with the police have a positive influence on attitudes toward the police; whereas police-initiated contacts have a negative influence on attitudes toward the police.

Ha (6): Individuals who have more frequent contacts with the police are less likely to report crimes to the police. In other words, there is an inverse relationship between the number of contacts with the police and willingness to report crimes to the police. To state it differently, as the frequency of contacts with the police increases, willingness to report crimes to the police decreases.

Ha (7): Individuals who are more often exposed to media about police misconduct are less likely to report crimes to the police.

The fourth set of hypotheses is about the influence of demographic factors on crime-reporting behavior and attitudes toward the police. Empirical evidence shows that by race, blacks are more likely to report crimes to the police than whites (Hickman & Simpson, 2003, Conaway & Lohr, 1994; Egharevba, 2004). On the other hand, a great number of empirical studies show that by race, blacks are more likely to hold negative attitudes toward the police compared to whites (Weitzer, 2000; Holdaway, 2003; Howell, Perry, & Wile, 2004; Brown & Delores, 2000; Regulus, Taylor, Jackson, & Katz, 2001). This empirical evidence conflicts with the empirical evidence that links attitudes toward the police and crime-reporting behavior by race since research shows that negative attitudes toward the police have a negative effect on crime-reporting behavior (Davis & Henderson, 2003; Skogan, 1977, 1976a; see also Smith & Arian, 2006; Goudriaan, 2006;

Goudriaan, Wittebrood, & Nieuwbeerta, 2006; Bachman, 1998; Felson et al., 2002).

Nonetheless, race is not an inherent factor that affects one's attitudes toward the police.

Research shows that it is the experience and treatment that is race-based that affects one's attitudes toward the police. Evidence also shows that blacks are more likely to report crimes to the police not because of race, but rather because of the influence of other factors (e.g., high crime rates, high victimization rates, etc.).

By gender, most prior studies indicate that, in general, females are more likely to report victimization events to the police compared to males. Furthermore, research shows that female victims are more likely to report their victimization experiences to the police than male victims (Ashbaugh & Cornell, 2008; Snyder, 2000; Durose et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2007; see also Tanton & Jones, 2003; Fisher et al., 2003; Green, 1981; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1998b; Skogan, 1984). What these studies do not report, however, is the effect of gender on reporting witnessed crimes to the police. Witnessed crimes are different from victimization events. When one reports a victimization event, it means that that person has been the victim of a crime. When one reports a witnessed crime to the police, on the other hand, it means that the reporting person is not a victim but rather a witness or an observer during the occurrence of a crime (i.e., bystander, neighbors reporting domestic violence for other neighbors, etc.). Research in this area has produced mixed results.

Many researchers have linked crime-reporting behavior to personal gain.

Research shows that property crimes are more likely to be reported to the police by higher-income families than lower-income families. As discussed in Chapter III, in most cases, reporting of property crimes is explained by its consequences. That is, most of

those who report property crimes to the police, do so with the intent of recovery, for insurance purposes (Skogan, 1984; Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 1988; Goudriaan, 2006; Tanton & Jones, 2003). In this context, the review of the literature points out that higher-income families are more likely to become victims of property crimes than lower-income families (Skogan, 1976a). Violent crimes, on the other hand, are more likely to be reported by lower-income families compared to higher-income families (Skogan, 1976a, 1976b; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2006b). Reporting of violent crimes to the police, by socio-economic status, is explained by frequency of victimization. That is, the literature review shows that lower-income families are more likely to become victims of violent crimes than higher-income families. And the frequency of violent criminal victimization is explained by other macro-level factors (e.g., neighborhood characteristics, etc) (see Smith, 1986; see also Kane, 2002; Kubrin & Weitzer, 2003; Rice & Smith, 2002; for reviews). In general, research shows that the percentage of reported crimes against persons declines as the household income increases (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2003; Liska, 1992; see also Zhang, Messner, & Liu, 2007). To address the influence of demographic characteristics, specifically, gender, race, and socio-economic status, on crime-reporting behavior (the dependent variable) and attitudes toward the police as a dependent variable and as an independent variable, respectively, the following research hypotheses were developed:

Hypotheses about Citizens' Demographic Characteristics

Ha (8): Females are more likely to report crimes to the police compared to males.

Ha (9): Blacks are more likely to hold negative attitudes toward the police compared to whites.

Ha (10): Blacks are more likely to report crime to the police compared to whites.

Ha (11): In general, individuals with higher socio-economic status (e.g., middle-class, upper middle-class, and the rich) are more likely to report crime to the police compared to individuals with lower socio-economic status (e.g., the poor and lower middle-class).

Ha (12): Individuals with higher socio-economic status are more likely to report property crimes compared to individuals with lower socio-economic status.

The fifth set of hypotheses is about the influence of crime-reporting anonymity on crime-reporting behavior and attitudes toward the police. Research shows that crime-reporting anonymity, or the desire to remain anonymous when calling the police to report a crime, is directly related to crime-reporting behavior. Furthermore, research shows that crime-reporting anonymity has a negative effect on crime-reporting behavior. That is, those who prefer to remain anonymous when calling the police are less likely to report crimes to the police (see Bachman, 1998; Smith & Arian, 2006; Goudriaan, 2006; Greenfeld et al., 1998). In the context of this study, crime-reporting anonymity has two dimensions: 1) the desire to remain anonymous due to fear of criminal retaliation, and 2) the desire to avoid contacts with the police due to the contribution of negative attitudes toward the police. That is, certain individuals would rather prefer to remain anonymous when calling the police or will otherwise not report crime to the police because they have had bad experiences with the police (e.g., dissatisfied with police response in prior reporting), do not trust the police, or have no confidence in the police (see Goudriaan,

2006; Greenfeld et al., 1998; Smith & Arian, 2006; Goudriaan, Wittebrood, & Nieuwbeerta, 2006).

Studies that have included anonymity as an influencing factor on crime-reporting behavior are very few in numbers. Researchers who have attempted to integrate crime-reporting anonymity in their studies have failed to identify it as a variable. Most of those studies have discussed anonymity in an effort to explain victims' reasons why they did not report their victimization events to the police. Crime-reporting anonymity has not been studied directly, especially quantitatively. Methodologically, most studies that discuss anonymity have been qualitative in nature. This study, in contrast, is quantitative in nature and has treated crime-reporting anonymity as an independent variable, with specific conceptual and operational definitions. Thus, to address the influence of crime-reporting anonymity – as an independent variable – on crime-reporting behavior and on attitudes toward the police, the following research hypotheses were developed:

Hypotheses about Crime-Reporting Anonymity

Ha (13): Individuals who prefer to remain anonymous when calling the police are less likely to report crimes to the police than those who are not concerned with their anonymity.

Ha (14): Individuals who prefer to remain anonymous when calling the police are more likely to hold negative attitudes toward the police than those who are not concerned with their anonymity.

Ha (15): Individuals who fear criminal retaliation are less likely to report crimes to the police if the offender is aware of the knowledge this witness has about who committed the crime. In other words, if a person witnesses an

offender committing a crime and the offender sees that witness, the witness is less likely to call the police to report that crime due to fear of criminal retaliation. In this context, we hypothesize that fear of criminal retaliation has a negative effect on crime-reporting behavior.

The sixth set of hypotheses is about the influence of prior victimization on crime-reporting behavior. Research shows that victimization experiences have a positive influence on crime-reporting behavior. In this context, empirical evidence suggests that those who have been previously victimized by crime are more likely to report crimes to the police (Xei et al., 2006; Hickman & Simpson, 2003; Holmberg, 2004). Of the two types of victimizations (i.e., crimes against property vs. crimes against persons), as discussed in Chapter IV, research shows that victims of property crimes are more likely to report crimes to the police in general. Additionally, research also shows that as the severity of crimes and frequency of their occurrence increases, so does the likelihood of reporting those crimes to the police, especially crimes that involve some kind of weapon (Carcach, 1997; Bennett & Wiegand, 1994; Bachman, 1998, 1993; Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 1987; Xei et al., 2006; Conaway & Lohr, 1994; Unnever & Cornell, 2004; Tanton & Jones, 2003; see also Tilley, 2005; Williams & Cornell, 2006; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2003). However, what makes the inclusion of prior victimization relevant to this study is that there is a great number of studies that do not support the above conclusions (see Zhang et al., 2007; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2005b; Skogan, 1984). Thus, further testing is needed to clarify this issue. To address the influence of prior victimization on crime-reporting behavior, the following research hypotheses were developed:

Hypotheses about Prior Victimization

Ha (16): Individuals who have been previously victimized by crime (regardless of the type of crime, e.g., property crimes or crimes against persons) are more likely to report victimization events or witnessed crimes to the police compared to those who have not been previously victimized by crime.

Ha (17): Individuals who have been victims of property crimes are more likely to report victimization events or witnessed crimes to the police compared to those who have not been victims of property crimes.

Ha (18): Controlling for socio-economic status, individuals who have been victims of crimes against persons are less likely to report victimization events or witnessed crimes to the police compared to individuals who have not been victims of crimes against persons.

Data Collection Instrument

The collection of data for this study was carried out by using a four-sectioned survey questionnaire. The first section of the questionnaire consisted of multiple-choice questions. This section was designed to collect demographic data from the respondents that were used to compare the sample and the population of study. The purpose of this comparison was to determine how representative the sample is to the population from which it was drawn – IUP's undergraduate students. The items included in the first section of the questionnaire were designed to gather data on age, gender, race, and socio-economic status. One of the obvious reasons for using a multiple-choice questionnaire

was that it offered a way of reducing the time that the respondents needed to complete the questionnaire, which ultimately helped to increase the number of completed surveys (refer to Appendix A for more information).

The second section of this questionnaire also consisted of multiple-choice questions designed to measure people's interaction with the police. The first question in this section asked respondents to recall the number of contacts (quantity) they have had with the police in the past two years. The second question in this section asked respondents to recall the most recent contact they have had with the police. This question extended beyond the last two-year period; it attempted to capture the last remembered contact respondents had with the police, regardless of time. Additionally, question two of this section was designed to classify interaction with the police by the type of contacts or quality of contacts (police-initiated and citizen-initiated contacts) respondents have had with the police. The rationale for this is that some people may not have contacts with the police, but they still have an opinion about the police. Weitzer and Tuch (1999, 2005), for example, contend that some people create their opinion about the police based on what they see on television (Weitzer & Tuch, 1999, 2005). To capture this influence, there was one item that asked the respondents to indicate how often they heard or read about police misconduct on TV, radio, newspapers, internet, etc., which was borrowed from Weitzer and Tuch's (1999) study. This single item was designed to measure the influence of media exposure on both people's attitudes toward the police and their crime-reporting behavior (see Item 10, Appendix A).

The third and most important section of this questionnaire included five separate scales, one index, and three validation scales.⁸ The validation scales were only used in the pilot study. Their purpose was to test the construct validity of the main scales that were included in the final study. The results of the pilot study showed that all scales that were used in this study were adequate, meaning they were very reliable; most of them achieved the Cronbach's Alpha of .90 and above. The adequacy of the measuring instrument was confirmed in the analyses of the final sample as well. Meaning, the scales used in this study maintained the reliability and validity levels in both the pilot study and the final study.

Measures of Police Behavior

The first scale measured police behavior. This scale consisted of 22 items (alpha = .927 as tested in the pilot study and .938 as tested in the final study) specifically designed to measure four types of police behavior; namely police impoliteness/rudeness/ignorance, verbal abuse, tendency to use force when unnecessary, and disrespect toward citizens (see Table 1). Some of these items were borrowed from studies that have measured police misconduct (see Tyler, 2005; Seron et al., 2006; Weitzer & Tuch, 2005). However, most of them were developed to fit the needs of this study. Even those items that were borrowed from other researchers were considerably modified. Table 2 presents a summary of the operationalization of the police behavior as a construct.

⁸ The validation scales have been used only in the pilot study to test construct validity (convergent validity and criterion validity). They were not used in the final data collection project since their purpose was to serve as criteria by which we can determine whether or not the main scales have construct validity. For more details, see subsection titled "*Construct Validity*."

Table 2

Police Behavior – Scale

1.	The police were disrespectful or impolite.
2.	The police used insulting language toward me or someone I know.
3.	The police did not follow proper procedures.
4.	The police stopped or searched me without reason.
5.	The police stopped or searched someone I know without reason.
6.	The police were well disciplined. (R-Coded)
7.	The police did <u>not</u> use offensive/threatening language against me. (R-Coded)
8.	The police harassed me.
9.	The police officers ignored me when I asked them a question.
10.	The police did not let me speak when I tried to ask them a question.
11.	The police were clearly very careless in carrying out their duty
12.	The police used racist language.
13.	The police made wrongful accusations.
14.	The police did not give me a chance to explain myself to them.
15.	The police behaved in a violent way (e.g. grabbing, pushing, etc.).
16.	The police discriminated against me due to age, gender, race, or ethnicity.
17.	The police swore.
18.	I have seen the police behave in violent way while making arrests.
19.	The police searched my house/apartment [or the house/apartment of someone I know] without reason.
20.	The police searched my house/apartment [or the house/apartment of someone I know] without consent.
21.	The police took items of my property [or of the property of someone I know] without reason.
22.	The police are courteous in dealing with people. (R-Coded)

Note: Cronbach's Alpha .927 (n = 304). Cronbach's Alpha .938 in the final study (n = 531).
R-Coded – means the item has been Reverse-Coded.

Measures of Attitudes toward the Police

The argument about attitudes in this study is that an attitude toward the police, as a single construct, is multidimensional. Attitudes in the context of policing consist of the following dimensions: trust in the police, satisfaction with the police, confidence in the police, and fearing the police (Tyler, 2005; Stoutland, 2001; Hurst & Frank, 2000; Goldsmith, 2005; Macdonald & Stokes, 2006; Renauer, 2008; Kittrie, 2006; Egharevba, 2005; Howell et al., 2004; Gallagher et al., 2001; see also Ho & McKean, 2004; Thomas

& Hyman, 1977; Wu, Sun, & Triplett, 2009; Skogan, 2005; see also National Institute of Justice, 2002; Scheider, Rowell, & Bezdikian, 2003; Skogan, 1990; Touhy & Wrennal, 1995; & Salmi et al., 2005; Wheatzer, 2000; Weitzer & Tuch, 1999; Schafer et al., 2003). Together, they measure the same thing, and thus they form a clearer picture of attitudes or a more complete domain of attitudes toward the police as a construct. In general, an attitude toward the police is defined as a behavioral tendency to act in certain ways toward social control mechanisms in general and toward the police in particular (see Fazio, 1990; Morris & Maistro, 2007; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

The measure of attitudes toward the police for this study was a scale. This scale consisted of 30 items (alpha .936 as the preliminary analysis in the pilot study indicated, and an alpha of .943 in the final study) and was constructed to measure all four dimensions of attitudes toward the police, mentioned above. The items included in this scale were partially borrowed from a number of empirical studies (Orr & West, 2007; Hurst, 2007; Miller & Davis, 2008; Reynolds et al., 2008; Tuohy & Wrennall, 1995; Salmi et al., 2000; Nihart et al., 2005; Salmi et al., 2007; Dombrink & Vidales, 2005; Clark & Wenninger, 1964). Some of the items included in this scale are original, but again most of them were modified according to the needs of this study.

The adequacy of this scale was tested in the pilot study. The results of the preliminary study (pilot study) suggested the need for a slight modification of this scale. Thus, one item was deleted from the scale and a few minor wording problems were corrected. In terms of the reliability of this scale, the analysis in the pilot study showed that this scale has a Cronbach's Alpha of .936, which indicates that this scale is highly reliable. In the final study, the Cronbach's Alpha for ATP scale was .943. Table 3

presents a summary of the operationalization of people's attitudes toward the police as a single construct.

Table 3

People's Attitudes toward the Police - Scale

-
-
1. If my rights were violated, I could rely on the police to help me
 2. Anyone in the police custody would have their rights fully respected.
 3. I would encourage a friend or relative to join the police force.
 4. The police carry out their role in a fair and impartial manner.
 5. People like me would be welcomed in the police force as a new member.
 6. The police force is made up of honest/honorable people.
 7. If someone physically assaults me, I will not hesitate to call the police.
 8. The police are sensitive to the needs of vulnerable people.
 9. I do not like to be around the police (R-Coded)
 10. Anyone in police custody will be treated well.
 11. The local police are fully answerable to the people for their actions and conduct.
 12. I do not feel comfortable talking to the police. (R-Coded)
 13. Every time I talk to the police, I feel like I'm the suspect (even when I call the police to report a crime). (R-Coded)
 14. The police serve the interests of the rich more than the poor. (R-Coded)
 15. The better off you are financially, the better you are treated by the police. (R-Coded)
 16. The police discriminate against minorities. (R-Coded)
 17. If I were to report a crime to the police, they would not believe me. (R-Coded)
 18. When I talk to the police, I feel insecure. (R-Coded)
 19. If I was burglarized and reported the crime to the police, the police would not take it seriously enough to investigate. (R-Coded)
 20. If I was a victim of a crime, I would not expect the police to do a follow-up investigation. (R-Coded)
 21. I think the police are not very supportive of victims of crime. (R-Coded)
 22. I think the police are not approachable. (R-Coded)
 23. I think the police do not reflect the makeup of the community they serve in. (R-Coded)
 24. The people here [in my community] have a real say in deciding what the police should do.
 25. In most cases, the police treat you like a number. (R-Coded)
 26. The police have no loyalty to citizens. (R-Coded)
 27. If I call the police, I know that they will respond promptly.
 28. The police are very quick in solving the problem at hand.
 29. The police are generally fair in their handling of people.
 30. The police do an exceptionally good job in dealing with problems in the community.
-

Note: Cronbach's Alpha .936, n = 304 as tested in pilot study. Cronbach's Alpha .943, n = 531 as tested in the final study. R-Coded – means item has been Reverse-Coded.

Measures of Crime-Reporting Behavior

The third composite measure was designed to measure people's crime-reporting behavior toward the police (the main dependent variable). This scale consisted of 24 mini-scenarios. The respondents were asked to read each response and, based on their personal perception, they were asked to mark their answers on a five-point Likert-scale (that resembles a visual analogue, see Appendix A). The general ideas for constructing this scale – this includes most of the items – were borrowed from Greene et al. (1999) and Dombrink and Vidales (2005). In terms of reporting behavior by the type of crimes, this scale was designed to measure reporting of crimes against persons and crimes against property (for crimes against property, see Table 9). By the degree of the severity of crimes, this scale measured the reporting of crimes from the most severe (e.g., murder) to the least severe (e.g., smoking in the school bathroom). Furthermore, using factor analysis to extract grouped items (see Table 5), this scale was sub-divided into three sub-scales that measured 1) the reporting of less serious crimes, 2) the reporting of medium-level crimes, and 3) the reporting of serious crimes (see Tables 6, 7, and 8).

Additionally, this scale was designed to measure crime-reporting behavior when the victim or the offender is known to the person reporting crimes and when the victim is a stranger to the person reporting a witnessed crime. However, the effects of the relationships on crime-reporting behavior have not been tested in this study.

Table 4 presents a summary of the operationalization of crime-reporting behavior as a construct. Tables 6, 7, and 8 each present a summary of the operationalization of crime-reporting behavior in terms of the severity of crimes, elevated from least serious (see Table 6), medium-level (see Table 7), to the most serious crimes (see Table 8). And

Table 9 presents a summary of the operationalization of the reporting behavior for property crimes.

Table 4

Crime-Reporting Behavior – Scale

-
1. You saw someone smoking in the school bathroom?
 2. You saw someone using illicit drugs in the school bathroom?
 3. You saw someone selling ecstasy in the school bathroom?
 4. You saw someone you know selling cocaine in the school bathroom?
 5. You saw someone selling cocaine in the school bathroom and they saw you?
 6. You saw someone illegally dumping oil on the ground/sewage system (polluting the environment)?
 7. You saw someone painting graffiti on the walls of a public/or private building?
 8. You saw a male student, whom you do not know, physically assaulting a female student in the school parking?
 9. You saw a male student smashing the windshield of a car in the parking lot.
 10. You saw someone attempting to commit a burglary (illegal entry or attempt breaking and entering into someone's property/house)?
 11. You heard someone making a physical threat (verbally) to someone you do not know?
 12. You saw your friend yell at his girlfriend and heard her yell back that he is trying to kill her.
 13. You saw your friend yell at his girlfriend, heard her yell back that he is trying to kill her and saw him brandish a knife.
 14. You saw a student, whom you do not know, yell at a female, you heard her yell back that he is trying to kill her and saw him brandish a knife.
 15. You saw a male driver stopped his car and grabbed a female forcing her into his car and then he drove away with the girl. You heard the girl screaming and trying to fight back.
 16. You heard a girl, whom you do not know, screaming behind the bleachers of the football field that someone is trying to rape her.
 17. You saw a man in the school cafeteria attempting to rob the place.
 18. You heard a girl you know screaming behind the bleachers of the football field that someone is trying to rape her.
 19. You heard from a trusted source that a girl was raped after the football game?
 20. You found a journal entry from a college student that described making a bomb?
 21. You overheard some college students bragging about knowing how to make a bomb?
 22. You saw some college students hiding something inside of their large overcoats and acting suspiciously
 23. A student, whom you know, told you he is going to make a bomb
 24. Someone you know has told you he has killed a person and has taken you to the place where he has dumped the body, and you see the dead body
-

Note: Cronbach's Alpha .927 (n = 304) as tested in the Pilot Study. In the final study, this scale was sub-divided into three scales (e.g., crime-reporting 1, crime-reporting 2, and crime-reporting 3).

As discussed earlier, the pool of crime-reporting items (Table 4) was subjected to factor analysis using SPSS version 16.0 (Statistical Package for Social Science). Initially, the factorability of the 24 crime-reporting items was examined. To determine the factorability of these items, two criteria were used, namely the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Test and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value, which is a measure of the sampling adequacy, was .931, a value that greatly exceeded the minimum recommended value of .60 (see Kaiser, 1974; Lackey et al., 2003; Meyers et al., 2005). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (see Bartlett, 1954) for this pool of crime-reporting items also reached the statistical significance of $p < .000$, which tells us that the analyses supported the elements that contributed to the results of the correlation matrix (see Child, 2006; Tobias & Carlson, 1969). In other words, the relationships between items in the scale were statistically significant.

The initial results of the factor analysis using the maximum likelihood extraction with the varimax rotation indicated that there were four factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1.0, explaining 43.83%, 14.43%, 7.33%, and 4.53% of the variance in crime-reporting behavior. After inspecting the scree plot, a three-factor solution was deemed suitable for further investigation. Thus, a second factor analysis with a forced extraction, limiting the number of extracted factors to three, was performed. The first factor, Factor 1, was labeled "crime-reporting 3," the second factor, Factor 2, was labeled "crime-reporting 1," and the third factor, Factor 3, was labeled "crime-reporting 2." As can be seen, the factor analysis was determinant in the formation of three crime-reporting scales in this study. Moreover, the items that were grouped in Factor 1 measured the reporting of serious crimes (see Table 8), items that were grouped in Factor 2 measured the

reporting of less serious crimes (see Table 6), and items that were grouped in Factor 3 measured the reporting of medium-level crimes (see Table 7). The main idea here was to extract a minimum number of factors that can explain the maximum amount of variance in the crime-reporting behavior. The factor loadings for the 24 crime-reporting items are present in Table 5 below.

Table 5

The Factor Loadings Based on Principal Component with Varimax Rotation for 24 Items from a Longer Version of a Crime-Reporting Scale Used to Construct Three Sub-Crime-Reporting Scales (n = 531)

ITEMS	Factor 1 Serious Crimes	Factor 2 Less Serious Crimes	Factor 3 Medium-Level Crimes
i69	---	.668	---
i70	---	.883	---
i71	---	.870	---
i72	---	.862	---
i73	---	.811	---
i74	---	.484	---
i75	---	.675	---
i76	.659	---	---
i77	.647	---	---
i78	.751	---	---
i79	---	.534	---
i80	---	---	.512
i81	.821	---	---
i82	.840	---	---
i83	.851	---	---
i84	.853	---	---
i85	.658	---	---
i86	.846	---	---
i87	---	---	.557
i88	---	---	.658
i89	---	---	.834
i90	---	---	.788
i91	---	---	.745
i92	.716	---	---

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Specific Number of Factors Retained: 3

Table 6

Crime-Reporting 1 (Less Serious Crimes)

-
-
1. You saw someone smoking in the school bathroom.
 2. You saw someone using illicit drugs in the school bathroom.
 3. You saw someone selling ecstasy in the school bathroom.
 4. You saw someone you know selling cocaine in the school bathroom.
 5. You saw someone selling cocaine in the school bathroom and they saw you.
 6. You saw someone illegally dumping oil on the ground/sewage system (polluting the environment).
 7. You saw someone painting graffiti on the walls of a public/or private building.
 8. You heard someone making a physical threat (verbally) to someone you do not know.
-

Note: Cronbach's Alpha .896 as tested in the final sample (n =531).

Table 7

Crime-Reporting 2 (Medium-level Crimes)

-
-
1. You saw your friend yell at his girlfriend and heard her yell back that he is trying to kill her.
 2. You heard from a trusted source that a girl was raped after the football game.
 3. You found a journal entry from a college student that described making a bomb.
 4. You overheard some college students bragging about knowing how to make a bomb.
 5. You saw some college students hiding something inside of their large overcoats and acting suspiciously.
 6. A student, whom you know, told you he is going to make a bomb.
-

Note: Cronbach's Alpha .874 as tested in the final sample (n = 531).

Table 8

Crime-Reporting 3 (Serious Crimes)

-
-
1. You saw a male student, whom you do not know, physically assaulting a female student in the school parking lot.
 2. You saw a male student smashing the windshield of a car in the parking lot.
 3. You saw someone attempting to commit burglary (illegal entry or attempt breaking and entering into someone's property/house).
-

4. You saw your friend yell at his girlfriend, heard her yell back that he is trying to kill her and saw him brandish a knife.
5. You saw a student, whom you do not know, yell at a female, you heard her yell back that he is trying to kill her and saw him brandish a knife.
6. You saw a male driver stopped his car and grabbed a female forcing her into his car and then he drove away with the girl. You heard the girl screaming and trying to fight back.
7. You heard a girl, whom you do not know, screaming behind the bleachers of the football field that someone is trying to rape her.
8. You saw a man in the school cafeteria attempting to rob the place.
9. You heard a girl you know screaming behind the bleachers of the football field that someone is trying to rape her.
10. Someone you know has told you he has killed a person and has taken you to the place where he has dumped the body, and you see the dead body.

Note: Cronbach's Alpha .942 as tested in the final sample (n = 531).

Table 9

Reporting of Property Crimes

-
-
1. You saw someone painting graffiti on the walls of a public/or private building.
 2. You saw a male student smashing the windshield of a car in the parking lot.
 3. You saw someone attempting to commit burglary (illegal entry or attempt breaking and entering into someone's property/house).

Note: Cronbach's Alpha .759 as tested in the final sample (n = 531).

Measures of Crime-Reporting Anonymity

The literature review suggests that some people would not report crimes or victimization events to the police if reporting such crimes were not done anonymously. Along this path, the literature review suggests that some people would hesitate to report crime due to fear of criminal retaliation (see Chapter III and IV). The measure of crime-reporting behavior in this study (this scale was designed to address and) addressed both of these two dimensions. This scale is original, and it was developed for this particular study. It has not been used in any of the prior studies that have discussed crime-reporting anonymity. Thus, the main concern with this scale was reliability. The results of the

preliminary study showed that this scale was not as reliable as expected. The Cronbach's Alpha for this scale was .755; the Cronbach's Alpha in the final study was .713.

However, an Alpha of .713 is considered acceptable by most researchers in social science (see DeVellis, 1991, 2003; Nunnally, 1978). Additionally, reliability analysis (internal consistency method) shows that one item of this scale (item 1, see Table 10 or i64 in the Survey Questionnaire, Appendix A) showed a low correlation with other items. The way the question was worded, as suggested by respondents in the pilot study, appeared to have caused this low intercorrelation. After examination of respondents' feedback in the pilot study, changes to this item were made accordingly. However, item 1 in this scale did not behave any better in the final study either. Therefore, item 1 (i64 on the survey questionnaire) was excluded from the final analyses. Table 10 presents a summary of the operationalization of crime-reporting anonymity as a construct.

Table 10

Crime-Reporting Anonymity – Scale

-
-
1. I would probably report a crime to the police if the criminal had not seen me.
 2. I would not report a crime to the police if the criminal had already seen me.
 3. If I call the police to report a crime, I would rather not give them my personal information.
 4. If I call the police to report a crime, I would prefer to remain anonymous.
 5. If I know that the police will not ask me for my personal information, I will not hesitate to report crimes to the police.
-
-

Note: Cronbach's Alpha .755 (n = 304). Cronbach's Alpha .713 as tested in the final study (n = 531)

Measures of Personal Victimization

Prior victimization can be categorized as being a victim of property crime (e.g., theft, vandalism, etc), being a victim of crimes against persons (e.g., aggravated assault,

etc.), or both. To measure prior victimization in this study, a seven-indicator victimization index was developed (i93 to i99 in the Survey Questionnaire). Four items were the indicators of victimization of property crimes, and three items were indicators of crimes against persons. To develop this index measure, most of the items were borrowed from Orr and West (2007) and Hawdon and Ryan (2003). Some of these items were slightly modified, but most of them are original. Table 11 presents a summary of the operationalization of prior victimization as an independent variable in this study.

Table 11

Personal Victimization - Index

-
-
1. Has your car been stolen?
 2. Has anyone tried to steal or stole anything (other than your car) that belongs to you?
 3. Has your car been broken into or vandalized?
 4. Has your house or apartment ever been broken into?
 5. Has someone taken something from you by force or threat of force?
 6. Has someone verbally threatened you in any way?
 7. Has someone assaulted or attacked you personally? (An attack can be anything from being hit, slapped, pushed or grabbed, to being shot at or beaten).
-

Note: Items 1 to 4 measure crimes against property. Items 5 to 7 measure crimes against persons

Measures of Social Desirability

The measures of social desirability were included in this study to determine whether or not the respondents have introduced personal bias in their answers to other inventories (scales). People have a tendency to over-report or under-report activities that are considered to be socially or culturally desirable or undesirable (Zerbe & Paulhus, 1987; see also DeVellis, 2003; Moorman & Podsakoff, 1992). The concern with this effect is that the respondents who tend to respond in more socially desirable ways may also report a higher level of crime-reporting to the police when in fact the reality is

otherwise. To determine the degree of the effect of social desirability bias on respondents concerning the truthfulness of their responses, a twelve-item (dichotomous items) social desirability scale was included. The items for this scale were borrowed from Crowne and Marlowe (1960), who originally developed a 34-item social desirability scale, which later on was modified by McCrae and Costa (1983) and Ray (1984). According to the reliability analyses in the final study and earlier in the pilot study, this scale had a Cronbach's Alpha of .665, which is considered a minimally acceptable level of reliability (see DeVellis, 2003). Table 12 presents a summary of the operationalization of social desirability in this study.

Table 12

Personal Reaction Inventory

-
-
1. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone. (R-Coded)
 2. I'm always willing to admit it when making a mistake.
 3. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget. (R-Coded)
 4. I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my own way. (R-Coded)
 5. I'm always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.
 6. I'm always a good listener, no matter whom I'm talking to.
 7. I never resent being asked to return a favor.
 8. When I don't know something I don't at all mind admitting it.
 9. There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others. (R-Coded)
 10. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.
 11. I have never intensely disliked anyone.
 12. I never hesitate to go out of my way to help someone in trouble.
-

Cronbach's Alpha .655 (n = 304 pilot study and n = 531 final study). An Alpha level of .65 to .70 is considered minimally acceptable (DeVellis, 2003). R-Coded – means the item has been reverse coded.

Validation Scales

Validation scales, as indicated above, were used in the preliminary study (pilot study) to test the adequacy of the main scales, as alternative scales to the main scales presented above. Specifically, validation scales were used to test construct validity. There were three validation scales total. These scales served as criteria by which the main scales were evaluated. To reiterate, these alternative scales were not used in the final study.

The first alternative scale measured police behavior. This scale consisted of four items, with a Cronbach's Alpha of .844. This scale was originally developed by Weitzer and Tuch (2005), and its items were slightly modified. Although this four-item scale seemed to be reliable, the main scale, which consists of 22 items (see Table 2), was more advanced because it has more content validity. Table 13 presents a summary of the operationalization of police behavior – an alternative measure (criterion measure) to the main scale presented in Table 2.

Table 13

Alternative Measuring Instrument of Police Behavior

-
-
1. How often do you think police officers stop people on the streets [of your neighborhood/your city] without good reason?
 2. How often do you think police officers, when talking to people [in your neighborhood/your city], use insulting language against them?
 3. How often do you think police officers, when talking to people [in your neighborhood/your city], show disrespect towards them?
 4. When police officers use force against people, how often do you think they use excessive force (i.e., more force than is necessary under the circumstances) against people [in your neighborhood/your city]?
-

Note: Cronbach's Alpha .844, n = 304 (pilot study).

Table 14 presents a summary of the operationalization of an alternative measuring scale of attitudes toward the police (also a criterion measure) to the main scale presented in Table 3. This scale has been used in previous studies to measure attitudes toward the police. Originally, it was developed by Hurst (2007). At first glance, this scale did not seem convincing enough to be used as the main scale since it did not seem to measure the full domain of attitudes toward the police as a construct. The results of the pilot study showed that this scale had the Cronbach's Alpha of .903.

Table 14

Alternative Measuring Instrument of Attitudes toward the Police

-
-
1. In general, I trust the police.
 2. In general, I like the police.
 3. In general, I am satisfied with police in my neighborhood.
 4. In general, police officers do a good job.
 5. The police do a good job of stopping crime.
 6. The police do a good job of stopping people from using drugs.
 7. The police do a good job of stopping people from selling drugs.
 8. The police do a good job of keeping my neighborhood quiet at night.
 9. The police will help you if your car is broken down and you need help.
 10. If the police see someone who is sick and needs help, they will help them.
 11. The police do a good job of stopping people from hanging out and causing trouble.
-

Note: Cronbach's Alpha .903, n = 304 (pilot study).

Table 15 presents a summary of the operationalization of an alternative measuring scale of crime-reporting behavior (also a criterion measure) to the main scale presented in Table 4. This alternative measure of crime-reporting behavior has not been used in any prior studies. The purpose of this scale was to test the criterion-related validity and convergent validity, which generated empirical evidence that was used to determine the construct validity of the main crime-reporting behavior scale. To develop this scale, a list of crimes was initially created, and then they were turned into questions/statements with

binary response categories (yes/no response). The main scale that was used to measure crime-reporting behavior (see items: i69 to i92) was a Likert-scale (1 to 5 response categories). In terms of reliability, the results of the pilot study show that this scale had a Cronbach's Alpha of .823.

Table 15

Alternative Measuring Instrument of Crime-Reporting Behavior

-
-
1. Would you report to the police if you witness an attempted murder?
 2. Would you report to the police if you witness an attempted rape?
 3. Would you report to the police if you witness an attempted kidnapping?
 4. Would you report to the police if you witness an attempt to burn down someone's property (Arson)?
 5. Would you report to the police if you witness a robbery?
 6. Would you report to the police if you witness an attempted burglary (illegal entry or an attempt breaking and entering into someone's property/house)?
 7. Would you report to the police if you witness a motor vehicle theft or attempted theft?
 8. Would you report to the police if you witness vandalism (e.g. hit and run, window smashing, etc.)?
 9. Would you report to the police if you witness assaults (face-to-face threat or assault with or without a weapon)?
 10. Would you report to the police if you witness a physical threat made to someone you know?
 11. Would you report to the police if you witness a physical threat made to someone you do not know?
 12. Would you report to the police if you witness a drug sale?
 13. Would you report to the police if you witness someone painting graffiti on the walls of a public/or private building?
 14. Would you report to the police if you witness someone illegally dumping oil on the ground (polluting the environment)?
 15. Would you report to the police if you witness someone using illicit drugs?
-

Note: Cronbach's Alpha .823, n = 304 (pilot study).

The data that were collected using the above measuring instrument (the survey questionnaire) were in numerical form, meaning that the data were coded, and to each response there was a number assigned that represented response categories. The response numbers were then entered into SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science – a

statistical software used for the computation of the data) and were computed in groups. To better understand the data, a recoding procedure (i.e., reverse coding for negative or positive items, creating new variables by adding up items for each scale, etc.) was conducted for all scales.

The Sample and Sampling Procedure

The Sample

The data for this study were collected from a sample of 554 undergraduate university students at the Indiana University of Pennsylvania. This sample ($n = 554$) exceeded the desired sample of 500 (that was initially planned) by 54 surveys. However, 23 surveys were excluded from this sample, bringing the total sample to 531 usable surveys. To reiterate, the initial plan was to collect 500 surveys. Thus, a desired sample, yet a representative sample, for this study was envisioned a group of 500 undergraduate students enrolled in undergraduate classes that were open to all majors at the Indiana University of Pennsylvania. Although, according to Cohen's (1988) power analysis, which is computed based on the number of variables included in the study, significance level, the effect size, and the desired statistical power, a sample size of 389 undergraduate students was sufficient enough to achieve 80% power⁹ of detecting an R-Squared of .05, attributed to 17 plus one independent variables using an F-Test with a significance level (Alpha) of .05 (see Figure 8). However, a sample size greater than 389 undergraduate students was preferred. Statistically, an increased sample size, in this case from 389 to

⁹ A bigger sample size results in high statistical power; thus, even small differences in the effect will be detectable. On the other hand, a small sample size results in low statistical power, which means that there is little chance of detecting significant effects. Without an adequate statistical power (i.e., .80 and higher is typically acceptable), the effect might be there, and it might be statistically significant, but we won't be able to detect it (see Cohen, 1988; Murphy & Myors, 2004).

500, would decrease the amount of sampling error (see Champion, 2000). The sampling error, in this case, is the difference between the characteristics of the sample and the characteristics of the population from which the sample is taken (Bachman & Paternoster, 2004; see also Murphy & Myors, 2004; Kraemer & Thiemann, 1987). Thus, a bigger sample usually increases the chances that the sample will have similar characteristics as those of the population from which it is drawn.

In summation, the final sample in this study ($n = 554$) reached and in fact exceeded the desired sample ($n = 500$) by 54 surveys (see *Sampling Procedure*). A large sample of this size gives us some degree of confidence to conclude that the likely size of the sampling error has been reduced substantially. As noted earlier, since 23 surveys were excluded from the sample, the analyses in this study are based on a total sample of 531 usable surveys. In terms of age, the subjects that were included in this sample were ages 18 and older. No one under the age of 18 was permitted to participate in this study.

The data that were collected from the sample, in this case, from this group of undergraduate university students, were intended to yield some knowledge about the population of Indiana University of Pennsylvania with regard to the variables included in this study.

Figure 8 below represents Cohen's (1988) statistical power analysis that was used to determine the minimum sample size for this study. In Figure 8, the "Power" represents the probability of rejecting a false null hypothesis. The "N" represents the number of observations on which the multiple regressions was computed. The "Alpha level" represents the probability of rejecting a true null hypothesis or the probability that the observed result is due to chance. The "R²" represents the amount that is added to the

overall R-Squared value by these variables. The red dot (•) on the grid represents the sample size of 389 undergraduate students.

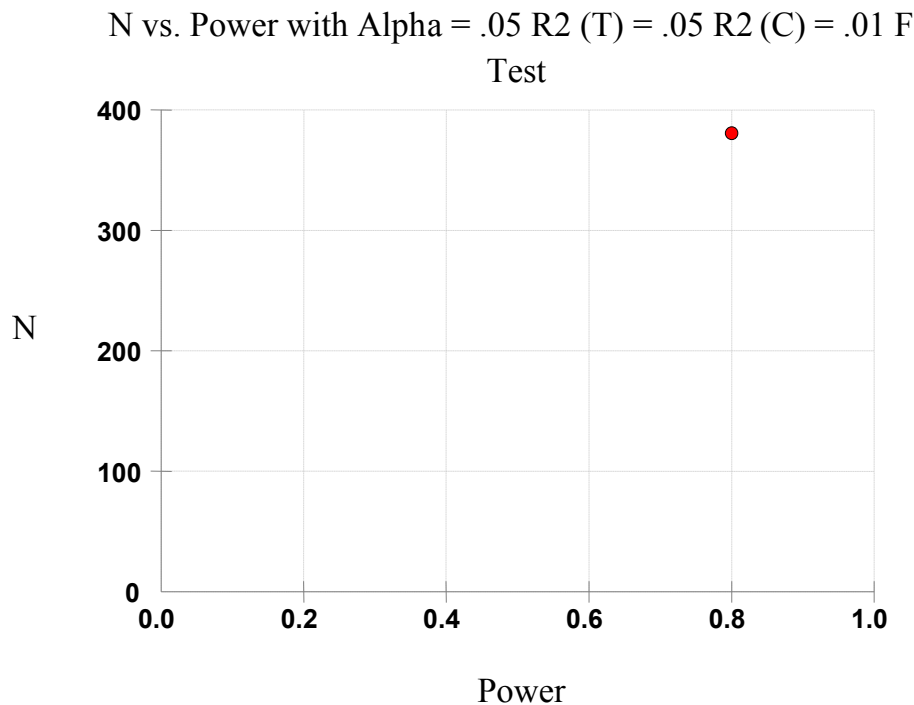


Figure 8. Determining the sample size based on multiple regression power analysis.

The Sampling Procedure

To select the subjects in this study, I used a two-stage random cluster sampling procedure. A cluster sampling is a sampling strategy that permits us to select a group of classes (clusters) and later on to select individuals within each class (within each cluster). In other words, cluster sampling is a procedure in which individuals in the population are not sampled independently but rather in clusters or groups (Maxfield & Babbie, 2008; Neuman, 2000; Harris, 1995). Since cluster sampling can be done in multiple stages, the selection process of a sample of undergraduate students at IUP for this study was completed in two stages.

In the first stage, I identified all undergraduate classes and created a list of all those classes, namely the sampling frame. The list of undergraduate classes was available at the Registrar's Office (at IUP). This list was available online on the university's website as well. Now in the cluster sampling, the number of classes (clusters) needed should equal the desired sample size of 500 students, divided by the average size of a class (cluster), which was considered to be about 32 students per class. Thus, the number of classes (clusters) needed was $500 \div 32 \approx 16$. Next, using www.random.org website, which is a website that can be used to generate random numbers, I randomly sampled 16 undergraduate classes stratified by college (see Table 16), averaging about 34 students per class for the final sample of 554 undergraduate students. Since some of the undergraduate classes had more, and in some cases less, than the anticipated 32 students per class (25 to 45 respectively), the final sample ($n = 554$) exceeded the desired sample of $n = 500$ by 54 surveys.

Moreover, one of the main concerns here was to make sure that the sample included students from all of IUP's six colleges. Thus, six sub-samples of classes (clusters) were selected, assuring an equal representation of students in the final sample from each college. The number of classes that were selected was based on the percentage of students enrolled in each of the six colleges at the Indiana University of Pennsylvania (see Table 16). This procedure required two different scales of sampling units. The sampling units in the first stage were undergraduate classes (clusters, $n = 16$). This was the large scale units, and that they were temperately treated as the sampling elements in themselves.

In the second stage, once I identified and randomly selected 16 classes ($n = 16$ classes/clusters) stratified by college from the sampling frame of undergraduate classes, I then used a convenient sampling procedure to survey students in those classes. To reiterate, in the first stage, I randomly selected a sample of 16 undergraduate classes (clusters) from a list of all undergraduate classes, stratified by college, and then in the second stage I surveyed students within each class (within each cluster since classes were the clusters in this study). While in the first stage of the cluster sampling the primary sampling units were classes ($n = 16$), in the second stage, the sampling units were students ($n = 554$) (see Brewer & Hunter, 2006; Champion, 2000; for a more detailed discussion of the sampling procedures).

Table 16 shows the selection of students, selected to be surveyed, stratified by college, and the actual number of students that were surveyed, again stratified by college. This means that a sub-sample was selected from each college (for all six colleges) based on the percentage of the total number of undergraduate students enrolled in those colleges.

Table 16

Stage One of the Sampling Procedures

Colleges	Enrollment by college	Percentage by college	Sample Size by college	Students Surveyed by college
College of Business & Tech	2184	18.6%	93 students	118 students
College of Fine Arts	761	6.5%	32 students	29 students
College of Education	1355	11.6%	58 students	62 students
College of Health & Human Serv	4049	34.5%	173 students	155 students
College of Humanities	1704	14.6%	73 students	105 students
College of Natural Sciences	1663	14.2%	71 students	85 students
Total	11716*	100%	500 Students	554 Students

Note: Of the **554** surveys, **531** usable surveys were turned in. Sample size by college – means the desired sample, a representative number of students that was supposed to be surveyed from each college (stratified by college). Students surveyed by college – means the actual number of students who were surveyed (stratified by college). *IUP Sourcebook, 2008.

The rationale for using cluster sampling procedure in this study was based on two intentions: 1) cost-effectiveness and 2) the concern for the time it would take to collect the data. Researchers agree that cluster sampling may not be the best method to sample students but it has certain advantages that defeat other forms of sampling methods. They are inexpensive, and the entire procedure can be completed in a timely fashion. However, according to Maxfield and Babbie (2001), the sample error is greater with cluster sampling than using simple random sampling procedures, for instance. To minimize this problem, the number of elements for all clusters, in this case number of students within each class for all classes that were surveyed, were combined together, which in turn was expected to reduce/correct the sampling error, considerably.

Moreover, I should note that there were a few minor obstacles that I encountered during the data collection process. Although the 16 classes (clusters) were randomly

selected, not all of them were accessible. For those classes that I was not granted access to, I randomly selected other classes, which evidently replaced those classes to which I did not have access.

Furthermore, in the preliminary study (pilot study), whose purpose was to test the adequacy (reliability and validity) of the measuring instrument, a convenient sampling procedure was adopted. In the final study, the sampling procedure was an improvement, moving from a convenient sampling to a randomized sampling procedure. The idea was to make sure that the sample resembles the population from which it was drawn. However, even when adopting a convenient sampling method, the characteristics of the sample would still approximate the characteristics of the population.

As it can be seen in Table 17, the demographic characteristics of the sample for the pilot study were slightly different from those of the population. As a whole, this sample can still be considered representative since some of the demographics of the sample (e.g., mean age and gender) are representative of the population. There is a difference regarding race/ethnicity composition of the sample. However, this difference between the sample and the population should not affect the validity and the reliability of the results.

It is noteworthy that there was an advantage of using a random sampling procedure to select classes (clusters) in the final study. The demographic characteristics of the final sample were more representative of the population from which it was drawn compared to the characteristics of the sample in the preliminary study. This tells us that when adopting a random cluster sampling procedure, the sample is more likely to have the characteristics of the population. Thus, this good reflection of the population seen in

the sample of the final study is attributed to the random sampling procedure that was adopted to select the classes, stratified by college, in this study. Table 17 below presents a comparison of the demographic characteristics of the sample (n = 304) that was used in the pilot study and the population (N = 11,928) from which that sample was drawn.

Table 17

Comparing the Demographic Characteristics of the Sample for the Pilot Study & Undergraduate Population of IUP (In Percentage)

Demographic Characteristics	IUP Undergraduate Student Population (N = 11,928)*	Pilot Study Sample (n = 304)
Age		
Mean Age	22.0	21.9
Age 25 and older	7.0	9.2
Gender		
Females	55.0	55.6
Males	45.0	44.4
Race		
White	77.0	71.1
Black	11.0	21.4
Asian	1.0	1.3
Hispanic	2.0	1.3
Native American	0.1	0.3
Other	9.0	4.6

Note: *IUP Sourcebook 2008.

Methods of Data Analyses

Phase I

Testing the Adequacy of the Measuring Instrument

One of the first steps in the analyses process was to determine the adequacy of the measuring instrument. That is, the assessment of reliability and validity of a measuring instrument. This means that we wanted to make sure we had a reliable and a valid measure before proceeding to the next step. A reliable measure means that information provided by the measuring instrument does not vary if we repeat the same study over and over again. If we have a valid measure, it means that the measuring instrument measures what it is designed to measure (DeVellis, 2003; Carmines & Zeller, 1979; DeVellis, 1991; Bachman & Schutt, 2003).

The reliability and validity of the measuring instrument was initially assessed in the preliminary study (in the pilot study). The results in the preliminary study showed that the measuring instrument was adequate – it was a reliable and valid measuring instrument. However, this does not mean that there was no need to reassess the reliability and validity of the measuring instrument in the final study. In fact, reassessment of reliability and validity of the measuring instrument was one of the critical steps in determining whether or not the measuring instrument behaved in the same way as it did in the preliminary study. Accordingly, in Phase I of the analyses, I reassessed the reliability and validity of the measuring instrument.

Additionally, I used descriptive statistics for the purpose of comparing the sample and the actual population from which the sample was drawn (e.g., as shown above in Table 17). The objective of descriptive statistics here was to determining how

representative of the population of IUP is the final sample of 554 (n = 531 respectively) undergraduate students.

Reliability

Generally, reliability is concerned with questions of stability and consistency: does the same measurement tool yield stable and consistent results when repeated over time (DeVellis, 2003; Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Maxfield & Babbie, 2008; Mosher, Miethe, & Phillips, 2002). To assess reliability of the scales, a pilot study was first conducted. In addition to assessing reliability of scales, a secondary purpose of this pilot study was to make improvements in the measuring instrument as needed also. I looked at individual items and made changes in wording so that when the same questionnaire was administered to a larger sample in the final study, the same questions would not distort the reliability.

In the pilot study, the reliability was assessed by the consistency of scores, which is one of the four methods of assessing reliability of a composite measure – namely a scale. By adopting this method (internal consistency method), we were able to determine whether or not multiple items in the scale measured the same underlying construct (see Litwin, 2002 for the properties of this method). The reliability of scales was determined by looking at the average inter-correlation of items within the scale. To put in another way, we looked at the extent to which items within the scale were correlated. Statistically, the higher the inter-correlation between items, the more reliable the measuring instrument is (DeVellis, 2003). Moreover, the Alpha level, according to Carmines and Zeller (1979) should be about .80 or above. However, according to DeVellis (2003), a Cronbach Alpha level of .60 and above is acceptable (undesirable but

acceptable) and a Cronbach Alpha level of .70 and above can be satisfactory. The results of the preliminary study show that we have a high inter-correlation between items for all eight scales, and as such we can conclude that we have reliable measures. Furthermore, the results of the final study also concur with the results of the preliminary study. Table 18 presents a summary of the results of the pilot study regarding reliability assessment of scales.

Table 18

Reliability of Scales as Assessed in the Pilot Study

Scales	Measure (Specific Questions)	Cronbach's Alpha
Main Scales		
1. Police Behavior scale	(items i11 to i32)	.927
2. Attitudes toward the Police scale	(items i33 to i63)	.936
3. Crime-Reporting Behavior scale	(items i69 to i92)	.927
4. Crime-Reporting Anonymity scale	(items i65 to i68)	.755
5. Social Desirability scale	(items i100 to i111)	.655
Alternative Scales		
6. Police behavior scale	(items i112 to i115)	.844
7. Attitudes toward the police scale	(items i116 to i126)	.903
8. Crime-Reporting Behavior scale	(items: i127 to i141)	.823

Note: The reliability analysis is based on 304 usable surveys (n = 304).

Although the preliminary study shows some promising results, reliability of the measuring instrument was re-assessed again in Phase I of data analyses. In Phase I of the analyses, I re-determined the reliability of the main scales by using the same statistical procedures as in the pilot study; namely internal consistency method. Reassessment of the reliability gave us a second opportunity to further enhance the reliability of the scales.

The positive side of using the internal consistency method again in the final study is that it did not require the splitting of the items or multiple tests, it was a quick procedure, and through statistical procedures, we were able to delete a limited number of items that showed a low correlation in reference to the group of items in the scale (of course, after carefully examining each one of the items before deciding to delete them).

Moreover, in research, the consequences of an unreliable measure (in this case, of scales) are fatal. An unreliable scale is essentially useless because the scores for the given sample would be expected to be different every time we administer the test (Warwick & Linninger, 1975). Moreover, if we had unreliability (an unreliable scale), it would mean that some of the items within the scale measured something else. Thus, they would contribute to error in the conclusions we have drawn about the conceptual level in the causal model of this study (which brings us to the discussion of validity of the measuring instrument). This issue, however, did not affect the measuring instrument of this study. As mentioned above, all scales were adequate (reliable).

Face Validity

The easiest type of validity to achieve and the most basic kind of validity is face validity. Thus, face validity is a judgment by the scientific community that the items used to measure a particular construct (items in a scale) really measure the construct (Neuman & Wiegand, 2000). The scientific community can also refer to the literature review since the item pool was generated based on the review of relevant literature.

Face validity is a good way to start assessing the validity of the measuring instrument, at least during the process of selecting items from the pool. In face validity, we look at the operationalization and see whether on its face it seems like a good

translation of the construct (Maxfield & Babbie, 2001). For this study, face validity was assessed during the process of developing scales. That is, during the process of evaluating the item-pool, I attempted to determine whether the items, in principle, reflected the constructs we were trying to measure. At this stage of the study, the main focus was to answer the question: do we think we have a measure that in principle fits the model? Furthermore, during this process, I changed some of the items that were borrowed from other studies to fit the dimensions of each construct.

Many researchers argue that face validity does not take an important place when trying to determine if we have a valid measuring instrument or not. I would strongly disagree – and I would not ignore face validity – because face validity is the first step in determining validity of a measuring instrument. To illustrate this, here is a practical example: let's pretend for a moment that we are going out for a walk or shopping, and we are to make a decision whether or not we need to carry an umbrella for that day. To determine if we need an umbrella, we don't have to conduct a meteorological study; instead, we look out the window to see if it looks like it's going to rain or not. All we need to do is to determine whether, on its face (in principle), it appears that today it's going to rain. It seems that we make face validity decisions on the daily basis. Likewise, when I selected the items from the pool, I made judgment calls whether the selected items seemed to represent/measure what we think they do. And since those items were previously used by other researchers, my judgment did not conflict with the judgments of the scientific community.

Content Validity

The second type of validity that I sought to establish in this study, and that is identical to or an extension of face validity, is content validity. In content validity, we essentially check the operationalization against the relevant content domain for the construct (Carmines & Zeller, 1979; DeVellis, 1991, 2003; Neuman & Wiegand, 2000). This approach assumes that we have a good detailed description of the content domain. In other words, we should be “able to specify the full domain of content that is relevant to the particular measurement situation” (Carmines & Zeller, 1979, p. 20; see also Neuman, 1991; Maxfield & Babbie, 2001). This type of validity is established deductively (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955) but in reference to the available literature in the area of interest. For the scales that I used in this study, it was necessary to determine that the items I had constructed to measure the constructs (taking police behavior, for instance), reflected the meaning associated with each dimension of those constructs (e.g., reflect the meaning of each dimension of the police behavior as a construct). Based on the literature review, police behavior as a construct in this case has four dimensions of interests (see Chapters II and III). For other scales, too, I have determined – again based on the literature review – that the items reflected each dimension of the construct. Police behavior and people’s attitudes toward the police are two constructs that appear to have multiple dimensions of interests. Nonetheless, they are unidimensional. The dimensions of interests are just different angles of the same construct. Other constructs, namely, crime-reporting behavior (the main dependent variable), crime-reporting anonymity, and prior victimization (arguably) are unidimensional as well.

Furthermore, there are several steps that I have taken to enhance content validity. These steps were taken during the process of developing the measuring instrument (the survey questionnaire). First, I have attempted to specify the full domain (the dimensions) of each construct that has been included in the causal models. This has been done mainly based on the review of relevant literature. Then, I have specified/defined each element (dimension) that has been included in the domain of each construct, and then created questions (items) for each element within the domain intended to measure the construct.

However, I should note that there is no agreed upon or a standardized criterion for determining the extent to which the measure of a particular construct has achieved content validity since content validity and face validity are judgmental validation of the measuring instrument. Thus, to achieve a more scientific validation of the instrument, I have attempted (initially through the pilot study) to determine/assess construct validity in the Phase I of the analyses.

Construct Validity

The third type of validity that was assessed in this study, and that relates to the adequacy of the measurement, is construct validity. Unlike face validity and content validity, construct validity is more of a scientific validity rather than judgmental validity. However, I should point out that face validity and content validity are prerequisites for construct validity. Construct validity is perhaps one of the most important types of validity because it looks at the connection between the empirical level and the theoretical level (Carmines & Zeller, 1979; DeVellis, 2003, 1991). Thus, construct validity refers to the degree to which “a measure ‘behaves’ the way that the construct it purports to measure should behave with regard to established measures of other constructs” in prior

studies (DeVellis, 1991, p. 46). To put it in simple terms, construct validity attempts to answer the question: does the measure (the scale) behave the same way in the empirical level as we expect it to behave in the conceptual level? Construct validity is related to generalizability. That is, can we use the empirical evidence on the horizontal analytical level to the theoretical level? (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). If the answer to this question is yes, then we can conclude that we have achieved construct validity, and thus our measures (in this case, the scales designed to measure police behavior, attitudes toward the police, crime-reporting anonymity, and people's willingness to report crime to the police) are valid and they measured what we intended to measure in this study.

For this study, I assessed construct validity through a series of activities that helped accumulate empirical evidence to link the analytical/empirical level with the theoretical level. The sequence of these activities in search of empirical evidence to assess construct validity started by running factor analysis for each scale, and then by finding convergence evidence between two or more measures believed to measure the same construct (see Alternative Measures above). This method tested the convergent validity and criterion-related validity. And lastly, we looked at the relationship of each measured construct to other constructs in the context of the relevant literature, i.e., by looking at the empirical evidence presented in the review of relevant literature (e.g., Chapters II, III, and IV) to see whether or not the measures used in this study behaved consistent with the theoretical predictions derived from the review of the literature. Additionally, a pilot study was conducted for this very purpose; to determine the validity and reliability and, in fact, to take all necessary steps to actually enhance validity and

reliability of scales that were constructed to measure the underlying constructs. The four steps that were taken in assessing construct validity are presented below.

Step One

One way – or *Step One* – of assessing construct validity of a measure is to use factor analyses. Thus, factor analyses help us identify how many different constructs are being measured by a scale's items (or test's items) and the extent to which each item of the scale is related to each factor or each construct (Kim & Mueller, 1978; Cronbach, & Meehl, 1955). In other words, we look at the correlation among all the items in the scale to identify groups of items that correlate more highly among themselves than with items outside the group. Now, each one of those groups (of items that highly correlate between each other) defines a common factor – one construct, which means it is unidimensional. In this context, by using factor analyses, we determine the unidimensionality of the scale (Neuman, 1991). However, factor analyses – although helpful – only tell us whether our measuring instruments, in this case, items in each scale, measure one construct or more than one construct (or more than one dimension of the same construct). Even if the factor analyses show that our scale measures only one construct, at this point, we still don't know if that construct is the one we want to measure. Nevertheless, by running factor analyses we can come one step closer to assessing construct validity.

In the current study, this procedure was conducted in Phase I of the analyses since this statistical procedure did not require any enhancements that may have actually improved the measuring instrument. To reiterate, the main objective of running factor analyses in the current study was to determine the dimensionality of the scales, which

was one of the first steps toward accumulating empirical evidence required to assess construct validity.

Step Two

The second step/approach in assessing construct validity of a measure is to use two or more measures thought to reflect the same construct and observe if the measurements converge (highly correlate) as each measure's methodological errors are corrected. On the other hand, if they don't converge but rather diverge, then those two measurements do not measure the same construct, conceptually defined for that particular study (see Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Brewer & Hunter, 2006). Furthermore, if two or more measures agree with each other (i.e., alternative measure agrees with our newly developed measure), then we have a kind of construct validity. To further elaborate on this, when a measure (e.g., measure 1) correlates well with the other measuring instrument (e.g., measure 2, an established measure used as the comparison) that is believed to measure the same construct, then convergent evidence for validity is obtained (see Figures 9, 10, and 11). On the other hand, if our measure does not correlate well with the other measuring instrument (with validation scale or alternative scale) that is believed to measure the same construct, then we have divergent evidence for validity (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; also see Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Rust & Galombok, 1999; Kaplan & Saccuzzo, 1993). In other words, our measure is invalid.

For this study, I constructed two scales for measuring each of the following constructs: police behavior, attitudes toward the police, and willingness to report crimes to the police. Only one scale for each construct was used in the final study, and both scales for each construct were used in the preliminary/pilot study. One of these two

measures was used as a criterion measure, labeled as the “alternative scale.” Thus, the alternative scales (validation scales) were used to test the convergent/divergent construct validity, the correlation between scales (see Figures 9, 10, and 11). This gave us some empirical evidence that the scales measured the same thing. Nonetheless, to test construct validity, more empirical evidence was needed.

Step Three

In *Step Three* we tested criterion-related validity. This method helped us determine whether or not the main scales behaved in the same way as the alternative scales, the scales that were used as criterion to evaluate the main scales. At this stage, we did not look at the correlation between measure 1 and measure 2, as it was the case in *Step Two* with convergent/divergent validity. Rather, we looked at the correlation between measure 1 and the dependent variable, which was crime-reporting behavior. Then, we looked at the correlation between measure 2 and the dependent variable. The correlation between measure 1 and the dependent variable and the correlation between measure 2 and the dependent variable helped us determine that the measures had reached criterion-related validity, another piece of evidence that was used in the process of construct validation. Statistically, the criterion validity is obtained if the correlations of both scales (i.e., the main scale and the criterion scale) with the dependent variable are approximately the same (Fortune, Reid, & Reid, 1999).

The correlation analyses in the preliminary study (see Figures 9, 10, and 11) showed that the scales that were tested for criterion validity were empirically supported. That is, all three scales, for those constructs that we developed two measures, namely the scale that measured police behavior, the scale that measured attitudes toward the police,

and the scale that measured crime-reporting behavior, criterion validity was established. Thus far, we accumulated empirical evidence that showed the constructs were unidimensional, and the measures achieved both convergent validity, also known as concurrent validity, and criterion validity.

Step Four

Furthermore, in *Step Two* and *Step Three*, we used two scales that measured the same construct to determine the extent to which the main scales that were used in the final study achieved convergent/concurrent validity (the correlation between two scales believed to measure the same construct) and criterion-related validity (the correlation between each one of those two scales and the dependent variable). This method was used to accumulate empirical evidence that can be used toward assessing construct validity only for three scales; namely police behavior scale, attitudes toward the police scale, and the scale that measured willingness to report crimes to the police. For other scales, including the above mentioned scales, the construct validity was assessed by using the theoretical links in the literature to determine whether or not the scales in this study behaved as predicted (see *Construct Validity* section for each scale in Phase I of the Analysis, Chapter VI).

As a final note in this section, I should mention that validity and reliability of a scale largely depend on the steps one should follow in developing a measuring instrument, the steps for developing the scales (see DeVellis, 2003; Carmines & Zeller, 1979). Moreover, when we discuss construct validity, we have to keep in mind the fact that just as criterion validity depends on the assumption that the criterion is valid, construct validation, too, depends on two assumptions: that the theory or in this case the

theoretical links derived from the literature are correct, and the measure of the other construct for each scale in the context of the literature is valid (has a valid operationalization) (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955; Carmines & Zeller, 1979).

Statistically, if we don't get construct validity, then there are three possible explanations: 1) we have a bad causal model (the theoretical framework used to generate the empirical predictions is incorrect), 2) bad analysis (method or procedure used to test the theoretically derived hypothesis is faulty or inappropriate), or 3) bad measures (unreliable or invalid measure). On the other hand, if we get construct validity, then we have achieved the goal of actually measuring what we intended to measure in the first place and thus we can proceed to the next phase of analysis.

The measurements (the scales) used to measure each construct in the current study did not suffer from lack of construct validity. In fact, we found enough empirical evidence to link the analytical/empirical level with the theoretical/conceptual level, and thus we can conclude that all measures used in this study were valid (see Phase I of the analyses in Chapter VI).

Construct Validation – Results from the Pilot Study

Figures 9, 10, and 11 reflect the strength of association between the main scales and alternative scales used to test construct validity. Additionally, Figures 9, 10, and 11 show the strength of association between each measure, namely Measure 1, which is the main scale, and Measure 2, which is the alternative scale and the dependent variable, or independent variable as is the case with Figure 11. The results presented below tested convergent/concurrent validity and criterion-related validity.

Figure 9 illustrates the process by which convergent and criterion validity were evaluated. The correlation between Measure 1 and Measure 2 was .782***. This correlation is a good indication that both scales converged; they measured the same thing. In other words, both scales behaved in the same way, which is a form of empirical evidence that indicates we have convergent validity. Additionally, Figure 9 tells us that the main scale (Measure 1), when measured against the criterion scale (Measure 2), produced desirable results. That is, both scales produced approximately similar correlations with the dependent variable (.382*** and .319*** respectively). This suggests that the main scale (Measure 1) reached criterion-related validity. Both convergent validity and criterion validity involved construct validation of the main scale that was used to measure attitudes toward the police. Similar conclusions can be reached for the police behavior scale (see Figure 10) and crime-reporting behavior (see Figure 11). Overall, the results from the preliminary study indicated that the scales designed to measure the underlying constructs in this study reached construct validity.

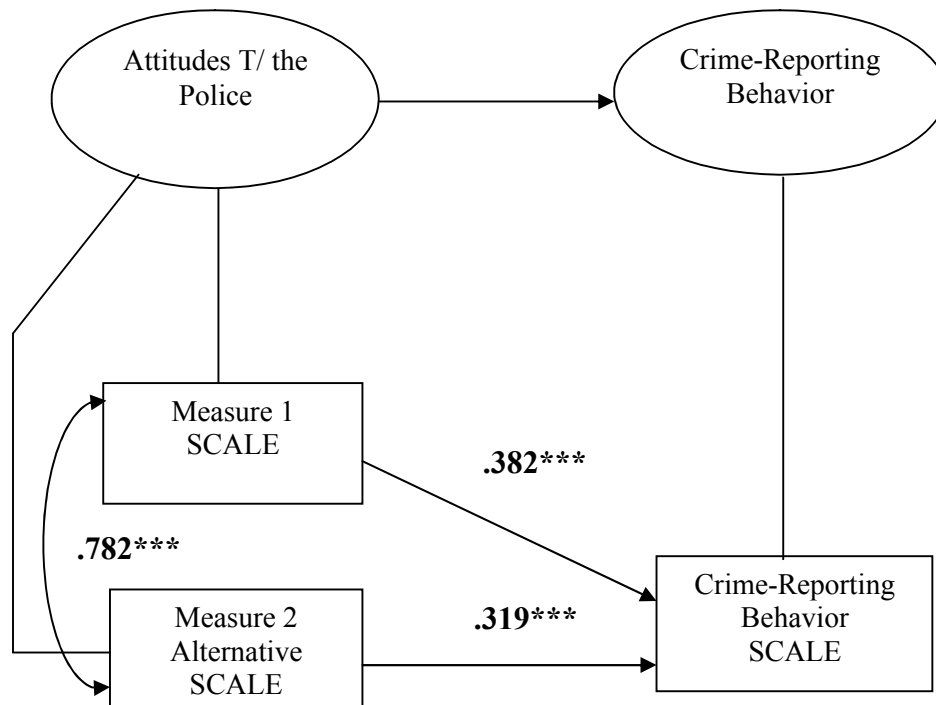


Figure 9. Construct validation of attitudes toward the police scale.¹⁰

¹⁰ This model measures the extent to which measures 1 (the main scale) and measure 2 (alternative scale) agree with each other, a form of convergent/concurrent validity. A high correlation between Measure 1 and Measure 2 (in this case .782***) indicates high convergent/concurrent validity. Alternative scale (or measure 2) is a scale that has been used in other studies. In this study, measure 2 is a criterion scale used to determine the construct validity of measure 1 (the main scale in this study). Thus, this model (Figure 9) also measures criterion-related validity since measure 2 (alternative scale) is used as a known criterion of measuring attitudes toward the police. The correlation between Measure 1 and Crime-Reporting Behavior Scale (.382***) and the correlation between Measure 2 and Crime-Reporting Behavior Scale (.319***) should have approximated values. This comparison measures criterion-related validity. *** Correlation is significant at the .001 level (2-tailed).

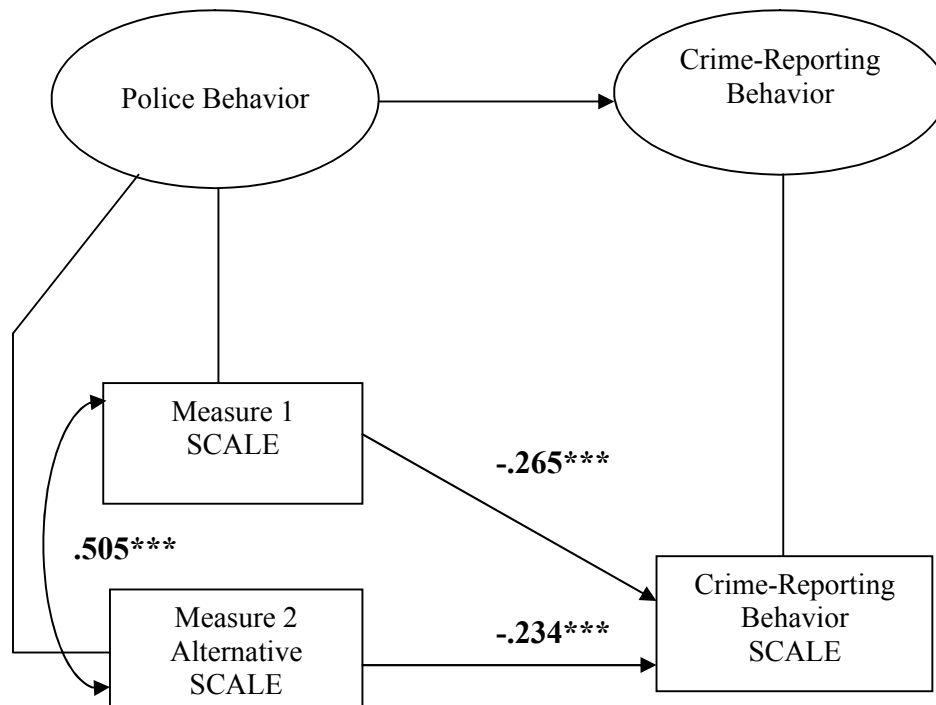


Figure 10. Construct validation of police behavior scale.¹¹

¹¹ This model measures the extent to which measures 1 (the main scale) and measure 2 (alternative scale) agree with each other, a form of convergent/concurrent validity. A high correlation between Measure 1 and Measure 2 (in this case .505***) indicates high convergent/concurrent validity. Alternative scale (or measure 2) is a scale that has been used in other studies. In this study, measure 2 is a criterion scale used to determine the construct validity of measure 1 (the main scale in this study). Thus, this model (Figure 10) also measures criterion-related validity since measure 2 (alternative scale) is used as a known criterion of measuring police behavior. The correlation between Measure 1 and Crime-Reporting Behavior Scale (-.265***) and the correlation between Measure 2 and Crime-Reporting Behavior Scale (-.234***) should have approximated values. This comparison measures criterion-related validity. *** Correlation is significant at the .001 level (2-tailed).

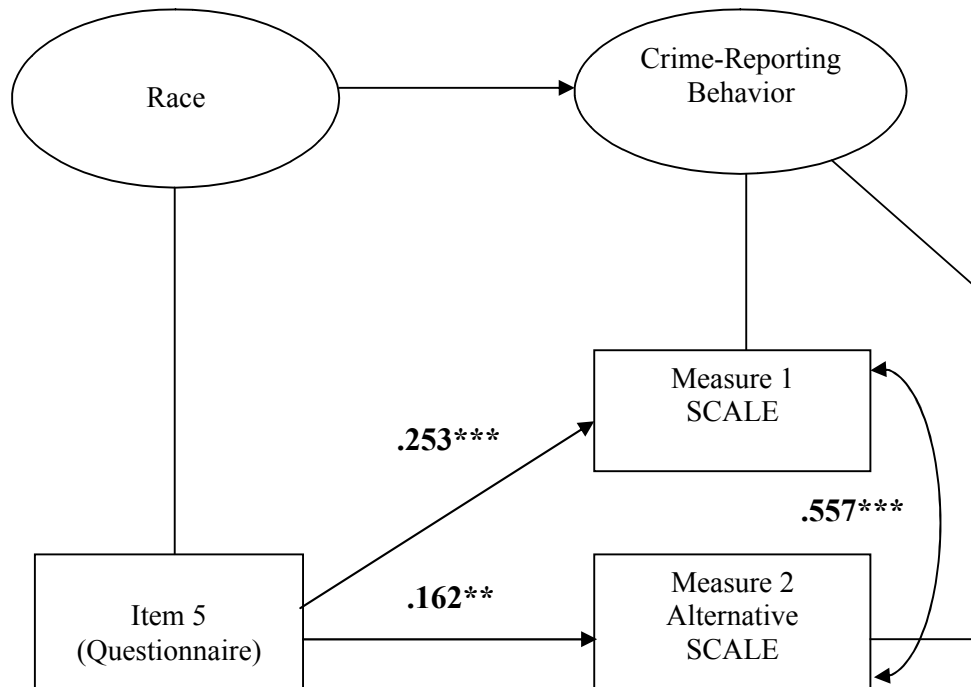


Figure 11. Construct validation of crime-reporting behavior scale.¹²

¹² This model measures the extent to which measures 1 (the main scale) and measure 2 (alternative scale) agree with each other, a form of convergent/concurrent validity. A high correlation between Measure 1 and Measure 2 (.557***) indicates high convergent/concurrent validity. Alternative scale (or measure 2) is a criterion scale that in this study is used to determine the construct validity of measure 1 (the main scale in this study). This model (Figure 11) also measures criterion-related validity. The correlation between Measure 1 and Item 5 in the survey questionnaire (.253***) and the correlation between Measure 2 and Item 5 in the survey questionnaire (.162**) should have approximated values. This comparison measures criterion-related validity. ** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed). *** Correlation is significant at the .001 level (2-tailed).

Phase II

Testing Hypotheses/Propositions

In the second phase we tested eighteen research hypotheses that were generated from the causal models (see *Research Hypotheses* section), mainly based on the review of the relevant literature on this topic. To test hypotheses in this study, I used bivariate and multivariate OLS regression analysis, supported by Pearson's Chi-Square Test. This form of data analysis lies primarily in the interrelationships between many variables. The main purpose of using multivariate analysis in this study is to illustrate how multiple variables can reveal more than one analysis of each variable separately. Thus, the purpose of employing this technique in analyzing the data is based on the fact that it "enables [us] to examine patterns of relationships between multiple independent variables and a single dependent variable" (Spicer, 2004, p. 91) and determine the influence of each independent variable on the dependent variable while controlling for other variables of interest. In other words, we wanted to determine the independent effect that each variable had on the dependent variable, also the total effect of all independent variables on the dependent variable. A multiple regression is a technique that allowed us to determine the absolute effect (unstandardized regression) of independent variables on the dependent variable, and the relative effect (standardized regression – Beta Weight) that the independent variables had on the dependent variable. Additionally, a number of hypotheses in this study were tested using Two-Factor ANOVA and One-Factor ANOVA with preplanned comparison.

The level of statistical significance for accepting each research hypotheses was $p(\text{critical}) > .05$. That is, we took a 5% chance of making a Type I error. All hypotheses

that did not meet this criterion were rejected. All hypotheses that met this criterion, on the other hand, were accepted. If the p (obtained) value was greater than p (critical value).05, then the hypothesis was rejected. Furthermore, if a hypothesis was empirically supported at the bivariate level with statistical significance $p < .05$ but failed to meet this criterion at the multivariate level, it was rejected.

Phase III

Path Analysis – Assessing Different Models

The third phase was an extension of the second phase. That is, in Phase III, we used hierarchical regression to further provide an estimate of the magnitude of the direct, indirect, and total effects that each variable had on the dependent variable, on crime-reporting behavior respectively. In this phase, we tested nine causal models (see Appendix B). One of the main objectives of including Phase III in this study was to visually and logically present the six interrelated sets of hypotheses/propositions (that were tested in Phase II) about the empirical reality of people's crime-reporting behavior. This means that in Phase II we tested hypotheses that involved the relationships between two phenomena for each hypothesis. Phase III then involved taking all of those relationships to build a system of ideas that is based on facts (empirical evidence) and that attempted to explain crime-reporting behavior. The new evidence that this study generated (evidence is fact) was used to develop a relative theoretical explanation of people's crime-reporting behavior. Nonetheless, since crime-reporting behavior was measured by the severity of crimes (meaning three different measures were used to measure the reporting behavior), three different causal models were developed (i.e., a model was developed that included correlates that best explained the reporting of less

serious crimes, one for explaining the reporting of medium-level crimes, and one for explaining the reporting of serious crimes).

The general guidelines and the procedures of running path analysis using OLS regression were followed those suggested by Miller (1977), Stage, Carter, and Nora (2004), Carducci (n. d.), and Olobatuyi (2006). According to these authors, to effectively run path analysis, there were five basic steps that needed to be followed.

In step one, we formulated the theoretical conceptualization of the causal models for the variables of interest, and constructed path diagrams representing those theoretical causal models (see Path Models, Appendix B). In step two, we calculated the path coefficients using hierarchical regression analyses. In step three, we crumbled bivariate relationships into direct and indirect causal components (and positive and negative relationships). In step four, after the analyses were completed, we deleted those path coefficients from the models (path coefficients that were found to be non-significant), and then reconstructed the original correlation matrixes from the modified path models. And in step five, we documented the modifications of the new causal models. That is, we documented the differences between the original model(s), the modified model(s), and the final model(s). Additionally, the main goal of using path analysis in this study was to develop three simplistic and parsimonious theoretical models that best explain all three levels of crime-reporting behavior (i.e., the reporting of less serious crimes, the reporting of medium-level crimes, and the reporting of serious crimes).

To carry out the computation of the statistical analyses, we used SPSS 16.0, which is an integrated system of computer programs specifically designed for the analysis of data in the social science research (Pallant, 2007).

Table 19

Executive Plan

NATURE OF ANALYSIS	HYPOTHESES OR PROPOSITIONS TESTED	PROCEDURE
PHASE I		
Demographics	How representative of the population is the sample.	Descriptive Statistics • Frequency Count • Percentage
Exploratory Data Analyses	To address the accuracy of the data collected. Whether or not there is any outlier in the data set. Whether or not the data are normally distributed.	Descriptive Statistics • Minimum • Maximum • Mean • Standard Deviation • Skewness • Kurtosis
Reliability of Scales	The extent to which measures (scales) deliver the same (stable and consistent) results on repeated trials. How free are the scales from random error?	Internal Consistency Method. • Cronbach's Alpha
Face Validity	Whether the operationalization (the items within each scale), in principle, or on its face, seem like a good translation of the construct.	Face validity was assessed during the process of developing scales. It is discussed/re-assessed in the context of literature review.
Content Validity	The extent to which items in the scale are representative of the content of the full domain of a particular construct.	Square Root of Cronbach's Alpha. Inspection of Item-Total Correlation. Subjective impressions were used to judge the degree to which scales' items covered the full domain that they were supposed to cover, in the context of literature review. Was assessed during the process of developing the scale.

Table 19 (continued). *Executive Plan*

NATURE OF ANALYSIS	HYPOTHESES OR PROPOSITIONS TESTED	PROCEDURE
Construct Validity	The degree to which inferences can legitimately be made from the operationalizations in our study to the theoretical constructs on which those operationalizations are based. The measures (the scales) behave in the same way in the empirical level as we expect them to behave in the conceptual level (can we legitimately use the empirical evidence on the horizontal analytical level about the theoretical level?).	<u>Step 1.</u> Factor Analysis (Principal Component analysis) with varimax rotation and Cattell Scree test (for each scale). <u>Step 2.</u> Convergent validity (correlation between two measures designed to measure the same construct), completed in the Pilot Study. <u>Step 3.</u> Criterion validity (correlation between measure 1 and dependent variable, and correlation between measure 2 and dependent variable, completed in the Pilot Study. Results were re-discussed.
Effect of Social Desirability	The degree to which the respondents introduced personal bias in their answers concerning the truthfulness of their responses.	Frequencies & Correlation of social desirability scale with other scales.
PHASE II		
Hypotheses about Police Behavior (<i>Ha 1 and Ha 2</i>).	Police inappropriate behavior negatively affects both crime-reporting behavior and attitudes toward the police. Police behavior explains a certain amount of variation in crime-reporting behavior.	Ordinary Least Square (OLS) Regression (Bivariate & Multivariate). Pearson's Chi-square. Coefficient of Determination (R^2).
Hypothesis about attitudes toward the police (<i>Ha 3</i>).	Negative attitudes toward the police have negative effect on crime-reporting behavior.	Hierarchical Multiple Regression. Pearson's Chi-square. Coefficient of Determination (R^2).

Table 19 (continued). *Executive Plan*

NATURE OF ANALYSIS	HYPOTHESES OR PROPOSITIONS TESTED	PROCEDURE
Hypotheses about citizen interaction with the police (<i>Ha 4 to Ha 7</i>).	Citizen-initiated contacts positively influence crime-reporting behavior. Police-initiated contacts negatively influence crime-reporting behavior and attitudes toward the police. Exposure to media about the police negatively influences crime-reporting behavior. As interaction with the police increases, crime-reporting decreases.	Ordinary Least Square (OLS) Bivariate & Multivariate Regression. Pearson's Chi-square. Coefficient of Determination (R^2).
Hypotheses about Citizens' Demographic Characteristics (<i>Ha 8 to Ha 12</i>).	Females are more likely to report crimes to the police. Whites are less likely to hold negative attitudes toward the police than blacks. Blacks are more likely to report crimes to the police compared to whites. Crime-reporting increases as socio-economic status increases.	Two-Factor ANOVA (with preplanned comparison) Ordinary Least Square (OLS) Bivariate & Multivariate Regression. Pearson's Chi-square. Coefficient of Determination (R^2).
Hypotheses about crime-reporting anonymity (<i>Ha 13, Ha 14 & Ha 15</i>).	Known identity of crime-reporting entity, negatively affect crime-reporting behavior. Fear of criminal retaliation negatively affects crime-reporting behavior.	Ordinary Least Square (OLS) Bivariate & Multivariate Regression. Pearson's Chi-square. Coefficient of Determination (R^2).
Hypotheses about prior victimization (<i>Ha 16 to Ha 18</i>).	Individuals who have been previously victimized by crime are more likely to report their victimization events. Victimization of property crimes are more often reported than victimizations of crimes against persons.	One-Factor ANOVA. Hierarchical Multiple Regression. Bivariate & Multivariate (OLS) Regression. Pearson's Chi-square. Coefficient of Determination (R^2).

Table 19 (continued). *Executive Plan*

NATURE OF ANALYSIS	HYPOTHESES OR PROPOSITIONS TESTED	PROCEDURE
PHASE III		
Testing the main theoretical models for three crime-reporting levels (e.g., the reporting of less serious crimes, medium-level crimes, and serious crimes).	Testing the direct, indirect, and total effect of demographic characteristics, personal interaction with the police, prior victimization, crime-reporting anonymity, fear of criminal retaliation, police behavior, and attitudes toward the police on crime-reporting behavior.	Path Analysis
Testing individual theoretical models that are driven from the main theoretical model (final causal models for all three crime-reporting levels).	Testing the direct, indirect, and total effect of demographics characteristics, interaction with the police, crime-reporting anonymity, fear of criminal retaliation, and police behavior on crime-reporting behavior.	Path Analysis

CHAPTER VI

ANALYSES AND RESULTS

In this chapter, the analyses will be carried out in three phases. Phase I is exploratory in nature. In step one of Phase I, I present descriptive statistics for the purpose of comparing the sample and the actual population from which the sample was drawn (e.g., as shown below in Table 20). The objective of descriptive statistics here is to show how representative of the population of IUP is the final sample of ($n = 531$) undergraduate students. This comparison is followed by an in-depth discussion of the adequacy of the measuring instrument, namely reliability and validity of the measuring instrument, as well as the distribution of the data (e.g., skewness and kurtosis, presented numerically and visually) of the measuring instrument.

Phase II of the analysis includes the testing of a number of research hypotheses which examine the relationship between constructs/concepts. To test these relationships, a number of statistical procedures were undertaken. The patterns of relationships between variables, in this phase, are examined at the bivariate level (two variables at a time) and multivariate level. Basically, through multivariate analysis, I examine the independent and total effect of multiple independent variables and one single variable, tested one at a time. This process involves determining the influence of each independent variable on the dependent variable while controlling for the influence of other variables of interest.

Phase III of the analysis includes testing a number of theoretical causal models that have been developed based on the review of existing literature. Phase III involves taking bivariate relationships that have been tested in Phase II and building a system of

ideas that is based on facts (empirical evidence) and that attempts to offer a small number of relative, yet parsimonious theoretical models that best explain crime-reporting behavior.

Phase I

Assessing the Adequacy of the Measuring Instrument

Sample Characteristics

Table 20 shows the comparison between the sample and the population from which it was drawn. A total of 554 respondents took part in this study. Of the 554 respondents who were surveyed, 531 of them turned in a fully completed survey, 21 respondents turned in an incomplete survey, and 2 respondents were excluded from the sample because they were graduate students. One of the inclusion criteria was that the surveys be completed by undergraduate students only. The 2 graduate students were excluded based on this criterion. The statistical analyses for this study are based on a total of 531 usable surveys.

When comparing the demographic characteristics of the study sample with that of the population, it can be seen that overall this sample is fairly representative (see Table 20). Nonetheless, there is a difference in terms of race composition, with blacks (+5.3%) and Asians (+2.7%) being overrepresented. There is also a trivial difference in terms of gender composition, with males (+2.7%) being overrepresented in the sample. In terms of class level, the total sample appears to have an underrepresentation of freshmen students (– 15.8%) and an overrepresentation of senior students (+8.8%). However, this difference between the sample and the population should not affect the validity and the reliability of the results since the difference is relatively small, and as such this sample can still be

considered a good representation of the university's undergraduate population. This fairly good representativeness can be accredited to the random sampling technique that was used to select classes. Thus, to select undergraduate classes, a random (two-stage) cluster sampling procedure – stratified by college – was adopted. For more information about the sampling procedure, see Chapter V (Methodology).

Table 20

Comparing the Demographic Characteristics of the Sample & Undergraduate Population of IUP (in Percentage)

Demographic Characteristics	IUP Undergraduate Student Population (N = 12,291)*	Study Sample (n = 531)
Age		
Mean Age	21.0	21.7
Age 25 and older	8.2	8.5
Gender		
Females	56.0	53.3
Males	44.0	46.7
Race		
White	78.3	72.3
Black	10.7	16.0
Asian	1.1	3.8
Hispanic	2.0	1.3
Native American	0.2	0.4
Other	7.7	6.2
Class		
Freshmen	38.4	22.6
Sophomore	21.4	23.9
Junior	21.1	25.6
Senior	19.1	27.9

Note: * IUP Sourcebook, 2009

Psychometric Properties of the Measuring Instrument

In this second half of Phase I, the adequacy of the measuring instrument is assessed, namely, the reliability and validity of all eight scales. First, to test the dimensionality of each scale, the results from factor analyses (PCA with Varimax Rotation) are presented. The purpose of these analyses is to determine whether or not the constructs in this study (e.g., police behavior, attitudes toward the police, crime-reporting anonymity, crime-reporting behavior, etc.) are unidimensional. Thus, factor analysis will tell us how many components we are measuring by the composite measures designed to measure the underlying constructs in this study. Second, the item-total correlations for all items in each scale are examined and discussed. Third, the construct validity for each scale is assessed. The construct validity is assessed by correlating measures (scales) with some criterion measure established in the prior studies, derived from the review of literature. In this context, the constructs will be validated when we have established some form of concurrent validity or predictive validity. Our objective is to see whether or not the measures behave at the empirical level as we predict they would behave at the theoretical level. This will be established by looking at the extent to which our measures correlate with other constructs, in the context of literature. Last, the effect of social desirability, as a source of bias, which may have affected the truthfulness of the responses received from subjects, is examined.

Police Behavior Scale

Factor Analysis

Factor analyses were performed to assess the dimensionality of the police behavior scale. This test includes principal component analysis (varimax rotation) with the application of Cattell scree plot (see Cattell, 1966). A scree plot, in this case, helps identify the number of important components that we need to retain. In the context of principal components analysis, a scree plot helps us visualize the number of important factors by looking at the sharp drop (the elbow) in the plot which tells us that subsequent factors below the elbow can be ignored.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value for this was .937. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test is used in factor analysis as an “indicator that shows how adequate the correlations are to run factor analysis” (Meyers et al., 2005, p. 518), and whether or not we have sufficient items for each factor (Manly, 2005; Rencher, 2002). The KMO value for the police behavior scale thus greatly exceeds the minimum recommended value of .60 (see Kaiser, 1974; Lackey et al., 2003; Meyers et al., 2005) and the Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance ($p < .000$), which tells us that the analyses support the elements that contribute to the results of the correlation matrix (see Child, 2006). In other words, this indicates that the hypothesis of all correlations between the 22 items in the scale being zero can be rejected with a probability of error of .000.

An examination of principal component analysis (Table 21) revealed the presence of three factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1, explaining 44.44%, 8.17%, and 5.21% of the variance. An inspection of the scree plot (Figure 12), on the other hand, revealed a clear break between the first factor (9.77) and the second factor (1.79), and that the first

factor accounts for the majority of the variation (44.44%) in police behavior. In light of this empirical evidence, we can conclude that police behavior, as measured by a 22-item composite measure in this study, is unidimensional.

Table 21

Principal Component Analysis (Varimax Rotation) of Police Behavior Items

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of Variance
1	9.77	44.44
2	1.79	8.17
3	1.14	5.21

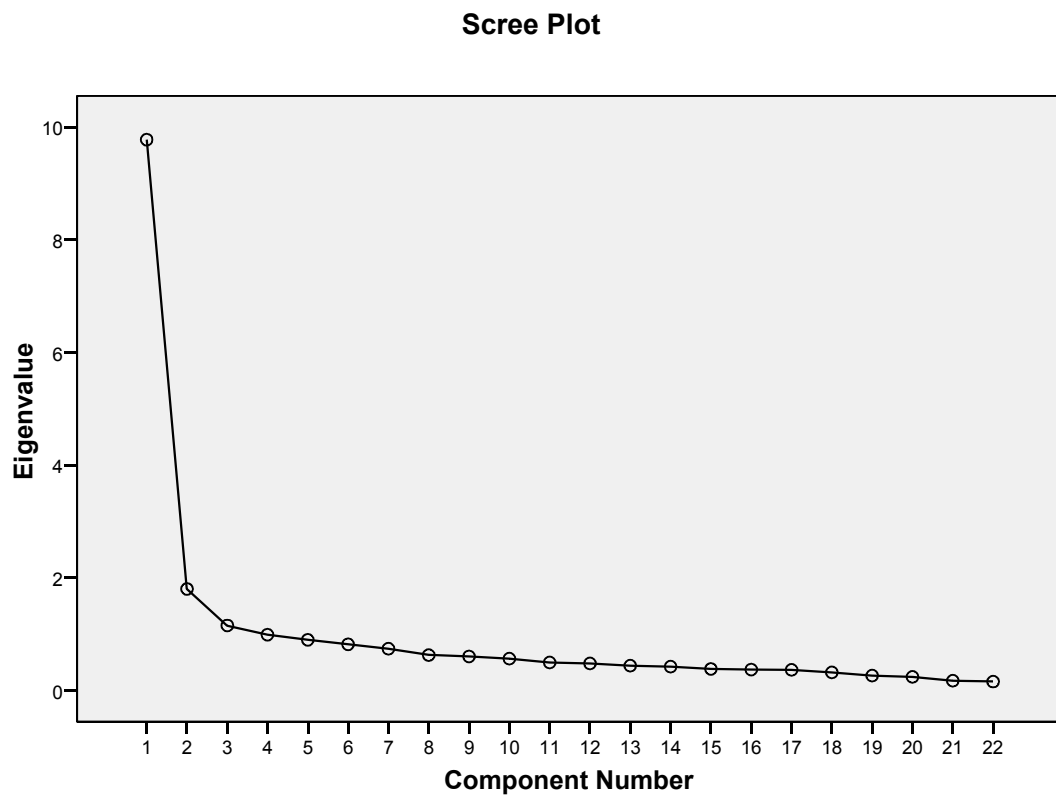


Figure 12. Scree plot for police behavior items.

Reliability and Validity

Table 22 presents the 22 items that were used to measure police misconduct. For each item in the scale, the respondents were asked to indicate whether they strongly disagree (coded 1), disagree (coded 2), neutral (coded 3), agree (coded 4), or strongly agree (coded 5) with each statement in the scale. As initially assessed in the pilot study (Cronbach's Alpha .927), this scale has a high reliability level. The internal consistency of scores in the current study (Cronbach's Alpha) is .938, which is more than a respectable level in social sciences (see Carmines & Zeller, 1979; DeVellis, 2003). Furthermore, Table 22 shows that all items in this scale (police behavior scale) are above the .30 level, which gives us a certain degree of confidence that this scale has a good content validity. Additionally, the square root of Alpha is frequently used as an indicator of content validity (see Nunnally, 1978; Kline, 1993). The square root of Alpha for this scale is .968, which indicates that this scale is representative of the domain of police behavior as a construct.

Table 22

Item-Total Correlations for Police Behavior Measure & Alpha

Items		Item-total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
1.	The police were disrespectful or impolite.	.662	.935
2.	The police used insulting language toward me or someone I know.	.721	.934
3.	The police did not follow proper procedures.	.669	.935
4.	The police stopped or searched me without reason.	.537	.937
5.	The police stopped or searched someone I know		

	without reason.	.562	.937
6.	The police were well disciplined.	.557	.937
7.	The police did <u>not</u> use offensive/threatening language against me.	.520	.937
8.	The police harassed me.	.705	.934
9.	The police officers ignored me when I asked them a question.	.672	.935
10.	The police did not let me speak when I tried to ask them a question.	.744	.934
11.	The police were clearly very careless in carrying out their duty.	.709	.934
12.	The police used racist language.	.596	.936
13.	The police made wrongful accusations.	.730	.934
14.	The police did not give me a chance to explain myself to them.	.689	.935
15.	The police behaved in a violent way (e.g. grabbing, pushing, etc.).	.639	.935
16.	The police discriminated you due to age, gender, race, or ethnicity.	.663	.935
17.	The police swore.	.601	.936
18.	I have seen the police behave in violent way while making arrests.	.570	.937
19.	The police searched my house/apartment [or the house/apartment of someone I know] without reason.	.525	.937
20.	The police searched my house/apartment [or the house/apartment of someone I know] without consent.	.542	.937
21.	The police took items of my property [or of the property of someone I know] without reason.	.508	.937
22.	The police are courteous in dealing with people.	.562	.937

Note: Cronbach's Alpha = .938

Distribution of the Data

The normality of the distribution of the data for this scale is assessed by looking at the skewness and kurtosis (Table 23, Figure 13). An assessment of the normality of the distribution of data indicates that police behavior scale has satisfactory skewness and kurtosis level. Using the criteria of absolute value of 3.0 for skewness (see Beat & Barton, 2005) and absolute value of 5.0 for kurtosis (see Bentler, 2005), the distribution of the data appears within these acceptable levels.

In addition to numerical values presented for this scale (e.g., skewness, kurtosis, and standard errors, Table 23), a visual inspection of the histogram (Figure 13) shows that the distribution of scores approximate normality. That is, the distributions of scores are within reasonable ranges that do not excessively violate the assumption of normality distribution.

Table 23

Distribution of the Data for Police Behavior Scale (n = 531)

Descriptive Statistics		Value
N	Valid	531
	Missing	0
Mean		49.81
Std. Deviation		18.049
Skewness		.429
Std. Error of Skewness		.106
Kurtosis		-.560
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.212
Minimum		22
Maximum		110

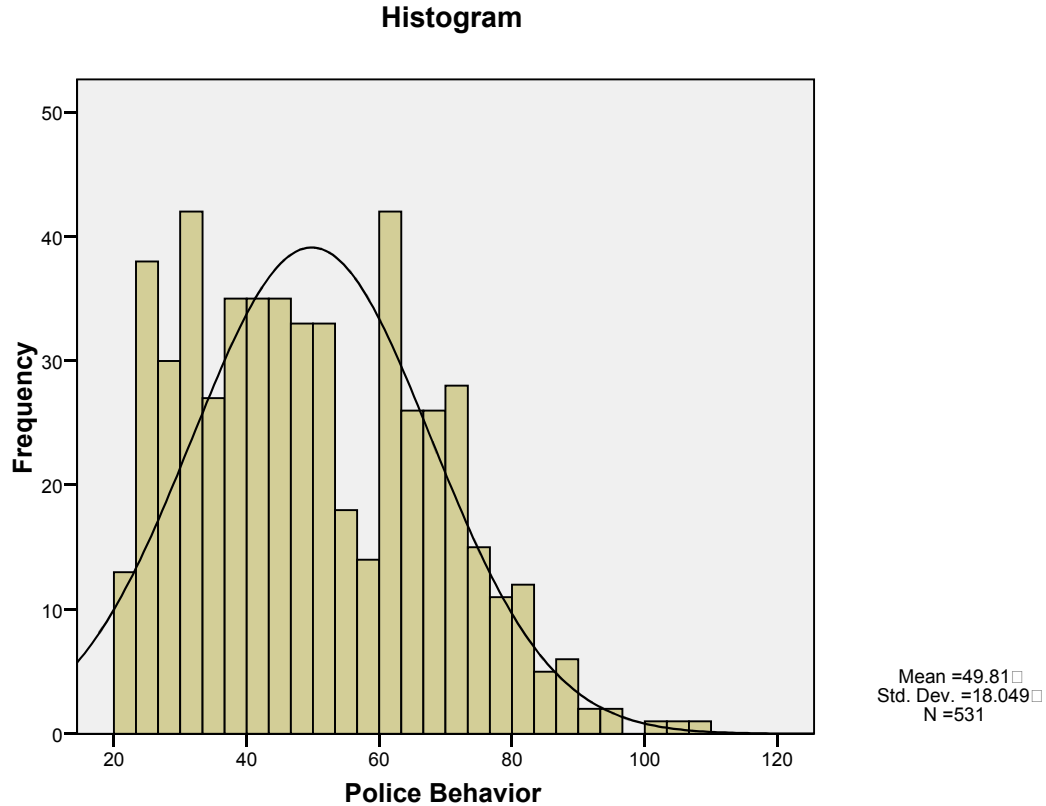


Figure 13. Histogram for police behavior scale.

Construct Validity

An assessment of the construct validity for the police behavior scale was completed in the pilot study. Construct validity of this scale was assessed by examining the relationship (correlation) between an alternative scale used as a criterion scale to measure police misconduct and the scale that was used in the current study. Additionally, construct validity was assessed by an examination of the extent to which the police behavior scale relates to crime-reporting behavior in the context of the literature. The review of the literature suggests that police misconduct should negatively correlate to crime-reporting behavior (Hickman & Simpson, 2003; Vardalis, 1992; Krahe, 1991; Xie,

Pogarsky, Lynch, & McDowall, 2006; Hickman & Simpson, 2003, see also Conaway & Lohr, 1994). As predicted, Table 24 shows that the correlations between the police behavior scale and all three crime-reporting scales (e.g., less serious crimes, medium-level crimes, and serious crimes) are negative and they are statistically significant at .001 Alpha level. In light of this empirical evidence, we conclude that police behavior scale has construct validity. This scale behaves consistently with the theoretical predictions.

Table 24

Construct Validation of Police Behavior Scale (Correlation)

Variable	Correlation	Dependent Variables
Police Behavior	-.323***	Reporting Less Serious Crimes
	-.119***	Reporting Medium-Level Crimes
	-.311***	Reporting Serious Crimes

Note: ***Correlation is significant at the .001 (2-tailed). ** Correlation is significant at the .01 (2-tailed).

Attitudes toward the Police Scale

Factor Analysis

The dimensionality of this scale was assessed by utilizing the principal component factor analysis (varimax rotation) test with the application of Cattell scree plot. The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin value (the measure of the sampling adequacy) was .952, which again greatly exceeds the minimum recommended value of .60, and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for this scale also reached statistical significance ($p < .000$), which

again tells us that the analyses support the elements that contribute to the results of the correlation matrix.

An examination of principal component analysis (Table 25) revealed the presence of five factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1, explaining 39.05%, 6.56%, 4.90%, 4.00, and 3.62% of the variance. An inspection of the scree plot (Figure 14), on the other hand, revealed a clear break between the first factor (11.71) and the second factor (1.97), and that the first factor accounts for the majority of the variation (39.05%) in attitudes toward the police. In light of this empirical evidence, we can conclude that attitudes toward the police, as measured by a 30-item scale in this study, can be treated as a unidimensional construct. Needless to say, the scree plot indicates that our initial hypothesis that attitudes toward the police as a single construct is multidimensional was incorrect.

Table 25

Principal Component Analysis (Varimax Rotation) of Attitudes toward the Police Items

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of Variance
1	11.71	39.05
2	1.97	6.56
3	1.47	4.90
4	1.20	4.00
5	1.08	3.62

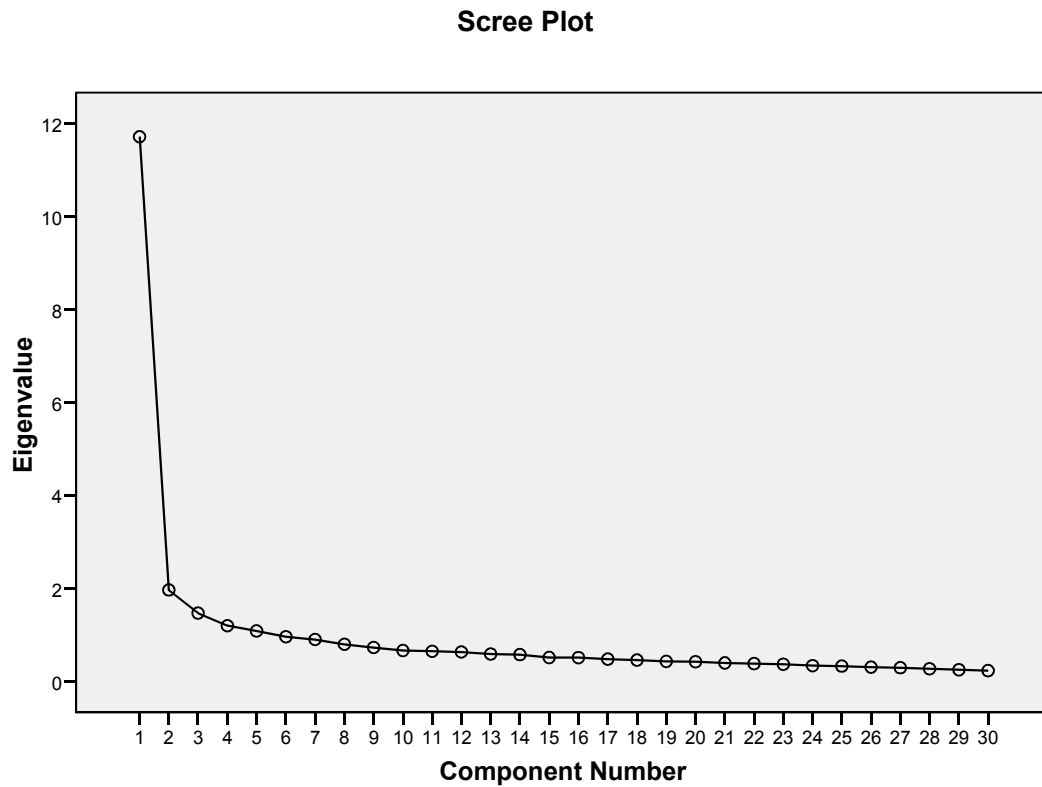


Figure 14. Scree plot for attitude toward the police items.

Reliability and Validity

Table 26 presents the 30 items that were used to measure attitudes toward the police. As previously discussed, for each item in the scale, the respondents were asked to indicate whether they strongly disagree (coded 1), disagree (coded 2), neutral (coded 3), agree (coded 4), or strongly agree (coded 5) with each statement in the scale. This scale has a high reliability level. The internal consistency of coefficients (Cronbach's Alpha) is .943.

The psychometric properties of attitudes toward the police items presented in Table 26 show that 97% (29 items) of the item-total correlations for attitudes toward the police are above the .30 level. Only one (3%) item-total correlation (item 24 = .168) did

not reach the minimum recommended level of .30. In terms of content validity, as previously noted, the square root of alpha is used as an indicator of content validity. For this scale, the square root of alpha is .971, which indicates that this scale is highly representative of the content of the domain of attitudes toward the police as a construct.

Table 26

Item-Total Correlations for Attitudes toward the Police Measure & Alpha

Items	Item-total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
1. If my rights were violated, I could rely on the police to help me.	.593	.941
2. Anyone in the police custody would have their rights fully respected.	.554	.941
3. I would encourage a friend or relative to join the police force.	.577	.941
4. The police carry out their role in a fair and impartial manner.	.662	.940
5. People like me would be welcomed in the police force as a new member.	.508	.942
6. The police force is made up of honest/honorable people.	.645	.941
7. If someone physically assaults me, I will not hesitate to call the police.	.448	.943
8. The police are sensitive to the needs of vulnerable people.	.615	.941
9. I do not like to be around the police.	.646	.940
10. Anyone in police custody will be treated well.	.594	.941
11. The local police are fully answerable to the people for their actions and conduct.	.530	.942
12. I do not feel comfortable talking to the police.	.574	.941
13. Every time I talk to the police, I feel like I'm the suspect (even when I call the police to report a crime).	.607	.941

14.	The police serve the interests of the rich more than the poor.	.571	.941
15.	The better off you are, the better you are treated by the police.	.469	.942
16.	The police discriminate against minorities.	.551	.941
17.	If I were to report a crime to the police, they would not believe me.	.569	.941
18.	When I talk to the police, I feel insecure.	.553	.941
19.	If I was burglarized and reported the crime to the police, the police would not take it seriously enough to investigate.	.541	.942
20.	If I was a victim of a crime, I would <u>not</u> expect the police to do a follow-up investigation.	.594	.941
21.	I think the police are <u>not</u> very supportive of victims of crime.	.702	.940
22.	I think the police are <u>not</u> approachable.	.729	.939
23.	I think the police do <u>not</u> reflect the makeup of the community they serve in.	.649	.940
24.	The people here [in my community] have a real say in deciding what the police should do.	.168	.945
25.	In most cases, the police treat you like a number.	.570	.941
26.	The police have no loyalty to citizens.	.645	.941
27.	If I call the police, I know that they will respond promptly.	.555	.941
28.	The police are very quick in solving the problem at hand.	.614	.941
29.	The police are generally fair in their handling of people.	.710	.940
30.	The police do an exceptionally good job in dealing with problems in the community.	.714	.940

Note: Cronbach's Alpha = .943

Distribution of the Data

An assessment of the normality of the distribution of the data (Table 27) indicates that the attitudes toward the police scale has a satisfactory skewness (-.063) and kurtosis

(-.465) level. Using the criteria of absolute value of 3.0 for skewness and absolute value of 5.0 for kurtosis, the distribution of the data appears within these acceptable levels.

Furthermore, a visual inspection of the histogram (Figure 15) shows that the distribution of scores approximate normality. That is, the distributions of scores are within reasonable ranges that do not seem to violate the assumption of normality distribution.

Table 27

Distribution of the Data for Attitudes toward the Police Scale (n = 531)

Descriptive Statistics		Value
N	Valid	531
	Missing	0
Mean		96.35
Std. Deviation		22.513
Skewness		-.063
Std. Error of Skewness		.106
Kurtosis		-.465
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.212
Minimum		36
Maximum		110

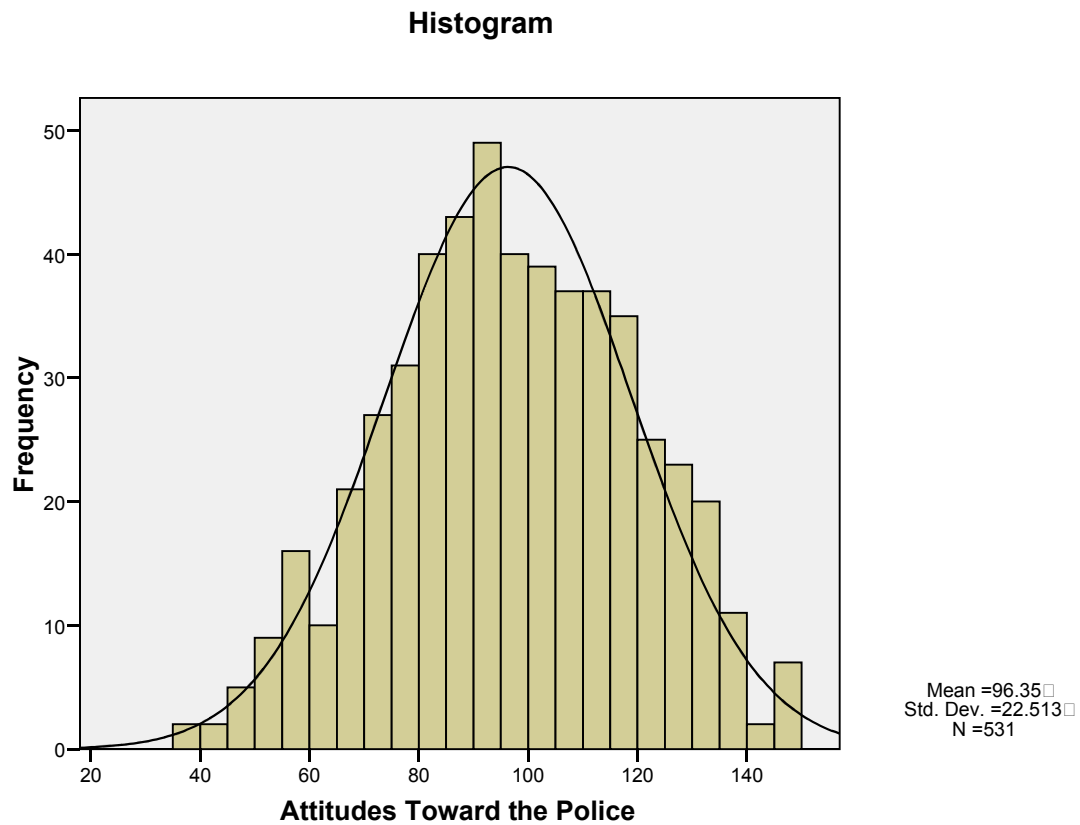


Figure 15. Histogram for attitudes toward the police scale.

Construct Validity

An assessment of the construct validity for the attitudes toward the police scale was completed in the pilot study. Construct validity of this scale was assessed by examining the relationship (correlation) between an alternative scale used as a criterion scale to measure attitudes toward the police and the scale that was used in the current study. Additionally, construct validity was assessed by examining the extent to which the attitudes toward the police scale relates to crime-reporting behavior, socio-economic status, and police encounters (police-initiated contacts), in the context of the literature.

The review of the literature suggests the citizens' attitudes toward the police should positively correlate with crime-reporting behavior and socio-economic status (see Goudriaan, Wittebrood, & Nieuwbeerta, 2006; Payne & Gainey, 2007; Jensen, 2003; Kelly, 2000; Cantillon, Davidson, & Schweitzer, 2003; Messner, Baumer, & Rosenfeld, 2004; Mustaine, Tewksbury, & Stengel, 2006; Goudriaan, 2006; Greenberg, 1979; Skogan, 1976a, 1976b; for reviews). In the context of police-citizen encounters, the review of the literature suggests that the construct of attitudes toward the police should negatively correlate with police-initiated contacts since police-initiated contacts are involuntary, and as such they are more likely to produce negative experiences (see Cheurprakobkit, 2000; Schafer et al., 2003; Wheatzer, 2000; Egharevba, 2004; Smith & Arian, 2006; Goudriaan, 2006; Robertshaw, Louw, & Mtani, 2001; for reviews).

Consistent with the literature, the correlation analysis in Table 28 shows that the correlations between the attitudes toward the police scale and all three crime-reporting scales (e.g., less serious crimes, medium-level crimes, and serious crimes) including socio-economic status are positive, and they are statistically significant at the .001 Alpha level. Furthermore, as predicted, the correlation between attitudes toward the police and police-initiated contacts is negative. Although the correlation between ATP and police-initiated contacts is statistically insignificant, the direction of this correlation (negative) is some form of evidence that is in agreement with prior research. Considering this empirical evidence (presented in Table 28), the measure of attitudes toward the police has construct validity.

Table 28

Construct Validation of Attitudes toward the Police Scale (Correlation)

Variable	Correlation	Dependent Variables
ATP	.443***	Reporting Less Serious Crimes
	.148***	Reporting Medium-Level Crimes
	.344***	Reporting Serious Crimes
	.181***	Socio-Economic Status
	-.060	Police-Initiated Contacts

Note: ATP – Attitudes toward the Police. ***Correlation is significant at the .001 (2-tailed).
 ** Correlation is significant at the .01 (2-tailed).

Crime-Reporting Anonymity Scale

Factor Analysis

To assess the suitability of the data for factor analysis, an inspection of the SPSS outputs was performed. The initial inspection of the SPSS outputs showed that the items in the crime-reporting anonymity scale are suitable enough to run factor analysis since the correlation between items is not zero. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value (the measure of the sampling adequacy) for this scale was .624. This KMO value, although small, exceeds the minimum recommended value of .60 as recommended by Kaiser (1974). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for this scale also reached statistical significance ($p < .000$), which supports the conclusion stated above that the correlation between items is not zero.

An examination of PCA (Table 29, part one) revealed the presence of two factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1, explaining 45.63%, and 27.96% of the variance. The number of factors extracted is determined by the scree plot as illustrated in Figure 16 and

Figure 17, by considering the criterion of eigenvalues exceeding one. An inspection of the scree plot (Figure 16) revealed a clear break between the second factor (1.39) and the third factor (.63), and that the first two factors account for the majority of the variation (73.59%) in crime-reporting anonymity. In light of this empirical evidence, we can conclude that crime-reporting anonymity, as measured by a 5-item scale in this study, is a two-factor solution. However, this empirical evidence warranted the need for further examination of this scale. After reliability analysis was performed (see the assessment of reliability for this scale), the internal consistency analysis showed that one of the scale items had a very low item-total correlation. Thus, to improve the reliability and dimensionality of this scale, that item was removed from this scale. As shown in Table 29, part two (see Figure 17 also), a 4-item scale in this study is unidimensional, with only one factor with eigenvalue exceeding 1, explaining 56.02% of the variance. In light of this new evidence, we conclude that crime-reporting anonymity, as measured by a 4-item scale, is unidimensional.

Table 29

Principal Component Analysis (Varimax Rotation) of Crime-Reporting Anonymity Items

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of Variance
As a 5-item scale		
1	2.28	45.63
2	1.39	27.96
3	.62	12.40
As a 4-item scale		
1	2.24	56.02
2	.97	24.47
3	.61	15.23

Note: Due to low item-total correlation, one item was removed from the original scale. For more information, see section on reliability analysis (section that follows this one).

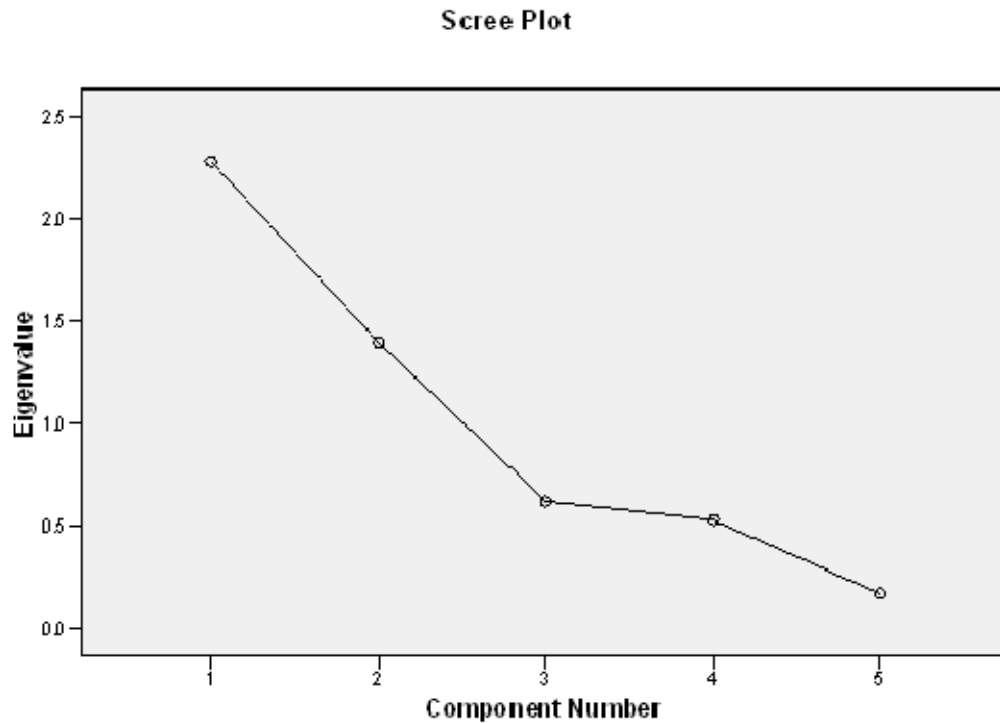


Figure 16. Scree plot for crime-reporting anonymity items (as a 5-item scale). Note: Since one of the scale items did not correlate well with other items in the scale, it was removed. The Scree Plot in Figure 16 shows how this scale behaved when this item was included in the factor analysis. The Scree Plot in Figure 17 shows how this scale behaved when this low-correlated item was removed from the scale (see Figure 17 below).

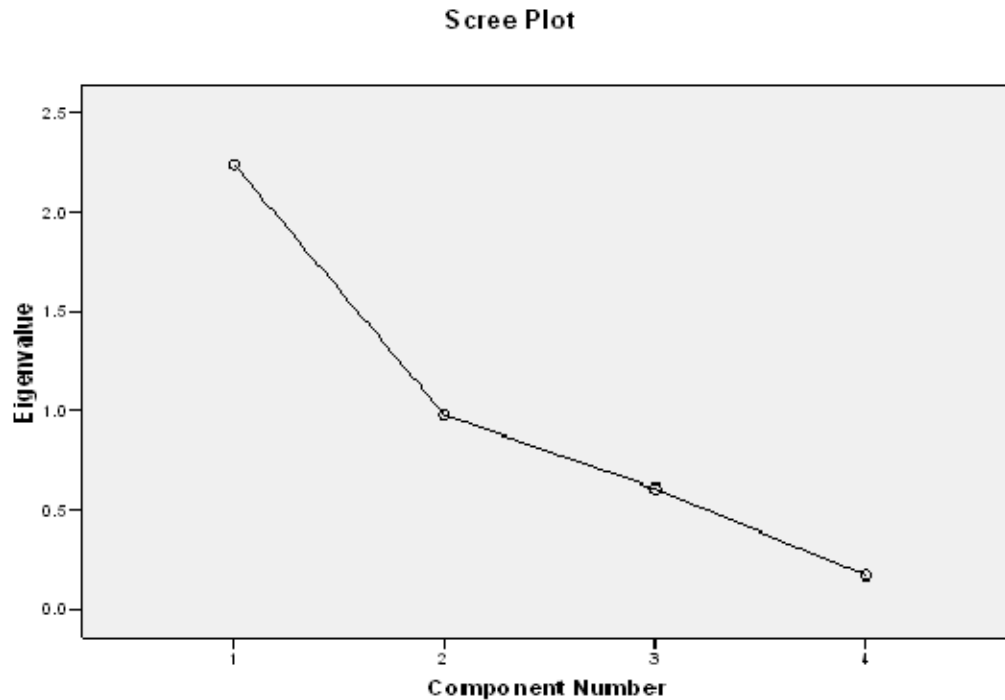


Figure 17. Scree plot for crime-reporting anonymity items (as a 4-item scale).

Reliability and Validity

The psychometric properties of the scale items that measure crime-reporting anonymity presented in Table 30 (5-item scale) show that 60% (3 items) of the item-total correlations for the crime-reporting anonymity scale are above the .30 level. Two (40%) item-total correlations (item 1 = .129 and item 5 = .156) did not reach the recommended level of .30. The Cronbach's alpha for this 5-item scale was .652. Although the reliability level for this scale is not substantial, a Cronbach's alpha of .652 can still be used in social science. According to DeVellis (2003), a Cronbach's alpha of .60 and above is acceptable (undesirable but still acceptable). However, after examining the items, item one was deleted from the scale. Thus, a 4-item scale increased the Cronbach's alpha to the .713 level. The statistical analyses in this study are thus based on a 4-item scale that measures crime-reporting anonymity, with a Cronbach's alpha of .713. The square root of alpha for

the 4-item scale is .844, which is still a good indication that this scale is representative of the content of the domain of crime-reporting anonymity as a construct.

Table 30

Item-Total Correlations for Crime-Reporting Anonymity & Alpha

Items	Item-total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
As a 5-item Scale		
1. I would probably report a crime to the police if the criminal had <u>not</u> seen me.	.129	.713
2. I would <u>not</u> report a crime to the police if the criminal had already seen me.	.416	.594
3. If I call the police to report a crime, I would rather <u>not</u> give them my personal information.	.716	.429
4. If I call the police to report a crime, I would prefer to remain anonymous.	.688	.450
5. If I know that the police will <u>not</u> ask me for my personal information, I will not hesitate to report crimes to the police.	.156	.706
As a 4-Item Scale		
2. I would <u>not</u> report a crime to the police if the criminal had already seen me.	.318	.754
3. If I call the police to report a crime, I would rather <u>not</u> give them my personal information.	.734	.492
4. If I call the police to report a crime, I would prefer to remain anonymous.	.730	.499
5. If I know that the police will <u>not</u> ask me for my personal information, I will not hesitate to report crimes to the police.	.282	.770

Note: As a 5-item scale, the Cronbach's Alpha for this scale was .652. A Cronbach's Alpha of .713 was reached after the deletion of item 1 from this scale. The final scale for measuring crime-reporting anonymity includes only four items, with a Cronbach's Alpha of .713.

Distribution of the Data

An assessment of the normality of the distribution of the data (see Table 31) indicates that crime-reporting anonymity scale has a satisfactory skewness (-.399) and kurtosis (-.197) level. Using the criteria of absolute value of 3.0 for skewness and absolute value of 5.0 for kurtosis, the distribution of the data appears within these acceptable levels. Furthermore, a visual inspection of the histogram (see Figure 18) shows that the distribution of scores approximate normality.

Table 31

Distribution of the Data for Crime-Reporting Anonymity Scale (n = 531)

Descriptive Statistics		Value
N	Valid	531
	Missing	0
Mean		13.09
Std. Deviation		3.674
Skewness		-.399
Std. Error of Skewness		.106
Kurtosis		-.197
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.212
Minimum		4
Maximum		20

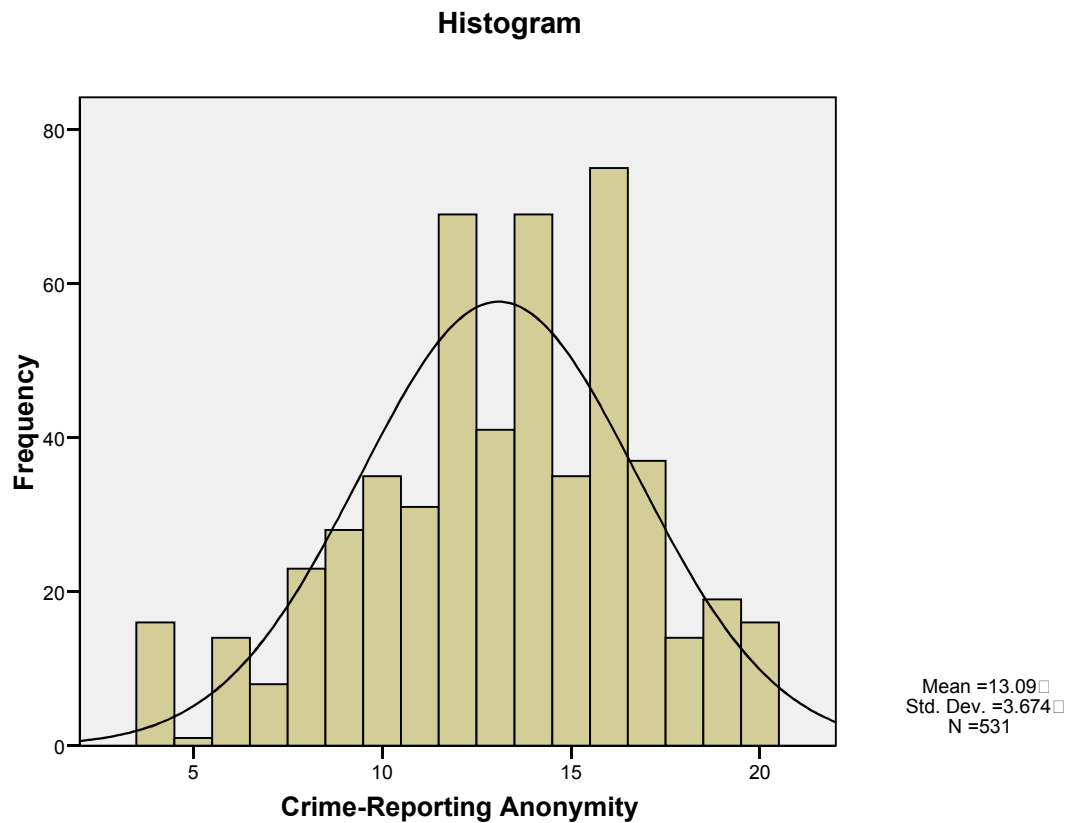


Figure 18. Histogram for crime-reporting anonymity scale.

Construct Validity

The construct validity of the crime-reporting anonymity scale is assessed by examining the extent to which crime-reporting anonymity relates to attitudes toward the police and crime-reporting behavior, in the context of the literature review (see Chapters II, III, and IV). The review of the literature suggests that crime-reporting anonymity or the desire to remain anonymous when calling the police to report a witnessed crime or a victimization event should negatively correlate with attitudes toward the police (see Smith & Arian, 2006; Vellani & Nahoun, 2001; Singer, 1988; Bachman, 1998; for reviews). The literature also suggests that crime-reporting anonymity should negatively

correlate with crime-reporting behavior. In other words, those who score higher in the crime-reporting anonymity scale (those who want to remain anonymous when reporting crimes or victimization events to the police) will score lower in crime-reporting behavior scales (see Goudrianna, 2006; Greenfeld et al., 1998; Bachman, 1998; Smith & Arian, 2006; Goudriaan, Wittebrood, & Nieuwbeerta, 2006; Goudriaan & Nieuwbeerta, 2007; for reviews).

The correlations presented in Table 32 show that the crime-reporting anonymity scale behaves consistent with theoretically derived (tested) hypotheses in the review of literature. In other words, this tells us that the crime-reporting anonymity scale has achieved some form of concurrent and predictive validity, which, to some degree, is a form of empirical evidence that shows the crime-reporting anonymity scale, at the empirical level, behaves as it should (as predicted to behave in the theoretical level).

Table 32

Construct Validation of Crime-Reporting Anonymity Scale (Correlation)

Variable	Correlation	Dependent Variables
C.R. Anonymity	-.228***	Reporting Less Serious Crimes
	-.024	Reporting Medium-Level Crimes
	-.168***	Reporting Serious Crimes
	-.390***	Attitudes toward the Police

Note: C. R. Anonymity = Crime-Reporting Anonymity. ***Correlation is significant at the .001 (2-tailed).

Measures of Crime-Reporting Behavior for Less Serious Crimes

Factor Analysis

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value for the crime-reporting scale (crime-reporting 1) designed to measure the reporting of less serious crimes was .864. This value exceeds the minimum recommended value of .60, and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for this scale also reached statistical significance ($p < .000$).

An examination of PCA (Table 33) revealed the presence of only one factor with eigenvalue exceeding 1, explaining 58.46% the variance in the crime-reporting scale that measures the reporting of less serious crimes. An inspection of the scree plot (Figure 19) also revealed a clear break between the first factor (4.66) and the second factor (.94), and that the first factor accounts for the majority of the variation (58.46%) in crime-reporting behavior. Thus, the factor analysis shows that the crime-reporting scale (crime-reporting 1) that measures the reporting of less serious crimes is unidimensional.

Table 33

Principal Component Analysis (Varimax Rotation) of Crime-Reporting 1 Items (Less Serious Crimes)

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of Variance
1	4.66	58.46
2	.94	11.81
3	.83	10.35

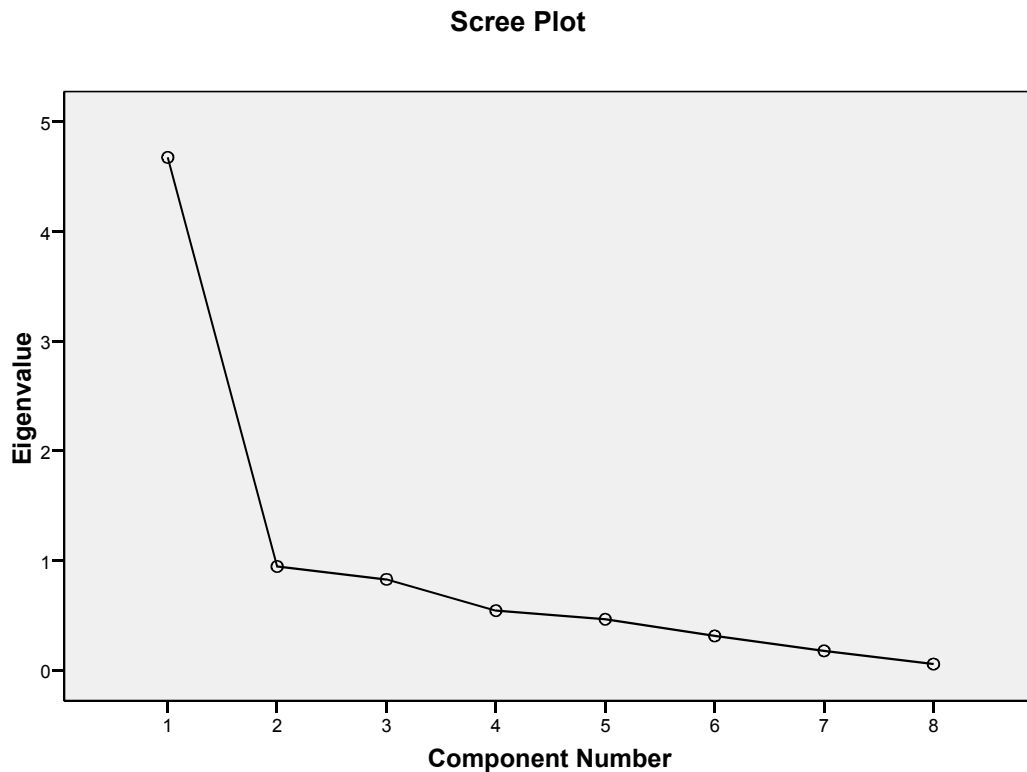


Figure 19. Scree plot for crime-reporting 1 (less serious crimes).

Reliability and Validity

The psychometric properties of eight crime-reporting items that measure the reporting of less serious crimes (one of total three subscales that measure crime-reporting behavior) are presented in Table 34. Using factor analysis, these eight items have been extracted from a larger pool of crime-reporting items that were designed to measure the reporting of crimes from the least serious to the most serious. The internal consistency analysis shows that all items in this scale are above the .30 level. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale is .896, which is considered more than an adequate level of reliability in social sciences. The square root of alpha is .946. This indicates that this scale is highly representative of the content of the domain of crime-reporting behavior. Thus, the

composite measure that consists of eight items (see Table 34) appears to measure the same concept, reporting behavior of less serious crimes.

Table 34

Item-Total Correlations for the Measure of Crime-Reporting 1 (Less Serious Crimes) & Alpha

Items	Item-total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
25. You saw someone smoking in the school bathroom?	.532	.895
26. You saw someone using illicit drugs in the school bathroom?	.799	.871
27. You saw someone selling ecstasy in the school bathroom?	.845	.865
28. You saw someone you know selling cocaine in the school bathroom?	.833	.866
29. You saw someone selling cocaine in the school bathroom and they saw you?	.755	.875
30. You saw someone illegally dumping oil on the ground/sewage system (polluting the environment)?	.496	.899
31. You saw someone painting graffiti on the walls of a public/or private building?	.623	.887
32. You heard someone making a physical threat (verbally) to someone you do <u>not</u> know?	.524	.896

Note: Cronbach's Alpha .896

Distribution of the Data

An assessment of the normality of the distribution of the data (Table 35) indicates that the measure of the reporting of less serious crimes (crime-reporting 1) has a satisfactory skewness (.038) and kurtosis (-.926) level. Again, using the criteria of

absolute value of 3.0 for skewness and absolute value of 5.0 for kurtosis, the distribution of the data appears within these acceptable levels.

A visual inspection of the histogram (Figure 20) shows that the distribution of scores approximates normality. That is, the distributions of scores are within reasonable ranges that do not seem to violate the assumption of the normality distribution.

Table 35

Distribution of the Data for the Measure of Crime-Reporting 1 (n = 531)

Descriptive Statistics		Scale 1 Less Serious Crimes
N	Valid Missing	531 0
Mean		22.56
Std. Deviation		8.686
Skewness		.038
Std. Error of Skewness		.106
Kurtosis		-.926
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.212
Minimum		8
Maximum		40

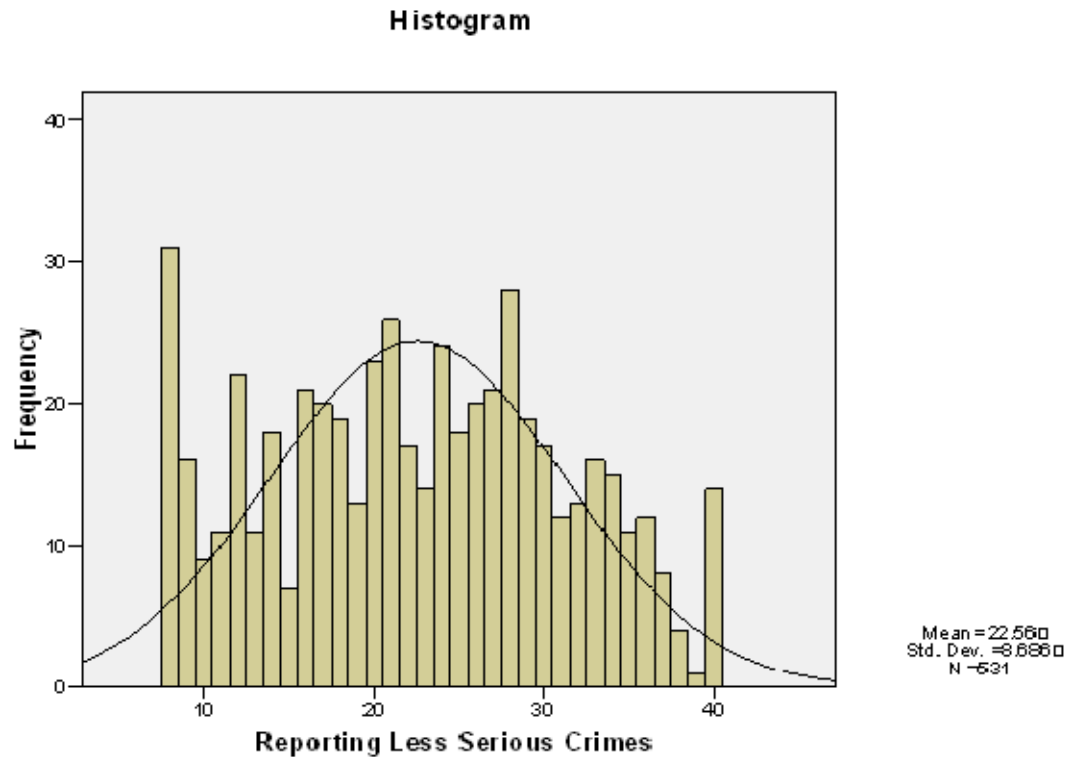


Figure 20. Histogram for reporting less serious crimes (crime-reporting 1).

Construct Validity

The construct validity of the scales that measure the reporting of less serious crimes (crime-reporting 1), medium-level crimes (crime-reporting 2), and serious crimes (crime-reporting 3) is assessed by examining the extent to which the measures of crime-reporting behavior relate to gender, police behavior, and attitudes toward the police, in the context of the literature review. In terms of the direction of this correlation, the review of literature suggests that crime-reporting behavior should negatively correlate with gender (see Greenberg & Ruback, 1992; Bachman, 1998; Green, 1981; Carcach, 1997; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1998b; Skogan, 1984; Ashbaugh & Cornell, 2008; Bickman, 1976; for reviews). Moreover, the review of literature suggests that crime-reporting behavior should negatively correlate with police behavior (police misconduct),

also measured as a construct, and positively correlate with attitudes toward the police (see Goudriaan, 2006; Greenfeld et al., 1998; Smith & Arian, 2006; Goudriaan, Wittebrood, & Nieuwbeerta, 2006; Zhang et al., 2007; see also Apsler, Cummins, & Carl, 2003; Brown & Benedict, 2002; Hickman & Simpson, 2003; Vardalis, 1992; Krahe, 1991; for reviews).

As predicted, the correlation analyses in Tables 36, 40, and 44 show that the correlations between all three measures (scales) of crime-reporting behavior and both gender and police behavior are negative. Additionally, the analyses show that the correlations between crime-reporting behavior scales and attitudes toward the police scale are positive, and they are statistically significant at the .001 Alpha level (except for the correlation between gender and crime-reporting 3, Table 44). This empirical evidence gives us a certain degree of confidence to conclude that all three crime-reporting scales (see correlation analyses in Tables 36, 40, and 44) behave as predicted. Therefore, the measures of crime-reporting behavior, as measured by three scales, have achieved construct validity.

Table 36

Construct Validation of the Crime-Reporting 1 (Measure of Less Serious Crimes)

Variable	Correlation	Dependent Variables
Gender	-.140***	Crime-Reporting 1
Police Behavior	-.323***	
Attitudes toward the Police	.443***	

Note: ***Correlation is significant at the .001 (2-tailed). **Correlation is significant at the .001 (2-tailed).

Measures of Crime-Reporting Behavior for Medium-Level Crimes

Factor Analysis

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value for the crime-reporting scale (crime-reporting 2) that was designed to measure medium-level crimes was .897, which again greatly exceeds the minimum recommended value of .60. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for this scale also reached statistical significance ($p < .000$).

An examination of PCA (Table 37) revealed the presence of one factor with eigenvalue exceeding 1, explaining 61.79% of the variance. An inspection of the scree plot (Figure 21) also revealed a clear break (the elbow) between the first factor (3.70) and the second factor (.65), and that the first factor accounts for the majority of the variation (44.44%) in the reporting of medium-level crimes. Thus, the factor analysis shows that the crime-reporting scale that measures the reporting of medium-level crimes is unidimensional.

Table 37

Principal Component Analysis (Varimax Rotation) of Crime-Reporting 2 Items (Medium-Level Crimes)

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of Variance
1	3.70	61.79
2	.65	10.85
3	.56	9.40

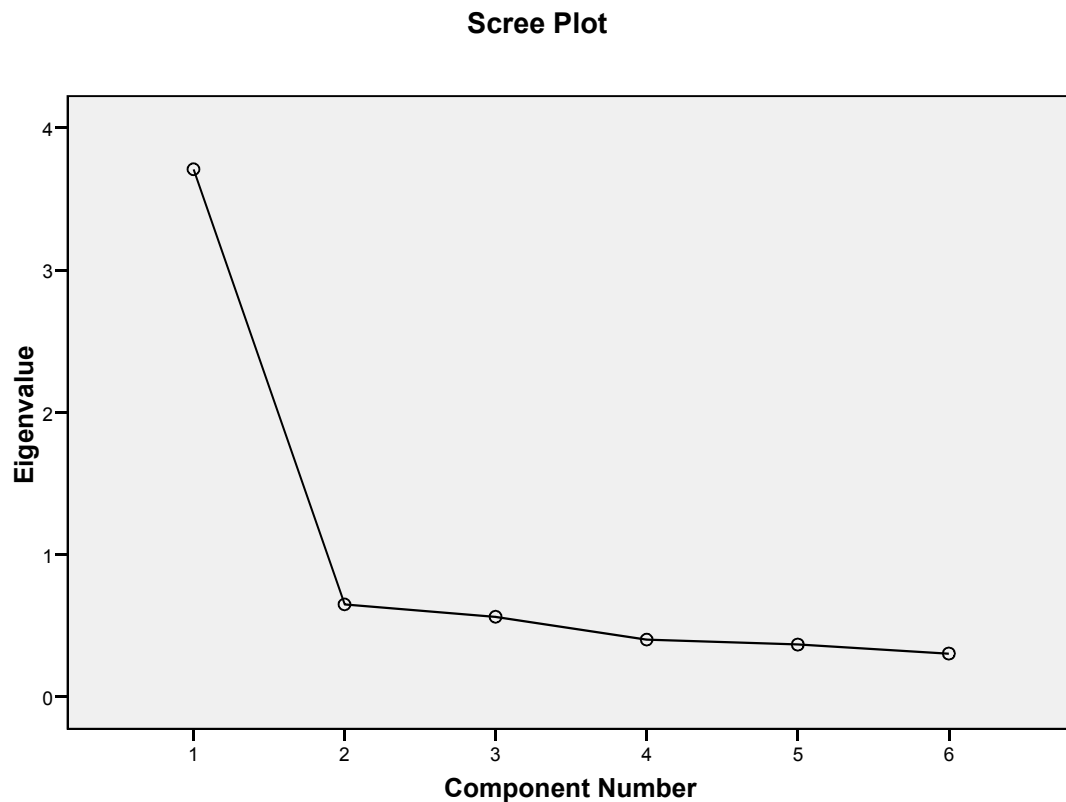


Figure 21. Scree plot for crime-reporting 2 (medium-level crimes).

Reliability and Validity

The psychometric properties of crime-reporting behavior items that measure the reporting of medium-level crimes (that were extracted from a larger pool of crime-reporting items by using factor analysis) are presented in Table 38. The internal consistency analysis shows that all items in this scale are above the .30 level. In fact, all item-total correlations are above the .50 level. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale is .874, which again is more than satisfactory. The square root of alpha is .934, indicating that this scale is highly representative of the content of the domain of crime-reporting behavior as it pertains to reporting medium-level crimes.

Table 38

Item-Total Correlations for the Measure of Crime-Reporting 2 (Medium-Level Crimes) & Alpha

Items	Item-total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
7. You saw your friend yell at his girlfriend and heard her yell back that he is trying to kill her.	.584	.868
8. You heard from a trusted source that a girl was raped after the football game.	.573	.870
9. You found a journal entry from a college student that described making a bomb.	.709	.847
10. You overheard some college students bragging about knowing how to make a bomb.	.729	.843
11. You saw some college students hiding something inside of their large overcoats and acting suspiciously.	.703	.847
12. A student, whom you know, told you he is going to make a bomb.	.770	.836

Note: Cronbach's Alpha .874

Distribution of the Data

The normality of the distribution of the data for this scale is assessed by looking at the skewness and kurtosis (Table 39, Figure 22). An assessment of the normality of the distribution of data indicates that the scale that measures the reporting of medium-level crimes (crime-reporting 2) has a satisfactory skewness (-.904) and kurtosis (.519) level. Using the criteria of absolute value of 3.0 for skewness and absolute value of 5.0 for kurtosis, the distribution of the data appears within these acceptable levels.

A visual inspection of the histogram (Figure 22) shows that the distribution of scores approximates normality. Thus, the distributions of scores for this scale are within

reasonable ranges that do not excessively violate the assumption of normality distribution.

Table 39

Distribution of the Data for the Measure of Crime-Reporting 2 (n = 531)

Descriptive Statistics		Scale 2 Medium-Level Crimes
N	Valid Missing	531 0
Mean		22.24
Std. Deviation		5.737
Skewness		-.904
Std. Error of Skewness		.106
Kurtosis		.519
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.212
Minimum		6
Maximum		30

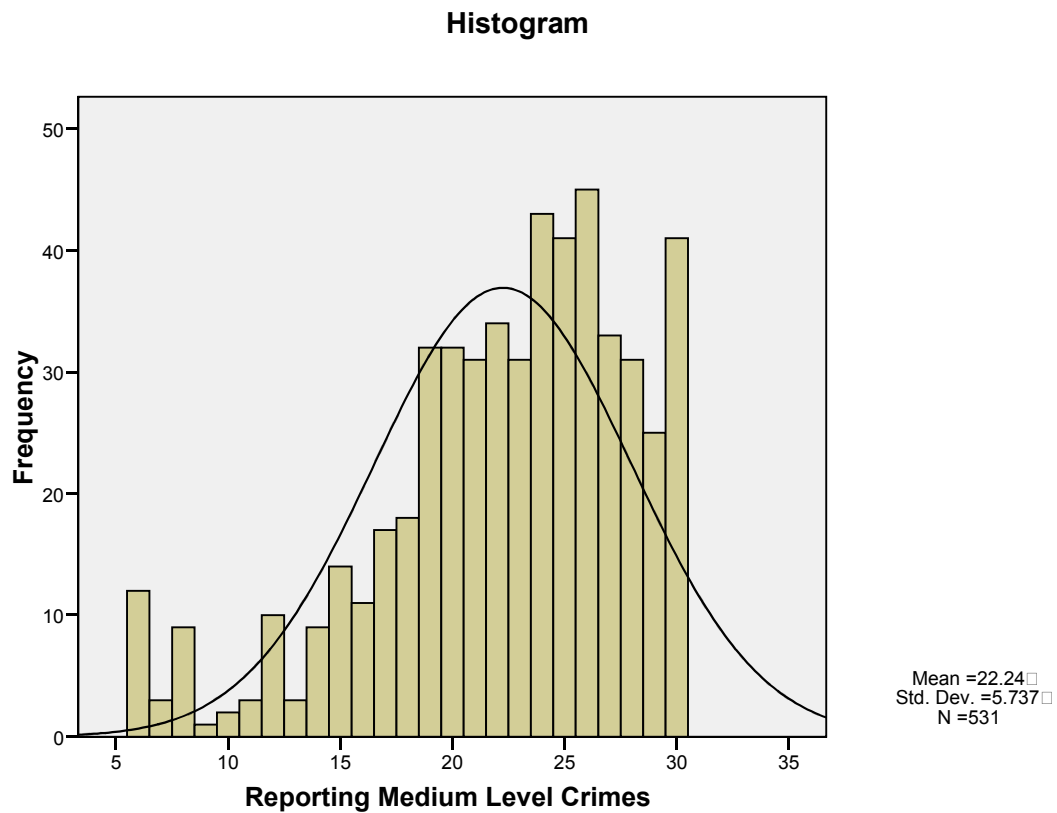


Figure 22. Histogram for reporting medium-level crimes (crime-reporting 2).

Construct Validity

As discussed earlier, this scale has achieved construct validity. The factor analyses (see Table 37 and Figure 21) show that the measure of the reporting of medium-level crimes is unidimensional. Additionally, its items were extracted from a larger pool of items that were designed to measure the reporting of a broad range of crimes, from least serious to the most serious crimes. Thus, factor analysis (see Chapter V, Table, 5) shows that the survey items extracted from that pool of items (and that were included in this scale) fall between the two extremes, namely between less serious crimes and serious crimes. Therefore this scale measures medium-level crimes. In terms of concurrent and

predictive validity, the correlation analyses presented in Table 40 show that this scale behaves consistent with the findings of other research studies, which is some form of empirical evidence used to assess construct validity in this study.

Table 40

Construct Validation of the Crime-Reporting 2 (Measure of Medium-Level Crimes)

Variable	Correlation	Dependent Variables
Gender	-.184***	Crime-Reporting 2
Police Behavior	-.119**	
Attitudes toward the Police	.148***	

Note: ***Correlation is significant at the .001 (2-tailed). **Correlation is significant at the .001 (2-tailed).

Measures of Crime-Reporting Behavior for Serious Crimes

Factor Analysis

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value for the crime-reporting scale (crime-reporting 3) that was designed to measure serious crimes was .915, exceeding the minimum recommended value of .60. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for this scale also reached statistical significance ($p < .000$).

An examination of PCA (Table 41) revealed the presence of only one factor with eigenvalue exceeding 1, explaining 67.04% of the variance. An inspection of the scree plot (see Figure 23) also revealed a clear break between the first factor (6.70) and the second factor (.84), and that the first factor accounts for the majority of the variation (67.04%) in the reporting of serious crimes (crime-reporting 3). In light of this empirical

evidence, it was decided that the measure of the reporting of serious crimes is unidimensional, and that only one factor was retained.

Table 41

Principal Component Analysis (Varimax Rotation) of Crime-Reporting 3 Items (Serious Crimes)

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of Variance
1	6.70	67.04
2	.84	8.46
3	.59	5.93

Scree Plot

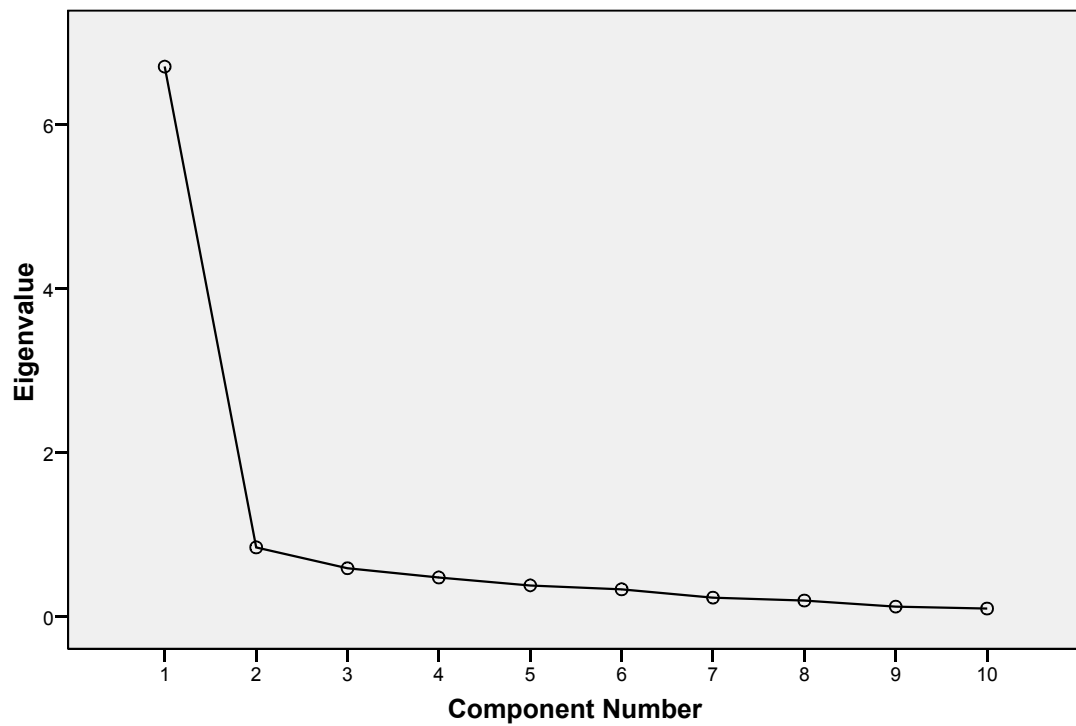


Figure 23. Scree plot for crime-reporting 3 (serious crimes).

Reliability and Validity

The psychometric properties of ten crime-reporting items that measure the reporting of serious crimes (again, that were extracted for a larger pool of crime-reporting items) are presented in Table 42. The internal consistency analysis shows that all items in this scale are above the .30 level. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale is .942, which is a level that is more than satisfactory in social sciences. The square root of alpha is .970. This indicates that this scale is highly representative of the content of the domain of crime-reporting behavior. In other words, these ten scale items cover a broad range of criminal behaviors that are considered serious enough and that are representative of serious crimes.

Table 42

Item-Total Correlations for Crime-Reporting 3 (Serious Crimes) & Alpha

Items	Item-total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
11. You saw a male student, whom you do not know, physically assaulting a female student in the school parking lot.	.684	.939
12. You saw a male student smashing the windshield of a car in the parking lot.	.695	.940
13. You saw someone attempting to commit burglary (illegal entry or attempt breaking and entering into someone's property/house).	.781	.935
14. You saw your friend yell at his girlfriend, heard her yell back that he is trying to kill her and saw him brandish a knife.	.833	.932
15. You saw a student, whom you do <u>not</u> know, yell at a female, you heard her yell back that he is trying to kill her and saw him brandish a knife.	.833	.933
16. You saw a male driver stopped his car and grabbed a female forcing her into his car and then he drove		

	away with the girl. You heard the girl screaming and trying to fight back.	.816	.934
17.	You heard a girl, whom you do not know, screaming behind the bleachers of the football field that someone is trying to rape her.	.829	.933
18.	You saw a man in the school cafeteria attempting to rob the place.	.702	.939
19.	You heard a girl you know screaming behind the bleachers of the football field that someone is trying to rape her.	.809	.934
20.	Someone you know has told you he has killed a person and has taken you to the place where he has dumped the body, and you see the dead body.	.698	.939

Note: Cronbach's Alpha .942

Distribution of the Data

An assessment of the normality of the distribution of the data (Table 43, Figure 24) indicates that the measure of the reporting of serious crimes (crime-reporting 3) is negatively skewed with a skewness level of -2.094 and kurtosis level of 4.375. This scale has ten items. The scores range from 10 to 50. Further examination of the data in this scale indicates that about 23% of respondents (or 132 of 531 of respondents) scored 50 on this scale, contributing to this skewness. However, using the criteria of absolute value of 3.0 for skewness (see Beat & Barton, 2005) and absolute value of 5.0 for kurtosis (see Bentler, 2005), the distribution of the data in this scale can still be considered analyzable since this distribution appears to be within these acceptable levels.

Table 43

Distribution of the Data for the Measure of Crime-Reporting 3 (n = 531)

Descriptive Statistics		Scale 3 Serious Crimes
N	Valid Missing	531 0
Mean		43.19
Std. Deviation		8.864
Skewness		-2.094
Std. Error of Skewness		.106
Kurtosis		4.375
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.212
Minimum		10
Maximum		50

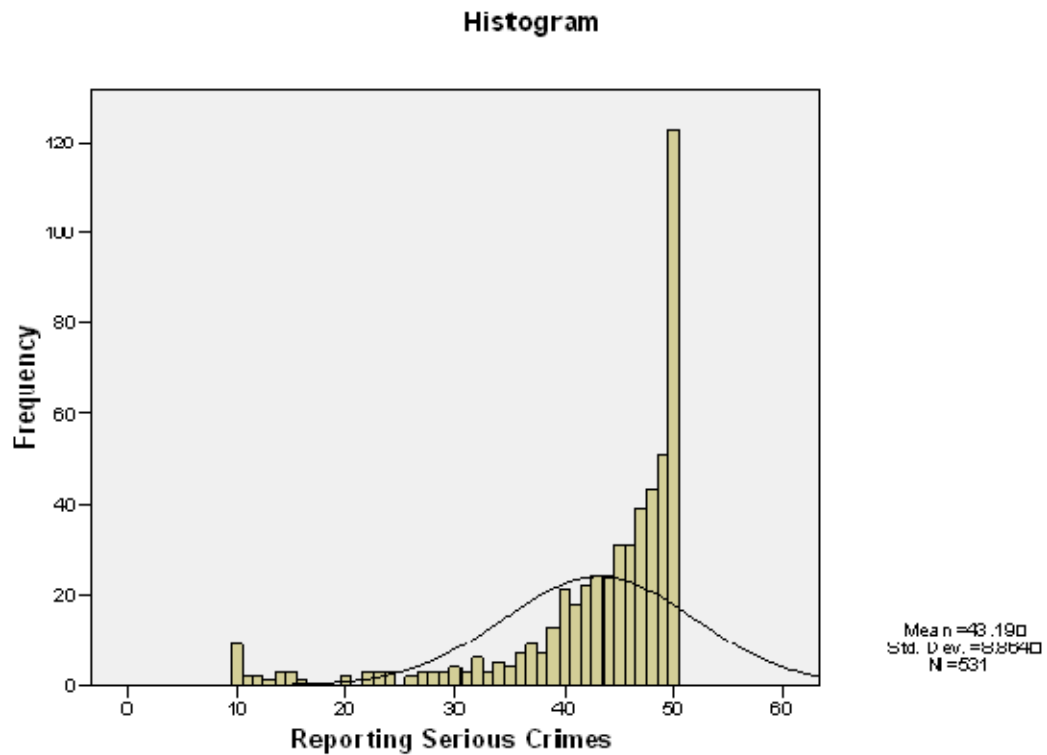


Figure 24. Histogram for reporting serious crimes (crime-reporting 3).

Construct Validity

Table 44 presents correlation analysis for the measure of serious crimes (crime-reporting 3) and other constructs/variables in the context of literature. As discussed earlier, this scale has achieved construct validity as well. The factor analysis (see Table 41 and Figure 23) shows that the measure of the reporting of serious crimes is unidimensional. And the correlation analysis in Table 44 shows that this scale behaves as predicted.

Table 44

Construct Validation of Crime-Reporting 3 (Measure of Serious Crimes)

Variable	Correlation	Dependent Variables
Gender	-.077	Crime-Reporting 3
Police Behavior	-.311***	
Attitudes toward the Police	.344***	

Note: ***Correlation is significant at the .001 (2-tailed). **Correlation is significant at the .001 (2-tailed).

Property Crimes Scale

Factor Analysis

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value for the scale that measures the reporting of property crimes was .614. This value, although low, exceeds the minimum recommended value of .60 (see Keiser, 1974). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for this scale reached statistical significance ($p < .000$). This tells us that the items in the scale are sufficiently correlated and thus suitable enough to run factor analysis.

An examination of PCA (Table 45) revealed the presence of only one factor with an eigenvalue exceeding 1, explaining 69.01% of the variance. An inspection of the scree plot (Figure 25) also revealed a clear break between the first factor (2.07) and the second factor (.68), and that the first factor accounts for the majority of the variation (69.01%) in the reporting of property crimes. Obviously, in light of this empirical evidence, it becomes clear enough that this scale is unidimensional.

Table 45

Principal Component Analysis (Varimax Rotation) of Property Crimes Items

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of Variance
1	2.07	69.01
2	.68	22.85
3	.24	8.12

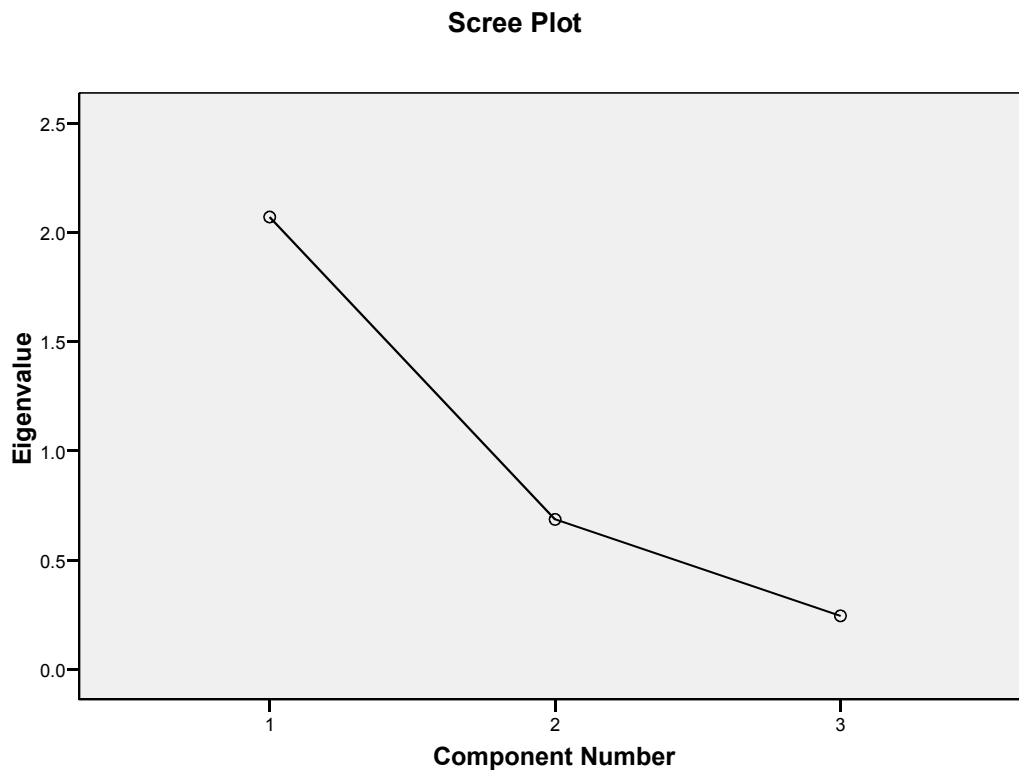


Figure 25. Scree plot for reporting of property crimes.

Reliability and Validity

The psychometric properties of three items that measure the reporting of property crimes are presented in Table 46. The analyses shows the item-total correlations for all three items are above the .30 level. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale is .759, which is an adequate level to be used in social science (see DeVellis, 2003). The square root of alpha is .871. A square root of alpha of .871 is substantial enough and as such it can be considered a good indication that this scale is representative of the content of a perception construct designed to measure the reporting of property crimes.

Table 46

Item-Total Correlations for Property Crimes & Alpha

Items	Item-total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
4. You saw someone painting graffiti on the walls of a public/or private building.	.443	.855
5. You saw a male student smashing the windshield of a car in the parking lot.	.704	.541
6. You saw someone attempting to commit burglary (illegal entry or attempt breaking and entering into someone's property/house).	.655	.618

Note: Cronbach's Alpha .759

Distribution of the Data

An assessment of the normality of the distribution of the data (Table 47) indicates that the measure of the reporting of property crimes has a satisfactory skewness (-.697) and kurtosis (-.036) level. Using the criteria of absolute value of 3.0 for skewness and absolute value of 5.0 for kurtosis, the distribution of the data is within these acceptable levels. Additionally, a visual inspection of the histogram (Figure 26) also shows that the distribution of scores approximates normality.

Table 47

Distribution of the Data for Property Crime Scale (n = 531)

Descriptive Statistics		Value
N	Valid	531
	Missing	0
Mean		10.68
Std. Deviation		3.093
Skewness		-.697
Std. Error of Skewness		.106
Kurtosis		-.036
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.212
Minimum		3
Maximum		15

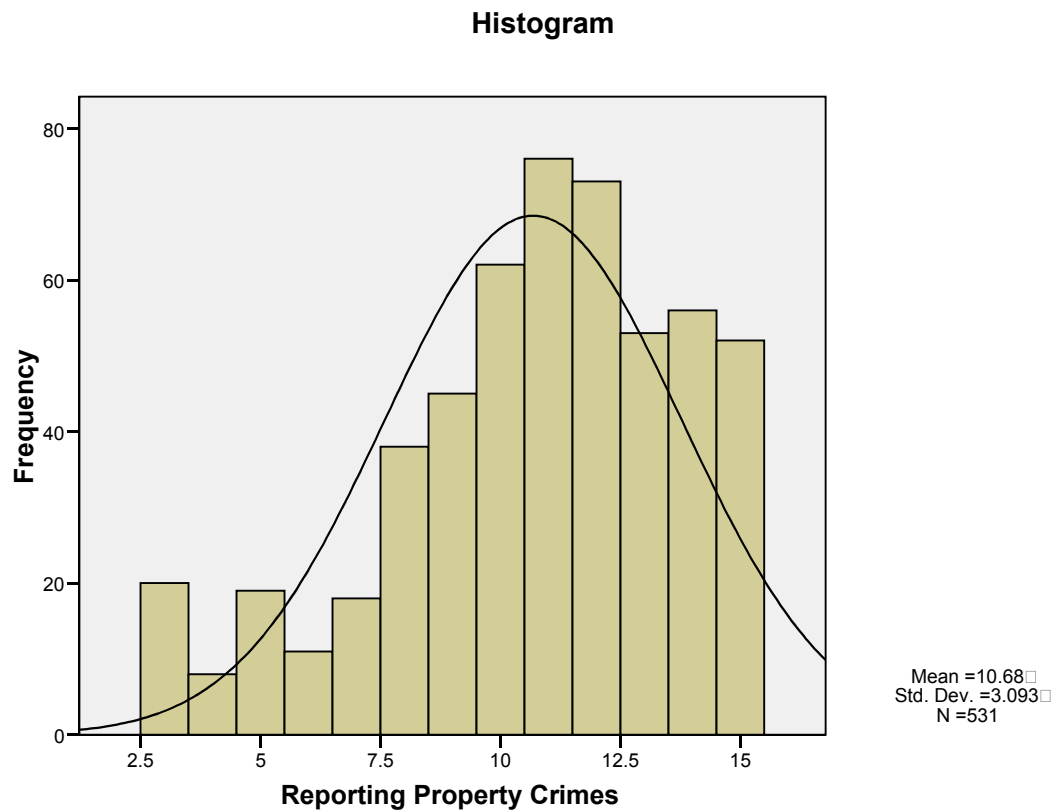


Figure 26. Histogram for property crimes scale.

Construct Validity

To assess construct validity of the scale that measures property crimes, I used two theoretical links derived from the review of the literature, namely the association of gender with property crimes and the association of police behavior with property crimes. The review of the existing literature suggests that willingness to report property crimes should negatively correlate with gender (see Carcach, 1997; Greenberg & Ruback, 1992; Bachman, 1998; for reviews). In this context, research shows that males are more likely to report property crimes compared to females. This doesn't mean that males are more likely to report crimes to the police in general; it only means that males are more likely to report property crimes when taking victim-offender relationship into account. Moreover, literature suggests that the reporting of property crimes is affected by the victim's prior experience with the police. That is, the reporting of this type of victimization is affected by how the police behave and treat the victim when responding to such victimization events. In this context, the review of the literature suggests that police behavior should negatively correlate with the reporting of crimes, including property crimes to the police (see Xie et al., 2006; Simpson, 2003; Holmberg, 2004; for reviews).

Table 48 shows that the correlation between the property crimes scale and gender is negative and statistically significant. The correlation of property crime and police behavior is also negative and statistically significant. This confirms that this scale behaves as predicted.

Table 48

Construct Validation of the Measure for the Reporting of Property Crimes

Variable	Correlation	Dependent Variables
Gender	→ -.088*	} → Property Crimes
Police Behavior	→ -.324***	

Note: ***Correlation is significant at the .001 (2-tailed). *Correlation is significant at the .05 (2-tailed).

Social Desirability Scale

Factor Analysis

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value for the measure of social desirability was .745. This value exceeds the minimum recommended value of .60 (Kaiser, 1974). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for this scale also reached statistical significance ($p < .000$).

An examination of PCA (Table 49) revealed the presence of four factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1, explaining 21.34%, 11.43%, 8.92%, and 8.42% of the variance. An inspection of the scree plot (Figure 27), on the other hand, revealed a break after the first factor, between the first factor (2.56) and the second factor (1.37). This indicates that this scale is unidimensional. However, an argument can be made that the break occurs after the second factor, between the second factor (1.37) and the third factor (1.07). The first two factors account for the majority of the variation (32.77%) in the social desirability scale. Nonetheless, considering the magnitude of the eigenvalue for the first factor and the distance between the first factor (2.56) and the second factor (1.37), it is reasonable to conclude that the measure of social desirability is unidimensional.

Table 49

Principal Component Analysis (Varimax Rotation) of Social Desirability Items

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of Variance
1	2.56	21.34
2	1.37	11.43
3	1.07	8.92
4	1.01	8.42

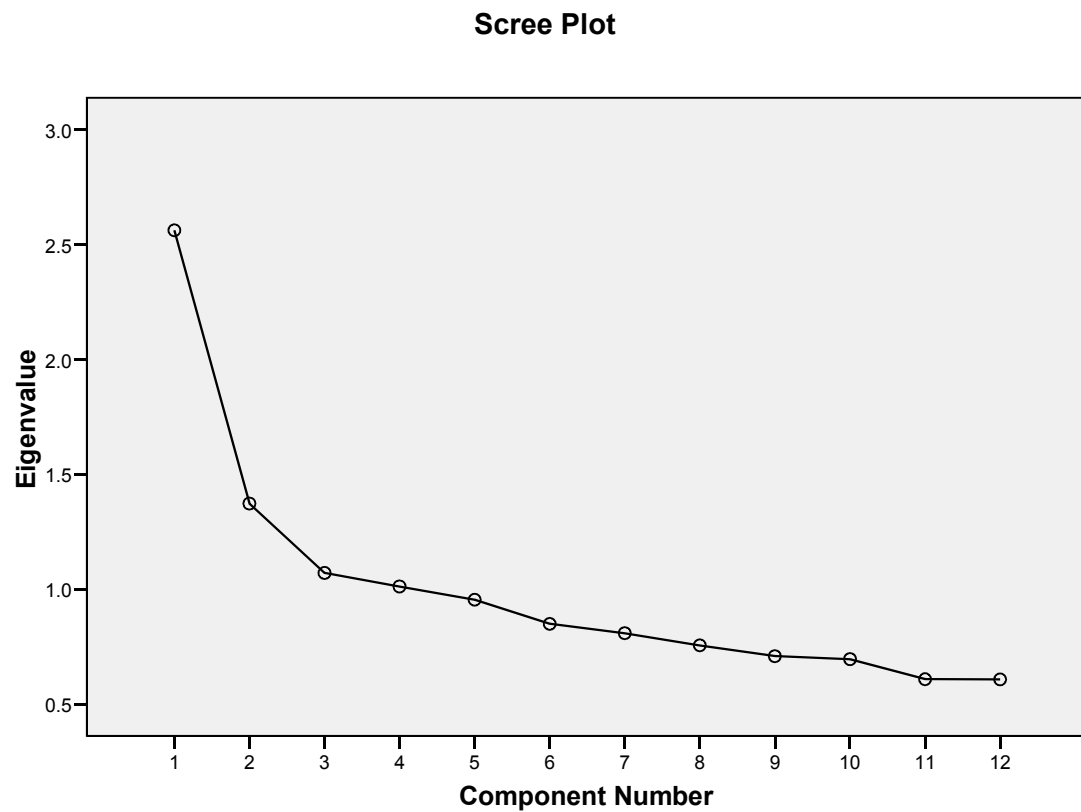


Figure 27. Scree plot for social desirability items.

Reliability and Validity

The psychometric properties of the twelve scale items that measure social desirability are presented in Table 50. The item-total correlation analyses in Table 50 show that 59% (6 items) of the item-total correlations for social desirability are above the .30 level. And 5 (about 41%) item-total correlations (item 1 = .288, item 7 = .238, item 8 = .173, item 9 = .170, and item 12 = .255) did not reach the recommended level of .30. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale is .655. Arguably, an alpha of .655 can still be used in social sciences (see DeVellis, 2003). In terms of content validity, the square root of alpha is .809, which indicates that this scale is representative of the content of domain of the social desirability as a construct.

Table 50

Item-Total Correlations for Social Desirability Measure & Alpha

Item	Item-total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
1. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.	.288	.637
2. I'm always willing to admit it when making a mistake.	.354	.624
3. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.	.343	.626
4. I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my own way.	.351	.625
5. I'm always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.	.383	.619
6. I'm always a good listener, no matter whom I'm talking to.	.326	.630
7. I never resent being asked to return a favor.	.238	.644

8. When I don't know something I don't at all mind admitting it.	.173	.654
9. There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others.	.170	.657
10. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.	.351	.626
11. I have never intensely disliked anyone.	.253	.642
12. I never hesitate to go out of my way to help someone in trouble.	.306	.634

Note: Cronbach's Alpha .655

Distribution of the Data

An assessment of the normality of the distribution of the data (Table 51) indicates that the measure of social desirability has a satisfactory skewness (-.240) and kurtosis (-.208) level. Again, using the criteria of absolute value of 3.0 for skewness and absolute value of 5.0 for kurtosis, the distribution of the data appears within these acceptable levels. Also, a visual inspection of the histogram (Figure 28) shows that the distribution of scores approximates normality.

Table 51

Distribution of the Data for Social Desirability Scale (n = 531)

Descriptive Statistics		Value
N	Valid	531
	Missing	0
Mean		6.72
Std. Deviation		2.449
Skewness		-.240
Std. Error of Skewness		.106
Kurtosis		-.208
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.212
Minimum		0
Maximum		12

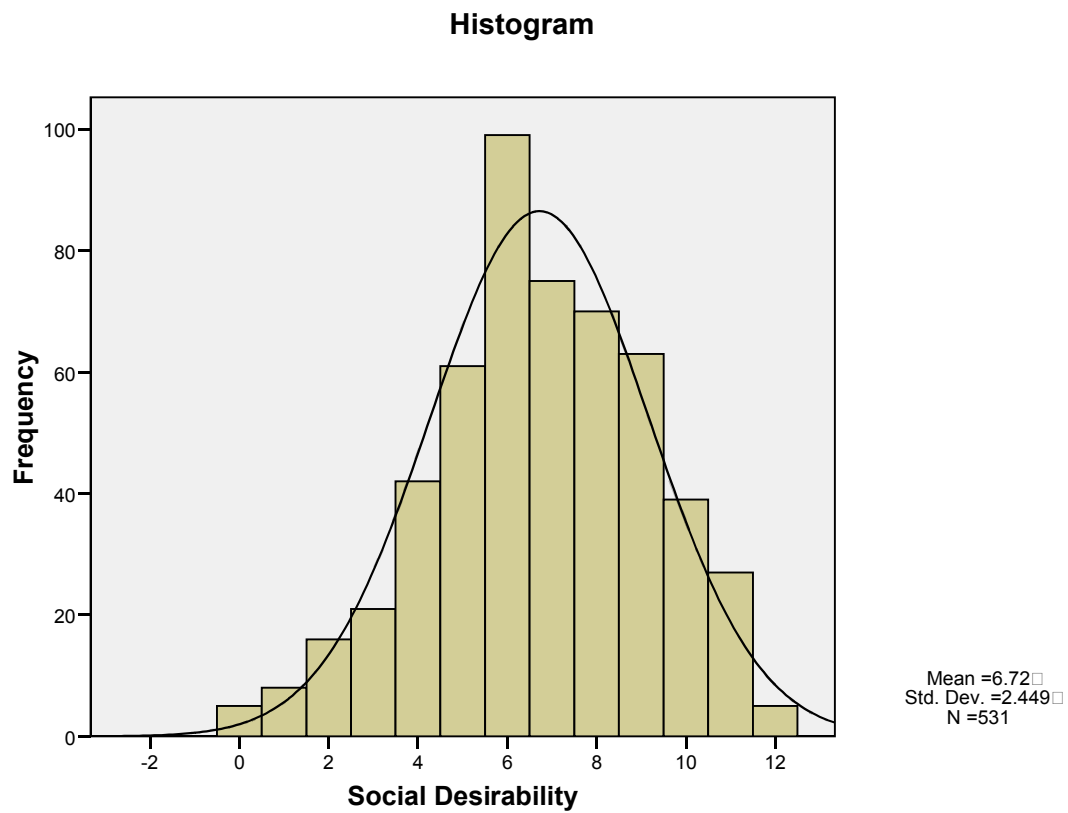


Figure 28. Histogram for social desirability scale.

The Effects of Social Desirability

People have a tendency to over-report or under-report activities that are considered to be socially or culturally desirable or undesirable (Zerbe & Paulhus, 1987; see also DeVilles, 2003; Moorman & Podsakoff, 1992). To determine whether or not the respondents have introduced personal bias in their answers to other inventories (scales), a 12-item personal reaction inventory (scale) was used (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960; McCrae & Costa, 1983; Ray, 1984). A higher score on this social desirability scale (max = 12) indicates that the respondents have introduced some bias in their answers. Conversely, a lower score (min = 0) indicates that the respondents have answered truthfully.

The mean score on social desirability scale ($n = 531$) was 6.72; the mode was 6; the median was 7; and the standard deviation of scores for this scale was 2.49. It is noteworthy that two-thirds of the respondents (74.8%) scored no more than 8 on the social desirability scale (see Table 52). This tells us that the effect of social desirability on respondents' answers to other inventories (scales) was minimal.

Furthermore, the correlation analysis shows that the effect of social desirability bias on respondents concerning the truthfulness of their responses was also minimal, which adds to the validity and reliability of the research findings in this study. However, I need to note that even though the correlation between the social desirability scale and other scales was low (< 0.3), for most scales, this correlation was significant at the .05 level.

Table 52

Descriptive Statistics for the Effects of Social Desirability (n = 531)

Social Desirability Score	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
0	5	.9	.9
1	8	1.5	2.4
2	16	3.0	5.5
3	21	4.0	9.4
4	42	7.9	17.3
5	61	11.5	28.8
6	99	18.6	47.5
7	75	14.1	61.6
8	70	13.2	74.8
9	63	11.9	86.6
10	39	7.3	94.0
11	27	5.1	99.1
12	5	.9	100.0

Note: Minimum score = 0; Maximum score = 12

Summary of the Reliability of Scales

Table 53 presents a summary of Cronbach's Alpha level for all scales. As it can be seen, most of the scales have reached a desirable level of reliability, and all of them have reached at least a minimally acceptable level of reliability of .65 and over, as recommended by social scientists (see DeVellis, 2003; Nunnally, 1978). In summation, this gives us a certain degree of confidence to conclude that the measuring instrument that was used in this study is stable enough to reproduce the same results in repeated trials.

Table 53

Reliability of Scales as Assessed in the Final Study

Scales	Measure (Specific Questions/Items)	Cronbach's Alpha
1. Police Behavior	(i11 to i32)	.938
2. Attitudes toward the Police	(i33 to i63)	.943
3. Crime-Reporting Anonymity	(i64 to i68)	.713
4. Crime-Reporting 1	(i69 to i75, & i79)	.896
5. Crime-Reporting 2	(i80 & i87 to i91)	.874
6. Crime-Reporting 3	(i76 to i78, i81 to i86, & i92)	.942
7. Property Crimes	(i75, i77, & i78)	.759
8. Social Desirability	(i100 to i111)	.655

Note: The specific questions/items listed in this table are presented exactly as they were in the survey questionnaire (see Appendix A). For instance, i11 to i32 represent questions/items 11 to 32 in the survey questionnaire, i33 to i63 represent questions 33 to 63 in the questionnaire, and so on and so forth.

Phase II

Hypotheses Testing

The second phase of the analysis includes testing a number of proposed explanations (hypotheses) or theoretically explained relationships between independent variables and the dependent variable(s). In this phase of the analysis, the main objective is to determine the independent effect that each variable has on the dependent variable and the total effect of all independent variables on the dependent variable. Initially, the effect of each variable on the dependent variable is presented at the bivariate level, then at the multivariate level, a technique which allows us to determine the effect of each independent variable while controlling for the effects of other variables.

The level of statistical significance for accepting each research hypothesis is $p(\text{critical}) < .05$. This means that we will take a 5% chance of making a Type I error. All hypotheses that do not meet this criterion will be rejected. All hypotheses that meet this criterion, on the other hand, will be accepted. If we find empirical evidence that supports a research hypothesis but the p (obtained) value is greater than p (critical) value of .05, then that hypothesis is rejected. Furthermore, the hypotheses that do not reach statistical significance at the multivariate level will also be rejected. This means that if a hypothesis is supported at the bivariate level with statistical significance $p < .05$ but fails to meet this criterion at the multivariate level, it will be rejected. Regardless, the evidence that supports or partially supports a hypothesis will be reported.

Hypotheses about Police Behavior

Hypothesis One

Hypothesis 1 predicted that police misconduct (police behavior) has a negative impact on crime-reporting behavior. Individuals who have been exposed to police misconduct are less willing to report crimes to the police. To test this hypothesis, I used ordinary least square (OLS) regression analysis. In Table 54, the bivariate regression analysis shows that police misconduct (police behavior) has a statistically significant effect [$b = -153$, $F(1, 529) = 59.558$, $p < .001$] on the reporting of less serious crimes (crime-reporting 1), [$b = -.045$, $F(1, 529) = 10.625$, $p < .001$] on the reporting of medium-level crimes (crime-reporting 2), and [$b = -144$, $F(1, 529) = 49.393$, $p < .001$] on the reporting of serious crimes (crime-reporting 3). Thus, using $\alpha = .05$ criteria, we conclude that at the bivariate level there is a statistically significant negative interaction between police behavior and citizens' willingness to report crimes to the police. This means that police misconduct negatively influences crime-reporting behavior. However, the effect of police behavior on crime-reporting behavior did not reach the significance level of $p(\text{critical}) < .05$ at the multivariate level (see Tables 55, 56, and 57). In light of this empirical evidence, hypothesis one is rejected.

Table 54

Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting Behavior on Police Behavior (n = 531)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
Constant (1)	30.191	1.051		
Police Behavior	-.153	.020	-.318	-7.717***
$R^2 = .101$ $R = .318$ $F(1, 529) = 59.558***$				
Constant (2)	24.466	.725		
Police Behavior	-.045	.014	-.140	-3.260***
$R^2 = .020$ $R = .140$ $F(1, 529) = 10.625***$				
Constant (3)	50.335	1.082		
Police Behavior	-.144	.020	-.292	-7.028***
$R^2 = .085$ $R = .292$ $F(1, 529) = 49.393***$				

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. Constant (1) = Crime-reporting 1 (scale for measuring the reporting of less serious crimes). Constant (2) = Crime-reporting 2 (scale for measuring the reporting of medium-level crimes). Constant (3) = Crime-reporting 3 (scale for measuring the reporting of serious crimes).

Multivariate Regression Analyses

In addition to bivariate linear regression analyses, multiple linear regression analyses were used to develop a multivariate model for predicting reporting of less serious crimes (see Table 55), a model for predicting reporting of medium-level crimes (see Table 56), and a model for predicting reporting of serious crimes (see Table 57). The main objective of including these three multivariate models is to test research hypotheses. The idea is to hold constant the effect of all variables in the model to see if the significant effect found at the bivariate level remains or disappears.

Although the existing models presented in Tables 55, 56, and 57 include all available candidates as predictors, it is noteworthy that these models have been simplified. Thus, using the backward elimination procedure, these three multivariate models were modified, leaving them with only those variables that reached the significance level of $p < .05$. All variables that did not contribute to explaining the variability in the dependent variable were discarded. The final modified models are presented in the section titled *Path Analysis* in Phase III of the analyses.

Table 55

Multivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting 1 (Reporting of Less Serious Crimes) on Independent Variables (n = 531)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
Constant (1)	10.040	3.953		
Age	.485	.340	.055	1.425
Gender (Male)	-2.328	.685	-.134	-3.397***
Asian	-4.821	1.762	-.106	-2.736***
Black	-.848	1.010	-.036	-.840**
Other Race	-.315	1.256	-.010	-.251
SES	-.487	.363	-.053	-1.342
Frequency of Contacts	.031	.331	.004	.094
Citizen-Initiated Contacts	2.148	.729	.122	2.945***
Police-Initiated Contacts	.140	.823	.007	.170
Exposure to Media	.516	.380	.054	1.358
Victimization	-.144	1.436	-.007	-.100
Victim of Property Crimes	1.127	.902	.064	1.249
Victim of Crimes A/ Persons	-.238	1.037	-.013	-.229
Fear of Criminal Retaliation	-1.084	.343	-.156	-3.160***
Crime-reporting Anonymity	.036	.117	.015	.308
Police Behavior	-.014	.025	-.028	-.544
Attitudes toward the Police	.147	.022	.382	6.720***
R ² = .287				
R = .535				
F (17, 513) = 12.128***				

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level. *Significance at the .05 level.
Dependent Variable: Crime-Reporting 1 (reporting of less serious crimes).

Table 56

Multivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting 2 (Reporting of Medium-Level Crimes) on Independent Variables (n = 531)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
Constant (2)	17.846	2.199		
Age	.392	.251	.068	1.566
Gender (Male)	-2.122	.504	-.185	-4.206***
Asian	-5.294	1.297	-.176	-4.083***
Black	-.255	.743	-.016	-.343
Other Race	-1.757	.924	-.083	-1.901*
SES	.215	.267	.035	.806
Frequency of Contacts	.212	.244	.040	.868
Citizen-Initiated Contacts	-.789	.537	-.068	-1.470
Police-Initiated Contacts	-.507	.606	-.039	-.837
Exposure to Media	.552	.280	.087	1.974*
Victimization	-.940	1.057	-.070	-.890
Victim of Property Crimes	.501	.664	.043	.755
Victim of Crimes A/ Persons	.871	.763	.074	1.141
Fear of Criminal Retaliation	-.274	.253	-.060	-1.086
Crime-reporting Anonymity	.076	.086	.049	.885
Police Behavior	-.014	.019	-.045	-.774
Attitudes toward the Police	.039	.016	.154	2.437***
R ² = .114				
R = .338				
F (17, 513) = 3.894***				

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level. *Significance at the .05 level.
Dependent Variable: Crime-Reporting 2 (reporting of medium-level crimes)

Table 57

Multivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting 3 (Reporting of Serious Crimes) on Independent Variables (n = 531)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
Constant (3)	40.824	4.211		
Age	.898	.363	.100	2.476**
Gender (Male)	-1.505	.730	-.085	-2.062*
Asian	-9.962	1.877	-.214	-5.308***
Black	-3.751	1.076	-.155	-3.487***
Other Race	-4.023	1.338	-.123	-3.007**
SES	-.162	.387	-.017	-.420
Frequency of Contacts	.568	.353	.069	1.608
Citizen-Initiated Contacts	-.033	.777	-.002	-.043
Police-Initiated Contacts	.288	.877	.015	.329
Exposure to Media	.828	.405	.085	2.047*
Victimization	-1.888	1.530	-.091	-1.234
Victim of Property Crimes	1.483	.961	.083	1.544
Victim of Crimes A/ Persons	1.741	1.105	.095	1.575
Fear of Criminal Retaliation	-1.163	.366	-.163	-3.182***
Crime-reporting Anonymity	.267	.125	.111	2.133*
Police Behavior	-.099	.027	-.202	-3.707***
Attitudes toward the Police	.041	.023	.105	1.765
$R^2 = .223$				
$R = .472$				
$F(17, 513) = 8.646***$				

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level. *Significance at the .05 level.
Dependent Variable: Crime-Reporting 3 (reporting of serious crimes).

Hypothesis Two

Hypothesis 2 predicted that police misconduct (police behavior) has a negative impact on citizens' attitudes toward the police. Individuals who have been exposed to police inappropriate behavior (e.g., the police treated them disrespectfully, the police were rude, verbally abusive, and showed inclination to use force) are more likely to hold

negative attitudes toward the police compared to those who have not been exposed to such police behavior.

To test this hypothesis, I used ordinary least square (OLS) regression analysis. In Table 58, the bivariate regression analysis shows that police behavior has a statistically significant effect on attitudes toward the police. The unstandardized regression coefficient for police behavior is $b = -.843$, $F(1, 529) = 445.751$, $p < .0005$. This means that for every unit increase in police misconduct, we expect a .843 units decrease in the attitudes toward the police score. Or on the reverse interpretation of it (the conversion), this means that it takes a 1.19 ($1/-.843 = -1.19$) units reduction in police misconduct (on a scale of 110 points total) to yield one unit improvement in attitudes toward the police, which is on a 150-point scale. However, I should note that the scales used to measure police behavior and attitudes toward the police do not have a true meaning of zero (they are interval level). Police behavior is measured on a scale of 1 to 5 (x 22 items). A higher score indicates the presence of police misconduct, and a lower score indicates the absence of police misconduct. Attitudes toward the police are also measured on a scale of 1 to 5 (x 30 items). A higher score on the attitude scale indicates positive attitudes toward the police, whereas a lower score indicates more negative attitudes toward the police. In summation, this means that if we reduce police misconduct by 1.19 on a 5-point scale (x 22), we can increase the attitudes toward the police score by one. This tells us that citizens who have experienced police misconduct are more likely to hold negative attitudes toward the police.

Additionally, the explained variation, when taking police behavior into account, is $R^2 = .457$. In general terms, R^2 is the percentage of variance in the dependent variable

that is explained by the independent variable. Thus, when we take police behavior into account, we can explain approximately 45% of the variation in attitudes toward the police. In other words, we reduce the prediction error of attitudes toward the police by approximately 45% when we take police behavior into account. Furthermore, even when controlling for the effect of other variables in the model (see Table 59), police behavior still has a significant negative effect [partial $b = -.687$, $F(14, 516)$, $p < .001$] on citizens' attitudes toward the police.

Table 58

Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Attitudes toward the Police on Police Behavior ($n = 531$)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
Constant	138.362	2.116		
Police Behavior	-.843	.040	-.676	-21.113***

$R^2 = .457$
 $R = .676$
 $F(1, 529) = 445.751***$

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. Dependent Variable: Attitudes toward the Police.

Table 59

Multivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Attitudes toward the Police on Independent Variables (n = 531)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
Constant	146.837	4.545		
Age	.405	.686	.018	.59
Gender (Male)	1.173	1.380	.026	.85
Asian	-2.798	3.536	-.024	-.79
Black	-6.428	1.963	-.105	-3.27***
Other Race	-4.285	2.520	-.051	-1.70
SES	2.624	.720	.110	3.64***
Frequency of Contacts	-.065	.666	-.003	-.09
Citizen-initiated Contacts	3.185	1.462	.070	2.19*
Police-initiated Contacts	-2.168	1.657	-.043	-1.31
Exposure to Media	-.833	.765	-.033	-1.09
Victim of Property crimes	-1.193	1.414	-.026	-.844
Victim of Crimes A/ Persons	-2.213	1.484	-.048	-1.492
Crime-reporting Anonymity	-1.493	.190	-.244	-7.867***
Police Behavior	-.687	.041	-.551	-16.918***

$R^2 = .565$, $F(14, 516) = 47.949***$

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level. *Significance at the .05 level.
Dependent Variable: Attitudes toward the Police

Hypothesis about Attitudes Toward the Police

Hypothesis Three

Hypothesis 3 predicted that individuals who hold positive attitudes toward the police are more likely to report crimes to the police compared to those who hold negative attitudes toward the police. To test hypothesis 3, I used hierarchical regression analysis. Since we are concerned that race/ethnicity might be related to both attitudes toward the police and crime-reporting behavior, it seems more appropriate to place statistical

controls for this effect. In this context, hierarchical regression helps us control the variables that may have shared variability with the predictor, which are attitudes toward the police measured as a construct. The effect of attitudes toward the police on crime-reporting behavior will then be independent of the effect of race since we are controlling for the effect of race.

Race/ethnicity (nominal level variables: Asians, Blacks, and Other Races) were entered in step 1 (or Model 1), explaining 4% of the variation in the reporting of less serious crimes, 4% in the reporting of medium-level crimes, and 11% in the reporting of serious crimes. Attitudes toward the police scale (ATP) was entered in step 2 (or Model 2). After controlling for the influence of race/ethnicity, the R^2 change for crime-reporting 1 was .174, F change (1, 526) = 116.728, $p < .001$. This means that ATP accounted for approximately 17% of the variation on the reporting of less serious crimes (crime-reporting 1, see Table 60). For the reporting of medium-level crimes (crime-reporting 2), the R^2 change was .024, F change (1, 526) = 13.666, $p < .0005$ (see Table 61). And for the reporting of serious crimes (crime-reporting 3), the R^2 change was .041, F change (1, 526) = 25.436, $p < .0005$ (see Table 62). In summation, this means that the influence of attitudes toward the police as a construct is greater for the reporting of less serious crimes (explaining 17% of the variation), but this influence is less pronounced as the seriousness of crime increased, explaining approximately 3% of the variation in the reporting of medium-level crimes, and 4% of the variation in the reporting of serious crimes.

In terms of the direction of the influence of ATP on crime-reporting behavior, the analyses in Tables 60, 61, and 62 show that attitudes toward the police have a positive effect on crime-reporting behavior ($b = .171$ for less serious crimes, $b = .042$ for medium-

level crimes, and $b = .084$ for serious crimes). This means that people who hold positive attitudes toward the police are more likely to report crimes to the police. Conversely, people who hold negative attitudes toward the police are less likely to report crimes to the police. The effects of ATP on three crime-reporting scales reached the statistical significance at $p < .001$. Therefore, the hypothesis about the effect of attitudes on crime-reporting behavior is empirically supported.

Table 60

Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting 1 (Reporting of Less Serious Crimes) on Attitudes toward the Police ($n = 531$)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
<u>Model 1 (control variables)</u>				
Constant (1)	23.570	.436		
Asian	-5.620	1.958	-.123	-2.870**
Black	-3.911	1.023	-.165	-3.822***
Other Race	-2.118	1.387	-.066	-1.527
<u>Model 2 (predictor and control variables)</u>				
Constant (1)	6.423	1.635		
Asian	-4.885	1.774	-.107	-2.753**
Black	-.640	.975	-.027	-.656
Other Race	.000	1.272	.000	.000
ATP	.171	.016	.442	10.804***
Model 1	Model 2	Change		
$R^2 = .040$	$R^2 = .214$	$R^2 = .174$		
$R = .199$	$R = .463$			
$F(3, 527) = 7.245***$	$F(4, 526) = 35.809***$	$F(1, 526) = 116.728***$		

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level. ATP = Attitudes toward the police. Dependent Variable: Constant (1) = Crime-reporting 1 (scale for measuring the reporting of less serious crimes, the dependent variable in this equation).

Table 61

Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting 2 (Reporting of Medium Crimes) on Attitudes toward the Police (n = 531)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
<u>Model 1 (control variables)</u>				
Constant (2)	22.729	.288		
Asian	-5.329	1.294	-.177	-4.119***
Black	-.753	.676	-.048	-1.113
Other Race	-2.063	.917	-.097	-2.250*
<u>Model 2 (predictor and control variables)</u>				
Constant (2)	18.498	1.179		
Asian	-5.148	1.280	-.171	-4.023***
Black	.055	.703	.003	.078
Other Race	-1.540	.917	-.073	-1.679
ATP	.042	.011	.165	3.697***
Model 1	Model 2	Change		
R ² = .038	R ² = .063	R ² = .024		
R = .196	R = .251			
F (3, 527) = 7.020***	F (4, 526) = 35.809***	F (1, 526) = 13.666***		
Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. *Significance at the .05 level. ATP = Attitudes toward the police. Dependent Variable: Constant (2) = Crime-reporting 2 (scale for measuring the reporting of medium-level crimes, the dependent variable in this equation).				

Table 62

Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting 3 (Serious Crimes) on Attitudes toward the Police (n = 531)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
<u>Model 1 (control variables)</u>				
Constant (3)	44.911	.428		
Asian	-10.411	1.925	-.224	-5.410***
Black	-5.747	1.006	-.238	-5.713***
Other Race	-5.221	1.364	-.159	-3.828***
<u>Model 2 (predictor and control variables)</u>				
Constant (3)	36.417	1.735		
Asian	-10.047	1.883	-.216	-5.336***
Black	-4.126	1.034	-.171	-3.988***
Other Race	-4.172	1.349	-.127	-3.092**
ATP	.084	.017	.215	5.043***
Model 1	Model 2	Change		
R ² = .109	R ² = .150	R ² = .041		
R = .330	R = .387			
F (3, 527) = 23.226***	F (4, 526) = 35.809***	F (1, 526) = 25.436***		

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level. ATP = Attitudes toward the police. Dependent Variable: Constant (3) = Crime-reporting 3 (scale for measuring the reporting of serious crimes, the dependent variable in this equation).

Hypothesis about Citizen Interaction with the Police

Hypothesis Four

Hypothesis 4 predicted that individuals who have voluntary (citizen-initiated) contacts with the police are more likely to report crimes to the police compared to those who have involuntary contacts with the police (police-initiated contacts). In other words, citizen-initiated contacts with the police have a positive effect on crime-reporting

behavior, whereas police-initiated contacts have a negative effect on crime-reporting behavior. To test this hypothesis, I used ordinary least square (OLS) regression analysis.

In Table 63, the bivariate regression analysis shows that citizen-initiated contacts have a positive effect on the reporting of less serious crimes [$b = 3.448$, $F(1, 529) = 21.127$, $p < .0005$]; also a positive effect on the reporting of serious crimes [$b = .584$, $F(1, 529) = .559$, $p < .455$], but a negative effect on the reporting of medium-level crimes [$b = -.121$, $F(1, 529) = .058$, $p < .811$]. However, this effect reached statistical significance only for the reporting of less serious crimes. This effect was significant ($p < .001$) at both the bivariate level (see Table 63) and the multivariate level (see Table 55). In this context, the data in Tables 63 and 55 tell us that individuals who have had voluntary (citizen-initiated) contacts with the police are more likely to report less serious crimes to the police compared to those who have had involuntary (police-initiated) contacts. This conclusion, however, does not hold true for the reporting of medium-level and serious crimes. Conversely, the effect of police-initiated contacts was positive for both the reporting of medium-level crimes [$b = .033$, $F(1, 529) = .004$] and serious crimes [$b = 1.689$, $F(1, 529) = 3.847$]. At the bivariate level, this effect was statistically significant only for the reporting of serious crimes [$b = 1.689$, $F(1, 529) = 3.847$, $p < .05$] (see Table 64). At the multivariate level, the effect of police-initiated contacts on the reporting of medium-level crimes [partial $b = -.507$, $F(17, 513) = 3.894$, $p < .403$] (see Table 56) and serious crimes [partial $b = .288$, $F(17, 513) = 8.646$, $p < .742$] (see Table 57) failed to reach the statistical significance of $p < .05$.

Although statistically insignificant, these data tell us that individuals who have had police-initiated contacts are more likely to report medium-level and serious crimes to

the police compared to individuals who have had citizen-initiated contacts with the police. Thus, our hypothesis that police-initiated contacts will have a negative effect on crime-reporting behavior was incorrect. In light of this empirical evidence, hypothesis 4 is rejected since we only found partial support from these data.

Table 63

Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting Behavior on Citizen-Initiated Contacts with the Police (n = 531)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
Constant (1)	20.559	.572		
Citizen-Initiated Contacts	3.448	.750	.196	4.596***
$R^2 = .038$ $R = .196$ $F(1, 529) = 21.127***$				
Constant (2)	22.315	.385		
Citizen-Initiated Contacts	-.121	.505	-.010	-.240
$R^2 = .000$ $R = .010$ $F(1, 529) = .058$				
Constant (3)	42.847	.595		
Citizen-Initiated Contacts	.584	.780	.033	.748
$R^2 = .001$ $R = .033$ $F(1, 529) = .559$				

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level. *Significance at the .05 level. Dependent Variables: Constant (1) = Crime-reporting 1 (scale for measuring the reporting of less serious crimes). Constant (2) = Crime-reporting 2 (scale for measuring the reporting of medium-level crimes). Constant (3) = Crime-reporting 3 (scale for measuring the reporting of serious crimes).

Table 64

Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting Behavior on Police-Initiated Contacts (n = 531)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
Constant (1)	23.062	.722		
Police-Initiated Contacts	-.684	.846	-.035	-.808
$R^2 = .001$ $R = .035$ $F(1, 529) = .653$				
Constant (2)	22.221	.477		
Police-Initiated Contacts	.033	.559	.003	.059
$R^2 = .000$ $R = .003$ $F(1, 529) = .004$				
Constant (3)	41.959	.734		
Police-Initiated Contacts	1.689	.861	.085	1.961*
$R^2 = .007$ $R = .085$ $F(1, 529) = 3.847^*$				

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level. *Significance at the .05 level.
 Dependent Variables: Constant (1) = Crime-reporting 1 (scale for measuring the reporting of less serious crimes). Constant (2) = Crime-reporting 2 (scale for measuring the reporting of medium-level crimes). Constant (3) = Crime-reporting 3 (scale for measuring the reporting of serious crimes).

Hypothesis Five

Hypothesis 5 predicted that citizen-initiated contacts with the police are more likely to have a positive effect on attitudes toward the police compared to police-initiated contacts. The bivariate regression analysis in Table 65 shows that this hypothesis is partially supported. As predicted, empirical evidence suggests that police-initiated contacts have a negative effect on citizens' attitudes toward the police [$b = -3.126$, $F(1, 529) = 2.036$, $p < .154$]. This means that people who have had police-initiated contacts are more likely to display negative attitudes toward the police compared to those who have not had such contacts. The effect of police-initiated contacts on attitudes toward the police, however, did not reach the significance level at the bivariate level. Additionally, even when controlling for the effect of other variables (e.g., demographic variables, frequency of contacts, crime-reporting anonymity, and police behavior, see Table 59), police-initiated contacts [partial $b = -2.168$, $F(14, 516) = 47.949$, $p < .191$] failed to reach the specified minimum significance level of $p < .05$ in this study. Citizen-initiated contacts, on the other hand, produced a positive effect on attitudes toward the police [$b = 4.74$, $F(1, 529) = 5.797$, $p < .016$]. This means that people who have had voluntary (citizen-initiated) contacts with the police are more likely to display positive attitudes toward the police. This effect is statistically significant $p < .05$ at both the bivariate level (see Table 65) and the multivariate level (see Table 59). In light of this evidence, hypothesis 5 is partially supported. However, a partially supported hypothesis does not qualify for the acceptance of that hypothesis. Based on this criterion, hypothesis 5 is rejected.

Table 65

Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Attitudes toward the police on Police-Citizen Encounters (n = 531)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
<u>Citizen-Initiated Contacts</u>				
Constant	93.586	1.504		
Citizen-Initiated Contacts	4.748	1.972	.104	2.408*
R ² = .011				
F (1, 529) = 5.797*				
<u>Police-Initiated Contacts</u>				
Constant	98.621	1.868		
Police-Initiated Contacts	-3.126	2.191	-.062	-1.427
R ² = .004				
F (1, 529) = 2.036				
Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level. *Significance at the .05 level.				
Dependent Variable: Attitudes toward the Police.				

Hypothesis Six

Hypothesis 6 predicted that individuals who have more frequent contacts with the police are less likely to report crimes to the police. In other words, as the frequency of contacts with the police increases, willingness to report crimes to the police decreases. To test this hypothesis, I used ordinary least square (OLS) regression analysis.

The data in the current study did not support this hypothesis. In fact, findings of this study show quite the opposite direction of the relationship between the frequency of contacts and crime-reporting behavior. The bivariate regression analysis in Table 66 shows that frequency of contacts with the police has a positive effect on all three crime-reporting measures. However, except for the reporting of serious crimes [$b = .803$, $F(1,$

529) = 5.144, $p < .024$], the effect of frequency of contacts with the police did not reach the significance level of $p < .05$; a criterion used to accept or reject research hypotheses in this study. At the multivariate level (see Tables 55, 56, and 57), the effect of the frequency of contacts with the police on all three crime-reporting measures failed to reach the minimum significance level of $p < .05$. Therefore, hypothesis 6 is rejected.

Table 66

Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting Behavior on Frequency of Contacts with the Police (n = 531)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
Constant (1)	22.217	.530		
Frequency of Contacts	.326	.348	.041	.936
$R^2 = .002$ $R = .041$ $F(1, 529) = .876$				
Constant (2)	22.057	.350		
Frequency of Contacts	.176	.230	.033	.763
$R^2 = .001$ $R = .033$ $F(1, 529) = .582$				
Constant (3)	42.329	.538		
Frequency of Contacts	.803	.354	.098	2.268*
$R^2 = .010$ $R = .098$ $F(1, 529) = 5.144^*$				

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level. *Significance at the .05 level. Dependent Variables: Constant (1) = Crime-reporting 1 (scale for measuring the reporting of less serious crimes). Constant (2) = Crime-reporting 2 (scale for measuring the reporting of medium-level crimes). Constant (3) = Crime-reporting 3 (scale for measuring the reporting of serious crimes).

Hypothesis Seven

Hypothesis 7 predicted that individuals who have been more often exposed to media about police misconduct are less likely to report crimes to the police. Interestingly enough, the bivariate regression analysis in Table 67 shows that exposure to media about police misconduct did not reach the minimum significance level of $p < .05$ when measured against any of the three crime-reporting measures. However, when introducing new variables (see Tables 56 and 57), exposure to media significantly affected the reporting of medium-level crimes [partial $b = .552$, $F(17, 513) = 3.894$, $p < .04$] and the reporting of serious crimes [partial $b = .828$, $F(17, 513) = 8.646$, $p < .04$]. This also tells us that at the multivariate level, exposure to media has a positive and statistically significant effect on crime-reporting behavior (for the reporting of medium-level and serious crimes). At the bivariate level, however, exposure to media has a negative effect on the reporting of less serious crimes ($b = -.399$) and serious crimes ($b = -.150$), but it has a positive effect on the reporting of medium-level crimes ($b = .313$). Regardless of these effects, this hypothesis did not reach the acceptance criteria since we only found partial support from these data. As such, this hypothesis is rejected.

Table 67

Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting Behavior on Media Exposure (n = 531)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
Constant (1)	23.670	1.215		
Exposure to Media	-.399	.417	-.042	-.956
$R^2 = .002$ $R = .042$ $F(1, 529) = .915$				
Constant (2)	21.378	.802		
Exposure to Media	.313	.275	.049	1.137
$R^2 = .002$ $R = .049$ $F(1, 529) = 1.293$				
Constant (3)	43.603	1.241		
Exposure to Media	-.150	.426	-.015	-.353
$R^2 = .000$ $R = .015$ $F(1, 529) = .125$				

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level. *Significance at the .05 level.
 Dependent Variables: Constant (1) = Crime-reporting 1 (scale for measuring the reporting of less serious crimes). Constant (2) = Crime-reporting 2 (scale for measuring the reporting of medium-level crimes). Constant (3) = Crime-reporting 3 (scale for measuring the reporting of serious crimes).

Hypotheses about Citizens' Demographic Characteristics

Hypothesis Eight

Hypothesis 8 predicted that, by gender, females are more likely to report crimes to the police compared to males. To test this hypothesis, I used OLS regression analysis. The hypothesis about gender effect on crime-reporting behavior is partially supported in this study. The data presented in Table 68 show that at the bivariate level, there is a significant difference between males and females in crime-reporting behavior. This difference, however, is significant only for the reporting of less serious and medium-level crimes. At the multivariate analysis, on the other hand, gender has a statistically significant effect on all three crime-reporting measures (see Tables 55, 56, and 57).

In general, the data suggest that females are more likely to report less serious crimes [$b = -2.452$, $F(1, 529) = 10.727$, $p < .0005$], medium-level crimes [$b = -2.018$, $F(1, 529) = 16.843$, $p < .0005$], and serious crimes [$b = -1.227$, $F(1, 529) = 2.542$, $p < .111$]. Furthermore, since gender is coded 0/1 (0 = Female and 1 = Male), then this means the more feminine one is (the less masculine one is) the higher the willingness to report crime to the police would be, in absolute terms.

However, since gender failed to reach the significance level $p(\text{critical}) < .05$ for the reporting of serious crimes at the bivariate level, the hypothesis about gender is rejected. It is noteworthy that gender becomes a significant factor for the reporting of all types of crimes (e.g., less serious crimes, medium-level crimes, and serious crimes) when controlling for the influence of other variables in the model.

Table 68

Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting Behavior on Gender (n = 531)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
Constant (1)	23.710	.512		
Gender (Male)	-2.452	.749	-.141	-3.275***
$R^2 = .020$ $R = .141$ $F(1, 529) = 10.727***$				
Constant (2)	23.187	.336		
Gender (Male)	-2.018	.492	-.176	-4.104***
$R^2 = .031$ $R = .176$ $F(1, 529) = 16.843***$				
Constant (3)	43.760	.526		
Gender (Male)	-1.227	.770	-.069	-1.594
$R^2 = .005$ $R = .069$ $F(1, 529) = 2.542$				

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. Constant (1) = Crime-reporting 1 (scale for measuring the reporting of less serious crimes). Constant (2) = Crime-reporting 2 (scale for measuring the reporting of medium-level crimes). Constant (3) = Crime-reporting 3 (scale for measuring the reporting of serious crimes).

Hypothesis Nine

Hypothesis 9 predicted that, by race, blacks are more likely to hold negative attitudes toward the police compared to whites. To test hypothesis 9, a two-factor between-groups analysis of variance was conducted (see Tables 69 and 70). The subjects were divided into six groups according to their race (group 1: Asians; group 2: Blacks, group 3: Latinos; group 4: Native Americans; group 5: Whites; and group 6: Others and Biracials or Multiracials). A two-factor analysis of variance (Table 69) shows that the mean responses for all racial groups were not the same. As hypothesized, the mean responses for blacks and whites were not the same either. The Post-Hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test (Table 70) indicates that the mean score for blacks ($M = 81.38$, $SD = 98.789$, $p < .0005$) was significantly lower than the mean score for whites ($M = 100.57$, $SD = 21.996$, $p < .0005$). A lower mean score indicates more negative attitudes toward the police, whereas a higher mean score indicates more favorable attitudes toward the police. This tells us that when looking within racial groups, blacks are more likely to hold negative attitudes toward the police compared to whites, and this difference is statistically significant at $p < .001$ level. Furthermore, when comparing whites and other racial/ethnic groups, the data in Tables 69 and 70 suggest that the differences in mean scores were not statistical significant at $p < .05$, except for the “others” category (e.g., Asians [$M = 96.25$, $SD = 13.022$, $p < .951$], Latinos [$M = 88.86$, $SD = 24.079$, $p < .705$], Native Americans [$M = 87.50$, $SD = 13.435$, $p < .955$], and Others [$M = 12.53$, $SD = 3.878$, $p < .016$]). In light of this empirical evidence, hypothesis 9 is accepted.

Table 69

Two-Factor ANOVA for the Attitudes toward the Police as a Function of Race/Ethnicity (n = 531)

Variables	n	Mean	Std. Deviation
Asian	20	96.25	13.022
Black	85	81.38	19.789
Latino	7	88.86	24.079
Native Americans	2	87.50	13.435
White	384	100.57	21.996
Others	33	88.03	21.534
Total	531	96.35	22.513

Note: $R^2 = .107$ (Adjusted $R^2 = .098$). Dependent Variable: Attitudes toward the Police.

Table 70

Post-Hoc Comparisons Using the Tukey HSD Test Comparing Whites and all other Racial/Ethnic Groups (n = 531)

Variables		Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Race I	vs. Race II			
Whites	Asians	4.32	4.903	.951
	Blacks	19.19	2.562	.000
	Latinos	11.71	8.153	.705
	Native Americans	13.07	15.155	.955
	Others	12.53	3.878	.016

Note: Dependent Variable: Attitudes toward the Police.

Hypothesis Ten

Hypothesis 10 predicted that blacks are more likely to report crimes to the police compared to whites. To test hypotheses 10, a two-factor between-groups analysis of variance was conducted (see Tables 71 and 72). Again the subjects were divided into six groups according to their race (group 1: Asians; group 2: Blacks, group 3: Latinos; group 4: Native Americans; group 5: Whites; and group 6: Others and Biracials or Multiracials). A two-factor analysis of variance (Table 71) shows that the mean scores for blacks and whites are not the same for all three crime-reporting measures. Additionally, the Post-Hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test (Table 72) indicates that the mean score for blacks ($M = 19.66$, $SD = 9.154$, $p < .0005$) was significantly lower than the mean score for whites ($M = 23.57$, $SD = 8.401$) for the reporting of less serious crimes. This means that blacks are less likely to report less serious crimes to the police. For the reporting of serious crimes, the mean score for blacks ($M = 39.16$, $SD = 9.921$, $p < .0005$) was also significantly lower than the mean score for whites ($M = 44.91$, $SD = 6.994$). This tells us that blacks are also less likely to report serious crimes to the police compared to whites. The difference in mean scores for the reporting of medium-level crimes, on the other hand, did not reach statistical significance ($p < .265$).

The data in Tables 71 and 72 tell us that blacks, in general, are less likely to report crimes to the police. Thus, our initial hypothesis that blacks are more likely to report crimes to the police was incorrect. Since the difference between blacks and whites did not reach statistical significance for at least one of the three crime-reporting measures, and yet we found evidence to the contrary of our initial hypothesis, hypothesis 10 is rejected.

Table 71

Two- Factor ANOVA for Crime-Reporting Behavior as a Function of Race/Ethnicity (n = 531)

Variables	n	Mean	Std. Deviation
<u>Crime-Reporting 1</u>			
Asian	20	17.95	7.141
Black	85	19.66	9.154
Latino	7	23.29	6.237
Native Americans	2	22.00	8.485
White	384	23.57	8.401
Others	33	21.03	9.729
Total	531	22.56	8.686
<u>Crime-Reporting 2</u>			
Asian	20	17.40	5.826
Black	85	21.98	6.736
Latino	7	20.14	8.071
Native Americans	2	28.50	.707
White	385	22.73	5.070
Others	33	20.30	7.804
Total	531	22.24	5.737
<u>Crime-Reporting 3</u>			
Asian	20	34.50	12.996
Black	85	39.16	9.921
Latino	7	38.86	15.148
Native Americans	2	49.50	.707
White	385	44.91	6.994
Others	33	39.27	12.885
Total	531	43.19	8.864

Note: Crime-Reporting 1 = Measure of the reporting of less serious crimes. Crime-Reporting 2 = Measure of the reporting of medium-level crimes. Crime-Reporting 3 = Measure of the reporting of serious crimes.

Table 72

Post-Hoc Comparisons Using the Tukey HSD Test Comparing Whites and all other Racial/Ethnic Groups (n = 531)

Variables		Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Race I	vs. Race II			
<u>Crime-Reporting 1</u>				
Whites	Asians	5.62	1.961	.004
	Blacks	3.91	1.025	.000
	Latinos	.28	3.261	.930
	Native Americans	1.57	6.061	.796
	Others	2.54	1.551	.102
<u>Crime-Reporting 2</u>				
Whites	Asians	5.33	1.291	.000
	Blacks	.75	.675	.265
	Latinos	2.59	2.147	.229
	Native Americans	-5.77	3.992	.149
	Others	2.43	1.021	.018
<u>Crime-Reporting 3</u>				
Whites	Asians	10.41	1.923	.000
	Blacks	5.75	1.005	.000
	Latinos	6.05	3.198	.059
	Native Americans	-4.59	5.944	.440
	Others	5.64	1.521	.000

Note: Crime-Reporting 1 = Measure of the reporting of less serious crimes. Crime-Reporting 2 = Measure of the reporting of medium-level crimes. Crime-Reporting 3 = Measure of the reporting of serious crimes.

Hypothesis Eleven

Hypothesis 11 predicted that people of higher socio-economic status (e.g., middle-class, upper middle-class, and the rich) are more likely to report crimes to the police compared to individuals of lower socio-economic status (e.g., lower middle-class and the poor). The bivariate analyses in Table 73 indicate that socio-economic status has a positive effect on crime-reporting behavior. However, the data in Table 73 indicate that the effect of SES on crime-reporting behavior did not reach statistical significance ($p < .583$ for predicting the reporting of less serious crimes, $p < .539$ for predicting medium-level crimes, and $p < .650$ for predicting serious crimes). Even after controlling for the effect of other variables at the multivariate analysis, SES appeared to be insignificant in predicting crime-reporting behavior. The multivariate regression analyses in Tables 55, 56, and 57 show that when controlling for the effect of other variables in the model, SES has a negative effect on the reporting of less serious crimes [partial $b = -.487$, $F(17, 513) = 12.128$, $p < .180$], a positive effect on the reporting of medium-level crimes [partial $b = .215$, $F(17, 513) = 3.894$, $p < .421$], and a negative effect on the reporting of serious crimes [partial $b = -.162$, $F(17, 513) = 8.646$, $p < .675$]. Since the effect of SES on crime-reporting behavior is in disagreement with the initial hypothesis and yet it did not reach the significance level of $p < .05$ in the bivariate level or the multivariate level, hypothesis 11 is rejected.

Table 73

Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting Behavior on Socio-Economic Status (n = 531)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
Constant (1)	21.930	1.218		
Socio-Economic Status	.220	.400	.024	.549
$R^2 = .001$ $R = .024$ $F(1, 529) = .301$				
Constant (2)	21.774	.804		
Socio-Economic Status	.162	.264	.027	.615
$R^2 = .001$ $R = .027$ $F(1, 529) = .378$				
Constant (3)	42.650	1.243		
Socio-Economic Status	.185	.408	.020	.454
$R^2 = .000$ $R = .020$ $F(1, 529) = .206$				

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level. *Significance at the .05 level.
 Dependent Variables: Constant (1) = Crime-reporting 1 (scale for measuring the reporting of less serious crimes). Constant (2) = Crime-reporting 2 (scale for measuring the reporting of medium-level crimes). Constant (3) = Crime-reporting 3 (scale for measuring the reporting of serious crimes).

Hypothesis Twelve

Hypothesis 12 predicted that people of higher socio-economic status (e.g., middle-class, upper middle-class, and the rich) are more likely to report property crimes to the police compared to individuals of lower socio-economic status (e.g., lower middle-class and the poor). The bivariate regression analysis in Table 74 shows that SES has a

positive effect on the reporting of property crimes [$b = .153$, $F(1, 529) = 1.157$, $p < .283$]. This means that an increase of one unit in socio-economic status (i.e., from poor to lower middle-class or from lower middle-class to middle-class) produces an average linear contribution of .153 units increase in the reporting of property crimes to the police. In other words, this tells us that an increase in the socio-economic status is followed by an increase in willingness to report property crimes to the police. However, the hypothesis about the positive effect of SES on the reporting of property crimes is rejected since this effect did not reach statistical significance.

Table 74

Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting Behavior for Property Crimes on Socio-Economic Status ($n = 531$)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
Constant	10.240	.433		
Socio-Economic Status	.153	.142	.047	1.076

$R^2 = .002$
 $R = .047$
 $F(1, 529) = 1.157$

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level. *Significance at the .05 level. Dependent Variable: Willingness to Report Property Crimes.

Hypothesis about Crime-Reporting Anonymity

Hypothesis Thirteen

Hypothesis 13 predicted that individuals who prefer to remain anonymous when calling the police are less likely to report crimes to the police compared to those who are not concerned with their anonymity. In other words, the desire to remain anonymous has

a negative effect on crime-reporting behavior. As predicted, the bivariate analyses in Table 75 indicate that crime-reporting anonymity generally has a negative effect on crime-reporting behavior. When categorized by the severity of crimes, the data in the present study show that crime-reporting anonymity has a negative and statistically significant effect on both the reporting of less serious crimes [$b = -.599$, $F(1, 529) = 36.285$, $p < .001$] and the reporting of serious crimes [$b = -.302$, $F(1, 529) = 8.445$, $p < .01$]. The effect of crime-reporting anonymity on crime-reporting behavior did not reach the statistical significance for the reporting of medium-level crimes ($p < .143$). Moreover, at the multivariate level (see Tables 55, 56, and 57), crime-reporting anonymity failed to reach statistical significance for the reporting of less serious crimes [partial $b = .036$, $F(17, 513) = 12.128$, $p < .758$] and the reporting of medium-level crimes [partial $b = -.076$, $F(17, 513) = 3.894$, $p < .377$]; it only reached the significance level for the reporting of serious crimes [partial $b = .267$, $F(17, 513) = 8.646$, $p < .01$]. Additionally, as it can be seen, when controlling for the effect of other variables in the model, the effect of crime-reporting anonymity on crime-reporting behavior changes from negative to positive. Therefore, our initial hypothesis about the negative effect of crime-reporting anonymity on crime-reporting behavior was incorrect. Since the effect of crime-reporting anonymity failed to reach the significance level of $p(\text{critical}) < .05$ for at least two crime-reporting measures at the multivariate level, hypothesis 13 is rejected.

Table 75

Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting Behavior on Crime-Reporting Anonymity (n = 531)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
Constant (1)	30.405	1.352		
Crime-Reporting Anonymity	-.599	.099	-.253	-6.024***
$R^2 = .064$ $R = .253$ $F(1, 529) = 36.285***$				
Constant (2)	23.546	.921		
Crime-Reporting Anonymity	-.099	.068	-.064	-1.468
$R^2 = .004$ $R = .064$ $F(1, 529) = 2.155$				
Constant (3)	47.145	1.415		
Crime-Reporting Anonymity	-.302	.104	-.125	-2.906**
$R^2 = .016$ $R = .125$ $F(1, 529) = 8.445**$				

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level. *Significance at the .05 level.
 Dependent Variables: Constant (1) = Crime-reporting 1 (scale for measuring the reporting of less serious crimes). Constant (2) = Crime-reporting 2 (scale for measuring the reporting of medium-level crimes). Constant (3) = Crime-reporting 3 (scale for measuring the reporting of serious crimes).

Hypothesis Fourteen

Hypothesis 14 predicted that individuals who prefer to remain anonymous when calling the police are more likely to hold negative attitudes toward the police compared to those who are not concerned with their anonymity. This hypothesis was tested by using the OLS regression analysis. The bivariate regression analysis in Table 76 shows that the

desire to remain anonymous when calling the police has a negative and statistically significant effect on attitudes toward the police [$b = -2.579$, $F(1, 529) = 113.908$, $p < .0005$]. This means that for every unit increase in anonymity (in the desire to remain anonymous scale), we expect a 2.579 units decrease in the attitudes toward the police score. In other words, for individuals who are concerned with anonymity, the predicted attitudes toward the police score would be 2.579 lower than for those who are not concerned with anonymity when calling the police. A lower attitude score indicates more negative attitudes toward the police. Even when holding other variables constant, the effect of anonymity on attitudes toward the police remains a significant factor [partial $b = -1.493$, $F(14, 516) = 47.949$, $p < .0005$] (see Table 59). The data in the present study support this hypothesis at both the bivariate level and the multivariate level.

Table 76

Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Attitudes toward the Police on Crime-Reporting Anonymity ($n = 531$)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
Constant	130.106	3.285		
Crime-Reporting Anonymity	-2.579	.242	-.421	-10.673***

$R^2 = .177$

$R = .421$

$F(1, 529) = 113.908***$

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. Dependent Variable: Attitudes toward the police

Hypothesis Fifteen

Hypothesis 15 predicted that individuals who witness crimes and that are aware that the criminals had seen them or recognized them as potential witnesses are less likely to report crimes to the police compared to those who witness crimes but remain unidentified by the criminals. In other words, if a person witnesses an offender committing a crime and the offender recognizes that witness, he/she (the witness) is less likely to call the police to report that crime. Negatively, it is hypothesized that crime-reporting will be affected because of fear of criminal retaliation. This means that fear of criminal retaliation has a negative effect on crime-reporting behavior. The bivariate analysis in Table 77 confirmed that fear of criminal retaliation has a negative and statistically significant effect on all three crime-reporting measures. At the multivariate level, however, fear of criminal retaliation did not reach the statistical significance for the reporting of medium-level crimes [partial $b = -.274$, $F(17, 513) = 3.894$, $p < .278$] (see Tables 56). The negative relationship between fear of criminal retaliation and all three crime-reporting measures remains unchanged at the multivariate level (see Tables 55, 56, and 57). In summation, although we found support at the bivariate level in favor of this hypothesis, at the multivariate level, we found only partial support. Therefore, hypothesis 15 is rejected.

Table 77

Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting Behavior on Fear of Criminal Retaliation (n = 531)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
Constant (1)	27.888	.803		
Fear of Criminal Retaliation	-2.138	.289	-.307	-7.410***
$R^2 = .094$ $R = .307$ $F(1, 529) = 54.907***$				
Constant (2)	23.379	.555		
Fear of Criminal Retaliation	-.455	.199	-.199	-2.286*
$R^2 = .010$ $R = .099$ $F(1, 529) = 5.226^*$				
Constant (3)	47.346	.837		
Fear of Criminal Retaliation	-1.671	.301	-.235	-5.556***
$R^2 = .055$ $R = .235$ $F(1, 529) = 30.871***$				

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level. *Significance at the .05 level.
 Dependent Variables: Constant (1) = Crime-reporting 1 (scale for measuring the reporting of less serious crimes). Constant (2) = Crime-reporting 2 (scale for measuring the reporting of medium-level crimes). Constant (3) = Crime-reporting 3 (scale for measuring the reporting of serious crimes).

Hypothesis about Prior Victimization

Hypothesis Sixteen

Hypothesis 16 predicted that individuals who have been previously victimized by crime (regardless of the type of crime, e.g., property crime or crimes against persons) are more likely to report victimization events or witnessed crimes to the police compared to those who have not been victimized by crime. In other words, prior victimization has a positive effect on crime-reporting behavior. To evaluate the effect of prior victimization on crime-reporting behavior, I used a one-factor between-groups analysis of variance. The analyses in Table 78 show that those who had been previously victimized by crime were slightly more likely to report less serious crimes ($M = 23.28$, $SD = 8.516$, $p < .284$) compared to those who have not been previously victimized by crime ($M = 22.34$, $SD = 8.739$). Additionally, prior victimization had a positive effect on the reporting of medium-level crimes ($M = 22.52$, $SD = 5.632$, $p < .533$) and serious crimes ($M = 43.42$, $SD = 9.186$, $p < .733$). However, the mean differences in crime-reporting behavior for those victimized by crime and those not victimized by crime were statistically insignificant. Therefore, hypothesis 16 is rejected.

Table 78

One-Factor ANOVA: Comparing Means for Those Who Have Been Victimized and Those Who Have Not Been Victimized for Both Property & Crimes Against Persons (n = 531)

Variable	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error of Mean
<u>Crime-Reporting</u>				
Victimized	129	23.28	8.516	.750
Not victimized	402	22.34	8.739	.436
Total	531	22.65	8.686	.377
Eta ² = .002 Eta = .047 F (1, 529) = 1.152, Sig. = .284				
<u>Crime-Reporting 2</u>				
Victimized	129	22.52	5.632	.496
Not victimized	402	22.16	5.774	.288
Total	531	22.24	5.737	.249
Eta ² = .001 Eta = .027 F (1, 529) = .390, Sig. = .533				
<u>Crime-Reporting 3</u>				
Victimized	129	43.42	9.186	.809
Not victimized	402	43.11	8.769	.437
Total	531	43.19	8.864	.385
Eta ² = .000 Eta = .015 F (1, 529) = 117, Sig. = .733				

Note: Dependent Variables: Constant (1) = Crime-reporting 1 (scale for measuring the reporting of less serious crimes). Constant (2) = Crime-reporting 2 (scale for measuring the reporting of medium-level crimes). Constant (3) = Crime-reporting 3 (scale for measuring the reporting of serious crimes).

Hypothesis Seventeen

Hypothesis 17 predicted that individuals who have been victims of property crimes are more likely to report victimization events or witnessed crimes to the police compared to those who have not been victims of property crimes. This hypothesis has not been supported by the data in this study at either the bivariate level (Table 79) or the multivariate level (see Tables 55, 56, and 57). It is noteworthy that the data in this study suggest that being a victim of property crime has a positive effect on the reporting of less serious crimes [$b = .016$, $F(1, 529) = .000$, $p < .983$] and the reporting of serious crimes [$b = .186$, $F(1, 529) = .057$, $p < .811$], but a negative effect on the reporting of medium-level crimes [$b = -.262$, $F(1, 529) = .272$, $p < .602$]. Regardless of the positive or negative directions of the relationship, hypothesis 17 is rejected since it failed to reach the specified statistical significance of $p(\text{critical}) < .05$.

Table 79

Bivariate Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting Behavior on Prior Victimization (for Property Crimes) (n = 531)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
Constant (1)	22.556	.571		
Victim of Property Crime	.016	.761	.001	.021
$R^2 = .000$ $R = .001$ $F(1, 529) = .000$				
Constant (2)	22.392	.377		
Victim of Property Crime	-.262	.502	-.023	-.521
$R^2 = .001$ $R = .023$ $F(1, 529) = .272$				
Constant (3)	43.082	.582		
Victim of Property Crime	.186	.776	.010	.239
$R^2 = .000$ $R = .010$ $F(1, 529) = .057$				

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level. *Significance at the .05 level.
 Dependent Variables: Constant (1) = Crime-reporting 1 (scale for measuring the reporting of less serious crimes). Constant (2) = Crime-reporting 2 (scale for measuring the reporting of medium-level crimes). Constant (3) = Crime-reporting 3 (scale for measuring the reporting of serious crimes).

Hypothesis Eighteen

Hypothesis 18 predicted that when controlling for socio-economic status, individuals who have been victims of crimes against persons are less likely to report victimization events or witnessed crimes to the police compared to individuals who have not been victims of crimes against persons. To test hypothesis 18, I used hierarchical

regression analysis. Since we were concerned that socio-economic status might be related to both prior victimization and crime-reporting behavior, it seemed more appropriate to place statistical controls for this effect. Thus, the effect of prior victimization on crime-reporting behavior is independent of the effect of SES.

The socio-economic status was entered in step 1 (or Model 1), explaining only 0.1% of the variation in the reporting of less serious crimes, 0.1% in the reporting of medium-level crimes, and 0% in the reporting of serious crimes. Prior victimization was entered in step 2 (or Model 2). After controlling for the influence of socio-economic status, the R^2 change for crime-reporting 1 was .009, F change (1, 528) = 4.561, $p < .05$. This means that prior victimization accounted for approximately 1% of the variation on the reporting of less serious crimes (crime-reporting 1, see Table 80). For the reporting of medium-level crimes (crime-reporting 2), the R^2 change was .000, F change (1, 528) = .191, $p < .663$ (Table 81). And for the reporting of serious crimes (crime-reporting 3), the R^2 change was .000, F change (1, 528) = .129, $p < .720$ (see Table 82). This means that the influence of prior victimization is greater for the reporting of less serious crimes (explaining 1% of the variation), but this influence tends to decrease as the seriousness of crime increased, explaining approximately 0% of the variation in the reporting of medium-level crimes and 0% of the variation in the reporting of serious crimes.

In terms of the direction of the influence of prior victimization on crime-reporting behavior, the analyses in Tables 80, 81, and 82 show that prior victimization has a negative effect on crime-reporting behavior ($b = -1.655$ for less serious crimes, $b = -.224$ for medium-level crimes, and $b = -.285$ for serious crimes). This means that people who have previously been victims of crimes against persons are less likely to report crimes to

the police. Conversely, people who have not previously been victims of crimes against persons are more likely to report crimes to the police. However, the effects of prior victimization (for victims of crimes against persons) on crime-reporting behavior reached statistical significance of $p < .05$ only for the reporting of less serious crimes. On the other hand, being a victim of crimes against persons did not have a statistically significant effect on the reporting of medium-level crimes and serious crimes. Therefore, hypothesis 18 is rejected.

Table 80

Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting 1 on Prior Victimization (for Crimes Against Persons) (n = 531)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
<u>Model 1 (control variables)</u>				
Constant (1)	21.930	1.218		
Socio-Economic Status	.220	.400	.024	.549
<u>Model 2 (predictor and control variables)</u>				
Constant (1)	23.930	1.322		
Socio-Economic Status	.187	.399	.020	.468
Victim of Crimes A/ Person	-1.655	.775	-.093	-2.136*
Model 1	Model 2	Change		
$R^2 = .001$	$R^2 = .009$	$R^2 = .009$		
$R = .024$	$R = .096$			
$F(1, 529) = .301$	$F(2, 528) = 2.432$	$F(1, 528) = 4.561^*$		

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level. *Significance at the .05 level. Dependent Variables: Constant (1) = Crime-reporting 1 (scale for measuring the reporting of less serious crimes).

Table 81

Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting 2 on Prior Victimization (for Crimes Against Persons) (n = 531)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
<u>Model 1 (control variables)</u>				
Constant (2)	21.774	.804		
Socio-Economic Status	.162	.264	.027	.615
<u>Model 2 (predictor and control variables)</u>				
Constant (2)	21.926	.877		
Socio-Economic Status	.158	.265	.026	.597
Victim of Crimes A/ Person	-.224	.514	-.019	-.019
Model 1	Model 2	Change		
R ² = .001	R ² = .001	R ² = .000		
R = .027	R = .033			
F (1, 529) = .378	F (2, 528) = .284	F (1, 528) = .191		

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level. *Significance at the .05 level.
Dependent Variables: Constant (2) = Crime-reporting 2 (scale for measuring the reporting of medium-level crimes).

Table 82

Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Regressing Crime-Reporting 3 on Prior Victimization (for Crimes Against Persons) (n = 531)

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
<u>Model 1 (control variables)</u>				
Constant (3)	42.650	1.243		
Socio-Economic Status	.185	.408	.020	.454
<u>Model 2 (predictor and control variables)</u>				
Constant (3)	42.843	1.355		
Socio-Economic Status	.180	.409	.019	.439
Victim of Crimes A/ Person	-.285	.794	-.016	-.359
Model 1	Model 2	Change		
$R^2 = .000$	$R^2 = .001$	$R^2 = .000$		
$R = .020$	$R = .025$			
$F(1, 529) = .206$	$F(2, 528) = .167$	$F(1, 528) = .129$		

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level. *Significance at the .05 level.
 Dependent Variables: Constant (3) = Crime-reporting 3 (scale for measuring the reporting of serious crimes).

Phase III

Path Analysis

Phase III of the analysis is an extension of Phase II. This phase includes testing a number of theoretical causal models that have been developed based on the review of the existing literature. The main objective of this final phase is to take bivariate relationships tested in Phase II and build a system of ideas that is based on empirical evidence and that attempts to offer a number of relative, yet parsimonious theoretical models that best explain crime-reporting behavior.

Moreover, Phase III presents a visual and logical display of the six interrelated sets of hypotheses/propositions (that have been tested in Phase II of the analyses) about the empirical reality of people's crime-reporting behavior. In this phase, for the purpose of providing an estimate of the magnitude of the direct and indirect effects that each variable has on the dependent variable (on crime-reporting behavior, respectively), hierarchical multivariate regression analyses were conducted. Hierarchical multivariate regression analyses allow us to isolate and test the bivariate relationship between two variables while holding constant all other variables in the model (see Pallant, 2006; Ho, 2006). The path coefficients, representing the effects of independent variables on the dependent variables, are standardized partial regression coefficients. The indirect effects in each path model presented in this study were estimated by the sums of the products of direct effects through intervening variables in the model. The total effect of each variable on the dependent variable was estimated by the sum of direct effect and indirect effect.

As explained in the methodology chapter, crime-reporting behavior is measured by three scales. The first scale measures the reporting of less serious crimes, the second

scale measures the reporting of medium-level crimes, and the third scale measures the reporting of serious crimes. In this final phase of the analysis, three models are presented for each crime-reporting measure. The first path model is labeled as the initial path model. In this initial path model, all pathways are included, regardless of their significance level (i.e., pathways that did not reach the significance level of $p < .05$ are also included). Next, this initial path model is followed by a modified path model. This means that all pathways that did not reach the specified significance level of $p < .05$ have been deleted. Finally, a more parsimonious path model has been developed. This third path model is recognized as the final path model that best explains crime-reporting behavior. The same procedure has been used to develop a final path model for each of the three crime-reporting measures. That is, an initial, a modified, and a final path model have been developed for the reporting of less serious crimes (crime-reporting 1), an initial, a modified, and a final path model have been developed for reporting of medium-level crimes (crime-reporting 2), and an initial, a modified, and a final path model have been developed for reporting of serious crimes (crime-reporting 3), a total of nine path models.

Assumptions of Path Analysis

The path models presented in this study allow us to explicitly introduce the causal relationships among variables. However, although several assumptions have been made about the causal relationship between variables, through path analysis in this study, it is not the intention to solve the problems of causality. Some of the basic assumptions that have been made in this study include the following: first, the independent variables (exogenous variables) are considered the cause in changes that occur in the dependent

variables (endogenous variables). Second, all relationships between variables are linear. Third, there is a one-way causal flow, with the exception of the bidirectional causal effect of attitudes toward the police on crime-reporting anonymity. Fourth, if the association between the first and the second variable disappears after introducing a third or more variables into the model(s), we assume that the relationship is spurious.

Initial Path Model for Crime-Reporting 1

Table 83 shows the results of direct, indirect, and total effects for the initial path model (see Figure 29) that has been designed to explain the reporting of less serious crimes (crime-reporting 1) to the police. Overall this path model explains approximately 27% of the variation in the reporting of less serious crimes. As can be seen, attitude toward the police is the most important variable in this model with a substantial positive direct effect (*direct* = .398, $p < .001$) on willingness to report less serious crimes to the police. The second largest direct effect in this path model is the effect of demographic characteristics (*direct* = -.374, $p < .001$). Other variables (e.g., police behavior, prior victimization, crime-reporting anonymity, and interaction with the police) did not have a significant direct effect on willingness to report less serious crimes.

Furthermore, for both attitudes toward the police and demographic variables, the mediating effect on crime-reporting 1 increased, bringing the total effect to .428 for attitudes toward the police and -.400 for the demographic variables, respectively. This tells us that the effect of attitudes toward the police on crime-reporting 1 becomes stronger when we add the indirect effect (*indirect* = .030) through crime-reporting anonymity, the mediating variable (see Figure 29, Table 83). Likewise, the effect of demographic characteristics on crime-reporting 1 becomes stronger when we add the

indirect effect (*indirect* = -.090) delivered through mediating variables (i.e., when delivered through crime-reporting anonymity, attitudes toward the police, or the combination of both) on crime-reporting 1. Additionally, the data in Table 83 show that crime-reporting anonymity has a much larger indirect effect (*indirect* = -.090) than direct effect (*direct* = -.068) on crime-reporting 1. This tells us that there is a substantial increase on the total effect of crime-reporting anonymity (*total effect* = -.165) when taking the mediating effect of attitudes toward the police on crime-reporting 1 into account. For other variables in this initial model (e.g., police behavior, interaction with the police, and prior victimization), the data in Table 83 show that the indirect effects did not substantially increase their total effects on crime-reporting 1. As such, the indirect effects of police behavior, interaction with the police, and prior victimization are irrelevant in this initial path model.

Table 83

*Initial Model: Direct, Indirect, and Total Effect for the Crime-Reporting 1
(Reporting of Less Serious Crimes)*

Variables	Initial Path Model for Crime-Reporting 1		
<i>Dependent Variable</i> Crime-Reporting 1			
<i>Independent Variables</i>	Direct Effects	Indirect Effects	Total Effects
C.R. Anonymity	-.068	-.097	-.165
Attitudes T/ Police	.398***	.030	.428
Prior Victimization	.020	-.033	-.013
Demographics	-.374***	-.025	-.400
Interaction W/ Police	.213***	.001	.214
Police Behavior	-.029	-.002	-.031
$R^2 = .281, F(14, 516) = 14.398***$			
<i>Dependent Variable</i> Attitudes T/ Police			
<i>Independent Variables</i>	Direct Effects	Indirect Effects	Total Effects
C.R. Anonymity	-.244***	-----	-.244
Prior Victimization	-.075*	-.004	-.079
Demographics	-.041***	-.027	-.068
Interaction W/ Police	.001*	-----	.001
Police Behavior	-.554***	-.002	-.556
$R^2 = .567, F(12, 518) = 56.463***$			
<i>Dependent Variable</i> C. R. Anonymity			
<i>Independent Variables</i>	Direct Effects	Indirect Effects	Total Effects
Attitudes T/ Police	-.443***	-----	-.443
Demographics	.111	.018	.129
Prior Victimization	.016	.033	.049
$R^2 = .129, F(7, 518) = 12.180***$			
<i>Dependent Variable</i> Prior Victimization			
<i>Independent Variables</i>	Direct Effects	Indirect Effects	Total Effects
Police Behavior	.030	----	.030
$R^2 = .001, F(1, 518) = .276$			

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level. *Significance at the .05 level.
C.R. Anonymity – means crime-reporting anonymity.

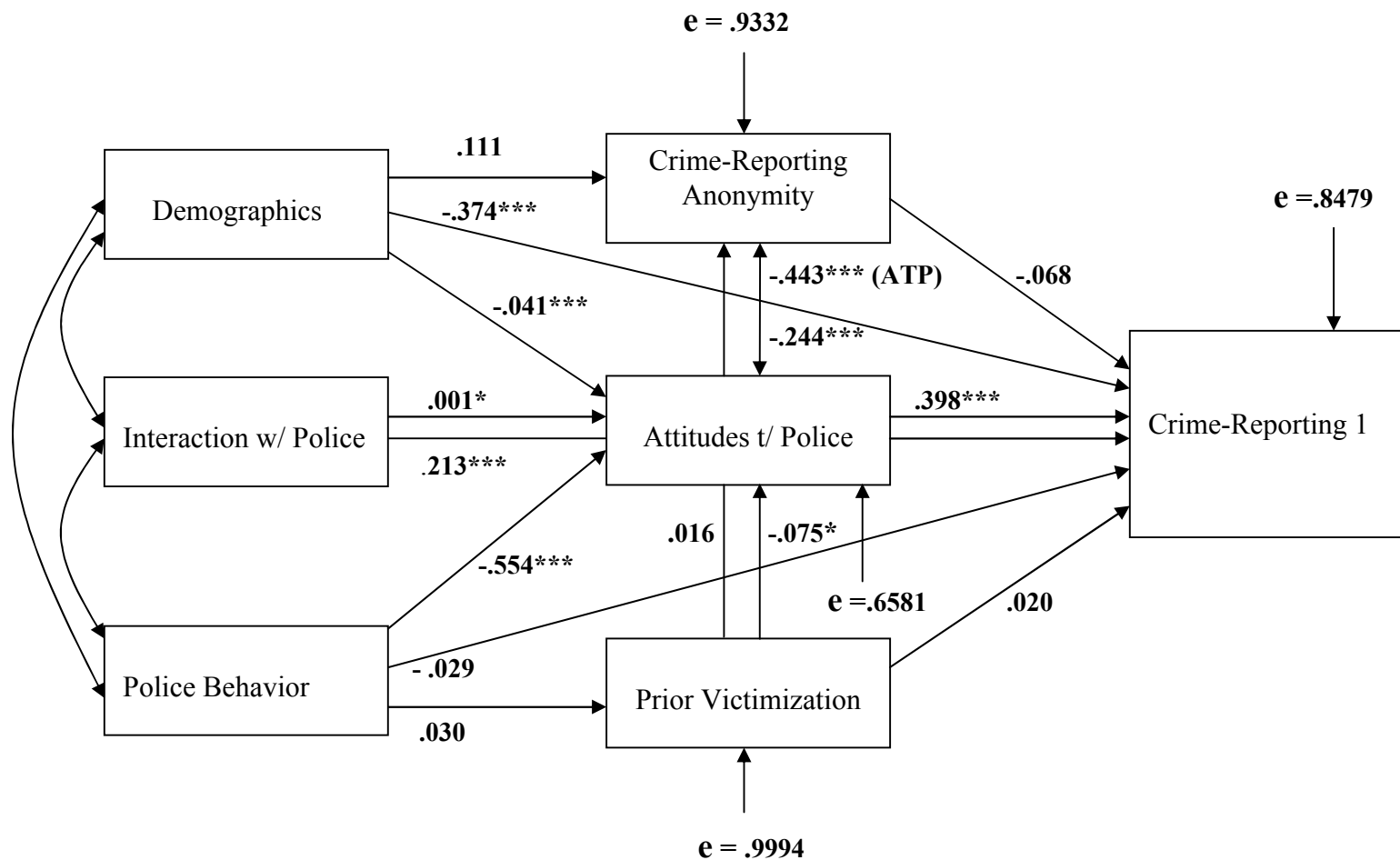


Figure 29. Initial path model: The direct effects and indirect effects of independent variables on crime-reporting 1 (reporting of less serious crimes). Note: $R^2 = .281$.

Modified Path Model for Crime-Reporting 1

In the initial path model discussed above, not all pathways were statistically significant. Thus, as discussed in the methodology chapter, pathways that did not reach the specified statistical significance ($p < .05$) were deleted from the initial path model. Figure 30 presents a newly modified path model that includes only statistically significant pathways.

Table 84 shows the results of direct, indirect, and total effects for the modified path model (see Figure 30) designed to explain the reporting of less serious crimes (crime-reporting 1) to the police. Overall this modified path model explains approximately 26% of the variation in the reporting of less serious crimes. In this modified path model, the variables that did not have a significant direct effect on crime-reporting 1 include police behavior, prior victimization, and crime-reporting anonymity. However, the indirect effect of these variables seems substantial, especially the indirect effect of police behavior (*indirect* = -.221) and crime-reporting anonymity (*indirect* = -.098). The research significance/value of this modified path model is that there are a number of important variables (e.g., crime-reporting anonymity and police behavior) that may not have a direct effect on crime-reporting behavior; however, their indirect effect is substantial enough and relevant to the explanation of crime-reporting behavior, and as such they should not be ignored.

Table 84

*Modified Model: Direct, Indirect, and Total Effect for the Crime-Reporting 1
(Reporting of Less Serious Crimes)*

<u>Crime-Reporting 1</u>			
Variables	Direct Effects	Indirect Effects	Total Effects
Modified Path Model			
<i>Dependent Variable</i>			
Crime-Reporting 1			
<i>Independent Variables</i>			
Attitudes T/ Police	.398***	-----	.398
Demographics	-.374***	-.017	-.391
Interaction W/ Police	.223*	.001	.224
C.R. Anonymity	-----	-.098	-.098
Police Behavior	-----	-.221	-.221
Prior Victimization	-----	-.030	-.030
$R^2 = .263$, $F(10, 520) = 18.619***$			

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level.*Significance at the .05 level.
Crime-Reporting 1: Reporting of Less Serious Crimes

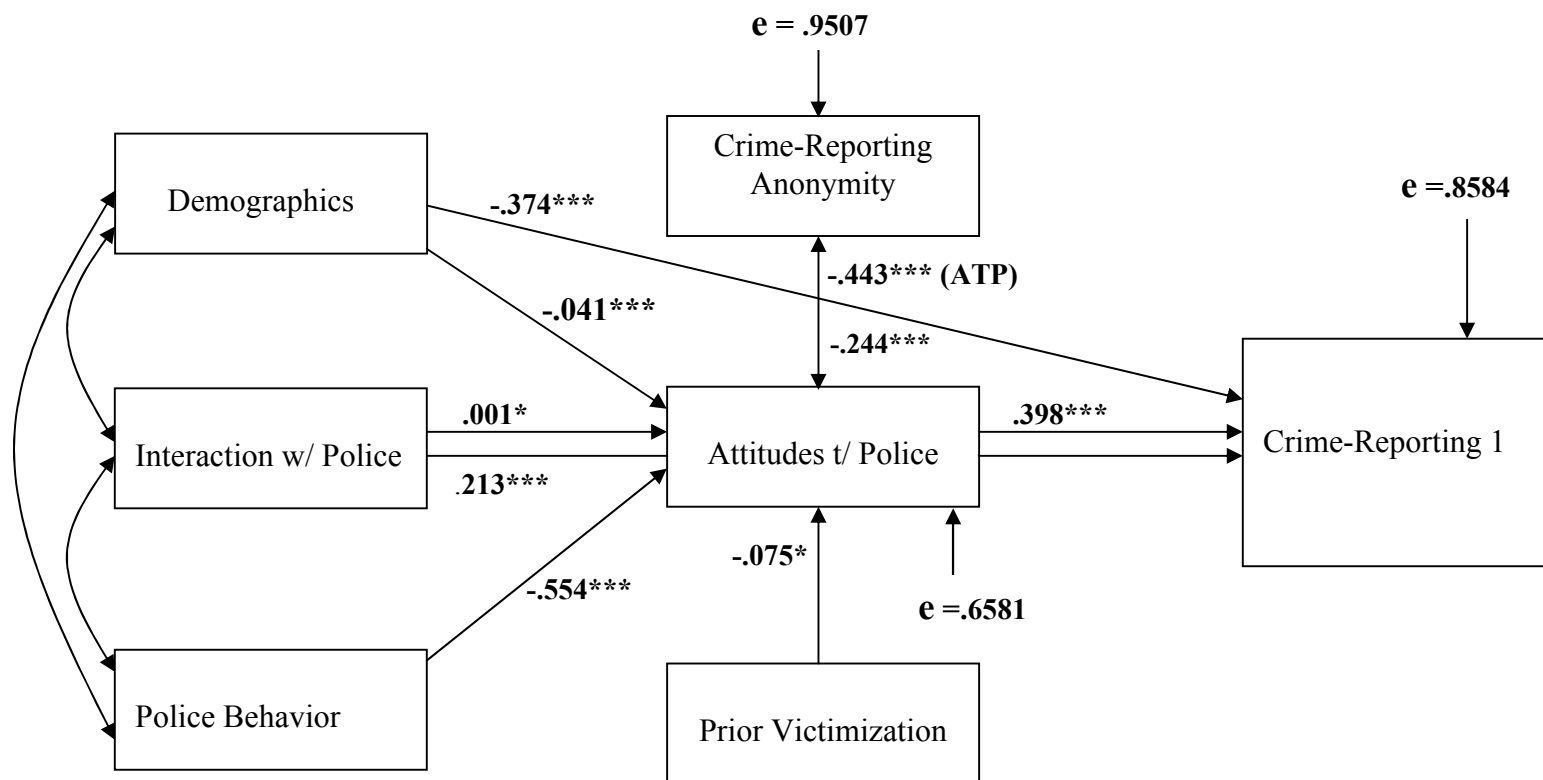


Figure 30. Modified initial path model for crime-reporting 1 (reporting of less serious crimes). Note: $R^2 = .263$. All path coefficients that did not reach the significance level of $p < .05$ have been deleted for the initial path model.

Final Path Model for Crime-Reporting 1

Although, the modified path model presented above has all pathways with significance level of at least $p < .05$, still it would not be fulfilling since we are in search of a more simplistic and parsimonious model that offers a better explanation of crime-reporting 1. This means that we want to develop a theoretical path model that has fewer variables, yet a path model that is capable of explaining a great deal of the variation in people's willingness to report less serious crimes to the police (crime-reporting 1). Thus, to pursue this research goal, a new path model (labeled as the final path model) has been developed.

The number of variables in the final path model designed to explain people's willingness to report less serious crimes has been reduced significantly (see Table 85, Figure 31). Overall this path model explains approximately 27% of the variation in the reporting of less serious crimes. This means that with only five variables in this model [$R^2 = .273$, $F(5, 525) = 39.434$, $p < .001$, Figure 31], we can explain approximately the same amount of variation in crime-reporting 1 compared to the initial fourteen-predictor path model [$R^2 = .281$, $F(14, 516) = 14.398$, $p < .001$, Figure 29] and slightly more than the modified ten-predictor path model [$R^2 = .263$, $F(10, 520) = 18.619$, $p < .001$, Figure 30].

Moreover, the data in Table 85 show that in this final path model, the indirect effect of people's fear of criminal retaliation (*indirect* = $-.147$) on crime-reporting 1 is nearly as large as the direct effect (*direct* = $-.151$). This tells us that the total effect of the fear of criminal retaliation on crime-reporting 1 is doubled (*total* = $-.295$) when we add the indirect effect of fear of criminal retaliation through mediating variables.

Additionally, the total effect of citizen-initiated contacts (*total* = .159) on crime-reporting 1 also shows a substantial increase compared to the direct effect (*direct* = .130).

Table 85

Final Model: Direct, Indirect, and Total Effect for the Crime-Reporting 1 (Reporting of Less Serious Crimes)

<u>Crime-Reporting 1</u>			
Variables	Direct Effects	Indirect Effects	Total Effects
Final Path Model			
<i>Dependent Variable</i>			
Crime-Reporting 1			
<i>Independent Variables</i>			
Fear of Criminal Retaliation	-.151***	-.147	-.295
Attitudes T/ Police	.381***	-----	.381
Gender	-.134***	.018	-.116
Race (Asian)	-.103**	.002	-.101
Citizen-Initiated Contacts	.130***	.029	.159
$R^2 = .273$, $F(5, 525) = 39.434$ ***			

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level.*Significance at the .05 level.
Crime-Reporting 1: Reporting of Less Serious Crimes

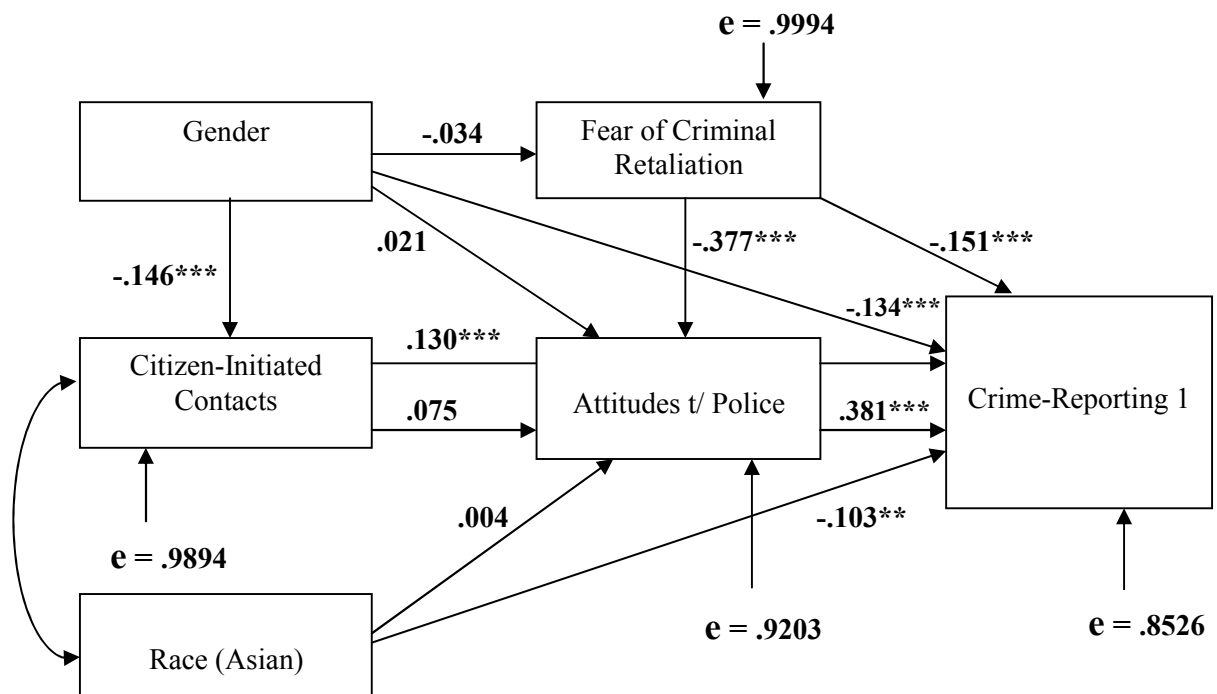


Figure 31. Final path model for the reporting of less serious crimes. Note: $R^2 = .273$.

Initial Path Model for Crime-Reporting 2

Table 86 shows the results of direct, indirect, and total effects for the initial path model (see Figure 32) that has been designed to explain the reporting of medium-level crimes (crime-reporting 2) to the police. Overall this path model explains approximately 11% of the variation in the reporting of medium-level crimes.

In this path model, the demographic characteristics have the largest and statistically significant direct effect (*direct* = -.429, $p < .001$) on the reporting of medium-level crimes (crime-reporting 2), followed by attitudes toward the police (*direct* = .162, $p < .01$) and interaction with the police (*direct* = .058, $p < .05$). Other variables (e.g., police behavior, prior victimization, and crime-reporting anonymity) did not have a significant direct effect on people's willingness to report medium-level crimes (crime-reporting 2).

When considering the indirect effect, on the other hand, the data in Table 86 show that police behavior has a much stronger indirect effect (*indirect* = -.086) through mediating variables than the direct effect (*direct* = -.038). Thus, when we add the direct effect and indirect effect that police behavior has on crime-reporting 2, we get a substantial increase in the total impact the police behavior has on crime-reporting 2. This tells us that variables in this initial model have different effects and are of different importance when considering the seriousness of crime. That is, in the previous initial path model (see Figure 29) that was designed to explain the reporting of less serious crimes, crime-reporting anonymity was the only variable with a substantial indirect effect on crime-reporting 1; whereas in this initial path model (Figure 32) designed to explain the

reporting of medium-level crimes, police behavior has the most substantial indirect effect.

Table 86

Initial Model: Direct, Indirect, and Total Effect for the Crime-Reporting 2 (Reporting of Medium-Level Crimes)

<u>Crime-Reporting 2</u>			
Variables	Direct Effects	Indirect Effects	Total Effects
Initial Path Model			
<i>Dependent Variable</i>			
Crime-Reporting 2			
<i>Independent Variables</i>			
C.R. Anonymity	.017	-.039	-.023
Attitudes T/ Police	.162**	-.007	.155
Prior Victimization	.004	-.020	-.016
Demographics	-.429***	-.005	-.434
Interaction W/ Police	.058*	.001	.059
Police Behavior	-.038	-.086	-.124
$R^2 = .105$, $F(13, 517) = 4.687***$			

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level. *Significance at the .05 level.
C.R. Anonymity – means crime-reporting anonymity.

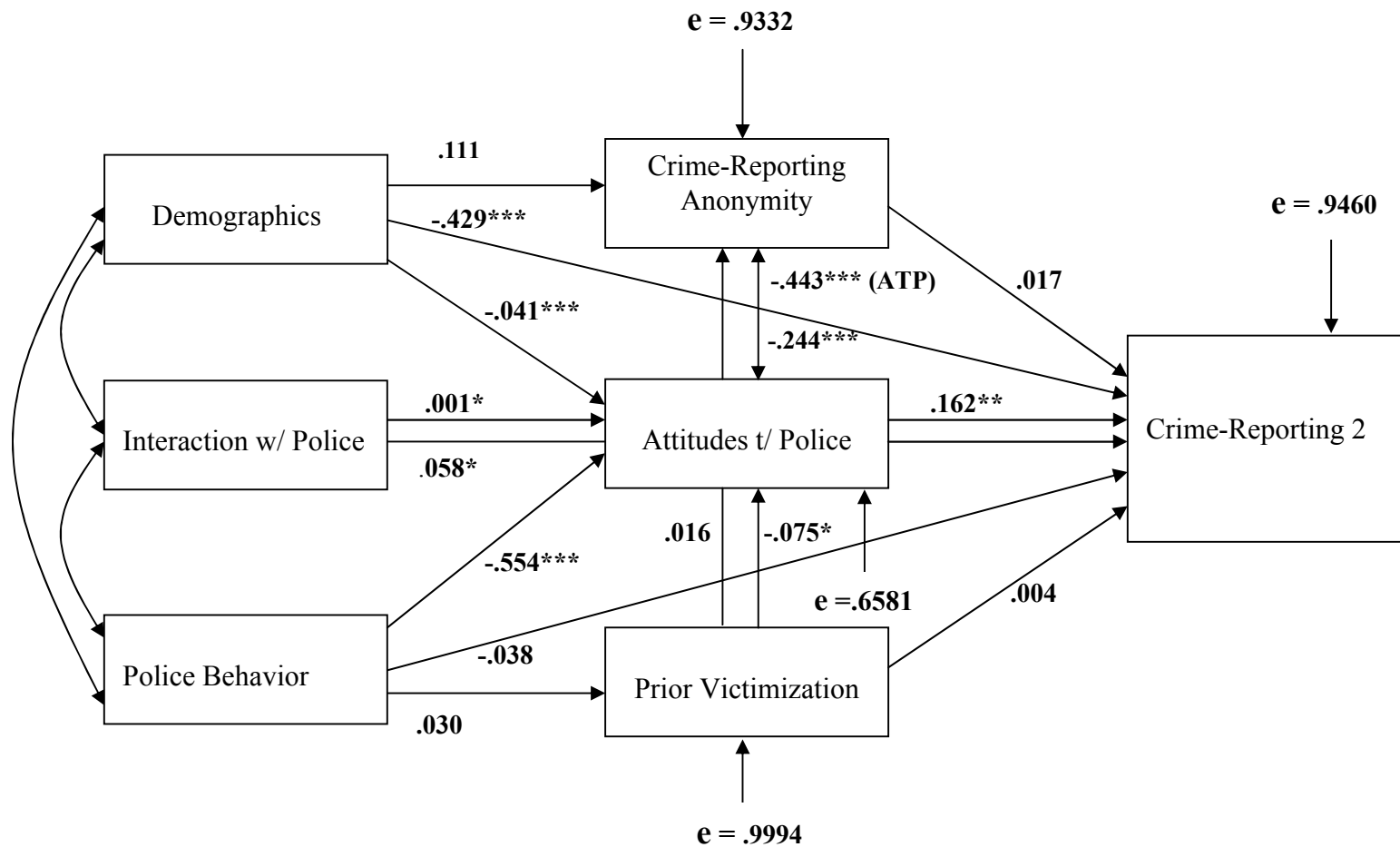


Figure 32. Initial path model: The direct effects and indirect effects of independent variables on crime-reporting 2 (reporting of medium-level crimes). Note: $R^2 = .105$.

Modified Path Model for Crime-Reporting 2

The elimination of pathways with statistically insignificant coefficients in this modified path model did not differ from the first initial path model designed to explain the reporting of less serious crimes (crime-reporting 1). That is, the same pathways that appear statistically insignificant in the path model of crime-reporting 1 appear statistically insignificant in the path model of crime-reporting 2.

Table 87 shows the results of direct, indirect, and total effects for the modified path model (see Figure 33) designed to explain the reporting of medium-level crimes (crime-reporting 2). Overall this modified path model explains approximately 10% of the variation in the reporting of less serious crimes. In this modified path model, the indirect effect of variables that had a significant direct effect on crime-reporting 2 seems very low (i.e., the indirect effect of demographics and interaction with the police). The indirect effect of crime-reporting anonymity (*indirect* = -.040) and police behavior (*indirect* = -.090), on the other hand, is quite substantial, regardless of their insignificant direct effects on crime-reporting 2. This suggests that crime-reporting anonymity and police behavior should be kept in this model since they appear to be important variables in explaining the reporting of medium-level crimes (crime-reporting 2). Prior victimization in this path model did not have a substantial indirect effect (*indirect* = .012) on crime-reporting 2. As such, this variable can be ruled out as an unimportant variable.

Table 87

*Modified Model: Direct, Indirect, and Total Effect for the Crime-Reporting 2
(Reporting Medium-Level Crimes)*

<u>Crime-Reporting 2</u>			
Variables	Direct Effects	Indirect Effects	Total Effects
Modified Path Model			
<i>Dependent Variable</i>			
Crime-Reporting 2			
<i>Independent Variables</i>			
Attitudes T/ Police	.162**	-----	.162
Demographics	-.429***	-.007	-.436
Interaction W/ Police	.058*	.001	.059
C.R. Anonymity	-----	-.040	-.040
Police Behavior	-----	-.090	-.090
Prior Victimization	-----	-.012	-.012
$R^2 = .103$, $F(10, 520) = 6.065***$			

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level.*Significance at the .05 level.
Crime-Reporting 2: Reporting of Medium-Level Crimes.

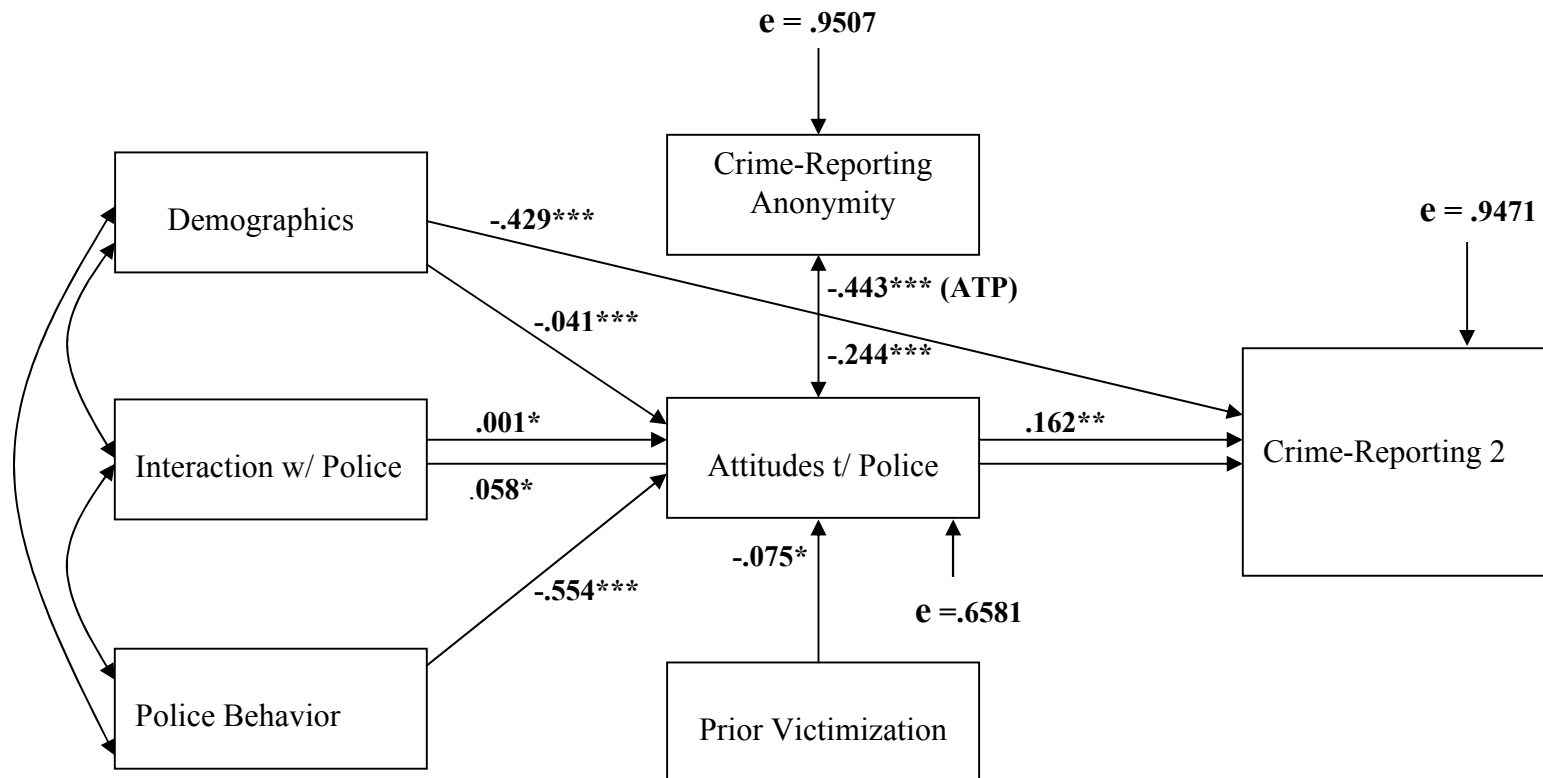


Figure 33. Modified path model for crime-reporting 2 (reporting of medium-level crimes). Note: $R^2 = .103$. All path coefficients that did not reach the significance level of $p < .05$ have been deleted for the initial path model.

Final Path Model for Crime-Reporting 2

Overall, the variables that have been included in the initial model, and later kept in the modified path model, do not have enough statistical power to explain a great degree of variation in the reporting of medium-level crimes (crime-reporting 2). Yet, there are a number of variables that can add little or no explanatory power to this model. Thus, the final path model that has been re-designed to explain the reporting of medium-level crimes (crime-reporting 2) includes only four independent variables, namely, gender, race (Asian), attitudes toward the police, and exposure to media about police misconduct. This four-predictor model (see Figure 34, Table, 88) is the most simplistic and parsimonious model that can be designed from a pool of crime-reporting predictors tested in this study.

The data in Table 88 show that this final path model explains approximately 9% of the variation in the reporting of medium-level crimes. This means that with only four variables in this model [$R^2 = .094$, $F(4, 526) = 13.626$, $p < .001$, Figure 34], we can explain approximately the same amount of variation in crime-reporting 2 compared to the initial thirteen-predictor path model [$R^2 = .105$, $F(13, 517) = 4.687$, $p < .001$, Figure 32] and the modified ten-predictor path model [$R^2 = .103$, $F(10, 520) = 6.065$, $p < .001$, Figure 33].

When looking at the indirect and total effect of the existing variables in this final model, only race (Asian) appears to have a very small indirect effect (*indirect* = -.007) but an effect that results in an increase of the total effect (*total* = -.170) on crime-reporting 2. For other variables (e.g., gender and exposure to media), the indirect effect results in a decrease of the total effect they have on the reporting of medium-level crimes,

which in essence make the indirect effect ineffective. Exposure to media, for instance, seems to have a positive direct effect (*direct* = .080) but a negative indirect effect (*indirect* = -.044) on crime-reporting 2.

Table 88

Final Model: Direct, Indirect, and Total Effect for the Crime-Reporting 2 (Reporting of Medium-Level Crimes)

<u>Crime-Reporting 2</u>			
Variables	Direct Effects	Indirect Effects	Total Effects
Final Path Model			
<i>Dependent Variable</i>			
Crime-Reporting 2			
<i>Independent Variables</i>			
Attitudes T/ Police	.194***	----	.194
Race (Asian)	-.163***	-.007	-.170
Gender	-.167***	.001	-.166
Exposure to Media	.080*	-.044	.036
$R^2 = .094$, $F(4, 526) = 13.626***$			

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level.*Significance at the .05 level.
Crime-Reporting 2: Reporting of Medium-Level Crimes

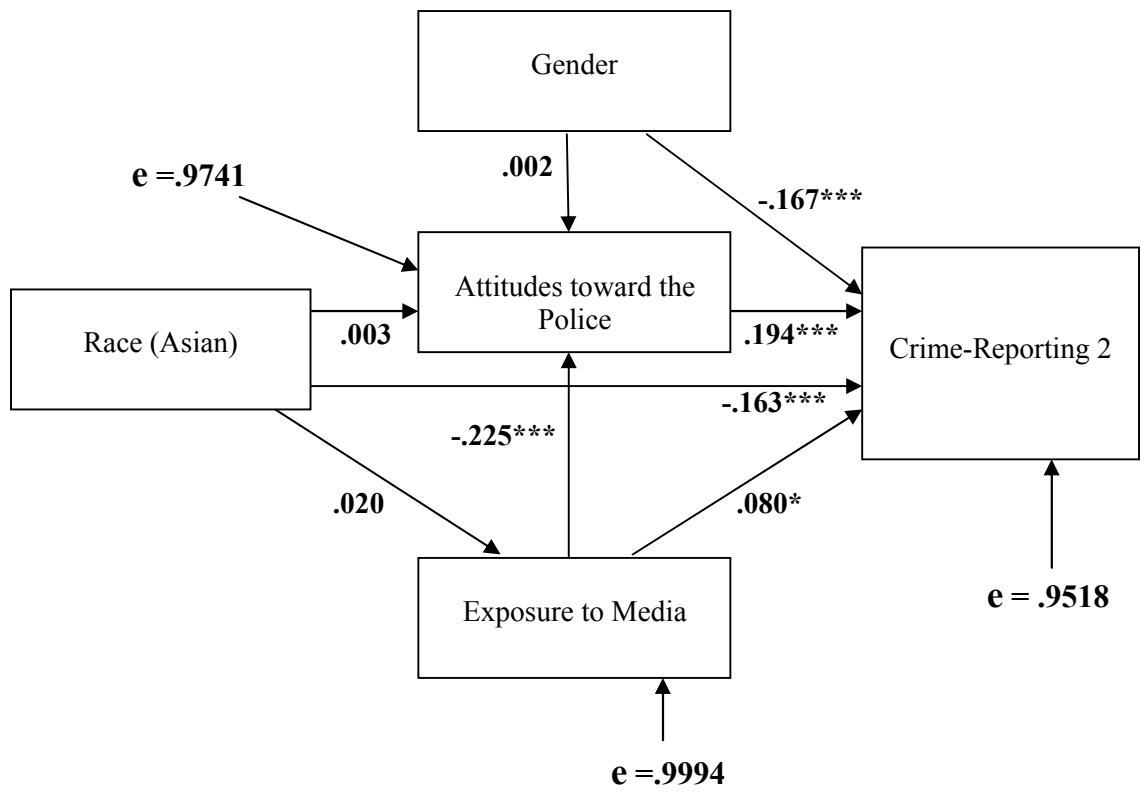


Figure 34. Final path model for the reporting of medium-level crimes. Note: $R^2 = .094$.

Initial Path Model for Crime-Reporting 3

Table 89 shows the results of direct, indirect, and total effects for the initial path model (see Figure 35) designed to explain the reporting of serious crimes (crime-reporting 3) to the police. Overall this path model explains approximately 20% of the variation in the reporting of serious crimes.

In terms of the magnitude of the direct effects of independent variables on the dependent variable, the demographic characteristics have the largest and statistically significant negative direct effect (*direct* = -.624, $p < .001$) on the reporting of serious crimes (crime-reporting 3), followed by the effect of interaction with the police variable (*direct* = .223, $p < .05$), police behavior (*direct* = -.192, $p < .001$), and attitudes toward the police (*direct* = .122, $p < .05$). The data in Table 89 show that the direct effects of crime-reporting anonymity (*direct* = .023) and prior victimization (*direct* = .020) were statistically insignificant.

It is noteworthy that the indirect effect of police behavior (*indirect* = -.031) on the reporting of serious crimes (crime-reporting 3) substantially increased the total effect (*total* = -.222) of police behavior on crime-reporting 3. The indirect effects of other variables in this initial model were not substantial enough to yield a discussion of their relevancy in this model.

Table 89

*Initial Model: Direct, Indirect, and Total Effect for the Crime-Reporting 3
(Reporting of Serious Crimes)*

<u>Crime-Reporting 3</u>			
Variables	Direct Effects	Indirect Effects	Total Effects
Initial Path Model			
<i>Dependent Variable</i>			
Crime-Reporting 3			
<i>Independent Variables</i>			
C.R. Anonymity	.023	-.029	-.006
Attitudes T/ Police	.122*	-.010	.112
Prior Victimization	.020	-.010	.010
Demographics	-.624***	-.002	-.626
Interaction W/ Police	.223*	.001	.224
Police Behavior	-.192***	-.031	-.222
$R^2 = .192$, $F(13, 517) = 9.476^{***}$			
Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level.*Significance at the .05 level. C.R. Anonymity – means crime-reporting anonymity.			

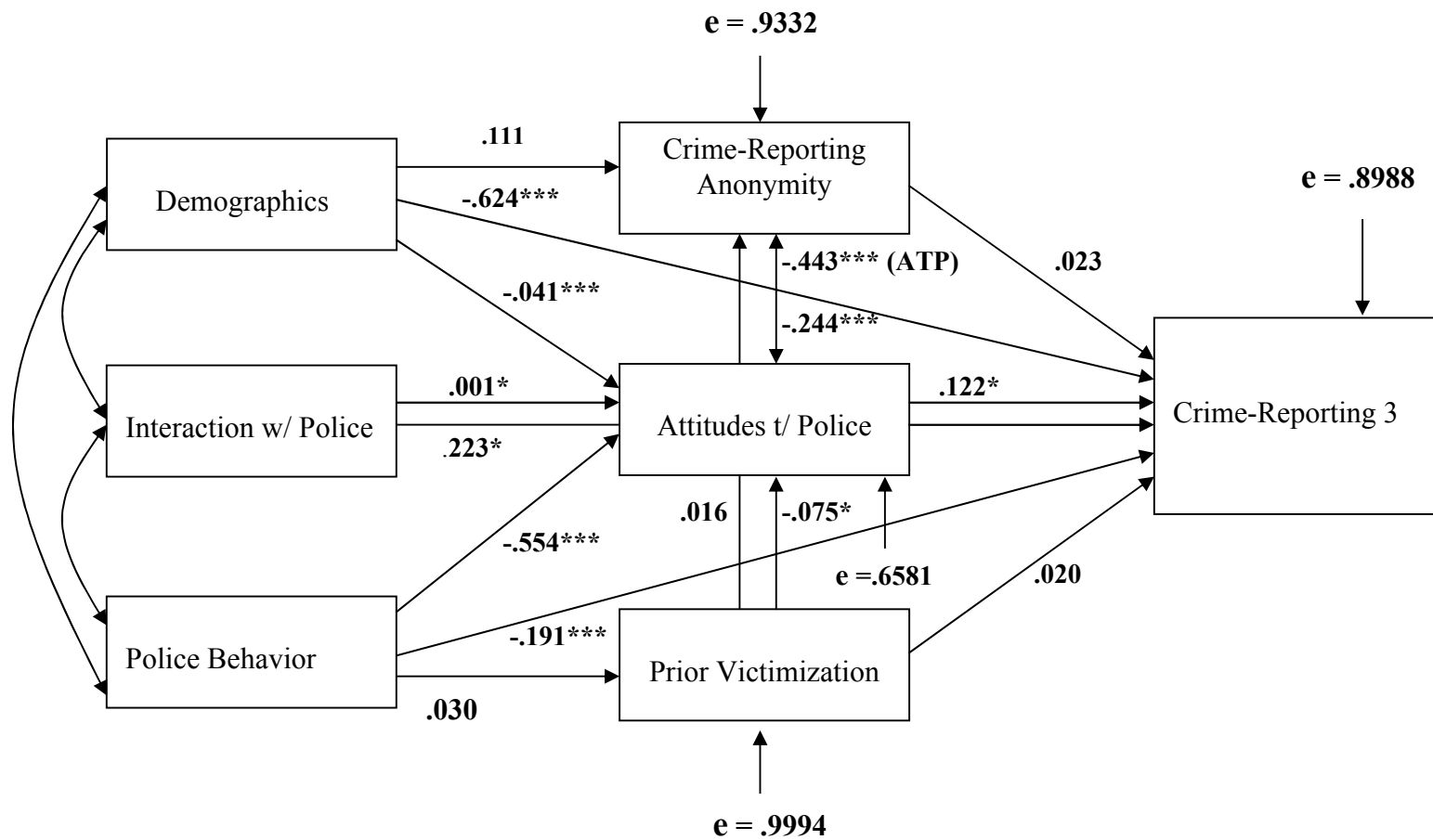


Figure 35. Initial path model: The direct effects and indirect effects of independent variables on crime-reporting 3 (reporting of serious crimes). Note: $R^2 = .192$.

Modified Path Model for Crime-Reporting 3

Unlike the previous two modified path models presented above, this path model (Figure 36) has four sets of variables with statistically significant direct effects on the reporting of serious crimes (crime-reporting 3). Only two non-significant pathways were deleted from the initial path model, namely the direct effect of crime-reporting anonymity and the direct effect of prior victimization on crime-reporting 3.

The data in Table 90 show that this modified path model explains approximately 19% of the variation in the reporting of serious crimes to the police. For the variables that had a significant direct effect on crime-reporting 3, only police behavior had a substantial indirect effect (*indirect* = -.068) through mediating variables on crime-reporting 3, which in turn resulted in a significant increase of the total effect (*total* = -.259) of police behavior on crime-reporting 3. Of the variables that did not have a direct effect on crime-reporting 3, the data in Table 90 suggest that only crime-reporting anonymity had some indirect effect (*indirect* = -.030) through mediating variables on crime-reporting 3. However, this indirect effect was not substantial. To reiterate, this suggests that police behavior and crime-reporting anonymity should be kept in this model since they appear to have a substantial indirect effect on the reporting of serious crimes (crime-reporting 3). Prior victimization (*indirect* = -.009), interaction with the police (*indirect* = .001), and demographic characteristics (*indirect* = -.005), on the other hand, did not have a large indirect effect on crime-reporting 3.

Table 90

*Modified Model: Direct, Indirect, and Total Effect for the Crime-Reporting 3
(Reporting of Serious Crimes)*

<u>Crime-Reporting 3</u>			
Variables	Direct Effects	Indirect Effects	Total Effects
Modified Path Model			
<i>Dependent Variable</i>			
Crime-Reporting 3			
<i>Independent Variables</i>			
Attitudes T/ Police	.122*	----	.122
Police Behavior	-.191***	-.068	-.259
Demographics	-.624***	-.005	-.629
Interaction W/ Police	.223*	.001	.224
C.R. Anonymity	----	-.030	-.030
Prior Victimization	----	-.009	-.009
$R^2 = .191, F(11, 519) = 11.186***$			

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level.*Significance at the .05 level.
Crime-Reporting 3: Reporting of Serious Crimes

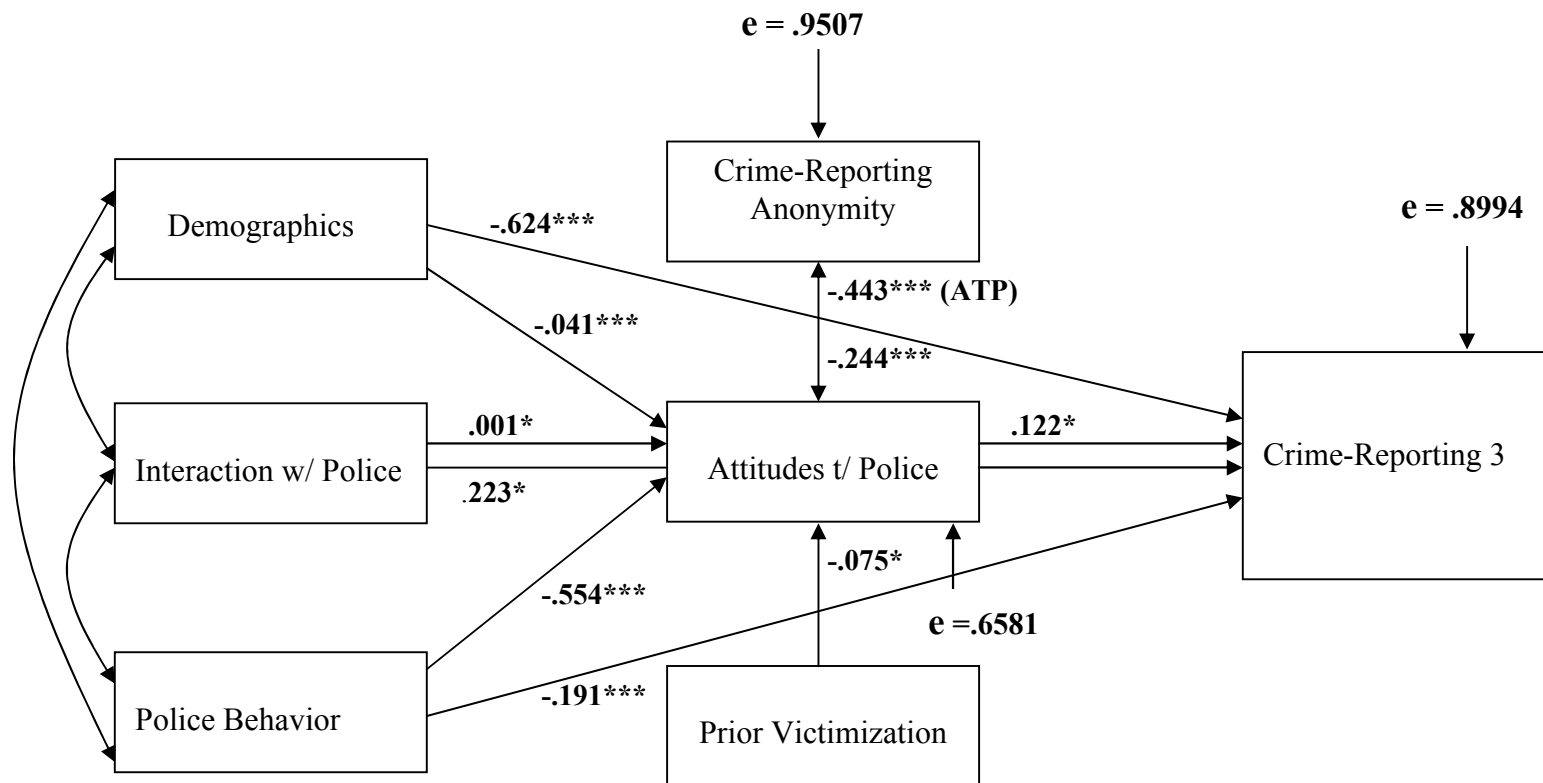


Figure 36. Modified path model for crime-reporting 3 (reporting of serious crimes). Note: $R^2 = .191$. All path coefficients that did not reach the significance level of $p < .05$ have been deleted for the initial path model.

Final Path Model for Crime-Reporting 3

The final path model that has been re-designed to explain the reporting of serious crimes (crime-reporting 3) includes seven independent variables (with race coded as a nominal level variable); namely, fear of criminal retaliation, police behavior, race, exposure to media, and frequency of contacts with the police. This seven-predictor path model (see Figure 37, Table, 91) is the most simplistic and parsimonious model that can be designed from a pool of crime-reporting predictors tested in this study.

The data in Table 91 show that this final path model explains approximately 19% of the variation in the reporting of serious crimes (crime-reporting 3) to the police. This means that with only seven variables in this model [$R^2 = .191$, $F(7, 523) = 17.607$, $p < .001$, Figure 37], we can explain approximately the same amount of variation in crime-reporting 3 compared to the initial thirteen-predictor path model [$R^2 = .192$, $F(13, 517) = 9.476$, $p < .001$, Figure 35] and the modified eleven-predictor path model [$R^2 = .191$, $F(11, 519) = 11.186$, $p < .001$, Figure 36].

Additionally, when looking at the indirect and total effect of the existing variables in this final model, only police behavior (*indirect* = -.022) and race (*indirect* = -.056) appear to have some indirect effect that actually results in an increase of the total effect of police behavior (*total effect* = -.268) and race (*total effect* = -.537) on crime-reporting 3.

Table 91

*Final Model: Direct, Indirect, and Total Effect for the Crime-Reporting 3
(Reporting of Serious Crimes)*

<u>Crime-Reporting 3</u>			
Variables	Direct Effects	Indirect Effects	Total Effects
Final Path Model			
<i>Dependent Variable</i>			
Crime-Reporting 3			
<i>Independent Variables</i>			
Fear of Criminal Retaliation	-.118**	----	-.118
Police Behavior	-.246***	-.022	-.268
Race	-.481***	-.056	-.537
Exposure to Media	.095*	-.057	.038
Freq. of Contacts W/ Police	.078*	.007	-.071
$R^2 = .191$, $F(7, 523) = 17.607***$			

Note: ***Significance at the .001 level. **Significance at the .01 level. *Significance at the .05 level.
Crime-Reporting 3: Reporting of Serious Crimes

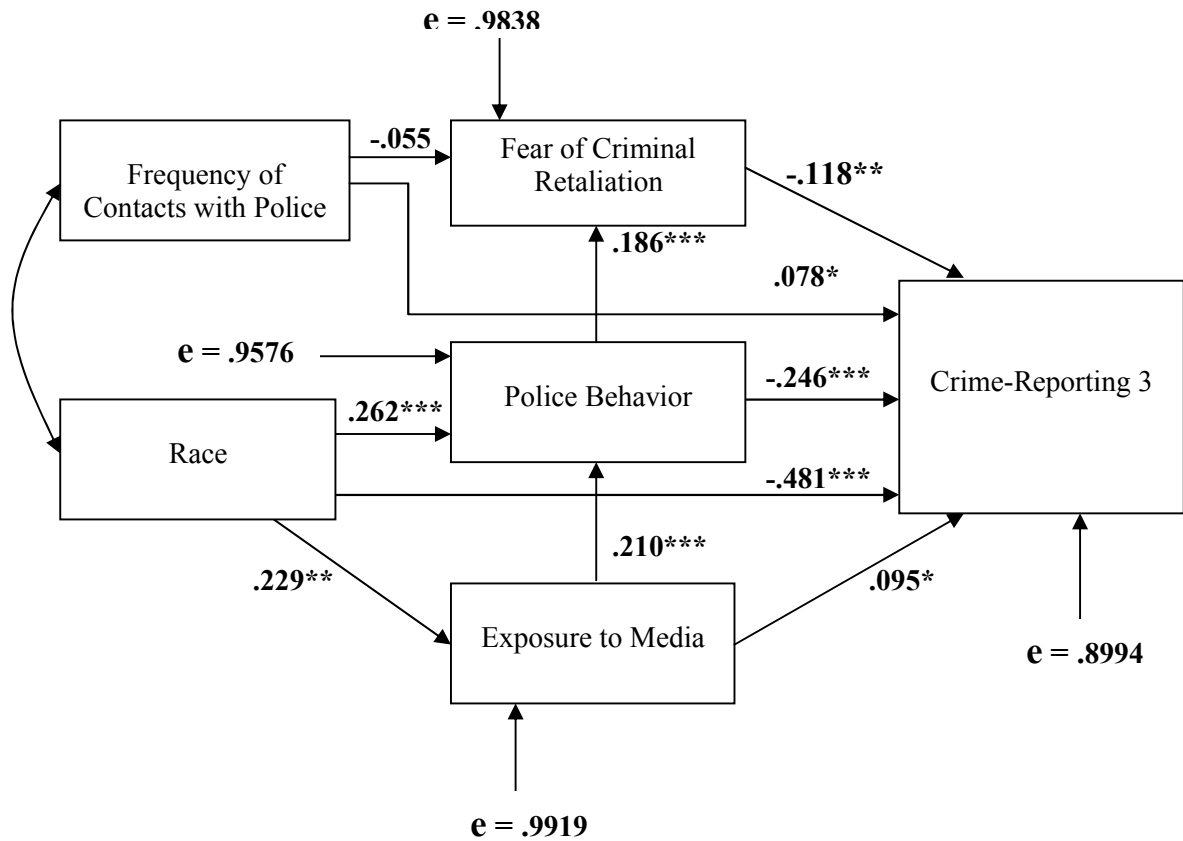


Figure 37. Final path model for the reporting of serious crimes. Note: $R^2 = .191$.

Summary

The main objective of path analysis in this study was to construct a re-defined final path model for each crime-reporting level (e.g., reporting of less serious crimes, reporting of medium-level crimes, and reporting of serious crimes). The pool of seventeen crime-reporting predictors that have been tested in this study explain approximately 29% of the variation in the reporting of less serious crimes (crime-reporting 1), approximately 20% of the variation in the reporting of serious crimes (crime-reporting 3), and approximately 11% of the variation in the reporting of medium-level crimes (crime-reporting 2). In light of this empirical evidence, we can conclude that the existing crime-reporting models are suitable for explaining the reporting of less serious and serious crimes but not as suitable for explaining the reporting of medium-level crimes (crime-reporting 2). Additionally, the path analyses in this study show that crime-reporting behavior can be explained by different sets of correlates for each level. This means that, in terms of severity of crimes, the same predictors cannot be used to explain the reporting of less serious crimes (crime-reporting 1), the reporting of medium-level crimes (crime-reporting 2), and the reporting of serious crimes (crime-reporting 3).

CHAPTER VII

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

The primary purpose of this research study was to build and test three theoretical models that best explain people's crime-reporting behavior; three theoretical models that are simplistic and parsimonious and that offer a relative explanation of crime-reporting behavior. One of the objectives of this research study was to determine the effect of a number of crime-reporting predictors on people's willingness to report crime to the police. Such predictors include police behavior, attitudes toward the police, individuals' demographic characteristics, interaction with the police, prior victimization, and crime-reporting anonymity, which has been conceptually defined as the desire to remain anonymous when making the decision whether or not to report a witnessed crime or a victimization event to the police. A second objective of this research study was to determine whether or not the above predictors have a significant effect on crime-reporting behavior. As a general approach to examine the effects of these predictors on crime-reporting behavior, eighteen research hypotheses were developed.

Moreover, since crime-reporting behavior differs by the severity of crime (i.e., some people may be less willing to report less serious crimes but more willing to report other more medium-level crimes or serious crimes), the reporting of crimes or reporting behavior in this study has been measured by three different scales. Scale one measured the reporting of less serious crimes, scale two measured the reporting of medium-level crimes, and scale three measured the reporting of serious crimes. The ultimate goal of this

research study was to develop a theoretical model for each one of these three crime-reporting levels.

Discussion of Research Findings

Measurement

The measuring instrument in this study consisted of multiple scales. For all the scales that measured unobservable latent variables in this study, psychometric evaluations were performed. Thus, in an exploratory context, the psychometric properties of scales were evaluated using item-total correlations, reliability analysis, and factor analysis. In testing whether or not the constructs in this study were unidimensional, factor analysis was employed. The results from factor analysis in Phase I of the analyses confirmed that all eight scales used in this study were unidimensional.

In addition to factor analysis, internal consistency analysis for each scale was performed. All latent variables in this study were measured by using multiple-item scales. For instance, police behavior as a construct in this study was measured by 22 scale items, attitudes toward the police was measured by 30 scale items, crime-reporting anonymity was measured by 4 scale items, social desirability was measured by 12 scale items, and crime-reporting behavior was measured by three different scales, with a total of 24 scale items. The item-total correlation analysis showed that the items for each scale had a high inter-correlation. Thus, the internal consistency analysis (reliability analysis) showed that all scales in this study reached an acceptable level of reliability. This stability of the measuring instrument gives us a certain degree of confidence to conclude that the results of this study, when employing a similar methodology, can be reproduced.

Furthermore, the validity of the measuring instrument in this study was assessed by using the correlation analysis. Using theoretical links to validate each construct in the context of literature, the validity of constructs was reached by determining how well they behaved consistent with the theoretical predictions. In this context, the correlation analysis showed that the measures of the underlying constructs behaved consistent with theoretical predictions derived from the review of the existing literature in this topic. This gives us a certain degree of confidence to conclude that the research findings of this study are valid.

Discussion of Research Findings in the Context of Research Hypotheses

The decision to report crimes or victimization events to the police is affected by a variety of complex and interrelated factors (see Skogan, 1984, 1994; Block, 1974; Carcach, 1997; Felson, Messner, & Hoskin, 1999; Macdonald, 2001; for reviews). The research findings of the current study suggest that the main crime-reporting predictors are police behavior, attitudes toward the police, fear of criminal retaliation, demographic characteristics (e.g., gender and race), and citizen interaction with the police (e.g., citizen-initiated contacts with the police and exposure to media about police misconduct). A brief discussion of the research hypotheses that have been developed to address the influence of these crime-reporting predictors on crime-reporting behavior is provided in the following few pages. The research findings that relate to research hypotheses are discussed in groups, beginning with research findings about police behavior, then attitudes toward the police, etc.

Police Behavior

Police behavior as a construct was one of many crime-reporting predictors tested in this study. The first research hypothesis predicted that individuals who have been exposed to some form of police misconduct are more likely to report crimes to the police. Prior research suggests that the way the police behave during encounters with the victims of crime increases or decreases the likelihood of reporting future crimes or repeat victimization events to the police (see Xie, Pogarsky, Lynch, & McDowall, 2006; Hickman & Simpson, 2003, Conaway & Lohr, 1994; Hickman & Simpson, 2003; Vardalis, 1992; Krahe, 1991). Consistent with prior research, the findings of the current study show that police behavior in general is a strong influencing variable on crime-reporting behavior. At the bivariate level, police behavior has a statistically significant negative effect on crime-reporting behavior. By the level of the severity of crimes, this includes the reporting of less serious crimes (e.g., smoking marijuana, selling illicit drugs, painting graffiti, etc.), medium-level crimes (e.g., physical threats, future terroristic threats, etc), and serious crimes (e.g., kidnapping, rape, murder, etc.), the effect of police behavior on crime-reporting behavior is more substantial for the reporting of less serious crimes and serious crimes compared to the reporting of medium-level crimes. The predicting power of police behavior, however, tends to disappear when introducing new variables into the model. It is noteworthy that even after controlling for the effects of other variables in this study, police behavior remains a strong predictor of the reporting of serious crimes to the police, negatively affecting this type of reporting behavior.

Moreover, police behavior has not only a direct effect on crime-reporting behavior but also an indirect effect, through mediating variables such as attitudes toward

the police. Thus, a second research hypothesis predicted that police misconduct has a negative impact on attitudes toward the police. This study attempted to determine whether or not such police behaviors have a significant effect on attitudes toward the police, and the direction of this effect (e.g., negative or positive). Consistent with prior research (see Skogan, 1996; Frank, Smith, & Novak, 2005; Goudriann, Wittebrood, & Nieuwbeerta, 2006; Baumer, 2002; for reviews), the results of this study show that police behavior has a significant effect on attitudes toward the police. These findings suggest that if we want citizens to display more favorable attitudes toward the police, it is suggestive that the police be respectful, polite, and control their tendency to use force against citizens since police behavior in this study was one of the strongest predictors, and an influencing variable, of citizens' attitudes toward the police. In summation, there is a sufficient amount of empirical evidence in this study to conclude that police behavior does affect crime-reporting behavior and attitudes toward the police, which in principle answers the first research question in this study.

Attitudes Toward the Police

Scholars argue that one of the police goals is to have the support of the public in dealing with crime and safety problems (Schaffer, Huebner, & Bynum, 2003a; Weitzer & Tuch, 2005a; Xie, Pogarsky, Lynch, & McDowall, Weinstein, 2002; 2006; Yung, Sun, & Triplett, 2009). In many instances, attitudes toward the police have been used as the measuring unit of this public support for the police. The empirical evidence shows that there is a link between attitudes toward the police and police behavior, and both of these two constructs have a direct influence on crime-reporting behavior. As discussed in chapter three, this translates that attitudes influence behavior and behavior influences

attitudes (see Braithwaite, 1996; Guagnano, Stern, & Dietz, 1995; Tennyson, 2006). More specifically, people create their attitudes toward the police, in part, based on how the police behave toward them during police-citizen encounters. So, police behavior, to a greater extent, influences people's attitudes. People's negative or positive attitudes, in turn, influence their own crime-reporting behavior toward the police (see Davis & Henderson, 2003; Xie, Pogarsky, Lynch, & McDowall, 2006; Hickman & Simpson, 2003, Conaway & Lohr, 1994; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Bickman, 1976; Reynolds, Semukhina, & Demidov, 2008; Carcach, 1997; Greenberg & Ruback, 1992; Bachman, 1998). In this context, hypothesis three predicted that individuals who hold positive attitudes toward the police are more likely to report crimes to the police compared to those who hold negative attitudes toward the police. Consistent with prior studies (see Carcach, 1997; Greenberg & Ruback, 1992; Davis & Henderson, 2003; Xie et al., 2006; Greenberg et al., 1979; for reviews), the data in the current study supported this hypothesis when tested using a four-variable multivariate model (controlling for race) and partially supported when tested using a seventeen-variable multivariate model.

Overall, the findings of the current study suggest that attitude toward the police as a construct is one of the best predictors of crime-reporting behavior. This includes the reporting of less serious crimes and medium crimes since the effect of attitudes toward the police on the reporting of serious crimes did not reach the significance level of $p < .05$ when tested using a seventeen-variable multivariate model. Nonetheless, the answer to the second research question in this study is that individuals who hold positive attitudes toward the police are more likely to report crimes to the police compared to those who hold negative attitudes.

Citizen Interaction with the Police

To determine whether citizen interactions with the police influence crime-reporting behavior, four different research hypotheses were tested. Hypothesis four predicted that individuals who have had voluntary (citizen-initiated) contacts with the police are more likely to report crimes to the police compared to those who have had involuntary (police-initiated) contacts. And hypothesis five predicted that individuals who have had citizen-initiated contacts with the police are more likely to display positive attitudes toward the police compared to those who have had police-initiated contacts.

The literature suggests that there is an interrelationship between the type of contacts citizens have with the police (e.g., citizen-initiated or police-initiated), attitudes toward the police, police behavior, and crime-reporting behavior (Cheurprakobkit, 2000; Johnson, 1993; Carter, 1985; Bates & Fasnfest, 2005; Weitzer & Tuch, 2005a, 2005b; Holdaway, 2002; Egharevba, 2004; Delores, 2000; Travis et al., 2000; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2007a). By the type of contacts, the literature suggests that citizen-initiated or voluntary contacts with the police have a positive effect on attitudes toward the police. And as discussed earlier, an increase in attitudes toward the police score results in an increase of crime-reporting behavior score (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 1987; Robertshaw et al., 2001; Skogan, 2005; Salmi et al. 2005; Byrne et al., 2005; Sims & Myhill, 2001). This means that there is a positive relationship between citizen-initiated contacts and attitudes toward the police. Inferentially, the relationship between citizen-initiated contacts and crime-reporting behavior is positive, meaning that citizen-initiated contacts should have a positive effect on crime-reporting behavior. However, I should note that there is little or no research that has attempted to link citizen-initiated contacts

directly to crime-reporting behavior. Thus, the findings of the current study are perhaps the first to report the influence of citizen-initiated contacts on crime-reporting behavior.

Consistent with the literature, the findings of the current study show that citizen-initiated contacts have a positive and statistically significant effect on attitudes toward the police, which is one of the mediating variables that link citizen-initiated contacts and crime-reporting behavior. This effect was also significant when tested at the multivariate level.

With regard to crime-reporting behavior, the data in the current study show that citizen-initiated contacts with the police have a positive and statistically significant effect only on the reporting of less serious crimes. This effect remains significant even after controlling for the effect of other variables in the model. However, the findings of the current study suggest that citizen-initiated contact, when treated as an independent variable, is not a good predictor of crime-reporting behavior, especially for predicting the reporting of medium-level and serious crimes. Contrary to the theoretical predictions and to what we have hypothesized, the multivariate analyses in this study show that citizen-initiated contacts have a negative effect on the reporting of medium-level crimes and serious crimes. Nonetheless, at the multivariate level, this effect did not reach the significance level of $p < .05$.

In light of this empirical evidence, it is safe to conclude that citizen-initiated contacts can only be used to predict the reporting of less serious crime (e.g., smoking marijuana, selling illicit drugs, painting graffiti, etc.) but not for the reporting of medium-level crimes (e.g., physical threats, future terroristic threats, etc), and serious crimes (e.g., kidnapping, rape, murder, etc.). On the other hand, in addition to predicting the reporting

of less serious crimes, citizen-initiated contact with the police can be considered a good predictor of attitudes toward the police since citizen-initiated contacts have a significant effect on attitudes toward the police.

Regarding police-initiated contacts, the literature suggests that the outcome of police-citizen encounters leaves an imprint (negative or positive) on citizens' evaluation of the police; that is, satisfaction with the police is most likely to be affected by the outcome of police-citizen encounters. This, inferentially should have a negative effect on crime-reporting behavior since the encounters are police-initiated, and as such, in most cases, they are involuntary (see Wheatzer, 2000; Egharevba, 2004; Smith & Arian, 2006; Goudriaan, 2006; Robertshaw, Louw, & Mtani, 2001; see also Tuch & Weitzer, 1997; Beck & Yulia, 2004; Skogan, 2005; Rosenbaum et al., 2005; for reviews).

First, the results of the current study confirm the literature which suggest that police-initiated contacts negatively affect citizens' attitudes toward the police (see Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2002; Byrne et al., 2005; Skogan, 2005; see also Hurst & Frank, 2000; Johnson, 1993; McAra & McVie, 2005). However, this effect did not reach the significance level of $p < .05$ at the bivariate level or multivariate level. Likewise, the effect of police-initiated contacts on crime-reporting behavior did not reach this significance level for the reporting of less serious crimes (e.g., smoking marijuana, selling illicit drugs, painting graffiti, etc.) and medium-level crimes (e.g., physical threats, future terroristic threats, etc.). The data in the current study show that police-initiated contacts had a significant negative effect only on the reporting of serious crimes. This effect reached statistical significance at both the bivariate and multivariate levels. Overall, the research findings in the current study show that police-initiated contact,

when treated as an independent variable, can be considered a good predictor of crime-reporting behavior only for the reporting of serious crimes.

The interaction with the police includes more than just the type of contacts with the police (e.g., citizen-initiated and police-initiated contact); it also includes the frequency of those contacts and exposure to mass media (e.g., internet, tv, radio, and newspapers) about police behaviors. Hypothesis six in this study predicted that individuals who have had frequent contacts with the police, regardless of the type of contacts, are less likely to report crimes to the police. We predicted that a higher number of contacts with the police is negatively associated with crime-reporting behavior. Likewise, hypothesis seven predicted that individuals who are more often exposed to mass media about police misconduct are less likely to report crimes to the police.

The literature suggests that individuals who have a high frequency of contacts with the police are more likely to accumulate negative experiences with the police. Thus, negative experiences with the police, resulting from a high frequency of contacts, negatively affect public cooperation with social control institutions, namely the police (see Bickman, 1976; McAra & McVie, 2005; Hopkins & Miles, 1992; Low & Durking, 2001; Hindelang, 1976; Tanton & Jones, 2003; Byrne, Conway, & Ostermeyer, 2005; Skogan, 2005; Thurman & Reisig, 1996; for reviews). Inferentially, a high frequency of contacts with the police should negatively affect crime-reporting behavior.

Unexpectedly, the current study shows that frequency of contacts with the police did not have a significant or substantial effect on crime-reporting behavior. The frequency of contacts with the police was significant at $p < .05$ only for the reporting of serious crimes. This significant effect, however, disappeared when tested at the

multivariate level with a seventeen-variable model. It is noteworthy that frequency of contacts with the police remained significant when the number of variables were reduced down to seven at the multivariate level (see Path Analysis section). Besides, our hypothesis that a higher number of contacts with the police have a negative effect on crime-reporting behavior was incorrect. Conversely, this study shows that frequency of contacts with the police had a positive effect on crime-reporting behavior. Despite the statistical insignificance, the data in the current study show that those who have more frequent contacts with the police are more likely to report crimes to the police, an unexpected finding.

The current study also tested the effect of media exposure about police misconduct on crime-reporting behavior. Hypothesis seven, which predicted that exposure to media has a negative effect on crime-reporting behavior, was partially supported by the data in the current study. When tested against the three measures of crime-reporting behavior (i.e., the measure of the reporting of less serious crimes, medium-level crimes, and serious crimes), the findings of this study suggest that exposure to media about police misconduct has a negative effect on the reporting of medium-level crimes and serious crimes. This effect, however, was significant only when exercising statistical controls, controlling for the effects of other variables in the model. Interestingly enough, at the bivariate level, exposure to media did not have a significant effect for any of the crime-reporting levels (i.e., the effect was insignificant in prediction the reporting of less serious, medium-level crimes, and serious crimes).

In summation, predictors such as citizen-initiated contacts, police-initiated contacts, frequency of those contacts, and exposure to media about police misconduct

have been used in prior studies to test the influence of citizen interactions with the police on other important dependent variables, namely, attitudes toward the police, perceptions of the criminal justice system, and perception about fear of crime. In the current study, these four predictors were used to predict people's crime-reporting behavior. Needless to say, the answer to the third research question in this study is that these four crime-reporting predictors cannot be used as a group to predict all three levels of crime-reporting behavior (e.g., reporting of less serious crimes, reporting of medium-level crimes, and reporting of serious crimes). Exposure to media, for instance, is a good predictor of reporting medium-level and serious crimes but not a good predictor of less serious crimes. Frequency of contacts with the police is an insignificant variable in predicting the reporting of less serious and medium-level crimes. It can only be used to predict the reporting of serious crimes. In terms of the type of contacts (e.g., citizen-initiated or police-initiated), the current study suggests that citizen-initiated contact, when treated as an independent variable, is a good predictor of the reporting of less serious crimes, whereas police-initiated contact as a variable is a good predictor of the reporting of serious crimes.

Demographic Factors

Some empirical evidence shows that the link between personal experiences, attitudes toward the police, and crime-reporting behavior is mainly based on certain personal characteristics such as gender, race, and socio-economic status. To test the influence of these demographic characteristics on crime-reporting behavior, four research hypotheses were developed.

Hypothesis eight predicted that women are more likely to report crimes to the police compared to men. By gender, prior literature suggests that males are less likely to report crimes to the police compared to their female counterparts (Scheafer et al., 2003; Howdon & Ryan, 2003; Thurman & Reisig, 1996; Frank et al., 2005; Carcach, 1997; Greenberg & Ruback, 1992; Bachman, 1998). Consistent with prior literature, the finding of the current study show that males were significantly less likely to report crimes to the police. This finding is independent of other demographic (e.g., race/ethnicity and socio-economic status) and non-demographic variables (e.g., prior victimization, police behavior, attitudes toward the police, etc.) included in the model.

Moreover, most researchers who have studied crime-reporting behavior have included race among the main crime-reporting predictors. Race has also been used to predict attitudes toward the police. To put this into context, the existing literature suggests that, by race, blacks are more likely to become the target of police-initiated contacts (Bates & Fassenfest, 2005; see also Chiricos et al., 2004; Warren & Tomaskovic-Devey, 2009). Davis's (2000) study, for example, indicates that African Americans are more likely to have involuntary contacts with the police (Davis, 2000). The Bureau of Justice Statistics's (2007) study also shows that minorities are more likely to experience police-initiated contacts compared to whites (see also Cheurprakobkit, 2000; Schafer et al., 2003). Thus, according to the existing literature, past negative experiences are more likely to occur from police-initiated contacts, and those contacts are more likely to involve minorities, which in turn produce negative effects on attitudes toward the police. In the context of this study, hypothesis nine predicted that by race, blacks are more likely to hold negative attitudes toward the police compared to whites. However, since blacks

statistically have more frequent contacts with the police, and in fact are more often victims of crime (see Howell, Perry, & Vile, 2004; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2001b, 2002c, 2007a; see also Bachman, 1998; Liska, 1992; Davis & Henderson, 2003; for reviews), hypothesis ten predicted that blacks are more likely to report crimes to the police.

Consistent with prior literature, the findings of the current study show that, by race, blacks are more likely to display negative attitudes toward the police compared to whites and other racial groups (e.g., Asians, Hispanics, and Native Americans). On the subject of crime-reporting behavior, the current study shows that blacks are less likely to report crimes to the police. These findings were also statistically supported at the multivariate analyses, which confirmed that blacks are less likely to report crimes to the police compared to whites. Thus, our initial hypothesis that blacks are more likely to report crimes to the police was incorrect. Researchers who suggested in prior studies that, by race, blacks are more likely to report crimes to the police will not find evidence to support their findings in the current study.

Finally, a great number of researchers have attempted to link socio-economic status to crime-reporting behavior. Along this edge, prior research indicates that people who live in socially and economically disadvantaged neighborhoods – the poor and the unemployed – are less likely to report crimes to the police (Smith, 1986; Goudriann et al., 2006; Baumer, 2002). In this context, hypothesis eleven predicted that individuals with higher socio-economic status (e.g., middle-class, upper middle-class, and the rich) are more likely to report crimes to the police compared to individuals with lower socio-economic status (e.g., the poor and the lower middle-class). Moreover, by the types of

crimes (e.g., property crimes vs. crimes against persons), research shows that the percentage of reported property crimes increases as the household income increases (Skogan, 1984, 1976a; Goudriaan, 2006; Greenberg, 1979). Thus, hypothesis twelve predicted that individuals with higher socio-economic status are more likely to report property crimes to the police compared to individuals with lower socio-economic status.

The findings of the current study are consistent with the prior literature showing that an increase in socio-economic status (i.e., from poor to lower middle-class or from lower middle-class to middle-class) is manifested with an increase in the reporting of crimes in general and an increase on the reporting of property crimes, in specific. Regardless of this positive relationship between the socio-economic status and crime-reporting behavior, these findings did not reach the significance level of $p < .05$. And as such, it is reasonable to conclude that socio-economic status is not a good predictor of crime-reporting behavior.

In summation, the findings of the current study suggest that of the three demographic variables that were tested in this study (e.g., gender, race, and socio-economic status), gender and race were the best predictors of crime-reporting behavior. Both of these two variables had a significant and substantial effect on crime-reporting behavior. This empirical evidence is practically the answer to the fourth research question in this study.

Anonymity Factor

One of the reasons why people fail to report crimes to the police is fear of criminal retaliation. To address this issue, three research hypotheses were developed and tested in the current study. Prior research concerning criminal retaliation suggests that

victims of crime fear future attacks (see Smith & Arian, 2006; Vellani & Nahoun, 2001; Singer, 1988; for reviews). This fear has an immense negative impact on the reporting behavior, especially when coupled with negative attitudes toward the police (see Goudriaan, 2006; Greenfeld et al., 1998; Smith & Arian, 2006; Goudriaan, Wittebrood, & Nieuwbeerta, 2006; Goudriaan & Nieuwbeerta, 2007; Bachman, 1998; for reviews). In other words, the victim fears that by reporting crimes or victimization events to the police, she or he will expose herself or himself to a greater risk, the risk of future criminal attacks. In this regard, hypothesis fifteen predicted that individuals who fear criminal retaliation and at some point have witnessed a crime are less likely to report that witnessed crime to the police. In such cases, these individuals would prefer to remain anonymous when calling the police to report a crime or a victimization event. Additionally, in the current study we hypothesized that individuals who prefer to remain anonymous when reporting witnessed crimes or victimization events to the police are less likely to report such crimes or victimization events to the police. And lastly, the negative emotional impact caused by fear of criminal retaliation on the victims or witnesses of crime is partially due to their negative attitudes toward the police. In other words, individuals who prefer to remain anonymous when reporting crimes or victimization events to the police are more likely to display negative attitudes toward the police.

Consistent with prior literature, at the bivariate level, the research findings of the current study show that fear of criminal retaliation has a significant negative effect on crime-reporting behavior. This suggests that individuals who fear criminal retaliation are indeed less likely to report crimes to the police. Except for the effect on the reporting of medium-level crimes, the effect of the fear of criminal retaliation was significant even

when controlling for the effects of other variables in the model at the multivariate level. Overall, the findings of this study suggest that fear of criminal retaliation is one of the best crime-reporting predictors among other crime-reporting predictors tested in this study.

Furthermore, at the bivariate level, the findings of the current study show that individuals who preferred to remain anonymous were less likely to report crimes to the police. This finding suggests that if anonymity is assured, and their names will not be made public or if the police do not ask persons who report crimes to reveal their identity, then there will be an increase in crime-reporting behavior. Unfortunately, we did not find support for these findings in the multivariate analyses. In fact, the multivariate analyses show that crime-reporting anonymity has a positive effect on crime-reporting behavior, which contradicts the findings at the bivariate level. Nonetheless, crime-reporting anonymity remains a relevant factor in predicting crime-reporting behavior.

Additionally, crime-reporting anonymity or the desire to remain anonymous when reporting a witnessed crime or victimization event to the police, as conceptualized in this study, was negatively correlated with attitudes toward the police. The current study reveals that individuals who prefer to remain anonymous are more likely to hold negative attitudes toward the police. As it can be seen, this finding suggests that crime-reporting anonymity, attitudes toward the police, and crime-reporting behavior are interrelated. This means that crime-reporting anonymity negatively affects attitudes toward the police, and those who hold negative attitudes toward the police are less likely to report crimes to the police. Obviously, the answer to the fifth research question in this study is that crime-reporting anonymity on its own, regardless of the significance level, influences crime-

reporting behavior directly and indirectly through mediating variables such as attitudes toward the police.

Prior Victimization

The effect of prior victimization on crime-reporting behavior depends largely on intervening variables. That is, prior victimization by itself is not a strong determinant of crime-reporting behavior. Some researchers suggest that crime-reporting behavior is affected by the victim's prior experience with the police, by whether or not an arrest is made by the police in an effort to investigate the crime that has affected the victim, and by the police response to the individual's own prior victimization rather than victimization of another household member (see Xei et al., 2006; Simpson, 2003; Holmberg, 2004). This tells us that the victim's decision whether or not to report crimes or victimization events to the police is, to some degree, affected by external factors (e.g., police behavior), factors other than victimization events. However, external factors such as police behavior may have positive or negative effects only on the motivation of the victim to report crimes to the police. Needless to say, motivation is not the only necessary element that determines one's crime-reporting behavior. Sometimes, victims of crime are forced to put a stop to, for instance, repeat victimizations (Watkins, 2005). This means that, regardless of the negative effects of external factors (e.g., police behavior, fear of criminal retaliation, etc), the decision to report crimes to the police can be affected purely by the victim's perception of the event, which in most cases includes taking into account the seriousness of the victimization events, the type of victimization events (i.e., being a victim of property crimes vs. being a victim of crimes against persons), and the relationship between the victim and the offender (see Carcach, 1997; Bennett &

Wiegand, 1994; Skogan, 1984; Bachman, 1993; Goudriaan & Nieuwbeerta, 2007; Conaway & Lohr, 1994; Zhang et al., 2007; Durose et al., 2005; Finkelhor & Wolak, 2003; Finkelhor, Wolak, & Berliner, 2001; for reviews).

The current study is limited to examining whether or not prior victimization is a strong predictor of crime-reporting behavior. To address this issue, three research hypotheses were tested in this study. Hypothesis sixteen predicted that individuals who have been previously victimized by crime – regardless of the type of crime (e.g., property crimes or crimes against persons) – are more likely to report witnessed crimes or victimization events to the police. The findings of this study suggest that being victimized by a crime had an insignificant effect on crime-reporting behavior. In other words, the data in the current study suggest that the decision whether or not to report a crime to the police is not affected by prior victimization status.

To further examine the effect of prior victimization, this time by the type of victimization events (i.e., by looking at the difference between victims of property crimes and those who never been victims of property crimes), another research hypothesis was tested. In this context, hypothesis seventeen predicted that individuals who have been victims of property crimes are more likely to report crimes to the police. The results of the current study show that being a victim of property crime had an insignificant effect on crime-reporting behavior. By the severity of crimes, this effect was statistically insignificant for all three levels of reporting (i.e., the reporting of less serious crimes, medium-level crimes, and serious crimes). Additionally, the effect of property crime victimization on crime-reporting behavior did not reach the statistical significance of $p < .05$ at the multivariate level either. In terms of the positive or negative direction of the

effect, the research findings of the current study suggest that victims of property crimes are generally more likely to report less serious crimes and serious crimes, but less likely to report medium-level crimes.

The last research hypothesis tested in this study predicted that individuals who have been victims of crimes against persons are less likely to report witnessed crimes or victimization events to the police compared to those who have not been victims of such events. At the bivariate level of the analysis, the research results of the current study somewhat support this hypothesis. Although the effect was insignificant, the current study suggests that individuals who have been victims of crimes against persons are less likely to report crimes to the police. Unexpectedly, this finding changed when tested at the multivariate level. Thus, the multivariate analyses show that being a victim of crimes against persons has a positive effect on crime-reporting behavior.

In summation, this study is limited to addressing the effect of prior victimization on crime-reporting behavior by 1) the type of victimization (i.e., being a victim of property crimes or a victim of crimes against persons), 2) being a victim of a crime, regardless of the type of crime versus not being a victim, and 3) the difference in crime-reporting variation between the two. Overall, the findings of the current study suggest that prior victimization cannot be considered a good predictor of crime-reporting behavior. Thus, to answer the sixth research question in this study, more research is needed since this study limitedly focused on testing all angles of the effect of prior victimization on crime-reporting behavior.

Path Analysis

The assessment of crime-reporting behavior involves multiple causal influences. In order to determine the influence of a particular set of correlates on crime-reporting behavior, it is therefore necessary to examine both the direct and indirect relationships among variables within a specific theoretical model. The goal of path analysis in the current study was to specify all possible causal linkages among the six sets of variables included in the initially theorized causal model. In this context, the interrelationships between variables were subcategorized into causal (i.e., direct or indirect) and noncausal (e.g., spurious) components. This way, we were able to extricate complex interrelationships between variables and thus identify the most significant pathways in predicting crime-reporting behavior.

As indicated at the beginning of this chapter, the primary purpose of this study was to develop a crime-reporting model that best explains crime-reporting behavior. We have since categorized crime-reporting behavior by the degree of severity of crimes (e.g., less serious crimes, medium-level crimes, and serious crimes); then three final path causal models were developed in this study. The results for path analyses in the current study show that crime-reporting behavior can be explained by different sets of correlates for each level. This means that, in terms of the severity of crimes, the same set of predictors cannot be used to explain the reporting of less serious crimes (e.g., smoking marijuana, selling illicit drugs, painting graffiti, etc.), medium-level crimes (e.g., physical threats, future terroristic threats, etc.), and serious crimes (e.g., kidnapping, rape, murder, etc.).

The reporting of less serious crimes. The final path model (crime-reporting 1) that explains the reporting of less serious crimes includes five crime-reporting predictors. Among the best crime-reporting predictors used to explain the reporting of less serious crimes were gender, race, citizen-initiated contacts with the police, attitudes toward the police, and fear of criminal retaliation. These predictors were selected due to their strong and yet statistically significant direct effect they had on willingness to report less serious crimes to the police. This final path model explained approximately 27% of the variation in the reporting of less serious crimes. It is noteworthy that police behavior and crime-reporting anonymity, although excluded from the final model, had a substantial negative indirect effect through attitudes toward the police, a mediating variable, on willingness to report less serious crimes. However, inclusion of these two predictors did not increase the explained variation in the reporting of less serious crimes. Therefore, to comply with the principles of parsimony and simplicity of the theoretical model, these two predictors were excluded.

The reporting of medium-level crimes. The final path model (crime-reporting 2) that explains the reporting of medium-level crimes includes four crime-reporting predictors. Among the best crime-reporting predictors used to explain the reporting of medium-level crimes were gender, race, attitudes toward the police, and exposure to media about police misconduct. This final path model explained approximately 9% of the variation in the reporting of medium-level crimes. Citizen-initiated contacts with the police and fear of criminal retaliation were excluded from the second path model while media exposure was brought into the model, a variable that was insignificant in explaining the reporting of less serious crimes. While in the process of creating a

parsimonious model with as few parameters as possible, two variables (e.g., citizen-initiated contacts and fear of criminal retaliation) were excluded from this model. Again, the exclusion of these two predictors is in compliance with the main goal of this study, which was to develop a model that is simplistic and parsimonious, a model that best explains the reporting of medium-level crimes.

The reporting of serious crimes. The final path model (crime-reporting 3) that explains the reporting of serious crimes includes seven crime-reporting predictors. Among the best crime-reporting predictors used to explain the reporting of serious crimes were race, frequency of contacts with the police, police behavior, fear of criminal retaliation, attitudes toward the police, and exposure to media about police misconduct. This final path model explained approximately 19% of the variation in the reporting of serious crimes. As can be seen, the analyses in the current study show that police behavior has a significant negative effect on willingness to report serious crimes to the police. In other path models, police behavior and frequency of contacts with the police did not have significant direct effects on crime-reporting behavior. This includes the reporting of less serious crimes and medium-level crimes. In addition to their direct effects, police behavior and race had a substantial indirect effect on willingness to report serious crimes to the police. The indirect effect of police behavior on the reporting of serious crime was delivered through fear of criminal retaliation, a mediating variable. The indirect effect of race on the reporting of serious crimes, on the other hand, was delivered through three mediating variables, namely through media exposure, police behavior, and fear of criminal retaliation.

In summation, crime-reporting behavior can be explained by different sets of correlates for each crime-reporting level (e.g., less serious crimes, medium-level, and serious crimes). The findings of this study suggest that we are unable to use the same crime-reporting predictors to explain or predict people's willingness to report less serious crimes, medium-level crimes, and serious crimes because the predictors' influence on crime-reporting behavior varies by the level of severity of crime (see Table 92). Nonetheless, there are some commonalities between the three crime-reporting models. For instance, police behavior and fear of criminal retaliation had a substantial indirect effect on all three crime-reporting levels, in addition to their direct effects.

Table 92

A Summary of Significant Variables for Each Crime-Reporting Model: Rank-Ordered Based on Their Importance

Less Serious Crimes	Medium-Level Crimes	Serious Crimes
1. Attitudes T/ Police	1. Attitudes T/ Police	1. Police Behavior
2. Fear of Criminal Retaliation	2. Gender	2. Race (Asian)
3. Gender	3. Race (Asian)	3. Race (Black)
4. Citizen-Initiated Contacts	4. Exposure to Media	4. Fear of Criminal Ret.
5. Race (Asian)		5. Race (Other)
		6. Exposure to Media
		7. Frequency of Contact

Note: Each variable is rank-ordered based on the value of standardized regression coefficient, with 1 representing the most important predictor and 7 representing the least important predictor.

Policy Implications

The current study does not supply an answer to the question of whether crime-reporting should be increased in general or the reporting of certain types of crimes in specific. Theoretically, an increased crime-reporting level, however, may be viewed as positive by many criminologists. When looking at the positive side of crime-reporting, there are several policy implications. For instance, an increased reporting of crimes will help us gain a more accurate picture of the nature of victimization. Thus, better decisions can be made about allocating public crime prevention resources to crime prevention. This means that crime prevention programs, whether they are based on the principles of deterrence, incapacitation, or rehabilitation, would be more refined. Additionally, knowing which crimes are more frequently reported to the police helps in defining the tasks for the police. This suggests the implementation of targeted policing; a form of intelligence-led policing that is offense-specific, offender-specific, place-specific, and time-specific. In this regard, an increased reporting of crimes helps the police implement target-specific police tactics and strategies in dealing with crime problems.

At the societal level, crime-reporting can also be linked to the principle of equal protection under the law. The society normatively demands that victims of crime receive equal protection and offenders who commit crime receive equal punishment. This principle would not operate if there is a systematic under-reporting of crimes, especially if there is an under-reporting of specific repeat victimization events. In this context, an increase in the reporting of crimes would be beneficial to the victims of crime; it would change the direction of future victimizations by the same offender. This means that reporting victimization events to the police will reduce the chance of future victimization

by the same offender. Prior research shows that most crimes against persons, including sexual assaults, are committed by someone known to the victim (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1997b, 2002, 2003, 2005b; Bachman, 1993; Kaukinen, 2002; Gartner & Macmillan, 1995; Williams, 1994). This tells us that victims of crime do not receive equal protection under the law since crimes that occur in such intimate social environments are less likely to get the attention of the police (Bachman, 1993, 1998; see also Williams, 1994). In this context, non-reporting of crimes may have negative consequences on those vulnerable groups – this includes victims of domestic violence – that are more often affected by crime. If those crimes do not get the attention of the police, individuals affected by those crimes will be further neglected; thus, they will be further victimized by crime. The victims will not get the police protection they deserve, and the criminals will not get the punishment they deserve.

An increase in the reporting of crimes also helps to develop more accurate criminal typologies and profiles, which can be quite useful for law enforcement practitioners. Non-reporting significantly limits our knowledge about the offenders. This knowledge is usually derived from profiling known apprehended offenders. Thus, an increased reporting helps improve offender profiling, a behavioral and investigative tool that helps the police to profile yet unknown offenders.

In addition to general policy implications, crime-reporting behavior has specific policy implications also. One specific finding of the current study suggests that fear of criminal retaliation, for example, negatively influences crime-reporting behavior. Prior research shows that many crimes go unpunished due to lack of sufficient evidence to convict the criminal (Ferri & Smithers, 2009; Jennings, 1989). One of the key pieces of

evidence to convict an offender is the victim's testimony. For individuals who have been victimized by crime or have witnessed the commission of a crime, it becomes very difficult to take the risk of testifying in court against an offender, especially testifying against a well-known offender (e.g., gang member, drug dealers, etc.). In this context, this study inferentially suggests the implementation of policies that do not mandate the caller to disclose information about himself or herself when reporting a witnessed crime to authorities. Additionally, this study shows that people who prefer to remain anonymous when reporting a crime to the police are more likely to report subsequent crimes. Thus, victim disclosure is crucial to the reporting of subsequent crimes. This finding suggests limiting access to sensitive information about victims who come forward with information about crimes or reporting on-going victimizations.

A second specific finding of the current study suggests that police misconduct negatively affects crime-reporting behavior. Exposure to such police behavior has a negative effect on the public attitudes toward the police as well. Research shows that individuals who hold negative attitudes toward the police (i.e., do not trust the police, fear the police, or more generally, are not satisfied with police performance) are less likely to report witnessed crimes to the police (Davis & Henderson, 2003; Laub, 1981; Sorenson & Telles, 1991; Reynolds, Semukhina, & Demidov, 2008; Carcach, 1997; Greenberg & Ruback, 1992; Bachman, 1998; Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 1987; see also MacDonald & Strokes, 2006; Rosenbaum, Schuck, et al., 2005). Attitudes are also known to affect communicational behavior between citizens and, in this case, the police (see Foster, 1998). The problem here is that a citizen's cooperation with the police (i.e., reporting crimes to the police) determines police success since citizens' cooperation in general

helps the police solve crime, confirms police legitimacy, and makes the community safer. Therefore, it is suggestive that police administrators enforce departmental regulations about police misconduct since it seems to negatively affect the relationship between the police and the community. Such relationships are counterproductive in building and maintaining social order.

Another specific finding of the current study with potential policy implications is citizens' frequency of contacts with the police. The findings of the current study suggest that an increased number of contacts with the police has a positive effect on crime-reporting behavior, the kind of effect envisioned by the supporters and implementers of community policing policy; a policing philosophy that embraces the interaction between the police and the public.

Thus far, the discussion has been focused on the positive side of crime-reporting behavior. But crime-reporting behavior is a knife with two blades. An increase in crime-reporting will also have a negative consequence the follow. That is, parallel with an increase in the number of reported crimes to the police, there would be an increase in the number of criminal and civil cases facing the police and the courts. Thus, changes in the existing crime-reporting behavior could overload the existing criminal justice system (see Reiss, 1971; Carcach, 1997). Perhaps crime-reporting, from this point of view, has negative implications in the criminal justice system since an increased police and court workload might result in an increase in pressure for the expansion of the police force, and in fact for the entire criminal justice system. Evidently, this could lead to prison overcrowding as well.

Finally, to persuade people to report more crime could overwhelm the existing capacity of the criminal justice system, especially when encouraging people to report trifling and insignificant criminal cases while this may reroute the attention away from more significant and more serious crimes. Therefore, the concern for unreported or under-reported crimes should be directed only to cases involving serious crimes.

Limitations and Strengths

Limitations

There is no such thing as a perfect method of investigating a particular research phenomenon. All research methods, whether quantitative or qualitative in nature, have their weaknesses. The research method that was employed in this project, too, has its own weaknesses and limitations. In fact, there are several major weakness of this study that need to be discussed here. Namely, this study is cross-sectional in nature, the primary data collection method is a survey questionnaire, there are inherent weaknesses of quantitative design itself, and this study will not be subject of validation process by namely employing multiple methods to validate the research findings produced by this quantitative survey method.

The first limitation is that this research is cross-sectional. Although it serves our purposes well in terms of costs and time, it does not permit us to capture with certainty social processes or changes that may occur over time. Thus, with the results of the cross-sectional nature of this study, many questions will remain unanswered in this research. We will not be able to determine whether or not respondents' crime-reporting behavior will change in the near future, and we will not be able to determine whether or not respondents' crime-reporting behavior has been different in the past. This can be done

more effectively by adopting a longitudinal design or an experimental design. However, this is not to say that longitudinal designs do not have flaws, it only means that a longitudinal design is more advanced than a cross-sectional design, the design that has been employed in this project (Maxfield & Babbie, 2008, 2001, also see Champion, 2000; Neuman, 1991; for a discussion on research designs).

The second limitation of this study is that the data collection method was a survey questionnaire. Thus, with surveys there are inherent problems that become next to impossible to overcome. Some of the problems with surveys that we think may have affected the research findings are outlined below:

- Survey errors such as coding, tabulating, data processing, missing data, and data misinterpretation.
- Recall problems. Some of the questions in this study asked respondents to recall, for example, the number of contacts with the police and the type of contacts they have had with the police in the past. This may have led to some degree of inaccuracy in answering those questions and thus may put the internal validity of this study into question.
- Survey length. The questionnaire for this study consisted of 111 items comprising fifteen pages. This has contributed to some missing data. Due to the length of this questionnaire, some of the respondents did not complete the entire questionnaire or skipped many questions. As a result, 21 surveys were turned in incomplete. Additionally, the length of the questionnaire, to some degree, may have contributed to an inaccuracy of the responses. Because of

this length, some responses may not accurately depict the true perception of the respondents' crime-reporting behavior.

- Closed-ended questions. All questions in this survey questionnaire were closed-ended. The respondents were not given the option of explaining their answers or to put things into a context. Closed-ended questions usually force respondents to give simplistic responses (standardized responses) to very complex issues. However, this may not be a concern in this study because the main purpose of this study was to determine the relative, not the absolute, influence of certain variables on crime-reporting behavior.
- Wording of questions, which may have led to misinterpretation of the meaning of the questions, and this misinterpretation, may have gone unnoticed. Not everyone has interpreted the meaning of the same question(s) in the same way, uniformly. In other words, the consistency of the interpretation of question(s) may have varied from individual to individual, although maximum efforts have been made to make sure that questions were worded in such a way as to avoid misinterpretation or double-meanings.
- Social desirability effect. Some people tend to find the middle-ground to answer questions in the questionnaire. Thus, to some degree, the data may have suffered from social favorability, an inherited form of bias in research (for more information on limitations of survey research, see Dilman, 2007; Rea & Parker, 2005; Fowler, 1995; DeVellis, 2003).

The third weakness relates to the nature of the quantitative method, the primary data collection and analysis method, compared to other research methods, namely, a

qualitative method. Unlike qualitative research, quantitative research does not help us understand the framework within which people interpret and rationalize their actions. Furthermore, the quantitative method does not help us understand the meaning of events that occur in people's lives or the meaning of the responses the subjects gave us in the survey. We can only standardize the interpretation of the meaning of the responses that the subjects gave us through the survey questionnaire, but we were not able to contextualize and understand respondents' perspectives (see Glesne & Pashkin, 1992; also see Patton, 2002; Marshall & Gretchen, 1998; Corner, 2006; for more information). Thus, what we have reported in this study is the relative meaning of the responses collected through a standardized survey questionnaire, whose aim was to classify features that explain crime-reporting behavior, and construct statistical models in an attempt to explain what is observed at the empirical level (see Kerlinger, 1999). Although as useful as it seems to be, a quantitative method did not permit us to offer a complete and detailed description of the crime-reporting behavior. This can be done more effectively by employing qualitative methods in addition to the quantitative method. For instance, by adopting a multimethod approach to investigate the same phenomenon, or by replicating the same study, this time qualitatively.

Strengths

One of the strengths of this study is that it was quantitative in nature. That is, unlike qualitative research, quantitative research is more generalizable (Sandelowski, 1999). Additionally, research findings are more stable, meaning that this study can be replicated multiple times by using the same data collection instrument (the survey questionnaire). Unlike qualitative research, in which the data collection instrument is the

researcher himself, in this research, the data collection instrument was a survey questionnaire. Thus, this is a standardized form of collecting data, whereas in qualitative research, the researchers may be selective during the data collection process due to his empathic involvement. Being quantitative in nature, perhaps this is one of the major strengths of this study. Moreover, exact replication cannot be done with qualitative designs as effectively as it would be the case with quantitative designs. Besides, the replication of a study that employs a qualitative design may produce different results each time it is replicated. Many researchers argue that qualitative research, if replicated, may produce problems with reliability since the data collection instrument in qualitative studies is the researcher himself, and may not be as reliable as a survey instrument, for example (see Neuman & Wiegand, 2000; see also Neuman, 1991; Maxfield & Babbie, 2008; Silverman, 2005; Kvale, 1996).

A second strength of this study is that through various statistical procedures (e.g., regression analysis), to some degree, we were able to predict people's crime-reporting behavior to some degree. Qualitative methods will only offer an interpretation of information gathered in the context in which it takes place, rather than predicting, in this case, crime-reporting behavior (for a more detailed discussion on the strengths of a quantitative research method, see Miles & Huberman, 1994; Walker, 2005; Carr, 2008).

Another advantage of this study is that the findings are based on a large sample ($n = 531$) of students who filled out the survey questionnaire. In research, this takes precedence over qualitative designs because in qualitative research, the researcher usually selects a limited number of subjects. Therefore, the research findings would not be able to quantitatively generalize to other settings, people, or times, under the same conditions.

In addition to the above strengths, this study was less likely to be affected by respondents' social desirability, which is a major concern with both qualitative and quantitative designs. Qualitative designs that employ interviews as a method of collecting data are more likely to be affected by social desirability compared to quantitative designs. The respondents tend to be influenced by the presence of the interviewer, thus making them more inclined to favor socially or culturally acceptable answers. In other words, respondents tend to respond in a way that is more acceptable or expected by the general public. For example, if they were asked whether they would report crime to the police (by reading a list of crimes to them) in an interview-based research, they would have been more likely to agree that they would have reported all types of crimes to the police (see Mosher, Miethe, & Phillips, 2002; see also Sudman, Bradburn, Blair, & Stocking, 1977 for a comparison of quantitative and qualitative designs). In this case, the subject's responses would have been influenced by the presence of the interviewer. This was not the case, however, with survey research.

Since this was a survey research, due to the anonymity that the survey research offered to the respondents, the information collected through this survey instrument was less likely to be affected by social desirability. The respondents who participated in this survey research were not intimidated by the survey questionnaire to the same extent as it would have been the case by the presence of the interviewer if this was a qualitative research, where the data collection instrument would have been the researcher or interviewer (or the presence of the researcher in the participant observation research in ethnographic research, for example).

Future Research

This study did not examine the relationship between the victim and the offender. Prior literature suggests that the victim-offender relationship is one of the major factors that affect a victim's crime-reporting behavior. Along this line, there are a number of studies showing that an increased social distance between the victim and the offender results in an increased reporting of witnessed crimes and victimization events to the police (Bachman, 1993; Kaukinen, 2002; Gartner & Macmillan, 1995; Williams, 1994; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2002, 2003; see also Pescosolido, 1992; Skogan, 1976a). Bachman (1993), for example, found that victims of rape were more likely to report victimization events to the police when the perpetrator was unknown to them (Bachman, 1993, 1998; see also Williams, 1994). In this context, research shows that most sexual assaults, including rape, are committed by someone known to the victim (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1997b, 2002, 2005b). This tells us that a great number of violent crimes (e.g., rape and sexual assault) go unreported, which can be attributed to the victim-offender relationship. Future research should fill this gap by exploring the effect of victim-offender relationship on crime-reporting behavior. Additionally, the seriousness of crime has also been identified as a key factor that affects crime-reporting behavior. Thus, future research should examine whether or not there is a strong association between the seriousness of the offense and the victim-offender relationship, and to what extent these two factors affect crime-reporting behavior. Future research should also examine the difference in the reporting of violence committed by strangers and violence committed by less intimate known offenders (e.g. coworkers, friends, and relatives). And last but not least, future research should also answer the question: is there a difference between male

victims of crime and female victims of crime on their reporting behavior? This can be extended to include two types of crimes, namely crimes against persons and property crimes, including the location of crime occurrences (i.e., public locations vs. private locations).

Conclusion

This research study provides a number of theoretical and substantive contributions to the existing literature on crime-reporting behavior, while offering a number of theoretical models which help predict crime-reporting behavior. The findings of this study tell us that while attempting to explain crime-reporting behavior, even when including the best crime-reporting predictors into the model, a great number of questions remain unanswered. However, the purpose of this dissertation was to develop three simplistic and parsimonious theoretical models that best explain crime-reporting behavior. Thus, in this dissertation, we do not claim that we have developed theoretical models that offer an absolute answer to unreported or under-reported crimes.

Overall, the results that emerge in the current study show that crime-reporting behavior varies by the severity and the consequences of crimes. Therefore, the same sets of correlates cannot be used to explain, for instance, the reporting of less serious crimes (e.g., smoking marijuana, selling illicit drugs, painting graffiti, etc.), the reporting of medium-level crimes (e.g., physical threats, future terroristic threats, etc), and the reporting of serious crimes (e.g., kidnapping, rape, murder, etc.). For these reasons, three crime-reporting models were developed, each with its own set of crime-reporting correlates. This, however, does not mean that each model has unique crime-reporting

predictors; it only means that certain crime-reporting predictors do not predict all three crime-reporting levels.

One of the most significant findings to emerge from this study is the effect of police behavior on crime-reporting behavior. The findings indicate that police misconduct is a good crime-reporting predictor only for predicting the reporting of serious crimes. The reporting of less serious crimes and medium-level crimes, on the other hand, cannot be explained by taking police behavior into account. Nonetheless, the relevancy of taking police behavior into account when explaining crime-reporting behavior is clearly supported by the findings of the current study.

A second major research finding in the current study concerns the effect of citizens' attitudes toward the police on crime-reporting behavior. Most prior research studies have included attitudes toward the police as one of the best and most reliable predictor of crime-reporting behavior. The results of the current study concur with prior research that attitude is in fact one of the best crime-reporting predictors. However, it is noteworthy that the predicting power of attitudes toward the police tends to disappear as the seriousness of crime increases. In this context, the findings of the current study show that attitudes toward the police do not have a significant effect on the reporting of serious crimes. The effect of attitudes toward the police is more pronounced in the reporting of less serious crimes and medium-level crimes.

A third major research finding and perhaps the most important one in this study is the effect of fear of criminal retaliation on crime-reporting behavior, a crime-reporting issue that has not been studied by very many researchers in the context of reporting behavior. The results of the current study suggest that individuals who fear they may

become the target of future attacks by potential offenders are more reluctant to come forward and report crimes to the police.

In summation, the findings of the current study show that gender, race, citizen interaction with the police, attitudes toward the police, police behavior, and fear of criminal retaliation emerged as the most reliable crime-reporting predictors.

REFERENCES

- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1980). *Understanding attitudes and predicting behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice hall.
- Alderson, J. (1979). *Policing freedom, dilemmas of policing in western democracies*. Plymouth: Macdonald and Evans.
- Alper, G. P., & Dunham, R. G. (2004). *Understanding police use of force: Officers, suspects, and reciprocity*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Antunes, G. E., Cook, L. F., Cook, T. D., & Skogan, W. G. (1977). Patterns of personal crime against the elderly. *The Gerontologist*, 17 (4), 321-327.
- Ashbaugh, L., & Cornell, D. (2008). Sexual harassment and bullying behaviors in sixth graders. *Journal of School Violence*, 7, 21-38.
- Apsler, R., Cummins, M. R., & Carl, S. (2003). Perceptions of the police by female victims of domestic partner violence. *Violence Against Women*, 9 (11), 1318-1335.
- Bachman, R. (1993). Predicting the reporting of rape victimizations: Have rape reforms made a difference? *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 20 (3), 254-270.
- Bachman, R. (1998). The factors related to rape reporting behavior and arrest: New evidence from the national crime victimization survey. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 25 (1), 8-29.
- Bachman, R., & Paternoster, R. (2004). *Statistics for criminology and criminal justice* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc.
- Bachman, R., & Schutt, R. K. (2003). *The practice of research in criminology and criminal justice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publishing Inc.
- Banks, C. (2004). *Criminal justice ethics: Theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publication, Inc.
- Barker, T., & Carter, D. L. (1986). *Police deviance*. Cincinnati, OH: Pilgrimage.
- Bartlett, M. S. (1954). A note on the multiplying factors for various chi square approximations. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*, 16, 296-298.
- Bates, T., & Fasenfest, D. (2005). Enforcement mechanisms discouraging black-American presence in suburban Detroit. *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research*, 29 (4), 960-971.

- Baxter, M. J. (1994). *Exploratory multivariate analysis in archaeology*. Edinburgh, UK: Edinburgh University Press.
- Baumer, E. P. (2002). Neighborhood disadvantage and police notification by victims of violence. *Criminology*, 40, 579-616.
- Beat, J. K., & Barton, B. (2005). *Medical statistics: A guide to data analysis and critical appraisal*. London, UK: Wiley, John & Sons
- Beck, A., & Yulia, C. (2004). Closing the gap between the police and the public in post-Soviet Ukraine: A bridge too far? *Police Practice and Research*, 5, 43-65.
- Bennett, R. R. (2004). Calling for service: Mobilization of the police across socio-cultural environments. *Police Practice and Research*, 5, 25-41.
- Bennett, R. R., & Wiegand, B. R. (1994). Observations on crime reporting in a developed nation. *Criminology*, 32 (1), 135-148.
- Bentler, P. M. (2005). *EQS 6 Structural equations program manual*. Encino, CA: Multivariate Software.
- Bickford, J. H., Jr. (2004). *Effects of occupation as police officer and differential survival status of victims of violent crime on adjudication of criminal*. Department of Psychology, Salem State College.
- Bickman, L. (1976). Attitudes toward an authority and the reporting of a crime. *Sociometry*, 39 (1), 76-82.
- Binder, A., & Scharf, P. (1980). The violent police-citizen encounters. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 452, 111-121.
- Block, J., & Block, J. H. (1980). *The California child q-set*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Block, R. (1974). Why notify the police: The victim's decision to notify the police of an assault. *Criminology*, 11 (4), 555-569.
- Braithwaite, H. (1996, July). *Police officer's behaviors associated with successful conflict resolution*. Paper presented at the Australian Institute of Criminology Conference, Sydney, Australia.
- Brandl, S., Frank, J., Worden, R., & Bynum, T. (1994). Global and specific attitudes toward the police. *Justice Quarterly*, 11, 119-134.

- Breckler, S. J., & Wiggins, E. C. (1992). On defining attitude and attitude theory: Once more with feeling. In A. R. Pratkanis, S. J. Breckler, & A. C. Greenwald (Eds.), *Attitude structure and function* (pp. 407-427). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Brown, B., & Benedict, W. (2002). Perception of the police. *Policing*, 25, 543-580.
- Brown, J., & Delores, D. (2000). Debunking the myth of officer friendly: How African American males experience community policing. *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice*, 16, 209-229.
- Brown, S. R., & Melamed, L. E. (1990). *Experimental design and analysis*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Bryman, A. (2004). *Social research methods* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (1996). *Female victims of violent crimes*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (1997a). *Age patterns of victims of serious violent crimes*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (1997b). *Sex offenses and offenders: An analysis of data on rape and sexual assault*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (1998a). *Police use of force: Collection of national data*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (1998b). *Workplace violence, 1992-96*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (1999). *Contact between police and the public: Findings from the 1999 national survey*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (2001). *Contacts between police and the public: Findings from the 1999 national survey*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (2001b). *Criminal victimization, 2001: Changes with 1999-2000 with trends 1993-2000*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (2002a). *Rape and sexual assault: Reporting to police and medial attention, 1992-2000*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (2002c). *Criminal victimization, 2001: Changes with 2000-2001 with trends 1993-2001*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.

- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (2003). *Reporting crime to the police, 1992-2000*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (2003b). *Criminal victimization, 2002*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (2004). *Criminal victimization, 2003*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (2005a). *Crimes against persons age 65 or older, 1993-2002*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (2005b). *Violent victimization of college students, 1995-2002*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (2005c). *Hate crimes reporting by victims and police*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (2005d). *Contacts between police and the public: Findings from the 2002 national survey*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (2005e). *Criminal victimization, 2004*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (2006a). *Criminal victimization, 2005*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (2006b). *Characteristics of drivers stopped by police, 2002*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (2006c). *Citizen complaints about police use of force*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (2007a). *Black victims of violent crime*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (2007b). *Contacts between police and the public, 2005*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (2007c). *Criminal victimization, 2006*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Byrne, J., Conway, M., & Ostermeyer, M. (2005). *Young people's attitudes and experiences of policing: Violence and community safety in North Belfast*. Northern Ireland: Institute for Conflict Research.

- Campbell, A., & Shuman, H. (1972). *A comparison of black and white attitudes and experiences in the city, the end of innocence: A suburban reader*. Glenview, IL: Scot Foresman.
- Campbell, D. T., & Fiske, D. W. (1959). Convergent and discriminant validation by the multitrait-multimethod matrix. *Psychological Bulletin*, 56, 81-105.
- Cantillon, D., Davidson, W. S., & Schweitzer, J. H. (2003). Measuring community social organization: Sense of community as a mediator in social disorganization theory. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 31, 321-339.
- Cao, L., Garcia, V. (2005). Race and satisfaction with the police in a small city. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 33 (2), 191-199.
- Cao, L., Stack, S., & Yi, S. (1998). Public attitudes toward the police: A comparative study between Japan and America. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 26 (4), 279-289.
- Carcach, C. (1997). *Reporting crime to the police*. Australia: Australian Institute of Criminology.
- Carter, D. L. (1985). Hispanic perceptions of police performance: An empirical assessment. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 13, 487-500.
- Carducci, B. J. (n. d.). *Path analysis: A brief introduction*. New Albany, IN: Shynes Research Institute.
- Carmines, E. G., & Zeller, R. A. (1979). *Reliability and validity assessment: Quantitative applications in the social sciences*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Carr, L. T. (2008). The strengths and weaknesses of quantitative and qualitative research: What method for nursing? *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 20 (4), 716-721.
- Cattell, R. B. (1966). The scree test for the number of factors. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 1, 629-637.
- Champion, D. J. (2001). *Police misconduct in America: A reference handbook*. Santa Barbara, CA: ABC, CLIO.
- Champion, D. J. (2000). *Research methods for criminal justice and criminology* (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Champion, D. J., & Vasan, M. (2001). *Police misconduct in America: A reference handbook*. Oxford, UK: ABC-Clio, Inc.

- Chermak, S., McGarrell, E., Gruenewald, J. (2004). Media coverage of police misconduct and attitudes toward police. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 29 (2), 261-281.
- Chaurprakobkit, S. (2000). Police-citizen contact and police performance attitudinal differences between Hispanics and non-Hispanics. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 28, 325-336.
- Chaurprakobkit, S., & Bartsch, R. A. (2001). Police performance: A model for assessing citizens' satisfaction and the importance of police attributes. *Police Quarterly*, 4 (4), 449-468.
- Child, D. (2006). *The essentials of factor analysis* (3rd ed). New York: Continuum International Publishing Group.
- Chiricos, T., Welch, K., & Gertz, M. (2004). Racial typification of crime and support for punitive measures. *Criminology*, 42 (2), 359-389.
- Chow, H. P. (2002). Police community relations: Chinese attitudes toward the police in Toronto. *Canadian Ethnic Studies*, 34 (2), 90-102.
- Clark, J. P., & Wenninger, E. P. (1964). The attitudes of juveniles toward the legal institution. *The Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Political Science*, 55 (4), 482-489.
- Cohen, A. K. (1955). *Delinquent Boys: The Culture of the Gang*. Glencoe, IL: Free Press.
- Cohen, A. K., & Short, J. (1958). Research in Delinquent Subcultures. *Journal of Social Issues*, 14, 20-37.
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Coleman, C., & Moynihan, J. (1996). *Understanding crime data: Haunted by the dark figure*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Conaway, M. R., & Lohr, S. L. (1994). A longitudinal analysis of factors associated with reporting violent crimes to the police. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, 10, 23-39.
- Cooke, C. A., Puddifoot, J. E., & Brown, J. (2001). Underlying dimensions in young people's attitudes towards police weaponry in England: Some experiential influences from criminal victimization and police contact. *Legal and Criminological Psychology*, 6, 149-163.

- Cook, T. D., & Campbell, D. T. (1979). *Quasi-experimentation: Design and analysis for field settings*. Chicago, IL: Rand McNally College Publishing Company.
- Corner, J. (2006). In search of more complete answer to research questions: Quantitative versus qualitative research methods, is there a way? *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 16 (6), 718-727.
- Cotton, D. (2004). The attitudes of Canadian police officers toward the mentally ill. *International Journal of Law and Psychiatry*, 27, 135-146.
- Cronbach, L. J., & Meehl, P. (1955). Construct validity in psychological tests. *Psychological bulletin*, 52, 281-302.
- Crowne, D. P., & Marlowe, D. (1960). *A new scale of social desirability independent of psychopathology*. *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, 24, 349-354
- Cruse, D., & Rubin, J. (1973). *Determinants of police behavior: A summary*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Dahl, S. (1993). *Rape – a hazard to health*. Oslo: Scandinavian University Press.
- Davis, R. C. (2000). *Perception of the police among members of six ethnic communities in Central Queens, NY*. New York: The U.S. Department of Justice.
- Davis, R. C., & Henderson, N. J. (2003). Willingness to report crime: The role of ethnic group members and community efficacy. *Crime & Delinquency*, 49 (4), 564-580.
- DeVellis, R. F. (1991). *Scale development: Theory and applications*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- DeVellis, R. F. (2003). *Scale development: Theory and applications* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Dillman, D. (2007). *Mail and internet survey: The Tailored design methods* (2nd ed.) Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Doerner, W. G., Lab, S. P. (1995). *Victimology*. Cincinnati, OH: Anderson Publishing Co.
- Dombrink, J., & Vidales, G. (2005). *Latino attitudes toward the police and the legal system in the Westside of Costa Mesa*. Irvine, CA: Community Outreach Partnership Center.
- Dowler, K. (2002). Media influence on citizen attitudes toward police effectiveness. *Policing and Society*, 12 (3), 227-238.

- Dowler, K. (2003). Media consumption and public attitudes towards crime and justice: The relationships between fear of crime, punitive attitudes, and perceived police effectiveness. *Journal of Criminal Justice and Popular Culture*, 10 (2), 109-126.
- Doyle, A. (2000). *How television influences social institutions: The case of policing and criminal justice*. Unpublished Dissertation, Department of Anthropology and Sociology, University of British Columbia.
- Durose, M. R., Harlow, C. W., Langan, P. A., Motivans, M., Rantala, R. R., & Smith, E. L. (2005). *Family violence statistics: Including statistics on strangers and acquaintances*. Washington, D. C: Department of Justice.
- Eagly, A. E., & Chaiken, S. (1993). *The psychology of attitudes*. Forth Worth, TX: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- Eagly, A., & Chaiken, S. (1995). Attitude strength, attitude structure and resistance to change. In R. Petty & J. Kosnik (Eds.), *Attitude strength* (pp. 413-432). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Engel, R. S., & Smith, M. R. (2009). Policy essay: Perceptual distortion and reasonableness during police shootings: Law legitimacy, and future research. *Criminology & Public Policy*, 8 (1), 141-152.
- Fazio, R., (1990). Multiple processes by which attitudes guide behavior: The MODE model as an integrative framework. In M. Zanna (Ed.) *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, (pp. 75-109). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Fazio, R., & Williams, C. J. (1986). Attitude accessibility as a moderator of the attitude perception and attitude-behavior relations: An investigation of the 1984 presidential election. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51, 503-514.
- Felson, R. B., Messner, S. F., & Hoskin, A. (1999). The victim-offender relationship and calling the police in assaults. *Criminology*, 37, 931-948.
- Felson, R. B., Messner, S. F., Hoskin, A. W., & Deane, G. (2002). Reasons for reporting and not reporting domestic violence to the police. *Criminology* 40, 617-47.
- Ferri, E., & Smithers, W. W. (2009). *Criminal sociology*. Charleston, SC: Biblio Bazaar.
- Findlay, M. (2004). *Introducing policing: Challenges for police & Australian communities*. Ney York: Oxford University Press.
- Finkelhor, D., & Ormrod, R. (1999). *Reporting crimes against juveniles*. Washington, D. C: U.S. Government Printing Office.

- Finkelhor, D., & Ormrod, R. (2000). *Reporting crimes against juveniles*. Washington, D. C: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Finkelhor, D., & Wolak, J. (2003). Reporting assaults against juveniles to the police: Barriers and catalysts. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 18 (2), 103-128.
- Finkelhor, D., Wolak, J. & Berliner, L. (2001). Police reporting and professional help seeking for child crime victims: A review. *Child Maltreatment*, 6 (1), 17-30.
- Fischer, C. (1995). The subcultural theory of urbanism: A twentieth year assessment. *American Journal of Sociology*, 101 (3), 543-577.
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, interaction and behavior: An introduction to theory and research*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Fisher, B. S., Daigle, L. E., Cullen, F. T., & Turner, M. G. (2003). Reporting sexual victimization to the police and others: Results from a national-level study of college women. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 30 (1), 6-38.
- Fisher, D. G. (1983). Parental supervision and delinquency. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 56, 635-640.
- Fisher, R. P., & Geiselman, R. E. (1992). *Memory-enhancing techniques for investigative interview: The cognitive interview*. Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas Publishing.
- Fishman, G. (1979). Patterns of victimization and notification. *British Journal of Criminology*, 19, 146-157.
- Fortune, A. E., Reid, W., & Reid, W. J. (1998). *Research in social work* (3rd ed.). New York: Columbia University Press.
- Foster, C. R. (1998). *Psychology: For live today*. New York: American Technical Society.
- Fowler, F. J. (1995). *Improving survey questions: Design and evaluation*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Fox, J. A., Levin, J., & Shively, M. (1999). *Elementary statistics in criminal justice research*. New York: Addison-Wesley Educational Publisher, inc.
- Frank, J., Smith, B. W., & Novak, K. J. (2005). Exploring the basis of citizen's attitudes toward the police. *Police Quarterly*, 8 (2), 206-228.

- Gallagher, C., Maguire, E. R., Mastrofski, S. D., & Reisig, M. D. (2001). *The public image of the police: Final report to the International Association of Chiefs of Police*. Manassas, VA: George Mason University.
- Gartner, R., & Macmillan, R. (1995). The effect of victim-offender relationship on reporting crimes of violence against women. *Canadian Journal of Criminology*, 27, 393-429.
- Glesne, C., & Peshkin, A. (1992). *Becoming qualitative researchers: An introduction*. White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Gold, A. D. (2003). Media hype, racial profiling, and good science. *Canadian Journal of Criminology & Criminal Justice*, 45 (3), 391-399.
- Goldsmith, A. (2005). Police reform and the problem of trust. *Theoretical Criminology*, 9 (4), 443-470.
- Goldstein, H. (1977). *Policing a free society*. Cambridge, MA: Ballinger Publishing Company.
- Goldstein, H. (1990). *Problem-oriented policing*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Gottfredson, M. R., Gottfredson, D. M. (1987). *Decision Making in Criminal Justice: Toward the Rational Exercise of Discretion*. New York: Springer-Verlag New York, LLC.
- Goudriaan, H. (2006). *Reporting crime: Effects of social context on the decision of victims to notify the police*. Veenendaal: University press.
- Goudriaan, H., Lynch, J. P., & Nieuwbeerta, P. (2004). Reporting to the police in western nations: A theoretical analysis of the effects of social context. *Justice Quarterly*, 21 (4), 933-969.
- Goudriaan, H., Wittebrood, K., & Nieuwbeerta, P. (2006). Neighborhood characteristics and reporting crime: Effects of social cohesion, confidence in police effectiveness and socio-economic disadvantage. *British Journal of Criminology*, 46, 719-742.
- Goudriaan, H., & Nieuwbeerta, P. (2007). Contextual determinants of juveniles' willingness to report crime: A vignette experiment. *Journal of Experimental Criminology*, 3, 89-111.
- Green, G. (1981). *Citizen reporting of crime to the police: An analysis of common theft and assault*. Unpublished Dissertation, University of Pennsylvania.
- Greene, E., Zimmer, J., & Bray, S. (1999). *Teens, crimes and the community: Reporting a crime, community works*. Culver, City, CA: Social Studies School Service.

- Greenfeld, L. A., Rand, M. R., Craven, D., Klaus, P. A., Perkins, C. A., & Ringel, C., et al. (1998). *Violence by intimates: Analysis of data on crimes by current or former spouses, boyfriends, and girlfriends*. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.
- Greensburg, M. S., & Ruback, B. R. (1992). *After the crime: Victim decision making*. New York: Plenum.
- Greensburg, M. S., Wilson, C. E., & Ruback, B. R. (1979). Social and emotional determinants of victim crime reporting. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 42 (4), 364-372.
- Guagnano, G. A., Stern, P.C., & Dietz, T. (1995). Influences on attitude-behavior relationship. *Environment and Behavior*, 27 (5), 699-718.
- Hardin, J. A. (2004). *Juveniles' attitudes toward the police as affected by prior victimization*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Department of Criminal Justice, East Tennessee State University, Johnson City, TN.
- Harris, M. B. (1995). *Basic statistics for behavioral science research*. Boston, MA, Allyn and Bacon.
- Hawdon, J. & Ryan, J. (2003). Police-resident interactions and satisfaction with police: An empirical test of community policing assertions. *Criminal Justice Policy Review*, 14, 55-74.
- Helfgott, J. B. (2008). *Criminal behavior: Theories, typologies, and criminal justice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Henry, B. (1990). *Black's law dictionary: Definition of "Police Power"* (6th ed.). MN: St. Paul, West Publishing.
- Hickman, L. J., & Simpson, S. S. (2003). Fear treatment of preference outcome? The impact of police behavior on victim reports of domestic violence incidents. *Law & Society Review*, 37 (3), 607-634.
- Hindelang, M. J. (1976). *Criminal victimization in eight American cities: A descriptive Analysis of common theft and assault*. Cambridge, MA: Ballinger.
- Hirschi, T. (2002). *Causes of Delinquency* (with new introduction). New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Publishers.
- Ho, T., & McKean, J. (2004). Confidence in the police and perception of risk. *Western Criminology Review*, 5 (2), 108-118.

- Holdaway, S. (2003). Police race relations in England and Wales: Theory, policy, and practice. *Police & Society*, 7, 49-74.
- Holmberg, U. (2004). Crime victims' experiences of police interview and their inclination to provide or omit information. *International Journal of Police Science & Management*, 6 (3), 155-170.
- Hopkins, N., & Hewstone, M. (1992). Police-schools liaison and young people's image of the police: An intervention evaluation. *British Journal of Psychology*, 83, 203-220.
- Howell, S. E., Perry, L. H., & Vile, M. (2004). Black cities/white cities: Evaluating the police. *Political Behavior*, 26, 45-68.
- Huebner, B. M., Schafer, J. A., & Bynum, T. S. (2004). African American and white perceptions of police service: Within- and between-group variation. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 32 (2), 125-135.
- Hurst, Y. G. (2007). Juvenile attitudes toward the police: An examination of rural youths. *Criminal Justice Review*, 32, 121-141.
- Hurst, Y. G., & Frank, J. (2000). How kids view cops: The nature of juvenile attitudes toward the police. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 28, 189-202.
- Irving, M. H. (1997). *The unreality of "reality-based" policing: American television, images of crime and law enforcement*. Unpublished Thesis, Department of Criminology, University of Ottawa, Canada.
- Jana, J. J., & Steve, W. (2004). Public satisfaction with the police in domestic violence cases: The importance of arrest, expectation, and involuntary contact. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, 28 (2), 235-54.
- Jang, J. S., & Smith, C. A. (1997). A test of reciprocal causal relationships among parental supervision, affective ties, and delinquency. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 34 (2), 307-336.
- Jennings, J. S. (1989). Trademark counterfeiting: An unpunished crime. *The Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, 80 (3), 805-841.
- Jensen, G. F. (2003). *Social disorganization theory*. In Wright, R. A. (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Criminology*, New York, NY: Fitzroy Dearborn Publishers.
- Jesilow, P., Meyer, J., & Namazzi, N. (1995). Public attitudes toward the police. *American Journal of Police*, 14 (2), 67-88.

- Johnson, B., Christensen, L., & Christensen, L. B. (2007). *Educational research: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Johnson, J. (1997). Americans' views on crime and law enforcement: Survey findings. *National Institute of Justice Journal*, 233, 9-14.
- Johnson, T. R. (1993). *The public and the police in the city of Chicago*. Chicago, IL: Northwestern University.
- Jones, R. A. (1996). *Research methods in the social and behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Sunderland, MA: Sinauer Associates.
- Jones, T., & Newburn, T. (1998). *Private Security and Public Policing*. London, UK: Oxford University Press
- Kadish, M. R., & Kadish, S. H. (1973). *Discretion to disobey: A study of lawful departures for legal rules*. Palo Alto, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Kaiser, H. F. (1974). An index of factorial simplicity. *Psychometrika*, 39, 31-39.
- Kane, R. J. (2002). The social ecology of police misconduct. *Criminology*, 40, 867-896.
- Kane, R. J., & White, M. D. (2009). Bad cops: A study of career-ending misconduct among New York City police officers. *Criminology & Public Policy*, 8 (4), 737-769.
- Kaplan, R. M., & Saccuzzo, D. P. (1993). *Psychological testing principles, applications and issues*. Belmont, CA: Books/Cole Publishing Company.
- Karmen, A. (1984). *Crime victims: An introduction to victimology*. Belmont, CA: Books/Cole Publishing Company.
- Karmen, A. (1990). *Crime victims: An introduction to victimology* (2nd ed.). Belmont, CA: Books/Cole Publishing Company.
- Kaukinen, C. (2002). The help-seeking decisions of violent crime victims: An examination of the direct and conditional effects of gender and the victim-offender relationship. *Journal of Interpersonal violence*, 17 (4), 432-456.
- Kelly, M. (2000). Inequality and crime. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 82 (4), 530-539.
- Kennedy, D. B., & Homant, R. J. (1983). Attitudes of abused women toward male and female police officers. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 10 (4), 391-405.

- Kerlinger, F. N. (1999). *Foundations of behavioral research* (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Wadsworth Publishing, Inc.
- Kim, J., & Mueller, L. W. (1978). *Introduction to factor analysis*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publication, Inc.
- Kim, M. S., & Hunter, J. E. (1993). Relationships among attitudes, behavioral intentions, and behavior: A meta-analysis of past research, Part 2. *Communication Research*, 20 (3), 331–364.
- Kittrie, O. F. (2006). Federalism, deportation and crime victims afraid to call the police. *Iowa Law Review*, 91, 1449-1508.
- Kline, P. (1993). *Personality: The Psychometric View*. New York: Routledge Publishing, Inc.
- Klinger, D. A., & Brunson, R. K. (2009). Police officers' perceptual distortions during leather force situations: Informing the reasonableness standard. *Criminology & Public Policy*, 8 (1), 117-139.
- Kraemer, H. C., & Thiemann, S. (1987). *How many subjects: Statistical power analysis in research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Krahe, B. (1991). Police officer's definition of rape: A prototype study. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, 1, 223-244.
- Kubrin, C. E., & Weitzer, R. (2003). New directions in social disorganization theory. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 40 (4), 374-402.
- Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews: An introduction to qualitative research interviewing*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Laub, J. H. (1981). Ecological considerations in victim reporting to the police. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 33, 55-66.
- Leighton, B. (1993). Community-based policing and police/community relations. In Chacko, J., & Nancoo, S. E. (Ed.), *Community policing* (pp. 245–250). Toronto, Canada: Canadian Scholars' Press Inc.
- Liebert, R. M., & Lievert, L. L. (1995). *Science and behavior: An introduction to methods of psychological research*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Liska, A. E. (1992). *Social threat and social control*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

- Litwin, M. S. (2002). *How to assess and interpret survey psychometrics*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Low, J., & Durkin, K. (2001). Children's conceptualization of law enforcement on television and in real life. *Legal and Criminological Psychology*, 6, 197-214.
- Lurigio, A. J., & Rosenbaum, D. P. (1991). The effect of mass media on crime awareness, attitudes, and behavior: The case of crime stoppers. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, 15 (2), 82-105.
- Macdonald, Z. (2001). Revisiting the dark figure: A micro-economic analysis of the underreporting of property crime and its implications. *British Journal of Criminology*, 41 (1), 127-149.
- Macdonald, J., & Strokes, R. J. (2006). Race, social capital, and trust in the police. *Urban Affairs Review*, 41 (3), 3-37.
- Manly, B. F. J. (2005). *Multivariate statistical methods: A primer* (3rd ed.). Virginia Beach, VA: Chapman and Hall.
- Manning, P. K. (2009). Police misconduct: Bad cops. *Criminology & Public Policy*, 8 (4), 787-794.
- Marjorie, P. A., Lackey, N. R., & Sullivan, J. J. (2003). *Making sense of factor analysis: The use of factor analysis for instrument development in health care research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publication, Inc.
- Marshall, C., & Gretchen, R. (1998). *Designing qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Maxwell, J. A. (2005). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Maxfield, M. G., & Babbie, E. (2001). *Research methods for criminal justice and criminology* (3rd ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.
- Maxfield, M. G., & Babbie, E. (2008). *Research methods for criminal justice and criminology* (5th ed.). Belmont, CA: Thomson/Wadsworth.
- McAra, L. & McVie, S. (2005). The unusual suspect? Street-life, young people and the police. *Criminal Justice*, 5 (1), 5-36.
- McCluskey, J. D., Terrill, W., & Paoline, E. A. III. (2005). Peer group aggressiveness and the use of coercion in police-suspect encounters. *Police Practice and Research*, 6, 19-37.

- McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T. (1983). Social desirability scales: More substance than style. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 51 (6), 882-888.
- Meadows, R. J. (1998). *Understanding violence and victimization*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Mendelsohn, H., & O'Keefe, G. J. (1982). *Media campaigns and crime prevention. An executive summary*. Washington, D.C: Department of Justice.
- Messner, S. F., Baumer, E. P., & Rosenfeld, R. (2004). Dimensions of social capital and rates of criminal homicide. *American Sociological Review*, 69 (6), 882-903.
- Meyers, L. S., Gams, G. C., & Guarino, A. J. (2005). *Applied multivariate research: Design and interpretation*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publication, Inc.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publication, Inc.
- Miller, D. C. (1977). *Handbook of research design and social measurement*. New York: David McKay.
- Miller, J., & Davis, R. C. (2008). Unpacking public attitudes to the police: Contrasting perceptions of misconduct with traditional measures of satisfaction. *International Journal of Police Science and Management*, 10 (1), 9-22.
- Miller, J., Robert, C., Nicole, D. J., Markovic, H. J., & Ortiz, C. (2005). Measuring influences on public opinion of the police using time-series data: Results of a pilot study. *Police Quarterly*, 8(3), 394-401.
- Moore, D. S., McCabe, G. P. (1993). *Introduction to the practice of statistics* (2nd ed.). New York: W. H. Freedman and Company.
- Moorman, R. H., & Podsakoff, P. M. (1992). A meta-analytic review and empirical test of the potential confounding effects of social desirability response sets in organizational behavior research. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 65, 131-149.
- MORI. (2001). *Exploring trust in public institutions, report for the audit commission. England*. Social Research Institute.
- Morris, C. G., & Maisto, A. A. (2007). *Understanding psychology* (8th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, Inc.
- Mosher, C. J., Miethe, T. D., & Philips, D. M. (2002). *The mismeasure of crime*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publishing, Inc.

- Murphy, K. R., & Myers, B. (2003). *Statistical power analysis: A simple and general model for traditional and modern hypothesis tests* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Mustaine, E. E., Tewksbury, R., & Stengel, K. M. (2006). Social disorganization and residential locations of registered sex offenders: Is this a collateral consequence? *Deviant Behavior*, 27 (3), 329-350.
- Nachmias, C. F., & Nachmias, D. (1996). *Research methods in the social science* (5th ed.). New York: St. Martin's Press.
- National Institute of Justice. (1999). *Use of force by the police: Overview of national and local data*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- National Institute of Justice. (2000a). *Police attitudes toward abuse of authority: Findings from a national study*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- National Institute of Justice. (2000b). *The measures of police integrity*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- National Institute of Justice. (2000c). *Examining minority trust and confidence in the police*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- National Institute of Justice. (2001). *Principles for promoting police integrity: Examples of promising police practices and policies*. Washington, D.C: Bureau of Justice Statistics.
- National Institute of Justice. (2003a). *Principles of good policing: Avoiding violence between police and citizens*. Washington, DC: Community Relations Service.
- National Institute of Justice. (2003b). *Factors that influence public opinion of the Police*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- National Institute of Justice. (2006). *Police accountability: Current issues and research needs*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Neuman, L. W. (1991). *Social research methods*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Newburn, T. (2008). *Handbook of policing* (2nd ed.). Cullompton, UK: Willan Publishing, Inc.
- Newburn, T., & Neyroud, P. (2008). *A dictionary of policing*. Cullompton, UK: Willan Publishing, Inc.

- Nihart, T., Lersch, K. M., Sellers, C. S., & Mieczkowski, T. (2005). Kids, cops, parents and teachers: Exploring juvenile attitudes toward authority figures. *Western Criminology*, 6, 79-88.
- Novak, K. J. (2009). Policy essay: Reasonable offenders, public perception, and policy challenges. *Criminology & Public Policy*, 8 (1), 153-162.
- Nunnally, J. (1978). *Psychometric theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- O'Connor, C. D. (2008). Citizen attitudes toward the police in Canada. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 31 (4), 578-595.
- Olobatuyi, M. E. (2006). *A user's guide to path analysis*. Lanham, MD: University Press of America, Inc.
- Olson, J. M., & Stone, J. (2005). The influence of behavior on attitudes. In D. Albarracin, B. T. Johnson, & M. P. Zanna (Eds.). *The handbook of attitudes* (pp. 223-271). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Orr, M., & West, D. R. (2007). Citizen evaluation of local police: Personal experiences or symbolic attitudes? *Administration & Society*, 38 (6), 649-668.
- Page, B., Wake, R., & Ames, A. (2004). *Public confidence in the criminal justice system*. London: Home Office, Research, Development and Statistics Directorate.
- Page, R. M., Cole, G. E., & Timmreck, T. C. (1995). *Basic epidemiological methods and biostatistics: A practical guidebook*. Boston, MA: Jones and Bartlett Publishers.
- Pagon, M. (2003). *Police ethics and integrity*. Ljubljana, Slovenia: University of Maribor.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods* (3rd Ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Payne, B. K., & Gainey, R. R. (2007). Attitudes about the police and neighborhood safety in disadvantaged neighborhoods: The influence of criminal victimization and perceptions of a drug program. *Criminal Justice Review*, 32 (2), 142-155.
- Perry, R. W., Gillespie, D. F., & Lotz, R. E. (2006). Attitudinal variables as estimates of behavior: A theoretical examination of the attitude-action controversy. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 6 (2), 227-243.
- Pescosolido, B. (1992). Beyond rational choice: The social dynamics of how people seek help. *American Journal of Sociology*, 97 (4), 1096-1138.
- Piliavin, I., & Briar, S. (1964). Police encounters with juveniles. *The American Journal of Sociology*, 70 (2), 206-214.

- Pilkington, A. (1995). Measuring crime. *Sociology Review*, 15-18
- Pollock, J. M. (2004). *Ethics in Crime and Justice* (4th ed.). Belmont, CA: West/Wadsworth.
- Proctor, J. L., & Badzinski, D. M. (2002). *Introductory statistics for criminal justice and criminology*. Upper Saddle River, NY: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Pyle, G. F. (1977). Systematic spatial variations in attitudes toward police actions. *Ohio Journal of Science*, 77(6), 286-297.
- Rahtz, H. (2003). *Understanding police use of force*. ST. Louis, MO: Willow Tree Press.
- Ray, J. J. (1984). The reliability of short social desirability scales. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 123, 133-134.
- Rea, L. M., & Parker, R. A. (2005). *Designing and conducting survey research. A comprehensive guide*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Regulus, T. A., Taylor, R. J., Jackson, J. S., & Katz, D. (2001). The structure of black Americans' attitudes toward the police. *African American Research Perspectives*, 7 (1), 185-205.
- Reiss, A. J. (1971). *The police and the public*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Renauer, B. C. (2008, November). *Fear of Police Encounters and Fear of Crime*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Society of Criminology, St. Louis, Missouri.
- Rencher, A. C. (2002). *Methods of multivariate analysis* (2nd ed.). New York: Wiley-Interscience.
- Reynolds, M. K., Semukhina, O. B., & Demidov, N. N. (2008). A longitudinal analysis of public satisfaction with the police in the Volgograd region of Russia. *International Criminal Justice Review*, 18 (2), 158-189.
- Rice, K. J., & Smith, W. R. (2002). Socioecological models of automotive theft: Integration routine activity and social disorganization approaches. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 39 (3), 304-336.
- Riley, J. (1997). Community policing: Perspectives from the field. *Alaska Justice Forum*, 14 (2), 1-8.
- Roberg, R., Crank, J., & Kuykendall, J. (2000). *Police & society* (2nd ed.) Los Angeles, CA: Roxbury Publishing Company.

- Robertshaw, R., Louw, A., & Mtani, A. (2001). *Crime in Dar es Salaam*. United Nations Centre for Human Settlements and Institute for Security Studies.
- Roehl, J. A. and Cook, R. F. (1984). *Evaluation of the urban crime prevention program*. Washington, D.C: Department of Justice.
- Rosenbaum, D. P., Lurigio, A. J., & Lavrakas, P. J. (1987). *Crime Stoppers: A national evaluation of program operation and effects*. Washington, D.C: Department of Justice.
- Rosenbaum, D. P., Schuck, A. M., Costello, S. K., Hawkins, D. F., & Ring, M. K. (2005). Attitudes toward the police: The effects of direct and vicarious experiences. *Police Quarterly*, 8 (3), 343-365.
- Ross, M., Mcfarland, C., & Fletcher, G. J. (1981). The effect of attitude on the recall of personal histories. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 40, 627-634.
- Rust, J., & Golombok, S. (1999). *Modern psychometrics: The science of psychological assessment*. Cornwall, UK: TJ International Ltd.
- Sacco, V. F., & Silverman, R. A. (1981). Selling crime prevention: The evaluation of a mass media campaign. *Canadian Journal of Criminology*, 23 (2), 191-202.
- Salmi, S., Voeten, M. J., & Keskinen, E. (2000). Relation between police image and police visibility. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, 10, 433-447.
- Salmi, S., Voeten M. J., & Keskinen, E. (2005). What citizen think about the police: Assessing actual and wished-for frequency of police activities in one's neighborhood. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, 15, 188-202.
- Salmi, V., Smolej, M., & Kivivuori, J. (2007). Crime victimization, exposure to crime news and social trust among adolescents. *Nordic Journal of Youth Research*, 15 (3), 255-272.
- Sampson, R. J., & Bartusch, D. (1998). Legal cynicism and tolerance of deviance. *Law and Society Review*, 32, 777-804.
- Sampson, R. J., & Laub, J. H. (1995). *Crime in the Making: Pathways and Turning Points Through Life*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Sampson, R. J., & Laub, H. J. (2005). A life-course view of the development of crime. *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 602, 12-45.

- Sandelowski, M. (1999). Time and qualitative research. *Research in Nursing & Health*, 22, 79-87.
- Sced, M. (2004). *Public satisfaction with police contact – part I: Police-initiated contacts*. Australia: Australian Center of Policing Research.
- Schafer, J. A., Huebner, B. M., & Bynum, T. S. (2003). Citizen perceptions of police services: Race, neighborhood context, and community policing. *Police Quarterly*, 6 (4), 440-468.
- Scheider, M. C., Rowell, T., & Bezdikian, V. (2003). The impact of citizen perceptions of community policing on fear of crime: Findings from twelve cities. *Police Quarterly*, 6 (4), 363-386.
- Seron, C., Pereira, J., & Kovath, J. (2006). How citizens assess just punishment for police misconduct. *Criminology*, 44 (4), 925- 959
- Sharp, E. B., & Johnson, P. E. (2009). Accounting for variation in distrust of local police. *Justice Quarterly*, 26 (1), 157-182.
- Shaughnessy, J. J., & Zechmeister, E. B. (1997). *Research methods in psychology* (4th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Shepherd, E. (1991). Ethical interviewing. *Policing*, 7, 42-60.
- Sherman, L.W., Farrington, D.P., Welsh, B.C., & MacKenzie, D.L. (2002). *Evidence-Based Crime Prevention*. New York: Routledge.
- Sherman, L.W., Farrington, D.P., Welsh, B.C., & MacKenzie, D.L. (2006). *Evidence-Based Crime Prevention* (Revised Edition). New York: Routledge.
- Silverman, D. (2005). *Doing qualitative research: A practical handbook*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Sims, L., & Myhill, A. (2001). *Policing and the public: Findings from the 2000 British crime survey*. London: Home Office Research.
- Singer, S. I. (1988). The fear of reprisal and the failure of victims to report a personal crime. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, 4 (3), 289–302.
- Skogan, W. G. (1976a). Citizen Reporting of crime: Some national panel data. *Criminology*, 13 (4), 535-551.
- Skogan, W. G. (1976b). Crime and crime rates. In W. G. Skogan (Ed.), *Sample surveys of the victims of crime* (pp. 105-120). Cambridge, MA: Ballinger Publishing Co.

- Skogan, W. G. (1977). Dimensions of the dark figure of unreported crime. *Crime & Delinquency*, 23 (1), 41-50.
- Skogan, W. G. (1984). Reporting crime to the police: The status of world research. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 21 (2), 113-137.
- Skogan, W. G. (1985). Making better use of victims and witnesses. In W. Geller (Ed.), *Police leadership in America* (pp. 332-339). New York: Praeger.
- Skogan, W. G. (1994). *Contacts between the police and public: Findings from the 1992 British crime survey*. Great Britain: Home Office Research Studies.
- Skogan, W. G. (1996). The police and public opinion in Britain. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 39 (4), 421-432.
- Skogan, W. G. (2005). Citizen satisfaction with police encounters. *Police Quarterly*, 8 (3), 298-321.
- Skogan, W. G., & Frydl, K. (2004). *The evidence on policing: Fairness and effectiveness in U.S. law enforcement*. Washington, D.C: National Academies Press.
- Skolnick, J. H. (1966). *Justice without trial: Law enforcement in a democratic society*. New York: Wiley.
- Skolnick, J. H., & Fyfe, J. J. (1993). *Above the law: Police and the excessive use of force*. New York: Free Press.
- Smith, D. A. (1986). The neighborhood context of police behavior. *Crime and Justice*, 8, 313-341.
- Smith, E. R., & Mackei, D. M. (2007). *Social psychology* (3rd ed.). Psychology Press.
- Smith, R., & Arian, R. (2006). *Public attitudes towards Israeli police*. Israel: Ministry of Public Security.
- Smith, S. K., & Hawkins, R. (1973). Victimization, types of citizen-police contacts, and attitudes toward the police. *Law & Society Review*, 8, 135-152.
- Snyder, H. N. (2000). *Sexual assault of young children as reported to law enforcement: Victim, incidents, and offender characteristics*. Washington, D. C: Department of Justice.
- Sorenson, S. A., & Telles, C. A. (1991). Self-reports of spousal violence in a Mexican-American and non-Hispanic white population. *Violence and Victims*, 6 (1), 3-15.

- Spicer, J. (2004). *Making sense of multiple data analysis: An intuitive approach*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Stage, F. K., Carter, H. C., & Nora, A. (2004). Path Analysis: An Introduction and Analysis of a Decade of Research. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 98, 5-13.
- Stoner, J. A., Freeman, E. R., & Gilbert, D. R. (1995). *Management*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Stoutland, S. E. (2001). The multiple dimensions of trust in residential/police relationship in Boston. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 38 (3), 226-256.
- Sudman, S., Bradburn, N. M., Blair, E., & Stocking, C. (1977). Modest expectations: The effects of interviewers' prior expectations on response. *Sociological Methods and Research*, 6, 177-82.
- Tankebe, P. J. (2009). Public cooperation with the police in Ghana: Does procedural fairness matter? *Criminology*, 47 (4), 1265-1294.
- Tanton, R., & Jones, R. (2003, March). *Australian victims' propensity to report assault and break and enter to police*. Paper Presented at the Evaluation in Crime and Justice: Trends and Methods Conference, Canberra, Australia.
- Taylor, N. (2003). Under-reported crime against small business: Attitude toward police and reporting practices. *Police and Society*, 13, 79-89.
- Taylor, T. J., Turner, K. B., Esbensen, F. A., & Winfree, L. T., Jr. (2001). Copping an attitude: Attitudinal differences among juveniles toward police. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 29 (4), 295-305.
- Terrill, W. (2009). Policy essay: The elusive nature of reasonableness. *Criminology & Public Policy*, 8 (1), 163-172.
- Tesser, A. (1993). On the importance of heritability in psychological research: The case of attitudes. *Psychological Review*, 100, 129-142.
- Tilley, N. (2005). *Handbook of crime prevention and community safety*. Devon, UK: Willan Publishing.
- Thomas, C. W., & Hyman, J. M. (1977). Perception of crime, fear of victimization, and public perception of police performance. *Journal of Police Science and Administration*, 5, 305-317.
- Thurman, Q. C., & Reisig, M. D. (1996). Community-oriented research in an era of community-oriented policing. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 39 (5), 570-586.

- Tobias, S., & Carlson J. E. (1969). Brief report: Bartlett's test of sphericity and chance findings in factor analysis. *Multivariate Behavioral Research Monographs*, 4 (3), 375-377.
- Travis, L. F., III., Novak, K. J., Winston, C. N., & Hurley, D. C. (2000). Cops at the door: The impact of citizen surveys by police on public attitudes. *Police Quarterly*, 3 (1), 85-105.
- Tuch, S. A., & Weitzer, R. (1997). Racial differences in attitudes toward the police. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 61, 642-664.
- Tuohy, A. P. & Wrennall, M. J. (1995). Seeing themselves as others see them: Scottish police officer's metaperceptions of public opinion. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, 5, 311-326.
- Tyler, T. R. (2001a). Public trust and confidence in legal authorities: What do majority and minority group members want from the law and legal authorities. *Behavioral science and Law*, 19, 215-235.
- Tyler, T. R. (2001b). Trust and law-abiding behavior: Building better relationships between the police, the courts, and the minority community. *Boston University Law Review*, 81, 361-406.
- Tyler, T. R. (2005). Policing in black and white: Ethnic group differences in trust and confidence in the police. *Police Quarterly*, 8 (3), 322-342.
- Uildriks, N. (2004). Police-public violence and democratic policing in Lithuania. *Journal of Human Rights*, 3 (3), 373-396.
- Unnever, J. D., & Cornell, D. G. (2004). Middle school victims of bullying: who reports being bullied? *Aggressive Behavior*, 30 (5), 373-388.
- U.S. Department of Justice. (2001). *Principles for promoting police integrity: Examples of promising police practices and policies*. Washington, D.C: Bureau of Justice Statistics.
- U. S. Department of Justice. (2002). *Satisfaction with police – what matters?* Washington, D. C: Office of Justice Programs.
- U.S. Department of Justice. (2003). *Principles of good policing: Avoiding violence between police and citizens*. Washington, DC: Community Relations Service.
- Vardalis, J. (1992). Prospects of community policing and converting police behavior. *Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology*, 8 (2), 37-40.

- Vellani, K., & Nahoun, J. (2001). *Applied crime analysis*. Boston, MA: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Walker, S. (1997). Complaints against the police: A focus group study of citizen perceptions, goals, and expectations. *Criminal Justice Review*, 22 (2), 207-226.
- Walker, S. (2005). *The new world of police accountability*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publication, Inc.
- Walker, S., Spohn, C., & DeLeone, M. (2004). *The color of justice: Race, ethnicity, and crime in America* (3rd ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Walker, W. (2005). The strengths and weaknesses of research designs involving quantitative measures. *Journal of Research In Nursing*, 10 (5), 571-582
- Wallace, H., Roberson, C., & Steckler, C. (1995). *Fundamentals of police administration*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Warren, P. Y., & Tomaskovic-Devey, D. (2009). Racial profiling and searchers: Did the politics of racial profiling change police behavior? *Criminology & Public Policy*, 8 (2), 343-370.
- Warwick, D. P., & Linniger, C. A. (1975). *The sample survey: Theory and practice*. New York: McGraw Hill, Inc.
- Watkins, A. M. (2005). Examining the Disparity between Juvenile and Adult Victims in Notifying the Police: A Study of Mediating Variables. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 42 (3), 333-353.
- Webster's New World Dictionary* (2nd ed). (2002). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons Inc.
- Weinstein, M. B. (2002). *Public perception of law enforcement's treatment of the suspects in North Carolina: Testing conflict, attitudes consistency, and ecological based theories*. Unpublished Dissertation, North Carolina State University. Raleigh: NC.
- Weitzer, R. (2000). Racialized policing: Residents' perceptions in three neighborhoods. *Law & Society*, 34, 129-155.
- Weitzer, R., & Tuch, S. A. (1999). Race, class, and perceptions of discrimination by the police. *Crime & Delinquency*, 45 (4), 494-507.
- Weitzer, R., & Tuch, S. A. (2002). Perception of racial profiling: Race, class, and personal experience. *Criminology*, 40 (2), 435-457.

- Weitzer, R., & Tuch, S. A., (2005a). Determinants of public satisfaction with the police. *Police Quarterly*, 8 (3), 279-297.
- Weitzer, R., & Tuch, S. A. (2005b). Racially based policing: Determinants of citizen perceptions. *Social Forces*, 83, 1009-1030.
- Welsh, W. N., & Harris, P. W. (2004). *Criminal justice policy and planning* (2nd ed.). Anderson Publishing.
- Wicker, A. (1969). Attitudes versus actions: The relationship of verbal and overt behavioral responses to attitude objects. *The Journal of social Issues*, 25, 1-78.
- Williams, F., & Cornell, D. (2006). Student willingness to seek help for threats of violence. *Journal of School Violence*, 5, 35-49.
- Williams, L. S. (1984). The classic rape: When do victims report? *Social Problems*, 31, 459-467.
- Worden, R. E. (1989). Situational and attitudinal explanation of police behavior: A theoretical reappraisal and empirical assessment. *Law & Society Review* 23, 667-711.
- Worden, R. E. (1990). A badge and a baccalaureate: Policies, hypothesis, and further evidence. *Justice Quarterly*, 7, 565-592.
- Worden, R. E., & Shepard, R. L. (1996). Demeanor, crime, and police behavior: A reexamination of the police services study data. *Criminology*, 34, 83-105.
- Wu, Y., Sun, I. Y., Triplett, R. A. (2009). Race, class, or neighborhood context: Which matters more in measuring satisfaction with the police? *Justice Quarterly*, 26 (1), 125-156
- Xie, M., Panarsky, G., Lynch, J. P., & McDowall, D. (2006). Prior police contact and subsequent victim reporting: Results for the NCVS. *Justice Quarterly*, 23 (4) 481-501.
- Yung, W., Sun, I. Y., & Triplett, R. A. (2009). Race, class or neighborhood context: Which matters more in measuring satisfaction with police? *Justice Quarterly*, 26 (1), 125-156.
- Zanden, V., & Wilfrid, J. (1977). *Social psychology*. New York: Random House, Inc.
- Zerbe, W. J., & Paulhus, D. L. (1987). Socially desirable responding in organizational behavior: A reconception. *Academy of Management Journal*, 12 (2), 250-264.

- Zhang, L., Messner, S. F., & Liu, J. (2007). An exploration of the determinants of reporting crime to the police in the city of Tianjin, China. *Criminology*, 45 (4), 959-981.
- Zvikic, U. (1998). Policing and attitudes towards police in countries in transition: Preliminary results of the international crime (victim) survey. *Policing the Society*, 8, 205-224.

APPENDICES

Appendix A
Survey Questionnaire

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Part I: Demographics

Please answer the following questions about your personal characteristics.

1. What is your gender? Female_____ Male_____
2. What is your age in years? _____
3. What is your major? _____
4. What is your class status?

Freshman _____

Sophomore _____

Junior _____

Senior _____
5. What is your race/ethnicity?

Asian _____

Black _____

Latin _____

Native
American _____

White _____

Other (please specify) _____

6. Which of the following broad categories best describe your social-economic status? Do you consider yourself to be:

Poor _____

Lower middle-class _____

Middle class _____

Upper middle-class _____

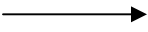
Rich _____

PART II: Interaction with the Police

7. Have you had contact with the police in the **past two years**? (Please place a check mark on the line).

Yes _____

No _____

If NO, 

SKIP 8

8. If yes, how many times did you have contact with the police?

1 to 2 times _____

3 to 5 times _____

6 to 9 times _____

10 + times _____

9. Thinking of the most recent contacts with the police that you can remember in your LIFE TIME: what type of contacts were they? Please read the list below and place a check mark on the line under Type of Contact and then write the number of times on the line under Number of Times for each that applies to you.

	Type of Contact	Number of Times
Citizen-initiated contact	=====	=====
To report a crime		
To report disturbance/nuisance		
To report a suspicious activity		
To report a traffic accident		
To report lost/found property		
To make a general inquiry		
To make a complaint		
To be a witness		
To make use of other services		
Police-initiated contact	=====	=====
To ask about a crime		
To investigate a traffic collision		
To investigate a noise/disturbance		
To carry out a routine vehicle check (on-street)		
To take a witness statement		
Alleged speeding offense		
Alleged drunk driving offense		
Alleged other driving/traffic offense		
Traffic ticket or other citation		
Arrested, detained for questioning or searched		
Received summons		
Arrested for a serious crime		
Other _____ (please specify)		

10. How often do you hear or read about (on the radio, TV, Internet, or newspapers) incidents of the police misconduct (such as, police use of excessive force, verbal abuse, corruption, etc.) that occur somewhere in the nation?

Never _____

Rarely _____

Sometimes _____

Often _____

PART III: Police Behavior - Scale

Please circle one number on the line below each statement that indicates to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement. For example, if you were asked to express your agreement with the statement below, you would probably circle a number on the right side of the scale (4 or 5).

SAMPLE QUESTION:

I think that everyone should vote.

Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree

Please indicate whether you disagree or agree with each of the following statements about the nature of most frequent police behavior that you have experienced in your LIFE TIME.

11. The police were disrespectful or impolite.

Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree

12. The police used insulting language toward me or someone I know.

Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree

13. The police did not follow proper procedures.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree
14. The police stopped or searched me without reason.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree
15. The police stopped or searched someone I know without reason.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree
16. The police were well disciplined.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree
17. The police did not use offensive/threatening language against me.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree
18. The police harassed me.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree
19. The police officers ignored me when I asked them a question.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree
20. The police did not let me speak when I tried to ask them a question.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree
21. The police were clearly very careless in carrying out their duty
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree

22. The police used racist language.
- | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---------|
| Totally | | | | | | Totally |
| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Agree |
23. The police made wrongful accusations.
- | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---------|
| Totally | | | | | | Totally |
| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Agree |
24. The police did not give me a chance to explain myself to them.
- | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---------|
| Totally | | | | | | Totally |
| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Agree |
25. The police behaved in a violent way (e.g. grabbing, pushing, etc.).
- | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---------|
| Totally | | | | | | Totally |
| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Agree |
26. The police discriminated against me due to age, gender, race, or ethnicity.
- | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---------|
| Totally | | | | | | Totally |
| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Agree |
27. The police swore.
- | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---------|
| Totally | | | | | | Totally |
| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Agree |
28. I have seen the police behave in violent way while making arrests.
- | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---------|
| Totally | | | | | | Totally |
| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Agree |
29. The police searched my house/apartment [or the house/apartment of someone I know] without reason.
- | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---------|
| Totally | | | | | | Totally |
| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Agree |

30. The police searched my house/apartment [or the house/apartment of someone I know] without consent.

Totally
Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Agree

31. The police took items of my property [or of the property of someone I know] without reason.

Totally
Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Agree

32. The police are courteous in dealing with people.

Totally
Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Agree

PART IV: People's Attitudes toward the Police - Scale

Please indicate whether you disagree or agree with each of the following statements:

33. If my rights were violated, I could rely on the police to help me.

Totally
Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Agree

34. Anyone in the police custody would have their rights fully respected.

Totally
Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Agree

35. I would encourage a friend or relative to join the police force.

Totally
Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Agree

36. The police carry out their role in a fair and impartial manner.

Totally
Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Agree

37. People like me would be welcomed in the police force as a new member.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Agree Totally
38. The police force is made up of honest/honorable people.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Agree Totally
39. If someone physically assaults me, I will not hesitate to call the police.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Agree Totally
40. The police are sensitive to the needs of vulnerable people.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Agree Totally
41. I do not like to be around the police
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Agree Totally
42. Anyone in police custody will be treated well.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Agree Totally
43. The local police are fully answerable to the people for their actions and conduct.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Agree Totally
44. I do not feel comfortable talking to the police.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Agree Totally
45. Every time I talk to the police, I feel like I'm the suspect (even when I call the police to report a crime).
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Agree Totally

46. The police serve the interests of the rich more than the poor.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree
47. The better off you are, the better you are treated by the police.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree
48. The police discriminate against minorities.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree
49. If I were to report a crime to the police, they would not believe me.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree
50. When I talk to the police, I feel insecure.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree
51. I do not like to be around the police.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree
52. If I was burglarized and reported the crime to the police, the police would not take it seriously enough to investigate.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree
53. If I was a victim of a crime, I would not expect the police to do a follow-up investigation.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree

54. I think the police are not very supportive of victims of crime.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree
55. I think the police are not approachable.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree
56. I think the police do not reflect the makeup of the community they serve in.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree
57. The people here [in my community] have a real say in deciding what the police should do.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree
58. In most cases, the police treat you like a number.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree
59. The police have no loyalty to citizens.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree
60. If I call the police, I know that they will respond promptly.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree
61. The police are very quick in solving the problem at hand.
 Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree

62. The police are generally fair in their handling of people.

Totally						Totally
Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Agree

63. The police do an exceptionally good job in dealing with problems in the community.

Totally						Totally
Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Agree

PART V: Crime-Reporting Anonymity – Scale

Please indicate whether you disagree or agree with each of the following statements:

64. I would report a crime to the police if the criminal had not seen me.

Totally						Totally
Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Agree

65. I would not report a crime to the police if the criminal had already seen me.

Totally						Totally
Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Agree

66. If I call the police to report a crime, I would rather not give them my personal information.

Totally						Totally
Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Agree

67. If I call the police to report a crime, I would prefer to remain anonymous.

Totally						Totally
Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Agree

68. If I know that the police will not ask me for my personal information, I will report crimes to the police.

Totally						Totally
Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Agree

PART VI: Willingness to Report Crime to the Police – Scale

Please indicate how likely or unlikely are you to report behaviors that are presented in each of the following statements to school officials or the police? Please circle one number for each statement?

Would you report it to a school official or the police if:

69. You saw someone smoking in the school bathroom?

Totally
Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very
Likely

70. You saw someone using illicit drugs in the school bathroom?

Totally
Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very
Likely

71. You saw someone selling ecstasy in the school bathroom?

Totally
Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very
Likely

72. You saw someone you know selling cocaine in the school bathroom?

Totally
Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very
Likely

73. You saw someone selling cocaine in the school bathroom and they saw you?

Totally
Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very
Likely

74. You saw someone illegally dumping oil on the ground/sewage system (polluting the environment)?

Totally
Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very
Likely

75. You saw someone painting graffiti on the walls of a public/or private building?
 Totally Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very Likely
76. You saw a male student, whom you do not know, physically assaulting a female in the school parking lot?
 Totally Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very Likely
77. You saw a male student smashing the windshield of a car in the parking lot.
 Totally Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very Likely
78. You saw someone attempting to commit a burglary (illegal entry or attempt breaking and entering into someone's property/house)?
 Totally Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very Likely
79. You heard someone making a physical threat (verbally) to someone you do not know?
 Totally Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very Likely
80. You saw your friend yell at his girlfriend and heard her yell back that he is trying to kill her.
 Totally Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very Likely
81. You saw your friend yell at his girlfriend, heard her yell back that he is trying to kill her and saw him brandish a knife.
 Totally Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very Likely
82. You saw a student, whom you do not know, yell at a female, you heard her yell back that he is trying to kill her and saw him brandish a knife.
 Totally Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very Likely

83. You saw a male driver stopped his car and grabbed a female forcing her into his car and then he drove away with the girl. You heard the girl screaming and trying to fight back.

Totally
Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very
Likely

84. You heard a girl, whom you do not know, screaming behind the bleachers of the football field that someone is trying to rape her.

Totally
Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very
Likely

85. You saw a man in the school cafeteria attempting to rob the place.

Totally
Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very
Likely

86. You heard a girl you know screaming behind the bleachers of the football field that someone is trying to rape her.

Totally
Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very
Likely

87. You heard from a trusted source that a girl was raped after the football game?

Totally
Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very
Likely

88. You found a journal entry from a college student that described making a bomb?

Totally
Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very
Likely

89. You overheard some college students bragging about knowing how to make a bomb?

Totally
Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very
Likely

90. You saw some college students hiding something inside of their large overcoats and acting suspiciously

Totally
Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very Likely

91. A student, whom you know, told you he is going to make a bomb.

Totally
Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very Likely

92. Someone you know has told you he has killed a person and has taken you to the place where he has dumped the body, and you see the dead body

Totally
Unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 Very Likely

PART VII: Personal Victimization - Index

For the following questions below, please place one check mark on the line below each statement (next to either Yes or No as it applies to your situation).

In the past two years,

93. Has your car been stolen?

Yes _____, No _____

94. Has anyone tried to steal or stole anything (other than your car) that belongs to you?

Yes _____, No _____

95. Has your car been broken into or vandalized?

Yes _____, No _____

96. Has your house or apartment been broken into?

Yes _____, No _____

97. Has someone taken something from you by force or threat of force?

Yes _____, No _____

98. Has someone verbally threatened you in any way?

Yes _____, No _____

99. Has someone assaulted or attacked you personally? (An attack can be anything from being hit, slapped, pushed or grabbed, to being shot at or beaten).

Yes _____, No _____

Personal Reaction Inventory

Listed below are a number of statements concerning personal attitudes and traits. Read each item and decide whether the statement is TRUE or FALSE as it pertains to you personally.

100. True False There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.

101. True False I'm always willing to admit it when making a mistake.

102. True False I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.

103. True False I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my own way.

104. True False I'm always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.

105. True False I'm always a good listener, no matter whom I'm talking to.

106. True False I never resent being asked to return a favor.

107. True False When I don't know something I don't at all mind admitting it.

108. True False There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others.

109. True False I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.
110. True False I have never intensely disliked anyone.
111. True False I never hesitate to go out of my way to help someone in trouble.

VALIDATION SCALES USED IN THE PILOT STUDY

1. Alternative Measuring instrument for Police Behavior

Please indicate whether the following police behavior ever occur in your neighborhood/your city:

112. How often do you think police officers stop people on the streets [of your neighborhood/your city] without good reason?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Very Often

113. How often do you think police officers, when talking to people [in your neighborhood/your city], use insulting language against them?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Very Often

114. How often do you think police officers, when talking to people [in your neighborhood/your city], show disrespect towards them?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Very Often

115. When police officers use force against people, how often do you think they use excessive force (i.e., more force than is necessary under the circumstances) against people [in your neighborhood/your city]?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Very Often

2. Alternative Measuring instrument for
Attitudes toward the Police

Please indicate whether you disagree or agree with each of the following statements:

116. In general, I trust the police.

Totally								Totally		
Disagree	1		2		3		4		5	Agree

117. In general, I like the police.

Totally								Totally		
Disagree	1		2		3		4		5	Agree

118. In general, I am satisfied with police in my neighborhood.

Totally								Totally		
Disagree	1		2		3		4		5	Agree

119. In general, police officers do a good job.

Totally								Totally		
Disagree	1		2		3		4		5	Agree

120. The police do a good job of stopping crime.

Totally								Totally		
Disagree	1		2		3		4		5	Agree

121. The police do a good job of stopping people from using drugs.

Totally								Totally		
Disagree	1		2		3		4		5	Agree

122. The police do a good job of stopping people from selling drugs.

Totally								Totally		
Disagree	1		2		3		4		5	Agree

123. The police do a good job of keeping my neighborhood quiet at night.

Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree

124. The police will help you if your car is broken down and you need help.

Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree

125. If the police see someone who is sick and needs help, they will help them.

Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree

126. The police do a good job of stopping people from hanging out and causing trouble.

Totally Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Totally Agree

3. Alternative Measuring instrument for Reporting Behavior

For the following questions below, please place one check mark on the line below each statement (next to either Yes or No as it pertains to your personal perception).

127. Would you report to the police if you witness an attempted murder?

Yes _____, NO _____

128. Would you report to the police if you witness an attempted rape?

Yes _____, NO _____

129. Would you report to the police if you witness an attempted kidnapping?

Yes _____, NO _____

130. Would you report to the police if you witness an attempt to burn down someone's property (Arson)?

Yes _____, NO _____

131. Would you report to the police if you witness a robbery?

Yes _____, NO _____

132. Would you report to the police if you witness an attempted burglary (illegal entry or an attempt breaking and entering into someone's property/house)?

Yes _____, NO _____

133. Would you report to the police if you witness a motor vehicle theft or attempted theft?

Yes _____, NO _____

134. Would you report to the police if you witness vandalism (e.g. hit and run, window smashing, etc.)?

Yes _____, NO _____

135. Would you report to the police if you witness assaults (face-to-face threat or assault with or without a weapon)?

Yes _____, NO _____

136. Would you report to the police if you witness a physical threat made to someone you know?

Yes _____, NO _____

137. Would you report to the police if you witness a physical threat made to someone you do not know?

Yes _____, NO _____

138. Would you report to the police if you witness a drug sale?

Yes _____, NO _____

139. Would you report to the police if you witness someone painting graffiti on the walls of a public/or private building?

Yes _____, NO _____

140. Would you report to the police if you witness someone illegally dumping oil on the ground (polluting the environment)?

Yes _____, NO _____

141. Would you report to the police if you witness someone using illicit drugs?

Yes _____, NO _____

Thank you for taking your time to complete this survey.

Appendix B

Path Models

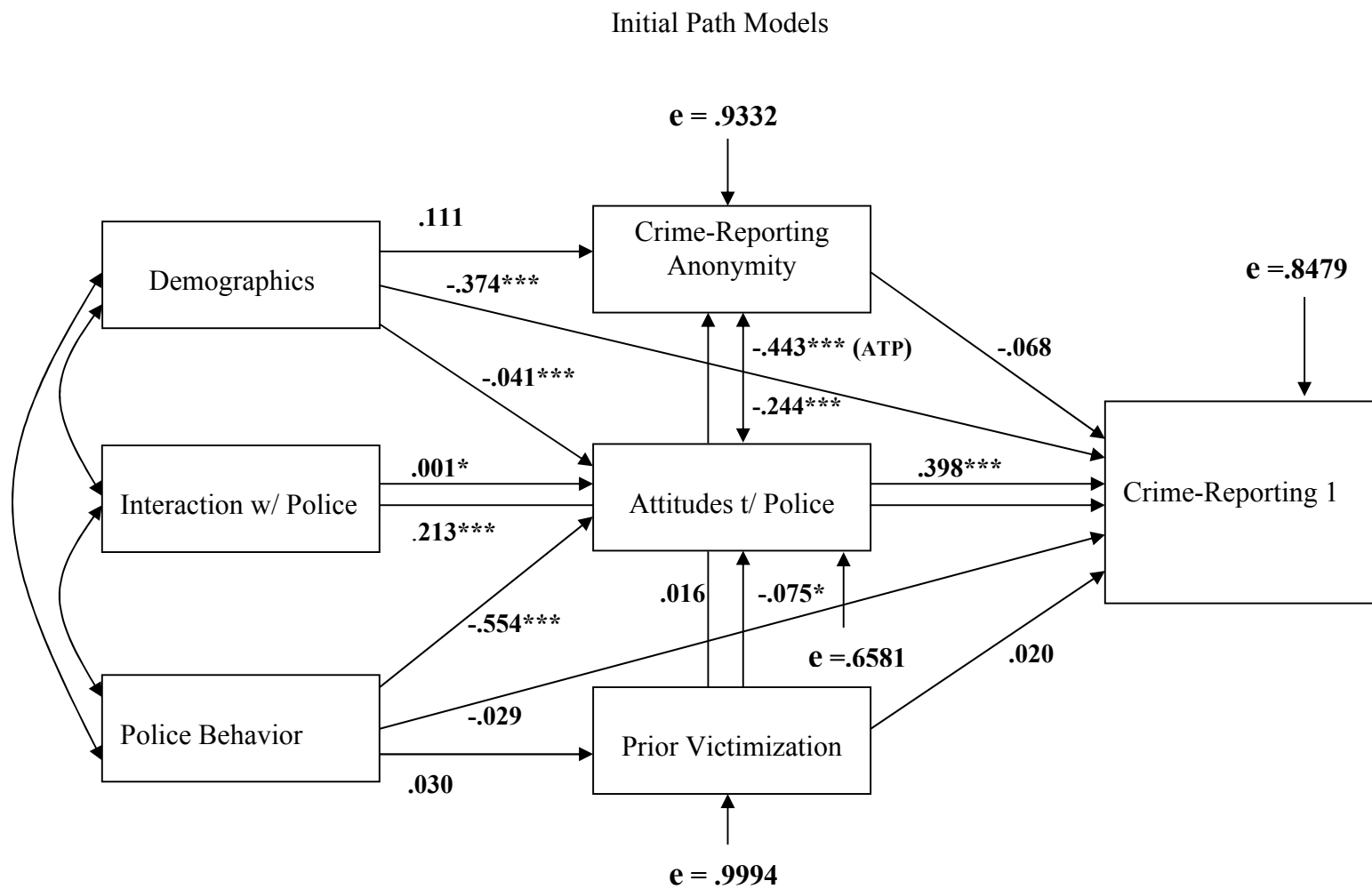


Figure B1. Initial path model for crime-reporting 1 (less serious crimes).

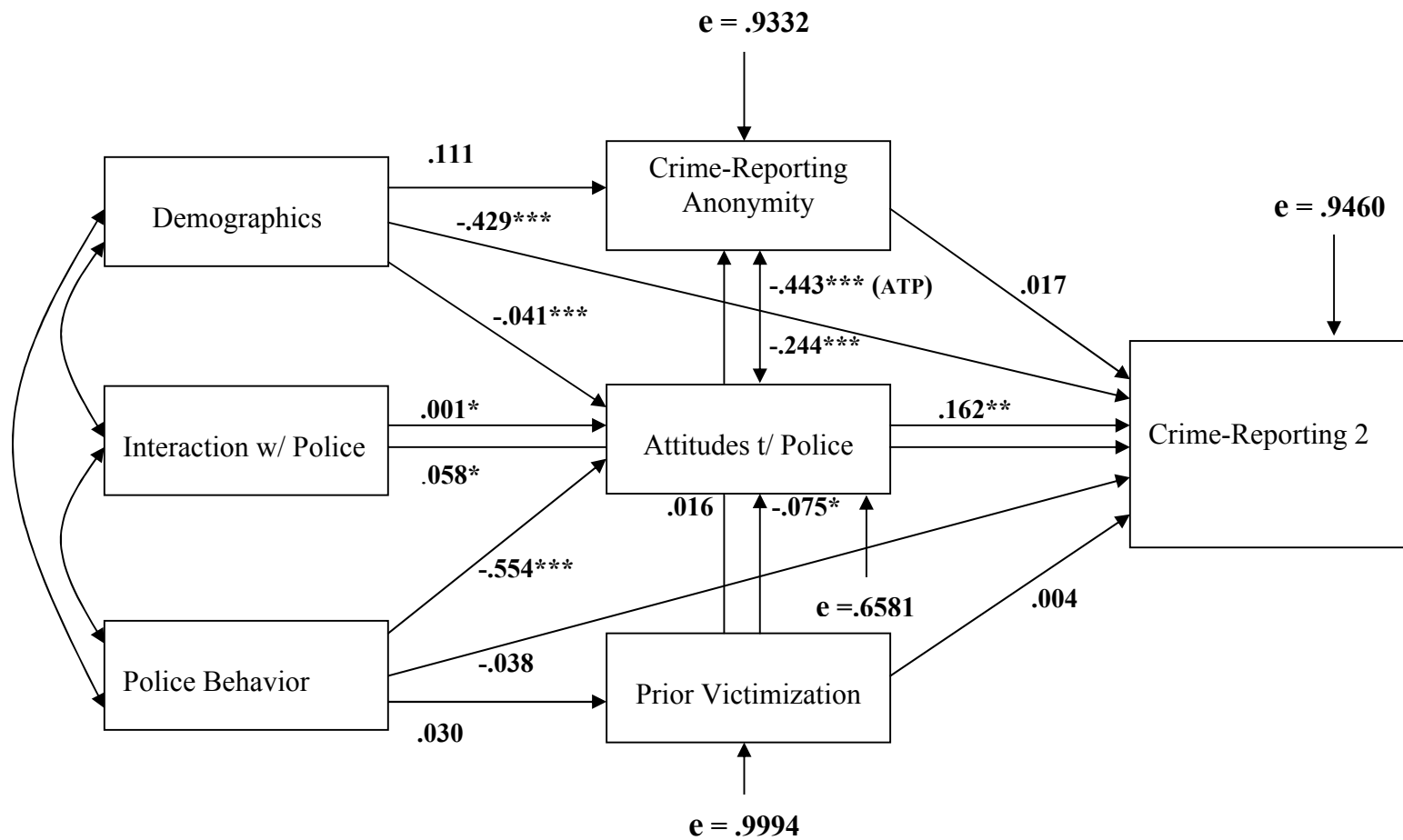


Figure B2. Initial path model for crime-reporting 2 (medium-level crime).

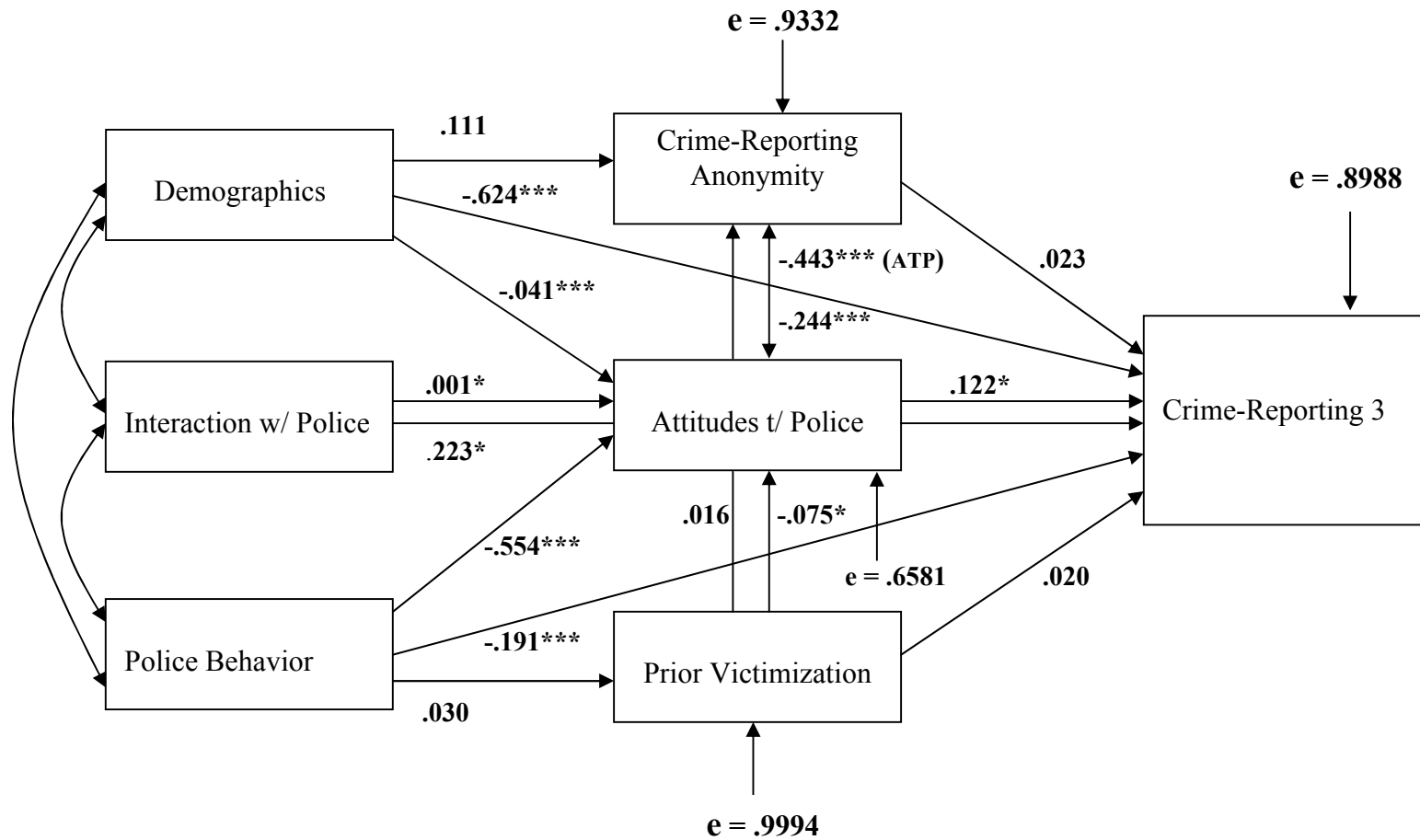


Figure B3. Initial path model crime-reporting 3 (reporting of serious crimes).

Modified Path Models

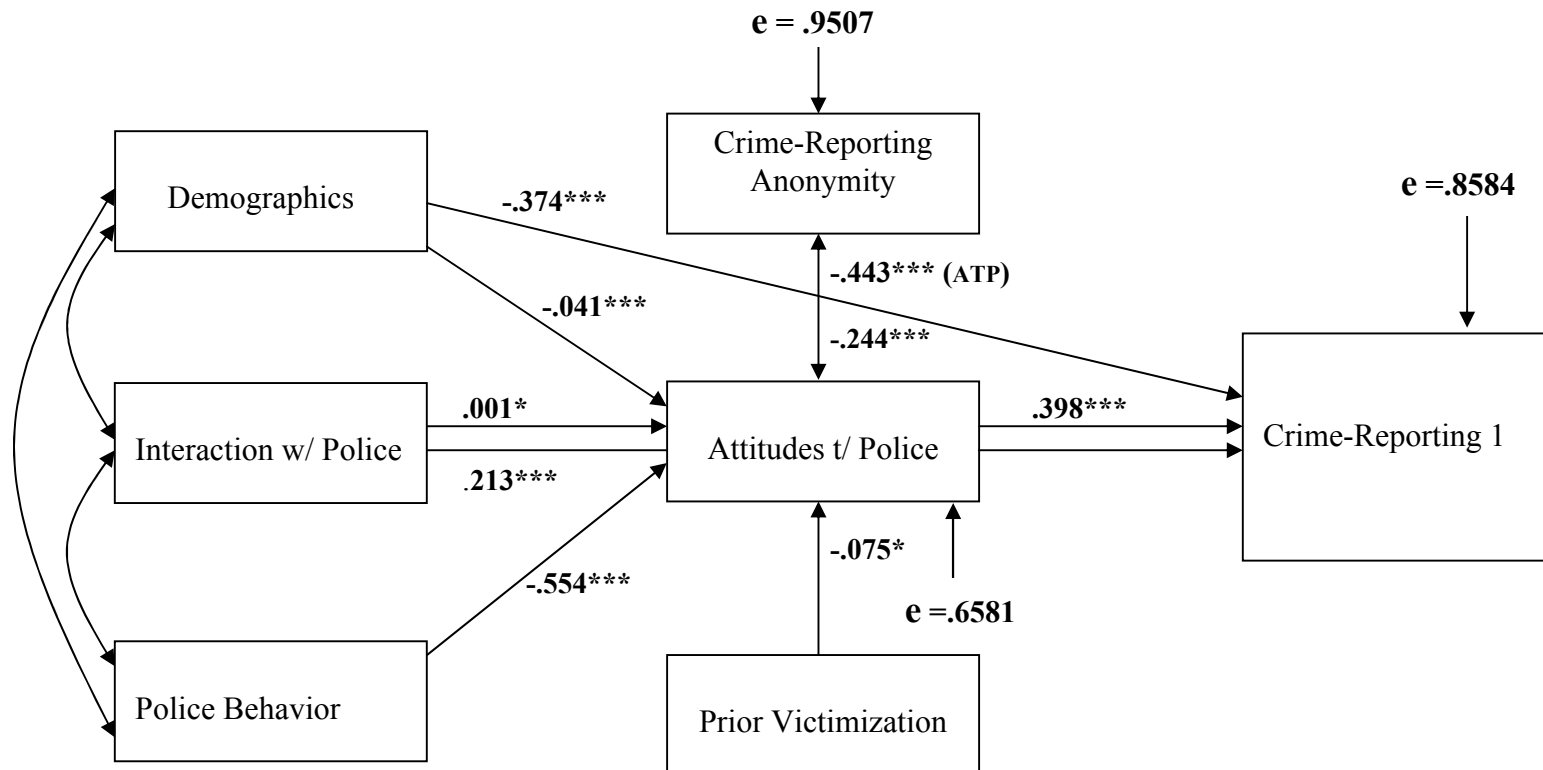


Figure B4. Modified path model for crime-reporting 1 (less serious crimes).

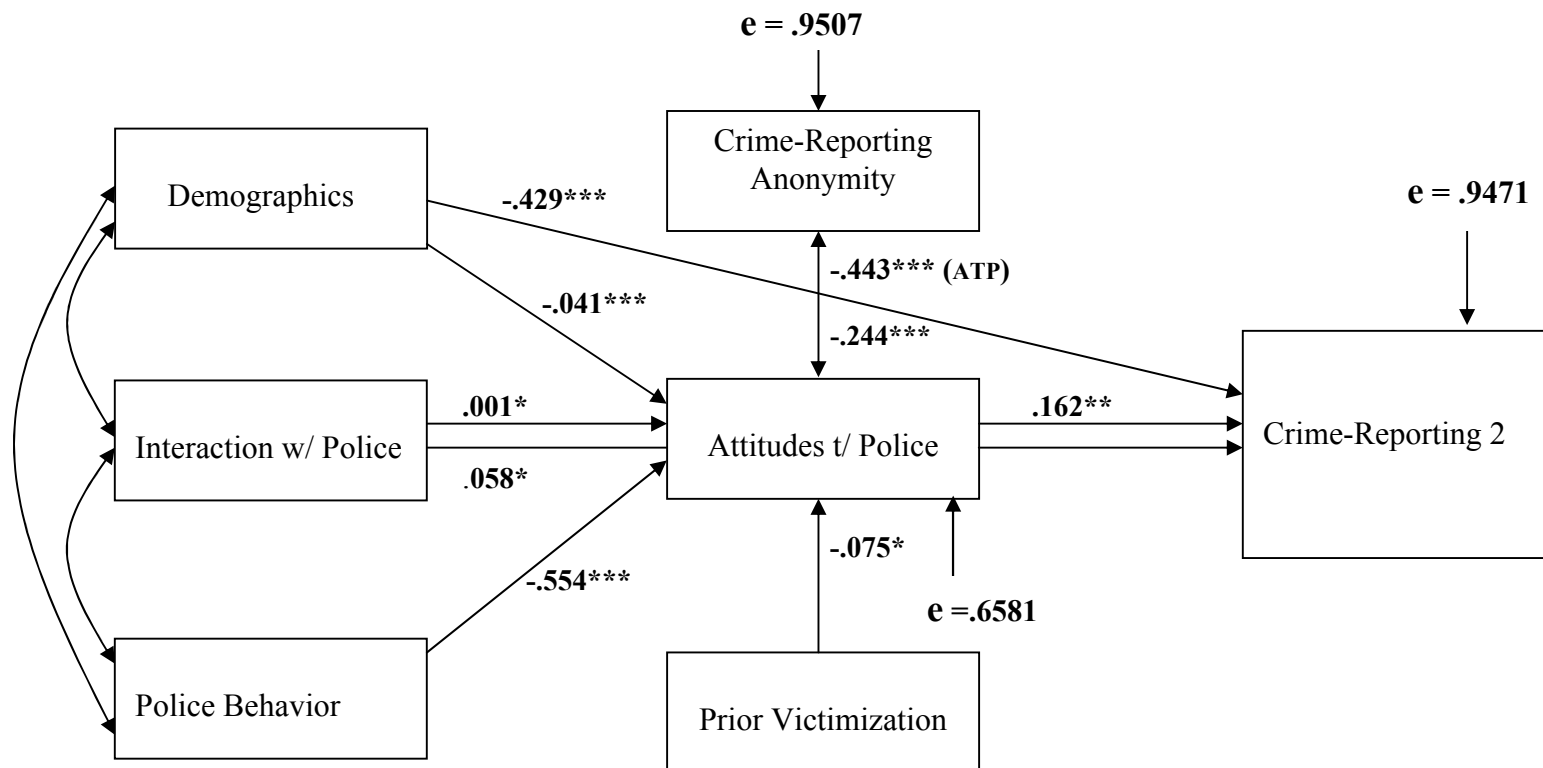


Figure B5. Modified path model for crime-reporting 2 (medium-level crimes).

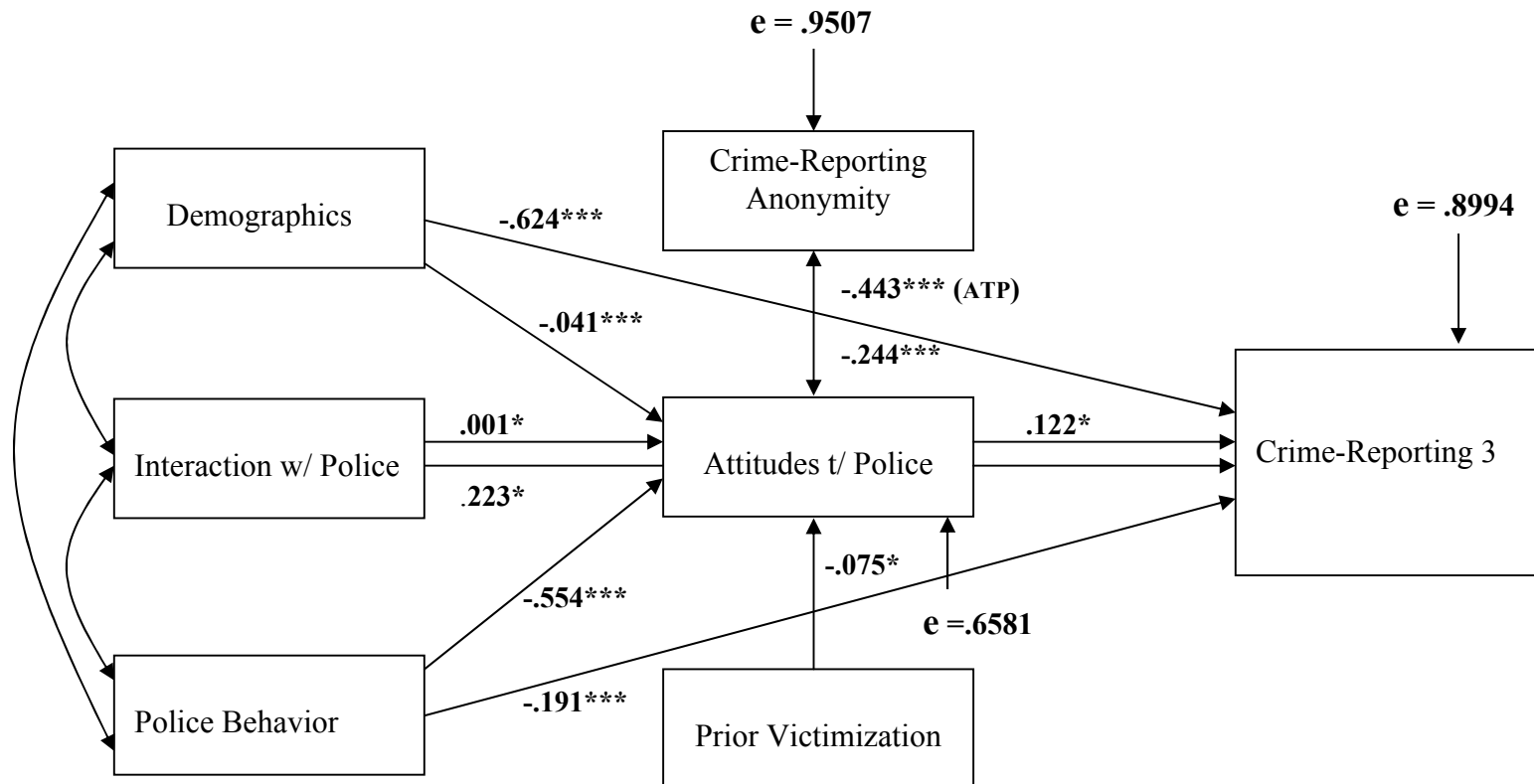


Figure B6. Modified path model for crime-reporting 3 (reporting of serious crimes).

Final Path Models

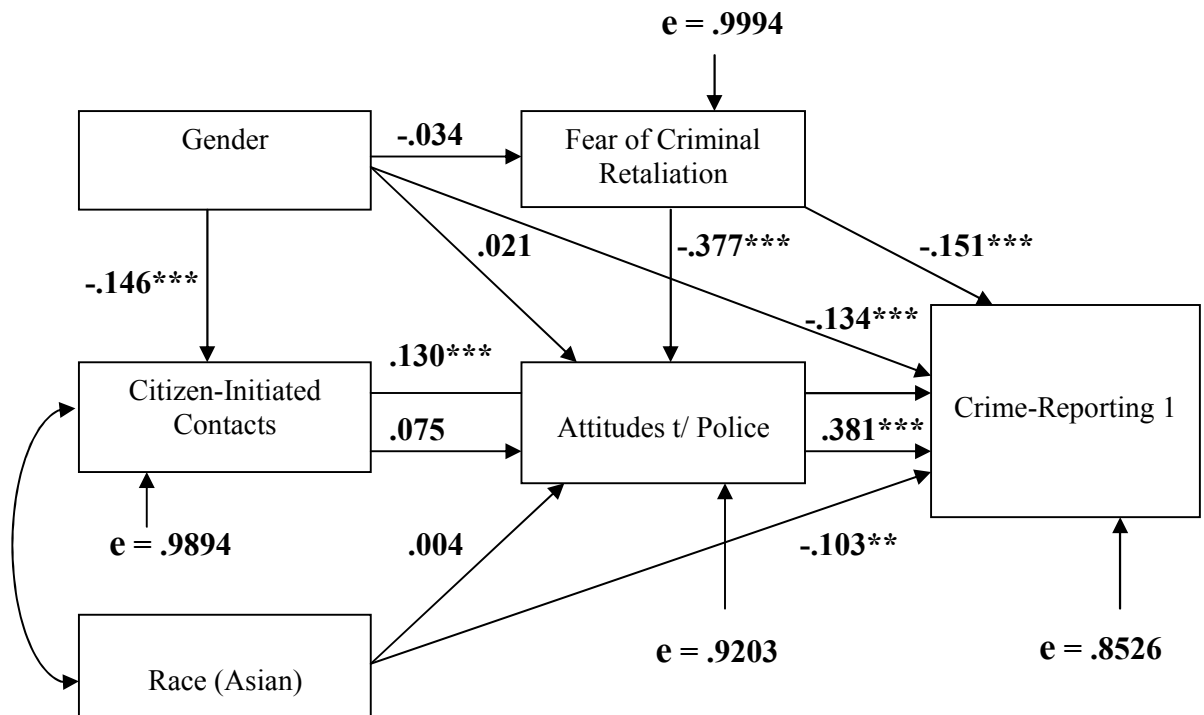


Figure B7. Final path model for the reporting of less serious crimes.

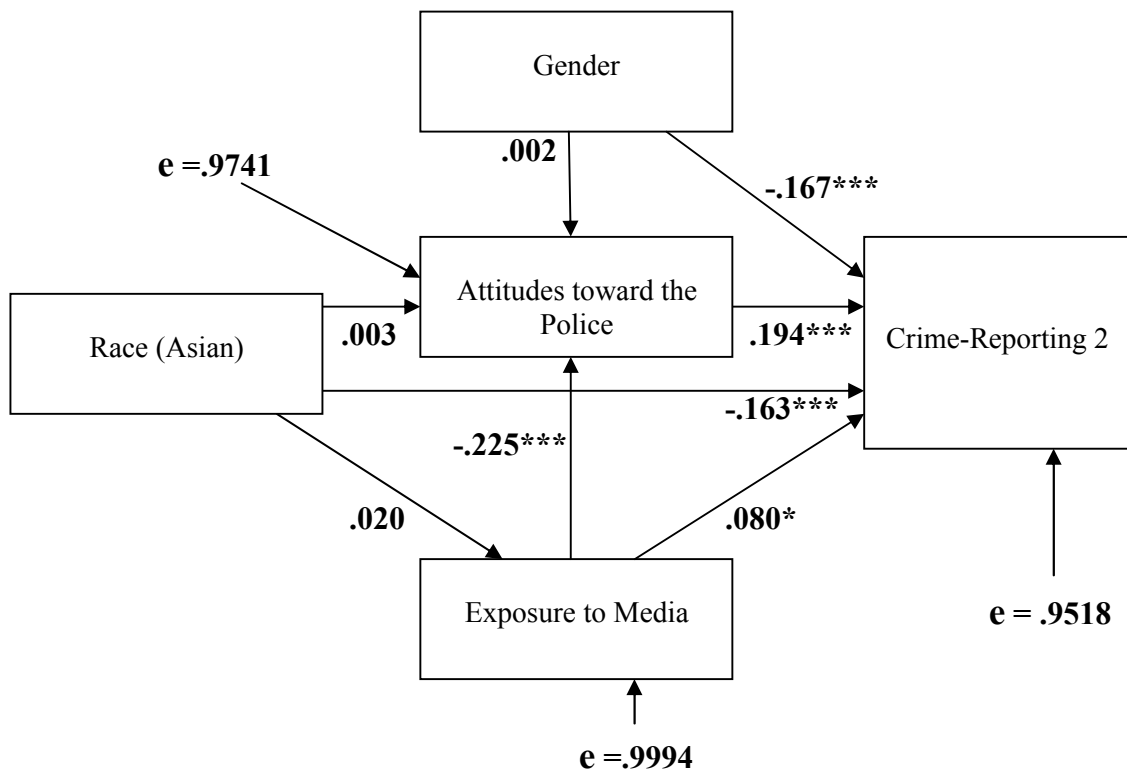


Figure B8. Final path model for the reporting of medium-level crimes.

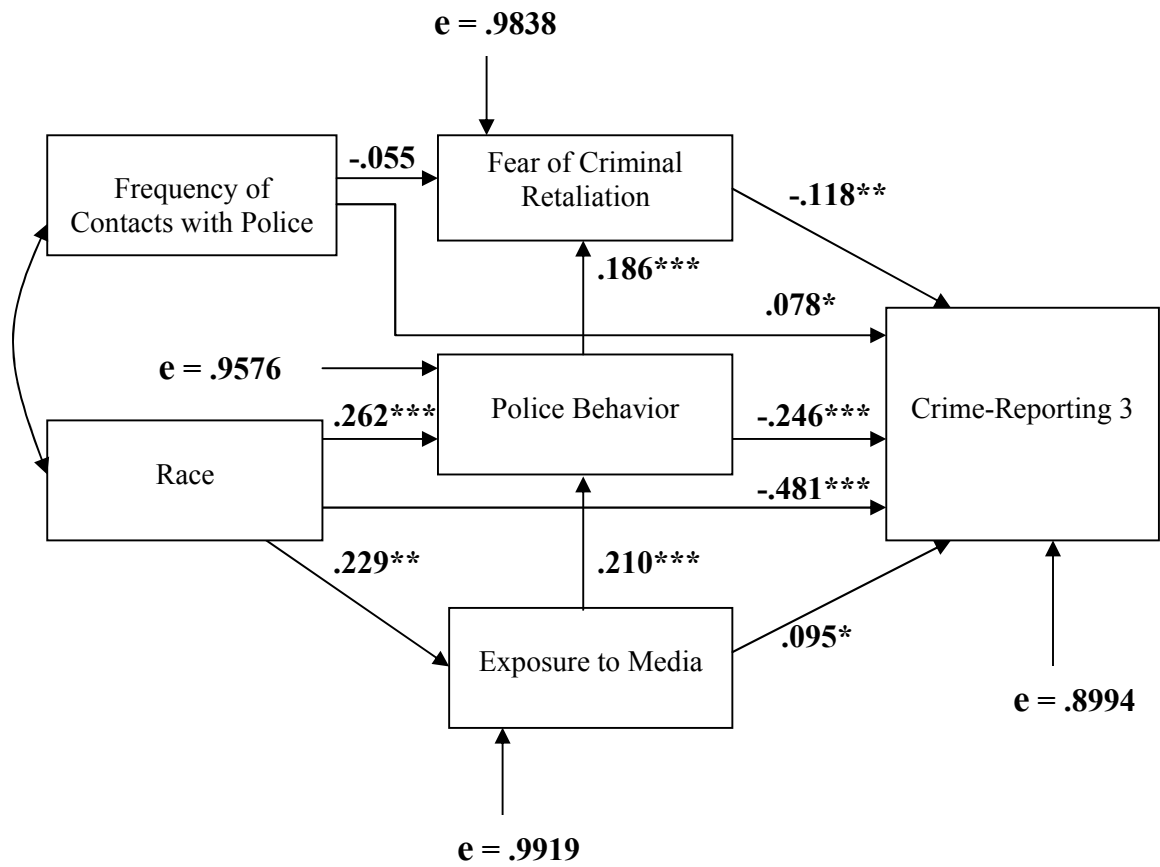


Figure B9. Final path model for the reporting of serious crime.

Appendix C
Additional Analyses

Table C1

A Summary of Significant Variables Measured Across Three Crime-Reporting Levels

Variables	Less Serious Crimes	Medium-Level Crimes	Serious Crimes
1. Attitudes T/ Police	X	X	
2. Fear of Criminal Retaliation	X		X
3. Police Behavior			X
4. Citizen-Initiated Contacts	X		
5. Frequency of Contacts			X
6. Exposure to Media		X	X
7. Gender	X	X	
8. Race (Asian)	X	X	X
9. Race (Black)			X
10. Race (Other)			X

Note: X = signifies that the variable is a significant predictor for the appropriate crime-reporting level. The absence of X indicates that the variable in question is not significant for that particular crime-reporting level. The significance of each variable has been determined based on the multivariate analyses. That is, variables that did not reach the significant level of at least $p < .05$ at the multivariate analyses were excluded, even though some of them were significant at the bivariate level.