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Attitudes and Reality: The Impact of Perceptions of Police on Students' Victimization Reporting Behaviors

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ATTITUDES AND REALITY:

THE IMPACT OF PERCEPTIONS OF POLICE ON STUDENTS' VICTIMIZATION

REPORTING BEHAVIORS

A Dissertation

Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies and Research

in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

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Indiana University of Pennsylvania
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Title: Attitudes and Reality: The Impact of Perceptions of Police on Students'
Victimization Reporting Behaviors

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The present study attempted to accurately measure crimes that occur on a college campus and whether students' perceptions of police influenced their decisions to report their victimization. A specific emphasis was placed on sexual assaults. Previous research has examined the reporting of sexual assault (Bachman, 1998; Sampson, 2002), sexual assault among university students (Fisher, Cullen & Turner, 2000; Ward et al., 1991), and perceptions of police by university students (Griffith, Hueston, Wilson, Moyers & Hart, 2004; Williams & Nofzinger, 2003), but no prior research has examined specifically whether students perceptions of police influence their decision to report serious crimes, including sexual assault. This study utilized a survey methodology to gather data which was analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively to determine what impacts victimization reporting and satisfaction with the police.

The results of the analyses indicated that victimization reporting and satisfaction with the police was impacted by gender, with women being more likely to report victimization and holding higher satisfaction with the police. Results also showed that fear of victimization and perceptions of crime influence satisfaction with the police. Those with higher fear of victimization and perceptions of crime held lower satisfaction

with the police. There was also limited support found for the proposition that perceptions

of the police influence likelihood to report victimization.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Though there have been several studies examining the crime of sexual assault, the exact prevalence of this crime is still unknown. According to Russell (1982), the prevalence of sexual assault of women in the general population ranges from 15 percent to 78 percent depending on the type of data collection or methodology used to gather this information. According to Belknap (2000), the prevalence of sexual assault is estimated to be from 1 in 4 to 1 in 8 women. Koss and Burkhart (1989) estimated that 15 to 22 percent of women have been raped at some point in their lifetime though few seek assistance for this victimization. Researchers also have determined that sexual assault is one of the least reported of all crimes (Lizotte, 1985; Sampson, 2002) and this could cause the apparent discrepancy in determining actual prevalence rates. This lack of reporting may be due to fear of being blamed (Felson & Pare, 2005), fear of reprisal (Sampson, 2002), or a belief that the criminal justice system will not offer an official response (Sampson, 2002).

Though researchers have not yet determined the true prevalence of sexual assault, researchers have concluded that the largest proportion of victims are women 16 to 24 years old who are enrolled in colleges or universities at the time of victimization (Sampson, 2002; Ward, Chapman, Cohn, White, & Williams, 1991). Sampson (2002) found that women in college are at more risk of being sexually assaulted than women of the same age group not enrolled in college, suggesting that there is something unique about being enrolled in college that increases risk of victimization. One possible explanation is an increased participation in risky behaviors (Ward et al., 1991).

Lifestyle exposure theory (Hindelang, Gottfredson & Garofalo, 1978) and routine activities theory (Cohen & Felson, 1978) may help explain why female college students have higher victimization rates. According to Ward et al. (1991), sexual assaults involving college students often involve alcohol and/or drug use by the victim, perpetrator or both. Victimizations tend to occur within social situations where women may inadvertently put themselves at risk (Sampson, 2002; Ward et al., 1991). An environment that is conducive to victimization may be created at colleges by allowing for the unique lifestyles of being a student in college which could then provide opportunities to engage in risky behaviors lessening a woman's ability to protect herself.

Though sexual assault is a serious crime and impacts many women enrolled in colleges and universities, it is still one of the least reported of all crimes (Russell, 1982). Karjane, Fisher and Cullen (2005) found that less than 5 percent of assaults are reported to university authorities. Even though quite a few victims may choose not to report, some victims do report the victimization to authorities. Karjane et al. (2005) found that if victims are treated fairly and if victim services are easily accessible, reporting is more likely. Fisher, Daigle, Cullen and Turner (2003) found that victims who held favorable attitudes of those taking the reports (e.g., police) were more likely to report. As with sexual assault, it has been found that individuals will be more likely to report crimes if they have a good relationship with law enforcement and feel that their complaint will be taken seriously (Rosenbaum, Schuck, Costello, Hawkins & Ring, 2005).

Relationships between the public and police are important for many reasons, not only for reporting crimes. As a result of this importance, researchers have examined what may influence relationships between the public and the police (Weitzer & Tuch, 2005). Researchers have found that there are several factors that influence how the public perceives the police ranging from fear

of crime (Roh & Oliver, 2005), ethnicity of the citizen (Weitzer & Tuch, 2005), age of the citizen (Williams & Nofzinger, 2003; Worrall, 1999) and police-initiated versus citizen-initiated contact (Skogan, 2005). These factors impact whether individuals hold positive or negative views of the police, and these views, in turn, can influence whether individuals decide to report crimes to the police.

The present study measures serious crimes that occur on a college campus and whether students' perceptions of police efficacy influence their decisions to report these crimes. A specific emphasis is placed on sexual assaults. Although previous research has examined the reporting of sexual assault (Bachman, 1998; Sampson, 2002), sexual assault among university students (Fisher, Cullen & Turner, 2000; Ward et al., 1991), and perceptions of police by university students (Griffith, Hueston, Wilson, Moyers & Hart, 2004; Willaims & Nofzinger, 2003), none has specifically examined whether students perceptions of police influence their decision to report serious crimes, including sexual assault. The present study used a survey methodology to examine students' perceptions of police and reporting behaviors. Surveys were distributed in randomly selected classrooms. Once data were collected, multiple regression and logistic regression were used to examine the hypotheses of this study.

Chapter 2 explores the issue of sexual assault. The lack of exact prevalence and incidence rates within the general population, as well as within the subgroup of college students, is discussed. Characteristics of victims are also examined and the unique atmosphere of universities that may make victimization risk higher is also explored. Finally, reporting behaviors and what influences the decision to report versus not report are considered.

Chapter 3 explores police relationships with the public. This chapter discusses reporting behaviors and how these are influenced by the public's perceptions of the police. The factors

that affect the public's satisfaction with the police are examined. Finally, this chapter discusses the relationship between the police and university students and how this may be different from the general relationship between a community and law enforcement.

Chapter 4 presents the methodology that is utilized for the present study. The sample selection and the reasons for this selection are discussed. The research design and research questions are identified, as well as, the survey design and variables that are being examined. Also, a data analysis plan is included, discussing the uses of multiple regression, logistic regression, and the reasons why these analyses were chosen for this study.

Chapter 5 presents the results from the data gathered. The frequencies of the data are first examined. Next, the results from the multivariate regression analyses are presented and how these findings support the hypotheses of this study. The results of the logistic analyses are then presented and discussed. Finally, the qualitative responses are discussed.

Chapter 6 presents a more in-depth discussion of the results. The hypotheses of the study are examined and whether the results found support these hypotheses. Limitations and strengths of the study are explored, as well as, policy implications. Finally, possible directions of future research are considered.

CHAPTER II

MEASURING SEXUAL ASSAULT

For a variety of reasons, it is difficult to determine true measures of sexual assault. According to Rozee and Koss (2001), the lifetime prevalence of rape and attempted rape ranges between 21 percent and 27 percent among college-aged women (in industrialized nations). In the United States, it has been found that, in general, the prevalence of rape is 15 percent (Rozee & Koss, 2001). Koss and Burkhart (1989) estimated that 15 to 22 percent of women have been raped at some point in their lifetime though few seek assistance for this victimization. It is likely that only approximately 25 percent or fewer of actual assaults are reported to police (Fisher et al., 2003; Gross, Winslett, Roberts, Gohm, 2006; Karjane et al., 2005; Ward et al., 1991). It may be that victims decide not to report the crime for fear of being blamed for the victimization (Russell, 1982), fear of reprisal from the perpetrator (who is often known to the victim) (Russell, 1982; Sampson, 2002; Ward et al., 1991), or a belief that those within the justice system will not accept the report as valid and will fail to investigate or prosecute the crime (Sampson, 2002). This chapter examines the nature of sexual assault victimization and the reporting behaviors of victims with particular attention to victims from colleges and universities.

Incidence and Prevalence

Although it is difficult to know the exact prevalence of sexual assault because of different methodologies and research techniques, researchers have used victimization surveys and official reports to determine an estimate. According to Russell (1982), the prevalence of sexual assault ranges from 15 percent to 78 percent of women in the general population depending upon variations in data collection and methodology (e.g., *Uniform Crime Reports* (UCR) versus *National Crime Victimization Survey* (NCVS) data). She argued that using victimization

interview methods offered a better understanding of the rates of sexual assault because victims may be more willing to report their victimization to researchers trained to deal with sensitive topics.

Russell (1982) examined several different studies of sexual victimization and discovered that an accurate measure of the prevalence of rape did not exist. With her own study, her goal was to find a more accurate estimate of these rates by creating a detailed interview schedule and interviewing 930 randomly selected adult women in the San Francisco area. Yet, by combining both rapes and attempted rapes, the prevalence rates that she reported might be overestimates.

Russell attempted to gain more disclosure by specifically designing an interview schedule that encouraged good rapport with respondents. Interviewers were given two weeks of training, and they were selected because of their sensitivity to the issue of rape. Interviews were held in private areas as much as possible, and attempts were made to match the race and ethnicity of the respondent and the interviewer.

In this study, there was a 36 percent refusal rate. Russell was unable to compare the social characteristics of the sample with adult women in San Francisco except on race and ethnicity. This did not allow the study to determine if the sample was representative of the population of adult women in San Francisco or adult women in general. This also made it difficult to generalize the results due to the unknown representativeness of the sample.

Russell (1982) compared her results to the 1979 edition of the *Uniform Crime Reports* (UCR). In the 1979 UCR, there were 583 reported rapes and attempted rapes of women of all ages in San Francisco during 1978. According to Russell, these data yielded a rape rate of 1.71 per 1,000 women of all ages in 1978 in San Francisco.   Russell's sample of 930 women reported 33 extramarital rapes and attempted rapes from mid-1977 to mid-1978 (12 months prior to the

interview), but 8 of the rapes/attempted rapes occurred outside of San Francisco, which is a final

measure of 25 rapes. Using these 25 rapes of 930 women, Russell estimated the total number of

extramarital rapes and attempted rapes of women 17 years old and older in 1978 in San

Francisco to be 7.625. Russell (1982) calculated that this is 13 times higher than the total

incidence reported by the UCR for women of all ages. Russell's estimate of the incidence rate of

rape was 3 percent. The UCR, however, does not give information on the age of victims,

whereas Russell's study was limited to women 17 years old and older. Also, Russell only

examined residents of the city and not others, unlike the UCR.

Russell also discussed the rate of unfounding (i.e., police finding that no forcible rape

offense or attempt occurred) of rape cases, and although there are no statistics for 1978 on the

unfounding rate, Russell reported the rate of unfounding for 1976 (the last year rates of

unfounding were given) as 18%. Russell explained that her rates are higher than those of the

UCR because of the fact that the rapes she measured were not unfounded and included

unreported rapes.

Based on the interviews of the 930 women, 41 percent reported at least one experience

that conformed to the legal definition of rape or attempted rape (Russell, 1982). Russell

suggested that this estimate does not capture the full extent of the problem since many

respondents were still unwilling to disclose their experiences even with the training and

sensitivity of the interviewers. As a result of this, reporting of this crime might be low even

when researchers take extra steps to gain the trust of respondents and increase disclosure.

Bachman (1998) examined data about rape and sexual assaults from the redesigned

National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) for the years 1992 to 1994.   Although the NCVS

measures a variety of sexual assaults, Bachman limited the examination to incidents that only

involved one male offender and a female victim 18 years old and older occurring in the United States. Thus, other types of sexual assaults are excluded from Bachman's analysis (i.e., gang rapes), which may possibly lower the actual incidence of sexual assault and rape. Bachman examined the reporting of the victimizations to the police and found that only 25 percent of the victimizations were reported to police. Victims were the ones who informed the police in 67 percent of instances of the victimization. Bachman also found that completed rapes were not reported more often than attempted rapes and other sexual assaults; however, Bachman did not discuss the prevalence rates of sexual assault.

The following discusses the issue of identifying the prevalence and incidence of rape within a university atmosphere and how this is distinct from the overall population of rape victims.

College Women

Although they also could be included in the overall population of women as potential victims, college women constitute a distinct subset of women worthy of study. As a result of their living arrangements, lifestyle, age, and their community, the prevalence of rape among college women should be examined separately from that of women in the general population. The following section discusses research that has examined specifically the prevalence of rape among college women.

Ward et al. (1991) examined the issue of sexual assault within college social situations. Data were collected by distributing questionnaires in undergraduate classrooms in an attempt to get a better response rate of a cross-section of the student population and to keep information anonymous. Twenty classes were selected, and they yielded a sample of 524 women and 337 men which represented approximately 10 percent of the undergraduate population.

The questionnaire asked students about the amount of unwanted sexual contact, unwanted attempted sexual intercourse, and unwanted completed sexual intercourse that the men participated in and the women had experienced during the current academic year. Incidents that reportedly occurred on campus were separated from those that had occurred elsewhere. The Ward et al. (1991) study had some limitations in that their sample was not truly representative of the undergraduate population of the university since it overrepresented female students, freshmen, and those in the college of liberal arts. By overrepresenting freshmen, this may make the estimates of the prevalence of assault inflated, because according to Ward et al. (1991), freshmen are the most likely victims of sexual assaults. Ward et al. (1991) found that 34 percent of the women sampled had experienced unwanted sexual contact, 20 percent had experienced unwanted attempted intercourse, and 10 percent had experience unwanted completed intercourse.

Fisher, Cullen & Turner (2000) examined the sexual victimization of college women using the National College Women Sexual Victimization (NCWSV) study.   The NCWSV attempted to overcome some of the previous limitations of studies on sexual assault by getting a better estimate of the prevalence of sexual assault among college aged women. The NCWSV used a telephone-based survey of a randomly selected national sample of 4,446 women attending 2- or 4-year universities with 1,000 or more students during the fall of 1996. The NCWSV used a two-stage methodology to measure rates of victimization. First, respondents were asked a series of behaviorally-specific screening questions to see if respondents had experienced a range of different types of sexual victimizations. If a respondent answered yes to a screening question, it was followed by an incident report to clarify information about the victimization and collect information about different aspects of the incident (i.e., victim-offender relationship). The

NCWSV collected data for the 1996-1997 academic year and the demographic characteristics, lifestyles, and routine activities of the respondents.

Twelve types of victimization were measured by the NCWSV, which included both completed and attempted rape, threats of rape, completed, attempted, and threatened sexual coercion, and other unwanted sexual contact. The NCWSV also examined stalking and verbal and visual forms of sexual victimization that other studies had not examined when looking at sexual victimization. Fisher et al. (2000) found that 2.8 percent of the sample had experienced either a completed or attempted rape. Some women were found to be victimized more than once, and as a result, the rates of incidents were higher than the rate of victims (35.3 per 1,000 students). Of the 123 victims, 22.8 percent were victims of multiple rapes. Fisher et al. (2000) also projected the findings to get an estimate of the rate of victimization for a whole year (not only a school year, approximately 7 months). This estimate of the rate of victimization for a period of one year was about 5 percent and when projected over a whole college career (average of 5 years) the rate of victimization rises to between one-fifth and one-quarter[1].

Fisher et al. (2000) also compared the results of the NCWSV to estimates from the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) and found that the estimates generated from the NCWSV were 11 times greater than those found with the NCVS for completed rape and for attempted rape 6 times greater. Fisher et al. (2000) suggested that these differences were due to the wording of the questions. The NCWSV used behaviorally-specific screening questions while the NCVS does not. It is possible that by using the behaviorally-specific questions respondents

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[1] Karjane et al. (2005) found the same results as Fisher et al. (2000) that 5 percent of women during a year will be victims of rape, and over a five-year period this figure rises to one-fifth of college women.

who may either be reluctant to report or do not classify what happened to them as a sexual assault will report the victimization (Fisher et al., 2000).

Sampson (2002) found that women, especially women in college, are at high-risk of being victims of sexual assault and that approximately 25 percent have been victims of attempted or completed sexual assaults. Sampson (2002) also found that women in college are at more risk of being sexually assaulted than women in the 16 to 24 age group who are not in college[2]. This suggests that women in college are a unique population, possibly more at risk that those women not in college. Therefore, it is important to examine this population in depth.

Although researchers have not been able to specify clearly the prevalence or incidence of sexual assault, all agree that it is a serious crime and that it affects many women, particularly those in college and universities. Fisher et al. (2000) found that for a period of one year about 5 percent of college women are assaulted, and over 5 years (a typical college career) the figure rises to between one-fifth and one-quarter of college women. Researchers also agree that all women are vulnerable to sexual assault, though there are characteristics that are more common among victims than non-victims. The following sections present the characteristics common among victims.

Characteristics of Victimization

Any college or university woman can be a potential victim of sexual assault though there are characteristics that are more common among victims than non-victims. Although college men can be assaulted too, women in college are more likely to become victims of sexual assault (Russell, 1982).

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[2]Sampson (2002) did not explain how she came to the conclusion that college women are more at risk for sexual assault than women 16 to 24 years old who are not in college.

Age

Research indicates that college women between the ages of 16 and 24 years old are victimized at a higher rate than any other age group (Fisher et al., 2003; Sampson, 2002; Ward et al., 1991). It is possible that college women in this age group engage in behaviors (e.g., drinking alcohol) that put them at a higher risk for victimization (Ward et al., 1991). In addition, women within this age group tend to experience multiple sexual assaults (Fisher et al., 2000; Gross et al., 2006; Sampson, 2002; Ward et al., 1991). Women are most vulnerable to sexual assault during the first few weeks of their freshman and sophomore years, particularly the first few days of their freshman year, which represent the highest risk for victimization (Sampson, 2002; Ward et al., 1991). Gross et al. (2006) found that 84.4 percent of victims experienced victimization sometime during the first four semesters or first two years on campus.

Race/Ethnicity

Though some researchers have found a general relationship between ethnicity and victimization (Riedel & Welsh, 2002), much of the sexual victimization research has not found any correlation between ethnicity and being a victim of sexual assault. Researchers examining sexual assault often do not report information on ethnicity or any findings associated with ethnicity and victimization. Although they may have gained information about the demographics of respondents, Ward et al. (1991) did not report information on ethnicity in their examination of sexual assault.

According to Belknap (2000), African-American women are more at risk for assault than other groups though the types of assault may differ. She determined that while Caucasian women are more at risk for acquaintance rapes, African-American women were more at risk for stranger rapes. Although Belknap (2000) did not identify why African-American females may

be more at risk for stranger rapes than white females, Gross et al. (2006) found that African-American female college students who are victims of assault report higher rates of physical force and emotional pressure than victims who are white. Gross et al. (2006) found that there is no clear correlation between rape and ethnicity, but found that there was greater alcohol usage with white victims relative to African-American victims. Other races and ethnicities were not examined by Gross et al. (2006).

According to Mustaine and Tewksbury (2002), African-American women have a victimization rate that is 14 percent more than that of white women. Rozee and Koss (2001), in their review of sexual assault research, stated that the prevalence rate of rape for white women was found to be the same as that of African-American women in many studies, though others have found a lower rate for African-American women when compared to white women. It was also acknowledged that many of the studies that sample college women do not include a random sample of African-American women (Rozee & Koss, 2001). This bias in sampling may be why there is a dearth of research of the interaction between ethnicity and victimization.

As with Gross et al. (2006), most research ignores or has weakly examined the possible interaction between sexual victimization and ethnicity. By not examining victim race and ethnicity, researchers may be missing critical information regarding the experiences and causes of sexual victimization.

Residence

The location of the victimization is important to consider when examining sexual assault, and, in particular, assaults committed by acquaintances and against college aged women. Existing research suggests that these events occur on campus and most often in the victims' residences (Sampson, 2002; Ward et al., 1991). Sampson (2002) reported that 45 percent of

attempted rapes of college women occur on campus while 34 percent of completed rapes occur on campus. Sampson (2002) reported that approximately 60 percent of the completed rapes that occur on campus take place at the victims' residences, about 31 percent occur at another residence, and about 10 percent at a fraternity. A sexual assault involving an acquaintance may occur either at a residence following a date or in a vehicle, but stranger rapes tend to occur on campus in isolated areas (e.g., garages) or in the victims' residences (Sampson, 2002).

Fisher et al. (2000) discovered that a majority of sexual victimizations among college women occurred in living quarters with almost 60 percent occurring in the victim's residence. Fisher et al. (2000) also found that among college women victimization is more common within off-campus residences.

Time

Similar to the issue of residence, temporal associations with victimization are important to consider though not many researchers have examined the question of when victimizations occur. Sampson (2002) found that sexual assaults tend to happen after 6 p.m., with the majority occurring after midnight. Fisher et al. (2000) also found that many victimizations occurred after 6 p.m. with a majority (51.8 percent) occurring after midnight. This is possibly due to the fact that within these hours there is little natural light and also these may be the hours when individuals are not most alert (either due to natural biorhythms or to imbibing alcohol/drugs). The combination of the lack of light and less alert individuals may make an environment where it is easier for offenders to commit assaults than it might be earlier in the day.

Lifestyles

Research has shown that the way individuals live impacts not only their lifestyle but also their risk of victimization (Armstrong & Griffin, 2007; Cohen & Felson, 1979) and this includes

the risk for sexual assault victimization. Routine activities theory (Cohen and Felson, 1979) and lifestyle exposure theory (Hindelang et al., 1978) may help explain why female college students tend to have higher victimization rates than other women (even among other women in the same age group). Routine activities theory states that victimization and crime can occur when there are motivated offenders who come in contact with suitable victims and there is a lack of capable guardians (Cohen and Felson, 1979). The theory proposes that crime can occur during the course of routine activities (e.g., going to school or work). Capable guardianship can include additional lighting or other physical security devices that improve surveillance (Cohen and Felson, 1979).

Lifestyle exposure theory suggests that variation in risk to victimization can be attributed to differences in an individual's lifestyle characteristics (Armstrong & Griffin, 2007; Hindelang et al., 1978). Certain individuals may be more susceptible to victimization due to their exposure to dangerous people, places, or times, which then increases the situations where victimization can occur. As a result, one woman, due to her lifestyle activities (both personal and professional) may have an increased risk of victimization versus another woman despite being similar in all other ways (e.g., age, race, and socio-economic status) (Armstrong & Griffin, 2007; Hindelang et al., 1978).

It may be that suitable targets (i.e., women who are intoxicated) come into contact with motivated offenders (i.e., men who are intoxicated or who have experienced peer support toward victimization) more often in situations related to college and university social scenes. In addition, it is possible that this convergence of suitable targets and motivated offenders occurs in conjunction with a lack of capable guardians (i.e., in isolated dorm rooms, or at parties where others are intoxicated) (Ward et al., 1991).

According to Ward et al. (1991), the majority of acquaintance sexual assaults among college-aged victims and offenders involve alcohol and/or drug use by both the victim and perpetrator. Ward et al. (1991) found in their examination that in over 75 percent of the college and university victimizations, the male perpetrators had consumed alcohol, and, in over half the incidents, the female victims had consumed alcohol.

Gross et al. (2006) suggest that in over half of these incidents, either the victim or perpetrator used alcohol. This may be one of the reasons why college women are more susceptible to acquaintance rape since there is often an atmosphere conducive to drinking on college and university campuses (Gross et al., 2006).

Schwartz and Pitts (1995) suggested that women are more likely targets for sexual assault and have a higher risk of victimization than others regardless of lifestyle choices. They also suggested that due to the "rape-supportive" culture of the United States, men are motivated to sexually assault women. Capable guardianship is diminished because there are men who assault women and feel no guilt or shame. Low penalties for men who assault women also contribute to this lowered guardianship. Schwartz and Pitts (1995) argued that a college campus is a hot spot for this convergence of suitable targets, motivated offenders, and lack of guardianship. Their study examined the factors that increased the pursuit of suitable targets by potential offenders. Women who had male friends who got women drunk for the purpose of sexual assault and women who drank more often were found to be more likely to be sexually assaulted than women who did not engage in these behaviors. However, they did not look into other lifestyle choices that might increase a women's chance of victimization.

Mustaine and Tewksbury (2002) examined sexual assault using routine activities theory to expand on the research of Schwartz and Pitts (1995). They expanded the range of lifestyle

16

activities to understand how lifestyles may predispose a woman to victimization due to making

her a more suitable target. They also examined whether these factors that influence sexual

assault vary with varying degrees of severity of victimization. Data from women on 12 college

campuses collected from self-administered surveys were examined. Mustaine and Tewksbury

(2002) found that none of the variables measuring self-protective behaviors was a significant

predictor of sexual assault, suggesting that guardianship behavior did not influence whether a

women was seen as a suitable target for victimization. In their final model, none of the variables

associated with categories of demographics and those related to alcohol or lifestyle statuses were

significant predictors of victimization. They suggest that by adding more lifestyle behaviors into

the analysis and thereby controlling for more behaviors, the variables that are typically found to

be significant predictors of victimization in more limited studies (i.e., alcohol use) are no longer

significant. Though they did not find alcohol-related lifestyle behaviors to be significant, they

imply that it may be other activities in association with drinking alcohol that influence a

woman's suitability as a target (i.e., not drinking, but who she is drinking with). However, they

did find that when lifestyle behavior relating to drug usage was included in the models, the

significance of the alcohol measures disappear, suggesting that drug usage may have a greater

influence on a woman's risk for victimization. Mustaine and Tewksbury (2002) found that

victimization risks were primarily influenced by proximity or exposure to rape-supportive male

peer groups with measures of victim attractiveness/suitability being less influential.

Colleges and universities may also contain environmental characteristics where the

likelihood of being assaulted is greater (e.g., mixed social functions, co-ed dormitories).

According to Ward et al. (1991), women may also trust those with whom they interact on a

regular basis (i.e., have class or study with) and not have as much fear of being victimized if they

associate with these individuals. Victimizations often do occur within social situations where women are not predisposed to be fearful (e.g., they are with their friends at a party), and therefore, women may inadvertently put themselves at risk because they do not believe they will be assaulted. The problem is compounded by the reports that college women disproportionately fear stranger-based sexual assaults and may take steps to avoid these events (e.g., not walking alone on campus at night) but exhibit less concern with becoming intoxicated with relatively unknown acquaintances (Gross et al., 2006; Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Sampson, 2002; Ward et al., 1991).

College men may also not consider taking advantage of an intoxicated female student as rape and other acquaintances may facilitate the event by encouraging male perpetrators and female victims simply out of ignorance (Sampson, 2002; Mustiane & Tewksbury, 2002; Rozee & Koss, 2001; Ward et al., 1991). Since college students may not define these incidents as rape when they occur to a friend or acquaintance, they may be less likely to define them as such if these incidents happen to them (Sampson, 2002; Ward et al., 1991).

The lifestyle of a college student may impact their victimization risk. Engaging in risky activities, such as drinking, may lessen their ability to protect themselves from victimization, especially sexual assault. Also, women in college may come in more proximity or spend more time with males who are part of rape-supportive peer groups increasing their risk of victimization (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002). With some confusion related to the definition of sexual assault, it is likely that many events that qualify as sexual assaults also go unreported. The following section discusses reporting behavior and the correlates to why victims may or may not report their victimization.

Reporting of Sexual Assault

Crimes come to the attention of law enforcement officers mostly by citizen reporting (Walker & Katz, 2002), though not all crimes are reported equally. Only 36.3 percent of victims report crimes to the police according to the National Crime Victimization Survey (Walker & Katz, 2002). This section discusses the low reporting rate of sexual assault in particular and possible reasons for this low reporting rate.

Sexual assault is one of the least reported of all crimes (Lizotte, 1985; Fisher et al., 2000; Sampson, 2002), and Karjane et al. (2005) state that less than 5 percent of assaults of students are reported to university authorities. Other research estimates the reporting rate as approximately 25 percent (Fisher et al., 2003; Gross et al., 1991; Sampson, 2002), but this is still alarmingly low. Sampson's (2002) research suggests that approximately two-thirds of victims tell someone, but this is most likely a friend or a roommate and not a person of authority. Part of the reason reporting is low with sexual assault could be the embarrassing nature of the crime. Others posit that it is because many of the assaults involve acquaintances and alcohol, and that many victims may not realize that what happened was a sexual assault (Gross et al., 1991; Sampson, 2002). The exact reasons why some women chose to report an assault to authorities while many do not is not completely known, but the review presented below summarizes what is currently understood while identifying areas of further exploration.

Ambiguity Concerning Assault

Many victims may not report their victimization because they may not realize that what had happened constitutes sexual assault, particularly if the assault involves someone known to the victim (Gross et al., 2006; Russell, 1982; Sampson, 2002; Ward et al., 1991). Since the assault often does not take the form of the stereotypical stranger-in-the-bushes assault, victims

may fail to recognize and label the experience as a sexual assault, and they will see no need to report it as a crime (Gross et al., 2006). Fisher et al. (2000) found in their examination of sexual assault that in almost half the incidents (48.8 percent) the respondents did not consider the incident rape while 4.7 percent stated that they did not know if it constituted rape.

Research indicates that this is especially true with college and university women who are assaulted. Sexual assaults committed against college and university women predominately involve a perpetrator whom the victim knows or has recently met, the use of alcohol, and occur within a social scene where the victim may not characterize what happened as sexual assault (Ward et al., 1991). Also, these assaults may not result in physical injuries and the victims may not have fought the perpetrator, despite protesting against sexual conduct or being unable (due to intoxication) to properly consent (Ward et al., 1991). As a result, victims may not characterize these assaults as true sexual assaults, and therefore do not report them (Fisher et al., 2003; Gross et al., 2006; Sampson, 2002; Ward et al., 1991).

Researchers describe the typical sexual assault as not the stereotypical event that most women fear but rather victimization at the hands of someone known to them (Lizotte, 1985). Both Belknap (2000) and Russell (1982) have described the stereotypical rape as one involving a lone woman, being grabbed by someone, usually a stranger hiding in the bushes, being assaulted at night, and in an isolated area. In this view, there are injuries due to a physical confrontation. Research indicates that sexual assaults are more likely to involve a perpetrator who is known to the victim, either casually or intimately, usually involves alcohol, and results in few if any physical injuries (Fisher et al., 2000; Russell, 1982; Ward et al., 1991). As a result, many women may not define what occurred to them as sexual assault, because it does not fit their conception of a sexual assault (Fisher et al., 2000; Ward et al., 1991). When researchers attempt

to gather information on the rates of assaults, women who do not define what happened as sexual assault may allow their victimization experiences to go unmeasured and unreported (Fisher et al., 2000; Russell, 1982).

Fear of Retaliation

Since a majority of the sexual assaults that occur on campuses are committed by offenders known to the victims, one possible reason for victims not reporting is fear of reprisal by the assailant(s) (Sampson, 2002). Bachman (1998) found that more than 1 in 10 university women who are victims did not report because they were afraid of reprisal from the offender. Victims may not only fear reprisal from the assailant, but also from the assailant's friends, who may also be known to the victim and the victim's own friends. Since oftentimes victims are not believed (especially if the assault does not conform to stereotypical events or if there was a prior relationship between victim and offender), victims also may fear social stigma as a form of reprisal (Fisher et al., 2003; Sampson, 2002).

Research indicates that those who know their attackers are even less likely to notify authorities (and/or delay telling anyone) than those who are assaulted by strangers due to possible fear of reprisal (Bachman, 1998; Fisher et al., 2003). Victims may fear that someone known to them would be more prone to retaliation than a stranger (Bachman, 1998). Bachman (1998) found that this is even the case despite finding that victimizations perpetrated by known offenders may be more likely to result in an arrest compared to those committed by strangers (Bachman, 1998). This creates an even larger problem with reporting assaults of college women since the majority of these involve offenders known to the victim.

Victim Blaming/Secondary Victimization

Many victims may choose not to report the assault because of fear of being blamed for the assault occurring (Felson & Pare, 2005; Fisher et al., 2003). Despite being a traumatic experience in and of itself for the victims, sexual assault is also the only crime where the victim can be and often is socially stigmatized and blamed for becoming a victim (Russell, 1982). Victims may also blame themselves for allowing the assault to occur. The victim may believe that the incentives to avoid reporting outweigh any possible benefits of reporting (Russell, 1982). Victims may also believe that nothing can or will be done about it despite being stigmatized and blamed. Therefore, they still choose not to report to authorities, though they may still disclose information to close friends (Gross et al., 2006; Sampson, 2002; Ward et al., 1991).

Since the majority of assaults also involve drinking and/or drug use by the victim, those who are assaulted while under the influence may fear being blamed or receiving sanctions if they go to university officials to report the incident (Karjane et al., 2005; Ward et al. 1991). Women may fear that because they had been drinking at the time of the assault they may not be believed or they will be blamed for allowing the victimization to occur. If the victimization was committed by someone known to the victim, the victim again may fear that authorities will not believe an assault occurred or think that she is only reporting "to get back at the male" or because of a "bad date" (Belknap, 2000; Sampson, 2002). The victim may decide that it is more beneficial not to report than to be ceaselessly questioned about the assault; the victim may want to just forget it happened and go on with her life without reliving the victimization (Belknap, 2000; Sampson, 2002).

Those Who Report

Some victims do choose to report their victimization to authorities. Often times those who disclose being victimized do so first to friends or other intimate acquaintances before deciding to go to authorities (often at the urging of these friends) (Fisher et al., 2003; Sampson, 2002). Research indicates that more than three-fourths of victims tell someone about the incident, usually a friend, rather than disclose the information to police (Fisher et al., 2003), since only approximately 5 percent to 25 percent of assaults are reported to authorities (Fisher et al., 2003; Karjane et al., 2005). As with non-reporting, research has tried to determine what factors influence victims to report their victimization to authorities to allow for better reporting practices overall. This section discusses those factors which have been found to be correlated with reporting sexual assaults to authorities.

According to Karjane et al. (2005), if victims are treated fairly (without blame), if there is coordination between the community and authorities, and if there are easily accessible victim services available, reporting is more likely. They also discovered that policies on campuses that encourage anonymous and confidential reporting encourage both victims and others to report assaults.

Fisher et al. (2003) found in their research that victims were more likely to report if they hold favorable attitudes of those taking the reports (e.g., if victims felt the police will handle the case efficiently and considerately).

Research also indicates that there are characteristics specific to the actual assault that increases the likelihood of reporting. If the victim shows evidence of the assault (i.e., physical harm and injuries), it is more likely to be reported, because the victim believes she is more likely to be taken seriously and viewed as a victim (Bachman, 1998; Felson & Pare, 2005; Lizotte,

1985; Russell, 1982). If the assault is committed by someone unknown to the victim, she is more likely to report (Bachman, 1998; Belknap, 2000; Fisher et al., 2003; Russell, 1982).

Victim characteristics also have been identified as increasing the likelihood to report. Older victims are more likely to report than those who are younger, and research indicates that the more education a woman has the less likely she is to report the assault (Lizotte, 1985). This is possibly due to the fact that by being more educated a woman understands more how she may be secondarily victimized by the justice system and what she will experience if she reports the victimization and participates in the prosecution of the offender (Fisher et al., 2003; Lizotte, 1985). Research has also shown that if the victim feels that the assault conformed to the stereotypical rape then the assault is more likely to be reported to authorities (Felson & Pare, 2005; Fisher et al., 2003; Karjane et al., 2005; Russell, 1982; Sampson, 2002).

Conclusion

Though the true prevalence of sexual assault is difficult to determine due to lack of reporting, many researchers agree that it is a serious problem for women, especially women aged 16 to 24 who are in college (Fisher et al., 2003; Gross et al., 2006; Russell, 1982; Sampson, 2002; Ward et al., 1991). Research has shown that the majority of these sexual assaults is committed by those known to the victims and occurs during the course of common social interaction. These characteristics decrease the likelihood of reporting. There are many reasons why victims may not report the crime to the authorities, including fear of reprisal, fear of being blamed, and ambiguity over qualification of the assault (Fisher et al., 2003; Russell, 1982; Ward et al., 1991). There are also reasons why victims may choose to report despite these fears including the thought that they will be taken seriously and treated considerately by the authorities when reporting (Fisher et al., 2003; Karjane et al., 2005). This suggests that those universities

24

that have a good relationship between students and law enforcement may foster a relationship that facilitates reporting of sexual assault.

Universities where officials understand the true nature of the crime and the reasons behind both reporting and non-reporting may also be able to enact policies that help prevent sexual assault. The following chapter reviews the interaction between the public and police and identifies the importance of this relationship and how it can be improved, which can enhance reporting of crimes in general and sexual assault in particular.

CHAPTER III

REPORTING AND POLICE RELATIONSHIPS

Relationships between the police and public are important for many different reasons even though these may often be strained (Weitzer & Tuch, 2005).   As a result of this strain, these relationships between the police and public need to be fostered and enhanced as much as possible (Weitzer & Tuch, 2005). It is also important to understand the operation of these and how they can influence community and police interactions. A rapport that increases confidence and trust between citizens and police may foster increased citizen cooperation and increased crime reporting and may also help lower fear of crime in a community (Roh & Oliver, 2005).

Individual officers, as well as, entire departments have the capacity to alter these relationships through policing styles and policies (Walker & Katz, 2002). The relationship between the police and the public helps to create satisfaction with police services and the police in general, but this relationship also can create discontent with the police and the overall criminal justice system.   Since most often the primary contact individuals (particularly victims) have with the justice system is speaking with police officers, it is imperative that citizens have confidence in the police and feel as though the police will perform in a satisfactory way (Skogan, 2005). According to Roh and Oliver (2005), because of the importance of enhancing relationships with the public, police departments began implementing community policing programs in the 1980s because of institutionalized interest in enhancing relationships with the police.   Today, most of the departments in the United States incorporate some form of community policing to supplement traditional patrol activities, and this has been shown to have a positive effect on satisfaction with the police (Roh & Oliver, 2005; Walker and Katz, 2002).

This chapter identifies how the reporting of crime can be influenced by the way citizens perceive the police.

Reporting to Police

There can be varied reasons why victims and witnesses may choose not to report crimes to the police and these include fear of being identified as criminal, fear of reprisal from the offenders, and a determination that the incident is not a relevant police matter. If individuals (victims or not) do not report crimes to the police, these crimes could remain unknown and not investigated by police. Most of the crimes come to the attention of law enforcement through citizen reporting (Walker & Katz, 2002) and based on this, it is critical that citizens report crimes to increase the efficiency of the police. Despite this, only 36.3 percent of victims report their experience to the police according to the National Crime Victimization Survey (as cited by Walker & Katz, 2002).

Crime and Victim Characteristics

Based upon a review of the National Crime Victimization Survey, Walker and Katz (2002) found that reporting crimes to the police varies. They found that crimes involving personal injury, a high dollar loss, or more serious crimes are more likely to be reported by victims than other crimes. According to Walker and Katz (2002), Caucasians and African Americans tend to report crimes at the same rate (despite the fact that African Americans generally hold less favorable views of the police). Women and men tend to report crime at the same rate except for violent crimes, for which women are 10 percent more likely to report. Age does not influence reporting (though teenagers are often less likely to report crimes).

Victims of crimes do not report to the police because they may feel the crime is insignificant or because they believe nothing can or will be done about it (Walker & Katz, 2002).

Citizens often do not report crimes to police because they may not have confidence in the police or may be dissatisfied with past experiences either reporting crimes or in general interaction with law enforcement. Perceptions of the police do influence reporting behaviors and influence whether a victim decides to report a crime to the police. Walker and Katz (2002) reported that according to the NCVS, approximately 3 percent of those who did not report a victimization did not report because they thought the police were biased, inefficient and/or ineffective.

Victims and citizens viewing crimes may be more likely to report the offense to law enforcement if they have a good relationship with the police and feel that their complaint would be taken seriously (Rosenbaum et al., 2005). If citizens feel the police will do something regarding their crime reporting, they may be more likely to report the crime in the first place. This shows the need to enhance relationships between citizens and police to aid in not only fostering trust between citizens and the police, but also helping to increase crime reporting to bring these issues to the attention of the justice system. By doing so, police may be better able to record and solve these crimes. As a result of better knowledge of the crimes occurring and better crime fighting, this will additionally enhance relations between citizens and police because then citizens may feel the police are effective in their job duties and may also fear crime less (Roh & Oliver, 2005; Rosenbaum et al., 2005)

Reporting of Sexual Assault

As mentioned in the previous chapter, sexual assault is one of the least reported of all crimes (Russell, 1982). There are many factors that contribute to this, but research has shown that victims may choose not to report to police because they fear being blamed for the crime or feel the police will not do anything about it (Felson & Pare, 2005; Fisher et al., 2003; Russell, 1982). Victims may feel that not reporting outweighs the possible consequences of reporting,

which may be especially true if victims feel police will not take their report seriously or feel that the police cannot do anything about the crime (Karjane et al., 2005).

If victims feel that they will be again victimized or traumatized by the police, they will be less likely to report the victimization (Lizotte, 1985). According to Karjane et al. (2005), when victims feel that the police are listening to them and are sympathetic and understanding, there are higher levels of satisfaction and a higher willingness to report. If victims feel that the police will be sympathetic and understanding before they are victimized, then victims may be more likely to report to officers. Strong community relations between the police and citizens may facilitate the reporting of sexual assault.

The following section discusses community relationships with police and what factors have been found to influence this relationship. Also, the rapport between university students and university police is examined. It is likely that this rapport, as a measure of community relations with the police, is influential on victims' reporting crime to the police.

Community Relationships

Citizens rely on the police to answer service calls, respond when they are in need, and fight crime. However, citizens tend not to want the police around when they themselves are breaking the law and often detest being stopped, questioned, cited and/or arrested. Although departments have attempted to increase citizen satisfaction with the police and increase positive relationships, citizens tend to hold negative views of the police (Weitzer & Tuch, 2005). Despite overall negative views of police, this view is not unanimous across demographic groups. Several researchers examining police relationships have found that different groups of citizens hold different views on the police (Rosenbaum et al., 2005; Skogan, 2005; Weitzer & Tuch, 2005). Rosenbaum et al. (2005) also have found that the types of interactions citizens have with police

officers also shape citizens' views suggesting that departments may still be able to change interactions which increase (or may also decrease) satisfaction with the police.

Fear of Crime

Roh and Oliver (2005) examined how perception of community policing, indirect victimization, perceived disorder, and community concern could have an impact on fear of crime. Fear of crime was measured by a single item coded 1 to 4, though this may not measure fear of crime accurately. While this single item gives a general gauge of fear, someone who is very fearful of being robbed might not fear sexual assault. Roh and Oliver (2005) found that there is a negative relationship between fear of crime and perception of community policing and that the more positively people perceive community policing the less fear of crime they have. Female, less educated, and non-white respondents were found to have higher levels of fear of crime, but no relationship between age and fear of crime was found in their study (Roh & Oliver, 2005). Roh and Oliver (2005) also found that the higher the perception of community policing the less the perceived disorder and dissatisfaction. The relationship between perception of community policing and fear of crime was found to be independent of indirect victimization. Community perceptions tend to influence fear of crime more directly than community policing did (Roh & Oliver, 2005). Roh and Oliver (2005) suggest that community policing is possibly an independent variable remote from fear of crime and that fear of crime may be more dependent on other variables, which may also influence community policing perceptions such as social disorder and community concern.

Ethnicity

Research in examining what influences relationships with the police and satisfaction with police indicate that there are differences related to ethnicity. Not all ethnic groups respond

equally to interactions with the police, and they do not view the police equally (Skogan, 2005; Tyler, 2005; Weitzer & Tuch, 2005).

According to Weitzer and Tuch (2005), the public's satisfaction with police significantly varies by race. They found 48 percent of Whites expressed the highest level of satisfaction with the police serving their neighborhoods. Thirteen percent of Whites were found to be somewhat or very dissatisfied with their neighborhood police and more than one-fifth of Blacks and Hispanics felt this way. Community policing increased satisfaction with police with Whites and Blacks but not Hispanics (Weitzer & Tuch, 2005). Weitzer and Tuch (2005) found that only African-Americans were affected by media portrayals of police misconduct which significantly decreased satisfaction with the police especially among those reporting frequently hearing or reading about police misconduct. Both vicarious and personal experience with mistreatment by the police was found to decrease satisfaction (Weitzer & Tuch, 2005). Personal experience with police mistreatment is significant with Whites (though not the entire sample) while vicarious experience decreases satisfaction with the total sample as well as among Whites and Blacks, but not with Hispanics. Weitzer and Tuch (2005) discovered that among all three racial groups and the entire sample, overall satisfaction is increased with police effectiveness in crime control.

Age

Age also plays a role in determining positive versus negative views of the police. According to Worrall (1999), those who are older tend to view the police more positively and have better relations with police than those who are younger. This may also be due to frequency of contact with law enforcement and both direct and indirect interaction. As indicated by Worrall (1999) and Williams and Nofziger (2003), younger individuals (i.e., young adults and teenagers) engage in more behaviors that attract the attention of police officers while those who

are older may tend to have fewer interactions with police. In addition, younger individuals may experience negative encounters with the police indirectly through information obtained from friends, which may then influence their views on the police.

Considering that younger persons tend to have more overall contact with the police (29.3 percent of individuals aged 18 to 24 had contact with the police in 2005) (Durose, Smith & Langan, 2007), there is more of an opportunity for young people to experience negative contact. Additionally, just having frequent contact with the police may generate negative feelings toward the police by younger individuals. Since the majority of traditional college students are aged 18-22 and that this age group tends to have more interaction with police, there is more of an opportunity for this population to experience police contact that is negative and then possess negative views of the police.

Gender

While other demographic variables have been shown to influence perceptions of the police, a relationship between gender has not yet been determined (Worrall, 1999). Worrall (1999) claims that perceptions are approximately the same for both males and females though there may be minor sex differences suggesting that women hold a more idealized view of the police and therefore more positive perceptions.

Skogan (2005) found, in his examination of satisfaction with police encounters, that gender played no role in how individuals reported being treated during a police-initiated encounter, though he did not state if and how gender may influence a citizen-initiated encounter.

Police-Initiated versus Citizen-Initiated

Research suggests a factor that influences perceptions of the police by the public is the type of interaction between the citizen and the officer. Some research indicates that those who

have positive citizen-initiated encounters hold more favorable views of the police than those who have police-initiated encounters (Skogan, 2005). This may be because with a citizen-initiated encounter, a citizen is calling on the police for assistance and police are helping the citizen solve some problem, whereas with a police-initiated encounter, the citizen may be doing something he/she should not, and it requires official legal intervention.

Skogan (2005) examined citizen satisfaction with police encounters by using a phone-administered survey of Chicago citizens 18 years old and older. By administering the survey by phone, Skogan (2005) may have missed many residents who have frequent contact with the police but do not have phone service or do not live in a traditional dwelling with a phone (such as prostitutes or those who are homeless). These residents may have more frequent contacts with police because of their living arrangements, and this contact may be more negative than other residents (they may be hassled or arrested more frequently by police, again possibly because of their living arrangements).

Skogan (2005) found that the most frequent reason citizens had contact with the police was to report a crime (24 percent). Citizens' reporting medical emergencies or accidents was the second most frequent cause of contact with the police at 19 percent. While the most frequent cause of police-initiated contact was vehicle stops (16 percent) and a foot stop (6 percent). Skogan (2005) found that 57 percent of those who were stopped by the police were either very or somewhat satisfied with the contact, while 77 percent of those who had initiated the contact with police felt the same way. When citizens initiated the contact with police, the encounter was often viewed more positively. Also, when police responded in a timely manner, satisfaction was more positive. Other factors that were found to correlate with satisfaction with the police were if the police were polite, paid attention to what the complainant had to say ,and were helpful.

Those whose contact with the police was initiated by the officers were less satisfied with the experience, though the contact was characterized as more positive when the respondents felt they were treated fairly by the police.

Worrall (1999) examined public perceptions of the efficacy of police by looking at public support for the police. Worrall (1999) wanted to expand the knowledge of the support for police by enhancing the variable for support. Worrall (1999) criticized previous research for oversimplifying the variable "support for police" by creating a unidimensional view of the duties of police and the support for these duties. Data for the study came from the "1995 Crime Poll: Texas and the Nation" which was conducted by telephone surveys. A sample of 1005 citizens across the nation was surveyed by telephone about perceptions of crime and justice in the United States. However, this again fails to capture those who do not have phones and/or residences, which may be the people who would have different perceptions (possibly more negative) of the police.

Worrall (1999) found that nonwhites were half as likely to have confidence in the ability of police to solve crime. Older people and those with an income over $30,000 were more confident in this ability. Those in urban areas were found to be less confident in the ability of police to prevent crime. According to Worrall (1999), the most influential predictor of police efficacy is contact rating. Individuals who had rated their contact with police favorably were more likely to view the police positively. Race was also influential in predicting police efficacy with nonwhites viewing the police less able to solve crime and less friendly and fair, even when contact rating was controlled.

Age is an influential predictor of confidence with the police, but police contact is more powerful, negating the influence of age (Worrall, 1999). It was also found that race is

significant, but not as universally significant as previous research has alluded. According to Worrall (1999), contact with the police was the most significant predictor of confidence with the police, indicating that a negative contact with police may affect future perceptions of police in a negative way. This produces important considerations for police agencies in that they should try to help create positive contacts with citizens as much as possible to generate positive relationships between citizens and police.

University Policing

A university has many of the same issues and benefits that a city or community has regarding crime. Crime occurs on university campuses, and universities employ many of the same tactics cities do to combat it. Universities also have similar constituents as cities, though they may not be representative of a surrounding population. Universities will have a fairly transient population (there will be students continually leaving and new students coming in) and a fairly stable population through their staff and faculty members, just as cities often have a stable core community and a more transient population. It is important that university law enforcement departments maintain positive relationships with the university citizens. In some ways, it is even more important that a university fosters good relationships between its police and its citizens because a university is a community unto itself. By doing so, university citizens may feel safer being a part of this community and have more faith in not only the safety of the university, but also have increased confidence in law enforcement outside the boundaries of the university.

Relationship with Students

Since the majority of a traditional university population is under 25 years of age, this may present challenges to law enforcement regarding enhancing relationships. Worrall (1999) and

Williams and Nofziger (2003) both found that younger people tend to hold more negative views of the police than older individuals. This lack of positive relationship may also impact reporting behaviors of students.

Williams and Nofziger (2003) examined the perceptions of college students toward police (though not university police). Williams and Nofziger (2003) found that on six of the eight items used to measure satisfaction with the police college students had lower reported satisfaction relative to those youths in the surrounding community. The researchers also found that students were more likely to be victims of crime and witness crime, but not report it to the police. Women tended to have more confidence in the police than men (despite holding lower feelings of safety). Also, they found that the college students reported a lower level of confidence in the ability of the police to handle a major crisis. The researchers also controlled for demographic variables such as age, race and gender, and still found that being in college significantly lowered confidence in the police. This decrease in confidence with police among those in college remained significant even when the researchers also controlled for other predictors of attitudes toward police (i.e., victimization).

Despite these findings of lower confidence with the police among students, Williams and Nofziger (2003) did find that with those who have police contact the quality of contact determined the level of confidence in police. Despite being less confident in the police, those who have positive interaction with officers may gain confidence and hold better perceptions versus those without this interaction.

Griffith et al. (2004) examined satisfaction with university police services by surveying 577 students from West Texas A&M University. Students were stratified by class standing, housing status, and gender and then randomly selected from these. Twenty-five percent of the

36

respondents had been victims of crime; of these, 81 percent reported the crime to the police. Forty-one percent had some type of contact with the university police department. Griffith et al. (2004) used 10 dimensions to rate the police department including concern, solving problems, putting one at ease, fairness, knowledge, helpfulness, response time, professionalism, neatness of appearance, and overall performance. Researchers found that the most favorable ratings were in appearance and professionalism while the least favorable were in fairness, putting one at ease, and problem solving. The researchers also found that women tended to hold more favorable ratings of the police than men.

Despite previous research, Griffith et al. (2004) found that overall students felt the police were doing a good job and that victims were comfortable in calling the police to report crimes. This may be the result of policies enacted by this specific department or attributes of the officers themselves making them more approachable by students. As suggested by the researchers, each college and university is unique and therefore what works with one university to increase rapport between officers and students may not work somewhere else.

Conclusion

The relationship between the community and police is influenced by many factors. It is not completely known exactly what influences satisfaction with the police and makes one person feel more confident versus another. While demographics play a role, it appears that contact with the police is the most influential factor on whether someone holds positive versus negative views of the police and whether this contact was initiated by the citizen or by the police. Researchers have found that younger people hold less favorable views (Worrall, 1999), and that merely being in college may decrease satisfaction and confidence (Williams & Nofziger, 2003) in the police and their services. As a result, college and university police departments may have a harder time

fostering positive relationships with students. By enhancing these positive relationships,

students may feel more confident in the abilities of their police force and thereby may report

crimes more readily.

CHAPTER IV

METHODS

The purpose of this study is to examine university students' perceptions of police. It is expected that more supportive perceptions of the police are related to increases in reporting victimization. To test this expectation, survey data were collected and analyzed. This chapter presents information on the selection of the sample, the research design, the data analysis plan, and the protections for human subjects.

Sample Selection

A university sample is ideal for this research because sexual assault occurs frequently with women who are enrolled at colleges and universities (Sampson, 2002). The university being used for this study is a public institution in the Northeastern United States. The surrounding town is rural, but the school has an enrollment of students from all over Pennsylvania, other states, and various nations. According to university statistics, in the fall of 2008, there were 11,928 undergraduates (Facts About IUP, 2008).

Cohen's (1988) statistical power analysis was used to determine the desired sample size for this study. For the present study, including control variables, there are seven independent variables explained below. Cohen's (1988) equation for determining statistical power was used to project a necessary sample size by including a value for degrees of freedom as 120, and a power of 0.80 with an alpha of 0.50. Using these values, lambda (λ) was determined to be 15.1. As suggested by Cohen (1988), medium effect or 0.15 was used for f^2 to determine the minimum sample size for this study. This resulted in the following:

$$N = \frac{\lambda}{f^2} = \frac{15.1}{0.15} = 100.6$$

Based on this, the minimum sample size needed is 100 to reliably achieve significant results. Though this indicates a minimum sample size, it is often beneficial to increase the sample size so that the standard error decreases (Maxfield & Babbie, 2001). Increasing the sample size also helps minimize the effect of low response rates, missing values, and unusable surveys (e.g., half-completed yet still returned). Bachman and Paternoster (2004) suggest using 30 cases per independent variable, which would create a sample of 210. As a result of these considerations, a final projected sample size of 200 should be appropriate. However, due to the rare occurrence of victimization, and that sexual assault occurs even more infrequently, it was determined to increase the sample size to make sure enough useable data was obtained. The projected sample was increased to at least 600 students. To obtain this sample, classes were randomly sampled based on the schedule of classes being offered and professor permission.

University Police Characteristics

Since this study is examining students' perceptions of police, it is useful to understand the police department that is the reference for these students. This university has its own police department, which is responsible for policing the university, responding to service calls, and investigating crimes. University police officers attended a police academy and completed the same requirements as the officers patrolling the surrounding municipality and other police departments in the state. The department employs 20 sworn police officers (with the ability to arrest) and 2 security officers (one male and one female). The sworn officers are armed and trained in the use of force. University police officers answer any calls for service occurring within the jurisdiction of the university. Of the 20 officers, there are two investigators who handle the investigations of all crimes and only three are female.

Research Design

For this study, a survey design is believed to be appropriate. According to Creswell (2003), survey research is used to infer about a behavior or attitude of a sample population. Surveys allow researchers to collect information on a given topic of interest by asking questions of a sample of people. The responses to these questions can then be analyzed to produce conclusions that can be used to generalize to a larger population. Surveys also have advantages such as rapid data collection and versatility.

A cross-sectional, group-administered survey was dispensed. This type of administration technique has several advantages (Fowler, 2002). First, group-administered surveys tend to have a higher response rate, with the rate of response for students in a classroom near 100 percent (Fowler, 2002). With group-administered surveys the researcher has the opportunity to answer any questions or concerns respondents may have at the time of administration. Data collection is also facilitated since researchers do not have to wait for surveys to be mailed back; surveys can be collected at the same time as the administration (Fowler, 2002). Despite these advantages, a limitation to this method of survey administration is the possibility that participants may feel coerced to participate. To combat this, clear instructions advised respondents that their participation was completely voluntary and that they would not be penalized for any refusal to participate.

Research Questions

Although previous studies have examined the relationship between university students and police (Griffith et al., 2004; Williams and Nofziger, 2003), and others have examined sexual assault among college students (Fisher et al., 2000; Sampson, 2002; Ward et al., 1991), none have specifically examined how students' perceptions of the police impact their reporting of

sexual crimes and victimizations. This study contributes to the existing research on sexual assault, police relationships, and reporting behaviors.

The research questions below were devised through a review of the literature. This review identified several areas for continued research. The research guided by these questions attempts to bridge the identified gaps.

1) Do students who lack satisfaction with the university police not report victimization?

2) Does fear of victimization and crime influence students' perceptions of the university police?

3) When compared to other types of victimization, is there a difference in the reporting of sexual assault?

4) Do other factors, such as gender, influence the reporting of victimization?

5) Do other factors, such as gender, influence perceptions of the police?

Based on these guiding research questions, the following five hypotheses are presented:

H_1: Perceptions of and satisfaction with the police will influence the decision to report victimization.

H_2: Fear of victimization, experience with victimization, and perceptions of crime influence perceptions of the police.

H_3: Among victims, the reporting of sexual assault will be lower than the reporting of other types of victimization.

H_4: Gender influences reporting behaviors.

H_5: Gender influences perceptions of police.

Survey Design

The survey questions were designed to mimic surveys of previous studies on victimization and behaviors of reporting to the police, particularly with university student populations (Fisher et al., 2003; Fitzpatrick, 2001; Henson & Stone, 1999; Linguanti & McIntyre, 1992; Worrall, 1999). This survey was constructed to gain information pertinent to the research questions and hypotheses. It is comprised of general questions on perceptions of crime on campus, reporting behaviors, and perceptions of university police. Respondents were only asked about victimization and police interaction that had occurred since they started at the university. Appendix A includes the full survey.

Independent Variables

What influences the reporting of victimization and perceptions of police was examined through several independent variables. These variables include respondents' perceptions of crime on campus, fear of victimization, and previous victimization and were measured with survey questions asking respondents to report their victimization, their perceptions of crime, and fear of being a victim of different crimes. Appendix B presents a table of the independent variables and the corresponding survey questions that were used for measuring specific constructs.

Perceptions of crime were measured with two survey items. These two items were combined to create one measure which was coded on a five-point scale, with higher values indicating a perception of more crime. Fear of victimization was measured with seven survey items. As with perceptions of crime, these seven items, each coded on a five-point scale, were combined and higher values indicate a higher fear of victimization.

Previous victimization was measured with five survey items. These five items were unable to be combined due to a low alpha reliability coefficient, so they remained as separate variables. All of these items are dichotomous, where yes was coded as a "1" and no was coded as a "0".

Demographic variables, including gender, age, race, and credits earned were collected because previous research has shown that these may impact reporting behaviors. Although there is no clear relationship between gender and reporting, Walker and Katz (2002) found that though women and men tend to report crimes at about the same rate, women are 10 percent more likely to report violent crimes. Race has also been shown to influence perceptions of the police, with whites, in general, being more confident in the police and minorities holding more negative views (Weitzer & Tuch, 2005). Age and credits earned (which may indicate education and time on campus) may also influence views of the police and the likelihood to report crimes. Worrall (1999) found that those who are older tend to view the police more positively. Lizotte (1985) found that the more educated a woman is the less likely she is to report sexual assault. These variables were analyzed to determine and control for their impact on satisfaction with the police and victimization reporting.

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables are perceptions of police and reporting of victimization. The dependent variable of reporting was split into two measures of reporting for analytical purposes: actual reporting and anticipated reporting (or likelihood to report). Appendix C includes a list of the dependent variables and their corresponding survey questions.

The variable of perceptions of police was measured with five survey items. Each of these items was coded on a five-point scale with higher values indicating more satisfaction with police. These items were combined to create one measure of general satisfaction with the police.

Reporting victimization to the police was measured with ten survey items. Five of these items asked respondents about their reporting of actual victimization. These items are dichotomous, where yes was coded "1" and no was coded "0". These were used in the analysis to determine if there are any differences between actual reporting of different types of victimization. The remaining five items asked respondents of their likelihood to report different types of victimization that might occur. These five items were coded on a five-point scale with higher values indicating more likelihood to report the victimization to police. These items were combined to create one measure of anticipated reporting of victimization (or likelihood to report victimization).

Human Subjects Protections

In this study, there are several human subjects considerations (Maxfield & Babbie, 2001) that will be addressed throughout the administration of the project. Students were advised that they were permitted to ask questions about the study and the survey at any time during the administration. No information about the survey or the purpose of the research was withheld from the participants.

All participants were required to be 18 years old or older. If there were students in the classroom being sampled that were under the age of 18 years, they were asked to refrain from completing a survey. Since all participants were at least 18 years old, there was no need for parental consent.

Another potential human subject issue was voluntary participation in the study. All participation in the study was completely voluntary. Students were informed verbally before surveys were distributed about the voluntary nature of participation. Students were informed through the Informed Consent Form that participation was voluntary and any non-participation would not result in any negative repercussions. The researcher advised students that they were able to stop participating at any time and that they could choose to withdraw whereby any survey questions they may have completed were destroyed. Appendix D includes a copy of the informed consent form that was attached to the front of the survey.

Students were informed that no identifying information was collected within the survey, keeping all information provided anonymous. The researcher asked students to place their completed surveys in a manila envelope to ensure no survey was viewed separate from others. Respondents were advised not to produce any answers or side notes on the survey that could provide their identity.

Another potential human subject issue was possible harm to participants. It was believed that the proposed study had minimal risks. However, due to the sensitive nature of the questions about victimization and sexual assault some students might have felt stress or had negative emotional responses. As a result of this possibility, all surveys included contact information for counseling services within the university, and also non-university counseling and victims services. Refer to Appendix E for a list of available counseling services that was given to participants at the end of the survey.

Analysis Plan

Descriptive statistics were produced from the data gathered to examine the characteristics of the sample and the variables of study. Correlations among all variables were analyzed to

46

determine if there are any potential problems with multicollinearity. An assumption of the absence of multicollinearity must be met for multivariate regression (Lewis-Beck, 1980).

To determine relationships between variables, further statistical analysis must be undertaken, and both multiple regression and logistic regression were used. Since five of the ten survey items being used to measure the dependent variable of reporting are dichotomous, logistic regression was used to analyze the data along with multiple regression analyses. Several different regression models were estimated to examine the two dependent variables of reporting and satisfaction with the police. Multiple regression is useful in offering a fuller explanation of a dependent variable and also in making the effect of one independent variable more definite (Lewis-Beck, 1980). The general equation for multivariate regression is:

$$Y = a_o + b_1 x_1 + b_2 x_2 + b_3 x_3 + \ldots b_k x_k + e$$

In this equation, Y is the dependent variable and e is the error term. The constant or intercept (the point where the regression line intersects the y-axis when $x=0$) is indicated by a_o. The independent variables are indicated by x, and b is the slope or the average change in Y that is associated with a change in x.

Although multiple regression is useful in determining a fuller explanation of the dependent variable, sometimes other statistical analysis must be undertaken depending on the characteristics of this variable. Since assumptions that need to be met for multiple regression may be violated if the dependent variable is dichotomous, logistic regression must be used instead (Menard, 2002). Logistic regression helps to estimate the effect of independent variables on a dependent variable, when the dependent variable is measured dichotomously (Bachman &

Paternoster, 2004; Menard, 2002). Logistic regression was used in this study because the dependent variable of actual reporting was dichotomous, and its measurement would violate assumptions needed for multiple regression.

In logistic regression, the probability of an event occurring is converted into odds. To estimate the probability of the dependent variable occurring, the following equation can be used:

$$\widehat{P}(Y = 1) = \frac{e^a + b_1 x_1 + b_2 x_2 \dots b_k x_k}{1 - e^a + b_1 x_1 + b_2 x_2 \dots b_k x_k}$$

In the equation, $\widehat{P}$ indicates the probability of the dependent variable occurring, in this case reporting actual victimization to police. As in the multiple regression equation, a represents the constant, x indicates the independent variables, and b indicates their respective slopes. In this equation, e represents the base of the natural logarithm (Bachman & Paternoster, 2004; Menard, 2002).

The logit function will then be applied to estimate a logistic regression equation:

$$\frac{Ln(P(Y = 1))}{1 - P(Y = 1)} = a + b_1 x_1 + b_2 x_2 + \dots b_k x_k$$

In this equation, a represents the predicted log odds of the dependent variable (or reporting occurring) when the values of the independent variables are zero. The increase or decrease in the log odds of the dependent variable that is associated with the values of the independent variables and slopes is denoted by bx (Menard, 2002).

Regressions models were estimated using a stepwise analysis starting with the variables of race, age, and residence and then adding additional variables to test the specific hypotheses. The logistic regression model examining actual reporting of sexual assault as the dependent

variable was to first be run with only these control variables included in the analysis. The second model was to be run with the variables of victimization experience of all five victimization categories. The next model was to have the variables of gender, credits earned, perceptions of crime, and fear of victimization. The final model looking at the dependent variable of actual reporting was to have the control variables and all the independent variables (perceptions of crime, fear of victimization, and victimization experience). By conducting the analysis this way, it could be determined which of the variables had an effect on the dependent variable and seen if this effect is maximized or minimized in the presence of other variables in the final model. For example, when the analysis is run with only perceptions of crime this variable may be shown to be highly significant to reporting actual victimization to police. However, if in the final model perceptions of crime is no longer significant, this could suggest that the significance of perceptions of crime may be spurious. Yet, due to the limited variability of the variable of actual reporting, bivariate logistic regressions were run to determine if there were any baseline relationships with actual reporting and the independent variables. In addition, cross-tabulations were also run to examine relationships between reporting and variables of interest.

Multiple regression models were run using a similar stepwise approach as that used for the logistic regression models, but first with the dependent variable of anticipated reporting. The first model run with the dependent variable of anticipated reporting was with the control variables of race, age, and residence. The next model was run with the variables of different types of victimization experiences. Then, a model was run with the variables of gender, credits earned, perceptions of crime, and fear of victimization. The final model that was run with all the independent variables. This stepwise process helped to determine which of the independent variables influenced the dependent variable of likelihood to report significantly.

Another multiple regression analysis was undertaken examining the variable of satisfaction with the police. As with the previous models estimated, the first model with satisfaction with the police as the dependent variable had only the variables of race, age, and residence included. The next model had victimization experience of the different types of victimization included as independent variables. The third model had included the variables of gender, credits, perceptions of crime, and fear of victimization. Finally, a model was run with all the independent variables.

Another research question examined was whether reporting is influenced by perceptions of the police. Since both of these are dependent variables, logistic and multivariate regression models were run treating the dependent variable of perceptions of the police as an additional independent variable. A bivariate model with only satisfaction with the police and actual reporting was run in a logistic regression model and then a full multivariate logistic regression model using satisfaction with the police as an independent variable was run with all the other independent variables included. By running these models, the variables that influence actual victimization reporting were examined. A multivariate model with all the independent variables and the included variable of perceptions of the police was run with the dependent variable of anticipated reporting to see if there is a relationship between perceptions of the police and anticipated reporting of victimization (or likelihood to report).

Conclusion

This chapter discussed the research plan for the proposed study. The rationale for the research design, sample and survey techniques were set forth. An analysis plan for the survey data was examined, as well as, human subjects' protections. With this analysis, a contribution

can be made to advance the understanding of campus victimization and student-police

relationships.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to examine university students' perceptions of police and to determine if these perceptions impact the reporting of victimization, especially sexual assault. To accomplish this, a survey was designed and administered in classrooms to a randomly selected sample of university students. It was expected that more supportive perceptions of the police are related to increases in reporting victimization. To test this and other hypotheses related to victimization experiences and police perceptions, the survey results were compiled and analyzed. This chapter presents the results of this analysis.

First, the response rate of the sample and the frequencies of the data, and bivariate correlations of the variables are presented. Then, the estimated coefficients from multivariate regression models are presented to determine the relationship between the variables of interest and the dependent variables of reporting victimization to the police and satisfaction with the police. Several logistic regression models were estimated to examine the determinants of actual reporting behaviors, and these results also are detailed. Additional cross-tabulations are presented to examine relationships between constructs with limited variability. To examine determinants of reporting and satisfaction with the police in greater context, summaries of narrative responses are analyzed in conjunction with the quantitative analyses.

Sample

For this study, an estimated sample size of at least 600 students was to be surveyed. Based upon Cohen's power analysis (1988) and the guidelines by Bachman and Paternoster (2004), preliminary sample size of 200 should have been sufficient. However, considering the research study was interested in examining student victimization, in particular sexual assault, the

sampling strategy was multiplied. Since victimization, in and of itself, is a rare event, and sexual assault is an even rarer event, the sample size was increased to collect as much useful data as possible. As a result, the anticipated sample size was increased to at least 600 students.

Classes were randomly selected from all courses that had more than one registered student during the Fall 2009 semester, were being held on the main university campus, and had a classroom and time specified. Courses listed in the online catalog as TBA were not included. Classes were randomly chosen from every eighth class, starting at the beginning of the course list as it was alphabetically arranged and included both undergraduate and graduate courses.   In the first wave of sampling, there were 61 classes selected to be surveyed. Requests to survey students were sent to the professors and instructors of these 61 classes via email to explain the research and survey administration. Of these 61 classes, 12 professors/instructors did respond allowing their classes to be surveyed. Due to the low response rate of professors/instructors allowing survey administration, additional classes were randomly selected. A second and third wave of requests were sent to additional professors and instructors of record for 63 additional classes. Of the total 124 classes randomly selected and contacted, 24 classes had professors/instructors who agreed to allow survey administration. These 24 classes had an anticipated sample size of 678 based on the enrollment of students. The final sample size of collected, useable surveys was 642, creating a response rate of 94.6 percent, though this rate may not be completely accurate. Some students might have been in several different classes that were surveyed, some may have refused surveys, or some may have taken the survey previously but failed to return it. Any surveys marked with "withdraw" were withdrawn from the sample (n=18) and the data were not compiled.

The following section presents the frequencies of the collected data and how representative this sample is of the overall university population.

Descriptive Statistics

The preliminary step of data analysis was to produce descriptive statistics of the data. By producing these descriptive statistics, the characteristics of the sample could be examined. These characteristics can then be compared to the overall population and the representativeness of the sample can be examined.

Frequencies

Variable frequencies were computed to determine the total number of responses, identify missing data, and to compare the sample to the total student population where surveys were distributed. In addition, frequencies were examined as a preliminary analysis of the data. Tables F1 through F4 in Appendix F present the frequencies of all the variables in this study.

In terms of victimization, for property crime, 631 respondents answered the question, 61 (9.5%) of which responded that they had been a victim of a property crime. For violent crime, there were 630 responses and 19 (3.0%) respondents were victims. Of 632 respondents to the question of being a victim of unwanted sexual intercourse, 9 (1.4%) answered that they had been victimized. There were 3 (0.5%) victims of unwanted sexual acts out of 631 respondents and 42 (6.5%) victims of unwanted sexual touching out of 627 respondents. Refer to Table F2 for the frequencies of victimization.

With each survey, there were different questions with missing responses, some due to the nature of the survey (intentionally skipped questions) and some due to non-response of the respondent. There were 623 responses to the question of "what is your race?," and 19 missing responses. The survey item had five response categories (African-American, Caucasian,

Hispanic/Latino/Latina, Asian, and Other). Due to limited responses in the categories of African-American, Hispanic/Latino/Latina, Asian and Other, the variable was transformed into a dichotomous variable of white and non-white for all subsequent analyses. This created 542 (84.4 percent) white responses, 81 (12.6 percent) non-white responses and 19 (3.0 percent) missing responses. This appears to be representative of the population of the university that has a majority of its student body being Caucasian and has a 13 percent minority population (IUP Sourcebook, 2009). The sample demographics are compared with the population demographics in Table F5 in Appendix F.

With the response category of gender, there were 637 valid responses and 5 (0.8 percent) missing responses. This sample had 357 women (55.6 percent) and 280 men (43.6 percent), which is roughly the same as the proportion of women and men in the university population; the university is comprised of 56 percent women and 44 percent men (IUP Sourcebook, 2009).

As far as residence, in the sample there were 633 total responses and 9 (1.4 percent) missing values, with 437 (68.1 percent living off campus), and 196 (30.5 percent) living on campus. For the university population, 28 percent live on campus, but there were no reported values for those living off campus (Facts About IUP, 2008). For this too, the sample appears to be fairly representative of the overall student body.

Based on these frequencies, by randomly selecting classes, a sample for this study that is fairly representative of the overall university population was achieved; though, this does not mean that any of the results can be used to generalize the findings to other universities or populations of university students without caution since other universities may have different populations than the one that was sampled. When examining the student body of the university

used for data collection, it does appear that the sample is representative and results can, at least, be generalized to the university population under study.

Collinearity Statistics

Collinearity statistics for each variable were estimated since the analysis would be consisting primarily of multivariate regression. These were used to determine if there were any problems with multicollinearity because an assumption of multivariate regression is the absence of multicollinearity (Lewis-Beck, 1980).

By estimating correlation statistics, preliminary relationships of the variables of interest can be observed. According to Lewis-Beck (1990), if there is a correlation coefficient of 0.8 or greater ($r > 0.80$) there indicates a problem with multicollinearity. If no correlation coefficients are greater than 0.8 then it can be concluded that multicollinearity is not a problem (Lewis-Beck, 1990). No variables in this study had a correlation coefficient larger than 0.502 which indicates that collinearity would not be deemed a problem. Table F6 in Appendix F presents the correlation coefficients of all the variables. Because there was no indication of multicollinearity, the analysis continued with estimates of multivariate regression models. These regressions were estimated to examine how the independent variables influenced the dependent variables, and if the proposed hypotheses are supported.

Dependent Variables

With this study there were two dependent variables, satisfaction with police and reporting victimization. The reporting victimization variable was split into two distinct variables, likelihood to report (anticipated reporting) and actual reporting. Actual reporting was a dichotomous variable measured on the survey with questions asking respondents about their actual reporting behavior if they had been a victim of one of the five victimization categories.

For the variable of actual reporting, responses were coded "1" for reported victimization to the police and "0" for did not report. If it did not apply (i.e., respondent was not a victim), it was coded "88" as missing due to intentional skipping, and if it was not marked by the respondent, it was coded "99" for missing. Actual reporting was kept as five separate variables (one for each victimization category) since when scaling was attempted it was unable to be completed due to not having enough cases (for the victimization categories of sexual intercourse and sexual acts there were no victims who reported the victimization to the police).

The variable of anticipated reporting was measured by five survey items specific to the different victimization categories. Each item included a five-point Likert-type response with higher values indicating a greater likelihood of reporting the victimization to police. The estimated alpha coefficient for these five items was 0.874, which indicated that they could be reliably combined. These items were scaled to create one measure of overall anticipated reporting of victimization to police. This scaled construct was standardized such that the range of values was from 1 to 5.

The dependent variable of satisfaction with the police was assessed with five survey items similarly measured with a five-point scale where higher values indicated greater satisfaction with the police. As with anticipated reporting, the five survey items were scaled and an alpha coefficient was computed. The estimated alpha coefficient was 0.916, which indicated that they could be reliably combined into one measure. The measure of satisfaction with the police was standardized and values ranged from 1 to 5 with 1 being dissatisfied with the police and 5 being very satisfied with the police.

Independent Variables

For this study, independent variables including perceptions of crime, fear of victimization, previous victimization, gender, age, race, credits earned and residence were measured. The variables of perceptions of crime, fear of victimization and previous victimization were measured with several survey items while the variables of gender, age, race, credits earned and residence were each measured with single survey items.

The independent variable of gender was measured with a single survey item asking the respondent's gender and was coded "1" for female and "0" for male. For race, a single survey item asked respondents their race and had five categories from which they could choose, African-American, Caucasian, Hispanic/Latino/Latina, Asian and Other. As previously stated, this was transformed into a dichotomous variable of white and non-white due to lack of variability in the minority categories. White was coded as "0" and non-white was coded as "1". Residence was measured with a single survey item which asked respondents where they reside and this was coded as "0" for on campus and "1" for off campus.

For age, respondents were asked in what month and year they were born and this was used to determine the respondent's age in years at the time of the survey administration. This was a continuous variable that ranged from 18 years to 48 years. This variable was then transformed into a new dichotomous variable of traditional aged university students and non-traditional aged university students and was coded "0" for non-traditional (25 years old and above) and "1" for traditional (18 years old to 24 years old). In general, university students begin their college careers at the age of 18 years and finish in four to five years or when they are 22 or 23 years of age. To make sure all the traditional aged students were captured, it was

decided to split age into the two categories of traditional and non-traditional, with those 18 to 24 years of age considered traditional and those over 25 years of age as non-traditional students.

Respondents were asked to respond to a single survey item about the number of credits earned since August 31, 2009 (the start of the Fall semester and when sampling began). This was a continuous variable that ranged from 0 (freshmen in their first semester) to 239 (since graduate classes were also included in the sample). This continuous variable was then transformed into a categorical variable with five categories. These categories were 0-28 credits (coded "1"), 29-56 credits (coded "2"), 57-90 credits (coded "3"), 91-130 credits (coded "4") and 131 and over credits (coded "5"). This coding, in general, corresponds to class standing (e.g., 0-28 credits would correspond to a respondent who is a freshman).

The variable of perceptions of crime was measured with two survey items asking the respondent how they think the campus compares in terms of the amount of crime relative to other similar universities and the surrounding area. These were coded 1 for "much less" to 5 for "much more". The alpha coefficient computed for these two items was 0.616, which indicated that they could be reliably combined. The statistical mean of these two items was taken resulting in a new scaled item of general perceptions of crime with values ranging from 1 to 5 and higher values corresponding to perceptions of more crime on campus.

The variable of fear of victimization was measured with seven survey items. Two of these items asked respondents how safe they feel walking alone on campus during the day and how safe they feel walking alone on campus during the night. The five other survey items asked respondents how afraid they are of becoming a victim of a property crime, violent crime, unwanted sexual touching, unwanted sexual acts, and unwanted sexual intercourse

(corresponding to the five categories of victimization and reporting behaviors represented in other portions of the survey).

The questions asking respondents how they feel walking alone on campus were originally coded 1 through 5 with 1 corresponding to very unsafe and 5 corresponding to very safe. In the preliminary process of data analysis, it was discovered that in order to scale these with the other five survey items measuring fear of victimization, the variables had to be recoded to correspond to the coding of the five other survey items. These items were then reverse coded as 5 corresponding to very unsafe and 1 corresponding to very safe. Once recoded, a scale was created with the other measures of fear of victimization. The alpha coefficient computed for these seven items was 0.847, which indicated that they could be reliably combined. The statistical mean of all seven items was taken resulting in a new scaled item of general fear of victimization with values ranging from 1 to 5 with higher values indicating greater fear.

Multivariate Regression

Multivariate regression was used, in a stepwise approach, to reveal a fuller explanation of the dependent variables of anticipated reporting and satisfaction with the police. These regressions were used to examine several of the hypotheses set forth by this study.

Anticipated Reporting as Dependent Variable

The first model that was estimated had the dependent variable of anticipated reporting and the independent variables of race, age, and residence. These were chosen to be used for the first model as control variables since these were not of primary interest to this study. Model 2 includes victimization experiences of all the different victimization categories as the independent variables. Model 3 was estimated with the inclusion of the variables of gender, credits earned, fear of victimization, and perceptions of crime. Finally, a fourth model was estimated with the

60

controls and all the variables of interest to examine how all these variables influence the

dependent variable of anticipated reporting. Table F7 in Appendix F presents the results of these

multivariate regression models with anticipated reporting as the dependent variable.

Model 1: Race, age and residence. With this first model, the unstandardized coefficient

for race was -0.406 and statistically significant at the $p<0.01$. This estimated coefficient

indicated that non-white respondents are less likely to report victimization to the police

controlling for residence and age. Research conducted by Weitzer and Tuch (2005) suggested

that whites, in general, are more confident in the police while minorities generally hold more

negative views. These views may influence reporting behaviors and could explain why whites

tend to be more likely to report victimization.

The estimated coefficient for age was not significant and suggests that there is no

difference in reporting victimizations between traditional and non-traditional aged students. To

some extent, this contradicts research that has found that those who are younger tend not to

report as often as those who are older (Worall, 1999), but considering that this variable was not

continuous, this finding could be related to the restricted coding. Also not significant was the

estimated coefficient for residence. This suggests that living on campus or living off campus

does not affect the anticipated reporting of victimization.

Model 1, with only the independent variables of residence, race, and age, had an R^2

estimate of 0.018, which suggests that 1.8 percent of the variation in the dependent variable is

explained. The F statistic of this model was statistically significant indicating that this was a

reliable model. With this model 98.2 percent of the variation remains as unexplained, suggesting

that there are other factors that contribute to anticipated reporting of victimization to the police.

These other factors are explored by the following models.

61

Model 2: Victimization experience. Model 2 has the independent variables of victimization experience added to the model explaining the dependent variable of anticipated reporting. With this model, only being a victim of violent crime was significant at the $p < 0.05$ level.

The estimated coefficients for being a victim of a property crime, unwanted sexual intercourse, unwanted sexual acts or unwanted sexual touching were all not significant which suggests that there is no difference in anticipated reporting of victimization between victims of these crimes and non-victims.

Victims of violent crimes are less likely to report victimization to the police controlling for other types of victimization. Walker and Katz (2002) found that individuals often do not report crimes to the police because they may feel the crime is not important enough to report. This model contradicts Walker and Katz (2002) in that no differences in reporting were found for victims of many types of crimes.

Model 2, with the independent variables of various victimization experiences, had an R^2 estimate of 0.016. By using this regression model for prediction, 1.6 percent of the variation in the dependent variable is explained by the included independent variables. This model still leaves 98.4 percent of the variation unexplained. The estimated F statistic of this model was not statistically significant suggesting that this is not a reliable model to explain the dependent variable. This model explains less of the variation in the dependent variable than Model 1, but still does not offer a complete explanation of the possible influences on anticipated reporting. This model, like Model 1, is not yet a full model and may not fully explain the relationship between victimization and likelihood to report victimization.

Model 3: Gender, credits, perceptions of crime and fear of victimization. The third model estimated included the independent variables of gender, credits earned, perceptions of crime, and fear of victimization. With this model, gender was the only statistically significant variable and suggests that female victims are more likely to report victimization controlling for the other included variables.

The estimated coefficient for credits earned was not significant and implies that there is no difference in reporting from those with different amounts of credits earned. Research on sexual assault has found that the more educated a women is the less likely she will report this victimization (Lizotte, 1985), however, no research has examined reporting of other crimes and education.

Regardless of perceptions of crime, the likelihood of reporting victimization is not affected because this variable was not significant in this model. Roh & Oliver (2005) found a negative relationship between fear of crime and perceptions of community policing, with those having higher fear of crime holding less positive perceptions of community policing. Those with a higher fear of crime may hold less positive perceptions of the police and as a result of these less positive perceptions not report victimization.

The estimated coefficient for fear of victimization was also not significant, which suggests that fear of victimization does not influence the likelihood to report victimization. There may be other factors influencing the relationship between fear of victimization and likelihood to report, or since this is measuring only a propensity to report, these individuals may feel as though they would report, but if victimized would not actually report the victimization to police.

With the independent variables of gender, credits earned, perceptions of crime and fear of victimization, Model 3 had an R^2 estimate of 0.050. This model had a statistically significant F statistic, implying that this is a reliable model to use for prediction. If this regression model is used for prediction, 5.0 percent of the variation in the dependent variable is explained by the included independent variables, though this still leaves 95 percent of the variation unexplained. Of the models run so far, this model explains the most variation in the dependent variable. This too is not a full model and does not offer a complete explanation of the possible influences on anticipated reporting. Since only 5 percent of the variation in the dependent variable was explained by this model, there are other factors that influence anticipated reporting that were not yet accounted for.

Model 4: Model without satisfaction with police included. All the independent variables that were entered into the previous models were entered into Model 4 to have a complete model of how all these variables influence the dependent variable of anticipated reporting. In this model, only race and gender were statistically significant ($p<0.01$). Being a victim of a violent crime and being a victim of unwanted sexual touching were the only variables significant at the $p<0.05$ level.

Unwanted sexual touching was significant at the $p<0.05$ level in the full model, but not significant in the partial model with other victimization experiences. In the full model, when controlling for the other independent variables, unwanted sexual touching became significant at the $p<0.05$ level. The variables that were statistically significant in the respective partial models (gender and race), remained significant in the full model, indicating that these variables significantly contribute to overall predication of anticipated reporting. Although research has not found a clear relationship between gender and reporting, Walker and Katz (2002) found that

women are 10 percent more likely to report violent crimes. In regards to race, research indicates that non-whites tend to hold more negative views of the police, but tend to report crimes at the same rate as whites do (Walker & Katz, 2002).

One of the hypotheses of the present study is that gender influences reporting behaviors (Hypothesis 4). Both the partial model with only gender, residence, and age and the full model with all independent variables, suggest that gender does significantly contribute to the prediction of anticipated reporting in a positive direction. Based on these results, gender does influence the anticipated reporting of victimization, and through regression analysis the data does support Hypothesis 4, that gender influences reporting behaviors.

This full model had a statistically significant F statistic, suggesting that this is a reliable model. This full model had a R^2 estimate of 0.096, which implies that this model accounts for 9.6 percent of the variation in anticipated reporting with these included variables. This model still only explains 9.6 percent of the variation in anticipated reporting, leaving 90.4 percent of the variation unexplained. Ninety-four percent is still a significant amount of variation left unexplained even by the full model consisting of all independent variables. This large amount of unexplained variation suggests that there are factors influencing anticipated reporting that were not included in this model or in the data collected for this study. It may be that vicarious reports of how victimization reporting was handled by the police influences a future decision to report or if the respondent had been engaging in illegal behavior at the time of victimization will decrease the possibility of reporting. This leaves open opportunities for future research to more fully explore the influences on anticipated reporting of victimization.

Model 5: Full model. The last model estimated was a model with the previously included independent variables and the added independent variable of satisfaction with the police. Although the variable of satisfaction with the police is a dependent variable, because Hypothesis 1 proposes that perceptions of and satisfaction with the police will influence the decision to report victimization, this variable was included in this final model as an independent variable to determine if there is a relationship between satisfaction with the police and victimization reporting (at least anticipated reporting of victimization).

In this full model, the variables that were significant at the $p < 0.01$ level were race, gender and police satisfaction. In this model, the coefficient for gender is significant and suggests that women are more likely to report victimization. This model suggests that non-whites are less likely to report victimization than are whites. With satisfaction with the police, those who have more satisfaction with the police are more likely to report victimization than are those who have less satisfaction with the police. At the $p < 0.05$ level, credits earned and being a victim of a violent crime were significant. Those with more earned credits are more likely to report victimization and those who have been a victim of a violent crime are less likely to report victimization than victims of other types of crimes.

In the model that did not include police satisfaction, race and gender were significant at the $p < 0.01$ level with women being more likely to report victimization and non-whites being less likely to report victimization. These variables remained significant at the $p < 0.01$ level with this fuller model which included satisfaction with the police as an additional independent variable, suggesting that both gender and race are significant predictors of victimization reporting (or at least anticipated victimization reporting). Being a victim of a violent crime also remained significant ($p < 0.05$ level) in this fuller model. Credits earned was not significant in the model

without satisfaction with the police as an independent variable, but was significant ($p<0.05$ level) in this fuller model. Only when controlling for all the other included independent variables did credits earned become a significant predictor of anticipated victimization reporting.

Hypothesis 1 suggested that perceptions of and satisfaction with the police influences the decision to report. With this model, support was found for this proposition since satisfaction with the police was significant at the $p<0.01$ level with those having higher satisfaction with the police being more likely to report victimization.

This full model had a statistically significant F statistic, suggesting that this is a reliable model. This model had a R^2 estimate of 0.112, which implies that this model accounts for 11.2 percent of the variation in anticipated reporting with these included variables.

Satisfaction with the Police as Dependent Variable

The next regression models that were estimated had the dependent variable of satisfaction with the police. These models were run in the same stepwise fashion as the previous series of models. Model 1 has the independent variables of race, residence, and age. Model 2 had included the variables of the different types of victimization experiences. Model 3 was estimated with gender, credits earned, fear of victimization, and perceptions of crime. The final model had all independent variables included to examine the influences on satisfaction with the police and which variables remained significant while controlling for others. Table F8 in Appendix F presents the results of these multivariate regression models with satisfaction with the police as the dependent variable.

Model 1: Residence, race, and age. The first model estimated had only residence, race and age entered as independent variables. With this model, only residence was statistically

significant controlling for age and race.   The estimated coefficients for age and race were not

significant suggesting that regardless of age or race, satisfaction with the police is not affected.

The estimated coefficient for residence was statistically significant in this model

suggesting that those who live off campus are less satisfied with the university police than those

living on campus. Those who live off campus may call the university police to report

victimization or request help, but be told that because they are off-campus they are outside the

jurisdiction of the university police regardless of their status as a student. Instead they would

need to contact the municipality police to assist them and this could possibly make them become

dissatisfied with how the university police handle situations.

The R^2 estimate of this model was 0.026. With this model, 2.6 percent of the variation in

satisfaction with the police is explained by the included independent variables. There is still 97.4

percent of the variation that remains unexplained. The F statistic of this model was statistically

significant implying that this model is a reliable one. This model, though, is not a complete

model and since the amount of unexplained variation is large, this suggests that there are other

factors that influence satisfaction with the police other than race, residence, and age.

Model 2: Victimization experience. The second model considered the influences of

victimization experiences on satisfaction with the police. With this model, being a victim of a

property crime was the only variable that was significant at the $p<0.01$ level, and being a victim

of unwanted sexual intercourse and being a victim of unwanted sexual touching were the only

variables significant at the $p<0.05$ level.

When controlling for other victimization experiences, property crime victims are likely to

have less satisfaction with the police than those who have not been victims of a property crime.

The estimated coefficients for being a victim of unwanted sexual intercourse and unwanted

sexual touching were significant at the $p<0.05$ level suggesting that those who have been victims of unwanted sexual intercourse or unwanted sexual touching have less satisfaction with the police.

The estimated coefficient of being a victim of a violent crime was not significant, which indicates there is no difference in satisfaction with the police between those who have been victims of a violent crime and those who have not been victimized. The estimated coefficient for being a victim of unwanted sexual acts was also not significant. This implied that regardless of being a victim of unwanted sexual acts satisfaction with the police is not affected.

This model had an R^2 estimate of 0.047 suggesting that 4.7 percent of the variation in satisfaction with the police is explained with victimization experience. The F statistic was significant implying that this model is reliable. This model still leaves 95.3 percent of the variation in the dependent variable of satisfaction with the police left unexplained. This, like Model 1, is still a limited model and suggests by the large amount of unexplained variation, that there are other factors influencing satisfaction with the police that were not yet accounted for.

Model 3: Gender, credits, perceptions of crime, and fear of victimization. The third model estimated the effects of the independent variables of gender, credits earned, perceptions of crime, and fear of victimization on the dependent variable of satisfaction with the police. All the variables in this model were statistically significant.

When controlling for the other variables entered, the estimated coefficient for gender was statistically significant indicating that women have more satisfaction with the police than do men. Although research has not found a clear relationship between satisfaction with the police and gender, Worrall (1999) claimed that some researchers have indicated that there are minor sex

differences which show that women hold more idealized views of the police than do men which may translate into better satisfaction with the police.

The estimated coefficient for credits earned was statistically significant controlling for the other variables, suggesting that those with more credits have less satisfaction with the police than do those with fewer credits. The amount of credits earned may be a reflection of length of time on campus. This may indicate that the longer a student is on campus or enrolled, his/her satisfaction with the university police is lowered. This may be a result of increased interactions with the police due to their time on campus or a result of vicarious experience with the police through friends who have increased interactions, possibly negative, with the police. Weitzer and Tuch (2005) found that both personal and vicarious experience with police mistreatment decreases satisfaction. Worrall (1999) found that contact with the police is the most significant predictor of confidence in the police suggesting that despite other influences negative contact with the police may influence future perceptions of the police in a negative way.

The estimated coefficient for perceptions of crime was statistically significant controlling for the other variables indicating that those who perceive there to be more crime have less satisfaction with police. Roh and Oliver (2005) found that those that have a more positive view of community policing had less fear of crime. It is difficult to determine of those with higher perceptions of crime possess less confidence in the police due to this perception of higher crime, or conversely, if those who already have lower satisfaction with the police perceive higher crimes rates due to their already lowered perceptions of the police.

When controlling for the other included variables, the estimated coefficient for fear of victimization was statistically significant indicating that those who are more fearful of being victimized are less satisfied with the police. This relationship may be similar to the one between

satisfaction with the police and perceptions of crime. Those who are more afraid of being victimized may hold less satisfaction with the police due to this fear of victimization. Alternatively, those with already lowered satisfaction with the police may, as a result of this lower satisfaction, become more fearful of becoming a victim of a crime though this is difficult to determine with only the data that was analyzed.

This model had a R^2 estimate of 0.119, indicating that this model explains 11.9 percent of the variation in the dependent variable of satisfaction with the police. The F statistic of this model was statistically significant indicating that this is a reliable model. Eighty-eight percent of the variation remains unexplained which indicates that examination of other explanatory factors is necessary.

Model 4: Full model. The fourth model estimated with the dependent variable of satisfaction with the police was a full model with all the independent variables included. With this full model, gender, credits earned, perceptions of crime, and fear of victimization were the only variables that were statistically significant ($p < 0.01$). Being a victim of a property crime and being a victim of unwanted sexual touching were significant at the $p < 0.05$ level only. In the partial model of victimization experiences, being a victim of a property crime was significant at the $p < 0.01$ level, while being a victim of unwanted sexual intercourse and unwanted sexual touching were both significant at the $p < 0.05$ level. Being a victim of unwanted sexual touching did remain significant at this level ($p < 0.05$) in the full model, but being a victim of unwanted sexual intercourse no longer remained significant at all, while being a victim of a property crime was only significant at the $p < 0.05$ level. The variables of gender, credits earned, perceptions of crime, and fear of victimization that were statistically significant at the $p < 0.01$ level in the partial

71

model remained significant at this level in the full model, indicating that these variables significantly contribute to the overall prediction of satisfaction with the police.

Hypothesis 2 of this study proposed that fear of victimization, experience with victimization, and perceptions of crime influence perceptions of the police. Both the partial model with only fear of victimization, perceptions of crime, gender, and credits earned and the full model with all independent variables suggested that both fear of victimization and perceptions of crime have a statistically significant relationship with satisfaction with the police and contribute to the prediction of satisfaction with the police in a negative direction. This indicates that perceptions of crime and fear of victimization do have a relationship with perceptions of the police (or at least general satisfaction with the police), and through this regression analysis, partial support of Hypothesis 2 can be stated in that fear of victimization and perceptions of crime do have an association with perceptions of the police.

Another part of Hypothesis 2 suggested that experience with victimization influences perceptions of police. In the partial model with only victimization experience, only being a victim of a property crime was statistically significant at the $p<0.01$ level. Being a victim of unwanted sexual intercourse and unwanted sexual touching were both significant at the $p<0.05$ level in this partial model. In the full model, none of the victimization experiences was significant at the $p<0.01$ level. Being a victim of a property crime and being a victim of unwanted sexual touching were significant at the $p<0.05$ level. Being a victim of unwanted sexual intercourse no longer remained statistically significantly related to satisfaction with the police in the full model. This implies that although some types of victimization experiences (e.g., property crimes) may influence satisfaction with the police, not all experiences with victimization do which may be likely due to the inclusion of the other variables into the model.

72

It also suggests that since the significance of the relationship between victimization experience and satisfaction with the police changed from the partial model to the full model (became less significant in the full model), there are factors that influence satisfaction of the police separate from those of victimization experience that may be more influential in predicting satisfaction with the police.

Hypothesis 5 proposed that gender influences perceptions of police. Both the partial model and the full model suggested that gender does significantly contribute to the prediction of satisfaction with the police in a positive direction. This implies that gender influences satisfaction with the police and findings from the regression analyses support Hypothesis 5.

The F statistic of this model was statistically significant indicating that this is a reliable model. This full model had a R^2 estimate of 0.158, indicating that this model accounts for 15.8 percent of the variation in satisfaction with the police with these included independent variables. Even with this full model, there still remains 84.2 percent of the variation in satisfaction with the police unexplained suggesting that there are other factors influencing satisfaction with the police that were not included in this model or in the data collected for this study. It may be that experience with the police impacts satisfaction more than the included variables and would explain more variation in the dependent variable if it had been included in the model. This allows for future research to more fully examine what influences satisfaction with the police.

Logistic Regression

The initial plan for analyzing the data included estimating logistic regression models with the dependent variable of actual reporting victimization to the police. It was intended that models identical to those estimating the anticipated reporting of victimization would be estimated. Due to the lack of variability in this dichotomous dependent variable (i.e.,

respondents indicated no reports to the police for unwanted sexual intercourse and unwanted

sexual acts, and less than 20 reports to the police for all other victimizations), logistic regression

was unable to be completed using actual reporting of each victimization separately as a

dependent variable. It was then attempted to combine these five victimization reporting

variables into one variable since some respondents were victims of multiple crimes, but may

have only reported one or two of these to the police. A summary variable was created that

combined those who acknowledged any victimization and reported the crime to the police (coded

as 1=victimized and reported to the police). This variable had a total of 99 cases; 78 respondents

were victimized and did not report any of the victimization, and 21 respondents were victimized

and reported at least one victimization to the police. Using this new variable as the dependent

variable of actual reporting, several bivariate logistic regressions were estimated. These

bivariate models were completed to determine if there were any baseline relationships present

with reporting of victimization and the independent variables. Then, limited models of two to

three independent variables were run to determine if these baseline relationships remained when

controlling for other variables. Finally, a full logistic regression model was estimated to

determine if the relationships between variables in the limited models were still influential when

controlling for other included variables. Tables F9 through F12, in Appendix F, present the

results for all of the logistic regression models estimated.

Bivariate Logistic Regressions

The first logistic regression model run with the dependent variable of reporting had race

included as the independent variable (Table F9). Despite race having a relationship with

perceptions of the police, which may then influence decisions to report victimization to the

police, Walter and Katz (2002) did not find any difference in the rate of reporting by Caucasians

74

and African-Americans. In the OLS regression with anticipated reporting, race had a negative and statistically significant relationship. This suggested that non-whites were less likely to report victimization than were whites. In this logistic regression model, race was not significant as a predictor for actual victimization reporting, though this may be due to the low number of cases of self-reported victimization reporting.

The next bivariate logistic regression model included the variable of residence (Table F9). Based on the multiple regression full models, residence was not a significant predictor of anticipated victimization reporting or satisfaction with the police. Residence was not a significant predictor of actual victimization reporting in this logistic regression model.

Age was the independent variable in the third model (Table F9). In the full multiple regression model with satisfaction with the police as the dependent variable, age was not significant. With anticipated reporting, age was again not significant. In this logistic regression model, age was not significant in predicting actual victimization reporting.

Gender was the next independent variable run in a logistic regression (Table F10). In the multiple regression models with satisfaction with the police, gender had a positive and significant relationship with satisfaction with the police. Gender was also a positive and significant predictor of anticipated victimization reporting. It would be expected that since gender influences satisfaction with the police and anticipated victimization reporting, it might also influence actual reporting of victimization. In this model, gender was not a significant predictor of victimization reporting, though this may again be due to the low number of cases available with this data.

The next regression estimated included fear of victimization (Table F10). With the OLS regression with satisfaction with the police as the dependent variable, fear of victimization had a

negative and significant relationship, but fear of victimization had a non-significant relationship with anticipated reporting. This suggested that those who are more fearful of being victimized have less satisfaction with the police than those who are less fearful. Roh and Oliver (2005) found a negative relationship between fear of crime and perceptions of community policing. It would be expected that those who have more fear of crime would be less likely to report victimization due to their lower levels of satisfaction with the police. Fear of victimization was close to being significant at the $p<0.10$ level, but did not reach significance, and was not a significant predictor of victimization reporting. Possibly, if there were more cases for analysis, fear of victimization might have been a significant predictor of actual victimization reporting, but in the analysis conducted with the data for this study it was not.

Perception of crime was the next variable run with actual victimization reporting (Table F10). In the OLS regression model with satisfaction with the police, perceptions of crime had a negative and significant relationship though in the model with anticipated reporting, perception of crime was not significant. Those with higher perceptions of crime had lower levels of satisfaction with the police, similar to the relationship between fear of victimization and satisfaction with the police. It would be expected that perceptions of crime might also have a negative relationship with victimization reporting due to this lower satisfaction with the police. In the logistic regression model, perceptions of crime was not a significant predictor of victimization reporting.

Satisfaction with the police was the next bivariate regression model to be estimated (Table F11). With the several of multiple regression models, satisfaction with the police was a dependent variable, but one of the hypotheses of the study was whether perceptions of the police will influence the decision to report victimization. Satisfaction with the police was used as an

independent variable in the final multiple regression model with anticipated reporting as the dependent variables to determine if there was a relationship between anticipated victimization reporting and satisfaction with the police. In the OLS regression model, satisfaction with the police was statistically significantly related to anticipated reporting in a positive direction. Satisfaction with the police was used as an independent variable in a bivariate logistic regression model to determine if it is a significant predictor of actual victimization reporting. It is expected that lower satisfaction with the police will result in lower reporting of victimization. Karjane et al. (2005) found that, at least with sexual assault victims, if victims have higher levels of satisfaction with the police they are more willing to report victimization. Rosenbaum et al. (2005) found that citizens are more likely to report an offense if they have a good relationship with police and feel their report will be taken seriously. In the logistic regression model estimated, satisfaction with the police was not a significant predictor of victimization reporting.

The last bivariate logistic regression model estimated was with credits earned as an independent variable (Table F11). The amount of credits earned may be a reflection of time on campus and/or level of education. Research has indicated that, at least with sexual assault, the more educated a woman is the less likely she will report the victimization (Lizotte, 1985). In the multiple regression model with satisfaction with the police, credits earned had a negative and significant relationship, suggesting that those with more credits (or more time on campus/education) have less satisfaction with the police. With anticipated reporting OLS regression model, credits earned had a non-significant relationship. In the logistic regression model, credits earned was weakly significant at the $p < 0.10$ level, indicating that as the credits earned category increased, victimization reporting (or the log odds of actual victimization reporting) was 65.3 percent more likely. This contradicts what has been indicated in previous

77

research that those with more education (more credits) are less willing to report (at least regarding sexual assault) (Lizotte, 1985). These results are also contrary to what was found with satisfaction with the police in this study, in that those with more credits had less satisfaction with the police.

In these bivariate models, the only variable that had any significance, albeit to a low degree was credits earned. To determine if this remains significant, or if other variables reach significance when controlling for credits earned and/or the other independent variables, a series of multivariate logistic regression models were estimated.

Multivariate Logistic Regression Models

Model 1: Credits, age and residence. The first of the multivariate logistic regression models had again actual victimization reporting as the dependent variable and the independent variables of credits earned, age, and residence included (Table F12). Credits earned and age may be related to each other in that those who are older, in general, would have more accumulated credits than those who are younger (i.e., a freshman with 0 credits is usually around 18 or 19 years old, while a senior with 100+ credits is usually around 21 or 22 years old). There are exceptions to this, such as those going back to school, those who were delayed in their schooling, and non-traditional students, but overall, those who are younger would have less credits than those who are older. Residence was included since it may also be related to both age and credits earned. Those who have more credits are, in general, upper-class students that live in off campus residences while those with fewer credits often reside on campus. Those who are older (regardless of credits earned) may elect to live off campus, especially if they are non-traditional students, while those who are younger may reside on campus due to lack of experience with off-campus housing options or a desire to live on campus to fully experience the college lifestyle.

In this model, the only significant predictor of actual victimization reporting was credits earned ($p < 0.10$) when controlling for age and residence. There was a positive relationship between credits earned and actual victimization reporting. This model indicated that when controlling for age and residence, as the credits earned category increased, victimization reporting was 62.2 percent more likely. The pseudo-R^2s for this model were 0.054 and 0.085 respectively, suggesting that this model explains 5.4 percent to 8.5 percent of the variation in victimization reporting, but 91.5 percent to 94.6 percent of the variation in victimization reporting still remains unexplained by this model.

Model 2: Credits, age and satisfaction with the police. A logistic regression model was estimated with the variables of credits earned, age, and satisfaction with the police in the next model (Table F12). Worrall (1999) found that those who are older tend to hold more positive views of the police than those who are younger. These individuals who hold more positive views of the police may be more inclined to report victimization than those holding less positive views (Rosenbaum et al., 2005). As already indicated, credits earned, and age are often related, in that those who are older often have more credits.

In this model, credits earned was the only variable that was significant ($p < 0.10$) when controlling for gender and satisfaction with the police. Credits earned had a positive relationship with victimization reporting with those with more earned credits being 63.2 percent more likely to report victimization. For this model, the pseudo-R^2s were 0.071 and 0.113 respectively, suggesting that this model explains 7.1 percent to 11.3 percent of the variation in victimization reporting. There still remains 88.7 percent to 92.9 percent of the variation in victimization reporting left unexplained by this model. Due to this large amount of unexplained variation, there are other factors influencing victimization reporting not yet accounted for.

Model 3: Full model. The final logistic regression model estimated was one with all the independent variables and satisfaction with the police included as an independent variable (Table F12). Satisfaction with the police was originally a dependent variable in the multiple regression models, but was used as an independent variable in a bivariate logistic regression and a multiple regression model to determine if it impacts victimization reporting and if there is support for Hypothesis 1 which posits that satisfaction with the police influences reporting behaviors. With this complete model, the variables that were significant were credits earned, fear of victimization, and satisfaction with the police.   In previous models, neither fear of victimization nor satisfaction with the police were significant. Based on the results of this model, another model with only fear of victimization and satisfaction with the police was estimated and neither was significant in this limited model. This indicates that when controlling for the other included variables, fear of victimization and satisfaction with the police become significant, but on their own and in other limited models these are not significant.

With this full model, there was a positive and weakly ignificant (p<0.10) relationship between credits earned and victimization reporting with those having more credits being 72.8 percent more likely to report victimization. Fear of victimization and satisfaction with the police both had negative effects with actual reporting and are weakly significant (p<0.10). As the fear of victimization category increased, victimization reporting was 60.6 percent less likely. As the satisfaction with the police category increased, victimization reporting was 53.1 percent less likely. This is counter to what would be expected. It would be expected that those with higher satisfaction with the police would be more likely to report victimization due to this higher satisfaction with the police. The measure of satisfaction with the police used in this logistic regression model was a scaled measure of general satisfaction with the police. It is possible that

80

if respondents were asked only of their satisfaction with police regarding victimization reporting, there may emerge a different relationship between satisfaction and reporting. In this study, respondents were asked to report their satisfaction with the handling of their victimization reporting by the police, and this was measured separately for each type of victimization experience. There were not enough cases to complete sophisticated statistical analyses due to the rarity of victimization and reporting to the police.

For this model, the pseudo-R^2s were 0.116 and 0.183 respectively, which indicates that this model explains 11.6 percent to 18.3 percent of the variation in reporting of victimization. Of all the logistic regression models estimated, this model explains the largest amount of variation in actual victimization reporting. There remains 81.7 percent to 88.4 percent of the variation in reporting victimization still unexplained even with this complete model. Due to this remaining unexplained variation in the dependent variable, there are other factors that influence reporting of victimization that were not accounted for in this model, or even in this study. This allows for future research to more fully explore what may influence reporting of victimization.

Chi-Square Assessments

Since there were too few cases to examine reporting of victimization through logistic regression as fully as had been anticipated, and also due to the fact that even with the logistic regressions, there were no relationships that were significant at less than the $p<0.10$ level, chi-square models were run to examine more completely the relationships between those who report victimization and other variables of interest. By determining who is reporting, a deeper understanding of what influences this reporting can be suggested. For example, if it is shown that men who report are mostly white versus non-white, this may suggest that if there had been

more cases available to include in the regression models, it would have determined that race does significantly impact reporting of victimization (at least with male victims who report).

To complete these chi-square analyses, the variable of reporting victimization that was used as the dependent variable in the logistic regression models was transformed into two different reporting variables disaggregated by gender. The new variables were male victimization reporting, coded 0 for male victim not reporting and 1 for male victim reporting, and female victimization reporting, coded 0 for female victim not reporting and 1 for female victim reporting. These new variables of victimization reporting by gender were then used in the chi-square analyses to see if there were any relationships between men and women who report and other variables of interest. In Appendix F, Tables F13 through F15 present the results of all these chi-square analyses.

Reporting Victimization and Satisfaction with Reporting

Since there were too few cases to run a logistic regression model with satisfaction with how the police handled the report of victimization and those who report victimization, a chi-square model was run to determine if those who report victimization have different levels of satisfaction with the police. Present satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction may impact future satisfaction with the police and possibly future reporting of victimization. Those who were dissatisfied with how the police handled their report may be skeptical about reporting future crimes due to the possibility of again feeling dissatisfied with the police. This may also translate to general feelings about the police and impact future feelings of satisfaction.

To run the chi-square analysis, the variables of satisfaction with reporting were first combined using the statistical mean to get a scaled satisfaction with reporting variable (coded 1-

5, with 1 being dissatisfied and 5 being very satisfied) [3]. This new variable was again transformed into a dichotomous variable of satisfaction with reporting. By taking those who responded as being dissatisfied or somewhat dissatisfied and coding them as 1 or dissatisfied, and those who responded as being satisfied, somewhat satisfied, or very satisfied and coding them as 0 or satisfied. This created a variable of only two categories, either satisfied with how the police handled the report or dissatisfied with how the police handled the report. After creating this dichotomous variable of satisfaction with reporting, chi-square analyses were run.

The first chi-square analyses run was with women who reported and satisfaction with reporting and then with men reporting and satisfaction with reporting. Six women who reported were satisfied with how the police handled the report, while 7 were dissatisfied. The Pearson's Chi-Square was 0.808 and not significant, indicating that the observed values cannot be accepted as being significantly different from the expected values of the table. The expected and actual values for men reporting were the same for both those who were dissatisfied and satisfied with how the police handled the report. A chi-square statistic was unable to be computed for men who reported their victimization and satisfaction with how their report was handled due to the distribution of the responses. The relationship had to be assessed visually which indicates that the majority of male victims reporting victimization (87.5 percent) were dissatisfied with how the police handled their report (See Table F13).

Women appear to be more satisfied with how the police handled their report of victimization than are men (46.2 percent versus 12.5 percent). There were more women who reported victimization than men who reported victimization (13 versus 8). Since there were more women reporting, there are more opportunities for women to be satisfied with how the

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[3] Only the variables of satisfaction with reporting for property, violent, and unwanted sexual touching were combined, since there were no victims who reported unwanted sexual intercourse or unwanted sexual acts and, therefore, no cases of satisfaction with reporting for these two victimization categories.

83

police handled their report than for men to be satisfied with how their reports were handled. With women who reported victimization, about half of them were satisfied with how the police handled the report (46.2 percent) and about half were dissatisfied with how the police handled their report (53.8 percent). With men who reported, 12.5 percent were satisfied with how the police handled their report and 87.5 percent were dissatisfied with how the police handled their report (Table F13).

Despite observing that over 80 percent of men who reported victimization to the police were dissatisfied with how the report was handled, of the men who reported their victimization, 5 (62.5 percent) responded that they were likely to report future victimization versus only 3 (37.5 percent) who responded that they were unlikely to report future victimization (see Table F14). With women, all 13 (100 percent) responded that they were likely to report future victimization.

Victimization Reporting and General Satisfaction with the Police

To complete the chi-square analysis with general satisfaction with the police, this variable also had to be recoded into a new dichotomous variable of satisfaction with police. This was completed the same way as satisfaction with report handling. With the scale variable of satisfaction with police, those who responded dissatisfied or somewhat dissatisfied were recoded as 1 or dissatisfied, and those who responded as satisfied, somewhat satisfied or very satisfied were recoded into 0 or satisfied. Once this was completed, a chi-square analysis was run to see whether those who reported their victimization were, in general, satisfied with the police.

With this model, there were 8 women (88.9 percent) who reported that they were satisfied with the police and one woman (11.1 percent) who was dissatisfied (see Table F15). With men, all who reported ($n=5$, 100 percent) were dissatisfied with police. This again may be due to the fact that there were more women than men who reported their victimization, or it could be due to

the fact that researchers have found that women tend to have more idealized views of the police that may, in turn, create better satisfaction with the police (Worrall, 1999). Even after experiencing negative events (i.e., victimization), women may still hold more positive views of the police and have more satisfaction with the police. This could also alter how women view the police when handling their reports of victimization. Men may expect a negative response from the police which could negatively alter their perception of how the report was handled, while women already holding a higher satisfaction with the police, in general, would have this transform into higher satisfaction with how their victimization reports are handled by the police (even if these reports might have been handled exactly the same).

Although the logistic regression models were unable to test Hypothesis 1 (if perceptions of and satisfaction with the police influence the decision to report victimization) due to the low number of cases available, cross-tabulations were run to identify any support for this hypothesis. Although not necessarily supporting the hypothesis, these cross-tabulations show that women who report victimization to the police were more satisfied with the police in general, and about half were satisfied with how the police handled their report of victimization. Men who reported victimization, however, were dissatisfied with the police in general (there were no men who reported victimization to the police who were also satisfied with the police) and the majority of male victims (87.5 percent) were dissatisfied with how the police handled their report of victimization. It is problematic to determine if this is due to inherent gender differences with how the police are perceived or, if given a larger sample size, if a different relationship between those who reported, gender, and satisfaction with the police could be identified. It is also difficult to determine if these individuals, due to not having great satisfaction in the police, reported victimization but already believed the police would mishandle the report, and felt

85

dissatisfied, or if through reporting this colored additional views of the police and lowered their satisfaction with the police, which then affected any additional reporting of victimization. As such, there remain many avenues for researchers to pursue to examine if, and how, reporting affects satisfaction with the police or if, and how, satisfaction with the police affects victimization reporting.

Qualitative Questions

Although the majority of the survey questions were analyzed quantitatively, there were 21 questions that were analyzed qualitatively. The majority of these asked about reasons for reporting or not reporting victimization to the police. An additional question asked respondents what would increase their satisfaction with the university police and allowed for any response. These questions were included in the survey to allow for a greater understanding of why respondents choose to report or not report victimization and what, if anything, would increase their satisfaction with the university police. Appendix A presents the complete survey including the qualitative questions.

The responses to these questions were then examined and coded by the themes that emerged from the data. The following discussion presents the questions and the most recurrent themes of the responses. Refer to Appendix G for all the qualitative responses given organized by crime and theme.

Other Reason for Reporting

As part of the fixed categories presented to respondents in each victimization category for why they reported to the university police, there was a choice of "other" with a space provided to write a complete response. No respondents offered additional reasons not listed in the fixed categories for why they reported victimization to the police.

Most Important Reason for Reporting

Respondents were asked to check all the responses that applied to why they had reported victimization to the police. Due to the possibility that respondents might check more than one response for why they decided to report victimization, for each type of victimization, respondents also were asked what was the most important reason for reporting. This was asked to determine which reason might be the deciding factor in the decision to report victimization. Only property crime victims, violent crime victims and victims of unwanted sexual touching gave responses (*n*=20, 3.1 percent).

Property crime. Overwhelmingly, the most important reason offered by most respondents who were victims of property crimes was to recover the property. Of the thirteen respondents who offered responses, ten of them stated that they decided to report the crime to the police in order to recover the property that had been taken.

The other three respondents gave answers ranging from a desire to prevent future crimes to one who stated:

#242: "Car totaled by vandals"

which does not offer a clear reason why he/she decided to report the crime to the police.

Violent crime. Victims of violent crime gave reasons that ranged from preventing future crimes to punishing the offender because there were other victims beside the respondent (*n*=5). There was not one reason that a majority of respondents gave over another.

Unwanted sexual touching. Only two respondents offered reasons why they reported the victimization to the police. These responses could be characterized as wanting to prevent the crime from occurring again (to either self or someone else) as the most important reason for reporting. Respondent #152 stated she reported the victimization because she was not the only victim, suggesting that since the assailant had victimized other individuals, reporting to the police might prevent future victimizations. Respondent #409 stated that the reason for reporting was so that the assailant could not hurt her or someone else again.

There was not one overarching reason that respondents deemed most important across victimization categories. For property victims, the most important reason for reporting was to recover property.   The responses for unwanted sexual touching and violent crime had a theme of wanting to prevent future crimes as a reason considered most important for respondents to report the crime. Since sexual assault and violent crimes are crimes against a person, this could be why respondents felt the need to report. By reporting, victims might believe they are able to prevent (or at least attempt to prevent) future crimes, whether against themselves or others. For property crimes, respondents may only report to improve the chance of recovering property.

Not Reporting

Just as in the case with those who reported, for those who did not report there was a category of "other" with a space for a respondent to give a reason. All victimization categories had other responses given for not reporting victimization to the police (*n*=11, 1.71 percent).

Property crime. The reasons offered by victims of property crime broke into three themes (*n*=4). One was that the victim reported the crime to the Indiana Borough Police. It is unknown whether the victimization was reported there because they felt they could trust this police agency to solve it or whether it was because this crime actually occurred in the jurisdiction

of this agency and not the university police. It is quite possible that the crime occurred in the jurisdiction of the Borough Police and not on university property and the respondent mistakenly stated that they were victimized on university property on the survey and reported the crime to the Borough Police. It is also possible that the respondent decided to report to the Borough Police instead of university police, despite the crime occurring on campus, due to an erroneous belief that the University Police are not as respected as those officers of the Borough Police[4].

The other themes that were presented were that the respondent did not feel confident that the university police could solve the crime and that the respondent was afraid of reprisal from the offender.

Violent crime. Only one respondent offered a response that stated that the assailant was known to them as a fellow teammate and that was the reason why they did not report.

Sexual victimization. Three respondents of unwanted sexual intercourse offered other reasons for why they did not report this victimization. Two were due to fear and one was due to not being able to trust the police.

For victims of unwanted sexual acts, there were two respondents who selected the "other" response as a reason for not reporting the crime to police. One respondent checked the box on the survey, but gave no written response for why she did not report the victimization to the police. Another respondent stated that the reason she did not report the victimization was because the assailant was her friend.

With victims of unwanted sexual touching, only one respondent checked the response box, but gave no written response.

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[4] Respondent #93 stated that the university police are not well respected and Respondent #195 stated that "They [University Police] have nothing to offer…Borough runs everything."

Most Important Reason for Not Reporting Victimization

Akin to the question asking respondents about the most important reason why they reported victimization, respondents were also asked the most important reason for not reporting the victimization. This was asked to determine which reason was the most important in keeping a victim from reporting victimization to the police. Several respondents offered reasons they deemed most important for why they decided not to report their victimization to the police (*n*=66, 10.3 percent). All victimization categories had at least one respondent that offered a most important reason for why they decided not to report their victimization.

Property crime. The themes that emerged with responses given by victims of property crimes (*n*=28) were that the crime was not significant enough to report, there was no proof or the police could not do anything about the report, the individual was able to deal with the problem without involving the police, the belief that by reporting the victim would also get in trouble, and then other reasons that did not fit within the previous themes. The crime not being vital enough to report was the reason cited by the majority of respondents as to why they chose not to report to the police.

Many respondents felt because the issue was not very serious (i.e., theft of sunglasses) that it was not necessary to report to the police. Similar to the victimization not being important enough, many respondents felt that due to having no proof or the fact that the police could not do anything (i.e., police would be unable to recover property) that there was no real need to report to the police. If there is no proof of a crime or a belief that nothing can or will be done about it, then it may be felt that there is no need to report the crime to authorities (Walker & Katz, 2002).

Other respondents stated that they believed that they might get in trouble themselves if they had reported or that they were able to handle the incident without the involvement of the police.

Other reasons given by respondents did not fit into any of the above categories. These ranged from the respondents not wanting to deal any further with the suspect to the belief that the police do not like the respondent.

Violent crime. The themes that emerged after reviewing the responses given by victims of violent crime (n=10) were that the incident was not serious and miscellaneous (i.e., not fitting into other themes).

Respondents who stated that the incident was inconsequential tended to "shrug off" the experience. Respondents often stated that they had been at a party, or drinking, or in some other way intoxicated as was the person who committed the crime and due to this fact, the crime was insignificant because it only occurred due to the partying and/or drinking. Some responded that they knew the offender (i.e., was a friend) and that after the party they were able to be friends again. Possibly, if the respondent had reported the crime to the police, they would not have been able to remain friends with the offender. By not reporting, they were able to keep their relationship despite this crime occurring, and it would be thought of as just something that happened at a party (like breaking a glass or something else inconsequential).

The remaining respondents indicated there were other reasons why they chose not to report the victimization. These stated that the respondent was either fearful of reprisal from offenders or fearful that they would also get in trouble if they reported. One response was unable to be fully understood due to the penmanship of the respondent (it was transcribed as closely as possible from what appeared to be written).

91

Unwanted sexual intercourse. The themes present in the responses offered by victims of unwanted sexual intercourse (*n*=7) were that they were either unsure if what had happened constituted a crime and therefore should be reported or they were too afraid to report. Other reasons offered were they did not want to take the time or effort to report, the offender was known to them (i.e., boyfriend) and "minor". It is unsure whether the respondent stating minor was a minor at the time of the incident or if they felt the incident itself was not serious, and therefore not worth reporting. There was no one theme that a majority of the respondents offered and many were intertwined (i.e., not sure what happened and was scared).

Unwanted sexual acts. There was only one respondent who wrote a reason why she chose not to report this victimization:

#130: "He was my friend (at the time) and I needed his friendship, or so I thought."

Unwanted sexual touching. There were twenty respondents who offered responses for why they choose not to report unwanted sexual touching. The majority of respondents indicated that they decided not to report being the victim of unwanted sexual touching because the incident was inconsequential. Similar to victims of violent crime, victims of unwanted sexual touching tended to "brush off" the crime and make it seem as though it was not of consequence enough to report to the police. They also indicated that along with it not being serious enough to report, they took care of the situation without the help of police. Either the victim or their friends, usually male friends, took care of the incident without the involvement of the police.

The other theme that emerged was that victims felt that they would be blamed for the crime occurring, so therefore choose not to report. If a victim feels they may be victimized

92

further through being blamed when they report, they may choose that it benefits them more not to report and not face that possibility.

A few respondents gave answers that did not exactly fit into the above themes. One response stated that the decision not to report was due to fear, but the respondent did not elaborate. It is unclear if the respondent was afraid of reprisal, afraid of being blamed or afraid that they would get in trouble for something else if they chose to report to the police. One respondent indicated that because it occurs so often due to her employment in a bar that it is insignificant. Due to her indicating that she is employed at a bar where these incidents occurred, it is possible that she reported on the survey incident(s) that did not occur on the university campus and therefore were not subject to the jurisdiction of the university police. It is also possible that the respondent is the victim of unwanted sexual touching at her job at the bar, which occurs frequently, and then was a victim of unwanted sexual touching on campus. Due to the desensitization she had already experienced through her job, she may have felt that the incident on campus was not serious enough to report because "it occurs all the time."

The overwhelming theme of responses given by all victims of why they chose not to report the crime to the police was that it was not serious enough that it needed to be reported, even in the cases of violent and sex crimes. The second most stated theme was there was no need for the assistance of the police because the incident was dealt with by the respondent or friends. Even without taking into consideration the efficacy of the police with investigating or solving the crime, or even perceptions of the police, respondents decided not to report crimes, often serious crimes, due to the fact that they did not view these crimes as significant enough to take the time or effort to report to the police. This corroborates research by Walker and Katz (2002) who found that victims of crimes do not report to the police because they may feel the

crime is insignificant. Fisher et al. (2003) also found that in their study of college students

respondents in 8 out of 10 incidents did not report sexual victimization to the police because it

was not serious enough. This may be a reflection on how individuals within this age group view

the world and what occurs to them or others, or a reflection on these individuals not

understanding that a crime did occur or at least an important enough crime that it needed to be

reported to the police, if for no other reason than to make the police aware of the crime

occurring. Fisher et al. (2003) suggested that it may also reflect a rational assessment by victims

deciding not to report in order to not turn in fellow students which may result in negative

consequences in their peer groups, but little or no action through the justice system. By knowing

that certain crimes are occurring, the police may be more able to prevent future crimes or be able

to follow-up on the initial incident and possibly arrest a suspect. There are several avenues that

can be examined by researchers to determine if there is some reason why respondents,

particularly college-aged respondents, are indifferent about their victimization and do not believe

it worth the time or effort to report victimization to the university police.

Many of the victims of sexual assault indicated that they chose not to report not only

because the incident was not important enough (n=9, 31 percent), but also that they were afraid

that they would be blamed for the crime occurring (n=3, 10.3 percent). This corroborates

research that has found that women who are victims of sexual assaults often do not report the

crime due to fear of being blamed for the crime happening (Fisher et al., 2003; Russell, 1982).

No other victims of either property or violent crimes even mentioned the idea that they might be

blamed for the crime occurring or that they were afraid of being blamed for allowing the crime to

happen; only victims of sex crimes indicated a fear of being blamed. According to Russell

(1982), sexual assault is the only crime where the victim can be and often is socially stigmatized

94

and blamed for becoming a victim. Although the majority of victims still indicated that the most important reason for not reporting was because they did not feel that the incident was important enough to report, the possibility of being blamed may still be a central reason for not reporting. Victims may choose to deem the incident not important to lessen the stigma of the assault and therefore lessen the possibility of being blamed. If the victim feels that the crime was not important enough to report then they might think that others will not believe it is important enough to blame the victim for occurring.

Although victims offered several reasons for why they chose not to report that corroborate previous research on sexual assault, there still remain many unanswered questions surrounding why victims, in general, and sexual assault victims, in particular, decide not to report their victimization to the police. This allows future researchers several avenues of study to pursue regarding the question of why victims chose to report, what the most important reasons for reporting are, and how the uniqueness of sexual assault influences reporting behaviors.

Satisfaction with University Police

In addition to the questions asked about reporting decisions, respondents also were asked what, if anything, would increase their satisfaction with the university police (n=203, 31.6 percent). This was asked to determine how respondents felt about the university police and what could, if anything, increase their satisfaction with them. It is possible that if respondents had higher satisfaction with the police, they may be more prone to report victimization. This would offer information for university departments on what programs and/or policies they might choose to implement to hopefully increase students' satisfaction with the police.

Several respondents gave replies indicating what they felt might increase their satisfaction with the university police. These answers ranged from nothing to having the

department dismantled. The responses were examined and several themes emerged.   The

following section presents the themes that were found.

Nothing. Several respondents answered that nothing would increase their satisfaction

with the university police or that they were satisfied with the department as it currently operates

(n=33).   Whether respondents indicated nothing meaning that there was nothing that would

increase their satisfaction because they are currently satisfied with the police or meaning that

there was nothing that could be done to ever increase their satisfaction is not clear. Many

respondents simply wrote "nothing".

More police presence. The next theme presented in the responses was of increasing

visibility, patrols, and/or police (n=48) and were combined under the theme of more police

presence. This was a surprising finding that many respondents felt that there should be more

presence of the police around campus, since it was believed that respondents would actually feel

the exact opposite, that they would be more satisfied with decreased presence of the police. It

was expected that respondents would want fewer police due to the fact that students might

believe that they could get away with actions that otherwise they would be arrested for in the

presence of the police (i.e., drinking underage).

Many indicated that they wanted to see more police patrolling, often on foot or bicycle, at

night because this would make them feel safer walking around the campus at night.

Better attitude/less bias. The next most prominent theme was that if the police were

less biased or had better attitudes this would increase satisfaction (n=42). Many respondents felt

that the police were "just out to get them" (i.e., arrest them for underage drinking or other minor

offenses) and/or discriminated when stopping people or asking questions of students. There was

a belief presented that if the police were less biased, more understanding, had better attitudes in

general, that there might be better relationships with the police and students and, therefore, increased satisfaction with the police.

Worrall (1999), in his study of police efficacy, found that those who had rated their contact with the police favorably were more likely to hold positive views of the police. It was also found that though age is an influential predictor of confidence with the police, police contact is the most influential predictor and negates the influence of age. This suggests that even though university students may have less positive views due to age, their contact with the police is more influential in impacting their confidence and possible satisfaction. If students have negative contact (i.e., feel the police were biased when they encountered them), their satisfaction will be impacted negatively. If students feel the police have better attitudes and are less biased when they encounter them, their satisfaction with the police may be increased (or at the very least not lowered).

Concern with things other than underage drinking. Another predominant theme presented in the responses was that the police should concern themselves with crimes and/or behaviors besides underage drinking (*n*=28). Respondents felt as though all the police did was look for students drinking underage to the extent of neglecting any other crimes occurring. Students answered that if the police did not only look for underage drinkers then they would be aware of many of the more serious crimes occurring on campus. Many stated that there are more important things occurring, like robbery and rape, that often go overlooked because the emphasis is on finding and arresting students drinking underage.

Parking. Although respondents were advised to consider police services not related to parking, several respondents still wrote answers that suggested that changing parking regulations would increase their satisfaction. This was offered by far fewer respondents than the previous

themes presented (*n*=8). With this campus, parking often is a contentious issue among students, staff, visitors, and faculty members. The parking is handled by a separate department within the police department. This study was not concerned with the issue of parking and did not ask questions regarding it, but based on responses given, parking is still considered by many as something that, if changed, would help increase their overall satisfaction with the police.

Some respondents indicated the same theme as that of being concerned with issues other than underage drinking. Responses stated that if officers were less concerned about the enforcement of parking, then they could turn their attention to more serious issues (i.e., crimes). It is interesting to note that most of the time, patrol officers do not enforce parking regulations nor do they ticket vehicles. Two security officers are employed by the department, and their sole job is to ticket vehicles and enforce parking. There are, however, times outside the hours enforced by the parking department, where patrol officers must enforce parking, but these circumstances occur fewer than respondents seem to realize.

Quicker response time. Parallel to respondents indicating that there needed to be more police presence, many respondents also indicated that if there was a quicker response time by the police they would be more satisfied. Fewer respondents offered this theme than that of increased police presence (*n*=6). Most only stated "get there quicker" or "coming faster", though some did elaborate and state that they often wait for long periods of time when they call for service, and satisfaction would increase if response time decreased. If someone calls the police for service, and they are delayed in responding, the individual could be less satisfied than if the police responded in a timely manner. Despite the individual perceiving their call as being important, it may not be the priority for the officers. Similar to a hospital emergency room, there are cases that are given higher priority based on their severity and not on when the person arrived or how

98

important they think their case is. The same is true for calls for police service—a call for keys locked in a car is less of a priority than a possible underage drinking in a dorm room which is less serious than a possible crime in progress, such as a fight. If there are only so many officers to answer calls for service, then the calls can only be answered so quickly, and oftentimes, this means someone may end up waiting longer for the police to arrive than they think they should. Often respondents may not realize that though the officer may want to respond to the call quickly, there are other factors outside the individual officer's control that influence and possibly increase response time.

Enforce no smoking. In 2008, the state in which this university resides passed an act that prohibits smoking in the workplace as well as locations designated "public places". As a result, smoking on the campus was banned. Since it was not enacted as a part of the criminal code, but rather as part of the health code, enforcement of the act was designated to the County Board of Health rather than the police department. Many students did not know this and thought that the university police were the ones entrusted to enforce the policy, as they enforce many other policies on campus. As a result, two respondents indicated that if this policy was enforced by the police, satisfaction would increase.

More concern for students. Similar to responses indicating that the police should be less biased and have better attitudes, several respondents indicated that if the police listened to the students, paid attention and cared about the students then they would be more satisfied (*n*=7). The implied message in these responses was that officers, or the department in general, does not listen to the students even though it is their job to protect and serve them. If students feel they are being listened to, even if they may still be arrested by the police, they may be more satisfied in general, because they will feel that at least their positions were considered.

Better investigation. A few respondents indicated that they would be more satisfied with the police if they handled investigations better or were better at solving crimes (*n*=5). Similar to response time, sometimes there are factors outside the control of officers that influence whether a crime can be solved. Many students stated that the police should spend more time investigating and should follow through better. Despite time devoted to investigating crime, frequently many crimes remain unsolved regardless of the efforts of the police department. Although not a predominant theme offered by respondents, it was still offered by a few individuals as what would increase their satisfaction with the police and should be taken into consideration.

Better crime prevention. Respondents offered responses indicating that the police should offer better crime prevention (*n*=4). Some indicated that the police should offer more programs or information on how students can protect themselves and therefore prevent crimes. Others suggested that the police should make available information on crime "hot spots" so that they could avoid or use extra caution in those areas.

Unsure/don't know. A few respondents indicated that they did not know what would increase their satisfaction with the police or were unsure about what would (*n*=11). Many of these indicated that they were unsure because they had not had any interaction with the police so had no knowledge of them. Since they had no knowledge of the police or the department, they were unsure of what might increase their satisfaction. Some of these respondents indicated that they lived off campus, were non-traditional students or in some other way detached from the university and, therefore, were either unaware of how the police department operated or had no cause for interaction with officers. A few stated that they were new to the university and had not yet had contact with the police and hence could not judge what might increase satisfaction. It

100

would be interesting for future research to follow-up with these respondents who were new at the time of this survey to see if their satisfaction changed after having spent more time on campus , what changed it and what, if anything, these respondents might decide later would increase their satisfaction with the police. Unfortunately, this is not possible due to the anonymity of the data gathered. Possibly future research could conduct a longitudinal study to examine this issue.

Miscellaneous. A number of respondents gave answers that did not fit into any of the aforementioned themes (*n*=9). These responses ranged from students stating that the police are not well respected, to stating that the officers need more experience, to having the department dismantled. These responses still shed light on what students felt might increase their satisfaction with the police, but they are the minority of responses offered. There will always be outliers and these might be considered the outliers of the responses offered for increasing satisfaction with the police. Despite not comprising the majority of responses offered, these should still be considered when examining what might increase student satisfaction with the police since there are students that hold these views that must be taken into account when determining what influences satisfaction with the police.

Many respondents offered the reasons they felt would increase their satisfaction with the police. Although some responses dealt with issues not examined by this study (i.e., parking) or not under the purview of the police department (i.e., smoking ban), all responses given offered insight into how the students view the police and what might increase their satisfaction with them. Though not all suggestions can be accomplished (i.e., decreasing response time all the time), most can be taken into account to structure programs or training to address these issues. Many are easy to implement such as offering maps with information on "crime hot spots" or offering question and answer sessions where the students might feel that they are being taken

more seriously and their viewpoints considered. Others are harder, such as decreasing response times or conducting better investigations.

Regardless of some possible setbacks, there appears to be the prospect that police departments can increase the satisfaction with students with minor policy implementations. Despite the expectation that many students would offer negative responses (i.e., satisfaction will never increase no matter what is done), many students offered positive responses about the police or constructive criticism on what could be done to better the department and increase satisfaction with the police.

Conclusion

This chapter examined the data collected through the distributed surveys and the analysis of this data. With the dependent variable anticipated reporting, the variables that appeared to be important were gender, race, and being the victim of unwanted sexual touching. Gender was the most important of these variables, being significant at the $p<0.01$ level both in the limited model estimated and the full model which included all the independent variables. There was a positive relationship found with gender and anticipated reporting, suggesting that women are more likely to report victimization to the police than are men. This somewhat corroborates previous research which, though not finding a clear relationship between gender and reporting, has found that women are more likely to report violent crimes (Walker & Katz, 2002). Hypothesis 4, that gender influences reporting behaviors, was supported with this finding.

Additionally, though not found through any regression analysis, support was found for Hypothesis 3, which stated that sexual assault would be reported less than other types of victimization. The data only had 21 (3.3 percent) victims reporting at least one victimization out of 99 (15.4 percent) total victims who reported at least one victimization to the police and the

majority of those reporting were victims of either property or violent crimes. Even though sexual assault occurred more rarely than other types of crime, even with victims of sexual assault, few, if any, decided to report the assault(s) to the police. It is also difficult to determine how many respondents had been victims of sexual assault and failed to even report being a victim on the survey. Of the 642 respondents, only 54 (8.4 percent) reported that they had been victims of sexual assault. However, there may be more of these 642 who had been victimized that did not choose to report this on the survey for whatever reason, whether fear or shame or some other reason known only to the victim. Of these 54 victims, only 2 (3.7 percent) stated that they had reported the crime to the police. No victims of unwanted sexual intercourse or unwanted sexual acts reported their victimization to the police; this can be compared with 80 (12.5 percent) victims of violent and property crimes, 21 (26.3 percent) of which reported their victimization to the police.

Regarding satisfaction with the police, again gender had a significant relationship. In addition, credits earned, perceptions of crime, and fear of victimization were also statistically significant. Gender had a positive relationship with satisfaction with the police, credits earned, perceptions of crime, and fear of victimization all had negative relationships. These results support Hypothesis 5 which stated that gender influences perceptions of the police, and most of Hypothesis 2, which stated that fear of victimization, experience with victimization, and perceptions of crime influence perceptions of the police. Being a victim of a property crime and being a victim of unwanted sexual touching was significant at the $p<0.05$ level, suggesting that there is limited support for victimization experience impacting perceptions of police. It may be that being a victim of some crimes impact police perceptions, or there are other factors at play that have yet to be explored that impact perceptions of the police beyond victimization

experience such as media reports, vicarious experience and previous history with law enforcement (either through having friends and family in the profession or having previous encounters with other agencies).

Multiple regression and logistic regression were used to determine if there was support for Hypothesis 1 which stated that satisfaction with the police will influence victimization reporting. In the multiple regression analysis, the dependent variable of victimization reporting was anticipated reporting of victimization. In this model, satisfaction with the police was significant at the $p<0.01$ level, with those with greater satisfaction with the police being more likely to report victimization (when controlling for the other included variables). It was predicted that those with higher satisfaction with the police would be more likely to report victimization. These results support Hypothesis 1 and shows that there is a relationship between victimization reporting (at least anticipated victimization reporting) and satisfaction with the police.

Using logistic regression, it was attempted to determine if there was additional support for Hypothesis 1 with the dependent variable of actual victimization reporting. Although only weakly significant, $p<0.10$, it was found that there is a negative relationship between satisfaction with the police and reporting. This was in the opposite direction than that found with the OLS regression analysis. Instead of those having more satisfaction with the police being more likely to report victimization, in the logistic regression model, those with more satisfaction were less likely to report victimization. These results may have been due to the low number of cases of actual victimization reporting available for analysis.

Through the examination of qualitative data, it appeared that victims chose not to report, not due to satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the police, but because they did not feel the crime

was important enough to report. This was a common theme among all victims who gave qualitative responses. It is unclear if victims did not feel the crime was serious enough due to not clearly comprehending that a crime occurred or if they felt that what happened did not warrant going through the trouble of reporting.

The analysis of the data obtained did find support for part of Hypothesis 2 stating that victimization experience will influence perceptions of the police, and found support for all other hypotheses set forth. Even with these findings, there are still opportunities for researchers to more fully examine whether satisfaction with the police influences reporting, particularly with sexual assault. There is still much to investigate concerning the issue of sexual assault and the reasons why some victims choose to report and why some do not, and, what in particular, would increase a victim's decision to report sexual victimization to the police. A greater understanding of these results and opportunities for future research are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

This study focused on determining whether students' perceptions of the police influence their victimization reporting decisions, particularly with sexual assault. This section presents a discussion of the results of this study and how the findings both support and contradict previous studies on sexual assault and relationships with the police. The overall limitations and strengths of this study are also discussed. Finally, policy implications, and the possible direction of future research are presented.

The following section discusses the results presented in Chapter V. It explains how these results are either consistent with or contradict previous research on the subject and states whether the results found were consistent with the expectations of this study.

Sexual Assault

This study did find support for the expectation that sexual assault would be reported less often than other types of victimization. Previous studies on sexual assault have found that it is one of the least reported of all crimes (Lizotte, 1985; Fisher et al., 2000). Karjane et al. (2005) found that less than 5 percent of assaults of students are reported to university authorities. Other researchers estimate that the reporting rate at 25 percent (Gross et al., 1991; Sampson, 2002). Of the 642 total respondents, only 54 (8.4 percent) responded that they had been victims of sexual assault. Of these 54 victims, only 2 (3.7 percent) stated that they had reported this crime to the police. Only victims of unwanted sexual touching reported the crime to the police; no victims of unwanted sexual intercourse or unwanted sexual acts reported to the police. This is compared to 21 (26.3 percent) victims of property and/or violent crimes that reported to the police.

106

Research has suggested that victims may not report to the police due to not realizing that what happened was a crime (Gross et al., 2006; Russell, 1982; Sampson, 2002). Although low in number (*n*=2), these responses to the qualitative questions of the survey partially supported this finding. Some respondents indicated that they did not report due to not being sure what had happened or what to do, though the majority of respondents stated that the crime was not serious enough to report to the police (*n*=9).

Several researchers on sexual assault posit that victims choose not to report due to the possibility of being blamed for the crime occurring (Felson & Pare, 2005; Russell, 1982). Russell (1982) contended that sexual assault is the only crime where the victim can be and often is blamed for the crime occurring. The results of this study partially confirmed this as well. Respondents (*n*=3) stated that they did not report the crime due to the possibility of being blamed for it occurring and was only offered by victims of sexual assault. Victims of property or violent crimes did not even mention the possibility that they might be blamed for the crime occurring if they reported. This suggests that there is something unique about sexual assault that results in victims thinking they may be blamed if they report, which then may impede reporting. Victims of other types of crimes may not feel this possibility of being blamed and may, as a result, be more likely to report victimization to the police.

The majority of respondents (*n*=10) indicated that the most important reason for not reporting the sexual victimization to the police was that the incident was not important enough to report. This was atypical of what was expected to be found. It was expected that respondents would think the incident was important, but choose not to report for reasons found in previous research (i.e., victim blaming, or being unsure of a crime occurring) or reasons associated with perceptions of the police (as hypothesized by the research). However, respondents most often

107

offered the response that the assault was not considered an important enough issue to report to the police. Fisher et al. (2003) did find in their study of sexual assault among college students that respondents stated that did not report their victimization to the police in 8 out of 10 incidents due to it not being serious enough. This reason for not reporting was also given 7 out of 10 times for rape incidents (Fisher et al., 2003). Other research on sexual assault has often found that sexual assault is a serious crime with significant repercussions, both physical and mental, for victims (Koss & Burkhart, 1989; Rozee & Koss, 2001).

It may be that respondents chose to state that the reason for not reporting was that the crime was not important enough to lessen the stigma of the assault and the possibility that they would be blamed for the crime. If they claim that the incident it not important enough to report, it suggests that it may not be significant enough to attach blame to the victim for the crime occurring. It is not clear whether respondents only stated that the crime was not important enough even though there was some other underlying reason for not reporting, or if they truly believed that the assault was not important enough to report to the police. If it is true that respondents feel that sexual assault victimization was not serious enough to report to the police, future research should examine why respondents feel this way and how this impacts both previous research and future research on the topic of sexual assault.   Or it may be that victims rationally decide to not report and turn in fellow students which may result in negative consequences that may occur with their peers as posited by Fisher et al. (2003).

Although not included in any of the regression analyses, data were collected asking respondents if the incident had occurred after knowingly drinking alcohol and/or taking drugs, and if they thought they might have been drugged.   This was collected to determine if, as previous research suggests, there is a link between being intoxicated and victimization (Schwartz

& Pitts, 1995; Ward et al., 1991). With the data from these questions and the limited analysis

done with it, there is limited support for the proposition that there is a relationship between

intoxication and assault. Eight victims (1.2 percent) of unwanted sexual intercourse reported that

they had knowingly consumed alcohol and/or drugs (legal or illegal) before being assaulted.

Three victims (0.5 percent) of unwanted sexual intercourse reported that they had reason to

believe that they had been drugged or intoxicated without their knowledge before the assault

occurred. All the victims of unwanted sexual acts (n=3, 0.5 percent) reported that they

knowingly consumed alcohol and/or drugs before the assault occurred. None reported that they

believed they had been drugged. Among the victims of unwanted sexual touching, 27 (4.2

percent) reported knowingly consuming alcohol and/or drugs though none reported believing

they had been drugged. This suggests that there may be a possible link between consuming

alcohol and/or drugs and becoming a victim of a sexual assault. Though, it is unclear how many

other respondents drank and did not become victims of sexual assault or any other type of

victimization, or how many drank and did not report it or even did not report being victimized at

all. It may be that those who consume alcohol become more suitable targets for motivated

offenders as suggested by Schwartz and Pitts (1995) or it may be that those who drink do so in

the company of those more predisposed to assault, and it is not the drinking but the company one

keeps while drinking that contributes to assaults (Mustaine and Tewksbury 2002).

Relationships with the Police

Good relationships between the police and the public are not only important in general,

but may also contribute to better crime reporting, less fear of crime, and better trust in the police

(Roh & Oliver, 2005). This study was interested in exploring whether better perceptions of and

satisfaction with the police among university students helps to increase reporting of victimization, particularly with sexual assault.

Research examining perceptions of the police have found that there are certain characteristics than may influence these perceptions (Rosenbaum et al., 2005; Skogan, 2005; Weitzer & Tuch, 2005). Although the relationship between police perceptions and gender has not been clearly determined, Worrall (1999) maintains that though perceptions are approximately the same for men and women, women may hold more idealized views of the police, which translate into more positive perceptions. Worrall (1999) and Williams and Nofzinger (2003) both found that those who are older have more positive perceptions of the police. Roh and Oliver (2005) found that those who had more fear of crime had a lower perception of community policing.

Through the analyses done as part of this study, a relationship with satisfaction with the police and both fear of victimization and perceptions of crime was found. It was found that both perceptions of crime and fear of victimization (both possible indicators of fear of crime) have a negative relationship with satisfaction with the police. This corroborates previous research that has found that those with higher fear of crime tend to hold less positive views of the police (Roh & Oliver, 2005).

Age was not found to be a significant predictor of satisfaction with the police. Previous research has found that those who are younger hold less positive views of the police than those who are older (Williams & Nofzinger, 2003; Worrall, 1999). The finding that age was not a significant predictor of satisfaction with the police may have been due to the dichotomous coding of the age variable (as traditional aged and non-traditional aged). To determine if these results were due to the dichotomous coding of the age variable, a regression analysis was completed

using a categorical variable of age (0 for 18 & 19 year olds, 1 for those 20 to 22, and 3 for those 23 and older). In this regression analysis age was not significant. Another regression analysis was completed keeping age as a continuous variable ranging from 18 years of age to 48 years of age. Again, age was not a significant predictor of satisfaction with the police.

Gender was found to be a positive and significant predictor of satisfaction with the police. Although previous research has not found a conclusive relationship between gender and satisfaction with the police, it is thought that due to women's more idealized views of the police they have more satisfaction with the police than do men (Worrall, 1999). These findings support the premise that women have more satisfaction with the police. In analyzing the cross-tabulations conducted, it showed that women who reported victimization were more satisfied with how their report of victimization was handled by the police, and almost all were satisfied with the police. Most of the men who reported their victimization were dissatisfied with how the police handled the report and all of them were dissatisfied with the police in general. This may be due to inherent gender differences or there may be other reasons behind why the women were satisfied, not only with the police in general, but with how their victimization reports were handled.

Through the examination of the qualitative information, it was found that several respondents (n=22, 32.8 percent) did not report crimes due to not believing that they were serious enough to report to the police. It was believed that respondents would indicate that they had not reported victimization due, in part, to views held about the university police. Particularly, it was anticipated that respondents would indicate that they choose not to report victimization because they thought the police would be ineffective, unable to solve the crime, or biased. In very few cases did respondents state that they did not report victimization to the

police due to these reasons. Respondents implied that their decision to report had nothing to do with how they viewed the police or how they thought the police would perform. In most cases, without thought of the police, the decision came down to not thinking the victimization was significant enough to report. It is unclear whether this is due to how this particular population views crimes and/or victimization or how this age group may view the world and what happens to them or others. It may be that they did not realize that a crime occurred or the severity of the crime (though this is hard to believe for crimes against a person, such as sexual assault).

Based on the data collected and the analyses performed, this study found support for much of what previous research has found regarding perceptions of and satisfaction with the police. The only finding that contradicts previous research is the finding on age and satisfaction with the police. Though, it may be a result of the study's sample or the population of university students. The results of the qualitative analysis were the most interesting and atypical of what was expected to be found; that respondents do not report more because they view the victimization as trivial rather than anything having to do with how they perceive the police or their effectiveness.

Hypotheses

This study had five proposed hypotheses that were tested through data analysis. Hypotheses 1, 3, 4, and 5 were fully supported through these analyses. There was partial support found for Hypotheses 2. Table H1 in Appendix H presents the support found for these five hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1 proposed that perceptions of and satisfaction with the police will influence the decision to report victimization. A multiple regression model with all the independent variables and the included independent variable of satisfaction with the police was estimated. In

this complete regression model, satisfaction with the police was significant at the p<0.01 level, suggesting that those with higher levels of satisfaction with the police are more likely to report victimization (at least anticipated victimization). This supports Hypothesis 1 demonstrating a relationship between satisfaction with the police and victimization reporting.

It was also planned to test this hypothesis through logistic regression analyses (with actual victimization reporting). Due to the low number of those who reported victimization, both logistic regression models and chi-square assessments were used to determine if there was support for this hypothesis. In the limited logistic regression models satisfaction with the police was not significant though in the full logistic regression model, satisfaction with the police did have a weak significant relationship with reporting (p<0.10) when controlling for the other independent variables. Only when controlling for the all the other included independent variables did satisfaction with the police become weakly significant (p<0.10). In this full logistic regression model, as the satisfaction with the police category increased, victimization reporting was 53.1 percent less likely which supports Hypothesis 1. This was counter to what was found with the multiple regression analysis which found that those with higher satisfaction with the police are more likely to report victimization. Though these results of the logistic regression model are counter to what was found through the multiple regression analysis it may be due to the low number of cases of actual reporting available for use in this logistic regression model.

To delve deeper into the proposition that satisfaction with the police influences reporting behaviors, chi-square analyses were completed. Although these do not fully offer support for Hypothesis 1, they did show that women who reported their victimization were more satisfied with the police in general and with how the police handled their victimization report. Men, on the other hand, were dissatisfied with the police in general, and the majority of male victims

(87.5 percent) who reported victimization to the police were dissatisfied with how the police handled this report. Despite finding contradictory support for Hypothesis 1 from multiple regression and logistic regression analyses, it does appear from the analysis undertaken in this study that there is support for the proposition that satisfaction with and perceptions of the police have a relationship with victimization reporting.

Hypothesis 2 stated that fear of victimization, experience with victimization and perceptions of crime influence perceptions of the police. Partial support was found for the proposition that experience with victimization influences police perceptions. In the OLS regression, it was found that certain types of victimization experience are influential, while others are not significant predictors of satisfaction with the police. Being a victim of a property crime and being a victim of unwanted sexual touching were significant at the $p<0.05$ level in the full model, while the other types of victimization experience were not significant. In addition, in the partial regression model with only victimization experiences as the independent variables, being a victim of a property crime was statistically significant ($p<0.01$). These results imply that being a victim of certain types of victimization (property crimes) may influence satisfaction with the police, but not all victimization experiences have a relationship with satisfaction with the police.

The remainder of Hypothesis 2, that fear of victimization and perceptions of crime influence perceptions of the police, was supported through data analysis. There was a statistically significant negative relationship with satisfaction with the police and both fear of victimization and perceptions of crime. Perceptions of crime and fear of victimization do have a relationship with satisfaction with the police in that those who are more fearful of being victimized and those with higher perceptions of crime have lower satisfaction with the police.

Hypothesis 3 proposed that among victims, the reporting of sexual assault will be lower than the reporting of other types of victimization. Although support for this hypothesis was not found through regression analyses, support was still found through analyzing frequency data. Of the 642 respondents, only 54 (8.4 percent) reported that they had been victims of sexual assault. Of these 54 victims, only 2 (3.7 percent) reported the victimization to the police and no victims of unwanted sexual intercourse or unwanted sexual acts reported the victimization to the police. With victims of property and violent crimes (n=80, 12.5 percent), 21 (26.3 percent) reported the victimization to the police. It is unknown if there were victims of sexual assault that did not report the crime on the survey, in addition to not reporting to the police.

Hypotheses 4 and 5 both suggested that gender influences reporting behaviors and perceptions of the police and were supported. In the OLS full regression models, gender was a statistically significant predictor of propensity to report and satisfaction with the police. In addition, in the chi-square analysis, gender did appear to influence satisfaction with how the police handled the victimization report among crime victims who reported and general satisfaction with the police among crime victims who reported, with women having more satisfaction with both.

All the hypotheses set forth by this study were supported, though in varying degrees. Hypotheses 4 and 5, which stated that gender influence reporting of victimization and satisfaction with the police, were supported through both multiple regression and chi-square analysis. Gender was statistically significant in both the partial and full regression models, suggesting that gender is a significant predictor of both anticipated victimization reporting and satisfaction with the police. There was partial support for Hypothesis 2 which suggested that victimization experience influences satisfaction with the police. It appears that some types of

victimization experience influence satisfaction with the police, but other types do not. Future

exploration will have to determine exactly what victimization experience impacts satisfaction

with the police and why. Hypothesis 2 stated that fear of victimization and perceptions of crime

influence satisfaction with the police and these were found to be supported through the

regression analyses. Based on the results, those with perceptions of higher crime and higher fear

of victimization held less satisfaction with the police. Hypothesis 3 also was supported,

reasserting previous research on sexual assault that victims of this crime report it at a much lower

rate than victims of other types of crime. There was also support found for Hypothesis 1, which

proposed that perceptions of and satisfaction with the police has a relationship with the decision

to report victimization. Although the multiple regression analysis found that those with higher

levels of satisfaction with the police are more likely to report victimization (anticipated

reporting), the logistic regression analysis found that as the satisfaction with the police category

increased, actual victimization reporting was 53.1 percent less likely. These divergent results

could be due to the low number of actual victimization reporting available for the logistic

regression analysis. Through the chi-square analyses, it was found that women who reported

their victimization were more satisfied with the police and with how their victimization report

was handled, though men who reported were dissatisfied with both the police and how their

victimization report was handled. Future examination may be able to determine if this is due to

gender differences, or if how the victim perceives the handling of their victimization report

impacts future victimization reporting.

Limitations and Strengths

One possible limitation of this study is the sample used. Although classes were randomly

selected to be included, those classes that were eventually included were dependent on the

professors/instructors who allowed survey administration. As a result, the sample may not be as random as designed. In addition, there may have been overlap in the classes that were surveyed, and students may have been administered the survey more than once. Respondents were advised not to complete a survey again if they had already completed one in a previous class, but that does not guarantee that students did not complete more than one survey, which could have skewed the results. Since the surveys were anonymous, there is no way to tell if one person completed a survey in one class and then again in a second (or third or fourth) class, especially if they altered responses or if they only checked boxes and did not complete any of the qualitative questions.

Another possible limitation of this study is the population. The incidence of victimization, in general, and sexual assault, in particular, is rare within the population that was sampled. Although the sample size was increased in an attempt to capture as many cases of victimization as possible, more data might have been captured using a different university population, possibly at a larger, more metropolitan, university where there might be more cases of victimization. The size of the sample may have limited the data collected and the subsequent analyses preformed. Despite increasing the attempted sample size and having a final sample of 642, there was still limited variability with much of the data limiting regression analyses that were able to be completed. Increasing the sample size even more might have helped this issue, though it may still not have created variability if none exists in the population itself (i.e., few cases of victimization overall).

This study was unable to determine if the differences found regarding how men and women view the police and their reporting behaviors are due to inherent gender differences. It was also unable to determine if those who reported victimization already were dissatisfied with

the police and, as a result, felt dissatisfied with how the police handled their report, or if by reporting the victimization, this experience lowered their satisfaction with the police. This study did not determine exactly why sexual assault is reported less often than other crimes though victims did indicate that they chose not to report due to fear of being blamed, were unsure a crime occurred, or felt the incident was inconsequential. Victims of property and violent crimes gave the same reasons why they chose not to report (save being blamed[5]), which reveals that there may be something unique about sexual assault impeding reporting that has yet to be determined.

The study was unable to determine conclusively what the predisposing factors of sexual assault are. Data indicated that a majority of sexual assault victims (n=41, 75.9 percent) did ingest alcohol and/or drugs prior to being assaulted, but it is difficult to determine if being intoxicated contributed to the assault or if there were other factors that contributed to the suitability of the victim. The analysis shows some support, though, for the proposition found in previous research (Gross et al., 2006; Ward et al., 1991) that the majority of victims were intoxicated in some way before being assaulted, suggesting that there is something unique about those who drink/use drugs that may make them more prone to victimization which may or may not be due to being intoxicated.

There are, however, strengths of this study as well. This study does corroborate previous research on sexual assault and satisfaction with the police. It found that of the crimes included on the survey instrument, sexual assault was the least reported (no victims of unwanted sexual intercourse and unwanted sexual acts reported the crime to the police) with only 3.7 percent of victims reporting it to the police. This supports previous research that has found that sexual

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[4] Only a couple of the victims offered the reason of fear of being blamed as why they did not report the sexual victimization. A far greater number responded that the reason was because the incident was inconsequential or that they were unsure of what had happened or what they should do.

assault is the least reported of all crimes (Russell, 1982). Although few in number, the qualitative answers provided by respondents indicated that victims of sexual assault may choose not to report the crime due to fear of being blamed for the crime occurring (*n*=3, 10.3 percent). This also supports previous research on sexual assault which has indicated that victims oftentimes do not report due to this fear (Fisher et al., 2003; Russell, 1982).

Though previous research has not found a conclusive relationship between gender and reporting victimization or perceptions of the police (Walker & Katz, 2002; Worrall, 1999), through the analysis done in this study, it was found that gender does significantly impact both anticipated victimization reporting and satisfaction with the police. Gender was a significant predictor in both the partial and full regression models examining both dependent variables, which suggest that women are more satisfied with the police and more likely to report victimization. The only analysis that did not have gender as significant was the logistic regression models, though this may be due to the low number of cases available to analyze. The chi-square analysis also indicated that women who report victimization are more satisfied with the police in general and are more satisfied with how the police handle their reports of victimization. Although there still remain questions as to why there is this disparity between men and women, the results found with this study do show that women do have more satisfaction with the police and are more likely to report victimization, though not sexual assault, which still is not reported often by victims of either gender.

Another strength of this study was that the sample was comprised of classes randomly sampled, which resulted in a fairly representative sample of the overall population. Although unable to generalize results to other samples of university students, by having a representative sample, these results should be able to be generalized to this specific university population and

119

other similar universities.   Thus, the information gained through this study can be used to suggest policy implications to increase satisfaction with the police and victimization reporting at the university studied. This information can also be used to design and implement additional studies at similar universities to determine if the results can be generalized to other campuses. If, indeed, they can be generalized and there are successful policies implemented at the original study site, these policies can then be executed at other universities. This can hopefully increase satisfaction with university police departments and increase victimization reporting. It is hoped that as more victims come forward and report victimization that there may be a decrease in victimizations due to increased crime prevention, investigation, and arrests.

The qualitative responses collected and analyzed were a strength of this study (*n*=300, 46.7 percent). Much information was gained through the quantitative data analyses, but though it answered if victims reported and what is correlated with reporting (i.e., gender), it was unable to answer the reason why one person decided to report over another similar respondent. These qualitative questions explored these issues and offered some intriguing answers. Instead of indicating that perceptions of the police influenced decisions to report victimization, the majority of victims denoted that the decision not to report victimization was due to perceiving the crime as inconsequential regardless of crime type. There may be something unique about the population being studied that causes them to not view crimes, even crimes such as sexual assault, as important enough to report, or there may be some other reason not specified that is influencing the reporting decisions, but to minimize either the stigma, guilt, or shame of being a victim of a crime, respondents assert that the crime is inconsequential.

Respondents were also asked what would increase their satisfaction with the university police. This was asked to understand more fully how respondents felt about the police and what

they believed would increase their satisfaction with them. These responses were also surprising, in that, many of them were not overtly negative. Many responses indicated that there was satisfaction with how the police currently operate, or that satisfaction would increase if police presence increased. Even many of the responses that were critical offered constructive suggestions toward how to improve operations rather than overt negativity about the police or their services.

Policy Implications

Although it is still difficult to determine exactly what makes one victim report over another, similar victim, this study did gain information about reporting behaviors that can be translated into possible policies universities could implement. Even without implementing full policies, even some slight changes to operations or more information provided to students may help university police departments increase satisfaction and victimization reporting. Despite these policies, there will always be those who are dissatisfied, for one reason or another, or will not report victimization and the reasons why may never be known.

Respondents indicated that if the police department offered information on crime "hot spots" or what areas to avoid they would feel safer and be more satisfied in general with the police. This is easily accomplished by using crime statistics that are gathered about where the majority of crimes occur. Many also stated that if the police listened more to them that satisfaction would be increased. Police departments could implement question and answer sessions, send out surveys, or have other ways to get feedback from the students and have their opinions and viewpoints considered and, in return, offer advice of their own to the students.

Due to many respondents indicating that increased visibility of the police would increase satisfaction, the police department could increase foot or bicycle patrols (cited the most by

respondents) around the times classes get out (when there are the majority of students walking around campus). These increased patrols could also occur at night; another time indicated by many respondents as when they wanted to see more officers patrolling to feel safer. Similar to increased patrols, increased lighting and blue light phones (phones that ring directly to the police department dispatch center similar to 911) around campus may increase feelings of safety which could translate into increased satisfaction with the police. Officers could patrol the dormitories more frequently and engage in more public relations campaigns, casually speaking with the residents and the residence life staff of the dormitories, to help increase satisfaction and interaction with the university police officers. By being more accessible and relatable, students may feel more at ease speaking with officers and, in turn, reporting crimes if needed.

In addition to these proposals, the department could invest in more training of the officers themselves. This could be through community policing training, training on community relations, or other training tailored toward educating officers in how to increase community relationships and foster better satisfaction with themselves and the department overall. There could also be training offered on victim relations and sexual assault prevention and investigation. These might help enhance interactions between victims and officers and foster a better relationship through these enhanced interactions thereby increasing overall satisfaction. Sexual assault training would assist officers in aiding victims when they do report which may also help increase satisfaction with the victims. If the university population is aware that officers have received specialized training on the issues of sexual assault or in victim services, this may also foster better relationships, increased reporting and more satisfaction.

This study found, as have previous studies, that victims of sexual assault do not report either due to fear of being blamed or because they were unsure if a crime had actually occurred.

Universities and their police departments could implement information sessions for all students discussing the issue of sexual assault. These could focus on informing students that they should not feel that they will be blamed if they become a victim of an assault and the different manifestations a sexual assault could come in (i.e., stranger rape, acquaintance rape, or unwanted sexual touching). These sessions could also be used to inform students about the importance of reporting crimes, even if the student does not feel that the incident was important enough; reasons why reporting is needed and the benefits of reporting should also be discussed at these sessions. Universities may decide to implement incentives to report or anonymous reporting that may entice those pondering reporting crimes to actually do so.

Information sessions could also be held to educate men on what constitutes a sexual assault. Rozee and Koss (2001) found that men often do not see forced sex as wrong, and 84 percent of the men who admitted behavior that would be legally defined as rape said that it was definitely not rape. These sessions could address rape myths and through education of male students help to dispel these, and teach male students how to prevent sexual assault by changing "rape supportive" beliefs that may be held by certain male peer groups (Schwartz and Pitts, 1995).

Some respondents suggested implementing self-defense programs for women. These could be done as either part of the information sessions on sexual assault or separately. As part of these self-defense classes, students could be taught what constitutes a sexual assault, proactive strategies to avoid situations where assault is more common and other tactics to both prevent becoming a victim and what to do if one becomes a victim of an assault. The university that was studied does offer a self-defense program for women, Rape Aggression Defense (RAD), but due to low numbers of students signing up to take the program (usually held over a weekend or two),

123

it is often cancelled. If students are demonstrating a desire to take self-defense classes, but do not sign up because they do not know the program exists or is being offered, the university may need to implement better advertising and promotion of the program to create better participation.

Another suggestion which may both increase reporting with sexual assault and increase satisfaction with the police is the implementation of Sexual Assault Response Teams (SART). These teams are made up of individuals brought together from law enforcement, healthcare providers, women's centers, victims' advocates, counseling services, legal aid and other services aimed at assisting victims of sexual assault with a more sensitive approach through the criminal justice process (Nugent-Borakove, Fanflik, Troutman, Johnson, Burgess & O'Connor, 2006). Although SART programs do vary from community to community, the goals of these teams are to increase reporting and conviction, assist victims with recovery through support and facilitate communication between all the parties involved in the investigation and prosecution of the assault (Nugent-Borakove et al., 2006). Nugent-Borakove et al. (2006) found that that the amount of time between assault and reporting is lower for victims who are seen by a SART versus those who are not and victims are offered more services when seen by a SART. Though there have been few studies on the efficacy of SART and if these teams do truly help increase reporting by victims, preliminary findings suggest that these are positive interventions (Nugent-Borakove et al., 2006).

Another possible policy implementation this university could execute is immunity to judicial or criminal charges for victims of sexual assault (or other crimes). This university is unique, in that, in addition to or in lieu of criminal charges, the university police department has the option of filing judicial charges on students through the Office of Student Conduct. These charges can be filed on students for misconduct even if this misconduct occurs off campus as

long as they are a current student. Judicial sanctions range from a warning or probation to expulsion from the university (The Source, n.d.). Victims, especially those who have been drinking alcohol underage, may fear coming forward and reporting to the police for fear of judicial charges being filed against them even if criminal charges are not. If immunity was offered to victims of crimes, particularly victims of sexual assault, if they report their victimization to the police, they may be more willing to come forward because there is no fear of having these charges filed. Information concerning this immunity could be dispersed during orientation or in student policy guides. By offering this immunity to judicial charges to victims of crimes, students may view the police department more positively as well, since the department will not seem as though their only focus is in arresting or charging students.

Future Research

Though this research did offer some insight into those who report victimization, there still remains many avenues to be explored in order to more fully understand the decision of reporting victimization, particularly sexual assault.

This study did substantiate previous research on sexual assault which has found that it is one of the least reported crimes (Karjane et al., 2005) and that many victims choose not to report due to fear of being blamed (Russell, 1982). There still remain many unanswered questions surrounding why some victims of sexual assault decide to report victimization. Future research should examine exactly why a certain victim may choose to report sexual victimization and a similar victim does not. This may need to be done qualitatively or in a mixed-method approach to fully envisage all the factors influencing a decision to report, including the extent of the victimization, the behaviors associated (i.e., drinking alcohol), and other reasons that persuade a victim to report to the police.

Future research can also examine what, in general, influences victimization reporting across all types of victimization. This study found that many respondents choose not to report victimization due to a belief that the crime was inconsequential and it was not worth the time or effort to report to police. Researchers may be able to decipher why college-aged students believe their victimization is not serious enough to report and whether other age-groups also consider it not worth the time or effort to report victimization. If victims do not feel it worthwhile to report victimization, possibly police departments might be better able to educate the public on the importance of reporting crimes.

This study did find that gender does influence both victimization reporting and satisfaction with the police. Future research can more fully explore how gender impacts victimization reporting and satisfaction with the police and whether it is due to gendered socialization or something inherent in being either a man or a woman independent of socialization.

There are also opportunities for future research to more fully explore what exactly influences satisfaction with the police. Many respondents indicated that they could not judge the effectiveness of the university police because they had not had interaction with them yet. Future research could conduct longitudinal studies to determine if, after some time on campus, a student's view and satisfaction of the police changes and what impacts this change. There also remains the question of how satisfaction with the police may impact victimization reporting and in what ways.

Conclusion

Although this study did not answer all the questions surrounding what influences victimization reporting, reporting of sexual assault and satisfaction with the police, it did offer a

greater understanding of the issues. The study found that gender does impact both victimization reporting and satisfaction with the police, with women being more likely to report victimization and having greater satisfaction with the police. Other studies have not yet found a clear relationship between gender and reporting (Walker & Katz, 2002) or gender and satisfaction with the police (Worrall, 1999). However, this study still did not answer exactly why sexual assault is reported at a far lower rate than other types of victimization. There was some indication that victims fear being blamed for the crime, as previous research has found (Russell, 1982), but this was not the predominant reason given by victims who chose not to report and it is still not completely understood why far fewer victims report sexual assault.

The interplay between satisfaction with the police and the decision to report is still not completely understood. It is unclear whether satisfaction directly impacts reporting or if previous reporting and the degree of satisfaction with that experience influences future reporting behaviors. Even with the analyses conducted there still remained large amounts of unexplained variation for both victimization reporting and satisfaction with the police suggesting that there are factors, such as media reports or vicarious experience, influencing these that were not accounted for in the present study.

Victims may decide to report not based on one single element (i.e., satisfaction with the police) but the interplay of many different reasons that researchers are just beginning to understand. In the same vein, satisfaction with the police could be influenced not only by gender, but by the interaction of gender with direct experience with the police and media exposure and other possible related and unrelated aspects. This research, though enhancing the understanding of victimization reporting and satisfaction with the police, is still only a beginning

127

in truly understanding the reasons why victims choose to report victimization and what affects

satisfaction with the police.

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APPENDIX A- Survey Instrument

Dear IUP student,

This survey is designed to identify your perceptions of crime and police. The survey requires you to truthfully and accurately describe your experiences with different types of crimes, and although some of the questions are personal and sensitive in nature, you can be assured that your responses will be anonymously recorded.

The survey is presented in six sections related to particular issues and criminal events. For this survey, "on campus" includes only areas that are campus property. This excludes fraternity and sorority houses, apartment buildings bordering campus, inside the Co-op/HUB Fitness Center. University Police are only those officers employed by the university (excluding security officers who issue parking tickets). The Indiana Borough Police and the Pennsylvania State Police and other agencies that operate around campus should not be considered university police.

For each survey item or question, mark or write the most appropriate response. When necessary, you may write on the margin or back of the survey if enough space has not been provided to complete your thoughts. If you have any questions, feel free to ask at any time during the survey administration.

Section I: Perceptions of Crime

This section is designed to measure your **perceptions** of different types of crime across many different types of settings. Mark the most appropriate response with an "x" in the correct box.

1) When walking alone on campus, how safe do you feel…

Time	Very safe	Reasonably safe	Safe	Somewhat unsafe	Very unsafe
During the daytime					
During the night					

2) In terms of the amount of crime that exists on this campus, how do you think this campus compares to…

Location	Much less	Less	About the same	More	Much More
Similar Universities					
Surrounding municipalities (e.g., Indiana Borough/White Township)					

3) On campus, how afraid are you of becoming a victim of …

Crime	Unafraid	Somewhat unafraid	Afraid	Somewhat afraid	Very Afraid
Property crime (e.g., theft or vandalism of personal property)					
Violent crime (e.g., non-sexual assault or robbery)					
Unwanted sexual touching including forced kissing or touching, grabbing, fondling or rubbing of breasts, buttocks, and genital areas					
Unwanted sexual acts-other than touching-including forced oral sex, forced anal sex, and penetration with an object other than a penis into a vagina *[Note: these acts can include male and female victims]*					
Unwanted sexual intercourse limited to the penetration of a penis into a vagina					

Section II: Likelihood to Report

This section indentifies your likelihood to report **possible** victimization experiences to the police. This section is not concerned with reporting of actual crimes, only what you would do if you became a victim of the crimes specifically listed. After this section, a separate section has survey items related to actual victimization experiences. Mark the most appropriate response with an "x" in the correct box.

4) How likely would you be to report to the university police, if, tomorrow on campus, you were a victim of…

Crime	Very unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Likely	Somewhat likely	Very likely
Property crime (e.g., theft or vandalism of personal property)					
Violent crime (e.g., non-sexual assault or robbery)					
Unwanted sexual touching including forced kissing or touching, grabbing, fondling or rubbing or breasts, buttocks, and genital areas					
Unwanted sexual acts-other than touching-including forced oral sex, forced anal sex, and penetration with an object other than a penis into a vagina *[Note: these acts can include male and female victims]*					
Unwanted sexual intercourse limited to the penetration of a penis into a vagina					

Section III: Perceptions of Police

This section is designed to measure your **perceptions** of the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Police. Do not consider other local or regional police agencies. Mark the most appropriate response with an "x" in the correct box.

5) How satisfied are you with the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Police regarding…

Performance	Dissatisfied	Somewhat dissatisfied	Satisfied	Somewhat satisfied	Very satisfied
Overall services provided (all police services that are not related to parking)					
Preventing crimes					
Investigating and solving crimes					
Responding to calls for service in a timely manner					
Being fair and unbiased					

6) What, if anything, would increase your satisfaction with the university police?

Section IV: Victimization Experience

This section indentifies your reporting of **actual** victimization experiences to the police. Unlike section II, this section asks about actual victimization and reporting experiences. This section only addresses non-sexual victimization and reporting experiences. After this section, a separate section has survey items related to actual sexual victimization experiences. Mark the most appropriate response with an "x" in the correct box.

---

7) Property crimes include thefts of or vandalism to personal property. With this in mind, have you personally been a victim of a property crime on campus since you first enrolled at IUP?

☐ Yes   ☐ No ⟶ Skip to number 15

8) Was the person who committed this crime known to you?

☐ Yes ⟶ Check response in table below   ☐ No ⟶ Skip to number 9

Relationship	
Roommate	
Friend	
Girlfriend/boyfriend/significant other/spouse	
Residence Life Staff	
Relative	
Professor	
Acquaintance (other than those listed above)	
Other (please explain in space to the right)	

9) Did you report this incident to the university police?

☐ Yes   ☐ No ⟶ Skip to number 13

10) What was the reason for reporting this to the police? (Mark all responses that apply)

☐ To stop/prevent this crime from happening

☐ To prevent future crimes against yourself

☐ To punish the offender   ☐ Felt it was needed to inform the police

☐ To catch the offender   ☐ To prevent future crimes against others

☐ To recover property   ☐ In order to file with insurance

☐ Other_____   ☐ No specific reason

11) Which of these was the most important reason you reported the crime?

12) How satisfied were you with how the university police handled the report?

Dissatisfied	Somewhat dissatisfied	Satisfied	Somewhat satisfied	Very satisfied

— — — — — — — — — — **Skip to number 15** — — — — — — — — — —

13) If you did not report this to the police, what was the reason for not reporting?

(Mark all responses that apply)

☐ Personal matter and took care of it without police involvement

☐ Minor crime, not serious enough to inform police

☐ Recovered property, no need to report

☐ Did not want or could not take the time to report

☐ Not clear a crime occurred or that harm was intended

☐ Did not want to get in trouble myself

☐ Afraid of reprisal from offender or others

☐ Would be blamed for the crime occurring

☐ Could not identify offender/lack of proof

☐ Could not recover property

☐ Police wouldn't think it important enough

☐ Police would be inefficient/unable to do anything

☐ Offender was a police officer

☐ Loss less than deductible for insurance

☐ Other_____

☐ No specific reason

14) What was the most important reason you did not report?

15) Violent crimes include physical assaults and robberies. (For this portion of the survey, do not consider sexual assault). With this in mind, have you personally been a victim of a violent crime on campus since you first enrolled at IUP?

☐ Yes   ☐ No ⟶ Skip to number 23

16) Was the person who committed this crime known to you?

☐ Yes ⟶ Check response in table below   ☐ No ⟶ Skip to number 17

Relationship	
Roommate	
Friend	
Girlfriend/boyfriend/significant other/spouse	
Residence Life Staff	
Relative	
Professor	
Acquaintance (other than those listed above)	
Other (please explain in space to the right)	

17) Did you report this incident to the university police?

☐ Yes   ☐ No ⟶ Skip to number 21

18) What was the reason for reporting this to the police? (Mark all responses that apply)

☐ To stop/prevent this crime from happening
☐ To prevent future crimes against yourself
☐ To punish the offender   ☐ Felt it was needed to inform the police
☐ To catch the offender   ☐ To prevent future crimes against others
☐ To recover property   ☐ In order to file with insurance
☐ Other_____   ☐ No specific reason

19) Which of these was the most important reason you reported the crime?

20) How satisfied were you with how the university police handled the report?

Dissatisfied	Somewhat dissatisfied	Satisfied	Somewhat satisfied	Very satisfied

— — — — — — — — — **Skip to number 23** — — — — — — — — —

142

21) If you did not report this to the police, what was the reason for not reporting? (Mark all responses that apply)

☐ Personal matter and took care of it without police involvement

☐ Minor crime, not serious enough to inform police

☐ Recovered property, no need to report

☐ Did not want or could not take the time to report

☐ Not clear a crime occurred or that harm was intended

☐ Did not want to get in trouble myself

☐ Afraid of reprisal from offender or others

☐ Would be blamed for the crime occurring

☐ Could not identify offender/lack of proof

☐ Could not recover property

☐ Police wouldn't think it important enough

☐ Police would be inefficient/unable to do anything

☐ Offender was a police officer

☐ Loss less than deductible for insurance

☐ Other_____

☐ No specific reason

22) What was the most important reason you did not report?

Section V: Sexual Victimization Experience

This section indentifies your **reporting of sexual victimization** experiences to the police. Similar to section IV, this section asks about **actual victimization** and reporting experiences, though this section only addresses sexual victimization experiences. The survey items in this section progress from most serious to least serious types of victimization. Mark the most appropriate response with an "x" in the correct box. If you have any questions or concerns during this section, feel free to bring these up at any time during the administration.

_____

23) Unwanted sexual intercourse is the penetration of a vagina by a penis without your consent. With this in mind, other than what already has been reported, have you ever experienced unwanted sexual intercourse on campus since you first enrolled at IUP?

☐ Yes   ☐ No ⟶ Skip to number 33

24) Did you know the offender?

☐ Yes ⟶ Check response in table below   ☐ No ⟶ Skip to number 25

Relationship	
Roommate	
Friend	
Girlfriend/boyfriend/significant other/spouse	
Residence Life Staff	
Relative	
Professor	
Acquaintance (other than those listed above)	
Other (please explain in space to the right)	

25) Did this incident occur while or after you had been drinking alcohol or knowingly taking drugs (legally or illegally)?

☐ Yes   ☐ No

26) Do you have any reason to believe that someone secretly drugged or intoxicated you?

☐ Yes   ☐ No

27) Did you report this incident to the university police?

        ☐ Yes   ☐ No   ⟶   Skip to number 31

28) What was the reason for reporting this to the police? (Mark all responses that apply)

☐ To stop/prevent this crime from happening
☐ To prevent future crimes against yourself
☐ To punish the offender   ☐ Felt it was needed to inform the police
☐ To catch the offender   ☐ To prevent future crimes against others
☐ To recover property   ☐ In order to file with insurance
☐ Other_____   ☐ No specific reason

29) What was the most important reason for reporting?

30) How satisfied were you with how the university police handled the report?

Dissatisfied	Somewhat dissatisfied	Satisfied	Somewhat satisfied	Very satisfied

- - - - - - - - - **Skip to number 33** - - - - - - - - -

31) If you did not report this to the police, what was the reason for not reporting? (Mark all responses that apply)

☐ Personal matter and took care of it without police involvement

☐ Minor crime, not serious enough to inform police

☐ Recovered property, no need to report

☐ Did not want or could not take the time to report

☐ Not clear a crime occurred or that harm was intended

☐ Did not want to get in trouble myself

☐ Afraid of reprisal from offender or others

☐ Would be blamed for the crime occurring

☐ Could not identify offender/lack of proof

☐ Could not recover property

☐ Police wouldn't think it important enough

☐ Police would be inefficient/unable to do anything

☐ Offender was a police officer

☐ Loss less than deductible for insurance

☐ Other_____

☐ No specific reason

32)   What was the most important reason you did not report?

33) Unwanted sexual activity, other than forced intercourse, includes forced oral sex, forced anal sex, and forced penetration with an object other than a penis (this **does not** include penetration of a vagina by a penis) without your consent. With this in mind, other than what already has been reported, have you experienced any kind of unwanted sexual activity on campus since you first enrolled at IUP?

    ☐ Yes   ☐ No ⟶ Skip to number 43

34) Did you know the offender?

   ☐ Yes ⟶ Check response in table below   ☐ No ⟶ Skip to number 35

Relationship	
Roommate	
Friend	
Girlfriend/boyfriend/significant other/spouse	
Residence Life Staff	
Relative	
Professor	
Acquaintance (other than those listed above)	
Other (please explain in space to the right)	

35) Did this incident occur while or after you had been drinking alcohol or knowingly taking drugs (legally or illegally)?

    ☐ Yes   ☐ No

36) Do you have any reason to believe that someone secretly drugged or intoxicated you?

    ☐ Yes   ☐ No

37) Did you report this incident to the university police?

    ☐ Yes   ☐ No ⟶ Skip to number 41

38) What was the reason for reporting this to the police? (Mark all responses that apply)

☐ To stop/prevent this crime from happening

☐ To prevent future crimes against yourself

☐ To punish the offender   ☐ Felt it was needed to inform the police

☐ To catch the offender   ☐ To prevent future crimes against others

☐ To recover property   ☐ In order to file with insurance

☐ Other_____   ☐ No specific reason

39) What was the most important reason for reporting?

40) How satisfied were you with how the university police handled the report?

Dissatisfied	Somewhat dissatisfied	Satisfied	Somewhat satisfied	Very satisfied

— — — — — — — — — — **Skip to number 43** — — — — — — — — — —

149

41) If you did not report this to the police, what was the reason for not reporting? (Mark all responses that apply)

☐ Personal matter and took care of it without police involvement

☐ Minor crime, not serious enough to inform police

☐ Recovered property, no need to report

☐ Did not want or could not take the time to report

☐ Not clear a crime occurred or that harm was intended

☐ Did not want to get in trouble myself

☐ Afraid of reprisal from offender or others

☐ Would be blamed for the crime occurring

☐ Could not identify offender/lack of proof

☐ Could not recover property

☐ Police wouldn't think it important enough

☐ Police would be inefficient/unable to do anything

☐ Offender was a police officer

☐ Loss less than deductible for insurance

☐ Other_____

☐ No specific reason

42) What was the most important reason for not reporting?

43) Unwanted sexual touching includes forced kissing or touching, grabbing, fondling or rubbing of breasts, buttocks, and genital areas without your consent. With this in mind, other than what already has been reported, have you ever experienced any kind of unwanted sexual touching since you first enrolled at IUP?

☐ Yes   ☐ No ⟶ Skip to number 53

44) Did you know the offender?

☐ Yes ⟶ Check response in table below   ☐ No ⟶ Skip to number 45

Relationship	
Roommate	
Friend	
Girlfriend/boyfriend/significant other/spouse	
Residence Life Staff	
Relative	
Professor	
Acquaintance (other than those listed above)	
Other (please explain in space to the right)	

45) Did this incident occur while or after you had been drinking alcohol or knowingly taking drugs (legally or illegally)?

☐ Yes   ☐ No

46) Do you have any reason to believe that someone secretly drugged or intoxicated you?

☐ Yes   ☐ No

47) Did you report this incident to the university police?
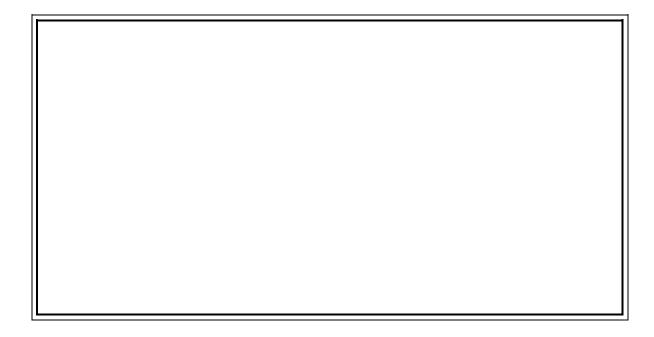
☐ Yes   ☐ No ⟶ Skip to number 51

48) What was the reason for reporting this to the police? (Mark all responses that apply)

☐ To stop/prevent this crime from happening

☐ To prevent future crimes against yourself

☐ To punish the offender   ☐ Felt it was needed to inform the police

☐ To catch the offender   ☐ To prevent future crimes against others

☐ To recover property   ☐ In order to file with insurance

☐ Other_____   ☐ No specific reason

49) What was the most important reason for reporting?

50) How satisfied were you with how the university police handled the report?

Dissatisfied	Somewhat dissatisfied	Satisfied	Somewhat satisfied	Very satisfied

- - - - - - - - - **Skip to number 53** - - - - - - - - - -

51) If you did not report this to the police, what was the reason for not reporting?

(Mark all responses that apply)

☐ Personal matter and took care of it without police involvement

☐ Minor crime, not serious enough to inform police

☐ Recovered property, no need to report

☐ Did not want or could not take the time to report

☐ Not clear a crime occurred or that harm was intended

☐ Did not want to get in trouble myself

☐ Afraid of reprisal from offender or others

☐ Would be blamed for the crime occurring

☐ Could not identify offender/lack of proof

☐ Could not recover property

☐ Police wouldn't think it important enough

☐ Police would be inefficient/unable to do anything

☐ Offender was a police officer

☐ Loss less than deductible for insurance

☐ Other_____

☐ No specific reason

52) What was the most important reason for not reporting?

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Section VI: Personal Information

This section is designed to identify **individual characteristics**. These, however, cannot be used to indentify you personally. Please check the most appropriate response for each survey item.

53) What is your gender?

☐ Male   ☐ Female

54) In what month and year were you born? _____

55) How many credits have you earned at IUP as of August 31, 2009?

_____

56) In which semester and year did you first enroll at IUP? _____

57) What is your race?

☐ African-American

☐ Caucasian

☐ Hispanic/Latino/Latina

☐ Asian

☐ Other _____

58) Where do you reside?

☐ On Campus   ☐ Off-Campus

Appendix B- Independent Variables

Table B1

Independent Variables

Independent Variables	Survey Questions

Perceptions of Crime	2) In terms of crime that exists on this campus, how do you think this campus compares to…
	   a) Similar universities
	   b) Surrounding municipalities (e.g., Indiana Borough/White Township)

Fear of victimization	1) When walking alone on campus, how safe do you feel…
	   a) During the daytime
	   b) During the night
	
	3) On campus, how afraid are you of becoming a victim of …
	   a) property crime (e.g., theft or vandalism of personal property)
	   b) violent crime (e.g., non-sexual assault or robbery)
	   c) unwanted sexual touching including forced kissing or touching, grabbing, fondling or rubbing of breasts, buttocks, and genital areas
	   c) unwanted sexual acts—other than touching—including forced oral sex, forced anal sex, and penetration with an object other than a penis
	   e) unwanted sexual intercourse limited to the penetration of a penis into a vagina

Previous Victimization	7) Property crimes include thefts of or vandalism to personal property. With this in mind, have you personally been a victim of a property crime on campus since you first enrolled at IUP? 15) Violent crimes include physical assaults and robberies. (For this portion of the survey, do not consider sexual assault). With this in mind, have you personally been a victim of a violent crime on campus since you first enrolled at IUP?

	23) Unwanted sexual intercourse in the penetration of a vagina by a penis without your consent. With this in mind, other than what already has been reported, have you ever experienced unwanted sexual intercourse on campus since you first enrolled at IUP?
	33) Unwanted sexual activity, other than forced intercourse, includes forced oral sex, forced anal sex, and forced penetration with an object other than a penis (this does not included penetration of a vagina by a penis) without your consent. With this in mind, other than what already has been reported, have you experienced any kind of unwanted sexual activity on campus since you first enrolled at IUP?
	43) Unwanted sexual touching includes forced kissing or touching, grabbing, fondling, or rubbing of breasts, buttocks, and genital areas without your consent. With this in mind, other than what already has been reported, have you ever experienced any kind of unwanted sexual touching since you first enrolled at IUP?
Gender	53) What is your gender?
Age	54) In what month and year were you born?
Credits Earned	55) How many credits have you earned at IUP as of August 31, 2009?
Race	57) What is your race?
Residence	58) Where do you reside?

Appendix C- Dependent Variables

Table C1
Dependent Variables

Dependent Variables	Survey Questions
Actual Reporting of Victimization	9) Did you report this incident to the university police? (property crime) 17) Did you report this incident to the university police? (violent crime) 27) Did you report this incident to the university police? (unwanted sexual intercourse) 37) Did you report this incident to the university police? (unwanted sexual activity) 47) Did you report this incident to the university police? (unwanted sexual touching)

Likelihood to Report Victimization	4) How likely would you be to report to the university police, if, tomorrow on campus, you were a victim of…
	   a) property crime (e.g., theft or vandalism of personal property)
	   b) violent crime (e.g., non-sexual assault or robbery)
	   c) unwanted sexual touching including forced kissing or touching, grabbing, fondling or rubbing or breasts, buttocks, and genital areas
	   d) unwanted sexual acts-other than touching-including forced oral sex, forced anal sex, and penetration with an object other than a penis
	   e) unwanted sexual intercourse limited to the penetration of a penis into a vagina

Perceptions of Police	5) How satisfied are you with the Indiana University Police regarding….
	   a) overall services provided (all police services that are not related to parking
	   b) preventing crimes
	   c) investigating and solving crimes
	   d) responding to calls for service in a timely manner
	   e) being fair and unbiased
	
	6) What, if anything, would increase your satisfaction with the university police?

12) How satisfied were you with how the university police handled the report? (property crime)

20) How satisfied were you with how the university police handled the report? (violent crime)

30) How satisfied were you with how the university police handled the report? (unwanted sexual intercourse)

40) How satisfied were you with how the university police handled the report? (unwanted sexual activity)

50) How satisfied were you with how the university police handled the report? (unwanted sexual touching)

Appendix D- Informed Consent

You have been invited to participate in a study of student perceptions of crime and police efficacy. You must be **at least 18 years old** to participate in this study. If you were born after to August 30, 1991, you may not participate and you should place an X on the top right corner of this page. At the appropriate time, submit this survey with the other completed surveys.

This survey will be used to identify your demographic information, perceptions of university police, perceptions of crime on campus, perceptions of safety on campus, and your wiliness to report crimes, particularly sexual assault, to the police. It will take approximately 20-25 minutes to complete this survey. The information you provide by completing this survey will assist in better understanding the dynamics of the relationship between students, university police, victimization experiences, and reporting crimes to the police. You will not be compensated for participating in this survey. Consider this information so that you can make a fully informed decision about whether to participate in this study.

Some of the survey questions may be considered sensitive in nature, predominantly those questions dealing with sexual assault victimization, and may cause you to feel emotional distress. Due to this possibility, at the end of the survey, there is contact information for various counseling and mental health providers. Please detach this page when you complete the survey.

You are free to withdraw from the study at anytime without any negative effects. If you do choose to withdraw simply write "WITHDRAW" on the front of your survey, and it will then be destroyed or submit an incomplete survey. If you do chose to participate in the study, your responses will remain confidential and anonymous; do not write any identifying information on the surveys. All responses will be used only in combination with those from other participants and will not be used to identify you individually. The collected information may be used in scholarly publications and/or conferences and presentations, but your identity will remain anonymous. By returning this survey, you are giving researchers consent to use your responses.

You are free to ask any questions concerning the research or the survey at any time. If you have questions following the administration of the survey, feel free to contact the researchers below:

Jen James, Doctoral Candidate   Daniel Lee, Ph.D
Indiana University of Pennsylvania   Department of Criminology
850 Maple Street   Indiana University of Pennsylvania
Indiana, PA 15705   Wilson G-11
Phone: 724-357-2141   Indiana, PA 15705
Email: jjames@iup.edu   Phone: 724-357-5930
                                                 Email: danlee@iup.edu

This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (724-357-2223). You may remove this page to keep this contact information in case you have any further questions.

Appendix E- Counseling Services

Center for Counseling and Psychological Services
Indiana University of Pennsylvania
Pratt Hall, Room 307
201 Pratt Drive
Indiana, PA 15705
724-357-2621

Haven Project
Suites on Maple East
Suite G-59
901 Maple Street
Indiana, PA 15705
Phone: 724-357-4799

Alice Paul House
Indiana, PA 15705
724-349-4444

The Open Door
334 Philadelphia Street
Indiana, PA 15701
724-465-2605

Indiana County Guidance Center
793 Old Route 119 Highway North
Indiana, PA 15701
724-465-5576

Appendix F- Tables

Table F1
Frequencies of Demographic Variables (N=642)

Variable		N	%	Valid %
Gender (*n*=637)				
	Men	280	43.6	44
	Women	357	55.6	56
Age (*n*=555)				
	18	78	12.1	14.1
	19	108	16.8	19.5
	20	134	20.9	24.1
	21	99	15.4	17.8
	22	28	4.4	5.0
	23	42	6.5	7.6
	24	16	2.5	2.9
	> 25	50	7.8	9.0
Race (*n*=623)				
	African-American	44	6.9	7.1
	Caucasian	542	84.4	87.0
	Hispanic/Latino	6	0.9	1.0
	Asian	20	3.1	3.2
	Other	11	1.7	1.8
Residence (*n*=633)				
	On Campus (coded=0)	196	30.5	31.0
	Off Campus (coded=1)	437	68.1	69.0
Credits (*n*=550)				
	0-28 (Freshman)	189	29.4	29.4
	29-56 (Sophomore)	131	20.4	20.4
	57-90 (Junior)	158	24.6	24.6
	91-130 (Senior)	63	9.8	9.8
	>131 (Senior+/Graduate)	9	1.4	1.4

Table F2
Victimization Frequencies

Variable	N	# victims	Missing	%	Valid %
Victim of Property Crime	631	61	11	9.5	9.7
Victim of Violent Crime	630	19	12	3.0	3.0
Victim of Unwanted Sexual Intercourse	632	9	10	1.4	1.4
Victim of Unwanted Sexual Acts	631	3	11	0.5	0.5
Victim of Unwanted Sexual Touching	627	42	15	6.5	6.7

Table F3
Descriptives of Scale Variables (Before Being Scaled)

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Min.	Max.
Perceptions of Crimes					
Compared to Similar Universities	632	2.84	0.695	1	5
Compared to Surrounding Municipality	633	2.95	0.889	1	5
Fear of Victimization					
Safe Walking During Day	639	1.31	0.578	1	4
Safe Walking During Night	632	2.49	1.100	1	5
Fear of Becoming a Victim of Property Crimes	640	2.39	1.094	1	5
Fear of Becoming a Victim of a Violent Crime	639	1.88	1.015	1	5
Fear of Becoming a Victim of Unwanted Sexual Intercourse	639	1.77	1.133	1	5
Fear of Becoming a Victim of Unwanted Sexual Acts	640	1.75	1.095	1	5
Fear of Becoming a Victim of Unwanted Sexual Touching	639	1.79	1.069	1	5
Likelihood to Report					
Likely to Report Property Crime	641	4.13	1.210	1	5
Likely to Report Violent Crime	641	4.31	1.136	1	5
Likely to Report Unwanted Sexual Intercourse	634	4.00	1.400	1	5
Likely to Report Unwanted Sexual Acts	641	3.95	1.394	1	5
Likely to Report Unwanted Sexual Touching	641	3.55	1.495	1	5
Satisfaction with the police					
Overall Services Provided	635	3.14	0.996	1	5
Preventing Crimes	635	3.09	0.981	1	5
Investigating and Solving Crimes	625	2.97	1.013	1	5
Responding to Calls for Service	621	3.24	0.984	1	5
Being Fair and Unbiased	629	2.86	1.149	1	5

Table F4
Descriptives of Scale Variables (After Being Scaled)

Variable	N	α	Mean	Std. Deviation	Min.	Max.
Perceptions of Crimes	635	0.616	2.89	0.677	1	5
Fear of Victimization	642	0.847	1.91	0.799	1	5
Likelihood to Report	641	0.874	3.99	1.086	1	5
General Satisfaction with the Police	636	0.916	3.06	0.887	1	5

Table F5

Demographic Comparison of Sample to Population of Undergraduate Students

		Sample (N=642)		Population (N=12,291)	
		N	%	N	%
Gender					
	Male	280	43.6	5407	44.0
	Female	357	55.6	6884	56.0
Race					
	Caucasian	542	84.4	9627	78.3
	Black	44	6.9	1310	10.7
	Hispanic/Latino	6	0.9	242	2.0
	Asian	20	3.1	132	1.1
	Other	11	1.7	980	7.9
Mean Age		21.12		20.98	
Credits/Class Standing					
	0-28 credits (Freshman)	189	29.4	4715	38.4
	29-56 credits (Sophomore)	131	20.4	2654	21.6
	57-90 credits (Junior)	158	24.6	2598	21.1
	91-130 credits (Senior)	63	9.8	2324	18.9
	131-239 credits	9	1.4	Data not listed	

Table F6
Bivariate Correlation Matrix

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1 Gender	1													
	(637)													
2 Likelihood to Report	.187**	1												
	(637)	(641)												
3 Satisfaction with the police	.135**	.137**	1											
	(632)	(636)	(636)											
4 Perceptions of Crime	.075	.005	-.162**	1										
	(631)	(635)	(633)	(635)										
5 Fear of Victimization	.502**	.134**	-.084*	.111**	1									
	(637)	(641)	(636)	(635)	(642)									
6 Credits	-.017	.057	-.211**	.052	.000	1								
	(549)	(550)	(547)	(546)	(550)	(550)								
7 Age	.109**	.026	-.025	.118**	.086*	-.020	1							
	(637)	(641)	(636)	(635)	(642)	(550)	(642)							
8 Residence	-.040	.025	-.160**	.117**	-.124**	.389**	-.059	1						
	(633)	(633)	(629)	(627)	(633)	(548)	(633)	(633)						
9 Race	-.064	-.129**	.014	-.173**	-.023	.003	-.091*	-.043	1					
	(623)	(623)	(619)	(617)	(623)	(541)	(623)	(622)	(623)					
10 Property Victim	-.019	-.069	-.169**	.090*	.024	.224**	.001	.081*	-.026	1				
	(627)	(631)	(627)	(625)	(631)	(541)	(631)	(624)	(614)	(631)				
11 Violent Victim	-.051	-.087*	-.088*	.022	.045	.089*	-.068	.098*	-.014	.236**	1			
	(628)	(630)	(626)	(624)	(630)	(542)	(630)	(625)	(615)	(627)	(630)			
12 Unwanted Sexual Intercourse Victim	.079*	-.039	-.127**	.029	.139**	.096*	.062	.081*	-.007	.096*	.146**	1		
	(629)	(632)	(628)	(626)	(632)	(543)	(632)	(626)	(616)	(629)	(629)	(632)		
13 Unwanted Sexual Acts Victim	.061	-.008	-.047	-.024	.080*	.071	-.021	.046	-.027	.057	.123**	.380**	1	
	(630)	(631)	(627)	(625)	(631)	(543)	(631)	(627)	(617)	(627)	(627)	(630)	(631)	
14 Unwanted Sexual Touching Victim	.171**	-.054	-.114**	.008	.216**	.114**	.043	.041	-.006	.091*	.064	.129**	.166**	1
	(626)	(627)	(623)	(621)	(627)	(539)	(627)	(623)	(613)	(623)	(623)	(626)	(627)	(627)

**Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); *Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); (N)

Table F7

Multivariate Regression Models with Anticipated Reporting as the Dependent Variable

Independent Variables	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4			Model 5		
	B	Se	β	B	Se	β	B	Se	β	B	Se	β	B	Se	β
Constant	3.966**	0.122		4.046**	0.047		3.649**	0.227		3.276**	0.249		3.013**	0.341	
Residence	0.063	0.094	0.027							0.104	0.109	0.045	0.124	0.109	0.053
Race (non-white)	-0.406**	0.129	-0.126							-0.445**	0.137	-0.141	-0.459**	0.137	-0.144
Age	0.056	0.108	0.021							0.045	0.117	0.017	0.039	0.116	0.014
Victim of Property Crime				-0.127	0.154	-0.034				-0.229	0.162	-0.064	-0.180	0.161	-0.051
Victim of Violent Crime				-0.547*	0.260	-0.085				-0.554*	0.282	-0.089	-0.535*	0.280	-0.086
Victim of Unwanted Sexual Intercourse				-0.422	0.425	-0.044				-0.512	0.532	-0.051	-0.391	0.529	-0.039
Victim of Unwanted Sexual Acts				0.475	0.691	0.030				0.066	0.915	0.004	-0.027	0.908	-0.002
Victim of Unwanted Sexual Touching				-0.222	0.178	-0.051				-0.403*	0.198	-0.091	-0.329	0.198	-0.074
Gender (Female)							0.448**	0.107	0.207	0.432**	0.109	0.199	0.351**	0.111	0.162
Credits Earned							0.058	0.042	0.059	0.071	0.047	0.071	0.090*	0.047	0.090
Perceptions of Crime							-0.031	0.066	-0.020	-0.069	0.069	-0.044	-0.033	0.069	-0.021
Fear of Victimization							0.027	0.068	0.020	0.055	0.070	0.040	0.088	0.070	0.064
Police Satisfaction													0.173**	0.057	0.140
R^2	0.018			0.016			0.050			0.096			0.112		
F	3.738**			1.976			7.104**			4.461**			4.919**		
Df	3			5			4			12			13		

Notes: $p<0.05$*, $p<0.01$**

Table F8

Multivariate Regression Models with Satisfaction with the Police as the Dependent Variable

Independent Variables	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	B	Se	β	B	Se	β	B	Se	β	B	Se	β
Constant	3.328**	0.100		3.133**	0.038		4.178**	0.177		4.138**	0.194	
Residence	-0.304**	0.077	-0.158							-0.140	0.085	-0.074
Race (non-white)	0.009	0.106	0.003							-0.015	0.108	-0.006
Age	-0.067	0.089	-0.030							0.013	0.091	0.006
Victim of Property Crime				-0.395**	0.124	-0.131				-0.275*	0.126	-0.096
Victim of Violent Crime				-0.219	0.216	-0.042				-0.111	0.220	-0.022
Victim of Unwanted Sexual Intercourse				-0.842*	0.340	-0.108				-0.678	0.414	-0.083
Victim of Unwanted Sexual Acts				0.300	0.553	0.024				0.513	0.713	0.036
Victim of Unwanted Sexual Touching				-0.300*	0.143	-0.085				-0.400*	0.155	-0.112
Gender (Female)							0.423**	0.083	0.241	0.441**	0.085	0.252
Credits Earned							-0.157**	0.032	-0.196	-0.102**	0.037	-0.126
Perceptions of Crime							-0.210**	0.051	-0.167	-0.198**	0.054	-0.158
Fear of Victimization							-0.202**	0.053	-0.182	-0.190**	0.055	-0.172
R^2	0.026			0.047			0.119			0.158		
F	5.361**			6.055**			18.186**			7.928**		
Df	3			5			4			12		

Notes: $p<0.05$*, $p<0.01$**

Table F9
Bivariate Logistic Regression Models 1, 2, & 3 with Actual Victimization Reporting as the Dependent Variable

Independent Variables	Model 1 Race			Model 2 Residence			Model 3 Age		
	B (Se)	Wald	(Exp) B	B (Se)	Wald	(Exp) B	B (Se)	Wald	(Exp) B
Race	-0.229 (0.824)	0.077	0.795						
Residence				0.109 (0.623)	0.030	1.115			
Age							-0.272 (0.587)	0.214	0.762
Constant	-1.275** (0.259)	24.144	0.279	-1.386* (0.559)	6.150	0.250	-1.099* (0.516)	4.526	0.333
-2 Log-Likelihood	101.757			101.807			102.108		
Cox & Snell R^2	0.001			0.000			0.002		
Nagelkerke R^2	0.001			0.000			0.003		
Model Chi Square	0.080			0.031			0.209		

Notes: $p<0.10^{\ddagger}$; $p<0.05^*$; $p<0.01^{**}$

Table F10

Bivariate Logistic Regression Models 4, 5, & 6 with Actual Victimization Reporting as the Dependent Variable

Independent Variables	Model 4 Gender			Model 5 Fear of Victimization			Model 6 Perceptions of Crime		
	B (Se)	Wald	(Exp) B	B (Se)	Wald	(Exp) B	B (Se)	Wald	(Exp) B
Gender	-0.150 (0.508)	0.088	0.860						
Fear of Victimization				-0.505 (0.338)	2.239	0.603			
Perceptions of Crime							0.314 (0.372)	0.714	1.369
Constant	-1.216** (0.403)	9.131	0.296	-0.246 (0.726)	0.115	0.782	-2.256^{+} (1.158)	3.795	0.105
-2 Log-Likelihood	102.230			99.854			101.586		
Cox & Snell R^2	0.001			0.025			0.007		
Nagelkerke R^2	0.001			0.038			0.011		
Model Chi Square	0.087			2.463			0.731		

Notes: $p<0.10^{+}$; $p<0.05$*; $p<0.01$**

171

Table F11

Bivariate Logistic Regression Models 7 & 8 with Actual Victimization Reporting as the Dependent Variable

Independent Variables	Model 7 Satisfaction with the police			Model 8 Credits Earned		
	B (Se)	Wald	(Exp) B	B (Se)	Wald	(Exp) B
Satisfaction with the police	-0.112 (0.285)	0.154	0.894			
Credits Earned				0.502[‡] (0.289)	3.030	1.653
Constant	-1.019 (0.782)	1.696	0.361	-2.861** (0.930)	9.475	0.057
-2 Log-Likelihood	102.163			81.829		
Cox & Snell R^2	0.002			0.037		
Nagelkerke R^2	0.002			0.059		
Model Chi Square	0.154			3.239		

Notes: $p<0.10$[‡]; $p<0.05$*; $p<0.01$**

172

Table F12

Multivaritate Logistic Regression Models with Actual Victimization Reporting as the Dependent Variable

Independent Variables	Model 1 Credits, Age & Residence			Model 2 Credits, Age & Satisfaction with the police			Model 3 Full Model			Model 4 Fear of Victimization & Satisfaction with the police		
	B (Se)	Wald	(Exp) B	B (Se)	Wald	(Exp) B	B (Se)	Wald	(Exp) B	B (Se)	Wald	(Exp) B
Race							-0.646 (1.024)	0.398	0.524			
Residence	0.251 (0.733)	0.117	1.285				-0.420 (0.839)	0.250	0.657			
Age	-0.830 (0.654)	1.610	0.436	-0.799 (0.649)	1.514	0.450	-0.939 (0.710)	1.746	0.391			
Satisfaction with the police				-0.407 (0.334)	1.489	0.665	-0.757[‡] (0.431)	3.085	0.469	-0.143 (0.279)	0.263	0.867
Fear of Victimization							-0.932[‡] (0.550)	2.875	0.394	-0.517 (0.338)	2.335	0.596
Perceptions of Crime							0.307 (0.426)	0.518	1.359			
Gender							1.057 (0.820)	1.661	2.878			
Credits Earned	0.484[‡] (0.291)	2.766	1.622	0.490[‡] (0.294)	2.788	1.632	0.547[‡] (0.320)	2.919	1.728			
Constant	-2.348* (1.107)	4.503	0.096	-1.182 (1.330)	0.790	0.307	0.428 (2.516)	0.029	1.534	0.156 (1.061)	0.022	1.169
-2 Log-Likelihood	79.963			78.793			74.259			99.590		
Cox & Snell R^2	0.054			0.071			0.116			0.027		
Nagelkerke R^2	0.085			0.113			0.183			0.042		
Model Chi Square	4.656			6.276			10.361			2.727		

Notes: $p<0.10$[‡]; $p<0.05$*; $p<0.01$**

Table F13

Reporting and Satisfaction with How the Police Handled the Report

Satisfaction with How Police Handled Report	Women Reporting (N=13)	Men Reporting (N=8)
Satisfied	46.2% (N=6)	12.5% (N=1)
	Expected: 43.1% (N=5.6)	Expected: 12.5% (N=1)
Dissatisfied	53.8% (N=7)	87.5% (N=7)
	Expected: 57.0% (N=7.4)	Expected: 87.5% (N=7)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.808	n/a[a]

Notes: $p<0.10$[‡]; $p<0.05$*; $p<0.01$**
[a]Due to the distribution of cases, a Chi-Square statistic could not be computed.

Table F14
Victimization Reporting and Likelihood to Report

Likelihood to Report	Women Reporting (N=13)	Men Reporting (N=8)
Likely to Report	100% (N=13) Expected: 96.2% (N=12.5)	62.5% (N=5) Expected: 68.8% (N=5.5)
Unlikely to Report	0% (N=0) Expected: 3.8% (N=0.5)	37.5% (N=3) Expected: 31.3% (N=2.5)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.612	0.194

Notes: $p<0.10$[+]; $p<0.05$*; $p<0.01$**

Table F15
Victimization Reporting and Satisfaction with the Police

Satisfied with Police	Women Reporting (N=13)	Men Reporting (N=8)
Satisfied with the Police	88.9% (N=8) Expected: 81.1% (N=7.3)	0% (N=0) Expected: 30% (N=1.5)
Dissatisfied with the Police	11.1% (N=1) Expected: 18.9% (N=1.7)	100% (N=5) Expected: 70% (N=3.5)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.468	2.795[+]

Notes: $p<0.10$[+]; $p<0.05$*; $p<0.01$**

MOST IMPORTANT REASON FOR REPORTING VICTIMIZATION

PROPERTY CRIME

Recover property

#177: "Recover it."

#263: "I just wanted my phone back—no luck though."

#219: "Recover property."

#111: "To recover my property."

#475: "To get my stuff back and catch who did it."

#275: "I wanted my property back."

#95: "Recover the property."

#300: "To recover property."

#72: "To recover property."

#441: Recover the property."

Other

#170: "All marked." (to prevent future crimes against self, felt it was needed to inform

police and to prevent future crimes against others)

#242: "Car totaled by vandals"

#332: "To prevent future crimes"

VIOLENT CRIME

Prevent

#80: "To prevent future crimes against yourself."

#172: "Prevent such crimes from happening again."

Punish

#264: "To punish offender."

Others Were/Are Involved

#375: "So no one could get hurt."

#152: "I was not the only one that was assaulted."

Miscellaneous

#241: "It was horrifying having people break into my house. It's something I think about everyday numerous times. I needed peace of mind. Plus the only reason the people ran out of our house is because someone started calling the cops." (Most probably a borough incident and not on campus).

UNWANTED SEXUAL INTERCOURSE

No responses given

UNWANTED SEXUAL ACTS

No responses given

UNWANTED SEXUAL TOUCHING

#409: "To make sure the guy did not do it again to me or anyone else."

#152: "I wasn't the only one."

OTHER REASON GIVEN FOR NOT REPORTING THE VICTIMIZATION

PROPERTY CRIME

#241: "Took it to the borough police."

#538: "I did not report it to IUP Police—Indiana Borough instead."

#375: "Can't count on them to solve it."

#323: "Afraid of person who did it"

VIOLENT CRIME

#288: "Teammate."

UNWANTED SEXUAL INTERCOURSE

#483: "I don't trust the police."

#130: "Scared."

#471: "Fear."

UNWANTED SEXUAL ACTS

#288: checked, no response

#130: "He was my friend."

UNWANTED SEXUAL TOUCHING

#483: checked, no response

MOST IMPORTANT REASONS FOR NOT REPORTING THE VICTIMIZATION

PROPERTY CRIME

Not Important Enough

#247: "Wasn't a big deal."

#399: "It was just a pair of sunglasses."

#409: "It wasn't anything big or anything to really worry about."

#329: "Not specific—didn't care enough"

#430: "It was not a big deal, plus the police wouldn't have helped."

#606: "It was a minor crime (racial comments written on my door) that only occurred once so I did not feel it was serious enough to report."

#473: "The loss was less the deductible."

#330: "Police wouldn't think it was important enough."

Not Enough Proof/Police Wouldn't be Able to do Anything

#122: "Only stole some cds/dvds (minor) and had no clue who did it so wouldn't have produced any lead."

#77: "Couldn't prove."

#494: "Lack of proof/did not want to incriminate myself."

#334: "No proof."

#324: "Wouldn't do anything about it."

#255: "Police would have been unable to help."

Personally Dealt with it Without Police Assistance

#414: "Because I was able to deal with it myself and outside help was not needed."

#338: "Personal concern, didn't want other charges coming back on me."

Would Get in Trouble Myself if Reported

#369: "Didn't believe it would have positive results for me."

#368: "I had a party and was unsure if I could get in trouble for having it. And something was stolen during the party. So I decided not to report."

Miscellaneous

#277: "I did not want to deal with being involved with my ex-boyfriend"

#459: "I honestly was tired of him stealing my things. Plus it was the end of the year. He moved out before me, and took all the items (xbox 360 and games)."

#458: "13Q"

#323: "I later had to obtain a PFA against the person who damaged my property."

#354: "Fuck the police"

#518: "Never reported."

#297: "The police do not like me!"

#375: "The fact that I had something stolen."

VIOLENT CRIME

Not A Big Deal/Dealt with without Need of Police

#475: "We are friends and we had a stupid argument, he hit me and I told him off the next day we squashed it and were fine."

#459: "The student was drunk and swung at me. I put him against the wall and talked, non-violently, and he understood I was 'saving' him from the CA's."

#97: "Goods (sic) friends that fought b/c (sic) we were drunk."

#187: "Everything ended before it could begin."

#601: "The incident occurred in passing and I would not be able to identify the offender."

Miscellaneous

#494: "Reprisal from others.

#277: "I didn't want any contact with my ex-boyfriend."

#186: "Drinking."

#434: "Time, effort & trouble I may get into."

#255: "A persons (sic) life may have been sutidered (sic)."

UNWANTED SEXUAL INTERCOURSE

Unsure of Crime/Unsure of What to Do

#483: "Not sure if it was a crime."

#130: "I (sic) took me awhile to realize just what had happened to me. I was scared and I was unsure of what to do.

Fear

#490: "I was afraid no one would believe me."

#471: "Fear."

Miscellaneous

#288: "Minor."

#434: "Same for the other incident: time, effort, trouble, and more."

#380: "It was my boyfriend."

UNWANTED SEXUAL ACTS

#130: He was my friend (at the time) and I needed his friendship, or so I thought."

UNWANTED SEXUAL TOUCHING

Not a Big Deal/No Need for Police Involvement

#247: "Wasn't really important."

#125: "Took care of it myself."

#127: "I handled the situation with the help of a few male friends, police intervention was unnecessary."

#95: "Personally handled it."

#204: "Minor crime."

#602: "Not a big deal."

#550: "One of my friends handle (sic) the situation."

#593: "The matter was handled on my own."

#118: "It didn't bother me enough to take it seriously."

#249: "Minor crime."

#603: "My male friends beat the crap out of him. So I figured we were even."

#526: "Not serious enough."

#583: "Not big matter."

#400: "It was a weird situation where I should've known better→ so I took care of it. I really didn't know the guy even though I knew him."

Would Have Been Blamed

#307: "It was probably my fault since I had been drinking and/or would be assumed my fault."

#483: "Police would blame me for being at drinking parties."

 #494: "Did not want to get myself in trouble for drinking illegally."

Miscellaneous

#319: "Embarsing (sic)."

#130: "It happens so often…especially where I worked (bar)."

#325: "I was afraid."

RESPONSES FOR INCREASING SATISFACTION WITH THE POLICE

Nothing

#73: Nothing

#269: "Nothing."

#315: Nothing

#321: I think they do a great job and nothing can be done.

#76: "Nothing really. They seem to have very little power and any serious crime I would report to the state or locals not campus police."

#575: "Nothing—they have my respect.

#77: "I think the university police are great and they are very helpful however, I read about crimes in the Penn and I wish they could be solved."

#83: "Nothing-never had a problem."

#88: Nothing

#29: "No"

#103: "I believe that the university is a safe atmosphere for students."

#352: "I think they do a great job."

#340: "Nothing really."

#333: "Overall I'm satisfied."

#564: "Nothing would increase my satisfaction with the university police."

#279: "Nothing."

#505: "Nothing I can think of."

#504: "Nothing at this time."

#496: "I didn't experience anything negative yet, so I am satisfied."

#492: "Nothing."

#487: "Not sure."

#538: "Nothing would."

#157: "I have not needed the assistance of the university police, therefore, I am neither satisfied or dissatisfied."

#183: "Nothing."

#238: "I'm satisfied. Never had a problem."

#234: "Nothing."

#232: "There is no way to increase my satisfaction with the university police."

#11: "Nothing, right now."

#44: "No further expectations, they are doing a fine job."

#217: "They are always driving around which makes me feel safe to know they are there (sic) patrolling."

#384: "Nothing"

#452: "Nothing."

#626: "Nothing; I have had no problems."

Parking

#60: "Parking leeway."

#56: "They stop caring about parking and more about campus safety."

#357: "Resolving the parking issue."

#289: "Parking."

#160: "I never see anything but related to parking."

#210: "If parking is taken into account, then that whole system understanding that there is not adaquate (sic) parking on campus, and maybe showing more mercy. Especially in the morning hours."

#126: "Maybe having the police be more aware of other problems and less about parking. I think they're bigger issues."

#474: "If they would stop giving so many parking tickets."

More visibility/patrols/police

#96: "More presence patrols."

#268: "More patrol at night."

#623: "That there were more around."

#620: "Actually <u>seeing</u> them once or twice a semester…"

#631: "More officers on patrol at night."

#445: "More patrols."

#465: "More police."

#457: "More police knowledge of what they are doing; specifically positive things."

#378: "Staff numbers. 14000 students in a small area is quite much for 5-10 officers per shift."

#323: "More police in campus during the day (non-parking) that are actually walking around as opposed to driving."

#68: "See them around campus more often, especially at night"

#86: "Seeing them more around campus."

#78: "More police on campus at night."

#366: "More of a presence of cops walking around campus."

#329: "Having more police patrol at night. Have police out walking the campus at night, not just driving. I feel very uneasy knowing I am alone—walking police would make me feel much safer."

#440: "I usually see a fair amount of police driving around campus on a regular basis, but at different times it would be nice just to see them so you know you are safe (ex. If you have to walk home late, in the dark, after a night class by yourself).

#560: "To see more police walking or biking around campus"

#557: "More night patrols."

#543: "The only time I have seen them so far has been when responding to calls for service. Shouldn't they be patrolling?"

#601: "To be honest, I don't feel their presence much on campus. I rarely see or interact with them."

#604: "More visible."

#507: "If I saw them more on campus, like on bikes or something at night rather them on patrol cars on the main streets."

#508: "Police should drive around the campus at more often."

#499: "I would like them to be more present around campus."

#524: "Due to schedules, I walk on campus after dark. I would be more satisfied if they patrolled (more often)."

#520: "They patrole (sic) more, I however see them. People smoke & skateboard on campus."

#574: "Seeing them around campus more (visability) (sic). Knowing the procedures of what to do/how to report crimes in advance."

#531: "More of them at nighttime."

#527: "More police even during the day."

#528: "I just transferred here so I'm not that familiar with the police, but if they walked around more in the dorms it'd help."

#154: "Having the police conduct more patrols throughout all times of the day."

#202: "More patrol."

#135: "To see more walking campus."

#35: "More patrolling."

#107: "If there was a way for police to physically walk around and patrol walkways (ex: the oak grove) instead of just patrolling the streets."

#125: "Better police visibility at night."

#134: "Having them patrol campus more."

#89: "Better training, more bicycle and foot patrols."

#331: "I've never seen police walking around on campus. All I've seen is them driving by. The only police people I've seen walking is the parking people."

#284: "See them out more during night time."

#522: "It would be nice if at night there were a few security guards patrolling campus. As a young girl it is uneasy walking alone in the dark when there are few people around."

#523: "If they were more attentive and around campus more often."

#64: "University police is never around. You hear and see more of township & state police."

#258: "You never really see them until they're trying to catch you tripping on the sidewalk."

#147: "More university police officers."

#15: "I would just like more lights around campus, late at night…I get scared!"

#28: "Perform more spot-checking on the road for drunk driving."

#447: "I would like more emergency stands to be put up closer together."

Better Attitude/Less Bias

#130: "If they weren't so judgemental (sic) of students and saw us as adults with adult issues."

#302: "If they were not assholes."

#95: "Better Investigative services. Don't be 'better' than students—acting cocky—don't look down on students. Be more reasonable/understanding."

#101: "Stop being so bias and mean."

#98: "Not being assholes right from the start."

#431: "If they were fair and unbiased."

#429: "Stop stereotyping."

#367: "To (sic) much harassment by police officers directed towards college students."

#369: "More friendly attitude when dealing with non-violent offenders."

#354: "If they weren't racist."

#328: "They try to intimidate I think more than actually helping."

#347: "Decreasing unreasonable questioning for 'shady' behavior, e.g., wearing all black at night, accidental tripping, etc."

#434: "If they weren't rude, unfair jerks! I hate IUP police! ☺ (sic)"

#551: "Being nice more often. Don't pick on people only when necessary. Don't use their alarm for everything (like getting through red lights)."

#598: "Stop being insensitive pricks. Use their discretion instead of enforcing every minor law."

#596: "For them to be more reasonable and respectful toward college students."

#593: "Cooperation when pressed for information."

#297: "I feel they are biased. I wish they woult (sic) be more perfessional (sic) when dealing with student. On 2 occasions when I got into trouble the police made fun of me and treated me inapropriatly (sic). I filed a complaint for verbal abuse at the police station, the offices and office workers did not take me serious and just laughed about the

situation. When I say the cops are biased I am talking about an expierence (sic) I once had. They took one look at me and thought I was a criminal."

#550:" "If they treated <u>all</u> people the same and not different because of their skin color."

#484: "If they would be nicer! They are rude to you about everything and they think they are so much better than you."

#176: "I have had very little experience with IUP Police, but I think that some of them are not respectful of students all the time."

#521: "Stop discriminating."

#518: "Them not being pricks."

#513: "If they would remove the stick from their asses!"

#514: "Maybe they should try to get know people more?"

#566: "Less biased opinions about the people on campus."

#568: "Change of attitude."

#171: "Their attitude when entering situations. I understand they have long shifts but having inappropriate attitudes at all times aren't needed to relieve situations."

#136: "Treat all races the same way."

#203: "General fairness with the facts of the case not making an opinion of the spot."

#319: "As an office worker I have heard bias and rude comments from UP and I think they should have to be monitored randomly and have people fill out surveys more often to keep them in check."

#203: "General fairness with the facts of the case not making an opinion of the spot."

#535: "If they would not follow someone because they have a fancy car or look suspicious based on appearance."

#152: "Quit being power hungry!"

#213: "Less student stereotyping."

#122: "To listen more when an individual is talking to them rather than already forming an opinion of the circumstances prior to discussion with the person."

#392: "To be more fair and not unbiased."

#418: "If they didn't suck a proverbial nutsack and get in people's faces for jaywalking at 3 am. Yes officer im (sic) of age to drink and I'll cross the road wherever I please."

#1: "Less Bias…"

#428: "Don't ask the ppl (sic) I'm with if everything is ok because I'm walking with a white woman, and responding to things like violence a bit faster."

#372: "To stop bothering students who are walking at night."

#311: "Consistency in dealing with similar crimes and situations."

Concern about things other than Underage Drinking

#433: "If they weren't so crazy about partying. If they were around at night."

#332: "Provided more service in keeping people safe rather than only trying to get people arrested or in trouble."

#330: "I feel their only concern is to bust underage drinking or intoxication of a legal adult, even while they are just minding their own self and walking, no harm is being done and the safe procaution (sic) is taken, just walking home."

#327: "If they cared more about serious matter & not all the small stuff."

#594: "There is too much time spent on petty things. Busting people for alcohol and drugs seems to be where the majority of arrests come. Many cops do not let people know

they have the right to say no to cops. They use fear and minipulate (sic) their victims into thinking they have no choices and must do whatever they wish. It is wrong!!"

#295: "Understand that this is a college campus. Underage drinking and use of various drugs is going to happen. Cite people who pose a threat to others, not people enjoying their time responsibly without causing trouble or a scene."

#494: "Worry about issues like cars on fire and rape not about busting up parties."

#483: "Stop getting kids in trouble for partying & focus on bigger, harmful crimes. Don't be unnesacarily (sic) mean."

#536: "Less shit about drinking."

#179: "If they did something besides look for drunk underage students. I see police on campus more concerned about cigarettes and drunk people then with violent/reckless people."

#177: "Less worried about the drinking and more worried about safety."

#172: "Unbiased and worry about crimes other than just underage drinking and marijuana. Other crime rates would go down if attention was placed on more important and serious crimes."

#205: "If they were more concerned with protecting and serving and less concerned with getting people in trouble for petty shit."

#245: "For them not to focus so much on alcohol violations and more on serious offences."

#191: "Stop concentrating on underages."

#200: "Focus more on the problems that could hurt people than stupid little things."

#142: "If they would focus more on violent robbery and rapes rather than a bunch of kids drinking."

#215: "Leave us alone when we are partying and not bothering nobody."

#127: "Stop focusing so much energy on arresting drunk people. There are people on this campus that possess unregistered firearms and sell drugs, they are the real problem."

#13: "To know that they were more concerned about safety rather than trying to get students into trouble."

#533: "To look to help the students, not just find ways to get them into trouble."

#191: "Stop concentrating on underages."

#473: "I think they need to focus more time on property/violent crime and less time on catching public intox/underage crinking!"

#375: "Maybe if they looked for students who are really in need of help and protecting them and serving them instead of giving underage drinking violations to as many people possible.

#396: "Work more on crime rather than drunk students."

#208: "Focus on drug problems."

#187: "If they were to enforce more safety around campus. Something happens everyday, and where I live, I constantly hear sirens going off."

#197: "If they realized how much hazing and drug use goes on around frats, sororities."

Quicker Response Time

#36: "Quicker responding to calls."

#261: "Coming faster"

#373: "Responding to calls faster—I always have to wait. Also, taking res. hall marijuana calls seriously. Also, abandoning the radio system for CAs."

#290: "To get there quicker."

#104: "If when one of the blue emergency lights are hit if they'd actually respond to them."

#117: "When asked to escort people around campus drive sooner rather than making a person wait."

Unsure/Don't Know/Have No Interaction

#133: "I don't really know much about how they work."

#317: "Do not live on campus or have any experience with them so I do not know."

#198: "I don't live on campus therefore I can't say how good or bad they are."

#260: "Haven't dealt with the campus police for anything other than locking myself out of housing."

#446: "Don't know."

#610: "I haven't been here long enough to know."

#407: "None, I haven't had to deal with them so cant (sic) really say"

#106: "I don't think I've been here long enough to really know."

#27: "I haven't had any interaction with the university police in order to accurately judge."

#19: "I don't know anything about them, so I have no idea."

#138:"I don't know very much about the police here."

Enforce ban on smoking

#627: "Inforce (sic) the no smoking rule."

#267: "Enforce no smoking."

Better Investigation/Solving Crimes

#196: "If they investigated on crimes more."

#602: "Better search of noise violations."

#23:" Investigate more."

#275: "Spending more time trying to find a theft suspect and keeping the theft victim more alert of the situation."

#475: "Do there (sic) job and solve crimes follow through."

Pay More Attention to Students/Concern About Students

#116: "They should care more about the students since that's who they're here fore."

#255: "If protect and serve were more than a catch phrase."

#132: "Paying more attention to what students have to say, getting there faster."

#544: "The individual cop actually caring about the victim and suspect instead of thinking 'it's just another crime at IUP."

#174: "Obeying laws that protect our rights."

#430: "They would let skateboarding be legal. Listen to the students."

#7: "For the police to interact with the students."

Better Crime Prevention

#500: "Give us more lessons about how to protect ourselves especially girls."

#123: "'Preventing crimes' is difficult to attribute to any cause. While the likelihood of some crimes decreases w/ a visible police presence, it would be impossible to gauge what crime do not happen as a result. Also: disarm."

#371: "Increasing and/or modifying crime prevention strategies."

#45: "Maps with locations/points were (sic) crimes took place."

Miscellaneous

#642: "The dismantling of the department and reimbursement for unfair fines."

#607: "Not arresting me for simple possesion (sic)."

#12: "If they didn't drive around 24/7 at night by dorms."

#241: "I was involved in a case where I was a victim. The borough handled the case and then the accused went to the campus police and pressed charges (against me). I feel campus police should have investigated better. The borough wouldn't even take the people who victimized me because they knew the whole situation and it was ridiculous. I then faced trouble with campus police. I wouldn't rely on them to investigate any kind of situation."

#195: "They have nothing to offer, waste of tax payer's money. Borough runs everything."

#32: "Experience."

#93: "They're not well respected."

#90: "When I first came to IUP, I was told that the University Police would provide transportation at night. I have called numerous times and every time I have been told I

would have to wait for a shuttle, some of which stop running by 10 pm. As a result, I avoid being out at night to avoid putting myself at risk. I should not have to do this."

#374: "Higher (sic) different officers."

Appendix H- Support for Hypotheses

Table H1
Support for Hypotheses

	Description	Support
Hypothesis 1	Perceptions of and satisfaction with the police will influence the decision to report victimization	Supported for anticipated reporting using OLS regression Partial support using chi-square analysis and limited logistic regression
Hypothesis 2	Fear of victimization, experience with victimization, and perceptions of crime influence perceptions of the police	Partial support for experience with victimization influencing perceptions (only some types of victimization are influential); Yes for fear of victimization and perceptions of crime
Hypothesis 3	Among victims, the reporting of sexual assault will be lower than the reporting of other types of victimization	Yes
Hypothesis 4	Gender influences reporting behaviors	Yes
Hypothesis 5	Gender influence perceptions of the police	Yes