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The Impact of Crime-Related Television Programs on Students' Perceptions of the Criminal Justice System

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THE IMPACT OF CRIME-RELATED TELEVISION PROGRAMS ON STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM

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Title: The Impact of Crime-Related Television Programs on Students' Perceptions of the Criminal Justice System

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This study expanded on the current mass media research known as cultivation theory. Specifically, the research examined the impact of crime-related television viewing on a number of criminal justice issues including attitudes/perceptions of police, perceptions of forensic evidence, perceptions of clearance rates, perceptions of crime, and fear of victimization. Controlling for previously used cultivation variables such as age, sex, race, personal experience, town size, co-habitants, and education, the study tried to ascertain the impact of crime-related television on the aforementioned criminal justice issues. Furthermore, the study asked what role criminal justice classes may have had in determining student perceptions as well.

In brief, the study found that crime-related television viewing was statistically significant in influencing perceptions of forensic evidence and fear of crime. Moreover, general television watching (of any type of program content) was statistically significant in influencing perceptions of clearance rates. No television watching variables were determined to be statistically significant in affecting attitudes/perceptions of police or other criminal justice workers or perception of crime rates.

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CHAPTER I - INTRODUCTION

Mass media plays a large role in contemporary society. Presidential elections are called immediately, breaking news stories are continuous, and information is available as soon as it happens. Furthermore, mass media, namely television, shape our consciousness. As Berger (2007) claimed, "The media entertain us, socialize us, inform us, educate us, sell things to us (and sell us, as audiences, to advertisers), and indoctrinate us – among other things" (p. 17). Furthermore, "Television is a centralized system of story-telling. Its drama, commercials, news, and other programs bring a relatively coherent system of images and messages into every home" (Gerbner, 1998, p. 177). Overall, television is an American staple.

As the evolution from print to radio to television commenced, crime dramas remained popular in American culture. Among the many programs on television, crime stories seem to dominate both local and national newscasts, television dramas, and documentaries. Ever since the invention of the television, crime dramas were present. The same holds true in today's cable ratings as shows like *CSI*, *Law & Order*, and *Criminal Minds* dominate the ratings. As Brown (2003) stated:

> TV dramas present us with the worlds of the experts as fictions. To say that all of this is in one sense "nothing new" is to remind ourselves that the ever-buoyant demand for the crime story has always centered around the fusion of our lived and imaginary universes, our doings and our fantasies, weaving together the themes of enigma and revelation, fear and loathing, justice and injustice, the morally culpable and the moral resolution, for our voyeuristic longing. (p. 40)

Thus, the presentation of crime dramas is nothing new. However, newer forms of said dramas have changed. Where once detective stories dominated, now forensic science dramas dominate. Earlier shows asked "who did it?", while newer shows not only ask "who?" but "how did they do it?". In any event, these types of crime-related programs have ushered in a new cultural phenomenon that impacts the criminal justice system and criminal justice education (Fradella, Owen, & Burke, 2007; Thomas, 2006). This new impact has been commonly referred to as the CSI effect.

Furthermore, the enrollment of forensic science majors has increased over the past 10 years due in part to the popularity of such shows. Fradella, Owen, and Burke (2007) succinctly described this impact when they stated:

> The profound impact of the CSI effect on the justice system necessarily impacts criminal justice education as well. This is evident when prospective criminal justice students ask, 'What do I have to do to be like the people on CSI?' (one author's answer is 'major in theater – those people don't exist in the real world!'). (p. 262)

Anecdotally speaking, potential students are attracted to the criminal justice system through a variety of reasons including, but not limited to, popular culture's portrayal of its agents and job duties. However, the fast-paced sitcoms that mix job duties may have a detrimental effect on audiences' perceptions of the criminal justice system as well as other effects such as fear of victimization and inaccurate beliefs about the prevalence of crime and evidence.

Generally speaking, the CSI effect refers to jurors clamoring for more and more scientifically gathered evidence during court proceedings as well as the belief that jurors

will acquit guilty persons because the state did not collect sufficient enough evidence to prove guilt beyond a reasonable doubt (Ramsland, 2006). Although previous research indicates that jurors are not doing this, there seems to be some ongoing debate between practitioners and researchers about this aforementioned type of effect and different types of the CSI effect (Cole & Dioso-Villa, 2007; Goodman-Delahunty & Tait, 2006). For instance, Robbers (2008) surveyed a number of trial judges, prosecutors, and defense attorneys. In her study, she revealed that 79% of those surveyed believe that juries made decisions based on crime-related television portrayals. In any event, the vast majority (over 85%) of these professionals admitted that these types of shows have affected their daily job duties and changed their job in some fashion.

This study took the previous literature a step further by incorporating media studies and focusing on the potential impact of crime-related television programs on students' perceptions of police, forensic evidence, clearance rates, crime rates, and risk of personal victimization. If modern television programs are influencing students' perceptions about their potential jobs or colleagues, it is crucial to understand how and to what degree.

Chapter II presents the popularity and evolution of crime dramas. Their origins can be traced back long before the invention of electricity as crime stories were used during theater, folktales, and myths (Surette, 2007). As soon as printed materials became widespread and marketed to everyone, crime stories were produced and marketed via the penny press and dime novels, which often featured detective heroes. It is no surprise that when radio was invented, crime stories/dramas were prominently heard on radio dials everywhere (Stark, 1987). Radio programs often dramatized real-life events. Soon

thereafter, movies and television monopolized the crime drama market and neither has quit producing plots that feature criminal activities. Currently, there are entire channels dedicated to the crime shows and/or the criminal justice system (i.e. Crime and Investigation and truTV). Perhaps Roush (2008) put it best when he stated, "If being addicted to crime dramas were itself a crime, the entire country would be in lockup" (p. 31).

Additionally, Chapter II explains the number of potential CSI effects that there may be in society/culture. However, instead of focusing all efforts on one show, this dissertation looked at the entire genre of crime-related television programming, both fictional and non-fictional. Arguments for and against such a phenomenon are explored by using previous research that tried to debunk many of the mythical and heroic actions that are so routinely portrayed on such programming. Previous research that relates to such an effect is explored and presented.

Finally, Chapter II introduces cultivation theory. Simply put, Gerber (1998) believed that the continuous and repetitive images on television "cultivate" a particular perception about the real world. Heavy watchers seem to undergo significant cultivation effects, while light watchers seem to exhibit little. Therefore, he concluded that heavy watchers of television, in general, answer many questions pertaining to the real-world based on their experiences with television.

Chapter III outlines this study's methodology for conducting and examining the impact of crime-related television programs have on students' perception of the criminal justice system and its agents, roles, and responsibilities. Briefly, the data was collected through questionnaires to undergraduate students at a university located in Northwest

United States. Students were asked demographic information, class status, and major as well as about television and television exposure. Furthermore, students were asked to estimate a number of phenomena such as their assessment of the potential risks of being a victim to certain crimes (see Appendix A for the survey).

Chapter IV discusses the results of this study and consists of testing multiple hypotheses pertaining to the role of crime-related television influencing perceptions of many facets of the criminal justice system. Chapter V pulls the previous chapters together in a discussion about this study's finding, limitations, and how it fits into the appropriate disciplines.

CHAPTER II – LITERATURE REVIEW

The Popularity and Evolution of Crime Dramas

In the past 20 years, crime dramas have dominated the ratings of prime time television. Shows like *CSI: Crime Scene Investigation, Law and Order, Criminal Minds,* and other criminally focused programs have been consistently found at the top of the Nielsen ratings. The popularity of these types of shows cannot be ignored by advertisers or the criminal justice system. Television serves as a tool that many citizens, who usually do not come in direct contact with the criminal justice system, live through vicariously. This dramatic and fictionalized introduction may have an impact on citizens' perceptions of crime and/or the justice system. "At the most basic level, crime, justice, and the media have to be studied together because in twenty-first century America they are inseparable" (Surette, 2007, p. 2). Therefore, it is imperative to study the impact of contemporary crime shows regarding citizens' ideas and preconceived notions pertaining to the reality of the criminal justice system.

Crime has become one of the most consumed topics in American television programming. Whether it is news stories, infotainment, or entertainment, criminals and their true or fictional portrayals are consumed by millions of American citizens. "Crime as entertainment has cemented a place in popular culture" (Dowler, Fleming, & Muzzatti, 2006, p. 837). This study analyzes the potential impact these types of television programs have on the audience. A heavy dose of media may have a significant contribution to one's perception of reality (see Bilandzic, 2006; Gerbner & Gross, 1976; McQuail, 2010; Surette, 2007).

According to Surette (2007), there are four basic types of media content: news, entertainment, advertising, and infotainment. For this research, the focus is on the blend of entertainment and infotainment and news programs on students' perceptions of the criminal justice system and its agents. Infotainment is "the marketing of edited, highly formatted information about the world in disguised entertainment media vehicles" (Surette, 2007, p. 17). This blended and frequently confusing form of entertainment repeatedly uses reenactments of actual crime reports, plus focuses on action, drama, and audio-visual production components. Together, these elements make a powerful exploitation of crime as an entertaining event (Fishman and Cavender, 1998). Additionally, Dowler et al. (2006) claimed crime dramas that are presented in such a realistic fashion can distort the appearance of fact and fiction.

In any given episode of *CSI*, there are one or two homicides that are solved by the same small task force within the hour. Not only do the main characters, which usually are an "amalgam of police officer/detective/forensic scientist" (Houck, 2006, p. 87), determine the cause of death, they also apprehend their suspect and reveal their motivations for committing the crime. Moreover, the police officers are seen as subservient to these investigators (Nolan, 2007). In reality, police officers are not scientists or technicians. Their job or duty during a crime scene is to give the trained professionals (i.e. forensic specialists) the space and security to do their jobs. However, when forensic scientists are not available, police officers must adhere to a strict protocol to identify and collect evidence (Ortmeier, 2006). Moreover, they use other investigative practices such as interviewing friends and family members of the victim and suspect, as well as, serving search warrants (Difonzo & Stern, 2007). Many forms of forensic science

and forensic art are completed within the hour, which generally take weeks or even months for real-life forensic technicians to uncover (Singer, Miller, & Adya, 2007). Also, all of the characters seem to be specialists in many different analyses. On any given episode, one character may perform trace analysis, blood analysis, toxicology reports, tool mark examinations, and so on. In reality, no one person does all of these tasks (Johnson, 2003). These types of unrealistic dramatizations may have a profound impact on audiences' perceptions of the justice system's agents.

Crime-related content in the media has been around for more than a century (see Table 1.1 of Surette, 2007, for a more complete historical account). Print was the first medium to reach the masses. Early newspapers, such as the *New York Sun,* began to include a police-court news column as early as 1833 and circulations began to increase (Gordon & Heath, 1981). Weekly crime magazines were the next printed material to follow. As companies began to realize the success of the penny press and newspapers, crime magazines such as the *National Police Gazette* hit the market with an instant readership following (Gorn, 1992). Surette (2007) indicated that these early printed crime-related mediums provided "an early model for contemporary news and modern trash-TV programs, mass marketing and consumptions of crime infotainment" (p. 6).

Other types of printed media followed with great success. Detective and crime thriller novels also played a role in shaping society's opinions pertaining to crime and justice. These types of novels shifted the paradigm of thought about causes of crime. Previously, early newspapers blamed social conditions and class inequality as reasons why criminals existed. However, detective novels demonstrated that criminals were predators and failures (Surette, 2007).

With the invention of the radio, auditory medium reigned supreme in delivering information to the masses. Numerous detective shows gave listeners a thrill. Stark (1987) pointed out that many early radio programs were adapted from short stories, novels, and comic books. During the 1930s, new types of crime-related programming began to spawn interest in radio listeners. Programs like *True Detective Mysteries, Homicide Squad, Calling All Cars,* and *Treasury Agent* dramatized real-life events (Stark, 1987). Arguably, these shows could have been the beginning of the current crime dramas that advertise their content as based on real police files.

The next stage in the evolution of the contemporary crime dramas was movies. During the 1940s, the silver screen became the third medium to supply criminally based entertainment to the American public. Crime-saturated films began with the same content as radio, which focused on private eye heroes. However, during the mid-1940s through the 1950s, a new type of film – police procedurals – engaged the American audience (Cavender and Fishman, 1998). These films were semi-documentary thrillers that based their story lines on actual FBI files, police dockets, and newspaper articles. This attraction has not changed much, as some crime dramas start their episodes with a preface that the upcoming show is based in reality. For instance, *Law & Order* introduces its episodes with a narrator stating: "In the criminal justice system, the people are represented by two separate, yet equally important, groups; the police, who investigate the crime, and the district attorneys, who prosecute the offenders. These are their stories."

The next step in the evolution of crime dramas occurred during the 1950s. The intrigue of crime filtered from the silver screen onto television sets via *Dragnet.* Again, episodes from *Dragnet* used actual police cases and location shooting to increase the

realism of the show (Stark, 1987). With the success of *Dragnet,* other similar crime dramas followed including *Highway Patrol, Night Watch, The Untouchables,* and *Treasury Men in Action.* The criminal justice system, and its agents, became the focus of many more films during the following decades.

Whereas early depictions of heroic cop and private eye investigations saturated earlier generations, the newer focus of the time became the inherent legal and ethical dilemmas within the criminal justice system itself (Valverde, 2006). Viewers of movies and television shows at the time were enamored with situations where police were to take the law into their own hands by upholding the spirit of the law yet breaking the letter of the law. These contradictions persuaded many Americans to develop their own contradictory attitude toward the criminal justice system (Valverde, 2006).

For instance, films like *The Maltese Falcon, Double Indemnity, The Big Sleep, Mildred Pierce, Dial M for Murder, The Big Heat,* and *Reefer Madness* pin justice versus truth. The urban environments and evil women portrayed in these films trump the classic criminal justice agent's character (Valverde, 2006). Cop films focused the audience's attention on the perspective of police while ignoring other parts of the criminal justice system. Prosecutors and judges were rendered as obstacles to the search for justice or undermined the police officer's work.

Perry Mason, the most successful and longest running lawyer series in television history, premiered in 1957. It ran from 1957-1966, again from 1973-1974, and more than 25 made-for-television movies from 1985-1993 (Brooks & Marsh, 2007). This crime drama, and others like it, introduced American audiences to another perspective of the criminal justice system. Although intended for entertainment, *Perry Mason* also was

criticized by academics and criminal justice practitioners at the time (Mann, 2005). "Perry Mason Syndrome" referred to jury expectations that defense attorneys approach the prosecution's star witness while on stand and coerce an admission of guilt (Mann, 2005). At the time, lawyers were not permitted to approach the witness stand. However, the producers elected to have Perry Mason approach the witness to have both witness and lawyer in the same camera shot to increase the drama and suspense. This was just one example of how television producers voluntarily and purposely distorted a standard operating procedure for entertainment purposes. Although other television shows may have influenced audiences' perceptions of criminal justice affairs and duties, the phrase "Perry Mason Syndrome" may have become the first phrase to use a popular culture phenomenon to explain a criminal justice reality.

Throughout the 1960s and 1970s, crime shows remained a staple of prime time television. Police officers were still the focus in shows like *Adam-12* and *Police Story.* In the mid-1970s, a new format appeared. *The Crime Stoppers* reenacted a real crime and asked the audience to help the police solve the case (Cavender & Fishman, 1998). Other shows followed throughout the decades with the same plea for audience participation to solve crimes. *America's Most Wanted* and *Unsolved Mysteries* are just two examples that plead for assistance to help solve cases.

Quincy, M.E. aired from 1976-1983. The show featured a medical examiner who investigated suspicious deaths through the scientific lens; then, he would change roles and became a detective. This ambiguous blending of jobs and duties became popular in many more series during the following decades. By the end of the show, Quincy solved the homicide. As was the case with the "Perry Mason Syndrome", *Quincy, M.E.* was not

immune from academics and criminal justice practitioners. At the time, many believed jurors would clamor and demand fingerprint evidence during every trial (Mann, 2005). However, no known studies have indicated that this occurred. *Quincy, M.E.* was the first mainstream television program to introduce American audiences to the disregarded role of forensic science.

In 1981, *Hill Street Blues* debuted on NBC. The series ran 146 episodes and lasted until 1987. This "police drama with occasional comedic moments" (Brooks & Marsh, 2007, p. 617) focused on the police officers at Hill Street station in a large Eastern city. The police characters dealt with a ghetto that was "rife with drugs, prostitution, burglary, murder, and the decay of a rotting neighborhood" (p. 616). Gitlin (1983) claimed that the producers tried to make the series as realistic as possible through sound and visuals that were usually reserved for movies. Production aesthetics included camera angles, police jargon, location shooting, and many more, which made the series more realistic than previous ones. This enhanced realism enabled the content of the program to seem more realistic than previous crime dramas.

Television, as a medium, shapes the "texts", or content, of what people watch. The use of quick pace zooming in and out, as well as dramatic music and/or sound effects force people's senses to constantly adapt. These techniques instruct viewers to think certain things and feel certain emotions. As a result, these techniques directly and indirectly shape and mold perceptions pertaining to the work of police officers, detectives, criminalists, and forensic scientists (Berger, 2007).

Additionally, technological advancements in filming allow producers the ability to impact audiences' senses and ideas about reality. For instance, advances in lenses,

editing, videography, and sound establish a high-paced look at agents within the criminal justice system. Courtroom dramas often deliver *Perry Mason*-like moments, where "jaws drop open, gasps of air are heard, and lawyers on the other side cringe with disappointment" (Ghoshray, 2007, p. 534). Although this may happen in reality, the majority of courtrooms are far less spectacular compared to those shown on television. Policing dramas appear to involve police officers and other criminal justice employees working at break neck paces. Producers and trained experts need to present the programming as "sexy" and always will err on the side of entertainment over real science (Mann, 2005).

Currently, there are numerous crime dramas on prime time television as well as syndications of many others. *CSI: Crime Scene Investigation* has been consistently in the top ten of most-watched television programs since its debut in October 2000. Since then, there have been two spin-offs, *CSI: Miami* and *CSI: New York.* Furthermore, other programs include *Law and Order, SVU: Special Victims Unit, Without a Trace, Criminal Minds, Cold Case, The Shield, Crossing Jordan,* and many more. "If being addicted to crime dramas were itself a crime, the entire country would be in lockup" (Roush, 2008, p. 31). Crime-related programming draws numerous viewers and has a variety of programs that the American public watches on a consistent basis.

According to *The World Almanac and Book of Facts 2011* (Janssen, 2011), there are 104.1 million households with at least basic cable service. Channels include CBS, FOX, ABC, My Network TV, NBC, and WGN to name just a few. Standard Cable channels include TBS, USA, CNN, Headline News, CNBC, A&E, TNT, and FX. The aforementioned channels are the major networks that supply audiences with crime-related

programming. Newer digital programming and satellite options give consumers even more channels.

For the fall lineup of 2008, six new shows premiered on the major networks of ABC, CBS, FOX, and NBC (www.tvguide.com). From 2009 through 2010, there were additional programs that focused on crime. As Brown (2003) states:

> …TV dramas present us with the worlds of experts as fictions. To say that all of this is in one sense 'nothing new' is to remind ourselves that the ever-buoyant demand for the crime story has always centered around the fusion of our lived and imaginary universes, our doing and our fantasies, weaving together the themes of enigma and revelation, fear and loathing, justice and injustice, the morally culpable and the moral resolution, for our voyeuristic longing. (p. 40)

The hybridization and intertextuality of crime dramas, newscasts, and other news sources blur and blend reality and fiction together making it difficult to separate the two distinct phenomena from one another. "The TV procedural has never been hotter, filling nearly half of the Nielsen Top 20 at a time when much of the rest of prime time is in decline" (Roush, 2008, p. 31).

Moreover, there are a plethora of crime reality television shows as well. Not only are the local and national evening newscasts potential sources for blending reality and fiction, other networks and shows use the criminal justice system for entertainment as well. Other examples of crime-related programming that are documentary or reality-based include, but are not limited to, *20/20, 48 Hours, 60 Minutes, America's Most Wanted, Cold Case Files, Cops, Dateline, First 48,* and *Lock Up.*

Media accounts of crime, whether they are fact or fiction, have been linked to numerous social ideologies including "law and order" and social control (Muzzatti, 2005). These conceptions of crime and social control that stem from media accounts may be based solely on media portrayals rather than research and actual, experiential knowledge. Research about the influence of crime dramas on individuals' political attitudes suggests that television indeed has an impact. More specifically, Holbrook and Hill (2005) determined that frequent crime drama viewers were significantly more concerned with crime and their opinions of the president were more affected compared to those less frequent viewers. All in all, they add to the ever-growing body of research that contends non-news sources impact audiences' construction of political views.

Impact of Fictional Forensic Crime Dramas: "The CSI Effect"

Since the debut of *CSI: Crime Scene Investigation* in October 2000, many lay people have been introduced to the science and art of forensics. The CSI effect has been hypothesized to have a threefold consequence (Ramsland, 2006). Prior to the crime drama's success, criminal justice practitioners would explain to jurors the scientific process of collecting and analyzing data (Ramsland, 2006). However, *CSI* has made potential jurors more aware of forensic procedures. Hence, many believe they "know" about forensic science, and jurors may feel they are better educated about the role of science in justice proceedings. Additionally, jurors may criticize or look for better scientific procedures that may not exist in reality, but exist in crime dramas. Finally, these expectations for perfect forensic methods and evidence may inhibit a juror's rationale to convict a suspect because of the perception of imperfect forensic procedures (Ramsland, 2006; Singer et al., 2007).

Since there is a plethora of crime-related programming on television and millions of Americans are consuming these shows, audiences' beliefs, perceptions, and opinions may be shaped by the content of these programs. The potential for inaccurate social beliefs about crime rates, personal victimization, and how the criminal justice system can help citizens may hinder the actual criminal justice system. In reality, the general public can only participate in the criminal justice system as defendant, victim, witness, or juror. Each of these roles can be influenced by those perceptions he or she may develop from watching crime-related media. American audiences may be developing their own perceptions of criminal justice proceedings without any direct personal experiences. There are no known published studies that focus only upon an American audience's perceptions influenced by crime drama programming.

Goodman-Delahunty and Tait (2006) claim there could be as many as five separate CSI effects: better informed jurors, investigative focus, anti-prosecution bias, motivated jurors, and pro-prosecution bias. The hypothesis suggests that audience members watch *CSI* and other crime dramas for informational and educational benefits, in addition to the entertainment aspects.

The investigative focus of the theory postulates that *CSI* has shifted the focus from the adjudication process to the pre-trial investigation. One possible threat to justice is that a juror may place more emphasis on the gathering of every possible type of forensic evidence even if it does not relate to a particular case (Goodman-Delahunty & Tait, 2006). This is very similar to Ramsland's (2006) claim that jurors are better informed now than ever before. However, mere knowledge of the application of science to evidence does not necessarily mean complete understanding of the procedures and

analysis. Additionally, jurors are not qualified to know what to collect and what not to collect at a crime scene.

With the clamoring for more and more forensically produced evidence, jurors may develop an anti-prosecutorial bias. That is, when prosecutors are unable to produce DNA, fingerprints, gunshot residue, and so on, the general public may falsely believe that the prosecution did not do its job to the best of its abilities (Goodman-Delahunty & Tait, 2006). These unrealistic expectations for the gathering and presenting of evidence may hinder the prosecution's job. On television, the characters consistently find incriminating evidence.

These depictions of television portrayals can affect an audience's belief that there are strategies and methods to achieve anything. Broadly speaking, these enhanced expectations can possibly be felt by all agents within the criminal justice system. For example, police may be asked by a vandalism victim to collect evidence. If the victim is influenced by crime television, he or she may think that the evidence is present, and it is the officer's duty to collect it.

Another potential CSI effect is more motivated jurors. Jurors may be more attentive and interested in their civil duty (Goodman-Delahunty & Tait, 2006). This may be potentially positive or negative. If jurors are more attentive and interested in the trial, they may make a more unbiased decision. However, they also may look for more than is realistically attainable. For instance, many jurors ask questions pertaining to mitochondrial DNA, ballistics, lead bullet analysis, and other forensic procedures when said methods are not even introduced during trial (Mann, 2005).

The fifth and final potential outcome of *CSI* is a pro-prosecution bias. When prosecutors present any type of forensically gathered evidence, jurors may be blinded by the idea that science is infallible. That is, they believe that because forensic evidence is gathered and analyzed using complicated scientific technology, it has more weight than other types of evidence including eyewitness testimony (Goodman-Delahunty & Tait, 2006).

Cole and Dioso-Villa (2007) claim that the CSI effect has other typologies that may impact jurors and audiences. These typologies are strong prosecutor's effect, weak prosecutor's effect, defendant's effect, producer's effect, professor's version, and police chief's version.

The strong prosecutor's effect is the claim that jurors are wrongfully acquitting guilty persons due to lack of forensic evidence. This effect is the predominant media driven discourse of the CSI effect. Perhaps the most documented incident of this effect is the trial of actor Robert Blake. The jury foreman claimed "we couldn't put the gun in his hand" (Cole & Dioso-Villa, 2007).

The weak prosecutor's effect describes the remedial measures that prosecutors must now take since the debut of *CSI*. These include questioning jurors during voir dire about the types of television shows they watch, explanation of forensic science and art, and negative evidence witnesses (Ramsland, 2006). Moreover, many jurors claim that the forensic technology or procedures have not been adequately explained to them during trial (Singer et al., 2007). This is the effect on prosecutors, not juror behavior (Cole & Dioso-Villa, 2007). Introducing negative evidence witnesses is another example of newly established job duties. Negative evidence witnesses are called before the court to provide

reasons why no evidence needed to be gathered or analyzed (Singer et al, 2007). Although they affect forced tactical behaviors and job responsibilities, they do not (or should not) affect the outcome of the case.

Cole and Dioso-Villa (2007) also note a defendant's effect, or a "reverse CSI effect". In other words, this is the hypothesis that jurors view forensic procedures as infallible and 100% accurate. As one of the main mantras of *CSI* characters, "the truth lies in the evidence." Therefore, expert witnesses are seen as more credible witnesses. Additionally, Johnston (2007) states, "the very fact that defense lawyers freely admit to implementing a trial strategy that addresses the issue of CSI Effect speaks volumes of its potential for compromising a jury verdict" (p. 572). For instance, they mention the lack of forensic evidence at times to raise doubt about their clients, as well as, present the evidence in a very subjective fashion for a certain desired effect (Ungvarsky, 2007).

The producer's effect claims that the shows are educational. As a result, jurors and lay people are better educated at assessing testimony and dealing with criminal proceedings (Cole & Dioso-Villa, 2007). Audience members are watching science in action. Whether or not forensic science is a true science or "junk science" is discussed in the next section (see page 28). Justice Harlan (1965) wrote that "television is capable of performing an educational function by acquainting the public with the judicial process in action" (Estes v. Texas, 381 U.S. 532, 589). Overall, it seems that many believe the benefits of crime dramas surely outweigh any potential costs.

One forensic scientist claimed that 40% of the forensic technology on television simply does not exist in reality (Houck, 2006; see also Johnson, 2003). Additionally, those advanced techniques are not available to all jurisdictions. Viewers may watch these

shows strictly for entertainment purposes. The combination of forensic slang, news stories about the importance of forensic evidence, and fictionalized techniques blur the lines of reality and fiction. Assuming that crime drama watchers absorb these techniques, one could speculate that they would assume all techniques are based on reality.

Since the overwhelming popularity of forensic shows on television expanded, a spark of educational pursuit in the content has followed (Cole & Dioso-Villa, 2007). This has led to an enormous surge in forensic science as a university subject. More and more colleges and universities in the United States are now offering a degree in forensic science or forensic studies programs. More than 25 years ago, there was no uniform core curriculum or program structure for forensic scientists or criminalists (Bradford, 1980). Since then, "the number of master's programs in forensics has more than tripled" (Fradella, Owen, & Burke, 2007, p. 266).

In response, the National Institute of Justice (NIJ) put together a panel and released *Forensic Sciences: Review of Status and Needs* (1999), which made a number of recommendations including accreditation/certification of forensic educational programs, a set of standards for forensic programs, training, technology transfer, methods research, development, testing and evaluation, and analytic services. As a follow up, the NIJ produced a special report, in collaboration with West Virginia University, entitled *Education and Training in Forensic Science: A Guide for Forensic Science Laboratories, Educational Institutes, and Students* (2004). This manuscript was built upon their previously released manuscript. It produced a new set of standards focusing on qualifications for a career in forensic science, undergraduate curriculum, graduate curriculum, as well as training and continuing education in forensic science.

Unfortunately, for many professors within crime-related disciplines, students are disappointed to realize that careers in forensics do not necessarily relate to criminology degrees or other closely related disciplines (Cole & Dioso-Villa, 2007).

Fradella, Owen, and Burke (2007) believe that criminal justice and criminology departments must address the increasing student interest in forensic science because "the profound impact of the CSI effect on the justice system necessarily impacts criminal justice education as well" (p. 262). They distinguish between forensic science programs and forensic studies programs. Forensic science programs, which focus on natural sciences and preparation of future laboratory work, are conceptually and educationally different from forensic studies programs that introduce criminal justice students with a type of background that prepares them for future criminal investigations. Furthermore, Fradella et al. propose a set of standards for forensic studies programs that spotlight criminal investigations, introduction to forensic science, constitutional criminal procedure, and criminal evidence and the trial process (for more information see Fradella, Owen, and Burke, 2007, p. 271-273).

The final possible effect is the police chief's version, which alleges that the show is educational for current and potential criminals (Cole & Dioso-Villa, 2007). The shows can perhaps demonstrate to current and would-be criminals how to avoid detection via bleach, gloves, removal of cigarette butts, and other potentially dangerous behaviors for leaving any trace evidence.

Overall, these potential CSI effects can be argued from a number of different perspectives. Perhaps the concoction of the CSI effect was to sway the American public into a sympathetic mindset for prosecutors or for defense attorneys (Cole & Dioso-Villa,

2007). In any event, the CSI effect is real in mass media markets. Tabloids, newspapers, and now academic researchers are trying to tackle what the effect actually is or what it represents. Perhaps what is more important is the idea that *CSI* and other crime-related television shows depicting unrealistic portrayals of the criminal justice system in general are influencing citizens' beliefs about the justice system and those agents who represent the justice system. With each agency of criminal justice containing its own genre of programming, the entire criminal justice system may be falsely represented in the media.

Arguments and Evidence For and Against the CSI Effect

Crime drama characters are manifestations of real-life criminal justice practitioners. Although some job duties are accurate, many characters develop a hybridization of many jobs into one encompassing job title. For instance, *CSI: Crime Scene Investigation* presents its heroic characters as technicians/scientists/detectives/ police officers (Cole & Dioso-Villa, 2007; Nolan, 2007). There is no such position in reality. These multiple responsibilities and duties of the characters enable producers to exaggerate their importance and contributions to American justice. Furthermore, these blurred lines of reality may cause audience members to perceive job responsibilities in a false light.

It is important to reiterate the typical crime drama story line. A crime occurs, evidence always is found, and the criminal justice agents always match the evidence to the guilty suspect or suspects. It appears to a lay audience member that forensic evidence of some sort always is left at the crime scene. If you do not see it, just look harder. It is there somewhere. Furthermore, not only is evidence always present, but biological evidence seems to be left behind in the majority of cases. Whether it is clean fingerprints,

partial fingerprints, semen, blood, strands of hair, skin, saliva, etc., evidence that can specifically identify those who were present is usually found at the depicted crime scene. The most common types of evidence found in reality are fingerprints and tool marks, which also are the most common types of evidence tested in laboratories (Stephens, 2007). Blood is only found in 5% of crime scenes (Stephens, 2007). When Podlas (2006) reviewed the first two seasons of *CSI: Crime Scene Investigation,* she found that blood appeared in 12 of the 46 episodes (26%). This miniscule number in reality may surprise many audience members who continually view CSI technicians finding any and all evidence during a one-hour show.

Peterson, Sommers, Johnson, and Baskin (2009) call upon studies during the 1980s that found that forensic evidence was collected in approximately 20-30% of cases. In their study, they sampled more than 4,000 incidents from police files in five study sites. The crime incidents they sampled were homicide, rape, robbery, assault, and burglary. The evidence collected included biological, prints, firearms, and natural/synthetic material (see page 54).

Additionally, *CSI* characters seem to be at the top of the organizational hierarchy. Audiences witness the characters ordering police around during a crime scene investigation, carrying weapons, making arrests, and interrogating suspects (rarely is an attorney present). "Ultimately, the CSI television audience is immersed in a series of images of the rarefied world of criminal investigations containing a normative construct wherein the civilian investigators control, direct, and dominate the process from its initiation to its conclusion" (Nolan, 2007, p. 588). The multiple responsibilities these

characters hold may be beneficial for the programs, but they may be impacting audiences' perceived realism about real-life criminal justice agents.

Depending on what role the characters actually exhibit, the predominate role is that of technician. Technicians are neither scientists nor detectives. They are actually considered criminalists, which rank much lower than law enforcement officers. Their rank in the criminal justice system is on par with radio dispatchers. As important as their jobs may be, they do not have the authority to order police during an investigation (Nolan, 2007).

Moreover, technicians are not the creative and objective scientists they may appear to be on television. In fact, 96% of forensic practitioners have a bachelor's degree or less (Difonzo & Stern, 2007). In reality, the rigorous and completely unbiased objective conclusions reached on television crime dramas are farfetched. Cooley (2007) suggests that American society has come to blindly believe that crime labs employ the brightest and most skilled scientists who make few errors. Scientists, who generally test and retest their findings to try to refute them, are not the same as forensic technicians. The forensic technicians usually use the inner ocular method, or simply an "eyeball" comparison, for their discoveries. That is, they simply try to match and compare evidence rather than look for alternative explanations (Ungvasky, 2007). Matching and comparing evidence and then coming to a conclusion is not scientific. Trained technicians do this "matching" on a consistent basis rather than rigorous scientific falsification.

Perhaps the most appealing aspect about crime dramas today is the technological advancement of filming as well as the creative methods producers find for the characters to solve cases. Using elaborate machines with all the bells and whistles, discipline jargon,

and fictitious procedures, crime dramas appear to have the most up-to-date crime labs in the country. Again, these depictions may influence audience members against the reality of forensic procedures. On any given episode, audiences are thrown into a world where terms like "mitochondrial DNA", "ballistics", "GSR", "CODIS", and "AFIS" are normal language. To complicate matters, characters use machines and technologically advanced procedures to analyze any and all trace evidence. "In the far-from-perfect universe of real-world laboratory testing, CSI's depiction of forensic flawlessness presents a distorted image of reality" (Difonzo & Stern, 2007, p. 519). These depictions of a pristine error-proof laboratory are additional attributes of crime dramas that need to be called into question. The accuracy of forensic laboratories is debatable.

Stephens (2007) suggests that the demand from jurors of more and more forensically produced evidence has trickled down into crime labs. That is, more and more evidence has been collected that needs to be analyzed; thus, causing storage problems and backlogs in evidence processing. "A typical laboratory in 2002 started the year with a backlog of about 390 requests, received 4,900 requests, and completed 4,600 requests" (Peterson & Hickman, 2005, p. 1). Overall, 2002 ended with more than 500,000 backlogged requests for forensic services. *CSI* and other crime dramas present idealistic crime labs with infinite resources and time which according to the evidence is far from reality.

Furthermore, the crime lab workers always present their evidence correctly without error. Although DNA evidence "is the most reliable to date, there can be problems in its collection, storage, processing, and interpretation, as these are performed by humans" (Stephens, 2007, p. 595). Again, errors can happen by officers and

technicians before and after the evidence has reached the crime labs. Overall, the "legitimacy of evidence always boils down to the manner in which that evidence is handled" (Stephens, 2007, p. 595).

Lab accreditation is of the utmost importance. In 2005, only 30% of publicly funded crime labs met accreditation requirements (Stephens, 2007). Storage facilities need to be updated and increased since an overwhelming amount of forensic evidence is still being stored at police departments. Additionally, crime labs often lack independence from police departments. Difonzo and Stern (2007) mention that forensic technicians may view themselves as "police in lab coats" (p. 515). If this is true, there seems to be an inherent bias within the system. Technicians may be working to help solve and clear cases, rather than objectively analyzing the evidence.

Another element of crime dramas that may influence audience members' perceptions of the criminal justice system is the depiction of the accuracy of forensic procedures. Crime dramas present laboratories as pristine locations where scientists search for the truth. The truth always is located in the evidence, and it is the characters who must determine what has occurred. As one character on *CSI* stated, "People lie. The evidence doesn't lie." Additionally, television portrayals of forensic science reveal that every case is solved by the evidence, and there are rarely mistakes. In reality, the accuracy and integrity of crime labs has been called into question; the procedures to analyze evidence also have been scrutinized. This trumps the idea that crime-related programming presents science as completely unbiased and infallible.

Willing (2004) quoted Dan Krane, president and DNA specialist at Forensic Bioinformatics in Fairborn, Ohio, about crime dramas, "You never see a case where the

sample is degraded or the lab work is faulty or the results don't solve the crime…These things happen all the time in the real world" (p. A1). Since errors rarely, if ever, occur during crime dramas, real life jurors and lay people may be convinced that human errors are reduced due to the consistent methods provided by good science.

All evidence is interpreted by human beings (Stephens, 2007). Not only do the forensic technicians interpret their analysis, but prosecutors, judges, attorneys, and jurors must interpret the same evidence. Forensic science obviously is neither completely objective nor infallible and has been proven wrong at times. "Contrary to what the forensic science community and Hollywood claim or portray, DNA evidence is not infallible and has…resulted in at least one known injustice" (Cooley, 2007, p. 478). Josiah Sutton was wrongfully convicted because a crime lab analyst abhorrently miscalculated the probability DNA from a rape case matched Sutton's DNA (see Cooley, 2007 for examples garnered from local newspapers; Ghoshray, 2007). Therefore, it should not be the only evidence produced during trial. Still, crime dramas present the collection of evidence and interpretation of evidence as complete "truth". They give the impression that the evidence never lies and those analyzing the evidence never make mistakes.

Inaccurate forensically produced evidence and/or forensic misconduct is the second leading cause of wrongful convictions, trailing only eyewitness testimony. "The Innocence Project is a national litigation and public policy organization dedicated to exonerating wrongfully convicted people through DNA testing and reforming the criminal justice system to prevent further injustice" (www.innocenceproject.org). As of November 20, 2012, 301 people have been exonerated with the help of the Innocence

Project (www.innocenceproject.org). Personnel from the Innocence Project identified 25 cases (of the first 82 exonerations) where forensically produced evidence or forensic scientists played a role in wrongful convictions (Cromett & Thurston Myster, 2005). The factors that contributed to wrongful convictions include misinterpretation, statistical exaggeration, evidence suppression and exculpatory, falsified results, falsified credentials, evidence contamination, testified to tests never conducted, and other.

As Tyler (2006) stated, "The popularity of CSI lies in its ability to simplify the messy uncertainties of real-world crime" (p. 1065). Perhaps forensically produced evidence has the same effect for jurors. Scientifically gathered and analyzed evidence may reduce cognitive stress. Ghoshray (2007) defines cognitive stress in relation to juror decisions as "the difficulty or cognitive de-motivation that comes from trying to process a significant amount of subjective information" (p. 547). If forensic evidence is shrouded in subjective interpretations, jurors may try to reduce their stress by relying solely upon scientifically produced evidence during trial. This is why Ghoshray suggests discussing the issue of evidence collection and processing. The gap in the debate of probative value and objective quality of types of evidence will shrink, and they will stand on equal footing. Furthermore, he suggests that it is the human condition to seek justice and correct past injustices. The cognitive motivation behind selecting scientific evidence achieved the goal of reducing cognitive stress during sentencing.

However, as mentioned before, forensic science may not be considered "real science". In fact, many call it either a pseudo-science or "junk science" (Cooley, 2007; Mann, 2005; Stephens, 2007). Many believe that forensic science is not science at all, because many technicians do not retest and try to falsify their findings like real scientists

(Nolan, 2007). Many submit their first results without any critical thinking or rigorous retesting. Although technicians are not scientists, they are posing as scientists in that they analyze evidence (Difonzo & Stern, 2007). This veil of complete, objective analysis perhaps has blinded potential jurors from the reality that forensic science requires human interpretation.

Ungvarsky (2007) criticizes the FBI's claim that it is superior at everything including DNA, fingerprints, and bullet lead analysis (BLA). He claims that the FBI's BLA is bogus science, and their DNA work is shoddy. Microscopic hair analysis done by the FBI had an error 10% of the time. Simply put, he strongly believes that matching is not science. "The majority of crime laboratories routinely compare the evidence profiles and the known suspects' profiles at the same time" (Ungvarsky, 2007, p. 619). There may be a subtle bias at work between publicly funded labs and police departments. Although they are separate institutions, technicians and forensic scientists may feel that they must interpret the evidence as the police see fit.

For decades, forensic procedures have been rushed into courtrooms before the accuracy of such methods were even established (Cooley, 2007). Paraffin wax testing conducted during the 1930s was thought to determine whether a person had recently discharged a firearm. When tested for accuracy three decades later, an unbearable number of false positives were generated. Moreover, voice print analysis was another example of an early forensic method that was rushed into courts. When scientists examined the reliability and accuracy of such methods, the independent panel questioned the method, because the principles were not formulated or tested (Committee on Evaluation of Sound Spectrograms, 1979). Even gunshot residue (GSR), which is commonly used in crime

dramas, has little empirical evidence supporting it. Many everyday items humans use may contain amounts of the chemicals found in GSR, thus providing inconclusive results (Cooley, 2007). Furthermore, BLA and burn pattern analysis are two more examples of untested forensic procedures that made their way into courtroom proceedings before they were even tested for reliability and accuracy.

Naturally, the argument of the CSI Effect is simple: If jurors believe that the lack of forensic evidence is either sloppy police work or a reason to cause doubt, then they will acquit offenders. However, the issue of what constitutes "reasonable doubt" is much deeper than just the mere presence or absence of forensically produced evidence. Solan (1999) discusses this historical problem in much depth and suggests that the burden of proof lies on the government to prove guilt rather than the defendant to prove innocence. If the real issue becomes whether or not the government has presented a strong case, the collection of more and more forensic evidence seems inevitable based on the preconceived ideas that forensically gathered evidence is the most significant for convictions. Again, this causes the already overloaded forensic labs to test more and more evidence, which take weeks and months.

Media Impact on Other Criminal Justice Perceptions

Kappeler and Potter (2005) claim that the media is one of the largest and powerful mythmakers in Western society. Some myths include equal justice, lenient criminal justice systems, police officers as crime fighters, juvenile super predators, and other moral panics. Kappeler and Potter argue that many of these myths are created by depictions of criminal justice agencies through news, entertainment, and infotainment strategies and the myths "instruct us on how to integrate an event into our belief system

and worldviews" (p. 2). These myths influence citizens' perceived realism about crime, criminals, and the criminal justice system (For a comprehensive list of techniques of myth making, see Kappeler & Potter, 2005).

The myth of police officer as crime fighter is of utmost importance. Comparing television police officers and real-life police officers reveals drastic differences (see Appendix B). Television often portrays police as either good cops or bad cops (Surette, 2007). "Good cops" have unlimited resources, use the latest technology, and continuously execute their job to the fullest (i.e. apprehend their suspect). "Bad cops" are represented as corrupt, ineffective, incompetent, and bound by regulations (Surette, 2007).

Television programs like *Cops* allow audiences to "ride along" with police officers while on a beat. On any given thirty-minute episode, police officers respond to 911 calls, apprehend suspects, and arrest perpetrators. However, this is highly edited content where editors must scavenge through hours of filming. "Viewers are presented a distorted view of the world as more dangerous than it really is" (Kappeler & Potter, 2005, p. 15). Audiences are only shown a certain aspect of policing, not all police work. Therefore, citizens who watch *Cops* and other similar programming may have a distorted conception of real police work.

There are other reality-based crime shows offered on cable. Shows like *Jail, Locked Up,* and *Inside American Jail* feature corrections as the main setting with correctional officers and inmates as the characters. Average citizens who have never been incarcerated or visited jail may use programs like these as a basis for their knowledge about criminal justice corrections.

Furthermore, there are a number of television courtrooms offered on cable today. Show like *Judge Judy*, *Judge Joe Brown,* and *People's Court* offer an alternate view of civil courtroom proceedings. Decisions are made within the half hour, and the over-the-top judge is the attraction. Criminal proceedings often were showcased on the once popular Court TV, now TruTV. As Nasheri (2002) puts it, "The American public has long been intrigued by the inner workings of courtrooms" (p. 2). Perhaps, this is one reason why high profile court cases like OJ Simpson, Robert Blake, and Casey Anthony dominated the news during their proceedings.

All in all, these aforementioned crime shows, and others like them, may have an impact on audiences' beliefs about crime rates, clearance rates, job duties and roles, and general perceptions about the criminal justice system. There is an abundance of television programs that focus on courts, law enforcement, and corrections. Moreover, there are numerous programs that focus on reporting crime news, documentaries, and violent behavior. Do these types of programs impact citizens' beliefs and perceptions of criminal justice statistics and agents?

How the Media Can Influence

It is no secret that the broadcast companies are in the business of making money. They select programming that sells and gets high viewer ratings. Hence, the issue of whether or not they are required to present the audience with facts is completely irrelevant. The content and production of crime dramas do in fact affect those who watch them. Not only do the story lines influence perceptions, but the way the show is produced has tremendous impact (Berger, 2007; Preiss, Gayle, Burrell, Allen, & Bryant, 2007).

This study is interested in the impact of crime-related programming on perceptions of the criminal justice system for a number of reasons. First, television is a highly visual medium and seeing portrayals of violence and/or police work may have a stronger emotional impact than other types of print media (Weitzer & Kurbin, 2004). Second, television networks, both locally and nationally, are in the business of making money. Therefore, pressure for ratings and advertising partners are critical for success. Shocking newscasts and programming are more marketable and thus more profitable (Weitzer & Kurbin). Additionally, most cities have one major newspaper and do not have the competition disadvantage as do local networks.

Audience members play an "active" role in interpreting and decoding the content of the television shows they select to watch. Television as a medium of communication is a "cool" medium that shapes the content in and of itself (Berger, 2007). Criminal dramas contain numerous examples of production that can impact one's ideas about the content. For instance, *CSI* uses close-ups of evidence and procedures to signify the importance of the find. Also, the close-ups serve to highlight the most important aspects of the program; namely, the evidence is there and it is the investigator's job and responsibility to find it, use it, and analyze it.

Another example is how camera angles can contribute to the thinking process. When people read a book in English, they read left to right, top to bottom. This method encourages readers to think linearly. However, television uses different angles and techniques to instruct viewers to think certain things or feel certain emotions (Berger, 2007). In fact, horror scenes would be a lot less terrifying if not for the musical score. A

show must produce effects to the audience with compelling and logical versions of social reality (Preiss et al., 2007).

Overall, there are structural production differences between television genres. These differences are used to achieve desired effects from the viewers and have been shown to illicit such responses and influence the information processing sequence (see Grabe, Lang, & Zhao, 2003; Grabe, Zhou, Lang, & Bolls, 2000).

Brown (2003) claims that "crime dramas ('fiction' or 'non-fictions' or something 'in-between') have in common that they address conceptual reality rather than empirical events" (p. 47). Although, the most important reason why these types of shows succeed is profit, they do influence the way people "think" about the criminal justice system (see Berger, 2007; Kappeler & Potter, 2005; Russell, 1995; Surette, 2007). Many citizens do not come into contact with the criminal justice system personally, but may experience the media-portrayed, criminal justice system through crime dramas on television. From 2001-2006, *CSI* has been rated in the top six programs annually (Brooks & Marsh, 2007) and it was the number one watched show for three seasons. Furthermore, crime-related programs have consistently been found among the highest rated television programs season to season.

According to Surette (2007), a mediated experience is "the comparative experience that an individual has when he or she experiences an event via the media versus actually personally experiencing an event" (p. 23). In other words, since many people do not come into contact with the criminal justice system, they base their opinions and facts on their exposure to media. "The media entertain us, socialize us, inform us,

educate us, sell things to us, and indoctrine us – among other things" (Berger, 2007, p. 17).

Although these crime dramas are extremely popular, one argument is that those interested in crime and/or justice seek out programs that reinforce their preconceived conceptions. Berger (2007) claims that:

> One premise we used was that people seek reinforcement in the media for their basic beliefs and values and wish to avoid cognitive dissonance. Thus people will watch television programs that affirm and support the values they believe (and provide reinforcement) and avoid ones that attack their values and beliefs (and generate cognitive dissonance). (p. 76)

Put simply, audience members may use these shows to obtain information about the world as well as affirm and support their basic values.

The realism of crime dramas and reality crime programs also can contribute to impacting citizens' perceptions of the criminal justice system. As mentioned earlier, many crime dramas and reality crime programs use actual police cases for their story lines. These recycled reenactments confirm that this crime has happened. However, they have been dramatized and produced to entertain the audience. "Realism of media depends on a certain attitude that what is portrayed is 'true to life', if not literally true in the sense of having actually occurred. Realistic fiction depends on the belief that it could occur or might have done so" (McQuail, 2010, p. 390). The heroes and heroines of these shows are mission heroes who rectify victimizations. Their pursuit of justice for the sake of the victim is the classic good versus evil. Furthermore, the character roles also reinforce a belief in the ultimate triumph of justice. The audience also gets to watch villains in

action. These character portrayals highlight a belief in the magical, marvelous, and miraculous (Berger, 2007).

Previous Research

CSI Effects evolved from anecdotal evidence from prosecutors, judges and defense attorneys. Andrew Thomas (2006), the Maricopa County chief prosecutor, and his office, a staff of 300 prosecutors, conducted a survey of 102 of those attorneys who had trial experience. Of those surveyed, "38% believed they had at least one trial that resulted in either an acquittal or hung jury because forensic evidence was not available, even though prosecutors believed the existing testimony was sufficient by itself to sustain a conviction" (p. 70). Additionally, 40% of the respondents declared that jurors asked questions about forensic techniques/evidence even when they were not used during trial.

Likewise, 8 out of 10 Maricopa County attorneys believed that jurors were disappointed with a lack of forensic evidence. Based on conversations with jurors after verdicts have been given, 74% of prosecutors maintained that the jury "expected to be presented with scientific evidence" (Thomas, 2006, p. 70-71).

First, Thomas and his colleagues cannot determine whether or not there was enough evidence to convict. It is the state's responsibility to prove "beyond reasonable doubt" that the defendant was guilty. It is not the defense attorney's job to prove innocence (Cole & Dioso-Villa, 2007; Solan, 1999). It is the jurors who must determine that the state has proven guilt beyond a reasonable doubt. Secondly, the survey only considered the prosecutor's CSI Effect. There was no mention or questioning of jurors about what their verdicts were impacted by, such as the perception of the criminal justice system based on media portrayals, forensic evidence, or other testimony. Finally, the

Maricopa County attorneys reasoned that jurors were influenced by *CSI* and other crime dramas, because they did not get the verdict they sought. This seemed to be a tautological argument (If crime dramas have influenced the jurors, they acquit the defendant. Moreover, if they acquit the defendant, it was because they were influenced by crime-related programming).

Robbers (2008) also studied the CSI Effect experienced by trial judges, prosecutors, and defense attorneys who were currently working in the field, but who also were working in the field prior to the *CSI* debut. Ideally, her sample would have been better qualified to compare work experiences before and after the CSI phenomenon. She utilized a multi-stage cluster sample of all state counties and cities within the contiguous United States (N = 3,141). Using systematic random sampling, the final sample consisted of 45 jurisdictions in America. Prosecutors, judges, and public defenders were randomly selected from each jurisdiction. Five hundred forty seven respondents who responded to initial emails or telephone calls were mailed the survey questionnaire. Three hundred sixteen returned the completed survey for a response rate of 57%. The final sample size was 290 after excluding those respondents with less than seven years of experience (Robbers, 2008).

Participants were asked to discuss specific incidents where they felt juries were influenced by crime dramas and if crime dramas affected their jobs. Overall, those working within the criminal justice system believed crime-related television shows were impacting their jobs. Specifically, the criminal justice practitioners claimed that jurors, with preconceptions of justice, civic duty, and evidence based on media portrayals, were

affecting their jobs by increasing their workload and increasing the amount of time devoted to work (Robbers, 2008).

Whether or not jurors actually considered crime dramas in their decision making is irrelevant when 79% of surveyed judges, prosecutors, and defense attorneys believed juries made decisions based on these types of television programs (Robbers, 2008). Perception is reality. Furthermore, the majority of participants believed jurors discounted eyewitness testimony and preferred forensic evidence (53% of all respondents). Robbers also noted that 50% wrote that jurors saw a lack of forensic evidence as sloppy police work even when such testing may not have been essential to the case. Other mentioned instances included the role of irrelevant forensic evidence presented during trial, increased use of negative witnesses, and the inability of jurors to distinguish between fact and fiction.

Additionally, *CSI* has changed the job execution of those within the criminal justice system. More than 85% claimed their jobs have changed in some fashion (Robbers, 2008). Instances included additional time spent discussing forensic evidence, additional time spent during jury selection to determine the extent of the *CSI* effect, and more time familiarizing themselves with forensic tests and procedures. For example, one prosecutor stated, "I certainly address television shows like CSI during *voir dire.* If I find jurors who have difficulty distinguishing television from reality, I do my best to have them bumped from the jury" (Robber, 2008, p. 95).

One defense attorney wrote:

> Much more time is spent in *voir dire,* and this affects both the prosecution and the defense. I try to weed jurors who may be overly influenced by these shows.

> Although for a defense attorney, a juror who is very tuned into forensic shows may be more likely to dismiss a case because forensic evidence is lacking, he or she could also convict based on a piece of evidence irrelevant to the case because jurors think forensic evidence is error proof. (Robbers, 2008, p. 95)

Based on the information provided by prosecutors, judges, and public defenders, it was obvious that they felt crime dramas influenced jurors and thus impacted their jobs.

Finally, Robbers (2008) indicated that those surveyed believed that jurors have unrealistic expectations of forensic evidence and police work (70% of respondents). These included beliefs that police have infinite amounts of time and resources. Convictions seemed to be easier with the presence of any type of forensic evidence, but more difficult if there was little or no forensic evidence.

There were a number of limitations in Robbers' (2008) study that this present study addressed and built upon. First, she only surveyed those who worked within the courtroom and analyzed their beliefs pertaining to juror behaviors and conceptions. This study focused on students' perceptions of those who work within the system, as well as their perception of the importance and accuracy of forensic evidence. Secondly, she stated that many prosecutors, public defenders, and judges believe that jurors preferred forensic evidence. This dissertation sought to understand student's perceptions of forensic evidence (see Chapter 4).

Podlas (2006) conducted the first empirical study on potential jurors. In her study, she examined the anti-prosecution bias of the CSI Effect using a sample of 306 college students. She conducted a content analysis of the first two seasons of *CSI* looking for forensic issues such as prints, blood, fiber/hair, rape kit/semen, gun/ballistics, drugs, and

DNA to use in her two-part instrument. The first part surveyed college students' general television watching and law-related television (i.e. legal dramas, reality courtrooms, and *CSI*) viewing habits. Viewing was quantified as hours per month, and habits were measured using a Likert-type scale. The second portion of her instrument consisted of a one-page criminal law scenario and a one-page verdict sheet. Participants were required to check "reasons" for their verdicts.

The criminal law scenario centered on an alleged rape. The scenario presented no references to forensic evidence or forensic procedures. The incident was based on witness credibility, rather than "whodunit". "The alleged victim claimed that she was forced to have non-consensual sex, whereas the defendant claimed that the sexual encounter was wholly consensual" (Podlas, 2006, p. 455). The scenario was posited in a way that the crux of the verdict stemmed on the issue of consent. Therefore, forensic evidence should be "utterly irrelevant to a conclusion of 'not guilty'" (p. 455).

On the one-page verdict sheet, respondents were asked to check "guilty" or "not guilty". In addition, they were asked if any of the presented reasons impacted their decision: 1) victim had reason to lie; 2) evidence not tested for fingerprints; 3) defendant may have committed offense but prosecution did not prove beyond a reasonable doubt; 4) prosecution did not perform forensic tests that could have shown defendant was innocent; 5) no DNA evidence or no DNA test completed; 6) defendant's story seemed more believable; 7) prosecution did not perform forensic tests to prove defendant was in apartment/bedroom; or 8) other. Overall, the study included 291 sufficient respondents of which 250 reached a "not guilty" verdict, and 41 responded with a "guilty" verdict.

She concluded that decision making between the two groups, regular *CSI* watchers and those who did not often watch *CSI*, yielded no discernible differences. Thus, her empirical evidence did not support any anti-prosecution CSI Effect. However, she also noted that the study indicated other effects such as increased awareness of forensic procedures.

There were some limitations to this study that must be addressed. First, she only focused on the effects from one crime drama, *CSI.* Other crime dramas and reality-based crime programs also must be addressed to have a more coherent picture of a CSI effect, or crime drama effect. Furthermore, she used rape as the crime of focus. The majority of felonies committed on television crime dramas are homicides. Forensic evidence is produced during these programs to identify the offender(s). The criminal law scenario focused on the issue of consent, not whether or not sex actually occurred. It was a classic case of "he said/she said". Although the point of her study tried to garner whether or not potential jurors would clamor for forensic evidence in a case that did not need forensic evidence, it would be helpful to study other types of crimes featured on crime dramas. She only researched the role of forensics in rape. For this study, the responsibilities of criminal justice agents is one of many variables that was collected as well as the perceived percentage of forensic evidence found during a crime scene, clearance rates, and reliability of crime labs.

There have been other studies that focused on forensic evidence that was introduced during trial. Although the media's influence is not measured, it is interesting to note that the mere presence of scientifically gathered evidence, namely DNA, had a profound and persuasive effect on mock juries (Nance & Morris, 2005). Again, this

strengthens the argument that forensic evidence trumps all other types of evidence. If just the mere presence of DNA, without any explanation, increases the likelihood of convictions, jurors who demand more forensic evidence during justice proceedings may be suffocating the process.

Cultivation Theory

Media effect is an umbrella term that defines the consequences of what the mass media does, intended or not (McQuail, 2010). Simply put, the media may have the ability to impact opinions, behavior, and confirm existing ideas through the presentation and dissemination of information. "There is a widespread belief, nearing on certainty, that the mass media are a powerful instrument of influence on opinion and of effects on behavior" (McQuail, 2010, p. 454). Overall, this type of research is multifaceted and complex. There are numerous variables that determine how and why someone may possess a particular opinion about a certain topic. However, there are three broad distinctions of types of media effects. Cognitive effects are those effects that impact knowledge and opinion, affectual effects are those related to one's attitudes and feelings, and there also are behavioral effects (McQuail, 2010).

For instance, some examples of cognitive effects from crime dramas are an increased awareness of forensic procedures, unrealistic expectations of infinite resources for jurisdictions, evidence gathering, and apprehension of offenders. Affectual effect examples include triumph of justice, pro- and anti-prosecution biases, and general opinions about the criminal justice system and its agents. Behavioral effects simply could be the decision whether to convict or acquit an offender or to allow what is gleaned from a crime show to influence his or her decision or perception.

One media theory that seems to be relevant to this type of influence is cultivation theory. Television was viewed as having a gradual, cumulative influence over time. Through a pattern of repetitive misrepresentations of reality, viewers adopt certain beliefs and attitudes towards reality. Gerbner (1998) claimed it would be too difficult to identify those without television influences because television is the "centralized system of story-telling" and has become our "primary common source of socialization and everyday information" (p. 177). Therefore, the theory postulates that those who watch more television are more likely to develop certain beliefs about social reality based on the consistent depictions shown on television, regardless of the channel or genre selection (Gerbner & Gross, 1976; Gerbner, Gross, Jackson-Beeck, Jeffries-Foy, & Signorielli, 1978; Gerbner, Gross, Morgan, Signorielli, & Shanahan, 2002). The theory separates viewers as either "heavy", "medium", or "light" viewers. Overall, heavy viewers have been shown to have altered views and beliefs of reality that resemble the television world more accurately than the real world (Dieffenbach & West, 2001; Gerbner, 1996). However, since the inception of this theory, more and more diverse programming has been available to consumers. Thus, there have been other studies that have examined the impact of genre specific cultivation effects.

The central proposition of cultivation theory is that the medium of television "cultivates" viewers (especially heavy viewers) into adopting distorted beliefs about social reality that are closer to television reality (Gerber & Gross, 1976). "Television is different from other media also in its centralized mass-production of a coherent set of images and messages produced for total populations, and in its relatively non-selective, almost ritualistic, use by most viewers" (Gerbner, 1998, p. 178). Hence, those viewers

who watch the most television, regardless of channel or programming, will develop a set of beliefs about reality that were learned by watching mass quantities of television programs.

When Gerbner (1969) began looking at cultural indicators within media, cable choices were limited. He claimed that watching television was ritualistic and served as a family activity. There were few channels and audiences were not able to choose genres and content-specific programming like contemporary consumers. Today, there are entire networks devoted to specific topics such as sports, food, travel, game shows, news, animals, etc. Does cultivation theory transcend the immense changes in television technology and choices?

Hawkins and Pingree (1981) were among the first to argue that not all television programming content uniformly cultivates worldviews equally. That is, researchers need to focus upon specific genres and compare their cultivation effects rather than treat all television programming as the same. Furthermore, they argued that different genres differ in content messages and structures. For instance, crime dramas have different messages than soap operas, game shows, or comedic programming. Their following quote should illustrate the different messages of the different genres.

> [T]he strife and heroes of crime adventure, the misunderstandings and embarrassments of comedy, the grasping idiocy and chance of game shows, the event-centered definitions of news – all may cultivate different views of the world. (p. 299)

This research compares the cultivation effects of both nonfictional crime programming (e.g., *Cops*, *Inside American Jail*, *Forensic Files*) and fictional crime

dramas (e.g., *CSI, Criminal Minds*, *Law & Order*). Previous research has indicated stronger cultivation effects from nonfiction genres compared to fiction genres regarding perceptions of crime, fear of crime, and protective behavior (see Holbert, Shah, & Kwak, 2004, O'Keefe, 1984; O'Keefe & Reid-Nash, 1987). In fact, Holbert Shah, and Kwak (2004) suggested that police reality shows have the strongest predictor for fear and protective behaviors.

There are two different types of cultivation effects or judgments: first order and second order. These are ways to group or distinguish dependent variables (Shrum, 2004). First order effects are the facts audiences may learn from television programs and their content. "First order judgments pertain predominately to set-size or probability judgments" (Shrum, 2004, p. 330). Basically, first order judgments pertain to facts one can "learn" from television content (Hawkins & Pingree, 1982). A few examples would include, the number of crime scenes that contain forensically gathered evidence, what percentage of Americans have been victims of violent crime, or what percentage of men have extramarital affairs. These judgments usually can be compared to real-world counterparts and objectively verified or falsified (Shrum, 2004). These judgments tend to be memory-based judgments. That is, they rely upon the recall of information located from long-term memory (Shrum, 2004).

Second order effects are those where television programs shape an audience member's attitudes, values, or belief judgments. Second-order judgments are considered to be on-line judgments, which only can be formed when the information is first encountered (Shrum, 2004). Therefore, memory has little or no impact on the process. For example, questions would include Likert scales or agree/disagree question like

‘Crime scenes always have fingerprints’, ‘I am afraid to walk alone at night, or ‘Most husbands cannot be trusted’.

These types of cultivation effects have been shown in research concerning violence (Lett, DiPietro, & Johnson, 2004; Hetsroni & Tukachinshy, 2006), psychosocial health characteristics (Hammermeister, Brock, Winterstein, & Page, 2005), estimates about terror attacks (Gunter & Wober, 1983), estimates about people employed as police (Gerbner & Gross, 1976) and lawyers (Pfau, Mullen, Dietrich, & Garrow, 1995), estimates of divorce rates (Carveth & Alexander, 1991) and crime rates (Gerbner, 1996).

First-order effects, since they rely upon memory retrieval, appear to be more reliable using surveys. Since first-order effects determine a person’s beliefs about set size or probability judgments, respondents rely upon long-term memory when making their estimations (see Shrum, 2004). As Shrum (2004) states:

> Given that the first-order judgments are specifically constructed because of overportrayal (i.e., higher frequency) on television relative to the real world, frequency of viewing should be directly related to the frequency with which the constructs are activated, which in turn should influence the ease with which they are recalled. (p. 333)

In any event, either first-order or second-order effects may be influenced by direct, personal experiences. However, since the majority of viewers watching crime-related programming have had little or no experience dealing with the criminal justice system, it may be that respondents generate their responses based on memory recall of television programming.

Another similar and related construct is perceived reality. "The definition of perceived reality would be the degree of perceived similarity between mediated characters and situations and real life characters and situations" (Kim, 2007, p. 6). Viewers often are asked to distinguish the differences between the characters on television and their experiences with real-life people and real-life situations, often with no direct or little personal familiarity.

There are at least three components of perceived reality (Potter, 1988). The first component is called magic window, which refers to one's belief in the literal portrayal of media content and messages. It can be conveyed from the style of delivery of the information. For instance, news may be believed to be more factual coming from a professional newscaster compared to an episode of *CSI.* Furthermore, if one watches violent programming consistently, one may develop the belief that the world is mean and most people are egocentric (Gerbner, 1998).

Another component focuses upon the relationship between what is depicted on television and how that applies to one's own life, often called utility. For example, those viewers who watch soap opera programs may have developed the assumption that soap operas are an accurate depiction of reality. However, those who may not watch them often, or even at all, may view soap operas as over-dramatized and purely entertainment.

The final component is identity, which refers to one's attachment to a character seen on television. That character may become a part of the viewer's real-life persona. For instance, watchers who identify with the main character of *CSI,* Gil Grissom, may imitate his objectivity, sense of justice, or his personality.

Kim (2007) tested cultivation effects and perceived reality of U.S. crime dramas on Korean junior high school students. A survey was conducted with 341 respondents in Seoul, Korea. Categories measured were 1) crime show viewing (measured using choices of *often, sometimes, seldom, never)*, 2) perceived reality of crime show testing for all three components (measured using a 5 point Likert scale), and 3) perception of reality on crime and police/crime scene investigators (measured by asking participants to estimate the likelihood that an average person in Las Vegas, New York City, or Miami would become a victim of robbery and how safe they would feel alone at night).

The research indicated two significant differences among heavy viewers of *CSI* (high cultivation effects) compared to light viewers. First, "a significant difference existed in the perceptions of crime fear in the U.S. big cities and the U.S. police/crime scene investigator between the two groups" (Kim, 2007, p. 10). Secondly, heavy viewers also had a "higher level of perceived fear in the U.S. big cities and more positive attitude toward the U.S. police and crime scene investigator" (p. 11).

There were a few limitations to this research. First, the study only examined the cultivation effects of one particular crime drama, *CSI.* This study compared many crime dramas with that of nonfiction programming as well. Another limitation was whether or not the respondents were influenced by direct experience with police or other types of television programming. It is hoped that this study produced a more efficient and accurate representation of cultivation effects, namely first-order, by controlling direct personal experience and other types of crime-related television programming.

Fear of crime research has been and continues to be studied extensively, especially in regards to cultivation effects. Since, "most Americans identify the media as

their primary source of information about crime" (Weitzer & Kubrin, 2004, p. 498), the amount of media one watches may be correlated with their fear of crime. Recently, some researchers have called for a re-conceptualization of fear of crime. Rader, May, and Goodrum (2007) claimed that fear is only one part of 'threat of victimization'. Therefore, they have defined 'threat of victimization' as comprising of fear, perceptions of risk, and avoidance/defensive behaviors. Fear was the emotional component of victimization (Rader et al., 2007). Perceived risk was defined as the "individual's perception of the likelihood that they will become a victim of crime" (Rader et al., 2007, p. 478). Finally, defensive/avoidance behaviors were correlates of fear of crime. They were behaviors one may adopt in order to deal with the emotional or psychological stressors of fear of becoming a victim (e.g., guard dog, security systems, purchasing a firearm, avoiding unsafe areas).

Altogether, cultivation theory has been researched to measure a number of different effects. For this study, cultivation theory was used as the guiding theory to determine how crime-related programming may have impacted students' beliefs about the criminal justice system. Namely, perceived roles and duties criminal justice agents have, crime rates, clearance rates, fear of criminal victimization, and the importance of forensic evidence within the ever changing criminal justice system.

CHAPTER III – METHODS

This study sought to understand the impact of the extent of viewing crime dramas and other crime-related programming on students' perceptions about the criminal justice system by using previously researched variables that have been correlated with cultivation effects (e.g., hours spent watching television, perceived realism, message content, personal experience) and demographic variables that have been correlated with cultivation (e.g., age, education, gender, race, income, location of residence, and living situation). The students' major also was also collected. Simply put, this study is interested in determining the impact of crime dramas and other crime-related programming on students' perceptions/beliefs about different aspects of the criminal justice system that often are inaccurately portrayed on these types of television programs.

Research Design

This research study is quantitative with descriptive and explanatory purposes. First, the study describes if there are any existing patterns that respondents may exhibit based on television watching habits or other variables and tries to explain why these patterns may or may not exist. Hence, the researcher is able to determine the relationship among these media variables (e.g., hours watching television and incorrect perceptions) that relate to specific false perceptions (i.e., blood is found frequently at crime scenes) about the criminal justice system, its agents, and other phenomena. For instance, there may be differences among people who watch police dramas versus those who watch forensic science documentaries. Although the temporal ordering cannot be accurately established, any correlations between frequent crime drama watching and inaccurate assessments of the criminal justice system are considered to be useful.

Since this study is interested in uncovering students' perceptions concerning the criminal justice system and its agents, a survey was self-administered to the participants. Babbie (1998) described surveys as "the best method available to the social researcher who is interested in collecting original data for describing a population too large to observe directly…" and are "…excellent vehicles for measuring attitudes and orientations in a large population" (p. 256). Moreover, survey data allow researchers to study the relationships between various variables in the research models.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Based on the literature review, there are mixed results pertaining to a CSI effect on juror decisions. However, very few studies focused on the impact crime-related programming may have on students' perceptions pertaining to the roles and responsibilities of criminal justice agents and investigative procedures. Gerbner (1998) suggested that cultivation effects occur over long-term exposure to television in general and that cultivation effects are "aggregate messages embedded in television as a system rather than in specific programs, types, or genres" (p. 181). A few studies have looked specifically at genre-specific effects of crime dramas and other television programming (see Grabe & Drew, 2007; Bilandzic & Rossler, 2004). Grabe and Drew (2007) determined that non-fiction crime shows produce cultivation outcomes, while fictional crime dramas produce little effects (see Appendix A questions 51-52). Additionally, the impact of television has been correlated to influence participants' opinions about a great number of topics. It is essential to analyze the impact of crime dramas on television and/or education on students' perceptions of the criminal justice system. If education is a panacea, the results of this study should reveal such a revelation.

Based upon the literature review, the following hypotheses have been made for this research study. The null hypothesis (Ho) is that no significant differences were present. The first alternative hypothesis addressed the amount of television respondents watch regularly and their perceptions about various issues related to the criminal justice system. Previous cultivation studies have separated samples based on the average amount of television a respondent watches. More is discussed about this separation later in the chapter. It was assumed that those who watch more crime-related television would respond with inaccurate perceptions about various issues related to the criminal justice system. Therefore, the first research question was:

RQ1: Are there statistically significant differences among respondents who watch (measured in hours) crime-related programming on television concerning perceptions about various issues related to the criminal justice system?

Although this study explored student attitudes/perceptions of police officers, their roles, and their responsibilities, previous cultivation studies have suggested that heavy television watching distorts opinions about police (see Morgan & Shanahan, 1997; Shanahan & Morgan, 1999; Weimann, 2000). Gerbner and Gross (1976) have found distortions in estimates about the number of citizens employed as police officers. Since police work often is a major recipient of media attention, both fiction and non-fiction, perceptions may be influenced by the visual media (Dantzker & Waters, 1999). Since many factitious crime-related programs present their characters as having multiple responsibilities, including but not limited to interrogating suspects, analyzing evidence, making arrests, and securing crime scenes, there is a potential that audiences may believe that every police officer has these skills. Kim (2007) found a positive significant

difference between television watching habits and perceptions of police/crime scene investigators. Those surveyed who watched more television had a higher level of perceived crime and also had more positive attitudes towards police officers and/or crime scene investigators. Therefore, the following hypothesis was explored:

Ha(1): Respondents' perceptions about police officer duties and responsibilities will significantly differ based on the amount of time spent viewing crime-related television programs.

This study also explored the impact of crime-related television programming on students' perceptions pertaining to forensic evidence accuracy, prevalence, and procedures. Based on the literature review about this subject, there are a number of depictions on crime-related programs that may influence audience perceptions about the accuracy of scientific evidence, equipment used, and forensic technicians. For example, one forensic scientist claimed that 40% of the forensic technology on television does not exist in reality (Houck, 2006; see also Johnson, 2006). Furthermore, Stephens (2007) revealed that only 5% of crime scenes contain blood in reality. However, Podlas (2006) reviewed the first two seasons of *CSI* and found that blood was found at a crime scene over 26% of the time (12 of 46). Accuracy of particular procedures was compared to those listed in the literature review. In addition to accuracy of forensic evidence, it also is critical to explore the perceptions of laboratories and their workers. All in all, the United States Supreme Court has designated judges to be the gate keepers by assigning them "the task of ensuring that an expert's testimony both rests on a reliable foundation and is relevant to the task at hand" (Daubert v. Merrell Dow Pharmaceuticals, Inc., 1993).

Peterson, Sommers, Johnson, and Baskin (2009) conducted a 30 month project that studied the role and impact of forensic evidence in the criminal justice process. Their study sites represented forensic laboratory systems at the city, county, and state levels. They randomly sampled over 4,000 incidents of homicide, aggravated assaults, rapes, robberies, and burglaries in Los Angeles County, Indianapolis, IN, and Indiana State police lab (local jurisdictions of South Bend, Fort Wayne, and Evansville).

Evidence was collected at 96-100% of the homicide incidents depending on the jurisdiction, 51-75% of the rape incidents, 19-44% of the robbery incidents, 25-38% of aggravated assault incidents, and 15-21% of burglary incidents (Peterson et al., 2009). As an example of types of evidence collected, the following prevalence of types of forensically gathered evidence was collected in Indianapolis. Biological evidence was collected at 89% of the homicide scenes, 63% of the rape scenes, 0.3% of the robbery scenes, 5.3% of the aggravated assault scenes, and 2% of burglary scenes. Prints were collected at 75% of homicide scenes, 2% or rape scenes, 16% of robbery scenes, 0.3% of aggravated assault scenes, and 20% of burglary scenes. Firearms evidence was collected at 82% of homicide scenes, 0.7% of rape scenes, 7% of robbery scenes, 26% of aggravated assault scenes, and 0% of burglary scenes. Natural and/or synthetic materials evidence was collected at 69% of homicide scenes, 47% of rape scenes, 0.9% of robbery scenes, 0.3% of aggravated assault scenes, and 0.3% of burglary scenes. Peterson et al. (2009) reveal the 70% of laboratory caseloads are dominated by controlled substances, followed by biological evidence, firearms, and fingerprints.

Furthermore, Peterson et al. (2009) conducted a field poll of California residents (N = 1201) as to their views of reliability and significance of forensic evidence. They

controlled for television viewing habits, jury service experience, criminal justice employment, and crime victimization. They found that citizens perceived forensically gathered evidence as more reliable than other forms of evidence, including testimonial evidence. Additionally, they found that those citizens who watch more hours of television find forensic evidence more reliable than those who watch less. Finally, they deemed that citizens who watched crime-related dramas and other justice themed programming were more than twice as likely to convict as those who did not. Therefore, the following hypothesis was tested:

Ha(2): Respondents' perceptions about the prevalence of forensic evidence will significantly differ based on the amount of time spent viewing crime-related television programs.

It seems that on every episode of *CSI, Law and Order, Criminal Mind,* and other crime-related programming, the police always find the incriminating evidence or apply perfect logic to apprehend and arrest their suspect(s). In reality, this is far from the truth. For example, criminal homicide has the highest clearance rate for any crime. In 1976, the clearance rate for homicide was 79% and has continuously declined through 2005 when the clearance rate was 62% (FBI Supplementary Homicide Report, 1976-2005). Even with the advancement in technology and investigative procedures, the number of homicides cleared has been steadily declining over the past 30 years. Although this study examines the impact of television on perceptions of cleared crimes in more detail, Goidel, Freeman, and Procopio (2006) found statistically significant differences among heavy television watchers and their perceptions of crime rates. Those who watched more television felt that the crime rate was increasing. Giacopassi and Vandiver (1999) also

found that 82% of introductory students and 56% of seniors overestimated the number of homicides by 25%. Overall, serious violent crime levels have been decreasing since 1993 and property crime levels have continued to decrease since 1973 (FBI, n.d.). Therefore, the following hypotheses were tested:

Ha(3): Respondents' perceptions about clearance rates (of crimes reported) will differ based on the amount of time spent viewing crime-related television programs.

Ha(4): Respondents' perceptions about reported crime rates will differ based on the amount of time spent viewing crime-related television programs.

Many studies have researched the impact of media (namely television) on fear of crime attitudes (e.g., Kim, 2007; Holbert, Shah, & Kwak, 2004; Roberts, 1992; O'Keefe & Reid-Nash, 1987). Fear of crime is indirectly related to one's assessment of their risk of victimization (see Gerbner & Gross, 1976; Hawkins & Pingree, 1980; Weaver & Wakshlag, 1986). In general, these studies have indicated a relationship between the amount of television watched and estimates of personal victimization. The current study also examined the role of television, specifically crime-related programming, on respondents' estimate of personal victimization. Therefore, the following hypothesis was explored:

Ha(5): Respondents' perceptions about fear of criminal victimization will significantly differ based on the amount of time spent viewing crime-related television programs.

This study also explored the impact of education on perceptions of the aforementioned hypotheses by comparing criminal justice and non-criminal justice students by asking the following research question:

RQ2: Are there statistically significant differences between criminal justice students and non-criminal justice students concerning perceptions about the criminal justice system?

Dantzker and Waters (1999) found that criminal justice students exhibited more positive attitudes towards police in both pre- and post-perception compared to non-criminal justice students when testing their perceptions of police. They concluded that criminal justice courses had a positive effect on perceptions while non-criminal justice courses might cause a negative perception. Although Dantzker and Waters study looked only at the role of criminal justice courses, it seems evident that criminal justice courses impacted the students' perceptions towards police. There were no known studies that looked at other aspects of the criminal justice system, forensic evidence, or other aspects of this study.

Overall, there are some demographic variables that have been consistently tested in cultivation analysis including race, gender, area of residence, and firsthand experience (Grabe & Drew, 2007). Although these variables are examined in this study, personal experience seems to have the most relevance for potential criminal justice practitioners. "Differences in real-world experiences and the factors shaping such experiences contribute to the variations in perceptions of reality" (Cohen & Weimann, 2000, p. 101). Gerbner (1998) refers to these experiences as "resonance". This combination of personal interaction and direct experience plays a role in cultivation effects. For this study, it was essential to control for those respondents who have experience with the criminal justice system (i.e., employees, interns, victims, offenders, or personal relationships with one who works within the system).

Previous cultivation research has two general dimensions: audience characteristics and message-specific influences (See Figure 1). Audience characteristics focus on a participant's demographic information, personal experience, perceived reality of message, information processing, and salience of issue (Grabe & Drew, 2007). Message-specific influences content, genre, and channel/media type (Grabe & Drew, 2007). For this study, the main focus is on audience characteristics because the study is focusing solely on one type of message characteristic (i.e., crime-related content).

A respondent's 'perceived reality of message' response was measured through a variety of questions on the survey (see Appendix A). For instance, questions were written to determine particular job duties that are portrayed incorrectly on crime dramas (see Appendix A questions 53-59). Furthermore, questions were asked pertaining to the number of times out of 100 crime scenes a particular piece of forensic evidence is found in reality (see Appendix A questions 33-36). If a respondent over- or underestimates the prevalence of evidence compared to reality, it shall be determined that the participant has a distorted view of the criminal justice reality. Overall, a student's belief and/or conceptions were measured by comparing their answer on the survey to that of reality. Their perceptions were subtracted from reality. The difference was squared and square rooted to eliminate any negative responses. The study was interested in how much distortion existed rather than direction. Furthermore, when adding together the error rate for each type of evidence, the lack of negative numbers eliminated a zero sum result.

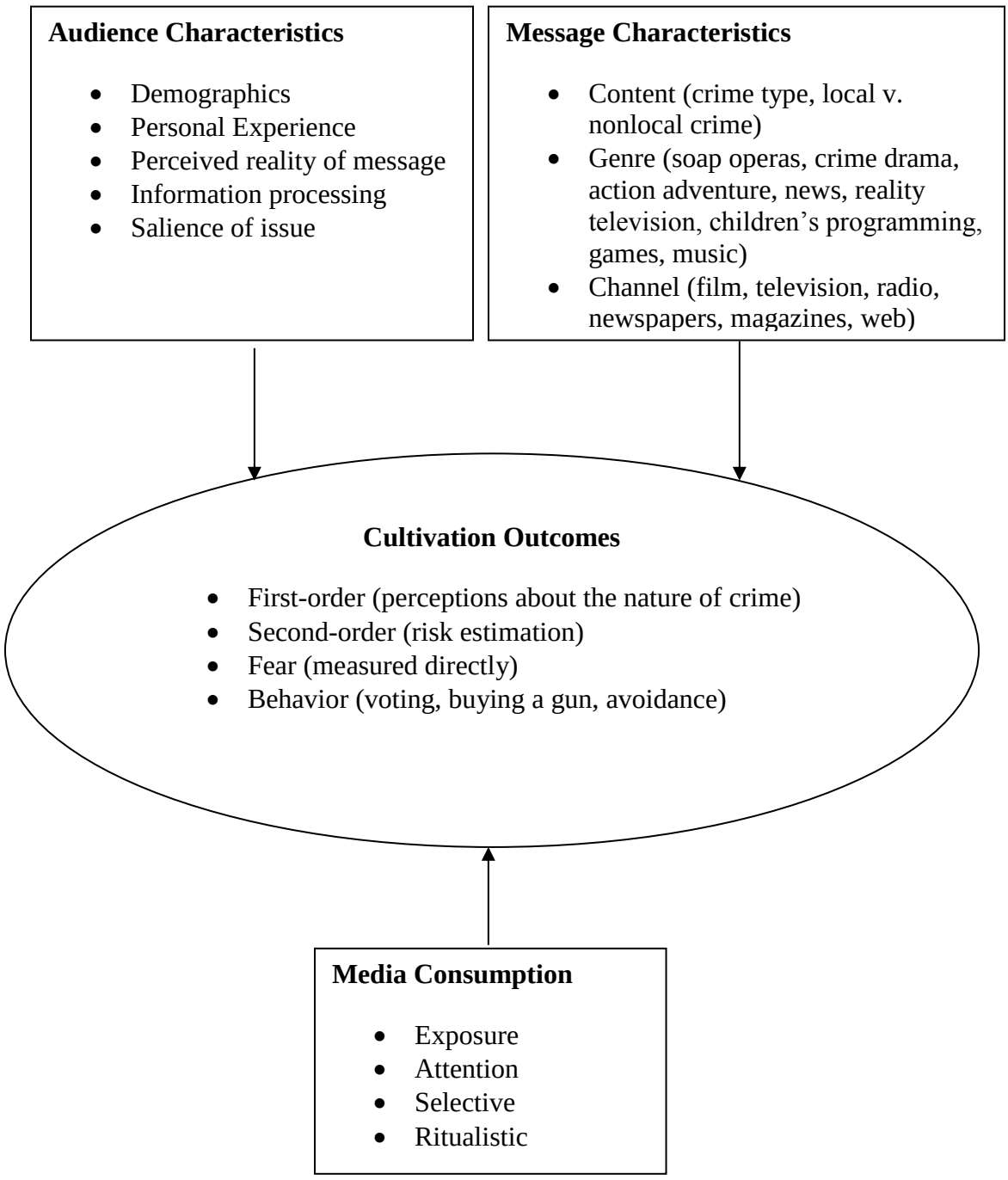

Figure 1. The dimensions of crime cultivation research. Adapted from "Crime Cultivation: Comparisons Across Media Genres and Channels," by M.E. Grabe and D.G. Drew, 2007, *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media, 51*(1), p. 148.

The research is focused on the role that television may play on students' perceptions. Therefore, the amount of television watched as well as types and amount of crime-related programming watched are significant variables to determine what effect, if any, television may have on students' perceptions.

Sampling Framework

A list of offered courses was obtained from the university class schedule website. The sample for this study was undergraduate students at a Northwestern university. This student sample was grouped according to major: criminal justice and other (see Appendices C and D for list of courses). A stratified cluster sampling design was used for this study. These clusters refer to the list of available courses in both CCJ and university studies. "Cluster samples are useful when a listing of clusters is available, but a list of the population is not available" (Henry, 1990). It was far easier to obtain a list of courses offered in the winter 2011 quarter than a list of all students at the university. Therefore, a cluster sample of courses was used for this study (see Appendices C and D). There were two sampling frames, or lists, for this study. There was a list of courses within the CCJ program and another list of university studies required courses. These lists were stratified based on class status (e.g., lower division and upper division). Stratified sampling ensures a greater degree of representativeness of the student body as well as decreasing the probable sampling error (Babbie, 1998). Furthermore, "the ultimate function of stratification…is to organize the population into homogeneous subsets (with heterogeneity between subsets) and to select the appropriate number of elements from each" (Babbie, 1998, p. 217).

For this study, the number of courses chosen for each stratum was representative of the population size of students within that stratum. At the university where the students were sampled, courses are mostly split into lower division and upper division. Lower division courses usually have mostly freshmen and sophomores, while upper division courses usually have juniors and seniors. Lower division courses start with either a 1- or a 2-, and upper division start with either a 3- or a 4-. For example, if 45% of the total population of students is lower division (i.e., freshman and sophomores based on total credit hours) then 45% of the sample was selected from lower division courses (e.g., CCJ 230, USEM 101, etc.). The same procedure was applied to university studies courses.

Mertler & Vannatta (2005) suggest that 15 cases are needed per independent variable for statistical power. Since there are approximately 11 independent variables, a sample size was needed for each strata of students (CCJ and non-CCJ) proportionally. An estimated 165 CCJ students and 165 non-CCJ students was needed for statistical power. Therefore, a total sample size of 330 students was sought for this study. Table 1 shows the sampling frame proportion for CCJ students.

Table 1

Criminology and Criminal Justice Student Sampling Frame Proportion

Class Level	Proportion of Population (N = 165)
Lower Division	• Lower Division = 31.6% of the CCJ student population • 31.6% of 165 = n; n = 54 • Course clusters were randomly selected until n is equal to the corresponding proportion desired
Upper Division	• Junior/Senior = 68.4% of the criminology student population • 68.4% of 165 = n; n = 113 • Course clusters were randomly selected until n is equal to the corresponding proportion desired

The same procedure of constructing the criminology student sampling frame was used to construct the non-CCJ sampling frame. Table 2 represents the strategy for compiling the sampling frame for non-CCJ students.

Table 2

Non-CCJ Student Sampling Frame Proportion

Class Level	Proportion of Population (N = 165)
Lower Division	• Sophomore = 59% of the non-CCJ student population • 59% of 165 = n; n = 98 • Course clusters were be randomly selected until n is equal to the corresponding proportion desired
Upper Division	• Junior/Senior = 41% of the non-criminology student population • 41% of 165 = n; n = 68 • Course clusters were be randomly selected until n is equal to the corresponding proportion desired

A sample of possible classes was randomly selected from each of these lists. Each course selected served as a cluster of participants who were asked to voluntarily participate in this study. After the class had been randomly selected from either the CCJ course list or university studies course list, a letter was be sent to the appropriate instructor of that course to ask permission to administer the questionnaire to their students. Any student who was in multiple courses was asked to not participate the second or any subsequent time. Furthermore, any student who was under 18 years old also was instructed not to participate.

Questionnaire Construction

In order to test the previously mentioned seven hypotheses, a survey questionnaire was provided to students. A small pilot study was administered in January 2011 to determine the estimated time of completion (15-30 minutes) and to make sure the

questions were appropriate and students understood the questions. Some of the questions were reworded and the final survey result is located in the appendices (Appendix A). The survey was designed to explore the impact of television, most notably crime-related programming, on students' perceptions about the criminal justice system. The questions were developed to examine television watching variables, demographic variables, and educational variables. The following section outlines the operationalization of the dependent variables as well as the independent variables.

The key variables for this research are related to the criminal justices system and previous cultivation research. This study also was interested in students' perceptions of the criminal justice system and their attitudes. Cultivation research deems these as "first order" and "second order" effects, respectively (Gerbner & Gross, 1976; Shrum, 1999). First order effects ask respondents to make a quantitative judgment based on memory recall. For instance, what percentages of robberies lead to an arrest? Second order effects determine the respondent's attitude or beliefs (For complete descriptions of first- and second-order effects see Chapter 2). For example, are you afraid someone will break into your home? In order to test these effects, this study also asked participants questions regarding a variety of topics such as roles and duties of police officers, attorneys, judges, forensic technicians, and forensic scientists (see Appendix A). Additionally, the prevalence of scientifically produced evidence and crime labs was examined (see Appendix A questions 33-36 and 60-62). The respondents also were asked to answer questions pertaining to their perceptions of clearance rates, crime rates, and fear of crime. Finally, participants were asked if they have ever participated within the criminal justice system as a juror, witness, victim, or defendant.

Dependent Variables

For this study, there were seven dependent variables that were examined in various models. They all fall under the category of perception of social reality about crime and the criminal justice system. The first dependent variable was perceptions about police officers and their responsibilities. Dantzker and Waters (1999) explored the relationship between criminal justice courses and perceptions of policing. Their 14 item questionnaire had high internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha = .80). They used a 5 point Likert scale ranging from -2 (extremely disagree) to +2 (extremely agree). The same 14 statements were used in this study to determine participants' perceptions of policing, but the Likert scale range was changed to 1(extremely disagree) through 5 (extremely agree) to retain consistency in the questionnaire. (see Appendix A questions 1-14).

Other perceptions explored were students "threat of victimization". Radar, May, and Goodrum (2007) tested several dimensions of "the threat of victimization", which they conceptualize as fear and perceptions of risk. Their fear of criminal victimization scale (see Appendix A questions 15-20,) included a 4 point Likert-type scale formatted as strongly agree=4, somewhat agree=3, somewhat disagree=2, and strongly disagree=1. The scale had a high internal reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of .863.

Additionally, students were asked to give their perception of clearance rates by writing out the number of times a person is arrested out of 100 incidents of a particular type of crime (see Appendix A questions 37-44). For each of the students' responses, their estimate was subtracted from the FBI's reported clearance rate, the result was squared and then the square root was calculated. The elimination of negatives was

essential in determining the total error for all index crimes. If a student overestimated the clearance of homicide by 25 and underestimated robbery by 25, it would appear that the student estimated correctly the total clearance rate. Thus, negatives were removed to capture the total error of their estimations of eight index crime. After each of the eight index differences were calculated, the scores were added to create a clearance rate total error rate. Similarly, students were asked to give their perceptions of violent crime and property crime rates over the past 10 years (see Appendix A questions 45-46). These were summed and made into a summative scale.

Finally, students were asked to give their perceptions of the prevalence of particular types of evidence that are found and collected at crime scenes (see Appendix A questions 33-36). Theses answers were compared to Peterson, Sommers, Johnson, and Baskin's (2009) National Institute of Justice research pertaining to the role and impact of forensic evidence. The estimates were subtracted from Peterson et al. findings, squared, and then square-rooted. Similar to the total error for clearance rates, each of the four different evidence types were summed to create a total error score for forensic evidence.

Independent Variables

Media Factors

Grabe and Drew (2007) measured media factors by asking respondents about the number of times they watched television in the past week. Using the number of days per week allows interval scales. This study asked students the number of hours on average they watch television per week, the number of hours per week they watch fictional crime-relate programming, and the number of hours per week they watch non-fictional crime-related programming. Other questions asked how often students watch specific programs

such as particular crime dramas and/or reality crime programs (see Appendix A questions 47-52).

Educational Factors

The groups of independent variables that are most relevant to this study are educational factors. That is, a student's major, class status, and the number of CCJ courses taken. Thus, being a CCJ major should mediate the impact of media on their perceptions of the criminal justice system. It is thought that those students with CCJ majors should be better able to distinguish between false depictions and reality. Questions measuring these variables asked respondents to select their perceived class status, their major and/or minor, and the number of criminal justice courses taken (see Appendix A questions 66-69). Students with non-CCJ majors were asked to write their major on a space provided (see Appendix A question 67). If CCJ students watch more crime-related programming, it would be essential to determine if they have more accurate beliefs about the criminal justice system compared to non-CCJ students.

Demographic Factors

Seven demographic variables have been consistently used in cultivation studies. Specifically, these include sex, age, education, income, race, geographic location, and living situation (i.e., living alone or with others). Since the sample consisted of enrolled college students, income and education were not measured. Respondents were asked to identify their sex (Appendix A question 63), their age (Appendix A question 64), their race (Appendix A question 65), the geographic location of their permanent residence (Appendix A question 70), and how many people live in that permanent residence (Appendix A question 71).

Personal Experience Factors

Personal experience is another variable that is essential to analyzing potential cultivation effects (Gerber, 1998). "Differences in real-world experiences and the factors shaping such experiences contribute to the variations in perceptions of reality" (Cohen & Weimann, 2000, p. 101). First hand experiences encompass a few different types of questions (see Appendix A questions 21-32). Students were asked if they had ever participated within the criminal justice system in a number of different roles (see Appendix A question 30). Additionally, students were asked if anyone in their household was employed within the criminal justice system (see Appendix A question 31). These questions were dummy coded yes/no in a criminal justice participation variable of experience if a respondent selected yes to any of the criminal justice system participation questions. Additionally, participants were asked if they were ever a victim of a number of crimes through the use of multiple questions pertaining to different types of possible victimization experiences (see Appendix A questions 21 – 29). These questions were dummy coded yes/no in a prior victimization variable if a respondent answered yes to any of the questions.

Procedures and Human Subject Issues

Once permission was granted to access the randomly selected courses (see Appendices C and D for the list of possible courses and Appendix E for the letter sent to instructors), the researcher described the purpose and topic of the survey. Upon completion of reading the informed consent form (see Appendix F), students were asked to complete the survey. Once finished, students placed their surveys in a box located at the front of the classroom. Once all surveys were finished, the researcher secured the box

and kept it locked in their office. Only the researcher and members of the dissertation committee had access to the surveys. All students who were under the age of 18 were asked not to participate as well as those students who already may have taken the survey during another course.

Students were informed about the voluntary nature of this project and were not penalized for not participating. Students were asked not to write any distinguishing or identifying information, which assisted in maintaining the respondent's anonymity. Students were asked to remove the informed consent page and keep it for their records or for any possible contact with the researcher or dissertation chair for any additional information about the study. Since this study was based on crime-related programming and topics that are generally discussed in public and in classrooms, there were no risks beyond a minimal level. Thus, a debriefing was not necessary upon completion of the survey.

Analysis Plan

Once the surveys were administered, data was entered into and analyzed in SPSS. The researcher summated some scales and whenever necessary, questions were reverse coded for consistency in direction and scale (see Appendix A questions 1 and 10) The researcher was looking for any correlations that can impact a person's beliefs and perceptions pertaining to the criminal justice system, as well as its agents. In order to obtain potential patterns and a distribution of the variables, descriptive and bivariate tests were run.

Also, internal consistency of the scale items in the questionnaire was of the utmost importance. Therefore, Cronbach's Alpha was used to assess the internal

consistency of the survey items. Alpha refers to the total variance that is attributed to one source (DeVellis, 2003). It can range from 0.0 to 1.0 and the Cronbach's Alpha value is a valuable indicator of internal consistency. Although many researchers have their own personal opinion of acceptance, DeVellis's range is "below .60, unacceptable; between .60 and .65, undesirable; between .65 and .70, minimally acceptable; between .70 and .80, respectable; between .80 and .90, very good; much above .90, one should consider shortening the scale" (p. 95-96).

Regression models were used for each of the dependent variables in this study. This study determined the effect of crime-related television programming, demographic factors, or personal experience on perceptions of the criminal justice system on the dependent variables (perceptions of police, prevalence of forensic evidence, perceived clearance rates, perceived crime rates, and fear of criminal victimization,). The following equation was used to assess these potential effects:

$$y_k = a_0 + b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 + b_3x_3 + \ldots + b_kx_k + e$$

Where:

y_1 = perceptions about police officer duties and responsibilities

y_2 = perceptions about the prevalence of forensic evidence

y_3 = perceptions of clearance rates

y_4 = perceptions of crime rates

y_5 = perceptions of fear of criminal victimization

y_6 = perceptions about criminal justice agents

a_0 = constant

x_1 = age

x_2 = number of criminal justice courses[1]

x_3 = major

x_4 = sex

x_5 = area of residence (suburban/urban and rural)

x_6 = personal and/or vicarious experience with criminal justice system (yes and no)

x_9 = TV watching (All television watching measured in hours)

x_{10} = TV watching (fictional crime-related only; measured in hours)

x_{11} = TV watching (non-fictional crime-related only; measured in hours)

x_{12} = experienced personal victimization (yes or no)

x_{13} = co-occupants

[1] Unless number of criminal justice courses and major are highly correlated. In which case the number of CCJ course will be used in the model.

CHAPTER IV – DATA AND ANALYSIS

Chapter IV presents the results of the current study. A brief discussion of the descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations are presented. The majority of attention focused on the variables of interest (the three television viewing variables) and their possible impact on the six hypotheses[2].

The results of this study were based on a sample of 406 undergraduate students at a public liberal arts university in the Northwest. Using the stratified cluster sampling framework discussed in the previous chapter, courses randomly were selected from the university's studies courses offered in May 2011. A total of 465 surveys were distributed, of which 59 were blank or partially completed (12.7%). Therefore, the final sample was 406 (87.3%). Since the surveys were administered during the final two weeks of the term, only 12 of the 27 randomly selected university studies courses participated and 13 of the 15 CCJ courses participated.

Frequencies and Descriptive Statistics

Independent Variables

Based on the literature review, twelve independent variables were examined for their possible influence/impact on the dependent variables. Table 3 provides the frequencies as well as the percentages of these independent variables. Males comprised 42.6% of the sample and females 57.4%. This breakdown was very close to the university's gender distribution, where males accounted for 41.2% of the student population and females accounted for 58.8% in the spring 2011 term

[2] Prior to the collection of data, two hypotheses (worry about victimization and risk of victimization) and their respective questions were thought to be related to the fear of victimization construct (see Chapter III). Additionally, these highly correlated constructs may have made the original questionnaire too long. The questions attempting to capture worry and risk were removed and the hypotheses were not included in the analysis.

Table 3

Frequencies and Percentages for Independent Variables

Variable	Code	Mean	Frequency	Percent
Sex	0 = Female		232	57.1
	1 = Male		174	42.9
Age		22.44		
Race	0 = Other		69	17.0
	1 = White		337	83.0
No. of CCJ Courses	0		134	33.0
	1-3		119	29.3
	4-7		58	14.3
	8-10		30	7.4
	11+		65	16.0
Town	0 = Rural		142	35
	1 = Suburban/Urban		264	65.0
Co-occupants		3.19		
Any Victimization	0 = No		76	18.7
	1 = Yes		330	81.3
Criminal Justice Experience	0 = No		269	66.3
	1 = Yes		137	33.7
Total of any TV watching		10.19		
Fictional crime-related TV watching only		2.64		
Non-fictional crime-related TV watching only		1.68		

(Office of Institutional Research, 2012). The mean age for the sample was 22.44 years, while the median age of the undergraduate student body in the spring 2011 term was 24.36 (Office of Institutional Research).

For this sample, the vast majority of respondents were white (83.0%). For the remaining respondents, Latino made up 5.2%, Black 2.7%, and Other 9.1%. Because of the lack of variation and low reporting numbers of other races, all non-white respondents were collapsed into the same category (others=0, whites=1)[3]. The Office of Institutional Research (2012) reported that whites made up 70.4% of the student body, while Latinos made up 6.3%, Blacks 1.8%, and other races/ethnicities made up 21.5%.

Also of note, rural respondents consisted of 35% of the sample, while urban respondents were 13.8% and suburban respondents were 51.2%. Due to low urban numbers and lack of variance between urban and suburban respondents, urban and suburban respondents were collapsed into the same category. An independent sample t test was run on the collapsed town attributes. Thus, suburban and urban were collapsed for the model. Furthermore, there were only 56 respondents who selected urban and this may have impacted the significance.

Since there were a number of questions that sought past criminal victimizations, any prior victimizations were collapsed into a new variable called "any victimization" (81.3% of respondents had been victimized). The variable personal and/or vicarious criminal justice experience contains those who participated as an intern, employee, witness, juror, or live with someone who worked within the criminal justice system. The collapsing of the variable was done mainly because of low reporting numbers (33.7% of

[3] An independent sample t test was run on the collapsed race variables and there were no statistically significant differences between any of the collapsed categories.

respondents had either vicarious or personal experience within the criminal justice system), but an independent sample t test indicated that there was no significant differences for 5 of the dependent variables. However, there was a significant difference of means in fear of victimization when a co-habitant worked within the criminal justice system.

The mean number of television hours watched per week was 10.19, which was well below the national average. According to T*he World Almanac and Book of Facts* (2011), Americans consume over 34 hours of television viewing per week. This difference is discussed in chapter V.

Respondents were asked to indicate how often they watch specific programs using a 4 point Likert scale. Responses were coded as 0 for never, 1 for Rarely, 2 for Sometimes, and 4 for Often. The frequency of each response was multiplied by the Likert scale value and each category was summed to create a total weighted score for each program. This calculation would surmise a crime-related program's weighted popularity within the sample. Table 4 displays the results.

Table 4

Crime-related Programs by Weighted Popularity

	Show	Never (0)	Rarely (1)	Sometimes (2)	Often (3)	Total Score
Fictional						
	Bones (write in)	371	4	9	22	88
	Castle	345	24	15	22	120
	Cold Case	276	74	45	11	197
	Criminal Minds (any)	219	72	63	52	354
	CSI (any)	177	90	88	51	419
	Detroit 187	387	9	7	3	32
	Law & Order (any)	198	74	79	55	397
	NCIS (any)	243	62	59	42	306
	The Mentalist	334	35	21	16	125
Non-fictional						
	20-20	334	35	21	16	125
	48 Hours	276	66	50	14	208
	60 Minutes	241	79	72	14	265
	AMW	254	92	46	14	226
	Cold Case Files	266	69	49	22	233
	Cops	203	97	69	37	346
	Dateline	254	85	57	10	229
	First 48 Hours	290	47	40	29	214
	Lock Up	284	48	46	28	224

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables for this study included perceptions of police, fear of victimization, perceptions of crime rates, knowledge and accuracy of criminal justice process, perceptions of crime labs, perceptions of the prevalence of forensic evidence, and perceptions of clearance rates. The perceptions of police, fear of victimization, perceptions of crime rate, perceptions of clearance rates, and perceptions of forensic evidence were additive scales. Table 5 contains the descriptive statistics for the dependent variables.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Dependent Variables

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation	Actual Minimum	Actual Maximum
Perceptions of Police	26.87	7.715	11	53
Fear of Victimization	12.24	3.844	6	24
Perceptions of Crime Rate	6.42	1.908	2	10
Knowledge Accuracy of Criminal Justice System	4.62	1.494	0	7
Perception of Forensic Evidence Total Error	128.51	82.150	11.90	334.50
Perception of Clearance Rate Total Error	197.95	81.388	54.60	471.00
Perception of Crime Labs	7.86	2.674	3	15

The perception of police variable was measured using 14 questions with a 5 item Likert scale for each question. Questions 1 and 10 were reversed coded based on a directional wording of the questions. Although Dantzker & Waters (1999) did not present eigenvalues for their research, a factor analysis was conducted for this study. Three eigenvalues over one were found for the 14-item perceptions of police variable. One unitary construct for questions 2 through 12 focused on the construct of daily police responsibility, while questions 13 and 14 focused on police discipline and question 1 focused on police duty. Questions 1, 13, and 14 were removed and a factor analysis was conducted on the remaining questions. The 11 questions combined for only one eigenvalue over one. The Cronbach's alpha for this new 11-item scale was .880, which was higher than Dantzker & Waters' alpha (.80). Overall, respondents with lower scores indicated a more positive perception of police while those respondents with higher scores indicated a negative perception of police work.

The fear of victimization variable was measured using a 6-item additive scale with a range of 1-4 for each question; there was only one eigenvalue for the 6 questions, which yielded a .835 Cronbach's alpha. Higher scores indicate a fear of criminal victimization while lower scores indicate minimal fear of victimization.

The variable perception of crime rate was measured using a 2-item additive scale with a response range between 1 and 5 for each question; it too had one eigenvalue and yielded a .741 Cronbach's alpha. Lower scores indicated the belief that crime was decreasing and higher scores indicated the belief that crime was increasing.

The knowledge accuracy of the criminal justice system variable was measured using a 7-item additive scale. Respondents were asked yes (0) /no (1) questions about job duties of criminalists, detectives, and coroners; higher scores indicated a more accurate knowledge of various criminal justice responsibilities.

The perceptions of crime labs variables asked respondents about their perceptions of how long it takes to analyze DNA, fibers, and other bodily fluids. According to James's (2011) study "nearly three-quarters of responding laboratories reported completing DNA analysis requests within 119 days (four months) or less. Of the remaining laboratories, 24 (16.6%) reported that turnaround time was more than 180 days (six months) and another 20 (13.8%) laboratories reported turnaround times of 270 days (nine months) or more" (p. 12). For this study, 12.1% (n = 49) of students believed it took hours, 26.8% (n = 109) believed it took days, 37.4% (n = 152) believed it took weeks, 20.2% (n = 82) believed it took months, and 3.4% (n = 14) believed it took years. Thus, 57.6% of students who chose weeks or months were fairly accurate in their estimation. Additionally, the average length of time it takes to analyze other bodily fluids

is insignificant because other bodily fluids tend to be screened for DNA and then sent for such analysis (Carraba, 2012); so body fluid analysis is compared with DNA analysis. The frequencies of other bodily fluid estimations were 19.0% (n = 77) believed it took hours, 31.8% (n = 129) believed it took days, 33.3% (n = 135) believed it took weeks, 14.0% (n = 57) believed it took months, and 2.0% (n = 8) believed it took years. Thus, 14.0% of respondents were close in their estimation of the analysis of bodily fluids.

Furthermore, M. W. Carraba (personal communication, September 12, 2012), a university forensic chemistry professor and former FBI crime lab analyst, stated that it takes, on average, days to weeks to analyze fibers depending on the actual fiber. Interestingly, 13.3% (n = 54) of students believed it took hours, 30.0% (n = 122) believed it took days, 40.9% (n = 166) believed it took weeks, 13.5% (n = 55) believed it took months, and 2.2% (n = 9) believed it took year. Again, the majority of students (70.9%) were quite close in their estimation. This further is discussed in Chapter V.

The perception of forensic evidence prevalence questions asked respondents to estimate to the best of their ability how many times (out of 100) biological evidence, fingerprints, firearms or bullet casings, and natural or synthetic fibers were collected at a crime scene. Peterson, Sommers, Johnson, and Baskin's (2009) conducted a 30-month study of three jurisdictions and the types of evidence that were collected at homicide, rape, robbery, aggravated assault, and burglary crime scenes. Blood and other bodily fluids were collected at 19.2% of the aforementioned crime scenes. Additionally, fingerprints were collected at 17.6%, firearms and/or bullet casings were collected at 15.0%, and natural or synthetic materials were collected at 13.7%. A respondent's perceived prevalence was subtracted from the actual prevalence for each type of

evidence; the differences were squared and then the square root was determined to obtain an individual's overall predictive score. The variable perception of forensic evidence total error was the sum of the four error scores for each type of forensic evidence. The mean was 128.51 with a range between 11.90 and 334.50. Higher perception of forensic evidence total error scores indicated a false belief in the prevalence of collected forensic evidence.

The perceived clearance rates of the FBI's Part 1 Index Crimes were tabulated by asking respondents to estimate to the best of their ability the number of arrests made out of 100 for a particular index crime. The difference between the FBI's 2010 clearance rate for each index crime and the respondent's perceived clearance rate produced the error score for each index crime. These error scores were squared and the square roots were taken. The eight error scores were then summed to create the respondent's perception of clearance rate total error score. The mean was 197.75 with a range between 54.6 and 471.00. Higher total error scores indicated a higher inaccuracy of clearance rates compared to reality.

Bivariate Correlations

Bivariate correlations were conducted to examine the impact each of the independent variables on the dependent variables. Correlations also were used to determine if there was any multicollinearity among independent variables (see Appendix G). The absence of perfect or severe multicollinearity is one of the assumptions of multiple regression (Lewis-Black, 1980).

Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken (2003) indicate that correlation coefficients range from weak (0.0-0.3) to moderate (0.3-0.5) to strong (0.5-1.0). Perceived Class status had

a significant medium correlation with age ($r = .451$, $p < .01$) and a large correlation with the number of CCJ courses ($r = .516$, $p < .01$). Thus, perceived class status was removed to prevent multicollinearity problems in the model. Furthermore, CCJ Major or Minor had a significantly large correlation with the number of CCJ courses variable ($r = .762$, $p < .01$); the CCJ Major or Minor variable also was removed to prevent multicollinearity. Appendix H contains the amended bivariate correlation matrix with perceived class status and CCJ Major or Minor variables removed.

The media variables of interest (Total TV watching, Fictional crime-related TV watching only, and non-fictional crime-related TV watching only) had medium-sized correlations among each other. However, these variables are conceptually different and were operationalized as such. Furthermore, this study was seeking to understand if fictional crime-related programming and non-fictional crime-related programming had different impacts on a number of criminal justice related issues.

Multiple Regression

Bivariate correlations fail to account for the influence of other independent variables on the dependent variable. Thus, multiple regression models were used to determine the combined impact of the independent variables on each of the dependent variables.

Perception of Police

The first tested hypothesis, respondents' perceptions about police officer duties and responsibilities would significantly differ based on the amount of time spent viewing crime-related television programs, was tested. Table 6 has the results.

Table 6

Multiple Regression of Perception of Police (n = 406)

	B	S.E.	Beta	t
(Constant)	33.275	2.275		14.628
Total of any TV watching	-.057	.044	-.071	-1.288
Fictional crime-related TV watching	.063	.103	.032	.606
Non-fictional crime-related TV watching	-.154	.151	-.053	-1.024
Sex	.149	.735	.010	.202
Age	.178**	.067	.127	2.661
Race	-4.906**	.961	-.239	-5.103
No. of CCJ Courses	-1.657**	.263	-.305	-6.293
Town	-.298	.744	-.018	-.400
Co-occupants	-.435	.264	-.077	-1.647
Any Victimization	.781	.912	.040	.857
CJ Experience	-2.144**	.775	-.132	-2.768

R^2 = .177
F = 7.693
p < .000

NOTE: * *Significance at the .05 level*
** *Significance at the .01 level*

The first hypothesis concerning the variables of interest and perceptions of police was not supported by this study. The model resulted in an R^2 of .177 and accounted for 17.7% of the variance in perception of police. The variables that were significant at the alpha level of .05 or less were age, race, number of CCJ courses, and personal or vicarious criminal justice experience. Older students tend to have more negative perceptions of police (b = 0.178). These results indicated that non-white respondents had a more negative perception of police than white respondents (b = -4.906). Students who have taken more CCJ courses tend to have a more positive perception of police (b = -1.657). Students with criminal justice experience as an intern, employer, witness, juror, or live with someone employed by the system have more favorable perceptions of police (b

= -2.144). Based on beta weights the number of CCJ courses had the strongest impact on perception of police, followed by race, criminal justice experience, and age respectively. The three media variables of interest were not significant in explaining much variation in regards to perceptions of police officers.

Perception of Forensic Evidence Prevalence

The second tested hypothesis claimed that respondents' perceptions about the prevalence of forensic evidence would significantly differ based on the amount of time spent viewing crime-related television programs. Table 7 displays the results.

Table 7

Multiple Regression of Perception of Forensic Evidence Prevalence (n = 406)

	B	S.E.	Beta	t
(Constant)	159.926	25.603		6.246
Total TV watching	.365	.500	.042	.730
Fictional crime-related TV watching	2.326*	1.162	.113	2.001
Non-fictional crime-related TV watching	-1.733	1.694	-.056	-1.023
Sex	-24.180**	8.275	-.146	-2.922
Age	.703	.754	.047	.932
Race	-12.670	10.821	-.058	-1.171
No. of CCJ Courses	-10.925**	2.964	-.189	-3.686
Town	-8.072	8.379	-.047	-.963
Co-occupants	3.135	2.972	.052	1.055
Any Victimization	-16.402	10.264	-.078	-1.598
CJ Experience	5.764	8.721	.033	.661

R^2 = .080
F = 3.126
p < .000

NOTE: * Significance at the .05 level
** Significance at the .01 level

The model R^2 was .080 and accounted for 8.0% of the variance in the forensic evidence error rate variable. The three independent variables that were significant at the

.05 level or less were fictional television watching, sex, and number of CCJ courses. Those who watch more fictional crime-related drama tended to have more error in their belief of forensic evidence prevalence (b=2.326, $p < .05$). Additionally, females had more inaccurate perceptions of the prevalence of forensic evidence (b = -24.180, $p < .01$). Finally, those students who have taken more CCJ courses had a smaller forensic evidence total error term (b = -10.925, $p < .01$). Based on beta weights, the number of CCJ courses had the strongest impact on perception of forensic evidence prevalence followed by sex and then fictional television watching hours.

The second hypothesis, which claimed that respondents' perceptions about the prevalence of forensic evidence would significantly differ based on the amount of time spent viewing crime-related television programs, was supported but it had the least impact of the significant variables. The number of CCJ courses and sex impacted perceptions of forensic evidence prevalence more than fictional crime-related television viewing.

Perception of Clearance Rates

The third hypothesis sought the impact of crime-related television viewing and the perception of clearance rates. Table 8 displays the results of the regression.

Table 8

Multiple Regression of Perception of Clearance Rates (n = 406)

	B	S.E.	Beta	t
(Constant)	241.258	25.594		9.426
Total TV watching	-1.174*	.500	-.138	-2.350
Fictional crime-related TV watching	-.022	1.162	-.001	-.019
Non-fictional crime-related TV watching	2.063	1.694	.068	1.218
Sex	4.326	8.273	.026	.523
Age	-.497	.754	-.034	-.660
Race	-13.538	10.817	-.063	-1.252
No. of CCJ Courses	-5.382	2.963	-.094	-1.816
Town	-1.657	8.376	-.10	-.198
Co-occupants	6.439*	2.971	.108	2.167
Any Victimization	-23.541*	10.260	-.113	-2.294
CJ Experience	-4.207	8.718	-.024	-.483

R^2 = .064
F = 2.434
p < .006

NOTE: * Significance at the .05 level
** Significance at the .01 level

The model R^2 was .064 and accounted for 6.4% of the variance in perceptions of clearance rates. Three independent variables were significant at the .05 level. Students who spent more hours watching television (any type of programming) had less error in estimating clearance rates (b = -1.174). Respondents who lived with more people tended to have higher total error scores for their perception of clearance rate (b = 6.439). Additionally, those students who were victims had higher total error scores (b = -23.541). When controlling for all of the independent variables, the only media consumption variable that was significant was total television consumption.

The third hypothesis, which claimed that respondents' perceptions about clearance rates (of crimes reported) would differ based on the amount of time spent

viewing crime-related television programs, was not supported by this study. The beta weights revealed that total hours watching television had the largest influence on the dependent variable, but any type of victimization and the number of co-occupants were close behind. Surprisingly, the study suggested a negative relationship. Namely, those students who watch more television tended to have more accurate estimates of clearance rates. This is discussed in Chapter V.

Perception of Crime Rates

The fourth hypothesis claimed that respondents' perceptions about reported crime rates would differ based on the amount of time spent viewing crime-related television programs. Table 9 displays the results.

Table 9

Multiple Regression of Perception of Crime Rates (n = 406)

	B	S.E.	Beta	t
(Constant)	7.640	.585		13.060
Total TV watching	-.006	.011	-.030	-.518
Fictional crime-related TV watching	.028	.027	.058	1.045
Non-fictional crime-related TV watching	.020	.039	.028	.525
Sex	-.350	.189	-.091	-1.853
Age	.004	.017	.011	.226
Race	-.523*	.247	-.103	-2.114
No. of CCJ Courses	-.411**	.068	-.306	-6.064
Town	.216	.191	.054	1.128
Co-occupants	-.067	.068	-.048	-.992
Any Victimization	.325	.235	.067	1.388
CJ Experience	.112	.199	.028	.560

R^2 = .110
F = 4.426
p < .000

NOTE: * Significance at the .05 level
** Significance at the .01 level

The R^2 was .110 and accounted for 11.0% of the variance in perception of crime rate. There were two independent variables that impacted the variance of the perception of crime rate, but none of the media variables were significant.

Based on the results, non-whites thought that crime was increasing (b = -.523, p < .05). Comparatively, those who had taken the least amount of CCJ courses also thought that crime was increasing (b = -.411, p < .010). The beta weights revealed that the number of CCJ courses had a bigger influence on the perception than race and none of the television variables had any significant impact. The fourth hypothesis claimed that respondents' perception about crime rates would differ based on the amount of time spent watching crime-related television programming. However, this hypothesis was not supported by this study. Again, the variables of interest were not significant in explaining the variance in respondents' perception of crime rates.

Fear of Victimization

The fifth hypothesis attempted to ascertain the impact of television watching on one's fear of future victimization. As with the other dependent variables, a regression was run to determine the impact of the variables of interest and other independent variables. Table 10 contains the results.

Table 10

Multiple Regression of Fear of Victimization (n = 406)

	B	S.E.	Beta	t
(Constant)	13.833	1.132		12.219
Total TV watching	-.005	.022	-.011	-.208
Fictional crime-related TV watching	.103*	.051	.107	1.996
Non-fictional crime-related TV watching	.016	.075	.011	.213
Sex	-2.600**	.366	-.335	-7.106
Age	-.015	.033	-.022	-.454
Race	-.611	.478	-.060	-1.277
No. of CCJ Courses	-.401**	.131	-.148	-3.062
Town	.559	.370	.069	1.510
Co-occupants	-.061	.131	-.022	-.463
Any Victimization	1.312**	.454	.133	2.891
CJ Experience	-.439	.386	-.054	-1.138

R^2 = .179
F = 7.799
p < .000

NOTE: * Significance at the .05 level
** Significance at the .01 level

The R^2 for the model was .179 and accounted for 17.9% of the variance in fear of victimization. There were four independent variables that were significant at the .05 level or less. Those students who watched more fictional crime-related television feared victimization more (b = .103, p < .05). Additionally, females were more likely than males to fear possible victimization (b = -2.600, p < .01). Those students who took more CCJ courses feared victimization less than those students who took no CCJ courses (b = -.401, p < .01). Finally, students who were previously victimized were more likely to fear future victimization compared to those who never were victimized (b = 1.312, p < .01).

When the beta weights were compared, it appeared that sex (β = -.355) had the strongest impact on the variance of fear of victimization. Additionally, any type of

victimization (β = .133) explained more than the weekly hours watching fictional crime-related programming (β = .107). Although the hypothesis that the time spent viewing crime-related programming would impact fear of victimization was supported, sex, the number of CCJ courses, and previous victimization had a stronger influence on fear of victimization than viewing of fictional crime-related programs variable.

Knowledge Accuracy of the Criminal Justice System

The final hypothesis sought the impact of crime-related television viewing on knowledge accuracy of the criminal justice system, especially criminalists and their duties. It is an extension of the first hypothesis Table 11 displays the regression results.

Table 11

Multiple Regression of Knowledge Accuracy of Criminal Justice System (n = 406)

	B	S.E.	Beta	t
(Constant)	3.577	.475		7.529
Total TV watching	-.001	.009	-.007	-.119
Fictional crime-related TV watching	.001	.022	.002	.039
Non-fictional crime-related TV watching	-.022	.031	-.040	-.705
Sex	-.013	.154	-.004	-.087
Age	.016	.014	.058	1.121
Race	.090	.201	.023	.447
No. of CCJ Courses	.209**	.055	.199	3.802
Town	.080	.155	.026	.516
Co-occupants	.017	.055	.016	.315
Any Victimization	.074	.190	.019	.387
CJ Experience	-.031	.162	-.010	-.194

R^2 = .042
F = 1.589
p < .099

NOTE: * Significance at the .05 level
** Significance at the .01 level

The R^2 for the model was .042 and accounted for 4.2% of the variance in knowledge accuracy. However, the model was not significant. Only the number of CCJ courses was found to be significant ($p < .01$). The results suggested that students who had taken more CCJ courses had a better knowledge of the criminal justice system ($b = .209$). The first research question sought the possible relationship between hours spent watching crime-related television programming and perceptions of a number of criminal justice agents. This extended test of the first hypothesis was not supported by this study.

Conclusion

In general, it seemed that fictional crime-related television and non-fictional crime-related television viewing had very little impact on any of the dependent variables. Overall, the amount of time spent watching crime-related programming had an impact on the perceptions of forensic evidence prevalence and fear of victimization. These were the only two hypothesis supported by the research. Moreover, general television viewing, but not crime-related television viewing, impacted the perceptions of clearance rates. Thus, there were only three hypotheses that were significantly impacted by the media variables of interest. Although these hypotheses were impacted by the variables of interest, other independent variables had stronger influences on perceptions of forensic evidence and fear of victimization.

CHAPTER V – DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Chapter V explains the findings of this study. Overall, the impact of watching crime-related programming impacted students' perceptions of forensic evidence prevalence and fear of victimization, which mirrors previous research. When controlling for other independent variables, it seemed that crime-related television viewing did not impact students' perception of police, perceptions of clearance rates, perceptions of crime rates, or knowledge accuracy of the criminal justice system. Total television viewing (in general) had the strongest influence on students' perceptions of clearance rates, even when all other independent variables were controlled. However, the two supported hypotheses had other independent variables with stronger influences on the dependent variables than watching crime-related television programming. Finally, this chapter presents the limitations of the current research and suggests avenues for future research about the topic

Perception of Police and Other Criminal Justice Employers

This study wanted to uncover the relationship between the amount of television viewing, specifically crime-related programming, and various perceptions concerning the criminal justice system. It was hypothesized that the amount of crime-related television watched would impact students' perceptions and beliefs of police and other criminal justice personnel. As the results of this study indicated, students' perceptions of police were impacted by the number of CCJ courses, race, criminal justice experience, and age. No television watching variables were statistically significant; thus, the hypothesis was not supported. Furthermore, the only variable that was significant in explaining the

variance in knowledge accuracy of criminal justice system agents was the number of CCJ courses.

Simply put, in this study, students who took more CCJ courses had more favorable perceptions of police, and higher knowledge accuracy scores about police and criminal justice agents. These results were similar to the findings by Dantzker & Waters (1999), who found significant differences of favorable perceptions towards police between students who took criminal justice classes versus those who did not. This was not too much of a surprise since many students who are interested in studying the discipline of criminal justice seek jobs within the field.

The result of this study found that race impacted perceptions and beliefs about police officers. As mentioned in Chapter II, this finding mirrors the claim that "race is one of the most consistent predictors of attitudes toward and reported experience of the police and other criminal justice institutions" (Weitzer & Tuch, 2004, p. i). Race had the second strongest impact on perceptions of police in this study. Specifically, self-identified minorities had more negative perception/attitudes towards police.

Moreover, this research supported previous cultivation research pertaining to personal and/or vicarious experience in forming perceptions of reality (Cohen & Wieman, 2000; Gerbner, 1998; and Grabe & Drew, 2007). Overall, those who participated in the criminal justice system as an intern, employee, witness, juror or who live with someone who is employed by the criminal justice system tended to have more positive perceptions and attitudes toward police.

As mentioned in Chapter II, cultivation theory claimed that television viewing has an incremental, consistent, and cumulative effect. Hence, older television watchers

should have acquired these "cultivations" over a longer period of time. The results of this study found that age was statistically significant in explaining the variance in perception of police. Specifically, older participants had more negative attitudes/perceptions about police than younger participants. This result mirrors previous cultivation research that studied the effects of different genres instead of general television viewing consumption (Cohen & Weimann, 2000).

In sum, neither general television viewing nor crime-related television viewing had any significant impact on respondents' perceptions or attitudes toward police or other criminal justice agents. Although this finding did not support the current hypothesis, there is some research that claims the amount of television viewing impacts perceptions and beliefs about police officers and other criminal justice personnel (Kim, 2007).

Perception of the Prevalence of Forensic Evidence

It was hypothesized that crime-related television viewing would impact student perceptions of the prevalence of forensic evidence at crime scenes. The results indicated that perceptions of forensic evidence prevalence were impacted by the number of CCJ courses, sex, and fictional crime-related television watching; thus, there is support for the hypothesis that crime-related television impacts the perceptions about forensic evidence. Although student perceptions pertaining to how often forensic evidence was gathered at crime scenes, the results specify that CCJ coursework and sex have a more significant impact. Nonetheless, the more fictional crime-related television programming that students watched impacted their perception of how often certain types of evidence were found at crime scenes.

As mentioned in Chapter II, these findings would lend support to the cultivation theory's emphasis on incremental, consistent, and cumulative influences on viewers' perceptions, attitudes, and beliefs (for an overview of cultivation analysis see Morgan & Shanahan, 1997; Gerbner, 1998). Since fictional crime-related television programming was significant in explaining the variance within perceptions of forensic evidence prevalence, it emulates the findings of previous research that television programming can contribute to high expectations (Shelton, Kim, & Barak, 2006).

Again, this research supports the claim the crime-related content, especially fictitious accounts, contribute to high expectations of the pervasiveness forensic evidence.

Perception of Clearance Rates

Additionally, this research conjectured a relationship between crime-related television media and perceptions of clearance rates. This study indirectly supported the hypothesis that crime-related television watching would impact student perceptions of clearance rates. Although both measures of crime-related television program viewing were found to not be statistically significant, general television watching was found to be statistically significant. Moreover, general television watching had the strongest impact on perceptions of clearance rates, followed by past victimization, and co-occupants. Interestingly, the less television students watched the less total error they had in their perceptions of clearance rates. Simply, this indicated that those students who watch more television (of any type) tended to have more error in their perceptions of clearance rates of the FBI's index crimes. There may be some limitation to how clearance rates were measured, which is addressed later in the chapter.

Perception of Crime Rates

This study found that the number of CCJ courses and race were the only variables that were statistically significant regarding perception of crime rates. Thus, this study did not support the findings of Goidel, Freeman, & Procopio's (2006) assessment of television viewing's impact on perceptions of crime rates. Although their study found a significant impact of news watching on perceptions of juvenile crime and overall crime, this study found no such relationship but local/national news is different than the non-fictional crime-related television program this study measured. Again, this may be accredited to the sample demographics and/or measuring non-fictional crime-related television content.

Fear of Victimization

The tested hypothesis that focused on crime-related television viewing and fear of victimization had the highest R^2 at .179. Furthermore, there were four independent variables that were statistically significant: sex, number of CCJ courses, previous victimization, and fictional crime-related television watching. Although there were three other variables that had a stronger influence on fear of victimization, fictional crime-related television watching was significant. This finding would support the aforementioned hypothesis that crime-related television would impact fear of victimization.

Holbert et al. (2004) found that non-fictional police reality programming was the strongest predictor among media variables for fear of crime, and O'Keefe & Reid-Nash (1987) found that attention to televised news was associated with fear of crime. However, this research found a different effect. Among media variables, fictional television

programming had the strongest impact on fear of victimization. Viewing non-fictional crime-related programming had no significant effect on any of the dependent variables, including fear of victimization. Perhaps the reason for this different finding has to do with the sample size and demographics. This study sampled 406 university students while their research sampled 3,122 adults nationally. There is evidence that many traditional age students do not watch as much television (World Almanac, 2011).

Other researchers have found a positive relationship between television watching and one's fear of criminal victimization (Holbert, Shah, & Kwak, 2004; Kim, 2007; O'Keefe & Reid-Nash, 1987; Robert, 1992; Weitzer & Kubrin, 2004). This study supported the previous fear of crime literature because the significant variables for this sample were sex, number of CCJ courses, prior victimization, and fictional crime-related viewing.

Role of Criminal Justice Education

This research also wanted to explore the impact of education on perceptions of various criminal justice topics. Since the CJ Major/Minor variable and the number of CCJ courses variable were highly correlated, only the number of CCJ courses variable was used for the six different models. Overall, it cannot be understated that the number of CCJ courses impacted five of the six tested hypotheses (the lone exception was perceptions of clearance rates). Furthermore, the number of CCJ courses had the strongest impact on perceptions of police, perception of forensic evidence, perception of crime rates, and knowledge accuracy of the criminal justice system. It had the second strongest impact on fear of victimization behind sex. Overall, it seemed that the number of CCJ courses that a student completed was the most significant variable in this study

Importance of This Research

First and foremost, this research supported the idea that education works. Of all the variables, the number of criminal justices classes taken was significant in five of the six hypotheses and was the most influential variable in four hypotheses. It seems that education-specific class work corrects many myths that television programming can portray. Thus, many students who were interested in criminal justice related fields based on media portrayals that attend colleges or universities can be educated on the perverted myths that are exposed on popular television shows. However, it is difficult to ascertain whether or not students take it upon themselves to "fact-check" television content after watching it or if they discuss content in and out of the classroom. In today's informational age, students have to ability to "Google" presented information found on television programs as well as what is taught in college classrooms.

Informational literacy is an important skill for students. At this time, it is possible for students to access journal articles, government publications, books, magazines, and so on from their computer, tablet, or even their smart phone. Perhaps professors need to introduce students to media literacy too.

Media literacy involves focusing on a critical position and becoming engaged with the varying instruments and different forms of culture. All in all, media literacy and the critical process involve description, analysis, interpretation, evaluation, and engagement. In fact, it is a process that separates accrual of information from actually becoming media literate (Campbell, Martin, & Fabos, 2011, p. 30).

As mentioned in the first paragraph of the introduction, mass media is ubiquitous and plays a substantial role in the lives of many Americans. The content on television can educate and indoctrinate the audience. This research was interested in the possible impact of crime-related television content on a number of perceptions of the criminal justice system. If television educated the audience or indoctrinated the audience, then those who watch crime-related television more often would have a more distorted view of reality.

Although there were cultivation effects on perceptions of forensic evidence, clearance rates, and fear of victimization, the TV as "media" in this study did not have a strong impact on any dependent variables. Only the perception of clearance rates was influenced most by a television viewing variable (general watching). This result would indicate that there are other variables that are more important in understanding fear of crime, perception of police and other agents, perception of the prevalence of forensic evidence, and perception of crime rates. This begs the question: what variables are missing from the models?

It is nearly impossible to control for all of the intimately inter-related information that can besiege a student. Many of the traditional university students were raised in an environment where television was a central component in their lives. However, many also were raised with the internet, which has become a vast repository of information that can permeate their existence. Information (good or bad) can be pursued within seconds from anywhere; data no longer are housed entirely in libraries. In addition, there are significant differences in how one consumes information. Specifically, reading text has a different effect on the brain than watching video (Burbules & Callister, 2000). Thus, the genesis of criminal justice related themes may be murky for students to recollect and

process. Yet, if one needs to find the correct answer, he or she can consult their smart phone and/or computer in a matter of seconds to read or to watch.

Although the medium of a television set seems to be self-explanatory, "the biggest technical innovations in TV are non-television delivery systems. We can now watch our favorite shows on DVRs after they first air, or on laptops for free or for a nominal cost, or on smart-phones" (Campbell, Martin, & Fabos, 2011, p. 169). These are known as third screens (Movie theaters are first screens and traditional television sets are second screens). As these new third screens are becoming more popular and more inexpensive, a new generation of citizens can experience the world on-demand 24 hours a day, seven days a week (more on this as a limitation in the next section). There will be no more waiting for a sitcom to come on at 9:00pm when one can watch it any time after the original airing.

If there is a cultivation effect in contemporary society it seems to be insignificant for many of the tested hypotheses. It appears that college professors do a better job of educating students on criminal justice themes than television does, but television still plays a role in forming one's idea of what is reality. More and more students are declaring criminal justice majors based on portrayals of the criminal justice professions on television or on the internet. New forensic studies programs and new forensic science programs have already been created within the university culture. There are universities now have collaborations among disciplines like computer science, forensic chemistry, and criminal justice to fill the demand from some students (see Southern Oregon University).

In addition to cultural changes in information availability, the aspect of experience still rings true. Prior working experience and/or prior victimization experience impacted students' beliefs and perceptions of police, perceptions of clearance rates, and fear of victimization. Although the number of criminal justice course had more of an impact, the student's experience was nonetheless significant in their assumptions and beliefs.

This research points to the idea that TV content can have an impact on some students' perceptions, although it is not that strong. Additionally, education within the classrooms seemed to improve First order effects and develop more positive Second order effects on criminal justice agents. However, what if students took an "online" class? Would this new type of course delivery impact perceptions differently? As we move further in to the 21st century, a convergence of content AND delivery systems are inevitable. Thus, we need to know where and how individuals are obtaining their news and information. Perhaps this is the most important finding of this study.

Limitations

The most glaring limitation of this dissertation is the sample of college students. Payne and Chappell (2008) went into great detail regarding the strengths and weaknesses of using student samples in criminological research. With regards to weaknesses, they included 1) concerns about validity, 2) ethical considerations, 3) stigmatization of student samples, and 4) generalizability.

One validity issue stems from when the surveys were administered. The researcher conducted his research during the final two weeks of the term. As such, students may have been "just filling it out without giving concern to the items addressed

on the survey" (Payne & Chappell, 2008, p. 185). There also were crime-related and victimization-related questions that may not have been answered honestly for fear that the researcher may find out about their responses.

Perhaps the most apparent validity threat was the statistical conclusion validity of measurement error. There were a few constructs that may have been inadequately explicated. For instance, respondents were asked to estimate their perception of clearance rates for each of the FBI's index crimes by using arrest only. However, the FBI's clearance rate uses exceptional means and arrests to designate a clearance rate for a particular crime.

Another threat was to construct validity of the variables of interest. This dissertation was interested in the impact of television and asked students to estimate their television viewing habits. Today's "television" may not be the same "television" as it was 20-30 years ago. There are other forms of media that broadcast, sell, rent, and stream the same content that is on television; Netflix and Hulu are companies that offer instant streaming of movies and/or television programs. In fact, event networks broadcast their content online after the program has aired on television. It is hard to determine, or even guess, whether or not students who watch programs on these websites consider it "television-viewing". To add to the complexity of conceptualizing and operationalizing "television-viewing", those aforementioned companies' websites – in addition to youtube.com – allow people to watch sections of television shows and specific scenes from movies without having to watch them in their entirety. Again, students may not interpret watching sections of television programs as watching the show because they

only watched part of the show. If students only considered the television set and no other forms of media, the television viewing variables would be incorrectly measured.

In 2009, there were 8.7 million desktops, 28 million laptops/netbooks/tablets sold, and 41.2 million smartphones sold in the United States (Digital Future Report, 2011). Furthermore, 82% of all Americans (12 years or older) had internet access in 2009 with an average of 19 hours spent online per week (Digital Future Report, 2011). According to The CTIA Semi-Annual Industry Survey (as cited in *The World Almanac,* 2011), there were over 285 million Americans with wireless phones. Many of these devices – smartphones – have the ability to stream television-like programming. There were no questions that tried to separate watching programming on television versus online through desktops, laptops, tablets, smart phones, or other streaming devices. Technological advancements may have changed how people use information.

However, if one were to assume the television viewing variables were measured correctly, the mean for total television viewing for this sample was 10.19 hours. According to Nielsen Media Research (as cited in *The World Almanac and Book of Facts,* 2011), men watch an average of 34:24 per week and women watch and average of 38:46 per week. If one considered the 18-24 year old age group, men watch 23:59 per week and women watch 27:57 per week. In either case, it appears this sample was well below the national average. There could be many reasons for the discrepancy. For example, there may be regional difference of television viewing by state and a comparison to the national average may not be an accurate portrayal of television viewing. Also, the principle investigator was a university professor who administered the survey instrument to students at a university. Hence, many students may have

underreported their television viewing for fear of being judged for watching too much television.

This study has external validity issues, specifically the lack of generalizability. Payne and Chappell (2008) noted that "students 1) are younger, 2) have a different set of life experiences, 3) have different interests, 4) come from a different income bracket, and 5) are a distinct subculture" (p. 185). The mean age for the sample was 22.44 years. Thus, it may be inappropriate to generalize the findings to the entire population. However, this research was focused primarily on whether or not television impacted students' perception of various subjects within criminal justice. Therefore, the intent of this study was not to generalize the findings to the entire population; rather to generalize the findings to all students.

Students may in fact have a different set of life experiences, different interests, and a distinct subculture. If we consider the mean age of the study, most of the students were born in the 1990s. Technological advancements in communication and reliance upon the internet became much more important during the 1990s and continued through the early part of the 21st century. Five percent of U.S. households had a cellular phone in 1990, but 90% of U.S. households had a cellular phone in 2009 (Consumer Electronics Association, 2011). As alluded to before, students may watch television programming on the internet but not consider it television watching. Moreover, television viewing increases with age but internet usage decreases with age (World Almanac, 2011). Thus, it seems that younger Americans use the internet far more frequently than older Americans.

Future Research

While this dissertation sought the impact of television on perceptions of various issues within criminal justice, it became apparent that the scope of media may far exceed television viewing alone. The internet has drastically changed our world and future studies focusing on media effects must control for internet usage and content.

Additionally, the perceptions of the reliability of certain types of forensic evidence should be measured. According to this study, crime-related television programming impacted viewers' beliefs about forensic evidence prevalence. However, it also may affect their beliefs about the accuracy of the same evidence. Many types of forensic evidence and the procedures for their analysis have been labeled as "junk science" (Cooley, 2007; Mann, 2005; Stephens, 2007). It would be interesting to determine if crime-related programming increases or decreases viewers' perceptions of accuracy of forensic evidence.

Overall, this study sought to understand the potential impact of television on various issues related to the criminal justice system and its agents. Based on the results of this study, crime-related television programming impacted students' perceptions about forensic evidence prevalence, students' perceptions of clearance rates, and students' fear of victimization, but the media variables of interest were not significant in accounting for the variance in perceptions of police, perceptions of crime rates, or knowledge accuracy of the criminal justice system.

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APPENDIX A
Survey

Directions: We ask that you answer each as honestly as possible and remind you that all information you provide is strictly anonymous. Unless instructed to circle all that apply, circle one answer only for each question or write your answer in the space provided. If you have any questions, do not hesitate to ask.

Perceptions of Policing

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

---

1. Although police officers are often called upon to do a variety of tasks, their primary role is crime fighter.
   1 2 3 4 5

2. Most police officers do not solve more crimes because they are incompetent.
   1 2 3 4 5

3. The motto "to Protect and Serve" is merely a public relations concept and has nothing to do with what police officers actually do.
   1 2 3 4 5

4. At some point in their careers, all police officers commit a corrupt act.
   1 2 3 4 5

5. Police officers are quicker to physically strike a minority group member than a white person.
   1 2 3 4 5

6. Ignoring the needs of citizens is a common action of police officers.
   1 2 3 4 5

7. Preventing crimes for rich, white people is more important to police officers than solving crimes for or assisting any ethnic or cultural group member.
   1 2 3 4 5

8. Police officers are only out to hurt or harass people instead of being out to help them.
   1 2 3 4 5

9. A problem people have with police officers is that they know police are always out there, but they never know what to expect from them.
   1 2 3 4 5

10. Many individuals who become police officers want to help society.
    1 2 3 4 5

11. Any time you see a police officer you should try to avoid having contact with him or her.
    1 2 3 4 5

12. The reason police officers are still primarily white males is because of politics, discrimination, and the "good old boy" system of recruitment.
    1 2 3 4 5

13. Police officers who take drugs or drink on duty should be immediately fired instead of being offered counseling or other assistance.
    1 2 3 4 5

14. No matter what the circumstances, if a police officer violates an individual's constitutional rights, s/he should be held accountable.
    1 2 3 4 5

Fear of Criminal Victimization

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4

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15. I am afraid someone will break into my house while I am away.
    1 2 3 4

16. I am afraid of being raped or sexually assaulted.
    1 2 3 4

17. I am afraid of being attacked by someone with a weapon.
    1 2 3 4

18. I am afraid to go out at night because I might become a victim of crime.
    1 2 3 4

19. I am afraid of being murdered.
    1 2 3 4

20. I am afraid of having my money/possessions taken away from me.
    1 2 3 4

Lifetime Nonsexual Violent Victimization Experience
Please indicate if any of the following experiences have EVER happened to you.

21. Did anyone take or attempt to take something directly from you by using force or threat of force, such as a stickup or mugging?
    (1) Yes
    (2) No

22. Did anyone attack you with a knife, gun, club, or another weapon other than hands, fists, or feet?
    (1) Yes
    (2) No

23. Did anyone hit, attack, or beat you by using their hands, fists, or feet or other bodily attack? (not including with weapons).
    (1) Yes
    (2) No

Lifetime Property Victimization Experience
Please indicate if any of the following experiences have EVER happened to you.

24. Did anyone steal or attempt to steal a motor vehicle belonging to you such as a car, truck, motorcycle, or snowmobile?
    (1) Yes
    (2) No

25. Did anyone break into, or try to break into, your house or some other building on your property intending to commit a crime?
    (1) Yes
    (2) No

26. Was anything else stolen from you (other than the incidents already mentioned)?
    (1) Yes
    (2) No

27. Did anyone intentionally damage or destroy property owned by you or someone else in your household?
    (1) Yes
    (2) No

Lifetime Sexual Victimization Experience

Please indicate if any of the following experiences have EVER happened to you.

28. Has anyone made or tried to make you have sex by using force or threatening to harm you or someone close to you?
    (1) Yes
    (2) No

29. Did anyone force you or attempt to force you into any unwanted sexual activity such as touching, grabbing, kissing, fondling, etc.?
    (1) Yes
    (2) No

Criminal Justice Participation

30. Have you ever participated in the criminal justice system as an intern, employee, witness, or juror?
    (1) Yes
    (2) No

31. Is anyone in your household employed by the criminal justice system?
    (1) Yes
    (2) No

32. Do you plan on working in the criminal justice system?
    (1) Yes
    (2) No
    (3) Not sure

Forensic Evidence at Actual Crime Scenes

Please estimate to the best of you ability.

33. Out of 100 actual crime scenes, how many times was biological evidence collected (ex. Blood, hair, other bodily fluids, etc.)? _____
34. Out of 100 actual crime scenes, how many times were fingerprints collected? _____
35. Out of 100 actual crime scenes, how many times were firearms or bullet casings collected? _____
36. Out of 100 actual crime scenes, how many times were natural and/or synthetic materials collected (ex. Clothing, evidence transferred from carpets, etc.)? _____

Clearance Rates

Please estimate to the best of you ability.

37. Out of 100 murder cases, how many arrests do you believe are made? _____
38. Out of 100 robberies (theft of a person), how many arrests do you believe are made? _____
39. Out of 100 rapes, how many arrests do you believe are made? _____
40. Out of 100 arsons (fire setting), how many arrests do you believe are made? _____
41. Out of 100 assaults, how many arrests do you believe are made? _____
42. Out of 100 burglaries (theft within a dwelling), how many arrests do you believe are made? _____
43. Out of 100 vehicle thefts, how many arrests do you believe are made? _____
44. Out of 100 larceny/thefts, how many arrests do you believe are made? _____

Crime Rates

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

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45. Violent crime in the USA has been increasing over the past 10 years.

1	2	3	4	5

46. Property crime in the USA has been increasing over the past 10 years.

1	2	3	4	5

Media Consumption

47. Do you record, TiVo, or DVR your favorite programs on television?
    (1) Yes
    (2) No
    (3) Sometimes

48. On average, how many hours do you watch television in a week? _____

49. On average, how many hours do you watch fictional crime-related television in a week? (ex., *CSI, Criminal Minds, The Mentalist*, etc.) _____

50. On average, how many hours do you watch non-fictional crime-related television in a week? (ex., 60 *Minutes, Lock Up, Cops*, etc.) _____

51. Please check ***how often*** you watch any of the following fictional crime-related shows.

SHOW	**Never**	**Rarely**	**Sometimes**	**Often**
Castle	_____	_____	_____	_____
Cold Case	_____	_____	_____	_____
Criminal Minds (any)	_____	_____	_____	_____
CSI (any)	_____	_____	_____	_____
Detroit 187	_____	_____	_____	_____
Law & Order (any)	_____	_____	_____	_____
NCIS (any)	_____	_____	_____	_____
The Mentalist	_____	_____	_____	_____
Others (please list all below)				
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

52. Please check ***how often*** you watch any of the following non-fictional crime-related shows.

SHOW	**Never**	**Rarely**	**Sometimes**	**Often**
20/20	_____	_____	_____	_____
48 Hours	_____	_____	_____	_____
60 Minutes	_____	_____	_____	_____
America's Most Wanted	_____	_____	_____	_____
Cold Case Files	_____	_____	_____	_____
Cops	_____	_____	_____	_____
Dateline	_____	_____	_____	_____
First 48	_____	_____	_____	_____
Lock Up	_____	_____	_____	_____
Others (please list all below)				
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Criminal Justice Agents

53. Can forensic scientists/technicians/criminalists arrest suspects?
    (1) Yes
    (2) No

54. Do forensic scientists/technicians/criminalists have the authority to order police officers?
    (1) Yes
    (2) No

55. Do forensic scientists/technicians/criminalists question suspects?
    (1) Yes
    (2) No

56. Do forensic scientists/technicians/criminalists carry firearms to crime scenes?
    (1) Yes
    (2) No

57. Can one forensic scientist/technician/criminalist perform multiple tests? (ex. Blood work, DNA analysis, toxicology, fire debris analysis, tool-mark examination)
    (1) Yes
    (2) No

58. Can detectives check the pockets of deceased victims for identification without permission?
    (1) Yes
    (2) No

59. Forensic pathologists can accurately determine the time of death within minutes.
    (1) Yes
    (2) No

Crime Laboratories

60. Once collected, how long on average do you think it takes for crime laboratories to analyze DNA evidence?
    (1) Hours
    (2) Days
    (3) Weeks
    (4) Months
    (5) Years

61. Once collected, how long on average do you think it takes for crime laboratories to analyze fibers (ex. Clothing, trace evidence from carpets, etc)?
    (1) Hours
    (2) Days
    (3) Weeks
    (4) Months
    (5) Years

62. Once collected, how long on average do you think it takes for crime laboratories to analyze other bodily fluids?
    (1) Hours
    (2) Days
    (3) Weeks
    (4) Months
    (5) Years

Demographics

63. What is your sex?
    (1) Male
    (2) Female

64. What is your age? _____

65. What is your race?
    (1) White
    (2) Latino
    (3) Black
    (4) Other

66. What is your perceived class level status?
    (1) Freshman
    (2) Sophomore
    (3) Junior
    (4) Senior

67. Are you a criminology and criminal justice (CCJ) major?
    (1) Yes
    (2) No

    If no, what is your major? _____

68. Are you a CCJ minor?
    (1) Yes
    (2) No

69. How many CCJ courses have you taken?
    (1) 0
    (2) 1-3
    (3) 4-7
    (4) 8-10
    (5) 11+

70. How would you describe the size of town or geographic region in which you permanently reside?
    (1) Rural
    (2) Suburban
    (3) Urban

71. Including yourself, how many people live at your permanent address? _____

APPENDIX B

Differences Between Media Cops and Real Cops

	Media Cops	Real Cops
Action	Never a dull moment. They are doing something, about to do something, or planning to do something.	Tedium and adrenaline are both experienced. Filling out forms is the norm. Action is unexpected, not predictable.
Crime	Fighting serious crime is foremost. Felonies are most common. Each crime is unique and exceptional. Cops are attuned to these nuances and pay attention.	Felony arrests are rare; officers often spend time preventing crime and defusing social situations. The repetitive scripts of excuses and explanations for breaking the law rapidly dull their impact and the believability of suspects.
Violence	Cops are violent. They menace, fight, and shoot and kill with relative impunity. Physical force, even brutality, is part of their tool kit for solving crimes.	Officers also live in a mean world, but usually one of potential rather than actual violence.
Heroes and Villains	Clearly defined good and evil with any ambiguities resolved by program's end.	The good and the bad is mostly gray. Good people do bad things; bad people sometimes perform good acts. Most people have elements of both.
Status	Patrolmen are often the dumb background foil; plainsclothes detectives are brilliant problem solvers.	Officers are gatekeepers of the criminal justice system who make the first and crucial early decisions.
Insight	With an almost psychic awareness of what people are thinking and where the clues are, they overwhelmingly uncover the truth. Omniscient qualities allow them to defy procedures and still triumph.	Officers are given almost no advance data for encounters and are under great pressure to obey procedures and policy.
Closure	There are almost no unsolved cases on TV (even on the shows with titles like *Unsolved Mysteries*).	Events have a middle, but no beginning and no end. Cops arrive when incidents are in progress and rarely see the resolution of cases they confront.
Justice	Cops rarely deal with law, which is more often seen as the	Real cops must obey the law. Because of the complexity of the law and the

	obstacle to justice, a legal technicality pulled out by a shyster lawyer. The hero cop directly dispenses justice, makes things right, and avenges wrongs.	emphasis on due process rights, its glacial pace leaves cops enforcing rules they do not think work.
Back Stage	Sanitized back stage. No matter how crude, the hero cop rarely alienates the audience.	Sex, lies, and stupidity are common themes. Cops often make fun of, complain about, or criticize many of the people they encounter, both victims and suspects.
Chronology	Time compression. Events are edited to render swifter progress of the narrative and more rapid resolution.	The forever war with long periods of stasis. Cops understand how long it can take the system to resolve an issue.
Audience and Public Awareness	Godlike powers of observation by audience who see clues, overhear conversations, perceive revealing facial close-ups, and receive voiceovers with insider information kept from the cops. The audience ends up knowing more than the cops.	Uniformed police are first on the scene. They see what no one in the public sees except the perpetrators and victims, misery and blood at close quarters.

Note. Adapted from *Policing the media*, p. 41-52, by D. Perimutter. Copyright 2000 Sage. Taken from Surrette (2007) p. 102-103.

APPENDIX C

List of Criminology Courses (Winter 2011)

CRN	Subj Course	Title	Days	Time	Instructor	Room
4071	CCJ 230	American Criminal Justice Syst *	MW	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Fedorek, B	TA 29/30
4074	CCJ 230	American Criminal Justice Syst * †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Fedorek, B	WWW
4072	CCJ 231	Introduction to Criminology *	TR	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Fedorek, B	TA 29/30
4075	CCJ 251	Introduction to Criminal Law †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Villaescusa,	WWW
4076	CCJ 298	Orientation CCJ Online Courses †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Blakeley, T	WWW
4077	CCJ 300	Essentials of CJ Research/Wr	TR	9:00AM - 9:50AM	Ayers Prebos	TA 29/30
4079	CCJ 300	Essentials of CJ Research/Wr †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Ayers Prebos	WWW
4078	CCJ 300H	Honors Essentials CJ Rsrch/Wr	TR	9:00AM - 9:50AM	Ayers Prebos	TA 29/30
4080	CCJ 309	Research Methods in Crim/CCJ	MW	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Carter, D	TA 28/31
4081	CCJ 331	Theories of Criminal Behavior	TR	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Burke, A	TA 28/31
4082	CCJ 331	Theories of Criminal Behavior †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Burke, A	WWW
4086	CCJ 341	Correctional Institutions	W	6:00PM - 9:50PM	Guyer, E	HEC 221
5081	CCJ 346	Computer Forensics *	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Roos, R	CS 105
5082	CCJ 346	Computer Forensics * †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Roos, R	WWW
4083	CCJ 361	Juvenile Delinquency *	MW	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Ayers Prebos	TA 29/30
4084	CCJ 361	Juvenile Delinquency * †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Ayers Prebos	WWW
4085	CCJ 399	SS: Criminals in the Making	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Carter, D	TA 28/31
4087	CCJ 409A	Capstone: Research	M	9:00AM - 9:50AM	Carter, D	TA 225
4088	CCJ 409A	Capstone: Research †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Carter, D	WWW
4089	CCJ 409B	Capstone: Research	W	9:00AM - 9:50AM	Carter, D	TA 225
4090	CCJ 409B	Capstone: Research †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Carter, D	WWW
4091	CCJ 409L	Capstone: Practicum/Internship	W	4:00PM - 4:50PM	Villaescusa,	TA 29/30
4702	CCJ 409L	Capstone: Practicum/Internship †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Villaescusa,	WWW

4092	CCJ 411	Criminal Law	TR	6:00PM - 7:50PM	Villaescusa,	HEC 209
4093	CCJ 412	Law of Criminal Evidence	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Rutz-Burri,	TA 29/30
4094	CCJ 413	Law of Criminal Procedures	TR	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Rutz-Burri,	TA 28/31
4095	CCJ 413	Law of Criminal Procedures †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Haas, J	WWW
4096	CCJ 430	Crime Control Theories and Pol *	TR	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Burke, A	TA 29/30
5109	CCJ 448	Mediation Conflict Management †	FSSu	8:00AM - 4:50PM	Lange, J	TBA
5109	CCJ 448	Mediation Conflict Management †	SSu	8:00AM - 4:50PM	Lange, J	TBA
4097	CCJ 460	Comparative Criminal Justice *	MW	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Mellgren, E	TA 28/31
4098	CCJ 460	Comparative Criminal Justice * †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Mellgren, E	WWW
5110	CCJ 548	Mediation Conflict Management †	FSSu	8:00AM - 4:50PM	Lange, J	TBA
5110	CCJ 548	Mediation Conflict Management †	SSu	8:00AM - 4:50PM	Lange, J	TBA

APPENDIX D

List of Liberal Studies Courses (Winter 2011)

CRN	Course	Title	Days	Time	Instructor	Room
4115	ANTH 211	Archaeology and Prehistory *	TR	8:00AM - 9:50AM	Tveskov, M	TA 28/31
4116	ANTH 213	Cultural Anth: Perspectives *	MW	8:00AM - 9:50AM	Chambers, A	TA 024
4117	ANTH 213	Cultural Anth: Perspectives *	TR	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Maxwell, J	TA 229
4119	ANTH 310	American Culture *	M	5:30PM - 9:20PM	Phillips, J	HEC 209
4119	ANTH 310	American Culture *	M	5:30PM - 9:20PM	Phillips, J	HEC 209
4366	ANTH 317	Pacific Cultures *	MW	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Chambers, A	TA 024
4417	ARTH 204	Hst Art: Prehst through Medev * †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Longshore, J	WWW
4415	ARTH 205	Hst Art: Ren through Baroque *	MW	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Longshore, J	AB 101
4418	ARTH 205	Hst Art: Ren through Baroque *	TR	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Markle, W	AB 101
4426	ARTH 205	Hst Art: Ren through Baroque *	MW	6:00PM - 7:50PM	Wyshak, R	AB 101
4416	ARTH 345	Activist Artists/Wrk in Commun *	MW	9:00AM - 10:50AM	Longshore, J	AB 124
3699	BA 110	Business, Govt & Society *	MW	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Kinard, J	CE 106
3854	BA 477	International Business *	TR	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Lane, D	CE 128
4694	BI 101	General Biology: Cells *	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Schroeder, P	WWW
4695	BI 101L	Gen Biol: Cells Lab *	T	9:00AM - 11:50AM	Schroeder, P	SC 165
4696	BI 101L	Gen Biol: Cells Lab *	T	1:00PM - 3:50PM	Schroeder, P	SC 165
3549	BI 102	General Biology: Organisms *	TR	10:00AM - 11:30AM	Christianson	SC 118
3590	BI 102	General Biology: Organisms *	MWF	9:00AM - 9:50AM	Stone, K	SC 118
4931	BI 102L	Gen Bi: Organisms Lab *	R	8:00AM - 8:50AM	Sollinger, J	SC 164
4932	BI 102L	Gen Bi: Organisms Lab *	R	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Sollinger, J	SC 164
3553	BI 212	Prin/Bio: Evol/Div *	MWF	10:00AM - 10:50AM	Parker, M	SC 118
4685	BI 212	Princ of Biology: Evol/Diver *	MWF	2:00PM - 2:50PM	Oline, D	SC 118
3591	BI 382	Biology and Society *	TR	10:00AM - 11:15AM	Sollinger, J	SC 275

4700	BI 383	Our Microbial World * †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Page, K	WWW
3592	BI 386	Forest Ecology and Management *	MW	2:00PM - 3:15PM	Roden, J	SC 171
4161	CH 100	Fundamentals of Chemistry *	MWF	10:00AM - 10:50AM	Staff	SC 275
4156	CH 201	General Chemistry *	MWF	11:00AM - 11:50AM	Petrovic, S	SC 171
4133	CH 202	General Chemistry *	MWF	11:00AM - 11:50AM	Chapman, D	SC 118
4157	CH 204	General Chemistry Laboratory *	R	1:00PM - 1:50PM	Petrovic, S	SC 225
4157	CH 204	General Chemistry Laboratory *	R	2:00PM - 4:50PM	Petrovic, S	SC 224
4159	CH 204	General Chemistry Laboratory *	T	8:00AM - 8:50AM	Petrovic, S	SC 171
4159	CH 204	General Chemistry Laboratory *	T	9:00AM - 11:50AM	Petrovic, S	SC 224
4134	CH 205	General Chemistry Laboratory *	R	1:00PM - 1:50PM	Miller, G	SC 275
4134	CH 205	General Chemistry Laboratory *	R	2:00PM - 4:50PM	Miller, G	SC 274
4135	CH 205	General Chemistry Laboratory *	W	1:00PM - 1:50PM	Carrabba, M	SC 225
4135	CH 205	General Chemistry Laboratory *	W	2:00PM - 4:50PM	Carrabba, M	SC 274
4154	CH 205	General Chemistry Laboratory *	T	8:00AM - 8:50AM	Chapman, D	SC 225
4154	CH 205	General Chemistry Laboratory *	T	9:00AM - 11:50AM	Chapman, D	SC 274
4179	CH 205	General Chemistry Laboratory *	T	1:00PM - 1:50PM	Miller, G	SC 225
4179	CH 205	General Chemistry Laboratory *	T	2:00PM - 4:50PM	Miller, G	SC 274
3622	COMM 200	Communication Across Cultures *	TR	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Waters, J	BRITT BLRM
3626	COMM 201	Media Across Cultures *	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Richardson,	BRITT BLRM
4929	COMM 343	Argument, Debate, Crit Thnk *	TR	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Ruggerio, A	CE 028
4925	COMM 460B	Comm & Third-World Development *	MW	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Waters, J	CE 015
4943	CS 210	Web Development I *	MW	12:00PM - 12:50PM	Harvey, D	CS 206
4943	CS 210	Web Development I *	MW	1:00PM - 1:50PM	Harvey, D	CS PCE
4949	CS 210	Web Development I * †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Brandenburg,	WWW
4943	CS 210	Web Development I *	MW	12:00PM - 12:50PM	Harvey, D	CS 206
4943	CS 210	Web Development I *	MW	1:00PM - 1:50PM	Harvey, D	CS PCE

4949	CS 210	Web Development I * †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Brandenburg,	WWW
4935	CS 346	Computer Forensics *	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Roos, R	CS 105
4951	CS 346	Computer Forensics * †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Roos, R	WWW
4105	EC 201	Principles of Microeconomics *	TR	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Pirasteh, H	TA 012
4106	EC 201	Principles of Microeconomics *	TR	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Holt, R	TA 012
4107	EC 202	Principles of Macroeconomics *	TR	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Gentry, D	TA 228
4108	EC 202	Principles of Macroeconomics * †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Gentry, D	WWW
4705	ED 252	Intro Social Foundations Educ *	W	5:00PM - 7:50PM	Brann, P	HEC 120
3759	ENG 102	Academic English ESOL Students *	MW	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Ball, M	TA 229
3829	ENG 105	Introduction to Literature *	TR	3:00PM - 4:50PM	Hadella, P	HEC 305
4724	ENG 202	Shakespeare *	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Weingust, D	THTR 114
3748	ENG 209	U.S. Multicultural Literature *	TR	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Alvarez, A	TA 126
3749	ENG 209	Spanish Civil War Literature *	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	DeHay, T	CE 270
3760	ENG 239	Native American Myth/Culture *	TR	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Ball, M	TA 132
3752	ENG 315	Studies in Autobio Writing *	TR	10:00AM - 11:50AM	DeHay, T	CE 270
3755	ENG 447	Chicana/Chicano Literature *	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Alvarez, A	TA 126
3758	ENG 491	History of English Language *	MW	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Battistella,	CE 270
4593	ENGR 176	Science/Technology Materials *	MWF	11:00AM - 11:50AM	Quainoo, G	SC 108
4593	ENGR 176	Science/Technology Materials *	MWF	11:00AM - 11:50AM	Quainoo, G	SC 108
4182	ENGR 222	Calc-Based Physics for Eng II *	MWF	9:00AM - 9:50AM	Siem, E	SC 171
4184	ENGR 225	General Engineering Lab II *	R	10:00AM - 12:50PM	Staff	SC 116
4185	ENGR 225	General Engineering Lab II *	W	2:00PM - 4:50PM	Staff	SC 116
4186	ENGR 225	General Engineering Lab II *	R	2:00PM - 4:50PM	Siem, E	SC 116
3668	ES 102	Intro to ES: Bio Science *	MW	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Welden, C	SC 067
4566	ES 103	Intro to ES: Social Science *	MW	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Gutrich, J	EP 254
5127	ES 111	Physical Environment I *	MW	5:30PM - 6:20PM	Dittmer, E	HEC 217

5128	ES 111L	Physical Environ I Lab *	MW	6:30PM - 7:20PM	Dittmer, E	HEC 217
3654	ES 112	Physical Environment II *	MWF	1:00PM - 1:50PM	Pricope, N	SC 118
4567	ES 112L	Physical Environ II Lab *	T	2:00PM - 4:50PM	Blanton, P	SC 067
4568	ES 112L	Physical Environ II Lab *	W	2:00PM - 4:50PM	Pricope, N	SC 067
4569	ES 379	Biodiversity *	MW	8:00AM - 9:50AM	Jessup, S	SC 057
3664	ES 386	Environmental Data Analysis *	MW	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Blanton, P	TA 102
3680	ES 439	Land Use Planning *	MW	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Acklin, P	TA 132
3833	FR 202	Intermed French Language II *	MTWR	9:00AM - 9:50AM	Golding, M	TA 229
4730	FR 202	Intermed French Language II *	MTWR	12:00PM - 12:50PM	Golding, M	CH 243
4336	GEOG 108	Global Lands and Livelihoods *	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Richards, J	TA 132
4337	GEOG 330	Geography of Latin America *	TR	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Richards, J	TA 132
4338	GEOG 350	Urban Environments *	MW	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Richards, J	TA 132
3657	GEOG 386	Environmental Data Analysis *	MW	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Blanton, P	TA 102
4339	GEOG 439	Land Use Planning *	MW	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Acklin, P	TA 132
4404	GL 202	Int German Language II *	MTWR	10:00AM - 10:50AM	Pyle, C	EP 292
4467	GSWS 343	Gender and the Body *	TR	12:00PM - 1:50PM	de Vries, K	TA 228
3966	HE 250	Health and Society I *	TR	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Vener, J	PE 114
3966	HE 250	Health and Society I *	TR	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Vener, J	PE 115
3970	HE 250	Health and Society I *	MW	8:00AM - 9:50AM	Vener, J	PE 114
3965	HE 275	Health and Society II *	MW	9:00AM - 10:50AM	Perkins, J	PE 003
5091	HE 275	Health and Society II *	R	5:30PM - 9:20PM	Kem, S	HEC 217
3957	HE 453	Drugs in Society *	MW	10:00AM - 11:15AM	Jones, L	PE 114
3957	HE 453	Drugs in Society *	W	10:00AM - 10:50AM	Jones, L	TBA
4041	HST 110	World Civilizations *	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Harrison, R	TA 107
4042	HST 111	World Civilizations *	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Douthit, E	TA 026
4409	HST 111	World Civilizations * †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Churchman, D	WWW

4043	HST 250	American History and Life *	TR	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Peterson, J	TA 020
4044	HST 250	American History and Life *	TR	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Marshall, S	TA 026
5125	HST 250	American History and Life *	MW	5:30PM - 7:20PM	Carney, T	HEC 305
4045	HST 251	American History and Life *	TR	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Walcher, D	TA 107
4051	HST 380	War in the Modern World * †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Carney, T	WWW
4052	HST 421	Environmental History * †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Carney, T	WWW
5161	HST 521	Environmental History * †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Carney, T	WWW
4367	IS 350	World Politics *	TR	4:00PM - 5:50PM	Niemann, M	TA 107
5156	MTH 105	Contemporary Mathematics *	MW	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Sabo, D	CE 027
5157	MTH 105	Contemporary Mathematics *	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Sabo, D	CE 015
3503	MTH 111	Precalculus I: College Algebra *	MWRF	12:00PM - 12:50PM	Hatton, J	CE 012
3514	MTH 111	Precalculus I: College Algebra *	MWRF	9:00AM - 9:50AM	Feist, C	LIB 117
3540	MTH 111	Precalculus I: College Algebra * †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Shrewsbury,	WWW
3502	MTH 112	Precalculus II: Elementary Fun *	MWRF	12:00PM - 12:50PM	Shrewsbury,	LIB 117
3515	MTH 112	Precalculus II: Elementary Fun *	MWRF	9:00AM - 9:50AM	Ciasullo, L	CE 027
3537	MTH 158	Elementary Linear Mathematics *	MWF	8:30AM - 9:50AM	Fortgang, A	TA 020
3504	MTH 211	Fundamentals of Elemen Math I *	MWF	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Lubliner, I	CE 219
3520	MTH 212	Fundamentals of Elemen Math II *	MWF	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Bostwick, F	CE 219
3516	MTH 243	Elementary Statistics *	MWF	10:00AM - 11:20AM	Kim, D	CE 012
3521	MTH 243	Elementary Statistics *	TR	8:30AM - 9:50AM	Beick, M	CE 012
3523	MTH 243	Elementary Statistics *	MWF	2:00PM - 3:20PM	Beick, M	CE 012
3525	MTH 243	Elementary Statistics *	TR	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Fortgang, A	CE 012
3527	MTH 243	Elementary Statistics *	MWF	12:00PM - 1:20PM	Beick, M	LIB 206
3538	MTH 243	Elementary Statistics *	MWF	10:00AM - 11:20AM	Shrewsbury,	TA 020
3847	MTH 243	Elementary Statistics *	TR	3:00PM - 4:50PM	Smith, M	HEC 209
3526	MTH 251	Calculus I *	MWRF	12:00PM - 12:50PM	Fortgang, A	TA 209

5131	MTH 251	Calculus I *	MWF	8:30AM - 9:50AM	Yates, K	TA 28/31
4619	MUS 202	Music of the World *	MW	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Longshore, W	MUS 114
4631	MUS 203	American Jazz *	MW	5:30PM - 7:20PM	Scoggin, D	TBA
4603	MUS 361	Hst Music: Baroque/Classical *	MWF	9:00AM - 9:50AM	French, P	MUS 121
4632	MUS 361	Hst Music: Baroque/Classical *	TR	6:30PM - 8:00PM	Wight, D	TBA
4595	PH 100	Fundamentals of Physics *	MWF	12:00PM - 12:50PM	Siem, E	SC 108
4596	PH 104	Fundamentals of Physics Lab *	M	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Staff	SC 116
4597	PH 104	Fundamentals of Physics Lab *	M	1:00PM - 2:50PM	Staff	SC 116
4598	PH 104	Fundamentals of Physics Lab *	M	3:00PM - 4:50PM	Staff	SC 116
4168	PH 112	Astronomy *	MWF	12:00PM - 12:50PM	Photinos, P	SC 118
4169	PH 114	Astronomy Workshop: The Solar *	R	12:00PM - 12:50PM	Photinos, P	CS PCE
4170	PH 114	Astronomy Workshop: The Solar *	R	3:00PM - 3:50PM	Photinos, P	CS PCW
4171	PH 114	Astronomy Workshop: The Solar *	W	2:00PM - 2:50PM	Photinos, P	CS PCE
5146	PH 176	Science/Technology Materials *	MWF	11:00AM - 11:50AM	Quainoo, G	SC 108
5146	PH 176	Science/Technology Materials *	MWF	11:00AM - 11:50AM	Quainoo, G	SC 108
4166	PH 202	General Physics II *	MWF	9:00AM - 9:50AM	Quainoo, G	SC 108
4167	PH 222	General Physics II *	MWF	9:00AM - 9:50AM	Siem, E	SC 171
4172	PH 225	General Physics Laboratory II *	R	10:00AM - 12:50PM	Staff	SC 116
4173	PH 225	General Physics Laboratory II *	W	2:00PM - 4:50PM	Staff	SC 116
4174	PH 225	General Physics Laboratory II *	R	2:00PM - 4:50PM	Siem, E	SC 116
4176	PH 309	Energy Alternatives *	MW	2:00PM - 3:20PM	Siem, E	SC 108
4176	PH 309	Energy Alternatives *	MW	2:00PM - 3:20PM	Siem, E	SC 108
3784	PHL 201	Introduction to Philosophy *	TR	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Frangadakis,	LIB 206
3786	PHL 205	Ethics: Moral Issues *	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Frangadakis,	TA 229
3787	PHL 205H	Honors Ethics: Moral Issues *	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Chenjeri, P	LIB 117
3789	PHL 339	History Philosophy of Science *	TR	5:30PM - 7:20PM	Chenjeri, P	HEC 305

4055	PS 110	Globalization *	TR	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Douthit, E	TA 107
4056	PS 201	Power and Politics *	TR	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Hughes, W	TA 026
4222	PSY 201	General Psychology *	TR	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Helzer, M	EP 150
4223	PSY 201	General Psychology *	TR	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Helzer, M	EP 150
4225	PSY 202	General Psychology *	MW	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Helzer, M	EP 150
4226	PSY 202	General Psychology * †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Thernell, H	WWW
4309	PSY 202	General Psychology *	MW	8:00AM - 9:50AM	Staff	EP 150
4310	PSY 202	General Psychology *	W	5:30PM - 9:20PM	Robertson, D	HEC 311
3803	PSY 369	Human Sexuality *	TR	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Pierson, J	EP 050
4305	PSY 479	Abnormal Psychology *	MW	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Robertson, D	EP 258
4307	PSY 479	Abnormal Psychology * †	TBA	0:00AM - 0:00AM	Robertson, D	WWW
5126	PSY 479	Abnormal Psychology *	R	5:30PM - 9:20PM	Blakeley, M	HEC 321
3812	PSY 498	Psychology Capstone: Project *	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Russell-Mill	EP 050
5123	PSY 499	Psychology Capstone: Project *	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Russell-Mill	EP 050
5124	PSY 499	Psychology Capstone: Research *	MW	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Rowland, P	EP 263
3783	REL 202	Religion: The Human Experience *	TR	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Ball, M	EP 050
4964	SHS 202	Shakespeare *	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Weingust, D	THTR 114
4577	SHS 236	Introduction to Shakespeare St *	MW	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Weingust, D	THTR 114
4321	SOC 204	The Sociological Imagination *	TR	8:00AM - 9:50AM	de Vries, K	TA 225
4322	SOC 204	The Sociological Imagination *	TR	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Alam, S	TA 229
4323	SOC 204	The Sociological Imagination *	MW	2:00PM - 3:50PM	de Vries, K	TA 024
4324	SOC 205	Social Problems and Policy *	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	White, C	TA 228
5115	SOC 304	Poverty, Family, and Policy *	TR	3:30PM - 5:20PM	Miller-Loess	HEC 215
4330	SOC 343	Gender and the Body *	TR	12:00PM - 1:50PM	de Vries, K	TA 228
4378	SPAN 202	Inter Spanish Lang/Culture II *	MTWR	9:00AM - 9:50AM	Vanderlip, L	CH 243
4381	SPAN 202	Inter Spanish Lang/Culture II *	MTWR	10:00AM - 10:50AM	Vanderlip, L	CH 243

4387	SPAN 202	Inter Spanish Lang/Culture II *	MTWR	2:00PM - 2:50PM	Olsen, V	TA 209
4390	SPAN 202	Inter Spanish Lang/Culture II *	MTWR	1:00PM - 1:50PM	Olsen, V	TA 209
4379	SPAN 203	Inter Spanish Lang/Culture III *	MTWR	3:00PM - 3:50PM	Olsen, V	TA 209
4347	SSPC 439	Land Use Planning *	MW	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Acklin, P	TA 132
4512	TA 202	Shakespeare *	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Weingust, D	THTR 114
4519	USEM 101	University Seminar *	TR	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Brown, D	TA 208
4520	USEM 101	University Seminar *	MW	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Staff	TA 228
4521	USEM 101	University Seminar *	TR	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Winter, D	TA 208
4522	USEM 102	University Seminar *	MTWR	10:00AM - 10:50AM	Versluis, D	SC 171
4523	USEM 102	University Seminar *	MTWR	12:00PM - 12:50PM	Versluis, D	SC 171
4524	USEM 102	University Seminar *	MW	8:00AM - 9:50AM	Mraz, D	TA 208
4525	USEM 102	University Seminar *	TR	8:00AM - 9:50AM	Winter, D	TA 208
4526	USEM 102	University Seminar *	M	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Young, L	CS PCE
4526	USEM 102	University Seminar *	W	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Young, L	SC 215
4527	USEM 102	University Seminar *	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Voisin, C	TA 021
4528	USEM 102	University Seminar *	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Perez, D	TA 208
4529	USEM 102	University Seminar *	MW	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Picknell, J	TA 013
4530	USEM 102	University Seminar *	MW	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Mraz, D	TA 208
4531	USEM 102	University Seminar *	MW	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Mraz, D	TA 208
4532	USEM 102	University Seminar *	MW	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Stillwell, C	TA 228
4533	USEM 102	University Seminar *	MW	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Whitman, E	TA 013
4534	USEM 102	University Seminar *	MW	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Voisin, C	TA 021
4535	USEM 102	University Seminar *	MW	6:00PM - 7:50PM	Stillwell, C	TA 021
4536	USEM 102	University Seminar *	TR	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Picknell, J	HEC 118
4537	USEM 102	University Seminar *	TR	8:00AM - 9:50AM	Jessup, L	TA 013
4538	USEM 102	University Seminar *	TR	8:00AM - 9:50AM	Clarke, K	TA 021

4539	USEM 102	University Seminar *	TR	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Brown, D	TA 208
4540	USEM 102	University Seminar *	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	de Vries, K	EP 294
4541	USEM 102	University Seminar *	TR	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Winkler, B	TA 021
4542	USEM 102	University Seminar *	TR	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Whitman, E	TA 013
4543	USEM 102	University Seminar *	R	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Young, L	CE 012
4543	USEM 102	University Seminar *	T	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Young, L	CS PCE
4544	USEM 102	University Seminar *	TR	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Stillwell, C	EP 050
4545	USEM 102	University Seminar *	TR	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Whitman, E	TA 013
4546	USEM 102	University Seminar *	TR	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Hedges, W	CE 106
4547	USEM 102	University Seminar *	TR	4:00PM - 5:50PM	Winter, D	CE 015
4725	USEM 102	University Seminar *	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Picknell, J	TA 013
4549	USEM 102H	University Seminar Honors *	MW	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Gentry, D	CE 015
4550	USEM 102H	University Seminar Honors *	MW	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Voisin, C	TA 021
4551	USEM 102H	University Seminar Honors *	TR	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Parker, M	TA 013
4552	USEM 103	University Seminar *	MW	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Marinak, J	TA 012
4553	USEM 103	University Seminar *	MW	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Versluis, D	SC 275
4554	USEM 103	University Seminar *	TR	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Marinak, J	TA 021
4555	USEM 103	University Seminar *	M	4:00PM - 5:50PM	Young, L	CS PCE
4555	USEM 103	University Seminar *	W	4:00PM - 5:50PM	Young, L	TA 021
3765	WR 230	Public Rsn: Intro to Rhetoric *	MW	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Gholson, B	EP 050
3766	WR 241	Creative Writing I *	MW	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Wright, V	TA 226
3767	WR 242	Creative Writing II *	MW	10:00AM - 11:50AM	Hicks, K	LIB 206
3768	WR 242	Creative Writing II *	TR	12:00PM - 1:50PM	Hicks, K	LIB 206
3769	WR 329	Grantwriting and Workplace Lit *	TR	2:00PM - 3:50PM	Battistella,	TA 126

APPENDIX E

Access Letter to Professors

Dear Dr./Professor:

My name is Brian Fedorek and I am a doctoral candidate in the Department of Criminology at Indiana University of Pennsylvania and an Assistant Professor at Southern Oregon University. I have recently defended my dissertation proposal to research perceptions of the criminal justice system among college students. I am currently seeking your assistance in the data collection phase of my dissertation.

The focus of my study is to examine perceptions towards police, forensic evidence accuracy, forensic procedures, fear of victimization, and apprehension of offenders among criminology and non-criminology undergraduate students. This project has been approved by the Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects at IUP and SOU. All student participants will be informed that participation in the study is completely voluntary and their anonymity will be protected.

Your class _____ has been randomly selected from a sampling frame of possible courses to be included in the study. I am seeking your permission to administer a questionnaire to the students enrolled in your course. Due to the random nature of course selection, I would greatly appreciate your assistance and help in this project by allowing me to administer my questionnaire to your class and students.

The process of questionnaire distribution, informed consent, and survey completion is expected to take approximately 20 minutes. I can administer the questionnaire at either the beginning or end of class time. I can appreciate the value of class time and I thank you in advance for considering my request.

I would be happy to provide you with any additional information or answer any questions you may have. Please feel free to contact me or my dissertation chair, Dr. Erika Frenzel. I look forward to speaking with you soon.

Respectfully,

Brian Fedorek, M.A.
Doctoral Candidate
Criminology & Criminal Justice
1250 Siskiyou Boulevard
Ashland, OR 97520
Taylor Hall, Room 117

Erika Frenzel, Ph.D.
Professor
Department of Criminology
441 North Walk
Indiana, PA 15705
Wilson Hall, Room 109

Phone: (541) 552 -6508
Email: fedorekb@sou.edu

Phone: (724) 357-5976
Email: e.frenzel@iup.edu

APPENDIX F

Informed Consent Form

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Brian Fedorek as a doctoral candidate from Indiana University of Pennsylvania and as an assistant professor of Southern Oregon University, Criminology and Criminal Justice Department. The purpose of this study is to assess perceptions towards police, courts, forensic evidence, and fear of crime among undergraduate college students. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are an undergraduate student at SOU and because your class was chosen to participate in the study. Students under the age of 18, however, are not permitted by law to complete this survey. If you decide to participate, you will be asked to answer questions about your television viewing habits, perceptions about the criminal justice system, previous criminal victimizations, and demographic information. The survey should take approximately 20 minutes.

While participating in this study, it is possible that you may experience troubling memories of past events. If you experience delayed psychological or emotional stress, please contact the SOU Health and Wellness Center (541) 552-6136 for referral to appropriate service providers to obtain counseling. You may not receive any direct benefit from taking part in this study, but the study may help to increase knowledge which may help others in the future.

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be linked to you or identify you will be kept confidential. This information will be kept confidential by placing all completed surveys in a locked office in a locked filing cabinet. Upon completion of the final dissertation, all completed surveys will be destroyed after three years.

Your participation is voluntary. You do not have to take part in this study, and it will not affect your relationship with Southern Oregon University. You may also withdraw from this study at any time without penalty.

If you have concerns or problems about your participation in this study or your rights as a research subject, please contact Deborah d'Este Hofer, Grants & Sponsored Programs at 541.552.8662. If you have questions about the study itself, contact Brian Fedorek at 541.552.6508 or Erika Frenzel at 724.357.5976.

Your signature indicates that you have read and understand the above information, are 18 years or older, and agree to take part in this study. Please understand that you may withdraw your consent at any time, and that, by signing, you are not waiving any legal

claims, rights or remedies. The researcher will provide you with a copy of this form for your own records.

_____ _____

Signature Date

This study has been reviewed and approved by Indiana University of Pennsylvania's Instiutional Review Board (IRB) and Southern Oregon University's IRB. Both IRBs have determined that this study meets obligations required by federal law and University policies.

APPENDIX G

Bivariate Correlations

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Sex	1								
2	Age	0.075	1							
3	Perceived Class Status	-0.005	.451**	1						
4	Race	-0.035	-0.031	0.02	1					
5	CCJ Major or Minor	0.001	0.058	.352**	-0.007	1				
6	Number of CJ Course	0.033	.143**	.516**	0.065	.762**	1			
7	Town	0.025	0.013	0.018	0.059	-0.024	-0.026	1		
8	Co-occupants	-0.005	-.123*	-.226**	0.004	-0.089	-.123*	0.07	1	
9	Any Victimization	0.008	0.087	0.073	0.013	0.053	0.047	0.047	-0.038	1
10	CJ Experience	-0.08	.150**	.115*	0.017	.183**	.178**	0	-0.06	.102*
11	Total TV Watching	-.129**	0.016	0.058	.109*	0.083	.135**	-0.051	-0.061	0.021
12	Fictional Crime TV only	0.078	0.025	0.024	-0.064	.114*	.114*	-0.055	-0.021	0.045
13	Nonfictional Crime TV only	0.029	.180**	.156**	0.07	.242**	.237**	-0.027	-0.035	0.064
14	Perception of Police	0.012	0.053	-.113*	.164**	-.301**	-.296**	0.012	-0.027	0.026
15	Fear of Victimization	.346**	-0.009	-.123*	0.021	-.114*	-.130**	0.053	0.002	.130**
16	Forensic Evidence Error Rate	.140**	0.012	-0.094	0.036	-.153**	-.167**	-0.051	0.068	-0.078
17	Clearance Rate Error Rate	-0.012	-0.069	-.102*	0.06	-0.057	-.119*	-0.037	.139**	-.125*
18	Crime Rate Perception	0.092	-0.008	-.181**	0.089	-.190**	-.275**	0.083	-0.007	0.065
19	Crime Lab Perception	0.017	0.079	.144**	0	.191**	.190**	0.04	-0.014	0.03
20	Accuracy of CJ Agents	0.008	.156**	.313**	0.011	.346**	.411**	0.008	-.139**	0.031

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Bivariate Correlations continued

	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1											
2											
3											
4											
5											
6											
7											
8											
9											
10	1										
11	0.047	1									
12	0.096	.456**	1								
13	.128*	.370**	.330**	1							
14	-.168**	-0.086	-0.069	-.108*	1						
15	-0.089	-0.016	.110*	0.019	.109*	1					
16	-0.009	0.035	.103*	-0.032	0.093	.167**	1				
17	-0.061	-.126*	-0.067	-0.021	0.09	0.022	.315**	1			
18	-0.019	-0.03	0.027	-0.013	0.094	.274**	.182**	0.055	1		
19	0.029	0.002	0.01	0.013	-.150**	-.115*	-.186**	-.139**	-0.097	1	
20	0.06	0.008	0.009	0.06	-.148**	-.122*	-.271**	-.120*	-.130**	.268**	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX H

Amended Bivariate Correlations

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Sex	1								
2	Age	-0.075	1							
3	Race	0.005	0.052	1						
4	Number of CJ Courses	-0.033	.143**	-0.086	1					
5	Town	-0.026	0.015	0.012	-.100*	1				
6	Co-occupants	0.005	-.123*	-0.07	-.123*	0.056	1			
7	Any Victimization	-0.008	0.087	-0.015	0.047	0.019	-0.038	1		
8	CJ Experience	0.08	.150**	0.018	.178**	-0.045	-0.06	.102*	1	
9	Total TV Watching	.129**	0.016	-.115*	.135**	-0.031	-0.061	0.021	0.047	1
10	Fictional Crime TV only	-0.078	0.025	0.044	.114*	-0.033	-0.021	0.045	0.096	.456**
11	Nonfictional Crime TV only	-0.029	.180**	-0.091	.237**	-0.02	-0.035	0.064	.128*	.370**
12	Perception of Police	-0.012	0.053	-.190**	-.296**	0.015	-0.027	0.026	-.168**	-0.086
13	Fear of Victimization	-.346**	-0.009	-0.046	-.130**	0.092	0.002	.130**	-0.089	-0.016
14	Forensic Evidence Error Rate	-.140**	0.012	-0.037	-.167**	-0.028	0.068	-0.078	-0.009	0.035
15	Clearance Rate Error Rate	0.012	-0.069	-0.053	-.119*	0.006	.139**	-.125*	-0.061	-.126*
16	Crime Rate Perception	-0.092	-0.008	-0.07	-.275**	0.082	-0.007	0.065	-0.019	-0.03
17	Crime Lab Perception	-0.008	.156**	-0.007	.411**	0.001	-.139**	0.031	0.06	0.008
18	Accuracy of CJ Agents	-0.017	0.079	0.012	.190**	0.01	-0.014	0.03	0.029	0.002

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Amended Bivariate Correlations continued

	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1									
2									
3									
4									
5									
6									
7									
8									
9									
10	1								
11	.330**	1							
12	-0.069	-.108*	1						
13	.110*	0.019	.109*	1					
14	.103*	-0.032	0.093	.167**	1				
15	-0.067	-0.021	0.09	0.022	.315**	1			
16	0.027	-0.013	0.094	.274**	.182**	0.055	1		
17	0.009	0.06	-.148**	-.122*	-.271**	-.120*	-.130**	1	
18	0.01	0.013	-.150**	-.115*	-.186**	-.139**	-0.097	.268**	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).