

Exploring Perceptions of Crime and Police: A Targeted Population Analysis

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Abstract

Data from a survey of African Americans living in a single neighborhood are analyzed to explore attitudes and perceptions concerning police, community-police relations, fear of crime, and feelings of safety. An exploratory factor analysis is conducted to uncover latent variables, and then these factors are used, both as predictor and independent variables, in a series of regression analyses to explore the linear causal mechanisms. Our findings demonstrate the complexity of police-community relationships and the important role that perceptions of police play as both predictor and dependent variable.

Key word: Police-community relations, fear of crime, feelings of safety, neighborhood crime, perceptions of police, African American neighborhood, factor analysis, latent variable, regression analysis, exploratory research.

1. Introduction

In previous work by Sweet Holp and Zuern (2016), we presented descriptive findings from a household survey of African Americans concerning the beliefs and attitudes about police, their fear of crime, and feelings of safety. In this follow-up work, we dig deeper into these data to explore the causal mechanisms at work in the respondent's attitudes. Furthermore, we look at how perceptions of police, safety, and fear of crime are related to victimization and overall quality of life for African Americans.

1.1 Review of Literature

The American public's interest in police-community relations has most likely been around since Boston established the first police force in 1838. Gault (1918) wrote an editorial assigning much praise to Berkley, CA for its early work in training their police officers to work with a diverse community. Our research follows much work that has been conducted over the last sixty years concerning the public's perception of the police and police-community relations. Further, according to Parker, Onyekwuluje, and Murty (1995), as early as the 1970s, researchers in the social sciences investigated the role of the police in communities, and the relationship between perception of police and age, race, and other social factors. Over the last four decades, many theoretical frameworks have been advanced. For example, Parker et al. (1995) used a variety of socioeconomic variables (income, age, residence, sex, marital status) to explain African Americans' attitudes toward police and their behavior, while Warren (2010) used an ecological model looking at the role of the neighborhood in fostering perceptions of police and fear of crime, including if trust in police is a function of the police organization (Warren, 2010, p. 1027). Dowler and Sparks (2008) attempted a multivariate analysis to explain African American attitudes toward police controlling for the interaction effects of neighborhood context, victimization, contact with police, and community and police force characteristics (Dowler & Sparks, 2008, p. 400).

While race has always been a variable used in explaining attitudes toward police, more recent studies suggest that African American are more prone to view police as racially biased (Warren, 2010, pp. 1024) and when it comes to encounters with police, African Americans are more likely to think that police practice racial profiling, and that they are treated unfairly by police (Najdowski, Bottoms, & Goff, 2015, p. 464). Indeed, in their work, Lee, Steinberg, Piquero, & Knight (2010) state that police contact in low-income, urban neighborhoods is often a function of "surveillance, racial profiling, harassment, and arrest processing (Lee, et al., 2010, p. 23)."

Sun and Triplett (2008), use a series of variables measuring neighborhood structural characteristics, social organization, and legitimacy of authority to explain why police rate disorder problems higher than do local residents (Sun & Triplett, 2008). In addition, Lee, et al., (2011) found that perceptions of police are more negative among offenders than non-offenders, and also that feelings of cynicism and overall perceptions of police are multidimensional when it comes to ethnic identity (Lee, et al., 2011, p. 27-30).

The negative perceptions of police have not gone unnoticed and efforts are being made across many jurisdictions to improve perceptions and relations. As such, over the last two decades, community policing has become an important tool for police in establishing trust and being more responsive to the public (Trinkner, Tyler, & Goff, 2016). Kirk and Papachristos (2011) explored the linkages between the embedded cultural frameworks that exist in neighborhoods and perception of police legitimacy. In addition, a basis for the movement toward community policing programs over the past two decades is that positive views toward the law and its enforcers will empower neighborhood residents to assist in the crime-fighting process (Silver & Miller, 2004, p. 1216). In addition, Culberston (2000) finds that police spend more time performing community-based service functions than in crime oriented activities (Culberston, 2000, p. 14). While research by Sun and Triplett (2008) and Aviv (2014) suggest that a major component in the formation of good community-police relations is the public's perception of police legitimacy (Aviv, 2014, p. 124). To wit, Trinker, et al., (2016) state that "Communities are more likely to trust law enforcement when they believe officers are acting in accordance with societal values concerning how power is supposed to be used (Trinker, et al., 2016, p. 167)." Furthermore, Tuch and Weitzer (1997) demonstrated that police incidents of improper conduct (actual or perceived) that receive a large amount of media attention strongly influence public attitudes toward police (Tuch and Weitzer, 1997, p. 647).

Defining work by Skogan, (1998) demonstrates that community-policing and its emphasis on decentralized decision making is an important component in establishing strong, healthy police-community relations (Skogan, 1998). This importance of police-community relations and the use of community policing as a legitimate tool for building positive police-community relations, and is not isolated to the United States, with relevant research being conducted in nations from the Middle East (Aviv, 2014) to South America (Riccio, 2013).

Neighborhoods have always been an important part of American urban life. Since the urban migration, many of us living in the United States have only know urban, and more recently, suburban life. As Hipp (1998) points out, [Neighborhoods] are the locations for residents' many daily activities, such as shopping, engaging in recreational activities with family and friends, chatting with neighbors, or going to school (Hipp, 1998, p. 395)." Without questions, neighborhood living structures our lives. As Hill Collins (2010) has so eloquently stated, "the idea of community is ubiquitous, versatile, multifaceted, and able to marshal emotions that move people to action... (Hill Collins, 2010, p. 12)."

There are numerous models that attempt to explain satisfaction with neighborhoods, including the six theories discussed by Hipp (1998); the Social Disorganization Model, Systemic Theory, Place Stratification Model, Community of Limited Liability Theory, The Satiation Model, and the Moderating Effect of Context. Hipp (1998) found that households perceiving more crime, social disorder, or physical disorder are considerably less satisfied than are other households (Hipp, 1998, p. 409). Lorenc, et al, (2013) used a meta-thematic analysis of forty studies to examine and better understand fear of crime in neighborhoods. According to Quillian and Pager (2001), gender and past victimization of a household member are significantly associated with the perception of crime and the presence of young black men in a neighborhood has a negative impact on perceptions of crime for both black and white residents (Quillian & Pager, 2001, p. 735-738). Hill Collins (2010) offers an explanation of the latter.

Because the construct of community is inherently about interrelationships across differences in power - the aforementioned power negotiations within identity communities and across affinity communities - the relational thinking that accompanies multiple practices of community in actual social relations may be a useful entree into strategies people deploy within an increasingly interdependent world (Hill Collins, 2010, p. 23).

In a similar fashion, Sun and Triplett (2008) argue that perceptions of crime and fear are not directly driven by crime rates, rather perceptions are a function of "the level of social control in the neighborhood (Sun & Triplett, 2008, p. 435)." Sun and Triplett (2008), use a series of variables measuring neighborhood structural characteristics, social organization, and legitimacy of authority to explain perception of crime. Interestingly, police rate disorder problems higher than do local residents (Sun and Triplett, 2008).

In addition, in their study of perceptions of neighborhood crime, Quillian and Pager (2001) found a relationship “between the racial composition of neighborhoods and perceptions of the neighborhood’s crime problem (Quillian & Pager, 2001, p. 730).

The impact of crime and fear of crime is not isolated to issues of police, but, rather, influence residents of communities in many ways, including neighborhood disorder (Ross & Mirowsky, 2009) and even mental health (Polling, Khondoker, Hatch, & Hotopf, 2014). Although there is little general consensus on the meaning of quality of life (Coverdill, López, & Petriel, 2011), it is an important dynamic for all citizens. Quality of life is an important construct in the social sciences and scholars have emphasized the family structure in the African American ghetto life as a contributor to the perpetuation of the underclass (Blake & Anderson, 2000). To wit, Hughes and Thomas (1998) find that African Americans were less satisfied across multiple measures of quality of life. In addition Coverdill et al., (2011) echo these finding showing that racial inequality exists in quality of life with African American lagging behind White Americans (Coverdill et al, 2011, p. 785), and Najdowski and Bottoms’ research has shown that African American males experience police stereotyping far more than their white counter-parts (Najdowski & Bottoms, 2015, p. 471). Furthermore, research shows that African American communities are likely to suffer greater levels of stress that result in increased health risk and other negative manifestations. The claim is that stress impacts “the mental, physical, and sociological state of Black Americans. (Gabbidon and Peterson, 2006, p. 91).”

2. Material and Methods

The data analyzed for this research are the data used in our earlier descriptive paper (Sweet Holp & Zuern, 2016) and were collected via a household survey conducted face-to-face with one-hundred-one (101) residents of a public housing authority neighborhood in a small southern city located in the state of Georgia, United States of America. Randomization within the household was not used and the completed surveys represent approximately sixty percent of the occupied units. Multiple contacts, at various times, and on various days, were attempted to increase participation. Of the one-hundred-one surveyed residents, ninety-six were African American, one was White, one of some other race, and there were two cases with missing race data.

Students from a local university were employed for data collection. All surveyors were trained by the Principal Investigators (PIs) in proper face-to-face interviewing techniques. The surveyors were in the field approximately three weeks during the months of May and June 2016.

The survey instrument was created by the PIs and approved by the Institutional Review Board at the local university. Data were entered using Excel and imported in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for analyses.

3. Results and Discussion

Continuing with our earlier work (Sweet Holp & Zuern, 2016) we investigate attitudes and beliefs of neighborhood residents toward police and examine their feelings of safety and fear of crime. An initial exploratory factor analysis is conducted to determine any latent variables. Latent variables are those which are not necessarily observable, and represent broader conceptual frameworks than can single variables. Groupings of large correlation coefficients between individual variables indicate that the correlated variables are measuring different aspects of the same underlying dimension. These underlying factors are presented in the first section, while regression analyses using the factor scores are discussed in the second half.

3.1 Research Questions

Our exploratory research is driven by the following three research questions:

What variables influence resident’s attitudes and beliefs toward police?

What variables influence resident’s feelings of safety and fearfulness?

What variables influence resident’s quality of life?

3.2 Factor Analysis

Often thought of as structural equation modeling (SEM) factor analysis has many additional uses, and for our purposes it is an ideal method to shed new light on these police-community relations data.

Yalcin and Amemiya (2001) state that:

Factor and structural equation analyses utilize latent variable models which express observed measurements or indicators in terms of underlying unobservable characteristics or traits. Such models seem to correspond very well with the subject-matter theory in the social and behavioral sciences, where unobservable but well-conceived characteristics such as attitude, personality, and opinion are to be studied, and where items or questions designed to measure or relate to such characteristics can be constructed (Yalcin & Amemiya, 2001, p. 275).

To analyze these data we decided to employ an exploratory factor analysis. The exploratory factor analysis method is used to uncover the aforementioned groups or clusters of variables that are highly correlated and that represent latent, or underlying, dimensions of a construct. Beyond the mathematical properties, these clusters of variables, or factors, must make theoretical sense. In the survey used in this study, there are many questions that are very similar in nature and in theory measure multiple facets of the same underlying construct.

According to Costello and Osborne (2005) if the assumption of multivariate normality is 'severely violated' then "one of the principal factor methods; in SPSS this procedure is called 'principal axis factors' (Costello & Osborne, 2005, p. 2)" is the preferred method. Principal Axis factoring requires no assumptions about data multivariate normality. Likewise, to the best of our understanding, if the factors are, in theory correlated, and the goal is to extract correlated, interpretable factors that reproduce latent constructs, then a non-orthogonal method such as direct oblimin is the more appropriate rotational method. Yalcin and Amemiya (2001) further state, that recent research "results have partially dispelled the previously held view that heavy reliance on the normality-based packages tends to produce inappropriate inferences and limits the practical usefulness of factor analysis (Yalcin & Amemiya, 2001, p. 279)." The reader should keep two thoughts in mind whilst consuming this work. First, we use this technique solely as a method to further explore what these data can tell us about police-community relations. If this research were confirmatory, we would be far stricter in its application. Second, as with all statistical models, it is important to use these techniques within a developed theoretical framework (Courgeau and Baccaini, 1998, p. 68).

Once we have our extracted and rotated factors, the saved scores are used in a series of regression analyses to see if they may offer any explanatory power when examining fear of crime, feelings of safety, and life satisfaction.

3.3 Findings

The Factor Analysis resulted in eleven latent variables (factors). The rotated structure matrix, with sorted loadings, is displayed below in Table 1 (Factors 1-5) and Table 2 (Factors 6-11). Below are brief descriptions of each factor, including the theorized underlying constructs.

Table 1 shows the loadings for factors 1-5 of the eleven extracted factors. We have labeled the factors as follows:

Factor 1: Police Behaviors. Items in this factor include perceptions of behaviors that police exhibit when interacting with the public, such as treating people fairly, treating people with respect, and making decision that affect a community. Factor 1, more than any of the others, reflect perceptions on police-community relations.

Factor 2: Police Presence. Its loadings include variables that measure the amount of foot patrols, squad car patrols, and a general desire for a greater police presence in the neighborhood.

Factor 3: Victim of Theft. This factor includes four variables that all correlate highly with being a victim of theft. This factor has great explanatory potential as victimization is an important variable in examining police-community relations, as well as in explaining fear of crime and feelings of safety.

Factor 4: Trust In Government. Variables in this factor are perceptions of the efficiency and effectiveness of government officials, as well as their best intentions for the city.

Factor 5: Good Neighbor. Trust in your neighbors is very important to forming community cohesion. This factor measures this notion of cohesion by including items such as the likelihood of calling the police when a victim, or when witnessing a minor or major crime.

Table 2 shows the loadings for actors 6-11 of the eleven extracted factors. We have labeled the factors as follows:

Factor 6: Concern for Property. Along with fear of violence, concern for private property has a significant impact on perceptions of community, police, self, and satisfaction with place. In this factor the loadings include variables addressing concern over having one's home broken into, and having property vandalized.

Factor 7: Police Efficacy. Perceptions of police in their effectiveness in controlling drugs, violent crime, and in general are the variables that load on factor 7.

Factor 8: Victim of Violence. Variables that load are being or knowing someone that was a victim of a violent crime or injured with a weapon.

Factor 9: Police Interaction. Factor 9 is interesting as perceptions of police respectfulness and use of too much force both load, but so does the variable measuring beliefs about police response time. As one would expect, the latter is a negative relationship with the former two variables. Thus, those residents that indicate that they are treated disrespectfully by police infrequently are more likely to also agree that police respond quickly when called.

Factor 10: Neighborhood Tenure. How long a resident has lived at their current address and their age both load on the factor we label Neighborhood Tenure.

Factor 11: Socioeconomic Status. SES includes educational attainment and level of education.

We now take the eleven extracted factors and regress several dependent variables on them to explore the linear relationships between our latent constructs and variables such as police satisfaction, fear of crime, feelings of safety, and quality of life.

3.4 Regression Analysis

Continuing with our exploratory investigation of these data, we opt to run a series of regression analyses to ferret out any potential causal relationships between our extracted factors and a set of dependent variables. We also use the factors as dependent variables in some of the models. Table 3 displays the regression models, along with the adjusted R squared (model fit), level of statistical significance, and Standardized Beta Weight.

As an exploratory endeavor, we took some liberty with the models and the statistical analyses. In confirmatory models we would be much more concerned with model fit, but for our purposes, the strength of the fit is not as interesting as the Betas. Also, the statistical significance cut-off level for inclusion in the table is $P < 0.05$, far more lenient than the rule of thumb $P < 0.01$ used in most regression models.

In our first model, we use the factors to explain "How safe do you feel in your community." As Table 3 displays, of the eleven factors, Factor 6: Concern for Property and Factor 7: Police Efficacy are statistically significant ($P=.004$, $P=.011$, respectfully). Of the two variables, Concern for Property has only a slightly larger influence than Police Efficacy, with standardized betas of $-.321$ and $.302$, respectively. The negative coefficient for Factor 6 is an artifact of the survey response order; those reporting greater concern for their property are more likely to also report greater concern for their safety. Conversely, those residents that have a greater efficacy in the police are more likely to report feeling safer in their community.

Our second regression model (see Table 3) explores the relationship between how fearful residents are of being a victim of a violent crime and our latent variables. In this model, only Factor 6: Concern for Property is statistically significant. It generates a statistical significance of $P=.006$ and a beta of $.310$. The positive coefficient indicates that those residents that have a greater concern for their property are more likely to be more fearful of being a victim of violent crime.

In the third model, we use the survey question "How much of a problem is crime in your neighborhood" as the independent variable and find that Factor 1: Police Behaviors is statistically significant at the $P=.004$ level. This factor generates a beta of 0.340 . Thus, residents that have more positive views of police behaviors are more likely to report crime in the neighborhood is a problem.

Model 4 is one of two models that initially drove us to conduct this research. Thus, we regress the factors on a surrogate variable for satisfaction with police. The survey of residents asked them if "I would be pleased one day if my child worked for the police department."

As Table 3 shows, two of the latent variables show statistically significant predictive power; Factor 9: Police Interaction, and Factor 11: SES. Factor 9 is significant at the .000 level and generates a beta weight of -0.431 while Factor 11 is significant at the .037 level and produces a standardized beta of 0.210, having less impact than Factor 9. Thus, those residents having greater negative interactions with police are less satisfied than are those who have more positive interactions. Interestingly, those of higher socioeconomic status are more likely to be dissatisfied with the police, than are their lower SES counterparts.

For model 5 we examine the relationship between life satisfaction and our factors. Of the eleven factors, only Factor 1: Police Behaviors is statistically significant ($P=.01$), producing a standard beta of -0.304; those residents that view police behaviors in a more positive light are less likely to express high levels of life satisfaction.

With model 6, several regression runs are used. When regressed on Factor 6: Good Neighbor, none of the factors are statistically significant. In exploring deeper, each variable in Factor 6 was run as a dependent variable. Of the three additional models (6a, 6b, 6c) only the model using “Call the police to report a minor crime” and Factor 1: Police Behaviors is significant ($P=.001$) with an associated beta of .397. Residents with positive views of police behaviors are more likely to report a minor crime.

The last model is the second driving this research. We regress the factor on “Do the police treat minorities differently?” Our results are somewhat unexpected. Of the eleven factors, only two are significant, Factor 8: Victim of Violence and Factor 10: Neighborhood Tenure ($P=.013$ $P=.033$, respectively) generating standardized betas of .276 and .239, respectively. Residents victimized by violence and that have a longer tenure in the neighborhood are more likely to disagree that police treat minorities differently.

3.5 Discussion

Thinking about models 1, 2, our findings give rise to several general observations. First, although fear of crime and feelings of safety are similar, they are different dynamics. With that said, models 1 and 2 highlight the actuality that if a resident is concerned about one aspect of their safety, they are likely concerned about other aspects, as well. The same can be said of fear; if they are fearful about their personal safety, they are fearful about their property. Second, then, there is reason to suspect that, in terms of community-policing, for areas with high rates of property crime, if that type of crime can be reduced, then there is reason to suspect that residents are more likely to feel safer and less fearful.

Before running Model 3, the expectation was that police presence and police interaction would be significant influences on perceptions of crime in the neighborhood. Our findings show that neither factor is statistically significant, but perceptions of police behaviors are significant. One plausible explanation for these findings, i.e., perceptions of police behaviors drive perceptions of crime, is that we are seeing a nonrecursive relationship with those who feel crime is a problem are more comfortable contacting the police, thereby having positive view of the police behaviors. This finding needs greater investigation to fully flesh out the causal mechanisms.

Model 5 produces a counter-intuitive finding; residents with positive views of police behaviors express lower levels of life satisfaction. At first blush, this relationship might make sense if those with higher levels of victimization had more interaction with police. This relationship could explain the lower levels of life satisfaction, i.e., victimization, and positive views of police, i.e., greater interaction. However, this is not the case. None of the other factors, including those measuring victimization, and police interaction are statistically significant. As with the previous model, more investigation is necessary.

Before running Model 7, we suspected that those residents having greater interaction with the police would see police more objectively. Our data do not support this suspicion. Although we find that residents that experience less victimization are likely to report that police treat minorities differently, the factors representing police interaction and police efficacy are not significant. Certainly, there must be a certain level of interaction at work, but these data suggest that there is something else at play when victimization occurs. Perhaps it is as simple as when we are victims, we have no choice but to look to the authorities for assistance. If we are to avoid the dissonance, we have to view them in a positive fashion.

Overall, there are several insights to be gleaned from our findings. First, the factor analysis demonstrates that many of the observable variables discussed in police-community research are indeed single measures of a broader construct. To fully understand the perceptions that people have of police, and the subsequent impact on individuals and communities requires investigation into the underlying latent variables.

Our findings also show the complexity of the relationships being investigated. The findings from our models lead us to believe that perceptions of police influence many facets of community life; police-community relations, fear of crime, feelings of safety, police satisfaction, and quality of life can all be impacted by a resident's view of the police.

In addition, the nature of these relationships is so complex as to suggest that at least one set of our findings could best be explained by a nonrecursive model. This suspicion is supported not only theoretically, but also from the high levels of autocorrelation between the individual variables.

Lastly, our findings in model 5 give us pause for consideration and create an opportunity for future investigation. It is completely counter intuitive and perplexing that people with positive views of police behaviors express lower levels of life satisfaction. One additional thought on this finding is that perhaps people that have lower levels of satisfaction look to the police for support and stability. Although this dynamic might be part of police interaction, it was not measured by any of the variables. Further, it is possible that the 'idea of police' is just as important as direct interaction and perhaps more so. To many, police represent the broader community, and can bring a notion of legitimacy discussed earlier (Aviv, 2014; Riccio, 2013); legitimacy, then, could be the piece missing from this investigation.

3.6 Limitation/Future Work

Certainly, as an exploratory endeavor there are weaknesses to this research, but it is these limits that open the door to new studies. The dominant weaknesses are methodological, and stem from the statistical procedures used in the analyses. In terms of the factor analysis, it is important to note that there should be at least 50 observations and at least 5 times as many observations as variables. The first criterion was met, this research failed to meet the second with these data. For exploratory purposes, there is knowledge to be generated from this research.

Autocorrelation between factors is also a concern, but also expected if individual variables are measuring different aspects of the same dynamic. Indeed, in our analysis some variables load on more than one factor and this speaks to the multitude of latent variables at work when examining police-community relations. The number of unexpected results also speaks to the limits of the statistical procedures, as well as to the complexity of the relationships.

From a theoretical perspective, if this were a confirmatory analysis, it would be clear that our model is misspecified. Thankfully, we can take the findings as intended, and work on developing a sound theory based on this initial work. Items that for future consideration are the clear impact that the 'idea of police' play in forming perception; both from a sociological and psychological perspective, and the development of nonrecursive models also hold great potential in explain the relationships explored in this work.

4. Conclusion

The strength of this research is in its sample composition. Thus, we have the opportunity to explore, in detail, the attitudes and perceptions of African Americans living in a single neighborhood. For this research, we used an exploratory factor analysis to uncover the latent variables that exist in police-community relations. We then regressed these predictor factors on a series of variables to examine the linear relationships between police-community dynamics, feelings of safety, fear of crime, satisfaction with police and life satisfaction.

Overall, our findings demonstrate the important role that perceptions of police have on community-police relations. Clearly, as the literature demonstrates, African Americans have distinct view on the police. Our research has shown that the causal factors driving these views are very complex. Indeed, at least two of findings are counter intuitive and point to the need for nonrecursive models, and the development of additional predictor variables.

Thus, additional research, with a larger sample, better honed measures, and additional variables and model specification are needed to fully flesh out a more efficacious model of the dynamics at play.

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Table 1: Structure Matrix (Factors 1-5)

Variables	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
Do you agree or disagree that the police treat people fairly.	.874	.118	.021	-.098	.301
Do you agree or disagree that the police respect people’s rights.	.858	.111	.179	-.159	.126
Do you agree or disagree that the police usually explain their actions and/or decisions.	.816	.021	.160	-.021	.034
Do you agree or disagree that the police try to solve problems or do something when called.	.796	.054	.044	.003	.173
Do you agree or disagree that the police generally act professionally.	.792	.077	.002	-.038	.092
Do you agree or disagree that the police take time to listen to people.	.789	.090	-.031	.019	.180
Do you agree or disagree that most police officers in my community do their job well.	.759	-.023	-.040	-.083	.190
Do you agree or disagree that the police treat people with respect.	.747	.088	.002	.054	.107
Do you agree or disagree that the police can be trusted to make decisions that are right for my community.	.699	.135	.113	.066	.191
Do you agree or disagree that we need more police foot patrol in this neighborhood?	.140	.910	-.057	.005	.014
Do you agree or disagree that we need a greater police presence, in general?	.078	.885	-.059	.026	.161
Do you agree or disagree that we need more police squad car patrol in this neighborhood?	.039	.882	-.059	-.009	-.036
Do you agree or disagree that the police should hold more town hall meetings to find out what the residents think?	-.096	.476	-.009	.142	.149
in the last 12 months, how many times were you, or anyone living with you, a victim of Someone used or attempted to use your credit Cards or credit card numbers without permission?	-.019	-.021	.834	-.063	-.038
in the last 12 months, how many times were you, or anyone living with you, a victim of someone used or attempted to use personal information, without permission, to obtain new credit cards or loans, run up debts or open other accounts or otherwise	.102	-.147	.825	-.013	-.083
in the last 12 months, how many times were you, or anyone living with you, a victim of attempted or successful taking of something directly from you, or anyone living with you, by using force or the threat of force?	.108	-.116	.793	-.230	-.088
in the last 12 months, how many times were you, or anyone living with you, a victim of, other than a credit card, someone used or attempted to use any of your existing accounts such as a telephone account or bank account without your permission?	.109	.003	.756	.114	-.125
Do you agree or disagree that city government officials are efficient.	-.005	-.032	-.067	.956	.120
Do you agree or disagree that city government officials are effective.	-.050	-.061	-.107	.935	.134
Do you agree or disagree that city government officials have the best of intentions for improving our city.	-.057	.073	.042	.743	-.062
How likely are you to call the police to report a serious crime?	.114	.063	-.130	.058	.872
How likely are you to call the police to report a theft or burglary where you were the victim?	.081	-.009	-.065	.032	.837
How likely are you to call the police to report a violent crime where you were the victim?	.156	.021	-.127	.057	.805
How likely are you to call the police to report a minor crime?	.319	.098	.020	.099	.720

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
 Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 2: Structure Matrix (6-11)

Variables	Factor					
	6	7	8	9	10	11
Are you very concerned, somewhat concerned, somewhat unconcerned, very unconcerned about someone breaking into your home while you are at home?	.934	.074	-.011	-.004	.039	.041
Are you very concerned, somewhat concerned, somewhat unconcerned, very unconcerned about someone breaking into your home while you are not there?	.909	.120	.042	-.063	.086	-.004
Are you very concerned, somewhat concerned, somewhat unconcerned, very unconcerned about having your property vandalized?	.825	.084	-.009	-.059	.178	.129
How effective are the police in controlling violent crime?	.070	.920	-.066	.004	.127	.011
How effective are the police when people in your neighborhood call them for help?	.077	.752	.002	-.100	.127	-.038
How effective are the police in controlling drugs?	.099	.736	.096	-.179	-.012	.132
in the last 12 months, how many times were you, or anyone living with you, a victim of someone threatened to hit, attack or assault you, or anyone living with you?	-.007	-.022	.969	.019	.029	-.160
in the last 12 months, how many times were you, or anyone living with you, injured with a weapon or assaulted with physical force?	.006	-.009	.478	-.146	.292	-.111
How often do the police treat people disrespectfully?	-.001	-.121	.203	.732	.064	-.088
How often do the police use too much force when dealing with citizens?	-.066	-.144	-.202	.705	.091	-.057
Do you agree or disagree that the police respond quickly to calls for help or service?	.148	.441	.171	-.445	.322	-.233
How long have you lived at your current address?	.160	.049	.095	.012	.604	-.019
Age	-.048	.137	.074	.360	.539	.023
Educational Attainment	.056	-.001	-.144	-.068	-.055	.799
Household Income	.022	.073	-.073	.003	.051	.509
in the last 12 months, how many times were you, or anyone living with you, a victim of attempted or successful stealing a car, breaking into home, or vandalizes your property?	.030	-.048	-.046	.005	-.093	.064
In terms of your satisfaction with life, how would you describe yourself right now?	.172	-.071	-.094	.026	.223	-.059

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 3: Regression Models

Regression Models/Dependent Variables	Model Fit and Statistically Significant Independent Variables		
	Adjusted R Square	Statistical Significance	Standardized Beta Weight
Model 1: How Safe Do You Feel In Your Community	0.096		
Factor 6: Concern for Property		0.004	-0.321
Factor 7: Police Efficacy		0.011	0.302
Model 2: How Fearful Are You of Being a Victim of Violent Crime	0.064		
Factor 6: Concern for Property		0.006	0.310
Model 3: How Much of A Problem Is Crime In Your Neighborhood	0.144		
Factor 1: Police Behaviors		0.004	0.340
Model 4: Police Satisfaction	0.238		
Factor 9: Police Interaction		0.000	-0.431
Factor 11: Socioeconomic Status		0.037	0.210
Model 5: Life Satisfaction	0.124		
Factor 1: Police Behaviors		0.01	-0.304
Model 6: Good Neighbor	-0.067		
No Statistically Significant Relationships			
Model 6a: Call Police if Victim of Burglary	-0.029		
No Statistically Significant Relationships			
Model 6b: Call Police to Report Minor Crime	0.102		
Factor 1: Police Behaviors		0.001	0.397
Model 6c: Call Police to Report Serious Crime	-0.048		
No Statistically Significant Relationships			
Model 7: Police Treat Minorities Differently	0.095		
Factor 8: Victim of Violence		0.013	0.276
Factor 10: Neighborhood Tenure		0.033	0.239