2021

How Race Impacts Physical Injuries and Psychological Distress for Victims of Hate Crimes

Lisa Diane Alexander
Walden University

Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Lisa Diane Alexander

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee
Dr. David DiBari, Committee Chairperson,
Public Policy and Administration Faculty

Dr. Grace Telesco, Committee Member,
Public Policy and Administration Faculty

Dr. Lydia Forsythe, University Reviewer,
Public Policy and Administration Faculty

Chief Academic Officer and Provost
Sue Subocz, Ph.D.

Walden University
2021

Abstract

How Race Impacts Physical Injuries and Psychological Distress for Victims of Hate Crimes.

by

Lisa Diane Alexander

MS, Walden University, 2015

BS, Kaplan University, 2010

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Administration

Walden University

August 2021

Abstract

Hate crime in the United States divides people from different ethnic groups, cultures, and races. As such, hate crime continues to pose a threat to the safety of members of society because the crimes are driven by animosity. Hate crimes are believed to be more pernicious than mainstream crimes because they send a message to other members of the group that they are not accepted. The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which hate crimes were more injurious to African Americans as compared to other underrepresented groups and the psychological impact hate crimes had on the victims. The theoretical construct for the study was the social dominance theory because the theory relied on threats, violence, and intimidation as a means of controlling others. Statistical data were collected from the FBI, Department of Justice, and The National Victimization Survey for 2016. Results of the quantitative study indicated that hate crimes are more injurious for African Americans than for any other underrepresented group, and victims who reported race as the motive behind the crime also experienced more emotional trauma than victims who reported ethnicity and gender as the motive. The results of the study may subsequently promote positive social change concerning prosecution and penalty enhancement.

How Race Impacts Physical Injuries and Psychological Distress for Victims of Hate Crimes.

by

Lisa Diane Alexander

MS, Walden University, 2015

BS, Kaplan University, 2010

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Administration

Walden University

August 2021

Dedication

The success of this dissertation is dedicated to my dad, Arthur Burch Alexander, who told me never to do anything halfway and to always aim high, my mother, Barbara Jean Alexander, who advised me to never stop learning, to my sister, Sheila, who no longer has to hear me say “I got to do my homework”, to my brother, Todd Alexander Sr., who offered support and words of encouragement, and to God for guiding my steps and giving me the strength, wisdom, and confidence to tackle the ups and downs of obtaining a PhD. Thank you all!

Acknowledgments

I would like to acknowledge my chair, Dr. David DiBari, and committee member, Dr. Grace Telesco, for their support and guidance throughout the dissertation process.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Laws are implemented to create structure and order in the community so that people will respect individual boundaries. However, prejudice and mistreatment of others due to culture, race, religion, and other factors have been a part of society for centuries. Acts such as lynching were once considered examples of bigotry but are now classified as hate crimes (Jenness & Grattet, 2001). When considering traditional crime, there must be a perpetrator, criminal act (actus rea), and motive or intention (mens rea), and causation and concurrence (Pollock, 2013) may be a factor when administering punishment. Crime in and of itself can be traumatic and present fear in the victim. However, the psychological aspects of a hate crime are more profound than those of traditional crime because the victim is selected because of their real or perceived membership defined by race, religion, sexual orientation, gender, gender identity, ethnicity/nationality, disability, or political affiliation (Stotzer, 2007). Hate crimes send a message of inferiority to the victim as well as other members of the group (Kauppinen, 2015), and if not for the group affiliation, the crime would not have occurred. However, creating a universal concept of hate crime can be difficult (Garland & Chakraborti, 2012). Therefore, introducing penalty enhancement may impose a challenge when deciding what offenses should be suitable for hate crime legislation (Brax & Munthe, 2015).

In this study, the research questions focused on the role that race played in determining the extent of injuries and psychological distress experienced by the victims of hate crimes. The potential for positive social change is to gain a more in-depth knowledge of the research questions and provide statistical data that can support the

prosecution of hate crime offenses as well as administering the advance penalty associated with the hate crime legislation. The theoretical framework for this study included the social dominance theory (Sidanius et al. 2004). The study used ex post facto data from the Inter-University Consortium for Political and Social Research (ICPSR, 2016). Chapter 1 provided an introduction to the study. Chapter 2 of the study provided a summary of scholarly articles and outlines similar themes and gaps in research. Chapter 3 explained the research design and methodology. Chapter 4 presented the results of the study, and Chapter 5 included a discussion, conclusion, and recommendations.

Background

A hate crime occurs when individuals are discriminated against because of their membership in a protected group (e.g., based on race, religion, sexual orientation, etc.) or for participating in the federally protected activity (United States Department of Justice, 2008). In 1964 the Federal Civil Rights Law, 18 U.S.C. Section 245 (b)(2) was enacted and became the first law to address hate crimes. The law outlined six protected activities that, if violated, constituted a hate crime. The six activities include (a) attending school, (b) applying for jobs, (c) using any facility of interstate commerce, (d) participating in public activities, (e) patronizing a public/facility, or (f) voting, or serving as a juror.

In 1994, the Violent Crime Control and Law Enforcement Act was passed, which required stricter penalties be imposed for hate crimes. However, the bill included individuals in the protected group only when they were participating in one of the six federally protected activities when the violation occurred. Therefore, if a person was

walking through the neighborhood, washing their car, or taking out the garbage, they were not protected if they were victims of a hate crime.

Additionally, the desecration laws identify places of worship, as well as cemeteries, public monuments, and national flags where acts of vandalism occur. The state desecration law and the federal church arson law defined religious congregations as victims of hate crimes; however, the federal statute failed to specify the types of victims and focused mainly on motive as the criteria for hate crimes (Scheitle & Hansmann, 2016). The vandalism may not amount to a hate crime, and the actions of the offender would determine whether the crime was based on bias against the religion. Also, a religious-based hate crime outlined in the 1990 statute did not include religious congregations at all. A religious individual, business, or school could be considered victims (Scheitle & Hansmann, 2016).

In October 2009, President Obama signed the Matthew Sheppard and James Byrd Jr. Hate Crime Prevention Act. The Hate Crime Act saw the loopholes in sentencing and protecting other groups from being victims of hate crime. The act also eliminated the clause stipulating that victims must be participating in a federal protected activity to be classified as a hate crime, to include all activities. The laws also expanded on which groups could be classified as a protected group. The expansion included the victim's actual or perceived gender identity, sexual orientation, or disability.

A crime that is motivated by hate is more profound because of the psychological impact that extends beyond the initial victim. The maliciousness of a hate crime always involves the identity that defines groups or categories of people (Brudholm, 2015). Also,

group-hate, peer pressure, co-defending, victim-blaming, and people in power who encourage separation and oppression by social media rants all help to facilitate hate crime. Although there are hate crime laws in effect that encourage increased penalty for committing the crime, these crimes are rarely prosecuted under the hate crime statute (Djarv et al., 2015).

Hate crimes are committed to send a hostile message to an entire group and the victims are targeted base on prejudices (Brudholm, 2015). The perpetrators can be part of a political extremist group or members of organized hate groups, and the relationship between perpetrator and victim can be family, co-workers, or neighbors (Brudholm, 2015). For a crime to be classified as a hate crime, there must be a baseline offense, such as robbery, assault, vandalism, and so forth. Brudholm (2015) also proposed that the mental state of the offender is considered when a hate crime is committed. The FBI classifies three subcategories of hate crime (a) crimes against persons, (b) crimes against property, and (c) crimes against society: gambling, prostitution, and drug violations (Cheng et al., 2013).

Card (2001) argued that setting a standard that crime motivated by hate is misleading and the emphasis should be directed toward what the crime entailed and not the motivation. This would in turn exclude the idea that a crime is motivated strictly based on victim's characteristics. Therefore, the hate crime may not be viewed as being more psychological damaging and therefore, would not impact the entire protected group. As such, the notion of hate crime statute would be null and void, and the symbolic cases

of Matthew Sheppard and James Byrd Jr. would have minimal impact on criminal charges, prosecution, and sentencing.

Any crime, whether robbery, burglary, assault, or murder, has a psychological impact on the victim. The victim may feel a sense of helplessness that impacts their daily routine. When conflicting views exist in determining hate crime statute, identifying the protected group, prosecution, and severity of punishment, hate crime may continue to rise with very little impact on the perpetrator but will add insult to injury for the victim.

Problem Statement

There is a problem in society when people are victimized, harassed, and assaulted based on their race, religion, or sexuality. Crimes committed due to biases are classified as hate crimes and send a message that the subordinate group members (Cheng et al., 2013) are not accepted and should be treated differently. Understanding and accepting people from different backgrounds may be difficult when the dominant group feels they are losing their privileged status. Those who are members of multiple protected groups (e.g., gay Black male, Middle Eastern women, or Hispanic bisexual male), may find that harassment and discrimination are constructed at two different levels, thus making them more of a target for a hate crime (Ramirez et al., 2018). Differences in beliefs, culture, race, and so forth are part of the diversity in the community. However, when people lose sight of the human aspect behind the differences, they begin to dehumanize others, which reinforces the idea that they are not valued as other members of society (Haslam & Loughnan, 2014). Therefore, some groups may not feel entitled to equality and discrimination becomes the norm. As such, it becomes easier to commit hate crimes and

create an environment of hatred and intimidation (Haslam & Loughnan, 2014). Despite hate crime laws being in effect, states have failed to develop a universal definition of what constitutes a hate crime (e.g., hate speech, physical violence) and identifying members of the protected group (i.e., race, religion, sexual orientation, disability). Some victims may be reluctant to report a hate crime for fear that police will not take them seriously (Ruback et al., 2015). Also, law enforcement agencies have discretion on whether to categorize an incident as a hate crime due to organizational or community pressure (Walfield et al., 2017). Therefore, hate crimes go unreported (Ruback, et al., 2015) or are improperly categorized (Walfield et al., 2017), and factoring in the uncertainty of a universal definition (Garland & Chakraborti, 2012) as well as the exclusion of some people in the protected group (Swiffen, 2018) may ultimately influence the number of cases that are presented to the prosecutor. As such, the number of hate crimes are underreported, which will give the illusion that hate crimes do not occur frequently or are not a severe threat to public safety. Therefore, the idea that bias-motivated crimes require a stricter penalty will not be supported by statistical data and will subsequently be insignificant to criminal justice professionals.

The meaningful gap in literature: A review of the literature surrounding hate crimes focused on crimes against members of the lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender community. For example, Bell and Perry (2015) examined the impact of anti-lesbian, gay, and bisexual hate crimes in the community. Lee (2008), Perkiss, (2013) and Tomei and Cramer (2016) analyzed the psychological aspect of the gay panic defense, and the

2015 survey on transgender equality (James et al., 2016) reported on the physical violence perpetrated against transgender people of color.

The existing body of literature focused on hate crimes committed against members of the lesbian, gay and transgender community. This study filled a gap in literature by examining other groups such as African Americans, Whites, gay men, Jews, and Hispanic/Latino's who were victims of hate crimes. This study further analyzed the extent of injuries sustained by African Americans as compared to Whites, gay men, Jews, and Hispanic/Latino's. Finally, this study analyzed the degree to which victims of racially motivated crimes experienced depression and anxiety as compared to victims who perceived ethnicity and gender as the motive for the crime.

Including African Americans, Whites, gay men, Jew, and the Hispanic/Latino population in the body literature will provide a comprehensive look into the physical and emotional impact hate crimes have on other members of the community.

Purpose of the Study

For bias-motivated crimes to occur, the perpetrator must have negative misconceptions of an individual or group based on race, religion, or sexual orientation (Gruenewald & Allison, 2018). Hate crimes have a more significant impact on the individual and members of society because it sends a message of inferiority (Kauppinen, 2015). The bias that motivates the criminal offense has both a physical and psychological component that makes them more harmful than baseline offenses (Stozer, 2007). However, the extent of injuries received by the victim may be contingent on the alleged danger of the victim and their threat to society (Powers & Socia, 2019). For example,

African American males are perceived to be more dangerous and more willing to defend themselves; therefore, they will subsequently receive more injuries (Powers & Socia, 2019). The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the two main factors surrounding the victims of hate crime, which are physical injuries and psychological distress. The first research question analyzed the extent to which race vs. other biases plays in determining the extent of injuries sustained by the victim. The second research question explored whether victims of racially motivated crimes experienced more depression and anxiety than victims of other bias crimes. The independent variables were bias motivators and race; the dependent variables were level of physical injuries, violent crimes, and emotional impact.

Research Questions

RQ1: To what extent are racially motivated crimes more injurious for African Americans than for other groups?

RQ2: To what extent are victims of racially motivated crimes more likely to experience depression and anxiety than are victims of other bias-motivated crimes?

Theoretical Framework

The foundation of social dominance theory rests on the ideology that hierarchy-attenuation is part of society's culture and is achieved through group-based oppression (Sidanius et al., 2004). Group-based hierarchies play a significant role in intergroup conflicts (Küpper et al., 2010). Individuals in power have material resources, political clout, personal privileges, and institutional access to influence the preferential treatment of high-status groups (Küpper et al., 2010). Members of the high-status group are more

likely to support group based-hierarchy than the lower status groups who face discrimination, are devalued, and are excluded in the housing and employment market (Küpper et al., 2010). The dominant group is more likely to support prejudices and other ideologies, beliefs, and attributions that function as legitimizing myths that justify the existence of group-based hierarchies (Küpper et al., 2010).

Social dominance orientation is the degree to which individuals support group based-hierarchy and the domination of inferior groups by superior groups (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). Social groups are defined by race, ethnicity, cultural background, religion, gender, education, and socio-economic status (Küpper et al., 2010). The dominant group, comprising older individuals, men, Whites, and native citizens, are more social-dominance-oriented than are the low-status groups, who are younger individuals, women, Blacks, and immigrants (Küpper et al., 2010). Group-based hierarchies are justified using legitimizing myths by proposing that individuals hold the position they deserve within the social hierarchy (Küpper et al., 2010). Legitimizing myth offers plausible reasons for discrimination and unequal distribution (Küpper et al., 2010) and leads to institutional discrimination and asymmetric behavior as an additional form of discrimination (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).

The dominant class or the “in-group” uses discrimination, threats, and physical violence to keep the subordinate or “out-group” in line. As such, the subservient group begins to question whether they should travel outside of the parameters that society has set (e.g., housing, education, etc.) for fear of harassment or assault. Therefore, keeping the subordinate group in “their place” becomes a way of preserving these privileges for

the dominant or in-group (Sidanius et al., 2004). As such, the subordinate group may participate in asymmetric behavior as they begin to devalue themselves and self-destruct, which serves as another form of discrimination (Küpper et al., 2010)

Hierarchies serve the interest of the high-status group because members of this group are more likely to endorse the social structure (Küpper et al., 2010). As the out-group begins to move up the social ladder, (e.g., moving into an affluent neighborhood, attending prestigious college, or membership in an elite social club) resentment within the in-group begins to fester because they fear they are no longer enjoying the privileges that were preserved for their class. The idea of losing a desired social status or sharing that status with someone whom they perceive as unworthy may cause the dominant group to believe they must protect what they consider as theirs. Pulido (2015) noted that the desire of the dominant group to protect what they see as theirs or to protect the "white space" is not attributed to racial animus but is a way of creating the best opportunity for themselves. However, as the subordinate group begins to enjoy the same privileges as the dominate group, threats, intimidation, and physical violence may occur as a way of protecting the "white space" The oppression placed on the subordinate group to remain in their place subsequently contributes to racial inequality (Pulido, 2015).

The social dominance theory employs two legitimizing myths to justify the group-based hierarchy (Sidanius et al., 1996). The hierarchy enhancing legitimizing myth (HELM) uses racism, sexism, anti-Semitism, and anti-immigration to justify the subordinate position of Blacks, women, Jews, and immigrants (Sidanius et al., 1996). The

hierarchy attenuating legitimizing myth (HALM) uses ideologies such as nationalism, protestant work ethic, free-market liberalism, and socialism (Sidanius et al., 1996).

Hate crimes can serve as a mechanism for protecting the desired class from those who are viewed as undeserving of the same rights and privileges. Hate crime takes on the mentality of "us" against "them." In doing so, fear becomes the driving force of maintaining the social hierarchy. When a hate crime is committed against an individual, it also sends a message to all members of that group that they are not worthy of equal treatment (Sullivan et al., 2016).

Rationale for the Theoretical Framework

Social dominance theory is the appropriate framework for this study because this theory explains the idea of controlling others through fear, threats, and physical violence. The theory proposes that prejudices and ideologies function to justify differential treatment of high and low-status groups (Küpper et al., 2010). The dominant group is characterized by its disproportionately more significant share of positive social value (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999), and group-based hierarchy is a way to legitimize myths of stereotypes and beliefs (Pratto et al., 2006). Social order is achieved through social conditions and laws that protect and maintain the interest of the dominant group. As such, the criminal justice system can play a role in systematic discrimination (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). The accomplishments of Mekhi Johnson, an African American male accepted into all eight Ivy League Colleges (Richman, 2018), Lori Lightfoot, the first African American female and openly gay Mayor of Chicago (Spielman, 2019), and Alberto Gonzales, the first Latino Attorney General (Varela, 2015), provide inspiration to

others and people of color to pursue their dreams. However, the dominant group may see this as an infringement on their protected space because they must now share the spotlight with others. As such, the individual orientation that endorses unequal relationships between groups (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999) contributes to the power and control that is afforded to the dominant group.

Nature of the Study

For this quantitative, nonexperimental study, I used data for 2016 to answer the two research questions. The first research question examined the relationship between the independent variable (race) and the dependent variable (extent of injuries). Cross-tabulation analysis was used to examine the variables using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software. Data were collected from the ICPSR, Uniform Crime Reporting Program Data: Hate Crime Data (Record-Type Files), United States 2016, ICPSR 37060. I also used the ICPSR Codebook to provide a detailed explanation of scope of the study, subject information, data collection methodology and variable description. I collected data from The National Crime Victimization Survey for 2016 to answer the second research question to understand the emotional and psychological impact of hate crime. The study examined the extent to which victims of racially motivated crimes (independent variable) experience depression and anxiety vs victims of other bias-motivated crimes (dependent variables). The study further examined the rate at which victims of racially motivated crimes experienced residual physical problems, such as headaches, fatigue, and muscle tension as compared with other victims. Data were analyzed using SPSS software.

Assumptions

The first assumption regarding this study was that all law enforcement agencies had the same definition of a hate crime as described by the FBI. The second assumption was that all hate crimes, bias motivators, and type of victim were identified and properly coded. The third assumption was that all law enforcement agencies reported all hate crime incidents. The final assumption of the study was that the raw data were accurate and up to date.

Scope and Delimitations

The research problem focused on hate crime and how the race and can be an indicator of the extent of injuries suffered by the victim as well as the emotional impact of the hate crime. The study used data reported to the FBI from January through December 2016, which only analyzed 1 year of hate crime incidents. Therefore, the study may not provide an in-depth assessment of the severity of the problem, and further research should be conducted to solidify the results.

Threats to Internal Validity

Law enforcement agencies may set different criteria for defining hate crimes. Missing data and data keyed in incorrectly may alter the total number of hate crime incidents. Law enforcement agencies may underreport criminal acts to lessen the problem and victims may fail to report a crime for fear of retaliation.

Limitations

The study used hate crime data reported by law enforcement agencies in 2016. Therefore, the scope of the study is limited to 1 year. The study used a broad category for

injuries and did not distinguish between major injuries, which resulted in hospitalization or long-term physical problems such as permanent brain damage, or minor fractures and bruises. To avoid bias in this study, I analyzed and evaluated only the statistics from the secondary data. Personal assumptions of hate crimes will be discarded.

Significance

Racial tension, animosity, and hatred have been part of society since the 1930s. Some may believe that those who are "different" or do not share the same values as the mainstream society are not entitled to equal treatment and their chance at achieving the American Dream. Those who "have" are not willing to give up their social standing or share their space with the "have nots." (Pulido, 2015). Threats, intimidation, and physical violence are ways of excluding some while protecting what some believe are rights exclusively reserved for them (Pulido, 2015).

Before the internet, individuals spread hate through secret meetings, distribution of flyers, and word of mouth. However, with advancements in technology, social media platforms, racially motivated video games, and chat rooms, the spread of hate speech has intensified (Gould, 2019). Hate crime laws were enacted to criminalize acts motivated by the victim's identity in a particular group. However, as the diversity of the population grows, and more and more people are openly expressing their sexuality, those who oppose differences in the dynamics of the population may find it difficult to cope. The dominant group may struggle with the idea that everyone is entitled to the same opportunities; therefore, they may express their opposition through hate crimes based on the characteristics of the protected group.

This research contributed to the body of knowledge by showing the connection of race and bias motivators to the injuries sustained and the emotional suffering of the victims of hate crime in 2016. The study demonstrated the frequency and severity of hate crimes, thus providing sustenance for penalty enhancement. This research supports professional practices because research influences policy, policies govern how laws and regulations are implemented, and laws outline how members of society should be treated when they are victims of a crime. The possible impact on positive social change is that racially motivated incidents that existed in the 1930s (e.g., racial inequality, false accusations on people of color, and police execution of unarmed African American men) are still present in the year 2020. The study can increase the public's understanding of bias-motivated crimes, which can assist in dismantling social injustice and systemic racism. Although hate crime legislation is in effect, crimes are rarely prosecuted under this statute (Djary et al., 2015). Therefore, more collaboration between law enforcement, courts, and community organizations may encourage congruence between diverse population groups. The study can raise awareness of the need for improved social services programs that can help victims of hate crime deal with residual factors such as depression, anxiety, and anger.

Implications for Social Change

Society is forever changing, and the way people interact and how they embrace diversity will change as well. The results of the study can be used to prompt officials to create a universal definition of a hate crime (Garland & Chakraborti, 2012). In doing so, hate crimes can be adequately documented, leading to more accurate crime statistics.

Also, having precise and up-to-date data can influence prosecution to pursue hate crime charges as well as the enhanced penalty associated with hate crime legislation (Brax & Munthe, 2015). Enhanced sentencing sends a message that hate crime is not tolerated or accepted by members of the community (Gerstenfield, 2011). Therefore, individuals, communities, and members of the protected group can begin to heal and feel a sense of equality. This study can increase the criminal justice administrators' understanding of bias-motivated crimes and their impact on members of the targeted group.

Summary

Crime is inevitable and is a constant fixture in society. As the demographics of the community change, tension and resentment among its members may increase. However, the way society treats its members can be determined by the way society views the population (Schneider & Ingram, 1993). Therefore, any change or disruption in the dynamic of the community may manifest into threats, intimidation, and physical violence associated with hate crimes. The examination of the literature in Chapter 2 highlights the symbolic hate crime cases, the psychological impact of hate crime, members of the protected group, hate speech, and penalty enhancement. The literature also focused on victim-blaming and how it played a role in reducing offender culpability (Burdholm, 2015).

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Chapter 2 provides a synopsis of the literature surrounding hate crime. Through analysis of the literature, I have identified several main themes, including bias motivators, schemas, protected group, and the psychological aspect of hate crime. Underlying themes touched on symbolic cases such as those of Matthew Sheppard and James Byrd, hate speech, and penalty enhancement. Prior research focused on hate crimes against members of the gay, lesbian, and transgender community, with a few studies including race and crimes against property and business. The significance of this study was to examine the role that race played in the extent of victim injury and the emotional impact of the crime vs. other bias-motivated crime. The results of the study may subsequently promote policy change concerning prosecution and penalty enhancement.

Literature Search Strategy

To locate relevant sources for this literature review, I conducted an online search using the Walden Library databases: Criminal Justice Database, Sage Journals, EBSCO-SocIndex, Journal of Applied Social Psychology, Journal of Forensic Psychology, Journal of Interpersonal Violence, Pro Quest, Science Direct and citation chaining. Keywords used were *hate crime*, *hate crime and victim*, *bias*, *women/females*, *African American/blacks*, *ideology*, *beliefs*, *church*, *bombings*, *cause*, *Maryland*, *vandalism*, *business*, *race*, *destruction of property*, *mass shootings*, *perpetrators*, *male perpetrators*, *hate groups*, *legal system*, *criminal justice*, *property*, *offender*, and *theory*. Literature was searched for the years 2015-2019.

Theoretical Foundation

The basis of the social dominance theory is to maintain social order by creating a divide among groups that allows one group to have authority over another (Küpper et al., 2010). Dominating others through violence, threats, and intimidation is a way of maintaining the group-based hierarchies (Küpper et al., 2010). Individuals who have political power and financial security influence policies and procedures, which can be used to oppress others. Hierarchies serve the interest of the high-status group because members of this group are more likely to endorse the social structure (Küpper et al., 2010).

Rationale for the Theoretical Framework

Social dominance theory is the appropriate framework for this study because hate crimes help maintain the social order where victims fear challenging the status quo. Negative images displayed on television and in the movies support stereotypes and lead to the belief that the mistreatment of others is acceptable (Küpper et al., 2010). Social order is achieved through social conditions and laws that protect and maintain the interest of the dominant group. As such, the criminal justice system can play a role in systematic discrimination that perpetuates hate crimes (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).

Symbolic Cases

Hate crimes can be motivated by religion, national origin, sexual orientation, race, and disability. However, the two cases that are most recognizable when speaking of hate crime focus on race and sexual orientation. The Matthew Sheppard case was one of the

first cases that explored the notion of hate crimes versus traditional offending (murder). The evidence revealed that Matthew Sheppard's sexual orientation was the sole purpose for the crime. On October 6, 1998, while visiting a gay bar, Matthew Sheppard, a gay man, was approached by two men posing to be gay in order to strike up a friendship. The three socialized and later left the bar. Matthew Sheppard was driven to a remote area, pistol-whipped, beaten, and tied to a fence. He was later found by a cyclist and subsequently died from his injuries and exposure to extreme weather conditions (Ott & Aoki, 2002).

The James Byrd Jr. case also demonstrates the extent a person will go when motivated by hatred. However, this killing was racially motivated. On June 7, 1998, James Byrd Jr., an African American man, was walking home when three white supremacists approached him. James Byrd Jr. was kidnapped, driven out of town to a wooded area, beaten, and tied to a truck. The men drove the truck a few miles causing massive head injuries to James Byrd (Thorneycroft & Asquith, 2017). His body was later discovered in front of an African American Church.

In both the Matthew Sheppard and James Byrd Jr. cases, crimes were committed because of the perpetrator's hatred or bias against members of the targeted group (Brax, 2016). In October 2009, President Obama signed the Matthew Sheppard and James Byrd Jr. Hate Crime Prevention Act. The law expanded on which groups could be classified as a protected group. The expansion included the victim's actual or perceived gender identity, sexual orientation, or disability.

Psychological Aspect of Hate Crimes

Hate is a complex phenomenon that is not easily understood or researched in the field of psychology (Fischer et al., 2018). Hate and hate crimes can be influenced by many factors, such as family upbringing, lived experienced, social media, hate speech, group or peer pressure, and hate spin. Having multiple influences can trigger actions within the offender, which they then use to justify their actions. Social science professionals have argued that hate is not a standard emotion, and what makes hate different is that it is infused with other negative emotions, intense feelings (Fischer et al., 2018), and emotivational goals (Roseman et al., 1994). The emotionavional goals are what the emotion tries to bring (e.g., violence, fear, etc.). Therefore, it is the driving force of the emotional experience (Roseman et al., 1994). Fischer et al. (2018) suggested that when individuals experience hate, they view their targets as having malicious intent and being immoral. The goals of hate crime can be intimidation, mental abuse, fear, or physical harm. The emotivational goal of hate will be different depending on the reason the offender has developed hatred (Fischer et al., 2018). When considering motives and victims, Powers and Socia (2019) argued that the offender's mindset is geared towards the adversary effect, in which an offender selects a victim based on the perceived dangerousness of the victim. This reason for hate can stem from a fear of losing resources such as housing or education or losing a job. Victims who are considered part of the out-group are selected to discourage upward mobility or interaction with members of the in-group.

Hate can have a short-term effect called “immediate hate,” which occurs when a significant event has led to hatred and a strong desire for revenge (Fischer et al., 2018), or the long-term effects that occur long after the initial incident. The long-term effects of hate crime can include anxiety, depression, and stress. Victims may also need time to heal from physical wounds, some of which may be permanent, such as a missing limb or permanent scars. The hate incident may cause the victim to experience distrust of others due to the motive behind the crime.

When examining bias motivators, Levin and McDevitt (1993) suggested that the typology of hate crime will provide a better understanding of the motivation behind offending. The typology of hate, first introduced in 1993, consists of two factors (a) thrill-motivated and (b) defense-motivated hate crime. Both thrill-motivated and defense-motivated hate crimes are driven by the same objective, and that is to gain a sense of power and dominance. However, thrill-motivated hate crimes are usually committed by groups of idle teenagers or young adults who look for someone to assault. The teenagers or young adults begin to participate in group bonding (Levin & Reichelmann, 2015) to gain a sense of superiority as they commit criminal acts with their peers. The crimes are used as a way to make the victim appear less than human. At the same time, the perpetrator feels inferior because they have created a situation where they have power and control, not as an individual, but as a group. For the offender, victimizing a person will boost the idea that they are superior. Therefore, in the eyes of the group-offenders, each individual is more powerful and accepted by the group (Levin & Reichelmann, 2015). The defense-motivated hate crimes are revenge type crimes where the dominant

group perceives the subordinate group as presenting a danger to their power or prestige (Levin & Reichelmann, 2015).

The group-based emotion stems from the hatred of an individual, which is transferred to members of the entire group (Fischer et al., 2018). Subsequently, the characteristics of the out-group become more noticeable than any act they committed (Fischer et al., 2018). Generalizing the characteristics of the out-group becomes the catalyst on which all members of the out-group are measured. There is no distinction amongst the individual group members; therefore, group-hate continues to spread.

When spreading hate, racial slurs are often used as a way to create and maintain unjust power over the victim (Popa-Wyatt & Wyatt, 2018). Racial slurs contribute the oppression of others in that (a) the slurs permit others to voice their disapproval of the outgroup, (b) the slurs show others what they (the bigot) can have by merely uttering hateful words, and (c) slurs have perlocutionary effects on the victim (Popa-Wyatt & Wyatt, 2018).

Racial tension, individual and group offending, along with the short- and long-term effects of hate create an atmosphere of continual fear of victimization. Individuals targeted because of their differences experience a plethora of emotions that often cut to the core of their identity (Awan & Zempi, 2018). A hate crime can have a lasting effect on the individual as well as other members of the protected group. The residual effects of hate crime spread across several venues (individual, family, protected group, neighborhood, and other cities). When the continuing effect of hate crime impacts several venues, this is known as collective trauma (Hirschberger, 2018). Collective trauma is a

traumatic event that distresses an entire society. The suffering persists beyond the lives of the immediate survivors and leaves a negative impression for their descendants. The future generations have not experienced the hate crime directly (Hirschberger, 2018); however, they are affected and influenced by the historical events that linger on for years. Collective trauma has a psychological impact because it reminds the present generations that past events (e.g., racism, hate crimes, lynching, etc.) can still occur today. Collective trauma contributes to the idea of maintaining a social hierarchy because the perpetrators will deny or downplay the event (Hirschberger, 2018) to justify their actions. Members of the subordinate group begin to fear being victimized by others (Hoffman, 2017), even though all members of the dominant group have not participated in the hate crime.

Hate crimes can also be systematically marginalized and made invisible by institutions such as the criminal justice system, social service, labor market, and the media, all of which can shape the hierarchical power that governs society (Collins, 2015). Marginalizing the experiences of a group gives power to the oppressor because they are aware that hate crimes are illegal. However, they have the support of government agencies who validate racism in policing and the court system, which rarely prosecutes crimes under the hate crime statute (Djarv et al., 2015). When the criminal justice system denies the severity of hate crimes, it has a devasting impact on the victim/family as well as the community. For example, Ahmaud Arbery, a 25 year-old African American male, was jogging through the neighborhood in Brunswick, Georgia. Two White males (father and son), assumed Ahmaud was a robbery suspect, grabbed their weapons, got in their truck along with their neighbor and began to chase Ahmaud. The White males

approached Ahmaud, shot and killed him, and later stated that it was in self-defense because Ahmaud resisted a citizen's arrest. The neighbor who followed the father and son recorded the incident, which took place in February 2020. The videotape was turned over to the police and prosecutor's office. However, both agencies denied that a crime was committed, and stated the father and son were justified in killing Ahmaud Arbery. The video was leaked to the public in May 2020. When individuals have a high dehumanization value (like the father and son), they have increased justification for committing violence (Mekawi et al., 2016). The men were subsequently arrested; however, Georgia does not have a hate crime law.

To further understand the thought process of committing a hate crime, social scientist (Shihui et al. 2013) explain how the interaction between culture and human brain function (cultural neuroscience) work within the socio-culture contexts (institutional racism) to influence human function and behavior. Cultural neuroscience can provide insight into the brain functioning process associated with racially based fears among individuals who encounter African American males. At the same time, some may question what attitude of the "hate" aspect of the crime should rise to the level of a hate crime (Kaupinnen, 2015), and there should not be an enhanced penalty for hate crimes versus other baseline offenses. However, hate crimes are meant to dehumanize an aspect of humanity and seen as out-group derogation (Haslam & Loughnan, 2014). With institutional racism and some states (Georgia) not having hate crime legislation, cultural victimization is ever-present (Garland & Chakraborti,2012).

People with multiple stigmatized identities face discrimination and hatred, unlike that of individuals with a single minority identity (Ramirez et al., 2018). In a 2015 transgender equality survey, James et al. (2016) reported that people who belong to multiple groups such as transgender people of color are more at risk for physical violence, sexual assaults, and harassment within the judicial system. The transgender population reported having negative experiences with healthcare providers who refused treatment because of their sexuality. As such, they failed to maintain doctor's appointments or seek assistance from medical providers, which created further medical complications. Transgender people who are disabled faced economic hardship because they were refused access to public assistance programs and food stamps. Others reported being denied access to public restroom or were questioned when they entered the restroom. Therefore, they refused to eat when in public, and if they did, they would often forego using the restroom, which some reported resulted in kidney-related problems and urinary tract infections. When traveling by plane, TSA agents humiliated them, made fun of their names vs. sexuality identity. Transgender women experienced negative experiences in domestic violence shelters. Others faced heterosexual discrimination by members of their own race; therefore, they believe there is no safe place for transgender people of color, and they often feel isolated within their communities. Some transgender people had to distance themselves from family and friends because of the lack of support and understanding of their identities as well as their experiences (Ramirez et al., 2018). To cope with the discrimination and pressure of being part of two out-groups, transgender people of color would sometimes hide or fail to disclose their identities (Ramirez et al.,

2018). This type of passive coping (Ramirez et al., 2018) could lead to depression, anxiety, and possible abuse of drugs and alcohol for not being able to be who are in a society without discrimination. Society is conditioned to believe in heterosexism and gender roles as either male or female (Bell & Perry, 2015). People become fixated on gender roles such as a rough and rugged image for males and docile for females. Boys are neutered at an early age that real men don't cry, females shouldn't swear, and specific jobs (police officer, firefighter) are reserved for men. People buy into what society has identified as the correct roles for both males and females, and any deviation from the rules is problematic. However, it is estimated that 29% of the American gay population lives in states that offer no legal protection against hate crimes (Movement Advancement Project, 2015).

The psychological impact of hate crimes can have collateral damage as well. Humans, communities, as well as business, can fall prey to the effects of hate crime. It is reported that the number of minority-owned business decline as hate crime increases, regardless of ownership (Geisler et al., 2019). In a 2014 study conducted by The National Minority Supplier Development, of the 12,000 minority-owned businesses, they generated an upwards of $401 billion of output per year, which is equivalent to $1 billion per day, created 2.2 million jobs, paid more than $53 billion in salaries, and $40 billion in federal taxes. Hate crime undermines the idea of inclusion, equality, and trust of humanity (Pezella & Fetzer, 2017). Continued separation and distrust only contribute to the unequal balance in which group interaction will never be accomplished.

Protected Groups

Traditional protected groups included groups that have had a history of being oppressed (Mellgren, 2016). However, being disadvantaged in some way is the criteria for a group being selected for protection (Al-Hakim, 2015). Hate crime legislation usually includes race, ethnicity, nationality, religion, sexual orientation, and gender identity. There has been some about debate whether disabled people should be included in the protected group (Siebers, 2008) since crimes committed against the disabled are viewed as crimes of opportunity rather than a crime based on bias (Thorneycroft & Asquith, 2015). However, the disabled population is part of the disadvantaged group who has had a history of oppression. People with disabilities experience harassment and the stigma of being different from their peers (Albhaboy et al., 2016). Advancements in technology such as the internet have created an "online" environment where vulnerable people such as the disabled are exposed to online harassment known as cyber harassment (Wells & Mitchell, 2014). The exclusion of any group that has a history of oppression may create secondary victimization in the broader community (Swiffen, 2018). However, Gerstenfeld (2013) argues that sexual orientation is a choice and, therefore, should not be included as a protected group.

The National Coalition for the Homeless argues that homeless people should be included in hate crime statues because of the prejudice and stereotypes against them and the roles that bias plays in their attack (Levin, 2015). Stoops (2014) also advocates for the inclusion of the homeless in hate crime laws because of the (a) significant risk for additional violence and victimization, (b) discriminatory selection, (c) oppression and

prejudice against them as a socially identifiable class, (d) identical offenders such as bigoted skinheads, neighborhood defenders protecting their turf, and young male thrill offenders who share identifiable characteristics and motivations, (e) identical methods of attack that revolve around personal or imprecise weapons, and (f) frequent hostile or ineffective legal response to protect them.

Homeless people are seen as disposable people who are legitimate targets for victimization (Levin, 2015). In 2015, there were over 30,000 results on YouTube for the phrase “Bumfights,” which videotape individuals assaulting and robbing homeless people in the community. Sexist hate speech and social shaming are used to disrespect women and to depict violence against them as acceptable (Chetty & Alathur, 2018). Women of color are more vulnerable to become victims of bias-motivated crimes than White women (Perry 2014). The homeless population and women are the only two groups in society where violence marked against them is seen at entertainment (Levin, 2015).

In 2016, Baton Rouge, Louisiana became the first state to pass bill HB953 to include attacks on police officers as hate crimes. Police officers are not marginalized nor disadvantaged but are a stigmatized group that may qualify them for membership in the protected group (Huey & Broll, 2015). Because of the work they do, their job can be classified as “dirty work,” thus making them targets by members of their community (Huey & Broll, 2015). Some groups may openly express their hostility for police officers, which may result in seeking them out for crime (Mawby & Irene, 2016). However, police are not part of the protected group because other vulnerable groups experience intimation and harassment (Mawby & Irene, 2016). Also, police are not viewed as the ideal victim

of a hate crime because they possess power and privileges that excludes them from the protected group (Mawby & Irene, 2016).

Victim Blaming

Victims are often blamed for contributing to their fate as a way to divert attention away from the offender's misdeeds. Defense attorney's attempt to pinpoint something the victim had allegedly done (prior arrest record, the victim looks suspicious, etc.) as a way to show how they caused the situation to unfold (being shot, killed, or physical assault). Victim blaming is a way of reinforcing a social hierarchy (Sidanius et al., 2004) because it sends two different messages regarding the same offense. Although it is against the law to kill someone, killing an unarmed African American male, jogging through the neighborhood, who refuse to comply with a citizen's arrest is justified. People take a different stance when considering the victim's status and view the events as killing innocent people vs. killing "unworthy" people (Jones, 2017).

Victim blaming can be viewed through the lens of the social construction framework (Schneider & Ingram, 1993), where groups are identified as either the (a) advantaged, power and positive construct (b) contenders, have political power but negative construct and (b) deviants have neither power nor positive construct. The gay and lesbian community is an example of the deviant/negative population because they are subjected to manipulation by courts and policymakers (Schneider & Ingram, 1993). Policies send a message to a population on how they are viewed and how they should expect to be treated by the legal system (Schneider & Ingram, 1993). The victim must be viewed as an undeserving victim (Burdholm, 2015) to justify any unwarranted criminal

act perpetrated against them. Derogating the victim transcends to discrediting the entire group and implies justification but can also persuade racial prejudices among bystanders (Sullivan et al., 2016).

The terrorem effect of hate crime is intended to instill intimidation in the group by victimizing a few members of that group (Perry & Alvi, 2011). The criminal act speaks to the broader community which solidifies the concept of "us versus them" (Perry & Alvi, 2011). The terrorem effect can be successful in keeping people in their place by (a) shock (b) anger, (c) fear/vulnerability, and (d) inferiority.

The attitudes surrounding the crime after the fact can also shift blame (Jones, 2017). When media focuses on people of color, they are dehumanized (Dukes, 2017), and the attention is on what the victim did wrong to cause the problem. Media may present a story in a way that is (a) fixated on the victim's past, (b) focus on the victim's physical composition, (c) location where the victim was killed, (d) and negative stereotypical elements of the victim's lifestyle (Dukes & Gaither, 2017). For example, following James Byrd Jr.'s funeral, little was mentioned about him other than his past criminal record, which may not have presented him as innocent or blameless in his own death. Victim blaming paints a picture that the victim is more at fault when victims are described in a negative, stereotypical way (Jones, 2017).

Racist hate crimes extend to all areas in the community to include college campuses. In a study completed by Stotzer and Hossellman (2012), they reported that college campuses with fewer African American and Latino students are more likely to report hate crimes. Hate crime on college campuses can be attributed to two theories (a)

ethnic competition and (b) defended neighborhood theory (VanDyke & Tester, 2014). Ethnic competition occurs when students begin to compete for scholarships and other resources, and when students experience a financial strain (VanDyke & Tester, 2014). As such, hate crime can be a way of reducing competition from minorities (VanDyke & Tester, 2014). The defended neighborhood theory can occur when a group wants to protect their neighborhood (college campuses) from the intrusion of minorities (VanDyke & Tester, 2014). The defended neighbor theory explains how groups maintain their identity as well as living space. Cultural biases may lead White students attending a predominantly white college campus to buy into the notion that their college is a "White Space" (VanDyke & Tester, 2014) and they must defend their space against the "out-group," through threats and violence (Legewie & Schaffer, 2016). The dominant group may feel a loss of control and power when subordinate groups infringe on their social position and space. As minority enrollment increases, this imposes a more significant threat; therefore, more violence will occur. Some may view the concept of "White Space" in association with white privilege where individual decisions of Whites are not necessarily driven by racial animus, but as a means to create the best opportunity for themselves, however, it subsequently contributes to racial inequality (Pulido, 2015).

Educators and social workers created the "teach-in" model to address racial incidents and to promote diversity awareness on college campuses. The Teach-Ins were first used in the 1960s as a way for students and faculty to protest the Vietnam War (Sahlins, 2009). However, the National Association of Social Work (2017), reintroduced the Teach-Ins in 2017 to promote divisive communities and advocate for those who feel

threatened by the increasing minority population on campus (Tower et al., 2019). Teach-Ins work with student's skillsets to promote change by participating in self-reflective exercises and discussion on ways to respond positively to divisive action and to avoid aggression, (Tower et al., 2019). The Teach-Ins also incorporates moral and social psychological aspects (Tower et al. 2019). Haidt, (2012) introduced the moral foundation theory to describe five moral impulses (a) care/harm, (b) fairness/cheating, (c) loyalty/betrayal, (d) authority/subversion, and (e) sanctity/degradation. The five moral impulses are essential in understanding hate crime motivations because humans make decisions based on intuition and emotions, rather than evidence and facts. Hate crime motivators can include (a) threats to ethnic or racial status, (b) threats to gender status, (c) threats to heterosexual status, and (b) threats to economic status (Blazak, 2001). The commission of a hate crime begins with individual emotions, and emotions are influenced by schemas, negative stereotypes, and fear of a particular group's characteristics. Having an entirely bleak narrative of a person without any positive factors to balance their perception makes it easier to justify hate incident.

The gay panic defense is a provocation defense to show that the perpetrator was pivoted by the action of the victim (Salerno et al., 2015). It sets the stage for biases and explains why the victim should bear some of the responsibility. The provocation defense ultimately causes jurors to rely on the preconceived biases of what gay people represent. Stereotypes cause jurors to pass judgment on the victim and can impact the outcome of the trial (Salerno et al., 2015). When the gay panic defense is allowed, it sends a message to the community that the mistreatment of members of the gay community is permitted.

However, Lee (2008) counteracts that and points out that if the gay panic defense is banned as a legal defense, attorneys will try another approach to trigger a juror's biases. And the jurors will find it difficult to separate facts from preconceived biases. However, without a defense, even a bias defense such as the gay panic defense, may be viewed as a violation of freedom of speech may leave room for an appeal (Lee, 2008).

The gay panic defense is used when a heterosexual individual commits a violent crime against a nonviolent gay man who has made sexual advances (Perkiss, 2010). The argument was used in the legal case of People vs. Rodriguez (1967) when Rodriguez pled temporary insanity because he feared a gay man would molest him. The jury denied the insanity defense and found Rodriguez guilty of second-degree murder. At the same time, the gay panic defense gives the impression that gay men are operating against God's will, and any violence perpetrated against them is God's will (Baron, 2016). The gay panic defense places blame on the victim because of their sexuality; therefore, excusing the offender and implying that his actions were justifiable.

In September 2014, California governor signed into law a bill banning the gay and trans panic defense in all murder and assault trials (Assembly Bill No. 2501, 2014 Paulat, 2014). Although the gay panic defense was banned in 2014, people's attitudes will not change overnight. The law and the beliefs that supported it were in effect for more than 50 years, and the ban is relatively recent. The offender doesn't hate the victim because the victim has personally harmed them, but the hate stems from what the offender thinks of victim or what they take the victim to be (Brudholm, 2015). Therefore, it may take centuries to undo the stereotypical thinking that supported this law.

Hate incidents can be perpetrated by an individual or in a group setting. When a group commits a crime, the violence is more severe. The five factors related to extreme group violence are (a) life struggles, (b) culture, (c) unhealed trauma, (d) bystander effect, and (e) personality traits (Staub, 2013). As life struggles such as poverty, poor physical and socioemotional health (Hoffman, 2017) takes its toll, individuals feel others are obtaining more than the privileged population. The issue of who is entitled to what becomes more demanding and people may resort to violence to maintain the status quo. However, the threat is perceived rather than an actual threat (Stephan & Stephan, 2000). For example, the failing economy can be blamed on illegal immigrants or minorities taking jobs. The cultural belief system of family and community impacts how people think, treat others, and respond to diversity (Hoffman, 2017). However, some values and beliefs passed down through the generations may help perpetuate biases.

The extent of violence in a group setting can be determined by the (a) number of offenders, (b) victim-offender relationship, (c) weapons used, and (d) location (Gruenewald & Allison, 2018). The number of offenders involved in a hate crime incident determines and shapes the violence committed against the victim. Group members may often compete against one another to see who can outdo the other or administer the most harm to the victim. Some members may up the stakes because they want to "save face" (Gruenewald & Allison, 2018), to show they are worthy of being part of the "in-group." When their position is challenged, the dominant group may not view a non-violent approach as an option to solve a conflict (Gruenewald & Allison, 2018). The victim-offender relationship sends messages to the "out-group" that they occupy an

inferior place in society (Gruenewald & Allison, 2018). The message sends fear to the "out-group" that if they attempt to earn the same status as the "in-group," make strides to gain a dominate position or privileged status, violence will be bestowed on them as an individual, as well as all who are perceived to be part of the group. The bias offenders often target people unknown to them, but the motive is to demonize the out-group (Gruenewald & Allison, 2018).

Bias offenders rely on weapons that form a more intimate contact with the victims, such as knives (Gruenewald & Allison, 2018). The method of instilling fear is to be up close and personal to make sure the offender knows who is inflicting pain. The suffering and pain of the victim may be fulfilling, and the offender may find gratification seeing the victims fighting for their lives. Inflicting pain and knowing the victims are unable to defend themselves will also give a sense of superiority. Also, spewing racial slurs and degrading acts as having the crawl or beg for life demonstrate who is in control. Finally, hate crimes usually occur in public so that others can witness the violence, and illustrate how the in-group has violated social norms (Gruenwald & Allison, 2018). When crimes are committed in a public setting, people can see the aftermath of hate crime (blood on the sidewalk, crime scene tape, graffiti, memorials, etc.) as they pass the location on their way to work, school, or shopping. The lingering effects of the crimes are intended to infiltrate the neighborhood and make those who have not been physically harmed, take a second look at whether they should move out of the area, defer from attending their favorite nightclub, or take precautions when leaving the socially

constructed boundaries (Gruenwald & Allison, 2018). Hate displayed in public may motivate others to harass or intimidate or violence against the group (Seglow, 2016).

Devaluating humans creates situations where newer groups become the focus of hate (Hoffman, 2017). Hatred is not only experienced in the communities but seen in the political arena as well. Comments such as “Make America Great Again”, “Build Bigger Walls”, minorities are the cause for the increase in crime (Green & Merle, 2013) or referring to Mexican immigrants as rapist who brought crime into the United States (Bell, 2019) are examples of hate spin (George, 2017). Hate spin occurs when political leaders use manufactured indignations to create the illusion that a particular group is the cause for social problems, and the rest of the nation should rally together against that opponent. Victims are targeted for who they are and not for what they have done (Fischer et al., 2018). Several months following the 2016 presidential election, there were 1,000 bias-related incidents, including over 300 anti-immigrant hate incidents, over 200 anti-black hate incidents, over 100 anti-Muslim hate incidents, and over 100 anti-LGBT incidents (Southern Poverty Law Center, 2017).

Hate Speech Versus Freedom of Speech

Derogatory language and symbolic expression of hate (Kauppinen, 2015), such as cross burnings, and swastikas (Jendryke & McClure, 2019) are indicators of bias (Harris & Ulmer, 2017). There is a thin line between offensive language and the person’s right to voice their opinion. However, there is the question of whether any bans on hate speech violates freedom of speech. Since there are no restrictions or laws against hate speech (Swiffen, 2018), people may spread hate messages as they desire. With advancements in

technology, the internet is used to spread the word faster while reaching a broader audience. Hate speech may influence a person's thinking in a way that supports social inequality; therefore, giving a foundation to the social hierarchies (Simpson, 2018) as an acceptable social norm. Hate groups use the internet to share and discuss common viewpoints, promote racial superiority, post and repos hate messages, and recruiting (Seglow, 2016). The interaction of group members may encourage peer pressure and cause an impetuous person to act on their emotions (Cohen-Almagor, 2018). When like-minded individuals meet and interact, they form toxic relationships that can extend to individuals at the national level.

Being part of a group increases the extent of injury to the victim (McGloin & Rowan, 2015), and individuals with lower thresholds of violence will need the support of the group to participate in a criminal act (McGloin & Rowan, 2015). Similar to peer pressure, group influences encourage bad behavior, and members will perpetuate crime to gain acceptance. Therefore, violence escalates not due to bias but due to group influence (Lantz & Kim, 2019). Group offending promotes the diffusion of responsibility and anonymity (Lantz, 2018), and it becomes easier to blame other members of the group. Individuals may privately brag to other members the extent of injury imposed on the victim. However, when criminal charges are filed, diffusion of responsibility makes it easier to place blame on others, and the offender will accept liability for the lesser offense.

Anonymity allows people to hide behind the crowd to deter detection as being part of the crime. It also gives members the courage to behave in a way they would not

engage in if they were alone (Lants, 2018). Those with the lowest propensities for violence will rely on the group to incite participation in crime (McGloin & Rowan, 2015). People will mimic the behavior of others, and the support of the group gives individual members power. Groups are more violent because of the collective actions and the social learning process (Lantz, 2018) created by group interaction. However, until the offender acts on their hatred, there is no motive or intent to harm, merely undesired speech (Mathis, 2018).

Internet companies are now filtering and removing content such as terrorist propaganda, banning accounts of radical users, and removing potentially bias content (Jardine, 2019). Some companies have created programs that can identify hate speech (Burnap & Williams, 2016). However, with the number of "protected characteristics" (race, religion, disability, sexual orientation, and so forth.) and the factors associated with hate crime terms, the process of overseeing hate speech on the internet is impossible (Burnap & Williams, 2016). Monitoring cyber speech is difficult and classifying hate speech content is time-consuming. Cyberhate will remain a part of the internet because social media companies are relaxed in policing the on-line environment (Burnap & Williams, 2016). Prosecuting cyberhate is difficult (Burnap & Williams, 2016). However, any bans or restrictions on speech may force groups to resort to the dark web as a way to continue operation. The dark web provides anonymity because it disassociates the user from the content that is being spread (Jardine, 2019). Illinois became the first state to enact a "group liberal" hate speech law that criminalized bigoted "defamatory" statements relating to racial, religious, or ethnic group (Levin, 2002). The "group liberal"

law made it to the supreme court in 1952; however, Illinois disbanded the law in 1961, and the law is no longer valid in the United States (Levin, 2002). However, any bans on hate speech undermine democracy (Gould, 2019), and hate crime legislation violates free speech (Mathis, 2018). Hate speech can incite others to commit violence and it is the actions that follow the speech that raises concerns. Viewing online hate material will give the viewer a sense of 'virtual proximity" and create a bond and reduce the chance of others disrupting their expressions of hatred (Hawdon et al., 2017). Social media can be used for planning hate crimes, which are punishable by law; however, hate speech is a verbal attach with no legal consequences (Chetty & Alathur, 2018).

Penalty Enhancement

A criminal offense must first be classified as a crime before it can be viewed in the context of a hate crime (Gould, 2019). Motives behind the crime distinguish baseline crimes from hate crimes. Prejudice or bias motivators acts as the intent (guilty mind). However, when intent occurs in conjunction with action, this constitutes a hate crime (Gould, 2019). Indicators of bias can include (a) derogatory remarks, (b) offender's admission, (c) labeling of crime as a hate crime by law enforcement, (d) symbolic location such as traditionally Black Church or gay nightclub, (e) victim is part of the identified group, (f) offender had committed previous violence against a particular group, and (g) symbolic manipulation of the body (Gruenewald & Allison, 2018). For example, James Byrd's body was placed on the steps of an African American church to instill fear in the entire community (Harris, & Ulmer, 2017). Adding a racial component to an offense upgrades the offense to a hate crime, and it would be discriminatory to exclude

the racial hate during adjudication (Gould, 2019). However, punishment is not based solely on basis of hatred or prejudice, but by the actions of the offender (Mathis, 2018).

Hate crimes send a psychological message to the victim and members of the protected group that they are subhuman: therefore, any actions displayed against them are acceptable. The message of inferiority to the victim (Kauppinen, 2015) is used to maintain control. These crimes warrant increased penalty because they are more horrific than baseline crimes and pose a deeper emotional turmoil for the victims. Hate crimes are motivated by biases that manifest into criminal activity. An assault becomes a hate crime when the motivating factor is hatred against the protected group (Swiffen ,2018).

Some may justify hate by spewing rhetoric, such as they are doing God's work to become soldiers in a race war (Blazak, 2001). However, any attempts to justify hate continue to dehumanize and oppress a group to maintain a sense of superiority. The motive gives an action a meaning distinct from another action (Mathias, 2018). Example: John may choose to assault Bob because Bob is an easy target. This action is not necessarily motivated by bias and maybe merely a crime of opportunity. However, if John attacks Perter because of his sexual orientation, then the crime is motivated by bias. Crimes committed based on prejudice communicates to others that because they are different, the offender has the right to assault or harass them based on their biases.

Penalty enhancement is contingent on three factors (a) political identity, (b), victim type, and (c) hate crime-related beliefs (Cramer et al. 2017). Political affiliation may play a role in support of or in opposition to hate crime legislation. The conservative may have a negative view of members of the subordinate group (Kinder & Sear,1981:

Haddock et al., 1993). Conservatives also lack support for minorities in hate crime laws and do not endorse stricter penalties (Cabeldue at el, 2018). The hate crime offense presents a more profound feeling of wrong than other crimes because of the greater threat it imposes to the individual victim as well as the group (Kauppinen, 2015). Enhanced penalties represent society's disapproval of the crime, and the appropriate legislation will increase the idea of equality for all citizens. (Kauppinen, 2015). Penalty enhancement incorporates the utilitarian theory view of punishment in that punishment creates a deterrent and promotes a safe community (Fetzer & Pezzella, 2019). Hate crimes undermine diversity, and enhanced penalties demonstrate disagreement (Fetzer & Pezzella, 2019).

Victim Type and Penalty Enhancement

The social status of the offender and victim are obtained through attitudes expressed by others and how society and the law respond to the attitudes (Kaupinnen, 2015). People buy into the notion of maintaining the social hierarchy; therefore, blaming the victim for the crime committed against them is second nature. Victims are targeted for having a particular characteristic and the same characteristics are subsequently used as the motive behind the crime. Understanding the nuances of blame attribution is significant because it can impact legal decisions and penalty enhancement (Cramer et al., 2014). The defense attorney will attempt to find something negative about the victim, such as prior criminal history, to distort the facts of the case, which will shift the blame to the victim, while the perpetrator is hailed a hero. Therefore, penalty enhancement may not serve as a deterrent to committing these crimes.

A social conflict begins with a psychological struggle and the difficulty of interpreting interactions with others (Moye et al., 2017). Despite the upward mobility of African Americans, the more integrated a neighborhood becomes, the less likely Whites will perceive it as a pleasant neighborhood (Krysan, 2009). Police view African Americans in a predominately white area seen as being "out of place." The neighbors begin to react on the presumption that the African American male is violating their social space. Compound with the notion that the African American male does not belong, the brain triggers an emotional response that the African American male will commit an act of violence (Moye et al., 2017). However, the White male in a Black neighborhood does not raise an eyebrow.

In the Trayvon Martin case, Travon, a young African American male, was walking a predominately White neighborhood in the Sanford Community. George Zimmerman saw Travon and called 911. Zimmerman was instructed to remain in his vehicle because police were on their way. However, Zimmerman ignored the request of the 911operator and followed Trayvon. Since Trayvon was perceived to be out of place, Zimmerman immediately resulted to racial schemas and made comments such as "he looks really suspicious" and "this guy looks as though he is up to no good." Zimmerman may have felt he needed to protect the white space from an outsider like Travon. Zimmerman followed and shot/killed Travon for merely being an African American male walking down the street. Zimmerman's defense attorney used self-defense and stand your ground law as a way of justifying the killing. However, it was Travon's fault because he violated the White social space (Moye et al., 2017). There is a continuous struggle for the

African American community to distance themselves from the racial schemas that are embedded in a system that perpetuates racism (Moye et al., 2017).

Hate Crime Related Beliefs and Penalty Enhancement

Hate crime legislation is three dimensional, and all three entities should work together to create a victim-focused understanding and responses to targeted violence (Perry, 2016). The hate crime triangle consists of (a) policy and practice, (b) activism, and (c) research (Perry, 2016). In the policy and practice stage of the triangle, current policies are analyzed and revised, laws are defined, resources allocated, and the protected groups are identified (Perry, 2016). Enhanced penalties are seldom used because of the burden to prove that the crime was motivated by biases. Judges rely on sentencing guidelines with non-biases motivated crimes (Fetzer & Pezzella, 2019), and the way hate crimes are recorded and published will impact awareness and punishment. Stage I of the triage is where the power lies (Perry, 2016).

In the second-dimension, activism requires support from advocacy groups to educate the public and criminal justice professionals on the emotional, physical, and psychological impact of hate crime (Perry, 2016). The advocacy offers support in favor of the victim, because hate crime extends from the individual victim to the community (Perry & Alvi, 2011). Advocating for the victims can dismantle schemas, which can lead to victim-blaming.

The final dimension of the hate crime triangle is research. Research supplies the theoretical basis and evidence base for hate crime (Perry, 2016). Research can provide an insight into policy development and what hate crime is or is not. However, for enhanced

penalties to have an impact, hate crime cases should be reviewed on a case-by-case basis (Iganski & Lagou, 2015). In considering the background of the case, courts can further understand the offender's culpability, which can serve to support penalty enhancement (Iganski & Lagou, 2015).

The enhanced penalty sends the message that hate crimes are not tolerated or accepted by the community (Gerstenfield, 2011) and serves as a means to counter hatred (Baron, 2016). However, judges may increase the penalty for any baseline offense; therefore, any crime committed by hate can be classified as a hate crime (Adams, 2005). In support of increased penalties, bias-motivated offenders are considered morally heinous (Adams, 2005), and the commission of a hate crime is inexcusable from a jury standpoint (Cramer et al., 2013).

Challenges to Penalty Enhancement

Hatred and societal conflict with deep psychological origins spread terror between and within groups, thus having a universal concept of hate can be difficult to pinpoint (Garland & Chakraborti, 2012). Introducing penalty enhancement may be difficult when deciding what offenses should be suitable for hate crime legislation (Brax & Munthe, 2015). The hate element of a hate crime is seen as adding insult to injury, and opponents may question whether penalty enhancement should be imposed (Brax & Munthe, 2015). The enhanced penalty considers the motive behind the crime, which serves as the reason the offender acted the way they did (Mathis, 2018). However, the lines become blurred when there is more than one motive or offender (Mathis, 2018).

Challengers of hate crime legislation believe that additional punishment is unnecessary because: (a) minorities should not be given special treatment because they belong to one of the identified special groups (Cabeldue et al., 2018). Hate crime legislation then creates an imbalance between hate crimes and other baseline offenses, making them unconstitutional. Also, some victims of hate crime see hate crime laws and enhanced punishment as a way of configuring their image as inferior since special laws are needed to protect them (Mason, 2014), (b) a person murdered in a hate crime, is just as dead if they were killed in a robbery, home invasion, or through random act (Sullaway, 2004), (c) penalty enhancement violates the double jeopardy law since the offender is found guilty of the baseline offense and should not receive additional punishment for the bias-motivated aspect of the crime, and (d) the law is discriminatory because people are punished for their beliefs (Mathis, 2018), and the law stigmatizes the opinions that would cause a person to act (Mathis, 2018). Punishing a person for their beliefs violates their First Amendment Rights (Gerstenfeld, 2011). However, regardless of a person's beliefs, they are not punished until a crime is committed.

Obstacles for Law Enforcement

Police must identify the bias motivation behind the hate crime. It may be challenging to determine a motive when the components do not fit a "true hate crime." (Lantz et al., 2019). Personal biases, awareness, and the department's priority will determine if a crime is labeled and investigated as a hate crime (Lantz et al., 2019). In states without hate crime legislation, incidents such as a cross-burning will be investigated as a simple trespass rather than a hate crime; therefore, the atrocities

continue without consequences (Bell, 2019). Improperly documenting a crime as a hate crime may give the impression that hate crime statistics are low, and future hate crimes will be viewed as an isolated incident. Therefore, the push for penalty enhancement will be unjustified, and the number of hate crimes prosecuted under the bias sentence enhancement will be low (Ruback et al., 2015). The lack of prosecution may weaken the idea that hate crimes are more psychologically damaging. Fetzer and Pezella (2017) analyzed the 2010 NIBRS data and found that physical injuries were more severe when associated with a hate crime than the non-bias crime. In a 2013 study conducted by Plumm and Terrance, when a crime was labeled as an assault instead of hate crime, the offender was guilty and the victim was seen as more culpable. Therefore, labeling a crime as a hate crime may have a reverse effect when administering penalty (Plumm & Terrance, 2013).\

Hate Crime and Schemas

A schema is a cognitive framework that allows police officers to organize and interpret information (Brewer & Nakamura, 1984). However, schemas may influence police to exclude pertinent information due to prior knowledge or experience of a situation. Police use schemas when investigating a sexual assault (Venema, 2016) by implying that the way the victim dressed facilitated the attack. Limited resources, time constraints, and inadequate training may cause police to use schemas when investigating hate crimes (Lantz et al., 2019). Because a bias motivator must be present, the police may rely on their personal experience to document the offense as a hate crime and base decisions on the likelihood that the crime will be prosecuted (Lantz et al., 2019).

Schemas also influence the perception of which hate crimes are most important for investigation and shape ideas of police perception of the idea victim (Lantz et al., 2019). Police have discretion on whether to categorize an incident as a hate crime, which can be swayed by organizational or community pressure (Walfield et al., 2017). As such, some victims will not report a hate crime because they believe the police will not take them seriously (Ruback et al., 2015). Racial schemas continue to define the African American male as villains and a threat to social order (Feagin et al., 2001). In contrast to the White male who serves as the norm (Moye et al., 2015). Schemas impact how individuals interpret information and react to African American males (Moye et al., 2015), and may influence whether or not police shoot and kill an unarmed man (Kahn & Davies, 2017). Crimes committed against the African American male are seen as justified because the media portrays them as less socially respectable (Dukes & Gaither 2017).

Conclusion

There is a psychological impact associated with hate crimes that make them more harmful than baseline offenses. When individuals are dehumanized, crimes committed against seem justifiable by the offender (Mathais, 2018). Hate messages can be spread by individuals in workplace, college campus, community, and through the political arena by way of hate spin. Criminalization or prohibiting hate speech does not address social problems (Swiffen, 2018) or influence social injustice (Simpson, 2019). However, understanding the complexity of hate crime in ways such as victim-blaming, schemas, institutional racism, media portrayal of the victim, and the desire to maintain the social hierarchy, provides an avenue to better approach the issue. Therefore, implementing the

hate crime triangle through policy and practice, activism, and research provides a foundation for social change and equality.

In Chapter 3, I discussed the research design and methodology used in this study.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative, nonexperimental study was to explore the role that race plays in determining the types of injuries sustained by hate crime victims and to examine whether victims of racially motivated hate crimes experienced depression and anxiety at higher rate than that of victims of other bias motivated crimes. For this study, I analyzed hate crime data for 2016.

Chapter 3 outlined the methodology used in the study. After a discussion of the research design and rationale for the study, I described the sample population, how data records were collected, and the software and type of analysis that was used to assess the data. Chapter 3 concluded with an examination of the threats to internal and external validity as well as any ethical concerns surrounding the study.

Research Design and Rationale

In this quantitative, nonexperimental study, I analyzed existing data to answer the research questions. This study identified the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The datasets used for the study are accessible to the public; therefore, there were no time or resource constraints associated with the study.

Conducting a quantitative, nonexperimental study demonstrated how hate crimes were more injurious for African American than for other groups and how victims of racially motivated hate crimes experienced more psychological trauma than other victims did.

Research Questions

RQ1: To what extent are racially motivated hate crimes more injurious for African Americans vs other groups?

Following the adversary hypothesis on hate crimes, it is noted that offenders choose their victims based on the perceived dangerousness of the victim (Powers & Socia, 2019). African American males are stereotypically perceived to be a more dangerous, more intimidating, and higher risk to society because they are able and willing to physically retaliate (Powers & Socia, 2019), as such, their injuries are more severe and more likely to result in death (Powers & Socia, 2019). Felson and Pare (2010) conducted a study using data from the National Crime Victimization Survey Supplemental Homicide report to test the adversary hypothesis and found that African American victims, compared to White victims are more likely to be attacked by guns and other weapons and the likelihood of severe injury or death is expected to occur.

RQ2: To what extent are victims of racially motivated crimes more likely to experience depression and anxiety vs. other hate crime victims.

Hate crimes are more psychologically damaging than non-bias crimes because they negatively affect the greater community and send a message of violence to members of the victim's group or the community (Iganski, 2001; Weinstein, 1992). Hate crimes undermine the efforts for a diverse society (Fetzer & Pezella, 2019), and the psychological trauma such as anxiety, depression, and sadness (Fetzer & Pezella, 2019) may differ across racial groups.

Theoretical Framework

Social dominance theory is about control and a way to control an individual is through threats and violence. However, in bias motivated crimes, members of the targeted group are impacted because the crimes aim to disgrace their characteristics or belief system. Prosecutors may fail to acknowledge a crime as a hate crime or administer an enhanced penalty; therefore, the victims of the bias motivated crimes believe they are not worthy of equal treatment (Sullivan, Ong, LaMacchia, and Louis, 2016). Therefore, the oppressor maintains their leverage over the victim because there are little to no consequences.

Methodology

The target population for the study included hate crime offenses reported by law enforcement agencies to the FBI and Department of Justice in the United States between January 1, 2016, and December 31, 2016. Law enforcement agencies report crime statistics directly to the FBI or through the state reporting system. The datasets are available through the ICPSR. The data were archived in five separate components (a) summary data, (b) county-level data, (c) incident-level data from the National Incident-Based Reporting System, (d) hate crime data, and (e) various, non-recurring, data collections. The U.S. Department of Justice and the Federal Bureau of Investigations, collected data using computer-assisted and self-interview (CASH) or the self-enumerated questionnaire, using a structured questionnaire as the research instrument. Hate crime data collection became mandated in 1990, under the Hate Crime Statistics Act. The information required under this act includes the number of victims, number of offenders,

type of victims, bias motivators, offense type, and location. For this study, hate crime data were obtained from ICPSR, titled Uniform Crime Reporting Program Data: Hate Crime (Record-Type Files), United States, ICPSR 37060.

Each police agency was represented by a single batch header, whether or not they reported any hate crime incidents. Information contained in the batch header included hate crime record type, numeric state code, population, judicial district, and current population. ICPSR added the HC-Flag to indicate whether any hate crime incidents were included in the Hate Crime Incident-Record File, and the file contained one record for every hate crime. The Batch Header File variables were merged with the Record File for the agency that reported hate crime incidents. The Batch Header contained 22,784 cases and 54 variables. The Crime Incident-Record was linked to the Batch Header using an Originating Agency Identifier (ORI) assigned by the FBI. The Crime Incident-Record File contained 6,268 cases, and 179 variables.

The National Crime Victimization Survey for 2016 was used to access data pertaining to the victim's emotional challenges associated with the hate crime. The data were collected by the U.S. Department of Justice, and the Bureau of Justice Statistics. The National Crime Victimization Survey collected data on personal and household victimization using surveys. The U.S. Census Bureau administered the survey on behalf of the Bureau of Justice Statistics. The purpose of the surveys was to: (a) develop detailed information about the victims and consequences of crime, (b) estimate the number of types of crimes not reported to the police, (c) provide uniform measures of selected types of crimes, and (d) to permit comparisons over time and types of areas. The target

population included individuals 12 years of age and older living in households and group quarters within the United States and the District of Columbia. The data did not include persons on crews of vessels, in penal institutions, nursing homes, or members of the armed forces living in military barracks. NCVS used the "collection year format" to collect data. In this format, crimes were reported based on the interview date rather than the date the crime occurred. Therefore, if a crime was committed in December 2015 and the victim was interviewed in May 2016, the crime incident was documented in the 2016 statistics. Data in the NCVS dataset were recorded using four file types, which were (a) address, (b) household, (c) person, and (d) incident. Data were collected in written format via control card, basic screen questions, and crime incident report. Additional methods of collecting data included telephone interviews, computer-aided telephone interviews, and face-to-face interviews.

Data Collection Methods

Purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling technique used to gather information on the injuries sustained during hate crimes and the mental impact the crimes had on the victims. I used purposive sampling to obtain data for this study because the characteristics of the selected population were known (i.e., victims of hate crime). The criteria used to select data were that the participants were victims of hate crimes in the year 2016.

Ex post facto data were obtained from the Uniform Crime Reporting Program Data: Hate Crime Data for 2016 and the National Crime Victimization Survey, 2016. The datasets are stored at the ICPSR at https://www.icpsr.umich.edu/web/pages/ and are

accessible to the public. To gain access to the website, new users must create an account to include a username and password. Users must agree to the "Terms of Use" agreement before accessing data. Any questions can be directed to the Data Services Project Manager at the phone number provided on the ICPSR website. Users can select several formats for the datasets (SAS, SPSS, STATA, ASCII). For this study, the SPSS format was used for statistical analysis.

Data Analysis

RQ1: To what extent are racially motivated crimes more injurious for African Americans as compared to other groups?

A frequency test was conducted to narrow down the bias motivators to the five most reported for hate crime incidents. Next, a cross-tabulation/Chi-Square was conducted to examine the bias motivators against the UCR offense code (manslaughter, rape, assault) to compare the victim's injuries.

Pulido (2015) noted that the desire of the dominant group to protect what they perceive to be theirs or to protect the "white space" is not attributed to racial animus but is a way of creating the best opportunity for themselves. As such, a final cross tabulation was conducted to determine the role the offender's race plays in the commission of hate crimes.

The Crosstabulation/Chi-Square was used to analyze data using the SPSS (Version 27). Chi-square test for independence was appropriate because it passed the two mandatory assumptions: (a) the variables were measured as categorical variables, and (b)

the variables contained two or more categorical independent groups (Lared Statistics, 2018).

The 3 x 2 crosstabulation was used to compare the impact that the independent variables (bias motivator, race) had on the dependent variable (injuries, such as manslaughter, assault, rape, etc.). The data also examined nonlethal aspect of hate crime such as intimidation, vandalism, and threats.

RQ2: To what extent are victims of racially motivated crimes more likely to experience depression and anxiety as compared to victims of other bias motivated crimes?

Victimization Survey

The independent and dependent variables were documented as categorical variables. The variables were further broken down into subcategories. The response to each question was either yes, no, don't know, residue, or out of universe. Responses that were keyed in incorrectly and any invalid entry was recorded as missing or residue.

Out of universe: The missing data were coded as 9, which indicated that the case was outside of the applicable range or universe of questions to be answered. For example, only the victims who reported they were injured were asked whether they received medical care. All other victims were not asked this question and the question was coded as a 9.

Independent variables: Bias motivators: Race, religion, ethnicity, disability, gender, sexuality, associate, and perception.

Dependent variables: Injuries sustained, how destressing being a victim, do you feel: worried, sad or depressed, vulnerable, violated, mistrust, unsafe, or other, seek professional help, physical problems,

Threats to Validity

A threat to external validity included examining data for a 1-year period, which may not provide an in-depth analysis of the problem. The threat to internal validity may have existed as a result of victims failing to report hate crimes, and law enforcement agencies failing to categorize a crime as a hate crime, or accurately record the bias motivators, and the race of the victim and perpetrator. The criteria for hate crimes may differ across jurisdictions, which may lead to underreporting.

Ethical Concerns

This quantitative study used existing data records detailing hate crime statistics in the United States in 2016. Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval #12-07-20-0456946 was granted prior to collecting data. No human participants were interviewed, surveyed, or contacted to gather information. Therefore, the concern for any human rights violations or physical harm to the participants did not present any ethical concerns. The data records did not contain any personal identifies linking the offender and the victims to the hate crime. Also, individual law enforcement agencies were not identified, and a collective analysis of the state's hate crime statistics were recorded. Therefore, there was no potential risk to human participants (victims) nor a risk of violating a confidentiality agreement. There was no funding provided or conflict of interest surrounding this study. Data records were obtained from the ICPSR website at

https://www.icpsr.umich.edu/web/pages/, which is accessible to the public. Although the data records are open to the public, the files were stored on a personal computer using a password- protected file, and a backfile was maintained on an external hard drive. The McAfee antivirus software was used to protect against the introduction of malware and other viruses that may attack or compromise computer files. Any printed documents were stored in a locked safe, and no other parties had the combination. The dissertation chair and committee member received the results of the study via e-mail. The data records will be kept for five years after the final dissertation has been approved.

Summary

The purpose of this quantitative non-experimental study was to measure the relationship between the independent variables: race and bias motivators against the dependent variables: injuries and emotion impact of the hate crime. Chapter 3 discussed the research design and rationale, methodology, data records and collection, threats to validity, and ethical concerns. This study used existing data records only, and no interviews, surveys, or focus groups were incorporated in this study. Chapter 4 provided the results and discussion of the research.

Chapter 4: Results of the Study

Research Question 1

RQ1: To what extent are hate crimes more injurious for African Americans vs other groups?

To answer the first research question, a frequency test was conducted to determine the top five bias-motivated hate crimes reported to law enforcement in 2016. The top five bias motivators (see Table 1 and Figure 1) were identified as follows: anti-African Americans, which reported 1,789 (28.5%) of the total 6,268 hate crime incidents in 2016, anti-White reported 746 (11.9%) incidents, anti-gay men* reported 699 (11.2%) offenses, anti-Jewish ranked fourth with 695 (11.1%) hate crime incidents, and anti-Hispanic or Latinos reported 351 (5.6%) hate crimes in 2016. The total number of reported hate crime incidents among the five groups: $N = 4{,}280$.

Second, a frequency test was conducted to determine the number and types of hate crimes committed in 2016. The UCR offense codes were comprised of 33 law violations (see Table 2 and Figure 2), which were further divided into two categories: violent crimes and nonviolent crimes. Violent crimes included a total of 10 UCR offense codes, and nonviolent crimes contained 23 UCR offense codes.

*****The dataset used the term male homosexual to identify gay men. However, this is a pejorative term and is no longer used (American Psychological Association, 2020). Therefore, the phrase male homosexual was replaced with the appropriate term, i.e. gay or gay man.

Table 1

Bias Motivation

Bias motivation - Offense 1	*N*	%
Anti-Black or African American	1789	28.5%
Anti-White	746	11.9%
Anti-Gay Male*	699	11.2%
Anti-Jewish	695	11.1%
Anti-Hispanic or Latino	351	5.6%
Anti-Islamic	308	4.9%
Anti-Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, or Transgender, Mixed Group (LGBT)	248	4.0%
Anti-Not Hispanic or Latino	228	3.6%
Anti-American Indian or Alaska Native	158	2.5%
Anti-Multi-Racial	142	2.3%
Anti-Gay Women*	131	2.1%
Anti-Asian	114	1.8%
Anti-Transgender	106	1.7%
Anti-Other Religion	79	1.3%
Anti-Catholic	62	1.0%
Anti-Mental Disability	59	0.9%
Anti-Arab	56	0.9%
Anti-Physical Disability	42	0.7%
Anti-Other Christian	36	0.6%
Anti-Multi-Religious	34	0.5%
Anti-Eastern Orthodox (Greek, Russian, etc.)	32	0.5%
Anti-Bisexual	23	0.4%
Anti-Female	22	0.4%
Anti-Heterosexual	20	0.3%
Anti-Gender Non-Conforming	20	0.3%
Anti-Protestant	16	0.3%
Anti-Hindu	11	0.2%
Anti-Sikh	10	0.2%
Anti-Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander	9	0.1%
Anti-Mormon	7	0.1%
Anti-Male	7	0.1%
Anti-Atheism/Agnosticism	5	0.1%
Anti-Jehovah's Witness	2	0.0%
Anti-Buddhist	1	0.0%

Figure 1

Bias Motivation

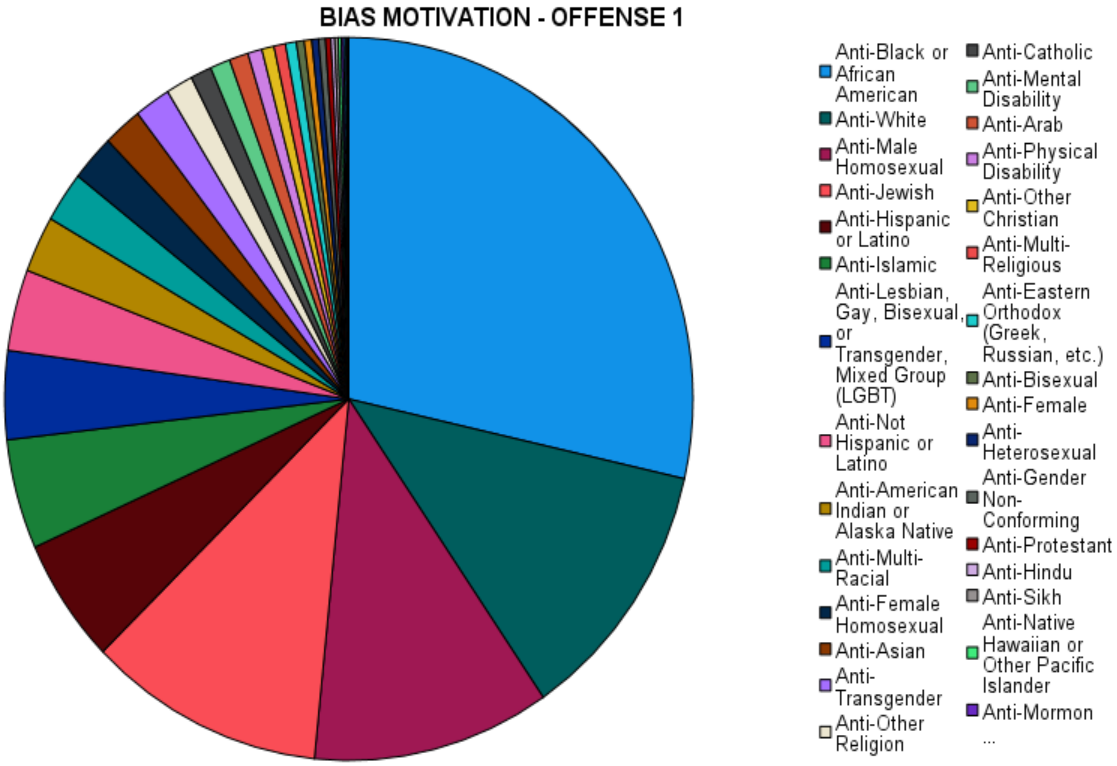


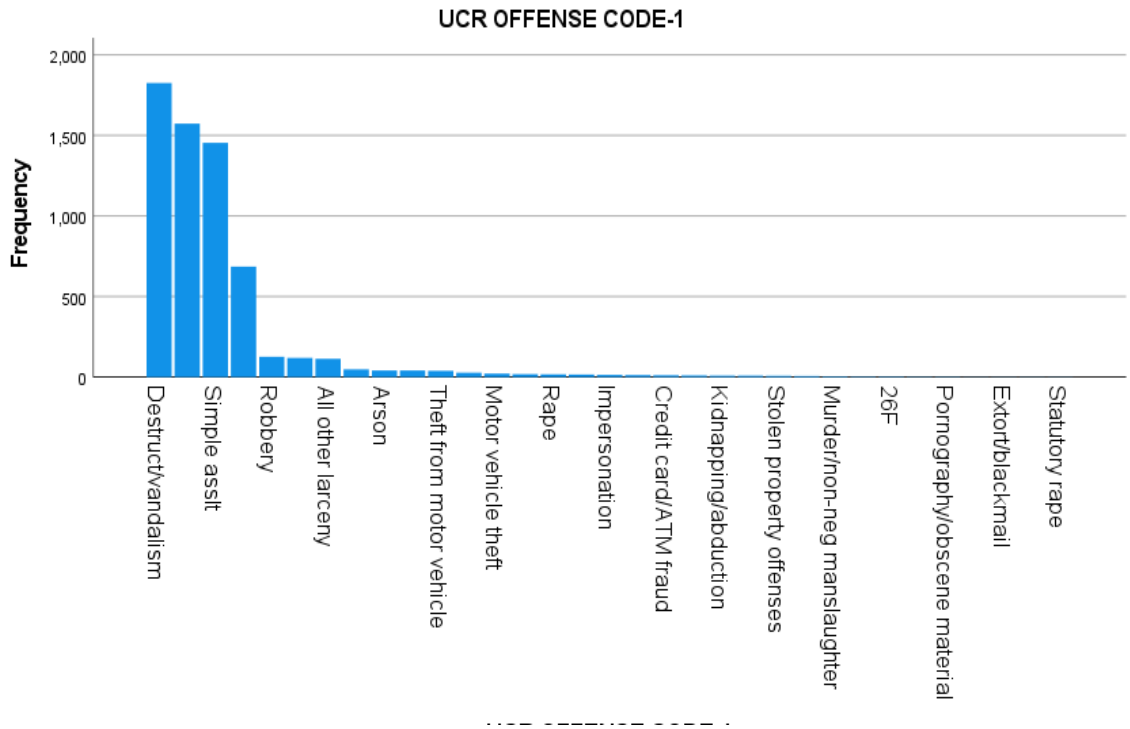
Table 2

UCR Offense Code

UCR Offense Code-1	*N*	%
Destruction/vandalism	1826	29.1%
Intimidation	1574	25.1%
Simple assault	1454	23.2%
Aggravated assault	686	10.9%
Robbery	126	2.0%
Burglary/breaking and entering	119	1.9%
All other larceny	113	1.8%
Drug/narcotics violations	48	0.8%
Arson	41	0.7%
Shoplifting	41	0.7%
Theft from motor vehicle	39	0.6%
Theft from building	27	0.4%
Motor vehicle theft	22	0.4%
Weapon law violations	18	0.3%
Rape	17	0.3%
Drug equipment violations	16	0.3%
Impersonation	14	0.2%
False pretenses/swindle/confidence game	13	0.2%
Credit card/ATM fraud	11	0.2%
Counterfeit/forgery	10	0.2%
Kidnapping/abduction	9	0.1%
Theft of motor vehicle parts	9	0.1%
Stolen property offenses	8	0.1%
Fondling (indecent liberties/child molesting)	7	0.1%
Murder/non-negligent manslaughter	5	0.1%
Sodomy	4	0.1%
26F-Identity theft	3	0.0%
Embezzlement	2	0.0%
Pornography/obscene material	2	0.0%
Sex assault w/object	1	0.0%
Extortion/blackmail	1	0.0%
Pocket-picking	1	0.0%
Statutory rape	1	0.0%

Figure 2

UCR Offense Code



Violent Crimes

Violent crimes (see Table 3) were classified as offenses that could cause physical harm or death to an individual. Violent crimes included simple assault, aggravated assault, robbery, rape, kidnapping/abduction, fondling, murder/non-negligent manslaughter, sodomy, sex-assault with an object, and statutory rape.

Table 3

UCR Offense Code-Violent Crimes

UCR offense code	Total number of reported crimes
Simple assault	1454
Aggravated assault	686
Robbery	126
Rape	17
Kidnapping/abduction	9
Fondling	7
Murder/non-negligent manslaughter	5
Sodomy	4
Sex assault with object	1
Statutory rape	1
Total	2310

Nonviolent Crimes

Nonviolent crimes are crimes that were not life-threatening or crimes committed against property. The nonviolent offenses (see Table 4) included destruction/vandalism, intimidation, burglary/breaking and entering, all other larceny, drug/narcotics violation, arson, shoplifting, theft from motor vehicle, theft from building, motor vehicle theft, weapon law violation, drug equipment violation, impersonation, false pretenses/swindling, credit card/ATM fraud, counterfeit/forgery, theft of motor vehicle parts, stolen property offenses, 26F (Identify Theft), pornography/obscene material, embezzlement, extortion/blackmail, and pickpocketing.

Table 4

UCR Offense Code: Nonviolent Crimes

UCR Offense Code-1	Total number of reported crimes
Destruction/vandalism	1826
Intimidation	1574
Burglary/breaking and entering	119
All other larceny	113
Drug/narcotics violation	48
Arson	41
Shoplifting	41
Theft from motor vehicle	39
Theft from building	27
Motor vehicle theft	22
Weapon law violation	18
Drug equipment violation	16
Impersonation	14
False pretenses/swindle/confidence game	13
Credit card/ATM fraud	11
Counterfeit/forgery	10
Theft of motor vehicle parts	9
Stolen property offenses	8
26F-Identity theft	3
Pornography/obscene material	2
Embezzlement	2
Extortion/blackmail	1
Pick pocketing	1
Total	3958

Finally, I conducted a crosstabulation to analyze the UCR offense code against the bias motivators (see Figures 3-7) to compare the extent of injury for the identified groups: Anti-Black or African American, anti-White, anti-gay male, anti-Jewish, and anti-Hispanic or Latino.

A final frequency test was conducted to determine the offender's race as a group (see Table 5 and Figure 8).

Figure 3

Bias Motivation: Anti-Black or African American

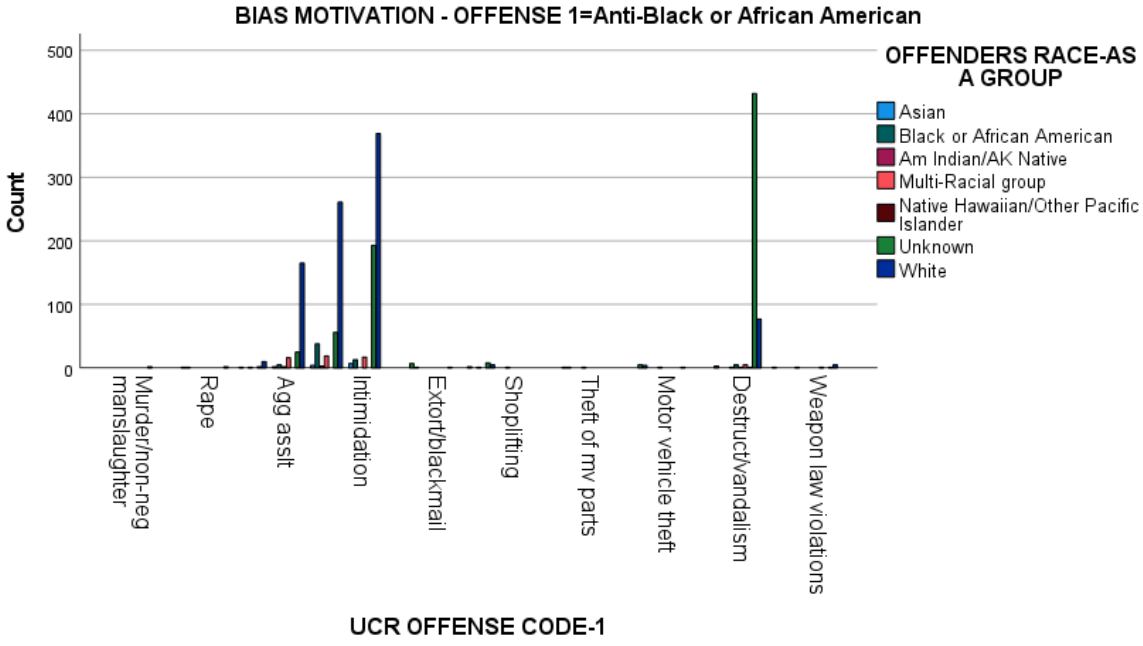


Figure 4

Bias Motivation: Anti-White

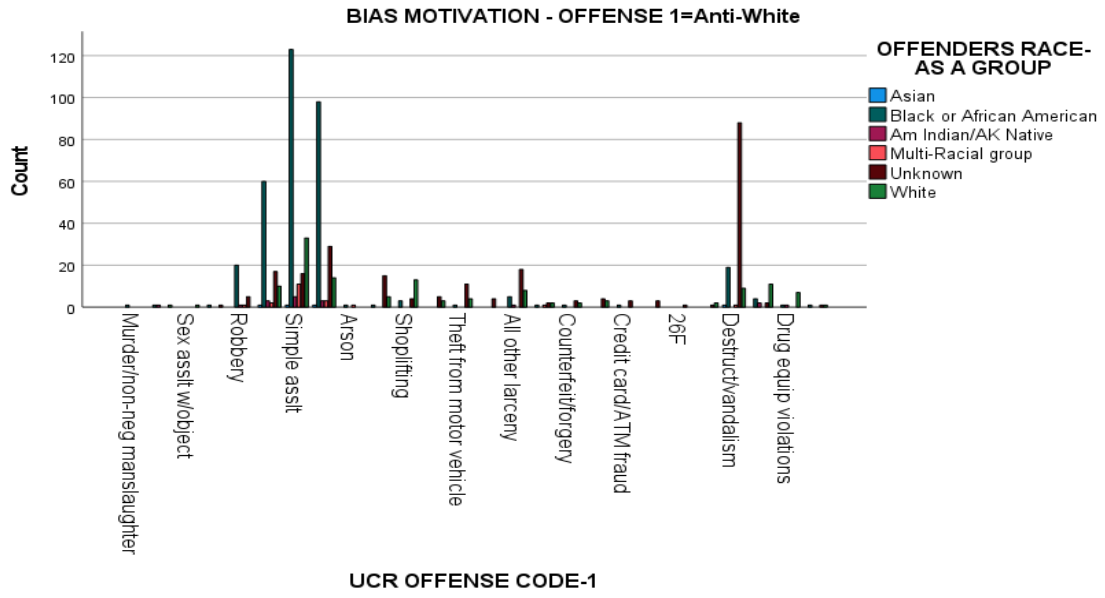


Figure 5

Bias Motivation: Anti-Gay Male

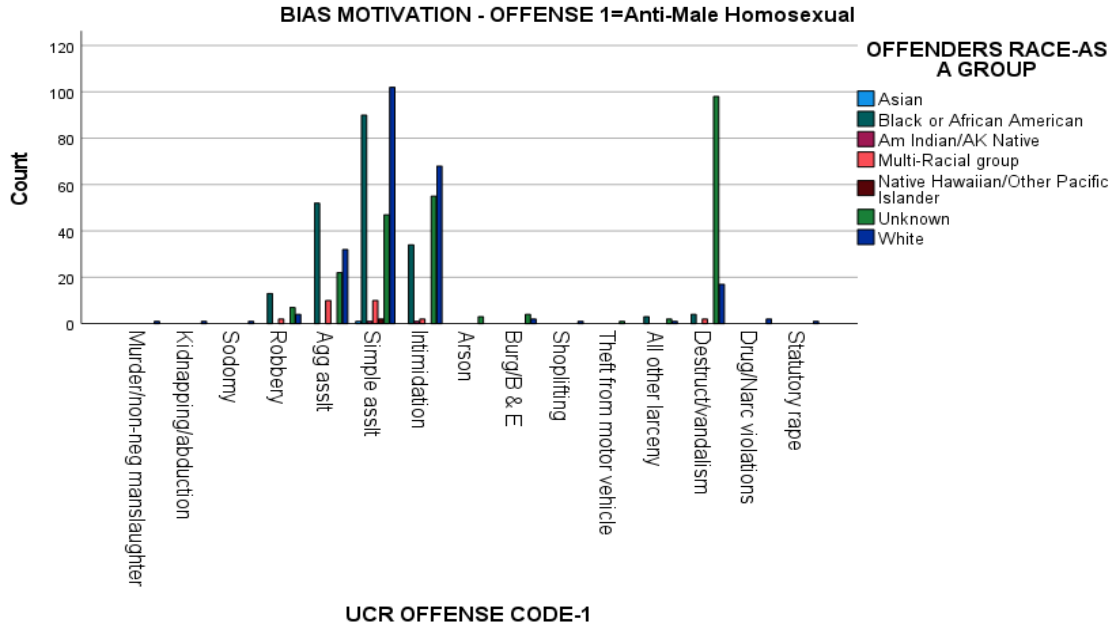


Figure 6

Bias Motivation: Anti-Jewish

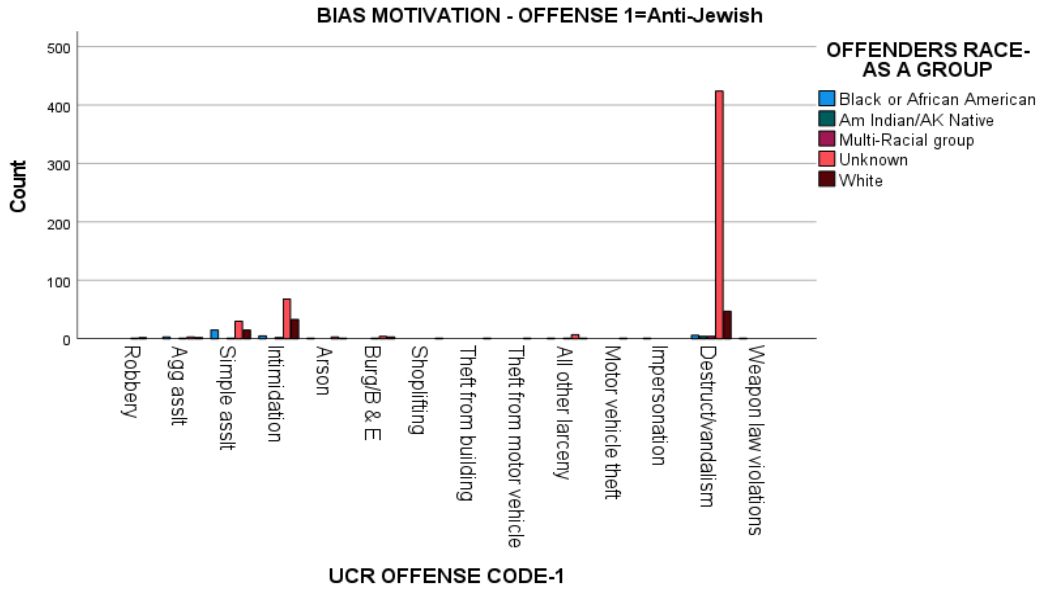


Figure 7

Bias Motivation: Anti-Hispanic or Latino

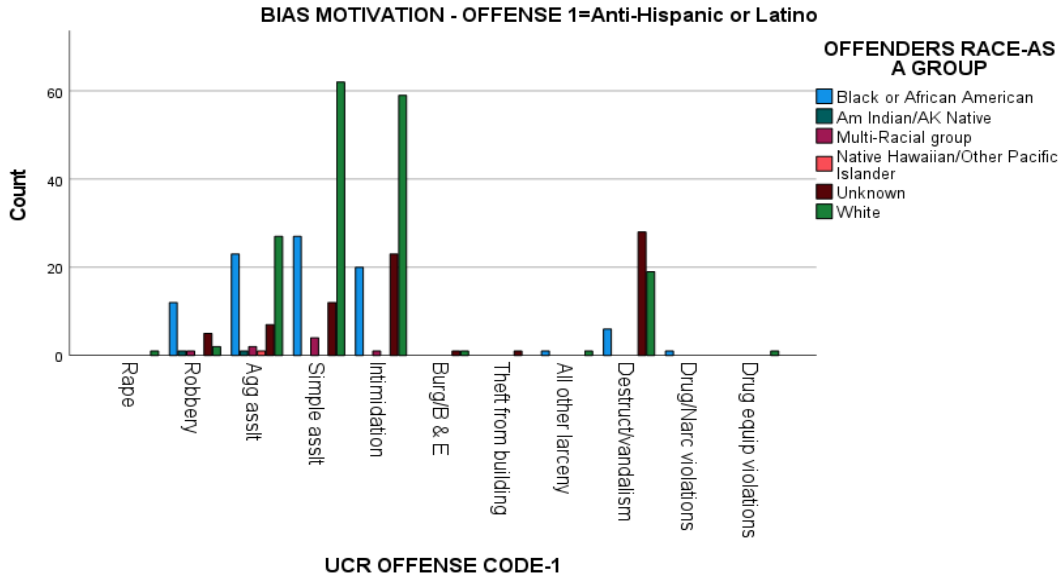


Table 5

Offenders Race as a Group

Race	*N*	%
Unknown	2715	43.3%
White	2196	35.0%
Black or African American	1090	17.4%
Multi-Racial group	180	2.9%
American Indian/Alaska Native	42	0.7%
Asian	38	0.6%
Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander	7	0.1%

Figure 8

Offenders Race as a Group

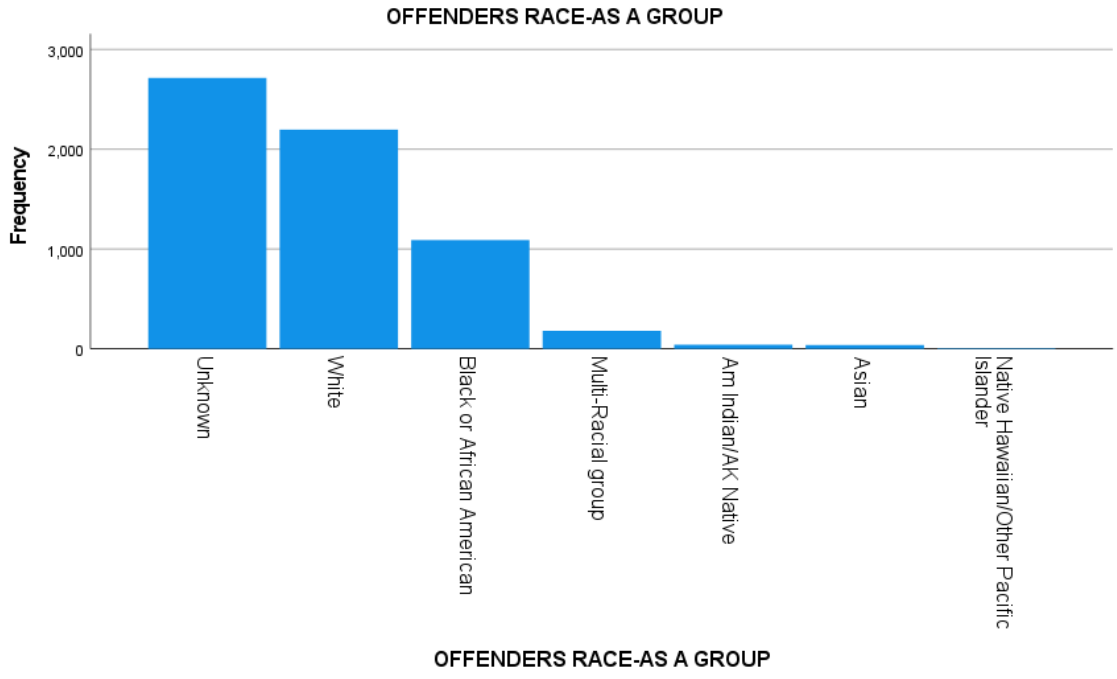


Table 6

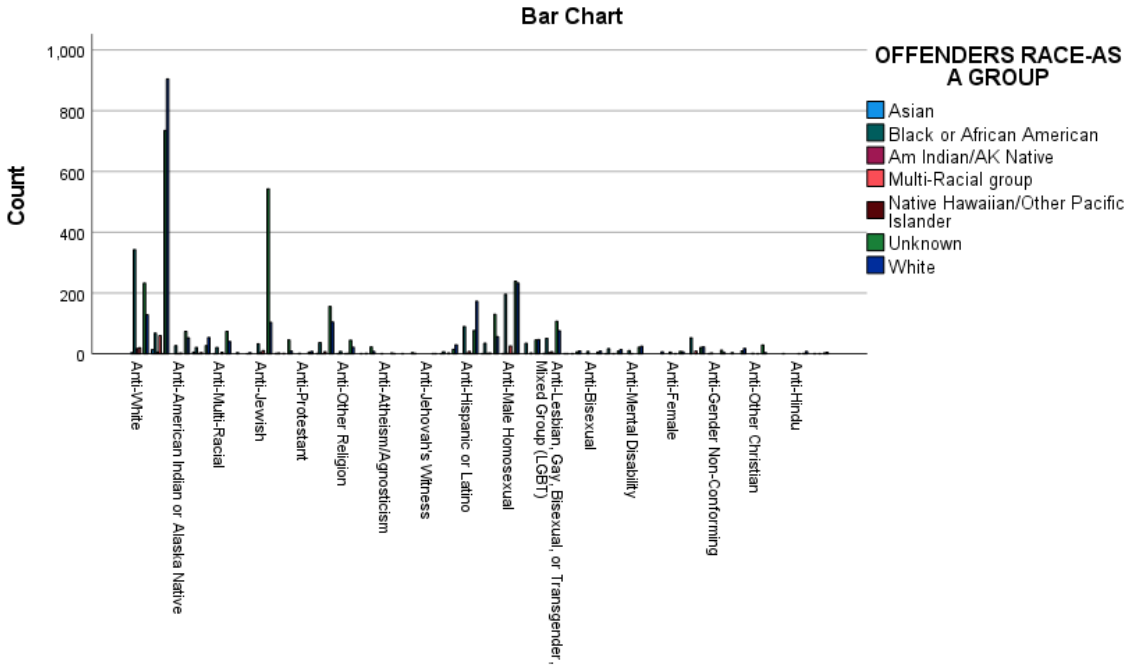
Bias Motivation and Offenders Race as a Group

Bias Motivation	Asian	Black or African American	American Indian/Alaska Native	Multi-Racial Group	Native Hawaiian/ Other Pacific Islander	Unknown	White	Total
Anti-White	4	343	17	20	0	233	129	746
Anti-Black or African American	14	68	6	60	1	735	905	1789
Anti-American Indian or Alaska Native	0	27	1	3	0	74	53	158
Anti-Asian	6	21	2	4	0	27	54	114
Anti-Multi-Racial	1	21	0	5	0	74	41	142
Anti-Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander	0	4	0	0	0	1	4	9
Anti-Jewish	0	33	4	11	0	543	104	695
Anti-Catholic	2	3	0	2	0	46	9	62
Anti-Protestant	0	2	0	0	0	6	8	16
Anti-Islamic	2	37	1	7	0	156	105	308
Anti-Other Religion	1	8	0	1	2	45	22	79
Anti-Multi-Religious	0	1	0	2	0	23	8	34
Anti-Atheism/Agnosticism	0	1	0	0	0	3	1	5
Anti-Mormon	0	1	0	0	0	4	2	7
Anti-Jehovah's Witness	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Anti-Arab	1	7	0	3	0	15	30	56
Anti-Hispanic or Latino	0	90	2	8	1	77	173	351
Anti-Not Hispanic or Latino	1	35	2	3	0	130	57	228
Anti-Gay Male	1	196	2	26	2	239	233	699
Anti-Gay Female	0	35	0	3	0	46	47	131
Anti-Lesbian, Gar, or Transgender, Mixed Group (LGBT)	2	51	4	7	1	107	76	248
Anti-Heterosexual	1	1	0	1	0	7	10	20
Anti-Bisexual	0	8	0	0	0	6	9	23
Anti-Physical Disability	1	17	0	1	0	9	14	42
Anti-Mental Disability	0	11	1	0	0	22	25	59
Anti-Male	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	7
Anti-Female	0	6	0	1	0	8	7	22
Anti-Transgender	0	53	0	9	0	21	23	106
Ant-Gender Non-Conforming	1	3	0	0	0	12	4	20
Anti-Eastern Orthodox (Greek, Russian, etc.)	0	4	0	0	0	10	18	32
Anti-Other Christian	0	2	0	1	0	29	4	36

Anti-Buddhist	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Anti-Hindu	0	0	0	1	0	2	8	11
Anti-Sikh	0	1	0	1	0	3	5	10
Total	38	1090	42	180	7	2715	2196	6268

Figure 9

Bias Motivation and Offenders Race as a Group



Analysis of Violent Crimes

Simple Assault:

There were a total of 1,454 simple assault hate crimes committed in 2016 (see Tables 2-3 and Figures 3-7). Of which, 381 (26.20%) were committed against African Americans, 189 (12.99%) were committed against White's, 253 (17.40%) were anti-gay male 61 (4.19 %) were Anti-Jewish, 16 (1.10%) were Anti-Hispanic or Latino. The number of reported simple assault cases for African Americans was 381, which was 46% more assault cases committed against Whites (189). Whites committed 46.6% (678) of the simple assaults, African Americans perpetrated 20.2% (425), and 18.4% (268) of the simple assaults were committed by offenders where the race was unknown.

When examining the total number of reported hate crimes per individual group (African Americans, Whites, Jews, gay men, and Hispanic or Latino's) against the number of simple assault cases (1,454), gay men (699 reported hate crimes) had the highest percentage (36.19%) of simple assaults. African Americans, who reported a total of 1,789 hate crimes, of which 21.29% (381 incidents) were contributed to simple assaults. Whites reported a total of 746 hate crimes (see Table 1 and Figure 1), and 25.33% of the incidents were associated with simple assaults. Whites perpetrated 261 simple assaults against African Americans, while African Americans committed 123 simple assaults against Whites.

Aggravated Assault

There were 686 aggravated assault cases reported in 2016 (see Tables 2-3 and Figures 2-7). African Americans were victims in 31.34% (215) of the reported aggravated

assault cases and 12.01% of the reported hate crime cases (1789) for African Americans. Gay men were victims in 116 cases, or 16.90% of the reported aggravated assaults and 16.69% of the total reported hate crimes (699) for the group. Whites reported 93 cases (13.55%) of aggravated assaults, which represents 12.46% of the total hate crimes (746) for the group. However, Hispanic or Latino reported a total of 351 hate crimes, of which 61 incidents were contributed to aggravated assault cases or 17.37% of the hate crimes for the group (see Table 6). Whites were the perpetrator in 314 of the 686 aggravated assaults, African Americans committed 210 assaults, followed by 99 for individuals where the race was unknown. Whites committed 165 aggravated assault against African Americans and African Americans committed 60 aggravated assaults against Whites.

Robbery

There were 126 reported hate crime robberies in 2016 (see Tables 2-3 and Figures 2-7). Of the top five bias motivators (Anti-White, Anti-African American/Black. Anti-Jewish, Anti-Hispanic or Latino, and Anti-gay male), African Americans ranked 4th in victimization with 14 (11.11%) hate crime robberies. However, African Americans committed 66 (52.38%) of the hate crime robberies. Whites were more victimized (27 cases, 21.42%) in the category of robbery than any of the other groups and committed 20 of the 126 robberies (15.87%). Gay men reported 26 cases (20.63%), Hispanic or Latino reported 21 robberies (16.66%) and Jews ranked 5th in the reported cases with 3 robberies. In cases where the offender's race was unknown, 25 robberies were committed, followed by 12 incidents where the offenders were multi-racial. Whites

perpetrated 10 of the 14 robberies against African Americans and African Americans were the offender in 20 of the 27 robberies against Whites.

Rape

There were 17 hate crime rapes reported in 2016 (see Tables 2-3 and Figures 2-7). For the top five bias motivators, African Americans were the victim in two incidents, Whites were the victim in three cases, and Hispanic or Latino reported one rape incident. There were no reported rape cases for Jews or gay men. Whites were the offender in eight of the reported 17 rape cases. African American and incidents where the offender's race was unknown were both responsible for four rape cases each. Whites committed the two rapes against African Americans, and African Americans committed one of the three rapes cases against Whites.

Kidnapping/Abduction

There were 9 reported kidnaping/abduction cases in 2016 (see Tables 2-3 and Figures 2-7). African Americans were the victim in 2 of the cases and perpetrated one of the 9 kidnappings/abduction. Gay men were victimized once. There were no reported cases for Whites, Jews, or Hispanic/Latino. However, Whites committed 7 of the nine kidnappings followed by African Americans and unknown race committing one offense each. Whites committed 1 of the 2 kidnapping/abductions against African Americans and in the remaining offense the race was unknown.

Fondling

A total of 7 fondling cases were reported in 2016 (see Tables 2-3 and Figures 2-7). Whites were the only identified group to have two cases. No cases were reported for

African Americans, Jews, Hispanic/Latino, and gay men. Whites also perpetrated 2 of the 7 fondling cases followed by unknown race (4) and African Americans (1).

Murder/Non-negligent Manslaughter

There were 5 reported murder/non-negligent manslaughter cases in 2016 (see Tables 2-3 and Figures 2-7). African Americans had the greatest number of murder/non- cases with 2 or 40% of the total reported incidents. Whites and gay men reported one case each. Whites committed 4 of the 5 reported murders/manslaughter crimes followed by 1 offense committed by African Americans. Whites committed both of the murder cases against African Americans and African Americans committed the one murder cases against Whites.

Sodomy

There were a total of 4 reported sodomy cases in 2016 (see Tables 2-3 and Figures 2-7). Of the five bias motivators, gay men reported one case. There were no sodomy offenses against Whites, African Americans, Jews or Hispanic/Latino.

Sex Assault With an Object

There was one reported case for sex assault with an object in which the victim and offender were White (see Tables 2-3 and Figures 2-7).

Statutory Rape

One reported case in which the victim was a gay man and the offender was White (see Tables 2-3 and Figures 2-7).

Summary of Findings: Violent Crimes

African Americans had the highest overall number of hate crimes reported totaling 1,789 incidents, or 28.5% of the total number of hate crimes reported in 2016 (6,268). Whites reported being victimized 746 times (11.9%), gay men reported 699 hate crime incidents (11.2%), Jews, 695 hate crime offenses (11.1%), and Hispanic or Latino logged 351 hate crimes (5.6%).

The number of violent hate crimes reported totaled 2310, of which African Americans carried the highest number of victimizations of 616 cases (26.66%). Gay men were victims of violent hate crimes in 399 incidents or 17.27%, Whites were the victim in 316 violent hate crimes (13.67%), Hispanic/Latino had 99 violent hate crimes incidents (4.28%), and Jews reported being a victim in 73 or 3.16% of the violent hate crimes. African Americans had the highest reported cases in the area of simple assault, aggravated assault, kidnapping, and murder/manslaughter compared to Whites, Jews, Hispanic/Latino, and gay men. Robbery, rape, fondling, sexual assault with an object were the areas in which African Americans did not have the highest reported hate crime incidents. Sodomy reported cases totaled 4. However, there were no cases reported for Whites, African Americans, Jews, or Hispanic/Latino.

When examining the offender's race, the unknown race of the offender lead with 2,715 (43.3), followed by Whites with 2,196 (35.0%), African American, 1,090 (17.4%), American Indian/Alaska Native 42 (0.7%), and Asian 38 (0.6%). For the violent crimes totaling 2,310 cases, Whites were the leading offender in simple assaults (678), aggravated assault (314), rape (8), kidnapping (7), murder/manslaughter (4), sex assault

with an object (1), and statutory rape (1). African Americans had the highest recording of offending in the crime of robbery (66) and when the race of the offender was unknown, they represented the majority of the fondling (4) and sodomy (2) offenses.

Analysis of Nonviolent Crimes

There were 23 categories of nonviolent crimes documented in 2016. This study focused on the six most frequently reported crimes. The total number of nonviolent offenses analyzed in this study: *N*= 3,721.

- Destruction/vandalism: *n*=1,826
- Intimidation: *n*= 1,574
- Burglary: *n*=119
- All other larceny: *n*=113
- Drug/narcotics violation: *n*= 48
- Arson: *n* = 41

Destruction/Vandalism

There were 1,826 destruction/vandalism hate crimes reported in 2016 (see Table 4 and Figures 2-7). African Americans were victimized in 522 (28.58%) of the hate crime incidents, followed by Jews who reported 584 (26.56%) incidents, gay men 121 (6.62%) incidents, and Whites who reported 118 (6.46%) offenses. Hispanic/Latinos had the lowest incidents of destruction/vandalism with 53 cases (2.90%). The perpetrators, where the race of the offender was unknown, committed 1,503 of the destruction/vandalism offenses, of which 88 victims were White, and 432 victims were African American. African Americans were responsible for 59 of the total number (1,826) of

destruction/vandalism incidents, of which 19 victims were White. Whites were responsible for 231 destruction/vandalism cases, of which 77 victims were African American.

Intimidation

There were 1574 reported hate crime intimidation cases in 2016 (see Table 4 and Figures 2-7). African Americans were a victim of intimidation in 599 cases (38.05%), gay men reported 160 (10.16%) incidents, Whites 148 cases (9.40%), Jews 103 (6.54 %) and Hispanic or Latino were a victim in 103 (6.54%) incidents. Intimidation was the upmost non-violent crime for African Americans in relation to the total number of intimidation cases (599, 38.05%). Whites were the perpetrator in 740 of the 1,574 intimidation cases, of which 369 victims were African American. Intimation incidents where the race was unknown resulted in 530 cases. African Americans committed 249 of the 1,574 intimidation cases, of which 98 victims were White.

Burglary

There were a total of 119 burglary cases reported to law enforcement in 2016 (see Table 4 and Figures 2-7). Whites had the highest victimization rate with 21 of the 119 reported cases (17.64%), African Americans were a victim in 16 cases (13.44%), Jews 8 cases (6.72%), gay men 6 incidents (5.04%), and Hispanic/Latino 2 cases (1.68%). African Americans committed 1 of the 21 burglaries against Whites. Whites committed 5 burglaries against African Americans and in incidents where the offender race was unknown, 8 burglaries were committed against African Americans.

All Other Larceny

There were 113 crimes reported in 2016 (see Table 4 and Figures 2-7). African Americans ranked third in this category as being a victim in 9 (7.96%) incidents, but perpetrated 19 (15.96%) of the all other larceny offenses, of which, 5 incidents were against Whites. Whites had the highest percentage of other larceny cases at 28.31% (32 cases). Jews were a victim in 10 incidents (8.84%), gay men reported 6 cases (5.30%), and Hispanic/Latino 2 cases (1.76%).

Offenders race for total of all other larceny: *n*=113 cases

- 65 (57.55%) race unknown
- 26 (23.00%) White
- 19 (16.81%). African Americans
- one (.88%) case each for multirace, American Indian/Alaska Native
- No reported cases for Asians

Drug/Narcotic Violation

There were 48 drug/narcotic violations reported to law enforcement in 2016 (see Table 4 and Figures 2-7). Whites were the victim in 19 incidents (38.58%), 2 violation were committed against African Americans and gay men (4.14%), and one drug/narcotic violation was perpetrated against Hispanic/Latino. There were no reported drug/narcotic violations for Jews. For the six nonviolent crimes examined in this study, the drug/narcotic violation was the lowest for African Americans in victimization (4.16%) as well as the lowest in the overall reported hate crime incidents for African Americans (1,789 or .11%). The offenders for the drug/narcotic violations included: 34 (70.83%)

incidents perpetrated by White offenders, 10 (20.83%), African American offenders, and 2 (4.16%) incidents perpetrated by American Indian/Alaska Native. There were no reported drug/narcotic violations for multi-racial, Asian, or Hawaiian/Pacific Islander offenders. Whites committed 1 of the 2 cases against African Americans. African Americans committed 4 of the 19 drug/narcotic violations against Whites.

Arson

There were 41 arson cases reported in 2016 (see Table 4 and Figures 2-7). African Americans were a victim in 8 (19.51%) of the 41 arsons, Jews were a victim in five cases (12.19%), gay men reported 3 incidents (2.43%), and Whites were a victim in 2 of the 41 arson hate crimes (4.87%). There were no reported arson crimes for Hispanic/Latino. Offenders race: 22 (4.87%) arsons were perpetrated by offenders where the race unknown, Whites were the offender 12 (29.26%) incidents, African Americans committed 5 arsons (12.19%), and 2 (4.87%) arson incidents were committed by the multi-racial group. There were no reported arson cases for American Indian/Alaska Native, Asian, and Hawaiian/ Pacific Islander. Whites committed 1 of the 8 arsons against African Americans and 7 incidents were committed by offenders whose race was unknown. African Americans committed 1 of the 2 arsons against Whites and the remaining offense was committed by the multi-racial group.

Summary of Findings: Non-Violent Crimes

When examining the six categories of non-violent crimes recorded in this study (total of 3,721 incidents), African Americans were victims in 1,156 cases (31.06%), Jews 616 incidents (16.55%), Whites 340 cases (9.13%), gay men 298 incidents (8.00%), and

Hispanic/Latino 161 cases (4.32%). African Americans had the highest reported incidents in destruction/vandalism (522), intimidation (599) and arson (8).

Research Question 2

RQ2: To what extent are victims of racially motivated crimes more likely to experience depression and anxiety vs. victims of other bias motivated crimes?

A frequency test was conducted to determine the respondent's insight on what they believed was the motive behind the hate crime. Respondents could either answer "Yes", "No", or "Don't' know" as to whether they believed the crime was motivated by race, ethnicity, gender, disability, religion, sexuality, or perception. Responses marked as "residue" contained missing or invalid data. This study focused on the "Yes" responses.

This study analyzed the three most cited motivators, which included race, ethnicity, and gender. The remaining bias-motivators were not included in this study. To delve deeper in the victims emotional or mental health after experiencing a hate crime, five subcategories were examined.

- How distressing it is to be a victim of a hate crime.
- Physical problems associated with being a victim of a hate crime.
- Problems at school/work and seeking professional help.
- Injuries sustained and feelings of sadness and depression.
- The emotional impact of being threatened with bodily harm.

Bias Motivation: Victims Perception

A frequency test was conducted to determine the motive of the hate crime from the victim's perception. I used the three most reported motives for this study (see Table 7).

Table 7

Bias Motivation and Victims Perception

Bias motivator	Yes	No	Don't know	Residue	Total
Race	155	132	5	27	319
Ethnicity	99	189	4	27	319
Gender	78	206	8	27	319
Disability	50	237	5	27	319
Associate	49	229	14	27	319
Religion	34	253	5	27	319
Sexuality	33	254	5	27	319
Perception	26	255	11	27	319

Table 8

Hate Crime: Race

Hate crime: Race		*N*	%
Yes		155	1.2%
No		132	1.0%
Don't know		5	0.0%
Residue		27	0.2%
Missing	Out of universe	12652	97.5%
Total		12971	100.0%

Figure 10

Hate Crime: Race

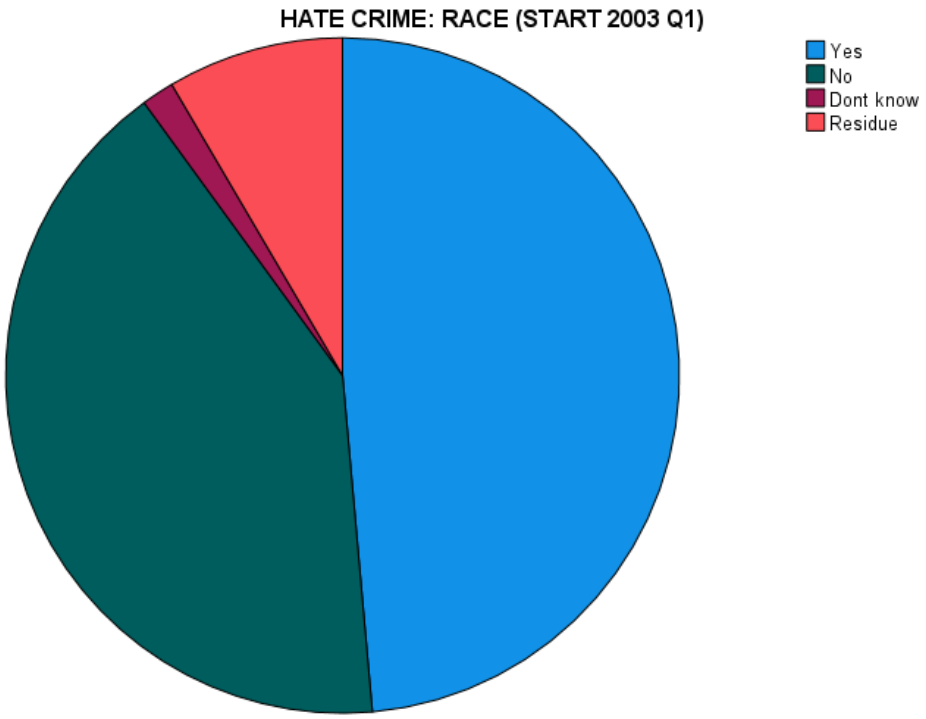


Table 9

Hate Crime: Ethnicity

Hate crime: Ethnicity		*N*	%
Yes		99	0.8%
No		189	1.5%
Don’t know		4	0.0%
Residue		27	0.2%
Missing	Out of universe	12652	97.5%
Total		12971	100.0%

Figure 11

Hate Crime: Ethnicity

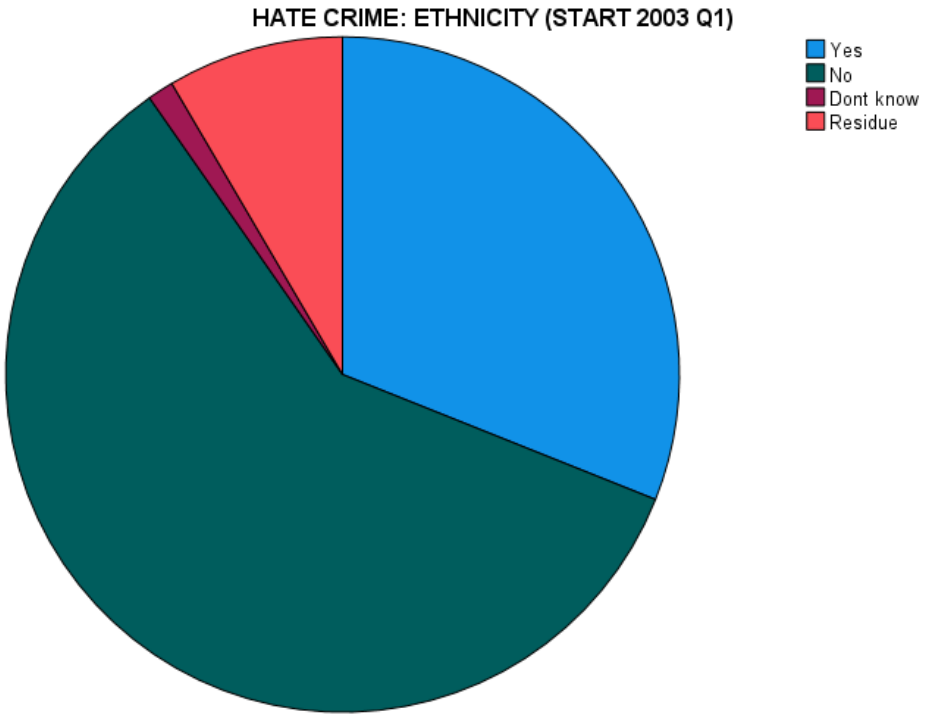


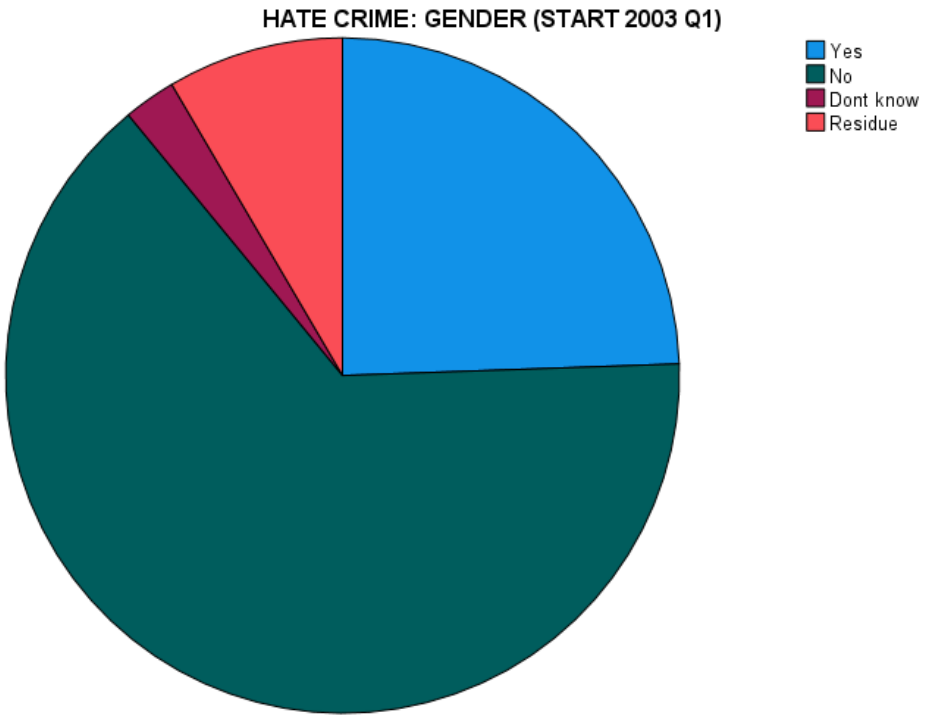
Table 10

Hate Crime: Gender

Hate crime: Gender		*N*	%
Yes		78	0.6%
No		206	1.6%
Don’t know		8	0.1%
Residue		27	0.2%
Missing	Out of universe	12652	97.5%
Total		12971	100.0%

Figure 12

Hate Crime: Gender



How Distressing Being a Victim

A crosstabulation was performed to examine the relationship between race and how distressing it was being a victim of a hate crime (see Tables 11-13 and Figures 13-15). The possible responses include severely distressing, moderately distressing, mildly distressing, not at all distressing, and residue. The crosstabulation included a total of 201 responses. However, this study examined the yes responses relating to severely distressing. For the variable race, 43 respondents reported that being a victim of a hate crime was severely distressing. For ethnicity, 24 respondents reported being severely destressed, and 22 victims who conveyed gender as the motive for the hate crime noted they were severely distressed.

Table 11

How Distressing Being a Victim and Race

		How distressing being a victim					
		Not at all distressing	Mildly distressing	Moderately distressing	Severely distressing	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Race	Yes	14	22	14	43	12	105
	No	6	10	22	32	10	80
	Don't know	0	0	1	1	0	2
	Residue	0	0	2	1	11	14
Total		20	32	39	77	33	201

Figure 13

How Distressing Being a Victim and Race

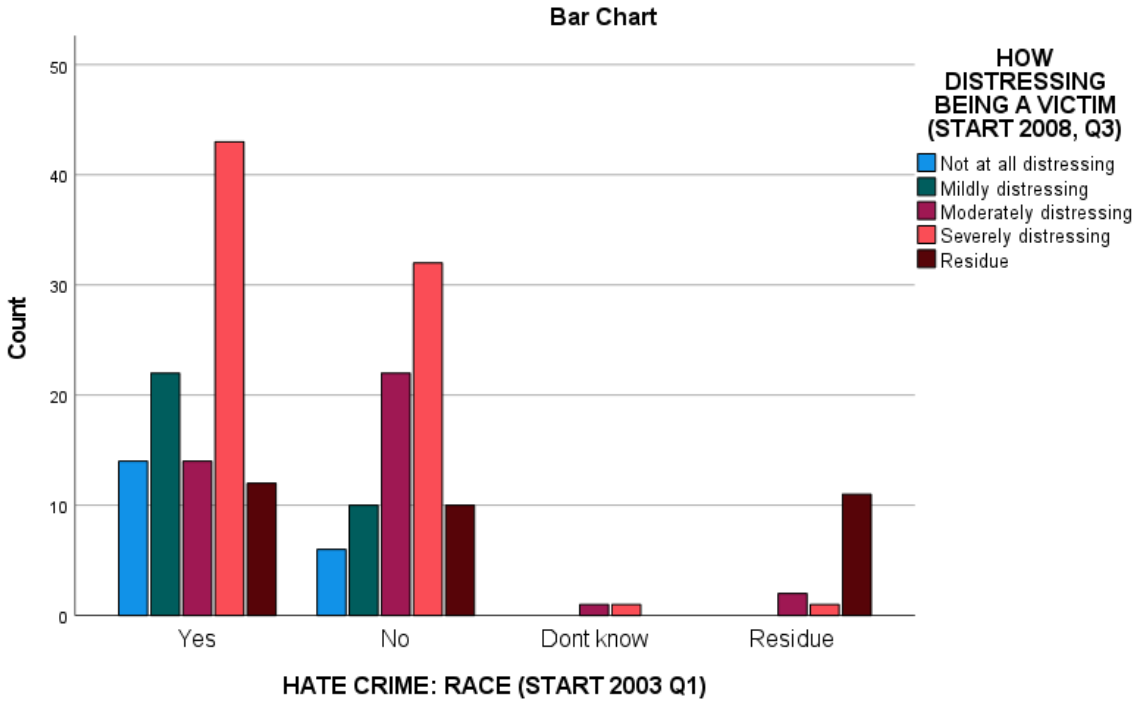


Table 12

How Distressing Being a Victim and Ethnicity

		How distressing being a victim					
		Not at all distressing	Mildly distressing	Moderately distressing	Severely distressing	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	9	11	9	24	8	61
	No	11	21	28	51	13	124
	Don't know	0	0	0	1	1	2
	Residue	0	0	2	1	11	14
Total		20	32	39	77	33	201

Figure 14

How Distressing Being a Victim and Ethnicity

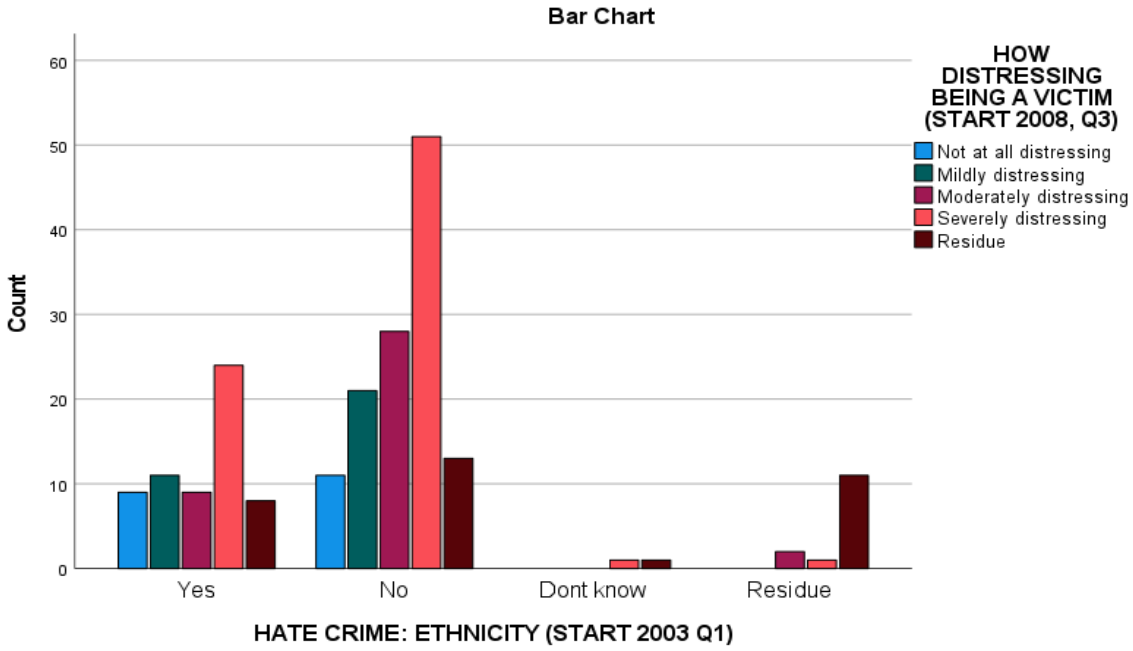


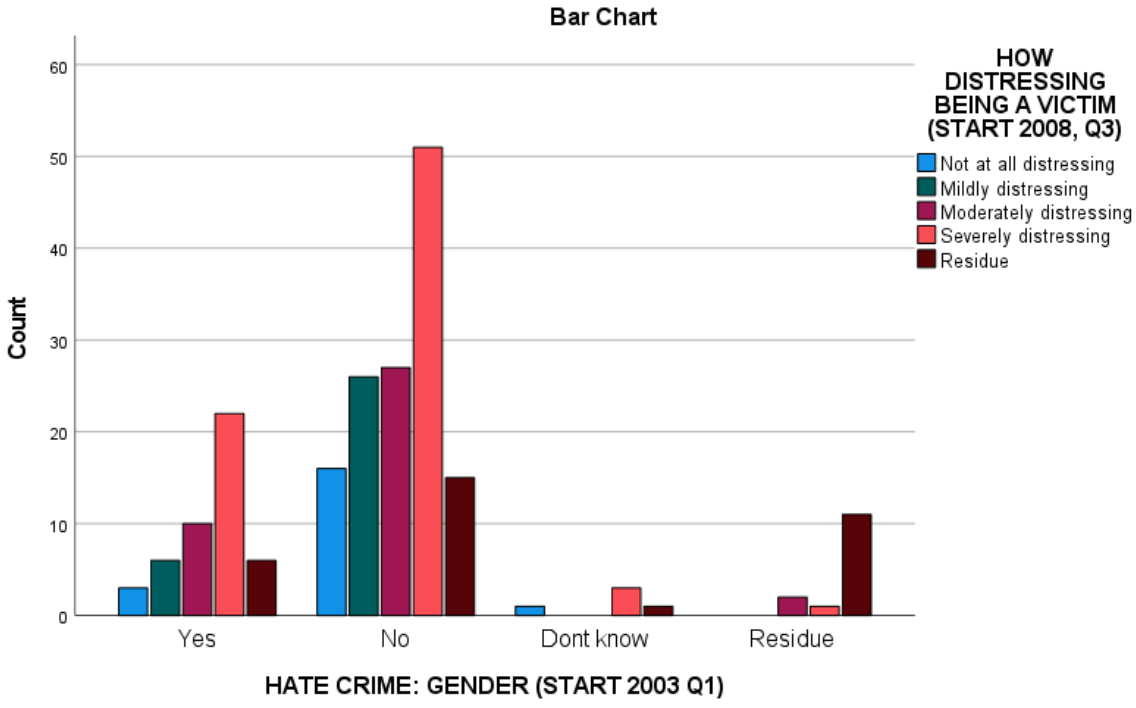
Table 13

How Distressing Being a Victim and Gender

		How distressing being a victim					
Hate crime: Gender		Not at all distressing	Mildly distressing	Moderately distressing	Severely distressing	Residue	Total
	Yes	3	6	10	22	6	47
	No	16	26	27	51	15	135
	Don't know	1	0	0	3	1	5
	Residue	0	0	2	1	11	14
Total		20	32	39	77	33	201

Figure 15

How Distressing Being a Victim and Gender



Physical Problems Associated With Being a Victim of a Hate Crime

This category contained eight possible physical problems such as headaches, trouble sleeping, changes in eating/drinking, upset stomach, fatigue, high blood pressure, muscle tension, and other. A crosstabulation was conducted to analyze the connection between race (see Tables 14-21 and Figures 16-23), ethnicity (see Tables 22-29 and Figures 24-31), and gender (see Tables 30-37 and Figures 32-39) with physical problems associated with being a victim of a hate crime. Victims who reported that the hate crime was associated with race scored the most cases in each category headache (26), trouble sleeping (30), changes in eating and drinking (18), upset stomach (21), fatigue (22), blood pressure (10), muscle tension (26), and other (7). Victims who conveyed that the hate crime was associated with ethnicity ranked second to race in headache (20), trouble sleeping (24), fatigue (18), and other (6). Ethnicity and race both reported 19 cases in the category of muscle tension. However, victims who answered the hate crime was motivated by gender had more reported cases than ethnicity in the area of trouble eating/drinking (16), upset stomach and (16) blood pressure.

Table 14

Physical Problems: Headache and Race

		Physical problems: Headaches			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Race	Yes	26	33	0	59
	No	22	35	1	58
	Don't know	2	0	0	2
	Residue	1	2	0	3
Total		51	70	1	122

Figure 16

Physical Problems: Headache and Race

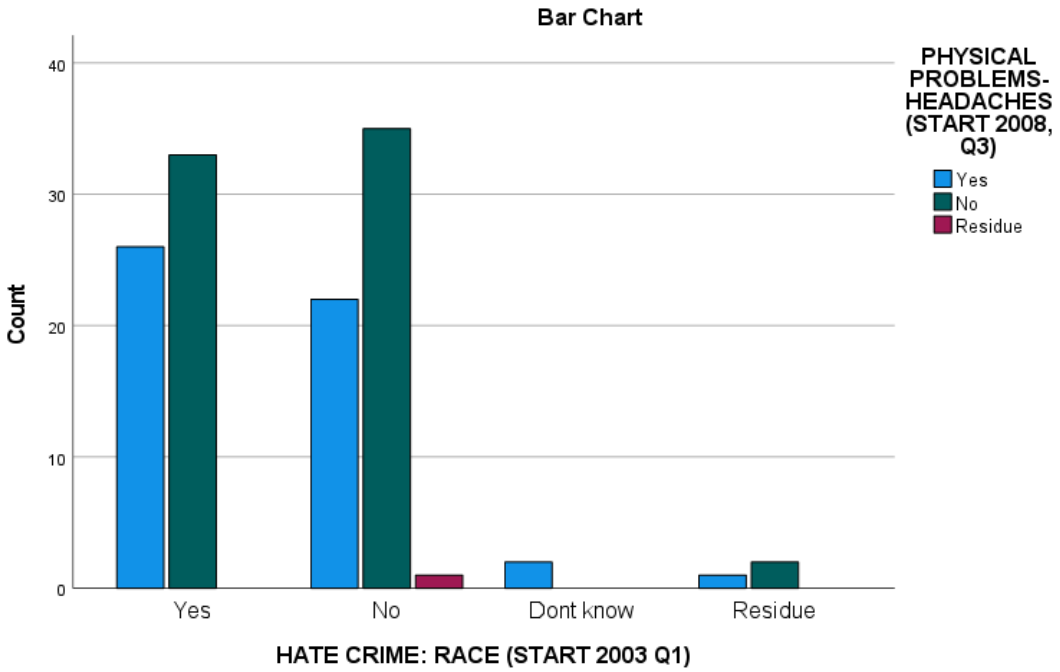


Table 15

Physical Problems: Trouble Sleeping and Race

		Physical problems-Trouble sleeping			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Race	Yes	30	28	1	59
	No	30	27	1	58
	Don't know	2	0	0	2
	Residue	2	1	0	3
Total		64	56	2	122

Figure 17

Physical Problems: Trouble Sleeping and Race

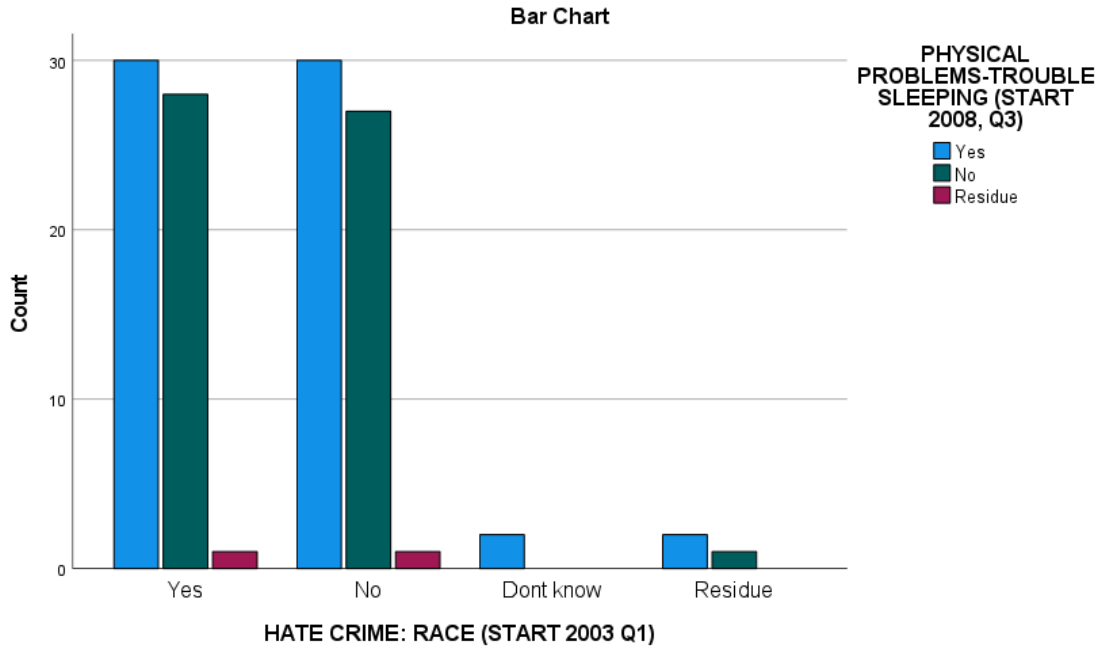


Table 16

Physical Problems: Changes in Eating/Drinking and Race

		Physical problems: Changes in eating/drinking			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Race	Yes	18	40	1	59
	No	22	35	1	58
	Don't know	0	2	0	2
	Residue	0	3	0	3
Total		40	80	2	122

Figure 18

Physical Problems: Changes in Eating/Drinking and Race

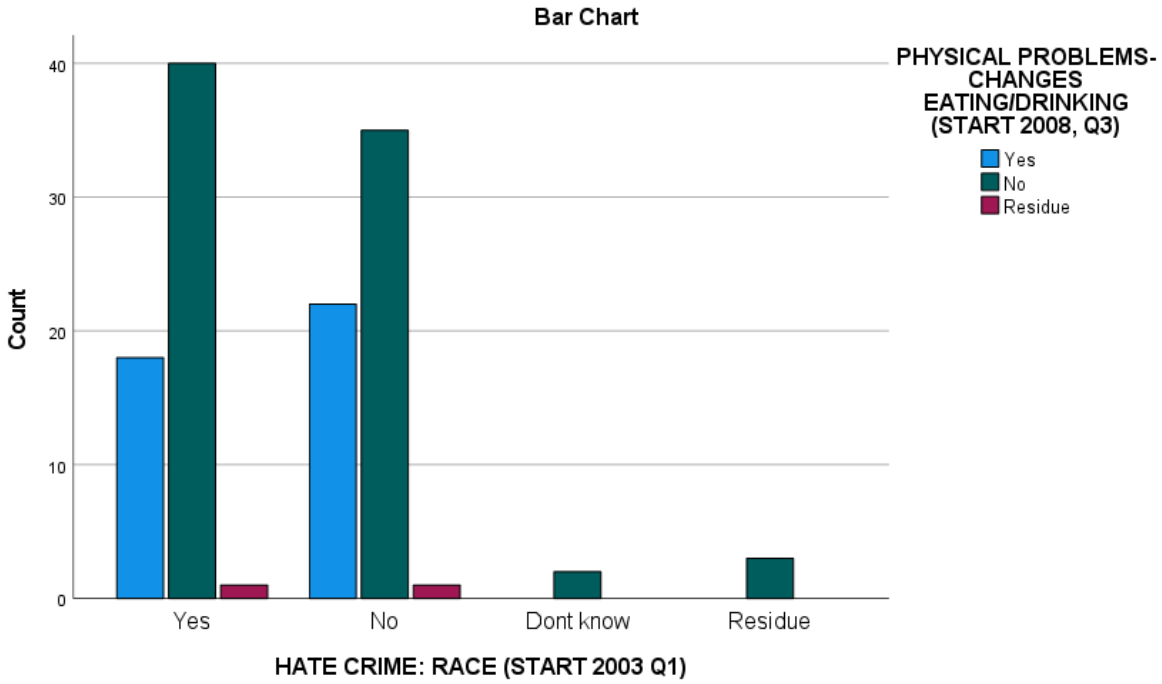


Table 17

Physical Problems: Upset Stomach and Race

		Physical problems- Upset stomach			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Race	Yes	21	37	1	59
	No	18	39	1	58
	Don't know	1	1	0	2
	Residue	0	3	0	3
Total		40	80	2	122

Figure 19

Physical Problems: Upset Stomach and Race

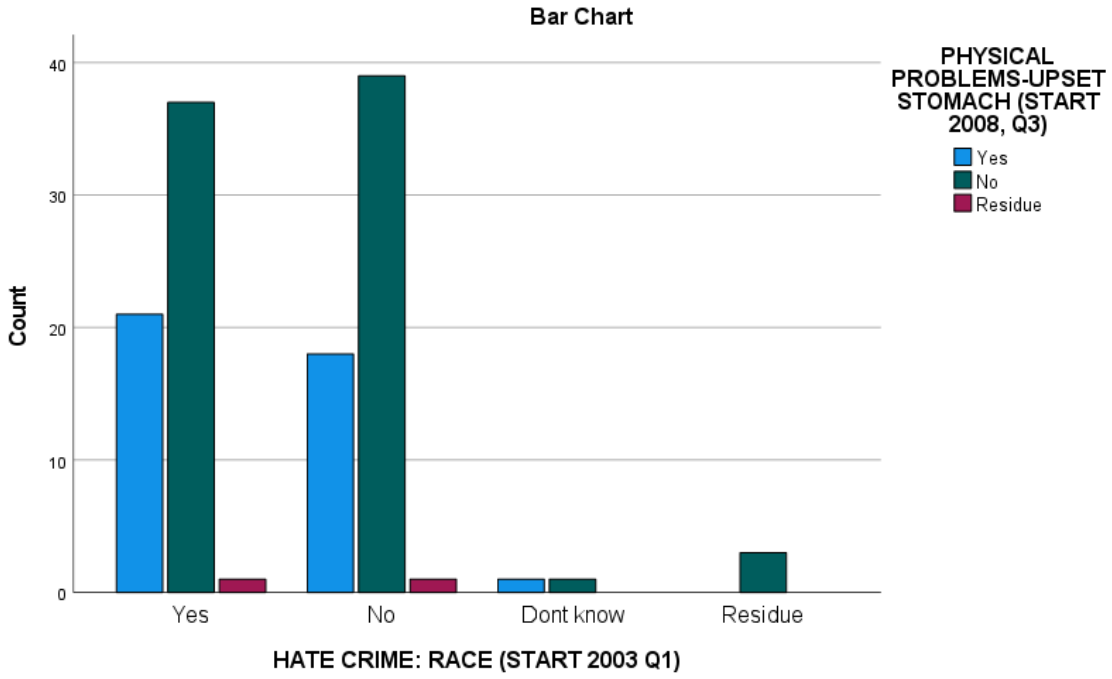


Table 18

Physical Problems: Fatigue and Race

		Physical problems-Fatigue			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Race	Yes	22	36	1	59
	No	23	34	1	58
	Don't know	1	1	0	2
	Residue	1	2	0	3
Total		47	73	2	122

Figure 20

Physical Problems: Fatigue and Race

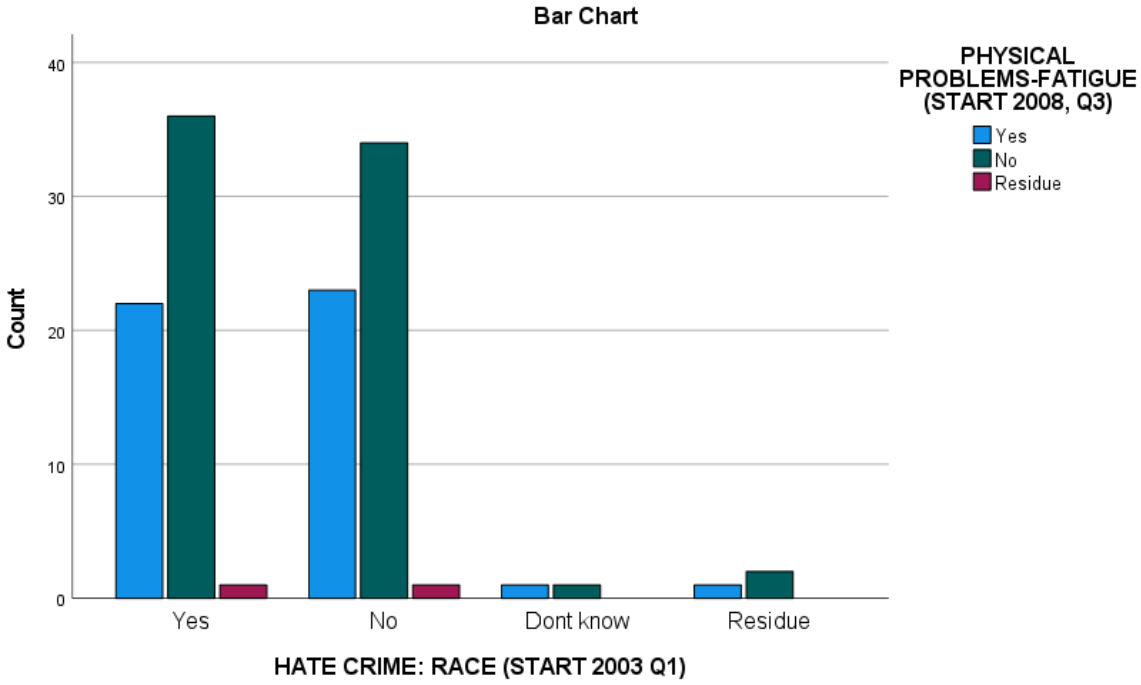


Table 19

Physical Problems: High Blood Pressure and Race

		Physical problems-High blood pressure			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Race	Yes	18	40	1	59
	No	14	41	3	58
	Don't know	0	2	0	2
	Residue	0	3	0	3
Total		32	86	4	122

Figure 21

Physical Problems: High Blood Pressure and Race

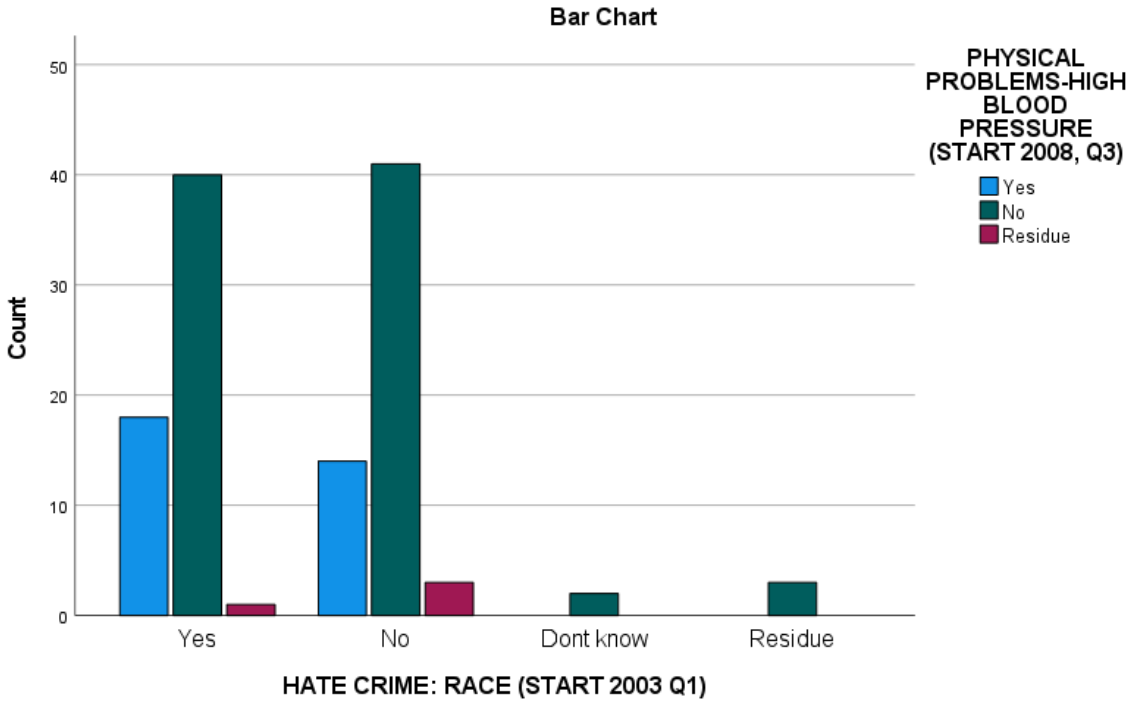


Table 20

Physical Problems: Muscle Tension and Race

		Physical problems-Muscle tension			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Race	Yes	26	32	1	59
	No	23	34	1	58
	Don't know	1	1	0	2
	Residue	1	2	0	3
Total		51	69	2	122

Figure 22

Physical Problems: Muscle Tension and Race

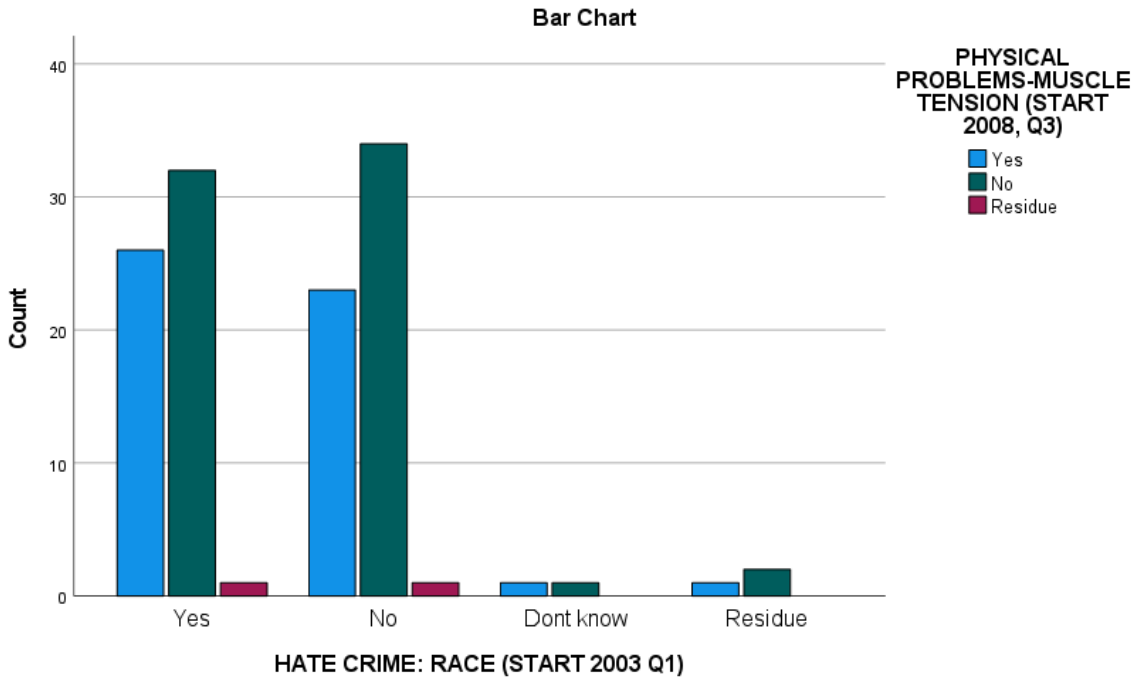


Table 21

Physical Problems: Other and Race

		Physical problems-Other			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Race	Yes	7	51	1	59
	No	7	50	1	58
	Don't know	0	2	0	2
	Residue	0	3	0	3
Total		14	106	2	122

Figure 23

Physical Problems: Other and Race

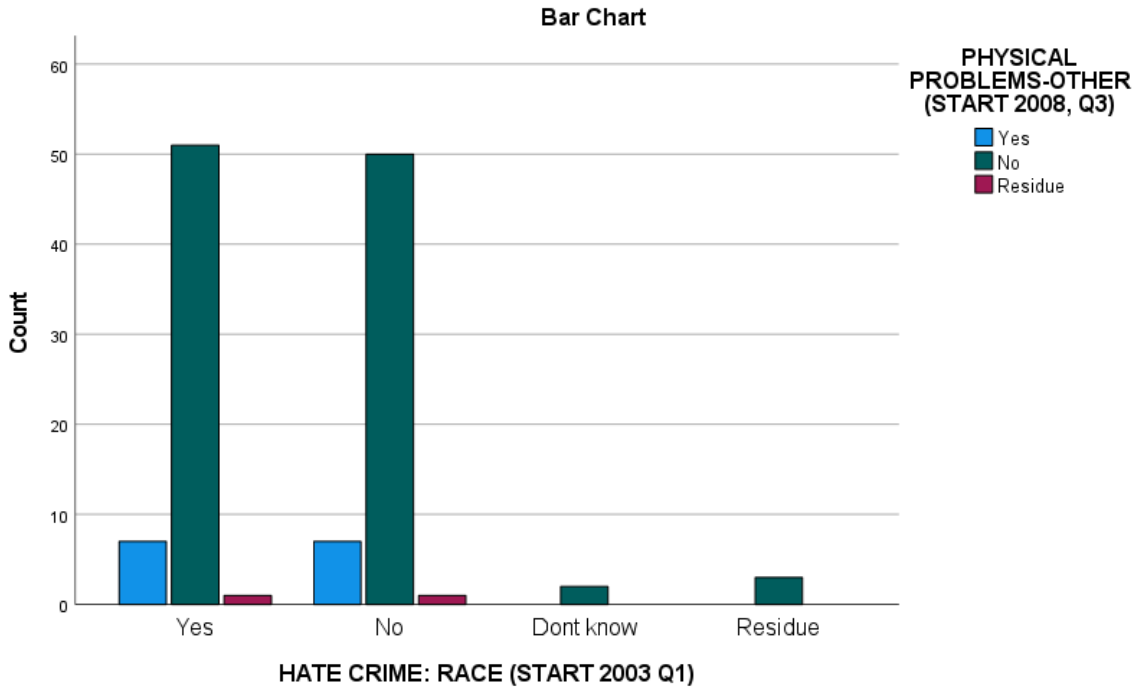


Table 22

Physical Problems: Headaches and Ethnicity

		Physical problems-Headaches			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	20	16	0	36
	No	29	52	1	82
	Don't know	1	0	0	1
	Residue	1	2	0	3
Total		51	70	1	122

Figure 24

Physical Problems: Headaches and Ethnicity

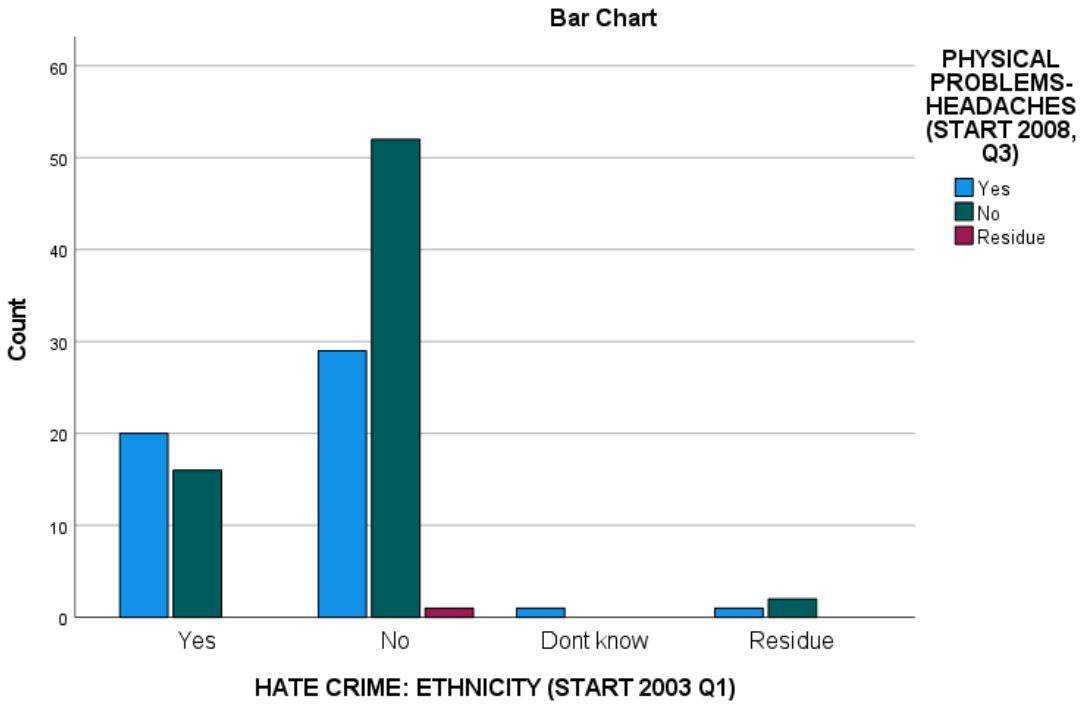


Table 23

Physical Problems: Trouble Sleeping and Ethnicity

		Physical problems-Trouble sleeping			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	24	11	1	36
	No	37	44	1	82
	Don't know	1	0	0	1
	Residue	2	1	0	3
Total		64	56	2	122

Figure 25

Physical Problems: Trouble Sleeping and Ethnicity

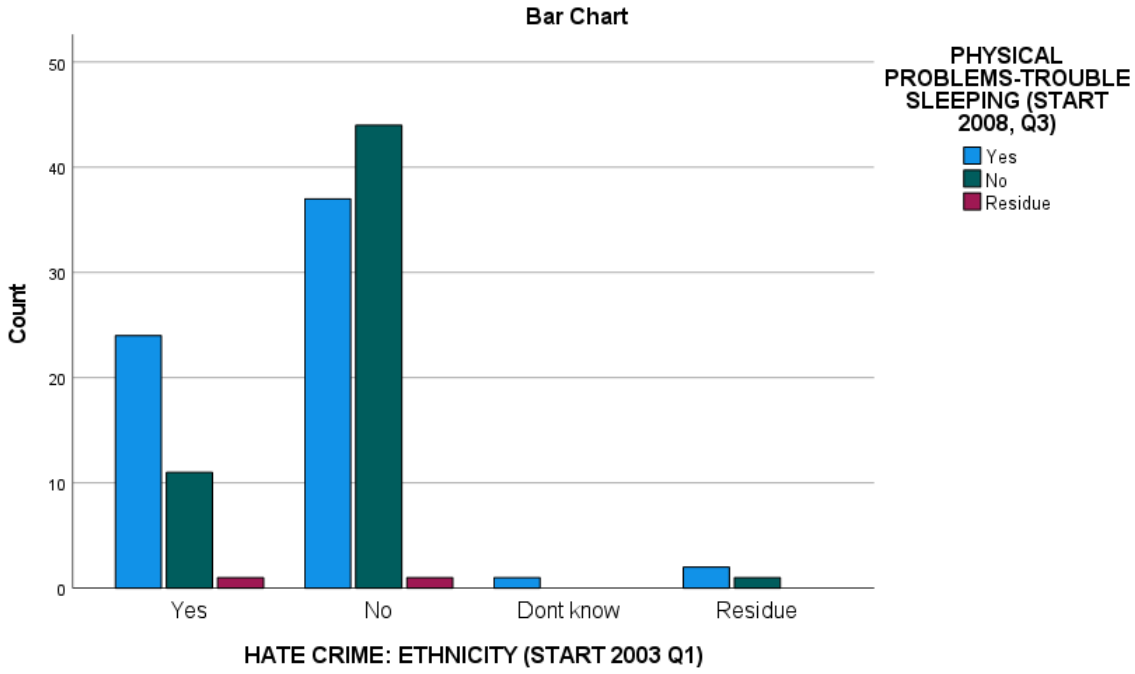


Table 24

Physical Problems: Changes in Eating/Drinking and Ethnicity

		Physical problems-Changes in eating and drinking			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	13	22	1	36
	No	27	54	1	82
	Don't know	0	1	0	1
	Residue	0	3	0	3
Total		40	80	2	122

Figure 26

Physical Problems: Changes in Eating/Drinking and Ethnicity

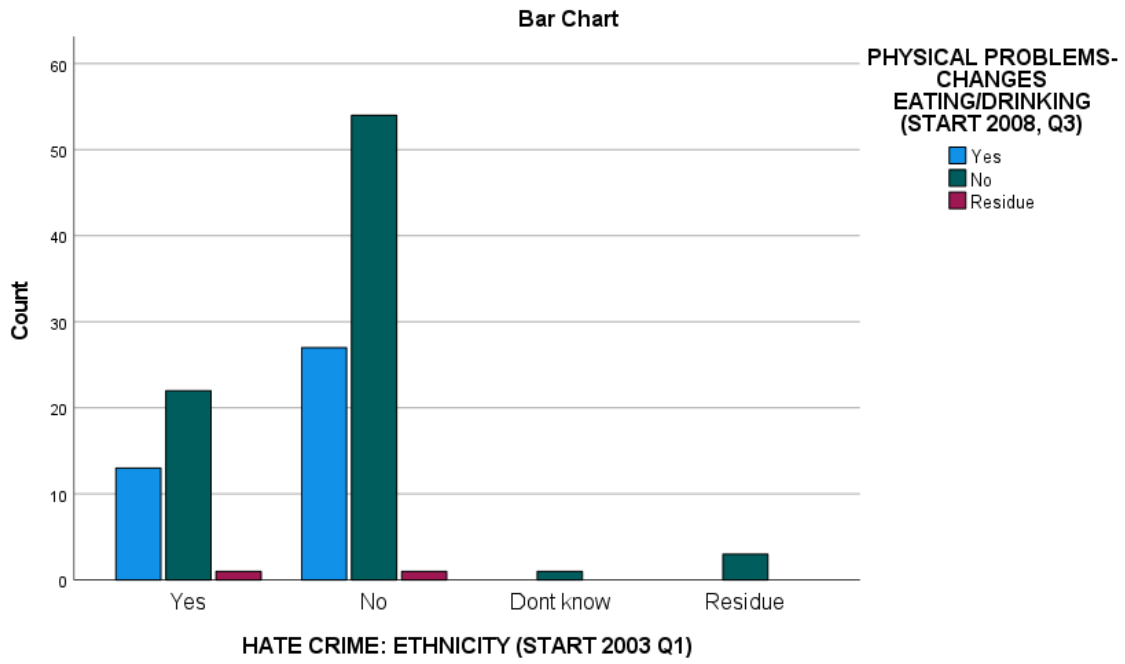


Table 25

Physical Problems: Upset Stomach and Ethnicity

		Physical problems-Upset stomach			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	13	22	1	36
	No	26	55	1	82
	Don't know	1	0	0	1
	Residue	0	3	0	3
Total		40	80	2	122

Figure 27

Physical Problems: Upset Stomach and Ethnicity

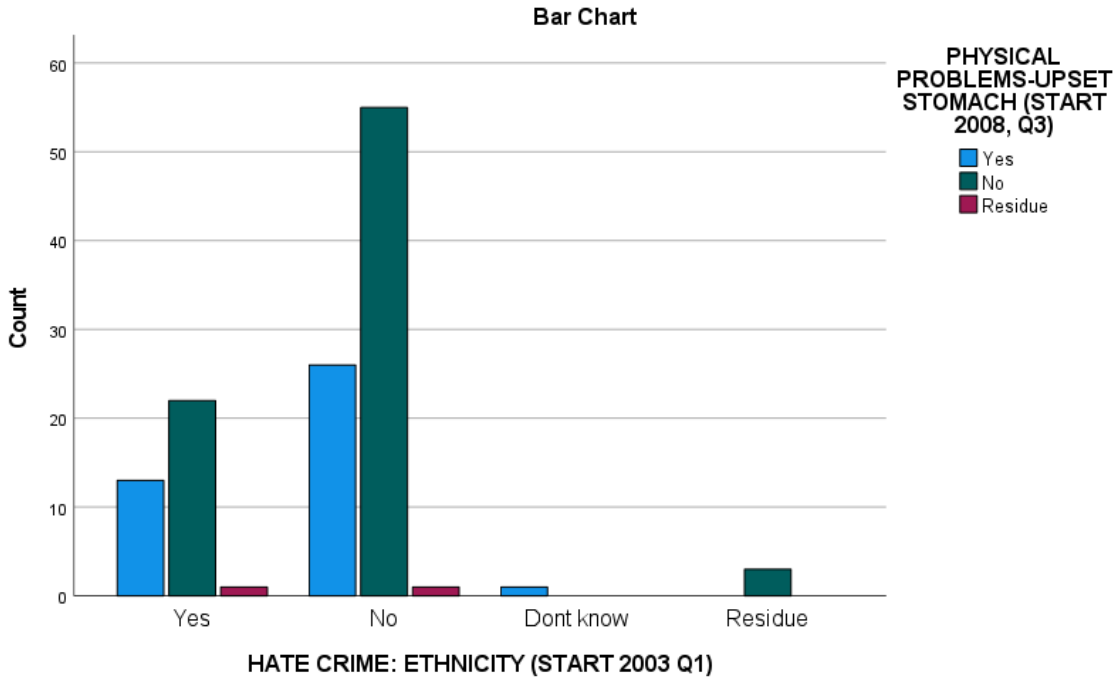


Table 26

Physical Problems: Fatigue and Ethnicity

		Physical problems: Fatigue			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	18	17	1	36
	No	27	54	1	82
	Don't know	1	0	0	1
	Residue	1	2	0	3
Total		47	73	2	122

Figure 28

Physical Problems: Fatigue and Ethnicity

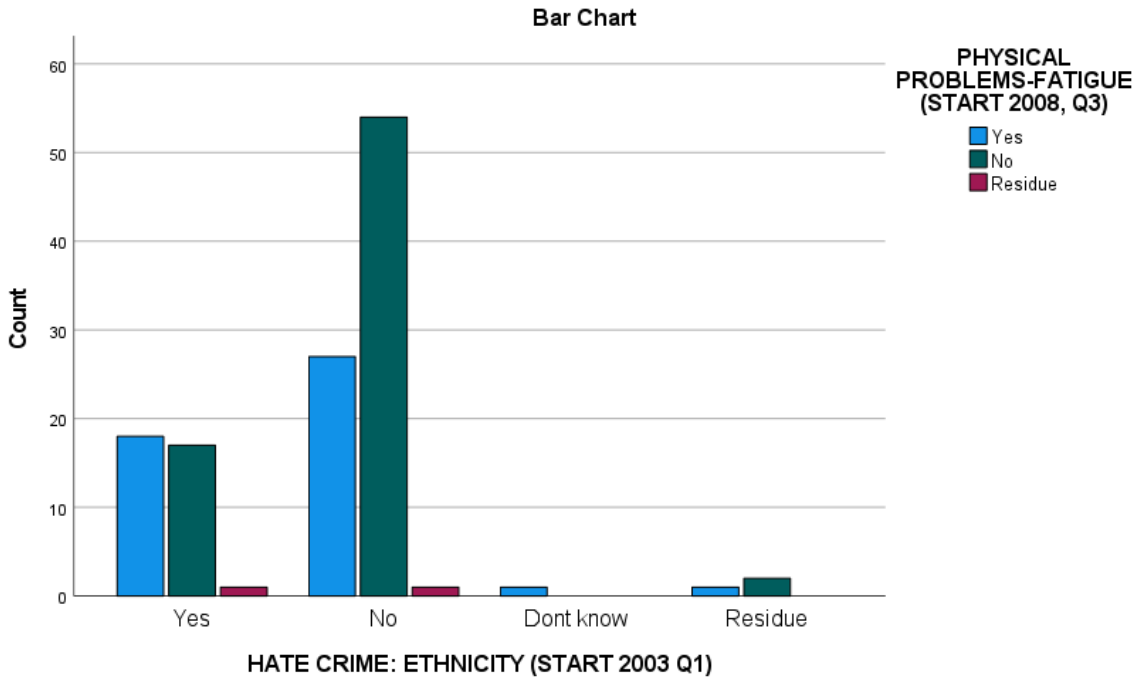


Table 27

Physical Problems: High Blood Pressure and Ethnicity

		Physical problems-High blood pressure			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	10	25	1	36
	No	21	58	3	82
	Don't know	1	0	0	1
	Residue	0	3	0	3
Total		32	86	4	122

Figure 29

Physical Problems: High Blood Pressure and Ethnicity

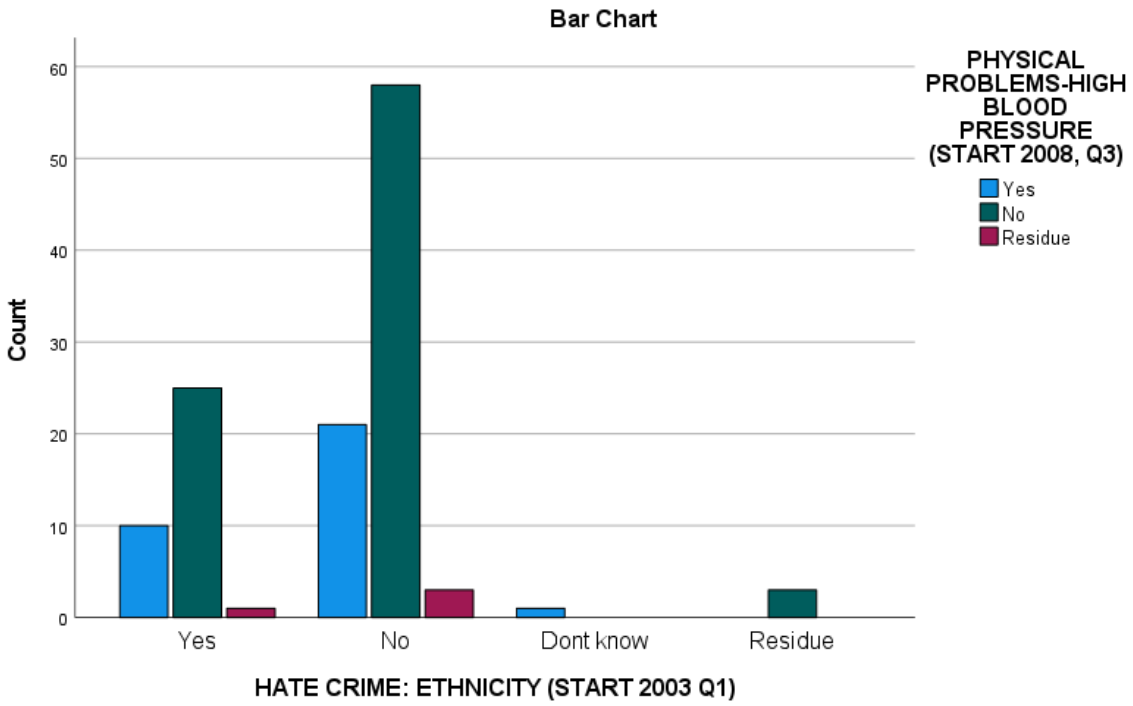


Table 28

Physical Problems: Muscle Tension and Ethnicity

		Physical problems-Muscle tension			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	19	16	1	36
	No	30	51	1	82
	Don't know	1	0	0	1
	Residue	1	2	0	3
Total		51	69	2	122

Figure 30

Physical Problems: Muscle Tension and Ethnicity

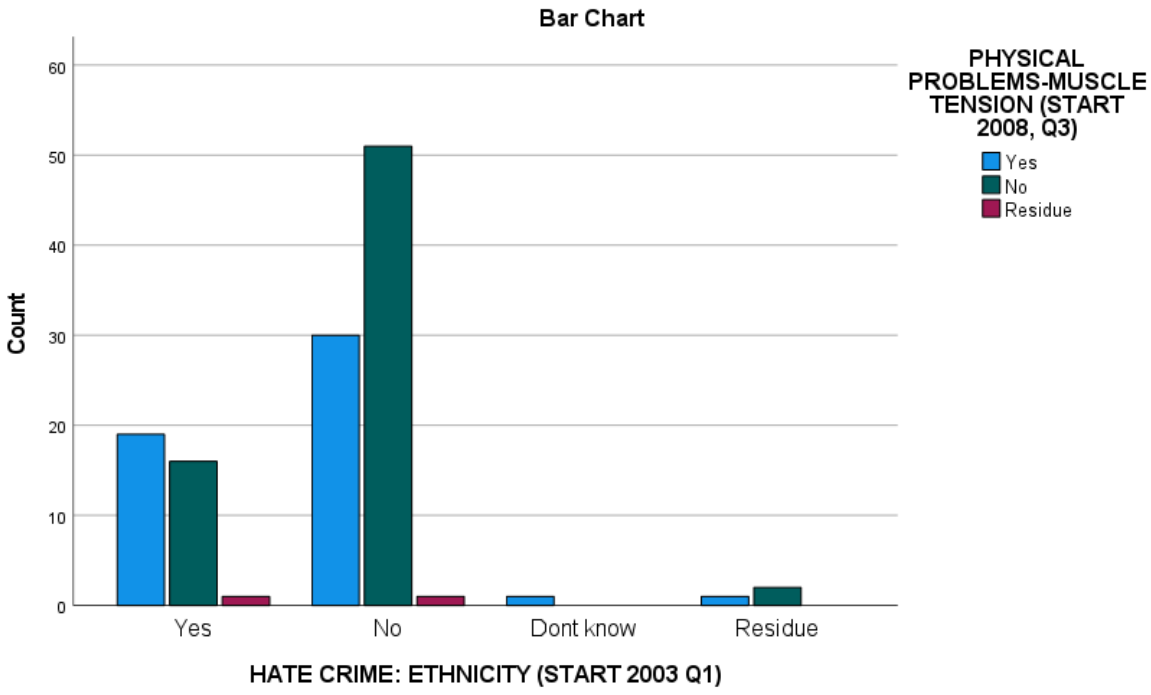


Table 29

Physical Problems: Other and Ethnicity

		Physical problems-Other			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime:	Yes	6	29	1	36
Ethnicity	No	8	73	1	82
	Don't know	0	1	0	1
	Residue	0	3	0	3
Total		14	106	2	122

Figure 31

Physical Problems: Other and Ethnicity

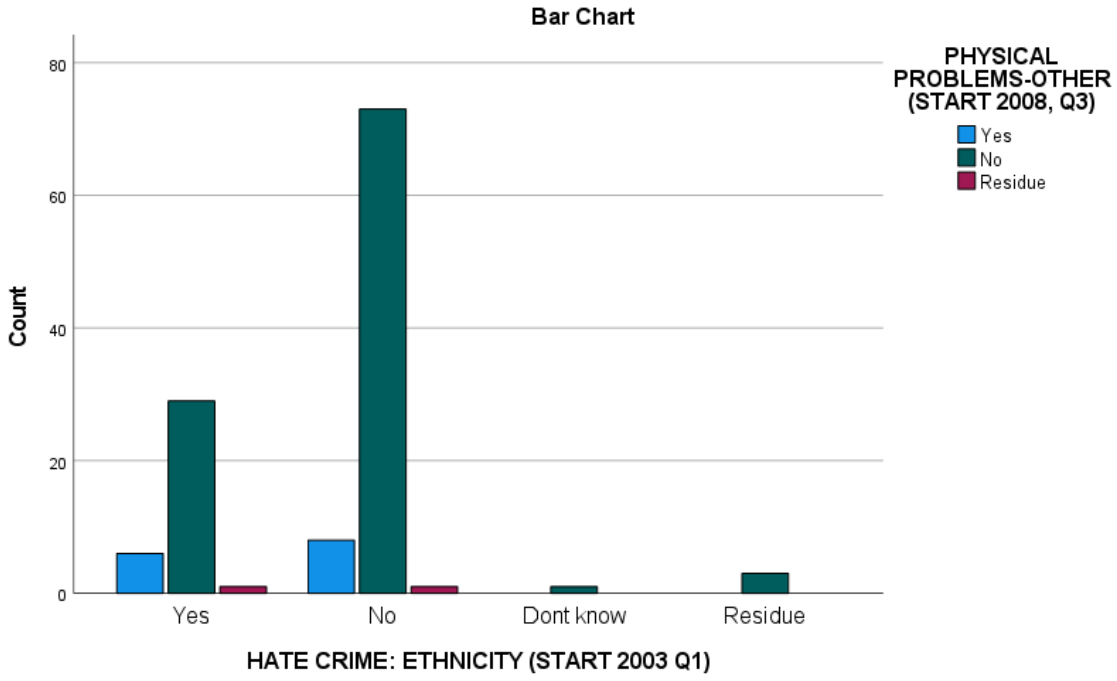


Table 30

Physical Problems: Headaches and Gender

		Physical problems-Headaches			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Gender	Yes	18	16	0	34
	No	31	50	1	82
	Don't know	1	2	0	3
	Residue	1	2	0	3
Total		51	70	1	122

Figure 32

Physical Problems: Headaches and Gender

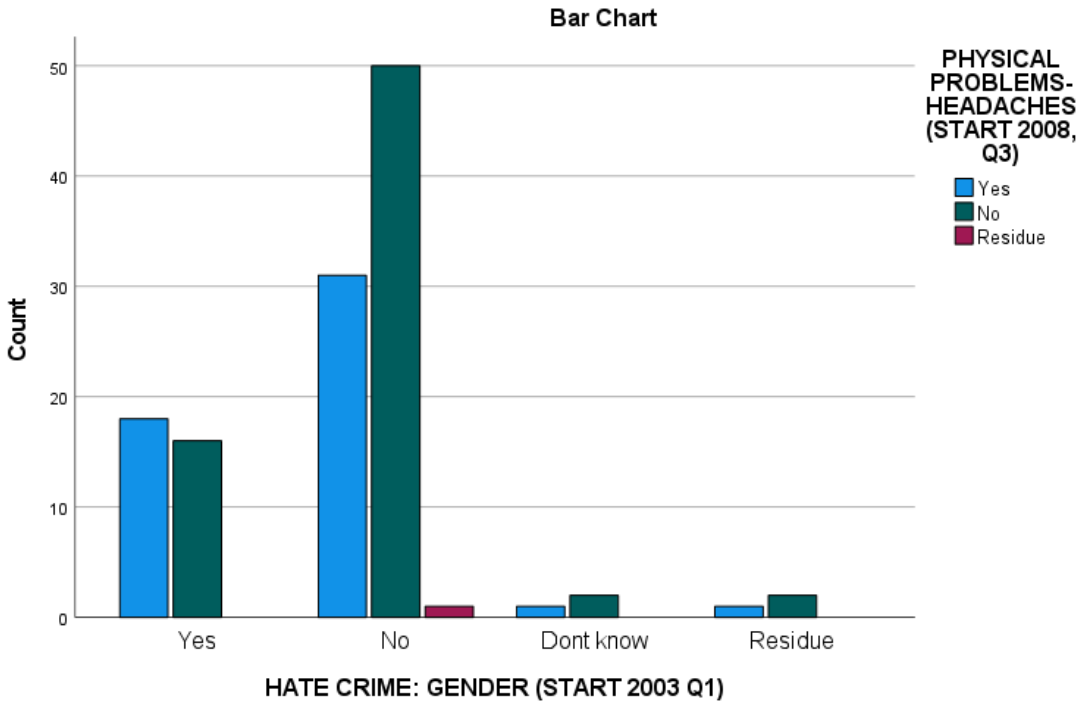


Table 31

Physical Problems: Trouble Sleeping and Gender

		Physical problems-Trouble sleeping			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Gender	Yes	22	12	0	34
	No	38	42	2	82
	Don't know	2	1	0	3
	Residue	2	1	0	3
Total		64	56	2	122

Figure 33

Physical Problems: Trouble Sleeping and Gender

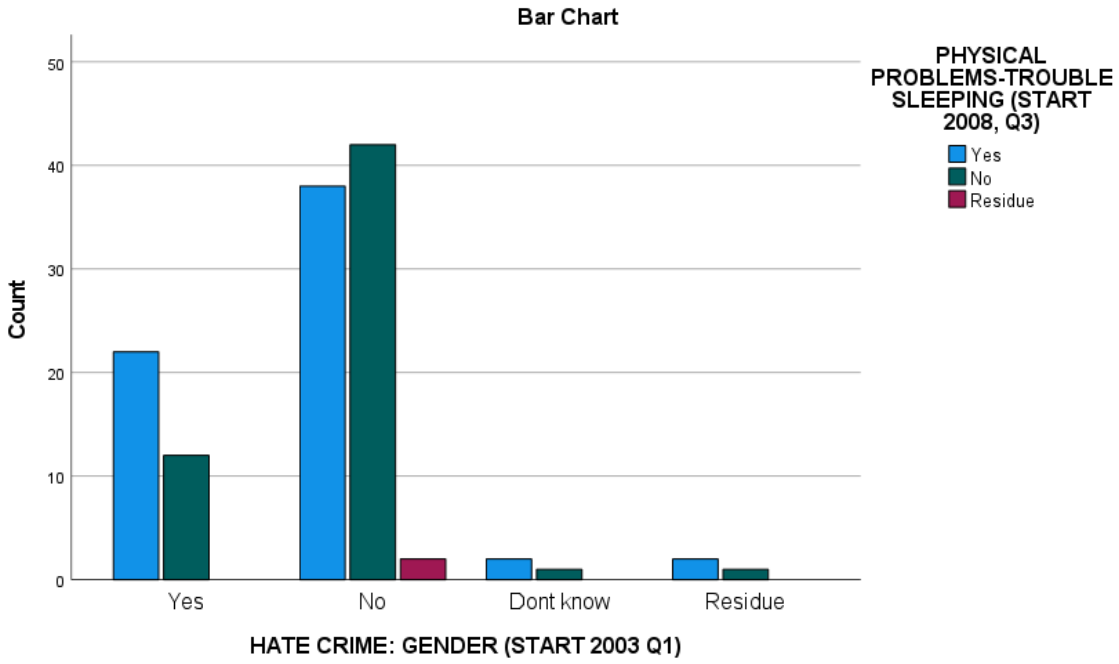


Table 32

Physical Problems: Changes in Eating/Drinking and Gender

		Physical problems-Changes in eating and drinking			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Gender	Yes	16	18	0	34
	No	24	56	2	82
	Don't know	0	3	0	3
	Residue	0	3	0	3
Total		40	80	2	122

Figure 34

Physical Problems: Changes in Eating/Drinking and Gender

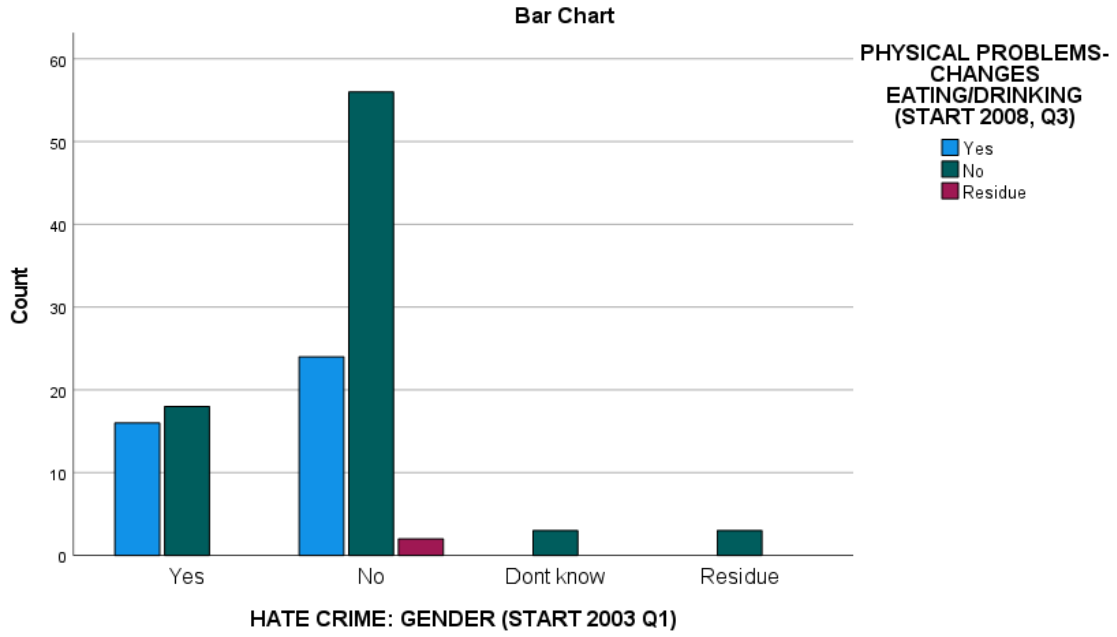


Table 33

Physical Problems: Upset Stomach and Gender

		Physical problems-Upset stomach			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Gender	Yes	16	18	0	34
	No	23	57	2	82
	Don't know	1	2	0	3
	Residue	0	3	0	3
Total		40	80	2	122

Figure 35

Physical Problems: Upset Stomach and Gender

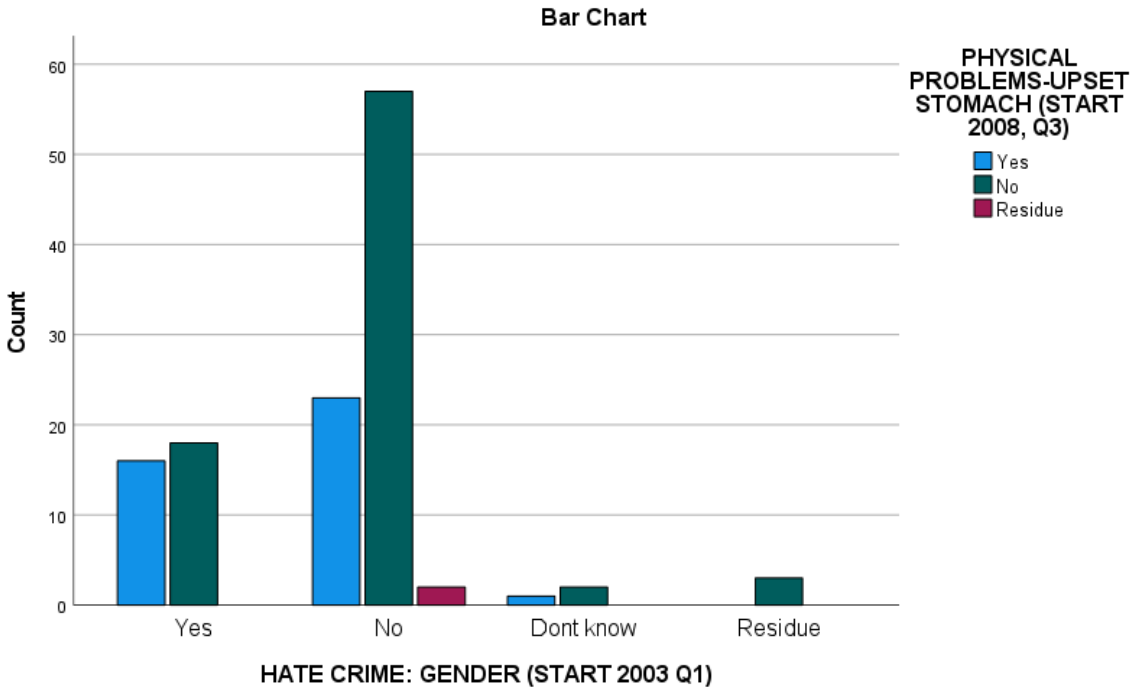


Table 34

Physical Problems: Fatigue and Gender

		Physical problems-Fatigue			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Gender	Yes	16	18	0	34
	No	29	51	2	82
	Don't know	1	2	0	3
	Residue	1	2	0	3
Total		47	73	2	122

Figure 36

Physical Problems: Fatigue and Gender

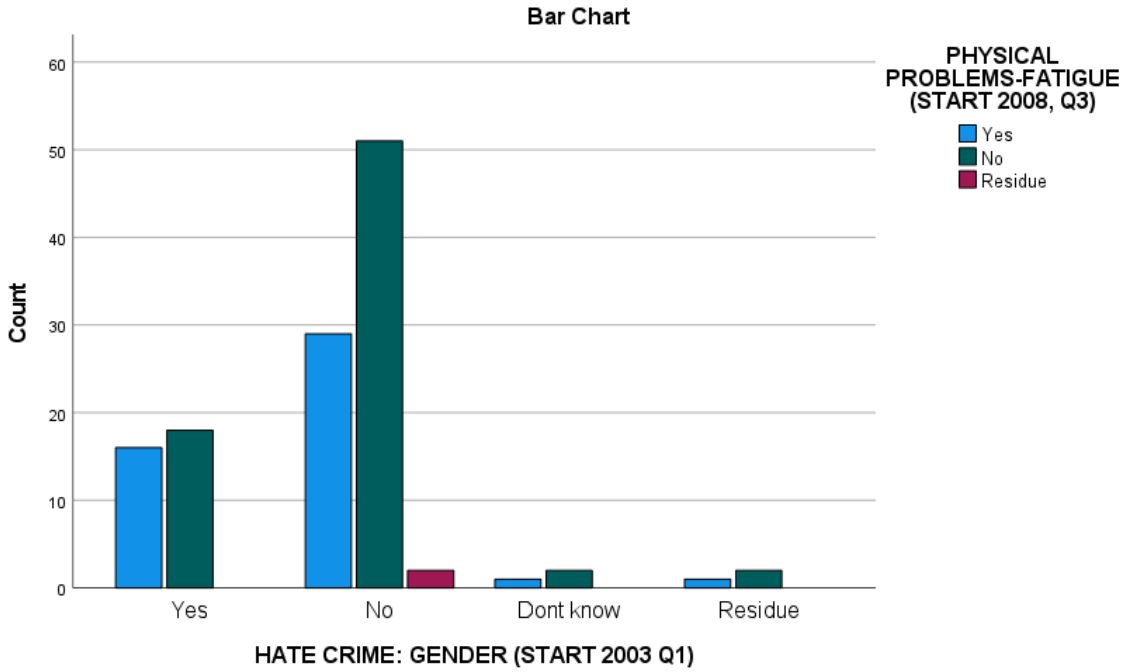


Table 35

Physical Problems: High Blood Pressure and Gender

		Physical problems-High blood pressure			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Gender	Yes	14	20	0	34
	No	18	60	4	82
	Don't know	0	3	0	3
	Residue	0	3	0	3
Total		32	86	4	122

Figure 37

Physical Problems: High Blood Pressure and Gender

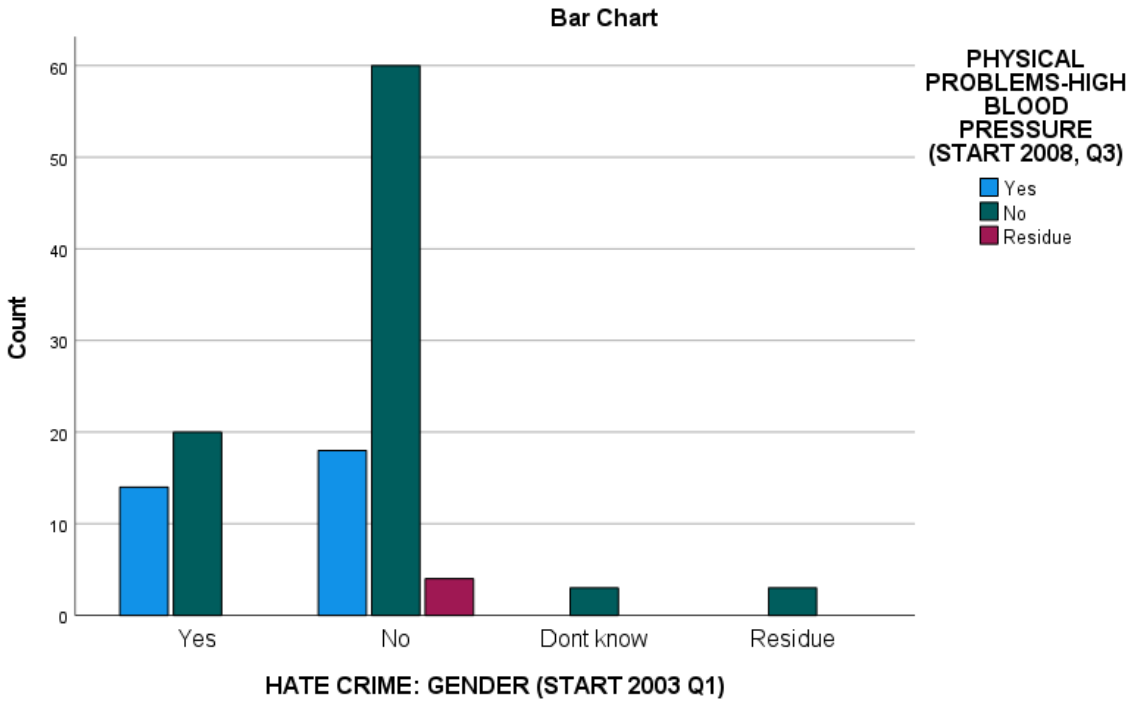


Table 36

Physical Problems: Muscle Tension and Gender

		Physical problems-Muscle tension			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Gender	Yes	19	15	0	34
	No	30	50	2	82
	Don't know	1	2	0	3
	Residue	1	2	0	3
Total		51	69	2	122

Figure 38

Physical Problems: Muscle Tension and Gender

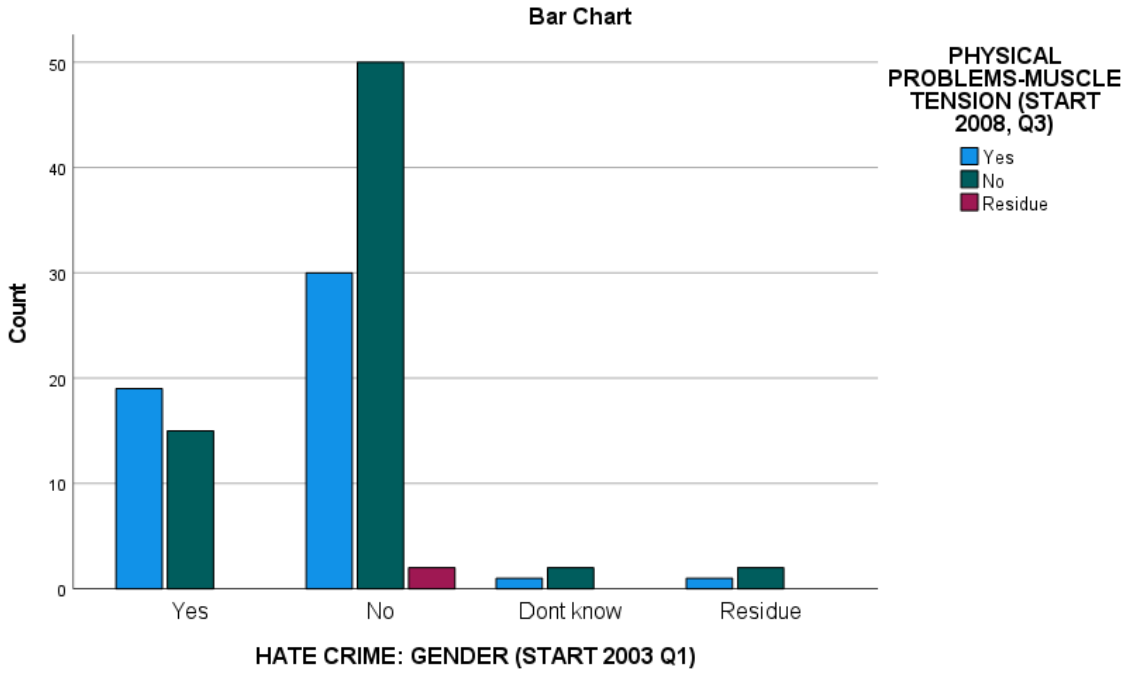


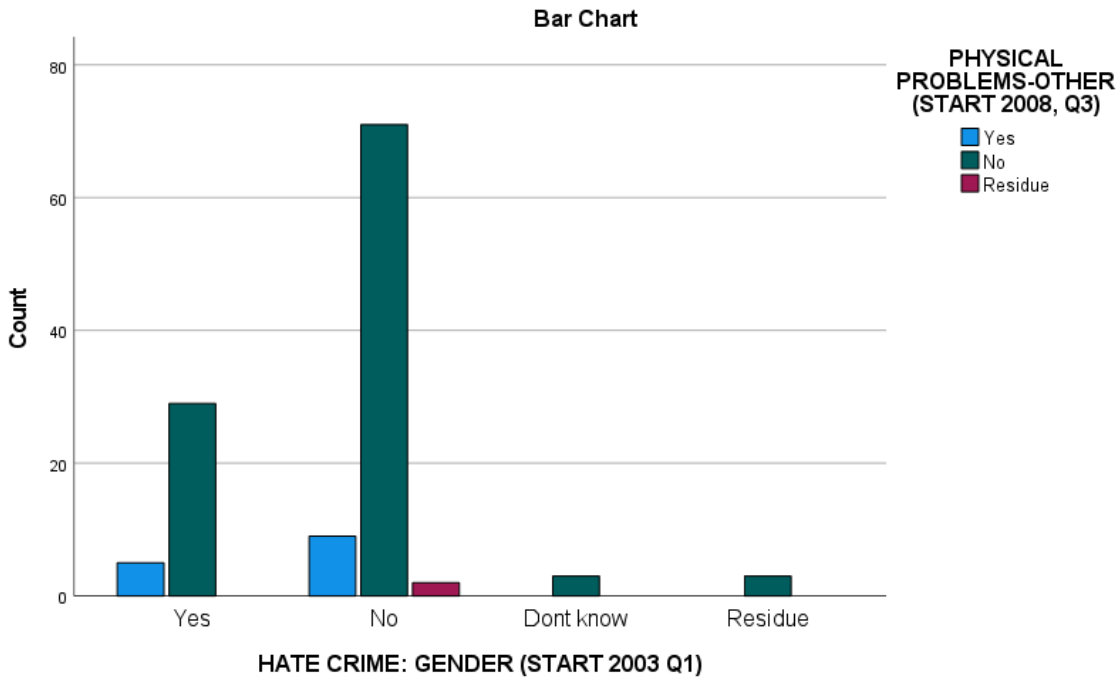
Table 37

Physical Problems: Other and Gender

		Physical problems-Other			
		Yes	No	Residue	Total
Hate crime: Gender	Yes	5	29	0	34
	No	9	71	2	82
	Don't know	0	3	0	3
	Residue	0	3	0	3
Total		14	106	2	122

Figure 39

Physical Problems: Other and Gender



Problems at School/Work, With Friends, and Professional Help

A crosstabulation was conducted to compare the victim's responses to the hate crime causing problems at school, work, or family and friends and whether the stress of being a victim prompted the participants to seek professional help: *N*=115 (see Tables 38-43 and Figures 40-45). Statistics show yes responses to "Was the hate crime related to race, ethnicity, or gender, and did the crime lead to problems at the job, schoolwork, boss, co-workers, or peers.?' The second question related to whether or not the participants sought professional help. The possible responses included yes, no, don't know and residue. The analysis focused on "yes" responses only. When comparing race, ethnicity and gender and whether the victim received professional help, victims who reported that the hate crime was related to gender reported the most cases in both problems at work/professional help (10), and problems with friends/family /professional help (10 responses, 8.68%). Race and ethnicity both reported 8 cases each.

Table 38

Problems at Job/School, Seek Professional Help, and Race

Seek professional help for feelings experienced as victim of crime			Victim of crime lead to problems at job, schoolwork, boss, coworkers, or peers		
			Yes	No	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Race	Yes	7	1	8
		No	11	3	14
	Total		18	4	22
No	Hate crime: Race	Yes	12	34	46
		No	12	30	42
		Don’t know	0	2	2
		Residue	1	2	3
	Total		25	68	93
Total	Hate crime: Race	Yes	19	35	54
		No	23	33	56
		Don’t know	0	2	2
		Residue	1	2	3
	Total		43	72	115

Figure 40

Problems at Job/School, Seek Professional Help, and Race

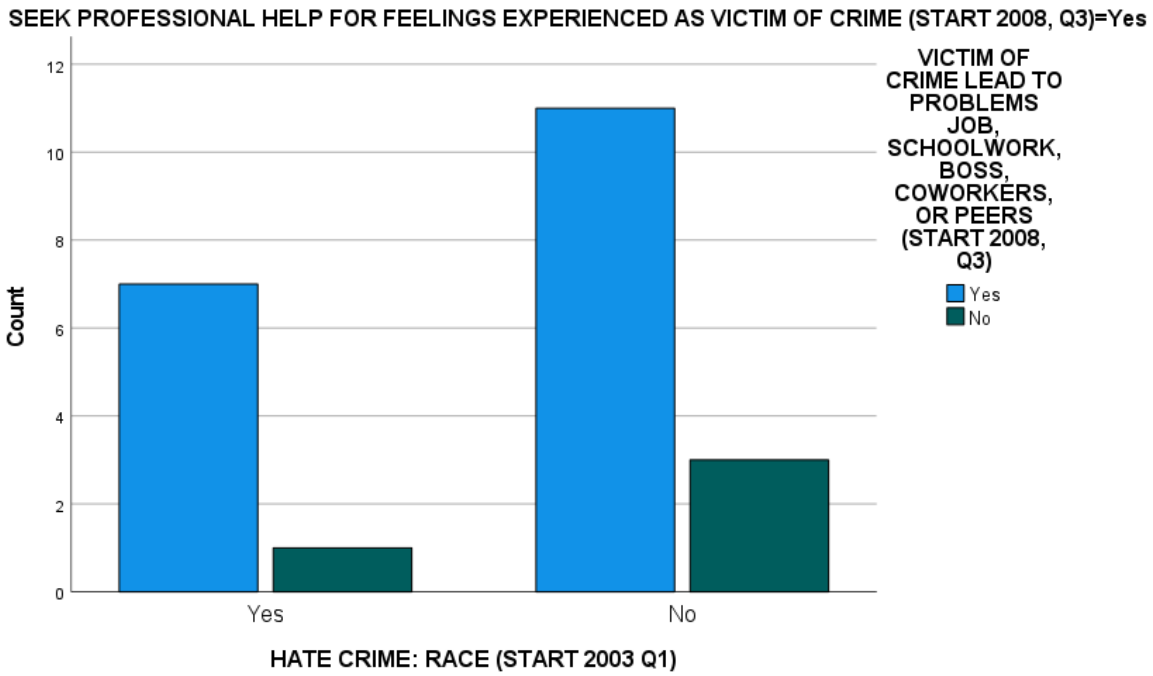


Table 39

Problems with Family/Friends, Seek Professional Help, and Race

Seek professional help for feelings experienced as victim of crime			Victim of crime lead to problems with family members or friends			
			Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Race	Yes	5	1	2	8
		No	10	4	0	14
	Total		15	5	2	22
No	Hate crime: Race	Yes	2	44		46
		No	13	29		42
		Don't know	1	1		2
		Residue	2	1		3
	Total		18	75		93
Total	Hate crime: Race	Yes	7	45	2	54
		No	23	33	0	56
		Don't know	1	1	0	2
		Residue	2	1	0	3
	Total		33	80	2	115

Figure 41

Problems with Family/Friends, Seek Professional Help, and Race

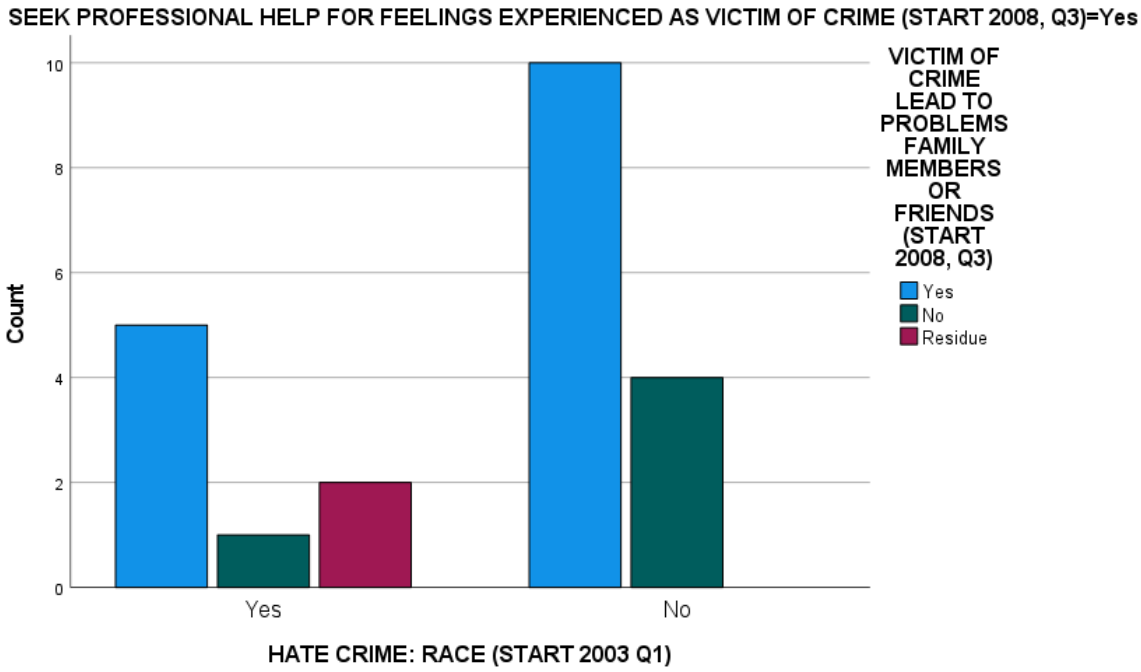


Table 40

Problems at Job/School, Seek Professional Help, and Ethnicity

Seek professional help for feelings experienced as victim of crime			Victim of crime lead to problems at job, schoolwork, boss coworkers, or peers: Yes	No	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	8	0	8
		No	10	4	14
	Total		18	4	22
No	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	7	20	27
		No	17	45	62
		Don't know	0	1	1
		Residue	1	2	3
	Total		25	68	93
Total	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	15	20	35
		No	27	49	76
		Don't know	0	1	1
		Residue	1	2	3
	Total		43	72	115

Figure 42

Problems at Job/School, Seek Professional Help, and Ethnicity

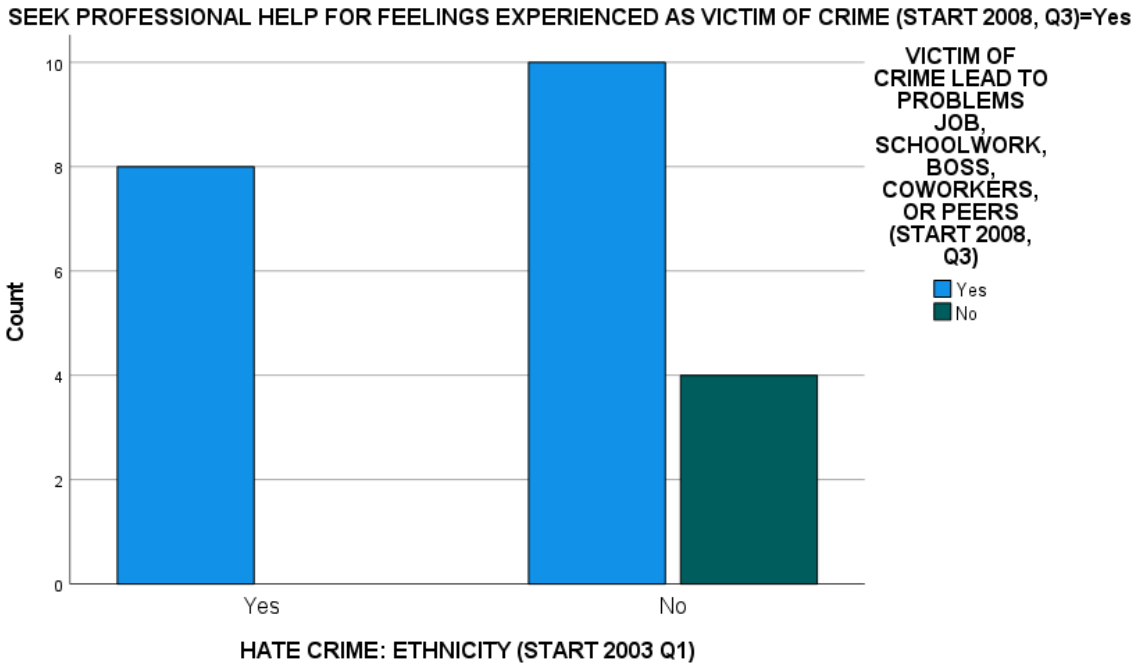


Table 41

Problems with Family/Friends, Seek Professional Help, and Ethnicity

Seek professional help for feelings experienced as victim of crime			Victim of crime lead to problems with family members or friends			
			Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	5	1	2	8
		No	10	4	0	14
	Total		15	5	2	22
No	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	4	23		27
		No	11	51		62
		Don’t know	1	0		1
		Residue	2	1		3
	Total		18	75		93
Total	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	9	24	2	35
		No	21	55	0	76
		Don’t know	1	0	0	1
		Residue	2	1	0	3
	Total		33	80	2	115

Figure 43

Problems with Family/Friends, Seek Professional Help, and Ethnicity

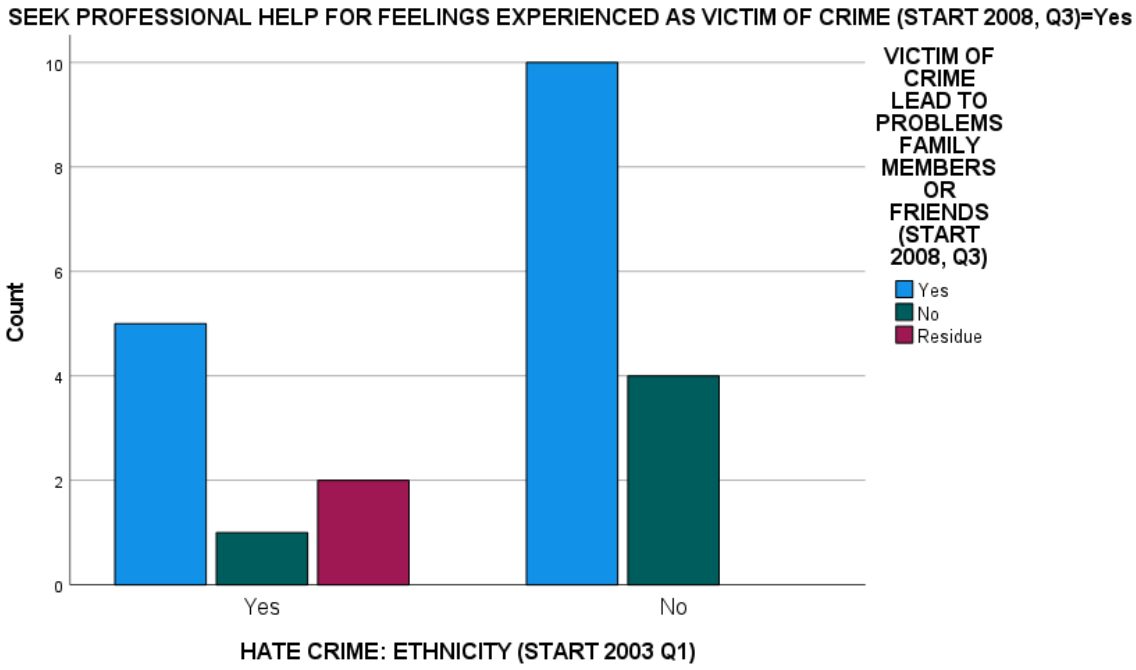


Table 42

Problems at Job/School, Seek Professional Help and Gender

Seek professional help for feelings experienced as victim of crime			Victim of crime lead to problems at job, schoolwork, boss, coworkers, or peers: Yes	No	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	7	3	10
		No	11	1	12
	Total		18	4	22
No	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	10	13	23
		No	14	50	64
		Don't know	0	3	3
		Residue	1	2	3
	Total		25	68	93
Total	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	17	16	33
		No	25	51	76
		Don't know	0	3	3
		Residue	1	2	3
	Total		43	72	115

Figure 44

Problems at Job/School, Seek Professional Help, and Gender

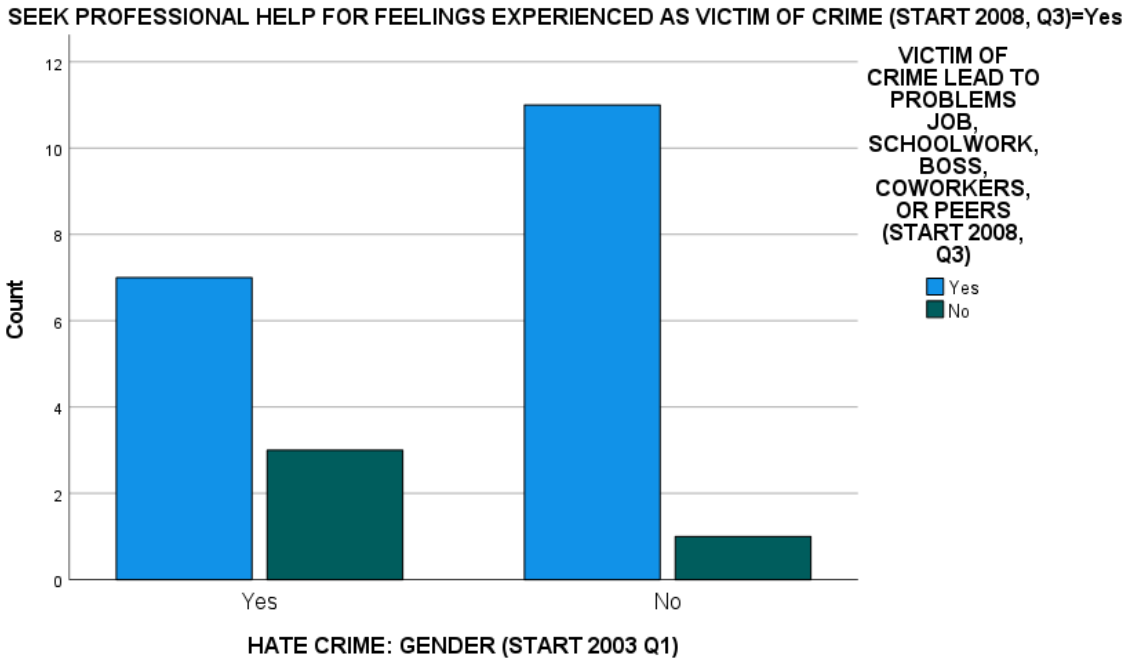


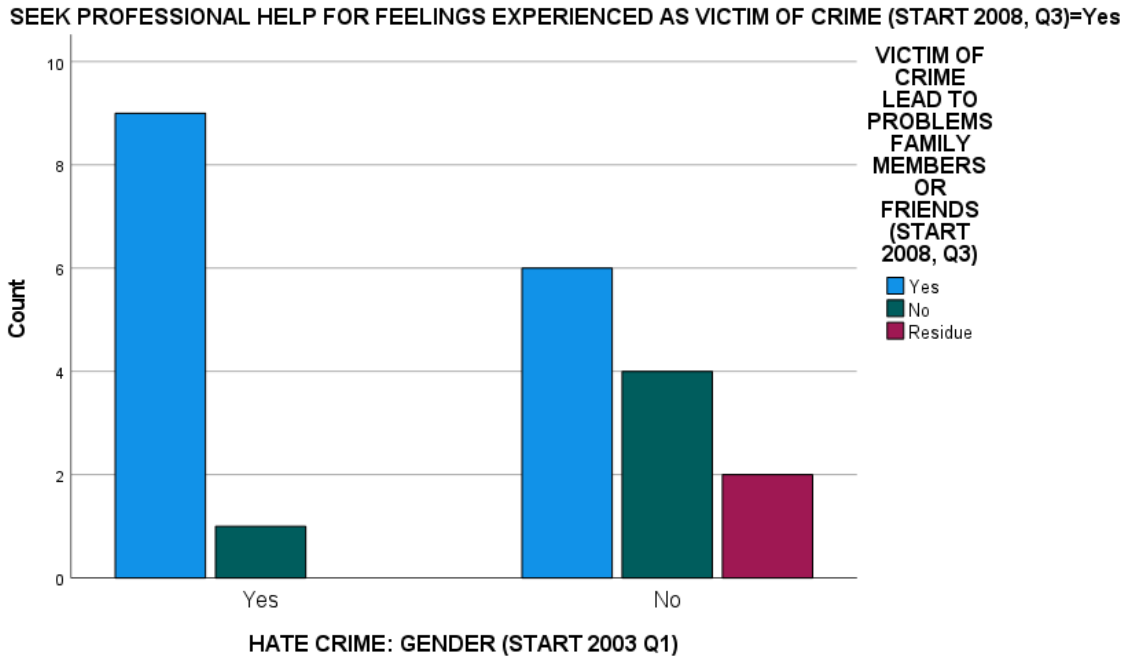
Table 43

Problems with Family/Friends, Seek Professional Help, and Gender

Seek professional help for feelings experienced as victim of crime			Victim of crime lead to problems with family members of friends			
			Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	9	1	0	10
		No	6	4	2	12
	Total		15	5	2	22
No	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	6	17		23
		No	10	54		64
		Don’t know	0	3		3
		Residue	2	1		3
	Total		18	75		93
Total	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	15	18	0	33
		No	16	58	2	76
		Don’t know	0	3	0	3
		Residue	2	1	0	3
	Total		33	80	2	115

Figure 45

Problems with Family/Friends, Seek Professional Help, and Gender



Injuries Suffered and Psychological Impact

Participants were asked if they felt worried/anxious, angry, sad/depressed, vulnerable, violated, mistrust, unsafe, and "other" as a result of being a victim of a hate crime which was related to race (see Tables 44-51 and Figures 46-53), ethnicity (see Tables 52-59 and Figures 54-61), or gender (see Tables 60-67 and Figures 62-69). The crosstabulation consisted of 55 valid cases. Participants who responded with race as being the motive for the hate crime and who suffered injuries felt worried/anxious (15, 27.27%), angry (15 or 27.27%), sad/depressed (12 or 13%), violated (16 or 29.09 %), mistrust (14 or 25.45%), unsafe (15 or 27.27%), and "other" (7 or 12.72%).

Individuals who responded with gender as being the motive for the hate crime ranked second over ethnicity in being worried/anxious (12 cases or 21.81%), anger (10 or 18.18%), violated (9 or 16.36%) and mistrust (11 or 20.00%). Race and ethnicity both reported 10 cases (18.18%) for feeling sad/depressed, and 15 cases each for feeling unsafe. Individuals who reported gender as the motive for the hate crime and responded as “other” reported 5 incidents. Overall, ethnicity had the fewest reported cases.

Table 44

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Worried/Anxious, and Race

			Injuries suffered	
Did you feel worried or anxious			At least 1 entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Race	Yes	15	15
		No	26	26
		Don't know	1	1
		Residue	2	2
	Total		44	44
No	Hate crime: Race	Yes	3	3
		No	6	6
		Residue	1	1
	Total		10	10
Residue	Hate crime: Race	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	Hate crime: Race	Yes	18	18
		No	33	33
		Don't know	1	1
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 46

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Worried/Anxious, and Race

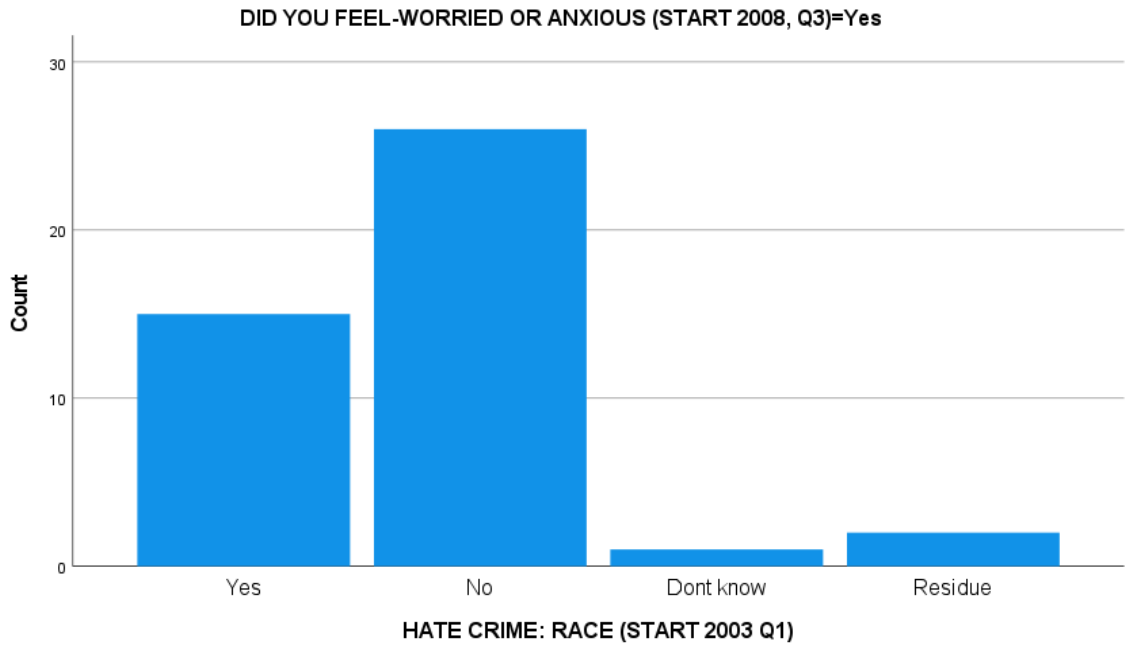


Table 45

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Angry, and Race

			Injuries Suffered	
Did you feel angry			At least 1 entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Race	Yes	15	15
		No	25	25
		Residue	2	2
	Total		42	42
No	Hate crime: Race	Yes	3	3
		No	7	7
		Don’t know	1	1
		Residue	1	1
	Total		12	12
Residue	Hate crime: Race	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	Hate crime: Race	Yes	18	18
		No	33	33
		Don’t know	1	1
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 47

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Angry, and Race

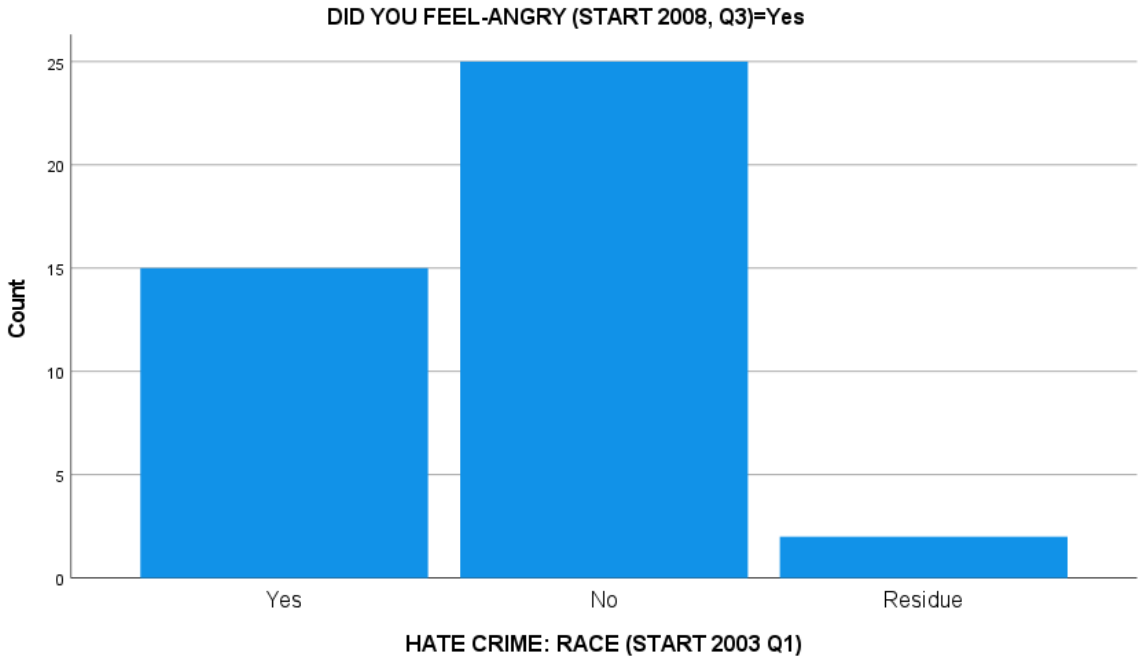


Table 46

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Sad/Depressed, and Race

			Injuries suffered	
Did you feel sad or depressed			At least I entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Race	Yes	12	12
		No	20	20
		Residue	2	2
	Total		34	34
No	Hate crime: Race	Yes	6	6
		No	12	12
		Don’t know	1	1
		Residue	1	1
	Total		20	20
Residue	Hate crime: Race	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	HATE CRIME: RACE (START 2003 Q1)	Yes	18	18
		No	33	33
		Don’t know	1	1
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 48

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Sad/Depressed, and Race

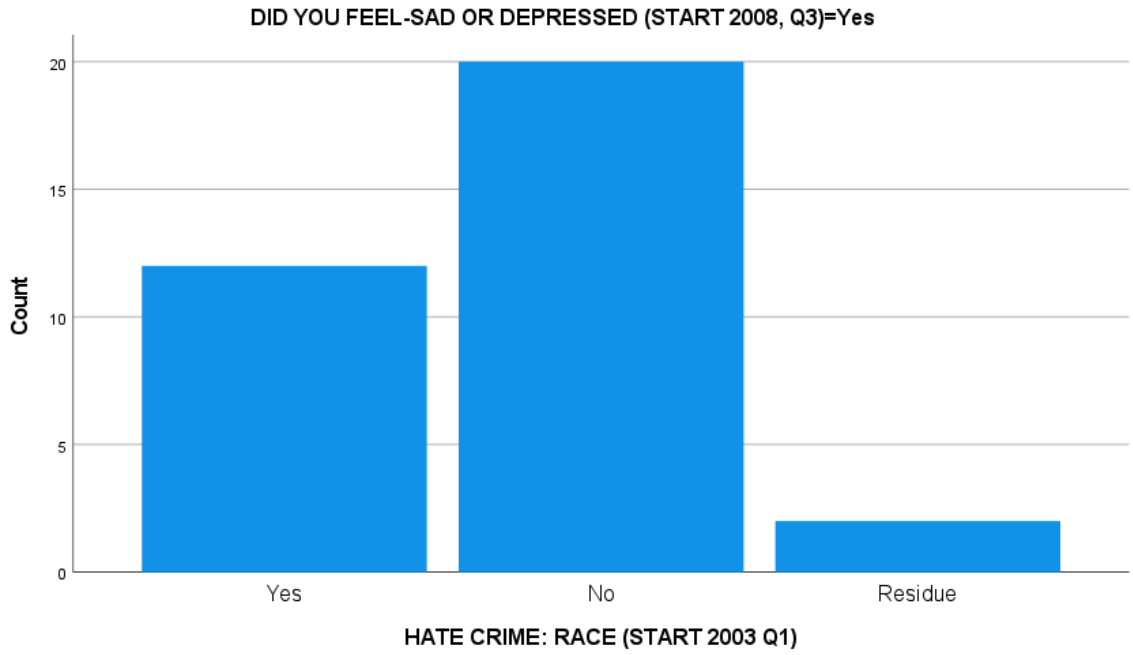


Table 47

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Vulnerable, and Race

Did you feel vulnerable			Injuries suffered: At least 1 entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Race	Yes	13	13
		No	24	24
		Don’t know	1	1
		Residue	3	3
	Total		41	41
No	Hate crime: Race	Yes	5	5
		No	8	8
	Total		13	13
Residue	Hate crime: Race	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	Hate crime: Race	Yes	18	18
		No	33	33
		Don’t know	1	1
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 49

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Vulnerable, and Race

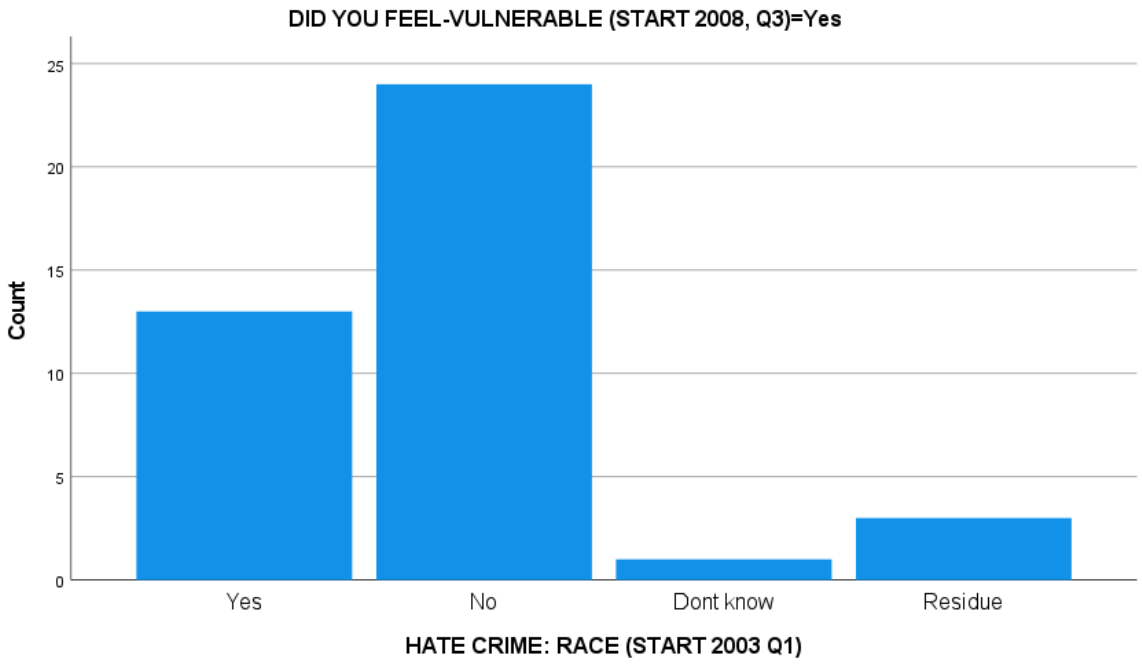


Table 48

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Violated, and Race

Did you feel violated			Injuries suffered: At least 1 entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Race	Yes	16	16
		No	22	22
		Residue	2	2
	Total		40	40
No	Hate crime: Race	Yes	2	2
		No	10	10
		Don’t know	1	1
		Residue	1	1
	Total		14	14
Residue	Hate crime: Race	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	Hate crime: Race	Yes	18	18
		No	33	33
		Don’t know	1	1
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 50

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Violated, and Race

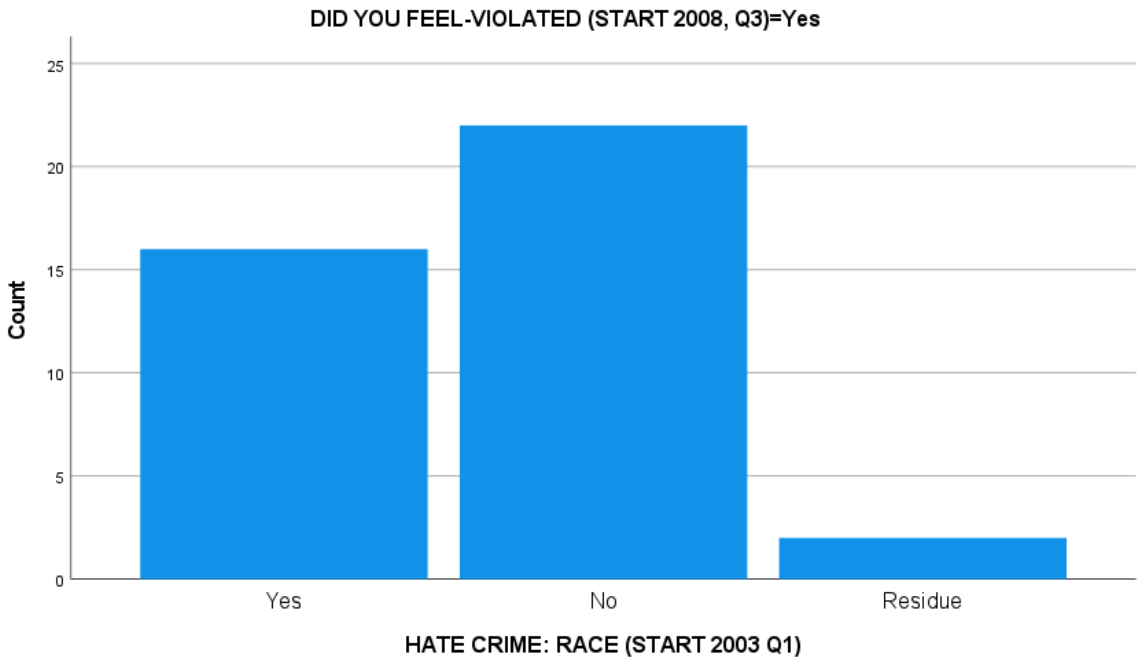


Table 49

Injuries Suffered, Feelings of Mistrust, and Race

			Injuries suffered	
Did you feel mistrust			At least 1 entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Race	Yes	14	14
		No	20	20
		Don't know	1	1
		Residue	2	2
	Total		37	37
No	Hate crime: Race	Yes	4	4
		No	12	12
		Residue	1	1
	Total		17	17
Residue	Hate crime: Race	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	Hate crime: Race	Yes	18	18
		No	33	33
		Don't know	1	1
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 51

Injuries Suffered, Feelings of Mistrust, and Race

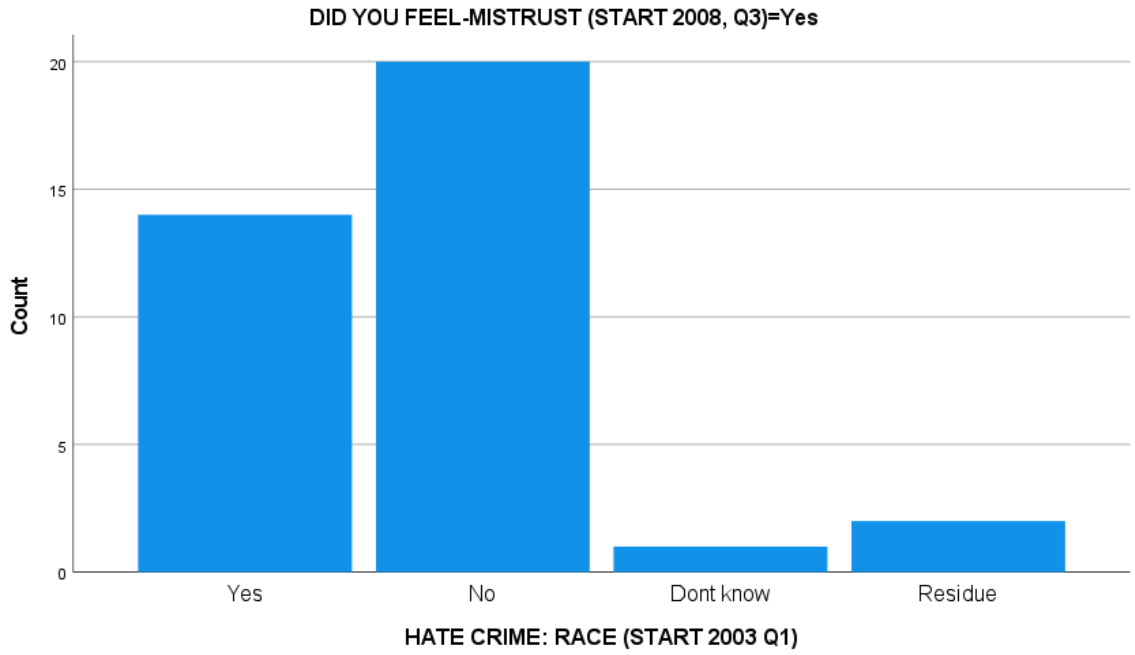


Table 50

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Unsafe, and Race

Did you feel unsafe			Injuries suffered: At least 1 entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Race	Yes	15	15
		No	25	25
		Don't know	1	1
		Residue	3	3
	Total		44	44
No	Hate crime: Race	Yes	3	3
		No	7	7
	Total		10	10
Residue	Hate crime: Race	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	Hate crime: Race	Yes	18	18
		No	33	33
		Don't know	1	1
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 52

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Unsafe, and Race

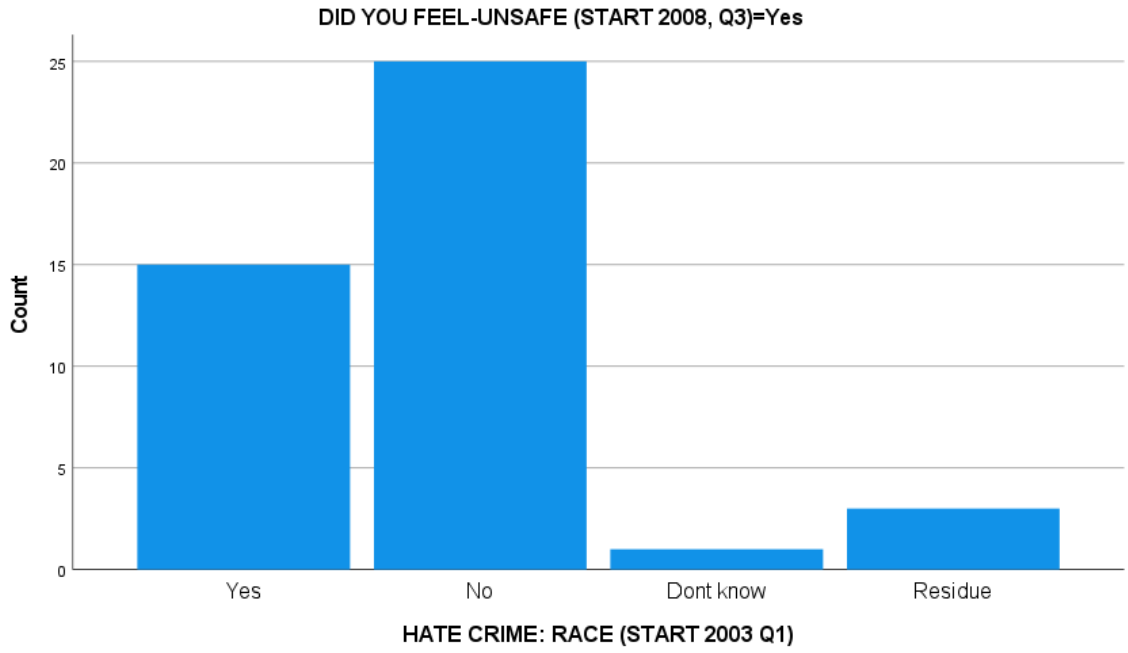


Table 51

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Other, and Race

Did you feel-Other			Injuries suffered: At least 1 entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Race	Yes	7	7
		No	5	5
	Total		12	12
No	Hate crime: Race	Yes	11	11
		No	27	27
		Don’t know	1	1
		Residue	3	3
	Total		42	42
Residue	Hate crime: Race	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	Hate crime: Race	Yes	18	18
		No	33	33
		Don’t know	1	1
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 53

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Other, and Race

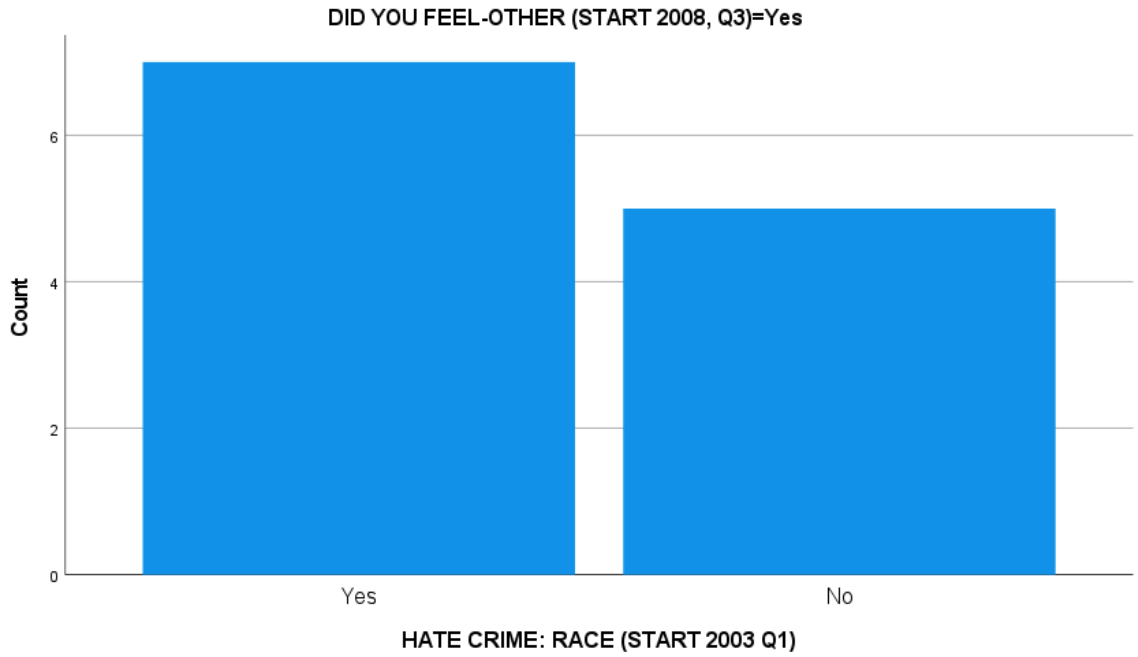


Table 52

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Worried/Anxious, and Ethnicity

Did you feel worried or anxious			Injuries suffered: At least 1 entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	12	12
		No	30	30
		Residue	2	2
	Total		44	44
No	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	2	2
		No	7	7
		Residue	1	1
	Total		10	10
Residue	Hate crime: Ethnicity	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	14	14
		No	38	38
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 54

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Worried/Anxious, and Ethnicity

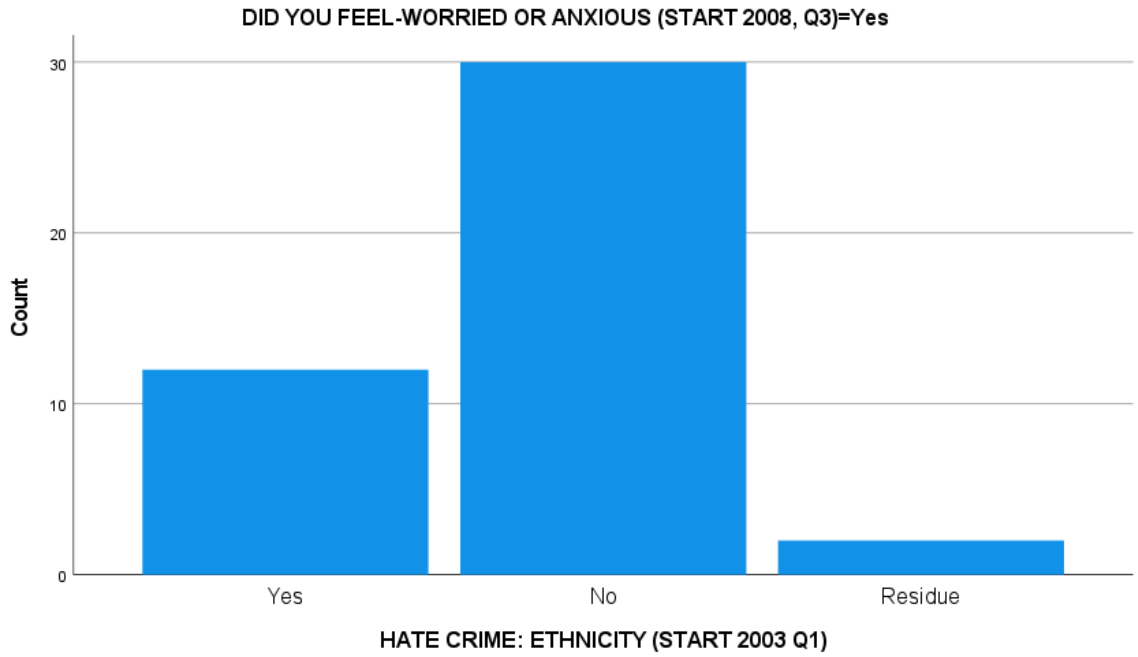


Table 53

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Angry, and Ethnicity

Did you feel angry			Injuries suffered: At least 1 entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	10	10
		No	30	30
		Residue	2	2
	Total		42	42
No	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	4	4
		No	7	7
		Residue	1	1
	Total		12	12
Residue	Hate crime: Ethnicity	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	14	14
		No	38	38
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 55

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Angry, and Ethnicity

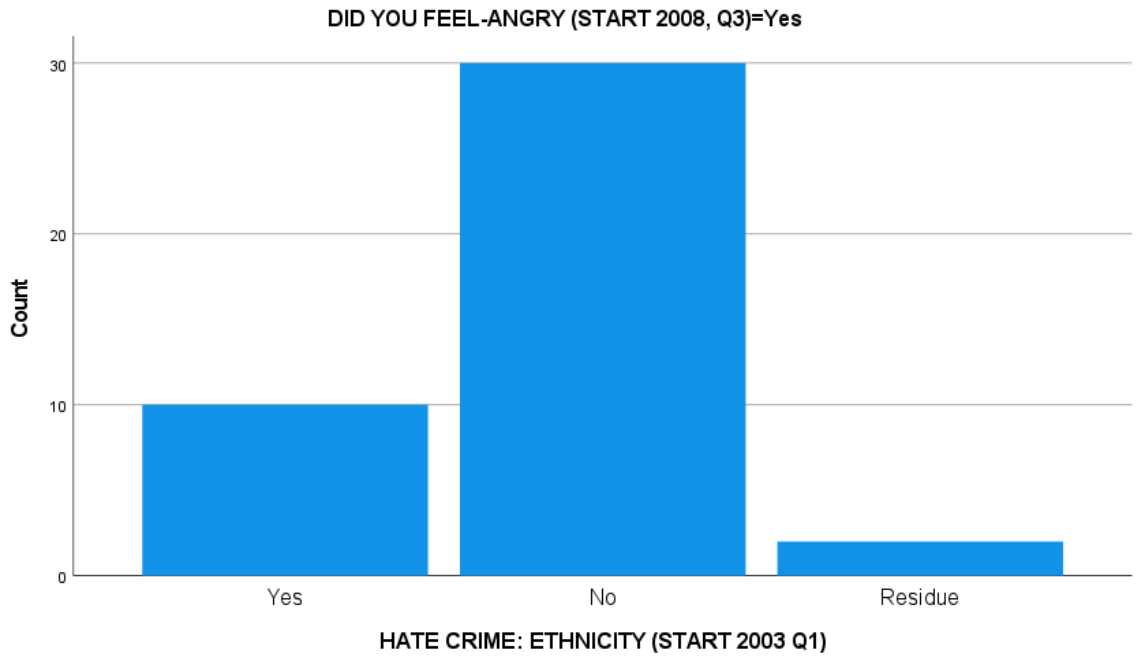


Table 54

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Sad/Depressed, and Ethnicity

Did you feel sad or depressed			Injuries suffered: At least 1 entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	10	10
		No	22	22
		Residue	2	2
	Total		34	34
No	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	4	4
		No	15	15
		Residue	1	1
	Total		20	20
Residue	Hate crime: Ethnicity	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	14	14
		No	38	38
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 56

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Sad/Depressed, and Ethnicity

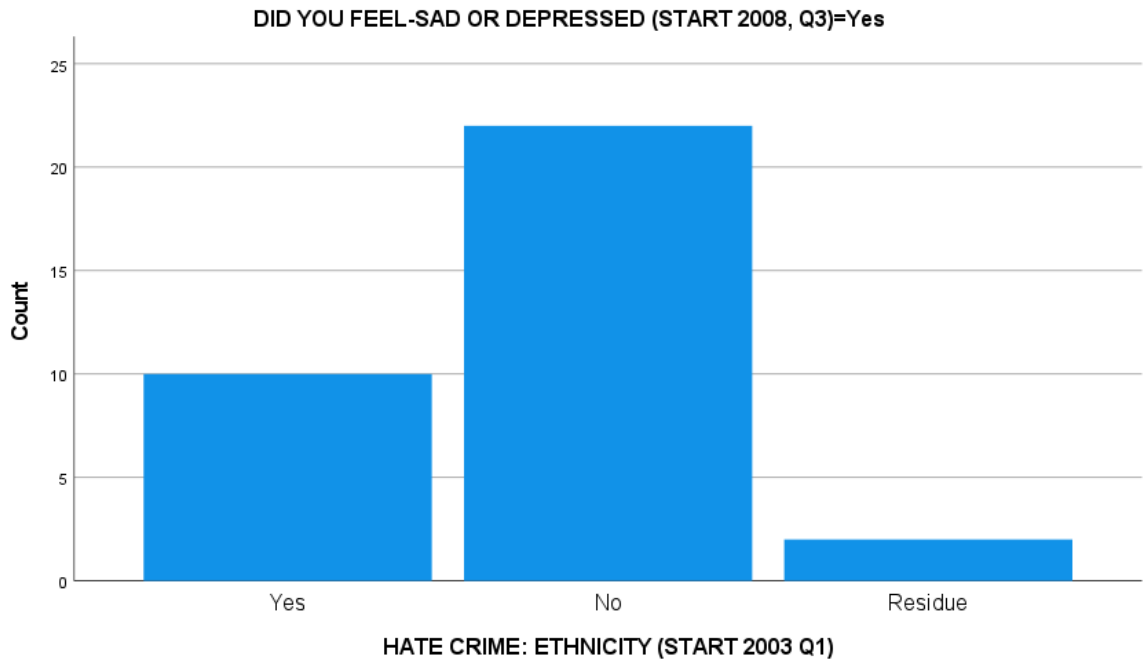


Table 55

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Vulnerable, and Ethnicity

			Injuries suffered	
Did you feel vulnerable			At least 1 entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	12	12
		No	26	26
		Residue	3	3
	Total		41	41
No	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	2	2
		No	11	11
	Total		13	13
Residue	Hate crime: Ethnicity	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	14	14
		No	38	38
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 57

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Vulnerable, and Ethnicity

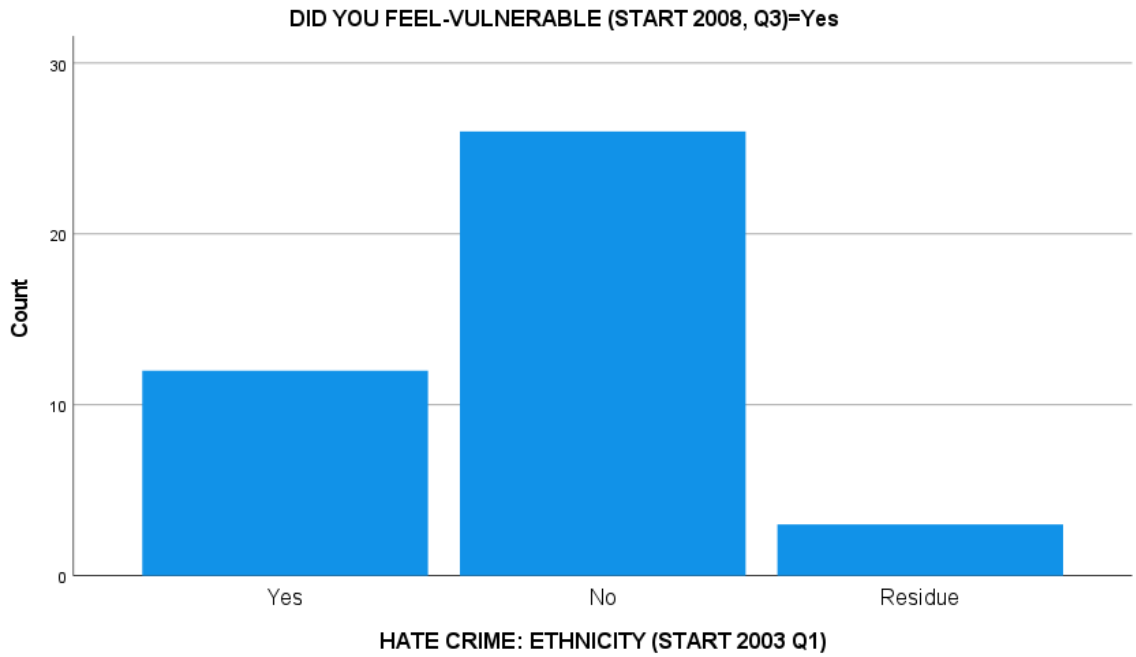


Table 56

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Violated, and Ethnicity

			Injuries suffered	
Did you feel violated			At least 1 entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	9	9
		No	29	29
		Residue	2	2
	Total		40	40
No	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	5	5
		No	8	8
		Residue	1	1
	Total		14	14
Residue	Hate crime: Ethnicity	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	14	14
		No	38	38
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 58

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Violated, and Ethnicity

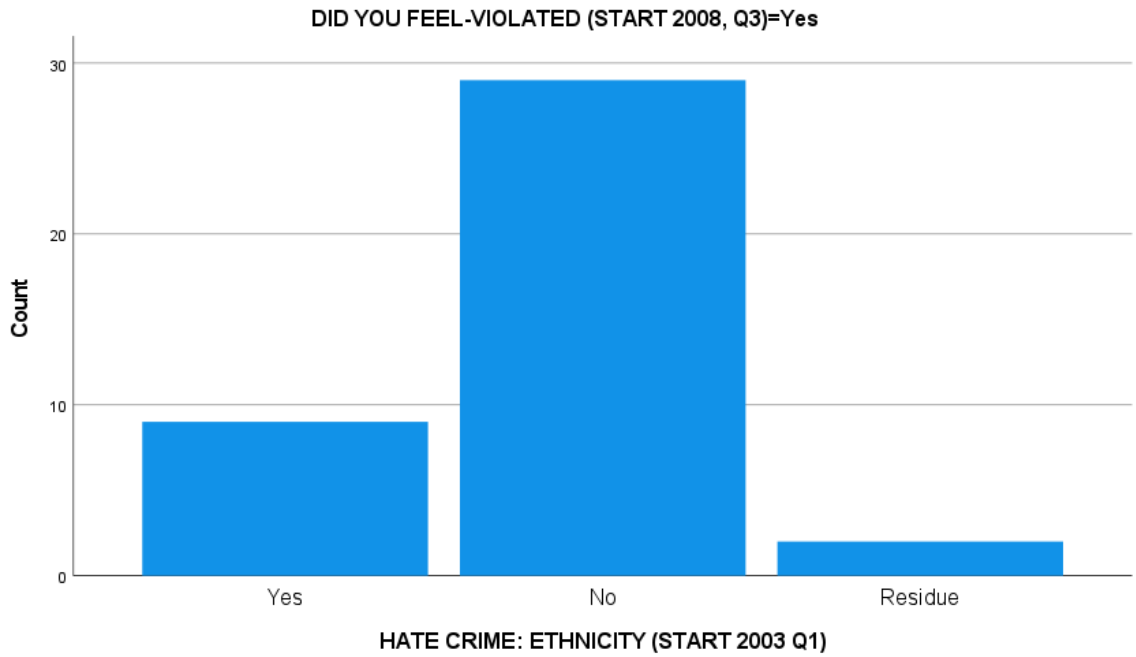


Table 57

Injuries Suffered, Feelings of Mistrust, and Ethnicity

			Injuries suffered	
Did you feel mistrust			At least 1 entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	11	11
		No	24	24
		Residue	2	2
	Total		37	37
No	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	3	3
		No	13	13
		Residue	1	1
	Total		17	17
Residue	Hate crime: Ethnicity	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	14	14
		No	38	38
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 59

Injuries Suffered, Feelings of Mistrust, and Ethnicity

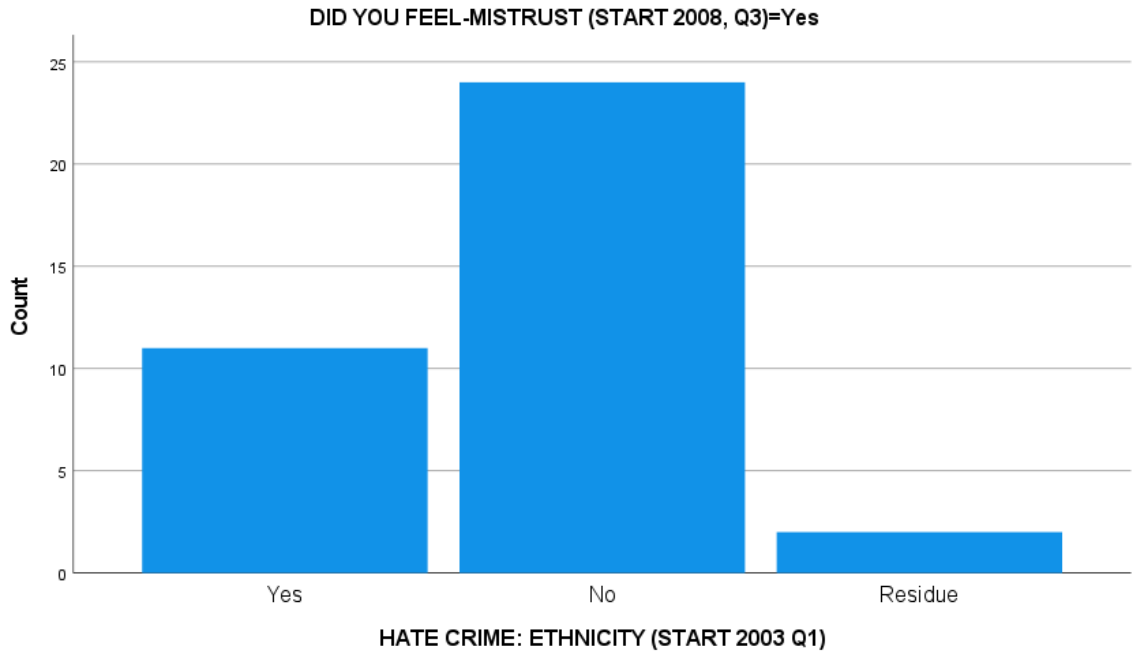


Table 58

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Unsafe, and Ethnicity

			Injuries suffered	
Did you feel unsafe			At least 1 entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	12	12
		No	29	29
		Residue	3	3
	Total		44	44
No	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	2	2
		No	8	8
	Total		10	10
Residue	Hate crime: Ethnicity	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	14	14
		No	38	38
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 60

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Unsafe, and Ethnicity

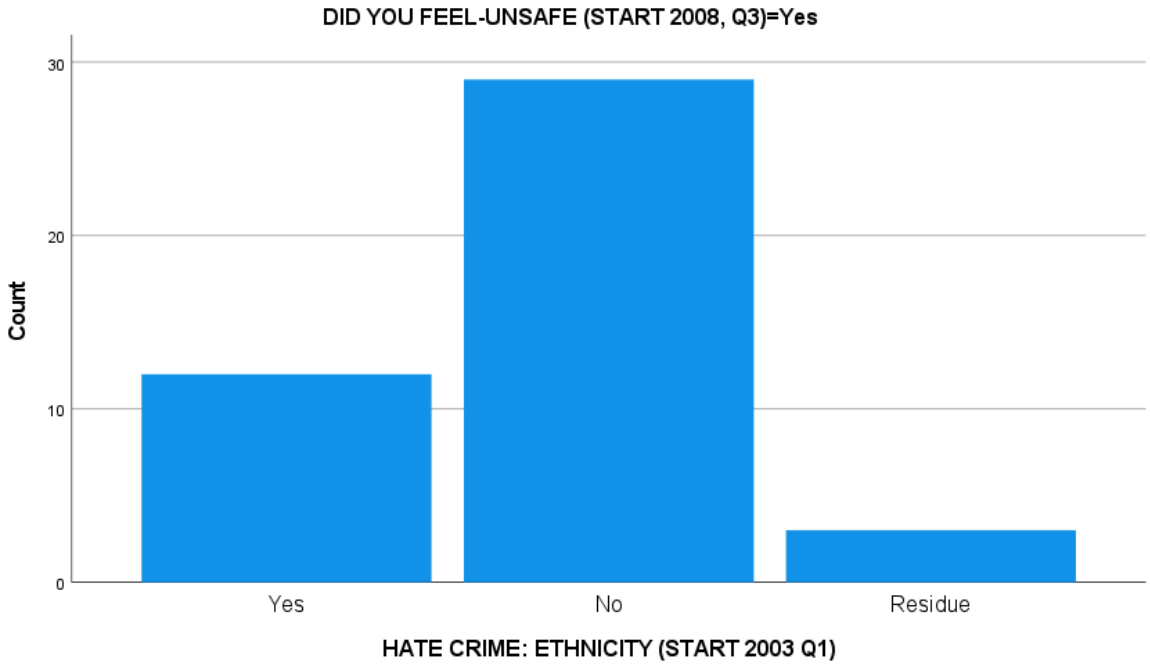


Table 59

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Other, and Ethnicity

Did you feel-Other			Injuries suffered: At least 1 entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	4	4
		No	8	8
	Total		12	12
No	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	10	10
		No	29	29
		Residue	3	3
	Total		42	42
Residue	Hate crime: Ethnicity	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	14	14
		No	38	38
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 61

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Other, and Ethnicity

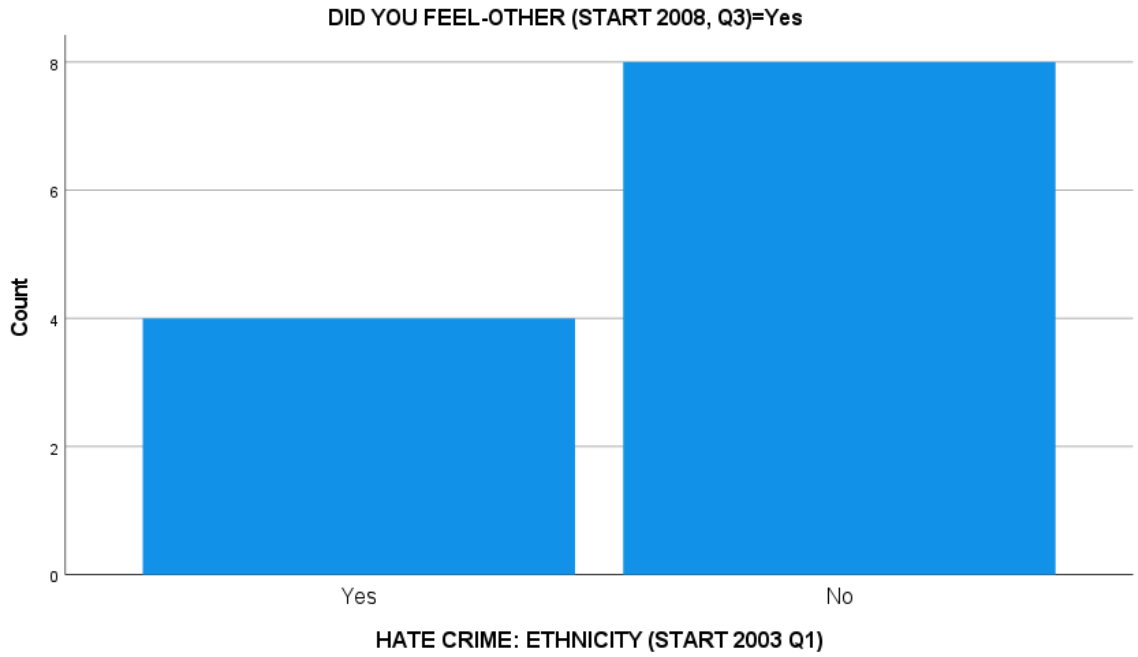


Table 60

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Worried/Anxious, and Gender

Did you feel worried or anxious			Injuries suffered: At least 1 entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	14	14
		No	28	28
		Residue	2	2
	Total		44	44
No	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	4	4
		No	5	5
		Residue	1	1
	Total		10	10
Residue	Hate crime: Gender	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	18	18
		No	34	34
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 62

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Worried/Anxious, and Gender

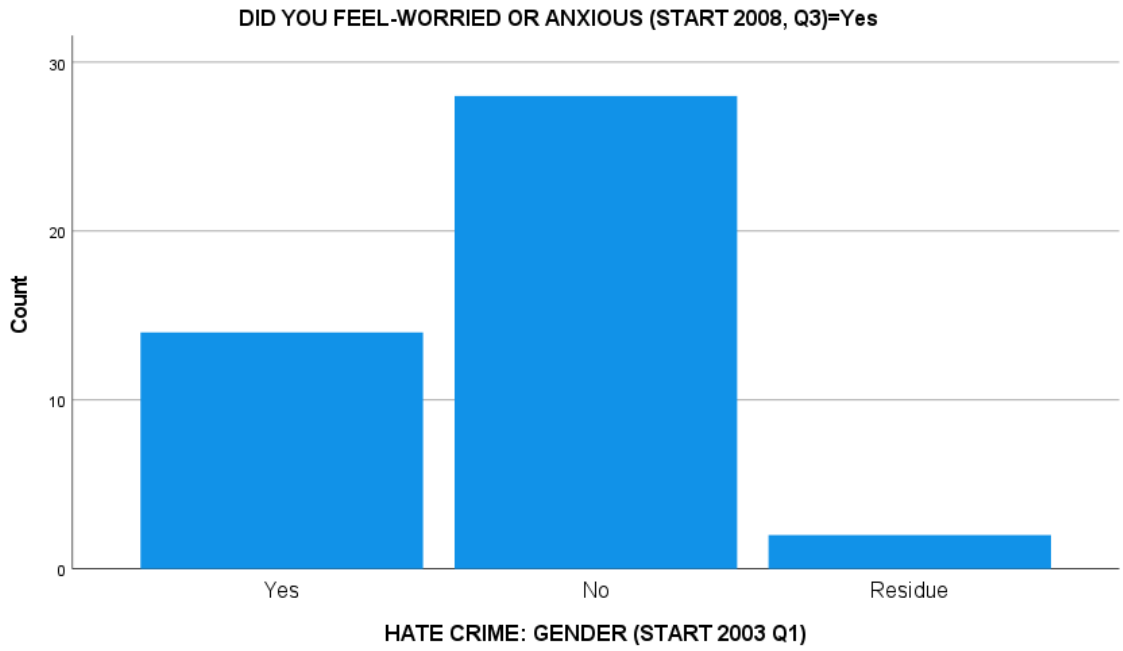


Table 61

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Angry, and Gender

			Injuries suffered	
Did you feel angry			At least 1 entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	14	14
		No	26	26
		Residue	2	2
	Total		42	42
No	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	4	4
		No	7	7
		Residue	1	1
	Total		12	12
Residue	Hate crime: Gender	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	18	18
		No	34	34
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 63

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Angry, and Gender

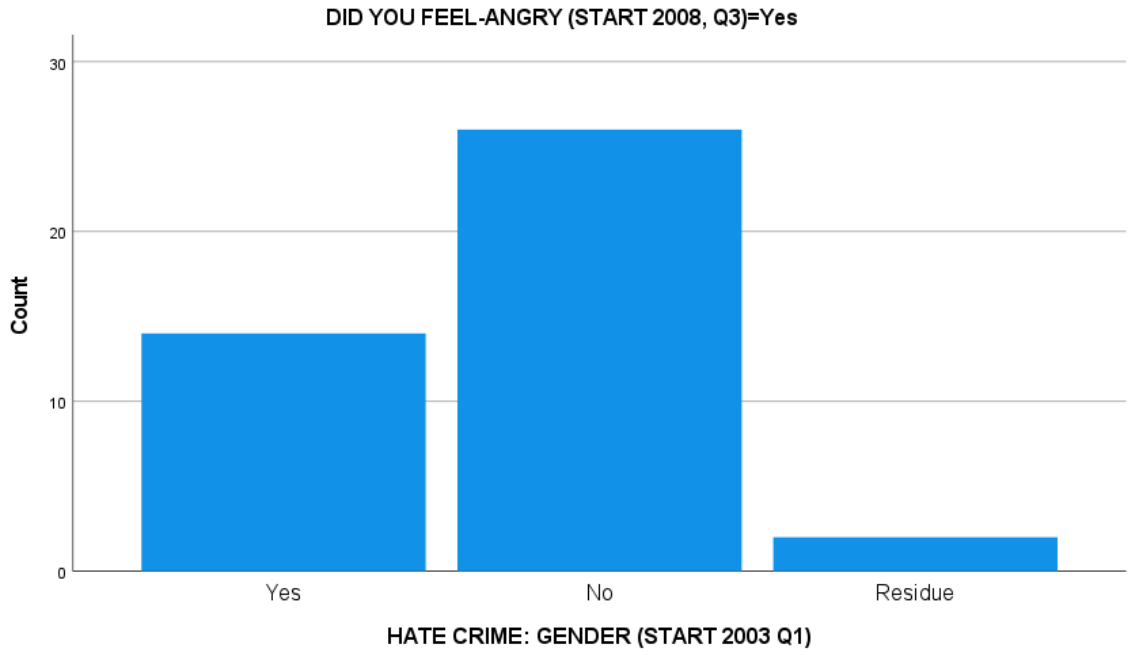


Table 62

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Sad/Depressed, and Gender

			Injuries suffered	
Did you feel sad or depressed			At least 1 entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	10	10
		No	22	22
		Residue	2	2
	Total		34	34
No	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	8	8
		No	11	11
		Residue	1	1
	Total		20	20
Residue	Hate crime: Gender	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	18	18
		No	34	34
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 64

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Sad/Depressed, and Gender

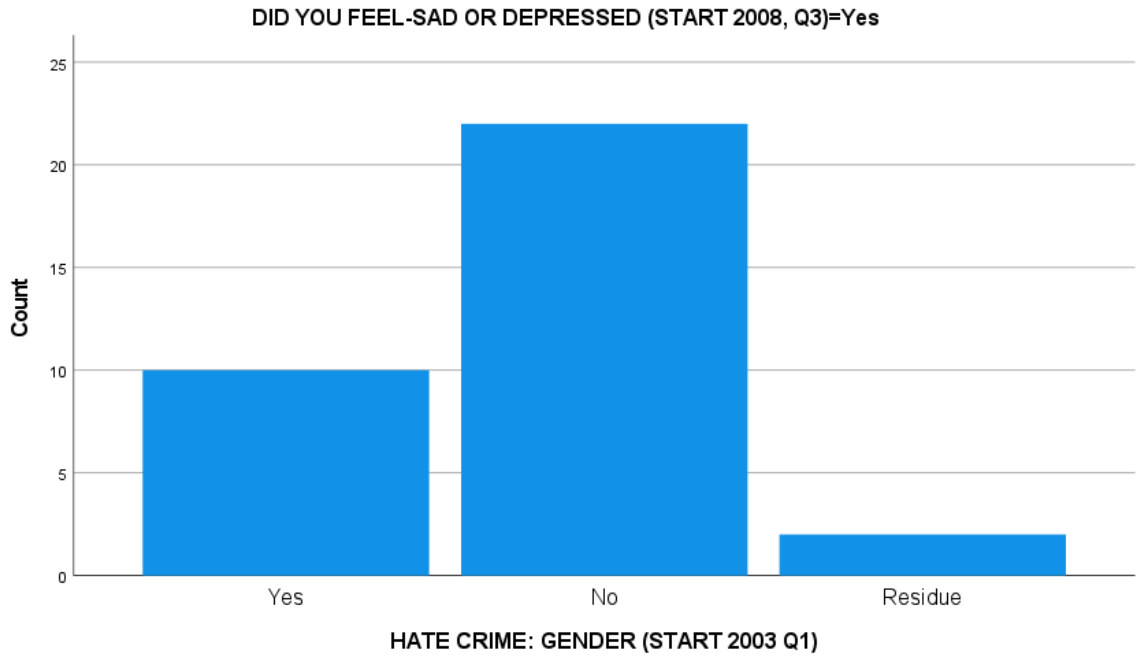


Table 63

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Vulnerable, and Gender

Did you feel vulnerable			Injuries suffered: At least 1 entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	13	13
		No	25	25
		Residue	3	3
	Total		41	41
No	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	5	5
		No	8	8
	Total		13	13
Residue	Hate crime: Gender	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	18	18
		No	34	34
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 65

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Vulnerable, and Gender

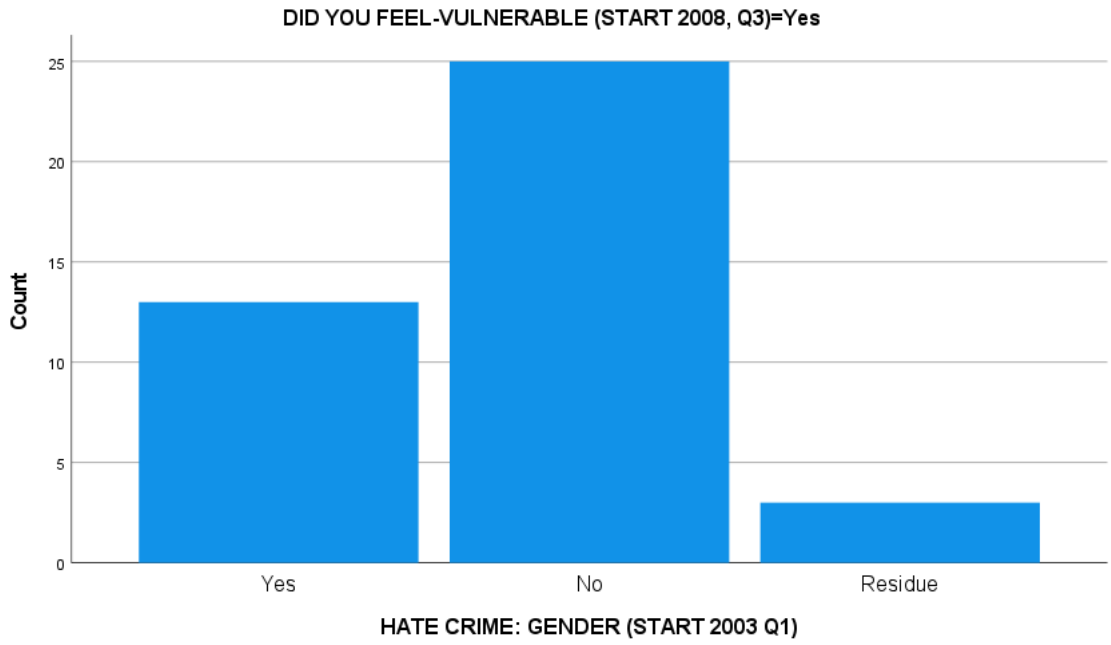


Table 64

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Violated, and Gender

			Injuries suffered	
Did you feel violated			At least 1 entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	11	11
		No	27	27
		Residue	2	2
	Total		40	40
No	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	7	7
		No	6	6
		Residue	1	1
	Total		14	14
Residue	Hate crime: Gender	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	18	18
		No	34	34
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 66

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Violated, and Gender

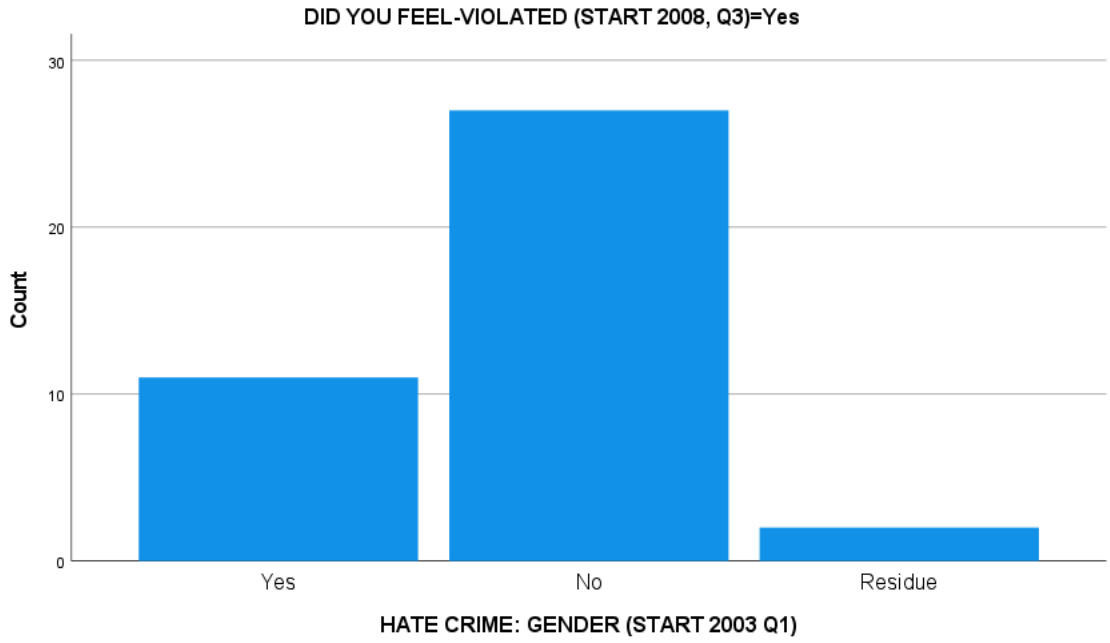


Table 65

Injuries Suffered, Feelings of Mistrust, and Gender

			Injuries suffered	
Did you feel mistrust			At least 1 entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	11	11
		No	24	24
		Residue	2	2
	Total		37	37
No	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	7	7
		No	9	9
		Residue	1	1
	Total		17	17
Residue	Hate crime: Gender	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	18	18
		No	34	34
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 67

Injuries Suffered, Feelings of Mistrust, and Gender

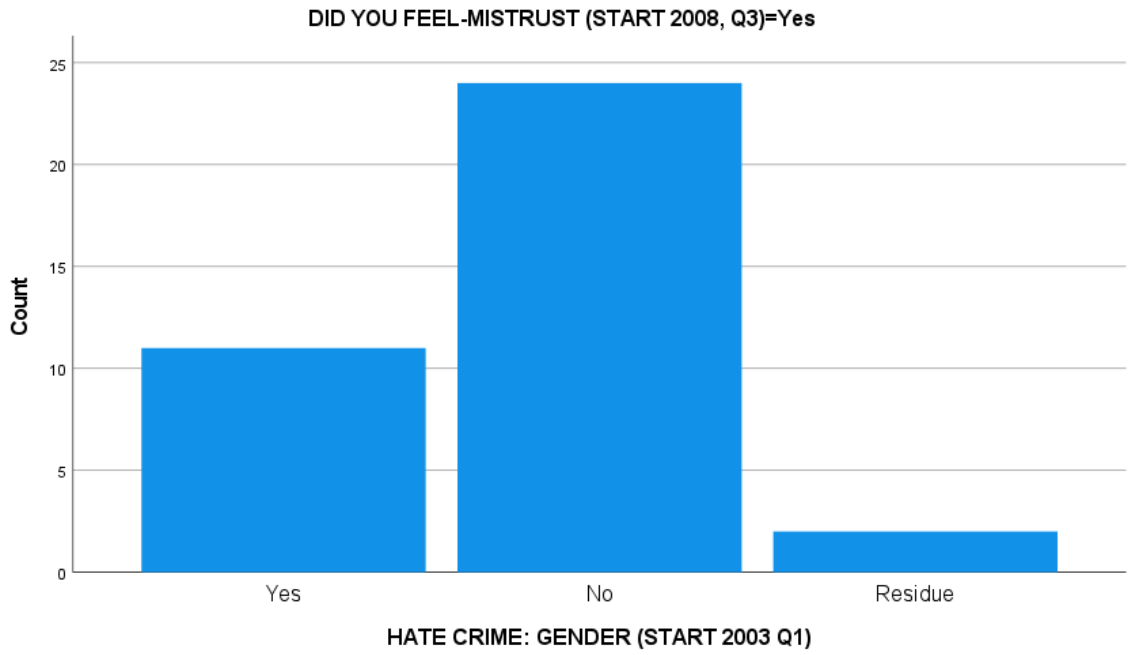


Table 66

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Unsafe, and Gender

Did you feel unsafe			Injuries suffered: At least 1 entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	15	15
		No	26	26
		Residue	3	3
	Total		44	44
No	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	3	3
		No	7	7
	Total		10	10
Residue	Hate crime: Gender	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	18	18
		No	34	34
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 68

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Unsafe, and Gender

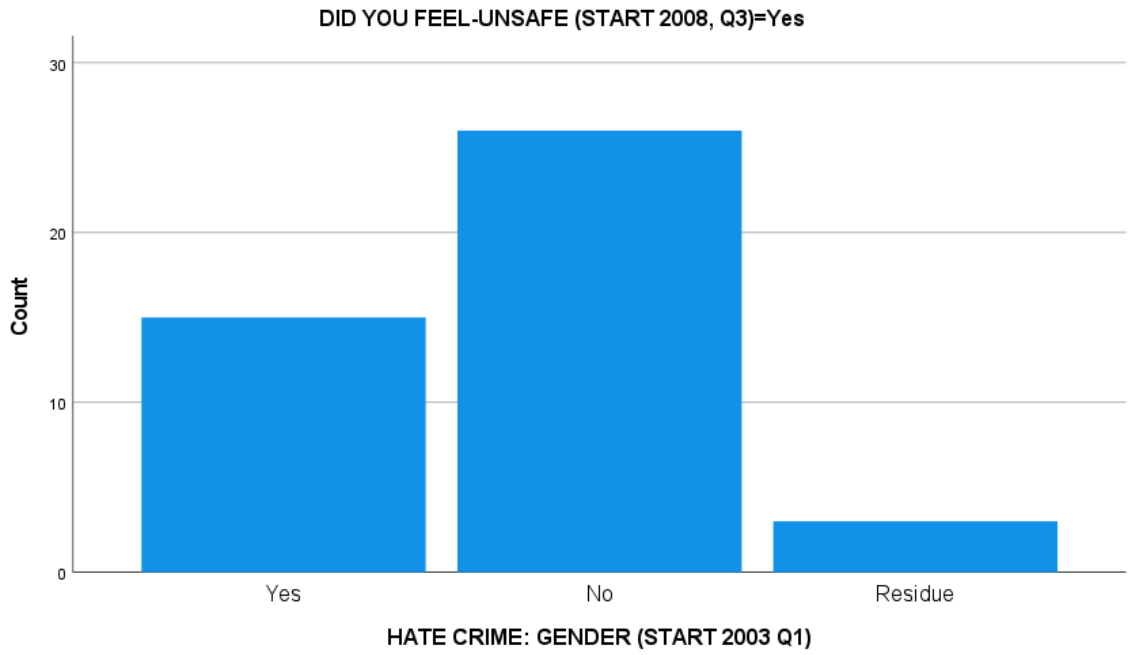


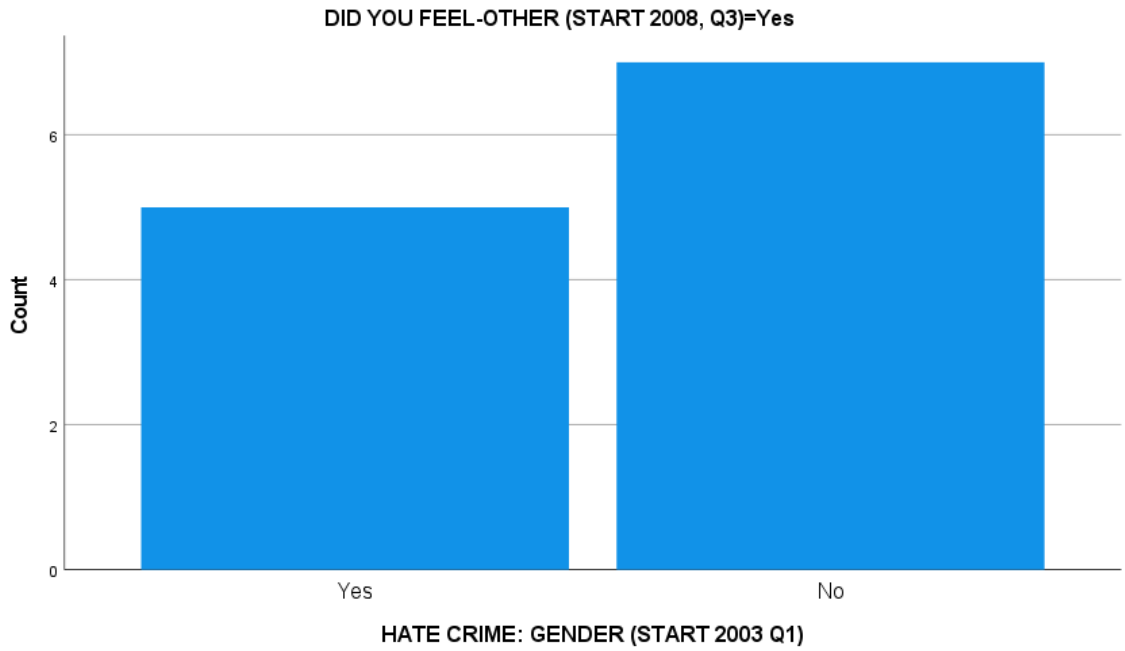
Table 67

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Other, and Gender

Did you feel-Other			Injuries suffered: At least 1 entry	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	5	5
		No	7	7
	Total		12	12
No	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	13	13
		No	26	26
		Residue	3	3
	Total		42	42
Residue	Hate crime: Gender	No	1	1
	Total		1	1
Total	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	18	18
		No	34	34
		Residue	3	3
	Total		55	55

Figure 69

Injuries Suffered, Feeling Other, and Gender



Threatened With Harm and Psychological Impact

A crosstabulation was performed to compare race (see Tables 68-75 and Figures 70-77), ethnicity (see Tables 76-83 and Figures 78-85), and gender (see Tables 84-91 and Figures 86-93) with being threatened with harm and the feelings experienced by the victim. The victims were asked if they felt worried/anxious, angry, sad or depressed, vulnerable, violated, mistrust, unsafe, or other. Each crosstabulation included 50 replies. Respondents who identified being threatened and specified race as the motive for the hate crime, reported being more worried/anxious (23 cases, 46%), angry (28 incidents, 36%), experiencing sadness and depression (12 responses, 24%), vulnerable (21, 42%), violated (15, 30%), mistrust (15, 30%), and unsafe (23, 46%) than victims who reported ethnicity and gender as the motive for the hate crime. Race and gender both reported 4 responses

as “other” regarding feelings after being threatened with harm. Respondents who identified ethnicity as the motive for the hate crime ranked second in regards to feeling worried (15 responses, 30%), angry (12, 24%), sad/depressed (8, 16%), vulnerable (14, 28%), violated (10, 20%), mistrust (10, 20%), unsafe (15, 30%), and other (2, 4%). Respondents who identified gender as being the motive for the hate crime had the fewest reported incidents of feeling worried/ anxious (9 incidents, 18%), angry (9, 18%), sad/depressed and vulnerable had 7 responses each (14%), feeling violated, mistrust, and unsafe (8, 16%).

Table 68

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Worried/Anxious, and Race

			Did you feel worried or anxious			
Offender threatened with harm			Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Race	Yes	23	5	1	29
		No	15	5	0	20
		Don’t know	1	0	0	1
	Total		39	10	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Race	Yes	23	5	1	29
		No	15	5	0	20
		Don’t know	1	0	0	1
	Total		39	10	1	50

Figure 70

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Worried/Anxious, and Race.

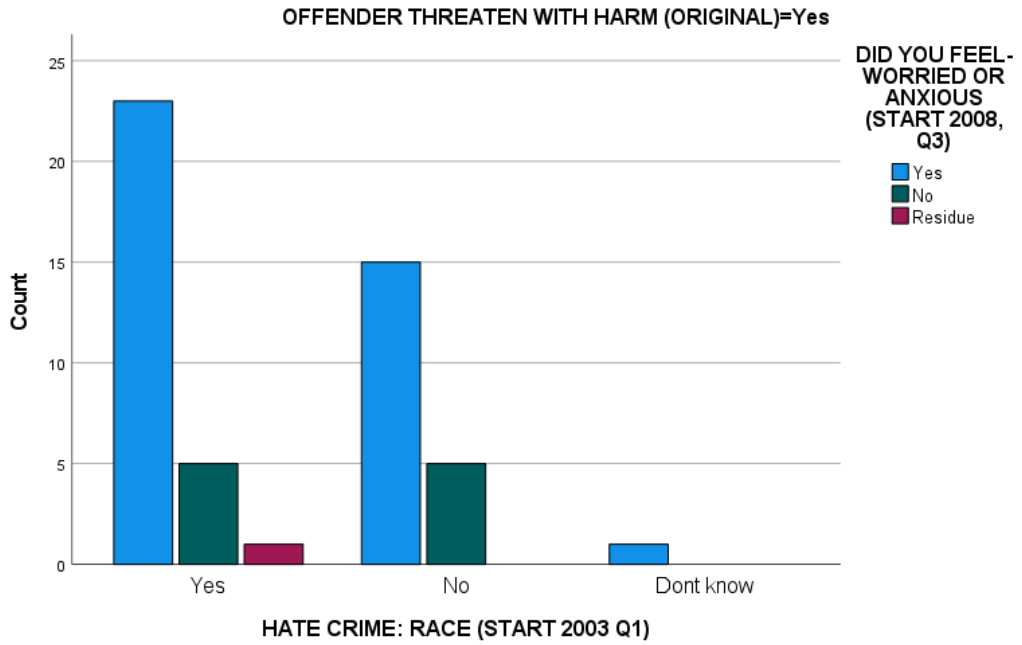


Table 69

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Angry, and Race

Offender threatened with harm			Did you feel angry: Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Race	Yes	18	10	1	29
		No	16	4	0	20
		Don't know	1	0	0	1
	Total		35	14	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Race	Yes	18	10	1	29
		No	16	4	0	20
		Don't know	1	0	0	1
	Total		35	14	1	50

Figure 71

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Angry, and Race

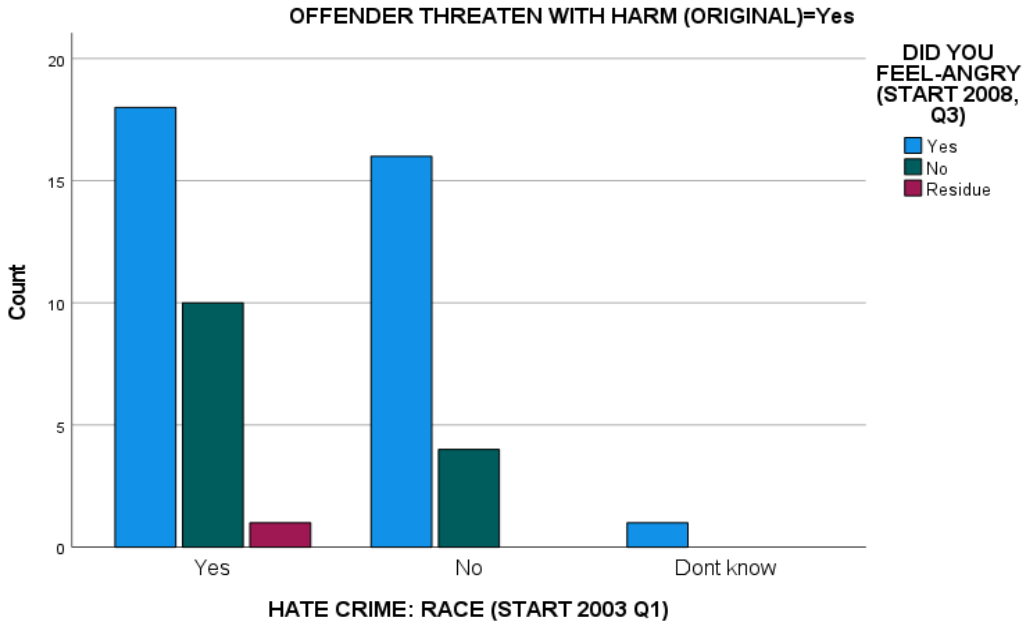


Table 70

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Sad/Depressed, and Race

			Did you feel sad or depressed			
Offender threatened with harm			Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Race	Yes	12	16	1	29
		No	11	9	0	20
		Don't know	1	0	0	1
	Total		24	25	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Race	Yes	12	16	1	29
		No	11	9	0	20
		Don't know	1	0	0	1
	Total		24	25	1	50

Figure 72

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Sad/Depressed, and Race

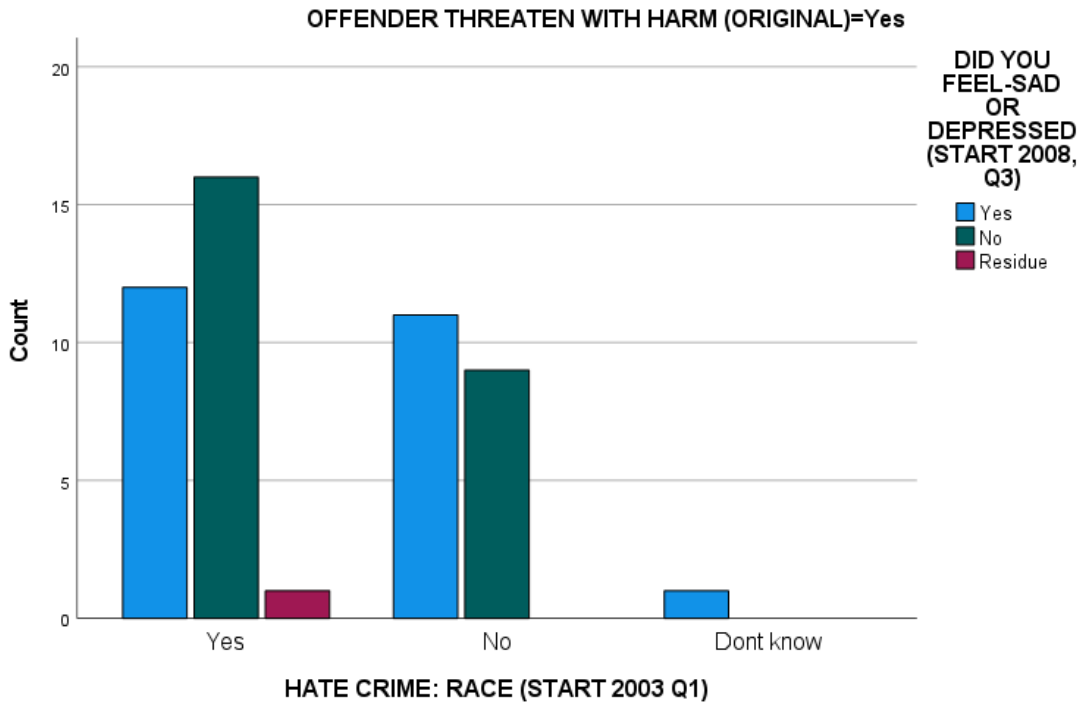


Table 71

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Vulnerable, and Race

Offender threatened with harm			Did you feel vulnerable			
			Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Race	Yes	21	7	1	29
		No	12	8	0	20
		Don't know	1	0	0	1
	Total		34	15	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Race	Yes	21	7	1	29
		No	12	8	0	20
		Don't know	1	0	0	1
	Total		34	15	1	50

Figure 73

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Vulnerable, and Race

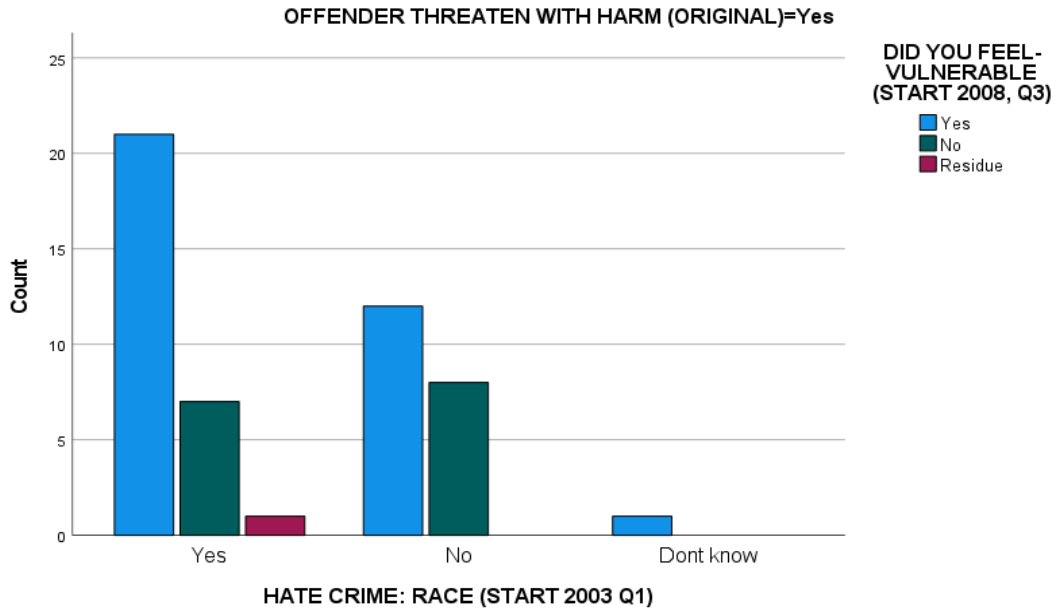


Table 72

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Violated, and Race

Offender threatened with harm			Did you feel violated: Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Race	Yes	15	13	1	29
		No	14	6	0	20
		Don't know	1	0	0	1
	Total		30	19	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Race	Yes	15	13	1	29
		No	14	6	0	20
		Don't know	1	0	0	1
	Total		30	19	1	50

Figure 74

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Violated, and Race

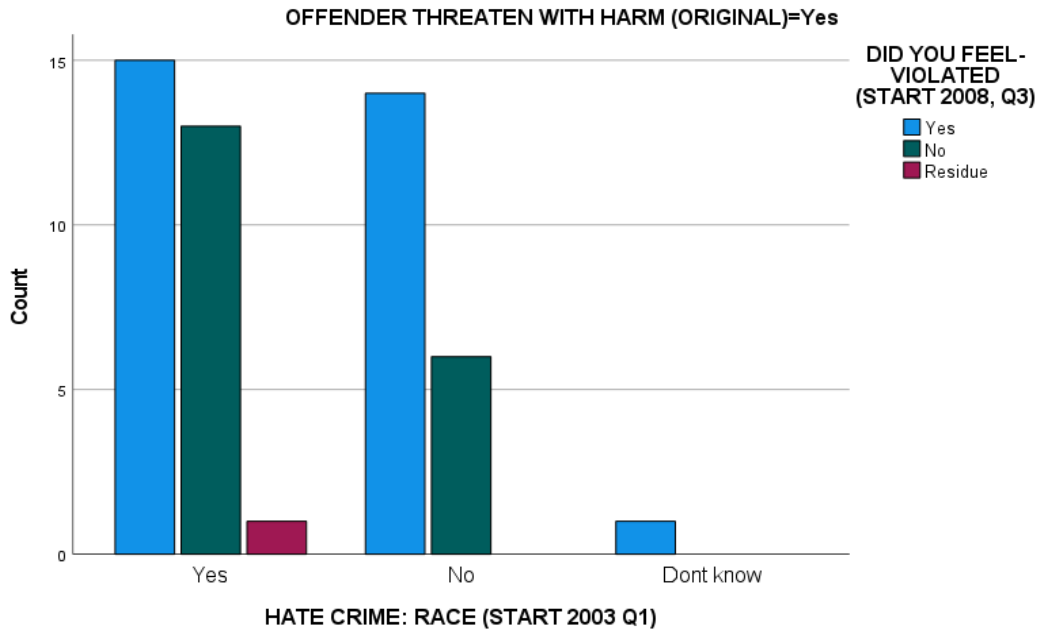


Table 73

Threatened with Harm, Feelings of Mistrust, and Race

Offender threatened with harm			Did you feel mistrust: Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Race	Yes	15	13	1	29
		No	11	9	0	20
		Don't know	1	0	0	1
	Total		27	22	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Race	Yes	15	13	1	29
		No	11	9	0	20
		Don't know	1	0	0	1
	Total		27	22	1	50

Figure 75

Threatened with Harm, Feelings of Mistrust, and Race

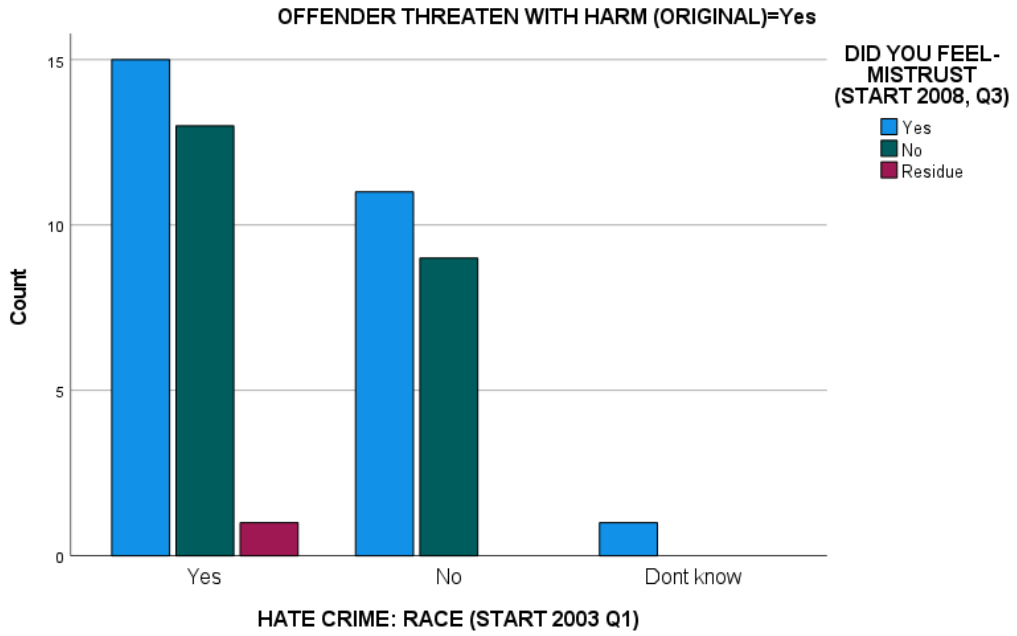


Table 74

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Unsafe, and Race

Offender threatened with harm			Did you feel unsafe: Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Race	Yes	23	5	1	29
		No	14	6	0	20
		Don’t know	1	0	0	1
	Total		38	11	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Race	Yes	23	5	1	29
		No	14	6	0	20
		Don’t know	1	0	0	1
	Total		38	11	1	50

Figure 76

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Unsafe, and Race

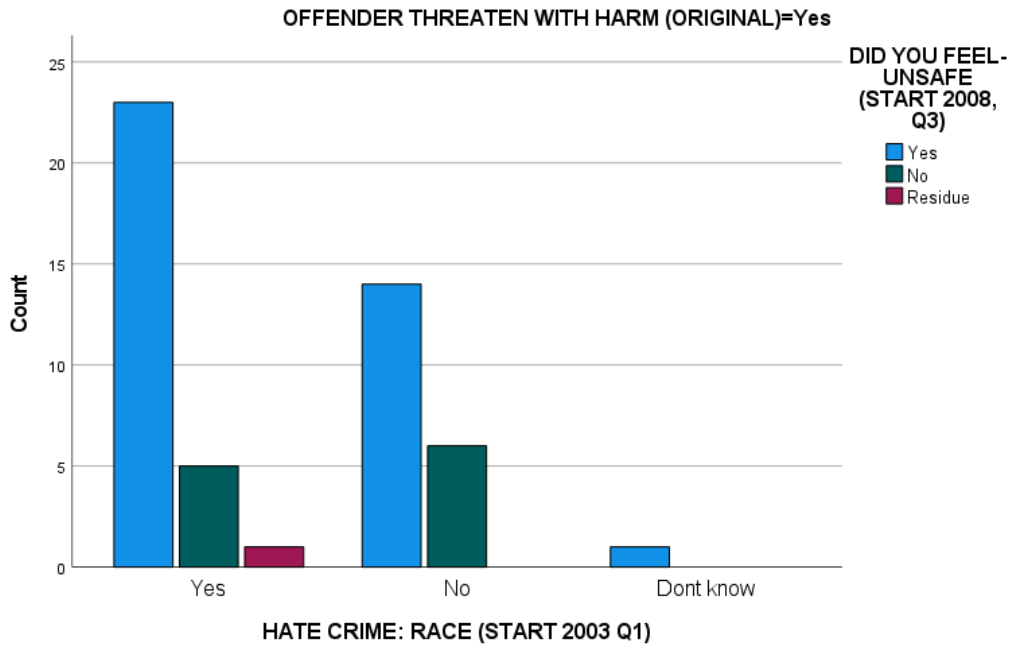


Table 75

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Other, and Race

Offender threatened with harm			Did you feel-Other			
			Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Race	Yes	4	24	1	29
		No	3	17	0	20
		Don't know	0	1	0	1
	Total		7	42	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Race	Yes	4	24	1	29
		No	3	17	0	20
		Don't know	0	1	0	1
	Total		7	42	1	50

Figure 77

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Other, and Race

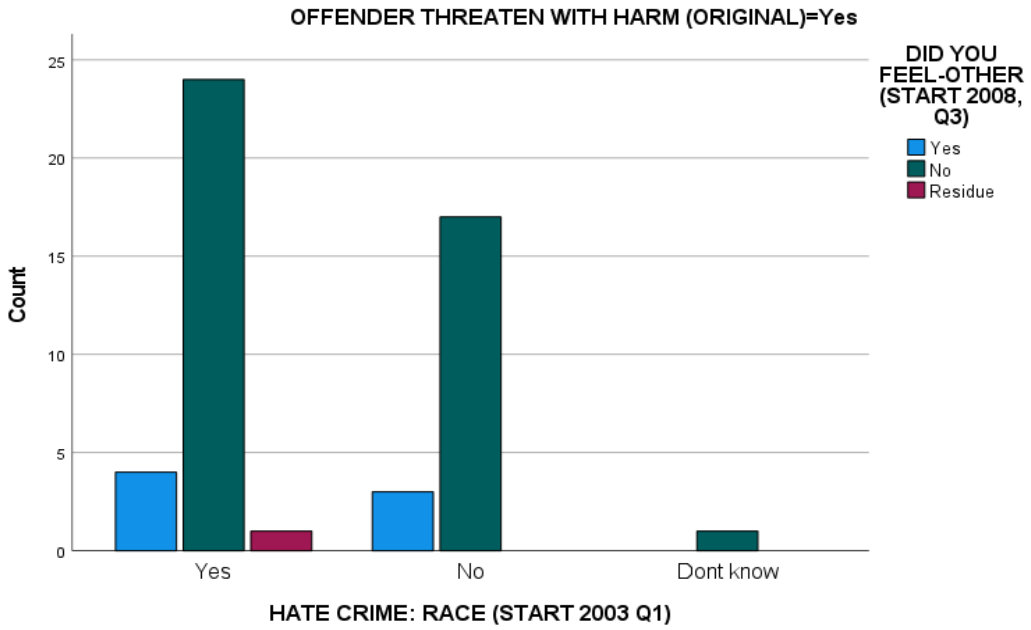


Table 76

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Worried/Anxious, and Ethnicity

Offender threatened with harm			Did you feel worried or anxious: Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	15	0	1	16
		No	24	10	0	34
	Total		39	10	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	15	0	1	16
		No	24	10	0	34
	Total		39	10	1	50

Figure 78

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Worried/Anxious, and Ethnicity

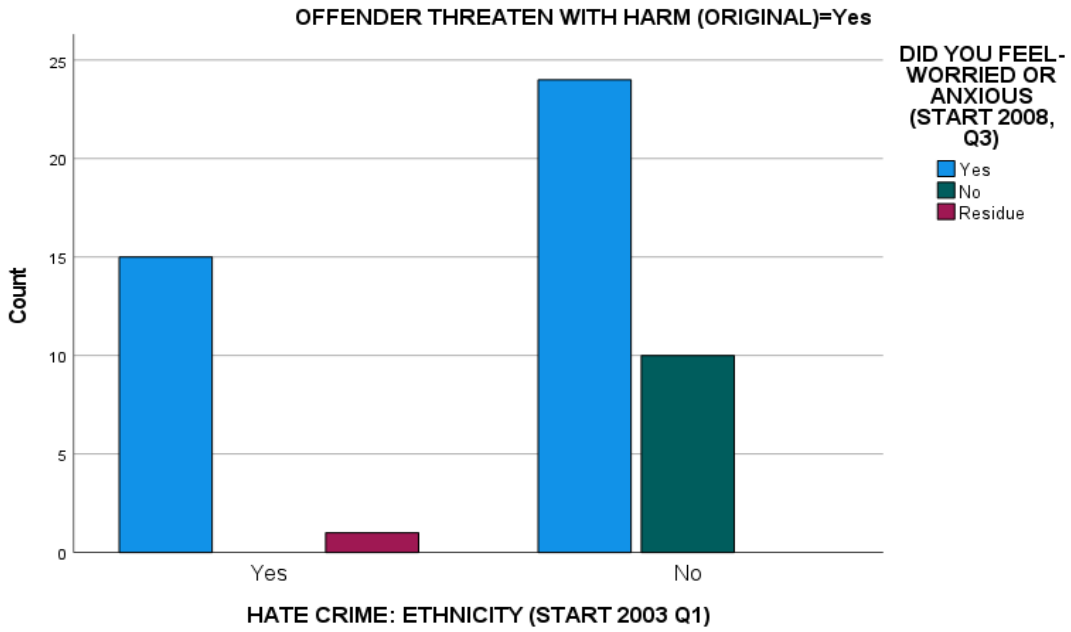


Table 77

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Angry, and Ethnicity

Offender threatened with harm			Did you feel angry: Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	12	3	1	16
		No	23	11	0	34
	Total		35	14	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	12	3	1	16
		No	23	11	0	34
	Total		35	14	1	50

Figure 79

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Angry, and Ethnicity

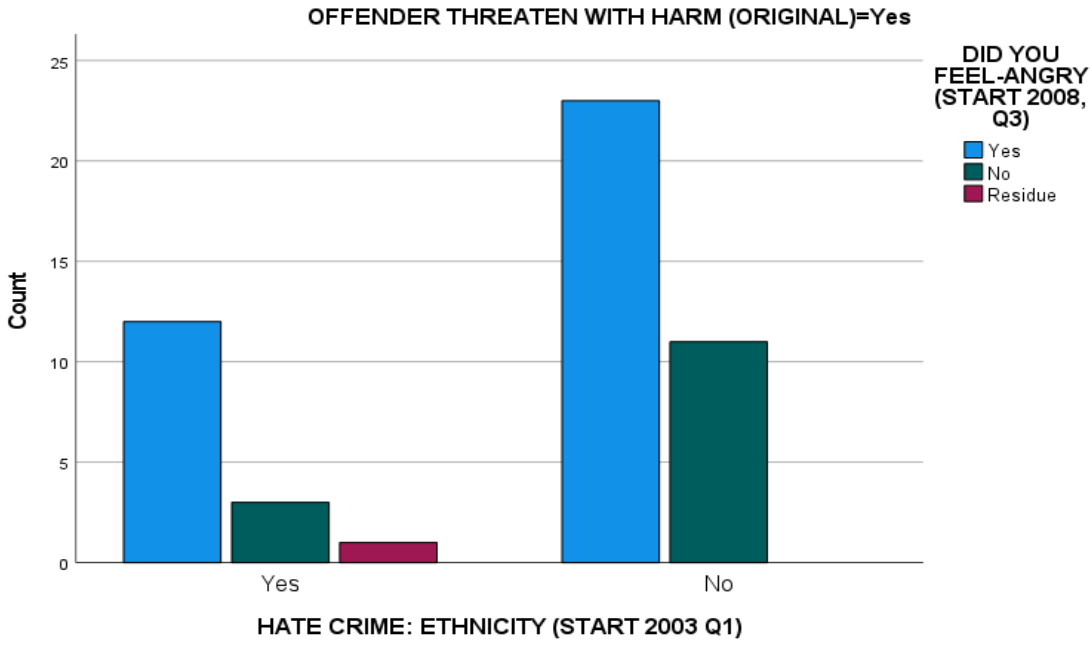


Table 78

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Sad/Depressed, and Ethnicity

Offender threatened with harm			Did you feel sad or depressed: Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	8	7	1	16
		No	16	18	0	34
	Total		24	25	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	8	7	1	16
		No	16	18	0	34
	Total		24	25	1	50

Figure 80

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Sad/Depressed, and Ethnicity

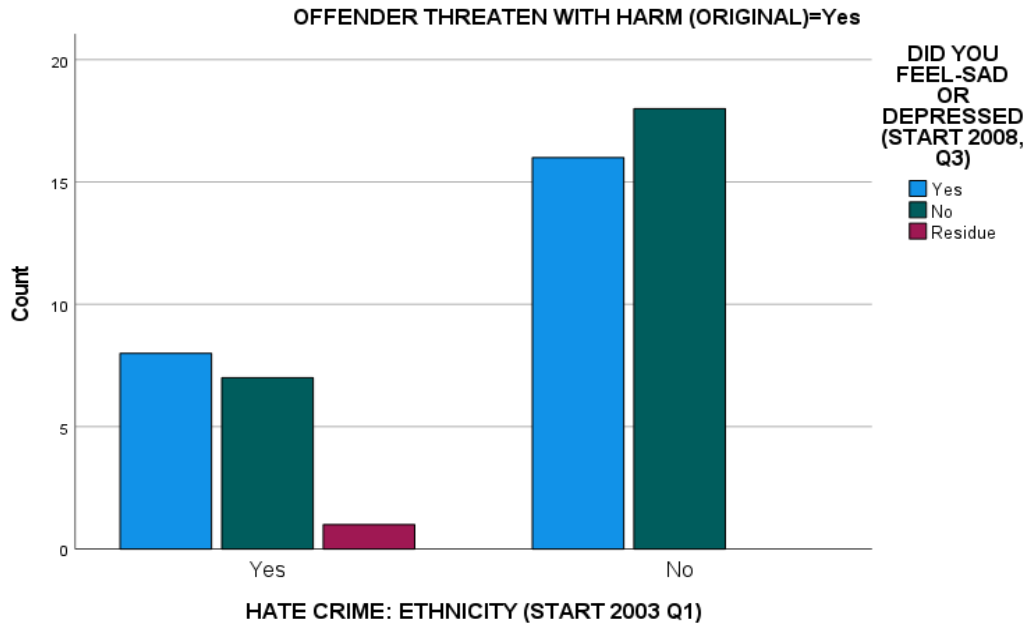


Table 79

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Vulnerable, and Ethnicity

Offender threatened with harm			Did you feel vulnerable: Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	14	1	1	16
		No	20	14	0	34
	Total		34	15	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	14	1	1	16
		No	20	14	0	34
	Total		34	15	1	50

Figure 81

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Vulnerable, and Ethnicity

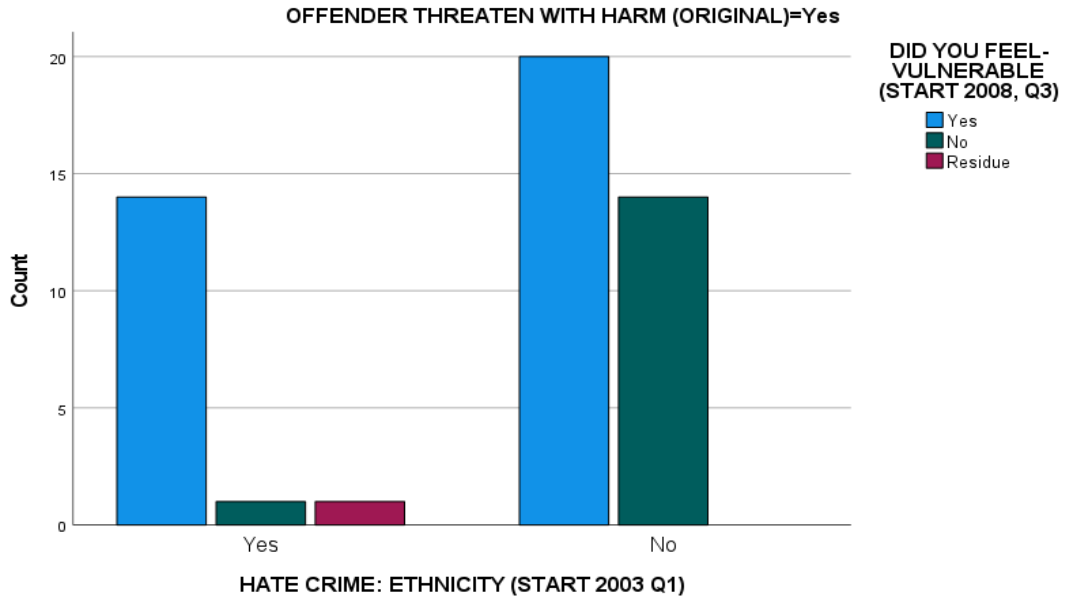


Table 80

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Violated, and Ethnicity

			Did you feel violated			
Offender threatened with harm			Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	10	5	1	16
		No	20	14	0	34
	Total		30	19	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	10	5	1	16
		No	20	14	0	34
	Total		30	19	1	50

Figure 82

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Violated, and Ethnicity

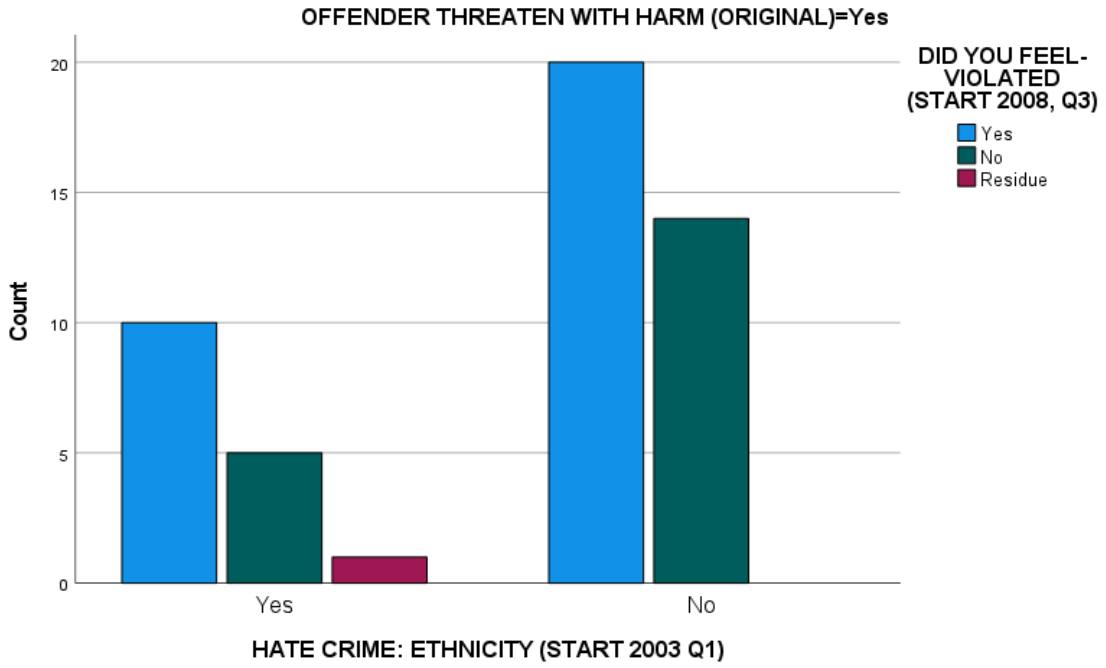


Table 81

Threatened with Harm, Feelings of Mistrust, and Ethnicity

			Did you feel mistrust			
Offender threatened with harm			Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	10	5	1	16
		No	17	17	0	34
	Total		27	22	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	10	5	1	16
		No	17	17	0	34
	Total		27	22	1	50

Figure 83

Threatened with Harm, Feelings of Mistrust, and Ethnicity

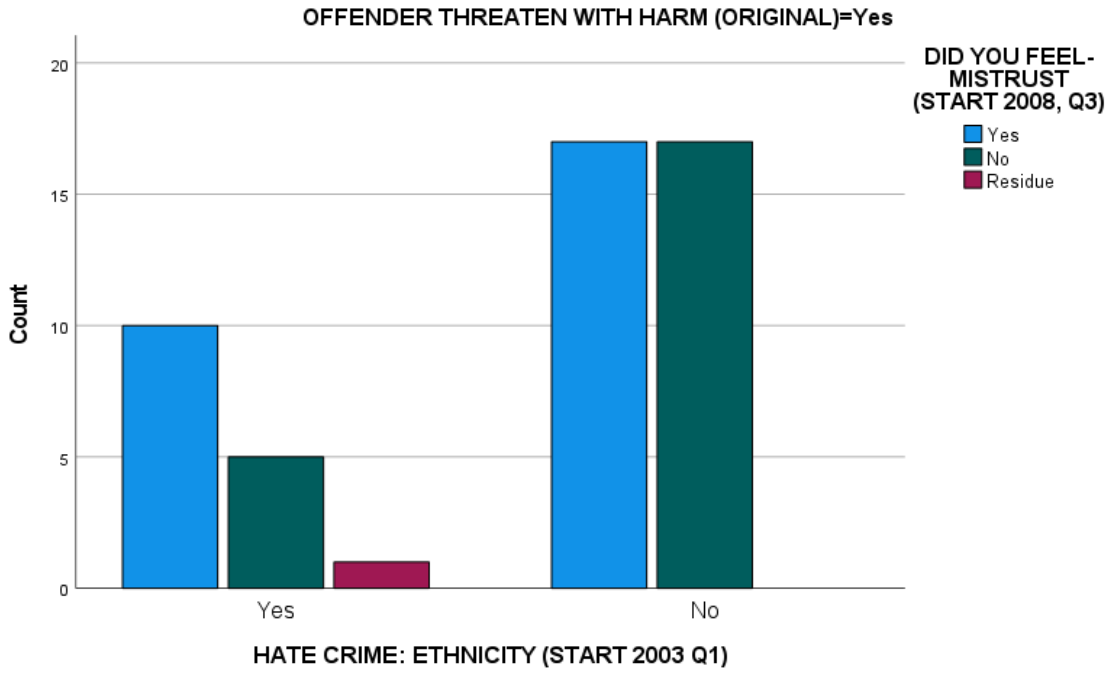


Table 82

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Unsafe, and Ethnicity

			Did you feel unsafe			
Offender threatened with harm			Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	15	0	1	16
		No	23	11	0	34
	Total		38	11	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	15	0	1	16
		No	23	11	0	34
	Total		38	11	1	50

Figure 84

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Unsafe, and Ethnicity

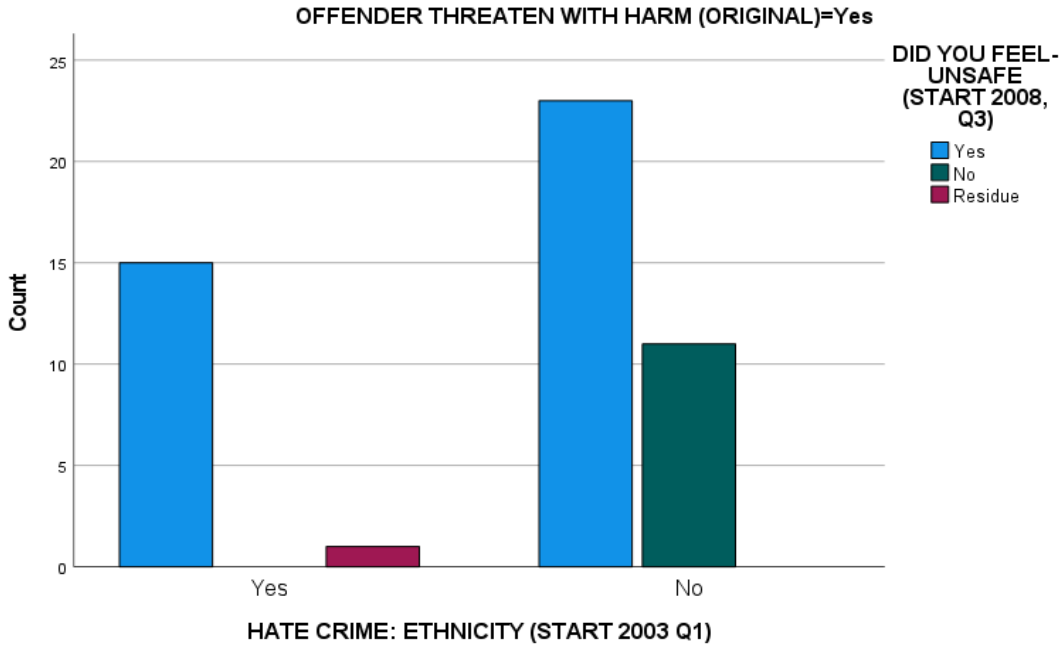


Table 83

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Other, and Ethnicity

Offender threatened with harm			Did you feel-Other			
			Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	2	13	1	16
		No	5	29	0	34
	Total		7	42	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Ethnicity	Yes	2	13	1	16
		No	5	29	0	34
	Total		7	42	1	50

Figure 85

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Other, and Ethnicity

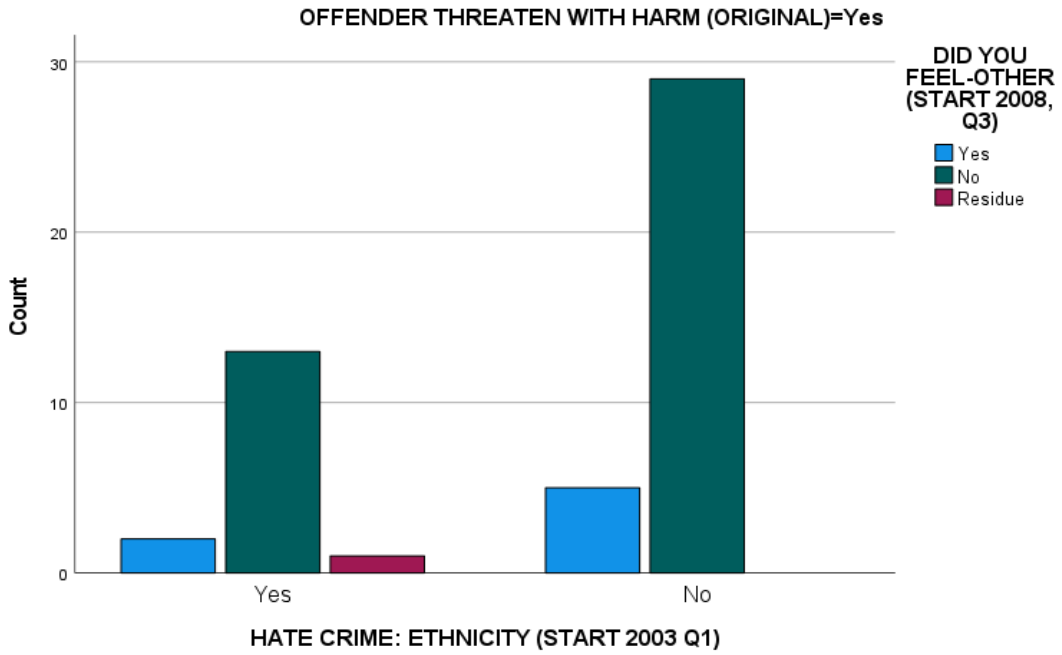


Table 84

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Worried/Anxious, and Gender

			Did you feel worried or anxious			
Offender threatened with harm			Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	9	1	0	10
		No	27	9	1	37
		Don't know	3	0	0	3
	Total		39	10	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	9	1	0	10
		No	27	9	1	37
		Don't know	3	0	0	3
	Total		39	10	1	50

Figure 86

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Worried/Anxious, and Gender

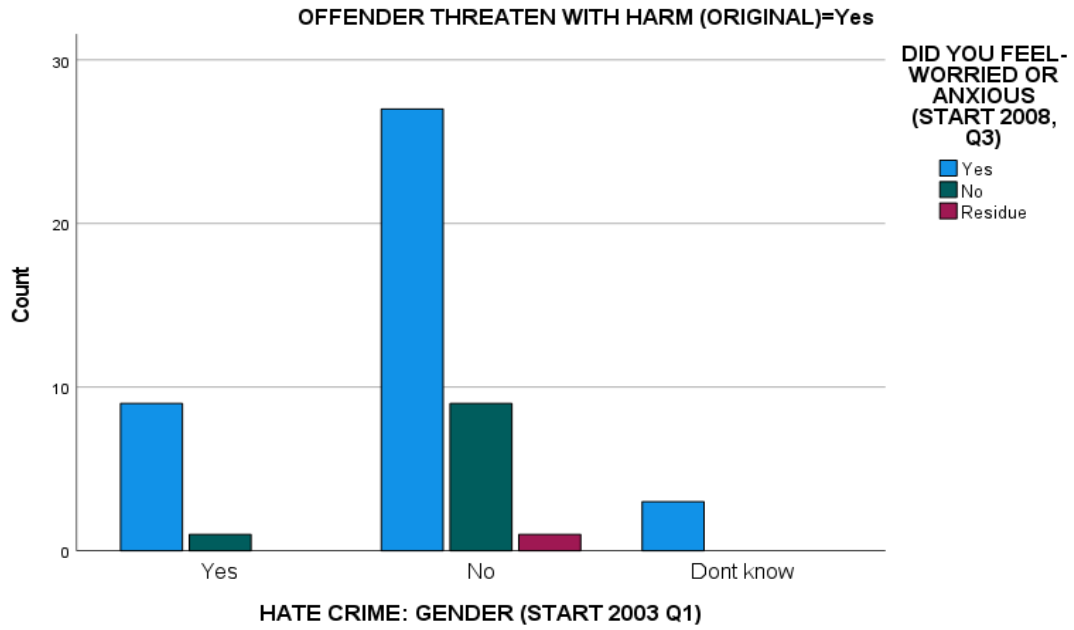


Table 85

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Angry, and Gender

Offender threatened with harm			Did you feel angry			
			Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	9	1	0	10
		No	23	13	1	37
		Don't know	3	0	0	3
	Total		35	14	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	9	1	0	10
		No	23	13	1	37
		Don't know	3	0	0	3
	Total		35	14	1	50

Figure 87

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Angry, and Gender

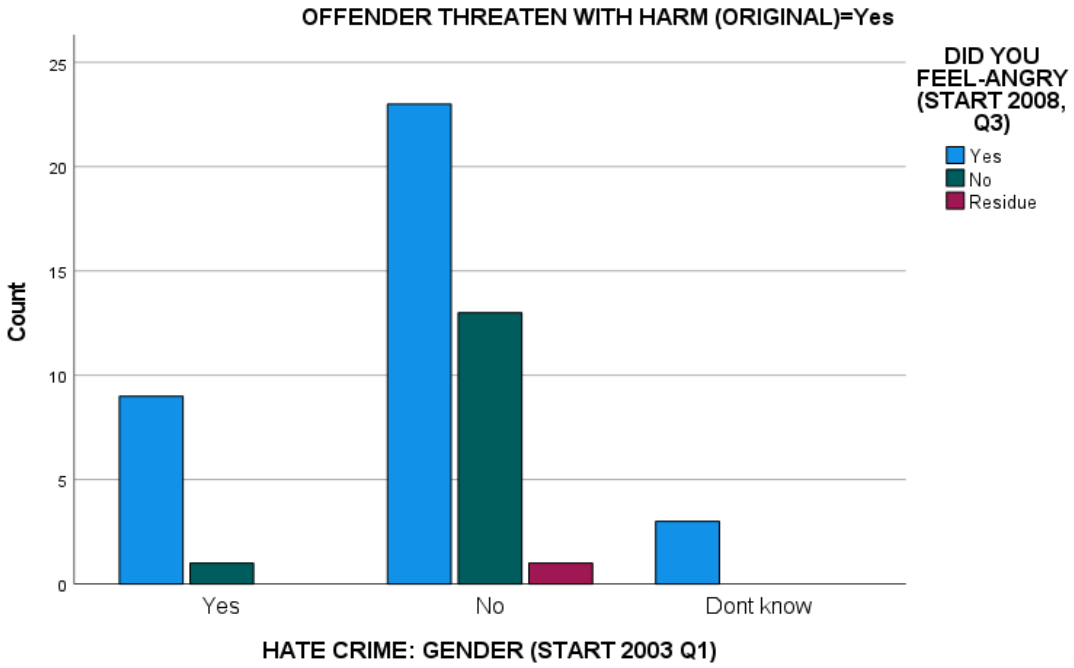


Table 86

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Sad/Depressed, and Gender

Offender threatened with harm			Did you feel sad or depressed: Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	7	3	0	10
		No	16	20	1	37
		Don't know	1	2	0	3
	Total		24	25	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	7	3	0	10
		No	16	20	1	37
		Don't know	1	2	0	3
	Total		24	25	1	50

Figure 88

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Sad/Depressed, and Gender

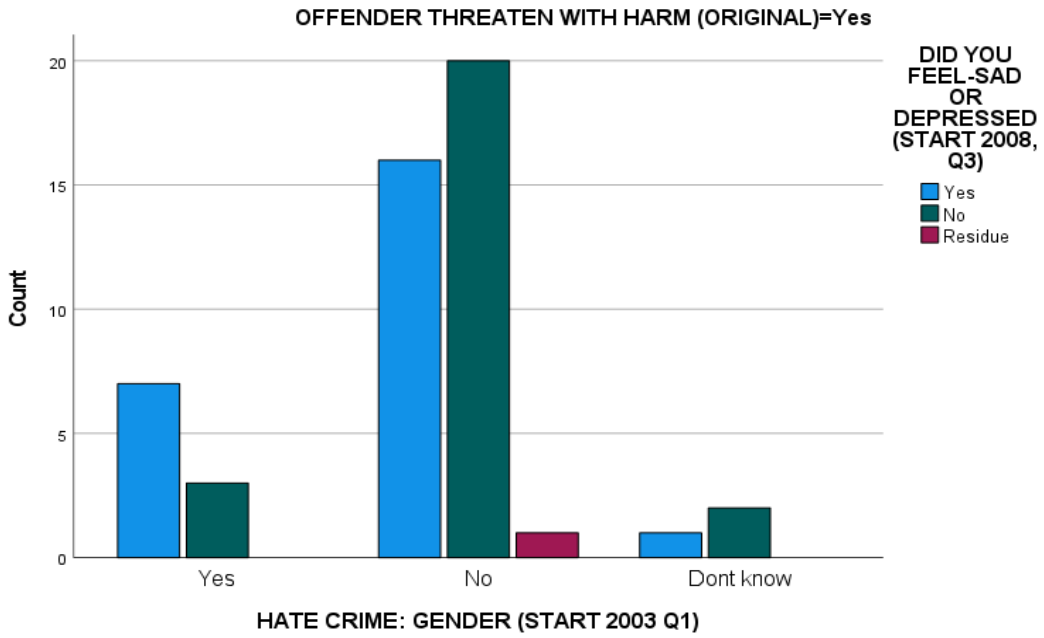


Table 87

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Vulnerable, and Gender

Offender threatened with harm			Did you feel vulnerable: Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	7	3	0	10
		No	24	12	1	37
		Don't know	3	0	0	3
	Total		34	15	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	7	3	0	10
		No	24	12	1	37
		Don't know	3	0	0	3
	Total		34	15	1	50

Figure 89

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Vulnerable, and Gender

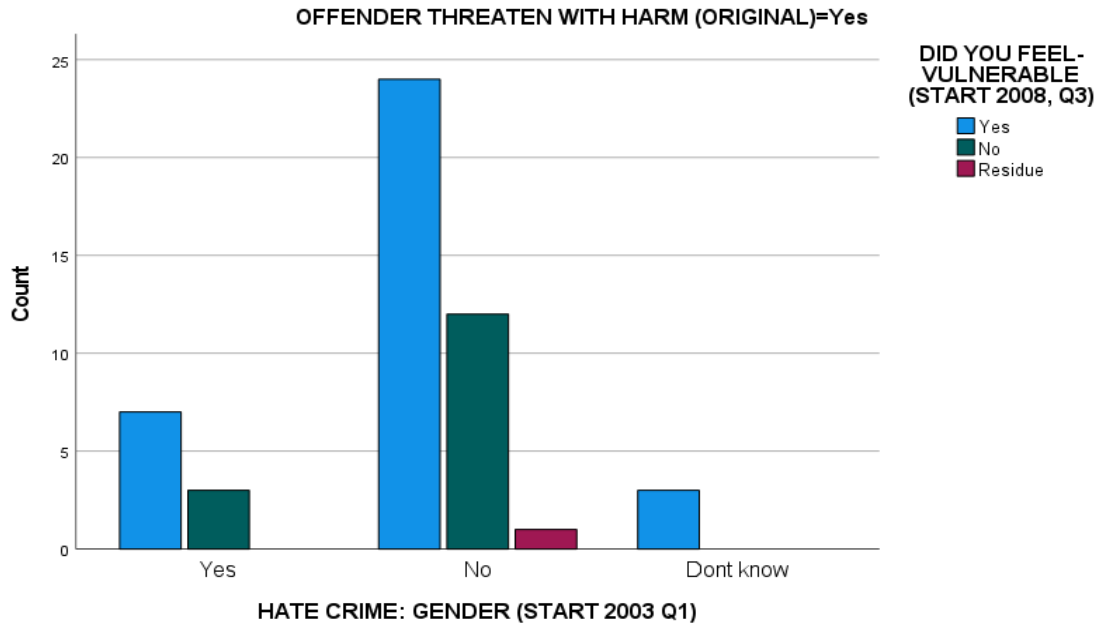


Table 88

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Violated, and Gender

			Did you feel violated			
Offender threatened with harm			Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	8	2	0	10
		No	19	17	1	37
		Don't know	3	0	0	3
	Total		30	19	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	8	2	0	10
		No	19	17	1	37
		Don't know	3	0	0	3
	Total		30	19	1	50

Figure 90

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Violated, and Gender

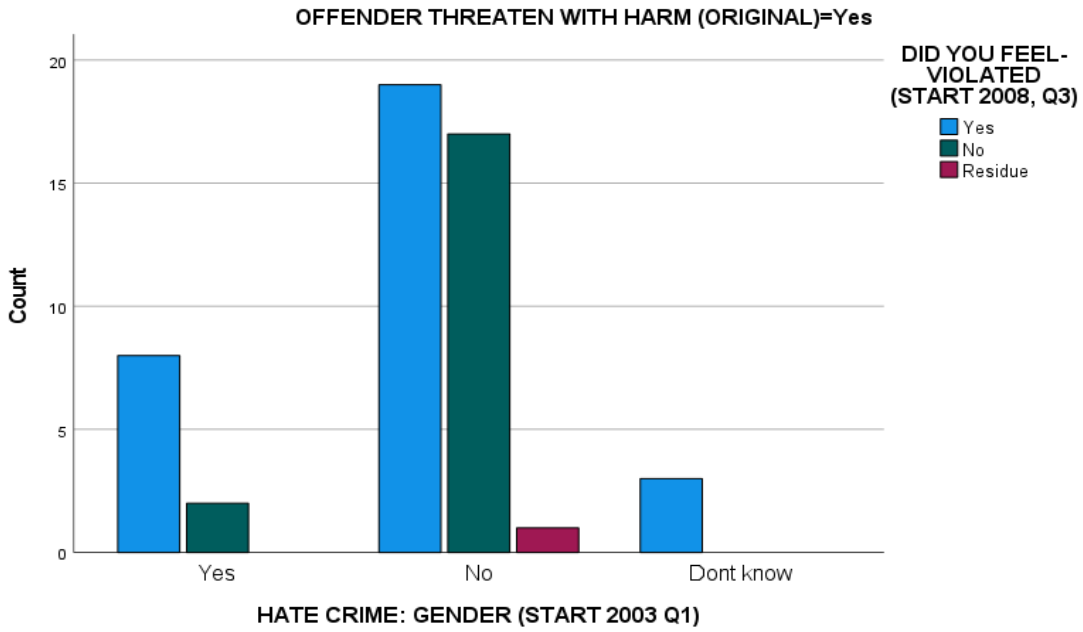


Table 89

Threatened with Harm, Feelings of Mistrust, and Gender

Offender threatened with harm			Did you feel mistrust: Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	8	2	0	10
		No	17	19	1	37
		Don't know	2	1	0	3
	Total		27	22	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	8	2	0	10
		No	17	19	1	37
		Don't know	2	1	0	3
	Total		27	22	1	50

Figure 91

Threatened with Harm, Feelings of Mistrust, and Gender

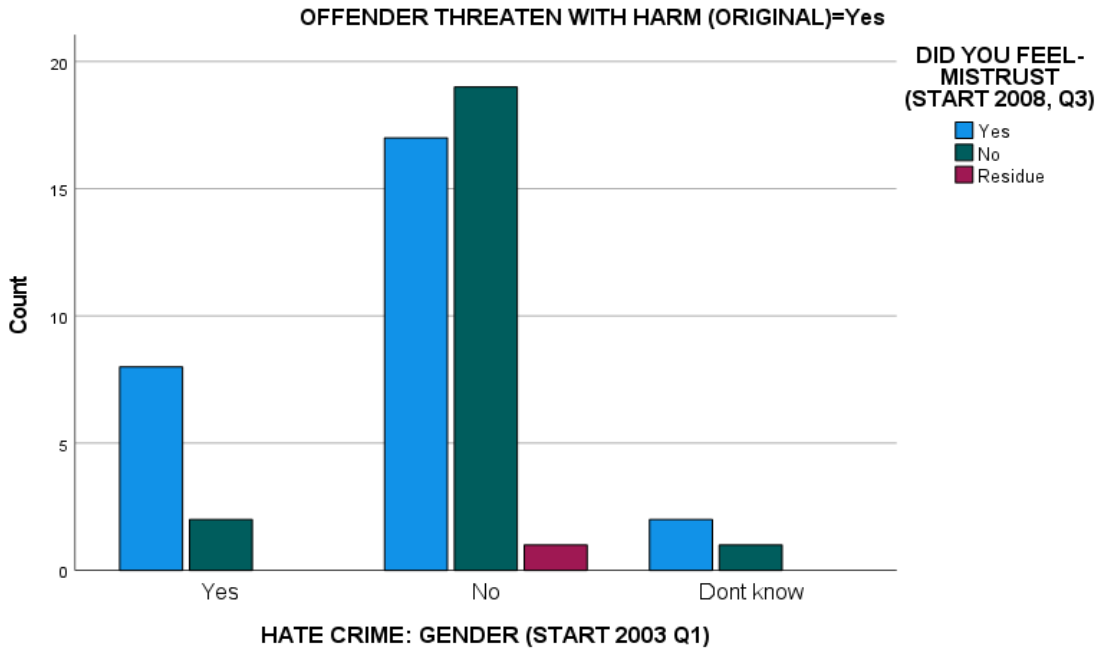


Table 90

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Unsafe, and Gender

Offender threatened with harm			Did you feel unsafe: Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	8	2	0	10
		No	27	9	1	37
		Don't know	3	0	0	3
	Total		38	11	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	8	2	0	10
		No	27	9	1	37
		Don't know	3	0	0	3
	Total		38	11	1	50

Figure 92

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Unsafe, and Gender

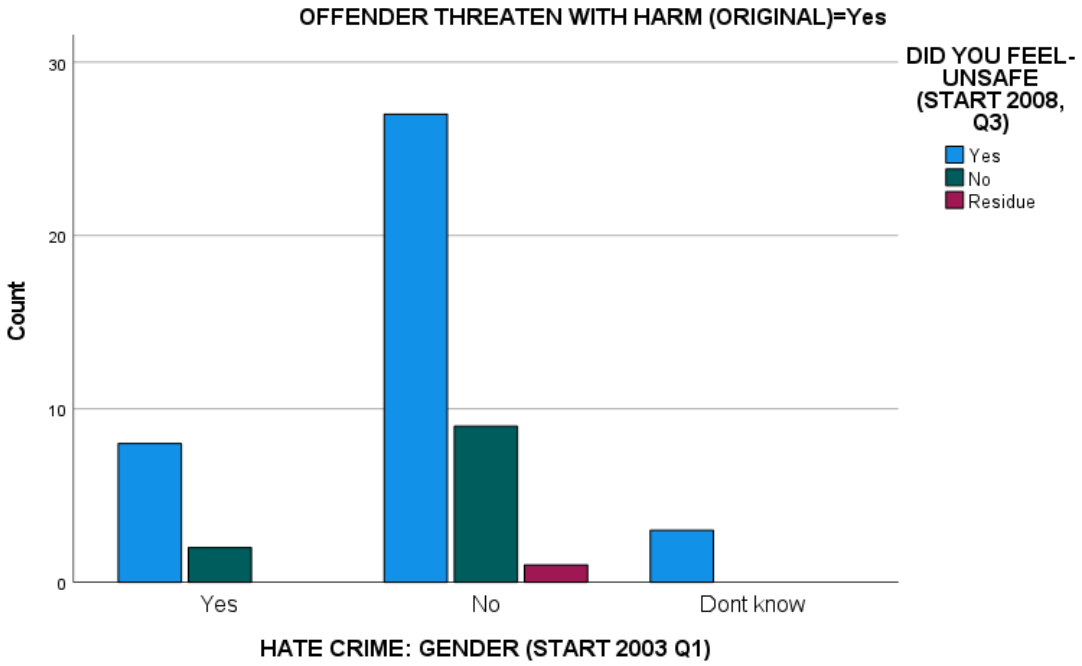


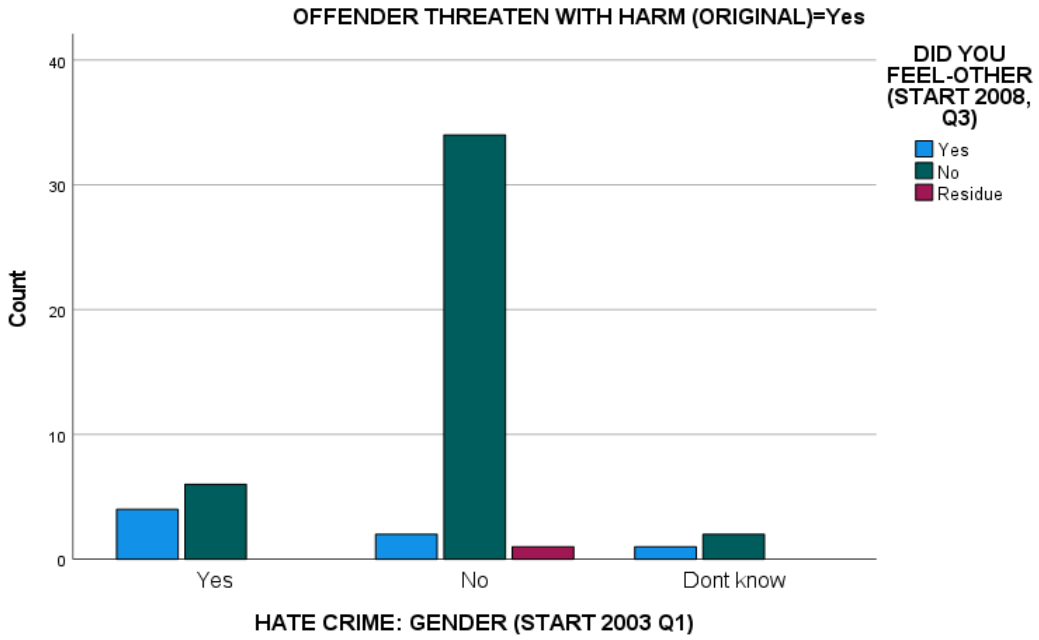
Table 91

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Other, and Gender

			Did you feel-Other			
Offender threatened with harm			Yes	No	Residue	Total
Yes	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	4	6	0	10
		No	2	34	1	37
		Don’t know	1	2	0	3
	Total		7	42	1	50
Total	Hate crime: Gender	Yes	4	6	0	10
		No	2	34	1	37
		Don’t know	1	2	0	3
	Total		7	42	1	50

Figure 93

Threatened with Harm, Feeling Other, and Gender



Summary of Findings

Hate crimes related to gender reported more problems related to school, work, and receiving professional help. However, the victim's perception of the bias motivator of the hate crime reported race as the most identified motive in comparison to ethnicity and gender. Hate crimes related to race had the highest indicator of emotional impact of hate crime in relation to ethnicity and gender. Race related hate crimes lead to victims feeling severely distressed, experienced more physical problems, and felt more angry, worried, sad/depressed.

Chapter 5 included recommendations for future research, discussion, and conclusion.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Criminal activity has been embedded in society since its inception. Humanity views crime as a disruption to the normal function of culture and a threat to public safety. Hate crime laws emerged to demonstrate society's disapproval of bias-motivated criminal activity. Hate crime is believed to be more psychological damaging than baseline crimes because it targets a characteristic (e.g., race, ethnicity, gender, religion) that speaks to the core values of the individual as well as others who hold the same traits (Brudholm, 2015). The results of this study suggested that hate crimes perpetrated against African Americans had the highest documented incidents in both violent and nonviolent hate crimes. Victimization surveys also supported the notion that victims regarded race as the driving force for the motive behind the crime.

Interpretation of the Findings

The findings of this study indicated that there were 6,268 hate incidents reported to law enforcement in 2016. Racially motivated crimes (anti-African American/Black, 1,789 incidents; anti-White, 746 incidents) held the top two positions of reported incidents. However, African Americans were victimized 28.54% of the total hate crime incidents, compared to Whites at 11.90%. When examining the victimization rate in relation to hate crimes, African Americans also reported the highest incidents in both violent and nonviolent crimes. In 2016, violent crimes reported to law enforcement totaled 2, 310, of which African Americans were a victim in 616 incidents (26.66%). This figure included the highest number of simple assaults, aggravated assault, kidnapping, and murder/manslaughter. African Americans were also the most frequent victims of

nonviolent crimes (i.e., destruction/vandalism, intimidation, burglary, all other larceny, drug/narcotic violation, and arson). The total number of nonviolent crimes included in this study equaled 3,721 incidents, and African Americans experienced the highest overall rate of nonviolent hate crime incidents with 1,156 reported cases. African Americans were also the leader in victimization in offenses such as destruction (*n* = 522 incidents), intimidation (*n* = 599), and arson (*n* = 8).

The impact of hate crimes has many dimensions as victims attempt to cope with the physical aspect (assault) of criminal activity, the nonviolent acts of vandalism and intimidation, and the emotional scars such as depression, anxiety, and feelings of mistrust. To gauge a deeper understating of the psychological impact of hate crimes, victims of hate crimes were given the opportunity to provide their insight on the residual effects of hate crimes. Victims reported race (*n*=155 incidents) as the driving force in hate crime incidents, followed by ethnicity (*n*=99) and gender (*n*=78). Victims of race-related hate crimes reported being severely depressed (*n*=43) as opposed to ethnicity (*n*=24) and gender (*n*=22). Race-related hate crimes also presented more physical problems, as victims reported experiencing more headaches, trouble sleeping, changes in eating/drinking, upset stomach, fatigue, blood pressure, muscle tension, and other problems, than crimes motivated by ethnicity, or gender. Although race was the leading motivator in the overall hate incidents, victims of gender-related crimes, who experienced problems at work/school, were more likely to seek professional help than victims of race-related or ethnic hate crime. Racially motivated hate crimes where injuries were sustained also resulted in more incidents of sadness and depression than ethnicity or gender. In

cases where the victims were threatened with harm, but no injuries were sustained, victims of racially bias crimes also reported being more worried, angry, sad/depressed, vulnerable, violated, mistrust, and unsafe than gender or ethnicity motivated hate crimes.

Victims who were injured and those who were threatened with harm had high incidents of sadness/depression as well as being worried and feelings of mistrust. Perhaps race is the most crucial characteristics that people relate to when identifying themselves and expressing a sense of value, worth, and pride. Therefore, nonviolent acts such as intimidation, threats, and vandalism are used as a mechanism to oppress members of a group and to perpetuate the sense of inferiority among the victims as well as those who share the same traits. African Americans experienced more incidents of hate crimes in both violent and nonviolent incidents. Offenses such as simple assault, aggravated assault, and manslaughter demonstrate the physical and violent manner in which hate crimes are carried out. As such, physical violence takes on a healing process of broken bones, fractures, concussions, hospitalization.

Limitations of the Study

In this study, I examined hate crime data reported to law enforcement agencies in 2016 as well as the victimization survey. The study compared the five bias motives (Anti-African American, Anti-White, Anti-gay male, Anti-Jewish, and Anti-Hispanic or Latino). The data showed whether or not injuries were sustained but did not differentiate between major or minor injuries.

Recommendations for Future Research

Further research could include an analysis of hate crime data from 2017-2020. Research could also expand on the current study by following hate crimes to determine the rate of prosecution/conviction and sentencing to examine the effectiveness of enhanced penalties. Additional research could also delve deeper into other bias motivators, for example crimes that reported over 200 incidents, such as anti-Islamic (*n* = 308), anti-LGBT (*n* = 248), anti-Non-Hispanic or Latino (*n* = 228), etc.

Implications for Social Change

Social change is the process of creating policies, social programs, education, etc., that will have a positive impact on members of society. Understanding the differences in societal state and how each group processes hate crimes can lead to a transformation by breaking away from past social structures that exist in the political and judicial arenas (Cárdenas, & de la Sablonnière, 2020).

A review of the 2016 hate crime statistics revealed a disproportionate number of hate crimes committed against African Americans in both violent and nonviolent incidents. Advocating for others can be one way to bring about change by influencing policy and social systems that impact society (Cárdenas, & de la Sablonnière, 2020).

Conclusions

This study was conducted to analyze the extent to which hate crimes were more injurious for African Americans vs. of the minorities. I also examined the depth to which victims of racially motivated hate crimes experienced more emotional and physical problems, such as anxiety, depression, headaches, and muscle tension, as compared with

victims who were targeted because of their ethnicity or gender. The analysis of the data concluded that African Americans experienced the greatest number of victimizations in both violent and nonviolent criminal acts. In addition, victims of racially motivated hate crimes experienced more emotional turmoil than victims of bias crime motivated by ethnicity or gender.

The study's recommendations were made involving future research and suggested practices to form mutual collaboration to bridge the gap between community leaders, law enforcement, courts, members of the community, and social justice programs.

References

Adams, D. M. (2005). Punishing hate and achieving equality. *Criminal Justice Ethics*, 24, 19-30. https://doi.org/10.1080/0731129X.2005.9992177

Agnew, R. (2001). Building on the foundation for a general strain theory: Specifying the types of crime most likely to lead to crime and delinquency. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, *38*(4), 319–362. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022427801038004001

Alhaboby, Z. A., al-Khateeb, H. M., Barnes, J., & Short, E. (2016). 'The language is disgusting and they refer to my disability': The cyberharassment of disabled people. *Disability & Society*, *31*(8), 1138. https://doi.org/10.1080/09687599.2016.1235313

Al-Hakim, M. (2015). Making a home for the homeless in hate crime legislation. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, *30*(10), 1755–1781. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260514549197

Awan, I., & Zempi, I. (2016). The affinity between online and offline anti-Muslim hate crime: Dynamics and impacts. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, *27*, 1–8. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2016.02.001

Assembly Bill No. 2501. Amendment to California Penal Code $192. (2014. September 27).

Baron, M. (2016). Hate crime legislation reconsidered. *Metaphilosophy, 47*(4/5), 504–523. https://doi.org/10.1111/meta.12206

Bauer, H. (2012). The righteous mind: Why good people are divided by politics and

religion by Jonathan Haidt. *Journal of Scientific Exploration*, *26*(3).

Bell, J. (2019). *The resistance & the stubborn but unsurprising persistence of hate and extremism in the United States*. *Indiana Journal of Global Legal Studies*, *26*(1), 305-316. https://doi.org/10.2979/indjglolegstu.26.1.0305

Bell, J. G., & Perry, B. (2015). Outside looking in: The community impacts of anti-lesbian, gay, and bisexual hate crime. *Journal of Homosexuality*, *62*(1), 98–120. https://doi.org/10.1080/00918369.2014.957133

Bessel, A. L. (2010). Preventing hate crimes without restricting constitutionally protected speech: Evaluating the impact of the Matthew Shepard and James Byrd, Jr. Hate Crimes Prevention Act on First Amendment free speech rights. *Hamline Journal of Public Law and Policy*, *2*, 735.

Blazak, R. (2001). White boys to terrorist men: Target recruitment of Nazi skinheads. *American Behavioral Scientist*, *44*(6), 982–1000. https://doi.org/10.1177/00027640121956629

Brax, D. (2016). Motives, reasons, and responsibility in hate/bias crime legislation. *Criminal Justice Ethics*, *35*(3), 230–248. https://doi.org/10.1080/0731129X.2016.1243826

Brewer, W. F., & Nakamura, G. V. (1984). *The nature and functions of schemas* (Technical Report No. 325). University of Illinois, Urbana-Champagne. https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/4825977.pdf

Brudholm, T. (2015). Hate crimes and human rights violations. *Journal of Applied Philosophy*, *32*(1), 82–97. https://doi.org/10.1111/japp.12079

Burnap, P., & Williams, M. L. (2016). Us and them: Identifying cyber hate on Twitter across multiple protected characteristics. EPJ DATA SCIENCE, *5*. https://doi.org/10.1140/epjds/s13688-016-0072-6

Cabeldue, M. K., Cramer, R. J., Kehn, A., Crosby, J. W., & Anastasi, J. S. (2018). Measuring attitudes about hate: Development of the hate crime beliefs scale. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 33*(23), 3656–3685. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260516636391

Card, C. (2001). Is penalty enhancement a sound idea? *Law and Philosophy*, *20*, 195-214

Cárdenas, D., & de la Sablonnière, R. (2020). Intergroup conflict and the process of social change: Similar conflicts, different intragroup processes. *Peace and Conflict: Journal of Peace Psychology*, *26*(3), 303–313. https://doi.org/10.1037/pac0000455

Cheng, W., Ickes, W., & Kenworthy, J. B. (2013). The phenomenon of hate crimes in the United States. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *43*(4), 761–794. https://doi.org/10.1111/jasp.12004

Chetty, N., & Alathur, S. (2018). Hate speech review in the context of online social networks. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, *40*, 108–118. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2018.05.003

Collins, P. H. (2015) Intersectionality's definitional dilemmas. *Annual Review of Sociology*, *41*(3), 1-20. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-soc-073014-112142

Cramer, R. J., Laxton, K. L., Chandler, J. F., Kehn, A., Bate, B. P., & Clark, J. W. (2017). Political identity, type of victim, and hate crime-related beliefs as

predictors of views concerning hate crime penalty enhancement laws. Analyses of Social Issues and Public Policy (ASAP), *17*(1), 262–285. https://doi.org/10.1111/asap.12140

Cramer, R. J., Clark, J. W., III, Kehn, A., Burks, A. C., & Wechsler, H. J. (2014). A mock juror investigation of blame attribution in the punishment of hate crime perpetrators. International Journal of Law and Psychiatry, *37*(6), 551–557. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijlp.2014.02.028

Djarv, C., Westerberg, S., & Frenzel, A. (2015). Hatbrott 2014 [Hate crime 2014] (report 2015:13) from the National Crime Prevention Council.

Dukes, K. N., Kahn, K. B., Dukes, K. N., & Gaither, S. E. (2017). Black racial stereotypes and victim blaming: Implications for media coverage and criminal proceedings in cases of police violence against racial and ethnic minorities. *Journal of Social Issues*, (4), 789. https://doi.org/10.1111/josi.12248

Fetzer, M. D., & Pezzella, F. S. (2019). The nature of bias crime injuries: A comparative analysis of physical and psychological victimization effects. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, *34*(18), 3864–3887. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260516672940

Fischer, A., Halperin, E., Canetti, D., & Jasini, A. (2018). Why We Hate. *Emotion Review*, *10*(4), 309–320. https://doi.org/10.1177/1754073917751229

Garland, J., & Chakraborti, N. (2012) Divided by a common concept. Assessing the implications of different conceptualization of hate crime in the European Union. *European Journal of Criminology, 9*, 38-51.

Geisler, K. R., Enomoto, C. E., & Djaba, T. (2019). Hate crimes and minority-owned Businesses. *Review of Black Political Economy*, *46*(1), 3–21. https://doi.org/10.1177/0034644619840669

George, C. (2017). Hate spin: The twin political strategies of religious incitement and offense-taking. *Communication Theory* (1050-3293), *27*(2), 156–175. https://doi.org/10.1111/comt.12111

Gerstenfeld, P.B. (2011). *Hate crimes: Causes, controls, and controversies.* Sage Publishing

Gerstenfeld, P.B. (2013). *Hate crimes: Causes, controls, and controversies (3rd ed.).* Sage Publishing

Glaser, J. (2005). Intergroup bias and inequity: Legitimizing beliefs and policy attitudes. *Social Justice Research*, *18*(3), 257–282. https://doi-.org/10.1007/s11211-005-6825-1

Gould, R. R. (2019). Is the "hate" in hate speech the "hate" in hate crime? Waldron and Dworkin on political legitimacy. Jurisprudence, *10*(2), 171–187. https://doi.org/10.1080/20403313.2018.1552468

Green, J. & Merle, P. (2013). Terror management and civic engagement. An experimental investigation of effects of mortality salience on civic engagement intentions. *Journal of Media Psychology, 25(3), 142-151.*

Gruenewald, J., & Allison, K. (2018). Examining differences in bias homicide across victim groups. *Crime & Delinquency*, *64*(3), 316–341. https://doi.org/10.1177/0011128717715735

Greenwald, A. G., & Pettigrew, T. F. (2014). With malice toward none and charity for some: Ingroup favoritism enables discrimination. *American Psychologist*, *69*(7), 669–684. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0036056

Haidt, J. (2012) Righteous mind. Why good people are divided by politics and religion.

Harris, C. T., & Ulmer, J. T. (2017). "Mighty Like A River": The black protestant church and violence in black communities. *Sociological Quarterly*, *58*(2), 295–314. https://doi.org/10.1080/00380253.2017.1296336

Haslam, N., & Loughnan, S. (2014). Dehumanization and infrahumanization. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *65*, 399–423. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-010213-115045

Hawdon, J., Oksanen, A., & Räsänen, P. (2017). Exposure to online hate in four nations: A Cross-National Consideration. *Deviant Behavior*, *38*(3), 254–266. https://doi.org/10.1080/01639625.2016.1196985

Hirschberger, G. (2018). Collective trauma and the social construction of meaning. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *9*. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.01441

Huey, L., & Broll, R. (n.d.). "I don't find it sexy at all": Criminal investigators' views of media glamorization of police "dirty work." *Policing & Society*, *25*(2), 236–247. https://doi.org/10.1080/10439463.2013.864654

Iganski, P., & Lagou, S. (2015). Hate crimes hurt some more than others: Implications for the just sentencing of offenders. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, *30*(10), 1696–1718. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260514548584

James, S. E., Herman, J. L., Rankin, S., Keisling, M., Mottet, L., & Anafi, M. (2016). The

Report of the 2015 U.S. transgender survey. Washington, DC: National Center for Transgender Equality. https://transequality.org/sites/default/files/docs/usts/USTS-Full-Report-Dec17.pdf

Jardine, E. (2019). Online content moderation and the dark web: Policy responses to radicalizing hate speech and malicious content on the darknet. *First Monday*, *24*(2), 1. https://doi.org/10.5210/fm.v24i12.10266

Jendryke, M., & McClure, S. C. (2019). Mapping crime – Hate crimes and hate groups in the USA: A spatial analysis with gridded data. *Applied Geography*, *111*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apgeog.2019.102072

Jenness, V., & Grattet, R., (2001) *Making hate a crime: From social movement to law enforcement*. Russell Sage Foundation

Jones, J. M. (2017). Killing fields: Explaining police violence against persons of color. *Journal of Social Issues, 73*(4), 872–883. https://doi.org/10.1111/josi.12252

Kahn, K. B., & Davies, P. G. (2017). What influences shooter bias? The effects of suspect race, neighborhood, and clothing on decisions to shoot. *Journal of Social Issues*, *73*(4), 723-743. https://doi.org/10.1111/josi.12245

Kauppinen, A. (2015). Hate and punishment. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, *30*(10), 1719-1737. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260514548583

Küpper, B., Wolf, C., & Zick, A. (2010). Social status and anti-immigrant attitudes in Europe: An examination from the perspective of social dominance theory. *International Journal of Conflict & Violence*, *4*(2), 206. https://search-ebscohost-com.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/login.aspx?direct=true&db=edo&AN=56570188&sit

e=eds-live&scope=site

Lantz, B., & Kim, J. (2019). Hate crimes hurt more, but so do co-offenders: Separating the influence of co-offending and bias on hate-motivated physical injury. *Criminal Justice & Behavior*, *46*(3), 437. https://search-ebscohost-com.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/login.aspx?direct=true&db=edb&AN=135206968&site=eds-live&scope=site

Lantz, B., Gladfelter, A. S., & Ruback, R. B. (2019). Stereotypical hate crimes and criminal justice processing: A multi-dataset comparison of bias crime arrest patterns by offender and victim race. *Justice Quarterly*, *36*(2), 193–224. https://doi.org/10.1080/07418825.2017.1399211

Lee, C. (2008). The gay panic-defense. *U.C. Davis Law Review*, *2*, 471.

Legewie, J., & Schaeffer, M. (n.d.). Contested boundaries: Explaining where ethnoracial diversity provokes neighborhood conflict. *American Journal of Sociology*, *122*(1), 125–161.

Levin, B. (2015). Reassessing laws on hate violence against the homeless. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 59(13), 1715–1728. https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764215590604

Mancini, C., & Pickett, J. T. (2017). Reaping what they sow? Victim-offender overlap perceptions and victim blaming attitudes. *Victims & Offenders*, *12*(3), 434–466. https://doi.org/10.1080/15564886.2015.1093051

Mason, G. (2014). The symbolic purpose of hate crime law: Ideal victims and emotion. *Theoretical Criminology*, *18*(1), 75–92.

https://doi.org/10.1177/1362480613499792

Mathis, S. (2018). Motive, action, and confusion in the debate over hate crime legislation. *Criminal Justice Ethics, 37*(1), 1-20. https://doi.org/10.1080/0731129X.2018.1440787

Mawby, R. C., & Irene, Z. (2018). Police officers' experiences as victims of hate crime. *Policing, 41*(5), 526-538. https://doi.org/10.1108/PIJPSM-12-2016-0176

McGloin, J. M., & Rowan, Z. R. (2015). A threshold model of collective crime. *Criminology*, *53*(3), 484–512. https://doi.org/10.1111/1745-9125.12077

Mekawi, Y., Bresin, K., & Hunter, C. D. (2016). White fear, dehumanization, and low empathy: Lethal combinations for shooting biases. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 22*(3), 322–332. https://doi.org/10.1037/cdp0000067

Mellgren, C. (2016). University students' support to penalty enhancement for hate crime. *Journal of Scandinavian Studies in Criminology and Crime Prevention*, *17*(2), 185–202. https://doi.org/10.1080/14043858.2016.1260328

Movement Advancement Project (2015). Hate crime laws. [Equality map]. http://lgbtmap.org/equality-maps/hate_crime_laws

Moye, R. G., Henderson, D. X., Lewis, M. K., & Lewis, A. (2015). Moving on up but still falling down: A framework for understanding the Trayvon Martin's of the world. *Race, Gender & Class, 22*(1/2), 296.

National Minority Supplier Development Council (2014). Economic impact report: The effects of NMSDC certified minority business enterprises on the U.S. economy. http://www.bmsdc,org/wp-content/uploads/Economic

People vs. Rodriguez, 64, Cal. Rpt. 253, 255 (1067). https://law.justia.com/cases/california/supreme-court/2018/s239713.html

Perkiss, D. A. (2013). A new strategy for neutralizing the gay panic defense at trial: Lessons from the Lawrence King Case. *UCLA Law Review*, *60*(3), 778–824.

Perry, B. (2014). Gendered Islamophobia: Hate crime against Muslim women. Social identities: *Journal for the Study of Race, Nation and Culture*, *20*(1), 74–89. https://doi.org/10.1080/13504630.2013.864467

Perry, B., & Alvi, S. (2012). 'We are all vulnerable': The in terrorem effects of hate crimes. *International Review of Victimology*, *18*(1), 57–71. https://doi.org/10.1177/0269758011422475

Perry, J. (2016). A shared global perspective on hate crime? *Criminal Justice Policy Review*, *27*(6), 610–626. https://doi.org/10.1177/0887403415601473

Pezzella, F.S., & Fetzer, M.D. (2017). The likelihood of injury among bias crimes: An analysis of general and specific bias types. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260515586374

Plumm, K. M., & Terrance, C. A. (2013). Gender-bias hate crimes: What constitutes a hate crime from a potential juror's perspective? *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *7*, 1468.

Pohjonen, M. (2019). A comparative approach to social media extreme speech: Online hate speech as media commentary. *International Journal of Communication (19328036)*, *13*, 3088–3103.

Popa-Wyatt, M., & Wyatt, J. L. (2018). Slurs, roles and power. *Philosophical Studies*,

175(11), 2879.

Powers, R. A., & Socia, K. M. (2019). Racial animosity, adversary effect, and hate crime: Parsing out injuries intraracial, interracial, and race-based offenses. *Crime & Delinquency*, *65*(4), 447.

Pulido, L. (2015.). Geographies of race and ethnicity 1: White supremacy vs white privilege in environmental racism research. *Progress in Human Geography*, *39*(6), 809–817. https://doi.org/10.1177/0309132514563008

Ramirez, J. L., Gonzalez, K. A., & Galupo, M. P. (2018). "Invisible during my own crisis": Responses of LGBT people of color to the Orlando shooting. *Journal of Homosexuality*, *65*(5), 579–599. https://doi.org/10.1080/00918369.2017.1328217

Richman, T. (2018). Baltimore student accepted into all eight Ivy League colleges: 'I just felt extraordinary'. https://www.baltimoresun.com/education/bs-md-ci-gilman-ivy-acceptance-20180404-story.html

Roseman, I.J., Weist, C., & Swarts, T.S. (1994). Phenomenology, behaviors, and goals differentiate discrete emotions. *Journal of Personality and Social Science Psychology, 67(2), 206-221*

Sahlins, M. (2009). The teach-ins: Anti-war protest in the old stone age. *Anthropology Today*, *25*(1), 3-5. https://doi.org/10.1111/anth.2009.25.issue-1

Salerno, J. M., Najdowski, C. J., Bottoms, B. L., Harrington, E., Kemner, G., & Dave, R. (2015). Excusing murder? Conservative jurors' acceptance of the gay-panic defense. *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law*, *21*(1), 24–34. https://doi.org/10.1037/law0000024

Scheitle, C. P., & Hansmann, M. (2016). Religion-related hate crimes: Data, trends, and limitations. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion*, *55*(4), 859–873. https://doi.org/10.1111/jssr.12299

Schneider, A., & Ingram, H. (1993). Social construction of target populations: Implications for politics and policy. *American Political Science Review*, *87*(2), 334

Seglow, J. (2016). Hate speech, dignity and self-respect. *Ethical Theory & Moral Practice*, *19*(5), 1103–1116. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10677-016-9744-3

Shihui, H., Georg, N., Kai, V., Bruce E., W., Shinobu, K., & Michael E.W., V. (2013). A cultural neuroscience approach to the biosocial nature of the human brain. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *335*. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-071112-054629

Sidanius, J., Pratto, F., Van Laar, C., & Levin, S. (2004). Social dominance theory: Its agenda and method. *Political Psychology*, *25*(6), 845–880. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9221.2004.00401.x

Simpson, R. M. (2019). "Won't somebody please think of the children?" Hate speech, harm, and childhood. *Law & Philosophy*, *38*(1), 79–108. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10982-018-9339-3

Southern Poverty Law Center: Update:1094 bias-related incidents in the month following the election. https://www.splcenter.org/hatewatch/2016/12/16/update-1094-bias-related-incidents-month-following-election

Spielman, F. (2019). Lightfoot sworn in: "Get ready… reform is here".

https://chicago.suntimes.com/2019/5/20/18632430/lori-lightfoot-mayor-inauguration-council

Staub, E. (2013) Building a peaceful society: Origins, prevention, and reconciliation after genocide and other group violence. *American Psychologist, 68(7), 576-589.*

Stephan, W.G., & Stephan, C.W. (2000). An integrated threat theory of prejudice. In S. (Ed). Reducing prejudice and Discrimination.

Stoops, M. (2014). Vulnerable to hate: A survey of hate crimes and violence committed against the homeless in 2013. Washington, D.C: National Coalition for the Homeless. http://nationalhomeless.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/406/Hate-Crimes-2013-FINAL.pdf

Sullaway, M. (2004). Psychological perspectives on hate crime laws. *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law*, *10*(3), 250–292. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8971.10.3.250

Sullivan, A. C., Ong, A. C. H., La Macchia, S. T., & Louis, W. R. (2016). The impact of unpunished hate crimes: When derogating the victim extends into derogating the group. *Social Justice Research*, *29*(3), 310–330. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11211-016-0266-x

Swiffen, A. (2018). New resistance to hate crime legislation and the concept of law. *Law, Culture & the Humanities*, *14*(1), 121

Thomaz, F. (2020). The digital and physical footprint of dark net markets. *Journal of International Marketing*, *28*(1), 66–80. https://doi.org/10.1177/1069031X19898678

Thorneycroft, R., & Asquith, N. L. (2017). 'Figurehead' hate crime cases: Developing a

framework for understanding and exposing the ‘problem’ with ‘disability.’ *Continuum: Journal of Media & Cultural Studies*, *31*(3), 482–494. https://doi.org/10.1080/10304312.2016.1275160

Tomei, J., & Cramer, R. J. (2016). Legal policies in conflict: The gay panic defense and hate crime legislation. *Journal of Forensic Psychology Practice*, *16*(4), 217–235. https://doi.org/10.1080/15228932.2016.1192331

Tower, L., Mankowski, M., Hash, K., & Kim, H. (2019). Teach-in: Positive responses during divisive times. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work*, *39*(3), 237–247. https://doi.org/10.1080/08841233.2019.1607798

Van Dyke, N., & Tester, G. (2014). Dangerous climates: Factors associated with variation in racist hate crimes on college campuses. *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice*, *30*(3), 290–309. https://doi.org/10.1177/1043986214536666

Varela, J. R. (2015), Latinos in the U.S. Cabinet: A report card. https://www.latinousa.org/2015/11/03/latinos-in-the-us-cabinet-a-report-card/

Venema, R. M. (n.d.). Police officer schema of sexual assault reports: Real rape, ambiguous cases, and false reports. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, *31*(5), 872–899. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260514556765

Walfield, S. M., Socia, K. M., & Powers, R. A. (2017). Religious motivated hate crimes: Reporting to law enforcement and case outcomes. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, *42*(1), 148–169. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12103-016-9349-3

Wells, M., & Mitchell, K.J. (2014). Patterns of internet use and risk of online victimization for youth with and without disabilities. *The Journal of Special*

Education 48(3):204-213. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022466913479141