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Traffic Enforcement, Policing, and Crime Rates

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2016

Abstract

Traffic Enforcement, Policing, and Crime Rates

by

Marc Weiss

MS, Mountain State University, 2004

BS, Mountain State University, 2003

Dissertation Submitted in Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Administration

Walden University

July 2016

Abstract

Law enforcement agencies believe that traffic enforcement, in addition to reducing

fatalities associated with automobile collisions, may also reduce the incidence of public

order crimes. The academic literature, though, has largely failed to address this

phenomenon. The purpose of this correlational study was to use Kelling and Wilson's

broken windows theory to evaluate whether a statistically significant relationship exists

between traffic enforcement rates and public order crimes in South Carolina. Secondary

data from 5 counties were acquired from the South Carolina Department of Public Safety

and the South Carolina Law Enforcement Division for the time period 2008 through

2012. Statistically significant Spearman's Rho correlations were found for 4 of the 5

counties ($p < .05$). Though statistically significant, the correlations were weak. The

findings suggest that Wilson and Kelling's theory is somewhat predictive of the

relationship between the visibility of law enforcement officers and reductions in public

order crimes, but may not fully explain this relationship. Even so, there is some evidence

that the presence of traffic enforcement officers may reduce certain types of crime,

thereby improving the quality of life for residents. Based on the findings, one important

recommendation of this study is for law enforcement agencies in South Carolina to

consider enhancing or expanding the use of traffic enforcement teams because of their

potential value in reducing public order crimes, including a plan to conduct a follow-up

evaluation of the efficacy of such a program.

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Dedication

Most of all, I thank my Lord and Savior Christ Jesus for everything. Without Him, nothing is possible. Second to Him is my wife, Stephanie, who never gave up on me, and for my son, Marc, Jr., whom this is all for.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

This study compared crime rates to traffic enforcement. The public has held police officers more accountable in recent years with publicity regarding police conduct (Johnson, 2012; McCarty & Skogan, 2012; Papazoglou & Andersen, 2014). Although not all problems in policing are the fault of police officers, police have been wrong in some situations. Additionally, police administrators conducting police operations have resorted to traffic enforcement as the means to enforce laws, such as those that prohibit driving under the influence (DUI; Gross, 2011; Purssell & Brubacher, 2012). Although traffic enforcement may reduce traffic fatalities, researchers have not studied whether traffic enforcement reduces crime as a whole (Bener, Yousif, Al-Malki, El-Jack, & Bener, 2011). The results of the study may improve policies, procedures, and training, reducing crime rates and thus supporting positive social change.

The study followed a logical approach. Chapter 1 contains an introduction to the study, in which I lay out the reasons for the study and what I did to complete it. Chapter 2 is a literature review in which I examine issues related to the public sector as presented in literature related to crime and criminology. Chapter 3 is the methodology section, in which I create a roadmap to show how I conducted a quantitative, exploratory, correlational research study. Chapters 4 and 5 include the final results of the study, interpretation of these results, and discussion of how researchers might pursue further study in this area in the future.

Background

The study addressed a gap in the literature concerning traffic enforcement and crime rates. A tool traditionally used to combat deteriorating neighborhoods has been a strong law enforcement presence, also known as *area saturation*. Saturation involves the use of police, building inspectors, and other governmental officials to enforce minor or petty crime laws in an effort to restore order (Barthe & Stitt, 2011). The gap between enforcement by police (with municipal officials) and the community's response to the enforcement creates a paradox with respect to rights and privacy (Van Tassell, 2013). Although some citizens would welcome a wider police presence, others would see the police presence and enforcement as harassment if police practiced proactive enforcement of smaller crimes. Some citizens see enforcement of small crimes as hypocrisy if police enforce minor crimes when larger crimes are occurring (Ward, Nobles, Lanza-Kaduce, Levett, & Tillyer, 2011).

Police officers have a difficult job and are prone to stress or burnout because of their experiences of role conflict (Johnson, 2012; McCarty & Skogan, 2012; Papazoglou & Andersen, 2014). On occasion, scholars develop groundbreaking concepts that help police to understand a situation. In 1982, for instance, Wilson and Kelling (1982) developed the controversial *broken windows theory*, in which they posited that an area that is left to deteriorate physically by its citizens will also deteriorate with respect to crime if the police do not maintain it. Broken windows theory encouraged police to be more proactive within their communities, based on the belief that if the police solve petty crimes, then bigger crimes will not manifest (Wilson & Kelling, 1982). They named their

theory *broken windows* because they used an allegory of broken windows in a neighborhood. If hypothetical windows of a building were broken and the residents left those windows shattered, eventually the broken windows would not matter. If the whole building caught on fire, it would appear that no one cared about the building (Wilson & Kelling, 1982, 2006). Broken windows theory has been the focus of considerable scholarly research since 1982. Critics such as Harcourt (2001) have condemned broken windows theory.

Although past studies have validated as well as invalidated broken windows theory and similar frameworks, no researcher has directly married crime rates or broken windows with traffic enforcement (Bener, Yousif, Al-Malki, El-Jack, & Bener, 2011; Gargett, Connelly, & Nghiem, 2011; White, Thompson, Turner, Dougherty, & Schmidt, 2011). This study analyzed crime rates with traffic enforcement as well as crime rates with broken windows in a quantitative, exploratory, correlational research study (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2014; Sozer & Merlo, 2013).

Doğan and Sevınç (2011) affiliated broken windows with the problem-oriented policing style, which targets specific problems within communities (Guillaume, Sidebottom, & Tilley, 2012). Although many critics of the problem-oriented style of conservative policing have cited gaps in its effectiveness, others have maintained that it is a powerful tool if properly used (Harcourt, 2001; Wilson & Kelling, 1982). Others have supported broken windows as valid but have contended that it is contingent on public participation (Michener, 2013).

In another study, Kamete (2010) observed a proactive police state that enforced minor laws with a heavy hand. The community had more resistance toward the police. The community's resistance led to nullification of the officials' efforts, when their original intent was to help the community. Improving quality of life requires an abundance of workers, citizens, and even police (Michener, 2013). The difficulty in improving the quality of life raises many challenges and, depending on the size of the municipality and neighborhood, places constraints on the budget.

The existing challenge is the numerous issues in maintaining deteriorating neighborhoods. A problem recognized in state and local police departments is a weaker U.S. economy (though the economy was improving at the time of this writing). Economic issues, combined with many governmental departments, particularly police departments, experiencing low recruitment and high turnover as officials leave for various reasons, constitutes a serious public safety problem resulting in fewer available qualified officials (Julseth, Ruiz, & Hummer, 2011). No literature exists on whether higher expenditures lead to lower crime rates in a municipality, but studies have linked unemployment and social issues to crime rates (Cook & Cook, 2011). In fact, many major cities (including Chicago) have spent an abundance of money on programs to reduce crime, but their murder rates have remained very high (Raghavan, 2011). Liu and Mikesell (2014) found Illinois to have a high rate of corruption. Four former Illinois governors either served prison time or are serving time. Thus, money alone does not solve issues. The combination of a poor economy, deterioration of neighborhoods, and human resource issues has left some neighborhoods beyond repair, at least at the present time, because

administrators have distributed municipal resources elsewhere. Due to human resource issues, officials must seek new and creative ways to combat the deterioration of neighborhoods without enough working personnel to enforce laws and ordinances for minor violations (Schwester, 2011).

Recruitment of qualified personnel and workforce levels in law enforcement have also declined with less interested people (Julseth, Ruiz, & Hummer, 2011). Human resource issues have left more vacancies within police departments and municipal offices in the United States. Police departments such as that of New York City (NYC) have encountered problems in recruiting and retaining personnel because of pay (Johnson, 2012). The outcome could be another shortage of police, as in the 1990s (Wilson & Weiss, 2014). Nevertheless, society has a stake in keeping neighborhoods safe, and municipalities have a stake in keeping crime rates down (Nagler, 2013).

The most visible form of police enforcement is traffic enforcement (Cook & Whowell, 2011). Because traffic enforcement gains the attention of citizens in the area where police are working, traffic enforcement could serve the same purpose as state and/or local employees maintaining a neighborhood while using fewer people than traditional methods of law enforcement (Schwester, 2011). I examined traffic enforcement as an alternative to using numerous personnel for area saturation, from ethical, policy, and fiscal standpoints.

Traffic enforcement is an alternative to more expensive and robust solutions. Even before the recession of 2008, Sharp (2006) discovered that

Among the 60 largest cities in the United States … the number of sworn officers

per 1,000 population in 2000 ranges from 8.3 for the City of Miami to less than

1.5 in cities such as Anaheim, Riverside, Anchorage, and Corpus Christi.

Although cities such as San Francisco, Denver, and Houston have police forces of

about 2.7 per 1,000 residents, the police forces of cities such as New York and

Newark are nearly twice as large, at 5.05 and 5.36 per 1,000 residents,

respectively. (p. 292)

Sharp's research showed that the ratio between police and the citizens is small. Police

need alternatives to work within communities and, some argue, with fewer personnel.

With retention issues in many areas, retirement changes, and opportunities elsewhere,

turnover is high in many police departments. Schwester (2011) substantiated the claim

that many police departments were outsourcing because of human resource issues.

Although outsourcing is not feasible in every sector, outsourcing may be relevant for

public safety, as the police may outsource to individuals who have no law enforcement

experience (Dickinson, 2013).

Hence, the study was a study of the relationship between the enforcement of

traffic laws and crime rates. Researchers have noted a correlation between traffic

enforcement as traffic enforcement relates to traffic-related deaths (Ritchey & Nicholson-

Crotty, 2011). However, a preliminary review of the literature revealed two points. First,

enforcement of public-order crimes and major crime rates are directly related (Wilson &

Kelling, 2006). As defined later, *public-order crimes* are crimes against the public, such

as disorderly conduct, drunkenness, vandalism, acts negatively affecting quality of life, et

cetera (Siegel, 2015). Second, traffic enforcement saves lives in traffic collisions (Ward, Nobles, Lanza-Kaduce, Levett, & Tillyer, 2011). However, little literature exists on whether including traffic enforcement in public-order crime enforcement decreases the numbers significantly. The general problem is that when police use proactive enforcement of traffic laws, both citizens and police supervisors view proactive policing as unnecessary because crimes are occurring and are more serious. However, the public still demands crime reduction (Siegel, 2015; Worrall, 2015). In the literature review, I explore the following three areas: (a) traffic enforcement and trust, (b) crime rates, and (c) citizen perceptions of how traffic enforcement and crime rates relate.

Problem Statement

Traffic enforcement reduces fatal collision rates (Ritchey & Nicholson-Crotty, 2011). However, what has been unknown is whether there is a correlation between traffic enforcement rates and public-order crimes. The study identified a negative correlation between crime rates and traffic enforcement. Because the correlation was negative, police departments may have another tool to fight crime. In addition, if one assumes that broken windows theory is true, then it follows that the reduction of smaller crimes prevents larger crimes from taking place. The need to reduce crime is current, relevant, and significant to the public policy and administration discipline (Boivin, 2013; McDowall, Loftin, & Pate, 2012; Wilson & Kelling, 1982).

Research in criminal justice has been changing in recent years, with numerous studies focusing on traffic enforcement or crime rates, but not both, as researchers have lacked data (Harmon, 2013). When I searched for literature on crime rates and traffic

enforcement together, many articles involved racial profiling or another form of police corruption, such as excessive use of force. Although racial profiling and other forms of police corruption are important, and I investigate them in Chapter 2, these articles did not address any direct relationship between crime rates and traffic enforcement. Researcher neglect of the connection between crime rates and traffic enforcement was the reason I chose the study's topic. I combined the concepts and sought to determine whether a relationship existed. The study was needed to marry crime rates to traffic enforcement data in order to help police find alternative ways to solve community problems and make quality of life better.

Purpose of the Study

Because of dissention regarding broken windows theory, the need for social change, and problems in policing, I sought to provide new information to inform efforts to reduce crime. The study was a quantitative, exploratory, correlational research study using existing data. The dependent variable was crime rates, and the independent variable was traffic-stop performance within the counties noted in Chapter 3.

Research Question and Hypothesis

The research question was the following: Does traffic enforcement also reduce crime, as the enforcement of public order crimes has demonstrated (Wilson & Kelling 1982; 2006)? My working hypothesis was the following: There is a negative correlation between traffic enforcement and crime rates (H_1). The null hypothesis was that there was no relation between these two variables (H_0). My research showed the hypothesis (H_1) to be somewhat true.

Theoretical Foundation

The study was a quantitative, exploratory, correlational research study. Among the theories explored were Sir Robert Peel's nine principles of policing, broken windows theory, and constructs from other modern research scholars who examined issues related to the study (Lentz & Chaires, 2007; Wilson & Kelling, 1982). Peel's principles established history in law enforcement and loaned Peel's relevance to the study. Peel's nine principles, as cited in Lentz and Chaires (2007), are the following:

1. "The basic mission for which the police exist is to prevent crime and disorder" (p. 108).

2. "The ability of the police to perform their duties is dependent upon public approval of police actions" (p. 108).

3. "Police must secure the willing co-operation of the public in voluntary observance of the law to be able to secure and maintain the respect of the public" (p. 108).

4. "The degree of co-operation of the public that can be secured diminishes proportionately to the necessity of the use of physical force" (p. 108).

5. "Police seek and preserve public favour not by catering to public opinion but by constantly demonstrating absolute impartial service to the law" (p. 109).

6. "Police use physical force to the extent necessary to secure observance of the law or to restore order only when the exercise of persuasion, advice, and warning is found to be insufficient" (p. 109).

7. "Police, at all times, should maintain a relationship with the public that gives reality to the historic tradition that the police are the public and the public are the police; the police being only members of the public who are paid to give full-time attention to duties which are incumbent on every citizen in the interests of community welfare and existence" (p. 109).

8. "Police should always direct their action strictly towards their functions and never appear to usurp the powers of the judiciary" (p. 109).

9. "The test of police efficiency is the absence of crime and disorder, not the visible evidence of police action in dealing with it" (p. 109).

Broken windows theory derived from the work of Peel and from the changing role of police in the 1960s (Wilson, 1968). Broken windows are symbolic of violations (ordinance violations and crimes) that affect quality of life, such as failure to maintain a neighborhood that results in neighborhood deterioration. The goal of preventing broken windows in communities is to enforce petty crimes so that major crimes are less likely to occur. Wilson and Kelling (1982) contended that if residents do not care about their community, then criminals will not care either and will be "free" to break the law. They also encouraged police to be more interactive with citizens and focus more on order maintenance than on crime-fighting style (proactive policing without emphasis on legal training). Since the publication of Wilson and Kelling's article in 1982, there has been greater emphasis on community policing within police organizations (Siegel, 2015).

The progression of community policing led to the development of another type of policing style, a direct offspring of broken windows: problem-oriented policing (Siegel,

2015). *Problem-oriented policing* is a combination of community policing and the crime-fighting style of the 1950s-1960s. Problem-oriented policing also addresses issues such as gangs, traffic, and other specific problems within a community while working with community leaders (Fulda, 2010; Michener, 2013; Wilson & Kelling, 1982). Although problem-oriented policing has some variation, in general, police departments and municipal agencies receive calls from citizens concerning abandoned automobiles, speeding vehicles, and other factors affecting the quality of life in neighborhoods. Although many citizen complaints involve petty crimes, research has shown that the enforcement of smaller crimes leads to an overall decline, as occurred with crime rates in NYC in the 1990s (Lens, 2013). In light of the multiple reasons for this crime rate decline, the literature conflicts on the best method to reduce crime when cost is a factor. The relationship between traffic enforcement and crime rates has been unclear, and this study explored the relationship between traffic enforcement and crime rates. Other factors have also helped police to reduce crime rates, such as police training. In addition, some negative situations have arisen in relation to law enforcement, such as tension involving race and racism. I describe race and racism concepts in Chapter 2.

Nature of the Study

Chapter 3 outlines the methodology I chose to use to answer my research question. The study was a quantitative, exploratory, correlational research study using existing data. Chapter 3 also describes how I planned to conduct my study. My research design used existing data. I used databases from governmental agencies, and I analyzed data using the same parameters, using the same five counties, for consecutive years, and

the same crime rates for each respective county. Because I used existing data, threats to internal validity existed, as I could not manipulate the data. Because I did not interact directly with participants, I had no ethical issues for the Institutional Review Board (IRB) to consider. The reason I used existing data were an ethical reason. I did not want any perception of a quota for purposes of the study. I did not want police stopping law violators for the study because citizen(s) might have a negative opinion of the purposes of the traffic stop (and the study), and because traffic stops are a legal issue. Therefore, I deemed it ethically best to use existing data. Using existing data protected all parties involved, and the existing data gave me the same information that I would otherwise obtain.

I analyzed data from the years 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, and 2012 in the study. Because the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) only classifies certain types of crimes in its Uniform Crime Reports (UCR), I only used larcenies (thefts), motor vehicle thefts (MVT), burglaries, and robberies for data comparison. The dependent variable was crime rates, and the independent variable was traffic-stop performance within the given counties.

Operational Definitions

Area saturation: A heavy presence of law enforcement personnel for halting any crime in a specific area when officers conduct an operation (Barthe & Stitt, 2011).

Argument from fallacy or argument to logic fallacy: Argument from fallacy or argument to logic fallacy is a common fallacy in research. The argument from fallacy or

argument to logic fallacy argument assumes that if one thing is true and another false about a statement, then the statement itself must be false (Pope, 2012).

Burglary: Entering a dwelling or business to commit a crime (Anderson, 2012).

Directed patrol: Patrol based on reports of incidents and targeted for nontraffic or traffic violations (Worrell, 2015).

General deterrence: A strategy to stop crimes from occurring in an area (Siegel, 2015).

Larceny or theft: Carrying away or taking of another's property (Siegel, 2015).

Law: Manmade rules reflecting the values of a given society based on beliefs (Stone, 2014).

Motor vehicle theft: The taking of another's vehicle, without permission, without the intent to return (Siegel, 2015).

Public-order crimes: Crimes against the public, such as disorderly conduct, drunkenness, vandalism, quality of life issues, et cetera (Siegel, 2015).

Racial profiling: The reality of an officer conducting a traffic stop illegitimately based on a person's race (Bell, Hopson, Craig, & Robinson, 2014)

Reliability: Measures consistency, particularly whether a technique repeatedly applied to the same instrument will have the same results each time the measure is applied (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2014).

Robbery: "Robbery is the theft [or attempted theft] of property using force or the threat of force" (Burrell, Bull, & Bond, 2012, p. 202).

Specific deterrence: A strategy based on stopping a person from committing further crimes (e.g., Megan's Law tracks sex offenders in the hope that the offender will not commit further acts of abuse; Siegel, 2015).

Ticket quota: The practice of requiring officers to write a certain number of tickets in a specific period (e.g., a police supervisor instructs a subordinate to write seven tickets per shift to show productivity). *Ticket* and *citation* are synonymous (Siegel, 2015).

Traffic stop or enforcement: The act of legally stopping an occupied vehicle for a legitimate traffic law or ordinance violation (Briggs & Crew, 2013).

Validity: Applies to a measure that reports the intent of a question honestly (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2014).

Assumptions

For purposes of the study, I assumed that governmental data were true and correct. One assumption I made involved relying on statistics. Although the honesty of police was not in question, the use of any UCR statistic imposed an issue. Police departments report UCR data (i.e., data are self-reported). Thus, the data were only as valid and reliable as the reporting departments. In Chapter 2, I discuss relevant literature, but the UCR data presented a potential limitation to the study because the use of any UCR statistic introduces the potential for bias. Although such bias is not always intentional or malicious, the potential was present. I must assume honesty in the statistics, or the study might prove frivolous (Boivin, 2013; Eterno & Silverman, 2010).

Scope and Delimitations

I had threats to internal validity. First, there was a location threat. Another researcher might come up with different results if he or she conducted the study outside of the area that I used. Second, other external factors may have influenced the outcome. For example, if police had incarcerated a group of offenders for a time (in a police operation), the numbers might show in the data, but as a researcher, I would not be privy to this information. A 5-year timeframe was sufficient to analyze data.

The weakness of the study was that it could not answer every social question with respect to police presence and crime rates. The study, however, may provide a bridge to further research. A qualitative researcher might replicate this quantitative study and build on the study from another perspective. I did not intend to defend or refute broken windows theory, but rather to focus on crime-reducing techniques as related to broken windows. The final weakness of the study was that I could not manipulate any data. The statistics gave me the variables.

Limitations

The weaknesses were slim but apparent. I relied on existing statistics, which meant that I could not control the variables. However, the lack of control removed the potential for bias. I could not manipulate data to harm the data. I chose the study, so the only mechanism I performed was to treat the data carefully. My actions held the limitations to a minimum.

Significance of the Study

Crime is generally a major concern of residents of a neighborhood at any given time, just as the concern is essential to a municipality. This study demonstrates police usage in a problem-oriented policing style (Corsaro, Hunt, Hipple, & McGarrell, 2012; Guillaume, Sidebottom, & Tilley, 2012; Siegel, 2015; Worrall, 2015). The study narrows the gap in knowledge about the relationship between traffic enforcement and reported crime rates. Budgetary concerns were not relevant to this study. Budgetary concerns are important to mention, though, as readers should be aware of this issue for future research (LaFrance, 2012).

The study showed a negative correlation between crime rates and traffic enforcement, so residents in the neighborhoods might feel worth and dignity (as more enforcement means better quality of life) and could be proud of their neighborhoods, as Wilson and Kelling (1982) hypothesized in broken windows theory. The negative correlation results also strengthen the relationship between the police and the community causing positive social change.

Summary

In Chapter 1, I have discussed the nature of the complicated issue of traffic and crime rates. I have also described the key points for investigation. Further, I have presented a clear statement of focus on a significant problem. Chapter 1 has also outlined the study and its positive social change implications. Chapter 2 contains a review of the literature on traffic enforcement, crime rates, and citizens' perceptions of police matters. The literature is important because the state of research is relevant to the effectiveness of

a police department. In Chapter 3, I discuss the methodology, the instruments used, and the procedures for the study.

Chapter 4 provides the results of the study and the statistical analysis, which showed that there was a slight negative correlation between the number of traffic stops and the crime rate. In Chapter 5, I contextualize the study and provide an executive summary with recommendations for traffic enforcement. Chapter 5 also addresses the positive social change implications of the study (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2014).

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction to Literature Review

The literature review included studies focused on an array of issues. Little

literature exists on the correlation between enforcement of traffic laws and crime rates.

Despite existing research and the completion of this study, researchers still lack data on

policing topics (Harmon, 2013). Many of the articles in this area relate to traffic

enforcement, crime rates, and ethical policing, albeit disjointedly. However, connections

among broken windows theory, social disorganization theory, and police ethics exist

(Deller & Deller, 2012; Shaw & McKay, 1929; Wilson & Kelling, 1982). A bond occurs

between ethical policing and traffic enforcement (Tay & Barros, 2011). I integrated five

concepts for the study to demonstrate a relationship: traffic enforcement, crime rates,

broken windows, citizen perceptions, and police professionalism using Peelian principles

(ethical policing) to prevent an argument from fallacy. Although the five concepts

seemed to represent distinct topics in research, the topics worked together harmoniously

to synthesize the study. Because traffic enforcement can unnerve drivers, ethical policing

also relates to the trust of the community, which is essential for community policing

(Ward, Nobles, Lanza-Kaduce, Levett, & Tillyer, 2011). Thus, I examined the nine

Peelian principles in depth as they embody what the ideals of ethical policing encompass.

Strategy for Searching for the Literature

Initially, I conducted a general word search within Academic Premier Complete.

Using the search terms *traffic enforcement and crime*, I found seven articles, six of which

were unrelated. I broadened the search to *enforcement and crime*, yielding 181 results,

and the study related to 10 of the 181 articles. I additionally used search parameters such as *history*, *policing*, and specific names to find articles to demonstrate the breadth and depth of history. From Academic Search Premier and Academic Search Complete, I found approximately 80 useful articles, but needed more articles to close the gap in the current literature. Throughout the study, I used Academic Search Complete to obtain extra information, such as operational definitions and other citations as needed (in Chapters 1 and 3).

I then went to ScienceDirect, another database, and did a search using the same parameters. The search generated 10 related articles, which I purchased. In addition, I subscribe to the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences (ACJS) publication, a scholarly periodical aimed at law enforcement. I found several relevant articles from publications such as *Public Administration Review* (PAR), ACJS, and ProQuest Criminal Justice. Lastly, I used some academic books for definitions and statistical topics. However, the bulk of the work was derived using academic peer-reviewed work. The aforementioned literature supports the study. In total, I used 165 references for the study, only 13 of which were published in a pre-2010 peer-reviewed journal, a non-peer-reviewed journal, an Internet source, or a book. In sum, 86.06% of the references were from academic, peer-reviewed journals dated 2011 or later, within the 5-year requirement.

The literature is wide ranging but effective in showing how Peelian principles and broken windows are still working, sometimes under different titles. Researchers have completed numerous studies regarding fatalities and enforcement (Gargett, Connelly, & Nghiem, 2011; Rizzi, Cumsille, Fresard, Gazmuri, & Muñoz, 2011). Researchers have

also completed numerous studies on enforcing petty crimes, as such crimes relate to broken windows (Gau & Pratt, 2010). In addition, researchers have written about ethical police behavior ad nauseam, some seemingly with bias, both positive and negative (Brown, 2013; Clover, 2012; Friedman, 2012). Lastly, police professionalism has been a heavily researched topic (Dantzker, 2011; Roots, 2013). Studies presented by Brown (2013), Clover (2012), Friedman (2012), Dantzker (2011), and Lundman (2010), even though methodologically sound, did not necessarily demonstrate the correlation to traffic enforcement and crime rates. Together, the studies indicated the need for this study, as I demonstrate in the literature review.

Peelian Principles and Broken Windows

Among the theories explored are Peel's nine principles of policing, broken windows theory, and other constructs from current literature relevant to the study (Lentz & Chaires, 2007; Wilson & Kelling, 1982). Peel was a founder of modern law enforcement techniques. He was particularly concerned with ethics and professionalism. Peel's principles made history in law enforcement and were thus relevant to this study (Dunbabin, 2011). I integrate his principles into current research later in the literature review to show how important his work continues to be. Broken windows theory indirectly derives from his principles.

Wilson and Kelling (1982) named broken windows theory in 1982; however, Wilson (1977) conceptualized the theory in 1968. The theory emphasizes the notion that if police enforce small crimes to keep a neighborhood in check, then citizens will follow suit, and small problems will dissolve. Conversely, if residents do not maintain the

neighborhood, small crimes will lead to bigger crimes. Wilson equated this phenomenon with the effect of physical broken windows in a neighborhood. If physical windows are broken, and no one cares, then nothing will stop vandals from committing more serious crimes (Wilson & Kelling, 1982). Many researchers accept broken windows theory on various levels; however, many dispute it as a viable theory (Harcourt & Ludwig, 2007; Thomas, Butry, & Prestemon, 2011; Thompson, 2015; Weil, 2012). I do not expect to settle the argument regarding broken windows theory in this study, but I believe that it is important to conduct a fair examination of both sides.

Broken windows emerged from the work of Peel and the changing role of police in the 1960s (Wilson, 1977). Broken windows are symbolic of every violation (ordinance and petty crime) affecting quality of life. For example, failing to maintain a neighborhood results in neighborhood deterioration. The goal of preventing broken windows in communities is to enforce laws against petty crimes, so that major crimes may be less likely to occur (Wilson, 1977). Wilson and Kelling (1982) contended that if residents did not care about their community, then criminals would not care either and would be free to break the law. Wilson and Kelling also encouraged police to interact with citizens and focus more on order maintenance than on crime fighting style—proactive policing without emphasis on legal training. Since the time of Wilson and Kelling's article in 1982, there has been greater emphasis on community policing within police organizations, though not without problems (Bain, Robinson, & Conser, 2014).

The progress of community policing led to the development of another type of policing style, a direct offspring of broken windows: problem-oriented policing

(Corcoran, 2014; Siegel, 2015). *Problem-oriented policing* is a combination of community policing and the crime-fighting style of the 1950s and 1960s. Problem-oriented policing also addresses issues such as gangs, traffic, and other specific concerns within a community, with the police working with community leaders (Guillaume, Sidebottom, & Tilley, 2012; Michener, 2013). Although problem-oriented policing has some variation, generally, police departments, and municipal agencies receive calls from citizens concerning small things (e.g., abandoned automobiles, speeding vehicles, and other factors affecting quality of life in neighborhoods). Many of the complaints relate to petty crimes, yet research has shown that the enforcement of laws concerning smaller crimes can prevent an overall decline, as occurred with law enforcement in NYC in the 1990s (Lens, 2013). As multiple phenomena may be cited to explain the decline, the literature conflicts on the best method to reduce crimes when cost is a factor. Albrecht (2011) deemed the efforts of the New York City Police Department (NYPD) a success that resulted in major improvements to quality of life. Cook and Cook (2011) also investigated the NYPD's efforts of the 1990s and found that, statistically, crime rates were root causes. The work of Price-Spratlen and Santoro (2011) also complemented, albeit indirectly, broken windows theory. Price-Spratlen and Santoro noted that researchers should perform more studies on the topic, though they implied that researchers had focused mainly on NYC. Ramos and Torgler (2013) concluded the same, stating that when studying academic settings and workplace environments, researchers should not focus on one specific area and make conclusions. Nevertheless, Price-Spratlen

and Santoro (2011) substantiated the claim that smaller crime issues can lead to larger crime issues, but not necessarily involving the same people.

However, not every researcher agrees that the NYPD did the best job of decreasing crime (Eterno & Silverman, 2010; Gilsinan, 2012). Fulda (2010) claimed that the NYPD's broken windows experiment was anything but a success. Hanink (2013) contended that officers reported lower crime rates to reduce their UCR numbers or to cover up racial profiling—an allegation that Gilsinan (2012) stated that there was not enough evidence to support. However, Gilsinan stressed accountability in reporting numbers. Fulda even tied the claim of success for the NYPD experiment to the theory of evolution. He stated that just as evolutionists fail to show how species separate, adherents of broken windows theory fail to separate different types of criminals. Fulda argued that one could not change crime methods so quickly. Although Wilson and Kelling (2006) disagreed, other researchers, such as Rocque, Bierie, Posick, and MacKenzie (2013), showed that criminals' tendency to change crime patterns is plausible. Although Rocque et al. did not argue for or against broken windows, they theorized that offenders could switch crimes. Unlike Price-Spratlen and Santoro (2011), Wilson and Kelling identified the criminals committing small crimes as the same criminals committing larger crimes. Wilson and Kelling implied that other criminals would come into an area, as Shaw and McKay (1929) found. Their arguments would negate Fulda's hypothesis.

Harcourt and Ludwig (2006) were among the major critics of broken windows theory. Harcourt and Ludwig argued that broken windows theory and all arguments stemming from it are inaccurate. Harcourt and Ludwig, however, used an argument to

logic fallacy. Applying their reasoning, one would conclude that if broken windows is inaccurate, its spawn must also be inaccurate, even if it has firm methods. Harcourt and Ludwig maintained that Wilson and Kelling (1982) built broken windows off a false foundation, resulting in a false conclusion. Wilson and Kelling's conclusion is not always the case, though. Guillaume, Sidebottom, and Tilley (2012) both complimented and complemented their experiences in a problem-oriented policing article and found that the process worked. In agreement with a separate journal article rebuking broken windows, Harcourt and Ludwig even went so far as to react to broken windows theory by asking the rhetorical question, in an article on drug use, "Who thought of this idea [broken windows] in the first place? And what were they smoking?" (p. 165).

Other researchers have also accused broken windows styles of policing of promoting racial profiling, inequality, and even violations of human rights (Ferman, 2013; Gilsinan, 2012; Thacher, 2011). Eterno and Silverman (2010) indirectly supported the argument against broken windows with examples from the 1990s project in NYC in which NYPD statisticians used programming software called Comparative Statistics (COMPSTAT). COMPSTAT compiles data from the UCR and creates a map that shows where crime is occurring. The COMPSTAT map, in turn, allows officers to know what is happening in a given area. Eterno and Silverman found that the COMPSTAT data output was only as good as the data entered. Thus, Eterno and Silverman concluded, "there is cause for concern in over-reliance on and interpretation of NYPD crime statistics" (p. 443). Eterno and Silverman further indicated that sometimes those in management privilege looking good over accuracy of numbers, given that promotions can depend on

these numbers. Nolan, Haas, and Napier (2011), however, argued that the problem is in the way police departments must report crime, not in what police do. Many departments use COMPSTAT software, and if used properly, COMPSTAT is an effective tool (Boivin, 2013; Eterno & Silverman, 2010; Gilsinan, 2012). However, Hanink (2013) posited that police programs often target lower income and/or minority areas, thereby benefiting Caucasians. The results of COMPSTAT software have included a heavy police presence in minority areas, which, Hanink asserted, has resulted in profiling people based on income and race.

Zhao, He, and Lovrich (2006), critics of broken windows theory, posited that the theory is not wrong per se but outdated. Zhao et al. called for more research to update the theory to reflect the modernization of policing. Their conclusion supported Harcourt and Ludwig (2006) insofar as Harcourt (2001) found broken windows to be outdated, but unlike Harcourt and Ludwig, Zhao et al. did not dismiss its value. Like most other items in policing, broken windows theory and its COMPSTAT derivative are tools for police to use. Much like the police car, dog, polygraph, et cetera, COMPSTAT is a method that police can use to track and address crime in certain areas. The solvability rate varies depending on the crime. For example, Baskin and Sommers (2011) reported that the rate of burglaries solved is extremely poor for a forensics-based society.

Police Tools and Training

Whenever police use tools, training is essential for them to learn the tools' applications and value. Proper training, including education, is essential for police to be professional and handle situations properly. Although COMPSTAT can be a useful tool,

it requires police officers to understand why something is occurring in a neighborhood. Police must act swiftly and ethically, within their scope of training, to solve neighborhood issues. Weil (2012) applied broken windows theory to the workplace environment, but his point applied to the crime analogy. Weil stated that employers needed to be more proactive. In translating the analogy, departments must be proactive and ethical.

Paterson (2011) articulated the importance of training from an international standpoint. Paterson maintained that the manner in which academies train police and promote their professional growth has an effect on the world. Paterson cited the lack of consistency of the United Kingdom and Wales police. The lack of progress exhibited by these departments troubled Paterson, as their departments showed no growth, in contrast to their world counterparts. Paterson acknowledged that more education usually means fewer ethical behavioral issues; however, he noted that statistics applied more to the United States and the European Union than to his home country, England.

The aforementioned scenario demonstrated why police must remain ethical in every circumstance (Fennell, 2014; Siegel, 2015). Simmons (2013) titled a similar concept the *zero sum game* in relation to balancing citizens' rights and police actions with respect to the Fourth Amendment of the U.S. Constitution. Simmons was very critical of police action when police officers encountered suspects. Simmons contended that encounters with suspects by police were a game of cat and mouse, which he deemed unethical. Richardson (2012) concurred with Simmons but also added that race played a

factor in police encounters. Racism awareness has become a huge part of policing since the Rodney King incident of 1991.

Race and Racism in Policing

Race and racism should not belong in this study. However, with the wide media coverage of Susan Smith, O. J. Simpson, Trayvon Martin, and the countless news stories of police officers involved with race relations, I must address race and racism. In the last 25 years, the media and researchers have focused on racism (Beaulieu & Continelli, 2011; Brown, 2013; Davenport, Soule, & Armstrong, 2011; Hosken, 2013; Miller, 2014; Ruddell, Thomas, & Patten, 2011; Thacher, 2011). Although researchers must address racism, some authors focus on race when race may or may not be an issue (Brown, 2013; Lasley, Larson, Kelso, & Brown, 2011). Sadly, one cannot deny that racial profiling or racist feelings still exist (Beaulieu & Continelli, 2011; Brown, 2013). However, just because racial profiling occurs, not every encounter between people of different races is racism. Brown (2013) reported the events involving Trayvon Martin and George Zimmerman. In the Zimmerman case, Martin (an African American teenager visiting his father) and Zimmerman (a Hispanic/Latino neighborhood watch captain) ended up in a fight, with Zimmerman shooting and killing Martin. The specific details are unknown, because of the lack of witnesses, but Zimmerman did escalate the events leading to the death by following Martin after a dispatcher told Zimmerman to stop doing so (Brown, 2013; Palmer, 2014). Brown was fair when he separated his opinion from fact; however, he made race the main factor, when race may or may not have been. Zimmerman had many other encounters with police over matters in which he exhibited control issues more

than racism (McGinley & Cooper, 2014). Zimmerman's actions beg the question of whether his motive was race related or a driven by a strong ego. Either way, Zimmerman made poor choices, but his motives remain in speculation.

Although Zimmerman was not a police officer, he was part of the neighborhood watch authorized by a homeowner's association (HOA). Because the HOA authorized a watch group, he was acting in some official capacity, but not a governmental capacity, as an HOA is a private organization (McCabe, 2011; Nelson, 2011). Although unrelated to the Zimmerman case, Zimmerman's actions raise another argument on police-citizen relations and whether the HOA is effective or not in producing positive social change. I will discuss the HOA later in the paper as the HOA relates directly to cooperation between police and neighborhoods.

Unlike Zimmerman, who was an unpaid watch captain, police officers are paid with taxpayer money; and with taxpayer money comes an expectation of ethical responsibility from the public (Meares, 2013). In the Zimmerman case, no witnesses, no cameras, et cetera existed. Thus, the public will never know what really happened. Zimmerman's neighborhood had no cameras, and in modern society, cameras seemingly are everywhere (Van Tassell, 2013). Police have to be more cognizant than ever that someone could record any encounter. Although, in most cases, the camera benefits the officer, some instances occur in which cameras have proven the officer wrong. Thus, professionalism is essential in each situation police encounter (Meares, 2013).

Historical Review of Peel and Professionalism

In the historical review of Peel and professionalism section, I briefly review the history of policing, comparing the history of policing to current literature and trends. Sir Robert Peel created the first formal police agency and had very strong beliefs in the ability of law enforcement. Peel served as the Prime Minister of Great Britain for 5 years, during which he reformed the police department. He originally viewed the department as ineffective (Lentz & Chaires, 2007). Peel was the main agent of social change in modern policing.

Before Peel reformed policing, the individuals who were officers were usually political appointees without any training or professionalism. Many times, the appointment was a favor granted to a relative, and the person was unqualified to perform the job. Modern academics, particularly the South Carolina Criminal Justice Academy, dedicate blocks of hours to discuss ethics specifically. Ethics are especially important in investigative techniques (Ferman, 2013). Ethics have also become an important part of the curriculum of colleges as well. The reforms Peel made are still in effect. The following are Peel's Nine Principles and how researchers use them in analysis of law enforcement, whether intentionally or not (Cawood, 2011).

Crime and Disorder

The first principle was police exist to prevent crime and disorder (Lentz & Chaires, 2007). Knepper (2012) implied crime prevention is the main goal of policing. Knepper also articulated the order-maintenance police reforms in the 1990s, and verified the police reforms were under the umbrella of broken windows. The 1990s reform turned

a reactive policing style—a style in which police respond to what has occurred—into a proactive policing style (Guthrie-Ferguson, 2012; Siegel, 2015). A proactive policing style topic is directly related to Peel's belief showing police are the maintainers of order.

However, Harcourt (2006) believed a proactive policing approach could also lead to corruption or harassment for lesser crimes. Because the study was about crime rates, the Peelian Principle is the most important, but the most controversial. Only the use of force has more controversy (discussed later). The balance between civil liberties and police work is difficult to achieve, and the Supreme Court has ruled on the Fourth Amendment more than any other Amendment (Richardson, 2012; Simmons, 2013). Usually police reforms happen after a significant event or a crime spike, or companies employ new technology, such as Facebook (Semitsu, 2012). Some courts still rule mug shots unconstitutional (Shephard, 2013). Bronn (2013) complained about the inconsistency in the courts regarding other incidents, and hoped for standardization, as did Witte and Luetkehans (2011) in their analyzation of commercial driver's license laws. Nevertheless, police made reforms in the 1990s in response to a crime spike from the 1970s and 1980s (Knepper, 2012). In 2001, another major event occurred with the attack on the World Trade Center in NYC. Islamic terrorists struck the same city, which tested broken windows and was the center of reforms.

After September 11, 2001, Congress passed the Uniting and Strengthening America by Providing Appropriate Tools Required to Intercept and Obstruct Terrorism Act of 2001 (USA PATRIOT Act) and the USA PATRIOT Act angered many civil libertarians because of the loss of freedoms (Simmons, 2013). However, the USA

PATRIOT Act was in response to a terror attack, and Simmons noted some of the American mindset wanted more safety in trade for liberty (May, 2011). In 2005, many of the provisions of the USA PATRIOT Act expired because of sunset laws, which are sometimes included in legislation to give the law an expiration date. Adding sunset clauses place lawmakers in favorable circumstances insofar as the lawmakers will not have to vote on a law which will later become unpopular, as the USA PATRIOT Act did (Black, 2013; Brown, 2011). Citizens disliked certain portions of the Act, particularly the parts involving roving wiretaps, as citizens perceived an invasion of privacy (Freiwald & Métille, 2013; Gavilanes, 2013). Citizens also perceived divided loyalty from federal, state, and local officials. Citizens expect police to keep them safe, yet citizens were perplexed because the very same officials invaded privacy (Brown, 2011; Shephard, 2013; Van Tassell, 2013)

As part of the 1990s reforms and into the 2000s, community policing took effect. The community policing style of policing held officers and the community would collaborate and discuss problems within the community. The collaboration idea worked as a theory; however, collaboration was not enough to allow police to maintain order where the problems existed (Gau & Pratt, 2010). The progress of community policing led to the development of another type of policing style, a direct offspring of broken windows: problem-oriented policing (Corsaro, Hunt, Hipple, & McGarrell, 2012; Guillaume, Sidebottom, & Tilley, 2012; Siegel, 2015; Worrall, 2015). In problem-oriented policing, the focus is more specific than community policing is; police hold general meetings to bond with the community. Problem-oriented policing involves

research on what problems are occurring, such as COMPSTAT or the Scanning,

Analysis, Response and Assessment Model (SARA; Eterno & Silverman, 2010; Hanink,

2013).

The SARA Model works in conjunction with COMPSTAT in data gathering, but

its results are different. Scanning identifies problems. Analysis gathers the data on where

the problems occur, which is why analysts link SARA and COMPSTAT in some areas.

Results come when police take action against the problems. Finally, assessment takes

place afterwards, when statisticians look at numbers after completion. Likewise, the study

focuses, indirectly, on analyzing existing data as well, in its methodology. As discussed

earlier, COMPSTAT and SARA are tools for proactive police departments to use, and

when used properly, the results gathered from SARA and COMPSTAT are effective for

controlling crime. However, when misused, the results can cause problems between

police and the community, especially when officers misuse their interviewing skills in

contacts (Clarke, Milne, & Bull, 2011).

McDowall, Loftin, and Pate (2012) discussed seasonal crime patterns. Looking at

seasonal crime means police can look at previous time(s) and crime patterns. McDowall

et al. stated increase in crime pattern was particularly effective around Christmas and

summer months, although McDowall et al. discounted the hypothesis of weather relating

to crime rates. Police using weather patterns is an excellent tool for proactive policing

and prevention of crime (McDowall, Loftin, & Pate, 2012). Likewise, Folino (2015)

studied predictive indicators in criminal behavior and found links to predicting criminal

activity. However, a limitation of the study prevented the efficiency of criminal activity

indicators. His study corroborated the McDowall, Loftin, and Pate (2012) study, indirectly.

Shariff and Rhemtulla (2012) and Preduca (2012) discovered some citizens, criminals, and former criminals were more afraid of supernatural punishment than earthly punishment. The participants of the studies by Shariff and Rhemtulla and Preduca indicated their fear of God (or the supernatural) is what drove them to do what the participants of the study perceived as the right thing. The study contrasts with Folino (2015) slightly; however, I would be unfair to compare natural and supernatural beliefs in one setting. The people under a supernatural belief system have no stake in proactive policing.

Many times, using proactive policing such as problem-oriented policing to prevent crime leads to complaints by citizens. Citizen complaints can be from lack of community leadership or HOAs. The complaints could also be legitimate police complaints police need to address. Worse, the complaints could be for vindictive reasons, so police need to use discretion. Police administrators should understand how and why to achieve a proper balance, so citizens understand why proactive policing is necessary and how the citizens can help police (Siegel, 2015; Worrall, 2015). Administrator explaining the balance presents its own challenge, though many citizens are reluctant to help police in many circumstances for various reasons. Police must earn the public's trust (Hawdon & Ryan, 2011).

Public Approval

The second Peelian Principle allows police to perform their duties with public approval of their actions (Lentz & Chaires, 2007). Public approval relates to police ethics. Because the public misunderstands many police actions, explaining police action is sometimes difficult to justify publicly why things occur (Siegel, 2015; Worrall, 2015). One short example of public approval is a story from Pennsylvania, where police used a Taser on a then 13-year old teenager for shoplifting. The example story created a public outcry in which citizens thought police used excessive force; however, the district attorney and the FBI cleared the officers involved. Although the police actions looked corrupt at first view, a deeper investigation found the police acted appropriately as the teenager ran from police custody toward a busy six-lane highway, endangering his life, as well as the officers' lives (Palmer, 2014). Because of a story like police deploying a Taser on a 13-year-old boy, as well as the perception of corruption, trust is an essential ingredient. When broken, trust is nearly impossible to restore trust quickly. Thus, citizens lose respect for police (Gül, Hekim, & Terkeşli, 2013). I will discuss excessive force later in the literature review.

Dubber (2011) challenged police ethics on the enforcement of certain laws. In his article case, he chose incest. The researcher believed incest should not be a moral crime because Canadian legislators listed incest under the marriage acts, and not sex acts. Dubber did not argue for its legalization, but rather discussed the ethics of enforcing laws of moral turpitude when compared to sexual relationships. Dubber ended his qualitative article by discussing police power, and its power to criminalize and enforce law, from the

libertarian standpoint. Although Dubber's analogy is extreme, his article shows how wide public approval can be and what happens when a segment of the population does not approve of the job police do. Brown (2011) affirmed Dubber's point in an article on post 9/11 policing. Brown demonstrated how public approval could quickly turn into dismay when public perception is police will take civil liberties away. Likewise, Segal (2012) remembered the turbulent 1960s led to a number of changes in case law, such as Mapp v. Ohio (1962), in which the police arrested Mapp for possessing pornography. Officers served Mapp with a fraudulent search warrant, and the Supreme Court decided the police acted wrongly, then excluded the evidence and found Mapp not guilty. The decision from the Mapp case birthed the exclusionary rule, which allow the courts to suppress illegally obtained evidence.

Willing Cooperation of the Public

The second principle naturally leads into the third Peelian Principle, which involved citizens voluntarily complying with the law (Lentz & Chaires, 2007). Actions show respect. When law-abiding citizens obey laws, police can focus on lawbreakers. Voluntary compliance also shows support of the police, which helps police know the community supports them. Public compliance increases morale and gives incentive for the police to work hard to reduce crime (Wilson, 1977). However, some citizens will not abide by laws, and some police use force when unnecessary. Human beings are imperfect (Preduca, 2011). Human nature dictates not every human wishes to abide by rules, on both sides (Preduca, 2011).

Physical Force

Peel's fourth principle was that the degree of cooperation of the public diminished proportionately to the necessity for the use of physical force by police (Lentz & Chaires, 2007). Brown (2011) wrote extensively on physical force topics and hypothesized America's police force has become military in nature. The more militaristic the police, the less the public trust (Bezuidenhout, 2011). In addition, Brown (2011) found because public trust diminished after 9/11 because constitutional problems exist. Because the Fourth and Eighth Amendments of the Constitution guarantee people can be secure in privacy and protected from cruel and unusual punishment, the Constitutional problems concerned privacy activists. After 9/11, the government increased security around the United States, especially at airports. In many cases, the government used the threat of physical force, which caused mistrust of the governmental agents or police. Mistrust caused an unending cycle, which only police could break over time. There will be more on the appropriate use of force in Peelian Principle six. However, police must gain favor from the community. Police obtain favor when arrests and citations are fair, to include when and how the police use force (Brown, 2011).

Public Favor and Due Process

When police act impartially, the result is public favor. Impartiality concept is the fifth Peelian Principle (Lentz & Chaires, 2007). Police should never cater to the public, but rather be fair with each person with whom the police come into contact. Spanbauer (2011) noted citizens expect the justice system to be fair. Impartiality includes following the Sixth Amendment to the Constitution, addressing due process. The perception of

partiality is the root of most complaints and news stories. The above Pennsylvania case demonstrated the perception of racial profiling. However, when the FBI completed the investigation, the perception changed. An impartial agency made a determination, which may not have made people happy, but the determination was impartial. The FBI made no arrests. Police arrested only the teenager, who committed a crime (Palmer, 2014).

Jain (2011) reported police accountability is necessary. Dery (2012) analyzed Davis v. United States (2011). In the Davis case, police arrested Davis and searched his vehicle. The court deemed the search illegal. However, police found evidence connecting Davis to a crime. Because of the court's exclusionary rule from Mapp v. Ohio (1962), discussed above, the courts should have suppressed the evidence. However, the United States Supreme Court ruled the evidence was admissible, even though the search was illegal. Dery (2012) posited the Supreme Court's decision was a poor decision, even though the votes for the evidence's admissibility were six judges in favor and two against the majority decision. Dery (2012) claimed the Supreme Court's ruling could lead to limited accountability by police in the future. Johnson (2014) agreed with a different approach. She claimed police need to hold the johns, as johns relate to prostitution, as accountable as the prostitutes are. Johnson (2014) believed the enforcement was one-sided and only prosecuted the prostitute, usually a female.

In Colorado, legislators passed a law stating parties could not sue police in domestic violence cases. Legislators said the spirit of the law was to protect police when the police made an arrest; however, the law also protected police in a case in which the police neglected to do something. Jain (2011) told a story about police non-

responsiveness to a restraining order situation. In Jain's (2011) example, a wife served

her ex-husband with a restraining order, which he violated multiple times without arrest.

Because of police taking no action, the husband killed the three children, and caused a

shootout with police. The police had no choice but to kill him in self-defense. Although

an independent agency ruled the death of the husband as justified, police acted

improperly by not taking action. The wife filed a lawsuit against the police department,

and in Castle Rock v. Gonzales (1999), the United States Supreme Court ruled the wife

could not sue police because of the law, which legislators intended to shield officers from

making arrests, not for failing to make an arrest (Jain, 2011). Castle Rock v. Gonzales

combines issues of police accountability and use of force combined. In the next section, I

will analyze use of force.

Use of Force

Excluding racism, researchers have focused on use of force the most. Much

confusion occurs on use of force topics, as police and citizens misunderstand the use of

force as use of force and citizen perception applies to one another. In every situation

police need to remain ethical. In addition, the amount of force must be appropriate to the

arrest. Some suspects fight with police causing police to use force (Fennell, 2014).

However, in the age of video cameras, even when police act appropriately, the act of

taking a suspect into custody can look worse than the perception of how the use of force

looks (Reardon, 2013).

The sixth Peelian Principle relates to the fourth principle; however, the principle

expands the use of force guidelines. Whereas the fourth principle dealt with gaining favor

with the public, the sixth principle deals directly with the modern-day issue of how much force is necessary to effect the arrest. Peel believed the use of force should only be as severe as the use of force takes to effect an arrest, an argument with which Fennell (2014) agreed. Use of force means citizens should comply with the law and police should deal with lawbreakers appropriately (Lentz & Chaires, 2007). Uses of force incidents are most common in the news. Many scholars have written on use of force (Chapman, 2012; Gül, Hekim, & Terkeşli, 2013; Smith & Alpert, 2011; Spanbauer, 2011). The force continuum for police stated police use one level above what the suspect uses. For example, if a suspect passively resists, police can use pressure points on the person. Likewise, if a suspect moves quickly toward an officer, the officer can use deadly force. For police to shoot someone who is passively resisting, use of deadly force would be incorrect and possibly illegal (Fennell, 2014). However, some situations are unclear. For example, if the lighting conditions are dark and a suspect reaches for a black object, the officer cannot always see what is unseen and may use deadly force when deadly force is unnecessary. Although if the officer errs in the use of deadly force, as an incorrect judgment, the act may not warrant criminal charges against the officer. Police officers' interactions with citizens be impartial (Fennell, 2014).

　　Gül, Hekim, and Terkeşli (2013) studied the use of force issue extensively. Gül et al. found hiring suitable candidates is a top priority of police departments. In addition, training officers on the use of force, and even using the Firearms Training Simulator (FATS) machine. Officers receive an interactive video with a simulation of a dangerous situation. The officers then have to decide whether to shoot or not to shoot, using a gun

made to interact with the screen. After the scenario, the machine grades the officer not only on whether the officer should or should not shoot, but also on the location of the shot. The machine tests officers' abilities in a lifelike setting, without harming anyone. Researchers have not studied the simulation, and the study is worth noting, as a future study on the simulation would be beneficial. Police need training for lethal situations (Henshaw & Thomas, 2012).

A second area Gül, Hekim, and Terkeşli (2013) studied was the need for education for police officers. Gilbert and Heller (2013) substantiated the education requirement idea in Truman's Commission on Higher Education Act. Chapman (2012) researched use of force in minority communities, with respect to education levels and use of force complaints. Age, experience, and ethnicity relate to officer-involved incidents directly. Chapman (2012) noted out of 522 participants, most officers involved in corrupt activities are aged 26-30, have only a high school diploma, and are male. Chapman's (2012) study indirectly affirmed Fennell's (2014) lecture stating education is a major factor in use of force complaints. Teaching police, particularly ethics, is not easy, but the outcome pays off (Bailey & Ballard, 2015). Nagler (2013) confirmed the findings, but believed the issue needed more investigation.

Although authors of the studies disagreed on the time of service (playing a factor in use of force incidents), the rest coincides. Fennell (2014) believed the average officer involved in corruption was on the job seven years; Chapman (2012) found the average officer involved in corruption was on the job only three to five years. Chapman (2012) also believed the age of an officer was the single most important factor in use of force

incidents. The age issue showed officers who become involved in corruption know the system and take advantage of it. Fennell (2014) used the phrase "continuum of compromise" (p. 90), from Gilmartin's and Harris' (1998) study by the same name. In the continuum, the officer first commits act of omission. In step one, the officer stops working, as he or she should, and he or she works as little as possible (e.g. not filling out a report when necessary because of laziness or just not caring about his or her job). After time, the officer begins acting out in acts of commission. He or she may do acting out differently, but acts could include inaccurate filing report incidents (or willfully not filing them when needed to cover something up), policy violations, et cetera. If the cycle is unbroken, the officer may commit illegal offenses, such as bribery, tampering with evidence, or timesheet fraud (Gilmartin & Harris, 1998).

Gilmartin's and Harris's (1998) "continuum of compromise" usually leads to a series of rationalizations by an officer involved in excessive force complaints. The rationalizations of an officer can range from a denial to blaming the victim for his or her actions. For example, an officer can abuse a drug dealer and take his or her money, and the officer could keep it. The officer would not only be blaming the illegal act, but would see no victim. The situation leads to an irreconcilable situation (Fennell, 2014). In South Carolina, illegal actions amount to criminal actions, loss of certification, and possible civil liability.

Schatmeier (2013) investigated the Cincinnati Police Department (CPD). The author believed the CPD had been out of control. A Department of Justice (DOJ) investigation ensued, and the CPD took many measures to fix the existing problems. In

the early 1990s, the CPD had many use of force incidents. After the mid-1990s, Congress

passed many reforms, and the DOJ investigated the CPD for multiple complaints. After

time, the CPD bought less-than-lethal tools for their officers, and the complaints

declined. Schatmeier (2013) acknowledged collaborating alone might not work in every

city, citing the CPD's willingness to work with the community and the community's

willingness to work with the police. Through cooperative measures, police and citizens

can reduce crime and use of force complaints (Schatmeier, 2013). Police are only an

extension of the community as long as the community is willing to be part of the police.

Both sides must listen to one another (Michener, 2013).

Policing and the Public

Lentz and Chaires' (2007) intended the spirit of the seventh principle to be the

police and the public is the same thing. Police have a full-time responsibility to do what

the public should be doing. In return, the public should depend on police to make

situations right. Because broken windows depends so heavily on the public repairing

small problems, the public must trust police to handle what a citizen cannot (Wilson,

1977; Wilson & Kelling, 1982). Equally important is the bond police and citizens have

with one another. Bonding is at the core of problem-oriented policing, which I discussed

earlier.

An example of the citizen-police bond concept involves HOAs. HOAs are quasi-

governments, albeit private entities (Carlee, 2011; McCabe, 2011; Nelson, 2011). HOAs

are useful for maintaining neighborhoods; however, an HOA can border on fascism if in

the wrong hands (Carlee, 2011). The basis for an HOA is citizens have a complaint route

to their HOA versus the police. The police-HOA relationship is excellent for letting police respond to calls, which are more serious and deal with larger scale issues. Conversely, neighbor disputes can turn destructive if one or both neighbors have a vendetta (Carlee, 2011). The dispute may or may not be an issue, as Nelson (2011) indicated HOAs would grow in intensity and eventually exist in most of the neighborhoods in America. Unfortunately, HOAs could also lead to vigilante justice (Carlee, 2011; McCabe, 2011; Nelson, 2011).

Usurping the System

Because police sometimes work outside the boundaries, Lentz and Chaires (2007) warned his officers and citizens in the eighth principle that the police are to do their own jobs and not fulfill the role of judge or jury. The law enforcement role is unique to police, and police should enforce laws, not carry out sentences (Fennell, 2014). Although the police unlawfully acting in a jury role problem is not as large of an issue as the acts were, because of training, some communities still have the problem (Brown, 2013).

The same holds true for citizens. America has a history of wanting justice; unfortunately taking the law into the individuals' control at times (Kugler, Funk, Braun, Gollwitzer, Kay, & Darley, 2013). Kugler, Funk, Braun, Gollwitzer, Kay, and Darley (2013) called the concept vigilante justice. Ferman (2013) performed a poignant case study about Earl Bradley, a man on death row. What makes the Bradley story disturbing is Bradley was the subject of multiple investigations for 13 years before a jury convicted him of victimizing 86 children in a pediatric practice (p. 193). Historically, according to Preduca (2011), Christ Jesus gave readers a sense of social justice, which extends to the

Bradley story; however, Peel—and Romans 13—forbade citizens from vigilante justice. Although not everyone would agree with the divine application, the world's application is one should not seek justice unless authorized to do so (i.e. police, courts, etc.), which is a behavioral statement (Preduca, 2012). When police and communities work together, situations work better because communication opens up, and police may receive information for a speedy arrest. However, as I discussed before, training and education of police helps to deal with situations.

Smith and Alpert (2011) showed the only drawbacks to collaborating are legal issues. For example, if a citizen is riding along with a police officer and something bad happens (such as the citizen shoots someone unlawfully), what law is that particular citizen under? Police or civilian law? Notwithstanding, is the citizen covered under worker's compensation, insurance, and lawsuits, if the citizen suffers an injury (Smith, & Alpert, 2011)? Although liability comes with a legal issue, the law is effective. Personnel at academies train police officers differently to work with civilians, but to deal more effectively with suspects. When police and citizens cooperate, the crime rates fall.

Measuring Police Efficiency

The last principle is the other eight principles in action. Lentz and Chaires (2007) stated crime must cease to exist as an example of effective policing. Without crime, people in communities would experience a safer community, and police would maintain order more easily (Lentz & Chaires, 2007). The problem with the last principle is human beings are fallible, and crime has always existed. From a historic standpoint, crime always occurred even during times of peace.

Such as one story in a time of peace in the US. DeBrosse (2013) analyzed a story from 1970 about the Ohio National Guard coming to Kent State University to handle an incident lawfully. However, during the student protest, the National Guard opened fire, killed four students, and injured nine others. The Kent State University incident showed even when times of peace occur—Vietnam War aside—crime can happen. Small incidents, even if legal, can lead to criminal incidents very easily if not handled properly. Unfortunately, police cannot eradicate crime, but police, or in the Kent State University case, the military assisting the police, can handle situations better (DeBrosse, 2013).

In addition, the fear of crime also is a self-fulfilling prophecy. Russo, Roccato, and Vieno (2011) studied a case in Italy and found the perception of crime is real. Kort-Butler and Hartshorn (2011) substantiated the study, but indicated reality crime television contributes to the perception of crime (Custers, & Van den Bulck, 2011). I will discuss television and movies in the final section of the literature review. Vancluysen, Van Craen, and Ackaert (2011) studied the same perceptions in Turkey, and citizens reported the same fear of crime. Thus, citizens have difficulty equating police effectiveness with absence of crime, except in an ideal world (Preduca, 2012). Police must deal with crime and the fear of crime, not only in the US but also around the world. Weiler and Cray (2011) reported fear of crime is more evident in schools, with school shootings. A corrupt culture is, in fact, something police and citizens need to address (Otis, 2014).

Traffic Enforcement, Drug Crimes, and Civil Liberties

I have demonstrated the nine Peelian principles in policing. I have also demonstrated the principles are relevant. In the study, I examined traffic enforcement and

crime rates. Because traffic was nonexistent in Peel's day, I have to analyze traffic enforcement separately. In addition, broken windows does not address traffic enforcement specifically (Wilson & Kelling, 1982). Traffic enforcement is necessary as a police tool. Traffic enforcement is also controversial, but road rules are necessary (Bartunek, Moravcik & Schreiber, 2011; Dent, 2012; Eustace, Indupuru, & Hovey, 2011).

Although police use traffic enforcement as a tool to combat small crimes, other crimes, such as driving under the influence of drugs or alcohol (also known in some states as driving while intoxicated), are more prevalent, but not necessarily on the rise (Purssell & Brubacher, 2012). Marijuana crashes follow with the legalization of marijuana in some states and societal acceptance of its recreational use (Brubacher, 2011; Carcieri, 2012; Lau, Brubacher, & Chan, 2011). Although marijuana use may be legal, driving under the influence is still illegal, as driving under the influence of marijuana was before the legalization of marijuana (Carcieri, 2012; Harcourt & Ludwig, 2007; Lau, Brubacher, & Chan, 2011). Studies presented by Brubacher; Carcieri; Lau, Brubacher, and Chan provide the need for traffic enforcement; however, the need for enforcing other traffic laws for petty crimes remains unclear. America statistically has the highest incarceration rates in the world; however, the incarceration statistic does not seem to deter the petty crimes (Kugler, Funk, Braun, Gollwitzer, Kay, & Darley, 2013). Some organizations have made rehabilitation initiatives, but their effectiveness is unclear (Maruna, 2011).

Gross (2011) investigated Shea's Law. The New York State legislature passed the law to help police convict drunk drivers by allowing other medical professionals to draw blood for analysis. For safety reasons, the blood draw law seemed like a good law; however, the law gives police more power without checks and balances. Although police need a search warrant, the blood draw law infringed upon civil liberties (Gross, 2011). Other researchers have called for more technology for dealing with such crimes.

With respect to enforcement and technology, police have tried new technologies such as red light cameras (e.g., the traffic control device, speed cameras) to catch speeders without police presence and safety cameras to monitor high crime areas (Parness, 2011; Xing, Jidong, Jinchuan, & Bang, 2012). However, many jurisdictions and states have outlawed the practice in favor of the Constitutional rights of its citizens (Pool, 2011). In 2011, a town in South Carolina lost speed cameras because the South Carolina Supreme Court found the use of the speed cameras unconstitutional (Larry, n.d.). Car manufacturers even place black boxes in vehicles so police can investigate collisions more easily, providing such information as speed of vehicle, whether the driver had affixed seat belt, et cetera (Al-Kaisy, Kreider, & Pothering, 2013; Rich, 2013). Hence, municipalities are aware the policies are unfair or unpopular among civil libertarians. Bíró (2012) added technology would increase, as well. White, Thompson, Turner, Dougherty and Schmidt (2011) believed cell phones could be dangerous when driving; cell phones could save lives by using technology to save collision victims. As an interesting aside, Al-Kaisy, Kreider and Pothering (2013) found, "In the absence of effective enforcement, drivers tend to travel at speeds they perceive as safe for the

conditions regardless of the posted legal speed limit or the advisory speed" (p. 80).

Researchers have an opportunity to research implications in another study on perceptions

of safety, but the statement indeed leads to an interesting discussion on why the public

needs both black box and cell phone technology.

Lastly, safety is the primary purpose of enforcement. The government intends to

keep people from hurting themselves in writing laws. Bener, Yousif, Al-Malki, El-Jack,

and Bener (2011) stated urbanization is leading to more collisions. On the surface,

writing law makes sense: With more people, more cars and more collisions occur. Belin,

Tillgren, and Vedung (2012) substantiated the traffic growth, stating by 2020 more

drivers will be on the road, a statement with which Fazekas, Biró, and Gáspár (2012)

agreed (Hadryś, Miros, Węgrzyn, & Da Silva, 2012). The argument did not stop with

traffic enforcement, but included the traffic control devices as well. Zivotofsky, Eldror,

Mandel, and Rosenbloom (2012) hypothesized elderly victims do not have time to cross a

street because pedestrian lights are too short. Arguments can petty, as demonstrated. No

shortage of material exists explaining traffic collisions. Police need to enforce traffic. The

question is how much should the police enforce? Finally, the media does not help the role

of the police officer in his or her official capacity.

Media Portrayal of Crime and Policing

The media includes news and television/movies (Maurantonio, 2012). I will focus

on television first. Two authors, Arntfield (2011) and McMillian (2012) commented on

the cancelled television show The Wire. Producers based The Wire in Baltimore and The

Wire revolved around drug dealers and police officers. When viewers watch shows like

The Wire, many assume television shows, such as The Wire, is how police actually work. Maurantonio (2012) named the perception the CSI effect because of the long running series CSI, an acronym for Crime Scene Investigation. The problem is potential police candidates watch the show believing the show is an accurate portrayal of police work, and then are surprised and saddened when police work is not like the show (Maurantonio, 2012). Likewise, Arntfield (2011) compared police to old television shows, such as Miami Vice (or overacted roles on the older shows). Nevertheless, the CSI effect has an effect on viewers. Many times, writers portray beat cops as dumb or as lackeys. The representation is an untrue and unfair representation. Sadly, the individuals who wish to commit crimes see the police portrayal and act on it, assuming the perceptions of officers are true.

Further, the news media often glamorize some cases. Such was the case with Casey Anthony and O. J. Simpson. When the media celebrate cases, the press can inadvertently lead suspects to act out their crimes to obtain fame (Chaney & Robertson, 2013). Sadly, the media portrays crime as entertainment, especially in situations which police and protesters clash (Schulenberg & Chenier, 2014).

The second area the media portrays police is in movies. Welsh, Fleming, and Dowler (2011) stated the media not only loves crime in a plot, but also often neglect some of the rehabilitation and restorative justices. Opting to go for the 'good kills bad', the media sends a message stating police have no middle ground with offenders. The 'good kills bad' socializes people into thinking police must act a certain way as good

must overcome (Erum Hafeez, 2012). In any view, the good versus bad characters are not helpful to the police role.

Summary

I have demonstrated the literature on traffic enforcement, crime rates, and ethical policing is vast. First, Peelian Principles and broken windows relate, whether intentionally or unintentionally (Lentz & Chaires, 2007; Wilson & Kelling, 1982). However, for the principles to be effective, police administration must use tools and training properly (Fennell, 2014). If tools and training are not given, police administration will fail (Kuzmarov, 2009). Because failure is a serious issue, training is more important administrators so racial incidents cease. Training and practice should include literature from the nine Peelian Principles. When Peel wrote the principles, police did not face a large degree of technology (Ernst & Williams, 2014; Freiwald & Métille, 2013; Pool, 2011). Because of the gap, regular training is important for officers and college attendance is important, as college decreases the chance of an officer misusing authority (Chapman, 2012). I tied in traffic enforcement to other parts of the literature review. Lastly, the media's portrayal of law enforcement officers can be detrimental to police work (Chaney & Robertson, 2013; Erum Hafeez, 2012; Schulenberg & Chenier, 2014). Chapter 3 explained how Chapter 2 literature review formed my study.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

Chapter 3 outlines the methodology I chose to use to answer my research question: Does traffic enforcement reduce crime, as the enforcement of public-order crimes has demonstrated? Research has shown that police handling of public-order crimes reduces major crime rates; however, the relationship of traffic enforcement to crime remains uninvestigated and is worth pursuing (Wilson & Kelling 1982; 2006).

The study was a quantitative, exploratory, correlational research study using existing data. As I outlined in the literature review, researchers have exhausted many topics related to crime statistics, and I believed that the data existed to show the correlation. However, I was unable to find any specific study on my study's topic. My research design used existing data. I used databases from governmental agencies, and I analyzed the data using the same parameters, using the same five counties and same crime rates from each county. Because I used existing data, I had threats to internal validity, as I could not manipulate the data. Lastly, because I had no live participants (the participants were included in the data), I had no ethical issues for the IRB; however, the reason I used existing data were an ethical reason. Had I asked police to stop vehicles in order to compare data, I risked ethical issues because people might accuse the police of deploying a quota system. I did not want any perception of a quota for purposes of the study. I did not want police stopping law violators for the study because the citizen(s) might have a negative opinion of the purposes of the traffic stop, and because traffic stops involve legal issues. In addition, coordination between every department within the

location parameters would have been impossible, even possibly compromising the integrity of the study. For the aforementioned reasons, the use of existing data were the most feasible and ethical option. My use of existing data protected key parties involved, and the existing data gave me the same information that I would otherwise obtain. The only drawback was that I used slightly older data (2008-2012) because the South Carolina Law Enforcement Division (SLED) had not published data for later years at the time of the publishing of the proposal; hence, the IRB could only approve data through 2012.

Research Design and Rationale

The study's goal was to establish a relationship involving traffic stops and crime rates. I designed a quantitative, exploratory, correlational research study. Fraenkel, Wallen, and Hyun (2014) stated that a quantitative, exploratory, correlational research study approach was the best to accomplish a correlation between two items. Because my research question involved existing data, the use of existing data seemed to be the best method. I based my decision on my hypothesis and problem statement. Kiener, Zelinske, and Green (2015) recommended quantitative, exploratory, correlational research design to improve learning. In addition, there would be fewer time and resource constraints than in an interactive study, as the government published the numbers and the numbers were available for verification should another researcher want to replicate the study.

I first determined what data existed and the data's parameters. I found SLED last-year-published crime rates in 2012. Data for 2013-2015 had not been processed and published. Consequently, the years with the crime rates that I used in the study were

2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, and 2012. Because the FBI only classifies certain types of

crimes in the UCR, I only used larcenies (thefts), motor vehicle thefts (MVT), burglaries,

and robberies for data comparison. The dependent variable was crime rates, and the

independent variable was traffic stop performance within the given counties.

Next, I had to determine what traffic stop data existed for the same timeframe.

Most South Carolina police departments and the South Carolina Highway Patrol kept

records on how many people police officers and troopers stopped for a traffic violation.

The South Carolina contact and Uniform Traffic Citation (UTC) data were available on

the Internet. More detailed data were kept from the South Carolina Law Enforcement

Network (SCLEN) in coordination with the South Carolina Department of Public Safety

(SCDPS). Using both sets of data for the same timeframe, I was able to determine that

there was a weak negative correlation in most of the data.

It is important to note a few things. The UTC data (traffic tickets issued) as well

as data on warnings issued (instances in which tickets were not issued) were available for

research. Consequently, any reported traffic stop was included in the collected data.

Traffic enforcement does not always involve receiving a citation, but may also be about

safety and education (Chekijian, Paul, Kohl, Walker, Tomassoni, Cone, & Vaca, 2014).

Lastly, I set the geographical boundaries for the study. I examined five adjacent

counties in the Pee Dee Region in South Carolina: Chesterfield, Darlington, Dillon,

Florence, and Marlboro. The data analyzed had the same parameters. Once I had the

relevant data, I evaluated whether traffic enforcement had increased or decreased in each

county and then did the same for crime rates. I used the program Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

The study was not an intervention study, nor was the study a pilot study.

Methodology

Population

The population of the study was a set of random, unknown persons whom police had stopped (independent variable) or people who had committed crimes (dependent variable). Because the data existed, there was no way to select a population, as the existing data were completely anonymous and random. Hence, the exact population size was unknown. I could have summed the numbers together; however, what would be unknown was whether multiple victims existed in the crime rates data. In traffic stop performance, 725,355 citations and warnings were issued, but what was unknown was whether multiple citations or warnings were issued on one traffic stop, as the data did not reflect this. Nevertheless, Fraenkel, Wallen, and Hyun (2014) stated that the population size must be larger than 30, which I accomplished. One advantage of the existing data that I received was that identification of individuals was impossible. Gender, race, and age were present but were not relevant to the study. The population size, including the sample, was given and beyond my control.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

Because Fraenkel, Wallen, and Hyun (2014) stated that the population size must be larger than 30. I used a much larger sample. The sample was dependent on traffic violators (independent variable) and law violators (dependent variable). Thus, the sample

and population in the study were the same. There was no way to take a sample of the

population because the data were pre-existing. Consequently, I could not choose or define

my sample procedures. The sample, including the population size, was given.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

I did not need participants, nor did I have to recruit individuals for the study.

Informed consent was not necessary, as the data already existed. Briefing and debriefing

were not applicable either. However, data collection was necessary and pertinent. I used

government websites and obtained UCR data from the five counties. I also obtained

officer contact data (from the website and SCLEN) and compared the numbers as shown

in the Data Analysis Plan section.

Archival Data

I did not conduct any data analysis or research prior to the IRB approving the

study. The public data were not subject to the full IRB process, as the public data did not

identify persons. The data simply listed how many crimes occurred and in which county,

how many traffic stops occurred, as well as race, age range, and gender data for of the

population. I analyzed the data in accordance with Walden University policy after IRB

approval. The IRB approval number was 02-02-16-0048181.

To obtain the needed data, I went to the SLED website and clicked on *Crime*

Reporting & Statistics, followed by *Crime in South Carolina books*. The SLED website

gave me the 2008-2012 data, which I analyzed. I did not need special permissions (e.g.,

passwords or special, privileged login information) to gain access to the data, as the data

were public information. In addition, government organizations were the main

organizations publishing data relevant to the study, as private companies or people could not obtain the data as easily. Additionally, the government employs statisticians who compiled the data. SLED and SCDPS allowed the public to use government documents as needed; thus, I needed no letter for approval.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

I did not use any instruments in any way, and I could not manipulate any variables. However, in the operationalization of constructs, I applied data and correlated the data with other data. The dependent variable was crime rates, and the independent variable was the traffic stop performance within the given counties. The operational definition of a *traffic stop* was the act of legally stopping an occupied vehicle for a legitimate traffic law or ordinance violation (Briggs & Crew, 2013). For analysis purposes in the study, *crime rate* referred only to larcenies, MVT, burglaries, and robberies. I measured data in their raw data form but compiled them into tables in Chapter 4. I took the crime data and compared the crime data to number of traffic stops, finding a negative correlation. For example, if I observed a rise in traffic stops in a given year and then saw that crime rates fell the following year, I concluded that there was a negative correlation. I discuss the analysis in Chapters 4-5.

Data Analysis Plan

I used SPSS to create tables, charts, and graphs. I used no media other than basic Windows 10, Microsoft Office, and SPSS. Because I used existing data, I had no reason or method for cleaning the data. Cleaning data could have resulted in manipulating the raw numbers, causing integrity problems in the study.

The research question was the following: Does traffic enforcement also reduce crime, as the enforcement of public-order crimes has demonstrated (Wilson & Kelling 1982; 2006)?' I used the following working hypothesis: There is a negative correlation between traffic enforcement and crime rates (H1). The null hypothesis was that there was no relation between these two variables (H0). My research showed the hypothesis (H1) to be somewhat true. I collected and analyzed data, and I created graphs for each year to establish a positive or negative correlation. I tested the hypothesis by creating graphs from the existing data, using a single statistical approach.

I had no covariates or confounding variables. I measured results by finding a correlation coefficient. I used SPSS. I compared the independent variable (traffic stop performance, denoted by x), against the dependent variable (crime rates, denoted by y), for each of the 5 years. When I analyzed the data, I had to separate the data by county into five files. After initially experimenting with the data, by sorting data by year, I found a type I error, which was easily corrected by changing how I analyzed the data. Hence, separation by county was appropriate. I discuss the results in Chapter 4.

Threats to Validity

I had two threats to external validity. First, if another researcher were to replicate the study in another state or set of counties, there might be different results. The results were specific to the geographical location of the study area, but researchers might find the same correlation elsewhere. The second threat to external validity was reactivity. What happens here may or may not be indicative of what occurs in other geographic locations.

I had threats to internal validity. First, there was a location threat (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2014). For example, I found a negative correlation, which may have to do with something in the environment, which was why studying 5 years' worth of data were so important. If a location threat had existed for a short time, the location threat would not have shown up in the final analysis. For this reason, the location threat was minimized. The second threat to internal validity was similar but was associated with the people in the data. Fraenkel, Wallen, and Hyun (2014) referred to the problem as *subject characteristics threat*.

With respect to the validity threat, as an example, some unknown event may have been affecting individuals in an area (such as incarceration), and the data may have reflected the discrepancy. Because I found a negative correlation, the negative correlation may have involved these individuals, which (again) was why studying data representing 5 years was so important. Although I will never know who anyone was within the numbers, a long period of time safeguards against validity issues. I have used examples to illustrate the threats; the actual findings are reported in Chapters 4 and 5.

I had no obvious threats to conclusion validity or construct validity.

Ethical Procedures

The reason that the study used only existing data were purely ethical. If I had designed a study that required current traffic enforcement, the implication would have been that police were stopping people because of a study, which would have imposed an indirect quota. In a sense, traffic stops would have been creating an ethical problem for the study.

Hence, I used no live participants, and there was no risk of harm. The privacy of individuals was not an issue because the data only reported numbers with no identifiable marks. The data did report age range, race, and gender, but not in enough detail to identify anyone. I did not report the data because the data were unrelated to the study. I had no concerns with respect to participants for the IRB application. I had no sensitive data for secure storage, but I will keep the data for 5 years on my computer and a CDROM locked in a safe. After 5 years, I will shred the CDROM. If I replace my hard drive within this timeframe, I will shred the old one, thus protecting the integrity of the data. Although destruction of data may not be necessary, I would rather be safe in following policy. I had no other conflicts of interest or any ethical issues to report.

Summary

The Walden University IRB approval number was 02-02-16-0048181. The study was a quantitative, exploratory, correlational research study using existing data. Because I used existing data, many of concerns involving participants, sampling, recruitment, and instrumentation did not apply. However, I analyzed the existing data to determine what the relationship was, if any, between traffic enforcement and crime rates. I had no ethical issues related to participants. In Chapter 4, I describe, in detail, the results of the completed study.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

Because of dissention regarding broken windows theory, the need for social change, and the problems in policing, I sought in this study to provide information that would supplement efforts to solve problems of crime. The study was a quantitative, exploratory, correlational research study using existing data. For purposes of the study, the dependent variable was crime rates, and the independent variable was traffic stop performance within the given counties noted in the methodology section. In Chapter 4, I discuss the results in relation to the research question: Does traffic enforcement also reduce crime, as the enforcement of public-order crimes has demonstrated (Wilson & Kelling 1982; Wilson & Kelling 2006)? My working hypothesis was the following: There is a negative correlation between traffic enforcement and crime rates (H1). The null hypothesis was that there is no relation between these two variables (H0). In the sections that follow, I discuss the data collection and analyze the results.

Data Collection

In the study, I investigated whether there was any correlation between traffic stops and crime rates. The IRB approved the study on February 2, 2016. The Walden University IRB approval number was 02-02-16-0048181. After collecting the data, I separated the raw data by year (2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, and 2012) and then by county. Tables 1 and 2 show an analysis of the raw data for traffic stops and crime rates, respectively.

Table 1

Raw Data—Traffic Stops

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Chesterfield County	21,315	20,072	20,968	25,029	18,771
Darlington County	34,966	35,470	37,059	39,503	32,513
Dillon County	15,934	21,009	17,685	17,853	20,007
Florence County	45,517	49,964	63,763	56,617	66,371
Marlboro County	12,185	12,814	15,027	13,715	11,228

Table 2

Raw Data—Crime Rates

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Chesterfield County	1,588	1,553	1,462	1,571	1,687
Darlington County	3,951	3,861	3,293	3,777	3,934
Dillon County	2,081	2,292	2,144	1,885	1,954
Florence County	7,172	6,817	6,629	6,805	6,246
Marlboro County	1,446	1,401	1,396	1,597	1,607

I completed the data collection as planned and outlined in Chapter 3, without any discrepancies. I had no surveys or participants to interview or survey, so the collection and analysis process lasted for approximately one month. The population of the dataset was unknown, as discussed in Chapter 3, so I could not describe the sample or population, given that the data did not contain any identifying information. Thus, the basic univariate analyses that justify inclusion of covariates in the larger sample were impossible. The existing data cannot be manipulated or analyzed for a larger population because any person driving a vehicle (licensed or not) could have been part of the sample and population.

Analysis of the Results

I conducted a quantitative, exploratory, correlational research study using existing data. The documents I received from the SCDPS included the number of traffic stops performed with the number of citations and warnings indicated. Because the issuance of a UTC was irrelevant to the study, I combined the traffic stop numbers to include warnings and issuance of a UTC, for analysis purposes. I also combined larcenies (thefts), motor vehicle thefts (MVT), burglaries, and robberies into one category for analysis purposes. I inputted the data in Tables 1 and 2 into SPSS and did not find a significant relationship between the number of traffic stops and the number of traffic citations in each year (except for Florence County). Table 3 shows the p and r values.

Table 3

Values

County	r value	p value
Chesterfield	$r = -0.311$	$p = 0.87707$
Darlington	$r = -0.459$	$p = 0.734349$
Dillon	$r = 0.320$	$p = 0.599145$
Florence	$r = -0.917$	$p = 0.028854$
Marlboro	$r = -0.442$	$p = 0.753176$

To report statistical analysis findings, organized by research questions and/or hypotheses, none of the results, except those for Florence County, contained significant r or p values. However, four of the five counties, Dillon County excluded, showed a negative correlation.

Chesterfield County

The value of r was -0.311. Although technically a negative correlation, the relationship between the variables was weaker. The value of r_2, the coefficient of determination, was 0.0967. The p value was 0.87707. The result was not significant at $p < 0.05$.

Darlington County

The value of r was -0.4585. Although there was technically a negative correlation, the relationship between the variables was weaker. The value of r_2, the coefficient of determination, was 0.2102. The p value was 0.734349. The result was not significant at $p < 0.05$.

Dillon County

The value of r was 0.3204. Although there was technically a positive correlation, the relationship between the variables was weak. The value of r_2, the coefficient of determination, was 0.1027. The p value was 0.599145. The result was not significant at $p < 0.05$.

Florence County

The value of r was -0.9167. The value indicated a strong negative correlation, which means that high X variable scores go with low Y variable scores (and vice versa). The value of r_2, the coefficient of determination, was 0.8403. The p value was 0.028854. The result was significant at $p < 0.05$.

Marlboro County

The value of r was -0.4417. Although there was technically a negative correlation, the relationship between the variables was weaker. The value of r_2, the coefficient of determination, was 0.1951. The p value was 0.753176. The result was not significant at $p < 0.05$.

When I analyzed the data via SPSS, I had to separate the data by county and not by year. Initially. after experimenting by sorting and analyzing data by year, I found a type I error. SPSS returned a strong, positive correlation for the five counties, when only a slight positive correlation existed in Dillon County. I realized that SPSS was calculating the numbers increasing in Florence and Darlington Counties, which had more law enforcement and higher crime rates than Chesterfield and Marlboro Counties did. Thus, the positive correlation was a result of the way in which the data were configured and entered. By separating and analyzing the data by county, I eliminated the type I error. I could then interpret the data as intended. Thus, four out of the five counties showed a negative correlation between traffic enforcement and crime rates.

Descriptive statistics characterizing the sample were not applicable because I did not have a sample, only a given population from existing data. Statistical assumptions as appropriate to the study included dependence on the accuracy of the data that police departments and the SCDPS reported. Effect size was also difficult to calculate because there was no firm sample or population number, as I addressed in Chapter 3. I had no additional statistical tests of hypotheses that emerged from the analysis of main hypotheses, as appropriate for the study.

Four out of five counties indeed showed a negative correlation, and I am satisfied in accepting my hypothesis that there is a negative correlation between traffic enforcement and crime rates (H_1). There was a strong indication that the Chesterfield, Darlington, Dillon, and Marlboro County data may have been too small for analysis, but because a relationship exists, however slight, I believe the relationship of traffic enforcement and crime rates is worth further investigation. Because some correlation exists, I must reject the null hypothesis even though the negative correlation was weak.

It is also possible that no correlation exists and that the larger Florence County and smaller Dillon County were anomalies. However, although the relationship was not significant, the data showed some level of relationship between traffic enforcement and crime rates; I cannot say with certainty whether there was a cause-effect relationship. With respect to Dillon County, according to the Census Bureau, the population in 2000 was 30,722, and in 2010, the population was 32,062; however, the demographics changed as well. The possibility remains that an external factor existed that the data could not measure. None of the available data show factors, and a qualitative study would be best suited to addressing this issue.

As discussed in Chapter 5, further research could be conducted on the study topics, with the study expanded to larger cities or more counties. However, proper groundwork has been laid for future work. Figures 1-5 show scatterplots of the data, indicating that most data fell into the negative correlation quadrants (upper left and lower right).
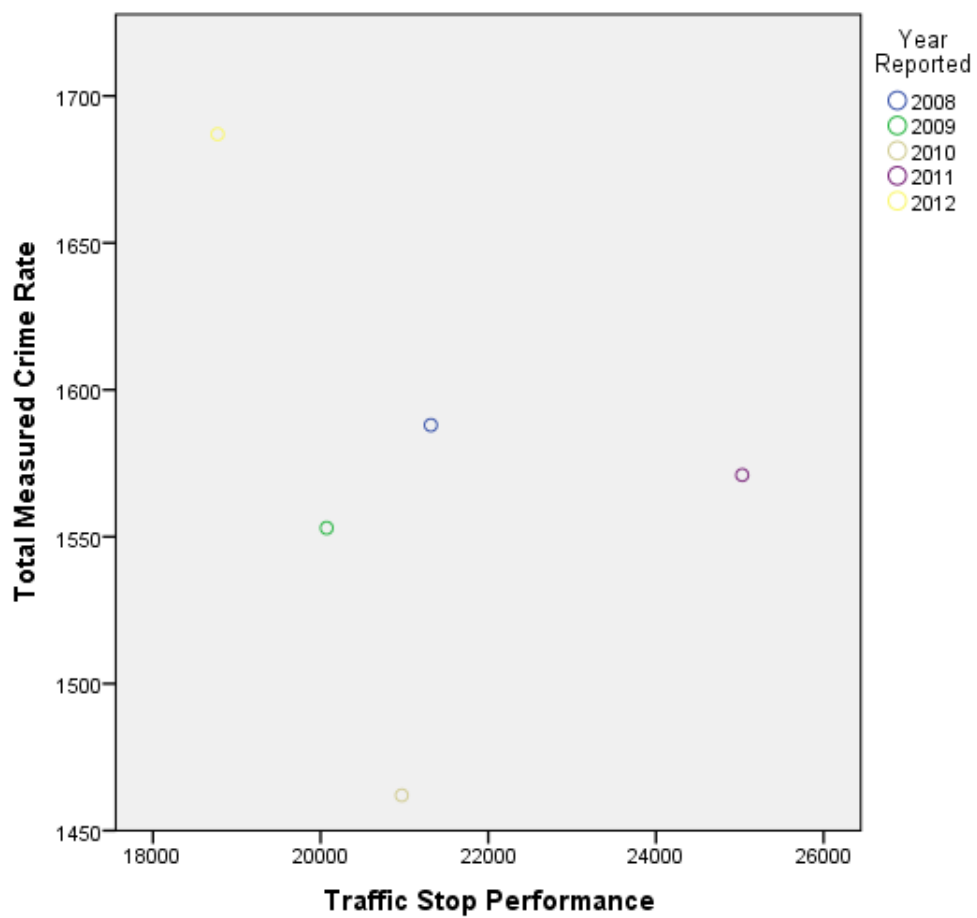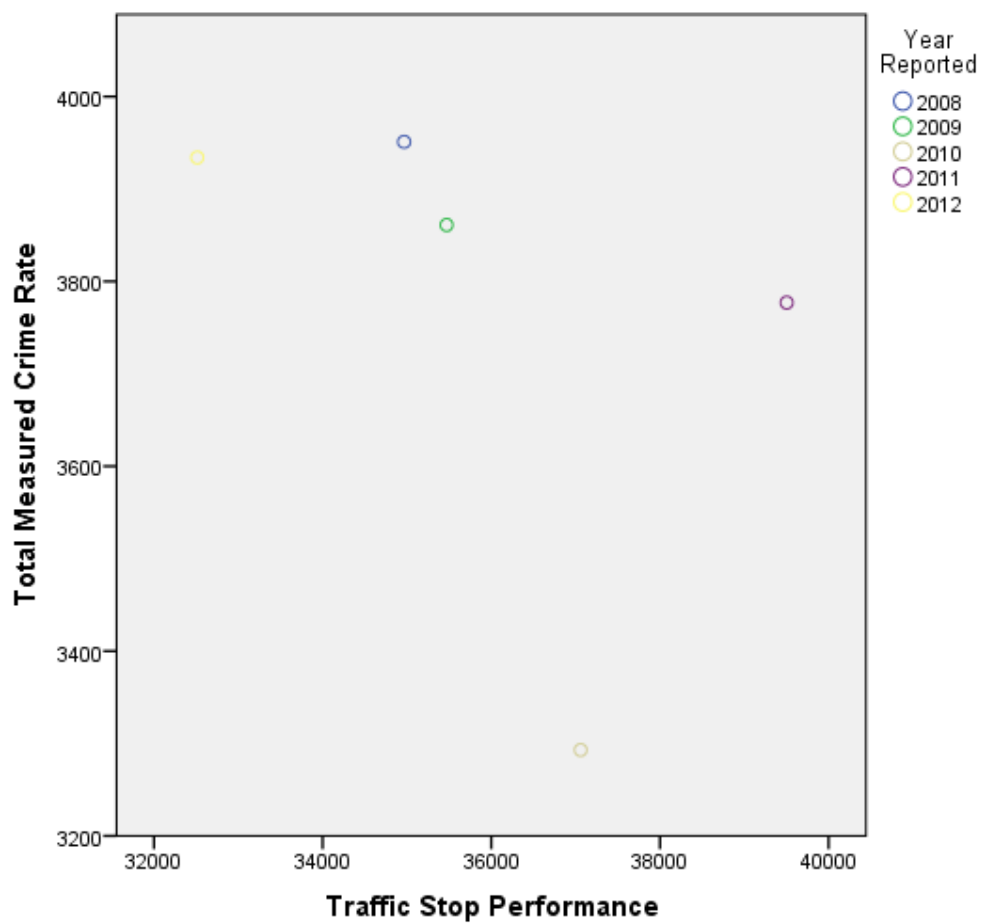
Figure 1. Chesterfield County.

Figure 2. Darlington County.
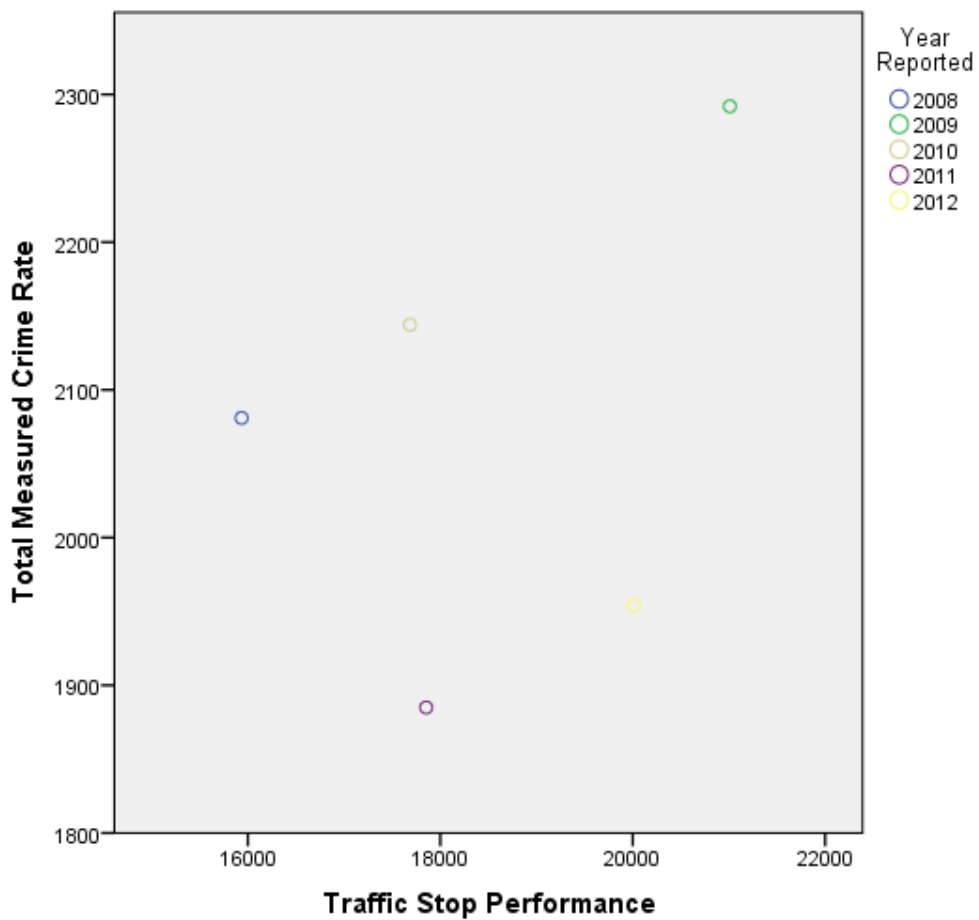
Figure 3. Dillon County.
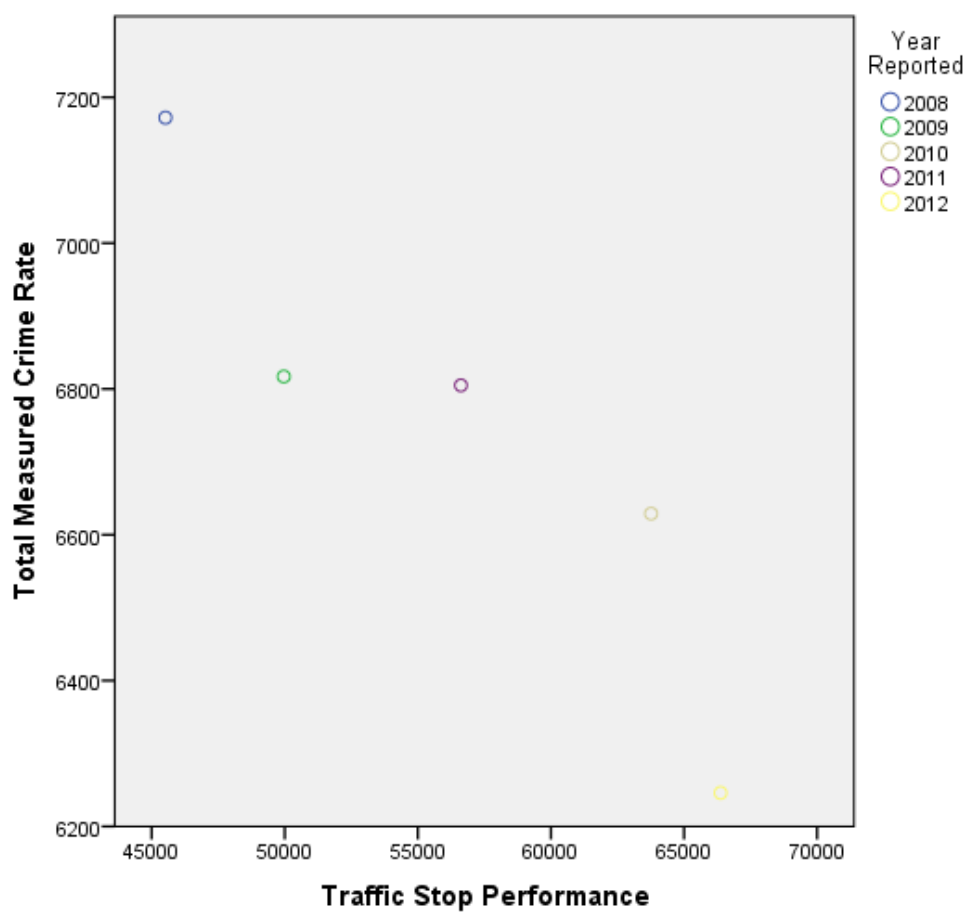
Figure 4. Florence County.

Figure 5. Marlboro County.

Summary

I am satisfied to accept my hypothesis that there is a negative correlation between traffic enforcement and crime rates (H_1). The data may not be as strong as a researcher would wish, but as the figures show, much of the data are conclusive in showing a relationship, however slight. In Chapter 5, I interpret the data and set the stage for future studies, as the study could lead to positive social change.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

Because of the dissention regarding broken windows theory, the need for social change, and the problems in policing, I sought to provide information in this study to supplement crime-solving efforts. The study was a quantitative, exploratory, correlational research study using existing data. Because the FBI only classifies certain types of crimes in the Uniform Crime Reports (UCR), I chose larcenies (thefts), motor vehicle thefts (MVT), burglaries, and robberies for data comparison. The dependent variable was crime rates, and the independent variable was traffic stop performance within the given counties noted in Chapters 3 and 4. My research design used existing data. I used databases from governmental agencies, and I analyzed data using the same parameters, using the same five counties, for consecutive years, and the same crime rates from each respective county. I analyzed data from the years 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, and 2012 in the study. In my results, four out of five counties indeed showed a negative correlat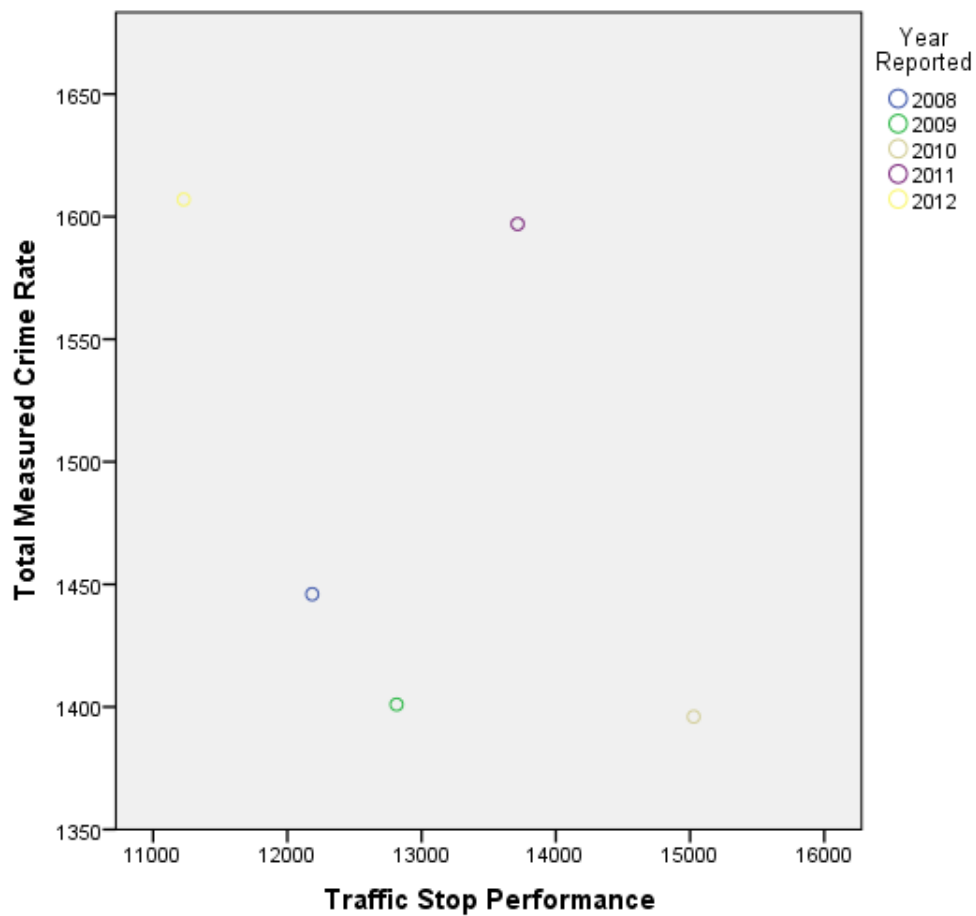ion, and I am satisfied to accept my hypothesis that there is a negative correlation between traffic enforcement and crime rates (H_1).

Interpretation of the Findings

In Chapter 2, I discussed Peelian principles, broken windows theory, police tools, training, problem-oriented policing, and other theories of criminologists (Doğan & Sevınç, 2011; Wilson & Killing, 1982). The results of the study extend the knowledge provided by past studies cited in the literature review, as I discuss proactive enforcement as proactive enforcement relates to solving crime patterns (Doğan & Sevınç, 2011;

Wilson & Killing, 1982). The study was aimed to narrow the gap in knowledge concerning lowering crime rates and traffic enforcement. As discussed in Chapter 4, as related to my dependent and independent variables, three of the five examined counties had a weak, negative correlation; one county had a strong, negative correlation; and one county had a positive correlation between traffic stops and crime rates. Because none of the studies in the literature had examined the variables directly, I synthesized the findings of the study alongside the major points of the literature review.

Peelian principles and broken windows theory were at the heart of the study. These two theories showed the need for a more professional police agency, better training, and an unconventional way to combat crime (Lentz & Chaires, 2007; Wilson & Kelling, 1982). Although many drivers dislike traffic stops, traffic stops are the most visible activity of police (Cook & Whowell, 2011). Training is essential because officers could misuse traffic stops.

I next addressed police tools and training in the literature review because many authors had written about police training and tools. Just like COMPSTAT or other crime-tracking tools, traffic enforcement may be appealing for crime reduction. The study, with further investigation, may give tools to police agencies to combat crime (Fennell, 2014; Paterson, 2011; Siegel, 2015; Weil, 2012). Ethical behavior is important here because, although not addressed, it may not be possible to teach ethics in all circumstances, as officers must do their part to engage in ethical behavior (Prentice, 2014).

Race and racism in policing did not directly apply to the findings of the study. Because issues of race and racism have infiltrated the coverage of the criminal justice

system in media, it was important to address these issues and restate that no officer should stop anyone because of the individual's race. Treating people fairly is essential when completing studies on traffic enforcement, as public approval is needed for success (Beaulieu & Continelli, 2011; Brown, 2013; Davenport, Soule, & Armstrong, 2011; Fennell, 2014; Hosken, 2013; Miller, 2014; Ruddell, Thomas, & Patten, 2011; Thacher, 2011).

Gaining public approval of traffic enforcement in a given area is tedious but necessary (Lentz & Chaires, 2007). The media are very active, and any activity, right or wrong, may be presented by the media. The media portray crime as entertainment, especially in situations in which police and protesters clash (Schulenberg & Chenier, 2014). The willing cooperation of the public is essential because the media scrutinize physical force incidents, whether the officers were right or wrong.

I have based the literature review and Chapter 5 on the analysis and interpretation of the findings in the context of the theoretical framework. Having related the major points of the literature review to the study, I believe that it is important to turn to the limitations of the study, as the study was not all-inclusive.

Limitations of the Study

There were a few minor limits to the study. I predicted some of the limitations, but another arose. In Chapter 1, I stated that the weaknesses of the study were slim but apparent. In this existing data study, I relied on existing statistics, which meant that I could not control the variables. However, the lack of control removed the potential for bias. I could not manipulate data to harm the data. I chose the study, so the only

mechanism I performed was to treat the data carefully. My actions held the limitations to a minimum.

The other limitation that arose was the small area of investigation. I chose to limit data to a five-county area; I explain why I would not recommend this approach in the next section. Although the study worked in this context, I have future plans to broaden the study.

Recommendations

There are two areas of recommendations. First, I addressed issues I found when conducting the study; second, I described what police can do to help reduce crime rates, assuming that a negative correlation exists between traffic enforcement and crime rates.

Further studies are recommended, though using expanded parameters. The five-county model was effective; however, expanding the parameters might reveal why four of the five counties had negative correlations, for example. However, I find existing data studies fascinating because researchers cannot control variables, which means that bias is as removed as can be. During investigation, I realized that the data were set, and I did not have to worry about manipulating any data, which made the study fun.

The most important recommendation for further study, which I will pursue after graduating, is to study the five largest cities in South Carolina. There was a strong, negative correlation in Florence County, which was the largest county studied (in population). The less-populated counties shared negative correlations (except Dillon County); however, the correlation was much weaker. By performing future studies on the

relationship between crime rates and traffic enforcement, researchers could note whether stronger populations equal stronger negative correlations, as was the case in the study.

An analysis of the population revealed the following regarding the size of the counties in relation to all counties in South Carolina: (a) Florence County was the 12th largest county, (b) Darlington County was the 20th largest county, (c) Chesterfield County was the 25th largest county, (d) Dillon County was the 32nd largest county, and (e) Marlboro County was the 34th largest county. There are 46 counties in the state of South Carolina. In the hypothetical study, the counties studied would be the five largest counties, listed here by order of population, from highest to lowest: Greenville County, Richland County, Charleston County, Spartanburg County, and Horry County.

The other recommendation for further study is to expand the types of crime included. In this study, I looked at minor crimes as predictors, as in broken windows theory (Wilson & Killing, 1982). However, it may or may not be advantageous to include larger crimes when expanding the years. This may lead other researchers to determine whether major crimes indeed spawn from smaller crimes, and whether traffic enforcement has any effect. Again, this is hypothetical, and only a study could show or not show correlation.

This study was relatively simple and inexpensive to conduct. However, there are pitfalls in such research if completed improperly. I must mention them in the recommendations so that if another researcher replicates this study, he or she will analyze the data properly. For example, when I originally organized my data, I computed a positive correlation between the variables, which I discussed in Chapter 5. However, I

realized that the data set had been improperly configured. Another area where the data could be misinterpreted is the collection phase. Although the SCDPS maintains good data, researchers must look at citations and warnings or the data could be skewed, as traffic stops must conclude with a warning or citation.

Finally, the recommendation for police is to perform traffic stops for legitimate traffic violations but keep a record of what the crime rates do. Although COMPSTAT has problems, if police agencies report crimes honestly (e.g., do not call a burglary *petty theft*), COMPSTAT is a wonderful tool. COMPSTAT also can tell police where problem areas are and give them a framework for solving crimes. All of these recommendations, both for future studies and for what police can accomplish, could lead to positive social change.

None of the recommendations exceed the boundaries of the study.

Implications

According to Stansfield (2014), crime has been declining in past years, except as crime relates to studies correlating immigration and crime. Although it is not my intent to inject any political implications into the study, assuming that Stansfield is correct, I would suggest that some larger cities may be experiencing higher crime rates, as crime is related to his study. Although this study addressed racial profiling, which is not only illegal, but also unethical, addressing legitimate traffic problems may reduce crime, should the norm be negative correlations between traffic stops and crime rates. Additionally, legitimate traffic stops save lives (Al-Kaisy, Kreider & Pothering, 2013;

Dougherty & Schmidt, 2011). Thus, a latent consequence of the study may be lives saved because of proper enforcement of legitimate traffic violations.

The results of the study may also improve policies, procedures, and training, reducing crime rates and thus creating positive social change. Traffic enforcement is a natural way to reduce crime, as traffic enforcement relates to policing. Although many citizen complaints are regarding petty crimes, research has shown that the enforcement of laws concerning smaller crimes leads to an overall decline in crime, as seen in NYC in the 1990s (Lens, 2013). Broken windows are symbolic of violations that affect quality of life, such as failure to maintain a neighborhood that results in neighborhood deterioration (Siegel, 2015; Wilson & Kelling, 1982). Marrying my study with the researchers' articles may help citizens have a better quality of life, which would represent positive social change.

Finally, the study does not indicate a conclusive series of steps to eliminate crime. This study should be treated the same as any other study or tool that police use. At one time, broken windows theory was developed for a study, and it is still an unproven theory with detractors (Harcourt, 2001). Some will disagree with the findings of this study based on the same premise on which they disagree with broken windows theory. However, NYC's crime rate declined due to the use of broken windows strategies (Lens, 2013). Thus, if a negative correlation exists, application of the findings of this study may yield results in cities that need relief from crime.

None of these aspects of social change exceed the boundaries of the study.

Conclusion

I conducted a quantitative, exploratory, correlational research study using existing data. My working hypothesis was the following: There is a negative correlation between traffic enforcement and crime rates (H_1). My research showed the hypothesis (H_1) to be somewhat true. The study identified a negative correlation between crime rates and traffic enforcement. The study closed the gap between an unpopular topic, traffic enforcement, and a more popular topic, lowering crime rates. Although no person enjoys the police stopping him or her, the goal of the study is not to promote senseless traffic enforcement, but rather to create a better environment for citizens who live in the areas of the enforcement. The study was not intended to fix every crime issue, nor was the study intended to violate space; rather, I sought to demonstrate that there is a need to help police and citizens unite and help one another. It is important for police and citizens to trust one another, even when a police methodology is not popular. Sometimes, a short-term method brings positive long-term results.

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