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Social Disorganization Theory: The Role of Diversity in New Jersey's Hate Crimes

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Abstract

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Abstract

The reported number of hate crimes in New Jersey continues to remain high despite the enforcement of laws against perpetrators. The purpose of this correlational panel study was to test Shaw & McKay's theory of social disorganization by examining the relationship between demographic diversity and hate crime rates. This study focused on analyzing the relationship between the level of diversity, residential mobility, unemployment, family disruption, proximity to urban areas, and population density in all 21 New Jersey counties and hate crime rates. The existing data of Federal Bureau of Investigations' hate crime rates and the U.S. Census Bureau's demographic diversity, operationalized as the percentage of Whites over all other races, and social disorganization from 21 between the years 2007 through 2011, for a total sample size of 105 cases of reported hate crimes. Results of the multiple linear regression analysis indicate that ethnic diversity did not significantly predict hate crimes ($p = 0.81$), residential mobility ($p < 0.001$), and population density ($p < 0.001$) had positive effects on hate crime rates. Concentrated disadvantage ($p = 0.01$), characterized by the number of reported unemployment rates, had a negative effect on hate crime rates. The results of the study supported social disorganization theory in reference to residential mobility and population density. Law enforcement agencies can use the results of this study to combat hate crimes in areas with a high level of residential mobility and population density.

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Dedication

I would like to thank my family and my wonderful loving parents, Mr. and Mrs. Victor and Floarea Ciobanu, who have supported me through every obstacle and continued to motivate me no matter how hard I resisted. I would also like to thank my sister, Alina Ciobanu, for her support and encouraging words. I love you all and thank you for all your support! Words cannot express how thankful I am!

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

Ethnic minorities have become targets of hate crimes based on feelings of contempt for cultural ideas and beliefs that are in contrast with or different from an established norm. Stereotypes of different ethnic groups have also ignited hostility towards that group (American Psychological Association, 1998). McVeigh, Bjarnason, and Welch (2003) argued that there is a high level of support of hate crime legislation in ethnically heterogeneous communities because the residents of those communities are more likely to respond positively to problems stemming from an interethnic perspective. In the state of New Jersey, hate crime rates have remained consistently high throughout the years, despite the state's diverse demographic structure and hate crime reporting laws (New Jersey Bias Incident Offenses, 2011).

The emergence of hate crimes in the United States began early in U.S. history. As the United States became more diverse as a nation, hate crimes consisted of different types of crimes from physical attacks to property damage including graffiti to discriminatory verbal reprimands and/or comments against different groups (Hate Crimes that Changed History, 2016). This form of resentment towards other groups stemmed from people's perceptions and culturally defined values; resentment focused on the social environment and standards of living as new ethnic groups moved into what were once predominantly homogeneous neighborhoods (Sidanius & Pratto as cited in Fiske, 2002).

Hate crimes are unique compared to other forms of crime because they target an individual or a group of individuals based on a specific motive. The motive is personal,

and in most cases, the criminal act is justified to the perpetrator based on a biased

ideology. Hate crimes inspire fear among victims and communities. Hate crimes may

lead to repeated actions, escalations, and potential counter violence (Bias Incidents,

2000). Freilich and Chermak (2014) linked social disorganization and demographic

change with higher levels of hate crimes. According to Freilich and Chermak, hate crimes

against racial minorities are more likely to occur in neighborhoods or areas undergoing

constant demographic change. Freilich and Chermak further asserted that hate groups

may focus on areas experiencing demographic change to take advantage of the tension

and use it as an opportunity to mobilize. These groups may recruit members, as well as

encourage other individuals to act (Freilich & Chermak, 2014). Racial and ethnic tensions

may also occur in public school systems that are experiencing demographic and

socioeconomic changes (Hate Crime: The Violence of Intolerance, n.d.). These tensions

may result from perceptions of unequal educational opportunities that some individuals

may feel they are experiencing (Hate Crime: The Violence of Intolerance, n.d.).

Therefore, according to Freilich and Chermak, hate crimes (like other types of crimes),

occur in socially disorganized areas.

Hate crimes present social problems for civil society more than any other types of

crimes (Mikami & Unemoto, 2000). Transparent bias may lead to violent behavior

against eccentric individuals, as well as those who threaten core values in a community

(Fiske, 2002). Mikami and Unemoto (2000) argued that, although hate crime perpetrators

may select a particular victim, the criminal act itself is not a product of an individual

acting alone, but on a group with which the victim is associated. According to Fiske

(2002), when out groups intimidate traditional values, they become expected targets of hostility.

In the United States, perpetrators are mostly European American male teenagers, and they often cite reasons other than bias as their motives for committing hate crimes (Lawrence, 2003). Peer pressure, a means for young adults to prove themselves through a violent act directed at a group as opposed to actual bias the perpetrators may feel towards that group, may cause the perpetrator's criminal behavior. A perceived threat from a different group of individuals residing in or relocating to a community may be the motivational factor for a hate crime. A perceived wrong by a member of a targeted group may also be a motivational factor for a hate crime. Violence between two individuals may lead to retribution directed at an innocent victim to whom the perpetrator represents as the perceived enemy (Streissguth, 2009). Nevertheless, most hate crimes are not committed by members of organized hate groups but by individual perpetrators (Bureau of Justice Assistance [BJS] as cited in Hate Crime Violence and Intimidation, 2010).

Hate crime offenses may be random acts to premeditate injury inflicted at a targeted individual, a mission offender, or a perpetrator who implements a planned mission against an individual who belongs to a hated group (Streissguth, 2009). According to Freilich and Chermak (2014), there are five major categories of hate crime offender typology. They are as follows:

- Thrill seeking is the most common motivation for hate crime offenses. Offenders in this category are often groups or juveniles without a criminal

record. Sometimes substance abuse is involved, and the crimes are committed in public locations.

- Reactive/defense*:* These are offenses committed with the motivation of defending intrusions against an individual's turf. This typology is consistent with the defended neighborhood theory, which explains why hate crimes are more prevalent in neighborhoods with an increase in minority populations (Freilich & Chermak, 2014). Some may also upon resentment based on an increase of the economic power of a particular racial or ethnic group (Hate Crime: The Violence of Intolerance, n.d.). The offenders in this typology usually act in groups (Freilich & Chermak, 2014).

- Retaliatory: The offenses in this category usually occur when offenders perceive their group as having been victims of hate crimes. The act is often committed as a method of revenge against members of a group perceived to have perpetrated the initial crime or incident. Freilich and Chermak (2014) argued that this category represents how dangerous these types of crimes are in neighborhoods or areas where retaliation affects public safety and community unity.

- Mission*:* This category includes perpetrators who embrace a belief system that perceives members of a particular group as malevolent. These offenders usually act alone, and unlike thrill-seekers, they choose their victims carefully. Mission offenders are more likely than any other

category to be members of hate groups and to support the group's perceptions and ideology. This category of offenders may be suffering from mental illness. They are also more likely than any other group to commit violent crimes, commit suicide, or murder during an intended attack.

- Bias peripheral/mixed: These types of crimes are committed for mixed and/or various reasons. An argument during the course of a disagreement where an individual or a group of individuals attacks the other referencing their race, ethnicity, religion, or sexual orientation may cause these events. Similar to mission offenders, these offenders are more likely to act alone as opposed to acting in groups.

Hate crimes are more likely to be linked to race and ethnicity. According to the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS), 58% of hate crimes were linked to race, with African Americans reported as the most targeted group; 30% of hate crimes were linked to the victims' ethnicity (as cited in Freilich & Chermak, 2014). Hate crimes were also linked to sexual orientation (15%), religion (12%), and disability (10%; NCVS as cited in Freilich & Chermak, 2014). The Uniform Crime Reports (UCR) hate crime data revealed that more than half of the victims who reported the incidents to law enforcement asserted that the motivation for the crime was race-related (as cited in Freilich & Chermak, 2014).

Hate crimes in the state of New Jersey continue to be a cause for concern, despite legislation and law enforcement procedures to report and enforce hate crimes (Berger,

2009). A factor, which is unique to New Jersey's hate crimes, is the high level of demographic divergence (especially in the northern and central regions of the state; New Jersey: A Statewide View on Diversity, 2007). The purpose of this study was to determine whether there was a significant relationship between the demographic diversity and the level of hate crime rates in New Jersey based on race and ethnicity. I also determined whether there was a significant relationship between hate crime rates and social disorganization in New Jersey for the period of 2007 through 2011.

Chapter 1 of the study provides an overview and an introduction to the problem of the study. Chapter 1 also provides an overview of New Jersey's policy implications of hate crime laws. In Chapter 1, I describe the purpose and significance of the study and an introduction to the methodology for the study, which I will explore in more detail in Chapter 3.

Statement of the Problem

The reported number of hate crimes in New Jersey continues to remain high despite laws instituted against perpetrators of hate crimes in the state (Berger, 2009). Since the inception of hate crime reporting laws, New Jersey has had a high number of hate crimes. For example, in 2010, New Jersey had the highest number of bias-related incidents with 8.58 reported hate crimes per 100,000 residents (U.S. States with the Highest Rate of Reported Hate Crimes, 2013). Washington, DC followed in second place with 7.09 incidents, Delaware followed in third place with 6.64 reported incidents, followed by South Dakota with 6.11 incidents, and Michigan with 5.74 incidents (U.S. States with the Highest Rate of Reported Hate Crimes, 2013). The extent, nature, or type

of the bias-related incidents is unknown (U.S. States with the Highest Rate of Reported Hate Crimes, 2013).

Similarly, in 2011, the state of New Jersey was among the top five states with the highest number of hate crimes (third in rank with 9% reported hate crimes and incidents) in the United States. Other states included California first in rank with 14.9%, Michigan second in rank with 11.9%, Virginia fourth in rank with 5%, and Ohio fifth in rank with 4.6% incidents (Crime Statistics, Hate Crimes, Race-Related, 2011). In 2012, New Jersey ranked third with the highest number of reported hate crime rates with 5.76 incidents per 100,000 people (Katz, 2012). Washington, DC ranked in first place with 13.4 incidents, Massachusetts ranked in second with 5.77 incidents, Oregon ranked in fourth with 5.25 incidents, and Kentucky ranked in fifth with 4.33 incidents (Katz, 2012). Although these statistics vary by year based on the number of reported hate crimes, the top five states with the most number of hate crimes have remained (for the most part) stagnant from 2003 to the most recent 2012 reporting, with New Jersey among the top five for all years of reporting.

New Jersey is one of the most diverse states in the United States (New Jersey: A Statewide View on Diversity, 2007). Although New Jersey is the fifth smallest state in the United States, it ranks ninth in population in the United States; is the most densely populated state in the United States; and has an average of 1,030 inhabitants per square mile, 13 times the national average (Some N. J. Facts, 2007). Based on the statistics compiled by the Anti-Defamation League (ADL), 1 out of 10 hate crime incidents reported in 2008 in the United States was from New Jersey (as cited in Berger, 2009).

Table 1 list the New Jersey Bias Incident Offense 2007 through 2011; although hate crimes have increased in 2007 to 2008 in New Jersey, there has been an overall decline from 2009 to 2011 (ADL as cited in Berger, 2009). However, the overall rates of hate crimes in New Jersey have been high with minor increases and decreases throughout the years.

Table 1

New Jersey Bias Incident Offenses, 2011

Bias Incident Offenses	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Murder Manslaughter Rape	1	-	-	-	-
Robbery	-	-	-	-	-
Aggravated Assault	-	-	-	-	-
Burglary Larceny - Theft	2	1	3	9	2
Simple Assault					
Fear of Bodily Violence	12	19	10	8	9
Arson	5	3	2	1	1
Criminal Mischief	1	2	1	2	-
Damage to Property; Threat of Violence	46	47	38	52	32
Weapons Offense	11	9	21	8	7
Sex Offense (Except Rape)	1	1	3	2	1
Terroristic Threats Trespass					
Disorderly Conduct	268	358	263	287	176
Harassment	23	14	1	4	-
Desecration of Venerated Objects	1	-	1	-	-
All Other Bias Incidents	3	-	1	1	-

Note. Adapted from "New Jersey Bias Incident Offenses," by New Jersey State Police, 2011. Retrieved from http://www.njsp.org/info/ucr2011/pdf/2011a_bias_incident_rpt.pdf

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative research study was to examine the relationship between demographic diversity and the number of hate crime rates in New Jersey. I also examined the relationship between hate crime rates and social disorganization in New

Jersey. The research population consisted of the 21 counties representing the state of New Jersey.

The state of New Jersey faces challenges in creating comprehensive communities, a productive workforce, a proactive educational system, and neighborhoods that are not characterized by biased attitudes and/or actions.(New Jersey: A Statewide View on Diversity, 2007). New Jersey is one of the most diverse states and the most densely populated state in the United States (Lipowsky, 2010). New Jersey is also one of the states with the highest rates of hate crimes (Lipowsky, 2010). With New Jersey's diversity, concerns such as housing, immigration, education, and civic life present challenges to the state's overall community characteristics (New Jersey: A Statewide View on Diversity, 2007).

Despite New Jersey's high level of diversity, there are differences among White, Black, and Hispanic communities. Based on the 2007 New Jersey, A Statewide View on Diversity (2007) report, Whites reside mostly in growing or older towns and suburbs with few Whites residing in urban areas. Blacks are more likely than Hispanics to reside in urban areas (New Jersey: A Statewide View on Diversity, 2007). However, a large number of Black inhabitants reside in suburban communities, older towns, and suburbs. Hispanic residents reside mostly in urban communities, despite a high number of Hispanic inhabitants residing outside of urban centers (New Jersey: A Statewide View on Diversity, 2007).

Data reporting on hate crimes and bias-related incidents, which the Hate Crimes Statistics Act (1990) requires, provides a better understanding of social conflict. Reported

data on hate crimes provides social science researchers with information so they can develop solutions to the problems affecting social change in communities (Mikami & Unemoto, 2000). Based on the reported statistical data, there may be potential solutions to the problem of hate crimes through gaining a better understanding of the characteristics involving bias-motivated incidents in different areas of New Jersey. An understanding of bias-motivated crimes and the areas in which these incidents are more prevalent is not only essential in developing potential solutions to the problem of hate crimes, but also provides a way to promote positive social change.

Research Questions and Hypothesis

The relational and causal research questions and respective hypotheses for the study were as follows:

1. Is there a significant relationship between demographic diversity and the number of hate crime rates in New Jersey?

$H_1 1$: There is a significant relationship between demographic diversity and the number of hate crime rates in New Jersey.

$H_0 1$: There is no significant relationship between demographic diversity and the number of hate crime rates in New Jersey.

2. Is there a significant relationship between hate crime rates and social disorganization in New Jersey?

$H_1 2$: There is a significant relationship between hate crime rates and social disorganization in New Jersey.

H_02: There is no significant relationship between hate crime rates and social disorganization in New Jersey.

Literature Gap of the Study

In this study, I wished to determine the possible causes of high hate crime rates in New Jersey. In New Jersey, the occurrence of hate crimes is unique due to the high level of demographic divergence, especially in the northern and central regions of the state (New Jersey: A Statewide View on Diversity, 2007). This study was the first research study that focuses on all 21 counties representing the state, which examines diversity as a possible relational causal factor to hate crime rates using social disorganization theory. In this study, I used all 21 counties in the state of New Jersey as the research population to examine the relationship between high levels of diversity as a potential relational factor to hate crimes. I also used all six variables identified in social disorganization theory to determine demographic, economic, and/or social characteristics as relational factors to this problem. Although I hypothesized that these variables (definition provided in social disorganization theory), linked and/or associated with high hate crime rates in New Jersey, I did not presume that these characteristics were the only links to this problem. However, I did reference the historical and current demographic facts relevant to this phenomenon.

Significance of the Study

In this study, I focused on the demographic components of different areas throughout the state of New Jersey that may have an impact on hate crimes. Hate crimes can cause strains that trigger racial conflict, civil disturbances, and riots in a

neighborhood or community (Hate Crime: The Violence of Intolerance, n.d.). If these

civil disturbances remain unaddressed, it could turn into a community-wide conflict (Hate

Crime: The Violence of Intolerance, n.d.). A neighborhood or a community that shares

the same characteristics as the victim may also feel fearful and unsettled (Hate Crime

Laws: A Practical Guide, 2009). In this section, I will focus on the significance of the

study as it relates to the impact that this problem has on members of the community,

enactment of hate crime laws, law enforcement response, and educational programs

and/or reforms.

Impact of Hate Crimes on Community Members

Neighborhoods and communities that have experienced hate crimes may also

experience negative social and economic consequences. The immediate effects of these

conflicts and civil disturbances include police, fire, medical, and personnel injury or

death; business and residential property loss; and damage to vehicles and equipment

(Hate Crime: The Violence of Intolerance, n.d.). Hate crimes may also lead to a decline

in property values and a scarcity of funds for rebuilding (Hate Crime: The Violence of

Intolerance, n.d.).

Enactment of Hate Crime Laws

A primary responsibility of the government is to protect citizens' civil rights,

provide equality, and to safeguard racial and ethnic relations through establishing an

ordinance against hate crime acts and enhancing the punishments for these types of

crimes through the funding of programs (Hate Crimes: The Violence of Intolerance, n.d.).

Local governments can pass more statutes to address these types of crimes by

establishing a law modeled on an existing hate crime law. According to Jenness (2001), hate crime laws are needed because they provide a state action by enacting a new category altering an existing law or enhancing penalties that are categorized as bias-motivated (Jenness, 2001).

Providing training to law enforcement officers to enforce existing laws is crucial in achieving compliance with existing statutes. Local governments may also establish boards or commissions to review hate crime activity, create public service announcements, and endorse measures and recommendations to address hate crime activity (Hate Crimes: The Violence of Intolerance, n.d.). State governments can provide the necessary leadership in response to hate crimes in the areas of legislation, data collection and analysis, training and technical support, public awareness and prevention, and coordination (Taylor, 1991).

Hate crimes not only cause physical, psychological, and emotional harm, but they also have the potential to intensify racial, ethnic, and religious tensions in the community, especially in disintegrated communities where a lack of cooperation with law enforcement officials exists (Positive Change through Policy, 2001). Enacting more legislation and financial support for prosecution can assist law enforcement officials in preventing hate crimes in communities (Positive Change through Policy, 2001). For example, the Matthew Shepard and James Byrd Jr. Hate Crimes Prevention Act (2009) led to the creation of a federal law that criminalizes willful bodily injury when a crime is committed based on the actual or perceived protected category class. It also authorized funding for criminal investigations and prosecutions by state, local, and tribal law

enforcement officials (Public Policy, 2014). This study can provide more insight on the understanding of hate crimes, which will assist in the establishment of new local ordinances concerning hate crimes in a community. The findings of this study may bring awareness of this type of problem in a community, which is unique to New Jersey, and ultimately contribute to the enactment of more severe ordinances and statues.

Law Enforcement Response

Some states have expounded on the federal hate crime definition in order to protect and support protected groups in communities (Positive Change through Policy, 2001). In December 1999, the state of California (similar to New Jersey, California also has a high level of diversity and reported number of hate crimes) formed the San Fernando Valley Hate Crimes Alliance to organize the community and to help address bias-motivated crime (Positive Change through Policy, 2001). This alliance was based on mutual cooperation between local police officers with community volunteers and offered training and education in order to encourage hate crime reporting, develop a community support network for victims of hate crimes, and prevent acts of bias through education based on respect for diversity (Positive Change through Policy, 2001). The Hate Crimes Alliance has also developed programs for students to learn about diversity (Positive Change through Policy, 2001).

Community-oriented policing will also help bring together law enforcement agencies and minority neighborhoods (Hate Crime: The Violence of Intolerance, n.d.). In 1988, New Jersey adopted a statewide Bias Incident Investigation Standards (BIIS) for local law enforcement (Taylor, 1991). These policies not only describe the policies and

procedures for responding to and investigating hate crimes, but they also outline measures for local law enforcement to work with victims and the community (Taylor, 1991). Encouraging collaboration between community members, local advocacy organizations, and law enforcement agencies would not only increase hate crime reporting, but also would also enforce the promotion of stable and safe communities (American Psychological Association, n.d.). This study may assist with the implementation of funding for educational programs on diversity and potential policy reforms.

Offender educational programs are important in the development of stable neighborhoods and communities that may be experiencing hate crimes. The implementation and continued funding of these programs is critical. In the late 1990s and early 2000s, under the direction of the State Attorney General's Office, alternative sentencing programs for young hate crime offenders were developed and applied in all counties in New Jersey (Levin & McDewitt, 2002). The New Jersey alternative sentencing program was similar to the Massachusetts Youth Diversion and Community Service program, which was based on a partnership between the ADL, the Attorney General Office, Harvard University, and Northeastern University, which worked together to provide a sentencing alternative for young offenders convicted of hate crimes (Levin & McDewitt, 2002). According to Levin and McDewitt (2002), this was a 16-week program designed to assess the needs of hate crime offenders and identify the psychological, educational, and vocational needs of the offender. This program also required community service to a local minority community program.

Similar to the Massachusetts Youth Diversion and Community Service program, the New Jersey program also combined a psychological assessment based on an agenda, which included community service and educational sessions to increase awareness and knowledge of different cultures (Lewin & McDewitt, 2002). According to Levin and McDewitt (2002), the New Jersey alternative sentencing program for hate crime offenders has become the most pervasive effort of offender rehabilitation to date. Despite the measures the state of New Jersey has taken to address collaboration efforts between local law enforcement and the community, as well as offender rehabilitation, the measures did not center on procedures of response and investigation in regards to the BIIS and alternative sentencing programs for offenders. This study will assist law enforcement in providing measures for implementation of alternative sentencing programs to address this problem. This study will also provide knowledge about hate crime activity specific to New Jersey, and it will help raise awareness to the importance of these programs to support community participation and adequate funding.

The results of this study can assist law enforcement agencies in allocating resources, funds, and operational prioritization in areas where hate crimes and diversity are prevalent. Analysts may conduct additional evaluations and targeting analysis in areas or communities where hate crimes are predominant based on the analysis of the demographic characteristics identified under social disorganization theory. Based on a consensus that a significant relationship and correlation between the variables exists, researchers may also conduct crime mapping analysis. This will help identify the actual high or low percentage of hate crime rates in a specific area or community. The results

will allow the focus to be on resources for hate crime areas, which exhibit the demographic characteristics under social disorganizations. This will also help increase police presence and attention in high-risk areas for this type of activity. Increasing awareness through educational programs will assist law enforcement in reaching out to members of communities and building cooperation between law enforcement and community members in those areas. It will also assist with community organization to offer programs to educate citizens about hate crimes, reduce victim vulnerability, and encourage reporting.

Educational Programs/Reforms

Multijurisdictional or regional task forces are effective methods of combining resources and information sharing to counter hate crime activity (Hate Crimes: The Violence of Intolerance, n.d.). Educational counseling programs for young perpetrators may also assist with tackling these types of crimes (Hate Crimes: The Violence of Intolerance, n.d.). Public schools, colleges, universities, and the community may implement these educational programs (Hate Crimes: The Violence of Intolerance, n.d.). Potential reforms for addressing hate crimes include supporting interventions that help address the needs of hate crime victims (American Psychological Association, n.d.). Other reforms include supporting educational efforts, development, and dissemination of hate crime prevention and intervention programs. This would include training for law enforcement and victim assistance professionals regarding how they can assist victims and communities affected by hate crimes (American Psychological Association, n.d.).

Significance of the Study in Relation to Public Policy

It is essential that law enforcement officials receive the proper training to identify, respond to, and report hate crime incidents for the goal of prosecution. Prosecution of high profile cases may promote increased levels of reporting. Policymakers can promote training for law enforcement, prosecutors, and judges as well as stricter laws to ensure proper enforcement of hate crimes (A Policymaker's Guide to Hate Crimes, 1997). In order to increase awareness, state and local policymakers should ensure hate crimes responsiveness or the provision of ethnic diversity curriculums in elementary and secondary schools (A Policymaker's Guide to Hate Crimes, 1997). State and local policymakers may also sponsor or fund programs that foster cooperation among residents in diverse neighborhoods. This study will assist policymakers in gaining a better understanding on how social and economic factors impact hate crimes and what measures can be taken through the implementation of programs and policy reforms to address these issues.

Social Change Implication for the Study

This study provided an understanding of social disorganization as it relates to hate crimes in New Jersey. I presented possible social, economic, and demographic dynamics in communities that may be leading causes of hate crimes in New Jersey. This study also provided the exploration of potential policy reforms, enforcement efforts, recommendations, and causes for action in areas with a high number of hate crimes, which would have an impact on future potential bias-motivated incidents.

Nature of the Study

In this quantitative study, I used secondary source data on hate crimes based on race and ethnicity. I examine the 21 counties representing the state of New Jersey, and 105 cases based on the data sets identified in the Scope and Delimitations section of this chapter. The focus of the study was on the relationship between hate crimes and diversity in the areas outlined above using an ordinary least squares regression statistical test in SPSS. I also focused on the relationship between hate crimes and the variables outlined under social disorganization theory, which include ethnic diversity, concentrated disadvantage, family disruption, residential mobility, population size of density, and proximity to urban areas using multiple linear regression regression statistical tests in SPSS. In Chapter 3, I identify the measurement of each of these variables.

In this study, the population and all of the data came from secondary data sources from the years 2007 through 2011. The data for hate crime rates, based on race and ethnicity only, were compiled by the U.S. Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigation's (FBI), Criminal Justice Information Services Division, Uniform Crime Reports, Hate Crimes Statistics, New Jersey Hate Crime Incidents per Bias Motivation, and Quarter by State and Agency. Based on the data retrieved from the U.S. Census Bureau, I used the following New Jersey demographics (based on ethnic diversity): family disruption (based on the estimated number of widowed, divorced, and separated rates combined; population 15 of years of age and older) and residential mobility (based on the total estimate number of residents, population 1-year-old and over who moved within the same county, moved from different county same state, moved within same

county, moved from different state, and moved from abroad). The data were retrieved from the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics for the concentrated disadvantage variable based on the actual number of unemployment rates.

For the population density variable, I retrieved data from World Media Group, LLC., an online source that reveals the population density for each of the 21 counties of New Jersey. The proximity to urban areas for the mapping calculation standard data was from the U.S. Department of Commerce, Economics and Statistics Administration, and U.S. Census Bureau. Population density and proximity to urban areas variables under the second research question for this study were the only two variables in the study that remained constant throughout the selected period of 2007 through 2011.

Theoretical Background

I used social disorganization theory to test the relationship between hate crimes, ethnic diversity, concentrated disadvantage, family disruption, residential mobility, population size of density, and proximity to urban areas. Social disorganization theory is "the inability of community members to realize common values of its residents and maintain effective social controls" (Social Disorganization and Rural Communities, 2003, para. 1). Originally pioneered by Shaw and McKay (1942), social disorganization theorists focused on identifying social disorganizations to neighborhoods where conditions were more prevalent to urban areas and only underprivileged residents could afford neighborhoods that experienced a high rate of residential turnover in population where individuals from different cultural backgrounds settled. Shaw and McKay's related delinquency rates to these structural characteristics and established correlations between

the community and crime rates. Bursik and Grasmick (1993) identified a more current

version of a social disorganization theory based on the concept that social relationships in

a community prevent crime and delinquency. Based on this definition, characteristics

such as poverty and ethnic diversity lead to higher delinquency rates due to the

interference or inability for the community to work together as a social group to solve its

problems (Bursik & Grasmick, 1993).

Definitions of Terms

Defining ideas, theories, and concepts in social science research provides a

comprehension of the problem statement, research process, and data analysis. The

defined terms also offer a more in-depth evaluation of a scholarly research problem in a

social science context and in the presentation of facts. In the study of criminology, the

definition of terms is critical in determining which acts constitute criminal behavior.

States govern different laws based on unlawful acts deemed as criminal behavior.

Animus: A feeling of strong ill will or hatred, animosity, a basic attitude or

governing spirit, disposition, intention, or a prejudiced and spiteful or malevolent ill will

(Lawrence, 1999). The group-based animus laws described in Chapter 2 of this study

describes the motivation of a crime based on racial, ethnic, or some other form of group

base animus toward a specific victim. For group-based animus laws, Reidy (2002) argued

that the crime is often committed based on the motivation of gaining respect from the

perpetrator's peers, not on an actual personal individual bias of the perpetrator.

Bias incident: A "non-criminal activity committed against a person or property

that is motivated in whole or in part by the offender's bias against a race, color, ethnicity,

national origin, sex, gender identity or expression, sexual orientation, disability, age or religion" (Definitions, University of Michigan, 2008, para. 5). According to the FBI, an act or incident does not have to be completely perpetuated by bias as long as it is "motivated in whole or in part by the perpetrator's bias against a race, religion, disability, ethnic/national origin, or sexual orientation" (FBI as cited in McPhail, 2000, p. 639). For New Jersey law enforcement purposes, a bias incident is defined as "any suspected, confirmed offense or unlawful act which occurs to a person, private or public property on the basis of race, color, religion, gender, handicap, sexual orientation or ethnicity" (Bias Incidents, 2000, p. 2).

Bias intimidation: Under New Jersey's bias intimidation law, a person is guilty of a crime of bias intimidation if he/she "commits, attempts to commit, conspires with another to commit, or threatens the immediate commission of an offense specified in Chapters 11 through 18 of Title 1C of the New Jersey Statutes" (State Judiciary Committee Statement to Senate, No. 2975, State of New Jersey, 2007, para. 2). The definition focuses on the actual conspiracy to commit a hate crime as opposed to traditional commission or simple act of a crime.

Concentrated disadvantage: An indicator of the relative poverty of neighborhoods.

Demographic diversity: Demographic diversity includes such characteristics as gender, race, age, and education. For the purposes of this study, demographic diversity was defined as relating to or including several races and/or cultures; the existence,

recognition, and preservation of different races and/or cultures or racial; and/or cultural identities within a unified society.

Ethnic diversity: Population of different cultures and/or ethnic backgrounds residing together in a neighborhood or community.

Family disruption: The separation or division of the family structure.

Hate crimes: Based on the Federal Hate Crimes Law (1969), hate crime offenses consist of "willingly injuring, intimidating, interfering with another person, or attempting to do so, by force due to a person's race, color, religion, or national origin" (Hate Crime, Violence, and Intimidation, 2010, para. 1). This definition also concentrates on the physical and psychological aspect of aggression due to a racially or ethnically motivated factor. Although the definition of hate crimes may be general in nature, as noted previously, New Jersey's laws add to this basic definition to include bias intimidation, which focuses on intent as opposed to the criminal act itself.

Institutional instability: The state of consistent change, reaction, or unrest caused by various social implications in an established environment or setting (Sampson & Wilson as cited in Sampson & Bean, 2005).

Metropolitan area: A metropolitan area consists of a densely populated urban core and its less-populated surrounding territories, sharing industry, infrastructure, and housing.

Population density: A measurement of population per unit area or unit volume. It is a quantity of type number density and is the number of individuals relative to the space occupied by them.

Residential instability: A high rate of turnover in the population (Social Disorganization and Rural Communities, 2003).

Social disorganization: A state of society characterized by the breakdown of effective social control resulting in a lack of functional integration and conflicting social attitudes between groups. Social disorganization also includes the development of social isolation, conflict, and a sense of estrangement or alienation from the mainstream of an individual's culture. It is the condition or state of anomie and personal maladjustment.

Social disorganization theory: The inability of community members to realize common values of its residents and maintain effective social controls (Social Disorganization and Rural Communities, 2003). Social disorganization theorists specify that several variables, including ethnic diversity, economic status, family disruption, residential instability, population size and density, and proximity to urban areas, influence a community's capacity to develop and maintain systems of social relationships (Social Disorganization and Rural Communities, 2003).

Urban area: An urban area is the region surrounding a city. As urban areas are developed, there is a density of human structures such as houses, commercial buildings, roads, bridges, and railways. An urban area can also refer to towns, cities, and suburbs.

Assumptions

The main assumption of this study was that hate crimes continue to rise or remain at a high level in New Jersey compared to hate crimes statistics in other states in the United States. Although reported statistical data reflects this to be the case, critics may consider this argument difficult to prove because it centers on reported statistics.

Reported statistics that reveal that hate crimes are high in New Jersey may be due to the state's strict reporting laws. However, this does not mean that hate crimes are high in the state, but rather the strict reporting of hate crimes as manifested in statistical data may reflect this to be the case. States that do not regularly report hate crimes because they are not required to may have low reported hate crimes in comparison to New Jersey. Nevertheless, this does not mean that hate crimes are low in those particular states, but rather that hate crimes in those states remain unreported.

A second assumption of this study centered on the concentrated disadvantage variable under the social disorganization theory that is a based presumption that hate crimes are more likely to occur in economically deprived areas where resources are scarce. However, based on the literature review for this study, these types of crimes can occur in affluent communities as well. A final assumption focused on the family disruption variable under social disorganization theory, which corresponds to the second research question and hypothesis for the study. According to social disorganization theory, as well as urban area research, delinquency rates are higher in areas with higher levels of family disruption (Sampson, 1985; Sampson & Groves, 1989). Therefore, the assumption for the family disruption variable was that all widowed, divorced, and separated family households have children, when in fact only a portion of the family households outlined in the U.S. Census Bureau secondary data used for the study may have children.

Limitations

One of the leading limitations in hate crime research is the lack of reporting or the misreporting of crimes. Dunbar (2006) contended that for a law enforcement official to classify an offense as a hate crime, the victim would have to report the offense to a law enforcement officer. Dunbar further argued that the officer would have to mark the incident as bias-related on the crime report. A precinct hate crimes officer would then review and affirm the incident as bias-related (Dunbar, 2006). Finally, Dunbar suggested that law enforcement officials would have to code victim and offender demographic information such as race/ethnicity and gender. Despite the measures outlined above for law enforcement officials to follow to accurately represent hate crime reporting data, police officers often use their discretion on what constitutes a hate crime or a bias-related incident (Bell, Boyd, Berk, Hamner, & Martin, as cited in McPhail & Jenness, 2006). Because of this, officials may falsely report some cases as hate crimes. According Tafoya, "Like society, law enforcement has two courses of action: cling to the status quo or facilitate social change. Historically, the role of law enforcement has been to maintain the status quo, but this will not be sufficient for future needs" (as cited in Lane, 1990, p. 7).

Although New Jersey law enforcement officials enforce hate crimes and bias-related incidents, police officers in general may lack the proper training to recognize hate crimes. Dunbar (2006) asserted that many victims of hate crimes might also choose not to report hate crimes due to a lack of trust in law enforcement officials. Other individuals who are not emotionally or legally ready to discuss their victimization of hate crimes

(such as undocumented individuals) may also be unlikely to report incidents (Dunbar, 2006). Lawrence (2003) asserted that immigrants who may be victims of hate crimes and may experience a language barrier to report an incident or file a police report are less likely to report hate crimes. Others may view the incidents as too minor to report (Lawrence, 2003). Some individuals do not have the knowledge of what hate crimes are and how the laws are applied. An additional barrier to reporting hate crimes is the perpetrator masking the motive or intent for committing a crime. Because of this, many hate crimes remain unaccounted for (Dunbar, 2006).

Some hate crime victims are unwilling to report hate crimes for fear of the negative publicity reporting would have on their communities and the potential cause of strain on race relations in the neighborhoods (Hate Crime, Violence, and Intimidation, 2010). Other victims fail to report bias-induced crimes because of the trauma they experience and fear of retaliation or difficulty in identifying an incident or conflict as provoked by bias (American Psychological Association, 1998). Therefore, without accurate statistics, law enforcement efforts for reducing hate crimes are challenging (Hate Crime, Violence, and Intimidation, 2010). Generally, data on hate crimes collected by social scientists and groups such as the ADL and the National Asian Pacific American Legal Consortium reveal higher incidents of hate crimes than the figures collected by the federal government (American Psychological Association, 1998).

The standard in the creation of hate crime legislation is motivation. Any act that a person may deem as offensive or criminal may be bias-motivated (Hate Crime, Violence, and Intimidation, 2010). However, when young people in the neighborhood initiate hate

crimes, motivation can be difficult to determine (Levin & McDewitt, 2002). In many

hate-motivated offenses, there is a "spillover" effect, which can mask the perception that

a crime was not bias-motivated (Levin & McDewitt, 2002). These cases include a crime

in which the motivating factor may appear to be for personal or financial gain or the thrill

of committing the act rather than bias.

Based on hate crime legislation, the purpose of the act must be to harm a person

or property based on the victims' race, ethnicity, religion, or sexual orientation. In some

cases, the bias will be obvious. In other cases, the inference for the act of motivation is

from the crime scene or any other type of evidence (Kelly & Maghan, 1998). According

to Kelly and Maghan (1998), this evidence includes, but is not limited to

- Offensive language heard by witnesses

- Display of offensive symbols, words, or actions

- Manner or means of attack

- Prior history of similar acts by the perpetrators

- Similar incidents occurring in the same area or against the same victim

- Victim is likely to be a target based on race, ethnicity, religion, sexual
  orientation, or any other demographic or social factor

- Involvement with an organized hate group

- Date and time of the incidents, that may correspond to a holiday or event
  of significance (i.e., Hanukkah, Martin Luther King Day, Chinese New
  Year, etc.)

- The totality of the circumstances

Scope and Delimitations

The geographic areas chosen for the study included all 21 counties in New Jersey, centered on reported statistics of bias-motivated crimes based on race and ethnicity and the demographic structure representing all variables under social disorganization theory. The 21 counties representing the state of New Jersey included the counties of Atlantic, Bergen, Burlington, Camden, Cape May, Cumberland, Essex, Gloucester, Hudson, Hunterdon, Mercer, Middlesex, Monmouth, Morris Ocean, Passaic, Salem, Somerset, Sussex, Union, and Warren. This study corresponded to the quantitative data within these parameters.

Summary

Chapter 1 of the research provided an overview and an introduction to the problem outlined in the study. In Chapter 1, I reviewed a previous study conducted on the prosecution New Jersey's hate crimes. In Chapter 2 of the study, I will focus on an introduction to the modern social movements that had an impact on lawmakers and public policy officials in development of hate crime laws in the United States. Chapter 2 will provide an introduction on previous studies conducted on hate crimes. Finally, in Chapter 2, I will examine the classification and prosecution of hate crimes.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

From the introduction of the terminology of hate crimes in the 1970s to hate crime

law enforcement at the beginning of the 21st century, modern social movements have

constructed bias-motivated violence in various ways. Initially, judicial decision makers

expounded on the legal concept of hate crime (Phillips & Grattet as cited in Jenness,

2001). According to Jenness (2001), politicians at the federal and state level enacted

legislation that further developed the limitations of hate crimes. Law enforcement

officials investigate and prosecute incidents that some officials may classify as hate

crimes (Jenness, 2001).

In the United States, social movements such as the Black civil rights movement,

the women's movement, the gay and lesbian movement, the disabilities rights movement,

and the crime victim movement initially developed the terminology hate crime. Jenness

(2001) claimed that these movements defined federal and state laws and later

constitutional challenges in the U.S. Appellate Courts. These activities also formed the

modern day antihate crime movement (Jenness, 2001). By the 1990s, hate crime laws

were established and visible in national policy discourse throughout the United States

(Jenness, 2001).

The antihate crime movement shaped the terminology of hate crime and defined

its properties (Jenness, 2001). Jenness (2001) argued that these events ensured that

lawmakers and other public policy officials recognized bias-motivated crimes as a social

problem. Jenness proposed that the efforts of the antihate movement became a success

without the support of the state. Throughout the 1980s and the 1990s, social movement

actors were successful in having their objectives accepted as public policy issues. Once

the antihate crime movement was successful in bringing violence motivated by hate into

public consciousness, the movement sought to address remedies associated with this type

of violence. Sectors of antihate crime movement such as the Hate Crimes Coalition, the

ADL, and the National Gay and Lesbian Task Force (NGLTF) pressured state and federal

legislators to create statutes based on the antihate crime movement. Because of this, hate

crime law emerged (Jenness, 2001). Since then, hate crime laws have included statutes

excluding criminal penalties for civil rights violations, intimidation and harassment

statutes, and provisions in previously enacted statutes for enhanced penalties if crime was

committed because of bias (Jenness, 2001).

The influence of the enactment of hate crime laws was partly due to the

movement of antihate interest groups (Jenness, 2001). As Jenness (2001) suggested, the

influence of interest groups was only part of the motivation behind the enactment of hate

crime laws. Jenness contended that activists and policymakers drafted hate crime

legislation to reflect the limitations and prospects in using law as opposed to institutions

to solve inequality. In addition, Jenness argued that the legal culture in the United States

affects how individuals express interests and on the creation of the laws surrounding

those interests. Jenness suggested that a key element of the law that helped form hate

crime laws in the United States was the "norm of sameness." The norm of sameness,

according to Jenness, has its roots in the equal protection clause of the U.S. Constitution.

The norm of sameness specifies the equal application of laws to all groups and

individuals. Historically, equal treatment meant sameness: A law must not give one group of individuals protections that may be absent to other groups. Individuals should treat all other groups equally (Minow as cited in Jenness, 2001).

The motivation behind symbolic actuarial crimes is different (Jenness, 2001). Jenness (2001) proposed that symbolic crimes are social crimes where perpetrators target a victim based on what an individual symbolizes. Therefore, the crime is committed for expressive reasons (Jenness, 2001). In actuarial crimes, on the other hand, Jenness argued that perpetrators target victims based on real or imagined social characteristics for instrumental motives rather than expressive ones. As a result, Jenness stated that perpetrators target victims because of a real or imagined social characteristic where a constituent of discrimination based on this characteristic is present. Jenness maintained that a perpetrator targets a victim based on the goal of communicating a message in symbolic crimes. Lastly, Jenness maintained the use of social categories as a means for selecting a victim exhibits a nonsymbolic end in actuarial crimes.

The literature review for this research study consisted of books and peer-reviewed journals obtained through online academic databases. The collection of books chosen for this study focused on theoretical implications of hate crimes, defining and measuring hate crimes, collection and analysis of hate crimes, hate crime legislation, challenges of hate crime investigations, law enforcement response, and state policy considerations. The peer-reviewed online academic databases used in the literature review of this study were Academic Search Complete, ERIC, SocIndex with full text, Bureau of Justice Statistics,

and SAGE Premier. The content in these online academic databases consisted of hate crime theoretical framework, legislation, and hate crime research and studies conducted.

In Chapter 2 of this study, I introduce the social movements that led to the formation of hate crime laws. In addition, this chapter provides a theoretical framework for hate crime analysis. Furthermore, I focus on previous studies conducted that pertain to hate crimes. I also describe hate crime legislation and laws. Lastly, in Chapter 2, I examine the classification and categorization of hate crimes and identify who is more likely to be the perpetrators of these crimes.

Theoretical Foundation

In this section, I examine the three levels of hate crime theories based on the research questions and the hypothesis of the study. The first set of criminal theories, as they relate to hate crimes, includes a focus on community structures and the potential of those structures in igniting hostility towards different demographic groups. This group of theories includes a focus on social disorganization theory. In the second group of theories, I will focus on the social elements of hate crimes within those communities. This group of theories centers on Durkheim's (1933) modernization theory. In the last group of theories, I will concentrate on the economic factors that theorists hypothesize to have an impact on bias-motivated criminal activity. This group of theories includes strain theory.

Social Disorganization Theory

The following hate crime theories center on changing environment and community structures that influence how different demographic groups experience

difficulty and hostility in the adaptation process to other groups. Sampson and Wilson (1995) hypothesized that the most important process-related characteristics elucidating the relationship between concentrated disadvantage and crimes are structural social disorganization and cultural social isolation. Sampson and Bean (2005) defined social disorganization as "the inability of a community structures to apprehend common values of its residents and maintain social control" (p. 9). The characterizations of the structural dimension of social disorganization in a community are by the interdependence of social networks at the formal and informal level and how the community addresses its problems (Sampson & Bean, 2005). Furthermore, Sampson and Bean (2005) contended that the ideology, grounded in social disorganization as well as collective efficacy theory, is social control. Therefore, concentrated disadvantage, assumed to weaken social control, leads to an increase in crime (Sampson & Bean, 2005).

Social disorganization theorists focus on both social and environmental characteristics of inner cities as the potential cause of delinquency (Hart & Waller, 2013). In the social disorganization perspective, Shaw and McKay (1942) focused on individuals rather than places as providing the explanation of crime and deviance. In the social disorganization theory, Sampson and Wilson (1995) argued that the separation of communities also leads to what Kornhauser (1978) defined as cultural disorganization or the decrease in cultural values in a community. Therefore, institutional instability, anonymity, distrust, poverty, and heterogeneity in urban communities hinder communication, hamper common values, and lead to delinquency or attract delinquent behavior (Sampson & Wilson as cited in Sampson & Bean, 2005). Sampson and Wilson

(as cited in Sampson & Bean, 2005) suggested that community settings form "cognitive landscapes" or ecologically structured norms regarding standards and/or expectations of conduct (p. 10). Structurally disorganized communities adhere to values that instigate crime and disorder (Sampson & Wilson as cited in Sampson & Bean, 2005). New Jersey's demographically divergent areas (especially in the northern region of the state that tends to be more ethnically diverse) are also marked by communal external factors, such as different religious and social views on preconceived ideas on tradition, family, child rearing and upbringing, and other social-structure-related aspects.

Emergence of variables or socially related factors under social disorganization. Social disorganization, racial heterogeneity, concentrated disadvantage, family disruption, residential instability, population size and density, and proximity to urban areas or urbanization may lead to variations of the rates of crime (Hart & Waller, 2013). Sampson and Bean (2005) suggested that in social disorganization, the dominance of social networks in a community, both formal and informal, and the level of direction on the members characterize the structure element of the community. Therefore, disadvantaged communities have deteriorated social control, and this leads to criminal activity (Sampson & Bean, 2005). Sampson and Bean further argued that social disorganization theorists suggest that an area's structure interrupts a community's ability to regulate itself, which leads to crime. Initially, Shaw and McKay (1942) contended that ethnic heterogeneity, economic status or concentrated disadvantage, and residential mobility were the primary factors explaining structural instability. The description of the socially related factors under social disorganization theory is below.

Racial heterogeneity. Based on social disorganization theory, rates of juvenile violence are likely to grow higher in rural communities with a high level of ethnic diversity. According to Shaw and McKay (1942), ethnic diversity creates an interference of communication among adults. As a result, effective communication diminishes in areas with a high level of ethnic diversity. This is due to differences in customs and a lack of shared experiences, which may result in fear and mistrust (Sampson & Groves, 1989).

Concentrated disadvantage. Concentrated disadvantage or economic status in social disorganization theory centers on the patterns of growth in urban areas. In most urban areas, a growth in population often leads to a physical, economic, and social decline of the area (Bursik & Grasmick, 1993). These areas, in turn, become more accessible to the economic disadvantaged group. Bursik and Grasmick (1993) hypothesized that these areas will also have a higher residential instability and ethnic diversity and as a result, create social disorganization.

Family disruption. Urban area researchers concluded that delinquency rates are higher in communities with higher levels of family disruption (Sampson, 1985; Sampson & Groves, 1989). Sampson (1985) argued that a lack of traditional parenting deprives children of the time and energy that they need and require. This also interferes with the proper parental supervision that children require, as well as proper parental communication with other adults in an area or neighborhood (Social Disorganization and Rural Communities, 2003).

Residential mobility. Based on social disorganization theory and research in urban settings, rates of juvenile violence in rural communities will most likely increase as

the rates of residential instability increase. When a population constantly changes in an area, residents have fewer opportunities to develop strong ties and communication skills and to participate in community organizations (Bursik, 1988).

Population size of density. Based on social disorganization theory, social problems are often inevitable in areas marked by a high population density due to the anonymity that obstructs accountability with residents and/or neighbors (Social Disorganization and Rural Communities, 2003). In the least dense rural areas, social insolation may limit social support to supervise children and effectively respond to problems (Social Disorganization and Rural Communities, 2003).

Proximity to urban areas or urbanization. Based on social disorganization theory, because average crime rates are higher in communities with large populations, communities with large populations will have higher rates of delinquency (Social Disorganization and Rural Communities, 2003).

Durkheim's Modernization Based Theories

This group of theories (the defended neighborhood hypothesis, culture as values paradigm, culture as adaptation structure, symbolic interaction, theory of race and urban inequality, Durkheim's modernization theory, labeling theory, social learning theory, frustration-aggression hypothesis, discrimination selection model, and expressivist theory) centered Durkheim's theory (1933), which was based on additional social characteristics that are believed to be the influencing factors of hate crimes in communities. According to Green, McFalls, and Smith (2001), similar to realistic group conflict theory, the defended neighborhood hypothesis assumes that interracial violence

is the product of demographic movement. This occurs when the arrival of members of a different group is responsible for the violent outcome and responses of the homogeneous, locally dominant group. Green et al. suggested that this defensive action does not follow the power differential between the dominant groups, but the collective identity of the established group. In this case, the migrating group becomes a threat to the other groups' status, well-being, and way of life (Green et al., 2001). Because the defended neighborhood model centers on subjective motives, Green et al. predicted that hate crimes against members of the migrating group would be higher in the beginning of a sudden influx. Green et al. argued that this concept does not center on the incoming group out numbering members of all other groups and having the ability to alter the local balance of power in their favor. Rather, it focuses on social learning altering the identity of the host group. Communities redefine their identity when new members arrive. Because of this, first group of newcomers no longer experience resentment. Hence, the individuals who are likely to cause violence towards this new group lose the active encouragement or passive acceptance of their community (Green et al., 2001). As new ethnic groups move into an area or neighborhood with different cultural ideals (realistic group conflict theory), it is more difficult to maintain social order (social disorganization theory). This phenomenon centers on the perceived interpretation of the neighborhood (constructionist perspective).

According to the culture as values paradigm, there is a disconnection between the means and the ends. The means-ends disconnect is explained by Merton's (1938, 1957) classic theory of deviance. For Merton's strain theory, deviants embrace mainstream U.S.

values, such as the goals of acquiring wealth through the process that is available to them,

such as engaging in criminal activity (Merton as cited in Sampson & Bean, 2005). For

Swidler's (1986) culture as values paradigm, the characterization of culture manifests as

the main switch that directs culture to its goals of action. In this paradigm, culture is

intersubjective, and cultural repertoires provide the resources for organizing social action

(Swidler as cited in Sampson & Bean, 2005).

Individuals may not be able to adapt rationally to desperate situations and

circumstances because the participants themselves create their own violent environments

(Anderson as cited in Sampson & Bean, 2005). According to Sampson and Bean (2005),

the actions of individuality are a component of creating violent neighborhoods. In the

absence of a cultural characteristic where residents express active violent behavior, the

neighborhood environment itself is not violent. Therefore, individual actions are a

constituent of creating violent neighborhoods. Sampson and Bean argued that the concept

of culture as adaptation to structure theory does not provide an accurate description of the

theory.

The symbolic interaction theory is similar to social learning theory in the

circumstances in which group criminal activity is involved. Anderson, Dyson, and

Brooks (2006) argued that symbolic interaction centers on the concept that in close

groups, members communicate with each other verbally and symbolically. These groups,

according to Anderson et al., define themselves based on their experiences with other

members in a group. Therefore, their personalities and behaviors change based on what is

important and valued by the respective group. They also receive a recompense if they

exhibit the type of qualities that the group values. For example, if a group supports violence and oppression of their victims, individuals who exhibit such behaviors are highly valued within these subcultures (Anderson et al., 2006). This theory is similar to the social learning theory with respect to criminal gang activity.

The theory of race and urban inequality (later known as racial invariance), proposed by Sampson and Wilson (1995), focuses on the cause of crime in order to elucidate the disproportionate representation of Blacks as victims and offenders of violent crimes (Blacks are 6 times more likely to be murdered than Whites; Fox & Zawitz as cited in Sampson & Bean, 2005). According to this theory, community-level patterns of racial inequality contribute to social isolation and ecological concentration of disadvantaged individuals. Sampson and Bean (2005) argued that this leads to structural barriers and cultural adaptations, which hinders social organization and crime control. Race is not a cause of violence. It rather serves as a mark for the different social contexts distributed by racial status in society. Therefore, the causes of violence at the community level are the same for all races, but racial segregation by the community exposes members of minority groups to violence inducing social mechanisms. This explains the disparity in violence among different races (Sampson & Wilson, as cited in Sampson & Bean, 2005).

Based on the research surrounding Sampson and Wilson's (1995) theory of race and urban inequality, violent communities are constructed on a lack of investment for both the state in access to law and widespread "legal cynicism:" the perception that protection from violence is not an option (Sampson & Bartusch, as cited in Sampson &

Bean, 2005). Therefore, residents in these areas who experience a high level of victimization are not likely to report assault or acts of violence to police as opposed to residents in more economically advantaged neighborhoods (Baumer, as cited in Sampson & Bean, 2005). Sampson and Bean (2005) examined individuals, neighborhood immigration status, and ethnicity in reference to crime and reported that the lower rates of crime among Mexican Americans when compared to Caucasians was based on a combination of married families residing in those neighborhoods and a high concentration of immigrants, taking into account the immigration status of a person.

Despite perceptions that racial and ethnic tensions cause an unstable economy, Green argued that a downturn in the economy does not necessarily result in an increase in hate crimes (as cited in American Psychological Association, 1998). Green contended that economic change might result in hate crimes when minorities move into an ethnically homogeneous area for the first time (as cited in American Psychological Association, 1998). According to Green, this reaction centers on intuitive aversion to social change (as cited in American Psychological Association, 1998). Furthermore, Green argued that integrated neighborhoods already characterized by racial hostility tend to have lower occurrences of hate crimes than neighborhoods approaching integration (as cited in American Psychological Association, 1998). Hate crimes precede the enhanced economic competition for employment. According to Perry (2003), social science researchers believe that perpetrators often blame their economic hardships and job insecurity on minority groups.

Historically, despite increased legislature and enactment of new statues related to hate crimes, there has been an increase in gang assaults and hate crimes. This increase is due to the victim being a member of a class or group identified by race, creed, color, national origin, gender, disability, age, or sexual orientation (Kelly & Maghan, 1998). According to Taylor (1991), possible causes for hate crimes include, but are not limited to, swift ethnic and racial demographic change, tensions due to fluctuating job markets, and affirmative action designed to remedy the historical errors of inequality. Still, other individuals feel threatened by diversity, and they exhibit these emotions in criminal behavior (Levin & Nolan, 2011).

Sociological theories of hate crimes are associated with criminological theories involving community structures comprised of different demographic groups. Similar to historical and cultural explanations of individual incidents of hate crimes are sociological explanations, which are based on Durkheim's (1933) modernization theory. Durkheim claimed that hate crimes are variants of youth violence and delinquency, which are attributed to rapid social change. Based on this theory, hate crimes result from an outburst of socially disintegrated individuals of threatened communities (Green et al., 2001). This theory is relevant to modern hate crime incidents because in New Jersey, young, adolescent, White males with delinquency problems commit most bias-related incidents, where their motives for committing such acts is cited as actual racism or bias. An emphasis on social change connects sociological theories of hate crimes with economic theories (Green et al., 2001).

The framework of the labeling theory centers on the symbolic interactionist theory where the meaning of criminal behavior lies within the societal reactions of social life (Liska & Messner, as cited in Hutton, 2009). Labeling theorists focus mainly on the micro phenomena as opposed to the macro phenomena. According to Liska and Messner (as cited in Hutton, 2009), the constructionist perspective is based on the concepts of phenomenology in which an individual's social interpretation of society has an effect on that individual's behavior or actions. Societal interpretation determines deviant behavior (Liska & Messner, as cited in Hutton, 2009).

Constructionists focus on examining the construction of the social world influencing the deviant and affecting racial, ethnic, and gender interpretations, as well as the environmental and historical factors of the labeling theory of a deviant (Liska & Messner, as cited in Hutton, 2009). Labeling theory centers on the symbolic interactionist theory and society's reactions to individuals' conduct (Liska & Messner, as cited in Hutton, 2009). Labeling theorists concentrate on the social process within society and social networks to determine the correlation between an individual's actions, conduct reactions, and the method in which the reactions affect the identity and role within society (Liska & Messner, as cited in Hutton, 2009).

In reference to theories related to hate crimes, Anderson et al. (2006) argued that the concept of hate is difficult to measure because it takes on many different forms. Some experts contend there is a rise in hate crimes during times of economic hardship. Likewise, when the economy improves, race relations improve as well. In addition, Anderson et al. argued that hate is not an intrinsic behavior, but rather a behavior that is

learned. Akers (1985) suggested that the social environment is the main cause in learning a behavior. According to Akers (as cited in Anderson et al., 2006), the social environment provides the reinforcement to exhibit such behavioral characteristics.

The learning process of any criminal activity is contingent on social interactions, which present a stimulus (Akers, as cited in Anderson et al., 2006). Akers (as cited in Anderson et al., 2006) also contended that individuals learn the definitions that are characteristic of their behavior. These definitions provide the moral constituents of learning, revealed to an individual if reward or punishment would follow (Akers, as cited in Anderson et al., 2006). Definitions, whether verbal or symbolic, provide a discriminative stimuli or signal based on the consequences of behavior, such as rewards or punishments. According to social learning theory, when a person's behavior is rewarded, such behavior will continue, but when if a person is punished due to a behavior, it will cease to exist.

Based on the social learning theory, individuals learn behavior by associating and interacting with other individuals who provide motives enticing to engage in such behaviors (Anderson et al., 2006). This phenomenon is the most prevalent in criminal activities committed by gangs and/or ethnic gangs. However, the main cause of their motivation to commit a crime is to further their gang activity or to further the objectives of the gang, rather than prejudice or bias. On the other hand, if a gang preaches extreme hatred towards another ethnic group or a community based on a belief system, the criminal acts are bias-motivated.

The concept of social field states that high crime rates are less likely to occur in marginal communities (Sampson & Bean, 2005). These neighborhoods display social disorganization characteristics, but individuals tend to develop stable habits in such neighborhoods. Furthermore, Sampson and Bean (2005) claimed that cultural deficits of individuals are irrelevant in comparison with social fields surrounding cultural characteristics. Sampson and Bean also argued that the conceptualization of culture assists in gaining a better understanding of the role of the law. Furthermore, Sampson and Bean asserted that individuals do not use culture to accept their fate; they create their own fate. According to Katz, individuals actively create their own environments, which serve as their external imposed surroundings (as cited in Sampson & Bean, 2005). For instance, youth gangs enact their territories and endorse performances of honor, conquest, and vengeance (Sampson & Bean, 2005).

These characteristics involving labeling theory are pertinent components in understanding hate crime (Hutton, 2009). However, Hutton (2009) claimed that the labeling theory does not provide an explanation of the correlation of the hierarchies of race, class, and gender. Labeling theorists are more interested in studying deviants as opposed to consequences, which may result in the struggle for power in the social interactions among the majority and the subordinate groups of society (Perry, as cited in Hutton, 2009). Therefore, the constructionist and the labeling theory, linked to the social interactions of individuals, are the groups within society and the perceptions and actions of other individuals (Hutton, 2009).

In the labeling theory, scholars perceive criminal activity as a process as opposed to a finite event. It is the result of actions, reactions, and interactions between people. These actions have long-term effects on the victims, the offender, and the community (Perry, 2001). According to Perry (2001), some of the criticisms of the labeling theory are its failure to concretize the environment in which a crime occurs. While it recognizes power as an important factor, it acknowledges it from a pluralist perspective (Perry, 2001). It implies that "society is composed of a variety of interest groups or segments, and that power is spread among a number of groups or segments" (Lynch & Groves, 1989, p. 46). Thus, it does not acknowledge the hierarchies of race, class, and gender that are pertinent in understanding hate crimes. Labeling theorists are interested in studying "sensational" deviants as opposed to power and domination of interactions between the structurally disadvantaged and the unprivileged class (Perry, 2001).

Political theories of hate crime elucidate the mobilization of grievances. Political explanations of hate crimes are similar to the social movement theory when taking into consideration the ideology of the real or imagined grievances toward the victims. Offenders act out their intuitions based on the political opportunity structure, such as the different channels to express grievances, the legitimacy of grievances within the political discourse, and the potential to prevent or punish bias-motivated crimes (Karapin & Koopmans, as cited in Green et al., 2001). Lorenz's (1966) catharsis theory of aggression centers on the concept that a person should release the built-up energy that tends to be aggressive. In the frustration-aggression hypothesis, Dollard (1939) maintained that aggression is an automatic response to goal-directed behavior. In addition, in the social

learning theory of aggression, Bandura maintained that direct or indirect rewards influence aggression (as cited in Hate Crime, Violence, and Intimidation, 2010).

The discriminatory selection model defines criminal activity based on the perpetrator's selection process of the victim. This model does not take into account the motive on how the perpetrators select the victim. On the other hand, the racial animus model concentrates on the reasons for the selection based on discriminatory factors (McPhail & Jenness, 2006). In light of this distinction, Lawrence (1999) argued that "hate crime perpetrators ought to receive punishment that is more severe than that imposed on parallel crimes" (p. 45). This is because "hate crimes cause greater harm than parallel crimes to the immediate victim of the crime, the target community of the crime, and the general society" (Lawrence, 1999, p. 44). According to sociological theories of hate crimes, the anomie theory relates to social disintegration theory in the context of social change.

The expressivist theory centers on the perception that criminal activity is a method of expressing a message. This message focuses on the depreciation of the victim and the class in which the victim is a member. The wrongdoer or the offender is criminally punished (Hurd & Moore, 2004). In this method, both crime and punishment manifest as communicative maneuvers. The crime itself opens up the conversation and communicates through the perpetrator's criminal actions relaying the message that a certain group of individuals are not valued (Hurd & Moore, 2004). Society responds to this expressed action in the form of punishment (Hurd & Moore, 2004).

Economic or Strain Based Theories

A group of theories (conflict theory, scapegoat theory, social learning theory, cultural isolation theory, realistic group conflict theory, and unfair advantage theory) are used to examine the potential economic motivational factors that impact hate crimes in communities. Whereas sociological theories focus on the anomie prompted by social disintegration, economic theorists attempt to explain the foundations of hate crimes based on frustration and competition for natural resources (Green et al., 2001). Conflict theory is based on intergroup hostility, which materializes when two groups of individuals are in competition with each other for scarce resources (Campbell Sherif, Harvey, White, Hood, & Sherif, as cited in Gerstenfeld, 2011). Similarly, in the scapegoat theory, Allport proposed that during times of economic hardships, some individuals might be in conflict with individuals of other groups (as cited in Gerstenfeld, 2011).Groups are their cause for anger. According to the social learning theory, the social environment influences individuals' attitudes towards members of other groups (Gerstenfeld, 2011). Social disorganization theory, cultural isolation theory, strain theory, and realistic group conflict theory all focus on economic factors that create the causes of hate crimes.

Strain theory is a social structural explanation commonly perceived as an economic theory. Strain theory is different from social learning theory. According to the strain theory, when economic conditions are strained, there is a rise in crime against people of different races and ethnic groups. Anderson et al. (2006) argued that strain theory does not adequately define the relationship between economic strain and crime in a community. For example, Anderson et al. maintained that in the 1990s, while crime

statistics revealed an increase in overall crimes, the economic state of the country improved. Therefore, if hate crime rates intensify during economic hardships, during the period 1995 through 1997 when the economy improved, hate crimes should have decreased. Hence, there was no link or correlation between economic hardships and the increase of hate crimes in the 1990s (Anderson et al., 2006). In addition, Lane (1990) maintained that the underprivileged individuals do not necessarily commit hate crimes, but the wealthy and socially powerful class may commit hate crimes. Lastly, Lane argued that hate crimes take place in all socioeconomic strata, including large cities and small towns and in wealthy and underprivileged neighborhoods, as well as in the workforce and outside of it. Therefore, economic dynamics may not be the only factor to have an effect on hate crimes.

A neighborhood or community often perceives competition as an imitation to the condition of intergroup relations. Homogeneous neighborhoods may fear economic conservatism becoming a reality (Sidanius & Pratto, as cited in Fiske, 2002). According to Sidanius and Pratto (as cited in Fiske, 2002), in homogeneous neighborhoods, the newcomers are perceived as a threat, not only by their standards of living and culture, but also in their struggle to gain an advantage to their economic status. Sidanius and Pratto (as cited in Fiske, 2002) further contended that a neighborhood perceives a threat to a group's economic status with a perception of a "dog-eat-dog" viewpoint.

Social isolation theorists focus on adaptations to constraints and opportunities as opposed to the internalization of norms. In this regard, social isolation differs from the culture of poverty. According to Sampson and Bean (2005), social isolation implies that

contact between individuals of different classes and/or racial backgrounds is either

lacking or is sporadic. The nature of this relationship increases the effects of highly

concentrated disadvantaged neighborhoods. Sampson and Bean argued that by reducing

structural inequality, the cultural role of social isolation and adaptation should diminish

over time.

There is a connection between rates of hate crimes and intergroup competition for

scarce resources. According to realistic group conflict theory (LeVine & Campbell, as

cited in Green et al., 2001), problems arise from different levels of power and authority

among groups (Legge, Krueger, Pischke, & McClaren, as cited in Green et al., 2001). For

instance, an established group may attack when a challenged group is weakened or when

the dominant group is about to lose its power advantage. In this theory, researchers

examine the connections between economics and hate crimes; however, the scholars may

not specify what elements of economic competition (i.e., employment, housing,

education, etc.) the theory encompasses (Green, Strolovitch, & Wong, as cited in Green

et al., 2001).

The popular economic school of thought of the 1950s and 1960s, the classic or

pluralist school, was based on individual psychological difficulty. Proponents of this

theory perceived social movements as illogical collective behavior. The concept of the

ideal center overcome by extremists of the left and right, was the foundation for this

model, called the centrist/extremist theory (Berlet & Lyons, as cited in Berlet, 2004). The

centrist/extremist model hampers antiracist efforts against oppression because it focuses

on the individual and the psychological aspects at the expense of institutional dynamics (Berlet, 2004).

During the 1990s, scholars began to shift their focus away from the traditional view of concentrated poverty. They began to focus their attention on what effect, if any, neighborhood social processes have on crime. In opposition to the sociodemographic features of potential criminal activity influenced by race or class position, social mechanisms provide a more accurate depiction of how neighborhoods affect chance in a phenomenon of interests (Wikstrom & Sampson, as cited in Sampson & Bean, 2005). Because of this shift, theorists began to focus their attention on neighborhood and community-based problems in gaining an understanding of hate crimes.

Many non-Hispanic Whites resided in nondisadvantaged areas compared to underprivileged Blacks (Jargowsky, as cited in Sampson & Bean, 2005). Therefore, less than 10% of underprivileged Whites lived in poverty areas as opposed to almost half of underprivileged Blacks who lived in the same areas (Sampson & Bean, 2005). Sampson and Wilson (1995) explained that these characteristics were the result of macrostructural aspects including racial segregation, economic changes, the absence of adequate employment, class linked out-migration from the inner city, as well as housing discrimination (Sampson & Wilson, as cited in Sampson & Bean, 2005). In addressing ecological dissimilarity and spatial inequality by race, Sampson and Bean (2005) disagreed with the argument that Blacks and Whites share an analogous environment, especially in urban poverty-filled neighborhoods. According to Massey and Denton,

segregation and poverty cause structural constraints and similar patterns of racial suppression (as cited in Sampson & Bean, 2005).

According to the unfair advantage theory, punishment of perpetrators focuses on the unfair advantage that criminals have over law-abiding citizens of society. Woods (2009) argued that enhanced punishment of opportunistic hate crimes is justified because the advantages that perpetrators obtain are greater than those obtained from parallel crimes. The unfair advantage theory is often present in retributive theories of punishment (Woods, 2009). Some scholars support unfair advantage theory because all violations of the criminal law allow perpetrators to have an unfair advantage over law-abiding citizens. The security obtained from a just legal system centers on the agreement of the citizens to obey the law (Woods, 2009). Individuals who choose to break the law gain an advantage in which law-abiding citizens do not possess (Woods, 2009).

Unfair advantage is associated with opportunistic hate crime motives through the perpetrator's choice to capitalize on the perceived groups' disadvantages (Woods, 2009). This violates the principles of fair market competition and the unfairness of taking advantage of a group's vulnerabilities for personal gain (Woods, 2009). However, Adams (2005) argued that if the disadvantaged groups in urban neighborhoods exhibit higher crime than in middle class suburbanites, law enforcement officials might inflict penalty on those who disproportionately attack the victim. This undermines the common belief that impoverished individuals are more vulnerable to crime, whether the criminal act is bias-motivated or not (Adams, 2005).

Economic problems may lead to aggression and scapegoating of disadvantaged groups, which may lead to bias. Economic difficulties may also lead to behavior that manifests into physical violence (Lawrence, 1999). As many individuals cope with economic downturns, they blame others for their lack of opportunities. This resentment along, with bias and stereotypes, often results in hate crimes (Jacobs & Potter, 1998).

Hate Crime Legislation and Laws

A perpetrator is guilty of committing a hate crime based on the victim's protected class status. Hate crimes statutes in their original form excludes classification of racial animus or discriminatory selection laws. Accordingly, these statutes are deficient in reference to animus as found in New Jersey's hate crime statutes (Lawrence, 1999). Supporters of hate crime laws argue that hate crimes are deserving of enhanced penalties because they cause a greater harm to the victim (physically and psychologically) than regular crimes. Supporters of hate crime laws also argue that the motives behind hate crimes are morally worse than the motives for regular crimes (Reidy, 2002). In addition, supporters also argue that hate crimes violate the values of nondiscrimination between individuals (Reidy, 2002).

According to Reidy (2002), there are two types of hate crime laws. The first is the victim selection laws, which enhances the penalties for crimes where the offender selects the victim based on the victim's race, ethnicity, nationality, or sexual orientation. The victim selection of hate crime laws also extend penalties to offenders who select a victim not based on the individual's race, ethnicity, nationality, or sexual orientation, but rather because the perpetrator believes that the police are less likely to investigate crimes

against the protected group selected. The second type is the group-based animus laws, which are crimes (based on racial, ethnic, or some other form of group base animus) toward a specific victim. According to Reidy, the crime is often committed to gain respect from the perpetrator's peers.

Opponents of hate crime laws who argue that the law should not consider specific motives for committing hate crimes but the criminal act itself have criticized bias crime legislation (Chilton, Caputo, Woods, & Walpole, 2001). The FBI guidelines on the collection of hate crimes stated that, "Because of the difficulty in ascertaining the offender's subjective motivation, states that biased behavior has to be reported only if investigation reveals sufficient objective facts to lead a reasonable and prudent person to conclude that the offender's actions, in whole or in part, is motivated by bias" (as cited in Chilton et al., 2001, p. 3).

In addition, hate crime law skeptics argue that proving hate crimes is difficult, and it can be costly because motivation based on emotions is subjective. Rozeff (2006) suggested that this argument is also relative to the externality theory, based on the concept that although hate crimes have a negative impact on members of society other than the victims of the crime, other types of crimes may also intimidate nonvictims or potential victims.

Scholars' studies on the growth of hate crime legislation include increasing hate crimes and political competition between states and within state politics (Jenness & Medoff, as cited in Chilton et al., 2001). One of the arguments emphasized by individuals who challenge the legality of hate crime laws is that these laws will eventually harm the

individuals whom hate crime laws intend to protect. According to the disproportionate-enforcement critique, hate crime laws center on minority perpetrators and cause disproportionate harm to the victims of hate crimes (Lawrence, 2003). Members of minority groups are more likely to get a conviction or an arrest as hate crime offenders than any other group. This argument is referenced in either a "false positive" or a "false negative" framework.

In cases where disproportionate enforcement does not exist, hate crime offenders would be convicted of hate crimes (no false negatives), and only offenders would be convicted of hate crimes (no false positives; Lawrence, 2003). Consequently, the disproportionate-enforcement critique focuses on the argument that White offenders are less likely to get a conviction and an arrest under hate crime laws than minority offenders. Based on the disproportionate-enforcement concept, members of ethnic groups who may not be guilty are more likely to get a conviction and an arrest under hate crime laws than any other group (Lawrence, 2003).

The inception of hate crime laws dates back to the passing of the Civil Rights Act (1874) by Congress after the Civil War. This law allowed the federal government to prosecute individuals who had taken away the civil rights of others in conjunction either with other offenders or as government employees (Gerstenfeld, 2011). In addition to this, the Civil Rights Act allowed an individual to sue a state or local government employee when the employee impeded with the individual's civil rights (Gerstenfeld, 2011).

In the 1950s, modern civil rights movement enhanced the legal, social, and economic status and welfare of Blacks as well as other ethnic and/or racial minorities in

the United States (Jenness & Broad, 1997). Federal civil rights statutes prohibited

activities motivated by racial, ethnic, and religious bias. However, federal legislation was

not prepared to respond to bias-motivated violence (Fernandez, Mazur-Hart, & Padgett,

as cited in Jenness & Broad, 1997). In 1968, Congress passed the federal statute 18

U.S.C. 245 as part of the landmark Civil Rights Act. This law made it illegal to injure,

intimidate, or interfere with, by force or threat of force, individuals who were part of the

protected categories group. The protected categories group included those individuals

who are subjects to bias-motivated violence based on race, color, religion, gender, or

national origin (American Psychological Association, 1998). The U.S. Attorney General

has to certify the prosecution of these crimes. The purpose of the enactment of this law

was to respond to the violence that followed the civil rights movement (Streissguth,

2009).

By the early 1980s, fear of the discriminatory victimization of minority groups

created the liberal and progressive movements. Victims' rights movements documented

the criminal justice system, which ignored victims of crime (Pearlman, 2008). These

groups sought to address the need for a legal response, which would form the antihate

movement (Pearlman, 2008). In the 1980s, laws governing hate crimes (Hate Crimes

Statistics Act, 1990; Matsudi, 1989; Wisconsin v. Mitchell, 1993) came to fruition in

response to complaints that crimes motivated by hate were on the rise, causing social

harm in communities (Delgado & Stefancic, as cited in Bakken, 2002). The enactment of

hate crimes statutes were formed based on the concept that if civil rights offered

protection to individuals including minorities, women, and persons other protected status

characteristics, perpetrators would soon realize that a bias-motivated attack or a crime would result in an enhanced sentence (Bakken, 2002).

Prior to that time, the only federal legislation offering protection for victims was 18 USC 245, U.S. Congress, 1968. This law, passed in 1968, authorized federal jurisdiction over crimes that involved force, or the threat of force, to individuals because of their participation in federally protected civil rights actions (Pearlman, 2008). Although 18 USC 245 covered all individuals equally, it provided special attention to crimes committed based on the targeted victims' race, color, religion, or national origin. Unlike other previous statutes, under 18 USC 245, punishment was centered on the underlying crime rather than the victims' status or identity (Pearlman, 2008). The first subsection of Section 245 is similar to subsections 241 and 242 by itemizing federal activities. The second subsection protects a broad category of state and local activities from bias-motivated interference. This subsection provided protection to participants in state and local activities from victimization based on their race, color, religion, and national origin (Jacobs & Potter, 1998).

The majority of the hate crime laws focus on the ADL of B'Nai B'irth's 1981 model statute. Since 1981, every state in the United States has enacted some type of hate crime laws, although the laws vary in the categories of persons covered under the law (Reidy, 2002). In 1993, the U.S. Supreme Court held such laws in Wisconsin's hate crime laws (see *Wisconsin v. Mitchell*, 508 U.S. 476 - 1993) as constitutional. The ADL supported hate crime legislation at the state and federal levels, stating, "failure to recognize and effectively address this unique type of crime could cause an isolated

incident to explode into widespread community tension" (as cited in Chilton et al., 2001).

ADL originally planned a hate crimes legislation model in 1981. The ADL also continued

its efforts in 1994 with an inclusive model for state officials used as guidance when

enacting hate crime legislation. This plan had an effect on Washington DC, and 46 states

in the United States have legislation for hate crime penalties (ADL, as cited in Chilton et

al., 2001). The hate crime legislation focuses on the concept that the annihilation of

harassment, assault, and property damage assumes a dangerous disruptive behavior of the

perpetrator when it is bias-motivated (Grigera, as cited in Chilton et al., 2001).

The Hate Crimes Statistics Acts (HCSA) enacted in 1990 required the attorney

general to collect data on crimes committed based on a victim's race, religion, sexual

orientation, disability, or ethnicity from law enforcement agencies and to publish annual

summaries of the data (Bakken, 2002). The Violent Crime and Law Enforcement Act

(1994) amended the HCSA. This law provided enforcement of all hate crimes reported

and collected in conjunction with other Type 1 Index crimes. Therefore, the FBI's

Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) established a system for collecting statistics on bias-

motivated incidents (Anderson et al., 2006). The Hate Crimes Prevention Act (1998)

sought to expand federal jurisdiction over hate crimes by allowing federal authorities to

investigate possible bias-motivated crimes and expand categories covered by hate crime

legislation to include gender, sexual orientation, and disability (American Psychological

Association, 1998).

In 1995, Congress led the Federal Hate Crime Sentencing Enhancement Act. This

act provided federal sentencing guidelines that included a three-level sentence

enhancement when prosecutors can prove a hate crime beyond a reasonable doubt

(Pearlman, 2008). This law also required the attorney general to institute guidelines and

to collect data on hate crimes, which signify evidence of criminal activity based on race,

religion, sexual orientation, or ethnicity (Public Law 101-275). Supporters of the Federal

Hate Crime Sentencing Enhancement Act asserted that collection of such data would

assist in raising the public's awareness by providing incentives for program development

and supporting the progress of state and local hate crime statutes. These data also provide

information to law enforcement officials who respond to hate crime incidents,

encouraging victims to report incidents and seeking the support they need (Nolan &

Akiyama, 1999). Currently, the Department of Justice collects statistics on hate crimes in

the United States as a method of gathering information under the Hate Crimes Statistics

Act of 1990 (Lawrence, 2003).

In 2009, President Barack Obama signed the Matthew Shepard and James Byrd

Jr. Hate Crime Prevention Act into law as a component of the National Defense

Authorization Act for fiscal year 2010. This law created a new federal criminal code

provision, 18 USC Section 249 (Levin & Nolan, 2011). This federal civil rights law

criminalizes willfully causing bodily injury when a crime is committed based on the

actual or perceived race, color, national origin, religion, gender, gender identity, sexual

orientation, or disability (Civil Rights, FBI, n.d.). This new statute offered federal

assistance to local and the state, law enforcement agencies in the investigation process of

hate crimes. It allowed the authorities of the U.S. Department of Justice (USDOJ) to

provide technical assistance, such as forensic identification, to local and state law
enforcement sectors (Levin & Nolan, 2011).

Hate Crime Laws Specific to New Jersey

In New Jersey, hate crime laws have remained strict in the nature and essence of
the definition of a hate crime. In 1981, New Jersey became one of the first states to
establish the legality of hate crime laws. The law enforced acts of intimidation motivated
by bias such as burning crosses or panting swastikas (Vitale, 2002). New Jersey law also
allowed judges to increase sentences to offenders if the crime was committed to
intimidate an individual based on a person's race, color, handicap (formerly disability),
religion, sexual orientation, or ethnicity (Vitale, 2002).

In 1988, New Jersey adopted a statewide BIIS for local law enforcement. These
standards identify policies and procedures for responding to and investigating bias-related
incidents, as well as working together with the victims and the community (Taylor,
1991). According to the FBI, an act or incident does not have to be completely
perpetuated by bias as long as it is "motivated in whole or in part by the perpetrator's bias
against a race, religion, disability, ethnic/national origin, or sexual orientation" (cited in
McPhail, 2000, p. 639). Other characteristics such as language, violence, lack of
provocation, long-term victim impact, intimidation of a group, backlash against equality,
and interchangeability of victims may be signs of a hate crime (Copeland & Wolfe, as
cited in McPhail, 2000).

In 1990, hate crime laws expanded, permitting increased sentencing to offenders
based on crimes committed with the intent to intimidate based on the victim's race, sex,

or religion. Although other states had some form of hate crime laws, New Jersey and

North Carolina were the only two states in the country at that time to enact their own

laws, allowing judges as opposed to juries to decide whether bias was a motivating factor

during a trial (Vitale, 2002). In 1995, New Jersey Governor Whitman signed a bill to

expand New Jersey's hate crime laws in order to include individuals who are harassed or

intimidated based on their gender or disability (Pristin, 1995). At that time, hate crime

laws in New Jersey allowed prosecutors to request punishment for assault or harassment

based on intimidation of individuals based on race, ethnicity, religion, or sexual

orientation (Pristin, 1995).

In *Apprendi versus. New Jersey* (2000), the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that New

Jersey's hate crime law was unconstitutional (Vitale, 2002). Because of this decision,

New Jersey legislature revised the criminal code to include hate crime law within the

U.S. constitution (Vitale, 2002). Bias-motivated crime and intimidation statutes consist of

two parts: an underlying crime and motivation caused by bias or hatred. Therefore, in

order to charge perpetrators of these crimes, the prosecutor should provide evidence of

bias motivation in court. When and if an officer determines a case to be a bias-motivated

crime, the department may request criminal civil rights charges. If the prosecutor does

not outline the charges, it is not likely that there will be a charge of hate crime against the

perpetrator (Bell, 2002).

On January 11, 2002, an additional Chapter 16 - Bias Crimes to Title 2C of the

New Jersey statutes included bias intimidation. Based on bias intimidation law, a person

is guilty of the crime of bias intimidation if he/she "commits, attempts to commit,

conspires with another to commit, or threatens the immediate commission of an offense
specified in Chapters 11 through 18 of Title 2C of the New Jersey Statutes" (Senate
Judiciary Committee Statement to Senate No. 2975, State of New Jersey, 2007, para. 2).
This definition focuses on the actual conspiracy to a hate crime as opposed to traditional
commission or simple act of a crime.

In 2007, the New Jersey Senate Judicial Committee, Senate Bill No. 2975,
Section 1 amended the law concerning bias intimidation to include "gender identity or
expression" and "national origin" within the protected classes in the statute. The law
itemized the protected classes of "race, color, religion, gender, handicap, sexual
orientation, or ethnicity" (Senate Judiciary, Committee, State of New Jersey, 2007, para.
2). Although the prosecution of a hate crime based on gender identity or expression of
national origin falls under the protected class statute, the amendment that explains these
classes fall within the provisions of the statute. Therefore, under the New Jersey hate
crime law, the judge or jury may impose an increase in the original sentence if the
perpetrator of the crime acted with a purpose of intimidating based on the victim's race,
color, gender, handicap (formally disability), religion, sexual orientation, or ethnicity
(Supreme Court to Mull New Jersey Hate Crime Law, 2009).

Classification and Prosecution of Hate Crimes

The Bias Crime Reports formulate patterns and develop preventive strategies. It is
possible to identify the location of where hate crimes are taking place. This reporting
mechanism assists with the apprehension and arrests of perpetrators. However, Taylor
(1991) argued that an analysis of hate crimes should not be the focus for an arrest. The

focus behind the collection of hate crime data is on the quality of life in a community.

This is community-oriented policing (Taylor, 1991). If bias-related incidents continue to

occur in a neighborhood, it will raise tensions among different groups and cause distrust

between the community and law enforcement (Taylor, 1991).

The difficulty law enforcement officials experience in working and prosecuting

hate crime cases is that it involves a bias factor of the actual crime itself (i.e., assault,

vandalism, homicide, etc.). Hate crime laws are fundamental because they provide a state

action policy by enacting a new category, altering an existing law, or enhancing penalties

for existing crimes, categorized as bias-motivated. In addition, hate crime laws contain a

standard that includes the subjective intention of the offender rather than relying on the

criminal behavior itself (Jenness, as cited in McPhail & Jenness, 2006). Furthermore, hate

crime laws identify a list of protected social status individuals (Jenness, as cited in

McPhail & Jenness, 2006).

Law enforcement report a hate crimes if a crime is motivated by bias beyond a

reasonable doubt. According to FBI policy on the collection of hate crime statistics, bias

should be reported only if the investigation reveals sufficient facts that would lead a

reasonable person to conclude that the crime was bias-motivated (as cited in Levin &

McDewitt, 2002). Although the FBI has a list of criteria that indicates hate crimes, none

of the items on the list is adequate to reach a conclusion that a hate crime occurred. The

FBI's Uniform Crime Reporting's (UCR) two-tier investigation process involves two

levels of response by the local police department to determine if a crime is bias-

motivated. The first response is by the police officer who receives the call from the crime

victim. The second call is a follow-up response from a specialized unit that is responsible for investigating hate crimes in that particular jurisdiction and possesses adequate training to define such a crime (Levin & McDewitt, 2002).

There are two programs within the UCR: the Summary UCR and the National Incident-Based Reporting System (NIBRS). The data for both subprograms derived from law enforcement contain different information on hate crimes. Summary UCR, originally established in the 1920s, provides an annual report with aggregate counts of index crimes including criminal homicide, forcible rape, robbery, aggravated assault, burglary, larceny-theft, motor vehicle theft, and arson (Levin & Nolan, 2011). The NIBRS, created in the 1980s, collects information about each criminal incident reported to the police department. Due to technological advances in computer systems and databases in the late 20th century, the FBI believes that the NIBRS will eventually replace Summary UCR (Levin & Nolan, 2011). Until that time, about one quarter of the countries' data currently derives to the UCR Program in the NIBRS format (Levin & Nolan, 2011).

The UCR represents 13 indicators in order to determine whether a crime is bias-motivated (U.S. Department of Justice, as cited in Perry, 2003). The indicators include information related to the crime including similar previous acts committed by perpetrators and previous hate crimes occurring in the same neighborhood. The UCR guidelines instruct investigators to examine facts based on each unique, individual case. This includes not weighing in potential misleading facts and altering bias designation with the establishment of bias intent after the fact. With assistance of a clear

understanding on what indicators to identify, an investigation can be successfully completed (McDewitt, Levin, & Bennett, as cited in Perry, 2003).

Prosecution for hate crimes and the passing of additional penalties require evidence that an act is bias-motivated. For assaults, for instance, such evidence could comprise of statements made by the perpetrator before, during, or after the incident. Examples of evidence include the pattern of unexplained attacks or a similar type of behavior by the perpetrator. An additional example of evidence for hate crimes also includes affiliation with a hate organization. Another example of evidence of hate crimes include cases where the property damage committed includes words or symbols left by the perpetrator. However, using this type of behavior as evidence has caused some problems in the past in prosecuting hate crime cases. This problem is often based on the argument that speech or expression may (in some mild cases of potential bias acts) be protected under the First Amendment right of the U.S. Constitution (Bell, 2002). Because of this, the majority of the confirmed and reported hate crimes cases do not result in prosecution (Jacobs & Potter, 1998).

Summary

In Chapter 2, I introduced the early social movements that had an impact on the formation of hate crime laws in the United States. I outlined theoretical foundations and previous research studies conducted on hate crimes. I also examined current hate crime legislation and the implications of classifying and prosecuting hate crime cases. Chapter 3 will provide an in-depth explanation of the quantitative research methodology.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative research study was to examine the relationship between hate crime rates and diversity in New Jersey in the context of social disorganization theory. The objective of the study was also to examine the demographic, social, and economic factors that may contribute to this form of criminal activity. The goal of the study was to understand the dynamics that contribute to New Jersey's high reported rates of hate crimes. The focus of the study was on all 21 states representing the state of New Jersey, addressing both research questions for this study.

Chapter 3 of the research study includes the applicability of a quantitative research method design. I present the methods of inquiry used for the study and the procedures on data collection and analysis. In Chapter 3, I also reflect on data reliability. The description of the instrument of measure used in the study is also available in this chapter. A summary of the methodology will be available at the end of Chapter 3.

Methodology

In this explanatory research study, I used a quantitative analysis to determine whether there was a relationship between demographic diversity and hate crimes in New Jersey. I also determined whether there was a relationship between hate crimes and social disorganization. The unit of analysis was hate crimes. The compilation of the publicly available data used for the study by different agencies is available in the Data Collection section of this chapter.

As mentioned in the beginning of Chapter 1, the definition of a hate crime is based on the Federal Hate Crime Law (1969), and it includes offenses that consist of "willingly injuring, intimidating, interfering with another person, or attempting to do so, by force due to a person's race, color, religion, or national origin" (Hate Crime, Violence, and Intimidation, 2010, para. 1). This definition centers on the physical and psychological aspect of aggression due to a racially or ethnically motivated factor. Social disorganization, on the other hand, is "the inability of community structures to realize common values of its residents and maintain effective social controls" (Sampson & Groves, as cited in Sampson & Bean, 2005, para. 27). Criminal activity including hate crimes focuses on differences in social, religious, cultural, and ethnic structures. These elements may play a role or have an effect on the commission of a crime. Therefore, diversity or lack of diversity, in a region may have an impact on criminal activity based on racial, cultural, or ethnic factors.

Social disorganization theorists specify that several variables, including ethnic diversity, economic status, family disruption, residential instability, population size of density, and urbanization, influence a community's capacity to develop and maintain systems of social relationships (Social Disorganization and Rural Communities, 2003). Based on this definition, the following variables were included under the research questions for the study: ethnic diversity, economic status, family disruption, residential instability, population density, and proximity to urban areas. I used a multiple linear regression statistical test in SPSS of the secondary data to analyse the results as they pertained to the research questions of this study.

Research Questions and Hypothesis

This section of the chapter provides the relational and causal research questions and hypothesis for the quantitative research design and methodology using descriptive statistics. This section also provides the identification of the independent and the dependent variables. Lastly, this section provides the methods of analysis for the respective research questions.

1. Is there a significant relationship between demographic diversity and the number of hate crime rates in New Jersey?

$H_1$1*: There is a significant relationship between demographic diversity and the number of hate crime rates in New Jersey.

$H_0$1*: There is no significant relationship between demographic diversity and the number of hate crime rates in New Jersey.

2. Is there a significant relationship between hate crime rates and social disorganization in New Jersey?

$H_1$2*: There is a significant relationship between hate crime rates and social disorganization in New Jersey.

$H_0$2*: There is no significant relationship between hate crime rates and social disorganization in New Jersey.

Design Appropriateness and Researcher Bias

The goal of the study was to examine the existing relationship between demographic diversity in relation to hate crimes in New Jersey. The aim of the study was also to examine the demographic, social, and economic elements that contribute to the

relationship. Driscoll, Appiah-Yeboah, Salib, and Rupert (2007) argued, "statistical analysis can provide a detailed assessment of patterns and responses" (p. 26). Quantitative methods are also effective in determining relationships between variables and the identification of existing correlations (Cronbach, 1975). The quantitative approach was appropriate for this study because it reduces potential researcher bias by focusing on direct responses without subjective interpretation of the data. The findings focused on the results of the statistical analysis. Quantitative research involves the use of narrow questions targeted toward measuring and explaining variable relationships (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). The study did not include a qualitative component, as it was not appropriate because qualitative analysis involves words or text from participants to understand the nature of a phenomenon. The data analysed focuses on reported hate crimes, as well as all variables defined under social disorganization theory. Therefore, a quantitative research, experimental design was appropriate for this study.

Population

The research population for this quantitative research study included all 21 counties representing the state of New Jersey. These counties consisted of Atlantic, Bergen, Burlington, Camden, Cape May, Cumberland, Essex, Gloucester, Hudson, Hunterdon, Mercer, Middlesex, Monmouth, Morris Ocean, Passaic, Salem, Somerset, Sussex, Union, and Warren. For the purpose of this study, the statistical data were derived mainly from the population of each county in reference to reported hate crimes, ethnic diversity, and all the variables under social disorganization theory.

Data Collection

This research study was based on a quantitative research design, which consists of the data for the time frame of 2007 through 2011. These data were the most recent available data for the time frame selected for the study. The compilation for the data was from federal and state sources. New Jersey's demographics are based on ethnic diversity; family disruption characterized by estimated widowed, divorced, and separated rates combined; population 15 years of age and older; residential mobility characterized by the total estimate number of residents; and population 1-year-old and over who moved within the same county, moved from different county same state, moved within same county, moved from different state, and moved from abroad. The next set of data for hate crime rates is based on race and ethnicity and was derived from the U.S. Department of Justice, FBI's Criminal Justice Information Services Division, Uniform Crime Reports, Hate Crime Statistics, New Jersey Hate Crime Incidents per Bias Motivation and Quarter by State and Agency. The retrieval of the concentrated disadvantage characterized by the actual number of unemployment rates was from the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.

The retrieval of the population size of density data was from the World Media Group LLC., an online source that reveals the population density for each of the 21 counties of New Jersey. I gathered the proximity to urban areas data from the mapping calculation standard from the U.S. Department of Commerce, Economics and Statistics Administration, and U.S. Census Bureau. Population size of density and proximity to urban areas were the only two variables, which remained constant for the period 2007 through 2011.

Confidentiality

The informed consent letters articulate the procedural steps to maintaining privacy, confidentiality, and the nonattribution of data. Informed consent letters also provide a background of information that remains confidential and I will not release authorization without prior expressed personal approval. I will provide access on a need-to-know basis, which protects and secures information in order to maintain confidentiality and anonymity. It also ensures that all results are secure from inappropriate disclosure to enhance reliability and validity of data. For this research study, corresponding agencies responsible for compiling the data used in the reports were not asked to provide consent to me. This was not a requirement because the data are readily available to the public online.

Instrument Selection

For this study, I used the secondary data and information retrieved from the publicly available data outlined above. An understanding on how the ethnically diverse areas of the different counties in New Jersey affected hate crimes was analysed with the percentage of non-Whites through a multiple linear regression statistical test to address the first research question. The relationship between hate crimes and social disorganization in New Jersey was also analysed with a multiple linear regression statistical test to address Research Question 2. The analysis of all regression tests were with the use of SPSS software. The unit of analysis for the study was hate crimes, and the data analysis was on race and ethnicity. Because of the quantitative nature of this study that encompassed data for all 21 counties representing the state of New Jersey, and 105

cases based on the data sets, the statistical tests outlined provided the link on the variables in reference to their location.

These methods provided adequate information on the relationship between demographic diversity and the impact of hate crimes in New Jersey. Additionally, the research provided information on the social and economic factors as outlined under social disorganization theory that may have an influence on hate crimes. The exploration of additional patterns and trends in targeted areas involving hate crimes and hate incidents are available.

Operationalization of Variables

The study variables in the study included the variables of demographic diversity in New Jersey, hate crime rates, and social disorganization. Social disorganization consists of six subvariables of demographic diversity, concentrated disadvantage, family disruption, residential mobility, population size or density, and proximity to urban areas of the different counties. The independent variable for Research Question 1 for the study was race and ethnicity based on diversity, and the dependent variable was hate crime rates. The variables for Research Question 2 were hate crime rates, demographic diversity, concentrated disadvantage, family disruption, residential mobility, population density, and proximity to urban areas. In this study, I explained the operationalization of the following variables in the succeeding section.

Hate Crime Rates

Hate crime rate was a continuous measured variable measured by the actual hate crime statistics in reference to race and ethnicity in the different counties for the years

2007 through 2011. Hate crime rate was a dependent variable in the regression statistical analysis. As mentioned previously, I obtained the data on hate crime rates based on race and ethnicity from U.S. Department of Justice, FBI's Criminal Justice Information Services Division, Uniform Crime Reports.

Demographic Diversity

Demographic diversity was one of the six subvariables for social disorganization, which was a continuous measured variable. The race data consisted of 21 race data percentages of composition of the different race/ethnicity in the different counties of Atlantic, Bergen, Burlington, Camden, Cape May, Cumberland, Essex, Gloucester, Hudson, Hunterdon, Mercer, Middlesex, Monmouth, Morris, Ocean, Passaic, Salem, Somerset, Sussex, Union, and Warren in the years of 2007 to 2011. The 21 races included Caucasian, Black or African American, American Indian and Alaska Native, Asian, Asian Indian, Chinese, Filipino, Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese, other, Asian, Native Hawaiian and other Pacific Islander, Caucasian and Black or African American, Caucasian and American Indian and Alaska Native, Caucasian and Asian, Black or African American and American Indian and Alaska Native, Hispanic or Latino, Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuba, and other Hispanic or Latino. Demographic diversity data were from American Community Survey (ACS) Demographic and Housing Estimates, 1-year estimates, retrieved from the U.S. Census Bureau. In the regression analysis, the study's measurement of demographic diversity was determined using the percent of non-White in the population only and measure of racial heterogeneity. The study's measurement of the race variable included the percentage of the total of each race interval/ratio. Although there

were numerous, alternate measurements for diversity/heterogeneity that could have been chosen for the study, this method was chosen because it represents the composition of race in each county while controlling for the composition of other races. For this research study, there was adequate control in the model used for the analysis, containing a large enough sample size required for the predictor variables.

Concentrated Disadvantage

Concentrated disadvantage was the second of the six subvariables for social disorganization, which was a continuous measured variable measured by the actual number of unemployment rates in the different counties for the years of 2007 through 2011. Concentrated disadvantage was included in the regression statistical test for the analysis of the second research question. The retrieval for the data for the number of unemployment rates variable was from the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Family Disruption

Family disruption was the third out of the six subvariables for social disorganization, which was a continuous measured variable that was measured by the estimated number of widowed, divorced, and separated rates combined, based on a population of 15 years of age and older, in the different counties for the years of 2007 through 2011. Family disruption was included in the regression statistical test for the analysis of the second research question. The retrieval for the data for family disruption variable was from the U.S. Census Bureau.

Residential Mobility

Residential mobility was the fourth out of the six subvariables for social disorganization. Residential mobility was a continuous measured variable, measured by the total estimate number of residents, population 1-year-old and over who, who moved within the same county, moved from different county same state, moved within same county, moved from different state, and moved from abroad for the years of 2007 through 2011. Residential mobility was included in the regression statistical test for the analysis of the second research question. The retrieval for the data for residential mobility variable was from the U.S. Census Bureau.

Population Size of Density

Population size of density was the fifth out of the six subvariables for social disorganization. Population size of density was a continuous measured variable using the population size per area for each of the different counties. Population size of density was included in the regression statistical test for the analysis of the second research question. Population size of density remained constant throughout the selected period of 2007 through 2011. The retrieval for the data of population density variable was from World Media Group, LLC., an online source, which revealed the population density for each of the 21 counties of New Jersey.

Proximity to Urban Areas

Proximity to urban areas was the sixth out of the six subvariables for social disorganization. For the measurement of the proximity to urban areas variable, a continuous measured variable, I used the closest distance from a county's border or

boundary line to an urban area. Due to the small size of the New Jersey state and because most counties in the state are urbanized, proximity to urban areas for each respective county was measured based on a county's closest proximity to the New York City or Philadelphia metropolitan areas. Using the U.S. Department of Commerce, Economics and Statistics Administration, New Jersey – Metropolitan Areas, Counties and Central Cities map (1996), the computation for the distance was started on the border or boundary line of each county. Then the measurement was northeast for those counties closest to the New York City metropolitan areas. Lastly, the measurement ended at the beginning of the border or boundary line of the New York City metropolitan area and a county's boundary or borderline measuring west for those counties closest to the Philadelphia metropolitan areas. The calculation focused on the distance in miles identified on the respective map scale using the proportion formula. Proximity to urban areas was included in the regression statistical test for analysis of the second research question. The retrieval of the data for the proximity to urban areas for the mapping calculation standard was from the U.S. Department of Commerce, Economics and Statistics Administration, U.S. Census Bureau. Population density and proximity to urban areas remained constant throughout the selected period of 2007 through 2011.

Data Analysis

After data collection, I entered the summary of the data collected in an Excel sheet to prepare the data for the analysis. Afterwards, in the study's data analysis, I focused on the importation of the data to SPSS statistical software. In order to summarize the data, first, I focused on descriptive statistics of the study variables of demographic diversity;

hate crime rates; and the social disorganization variables of ethnic diversity, concentrated

disadvantage, family disruption, residential mobility, population size of density, and

proximity to urban areas of the different counties. The continuous measured variables of

hate crime rates; the social disorganization subvariables of demographic diversity,

concentrated disadvantage, family disruption, and residential mobility; population size of

density; and proximity to urban areas were summarized using the central tendency

measures of means and standard deviation, while the categorically measured study

variables were summarized using frequency and percentage summary.

For Research Question 1, I determined if there was a significant relationship

between the demographic diversity and the number of hate crime rates in New Jersey. In

the multiple linear regression analysis, I determined the relationship of each of the

percentages data of composition in the 21 different types of race/ethnicity of the different

counties to hate crime rates. In order to determine the influences of each of the 21

different types of race/ethnicity to hate crime rates statistically, I conducted a regression

analysis. The identification of the independent variable was demographic diversity, and

the dependent variable was hate crime rates.

In the multiple linear regression analysis, I determined the main effects of each of

the race/ethnicity composition to the dependent variable of hate crime rates. I measured

the race/ethnicity composition percentage in the different counties in order to ascertain

whether it had an effect on hate crime rates of the different counties in a single regression

model. The level of significance value used was 0.05 to determine the statistical

significance of relationships in the regression analysis. A statistically significant

influence of the independent variables to the dependent variables determined if the probability value of significance (*p*-value) of the regression is less than or equal to the level of significance value at .05. If the parameter estimate is significant at a level of significance of 0.05, the null hypothesis for Research Question 1 was rejected, which would imply that there was a statistically significant relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable. Afterwards, in the unstandardized beta coefficient of the regression, I determined the degree of the influence of the independent variables to the dependent variable.

For Research Question 2, I determined if there was a significant relationship between hate crimes and social disorganization subvariables of ethnic diversity as measured by the demographically divergent areas, concentrated disadvantage, family disruption, residential mobility, population size of density, and proximity to urban areas of the different counties in New Jersey. In the analysis of the multiple linear regression test, I determined the relationship between these variables. Specifically, a regression analysis was used to determine the significant influence of the different measures of social disorganization to hate crime rates in New Jersey. As stated previously, social disorganization consists of six subvariables of demographic diversity, concentrated disadvantage, family disruption, residential mobility population size or density, and proximity to urban areas of the different counties. The level of significance value used was 0.05 in order to determine the statistical significance of relationships in the regression analysis.

Validity

Validity, as defined by Creswell (2002), is the ability of the researcher to draw and predict justifiable inferences. These inferences focuses on the results retrieved from the population or from a sample. Hammersely (1990) also defined validity as the point where an account accurately represents the respective phenomenon through which the subject is transferring. Each type of validity has potential threats that can undermine the use of the research data (Golafshani, 2003). Because the secondary data used for this study focuses on reported statistics using a large population size, the threats to validity for this research study were minimal.

Internal Validity

Validity is the degree to which a study provides quality data and results. In this quantitative research, I took the necessary steps to draw meaningful conclusions from the collected data. Internal threats are those related to procedures, treatments, or experiences by the participants of the study that hinder the researcher from extracting accurate inferences. The passage of time from the beginning of the research and the conclusion without demonstrable progress may cause participating individuals to change during the process of the data collection. A biased selection of the research population may also threaten internal validity. The incorporation of the measures in the research is to protect the results against potential internal threats to validity. Precise inferences about any potential relationships were determined through statistical analysis and significance testing, not by qualitative analysis.

I conducted the data analysis using SPSS. I will continue to safeguard the results of the computation and analysis of the data and keep it anonymous and confidential in order to prevent unauthorized disclosure. The confidential and anonymous collection and results of the data computation will remain in my home. This promoted the enhancement of the dependability of the data. There is no concern of anonymity in the data because the data were publicly listed or available. In addition, there was some extent of reducing external validity because there was no threat on anonymity in the data.

External Validity

Neuman (2003) defined external validity as the ability to generalize the experimental results from events and settings that are outside an experiment's control. Priest (2002) described external threats as those that occur when the researcher applies conclusions of a study incorrectly through generalization. Problems that a researcher may experience during the research study may affect the ability to predict correct inferences from the sample data to other individuals. Priest also suggested that previous and future dilemmas may pose a risk to external validity.

Threats to external validity relate to applying research findings to unconventional contexts. Usage of subject matter experts can assist in promoting external validity. Therefore, Priest (2002) advised that expertise and agreement could frame the elements of tacit and sound knowledge to overcome challenges to external validity. Data collection from the participants in various domains assists with further organization of the research findings' external validity (Priest, 2002). To reduce the threat of internal and external validity, I reviewed key points with depth. The internal validity of a study relies on the

logical connections between the theories tested and the wording of the survey instrument itself. The external validity means that accurate conclusions drawn from a study's findings are a result of investigative consideration of persons, settings, situations, and history.

Leedy and Ormrod (2010) identified three ways that researchers can enhance a study's external validity: (a) by using real or "natural" settings as opposed to laboratory conditions, (b) by ensuring that the sample selected for the study is representative of the total population for the findings, and (c) by replicating the study in various contexts. One way to increase external validity is to use real-life settings, as I was able to. The data obtained for this study were tangible data based on the demographic divergence of areas, concentrated disadvantage, family disruption, residential mobility, population size of density, and proximity to urban areas of the different counties in New Jersey sampled in the study. The secondary data obtained corroborates the validity of the data as being accurate and physical. In terms of the generalizability of the study's findings, this did not have an impact on the study because it represents a specific group of the sample, which is the different counties of Atlantic, Bergen, Burlington, Camden, Cape May, Cumberland, Essex, Gloucester, Hudson, Hunterdon, Mercer, Middlesex, Monmouth, Morris, Ocean, Passaic, Salem, Somerset, Sussex, Union, and Warren. The sample of the data in these counties is only applicable to these sample groups.

Reliability

According to Carmines and Zeller (1979), reliability is the extent to which the instruments in research have the same results for repeated trials. Although there will

always be some form of unreliability in any research, there is usually some form of

consistency in the results of a quality instrument selected at different intervals. This form

of general consistency is what increases the study's reliability (Carmines & Zeller, as

cited in Key, 1997). Without the ability of researchers to have results that yield consistent

measures, it would be difficult or impossible to draw conclusions and formulate theories

or statements regarding the general concepts or ideas of the research (Reliability, 2014).

Joppe (2000) also described reliability as the ability of results to be consistent

over time based on an accurate representation of the population. Joppe described

reliability as the ability of the results reproduced under a similar methodology (p. 1). In

quantitative research, Kirk and Miller described three types of reliability. The first is the

degree to which a repeated measurement remains the same. The second is the stability of

the measurement over time. The last type of reliability is the similarity of measurements

within a time frame period (as cited in Golafshani, 2003). As noted previously, the

quantitative research design for this study, in combination with the data for all 21

counties analysed, ensured reliability to the research study's results and/or outcomes. The

data analysis for the study focuses on a comprehensive sample population, which limited

subjective interpretations to the study's findings.

Summary

In Chapter 3, I focused on the research methodology, design and appropriateness,

and definition of the research population. I also described the sampling frame, data

collection approaches, methods for maintaining confidentiality, instrument selection, and

operationalization of variables. Furthermore, I describe issues associated internal and

external validity, reliability, and data analysis techniques. In Chapter 4 of the study, I will present the results of the research.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to analyze the results of the statistical computation

analysis in the SPSS software (Graduate Student Version 22) to examine the relationship

between demographic diversity and the numbers of hate crimes in New Jersey. I also

examined the relationship between demographic diversity and social disorganization in

New Jersey. The analysis centered on the following research questions and hypotheses:

1. Is there a significant relationship between demographic diversity and the

number of hate crime rates in New Jersey?

$H_1 1$: There is a significant relationship between demographic diversity and the

number of hate crime rates in New Jersey.

$H_0 1$: There is no significant relationship between demographic diversity and the

number of hate crime rates in New Jersey.

2. Is there a significant relationship between hate crime rates and social

disorganization in New Jersey?

$H_1 2$: There is a significant relationship between hate crime rates and social

disorganization in New Jersey.

$H_0 2$: There is no significant relationship between hate crime rates and social

disorganization in New Jersey.

This chapter begins with the summary of the study variables by conducting

frequency and percentage summaries of demographic information and descriptive

statistics of the study variables. I used the results of the regression statistical test to

determine the relationship of demographic diversity and the number of hate crime rates in New Jersey. This addressed Research Question 1. I used the results of a separate regression statistical test to determine the relationship between hate crime rates and social disorganization in New Jersey. This addressed Research Question 2.

Summary of the Cases of Sample

The sample of the study consisted of 105 cases based on the data sets that contained the statistical data of reported hate crimes of each county in New Jersey. The cases contained 21 measurement observations for each of the study variables of hate crime rates and the six social disorganization variables of demographic diversity: concentrated disadvantage, family disruption, residential mobility, population size or density, and proximity to urban areas of the different counties for each year from 2007 to 2011.

The measurement for each of the study variables was over 5 years. The 21 counties representing the state of New Jersey consisted of Atlantic, Bergen, Burlington, Camden, Cape May, Cumberland, Essex, Gloucester, Hudson, Hunterdon, Mercer, Middlesex, Monmouth, Morris Ocean, Passaic, Salem, Somerset, Sussex, Union, and Warren counties. The descriptions of the cases by county and by years are available in Tables 2 and 3. Tables 2 and 3 summarize the total number of data while the percent was the ratio of the frequency by 100 to determine the fraction of composition in the cases. For instance, for each of the years, there were 21 different cases of the data of the study variables, and the 21 frequency represented 20% out of the 100%.

Table 2

Frequency and Percentage Summaries of the Description of the Cases of Sample by Year

	Frequency	Percent
Year		
2007	21	20
2008	21	20
2009	21	20
2010	21	20
2011	21	20

Table 3

Frequency and Percentage Summaries of the Description of the Cases of Sample by County

County	Frequency	Percent
Atlantic	5	4.8
Bergen	5	4.8
Burlington	5	4.8
Camden	5	4.8
Cape May	5	4.8
Cumberland	5	4.8
Essex	5	4.8
Gloucester	5	4.8
Hudson	5	4.8
Hunterdon	5	4.8
Mercer	5	4.8
Middlesex	5	4.8
Monmouth	5	4.8
Morris	5	4.8
Ocean	5	4.8
Passaic	5	4.8
Salem	5	4.8
Somerset	5	4.8
Sussex	5	4.8
Union	5	4.8
Warren	5	4.8

Calculation of Proximity to Urban Areas Variable

Proximity to urban areas was calculated using the proportion formula based on the distance in miles as identified on the map scale in the U.S. Department of Commerce, Economics and Statistics Administration, New Jersey – Metropolitan Areas, Counties, and Central Cities map, 1996. The retrieval of the proportion formula was from Dance and Sandefur's (2004) guide on how to calculate distance on a map using a proportion formula. The measurement for the distance computation focused on the border or boundary line of each county measuring northeast for those counties closest to the New York City metropolitan area and ended at the beginning of the border or boundary line of the New York City metropolitan area. The measurement for distance was by a county's boundary or borderline measuring west for those counties closest to the Philadelphia metropolitan areas and ended at the beginning of the border or boundary line of the Philadelphia metropolitan area.

The proportion formula used to calculate proximity to urban areas was as follows:

$$\frac{1}{18} = \frac{\# \ of \ measured \ mi.}{x}$$

See Table 4 below for the results of each of the calculated distance of each county closest to the identified urban or metropolitan area.

Table 4

Calculated Distance of Counties Closest to New York City or Philadelphia Metropolitan Areas

County	Closest Proximity to	Measurement (in.)	Distance (mi.)
Atlantic	Philadelphia Metro Area	1.25	22.5
Bergen	New York City Metro Area	1.14	1.1
Burlington	Philadelphia Metro Area	1.14	1.1
Camden	Philadelphia Metro Area	1.14	1.1
Cape May	Philadelphia Metro Area	2.06	37.1
Cumberland	Philadelphia Metro Area	1.12	20.2
Essex	New York City Metro Area	0.25	4.5
Gloucester	Philadelphia Metro Area	1.14	1.1
Hudson	New York City Metro Area	1.14	1.1
Hunterdon	Philadelphia Metro Area	0.75	13.5
Mercer	Philadelphia Metro Area	0.62	11.2
Middlesex	New York City Metro Area	0.5	9
Monmouth	New York City Metro Area	0.31	5.6
Morris	New York City Metro Area	0.81	14.6
Ocean	Philadelphia Metro Area	1.12	20.2
Passaic	New York City Metro Area	0.37	6.7
Salem	Philadelphia Metro Area	0.56	10.1
Somerset	New York City Metro Area	1	18
Sussex	New York City Metro Area	1.5	27
Union	New York City Metro Area	0.31	5.6
Warren	Philadelphia Metro Area	1.69	30.4

Descriptive Statistics Analysis of Study Variables

Table 5 summarizes the descriptive statistics of the continuous measured study variables of hate crime rates and social disorganization variables. Social disorganization variables included the six subvariables of demographic diversity (percentage of non-White), concentrated disadvantage (characterized by unemployment rates), family disruption (characterized by estimated widowed, divorced, and separated rates combined), residential mobility, population size or density, and proximity to urban areas of the different counties. The descriptive statistics included the measures of central tendency of mean and standard deviations. The summary for the descriptive statistics are in Table 5.

The study consisted of 105 different cases of the study variables of hate crime rates and the six social disorganization variables of demographic diversity, concentrated disadvantage, family disruption, population size or density, and proximity to urban areas. There were a total of 105 cases comprising of the stated study variables in the years 2007 to 2011 and from 21 counties representing the state of New Jersey, which consisted of Atlantic, Bergen, Burlington, Camden, Cape May, Cumberland, Essex, Gloucester, Hudson, Hunterdon, Mercer, Middlesex, Monmouth, Morris Ocean, Passaic, Salem, Somerset, Sussex, Union, and Warren counties. However, the social disorganization variable of residential mobility had only an *N* of 93. There were only 93 different cases for this variable.

The mean hate crime rates of the different counties were 15.28, with the highest hate crime rate among the counties at 113, while the lowest was 0. The mean concentrated disadvantage of the different counties was 7.78%, with the highest number of concentrated disadvantage among the counties at 13.60%, while the lowest was at 2.90%. The mean

family disruption of the different counties was 17.20%, with the highest number of family

disruption among the counties at 21.90%, while the lowest was at 12.40%. The mean

residential mobility of the different counties was at 447,762.83, with the highest number of

residential mobility among the counties at 901,401, while the lowest was at 483. The mean

population size of density of the different counties was at 1,943.21 sq. mi., with the highest

number of population size of density among the counties at 10,178.70 sq. mi., while the

lowest was at 156.80 sq. mi. Lastly, the mean proximity to urban areas of the different

counties was 12.46 mi., with the highest number of proximity to urban areas among the

counties at 37.10 mi., while the lowest was at 1.10 mi. The sample size was calculated

based on Cohen's effect size, the level of significance (alpha level), and the power of the

study. In the computation, I considered the use of a regression analysis with six

predictors, power of 0.80, medium effect size (0.15), and a level of significance of 0.05.

This yielded a minimum sample size of 55 samples. (See Appendix A).

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics Summaries of Hate Crime Rates and Social Disorganization Data

				95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
Study Variables	N	M	SD	Lower	Upper
Hate Crime Rates	105	15.28	19.04	12.94	20.61
Concentrated Disadvantage	105	7.78	2.74	7.05	8.14
Family Disruption	105	17.20	1.99	0.17	0.17
Residential Mobility	93	447762.83	230093.75	403992.49	494221.33
Population Size of Density (sq. mi.)	105	1943.21	2458.43	1679.16	2749.33
Proximity to Urban Areas / Distance (mi.)	105	12.46	10.41	9.02	12.72

Note: N represents the total number of the data cases.

Table 6 summarizes the descriptive statistics data for demographic diversity. This contains the composition of the different race/ethnicity in the different counties. The top three highest number of race/ethnicity in the different counties were Caucasian ($M = 74.16\%$), Hispanic or Latino ($M = 14.58\%$), and Black or African American ($M = 12.32\%$). There were also significant numbers of Asian ($M = 6.11\%$), Asian Indian ($M = 7.34\%$), Caucasian and Black or African American ($M = 5.15\%$), and other Hispanic or Latino ($M = 6.83\%$) races with percentages greater than 5%.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics Summaries of Demographic Diversity Data

				95.0 % Confidence Interval	
Race/Ethnicity	N	M	SD	Lower	Upper
Caucasian	104	74.16	13.64	70.98	76.54
Black or African American	104	12.32	9.05	10.71	14.32
American Indian and Alaska Native	103	0.27	0.29	0.21	0.31
Asian	104	6.11	5.12	5.29	7.38
Asian Indian	101	7.34	13.04	5.16	10.19
Chinese	101	4.45	8.89	2.99	6.42
Filipino	101	3.95	8.15	2.59	5.74
Japanese	101	0.39	0.93	0.23	0.60
Korean	101	2.12	5.12	1.29	3.30
Vietnamese	101	0.97	2.88	0.51	1.62
Other Asian	101	1.40	2.64	0.95	1.98
Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander	104	0.02	0.05	0.01	0.03
Caucasian and Black or African American	103	5.15	11.27	3.39	7.92
Caucasian and American Indian and Alaska Native	103	1.66	3.76	1.07	2.57
Caucasian and Asian	103	3.64	8.89	2.20	5.81
Black or African American and American Indian and Alaska Native	103	1.23	3.66	0.62	2.05
Hispanic or Latino	105	14.58	10.17	12.89	16.96
Mexican	105	2.21	2.06	1.82	2.61
Puerto Rican	105	4.37	3.30	3.76	4.99
Cuban	105	0.74	1.06	0.56	1.00
Other Hispanic or Latino	105	6.83	6.65	5.85	8.53

Regression Results for Research Question 1

In this section, I present the regression results to determine the relationship of the independent variables of demographic diversity to the dependent variable of hate crime rates. In the regression results, I determined whether demographic diversity measured using percentage non-White in the different counties had a significant influence on hate crime rates. The level of significance used for the regression model was 0.05. Independent variables have a significant influence if the p-values are equal or less than the level of significance value of 0.05. Table 7 summarizes the regression results revealing the influence of the demographic diversity measure of percentage non-Whites to hate crime rates in New Jersey.

The model fit in terms of R^2 of the generated linear regression model was 0.001, which indicated that the measure of demographic diversity in New Jersey accounted for only 0.01% of the variance in the prediction of number of hate crime rates. The model fit was not acceptable. This means that the measure for the independent variable of demographic diversity had a low combined effect size on hate crime rates. In other words, for this research question and hypothesis, the focus was on determining the effects of demographic diversity as measured by the demographic diversity measure of percentage non-White. There was adequate power in the model, which contained a large enough sample size required for the predictor variables. The results of the multiple linear regression ($F(1, 102) = 0.06$, $p = 0.81$) was nonsignificant. The overall effect for the independent variable of demographic diversity of percentage non-Whites on hate crime

rates was nonsignificant because the *p*-value of the multiple linear test was greater than the level of significance value of 0.05.

In the regression results, I found that the demographic diversity measures of percentage of non-White only (t (103) = 0.25, p = 0.81) did not significantly influence hate crime rates in New Jersey. Therefore, racial diversity had no relationship to the dependent variable of hate crime rates. The evidence for this finding is on the nonsignificant ANOVA and the coefficient for that predictor in the regression model. Thus, this led to the rejection of the alternative hypothesis and the acceptance of the null hypothesis, identifying that there is no significant relationship between demographic diversity and hate crime rates.

There was an analysis for the test of linearity, test for independence, and test of homogeneity of variance. First, the assumption is that the relationships between the independent and the dependent variables should be linear. The test of linearity used the test of deviation from linearity. The summary of the test result is in Table 8. There is a linear relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable if the *p*-values are greater than the level of significance value of 0.05. By examining Table 8, I found that the dependent variable of hate crime rates was not linearly related with the independent variable of demographic diversity measure of percentage non-Whites. Thus, there was a violation in the assumption of linear relationships between the independent and dependent variable in this regression analysis.

Second, the study's analysis was on the investigation of the test for independence of error using the Durbin-Watson statistic. The Durbin-Watson statistic should not be

below one and above three, in order not to violate the assumption of independence of errors. The Durbin-Watson test produced a statistic of 0.46, indicating that this model suffered from serial correlation. This indicates that there was a violation on the assumption of independence of errors in the regression model.

Third, the assumption of homoscedasticity of the variance of the model for the prediction of the hate crime rates with the measure of the percentage non-Whites only to represent demographic diversity were investigated using the scatterplots of the standardized residuals and the regression standardized predicted value. These results of the analysis are available in Figure 1. To ensure that the study has a well-fitted model, there should be no pattern to the residuals plotted against the fitted values. If the variance of the residuals is nonconstant, then the residual variance is heteroscedastic. The pattern of the data points in Figure 1 is scattered and not narrow, which indicated that the different cases show signs of mild heteroscedasticity. Thus, there was slight violation in the assumption of homoscedasticity of the variance in the regression results.

Table 7

Regression Results of Influence of Demographic Diversity to Hate Crime Rates

| Study Variables | B | Standard Error | Collinearity Statistics | | 95.0% Confidence Interval for B | |
			Tolerance	VIF	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
(Constant)	14.89	2.75			9.43	20.35
Demographic Divergence of Areas (% of Non-White)	0.03	0.11	1.00	1.00	-0.19	0.24

Note: $F (1, 102) = 0.06$, Sig. = 0.81, *R Square* (R2) = 0.001, Durbin-Watson = 0.46, $N = 103$. * Significant influence at the 0.05* level of significance.

Table 8

Test of Deviation from Linearity of the Relationship between Demographic Diversity and Hate Crime Rates

Race/Ethnicity	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Demographic Divergence of Areas (% of Non-White)	36510.87	85	429.54	7.12	0.00

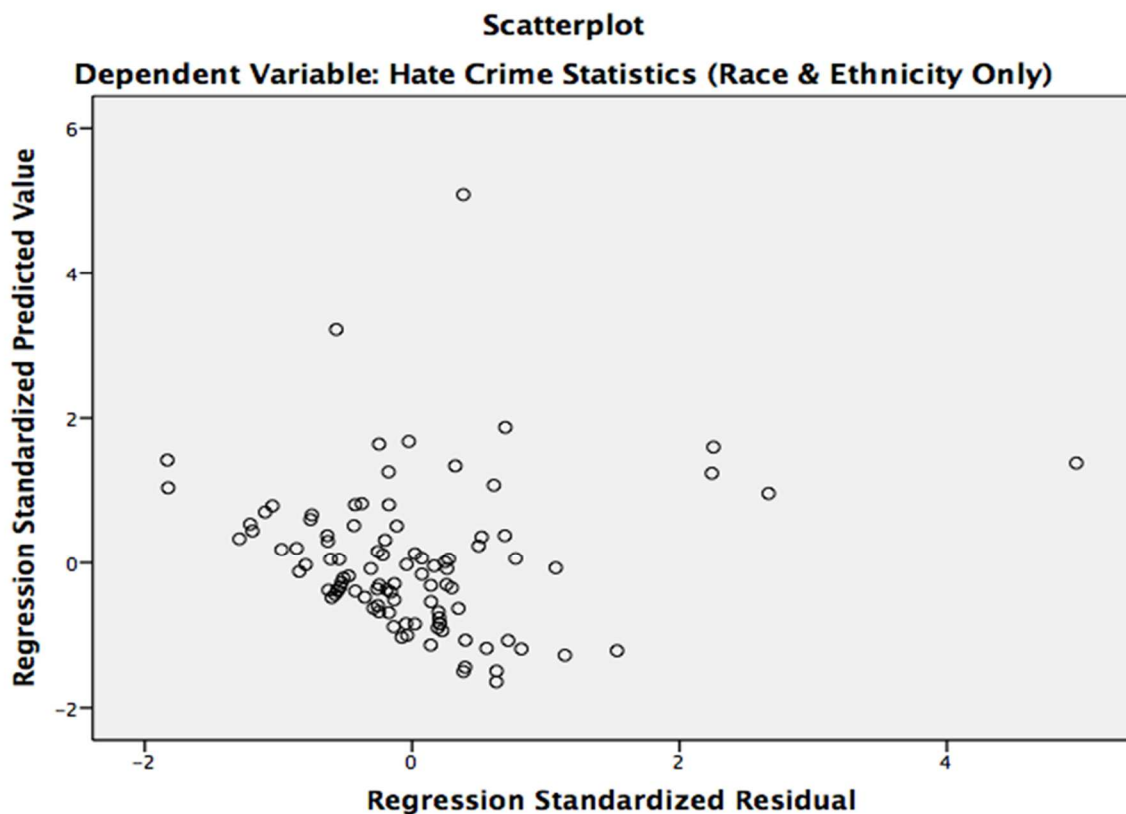*Note.* Significant influence at the 0.05* level of significance

Figure 1. Plot of standardized residuals versus regression standardized predicted value of prediction of hate crime rates by different demographic diversity rates

Regression Results for Research Question 2

In this section of the chapter, I present the regression results to determine the relationship of the independent variables of social disorganization to the dependent variable of hate crime rates in New Jersey. In the regression results, I determined which among the six subvariables of social disorganization of demographic diversity (measured using the percentage of non-White only), concentrated disadvantage, family disruption, residential mobility, population size of density, and proximity to urban areas of the different counties had a significant influence on hate crime rates in New Jersey. Table 9 summarizes

the regression results displaying the influence of each of the six subvariables of social

disorganization to hate crime rates in New Jersey.

The model fit in terms of R^2 of the generated linear regression model was 0.40,

which indicated that six subvariables of social disorganization accounted for 40% of the

variance in the prediction of number of hate crime rates in New Jersey. The model fit was

acceptable. This means that the six subvariables of social disorganization had a moderate

combined effect on hate crime rates. The results of the multiple linear regression (F(6,

86) = 9.69, $p < 0.001$) were also significant, which indicated that the overall effects of the

six subvariables of social disorganization on hate crime rate was significant at the .05

level.

In the regression results, I found that the individual effects of the subvariables

under social disorganization of concentrated disadvantage (t (96) = -2.86, $p = 0.01$),

residential mobility (t (96) = 4.96, $p < 0.001$), and population size of density (t (96) = -

4.49, $p < 0.001$) had a significant influence on hate crime rates in New Jersey. Based on

the unstandardized beta coefficient, residential mobility ($B = 0.00005$) and population

size of density ($B = 0.004$) had positive influences, while concentrated disadvantage ($B =$

-2.22) had negative influence or was negatively related to hate crime rates. Nevertheless,

subvariables of ethnic diversity, family disruption, and proximity to urban areas did not

have a significant influence or effect on hate crime rates.

These results led to the acceptance of the alternative hypothesis for Research

Question 2, which indicated that there is a significant relationship between hate crime

rates and social disorganization in New Jersey. Specifically, the variables of concentrated

disadvantage, residential mobility, and population size of density had significant influences on hate crime rates. The acceptance of the alternative hypothesis was only in reference to residential mobility and population size of density variables. This is because the results of the regression revealed the effect of the subvariable of concentrated disadvantage, which had the largest effect, based on the unstandardized B coefficient, and had a significant negative effect on hate crime rates.

The collinearity statistics of Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) figures to test for multicollinearity for each of the six subvariables of the independent variable of social disorganization in New Jersey on the dependent variable of hate crime rates are available in Table 9. Tolerance values that are less than 0.10 require further investigation. The tolerance statistics of all the six subvariables of social disorganization in New Jersey were all greater than 0.10. The next statistic is the VIF figures. The computation of the VIF is 1 / tolerance and, as a rule of thumb, a variable whose VIF values is greater than 2.5 may merit further investigation (Cohen, 1988). The VIF values of all six subvariables of social disorganization in New Jersey were all less than 2.5. This indicates that all six subvariables of social disorganization satisfied the criteria of tolerance and VIF. This means that the six subvariables of the independent variable of social disorganization in New Jersey were not multicollinear in predicting hate crime rates.

In addition to the test of multicollinearity, there were additional tests conducted. These included test of linearity, test for independence, and the test of homogeneity of variance.

First, there was the assumption that the relationships between the independent and the dependent variables should be linear. The application of the test of linearity was using the test of deviation from linearity. The summary of the test result is in Table 9. There is a linear relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable if the p-values are greater than the level of significance value of 0.05. By examining Table 9, there was a linear relationship between concentrated disadvantage and hate crime rates ($F(61) = 0.68$, $p = 0.92$) and between family disruption and hate crime rates ($F(56) = 0.88$, $p = 0.68$) only. These were the only p-values greater than the level of significance of 0.05. On the other hand, the independent variables of demographic divergence of areas ($F(85) = 7.12$, $p < 0.001$), population size of density ($F(19) = 35.48$, $p < 0.001$), and proximity to urban areas/distance ($F(13) = 4.06$, $p < 0.001$) were not linearly related with hate crime rates. Thus, there was a violation in the assumption of linear relationships between the independent and dependent in this regression analysis.

Second, the Durbin-Watson statistic tested for independence of error. The Durbin-Watson statistic test should not be below 1 and above 3 in order not to violate the assumption of independence of errors. The Durbin-Watson test (0.78) conducted for the regression results to determine the relationship of the independent variables of the six social disorganization variables to the dependent variable of hate crime rates in New Jersey was less than 1. There was a violation in the assumption of independence of errors. This means that there was a correlation between one observation with the errors of any other observation.

Third, the assumption of homoscedasticity of the variance of the model for the prediction of the hate crime rates with the six social disorganization variables was investigated using the scatterplots of the standardized residuals and the regression standardized predicted value. These are available in Figure 2. If the model is well-fitted, there should be no pattern to the residuals plotted against the fitted values. If the variance of the residuals is nonconstant, then the purpose of the residual variance is to be heteroscedastic. The pattern of the data points in Figure 2 is scattered and not narrow, which indicated that the cases are not showing signs of mild heteroscedasticity. Thus, there was a slight violation in the assumption of homoscedasticity of the variance in the regression results.

Table 9

Regression Results of Influences of Six Sub Variables of Social Disorganization to Hate Crime Rates

Study Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients B	Standard Error	Collinearity Statistics		95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
			Tolerance	VIF	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
(Constant)	-6.34	15.93			-38.00	25.32
Demographic Divergence Of Areas (% of Non-White)	-0.19	0.11	0.63	1.59	-0.42	0.03
Concentrated Disadvantage	-2.22*	0.78	0.62	1.63	-3.76	-0.68
Family Disruption	2.06	1.13	0.57	1.75	-0.18	4.31
Residential Mobility	0.00005*	0.00	0.52	1.91	0.00	0.00
Population Size of Density (sq. mi.)	0.004*	0.00	0.60	1.66	-0.01	0.00
Proximity to Urban Areas / Distance (mi.)	-0.46	0.26	0.51	1.95	-0.97	0.04

Note: $F_{(6, 86)} = 9.69$, Sig. < 0.001, *R Square* (R2) = 0.40, Durbin-Watson = 0.78, *N* = 92.

* Significant influence at the 0.05* level of significance.

Table 10

Test of Deviation from Linearity of the Relationships of Six Sub Variables of Social Disorganization with Hate Crime Rates

Study Variables	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Demographic Divergence Of areas (% of Non-White)	36510.87	85	429.54	7.12	0.00
Concentrated Disadvantage	17571.85	61	288.06	0.68	0.92*
Family Disruption	19125.71	56	341.53	0.88	0.68*
Residential Mobility	*Too few cases				
Population Size of Density (sq. mi.)	33452.03	19	1760.63	35.48	0.00
Proximity to Urban Areas / Distance (mi.)	12850.05	13	988.47	4.06	0.00

Note: * There is a linear relationship at the 0.05* level of significance. Too Few cases -

Statistics for Hate Crime Statistics (Race & Ethnicity only) *Residential mobility cannot
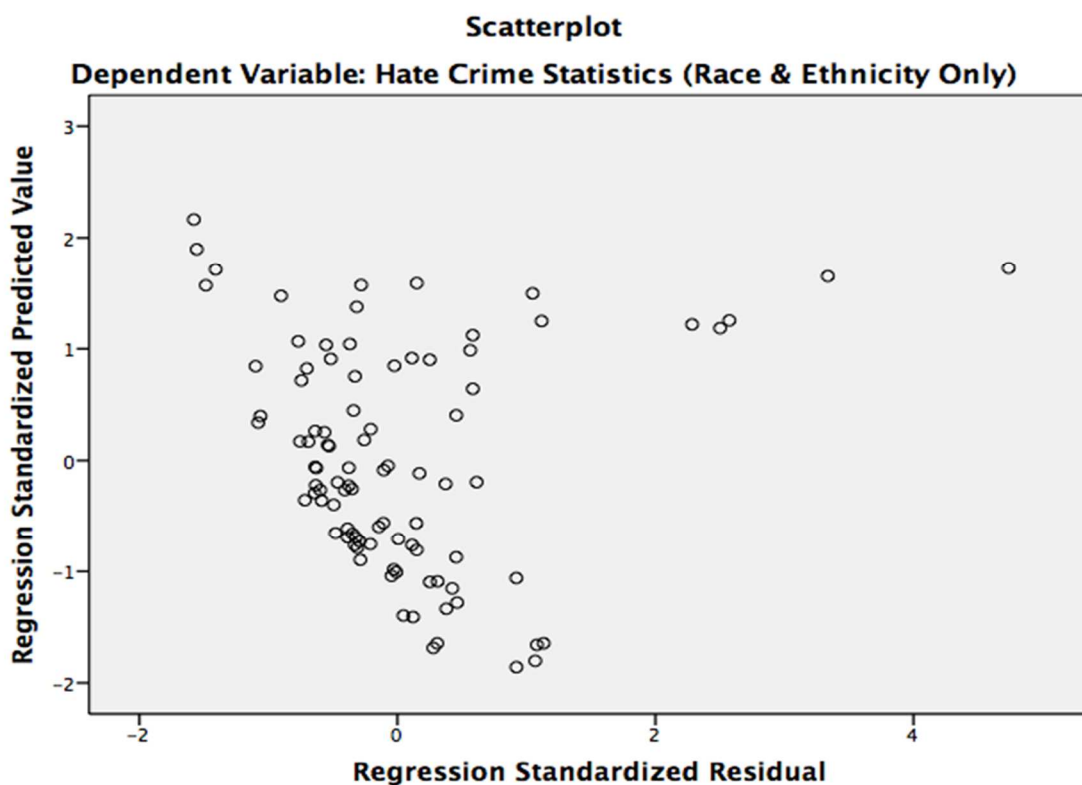
be computed.

Figure 2. Plot of standardized residuals versus regression standardized predicted value of prediction of hate crime rates by six subvariables of social disorganization

Summary

The purpose of the research was to examine the relationship between demographic diversity and hate crime rates in New Jersey. I also examined the relationship among the six subvariables of hate crime rates and social disorganization in New Jersey. In Chapter 4 of this study, I revealed the results of the quantitative analyses addressing the research questions of the study. According to the results of the regression analysis, there was no significant relationship between demographic diversity and the number of hate crimes in

New Jersey. There was a violation in the assumptions of linearity between the relationship of the independent variable and dependent variable.

According to the results of the second regression analysis, there was a significant relationship between hate crime rates and social disorganization in New Jersey. Specifically, residential mobility and population size of density had positive effects while concentrated disadvantage had negative effects on hate crime rates in New Jersey. However, ethnic diversity, family disruption, and proximity to urban areas did not have a significant influence or effect on hate crime rates. There was a violation in the assumptions of linearity between the relationship of the independent variable and dependent variable for the regression results for Research Question 2. The violations of required assumption were limitations of the study, and the results are unreliable, as the model is not robust and the results can be untrustworthy. In Chapter 5, the analysis of the results of the study provides a conclusion to the study based on an overall assessment, followed by researcher recommendations.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

In the United States, stereotypes based on feelings of contempt about cultural ideas and beliefs in a society that are different from established norms have ignited hostilities in communities (American Psychological Association, 1998), which result in hate crimes. Hate crimes target an individual or group of individuals based on a specific, personal motive justified to the perpetrator based on biased ideology. These crimes inspire fear not just in the victims, but also within the community (Bias Incidents, 2000).

In areas like New Jersey, with ethnically heterogeneous communities, hate crime legislation is supported (McVeigh et al., 2003). However, despite the support for hate crime legislation, hate crime rates in New Jersey have remained consistently high throughout the years (New Jersey Bias Incident Offenses, 2011). This includes hate crimes, bias incidents, and bias intimidation (Berger, 2009). In New Jersey, the occurrence of hate crimes is unique due to the high level of demographic divergence, especially in the northern and central regions of the state (New Jersey: A Statewide View on Diversity, 2007).

In a review of the existing literature on the subject matter for this research, I found that there is a lack of knowledge on the possible causes of high hate crime rates in New Jersey and the relational factors that account for hate crimes being more prevalent in some areas compared to others. Therefore, the purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the relationship between demographic diversity and the number of hate crime rates in New Jersey. The purpose of this study was also to investigate the relationship

between hate crimes and social disorganization in New Jersey. The expectation was that due to New Jersey's increasingly heterogeneous ethnic composition in the northern and central regions of the state and homogeneous demographics in the southern region of the state, the results would reveal demographic, social, and economic factors linked to hate crimes.

The measurement method of analysis for this study was a quantitative analysis using secondary data. The retrieval of the data was from different sources in the 21 counties representing the state of New Jersey. The secondary data used for the study were on hate crime rates based on race and ethnicity, covering the years 2007 through 2011. I also used secondary data, retrieved from various sources, on New Jersey's demographic diversity, concentrated disadvantage, family disruption, residential mobility, population size of density, and proximity to urban areas for each of the 21 counties of the state. These data represented the subvariables of social disorganization. The analysis involved a multiple linear regression statistical test to determine the existence of statistically significant relationships between hate crime rates and demographic diversity, as well as the relationship between hate crime rates and social disorganization.

In this chapter, I will focus on the overall analysis to the study. First, the chapter will provide an overall significance and interpretation to the results presented in Chapter 4. This chapter will also provide recommendations for action and implications based on the results of the data analysis procedures. Lastly, in this chapter, I will outline implications for policy development and future research potential.

Summary of Results

In this research study, there were two research questions formulated. The purpose of the first research question was to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between demographic diversity and the number of hate crime rates in New Jersey. It was hypothesized that the greater the level of diversity, the higher the level of hate crime rates. For this research question, I conducted a multiple linear regression analysis using demographic diversity measured using the percentage of non-Whites in the different counties as the independent variables and hate crime rates as the dependent variable. The results of the regression analysis indicated that the proposed model was not statistically significant, wherein the demographic diversity that measured the percentage of non-White only accounted for only 0.1% of the variance in the number of hate crime rates. The measures of demographic diversity had a low combined effect on the number of hate crime rates within the 21 counties of New Jersey.

Based on the results of the regression analysis, it was also determined that hate crime rates in New Jersey was not significantly affected by the demographic diversity within the 21 counties of New Jersey as measured by the percentage of non-Whites only in the different counties. As such, these results did not lead to the rejection of the null hypothesis for Research Question 1 that there is no significant relationship between demographic diversity and the number of hate crime rates in New Jersey.

The purpose of the second research question was to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between hate crime rates and social disorganization in New Jersey. It was hypothesized that the higher the level of social disorganization, the

higher the level of hate crime rates. To address this research question, the analysis involved a regression analysis using the subvariables of social disorganization as the independent variable and hate crime rates as the dependent variable. The subvariables of social disorganization included the following: (a) demographic diversity, measured using the percentage of non-Whites; (b) family disruption; (c) concentrated disadvantage, measured based on the unemployment rate; (d) residential mobility; (e) population size of density; and (f) and proximity to urban areas.

The results of the regression analysis indicated that the proposed model was statistically significant, with the subvariables of social disorganization accounting for 40% of the variance in the hate crime rates in New Jersey. This indicates a moderate effect between the variables. Among the six subvariables, it was determined that increases in the residential mobility and population size of density resulted in increases in hate crimes, while decreases in concentrated disadvantage, which was measured based on unemployment rates, resulted in increases in the hate crime rates. Out of these three significantly associated variables, concentrated disadvantage had the greatest effect on the number of hate crime rates.

Interpretation of Findings

In the overall findings of this study, I found support for the prevailing theory of social disorganization on the phenomena of the occurrence of hate crimes in New Jersey. Social disorganization theorists focus on both social and environmental characteristics of inner cities as the potential cause of delinquency (Hart & Waller, 2013). In this study, I examined demographic, social, and economic factors that contributed to social

disorganization. Through the results of the study, it was determined that ethnic diversity was not a predicting factor of a high level of hate crime rates for Research Question 1. Based on the results of the study, residential mobility, population density, and concentrated disadvantage within a community were the predicting factors of the incidence of hate crimes in New Jersey for Research Question 2.

Residential Mobility

Based on a modified version of the social disorganization theory, strong social relationships in a community prevent crime and delinquency (Bursik & Grasmick, 1993). Likewise, according to Freilich and Chermak (2014), hate crimes are more prevalent in areas undergoing constant demographic changes, which lead to social disorganization. The results of the data analysis for this study, which identified residential mobility as one of the significant predictors to the increase in the number of hate crimes, provide further support for this theory.

Individuals who tend to relocate frequently are less likely to form social relationships within their community. Thus, areas with high residential mobility are less likely to form strong community bonds. Based on social disorganization theory, this phenomenon may result in high crime rates in a community including hate crimes. According to Bursik, (1988), due to constant change of a population in an area, residents have fewer opportunities to develop strong ties, communication skills, and participate in community organizations.

For this research study, the measurement of residential mobility was on the number of residents who changed residence or moved within a respective year.

According to Freilich and Chermak, (2014), social disorganization and demographic change have been connected with higher levels of hate crimes. Furthermore, Freilich and Chermak contended that hate crimes against racial minorities are more likely to take place in communities undergoing continuous demographic change. Freilich and Chermak further asserted that hate groups might focus on areas undergoing demographic change as a way to take advantage of the tension and use it as an opportunity to mobilize. These groups may recruit members to act (Freilich & Chermak, 2014).

The changing environment and community structures influence different demographic groups to experience hostility in adapting to other groups. Based on Durkheim's (1933) modernization theory, there is a link between the perception of hate crimes as variants of youth violence and delinquency and rapid social change. Based on this theory, hate crimes are a result of an outburst of socially disintegrated individuals of threatened communities (Green et al., 2001). According to Sidanius and Pratto (as cited in Fiske 2002), for homogeneous neighborhoods, new individuals moving or relocating to a neighborhood or community are often perceived as a threat to their set standards of living and/or their culture. For example, hate crimes committed under the reactive/defense hate crime offender typology focus on the motivation of defending intrusions against a person's turf. Therefore, the motivation centers on a perceived threat of a different group of individuals who are relocating to a community.

Despite the possibility of a single dominant ethnic group residing in an area or neighborhood due to New Jersey's diverse demographic make-up, the defended neighborhood theory stipulates that violence occurred due to the arrival of the migrating

group becoming a threat to the other groups' status, well-being, and way of life (Green et al., 2001). Likewise, according to Green et al. (2001), similar to realistic group conflict theory, the defended neighborhood hypothesis assumes that interracial violence is the product of demographic movement. This is where the arrival of members of a different group is responsible for the violence and responses of the homogeneous, locally dominant group.

For this research study, the variable residential mobility being significantly linked to hate crimes in New Jersey may be based on a neighborhood's inability to develop strong community ties (social disintegration; Bursik & Grasmick, 1993) and not on an incoming group being perceived as a threat to an established group (Green et al., 2001). Green et al. (2001) suggested that this defensive action does not follow the power differential between the dominant groups, but the collective identity of the established group. In this case, a person would perceive the migrating group as a threat to the other group's status, well-being, and way of life (Green et al., 2001). Because the defended neighborhood model centers on subjective motives, predicted hate crimes against members of the migrating group will be higher in the beginning of a sudden influx (Green et al., 2001). Integrated neighborhoods already characterized by racial hostility tend to have lower occurrences of hate crimes than neighborhoods approaching integration (American Psychological Association, 1998).

Population Size of Density

Population size of density in social disorganization theory focuses on both social and environmental characteristics of the inner cities (Hart & Waller, 2013). Based on

social disorganization theory, social problems are dominant in areas marked by a high

population density due to the anonymity that obstructs accountability with residents

and/or neighbors (Social Disorganization and Rural Communities, 2013). As indicated by

the results of the data analysis, increases in population density significantly affect the

increase in the incidence of hate crimes.

Population size of density variable under social disorganization theory supports

the social disorganization theory of the study and the demographic composition of the

state because New Jersey is one of the most densely populated states in the United States

with a population density of an average of 1,030 residents per square mile, 13 times that

of the national average (New Jersey Facts and Trivia, 2015). In regards to the proximity

to urban areas variable, even though the results of this study did not signify a significant

relationship between this variable and hate crimes, most counties in the state of New

Jersey are considered urbanized, with about 90% of the people residing in an urban area

(New Jersey Facts and Trivia, 2015). Because of this, population size of density variable,

which yielded a positive relationship to hate crime rates, is a more appropriate

determining factor.

Concentrated Disadvantage

For the concentrated disadvantage variable in social disorganization theory,

Sidanius and Prato (as cited in Fiske, 2002) asserted that a neighborhood's perceived

threat to an incoming group's economic status can be perceived as a dog-eat-dog

viewpoint. Sidanius and Pratto (as cited in Fiske, 2002) further contended that a person

may perceive competition as an imitation to the condition of intergroup relations.

Because of this, homogeneous neighborhoods fear economic conservatism becoming a reality (Sidanius & Pratto, as cited in Fiske, 2002). Likewise, conflict theory is based on intergroup hostility, which materializes when two groups of individuals are in competition with each other for scarce resources (Campbell et al., as cited in Gerstenfeld, 2011). Green contended that economic change might result in hate crimes when minorities move into an ethnically homogeneous area for the first time (as cited in American Psychological Association, 1998). According to Green, this reaction is a result of intuitive aversion to social change (as cited in American Psychological Association, 1998).

One unexpected finding of this study was the negative or inverse relationship between concentrated disadvantage and hate crime rates. Contrary to the results of the study, I expected that higher scores for concentrated disadvantage, as quantified by the unemployment rate, would lead to an increased level of hate crime rates. A review of existing literature outlines this expectation, which indicated that concentrated disadvantage creates social disruption, which in turn, perpetuates an environment for crime and disorder (Bursik & Grasmick, 1993). Anderson et al. (2006) maintained that in the 1990s, while crime statistics revealed an increase on overall crimes, the economic state of the country improved. It may be that a link between an increase in the job market that may lead to competition for higher paying positions or jobs. In order to understand this phenomenon, further study is necessary.

Statistical Limitations and Implications for the Study

A statistical limitation to this study was the violation in the assumptions of

linearity between the relationship of the independent variable and dependent variable for

the regression results. These were violations of required assumption as the limitations to

this study, and the results are unreliable as the model was not robust. There were

statistical issues with the results of the analysis. First was the autocorrelation or serial

correlation violation, which indicated that there were some time effects present in the

regression results because the Durbin Watson statistics were in the danger territory for

Research Question 1. The autocorrelation violation is a common occurrence in analysis

involving time dependent data. Because of this violation, one should proceed with

caution when interpreting the regression models. The autocorrelation violation was a

weakness in this study, and future researchers should consider this violation in order to

have a more robust statistical finding. Second, I did not employ a longitudinal and panel

data analysis. Future studies can look at this type of study.

Recommendations for Action Based on Limitations of the Study

For Future Practice

A key limitation of this study was the accuracy of existing data on reported hate

crimes. On account of the reporting of hate crimes largely depending on the discretion of

law enforcement officers handling the case (McPhail & Jenness, 2006), some crimes may

be wrongfully reported as hate crimes, while hate crimes may also be misclassified as

other types of crimes. Therefore, there is a need to provide specialized training to local

law enforcement agencies in recognizing hate crimes in order to improve the accuracy of hate crime reporting data.

Some victims of hate crimes may fail to report hate crimes due to a language barrier, which may serve as a hindrance to the proper reporting of hate crimes by victims (Lawrence, 2003). Therefore, I recommend that information be distributed on what constitutes a hate crime, the laws that protect victims against hate crimes, and the dissemination on how to report hate crimes to the proper authorities. However, a translation to the native tongue of the various ethnic groups within New Jersey should be available and disseminated accordingly in the proper areas. An additional recommendation would be the use of infographics as a more layman-friendly resource for dissemination.

Another recommendation is that policymakers examine existing laws and regulations for ways to improve the protection of minority and ethnic groups from hate crime violence. In the theory of race and urban inequality Sampson and Wilson (1995) suggest that violent communities are constructed on a lack of investment for both the state in access to law and widespread "legal cynicism:" the perception that protection from violence is not an option (as cited in Sampson & Bean, 2005). According to Zaykowski (2010), hate crime laws are restricted to assisting the victims as opposed to penalizing the perpetrators. Increased protection against hate crimes, whether through more severe sanctions or more vigilant law enforcement presence, is highly recommended, particularly in areas with high residential mobility and population density.

An additional recommendation is to form strong community bonds through programs promoting safe neighborhoods. According to Sampson and Bean (2005), social isolation between groups, which can lead to hostility, may be due to sporadic contact between these groups. Thus, an additional recommendation is that county governments implement improvement projects that are community-based and encourage community members to participate. Through the implementation of community programs, which promote regular contact between community members, the elimination of social isolation and community unity in order to decrease hate crime rates.

For Future Research

In reference to this study, a recommendation for future study is to consider a clear identifier that separates race and ethnicity in order to help identify the variables (race and ethnicity), which are currently not properly defined. If the researcher clearly defines the variables, then the study may yield different results. Another recommendation for future study is to consider the race/ethnicity, religious beliefs, and background of the victim and the perpetrator. A further recommendation is to examine and measure the relationship between hate crimes and social disorganization theory variables in the counties separately and independently of each other, as opposed to the general measurement of the entire state.

An influencing factor affecting hate crime reporting data centers on the unwillingness of the victims to report hate crimes or bias-related incidents to law enforcement (Dunbar, 2006). In addition to this, fear of retribution or retaliation from hate crime perpetrators (because of reporting the incidents to law enforcement), is also

considered an additional contributing factor (American Psychological Association, 1998).

In order to gain a more thorough understanding of the consequences experienced by the

victims who report hate crimes, further research on this subject matter is highly

recommended. One may conduct qualitative study on the negative experiences of victims

who report hate crimes. Such a study could identify ways to protect victims against

retaliation for reporting hate crimes and bias-related incidents. The negative experiences

of victims with regard to reporting hate crimes can provide information on potential

policy formation. This policy formation can include added protections for the victims

and/or more confidential or anonymous means of reporting. It is expected that these

policy changes would encourage other victims to come forward, report hate crimes, and

construct the level of information on hate crime incidences in a more elaborate and

accurate manner.

In New Jersey, there is an inverse link between concentrated disadvantage, as

quantified by unemployment rates, and the predictor of hate crime rates. This finding is

contrary to Bursik and Grasmick's (1993) assertion that concentrated disadvantage leads

to social disorganization, which, in turn, leads to higher crime rates. A more thorough

examination on the link between concentrated disadvantage and hate crime rates,

particularly within the context of New Jersey, would be advantageous. As stated by

Green et al. (2001), there is a failure to specify the connection between which elements of

concentrated disadvantage and economic competition to the incidence of hate crimes. It is

recommended that a quantitative study be conducted using various measures of

concentrated disadvantage apart from unemployment rates to determine how these

measures relate to the incidence rates of hate crimes in New Jersey. Some possible measures include socioeconomic status or the percentage of population from each county that are on welfare. A more in-depth study may focus on the characteristics of how prevalent hate crimes are in areas that exhibit a high level of residential mobility and population size of density with geospatial analysis and/or crime mapping.

Another recommendation is the undertaking of additional studies on how to determine motivation in reference to the designation of a crime as a bias-motivated hate crime. The issue of motivation is a weakness of existing legislation on hate crimes, due to the difficulty of ascertaining the offender's subjective motivations (Chilton et al., 2001). Therefore, a separate recommendation is an analysis of reported crimes to ascertain dominant themes in the nature of crimes committed and the methods for ascribing motivation in hate crimes. An empirical means of determining motivation would improve the overall quality of the body of knowledge on reported hate crimes.

Analysis of Study Results in Relation to Policy Formation

The results of this study represent crucial elements in the area of policy formation. In the past, hate crimes concerns outlined an important period in history of crime control efforts, the allocation of civil rights, and the status of ethnic minorities in the United States (Jenness & Broad, 1997). According to Jenness and Broad (1997), over the last 2 decades, policymakers supported hate crimes concerns as a social problem in need of remedy. Jenness and Broad argued that hate crime legislation delineates forms of bias intimidation and assault, thus creating new categories of crimes and victims.

In reference to the enactment of hate crime laws and ordinances, McVeigh et al. (2003) contended that hate crime legislation is highly supported in ethnically heterogeneous communities because the residence of those communities are more likely to respond positively to problems stemming from an interethnic perspective. In agreement with the results of the study, this concept recognizes that a problem exists with hate crimes in areas with a high level of residential mobility and population size of density. As Jenness and Broad (1997) pointed out, laws and legislation have played a significant role in defining the social problem of hate crimes. It was through the adoption of legislation, that hate crimes became a meaningful terminology.

Educational and institutional initiatives, as well as structural changes in society, would break down the hierarchical and dichotomous boundaries of difference (Connell, as cited in Perry, 2001). According to Dyson (as cited in Perry, 2001), the goal should be to create short- and long-term initiatives in which society should not be forced to choose an identity on the basis of privileged categories or "to transcend race of difference" in general (Connell, as cited in Perry, 2001, p. 226). The goal should be to "transcend the biased meanings associated with the difference" (Connell, as cited in Perry, 2001, p. 226).

The establishment of educational programs, offender educational programs, and offender sentencing programs is also crucial (Jenness & Broad, 1997). Building alliances based on cooperation between local police, community volunteers, and local advocacy organizations through training and education in order to promote the reporting of hate crimes and develop a community support network for victims of hate crimes is equally

significant (Positive Change through Policy, 2001). Based on the findings of this study, the establishment of new local ordinances, statutes, and leadership in response to hate crimes in the area of legislation would prove beneficial to the state of New Jersey. Data collection and analysis, establishing boards or commissions to review and analyze hate crime activity, training and technical support, public awareness and prevention, and coordination are also equally critical (Taylor, 1991).

Study Implications for Social Change

The findings of this study are relevant in three ways. First, it is relevant for the members of various ethnic communities in New Jersey who have experienced or have been victims of hate crimes. Because community members are the immediate victims of hate or bias-motivated crimes in the form of personal injury or property damage, efforts to decrease hate crime rates through the various methods described below would prove beneficial.

Second, the findings of this study are also relevant for legislators and law enforcement agencies that are responsible for protecting citizens' civil rights. Improved information on the assignation of hate crimes, the motivations behind these crimes, and the factors that contribute to increased incidence of hate crimes would help legislators and law enforcement agencies draft and enact laws. These laws would act as responsive means to the current needs of ethnic, minority groups, and the protection of these groups from hate crimes.

Third, increased awareness that hate crimes in New Jersey is a social problem, as evidenced by the high level of residential mobility and population size of evidence

(which is characteristic to the demographic make-up of the state), would contribute to increased level of reporting and result in a positive social change in a community. The social change implications of this study include more resources for law enforcement departments and agencies with a special concentration in areas with a high level of residential mobility and population size of density, such as the northern and central regions of the state.

Lastly, the findings of this study are relevant to the academic community whose focus is on hate crimes. The increase of information on hate crimes would be beneficial in educational counseling programs, public information programs, and victim counseling programs. Likewise, the increased understanding of criminal patterns and behaviors as they relate to hate crimes in areas marked by a high level of residential mobility and population size of density in New Jersey would provide an enhanced understanding of social and economic dynamics that result in hate crimes.

Conclusion

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the relationship between demographic diversity and the number of hate crime rates in New Jersey. In addition, I investigated the relationship between hate crimes and social disorganization in New Jersey. To achieve this purpose, I used secondary data focused on the 21 counties in New Jersey in the quantitative analysis to determine the relationships between hate crime rates and demographic diversity. I also examined the relationship between hate crime rates and social disorganization. According to the results of the regression analysis, ethnic diversity, measured based on the percentage of non-Whites in the 21 different counties,

did not significantly predict hate crime rates in New Jersey. It was also determined that increased residential mobility, increased population density, and decreased concentrated disadvantage were associated with increased hate crime rates in New Jersey.

Based on the findings outlined above, one recommendation is to focus on further research on the negative experiences of victims who report hate crimes, determining motivation behind hate crimes, and the relationship between concentrated disadvantage and hate crimes. Another recommendation is that law enforcement agencies provide in-depth training to law enforcement personnel to identify hate crimes, improve procedures in reporting hate crimes to protect victims, and address the issue of the language barrier in reporting hate crimes. The establishment of community programs, which promote strong bonds between various ethnic groups to mitigate the effects of social isolation that results in bias-motivated crimes, is also highly recommended. The findings of this study are of relevance to the New Jersey community members, the legislative and law enforcement branches of government, and to the larger academic community. Increased information on the factors that contribute to hate crimes would result in positive solutions that would decrease hate crime rates, particularly in New Jersey.

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Appendix A: G Power Sample Size Computation