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Racial Socialization and Fear of Crime in Stand Your Ground Laws

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Walden University

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Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

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Anna Nicole Douglas

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Walden University
2019

Abstract

Racial Socialization and Fear of Crime in Stand Your Ground Laws

by

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MA, Argosy University, 2011

BS, Mary Baldwin College, 2010

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Criminal Justice

Walden University

April 2019

Abstract

In 2005, Florida enacted the Justifiable Use of Deadly Force legislation, known as Stand Your Ground (SYG) laws, in response to the Workman case. The aftermath of that case led to the expansion of the laws that removed the duty to retreat principle and allowed citizens to employ deadly force when imbued with fear. The SYG laws as written appeared to imply state-sanctioned violence, with an increase in homicides, coupled with racial disparities. This study employed a quantitative inquiry with a causal-comparative design to explore whether a relationship existed between racial socialization and fear of crime in SYG states compared to non-SYG states, using the lens of critical race theory, contact theory and policy learning theory. The study included 112 participants recruited through social media, they were ages 18 years and older, from Florida, Maryland, North Carolina, and Virginia who had no connections to an SYG case. The data were analyzed using analysis of covariance and indicated statistical significance between the state of residency and an individual's decision to fight back when presented with a scenario similar to the Trayvon Martin case. The results also yielded a statistical significance between gender, ethnicity, and an individual's decision to fight back in the SYG scenario. The findings of this study confirm that the state of residency may impact the decision to employ deadly force or fight back. However, other results are not consistent with previous research. This study provides legislatures with a means for reforming the SYG rhetoric, as well as decrease the public's misconceptions about the SYG laws.

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Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my mother, Annabelle, who passed away as I was near completion of this journey. She gave me the strength and encouragement to fulfill a dream of being the first in my family to obtain a doctorate. To my sister, this dissertation is proof that you can achieve any goal you set for yourself. And last but not least, I dedicate this dissertation to all the little girls who were told they would never grow to be anything; this is proof those words do not determine your future.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Expanded Castle Doctrine Laws: Stand Your Ground (SYG)

In 2005, Florida's state legislatures modified the Castle Doctrine law and enacted the Justifiable Use of Force (776.012 and 776.013), also known as the "Stand Your Ground" (SYG) laws. The Castle Doctrine allowed individuals to protect their homes, cars, and property by removing the duty to retreat and employing lethal force (Cheng & Hoekstra, 2013; Yu, 2014). The new SYG laws relieve citizens of the responsibility to retreat when imbued with reasonable fear and utilize lethal force in public places; in other words, an individual is absolved from being held civilly liable (Cheng & Hoekstra, 2013; Wallace & Crowe, 2008). The issue with the expanded self-defense laws is that there has been an increase in justifiable homicides which implies state-sanctioned violence and impacts the health of minority citizens. In this study, I sought to enact positive social change by examining how racial socialization and fear of crime fostered a relationship with citizens who support SYG laws. Furthermore, social change could occur through reformation of current SYG legislation and educating citizens on understanding the SYG law.

The following sections are discussed in this chapter: the background of SYG laws, the problem, the purpose, the theoretical foundation for the current study, the nature of the study, assumptions, scope and delimitations, potential limitations of the study, and the significance of the present research.

Background

American culture has deep roots in the ideology of man and the right to protect oneself. As noted in the Constitution, every citizen has the right to self-defense, and this is embedded in common law (Fair, 2014). The Castle Doctrine law is rooted in common law and first set a precedent in *Erwin v. State* (1876). The concept of true man was created to establish that every citizen has the right to stand his ground and protect their home when presented with a threat (Mack & Roberts-Lewis, 2016). In Florida's landmark case of *Wilson v. State* (1892), the Court ruled that a man's home is considered his castle; thus, he should be able to protect it as such (Megale, 2013). The law further allows citizens not to fear legal repercussions for defending themselves or others when a threat is present; essentially they can fight back without the duty to retreat and employ deadly force. As written, the law absolves citizens' fear of legal repercussions when a threat is imminent; they can stand their ground and employ deadly force. Judge Jaggard in *State v. Gardner* (1905) ruled that American citizens and guns coalesced which made it arduous for the duty of retreat principle. Thus, the case law laid the foundation for the expansion of self-defense laws as crime and society evolved. As of 2014, 23 states have enacted legislation that expands upon the Castle Doctrine (Yu, 2014). The enactment of SYG laws allowed citizens to defend themselves and home with deadly force.

The SYG laws were created for the protection of citizens from crime during natural disasters. However, the implementation of the law revealed an increase in racial disparities in victims of SYG defenses, primarily against minority citizens during times of non-state of emergency. The SYG law was enacted to enable Florida residents to

protect themselves and their residences from looters during hurricane clean-up (Boots et al., 2009; Megale, 2013). However, one case motivated state legislators to pass such an act, the Workman Case. James Workman shot and killed Rodney Cox, a FEMA worker, during Hurricane Ivan's clean-up (Megale, 2013). Even though Workman was not charged in Cox's shooting death, legislators pushed for a law that would absolve those defending themselves or their residence. As a result, the creation of the SYG law extends the justifiable use of deadly force to public places; meaning, no citizen must retreat in any surrounding.

Since the inception of the SYG laws, research has seen a surge in homicides classified as justified (Cheng & Hoekstra, 2013; Mack & Roberts-Lewis, 2016; Ren et al., 2012; Roman, 2013). Further, researchers have discussed cases with Martin-Zimmerman attributes (homicide classified as justified, a single perpetrator, a single victim, both males, strangers, and the use a firearm) (Mack & Roberts-Lewis, 2015; Roman, 2013). As Ward (2015) purported, the issue with understanding the SYG laws is that the rhetoric is confusing, and the bad politics is leading to social turmoil. Social turmoil is essential for criminologists to study because it allows for the reformation of legislation that is designed to target the impoverished and minorities (Megale, 2013). Racial disparities within the criminal justice system require research and analysis to understand why such disparities exist and form solutions that offer legal equality to all citizens.

Thomas and Blackmon (2014) found that African American parents racially socialize (the practice of teaching their children to deal with racism in society) their

children out of fear following the Trayvon Martin case. This study examined whether these findings are consistent when citizens are confronted with similar situations like the Trayvon Martin case (Lane & Kuhn, 2013). Hagerman (2016) expanded upon Thomas and Blackmon's study by focusing on Caucasian fathers raising antiracist children, providing their shared perceptions of socialization. The findings from this study provide a different perspective as much of the current literature has focused on the perspectives of African American families. Researchers revealed that gender played a significant role in whether a person employed deadly force; consequently, race did not have a positive relationship in an individual's choice to employ deadly force in scenarios consistent with Trayvon Martin characteristics (Lane & Kuhn, 2013). In the criminal justice literature, fear of crime has revealed that gender does play a significant role in how individuals respond in a fight or flight situation (Hinkle, 2015); however, what is not known is how gender in conjunction with racial socialization impact the decision to employ deadly force.

The gaps in the literature suggest that future research examine the following: (a) whether subjective fear by Caucasians contributes to the choice to employ deadly force against minority persons and influences legislative changes to adopt SYG laws (Berenguer, 2017; Butz et al., 2015), (b) lack of understanding of the SYG law's purpose (Ren et al., 2015), and (c) social practices and white fear (Ackerman et al., 2015; Berenguer, 2017). These gaps are contributing factors to this problem which impacts society. Lane and Kuhn (2013) suggested future research to fill in the gaps in their study on racial socialization and fear of crime in situations similar to the Trayvon Martin case

by expanding the population and location. This study expanded upon the research of Lane and Kuhn (2013) by filling in the gaps from their study by examining whether a relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in a general population. Additionally, it may provide policymakers with data to consider for reforming or expanding SYG laws.

This study was warranted for a myriad of reasons. First, the increase in justified homicides is considered a public health problem (Ackerman et al., 2015). Secondly, the increase in racial disparities amongst victims and those who successfully fall under the SYG defense can lead to the public's distrust in the justice system. The third reason for this study is that provided an understanding of the factors which lead to the enactment of legislation that implies state-sanctioned violence. Finally, this study can promote legislative reform.

Problem Statement

The problem is there is an increase in the number of individuals who are not prosecuted for homicides under the SYG defense coupled with significant racial disparities amongst the victims (American Bar Association (ABA), 2015; Ackerman et al., 2015; Barnes, 2015; Gius, 2016; McClellan & Tekin, 2017) which appears to imply state-sanctioned violence (ABA, 2015; Butz et al., 2015). The ABA National Task Force has made suggestions to Florida legislatures and other states to reform SYG laws or not to enact such laws, because as written these laws imply state-sanctioned violence. However, Florida legislatures have yet to make any attempts to reform the law (Berenguer, 2017). As a result, justifiable homicides increased 200% under the SYG

defense in Florida alone (Mack & Roberts-Lewis, 2016); whereas, Roman (2013) found that states with SYG laws had a 53% increase in justifiable homicides since the creation of SYG laws in 2005. Roman further purported that of the increase in homicides, 42.31%, had what he called Martin Case Attributes, that is the homicide under the SYG defense was justified, a single shooter, a single victim, both males, strangers, and the use of a firearm. A significant gap in the literature is that it is not known whether social determinants such as racial socialization and fear of crime, impacts one's decision to employ deadly force to defend themselves in states with SYG laws.

Purpose

The purpose of this quantitative causal-comparative study was to expand upon previous research conducted by Kuhn and Lane (2013) by examining a relationship between racial socialization and fear of crime in states with SYG laws compared to non-SYG states. The rationale for a causal-comparative design was to explore the differences between groups on the outcome variable since SYG laws have been enacted (Schenker & Rumrill, 2004). The selected population was randomly pooled from a Facebook research group, controlling for Florida, Maryland, North Carolina, and Virginia residents. Additional sources of data were collected from news reports on SYG cases. The intentions were to explore whether a relationship existed between racial socialization and fear of crime in SYG states compared to non-SYG states and whether race and gender moderated an individual's choice to support SYG laws.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The purpose of this study was to answer the following research questions:

1. What, if any, a relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in Florida and North Carolina?

H1o: No relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in Florida and North Carolina.

H1a: A relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in Florida and North Carolina.

2. What, if any, a relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in Virginia and Maryland?

H2o: No relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in Virginia and Maryland.

H2a: A relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in Virginia and Maryland.

3. What, if any, a relationship exists between race, gender, and one's decisions to employ deadly force in Florida or North Carolina compared to Maryland or Virginia?

H3o: No relationship exists between race, gender, and one's decision to employ deadly force in Florida and North Carolina compared to Maryland and Virginia.

H3a: A relationship exists between race, gender, and one's decision to employ deadly force in Florida and North Carolina compared to Maryland and Virginia.

It was hypothesized that by the utility of critical race theory, contact theory, and policy learning theory that a relationship existed between racial socialization and fear of crime in states with or without SYG laws. It was hypothesized that a positive relationship exists between race, gender, and the decision to employ deadly force under the SYG scenario in Florida and North Carolina compared to Maryland and Virginia. Additionally, it was hypothesized that higher levels of racial socialization and fear of crime are associated with states that enacted SYG laws (Florida, North Carolina) compared to non-SYG states (Maryland, Virginia).

Theoretical Framework

The current study examined whether a relationship existed between racial socialization and fear of crime in SYG states, such as Florida compared to non-SYG states such as Virginia. The theoretical framework for this study utilized Bell's (1989) critical race theory (CRT), which purports that racism is customary in the criminal justice system and warrants radical change (Delgado & Stefanic, 2017); Allport's (1954) contact theory (CT), which postulates that a person's first interaction with someone from an opposite race can lead to prejudice (Ackerman et al., 2015; Allport, 1979); and Bennett and Howlett (1992) policy learning theory (PLT), which postulates that through social learning tenets, states can learn from other states in making legislative reforms (Butz, Fix, & Mitchell, 2015; Tamtik, 2016).

CRT, CT, and PLT aligned with the research questions to understand why some states adopt the SYG laws, and others do not. CT focuses on the social interactions of individuals, which stems from Gordon Allport's contact hypothesis (Ackerman et al.,

2015). The tenets of CT provided an understanding of racial socialization practices. CRT is the crux for this study and assumptions of the theory provide knowledge of racial disparities in SYG defenses.

CRT and CT provided the foundation for the current study by demonstrating how minority citizens are disproportionately represented in SYG cases, and why Caucasian citizens are more likely to defend themselves by employing SYG successfully. PLT explores why some states have enacted SYG legislation following high profile cases of SYG defenses and minorities. These three theories are presented in more detail in Chapter 2.

Nature of the Study

The nature of the study was a quantitative inquiry with a causal-comparative design. The purpose of the study was to evaluate whether a relationship existed between racial socialization and fear of crime in states with SYG laws compared to non-SYG states. The covariates of the study were gender and ethnicity. The causal-comparative approach allowed for generalizability of the phenomena as it relates to the racial disparities among SYG victims and defenses. Causal-comparative designs allow researchers to examine the means across multiple independent variables (IV) as they impact the dependent variable (DV) (Schenker & Rumrill, 2004). This design relied on IVs that cannot be manipulated by the researcher (Salkind, 2010). For example, the current study examined relationships between ethnic groups and their racial socialization practices, gender, education, and age; these IVs cannot be manipulated by a researcher, which made this design more applicable than a cross-sectional design.

A cross-sectional design is correlational and seeks relationships between variables. This approach collects data at one period and can seek to collect information on participant attitudes and behaviors (O'Sullivan et al., 2017). This design cannot investigate cause and effect, whereas, causal-comparative can take existing groups and examine the impact of the IVs after an event (Salkind, 2010). This study evaluated participant levels of racial socialization and fear of crime in states that passed the SYG laws compared to states who have not. Thus, the cross-sectional design would have been applicable if this study only examined relationships between variables excluding states.

The current study built upon previous research conducted by Lane and Kuhn (2013) in which the population and locations were changed. The population and locations were changed based on future implications and examined whether a positive relationship existed between racial socialization and fear of crime in states with and without the SYG laws. Chapter 3 provides a more in-depth overview of the methodology utilized for the current study.

Definitions

Below are a list of concepts and operationalized variables employed for the current study.

Racial socialization: the process by which parents condition their children to be aware of their culture and to cope with racism (Hughes et al., 2006) as well as to manage against physical violence (Thomas & Blackmon, 2014).

Fear of Crime: "...an emotional reaction characterized by a sense of danger and anxiety" (Garofalo, 1981) to encompass the perception of likelihood of victimization

(Lorenc et al., 2012) and the environmental cues that spur the perception of physical harm (Garofalo, 1981; Lane & Kuhn, 2013).

Stand Your Ground (SYG): states that have the expansion of Castle Doctrine Laws, that absolves the duty to retreat, and can employ deadly force when imbued with reasonable fear (Cheng & Hoekstra, 2013).

Race: only four identifiable groups: White/Caucasian, Black/African American, Hispanic, or other (Lane & Kuhn, 2013).

Assumptions

In a quantitative inquiry, there are four traditional philosophical assumptions: (a) positivist, (b) postpositivist, (c) postmodernism, (d) pragmatism. Postpositivist argues that it is arduous for a researcher to remain objective in scientific research. The rationale is simple; postpositivism is focused on the theory of fallibility whereas positivism is focused on “verification” of the theory being researched (Ivory, 2006). Furthermore, postpositivism assumes that researchers may come within some inch of reality but could never fully understand or know the extent of what is truly reality (Ivory, 2006). The assumption is not the verification of the theoretical framework but rather to gain knowledge of how racial socialization and fear of crime impact a citizen’s decision to support or reject SYG laws or employ the use of deadly force.

Ontological Assumption

The ontological assumptions of postpositivism are rooted in what or how the researcher view as reality. Ivory (2006) posited that postpositivism does not seek to validate a theory but reveal the fallibility of such theory; research alone can only reveal

what individuals perceive to know as factual and further signifies that our methods can be flawed (i.e., subject or researcher bias).

The ontological assumption about critical race theory is that racial socialization is praxis for racial discrimination in the criminal justice system (Burt, Simons, & Gibbons, 2012). The research philosophy considers the fear of crime to be part of the racialization of crime (Mears & Stewart, 2009). Both assumptions rest in findings from Callanan (2012), who stated that fear of crime could be linked to other environmental stimuli such as media portrayals that lead to socialization in general. Thus, the assumption in this study was that those who reside in SYG states might have a higher fear of crime and negative racial socialization practices.

Epistemological Assumption

The study of knowledge (epistemology) or how the researcher obtains such knowledge has deep assumptions in postpositivism. This epistemological paradigm hinges on “dualism/objectivism” in respects to what the participant may know and what the researcher is seeking to know (Ponterotto, 2005). The researcher influences what knowledge needs to be gained in any field of study (Ponterotto, 2005); this assumption relies on the inability for one to remain objective. The epistemological assumption is that racialization is the core component of critical race theory and that parents socialize their children about their specific culture and that of society, which could foster fear of crime or racism (Harrell, 2000; Thomas & Blackmon, 2014).

Axiological Assumption

The axiological assumption for research is objectivity and is open to allowing the data to guide suggestions for future research. Positivism posits that, in science, the researcher must remain objective (Ponterotto, 2005). However, postpositivism values the objectivity in research but further assumes that no one can remain completely objective (Ivory, 2006); that is, the researcher chooses what theory or issue they wish to prove or disprove, and they are responsible for the interpretation of the data obtained. Essentially, the researcher places their emotions or feelings into their research question. When evaluating the relationship between fear of crime and racial socialization by the utility of critical race theory, the philosophical assumption is that the research would show bias in or a degree of subjectivity if they are directly affected by some component of their research parameters.

Methodological Assumption

The methodological assumption in quantitative research is the adherence to strict regulations for scientific inquiry. Essentially, a theory is required to guide the research, and the design must be logical and practical. An identifiable strength of postpositivism is the assumption of strict methodology in research; even though there is the inevitability that no one can remain entirely objective, the researcher assumes and adheres to strict scientific methodology (Ponterotto, 2005). Through the principles of falsification or attempts of disproving a theory is the foundation for researchers to create a scope of potential questions to answer (Crossan, 2003). The methodological assumption for the

research is that the Response to Suspicious Person survey created by Lane and Kuhn (2013) was consistent with the purpose of the research study.

Scope and Delimitations

This study examined, to what extent does a relationship exist between racial socialization and fear of crime in states with and without SYG laws. The problem is focused on the increased racial disparities in SYG victims and the increase in homicides. The focus on racial socialization and fear of crime aligns with critical race theory and contact theory in the context of what appears to be state-sanctioned violence. Policy learning theory aligns with CRT and CT in respects to how neighboring states may choose to enact SYG laws or not. Because this study built upon prior research utilizing a modified version of Lane and Kuhn's (2013) assessment tool, there was a potential threat to internal validity.

Validity is the concept of truth, measuring the accuracy of findings from a research study (Burkholder et al., 2016). The concept of internal validity refers to how well one variable changes another variable, and external validity references how well the study's design may be implemented across other studies and yield similar results (Burkholder et al., 2016). There are a plethora of threats to internal and external validity. For example, history—the concept in which events during a study are present and alter the participant's responses (Burkholder et al., 2016)—can threaten the internal validity of a quantitative research study. One may mitigate this threat by adhering to the APA Ethics Code (2010) and other Ethical Guidelines that steer social science research.

As Babbie (2017) purported, the participation of subjects is disruptive to their everyday lives which need to be taken into consideration. By considering what events are transpiring in the participants' lives, then the threat to internal validity can be mitigated. Treatment variations can threaten the external validity of a research study. One consideration of the researcher is the context in which participants are subjected. For ethical purposes, the context of the study must be considered as well as what variables are studied. For example, this study examined whether a relationship existed between racial socialization and fear of crime between four states, Florida, Maryland, North Carolina, and Virginia; participants pooled may have different racial and ethnic identities other than those accepted in the American culture. This diversity can impact the replicability of this study in other countries.

Participants for the current study was limited to either current or past residents (within 15 years) of Florida, Maryland, North Carolina or Virginia, 18 years and older, and cannot be related to an SYG defendant or victim. Additional exclusionary criteria are persons who fostered law enforcement or attorney roles within SYG cases. Since this study built upon previous research, the limitation of Lane and Kuhn (2013) was population size, location, and variety of participants. Furthermore, once data collection began, the sample for Florida and Virginia were minuscule; hence, the survey was opened to two more SYG and non-SYG states (Maryland and North Carolina). Thus, this study expanded the population and location to ensure the generalizability of the findings.

Potential Limitations

There were several potential limitations of the current study. The first limitation was that of sampling and recruitment. Participants were recruited from Facebook groups, Twitter, LinkedIn, and Instagram; these social media groups were explicitly designed for research. The limitation of recruitment from social media was that of informed consent and willingness to participate. Another potential limitation was the sample size. An additional potential limitation was that the assessment tool utilized had only been utilized in Lane and Kuhn's 2013 study which calls into question the reliability of the tool. Lastly, a limitation of this study was the assumption that participants are actual residents of the inclusion states (Florida, Maryland, North Carolina, and Virginia).

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study was to provide recommendations for legislatures in reforming SYG laws. This study built on the research of Lane and Kuhn (2013) that found gender mattered in situations like the Trayvon Martin case, and males were more likely to respond with deadly force than females. Conducting a quantitative causal-comparative study using Florida, Maryland, North Carolina, and Virginia residents as a population may add new knowledge on the relationship between racial socialization and fear of crime. This original contribution intended to provide criminologists, policymakers, and scholars with findings that can help protect the health of minority citizens and close the gap on racial disparities in SYG defenses and victims. The findings from the current study can lead to positive social change by providing empirical data to legislatures to reform the SYG laws which appear to imply state-sanctioned violence.

Summary

Since the enactment of SYG laws, there seems to be an increase of state-sanctioned violence by citizens in SYG states. The problem is that as the laws are written, they appear to sanction violence and absolve citizens from being held liable from prosecution when they are imbued with reasonable fear (Cheng & Hoekstra, 2013; Roman, 2013). This problematic law appears to incite social turmoil and adversely affects minority citizens and others. The current study sought to answer the following research questions: (a) What, if any, relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in Florida?; (b) What, if any, relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in Virginia?; and (c) What, if any, relationship exists between race, gender, and SYG defense? It was hypothesized that citizens in states with SYG laws might respond to the assessment tool with higher levels of fear of crime and racial socialization. It was also hypothesized that gender and race moderate racial socialization and fear of crime. The findings from this study can provide positive social change for local communities and state legislatures by providing recommendations for policy reformation.

Chapter 2 presents an evaluation of the gaps in the literature along with an examination of the foundational study upon which this study is built. Chapter 3 provides an in-depth discussion of the methodology. Chapter 4 provides the results of the study. Lastly, chapter 5 provides discussion and proffers recommendations for positive social change.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

There is a problem in the criminal justice system of an increase in the number of individuals not prosecuted for homicides under the SYG defense, coupled with the significant increase in racial disparities among the victims (Ackerman et al., 2015; ABA, 2015; Barnes, 2015; Gius, 2016; McClellan & Tekin, 2017). This current problem appears to imply state-sanctioned violence (ABA, 2015; Butz et al., 2015). The purpose of this quantitative causal-comparative study was to expand upon previous research conducted by Kuhn and Lane (2013) by examining a relationship between racial socialization and fear of crime in states with SYG laws compared to non-SYG states.

Racism is a concept that is most evident in the criminal justice system. "The toxin of racism that runs through the veins of society has yet to find an antidote" (Harrell, 2000, p. 42). This statement accentuates the problem of increased homicides perpetrated against minority males by their Caucasian counterparts who claim their right to use deadly force under SYG laws in states such as Florida. Furthermore, the problem has guided the literature for myriad reasons. First, since the inception of the contemporary American criminal justice system, there seems to be a disproportionate representation of minority citizens as criminals and victims. Secondly, self-defense laws appear to imply state-sanctioned violence due to significant racial disparities among victims and those who can successfully invoke such laws. Lastly, research reveals that racial socialization and fear of crime may impact an individual's decision to invoke SYG defenses (Lane & Kuhn, 2013). However, what is not known, is whether social determinants such as racial

socialization and fear of crime impact an individual's decision to employ deadly force in self-defense or support legislation such as SYG laws.

The problem highlighted in the literature is that SYG states have an increase in homicides (Cheng & Hoekstra, 2013; Butz et al., 2015; Gius, 2016; Mack & Roberts-Lewis, 2016; McClellan & Tekin, 2017; Ren et al., 2015; Roman, 2013) with racial disparities amongst the victims (Ackerman et al., 2016; Berenguer, 2017; Gius, 2016; McClellan & Tekin, 2017; Roman, 2013). Several themes arose in the literature and are discussed in the next section as well as a background of the problem. A meticulous and thorough literature review on racial socialization practices, fear of crime, and SYG laws and crime was completed; and Figure 1 shows the relationship of the literature and SYG laws.



Figure 1. Themes in the literature in relation to SYG laws.

Since the inception of this controversial piece of legislature, the researchers suggested implied state-sanctioned violence (Berenguer, 2017; Butz et al., 2016), vigilante-style justice (Megale, 2013), and an increase in racial disparities in homicides (Cheng & Hoekstra, 2013; Mack & Roberts-Lewis, 2016; Ren et al., 2015; Roman, 2013). This social problem calls for positive social change. The study's theoretical foundation employed Bell's (1989) critical race theory (Bell, 1995), Allport's (1954) contact theory (Ackerman et al., 2015), and Bennet and Howell's (1992) policy learning theory (Tamtik, 2016). In this chapter, an analysis of the literature is presented, as well as, how the study addressed the gaps in the literature. Lastly, a summation of how the study can enact positive social change within the criminal justice system is being presented.

Literature Review Strategy

For the current study, the literature was first searched through Google Scholar and Walden University databases utilizing the following search terms: *castle doctrine expansion, Stand Your Ground laws and crime, Stand Your Ground and race, racial socialization and fear of crime, fear of crime and self-defense laws, critical race theory and stand your ground, SYG and theory, contact theory and crime, policy learning theory and stand your ground*. Article search terms spanned from 2006-2018. Current dissertations on SYG laws were reviewed, and their sources were data mined. The searches yielded over 100 studies, of which 90 were most relevant to the topic.

Theoretical Framework

The purpose of the current study is to examine whether a relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in SYG states compared to non-SYG states. The literature presented numerous theories to explain the phenomenon of what appears to be state-sanctioned violence with racial disparities (Ackerman et al., 2015; Berenguer, 2017; Butz et al., 2015). However, Bell's critical race theory (Bell, 1995), Allport's contact theory (Ackerman et al., 2015), and Bennett and Howell's policy learning theory (Tamtik, 2016) are more appropriate for the current study. Figure 2 shows how the three theories are in alignment with racial socialization and fear of crime and the enactment of SYG legislation. The following sections present each theory as they guided the current study.



Figure 2. Theories guiding racial socialization and fear of crime in enacting SYG legislation.

Critical Race Theory

Critical race theory (CRT) was created from critical legal studies that sought to analyze and address the evident racism in the criminal justice system (Bell, 1995). CRT

postulates that social injustices within the criminal justice system are evident and met with distrust by minority citizens (Bell, 1995; Paul-Emile, 2015; Delgado & Stefanic, 2017). American jurisprudence appears to have been beleaguered by racism; CRT postulates that racism is customary and warrants a radical approach (Delgado & Stefanic, 2017). For this study, CRT was the crux for addressing and proffering solutions to criminal justice legislation.

In 1989, Derrick Bell became known as the father of CRT, even though several other lawyers (Allan Freeman and Richard Delgado) and researchers contributed to its creation. The basic tenets of CRT are (a) racism is ordinary, not aberrational, (b) interest convergence or material determinism, and (c) social construction (Delgado & Stefanic, 2017). Bell (1995) noted that the key components of CRT are through narratives of minorities; they provide insight and foundation of ways to enact positive social change. To first understand how CRT aligns with the current study, one must examine how each tenet relates to the current research problem.

Racism is Ordinary, Not Aberrational. This tenet of CRT postulates that the ordinariness of racism within the criminal justice system makes it arduous to address (Delgado & Stefanic, 2017). In other words, racial disparities in SYG defenses and victims of the defense are evident in current research (Berenguer, 2017; Mack & Roberts-Lewis, 2016; Roman, 2013); yet, legislatures have not presented a remedy to such disparities. Racism as a common component of the criminal justice system is the

foundation for the current study's attempt to proffer recommendations for positive social change.

Interest Convergence or Material Determinism. The second tenet of CRT presents the interest of the elite (materially) and the working class (psychically) in which these citizens have no incentive for eradicating racism within the justice system (Delgado & Stefanic, 2017). This tenet provides insight into citizens' decisions to support or reject SYG laws. In other words, if the majority of voting citizens are not considered the oppressed group, then the support for laws that do not impact such persons are more likely to be passed.

Social Construction. Rose (2017) examined SYG cases through the lens of CRT and found that applying this theory to evidentiary hearings, African Americans testimonies are traditionally excluded. The findings suggest that CRT can be applied to SYG defenses and proffer an understanding of how racial tenets apply. Furthermore, CRT advocates the need to supply work that translates the experiences of African Americans that are disproportionately more likely to be a victim into data (Barnes, 2015). In other words, African Americans are not only disproportionately represented in the criminal justice system but also SYG cases as well. CRT was the crux of the current study and can guide the study in conjunction with the contact theory (CT) and policy learning theory (PLT).

Contact Theory

Gordon Allport's contact hypothesis (CT) stated that individuals form prejudices about other racial groups based on their first contact (Allport 1979), whether negative or positive interactions (Aberson, 2015). This hypothesis evolved into the contact theory and branched to subgroups. The theoretical foundation of the current study examined the basic tenets of the contact hypothesis in the context of racial socialization and fear of crime. Ackerman et al., (2015) utilized contact theory and found that citizens who employed the SYG defense, are more likely to have been influenced by the negative portrayal of minority citizens.

Social interactions with minority groups can either reinforce preconceived notions about that group or destroy them (Ackerman et al., 2015). This theory is crucial to the theoretical framework, as it provides an understanding of social justice determinants such as the concept of white fear. By examining a problem through the CT lens, it is assumed to provide an understanding of the phenomena studied. This phenomenon has warranted further exploration as to exactly how socialization practices may influence one's decision to employ deadly force when positioned in situations similar to the Trayvon Martin case (Lane & Kuhn, 2013). Some researchers have contended that PLT can help explain why some states have enacted SYG laws (Butz et al., 2015; Tamtik, 2016).

Policy Learning Theory

PLT posits that states can learn from other states in making legislative reforms through social learning tenets (Butz, Fix, & Mitchell, 2015; Tamtik, 2016). The most

accepted version of PLT is Bennett and Howlett (1992) version, which differentiated government learning from lesson-drawing to social learning. The basic tenets of PLT purport that policy, and legislative reforms are learned when other states enact changes (Tamtik, 2016). In other words, when legislative pieces such as SYG laws are passed, neighboring states may follow or reject.

SYG laws originated in Florida but have since spread to 23 other states. Butz et al., (2015) applied PLT to their study on policy diffusion of SYG laws, and found an effect was observed in the South. The results from the study suggested that policymaking in the South is a response to perceived threats of violence and crime from minorities which led to policy changes for social control (Butz et al., 2015). Social factors such as racial socialization appeared to be factors that can impact radical policy changes.

Significance to Study

CRT is the praxis for racial tension within the legal system. The theoretical foundation for the study can proffer solutions to the problem of SYG laws implying state-sanctioned violence. CT and PLT support the CRT framework by acknowledging how confounding factors (like racism) are perpetuated by social and environmental factors such as socialization practices and media portrayals of ethnic groups. These theoretical underpinnings guided the current study in examining whether a relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in states with and without SYG laws.

Implications of State-Sanctioned Violence

Lobbyists generally spur legislative pieces such as SYG laws without understanding the implications or consequences the laws impose on society. The findings between SYG laws, race, and crime are mixed, which suggests further exploration of the issue. Hundley (2012) found that approximately in one-third of cases the defendant (SYG defense) initiated the fight, shot an unarmed person, or pursued their victim; those individuals were set free. In respects to racial disparity, Hundley (2012) found that when cases involved a white shooter and a black victim, the shooter successfully fell under the SYG law and went free.

Roman (2013) found what he coined, Martin-Zimmerman Attributes through an analysis of the FBI Uniformed Crime Reports. The presented attributes were characteristic of cases invoking SYG defense and constituted 42.31% of the cases examined (Roman, 2013). That meant that each case had the following: homicide is justified, single shooter, a single victim, both males, strangers not acquaintances, and a firearm was utilized.

Mack and Roberts-Lewis (2016) observed Martin-Zimmerman attributes and uncovered a 200% increase in homicides in Florida alone. Furthermore, states with the expanded SYG laws saw a 53% increase in justified homicides whereas states without the expanded laws saw a 5% decrease (Mack & Roberts-Lewis, 2016). Ren et al. (2015) yielded similar results implying that SYG laws did reduce crime such as burglaries, but they also increased homicides in Texas upon implementation. The rhetoric of the SYG

laws further supports the assumption of state-sanctioned violence and vigilante-style justice.

Berenguer (2017) stated that SYG laws are reflective of societal attitudes. Essentially, it can be implied that citizens who foster racist ideologies are more likely to invoke their right under SYG laws than their minority counterpart. Headly and Alkadry (2016) further supported this assumption based on their findings which reflected a disproportionate rate of Caucasian SYG defendants and their minority victims. Thus, this study examined whether a relationship existed between racial socialization and fear of crime in states with and without SYG laws. The implications of the current study's findings can guide in policy reformation.

State-Sanctioned Violence and Vigilante Style Justice

In a recent SYG case, the shooting death of Markeis McGlockton, the attorney for the family speculated that the SYG law is a license to kill (McLaughlin, 2018). This statement further supports the implications of researchers who purport the law implies state sanctioning violence (Berenguer, 2017; Butz et al., 2015). Research has suggested that policymakers in the South respond to the racially symbolic notion of criminality and a perceived need for social control (Butz et al., 2015). The assumption is that through policy diffusion, moral politics have been absolved and can account for the decisions to enact laws similar to SYG laws (Butz et al., 2015). Thus, PLT guides the research on understanding whether relationships exist between social determinants and race in states with SYG laws.

Some scholars purport that the way the laws are written they suggest vigilante style justice (Megale, 2013). Since the national case of Trayvon Martin, there has been an increase of several other high profile cases invoking the SYG defense. The attention to these cases is imperative, as they provide an understanding of why one would employ deadly force. Furthermore, the attention to the National cases on SYG defense can help to push for legislative reform.

In July 2018, another high profiled SYG case sparked a national outcry. In an argument over an accessible parking spot, Drejka instigated an altercation with Markeis McGlockton which ended in the shooting death of McGlockton (Jacobs, 2018). Drejka was not arrested, because he invoked SYG defense. McGlockton had pushed Drejka away from the car causing Drejka to fall to the ground. McGlockton was retreating, and Drejka pulled his gun and shot him (Jacobs, 2018). Drejka's decision to employ deadly force appears to stem from vigilantism. Drejka, a Caucasian male, approached McGlockton's car where his pregnant girlfriend was waiting and began to accost her verbally (Jacobs, 2018). Drejka's actions appear to align with vigilantism as he attempted to enforce the illegal parking in an accessible parking spot. The goal of the current study is to examine whether social determinants impact one's decision to employ deadly force.

SYG laws require a person to prove reasonable fear, as to why deadly force was utilized. The rhetoric has plagued researchers attempting to determine if a person can use their bare fist rather than a gun, then are they in imminent danger (Guis, 2016). Guis (2016) argued that the issue with the rhetoric might be attributed to other social and

environmental factors. By utility of CRT, implied vigilantism is attributed to the lack of convictions of previous SYG defendants such as George Zimmerman. In the Martin-Zimmerman case, Zimmerman was told to stop following Martin and stand down. Zimmerman's vigilantism was evident when he engaged Martin, after failing to comply with the 911 operator's commands. Barnes (2015) suggested that CRT advocates the need for research to supply work that can translate experiences such as Martin-Zimmerman into actionable data. Furthermore, the research needs to present more positive recommendations for legislative changes.

Media Portrayal

Lawson (2012) suggested that the reason for such racial disparity in the SYG cases is due to the public's opinion of young African American males; that is, the media portrays males who dress a certain way as ghetto or thugs. No research to date has analyzed whether race plays a role in an individual's decision to utilize an SYG defense. Furthermore, no research to date has analyzed the impact of the SYG laws on race relations. Callanan (2012) found that fear of crime is higher amongst victims, women, African Americans, and Latinos. The findings suggested that media consumption plays a role in an individual's perception of fear of crime.

Ren, Zhang, and Zhao (2015) proffered that the implementation of the SYG laws would result in a decline of burglaries based on the fear of being shot and killed. Their research revealed that the SYG laws had no significant impact on burglaries before the Horn shooting in Texas; however, after the publicized trial, there was a significant

decrease in burglaries. Conversely, Cheng and Hoekstra (2013) found no link to crime reduction in SYG states, although findings did support an increase in homicide rates.

Research does not dispute that African American males shoot one another more often than they shoot Caucasians or any other race, but that Caucasians who kill African American males are more often protected under the SYG law (Lawson, 2012; Roman, 2013). These disparities required further exploration as to whether they foster a relationship with racial socialization or fear of crime.

Racial Socialization Practices and SYG

The United States has an extensive history of violence and the right to defend one's property, self, and others (Cheng & Hoekstra, 2013); yet, as our society continues to evolve, our policies continue to border on what is a social and what is a legal problem. In other words, our policies cause more social turmoil than legal issues (Berenguer, 2017). With the expansion of such laws, the literature revealed that the law might exacerbate racial disparities in crime and shape racial socialization (Thomas & Blackmon, 2014). Purdie-Vaughns and Williams (2015) purported that racial biases about African Americans have increased within society, warranting further research on how to reduce systematic and institutional forms of racism (p. 342). The research on socialization identified how parents transmit to their children the message of race and crime against them (Thomas & Blackmon, 2014); this insight proffers the necessity to explore further how racial socialization and fear of crime are related in states that have expanded SYG laws compared to non-SYG states.

Socialization provides children with an understanding of their culture and how to operate in society. Catalfamo (2007) posited that SYG laws are more warranted in the south because of the moral codes of Southern society, in which social construct dictates a man's dignity is to be protected, and what better way than being able to protect one's castle without the duty to retreat. This assumption is the underpinning of socialization and could provide insight or clarity as to how different states (with or without SYG laws) may view racial socialization and fear of crime. Society and culture shape a person's understanding of the world, and through this process, one is conditioned to adhere to cultural norms.

Another reoccurring theme in the literature suggests examining racial socialization as a social determinant of why Caucasians are more likely to invoke SYG defense against their minority counterparts. Socialization, in general, is the process by which parents teach children cultural norms and values; effective socialization teaches a child to function in society (Burt, Simons, and Gibbons, 2012). However, when socialization fosters bias or prejudices about another racial or ethnic group, then it is assumed that racism against the minority group is inevitable. Hagerman (2016) studied racial socialization amongst affluent white fathers raising anti-racist children and found that the fathers in this study were aware of their socialization processes.

The concept of racial socialization can be defined as the process by which African American parents condition their children to be aware of their culture and to cope with racism (Hughes et al., 2006) as well as managing against physical violence (Thomas &

Blackmon, 2014). Furthermore, Purdie-Vaughns and Williams (2015) posited that racism and the American norms in SYG states cause a health concern for African Americans and the legal system's racial disparities, thus warranting further research. Megale (2013) provided a foundation on how to avoid situations similar to the Trayvon Martin case. This information in the literature identified gaps such as understanding other social factors which contribute to crime and race disparities. The problem with socialization is if there is a negative portrayal of a specific group such as African Americans, then parents are more likely to socialize their children to be aware of their specific culture rather than the American culture itself (Thomas & Blackmon, 2014). These ideologies were examined in the current study on racial socialization practices and fear of crime in states with and without SYG laws.

The literature on social determinants of SYG defenses has been confounded. However, from a review on SYG laws and racial socialization, Megale (2013) and Purdie-Vaughn and Williams (2015) posited that research must focus on social and environmental factors to avoid potential situations similar to Trayvon Martin case. One crucial variable to consider in this context is one's level of fear of crime. Fear of crime determinants is important variables to consider in the current study.

Fear of Crime Determinants

Fear of crime levels can affect one's socialization or social integration into society (Zhao, Lawton, and Longmire, 2015). These findings contradict the findings from other studies (Thomas & Blackmon, 2014). Both studies suggest that a relationship exists

between both racial socialization and fear of crime. By examining these relationships in the context of SYG states, one can add to the extant literature on what is not known; whether fear of crime in the context of burglary or assault and one's racial socialization impacts one's decision to invoke the SYG defense.

The concept of fear of crime for this study was conceptualized and operationalized as an emotional reaction characterized by a sense of danger and anxiety (Garofalo, 1981) to encompass the perception of likelihood of victimization (Lorenc et al., 2012), and the environmental cues that spur the perception of physical harm (Garofalo, 1981; Lorenc et al., 2012). Researchers studying fear of crime has focused much on victimization, gender, and age differences (Hinkle, 2015; Lorenc et al., 2012; Mears & Stewart, 2010), and it has yet to look at other environmental factors which contribute to fear of crime or how it impacts racial disparities in crime. Researchers have presented findings to suggests gender differences in fear of crime and crime itself, supporting that woman tend to be more fearful (Hinkle, 2015). However, the question is whether men foster similar fear of crime when racially socialized to fear other ethnic or racial groups? The current research aimed to add to the extant literature on fear of crime by looking at the relationship between both processes.

Our fear of crime levels can affect our socialization or social integration in society. Zhao, Lawton, and Longmire (2015) proposed that our level of fear of crime can affect our socialization. These findings contradict the notion that socialization could affect our level of fear of crime (Thomas & Blackmon, 2014). Both studies provide an

idea that a relationship exists between both racial socialization and fear of crime. The key to the current research was to evaluate whether this relationship exists and does it impact how citizens perceive their right to defend.

The fear of crime can be attributed to several key factors: environment, past victimization, and socialization (Ross, 1993). Ross (1993) determined that even though past victimization can attribute to a higher level of fear of crime, it is also assumed that community context, social control, and socialization can attribute to higher levels of fear of crime. These findings are congruent with Groche, Devalve, and Quinn (2012) who posited that fear of crime is more likely to be higher in areas with social discourse and deteriorating communities. Both studies found that African Americans have a lower level of fear of crime than their Caucasian counterparts. These findings are substantial to the current study in which literature on SYG laws and crime suggest racial disparities amongst SYG defendant and their victim.

Conversely, Callanan (2012) asserted that fear of crime is higher amongst victims, women, African Americans, and Latinos. These findings imply that media consumption plays a role in an individual's perception of fear of crime. The literature fails to look at other environmental and social factors which can contribute to fear of crime and racial socialization in states with SYG laws. Kuhn and Lane (2013) were the first to look at racial socialization and fear of crime in a state with the SYG laws (Florida). The implications from the study suggest that research needs to understand further whether there is a positive relationship between racial socialization, race, and fear of crime in

states with SYG laws. These findings can further aid stakeholders in legislation reformation. Kuhn and Lane's (2013) study further guided this study and was the foundation for evaluating both racial socialization and fear of crime.

Legislative Responses

ABA Recommendation

The ABA completed a report in 2015 to evaluate the impact of the SYG laws. The recommendations were to reform the rhetoric within the legislation. As written, the language is vague as to what constitutes reasonable fear. The vagueness of the rhetoric can cause citizens to misconstrue their rights to defend under such laws. Below are the five major findings from the report:

1. SYG states experienced a significant increase in homicides.
2. Multiple states attempted to repeal or amend SYG laws.
3. Application of SYG laws was unpredictable, uneven, and resulted in racial disparities.
4. Individual's right to self-defense was sufficiently protected before SYG laws.
5. Victims' rights are undermined in states with statutory immunity from criminal prosecution and civil suits related to SYG cases.

These findings were presented and disseminated to state legislatures with the recommendations for states to reform the SYG laws as they cause more damage than their intended outcome (ABA, 2015). There was a lack of legislative reform since the report's dissemination. It was not until the McGlockton case in 2018 that five members

of Congress called for the Justice Department to investigate (Jacobs, 2018). Six years after Trayvon Martin, three years following the ABA report, over 240 SYG cases in Florida alone, and another shooting death of an unarmed African American male, legislatures finally call for an investigation into the SYG laws. The lack of response is what makes this current study most warranted, not just for a social change but the protection of all citizens, especially African American males.

Building Upon Previous Research

This study built upon previous research conducted by Lane and Kuhn (2013). The implications and recommendations for future research are addressed in the current study. Lane and Kuhn (2013) examined if racial socialization and fear of crime predicted reactions in situations similar to Trayvon Martin. The sample utilized the University of Florida students in criminal justice discipline. It was hypothesized that race and gender would foster a relationship when encountered with a suspicious male. Lane and Kuhn (2013) created the Response to Suspicious Person survey, which comprised of 36 questions related to six different scenarios similar to the Martin-Zimmerman case. Students were asked a series of questions on racial socialization practices and levels of fear of crime. Findings support the fear of crime literature that females are more likely to retreat and avoid defensive behaviors. However, race did not play a role in how participants responded to the scenarios. The authors did suggest that future research design for causal conclusions (causal-comparative design) and pool participants in different locations with a larger sample size. Thus, this study built upon Lane and Kuhn's research and employed a quantitative inquiry with a causal-comparative design.

Summary and Conclusion

The current study examined whether a relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in states with and without SYG laws. The literature demonstrated mixed findings on crime in SYG states (Megale, 2013; Roman, 2013; Ren et al., 2012), but it determined racial disparities in crime and sentencing in SYG states (Jones, 2014; Mack & Roberts-Lewis, 2016; Roman, 2013); that racial socialization is linked to crime and race disparities (Thomas & Blackmon, 2015); the fear of crime literature showed positive relationships between crime, fear of crime, and gender (Hinkle, 2015; Lorenc et al., 2012; Mears & Stewart, 2010). However, the literature failed to reveal whether there is a positive relationship between racial socialization and the fear of crime.

Ackermann et al. (2015) and Scarborough et al. (2010) implications for future research should focus on environmental factors which contribute to racial disparities in SYG defenses, especially why certain individuals respond or engage in SYG and non-SYG states. Cheng and Hoekstra (2013) noticed that homicides increased and other crimes such as assaults and burglary decreased; however, the authors suggested that looking at the public's perception of SYG laws could help understand such disparities. Ford and Airhihenbuwa (2010) and Ackerman et al. (2015) both indicated the importance of further research on racial disparities and crime, especially considering homicides are considered a public health issue. The stakeholders are the citizens, more specifically parents of minority children, community leaders, legislators, and criminologists.

Fear of crime has deep roots within criminology and warrants further research; as society evolves, laws continue to evolve. Even with such an evolving system, racial disparities arise. The question is whether there is a relationship between fear of crime and racial socialization and whether there is a relationship between those variables in states that enact SYG laws. Lobbyists, such as the NRA, seem to play a role in pushing for the expansion of the Castle Doctrine laws (Mack & Roberts-Lewis, 2016; Megale, 2013); thus, to add to the extant literature, it is relevant to know whether a relationship exists between the fear of crime and racial socialization in states with the expansion of such laws. In return, this knowledge can aid policymakers, community leaders, and aid citizens being aware of their rights under the SYG laws.

Overall, the literature on SYG laws, race, and crime have focused on data obtained from public records such as the Tampa Bay Times (Ackermann et al. 2015) or the Uniformed Crime Reports (Ackermann et al., 2015; Gius, 2016; Roman, 2013); thus, ethical concerns arise not with human participants and their protection but that of reporting the findings from the study (Ryan, 2016). The literature review provides a multidimensional view of the current problem: racial disparities in SYG defenses. The current study evaluated whether a positive relationship existed between racial socialization, race, and fear of crime in states with the SYG laws compared to their counterparts.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative, causal-comparative study was to explore the relationships between racial socialization and fear of crime in states with and without SYG laws. Furthermore, this study built upon previous research conducted by Lane and Kuhn (2013) and examined whether race and gender moderates an individual's decision to employ deadly force. Rudestam and Newton (2015) proffered that creating logic models or diagrams can help one to organize and create a research design. This suggestion helped to organize and guide the design of the current study. Thus, the purpose of this quantitative causal-comparative design is to examine whether, if any, a relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in states with SYG laws compared to other states. In this chapter, the research questions, design, rationale, and methodology are presented.

Research Design and Rationale

When seeking the examination of a relationship between multiple groups with independent variables (IVs) that cannot be manipulated, and their impact on the dependent variable (DV) (racial socialization and fear of crime); a causal-comparative design is most applicable. The rationale for choosing the causal-comparative design is attributed to the complexity of the IVs impact on the DVs and their outcome in SYG states. Furthermore, the causal-comparative design is most suitable when exploring the relationships between groups (Schenker & Rumrill, 2004). By examining the relationships between variables and outcome of SYG laws, aligns with the current

problem statement, purpose, and research questions. The IVs are states (Florida, Maryland, North Carolina, and Virginia) with covariates, race, and gender. The DVs are racial socialization and fear of crime scores from the survey created by Lane and Kuhn (2013).

In consideration of the time constraints, the surveys were posted in several Facebook groups designed for helping doctoral students obtain their target sample. Also, social media sites such as Instagram, LinkedIn, and Twitter was used as a platform for recruitment. This approach also allows for anonymity and avoid confidentiality issues. This design choice helped to answer and advance what is not known about an individual's choice to employ deadly force in states with SYG laws compared to non-SYG laws. The research design aligns with answering the research questions and while examining the relationships between racial socialization, fear of crime, and race of participants.

Methodology

Population

The target populations were men and women aged 18 years and older, who resided in either Florida, North Carolina, Maryland, or Virginia. The rationale for this sample size is based on the future implications described in the research in which this study tends to build upon (Lane & Kuhn, 2013). The suggestion was to expand the population to include the general population and not just University students. Covariates in the current study were race and gender; thus, the choice to sample both males and females is necessary. The sampling frame required participants to be a resident of either

Virginia, Maryland, North Carolina, or Florida and at least 18 years of age. Participants were excluded if they are a family member of an SYG defendant or victim. The inclusion and exclusion criterion was to ensure participants were comfortable with answering the scenario questions on the assessment tool created by Lane and Kuhn (2013).

Sample Size

The sample size was calculated by G-Power 3.0 and Table 1 presents the suggestive sample. It was expected that there would be a large effect size (0.40), with an alpha of .05, and power of .95 (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). This assumption was based on the expected difference between Virginia, Maryland, North Carolina, and Florida participant's levels of racial socialization and fear of crime. The suggested sample size is 162 participants. An ANCOVA was based on the design, in which the comparison is of two different groups; Salkind (2010) proffered this analysis necessary for sampling. This analysis tool was used in choosing the sample size to mitigate the potential threat to internal validity (Salkind, 2010).

Table 1

G-power a Priori Computation of Sample Size

F tests - ANCOVA: Fixed effects, main effects, and interactions		
Analysis:	A priori: Compute the required sample size	
Input:	Effect size f	= 0.40
	α err prob	= 0.05
	Power (1- β err prob)	= 0.95
	Numerator df	= 10
	Number of groups	= 2
	Number of covariates	= 2
Output:	Noncentrality parameter λ	= 25.9200000
	Critical F	= 1.8910679
	Denominator df	= 158
	Total sample size	= 162
	Actual power	= 0.9508764

Sampling Technique

Drost (2011) suggested that when quantifying human behavior, it fosters an empirical, analytical approach in which reliability and validity are warranted. The sampling technique must be strengthened with the convergence of another for purposes of addressing the research question, to maintain such an assumption, The sampling strategy that employed is probability sampling, clustering technique. The rationale for this choice was based on the pooling of participants from four specific locations, Virginia, Maryland, North Carolina, and Florida, which was inclusion criteria for this study. The clustering sampling technique is designed to look at groups of individuals (Teddlie & Yu, 2012), such as residents of either an SYG or non SYG states.

Procedures for Recruitment

The recruitment for this study was posted on five Facebook groups dedicated to helping researchers find participants; as well as, LinkedIn, Twitter, and Instagram. The assessment scenario designed by Lane and Kuhn (2013) was being uploaded to Survey Monkey; the link was posted in the Facebook groups and social media platforms. Participants were provided informed consent and explained that their participation was voluntary. To protect participants' identity, they were required to provide the first two letters of their last name, and birthday. This combination ensured anonymity while keeping track of the participants involved in the study.

Participants answered several demographic questions and the modified assessment scenario. Once participants completed the survey, a debriefing statement and

a list of counseling resources for any persons who feel extreme discomfort from the scenario was presented. The rationale for providing resources was that the assessment scenarios are similar to that of the Trayvon Martin case, and Lane and Kuhn (2013) found that some participants experienced discomfort from the study. Thus, it is ethical to provide contact information for counseling resources for participants.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

The current study built upon previous research and utilized an assessment tool created by Lane and Kuhn (2013) Response to Suspicious Persons; the authors provided permission to use and modify the assessment tool via email communications. To date, there are no other studies that have utilized the assessment tool. The expectations from the current study were to validate the assessment tool and expound upon the lack of knowledge.

The dependent variables of racial socialization and fear of crime were measured based on the scores from the Response to Suspicious Persons assessment tool. The assessment tool had 15 items that asked participants how their parents engaged them in racial socialization behaviors. The 15 items were broken into three racial socialization scales: cultural socialization (7 items), preparation for bias (6 items), and promotion of mistrust (2 items) (Lane & Kuhn, 2013).

Fear of crime was operationalized based on seven items, which were broken into two fear of crime scales: property crime (2 items) and violent crime (5 items). Also, there were six hypothetical scenarios created to assess the fear of crime and knowledge of SYG

laws (Lane & Kuhn, 2013). Participants were only asked to read one scenario that has a black male assailant for the sake of time.

In respects to the independent variables, SYG states were operationalized as a state with expanded Castle Doctrine laws, which allows the use of deadly force when imbued with fear. Non-SYG states were operationalized as states that do not have expanded Castle Doctrine laws. The covariates were race and gender, and are operationalized to ensure inclusion of all persons within Virginia, Maryland, North Carolina, and Florida participant pool. Ethnicity was broken down into four responses: black/African American, white/Caucasian American, Hispanic, or Other. Gender, although considered to be a dichotomous variable, was classified as male, female, and other (to encompass transgender and other identifiers).

Data Analysis Plan

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used to analyze the data. Data was collected through Survey Monkey. Several parametric tests were employed to analyze data collected. Data collected was nominal and not numeric; thus, frequencies were computed instead of descriptive statistics. This current study sought to answer the following research questions:

1. What, if any, a relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in Florida and North Carolina?

H_{1o}: No relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in Florida.

H_{1a}: A relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in Florida.

2. What, if any, a relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in Virginia and Maryland?

H2o: No relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in Virginia.

H2a: A relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in Virginia.

3. What, if any, a relationship exists between race, gender, and one's decisions to employ deadly force in Florida and North Carolina compared to Virginia and Maryland?

H3o: No relationship exists between race, gender, and one's decision to employ deadly force in Florida compared to Virginia.

H3a: A relationship exists between race, gender, and one's decision to employ deadly force in Florida compared to Virginia defense.

It is hypothesized that a positive relationship between race, gender, and the decision to employ deadly force under the SYG scenario. Additionally, it was hypothesized that higher levels of racial socialization and fear of crime are associated with states that enacted SYG laws compared to non-SYG states.

The appropriate statistical tests used were an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) to ensure the sample is appropriately analyzed and to ensure the internal validity of the study (Salkind, 2010). As Warner (2013) presented an ANCOVA is best suited when there are multiple levels of an IV. Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was employed to test the three null hypotheses and test the main effect of participants' gender, race, and state of residence. The assumption of the main effect of employing deadly force should

be equal across all levels (i.e., race, gender, and state of residence). Furthermore, bivariate correlations were used to analyze demographics and reactions to hypothetical scenarios (Lane & Kuhn, 2013). The bivariate correlation is crucial to analyzing the data collected for the current study, as the purpose was to expand upon previous research.

Threats to Validity

A threat to the internal validity of a quantitative research study was history. History is the concept in which events during an experiment are present and alter the participant's responses (Burkholder et al., 2016). One way to mitigate this threat was to consider the APA Ethics Code (2010) and other Ethical Guidelines that guide social science research. As Babbie (2017) purports, the participation of subjects is disruptive to their everyday lives, which needs to be taken into consideration. By considering what events are transpiring in the participant's lives, then the threat to internal validity can be mitigated. A threat to the external validity of a research study is that of treatment variations. One consideration of the researcher is the context in which participants are subjected. For ethical purposes, the context of the study must be considered as well as to what variables studied. For example, in this study on racial socialization and fear of crime, participants pooled were from different racial and ethnic identities other than those accepted in the American culture. Thus, it could have impacted internal and external validity, which would render the study valid and reliable across other cultures and contexts. Another potential threat to validity was the pooling of participants from social media sites such as Facebook. The concern was that participants might not fully

participate and answer the questions on the assessment tool, due to time constraints of the participant.

Another potential threat to validity was that of the statistical conclusion. In other words, the assessment tool employed was valid for the foundational study; however, there is a lack of literature on the external validity of the Response to Suspicious Persons assessment tool. Thus, to mitigate this threat, precise steps were taken to ensure the appropriate statistical tests, similar to those employed by Lane and Kuhn (2013) were utilized.

Ethical Issues

In social science research, it is important to protect the integrity of the study by protecting the participants. The role of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) is to ensure that researchers adhere to strict ethical guidelines that protect participants (O'Sullivan et al., 2017; Rudestam & Newton, 2015). Also, the approval of Walden's IRB was provided on December 13, 2018; the approval number for this study is 12-13-18-0741491.

This purpose of this study was to examine whether a relationship existed between racial socialization and fear of crime in SYG states compared to non-SYG states. Also, the current study examined the potential racial disparities and the impact of the SYG law on implied state-sanctioned violence. Rudestam and Newton (2015) proffer that there are some ethical norms in research to consider: (a) validity of research, (b) competency of the researcher, (c) beneficence of research, (d) special populations, and

(e) informed consent. These norms in the context of the dissertation topic were addressed.

First, general questions about the participant's knowledge of the law, their socialization practices, and levels of fear of crime were asked. Participants were informed that the study was voluntary and they could withdraw from the study at any point; by informing, this could help to mitigate participants' potential uneasiness from answering questions. Furthermore, participants were provided resources for counseling if they felt any discomfort from answering the questions.

Secondly, it is essential for the researcher to have informed consent, be able to answer questions, and debrief following the administration of an assessment tool (O'Sullivan et al., 201). However, the current study posted the assessment tool on an online platform through Facebook groups specifically for dissertation research. Ethical concerns that arose from this approach is whether informed consent is provided and confidentiality of participants information (Rudestam & Newton, 2015). The survey was based on anonymity, and no identifying information such as name, address, email, or phone number was asked of the participants, to minimize the ethical concern. The value of this study was to ensure that participants did not experience too much discomfort that could cause emotional or psychological harm.

Summary

In summary, the purpose of the study is to examine the relationship between race, racial socialization and fear of crime in states with and without SYG laws. The research

questions guided the research design of a causal-comparative, and to employ parametric and nonparametric tests such as an ANCOVA, frequencies, and bivariate correlations in an attempt to validate and expand upon Lane and Kuhn's (2013) research. Several potential ethical issues could arise such as a threat to internal validity, through history or sampling strategy. An ANCOVA was employed for sample size, to mitigate the potential threats to internal validity. All participants were made aware that this survey was voluntary, and they were not required to complete the assessment. The assumption was that participants might feel more comfortable taking the survey when they realize the study was built on anonymity. In Chapter 4, the results from the current study are presented.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this causal-comparative design was to examine whether a relationship existed between racial socialization and fear of crime in states with or without Stand Your Ground (SYG) laws. This study also examined whether a relationship existed between gender, ethnicity, and one's decision to employ deadly force (response to suspicious person scenario). This study sought to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: What, if any, a relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in Florida and North Carolina?

RQ2: What, if any, a relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in Virginia and Maryland?

RQ3: What, if any, a relationship exists between race, gender, and one's decisions to employ deadly force in Florida and North Carolina compared to Virginia and Maryland?

It was hypothesized that a relationship existed between race, gender, and the decision to employ deadly force under SYG scenario. Additionally, it was hypothesized that higher levels of racial socialization and fear of crime were associated with states that enacted SYG laws compared to non-SYG states.

H1o: No relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in Florida and North Carolina.

H1a: A relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in Florida and North Carolina.

H2o: No relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in Virginia and Maryland.

H2a: A relationship exists between racial socialization and fear of crime in Virginia and Maryland.

H3o: No relationship exists between race, gender, and one's decision to employ deadly force in Florida and North Carolina compared to Virginia and Maryland.

H3a: A relationship exists between race, gender, and one's decision to employ deadly force in Florida and North Carolina compared to Virginia and Maryland defense.

The data collection process and results from the current study are presented in this chapter. The chapter ends with the summary of the results, with a preview of chapter 5, in which the discussion, limitation, recommendations, and conclusion are presented.

Data Collection

The current study built upon previous research conducted by Lane and Kuhn (2013), in which this study expanded the population and location of participants. The current study utilized the Response to Suspicious Person survey created by Lane and Kuhn. With permission from the researchers, the survey was modified to condense some questions. The modifications included breaking down four questions on racial socialization and fear of crime into individual responses. Other modifications included one scenario instead of randomizing six scenarios and adding questions about the state of

residency. Also, the last modification removed several questions that explained the specifics of the Trayvon Martin case, as this case was over five years ago. The rationale for the modifications was based on the time it would take participants to complete the survey; as the original survey was comprised of over 60 questions.

Once IRB approval was obtained (approval number for this study is 12-13-18-0741491), the surveys with an explanation of the study were posted on the social media sites: Facebook, Instagram, LinkedIn, and Twitter. Participants were provided with informed consent, and it was explained that the study was anonymous and voluntary. Participants were allowed to ask questions about the study and leave feedback on the posts. Clustering sampling technique was employed to pool participants from several states. Participants that did not reside in or have lived in the inclusion states within the past 15 years were not allowed to complete the survey.

Data collection began on December 17, 2018, and ended on January 19, 2019. Links to the survey were posted in five Facebook groups, LinkedIn, Twitter, and Instagram. Participants were given an overview of the study and asked to participate. Initially the study was only opened to Florida and Virginia residents; however, lack of participation within the first week and feedback posted in the Facebook group, two more states were added. The two states added, were Maryland (non-SYG) and North Carolina (SYG) state. The sample size for the study calculated by G-Power was (N=162); however, the actual sample size was ($n=112$). The next section presents the analyses conducted.

Results

This study sought to answer whether a relationship existed between racial socialization and fear of crime in states with and without SYG laws. Also, this study sought to answer whether a relationship existed between gender, race, and one's decision to employ deadly force in SYG states compared to non-SYG states. It was hypothesized that a relationship existed between race, gender, and the decision to employ deadly force under SYG scenario. Additionally, it was hypothesized that higher levels of racial socialization and fear of crime are associated with states that enacted SYG laws compared to non-SYG states.

To ensure the internal validity of the study, an ANCOVA was computed. Other statistics such as frequencies and cross-tabulations for demographics were computed. Bivariate correlations were computed on gender, ethnicity and one's decision to employ deadly forces. The scenario that was utilized in the study is presented below.

Response to Suspicious Person Scenario: It is about 7:00 P.M. and raining. You are returning home in your car from a personal errand and see a suspicious man walking around in your neighborhood. The man looks like he is up to no good and may be on drugs. You've had a string of break-ins in your neighborhood making you alert to the fact that he is walking around staring at houses. The man is black, in his late teens, and wearing a sweatshirt, pants, and tennis shoes. You put a call into the police to get an officer over to the area. When you are on the phone with the police dispatcher, the man begins to run toward the back entrance of your neighborhood. The dispatcher tells you not to follow him, and there is an officer

on the way. However, you get out of your car and follow the man, so he does not get away before the police get there. You confront the man, and a struggle ensues.

Participants were then asked to answer how they would respond to the presented scenario. They were allowed to choose only one answer. Tables 3 and 4 presents those responses based on gender, ethnicity, and residency.

Frequencies

Table 2 presents the percentages and frequencies by ethnicity and state of residence of participants in the current study. The participants ($n = 112$) in this study were 18 years and older, from either Florida, Maryland, North Carolina, or Virginia. Frequencies were computed on all data instead of descriptive stats, as the data collected was not numeric. When analyzing nominal or ordinal data, it is easier to compute crosstabs to examine the frequencies (Warner, 2013). The ethnic groups evaluated in this study consisted of 33.9% African American ($n = 38$), 59.8% Caucasian ($n = 67$) and 5.4% Hispanic ($n = 6$). Approximately 74.1% of participants were from Virginia (non-SYG) and 14.3% from Florida (SYG), with only 8.9% from North Carolina and 2.7% from Maryland represented.

Table 2

Frequencies and Percentages of Participants' Ethnicities and Residency

Ethnicity	Frequency	Percentage	Residency	Frequency	Percentage
African American	38	33.9	Florida	16	14.3
			Virginia	83	74.1
Caucasian	67	59.8			

			North Carolina	10	8.9
Hispanic	6	5.4			
			Maryland	3	2.7
Other	1	.9			

Compared to participants in the Lane and Kuhn (2013) study that utilized participants from 18 to 24 years of age, 43.8% of participants in this study fell between the ages of 25-34 years. Also, 32.1 % of participants ranged from 35-44 years (see Table 3). These frequencies were expanded based on the previous population studied (Lane & Kuhn, 2013).

Table 3

Frequencies and Percentages of Participant's Age Groups

Age Group	Frequency	Percentage
18-24 years	6	5.4
25-34 years	49	43.8
35-44 years	36	32.1
45-54 years	12	10.7
55-64 years	8	7.1
65-74	1	.9

Bivariate Correlations

Bivariate correlations were computed for: gender and response to suspicious persons; and ethnicity and response to suspicious persons. These statistics were computed based on analyses that were computed in the Lane and Kuhn (2013) study. The correlation between gender and response to suspicious persons yielded that scores were

statistically significant, $r(110) = -.086$, $p < .365$, two-tailed. The correlation between ethnicity and response to suspicious persons yield that scores were statistically significant, $r(110) = -.039$, $p < .681$. Table 4 provides the results of the bivariate correlation for race, gender, and response to suspicious persons. These findings are discussed in more detail in chapter 5.

Table 4

Bivariate Correlations on Race, Gender, and Response to Suspicious Persons

		Response To Suspicious Person		Ethnicity
Response To Suspicious Person	Pearson Correlation	1		-.039
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.681
	N	112		112
Ethnicity	Pearson Correlation	-.039		1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.681		
	N	112		112

		Gender	Response To Suspicious Person
Gender	Pearson Correlation	1	-.086
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.365
	N	112	112
Response To Suspicious Person	Pearson Correlation	-.086	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.365	
	N	112	112

Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA)

An analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was computed to examine whether a relationship existed between one's decision to employ deadly force and the state of residency; gender and ethnicity were covariates in this analysis. The ANCOVA was conducted to ensure the internal validity of the study, by examining variance across states. Table 5 presents the findings of gender, ethnicity, and one's state of residency.

There was a statistical significance between the state of residency: $F(3, 112) = 4.64, p = .004$, which is lower than the confidence interval. The confidence interval was set at .05, assuming there was a 95% likelihood of a relationship existing between one's decision to employ deadly force and the state of residency. The df and a predetermined scale determine the critical values (see Appendix D). Since the critical value is 2.70, which is less than the $F(4.64)$ for the state of residency and one's decision to employ deadly force, the null hypotheses were rejected. Thus, there is a significance between the state of residency and one's decision to employ deadly force. However, these findings support that there is a statistical difference among states and the response to suspicious persons, but does not confirm whether racial socialization and fear of crime are factors that directly influence the decision.

There was a statistical significance between gender and response to suspicious person by state: $F(1, 3) = .508, p = .478$; and between ethnicity and response to suspicious person by state: $F(1,3) = 0.029, p=.866$. Thus, the null hypotheses were rejected. The rejection of the null hypothesis accepts that there is a statistical significance between variables. Further interpretations are presented in chapter 5, where these results are discussed.

Table 5

ANCOVA: Response to Suspicious Persons by State

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	50.389 ^a	5	10.078	3.004	.014
Intercept	38.589	1	38.589	11.503	.001
Gender	1.704	1	1.704	.508	.478
Ethnicity	.096	1	.096	.029	.866
Residency	46.734	3	15.578	4.643	.004
Error	355.611	106	3.355		
Total	1106.000	112			
Corrected Total	406.000	111			

a. R Squared = .124 (Adjusted R Squared = .083)

An ANCOVA was also computed for the state of residency and three socialization and fear of crime factors: neighborhood awareness, cultural awareness, and racial differences (see Appendix A). There was a statistical significance between the state of residency and neighborhood awareness: $F(3, 112) = .182, p=.908$, which is greater than the confidence interval of .05. These results reveal a statistical significance, based on the critical value of 2.70. For cultural awareness, there was a statistical significance: $F(3, 111) = .517, p=.671$; and for racial differences, the results yielded: $F(3, 112) = .175, p=.913$.

Implications and Knowledge of SYG Laws

Participants were asked whether they had any knowledge of SYG laws. Figure 3 provides a visual representation of the respondents' knowledge of the SYG laws. The results revealed that 77.7% knew or heard of the SYG law; whereas, 16.1% did not know

compared to the 6.3% who were not certain. These results are significant to the current study in respects to understanding why one may employ deadly force when presented to a scenario of a suspicious person. Participants were also asked what they believed were the implications of the SYG laws.

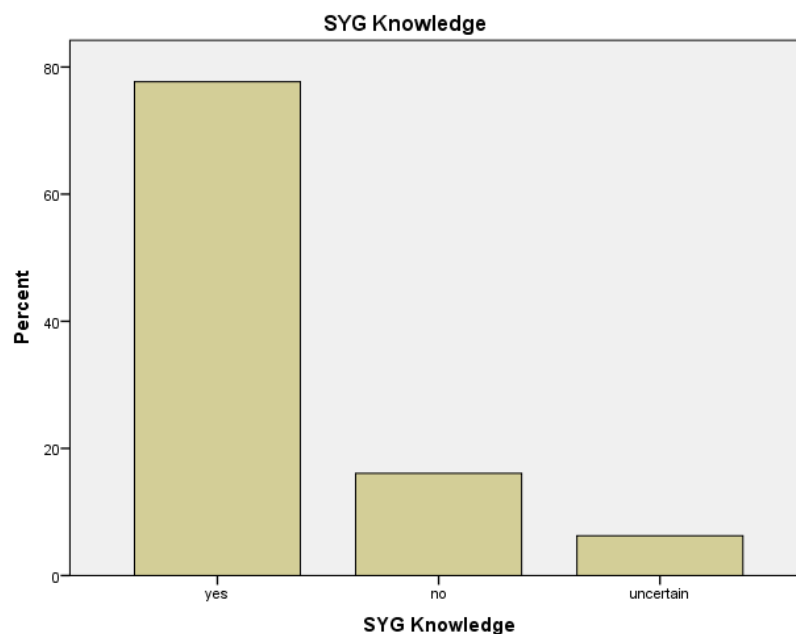


Figure 3. Respondent's knowledge of SYG laws.

Participants were asked what they believed were the implications of SYG laws. Participants were allowed to choose only one implication. Table 6 presents an overview of the potential implications of the laws. Of those who answered the question, 25.9% believed the laws would foster an increase in self-defense claims; whereas, 24.1% believed that certain racial groups would be targeted as perpetrators. Conversely, 9.3% believed that there would be an increase in homicides of African Americans compared to .9% increase homicides of Caucasians. However, 22.2% of respondents believed that

SYG laws would increase vigilantism and not call the police. These findings are significant to the questions posed for the current study.

Table 6

Frequencies and Percentages of Implications of SYG laws

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Self-defense claims will increase	28	25.0	25.9	25.9
innocent people may be shot	13	11.6	12.0	38.0
there will be a move towards vigilantism	6	5.4	5.6	43.5
citizens will take matters into their own hands instead of calling the police	24	21.4	22.2	65.7
certain racial groups will be targeted more as potential perpetrators	26	23.2	24.1	89.8
a significant increase in the number of homicides of blacks compared to other races	10	8.9	9.3	99.1
a significant increase in the number of homicides of whites compared to other races	1	.9	.9	100.0
Total	108	96.4	100.0	
Unanswered	4	3.6		
Total	112	100.0		

Summary

Overall, the results of the current study answered the research questions and rejected the null hypotheses. There was a statistical significance between gender, ethnicity, and response to the suspicious person scenario. The results of this study yielded a statistical significance between one's decision to employ deadly force across states with and without SYG laws. This study built upon previous research, by expanding the population and locations based on recommendations, has yielded some significant findings. The interpretation of these results is discussed further in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative causal-comparative study was to expand upon previous research conducted by Kuhn and Lane (2013) by examining a relationship between racial socialization and fear of crime in states with SYG laws compared to non-SYG states. This study evaluated participant levels of racial socialization and fear of crime in states that passed the SYG laws compared to states without the laws. The results of the study were significant in understanding whether racial socialization practices and fear of crime impacted one's decision to employ deadly force. The findings present an understanding of how the public may interpret the purpose of the SYG laws.

The findings of this study were mixed and surprising, considering the literature on racial socialization practices, fear of crime, and the impact of SYG laws. There were more participants from non-SYG states, which seems to have impacted the results of the analyses. Additionally, there was an unintentional comment box left at the end of the survey which allowed participants to leave feedback. Although the themes from the comments were not part of the analyses, they were considered for the implications for future research. Furthermore, some interesting results aligned with the literature on racial socialization and fear of crime in respects to SYG laws. This chapter discusses the results and their implications for enacting positive social change, the limitations, and concludes with recommendations for future research.

Interpretation of the Findings

The sample population consisted of 112 participants ages 18 years and older, from either Florida, Maryland, North Carolina, or Virginia. The participants consisted of 33.9% African American, 59.8% Caucasian, and 5.4% Hispanic; whereas, 86.6% were women, 11.6% men, and 1.8% who chose “other.” For the state of residency, 74.1% were from Virginia, 14.3% from Florida, 8.9% from North Carolina, and 2.7% from Maryland.

The current study sought to answer whether a relationship existed between racial socialization and fear of crime in states with and without SYG laws. The current literature presented a gap that suggested research focuses on social and environmental factors which could impact one’s decision to employ deadly force (Ackerman et al., 2015, Butz et al., 2015; Lane & Kuhn, 2013). An ANCOVA was computed for this question. There was a statistical significance between state of residency and response to suspicious persons: $F(3, 112) = 4.64, p=.004$; between gender and response to suspicious person: $F(1, 3) = .508, p=.478$; and between ethnicity and response to suspicious person: $F(1,3) = 0.029, p=.866$. These findings suggest that one’s state of residence, gender, and ethnicity play a role in how one responds to scenarios similar to that of Trayvon Martin.

Interestingly, 20.5% of respondents chose to either fight back, and 39.3% chose to run away in the SYG scenario. Only .9% of participants chose to utilize a gun, and those respondents reside in SYG states. It is difficult to infer whether this low percentage is attributed to the sample pooled from more non-SYG states.

Conversely, Roman (2013) found that in SYG cases with Martin-Zimmerman attributes, the weapon of choice was a gun and the victim deceased. The findings of this

study did reveal that those in non-SYG states would react by fighting back or employing another weapon other than a gun. The used of other weapons or fighting back is an interesting finding considering the impact of SYG laws literature does not mention the use of other weapons.

Another interesting finding of this study was that of cultural acknowledgment and racial differences. Berenger (2017) presented that laws were reflective of societal attitudes; in which it was implied that Southern states would more likely enact SYG legislation. Catalfamo (2007) posited that SYG laws are more warranted in the south because of the moral codes of Southern society, in which social construct dictates a man's dignity is to be protected, and what better way than being able to protect one's home without the duty to retreat. The findings from this study contradict the assumption of Southern society, as Virginia is a Southern state without SYG legislation. Even more interesting, is that Virginia residents responded to the SYG scenario with either fighting back or fleeing the situation; these choices were more frequently chosen compared to the other choices provided.

The last research question sought to answer whether a relationship existed between race, gender, and one's decision to employ deadly force under the SYG scenario. Conversely, Lane and Kuhn (2013) found that men were more likely to engage the suspect in the scenario compared to females, who would scream for help or flee. The findings from the Lane and Kuhn (2013) study were consistent with the current study's findings, suggesting that gender is not a predictor of one's decision to employ deadly force. Bivariate correlations on gender and ethnicity were negatively correlated: $r(110) =$

-.086, $p < .365$, two-tailed. The correlation between ethnicity and response to suspicious persons yielded that scores were statistically significant, $r(110) = -.039$, $p < .681$. These findings implied that one's gender or ethnicity are not predictors of one's response to the SYG scenario. Social interactions with minority groups can either reinforce preconceived notions about that group or destroy them (Ackerman et al., 2015). The findings from this study were quite interesting, considering that gender and ethnicity as covariates across states in response to the scenario were positively correlated. More of the participants were women ($n=97$) than men ($n=13$), and more than 50% of participants were from non-SYG states which may have impacted the results.

Although gender and ethnicity had a negative correlation between the SYG scenario, as covariates when examined with state of residency they presented a positive relationship. However, frequencies were computed for the state of residency and response to the SYG scenario revealing that less than 1% would employ the use of a gun. These findings contradicted those found in Lane and Kuhn (2013), which yielded that ethnicity and age were strong indicators of one's decision to employ a gun in Florida. Furthermore, 74.1% of respondents were from Virginia, a non-SYG state, which could have impacted the likelihood of utilizing a gun in this situation. Although the null hypotheses were rejected, it is inferred that a relationship exists, but not a strong predictor of employing deadly force. Thus, these findings suggest that one's state of residence, gender, and ethnicity are predictors of one's choice to fight back in scenarios consistent with the Trayvon Martin case.

Participants were asked whether they knew about Stand Your Ground laws, and their implications, to understand one's decision to employ deadly force across the state of residency. The results revealed that 77.7% knew or heard of the SYG law; whereas, 16.1% did not know compared to the 6.3% who were not certain. Megale (2013) suggested that as the laws are written, individuals may employ deadly force or vigilante-style justice. Of those who responded to the question, 25.9% believed the laws would foster an increase in self-defense claims; whereas, 24.1% believed that certain racial groups would be targeted as perpetrators. Conversely, 9.3% believed that there would be an increase in homicides of African Americans compared to .9% increase in homicides of Caucasians. However, 22.2% of respondents believed that SYG laws would increase vigilantism and not call the police. The findings on the implications of SYG laws were rather intriguing considering that the literature suggested that SYG victims were more likely to be a minority (Ackerman et al., 2015; Roman, 2013).

Although the null hypotheses were rejected from the main research questions, the findings proved to be mixed. These mixed findings suggest future research to understand how one's racial socialization and fear of crime impact one's decision to employ deadly force across states with and without SYG laws. Additional data was unintentionally collected during this survey due to a flaw in the survey design that left an extra comment box at the end of the Debriefing Statement; the themes are presented in the next section.

Additional Findings

It was not the intention of the research design to have a qualitative component. However, there was an unintentional comment box at the end of the survey under the

Debriefing Statement, in which several participants assumed it was a place to leave comments. The information collected enriched this study by providing some common themes to consider for future research on racial socialization and fear of crime in Stand Your Ground research. The common themes found in the comments included: (a) media misrepresenting facts of the Trayvon Martin case; (b) the cultural question about neighborhood problems; and (c) this type of research is most warranted considering current societal turmoil. These additional findings are further discussed in the recommendation section of this chapter.

Overall, the findings from the current study were intriguing and added to the extant literature on the impact of SYG laws. More specifically, the results on neighborhood awareness, cultural knowledge, and racial differences were significant. Zhao, Lawton, and Longmire (2015) presented that fear of crime levels can impact socialization practices. As a common theme that arose from the additional data collected, the survey questions implied that there would be negative attitudes towards cultural differences in one's neighborhood, which would impact their decision to react with deadly force under the SYG scenario. Essentially, the additional data did enrich the findings by identifying limitations to the current study, which are presented in the next section.

Limitations of the Study

There were several limitations to the current study. First, participants were pooled from four states (two SYG and two non-SYG); this limitation impacted the results as there was not a sufficient amount of participants from the SYG states. More than 74.1%

of participants were from a non-SYG state (Virginia). Secondly, there were quite a few participants who either did not complete the entire survey or did not answer pertinent questions related to racial socialization and fear of crime. The incompleteness of specific items impacted the analyses. And lastly, this study did not provide a clear picture as to whether the state of residency impacted one's decision to employ deadly force, as less than 1% of respondents stated they would utilize a gun in the SYG scenario.

Social Change Implications

The implications of this study can provide empirical data to legislatures for reforming SYG laws, as they appear to imply state-sanctioned violence. By understanding the results of this study, lawmakers can make more informed decisions in revising the rhetoric of the laws. Furthermore, media portrayals of SYG cases seemed to impact one's decision to employ deadly force in SYG states. Thus, disseminating the results of this study to the public can help mitigate the misconceptions of the SYG laws and help citizens evaluate when deadly force is necessary.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, there are a plethora of recommendations for future research. First, the study should focus on more than four states, which can allow for more participants. By opening to more states, the researcher can have a better chance of responses. Secondly, the SYG scenario should be a required question to answer; this could help in understanding whether one's state of residency can impact their decision to employ deadly force. Thirdly, the additional data obtained during this study provides a

foundation for future research. And lastly, future researchers should have a medium effect size when using G-Power for sample size. This study employed a large effect size, based on research, the assumption is that a positive and strong relationship would exist between racial socialization and fear of crime in states with SYG laws compared to non-SYG states.

Future Research

The additional data collected was from a flaw in the survey design in which participants took the comment box under the Debriefing Statement as a place to express their opinions. This unintentional design yielded some valuable information for future studies on the topic of racial socialization and fear of crime in Stand Your Ground research. The first theme of media misconstruing facts about SYG cases was most important to some respondents. This finding is significant in the process of redesigning the survey to ask more current questions on SYG cases such as the McGlockton case that happened in July 2018.

The next theme was that of the cultural questions on neighborhood problems. The comments yielded that the questions were written in a manner that presumed respondents would have a negative attitude towards persons different from themselves. This assumption is significant for revising the rhetoric of the cultural questions on the Response to Suspicious Persons survey.

The last theme uncovered was that respondents believed this research on racial socialization and fear of crime in relation to SYG laws is significantly warranted. These findings are significant for future researchers to consider the current social and cultural

climate in the United States when designing the study. Overall, from these findings, it is recommended that adding a qualitative component to the research design could potentially yield more robust findings.

Conclusion

This study sought to examine whether a relationship existed between racial socialization and fear of crime in states with and without SYG laws. The study also sought to examine whether a relationship existed between race, gender, and one's decision to employ deadly force across states with and without SYG laws. The results of the study proved to be mixed and could be due to lack of sufficient participants from SYG states. Also, the results did yield a positive relationship between the state of residency and one's decision to fight back under the SYG scenario when race and gender were covariates. Lane and Kuhn (2013) sought to understand how racial socialization and fear of crime influence one's decision to employ deadly force under the SYG scenario. The findings from this study have significant implications for future research and for enacting positive social change.

The media's portrayal of SYG cases may play a role in how participants responded. Although the results revealed that 77.7% of participants knew about the SYG laws, the results also yielded that the public may not have fully comprehended the implications of the laws. These findings call forth the necessity not just to present findings to legislatures but the general public as well. Additionally, with the comments left by participants, it is pivotal to take those themes into consideration for designing future studies on SYG laws.

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Appendix A: Modified Response to Suspicious Persons Survey Frequency of

Participants' Responses

Indicate how often your parents engaged in the following behaviors when you were growing up.

Q6.2 Encouraged you to read books about other racial or ethnic groups.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	37	33.0	33.0	33.0
	2	26	23.2	23.2	56.3
	3	20	17.9	17.9	74.1
	4	22	19.6	19.6	93.8
	5	7	6.3	6.3	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q6.3 Talked to you about important people or events in your racial or ethnic group's history.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	19	17.0	17.0	17.0
	2	18	16.1	16.1	33.0
	3	38	33.9	33.9	67.0
	4	28	25.0	25.0	92.0
	5	9	8.0	8.0	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q6.4 Talked to you about discrimination against a racial or ethnic group that is not your own.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	22	19.6	19.6	19.6
	2	16	14.3	14.3	33.9
	3	37	33.0	33.0	67.0
	4	30	26.8	26.8	93.8
	5	7	6.3	6.3	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q6.5 Explained something on TV that showed discrimination.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	19	17.0	17.0	17.0
	2	23	20.5	20.5	37.5
	3	36	32.1	32.1	69.6
	4	26	23.2	23.2	92.9
	5	8	7.1	7.1	100.0
Total		112	100.0	100.0	

Q6.6 Talked to you about discrimination against your own racial or ethnic group.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	37	33.0	33.0	33.0
	2	25	22.3	22.3	55.4
	3	24	21.4	21.4	76.8
	4	17	15.2	15.2	92.0
	5	9	8.0	8.0	100.0
Total		112	100.0	100.0	

Q6 Talked to you about important historical people and events involving racial and ethnic groups different from your own.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	18	16.1	16.1	16.1
	2	27	24.1	24.1	40.2
	3	36	32.1	32.1	72.3
	4	26	23.2	23.2	95.5
	5	5	4.5	4.5	100.0
Total		112	100.0	100.0	

Q6.7 Encouraged you to read books about your own racial or ethnic group.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	37	33.0	33.0	33.0
	2	25	22.3	22.3	55.4
	3	22	19.6	19.6	75.0
	4	16	14.3	14.3	89.3
	5	12	10.7	10.7	100.0
Total		112	100.0	100.0	

Q6.8 Did or said things to show that all are equal regardless of race or ethnicity.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	13	11.6	11.6	11.6
	2	16	14.3	14.3	25.9
	3	22	19.6	19.6	45.5
	4	35	31.3	31.3	76.8
	5	26	23.2	23.2	100.0
Total		112	100.0	100.0	

Q6.9 Talked to you about others trying to limit you because of your race or ethnicity.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	51	45.5	45.5	45.5
	2	21	18.8	18.8	64.3
	3	19	17.0	17.0	81.3
	4	13	11.6	11.6	92.9
	5	8	7.1	7.1	100.0
Total		112	100.0	100.0	

Q6.10 Told you that you must be better to get the same rewards because of your race or ethnicity.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid		1	.9	.9	.9
	1	62	55.4	55.4	56.3
	2	14	12.5	12.5	68.8
	3	8	7.1	7.1	75.9
	4	16	14.3	14.3	90.2
	5	11	9.8	9.8	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q6.11 Told you your race or ethnicity is an important part of self.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	52	46.4	46.4	46.4
	2	10	8.9	8.9	55.4
	3	19	17.0	17.0	72.3
	4	18	16.1	16.1	88.4
	5	13	11.6	11.6	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q6.12 Talked to someone else about discrimination when you could hear.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	29	25.9	25.9	25.9
	Rarely	30	26.8	26.8	52.7
	Sometime	39	34.8	34.8	87.5
	Often	12	10.7	10.7	98.2
	Always	2	1.8	1.8	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q6.13 Talked to you about unfair treatment to your race or ethnicity.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	48	42.9	42.9	42.9
	Rarely	15	13.4	13.4	56.3
	Sometime	26	23.2	23.2	79.5
	Often	14	12.5	12.5	92.0
	Always	9	8.0	8.0	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q6.14 Did or said things to keep you from trusting children of other races or ethnicities.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	69	61.6	61.6	61.6
	Rarely	18	16.1	16.1	77.7
	Sometime	17	15.2	15.2	92.9
	Often	5	4.5	4.5	97.3
	Always	3	2.7	2.7	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q6.15 Did or said things to encourage you to keep your distance from people of other races or ethnicities.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid		1	.9	.9	.9
	Never	66	58.9	58.9	59.8
	Rarely	18	16.1	16.1	75.9
	Sometime	16	14.3	14.3	90.2
	Often	8	7.1	7.1	97.3
	Always	3	2.7	2.7	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q7.1 Language differences between residents.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not a problem	98	87.5	87.5	87.5

Somewhat a problem	11	9.8	9.8	97.3
A problem	2	1.8	1.8	99.1
A big problem	1	.9	.9	100.0
Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q7.2 Cultural differences between residents.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No response	1	.9	.9	.9
	Not a problem	88	78.6	78.6	79.5
	Somewhat a problem	16	14.3	14.3	93.8
	A problem	5	4.5	4.5	98.2
	A big problem	2	1.8	1.8	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q7.3 Racial differences between residents.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not a problem	84	75.0	75.0	75.0
	Somewhat a problem	21	18.8	18.8	93.8
	A problem	4	3.6	3.6	97.3
	A big problem	3	2.7	2.7	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q8.1 Being approached by a beggar or panhandler.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not Afraid	70	62.5	62.5	62.5
	Somewhat Afraid	38	33.9	33.9	96.4
	Afraid	3	2.7	2.7	99.1
	Very Afraid	1	.9	.9	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q8.2 Having someone break into your home while you are there.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not Afraid	37	33.0	33.0	33.0
	Somewhat Afraid	45	40.2	40.2	73.2
	Afraid	14	12.5	12.5	85.7
	Very Afraid	16	14.3	14.3	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q8.3 Being raped or sexually assaulted.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not Afraid	39	34.8	34.8	34.8
	Somewhat Afraid	35	31.3	31.3	66.1
	Afraid	17	15.2	15.2	81.3
	Very Afraid	21	18.8	18.8	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q8.4 Being murdered.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not Afraid	57	50.9	50.9	50.9
	Somewhat Afraid	30	26.8	26.8	77.7
	Afraid	5	4.5	4.5	82.1
	Very Afraid	20	17.9	17.9	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q8.5 Being attacked by someone with a weapon.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not Afraid	43	38.4	38.4	38.4
	Somewhat Afraid	40	35.7	35.7	74.1
	Afraid	13	11.6	11.6	85.7
	Very Afraid	16	14.3	14.3	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q8.7 Being robbed or mugged on the street.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not Afraid	44	39.3	39.3	39.3
	Somewhat Afraid	49	43.8	43.8	83.0
	Afraid	7	6.3	6.3	89.3
	Very Afraid	12	10.7	10.7	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q8.8 Having your property damaged.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not Afraid	44	39.3	39.3	39.3
	Somewhat Afraid	50	44.6	44.6	83.9
	Afraid	11	9.8	9.8	93.8
	Very Afraid	7	6.3	6.3	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q8.9 Being threatened by someone.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not Afraid	51	45.5	45.5	45.5
	Somewhat Afraid	49	43.8	43.8	89.3
	Afraid	6	5.4	5.4	94.6
	Very Afraid	6	5.4	5.4	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q8.11 Being shot while walking down the street.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not Afraid	74	66.1	66.1	66.1
	Somewhat Afraid	23	20.5	20.5	86.6
	Afraid	2	1.8	1.8	88.4
	Very Afraid	13	11.6	11.6	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q8.12 Being shot at with a concealed weapon.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not Afraid	76	67.9	67.9	67.9
	Somewhat Afraid	23	20.5	20.5	88.4
	Afraid	2	1.8	1.8	90.2
	Very Afraid	11	9.8	9.8	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q8.14 Having someone break into your home while you are away.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not Afraid	35	31.3	31.3	31.3
	2	54	48.2	48.2	79.5
	3	15	13.4	13.4	92.9
	4	8	7.1	7.1	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q8.15 Having someone commit a home invasion or robbery against you.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not Afraid	38	33.9	33.9	33.9
	2	51	45.5	45.5	79.5
	3	15	13.4	13.4	92.9
	Very Afraid	8	7.1	7.1	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q8.16 Being the victim of a drive-by shooting.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not Afraid	83	74.1	74.1	74.1
	Somewhat Afraid	15	13.4	13.4	87.5
	3	5	4.5	4.5	92.0
	4	9	8.0	8.0	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q8.17 Being physically assaulted or attacked by someone.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not Afraid	49	43.8	43.8	43.8
	Somewhat Afraid	43	38.4	38.4	82.1
	Afraid	10	8.9	8.9	91.1
	Very Afraid	10	8.9	8.9	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q8.18 Being a victim of a carjacking.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not Afraid	69	61.6	61.6	61.6
	2	28	25.0	25.0	86.6
	Afraid	7	6.3	6.3	92.9
	Very Afraid	8	7.1	7.1	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q8.19 Having money or property taken from you without using force or weapon.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not Afraid	57	50.9	50.9	50.9
	Somewhat Afraid	42	37.5	37.5	88.4
	Afraid	8	7.1	7.1	95.5
	Very Afraid	5	4.5	4.5	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Q8.20 Having your money or property taken from you with force or weapon.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not Afraid	45	40.2	40.2	40.2
	Somewhat Afraid	48	42.9	42.9	83.0
	Afraid	9	8.0	8.0	91.1
	Very Afraid	10	8.9	8.9	100.0

Total	112	100.0	100.0
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Frequencies of Response To Suspicious Person

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Scream for help	33	29.5	29.5	29.5
	Run away	44	39.3	39.3	68.8
	Fightback	23	20.5	20.5	89.3
	Pull a gun	1	.9	.9	90.2
	Use a weapon other than a gun	2	1.8	1.8	92.0
	not answered	9	8.0	8.0	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

Frequencies of Response to Suspicious Persons

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Scream for help	33	29.5	29.5	29.5
	Run away	44	39.3	39.3	68.8
	Fightback	23	20.5	20.5	89.3
	Pull a gun	1	.9	.9	90.2
	Use a weapon other than a gun	2	1.8	1.8	92.0
	not answered	9	8.0	8.0	100.0
	Total	112	100.0	100.0	

ANCOVA: Neighborhood Awareness, Cultural Acknowledgement, and Racial Differences

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Neighborhood Awareness

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	.127 ^a	3	.042	.182	.908
Intercept	45.648	1	45.648	197.354	.000

Residency	.127	3	.042	.182	.908
Error	24.981	108	.231		
Total	176.000	112			
Corrected Total	25.107	111			

a. R Squared = .005 (Adjusted R Squared = -.023)

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Cultural Acknowledgement

Type III Sum					
Source	of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	.640 ^a	3	.213	.517	.671
Intercept	49.324	1	49.324	119.580	.000
Residency	.640	3	.213	.517	.671
Error	44.135	107	.412		
Total	229.000	111			
Corrected Total	44.775	110			

a. R Squared = .014 (Adjusted R Squared = -.013)

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Racial Differences

Type III Sum					
Source	of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	.248 ^a	3	.083	.175	.913
Intercept	59.217	1	59.217	125.747	.000
Residency	.248	3	.083	.175	.913
Error	50.860	108	.471		
Total	252.000	112			
Corrected Total	51.107	111			

a. R Squared = .005 (Adjusted R Squared = -.023)

Appendix B: F-Critical Value Chart

df2\df1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	10
1	161.448	199.500	215.707	224.583	230.162	233.986	236.768	238.883	241.882
2	18.513	19.000	19.164	19.247	19.296	19.330	19.353	19.371	19.396
3	10.128	9.552	9.277	9.117	9.013	8.941	8.887	8.845	8.786
4	7.709	6.944	6.591	6.388	6.256	6.163	6.094	6.041	5.964
5	6.608	5.786	5.409	5.192	5.050	4.950	4.876	4.818	4.735
6	5.987	5.143	4.757	4.534	4.387	4.284	4.207	4.147	4.060
7	5.591	4.737	4.347	4.120	3.972	3.866	3.787	3.726	3.637
8	5.318	4.459	4.066	3.838	3.687	3.581	3.500	3.438	3.347
9	5.117	4.256	3.863	3.633	3.482	3.374	3.293	3.230	3.137
10	4.965	4.103	3.708	3.478	3.326	3.217	3.135	3.072	2.978
11	4.844	3.982	3.587	3.357	3.204	3.095	3.012	2.948	2.854
12	4.747	3.885	3.490	3.259	3.106	2.996	2.913	2.849	2.753
13	4.667	3.806	3.411	3.179	3.025	2.915	2.832	2.767	2.671
14	4.600	3.739	3.344	3.112	2.958	2.848	2.764	2.699	2.602
15	4.543	3.682	3.287	3.056	2.901	2.790	2.707	2.641	2.544
16	4.494	3.634	3.239	3.007	2.852	2.741	2.657	2.591	2.494
17	4.451	3.592	3.197	2.965	2.810	2.699	2.614	2.548	2.450
18	4.414	3.555	3.160	2.928	2.773	2.661	2.577	2.510	2.412
19	4.381	3.522	3.127	2.895	2.740	2.628	2.544	2.477	2.378
20	4.351	3.493	3.098	2.866	2.711	2.599	2.514	2.447	2.348
21	4.325	3.467	3.072	2.840	2.685	2.573	2.488	2.420	2.321
22	4.301	3.443	3.049	2.817	2.661	2.549	2.464	2.397	2.297
23	4.279	3.422	3.028	2.796	2.640	2.528	2.442	2.375	2.275
24	4.260	3.403	3.009	2.776	2.621	2.508	2.423	2.355	2.255
25	4.242	3.385	2.991	2.759	2.603	2.490	2.405	2.337	2.236
26	4.225	3.369	2.975	2.743	2.587	2.474	2.388	2.321	2.220
27	4.210	3.354	2.960	2.728	2.572	2.459	2.373	2.305	2.204
28	4.196	3.340	2.947	2.714	2.558	2.445	2.359	2.291	2.190
29	4.183	3.328	2.934	2.701	2.545	2.432	2.346	2.278	2.177
30	4.171	3.316	2.922	2.690	2.534	2.421	2.334	2.266	2.165
35	4.121	3.267	2.874	2.641	2.485	2.372	2.285	2.217	2.114
40	4.085	3.232	2.839	2.606	2.449	2.336	2.249	2.180	2.077
45	4.057	3.204	2.812	2.579	2.422	2.308	2.221	2.152	2.049
50	4.034	3.183	2.790	2.557	2.400	2.286	2.199	2.130	2.026
55	4.016	3.165	2.773	2.540	2.383	2.269	2.181	2.112	2.008
60	4.001	3.150	2.758	2.525	2.368	2.254	2.167	2.097	1.993
70	3.978	3.128	2.736	2.503	2.346	2.231	2.143	2.074	1.969
80	3.960	3.111	2.719	2.486	2.329	2.214	2.126	2.056	1.951
90	3.947	3.098	2.706	2.473	2.316	2.201	2.113	2.043	1.938
100	3.936	3.087	2.696	2.463	2.305	2.191	2.103	2.032	1.927
110	3.927	3.079	2.687	2.454	2.297	2.182	2.094	2.024	1.918
120	3.920	3.072	2.680	2.447	2.290	2.175	2.087	2.016	1.910
130	3.914	3.066	2.674	2.441	2.284	2.169	2.081	2.010	1.904
140	3.909	3.061	2.669	2.436	2.279	2.164	2.076	2.005	1.899
150	3.904	3.056	2.665	2.432	2.274	2.160	2.071	2.001	1.894
160	3.900	3.053	2.661	2.428	2.271	2.156	2.067	1.997	1.890
180	3.894	3.046	2.655	2.422	2.264	2.149	2.061	1.990	1.884
200	3.888	3.041	2.650	2.417	2.259	2.144	2.056	1.985	1.878
220	3.884	3.037	2.646	2.413	2.255	2.140	2.051	1.981	1.874
240	3.880	3.033	2.642	2.409	2.252	2.136	2.048	1.977	1.870
260	3.877	3.031	2.639	2.406	2.249	2.134	2.045	1.974	1.867
280	3.875	3.028	2.637	2.404	2.246	2.131	2.042	1.972	1.865
300	3.873	3.026	2.635	2.402	2.244	2.129	2.040	1.969	1.862
400	3.865	3.018	2.627	2.394	2.237	2.121	2.032	1.962	1.854
500	3.860	3.014	2.623	2.390	2.232	2.117	2.028	1.957	1.850
600	3.857	3.011	2.620	2.387	2.229	2.114	2.025	1.954	1.846
700	3.855	3.009	2.618	2.385	2.227	2.112	2.023	1.952	1.844
800	3.853	3.007	2.616	2.383	2.225	2.110	2.021	1.950	1.843
900	3.852	3.006	2.615	2.382	2.224	2.109	2.020	1.949	1.841
1000	3.851	3.005	2.614	2.381	2.223	2.108	2.019	1.948	1.840
∞	3.841	2.996	2.605	2.372	2.214	2.099	2.010	1.938	1.831