

Abstract

Title of Thesis: Using Procedural Justice to Explore the Relationship between Victim Satisfaction with Police and Victim Participation in Prosecution

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This thesis uses procedural justice to explore the relationship between victim satisfaction with the police and victim participation in prosecution. Prior procedural justice research has focused either on offenders or on limited sections of the criminal justice process. Expanding upon prior research by using victims and the entire criminal justice process, this thesis hypothesizes that increased victim satisfaction with the police leads to increased victim participation in prosecution and that this effect weakens throughout the prosecution process. Conversely, this thesis hypothesizes that increased victim satisfaction with the prosecutor leads to increased participation in prosecution and that this effect strengthens throughout the prosecution process. Using logistic and Tobit regressions this thesis finds some support for the hypotheses of this thesis: procedural fairness, police, and prosecutors all have an impact on victim participation. Future research can further delineate the questions that remain: when, how, and for whom satisfaction has the largest impact.

USING PROCEDURAL JUSTICE TO EXPLORE THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
VICTIM SATISFACTION WITH POLICE AND VICTIM PARTICIPATION IN
PROSECUTION

By

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Introduction

Victim participation in prosecution is a critical component of the criminal justice system. Evidence shows that victim participation makes the justice system more effective, more just, and improves victim satisfaction with the criminal justice system (Davis and Smith, 1994; Erez and Bienkowska, 1993; Hagan, 1982; Heinz and Kerstetter, 1979; Herrington et al., 1982; Kelly, 1984a; Lynch 1976; Schafer, 1976). Given that victim participation has these substantial effects on the system, it is worthwhile to identify the elements of the criminal justice process that encourage or discourage victim participation. This thesis uses procedural justice to examine the effects of victims' experiences with the criminal justice system on their participation in prosecution.

Specifically, this thesis seeks to determine whether victims' interactions with the police have an influence on victims' participation in the criminal justice system; and whether the police have a stronger influence on victims' decisions than other members of the criminal justice system. One reason that police behavior is believed to significantly influence victims is that the police are often the first criminal justice stakeholders to interact with victims, usually during a time when victims are most vulnerable because they are upset and scared. I posit that victims' experiences with the police are so critical and sensitive that they outweigh the influence that might arise from encounters with other stakeholders later in the criminal justice process. If victims have positive interactions with the police, these positive feelings may transfer toward the entire criminal justice system and thus may encourage victims to participate in prosecution. On the other hand, if victims have negative interactions with the police, they may become disenchanted with the process and want to avoid contact with the rest of the system.

This thesis is guided by procedural justice theory because it makes the connection between people's perceptions of procedural fairness, their feelings of satisfaction, and their future behavior. This thesis also pushes the boundaries of current procedural justice research, by applying the theory to individuals and situations unexplored in existing research. The fundamental principle of procedural justice is that when authorities treat individuals with procedural fairness, those individuals are more likely to believe in the legitimacy of those authorities, experience satisfaction with them, accept their decisions and ultimately follow their rules (Paternoster et al., 1997; Sunshine and Tyler, 2003; Tyler, 1990; Tyler et al., 2007). Procedural justice posits that a person's level of satisfaction with an authority figure can determine that person's future behavior (Lind et al, 1993; McEwen and Maiman, 1984; Paternoster and his colleagues, 1997; Scaglione and Condon, 1980; Sullivan et al., 1987; Sunshine and Tyler, 2003; Tyler, 1990). Although the theory provides a useful framework for studying the connection between victim satisfaction with police and their participation in prosecution, there is a substantive difference between previous studies and this one. To date, instead of focusing on victims, most procedural justice research has focused on offenders. It has typically examined their experiences of police fairness on their feelings of satisfaction and future law-abiding behavior. This analysis departs from this literature by focusing on the perceptions of victims instead of offenders, and by exploring the connection between satisfaction and behavior. To the best of my knowledge, no study has estimated the relationship between satisfaction and participation in the prosecution process. In sum, this thesis expands upon existing procedural justice literature and attempts to explore the

relationship between victims' satisfaction with police and victims' decisions to participate in prosecution.

This research has direct policy implications. If victims' satisfaction with police indeed leads to greater participation, the reputation and efficacy of the criminal justice system will benefit from focusing its attention on improving victims' satisfaction with police. This can be accomplished through many avenues such as maintaining police professionalism, meeting victims' expectations, keeping victims informed, and increasing victims' comfort levels (Bradl and Horvath, 1991; Coupe and Griffiths, 1999; Kelly, 1984b; O'Grady et al, 1992; Wemmers, 1998). By using the information created by this research, the system can work to help the police fulfill victims' needs in order to lead to more successful prosecution.

In order to best understand the effect that victims' satisfaction with the police has on their participation in the prosecution process, this thesis will first explain the importance of victim participation to the criminal justice system. I will then outline the factors that hinder and promote victim participation, the importance of the police, and finally, discuss the existing research on procedural justice.

The Importance of Victim Participation in the Criminal Justice System

This section will delineate three reasons that it is important for victims to participate in the criminal justice system, including the creation of a more just legal system, an increase in the overall effectiveness of the criminal justice system, and the improvement of victim satisfaction with the system. These three reasons are closely related to each other and together illustrate the importance of victim participation.

First, victim participation can lead to a criminal justice system that is more just. A just system equally addresses the concerns of all three parties with direct interests in the outcome of the case: the offender, the victim, and the State. Traditionally, the criminal justice system only addressed the concerns of the offender and the state, but in 1982, the Federal Government began an effort to focus on victim participation in the criminal justice system, turning victims' rights into a national issue. President Reagan created the President's Task Force on Victims of Crime in an attempt to recognize the importance of the victim to the criminal justice system. According to the Task Force's report, prior to 1982 there was widespread failure to include victims in the process of criminal prosecution and the system's stakeholders regularly treated victims as pieces of evidence, rather than as human beings with emotions. Until this point, the victim's role in the criminal justice system was undefined (Kilpatrick and Otto, 1987). After reviewing relevant literature and conducting interviews, the President's Task Force reported that in order to be a more just system, victims should have the opportunity to participate in the criminal justice system and should be treated humanely (Herrington et al., 1982).

In addition to making the criminal justice system more just, victim participation helps the criminal justice system function more effectively. Victims are an integral part of the system; without them, cases may go unreported to the police and convictions might not be obtained (Herrington et al., 1982; Lynch 1976). Because victims are typically the primary witnesses to crimes, without their support prosecutors may find it difficult to obtain guilty pleas and guilty verdicts. In a domestic violence court, Dawson and Dinovitzer (2001) found that prosecutors with supportive victims are seven times more

likely to proceed with prosecution. In addition to increasing guilty pleas and convictions, victim participation can make the system more efficient in several ways. Research shows that when victims participate, cases reach resolution faster, stakeholders form a more accurate picture of the crime, and offenders are more likely to be rehabilitated (Davis and Smith, 1994; Kelly, 1984a; Schafer, 1976).

Victim participation is also intertwined with victim satisfaction in a reciprocal relationship: satisfaction not only leads to participation—participation leads to satisfaction. Research has found that when victims participate in pretrial settlement conferences, they are more likely to agree with prosecutors' recommendations and have attitudes that are more positive about the way their cases are handled (Erez and Bienkowska, 1993; Heinz and Kerstetter, 1979; Kelly, 1984a). Similarly, victims' opinions of sentencing hearings improve when they attend court (Hagan, 1982). Allowing and encouraging victims to participate in the criminal justice system makes a more just system, increases overall effectiveness of the system, and increases victim satisfaction with the system.

Why Victims Participate

Given the importance of victim participation to the criminal justice system, it is useful to understand why victims participate in the criminal justice system. According to existing literature, victims choose to participate in the system for many different reasons, including a desire for psychological healing and out of fear.

Victims often participate in the criminal justice system for psychological healing. Part of the psychological trauma for victims results from feeling overpowered by the

offenders. Participating in the system can help restore equity and empower victims, helping them heal (Gutheil et al., 2000; Kilpatrick and Otto, 1987). One way the criminal justice system can empower victims is by requiring the offender to admit wrongdoing. Some victims will participate in order to make the defendants aware of the injuries they have caused, thus pulling defendants out of their denial of their wrongdoing. Another reason victims participate is to feel less isolated in their victimization. Victims may feel less isolated by bringing attention to a greater societal issue that they feel should not be ignored, such as domestic violence or sexual assault (Erez and Roberts, 2007; Gutheil et al., 2000).

Victims also participate in the criminal justice system because they feel it will protect them from subsequent victimizations by the same offender. When their perpetrators are incarcerated, many victims feel safer. Although not all victims want punishment for the offenders, some do. In one research study, 167 victims out of 500 requested jail time or some harsh treatment for offenders (Erez and Tontodonato, 1990). Other victims believe that they gain some protection by knowing where their offenders are. They want to know whether the offenders from their cases have been arrested and whether the offenders are in custody or have bailed out of jail (Kelly, 1984a). In essence, victims may hope that by participating in the criminal justice system, they can affect the punishment of their offenders or at least be informed about where the offenders are and therefore be less fearful.

Why Victims Do Not Participate

In addition to knowing why victims participate, it is equally important to know the barriers to participation. Victims face many obstacles that hinder their participation in the criminal justice system. These barriers include: fear, lack of time, lack of money, lack of understanding of the process, lack of faith in the system, and mental health concerns as a result of the victimization.

Related to the desire for protection that encourages some victims to participate in criminal prosecution, fear often prevents victims from participating. Victimization is generally a fear-inducing experience. Usually this fear outlasts the incident and can become more intense during the criminal case. Research has shown that 50% of all victims of violent crime fear some sort of retaliation for participating in prosecution. This fear reduces their probability of participating in prosecution by half (Davis et al., 1990). In another study conducted by Davis and colleagues (1990), 94 victims out of 260 were threatened by defendants and 24 of these victims were threatened by defendants with weapons. Thirteen victims asked to drop the charges even without apparent threats. Fifty-seven percent of victims who were not threatened feared retaliation and 71% of those who were not threatened indicated that if the defendant was not in jail, they would be fearful. Those victims who were threatened were three times more likely to drop charges. Davis and colleagues (1990) also found that most of the threats occurred at the police station or at the scene of the crime, illustrating the important role that police can play in alleviating fear for a victim. Furthermore, this fear can be caused by persons other than the defendant. One study reported that 28 out of 100 victims were threatened by either defendants or defendants' friends or families (Kelly, 1984a).

Loss of time and money are also barriers to participation. The entire process of a criminal case can take an incredible amount of time. Some victims cannot afford to lose the time and the money required to participate. In a study of rape victims, victims reported that they lost significant amounts of work or vacation time while waiting in court for their cases and in having to rearrange their schedules to accommodate changing meetings. In addition, victims lost money by missing work, by traveling to court, and in paying for childcare (Kelly, 1984a). In one study, 100 victims out of 386 lost between two and three days of work for the court process. The total wait time for all the victims was 495 hours, with the longest wait time recorded at over 8 hours (Knudten et al., 1976). In addition to totally preventing participation, the time commitment required for participation can cause victims to become emotionally numb, making them give up on their cases (Gutheil et al., 2000). The drain of time, money, and emotions is enough to prevent many victims from participating in the process.

Victims also may not participate because they are never presented with the opportunity to participate or because they do not believe their participation will have any impact on the outcome of the court case. Victims have reported feeling as though they have been excluded from the process and that they only have been included when their participation benefits the State's case. These victims felt as though they should have been recognized as the injured parties instead of the State (Kelly, 1984a). They also felt confused by the court process and as a result were fearful when they received court documents (Kelly, 1984a). The system also may fail altogether to notify victims about their opportunities to participate (Erez and Roberts, 2007; Howley and Dorris, 2007).

When victims do not know they can participate or they feel their participation does not affect the outcome of cases, they are unlikely to participate.

Criminal victimization can cause mental health problems which may also discourage victims from participating in the process. One study has shown that both victims of violent crimes and of property crimes are more distressed than those who have never been victims. The criminal justice system itself can also re-traumatize victims as it is often necessary for victims to tell and retell their stories and face their assailants (Gutheil et al., 2000). The list of symptoms resulting from the crime itself and the criminal justice system is long. It includes: depression, anxiety, somatization (the physical manifestation of psychological stress), hostility, fear, sleeplessness, anger, frustration, headaches, an inability to concentrate, humiliation, loss of self-confidence, isolation, helplessness, nervous breakdowns, suicidal ideation, suicide attempts, sexual dysfunction, and post traumatic stress disorder (Gutheil et al., 2000; Kilpatrick et al, 1985; Kilpatrick and Otto, 1987; Norris and Kaniasty, 1994). In addition, often cases can last so long that victims lose the support of their friends and family. Those close to victims of crime often tire of hearing about the crime over an extended period of time (Gutheil et al., 2000). When victims suffer from any of these symptoms, they may be unable to participate or they may choose not to participate for fear of worsening their symptoms (Kilpatrick and Otto, 1987). Given the importance of victim participation and the incentives and barriers to victim participation, procedural justice is an appropriate theory to guide research about what may encourage the incentives and overcome the barriers to victim participation.

Police

A police officer is often the first person a victim interacts with after a crime occurs. This interaction occurs at a time when victims are fearful and vulnerable. Because the interaction is the first interaction victims have and because it is at an important time, the police have a unique opportunity to shape victims' perceptions about the criminal justice system. Their behavior could either encourage victims to participate or discourage them from participating. I posit that the interaction is so important, that the strength of victims' first impressions with the system outweighs other interactions that victims have throughout the criminal justice process, including interactions with prosecutors. In fact, the interaction with the police may even determine how a victim views the rest of the stakeholders in the system.

Prior Research on Procedural Justice

Defining Procedural Justice

Procedural justice is defined as a paradigm in which individuals are treated with procedural fairness by authorities and are thus more likely to view these authorities as legitimate, be satisfied with them, accept their decisions, and to obey the law (Paternoster et al., 1997; Sunshine and Tyler, 2003; Tyler, 1990; Tyler et al., 2007).

Procedural justice was first described by Thibaut and Walker (1975), who drew from the fields of social psychology and law to assess the effects of procedural justice within the legal system. Specifically, they sought to determine which procedures within the system were perceived as just. Their work formed the basis for criminologists to study and define procedural justice. The primary components of procedural justice that

criminological research has focused on are defining procedural fairness, the effects of procedural fairness, and the effects of legitimacy and satisfaction. Each subsection of this section focuses on a different aspect of the definition of procedural justice, with the relevant portion bolded.

Defining Procedural Fairness

Procedural justice begins with fairness: **if people are treated fairly by authorities**, they will be more likely to be satisfied with them, view them as legitimate, accept their decisions, and follow the law (Paternoster et al., 1997; Sunshine and Tyler, 2003; Tyler, 1990; Tyler et al., 2007). Procedural fairness has been defined by multiple researchers using different terminology but similar concepts. For example, Tyler (1990) claimed that factors that influence a person's perception of procedural fairness are: the opportunity for individuals to state their cases, indications that authorities are trying to be fair, and the feeling of being treated with respect. Leventhal (1976, 1980) discusses six different components of procedural fairness that describe many of the same situations discussed by Tyler (1990): representation, consistency, impartiality, accuracy, correctability, and ethicality. Due to the fact that Paternoster and his colleagues (1997) also use the six components described by Leventhal (1976, 1980) and Tyler's (1990, 2010) ideas overlap, I will also discuss these six components.

“Representation” occurs when people believe that they had an opportunity to participate in the process (Paternoster et al., 1997). Tyler (2010) refers to this as “voice” and adds that this participation should be meaningful. “Consistency” is present when similar treatment is applied in two different situations: consistency for the particular

person and consistency between people. Consistency for a particular person is when a person's experience is consistent with the person's expectations. Consistency between people occurs when a victim receives the same treatment as the offender, a victim receives the same treatment as another victim, or an offender receives the same treatment as another offender. This is one component that Tyler (1990, 2010) does not have an analogue for. Next, "impartiality," or as Tyler (2010) calls it, "neutrality", is the perception that authorities make decisions based on rules as opposed to their personal biases. "Accuracy" is perceived when a person thinks that the authorities make good decisions; people see the authorities as trying to solve problems or do what is right. "Correctability" is a situation in which a person has some way to correct a problem arising with the authority. If a person has a problem with the decision that an authority makes, the person should be able to bring this problem to a superior. "Ethicality" is an authority's practice of treating the person with respect and politeness instead of demeaning or treating the person as a stereotype. By treating a person ethically, the authority conveys a sense of group membership to the individual. These six components are what lead a person to judge a process as procedurally fair (Leventhal, 1976, 1980; Paternoster et al., 1997; Tyler, 1990, 2010). In addition to defining what procedural fairness is, procedural justice provides an explanation for the effects of procedural fairness.

Effects of Procedural Fairness

According to the theory of procedural justice, the perception that authorities have acted with procedural fairness, as illustrated by the presence of the six components

defined above, **leads people to feel satisfaction with those authorities and perceive those authorities as legitimate** (Paternoster et al., 1997; Sunshine and Tyler, 2003; Tyler, 1990; Tyler et al., 2007). Research has supported this definition of procedural justice by finding that when offenders perceive that procedures are fair, offenders' overall satisfaction with the process increases. Research has also found that this increased fairness increases offenders' estimations of the legitimacy of the authorities (Casper et al., 1988; Lind, 1982; Tyler, 1984; Tyler, 1990; Tyler et al. 1985; Tyler, Rasinski and Griffin, 1986). Satisfaction and legitimacy, while slightly different, are tied up together and their causes will be discussed below.

Many research studies provide support for different components of procedural fairness. Bradl and Horvath (1991) found that police professionalism, which encompasses many of the components of procedural fairness, had the largest effect on victim satisfaction, regardless of the type of crime committed against the victim. They also found that when a victim perceived the process was fair, satisfaction tended to be greater. Another study found support for procedural justice's notion that the presence of representation, consistency, and ethicality all lead to increased victim satisfaction with the criminal justice system. Coupe and Griffiths (1999) found that victims' satisfaction and expectations with the system were affected by police conduct. Specifically, they found that victims' satisfaction depended on the actions of the officers and how often and how much the victim was informed about the investigation process. In addition to police officers' actions, victim satisfaction also depended on the ultimate outcome of prosecution and the manner in which this met victims' expectations. The studies mentioned above provide support for the idea that more than one of the six components

of procedural fairness leads to satisfaction. In addition to these studies, there are more studies that find that one of the six components leads to satisfaction or views of legitimacy.

There are several studies that found support for the idea that representation leads to satisfaction. As discussed earlier, victim participation in the criminal justice system is another way to increase victim satisfaction (Erez and Bienkowska, 1993; Heinz and Kerstetter, 1979; Kelly, 1984a). Several researchers explored the significance of allowing offenders to state their cases, finding increased satisfaction with the justice system regardless if the input was heard before or after the interaction with authorities (Folger, 1977; Hirschmann, 1970; Lind and Tyler, 1988; Lind et al., 1990). Similarly, Casper et al (1988) found that if felony defendants had been treated respectfully by arresting officers and had an opportunity to speak with attorneys, they were more likely to state the process was procedurally fair, showing support for both representation and ethicality.

Other research providing evidence that ethicality leads to satisfaction found that receiving comfort led to satisfaction (Erez and Bienkowska, 1993; Heinz and Kerstetter, 1979; Kelly, 1984a). Ethicality is defined as not only being treated respectfully, but also giving a person a feeling of group membership. Many researchers have shown that procedural fairness can also lead to feelings of group membership (Lind and Tyler, 1988; Paternoster et al., 1997; Tyler, 1990; Tyler and Lind, 1992; Wemmers, 1998). This research shows that when treated fairly by authorities, people feel like members of a group, making them more likely to identify with the social order and to adhere to group norms. The emotions associated with fair treatment and feelings of group membership

are so strong that they even outweigh the impact of negative trial outcomes. In other words, people will respond positively to fair procedures independent of the outcomes of the cases in which they are involved (Lind and Tyler, 1988; Paternoster et al., 1997; Tyler, 1990; Tyler and Lind, 1992; Wemmers, 1998). These studies all support the idea that procedural fairness leads to increased satisfaction and perceived legitimacy. The next step in the procedural justice process is the effect of this perceived legitimacy and increased satisfaction.

Effects of Perceived Legitimacy and Satisfaction

The last part of the procedural justice definition is accepting authorities' decisions and obeying the law. Once a person has been treated fairly by authorities, that person will be satisfied with them, view them as legitimate, **accept the decisions that they make, and obey the law** (Paternoster et al., 1997; Sunshine and Tyler, 2003; Tyler, 1990; Tyler et al., 2007).

The research supporting that perceived legitimacy and satisfaction lead to acceptance of authorities' decisions and compliance with the law includes studies of people who were involved in civil lawsuits, offenders, and ordinary citizens. To the best of my knowledge, only two studies researched how fairness might lead people to accept legal decisions. These studies were conducted with data from civil lawsuits in Federal courts and found that parties were more likely to accept the decisions that were made when processes were considered fair, regardless of the outcomes (Lind et al, 1993; McEwen and Maiman, 1984).

On the other hand, there were several studies that researched how legitimacy of might lead people to obey the law. The earlier studies began by exploring how fairness by the police affected perceptions of the police in general (Scaglione and Condon, 1980; Sullivan et al., 1987). Then Tyler (1990) researched the effect of perceived legitimacy on obeying the law with ordinary citizens. Paternoster and his colleagues (1997) also looked at the effect of procedural fairness on obeying the law, but conducted their research with domestic violence offenders. Finally Sunshine and Tyler (2003) further delineated the effects of legitimacy by determining whether or not perceived legitimacy led to compliance with the law, cooperation with the police, and empowerment of the police. Together, these studies lend strong support to procedural justice and will be discussed in further detail below.

Two studies support the entire procedural justice process: following the path from perceived fairness to satisfaction to compliance with the law. These studies linked perceptions of the fairness of one police officer to perceptions of the police as a whole. First, Scaglione and Condon (1980) surveyed 273 people in four different neighborhoods in Pittsburgh. These neighborhoods included a low-income black neighborhood, a low-income white neighborhood, a racially diverse but mainly black neighborhood, and a white upper middle class neighborhood. This study aimed to determine the relationship between the police and the community. The researchers conducted an interview in three parts. First, they gathered information about respondents' attitudes toward the police. Next, they gathered information about the type of interactions the respondents had with the police; and finally, they gathered general socio-metric information about the respondents. The results concluded that a respondent's experience with an individual

police officer was indicative of the respondent's overall attitudes toward the police. This illustrates that the fairness of a person's encounter with an individual officer affects that person's opinion of the entire police force, which is evidence that supports procedural justice.

Next, in 1987, Sullivan and his colleagues conducted research across different neighborhoods. They chose five neighborhoods to study different age and ethnic group attitudes towards the police. These neighborhoods included a community of upper middle class black professionals, a government subsidized housing project of low-income blacks, a Cuban neighborhood, and an Anglo middle-class suburb. The researchers interviewed 78 black adults, 103 Cuban adults, 38 Anglo adults, 190 black high school students, 103 Cuban high school students, and 89 Anglo high school students. To determine the respondents' attitudes toward the police, they asked 30 questions with a Likert-type response scale, and found that the most important factor determining respondents' attitude toward the police was a police officer's demeanor. This again provides support for procedural justice. People who are treated fairly and respectfully by the police are more likely to have a positive attitude toward the police, showing support for procedural justice.

Tyler (1990) focused more specifically on how legitimacy leads to law abiding behavior. In Chicago, Tyler (1990) conducted a study in which 1,575 respondents were interviewed by phone. A year later, there was a follow-up with 804 randomly selected respondents. After determining which respondents had some interaction with the police, they were asked about their opinions of the police and the courts and whether or not they complied with the law. With respect to legitimacy, Tyler (1990) found that people who

believed the law is legitimate and moral were more likely to obey the law. Tyler (1990) also found that people relied on: their perceptions of legitimacy, whether or not they had a chance to state their case, and whether they had been treated with respect when deciding to obey the law. These factors affected respondents' decisions to obey the law, regardless of the outcome of the case.

Paternoster and his colleagues (1997) also explored the effect of legitimacy on law abiding behavior, but specifically studied domestic violence offenders. The data were collected between April 1987 and August 1992 in Milwaukee. When police officers responded to domestic violence calls, officers were given one of three randomly-assigned treatment options: giving suspects warnings with no arrest, keeping suspects for a brief period of time, or arresting suspects and keeping them in jail for a longer period of time. Paternoster and his colleagues (1997) found that when the police acted fairly during the arrest, the suspects had significantly lower rates of recidivism independent of the randomly assigned treatment options. In fact, this effect of procedural justice was stronger than the randomly assigned treatment option and was immune to changes in an offender's stake in conformity and length of time in detention.

Finally, Sunshine and Tyler (2003) also explored the effect of legitimacy, but looked at its effect on three different outcomes: compliance with the law, cooperation with the police, and empowerment of the police. The researchers conducted a survey with 586 residents in New York City in the summers of 2001 and 2002 in which they measured perceptions of the legitimacy of police action. To measure perceptions of legitimacy, they asked questions such as, "you should accept the decisions made by police, even if you think they are wrong" (p. 539) and recorded answers on a Likert-type

response scale. Next, they looked at how respondents reacted to their judgment of legitimacy and measured responses according to self-reports of compliance, cooperation, and empowerment. In the second wave of the study, Sunshine and Tyler (2003) conducted telephone interviews with 1,653 residents and again looked at respondents' view of legitimacy and the resulting compliance, cooperation, and empowerment. For both parts of the study they weighted the respondents' answers to account for biases and found that respondents' view of police legitimacy had a stronger impact than any other variable and that legitimacy influenced their willingness to comply with the law, their willingness to cooperate with the police, and their willingness to empower the police. Overall this study found support for the theory of procedural justice.

Procedural Justice Applied to Victims

The research discussed thus far has focused mainly on offenders largely due to the fact that there is limited research on victims and procedural justice. The existing procedural justice research about victims focuses on victim satisfaction, and draws the conclusion that victims' experience with the police leads to victim satisfaction with the overall criminal justice system (Erez and Tontodonata, 1992; Scaglione and Condon, 1980; Sullivan et al. 1990; Wemmers, 1998). While this research informs the current study by making the connection between experiences with the police and satisfaction with the overall criminal justice system, it fails to establish a link between victim satisfaction with the police and victim participation in prosecution. The thesis will attempt to determine whether this link exists.

Generally, studies have found that procedural fairness by criminal justice stakeholders leads to greater victim satisfaction with the criminal justice system as a whole. Two studies focused specifically on victims and the effects of procedural fairness. First, Erez and Tontodonata (1990) looked at 125 victims of felony cases in Ohio between June 1985 and January 1988. They concluded that victims who were told about the process of prosecution and who knew the extent to which they could affect the process were more likely to accept the situation, even when the situation was unfavorable. These findings provide support for procedural justice, illustrating that if victims are informed about the process, or if they experience the representation and consistency components of procedural fairness, they are more likely to accept the outcome of the process.

Next, Wemmers (1998) studied felony victims' attitudes toward legal authorities and concluded that victims' experiences with the legal system affected their attitudes toward and support for that legal system. Between September 1992 and June 1994, Wemmers interviewed 640 victims of felony crimes and found that when those victims were treated fairly by authorities, the victims were likely to have more favorable attitudes toward the entire justice system, not just police officers. This study again shows support for procedural justice by finding that procedural fairness leads to satisfaction.

These studies show that procedural justice can be used as a framework for studying the connection between victims' satisfaction and victims' participation in prosecution. For example, research suggests that if a victim's interaction with the police is procedurally fair, the victim is more likely to be satisfied with the police. Not only that, according to other research on procedural justice, a victim who is satisfied with the

police or the prosecutor will be likely to support the legitimacy and authority of the police and prosecutor as well. As supported by Wemmers (1998), I posit that this support for the police translates into support for the entire criminal justice system and will be demonstrated by increased victim participation in prosecution, including following through with the case and attending hearings.

Hypotheses

This thesis attempts to expand upon previous procedural justice research by exploring the relationship between victim satisfaction with police and victim participation in prosecution. According to procedural justice, people who believe that a process is fair, or are more satisfied with a process, are more likely to be compliant with the law and believe in its legitimacy. This research focuses on three different components that might encourage victim participation: procedural fairness, victim satisfaction with police, and victim satisfaction with prosecutors. These components may act on their own or together. Therefore, this thesis tests these hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Procedural fairness by the police will lead to greater victim participation in prosecution.

Hypothesis 2: Victim satisfaction with the police will lead to greater victim participation in prosecution.

Hypothesis 2a: Victim satisfaction with the police is a result of procedural fairness and therefore the strength of procedural fairness will decrease when victim satisfaction with the police is taken into account.

Hypothesis 3: Victim satisfaction with the prosecutor leads to victim participation in prosecution

Hypothesis 4: Victim satisfaction with the police has a weaker influence on victim participation as the prosecution process progresses and victim satisfaction with the prosecutor becomes more important to victim participation in prosecution.

Methods

Data

The data for this thesis measures the responses of victims as part of a larger study conducted by the National Center for Victims of Crime (ICPSR Study No. 2467). The original study focused on states' protections of victims' rights, collecting data from four different states: two states strong in protection in victims' rights and two states weak in protection of victims' rights. In order to determine which states were strong and which were weak, a legal analysis was conducted. The researchers who collected the data looked at victims' rights in all 50 states and rated them based on "the right to notification, the right to be present, the right to be heard, and the right to restitution" (Beatty et al., 1995, p. 5). Two states were chosen from the top 25% of states and two states were chosen from the bottom 25%. Once the states were chosen, the victims' names and contact information were gathered from departments of corrections and victims' compensation agencies; 2,245 victims with recent criminal justice experiences were located. Each victim reported the crime to the police and most had had extensive and recent experiences with the criminal justice system. These victims were contacted and asked if they or another household member had recently been a victim of a crime. A

subset of respondents (29.6% or 665 respondents) answered “no” to this question. Of the remaining 1,580 victims, interviews were conducted with 1,308 victims (83% of the victims who were located and said that they or someone in their house was a victim). The victims who participated in the survey were victims of physical assault (25%), robbery (24%), sexual assault (11%), other crimes (10%), or were relatives of homicide victims (30%).

The interviews were conducted over the telephone by a survey research firm using a computer-assisted telephone interviewing (CATI) system. Interviewers from this firm had experience conducting surveys with trauma victims, had received extensive training, and were continually supervised throughout the interview process. The questions included: when and where the crimes occurred, characteristics of the perpetrators, perpetrators’ use of force, the nature of the police response, the victim services that were available, the type of information given to the victims by the criminal justice system, the victims’ levels of participation in the criminal justice system, how the cases ended, the existence and nature of sentencing and restitution, the victims’ satisfaction with different components of the criminal justice system, and the effects of the crimes on the victims (Byrne et al, 1999). Demographic questions were also asked about the age, race, sex, education, and income of individual victims. The response options were Likert-type scales and the interviews lasted on average 40.2 minutes. They were conducted between April and October of 1995.

Strengths and Weaknesses

One of the main strengths of this data is the use of CATI. CATI requires all the questions to be in the correct order and it allows the interviewers to enter the data directly into the computer. The advantage of the direct entry of data is immediate notification of problems with answer choices, which allows the interviewer to repeat the question. In addition to CATI, the interviewers had training and prior experience with sensitive issues. Questioning victims about sensitive information can be a difficult task. Phone interviews conducted by interviewers trained in dealing with trauma victims is an effective way to elicit responses to sensitive questions, second only to having victims answer questions on their own or in face-to-face interviews (Fowler, 2009). Another strength of the data is that there were a large number of victims of different types of crimes who were from different locations within the state.

There are several weaknesses with the data including state differences, selection bias, simultaneity bias and recollection bias. For confidentiality purposes, the data set omits the names of the states in which the victims reside. This is a weakness because the four states may not be representative of the rest of the country. For example, if they are four primarily rural states they will not represent urban states. Given that four states were chosen, the data are most likely information from a mix of different types of states, but it is impossible to verify this. The data do report whether a respondent was from a strong or weak state, thus, the analysis controls for the strength or weakness of a state's protection of victims' rights.

Selection bias could have occurred in three different ways. First, the respondents who participated in the survey may be different than those who did not. The original researchers were unable to locate all 2,245 victims for phone interviews. A factor

possibly contributing to the inability to locate victims could have been the tendency for victims to move as a result of their victimizations (Dugan, 1999). It is especially difficult to find victims who have been previously victimized in their own homes. People who were located could be substantially different from the victims who were not located, but because data are unavailable for the victims who were not found, this research is unable to explore the differences.

The second source of potential selection bias concern is that the respondents who claimed that no household members were victims of previous crimes might be different from those who admitted victimization. Although all respondents were victims, 29.6% of the sample stated that there were no crime victims living in the household. This might have systematically excluded people who were victimized by household members if they were avoiding potential conflict. For example, if a domestic violence offender answered the phone, or was present in the room when the phone was answered, the respondent may not have been forthcoming. Unfortunately, because no data are available for these victims, this thesis is unable to determine the nature of these differences.

The third source of potential selection bias is that the respondents who did respond to the survey did not answer all of the questions. Some victims did not rate satisfaction with the police or prosecutor and some victims did not have any participation opportunities. By excluding these victims, the sample lost 453 cases. The sample selection and ramifications will be discussed in more detail in the sample section.

The final weakness results from the retrospective data collection strategy, which causes difficulties when drawing conclusions about causality because it relies on victims who might have faulty memories. The researchers from the original study reported that

the victims were all “fairly recent” victims (Byrne et al., 1999). The question in the survey asks how long ago victimization occurred. The answer options were: “Within the Past Year,” “1–2 Years Ago,” “2–3 Years Ago,” “3 or More Years,” and “Don’t Know/Not Sure.” This causes two different problems: simultaneity bias and recollection bias. Simultaneity bias is present in cases where the victims rated their satisfaction with the police after their interactions with the criminal justice system were complete, potentially causing their opinions of the police to be biased by other experiences, such as interactions with the prosecutor or the outcome of the proceedings. Recollection bias may be present because too much time has passed and the victims may have forgotten whether they were satisfied with the police. Their memories could also have led them to refrain from answering the question, or to answer the question inaccurately. I ran a sensitivity analysis comparing victims whose experiences were 2 years ago or less to those whose experiences were two years ago or more. The substantive findings were the same. Therefore, I kept all the respondents in the same model and controlled for time since incident.

Sample

In order to determine the final sample, the full data set went through several reductions. The original data set consisted of 1,308 observations, and after the reductions, this thesis’ sample consists of only 850 observations, a reduction of 35%. First, because this thesis is concerned with victims’ satisfaction with police and prosecutors, the respondents who did not rate their satisfaction with the police or prosecutors were dropped (N=269). Next, because victims could only choose to

participate if they had the opportunity to participate, respondents who were given no opportunity to participate were dropped (N=184). Finally, five other respondents were dropped for refusing to answer questions that are used as control variables. In total, 458 cases were dropped.

To determine if dropping these cases affects the generalizability of this thesis, a multinomial regression was performed to analyze the difference between the final sample and each of these groups: 1) respondents who did not rate their satisfaction and who did not have any participation opportunities, 2) respondents who rated their satisfaction, but did not have any opportunities, and 3) respondents who did not rate their satisfaction, but did have at least one opportunity (*See* Table 1). The final sample for this thesis was used as a reference category for the multinomial regression. Because only five cases were dropped for victims who did not answer control variable questions, the five cases are part of the reference group. A multinomial regression was chosen for this analysis in order to more efficiently compare the final sample to the three different groups of respondents. While a logistic regression could have compared everyone not selected collectively to everyone selected, the multinomial regression allows this thesis to explore the differences between all three types of respondents who were removed from the analysis.

[Insert Table 1 about Here]

The groups were compared on a number of different characteristics including: race, sex, whether the offender was a stranger, whether a weapon was used in the incident, education level, employment status, whether the relationship with the offender

was a domestic relationship, whether the respondent was a victim, state the offense occurred in, age of the respondent, time since the incident, and whether the respondent was injured in the incident. Table 1 shows all the significant results from the multinomial regression. Those in the final sample are more likely than those who did not rate satisfaction and did not have an opportunity to participate to be white, female, have a known offender, have a weapon used in their crime, be employed, be a family member of a homicide victim, be from a state strong in protections of victims' rights, and to not have been injured in the incident.

Similarly, those in the final sample are more likely than those who rated their satisfaction and did not have any opportunities to be white and female, have known the offender, be a college graduate, be a family member of a homicide victim, be from a state strong in protection in victims' rights, and be younger. Finally, those respondents who did not rate their satisfaction, but did have at least one opportunity are fewer in number and have fewer characteristics that are significant. For this group, the final sample is more likely than these respondents to be a family member of a homicide victim, be younger, and have been a victim of the crime more recently (less than three years ago). The sample reductions in this research have caused a number of significant differences between the characteristics of respondents in the sample and the entire data set. This limits the generalizability of this study¹.

The final sample selection was done after conducting a sensitivity analysis between respondents who were victims of the crime and respondents who were family members of homicide victims. This sensitivity analysis found different substantive

¹ Heckman's two-step correction may be an appropriate fix for this selection bias, but this thesis will not be conducting the correction (Bushway et al., 2007).

results for the two groups. Therefore, I conducted the analyses for victim and family members separately. See Table 2 for a description of the finalized sample. From this point on in this thesis, the entire sample will be referred to as respondents, victims of crime will be victims, and family members of homicide victims will be family members.

[Insert Table 2 about Here]

Dependent Variables: Participation Opportunities and Participation Rate

Victim participation was not directly asked in the survey. Instead, respondents who rated their satisfaction with police were asked about four different opportunities to participate in the criminal justice system. These opportunities were: recommending the defendant's release on bond, attending the grand jury hearing, attending the sentencing hearing, and making a written or oral victim impact statement. Not all respondents were given all four opportunities to participate (*See* Table 3). For each opportunity that a respondent had to participate, the interviewer asked whether or not the respondent did participate. Answer options were "Yes," "No," "Not Sure/Don't Know," or "Unknown." For example, the question about the defendant's release on bond was, "Did you actually make a recommendation concerning the defendant's release on bond?" The "Unknown" answer is the result of a skip pattern. Respondents who answered "No" and "Not sure" and those who were coded as "Unknown" were removed from the analysis for that opportunity. See Table 4 for a description of how many respondents had an opportunity to participate in the various hearings.

[Insert Tables 3 and 4 about Here]

In addition to examining the participation for each opportunity separately, this thesis also explores respondents' overall participation. To create a measure of overall participation, this thesis combined the four participation opportunities to make one participation variable: participation rate. The participation rate is the number of times each victim participated divided by the number of opportunities the victim had in which to participate. This resulted in a continuous outcome variable (*See* Figure 1).

[Insert Figure 1 about Here]

Independent Variables: Victim Satisfaction with Police and Victim Satisfaction with the Prosecutor

In these data, to determine victim satisfaction with the police and the prosecutor, respondents were asked a set of specific questions about their satisfaction with various members of the criminal justice system: "Based on your experience in this case, how satisfied were you with [item]. Were you satisfied, somewhat satisfied, somewhat dissatisfied, not at all satisfied with [item]?" Interviewers asked respondents about their satisfaction with the police, the prosecutors, victim/witness staff, the judge, and the criminal justice system. The response was a Likert-type satisfaction scale coded with the four satisfaction responses and "Not Applicable" "Not Sure," "Refused," or "Unknown." "Unknown" is what this dataset uses for skip patterns. This question was skipped when the respondent said that the suspect was never arrested or the respondent did not know

whether the suspect was arrested. Because these respondents did not have an opportunity to participate in prosecution, I excluded them from the analysis. In addition, respondents that stated “Not Applicable,” “Not Sure,” and “Refused,” were dropped. While the respondents who did not choose to answer this question could be different from those who did, this study concerns levels of satisfaction, and it can only look at those victims who rated their satisfaction. For this variable, I dropped 204 cases in which respondents did not rate their satisfaction with police and 65 cases in which respondents did not rate their satisfaction with the prosecutors (*See* discussion of sample reduction above). See Table 5 for the frequency distribution of the variables.

[Insert Table 5 about Here]

Procedural Fairness Variables

In an attempt to explore the entire procedural justice process, I used procedural fairness variables to represent the first part of the procedural justice definition. The procedural fairness variables correspond with the six components of procedural fairness: representation, consistency, impartiality, accuracy, correctability, and ethicality (Leventhal, 1976, 1980; Paternoster et al., 1997; Tyler, 1990, 2010). The information about the presence of procedural fairness variables comes from respondents’ answers to several questions that were asked about their opinions of the police. On the survey, these questions (question 15) were asked before the questions about victims’ satisfaction with police (question 62). The procedural fairness questions include: whether or not the victim thought the police tried to be polite (ethicality), whether the police seemed to care

about what happened (accuracy), whether they showed an interest in the victims' feelings (ethicality), whether they were willing to talk about what happened (representation), whether they were interested in catching the offenders (accuracy), and whether they tried to gather all of the evidence (accuracy) (*See* Table 6). The data are lacking questions related to the police for three components of procedural fairness: consistency, impartiality, and correctability. I coded each of the procedural fairness variables as a dummy variable where "Yes"=1. I was unable to include a measure of procedural fairness of prosecutors because the survey lacked questions that corresponded to prosecutor procedural fairness. These variables will be referred to as "PFV" throughout this thesis.

[Insert Table 6 about Here]

Control Variables

In order to reduce the chances that the relationship between victim satisfaction and victim participation is influenced by an omitted variable, I controlled for several other variables. While Paternoster et al. (1997) found that individual characteristics did not change the effects of procedural justice, it is important to control for these factors due to other researchers' findings of the effects of individual characteristics on specific pieces of the procedural justice process. The individual characteristics I controlled for were: race, sex, age, education, employment, and relationship to offender. The other variables I controlled for were whether or not a weapon was involved in the incident, how long ago the crime occurred, whether the victim was from a state strong in protections of victims'

rights or a state weak in protections, and in the participation rate model, number of opportunities.

There are several studies that explore the effect of race on attitudes toward the police and the criminal justice system as a whole. One study found that the most negative attitudes toward the police are held by racial minorities (Tewksbury et al., 1998). Other studies do not have a directional finding, but instead claim only that race has an influence on attitudes toward the criminal justice system in general (Erez, 1984; Jacob, 1971). When dealing with prosecutors, non-whites are significantly more likely than whites to report having spoken with the prosecutor (Tewksbury et al., 1998). These few studies show that there is reason to believe there may be differences based on race. The original race variable was coded into categories of “White,” “Black,” “Hispanic,” “Asian,” and “Other.” Due to the fact that there are few Hispanic, Asian and Other respondents, I combined all the non-white respondents into one group. I created a dummy variable where “White” = 1.

Gender is another difference that may affect the levels of a victim’s satisfaction with the police. This research appears to be mixed. One study claimed that gender did not affect the level of satisfaction (Bradl and Horvath, 1991). Tewksbury et al. (1998) on the other hand focused on victims’ interactions with prosecutors and found that females tend to rate prosecutors as acting in a sympathetic manner more than males do. They also found that female victims are more likely than male victims to be satisfied and have interactions with victim advocates. Given the contradictory nature of these two studies, gender is also worth exploring to determine what, if any, effect it has on victims’ participation in prosecution. This variable is a dummy variable where “Male” = 1.

Age was also studied by several different researchers. One study found that age does influence a victim's attitude towards the criminal justice system (Walker et al., 1972). Bradl and Horvath (1991) looked at the effect of age on specific crimes. They found that for serious cases, younger victims were less likely to be satisfied than older victims. As with the other characteristics, Tewksbury et al (1998) looked at the relationship with prosecutors. They found that older victims are more likely to be satisfied and that younger victims are more likely to think that the prosecutor is self-interested. Again, this research shows that there may in fact be a difference in a victim's attitude toward the criminal justice system that is affected by a victim's age. Age is a continuous variable with a mean of 42.76, a maximum of 82, and a minimum of 12. Because the research shows that being young or old may affect satisfaction differently, the relationship between age and participation may not be linear. For example, a young person may not participate often, then as that person ages, their participation may increase until leveling off at a certain point or decreasing when that victim reaches a certain age. For this reason, I also created a square term for age.

Education level is another variable that may affect the relationship between victim satisfaction with police and victim participation. One study conducted in Canada found that Canadians with less than a high school level education are less satisfied with the criminal justice system (Tufts, 2000). Education level is coded by the last year of education the respondent completed. The lowest is "8th Grade or Less," and the highest is "Graduate Degree." For education, I created two dummy variables. One dummy is where respondents with no high school diploma ("Drop Out") = 1 and the other is where those with at least a college degree ("At Least College Degree") = 1.

Employed people may be less likely to participate in prosecution because they are unable to be absent from work to attend meetings or court hearings or they may be unable to be reached during the day to provide input into a criminal case. This variable is coded with: “Employed Full Time,” “Employed Part Time,” “Unemployed,” “Retired,” “Student,” “Keeping House,” “Disabled,” “Other,” and “Refused.” Those who chose not to answer the question were dropped with the earlier sample selection. I created one dummy variable where those people employed full time or part time (“Employed Full Time” or “Employed Part Time”) = 1. While students also may have a restrictive schedule, there are a small number of students (N=28) and when examined separately, the substantive findings are the same.

The victim’s relationship with the offender was also included as a control variable. One study that focused on domestic violence relationships found that when victims were assaulted by an intimate partner, they were less likely to be satisfied with the people working within the criminal justice system and the criminal justice system as a whole (Byrne et al., 1999). Other reasons domestic violence victims may be different include: close relationships may be more likely to lead to witness tampering, victims may be less or more likely to want the person punished than in cases where victims have no previous ties to defendants, and victims may be more fearful of defendants. The question from the survey asked, “Did you know this person (or persons) who committed the crime or was it a stranger?” If victims said they knew the person they were asked, “Was this person a relative, a friend, a co-worker or someone else?” The responses were: “Relative,” “Boyfriend/Girlfriend,” “Friend,” “Co-worker,” “Neighbor,” “Other,” “Not Sure,” or “Refused to Answer.” I dropped the case where a victim refused to answer

(N=1) and then I joined together “Relative” and “Boyfriend/Girlfriend.” From these two questions I created two dummy variables: “Stranger” = 1 and “Relative/Boyfriend/Girlfriend” = 1.

The seriousness of the incident will be judged by whether or not there was a weapon used to commit the offense. When a weapon was used, a victim may have been fearful to such a degree that the victim refused to participate in prosecution. The question for weapon use was, “Did the person who committed the crime have a weapon, such as a gun or a knife or something that was used as a weapon?” The answers for this question were “Yes,” “No,” “Don’t Know,” “Refused,” and “Unknown.” I created this dummy variable with “Weapon” (having a weapon) = 1. I am only focusing on the people who knew there was a weapon, because they most likely felt the most impact from their fear.

I also control for the length of time since the crime and the differences between states’ protection of victims’ rights. Length of time since the crime was a question that asked, “How long ago did the crime occur?” The answers ranged from within the last year to three or more years ago. I created a dummy variable where “Three or more years ago” = 1. For state, I created a dummy variable where a state strong in protections of victims’ rights (“Strong State”) = 1. Finally, in the final model that explores the effect of victim satisfaction with the police on overall participation, I control for the number of participation opportunities.

Statistical Models

For the primary analysis, I run a series of logistic regressions for each of the four participation opportunities. At each participation opportunity three models are run. First,

I run a logistic regression with the PFVs, then I add victim satisfaction with police, and finally I add victim satisfaction with the prosecutors. The three models can be expressed as:

Model 1 (Hypothesis 1): $P(\text{Participation}=1)=f(\text{PF}/x)$

Model 2 (Hypothesis 2): $P(\text{Participation}=1)=f(\text{respondent satisfaction with police, antecedent}/x)$

Model 3 (Hypothesis 3): $P(\text{Participation}=1)=f(\text{respondent satisfaction with prosecutor, respondent satisfaction with police, PF}/x)^2$

Conducting these three logistic regressions in sequence allows me to explore whether or not the PFVs are working independently, or through police satisfaction and whether or not satisfaction with police has a stronger effect on victim participation than satisfaction with prosecutors. By conducting a logistic regression at each participation opportunity I can also judge whether, as hypothesis four proposes, prosecutor satisfaction becomes stronger than police satisfaction as the prosecution process progresses. Given that the police interaction is such an important interaction, it is likely that respondent satisfaction with the police will affect respondent satisfaction with the prosecutor. Finally, I conduct one Tobit regression, with a lower limit of zero and an upper limit of one, to look at overall participation using the participation rate. The Tobit model is used because as

² This thesis does not include victim satisfaction with the prosecutor in a model on its own for two reasons: 1) victim satisfaction with police predicts victim satisfaction with the prosecutor, therefore it is necessary to control for victim satisfaction with police in the model that addresses victim satisfaction with the prosecutor, and 2) when victim satisfaction with the prosecutor is in a model without the other independent variables, the results are only different at the victim impact statement and for participation rate for family members. Those two findings are significant when victim satisfaction with the prosecutor is included with the two other independent variables and insignificant when it is in the model on its own.

shown by the distribution in Figure 1, there are large numbers of zeros and ones, illustrating censored data.³

Results

Before reporting the primary results it is important to discuss the correlations between the PFVs and respondent satisfaction with police. In order to explore all the correlations, it was necessary to run a correlation matrix for family members and victims for each hearing, with each matrix including those who had an opportunity to participate (See Appendix A). Each matrix showed that there is a high correlation between almost all the variables. In order to correct for the high correlations, I attempted a factor analysis, but when combined into one factor, all the unique aspects of each PFV washed out: individually, some of the PFVs were significant, but when they were combined into one factor, the factor was no longer significant. Since it is useful to see the different effects of each individual PFV on participation, for the purposes of this paper, only one PFV was used for each model. Instead of imposing the same PFV on all models, the variable that demonstrated the most robust result was selected for each model using the following strategy: if one PFV was significant when all of the variables were included in the model, that is the variable that was used. In each model, there was never more than one significant PFV. If none of the PFVs were significant, variables were removed one at a time, starting with the least significant until the model was left with only one PFV.

The results for this analysis will be presented with respect to each hypothesis. Before discussing each Hypothesis separately, I will report on all the control variables.

³ The Cragg specification could be used in order to provide a more general estimation for overall participation, but this thesis will not be using a Cragg model (Smith and Brame, 2003).

Following the control variables, I will discuss Hypothesis 1: whether the PFVs have a direct effect on each participation opportunity and on overall participation. Next, I will discuss Hypotheses 2 and 2a: whether respondent satisfaction with the police has an effect on participation and if that effect weakens the effect of the PFVs. Finally, I will discuss Hypotheses 3 and 4: whether respondent satisfaction with the prosecutor increases respondent participation in prosecution and whether that relationship is stronger as the prosecution process progresses.

As shown by Table 4, by splitting the sample into two groups, victims and family members, the sample for each participation opportunity is small. This small sample size has low statistical power, potentially causing Type II error. The hearing and group that is most prone to Type II errors is family members at the grand jury hearing (N=102). Despite this potential problem, most variables of interest are either significant or far from being significant, suggesting that Type II errors are unlikely.

Control Variables

Tables 7-10 provide insight about the relationship between the control variables and respondent participation in prosecution. Overall, the results of the control variables are as expected, supporting the choice of models for this thesis. All the significant control variables are in the expected direction except for one: for family members at the grand jury hearing, if the offender was a stranger, the respondent was 3.7 (1/0.267) times less likely to appear at the hearing ($p=0.040$, $OR=0.267$). The control variables that are statistically significant are not consistently significant throughout the results. “Dropout” is the control variable that is statistically significant most often. It is significant at the

bail/bond hearing for victims, at the victim impact statement for victims and family members, and for overall participation. When “dropout” is significant, a person without a high school diploma is less likely to participate. “Strong State” is another variable that is significant numerous times, always in the expected direction; if the crime occurred in a state strong in protection of victims’ rights, the respondent is more likely to participate in the process. “Strong State” is significant for family members for both the grand jury hearing and overall participation. For victims, “Strong State” is significant for bail/bond hearing, grand jury hearing, and overall participation rate. There are several control variables that are statistically unrelated to participation including race and gender of the respondent and whether a weapon was used in the incident. Now that the control variables have been discussed, I will next discuss the results of each Hypothesis individually.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1: Procedural fairness by the police will lead to greater victim participation in prosecution ($OR_{PF} > 1$).

Participation Opportunities for Individual Hearings

Tables 7 and 8 (Model 1) show the results for the logistic regressions using one PFV as the independent variable for both family members and victims. Overall, the effects of the PFVs on respondent participation in prosecution are mixed. Two of the results significantly support the hypothesis, four of the results are null, and two results are significant in the opposite direction.

Overall, for family members, one of the four participation opportunities is positively affected by the PFV: sentencing (*See* Table 7). Notably, when respondents felt the police were polite, a family member was six times more likely to go to the sentencing hearing ($p=0.044$). On the flip side, the only significant negative relationship for family members is at the grand jury hearing (*See* Table 8; $OR=0.230$, $p=0.054$). When a family member feels as though the police tried to gather all the necessary evidence, they are 4.3 ($1/0.230$) times less likely to participate in the grand jury hearing. Victims had an equal split amongst the hearings: two PFVs were positively related to participation and two were negatively related to participation. Just as was true for family members, there was one positive and one negative significant relationship between the PFV and participation in prosecution. For victims, the bail/bond hearing did have the expected relationship (*See* Table 8). When the police were willing to talk to the victim about what happened, that victim was three times more likely to attend the bail/bond hearing ($p=0.004$). The negative relationship occurred at the grand jury hearing: when the police showed an interest in the respondent's feelings, the respondent was less likely to participate ($OR=0.374$, $p=0.028$). Overall, the results for Hypothesis 1 for individual participation opportunities are mixed, although the most significant relationship is in the expected direction: when a victim thought the police were willing to talk to them that victim was more likely to participate in the bail/bond hearing ($p=0.004$).

Participation Rate

Tables 9 and 10 show the Tobit regression results for the overall participation rate. These results show some support for Hypothesis 1. For victims, the presence of a

PFV led to greater overall participation rates (*See* Table 10; $p=0.074$). If victims thought the police gave them a chance to talk about what happened then they were more likely to participate. On the other hand, the results for family members, although in the expected direction, are not approaching significance (*See* Table 9; $p=0.423$). In sum, the results for overall participation for victims support Hypothesis 1 and individual participation opportunities show mixed results. For all opportunities, when respondents thought the police gave them a chance to talk, they always participated more. This suggests that the representation portion of the procedural fairness definition may be the most important portion.

Hypotheses 2 and 2a

Hypothesis 2: Victim satisfaction with the police will lead to greater victim participation in prosecution.

Hypothesis 2a: Victim satisfaction with the police is a result of procedural fairness and therefore the strength of procedural fairness will decrease when victim satisfaction with the police is taken into account.

Participation Opportunities for Individual Hearings

Tables 7 and 8 (Model 2) show the results for the logistic regression with both a PFV and respondent satisfaction with the police as independent variables. First I will report the results for Hypothesis 2. For family members and victims, there is one result that significantly supports Hypothesis 2. The remaining seven results are insignificant. The significant result is at the bail/bond hearing for family members: when a family

member is satisfied with the police, they are 1.3 times more likely to attend the bail/bond hearing (*See* Table 7; $p=0.072$). Of the insignificant results, there is one result approaching significance: the bail/bond hearing for victims (*See* Table 8; $p=0.146$). This result is also in the expected direction suggesting that when a victim is more satisfied with the police, they are more likely to attend the bail/bond hearing. These results provide some support for Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 2a has mixed results: when respondent satisfaction with the police was added, the effect of the PFVs strengthened in some cases and weakened in others. For family members, the strength of the PFV only decreased in significance for two participation opportunities: sentencing and victim impact statement. For victims, the PFVs became less significant for three out of the four opportunities: bail/bond hearing, grand jury hearing, and victim impact statement (*See* Tables 8, Models 1 and 2). Overall, the PFVs lost significance when respondent satisfaction with the police was added in five out of the eight participation opportunities, showing some support for the procedural justice process. This is evidence that procedural fairness leads to satisfaction.

Participation Rate

Tables 9 and 10 (Model 2) show the Tobit regression results for the overall participation rate with a PFV and respondent satisfaction with the police as the independent variables. The relationship between respondent satisfaction with police and overall participation was not significant for family members ($p=0.670$) or victims ($p=0.557$). The PFVs for both family members and victims did decrease in significance, illustrating that victim satisfaction with police may in fact be working through the PFVs. These results do not support Hypotheses 2, but do support Hypothesis 2a.

Hypotheses 3 and 4

Hypothesis 3: Victim satisfaction with the prosecutor leads to victim participation in prosecution.

Hypothesis 4: Victim satisfaction with the police has a weaker influence on victim participation as the prosecution process progresses and victim satisfaction with the prosecutor becomes more important to victim participation in prosecution.

Participation Opportunities for Individual Hearings

Tables 7 and 8 (Model 3) show the results for the logistic regression with three independent variables: a PFV, respondent satisfaction with the police, and respondent satisfaction with the prosecutor. The results show some support for Hypothesis 3: two significant results support Hypothesis 3 and the remaining eight results are not significant. The two significant relationships are the victim impact statement for family members ($p=0.05$) and the bail/bond hearing for victims ($p=0.038$). These results show that when a family member is more satisfied with the prosecutor, they are 1.9 times more likely to provide a victim impact statement and when a victim is more satisfied with the prosecutor, they are 1.3 times more likely to appear at the bail/bond hearing. These results illustrate that victim satisfaction with the prosecutor leads to greater participation. Overall Hypothesis 3 has some support that increased satisfaction with the prosecutor leads to greater participation in prosecution.

Figures 2 and 3 illustrate the results for Hypothesis 4. These figures illustrate the change in the effects of respondents' satisfaction with the police and prosecutor over

hearings. The thicker lines show the change in the odds ratios over hearings and the light dotted lines illustrate the 95% confidence bounds. Since this hypothesis is comparing coefficients from different models with different sample sizes, the results may be misleading. For that reason, this thesis also compared the coefficients for both victims and family members who had all four opportunities (n=57) and found that both the effects for respondent satisfaction with the police and the prosecutor decrease over hearing (*See Appendix B*). Because the sample is so small, it was necessary to keep victims and family members together and to remove all of the control variables except state. Keeping family members and victims together also may not be an accurate representation of the change of the effect of victim satisfaction with the police and prosecutors because as the sensitivity analysis and results demonstrate, these two groups are affected differently by their satisfaction with the police and prosecutors. In addition, victim impact statement could not be included because all the respondents who had an opportunity for a victim impact statement participated. For these reasons, despite the limitations of comparing different sample sizes, this thesis did also look at the change of the effects for victims and family members. When looking at the results between the models with different sample sizes, the results for Hypothesis 4 are mixed: family member results support the hypothesis and victim results do not support it. For family members, although there are no significant changes over time, the general patterns support the hypothesis. For family members, the effect of the police does drop over hearings and the effect of the prosecutor increases over hearings showing support for Hypothesis 4. On the other hand, for victims, the effect of the police drops slightly, rises again, and then drops to almost the same effect that is present at the bail/bond hearing, thus not supporting Hypothesis 4. At

the bail/bond hearing, a family member's increased satisfaction with the police causes them to be 1.2 times more likely to attend the hearing. For a victim impact statement, increased satisfaction causes a family member to be 1.1 times more likely to participate. For victims, satisfaction with the prosecutor has a similar effect: first, the effect weakens; next, it remains relatively constant; and finally it increases again, although in the opposite direction. At the bail/bond hearing, a family member who is satisfied with the prosecutor is 1.3 times *more* likely to attend the hearing. For the victim impact statement, a family member who is satisfied with the prosecutor is 1.3 times *less* likely to participate. For victims, the fluctuations of the effect of satisfaction with the prosecutor do not support Hypothesis 4. In sum, the results for family members do support Hypothesis 4, but the results for victims do not support Hypothesis 4.⁴

[Insert Figures 2 and 3 about Here]

Participation Rate

Tables 9 and 10 show the Tobit regression results for the overall participation rate with a PFV, respondent satisfaction with the police, and respondent satisfaction with the prosecutor as the independent variables. These results do not support Hypothesis 3. In fact, for family members, increased satisfaction with the prosecutor actually leads to less participation ($p=0.034$). As a family member becomes more satisfied with the prosecutor, they are 10.5 times less likely to participate. For victims, the relationship between victim satisfaction with the police and overall participation is far from

⁴ In addition, respondent satisfaction with the police does predict respondent satisfaction with the prosecutor, suggesting that the interaction a victim has with the police does affect their experience with the entire criminal justice system.

significant ($p=0.771$), illustrating that victim satisfaction with the police may not affect participation. With this evidence, there is no support for Hypothesis 3 for overall participation.

Discussion

This thesis used procedural justice as a framework to explore the relationship between victim satisfaction with the police and victim participation in prosecution. Although overall the results are mixed, there are some summary conclusions that can be taken from the data. This section will first discuss the significant findings that refute the hypotheses, next, explore the remaining significant findings, then, look at the theoretical and policy implications resulting from these findings, and finally, discuss limitations and future research.

Significant Results

Results that Refute the Hypotheses

Surprisingly, there are three different results that oppose the hypotheses. For family members and victims at the grand jury stage, procedural fairness by the police meant that they were less likely to appear at the hearing (Hypothesis 1). Also, for family members, increased satisfaction with the prosecutor was linked to less overall participation (Hypothesis 3). One possible explanation for these surprising findings is that if the family members and victims felt as though the police and prosecutors were doing everything they could to make a case against the offender, they may have felt it was unnecessary to participate. Respondents may see their participation as utilitarian,

and if they feel as though their participation is not essential or needed, they may not participate. Conversely, respondents who do not feel as though the police and prosecutors are trying to make a case against the offender may be more likely to participate because they want to make sure the offender is processed correctly.

Hypothesis 1: Procedural fairness by the police will lead to greater victim participation in prosecution.

Tables 11 and 12 show the significant findings for family members and victims. Hypothesis 1 is partially supported. When family members thought the police were polite they were six times more likely to attend the sentencing hearing. When victims thought the police gave them an opportunity to talk they were three times more likely to attend the bail/bond hearing and more likely to participate in the entire process. Both of these results show support for procedural justice, with certain aspects of procedural fairness leading to viewing the system as legitimate and obeying the systems' rules.

In addition to the support for Hypothesis 1, there are also significant results that do not support Hypothesis 1. The following PFVs lead to less participation: 1) when a family member thought that the police were interested in catching the offender they participated less often at the bail/bond hearing; 2) when a family member thought the police were trying to gather all the necessary evidence they were less likely to participate at the grand jury hearing; 3) when a victim felt as though the police showed an interest in their feelings, that victim was less likely to attend the grand jury hearing.

In addition to the explanation discussed above, victims may have different reasons for not participating. Prior research found that the criminal case can provide

psychological healing for a victim (Gutheil et al., 2000; Kilpatrick and Otto, 1987).

When the police show an interest in the victim's feelings, it is possible that the police help with psychological healing making participation in the criminal case less necessary for a victim. Also, since the police had a negative effect on participation for both family members and victims at the grand jury hearing, it is likely that there is something special about the grand jury hearing. For example, the police may actually discourage respondents from attending the grand jury hearing. In sum, the significant results show some support for Hypothesis 1, but also suggest that although procedural fairness does affect participation, the effect is not always in the expected direction.

Hypothesis 2: Victim satisfaction with the police will lead to greater victim participation in prosecution.

The significant results also show some support for Hypothesis 2. For family members, as a respondent becomes more satisfied with the police, they are one time more likely to participate in the bail/bond hearing. Victims' satisfaction with the police, on the other hand, shows no support for Hypothesis 2. Victims' satisfaction with the police is never significantly related to victim participation in prosecution. This suggests that victims' satisfaction with the police is not important enough to overcome the barriers that victims face when deciding to participate.

Hypothesis 2a: Victim satisfaction with the police is a result of procedural fairness and therefore the strength of procedural fairness will decrease when victim satisfaction with the police is taken into account.

There is mixed support for Hypothesis 2a. All of the significant PFVs lose significance when respondent satisfaction with the police is added to the model except for police evidence at the grand jury hearing for family members. This PFV actually gains significance. One reason this could be occurring is because of the high correlation between the PFV and respondent satisfaction with the police (0.5195). If respondents were unable to distinguish between the PFV and satisfaction questions, they would be measuring the same thing, and the results could be affected by the correlation.

Hypothesis 3: Victim satisfaction with the prosecutor leads to victim participation in prosecution

Hypothesis 3 has partial support. For family members, increased satisfaction with the prosecutor leads to increased participation in the victim impact statement (OR=1.84). For victims, increased satisfaction with the prosecutor leads to increased participation in the bail/bond hearing (OR=1.31). There is also one significant result that does not support Hypothesis 3. For family members, increased satisfaction with the prosecutor leads to less overall participation. This finding is discussed above. These findings suggest that respondent satisfaction with the prosecutor is important at some hearings for some respondents.

Hypothesis 4: Victim satisfaction with the police has a weaker influence on victim participation as the prosecution process progresses and victim satisfaction with the prosecutor becomes more important to victim participation in prosecution.

The results for Hypothesis 4 are mixed. As discussed in the results section, the effects of the police and the prosecutor over hearing support Hypothesis 4 for family members, but not for victims. When focusing only on the significant results, it also appears as though there is some support for Hypothesis 4. For family members, satisfaction with the prosecutor is not a significant relationship until the victim impact statement, suggesting that, as hypothesized, a family member's satisfaction with the prosecutor is only important at the end of the process. On the other hand, the significant results for victims appear to refute Hypothesis 4. Satisfaction with the prosecutor is only significant at the bail/bond hearing suggesting that satisfaction with the prosecutor is only important at the beginning of the prosecution process. One reason these results could be occurring is because the involvement of police and prosecutors may vary by case. For some cases, the police are involved throughout the entire process, working with the victim to collect evidence and addressing safety concerns. In other cases, the police may only be present at the arrest and at trial. The same may be true for a prosecutor. In some cases, the prosecutor may have constant contact with a victim and in other cases the prosecutor may not be in contact with the victim at all. If police and prosecutor involvement varies with the case, the influence of victims' satisfaction with the police and prosecutor will not be consistent throughout the prosecution process, thus not supporting Hypothesis 4.

In sum, the results for this thesis find limited support all of the hypotheses for certain populations at certain hearings. This suggests that both the police and prosecutors are important to victim participation, but that further research should be conducted to determine what type of victim these interactions matter for and under what

circumstances. Before further discussing future research, I will discuss what impact these results have on procedural justice and policy.

Theoretical Implications

The current research can not definitively expand procedural justice to include victims and their participation in prosecution. I hypothesized that if a victim believed the police were procedurally fair, the victim would be satisfied with the police, they would be more likely to believe in the legitimacy of the entire system, accept the decisions of the system, and obey the systems' rules (participation). There is evidence that procedural fairness leads to participation, but there is also evidence that procedural fairness by the police actually leads to less participation. Family members had one opportunity in which satisfaction with the police significantly led to participation: bail/bond hearing. Also, for significant and insignificant relationships, in the majority of opportunities for family members and victims (five out of eight), the significance of the PFVs decreased when respondent satisfaction with police was added. While this is not conclusive evidence supporting procedural justice, this is enough evidence to show that procedural justice may in fact be a process that works for victims in a similar fashion that it works for offenders. Of particular note is that letting victims talk about what happened is most significantly related to more participation. This suggests that the representation portion of procedural fairness may be the most important portion for victims

Policy Implications

The finding that most clearly leads to a policy implication is relationship between victims talking with the police about what happened and their participation in the prosecution process. There is also evidence that the police are important for both victims and family members at all opportunities except for sentencing and the victim impact statement. This illustrates that the actions of the police do affect victim participation in prosecution. With this knowledge in hand, the police can work to have a positive effect on participation. Further research needs to be conducted to delineate what behavior matters when, for whom, and how, but the results strongly demonstrate that the police's actions do affect participation early in the prosecution process.

In addition, the results of this thesis illustrate that prosecutors' actions affect participation for both victims and family members. Again, more research needs to be conducted to determine what direction this effect is and when it matters most. The results show that family members' satisfaction with the prosecutor at the victim impact statement stage and victims' satisfaction at the bail/bond hearing leads to more participation. Using this data within a procedural justice framework may provide insight for prosecutors to work with these groups at these stages to increase participation.

In sum, the results suggest that both the actions of the police and prosecutors matter when trying to encourage victims to participate in the prosecution process. Although the results are not clear about how the police and prosecutor matter, after further research there may be more clear policy directions on what actions the police and prosecutors should take to encourage participation.

Limitations and Future Research

There are four main limitations to this study: sample selection, sample size, temporal ambiguity, and high correlations. When discussing these limitations, I will also discuss how future research may be able to address the limitations.

Sample Selection and Sample Size

As discussed in the sample section, to answer the relevant questions for this thesis, it was necessary to drop certain respondents from the analysis. The respondents who were dropped were significantly different from those who were left in the analysis on a number of characteristics including race, gender, and the state in which the crime occurred. These differences cause a sample selection problem and limit the generalizability of the research. Unfortunately, because of the differences between the respondents who were dropped from the analysis and those who remained, the results from this thesis are only truly generalizable to victims with the same characteristics as the sample selected.

Related to the issue of sample selection, the sample size for this thesis is small. Once the sample was split by hearing and into family members and victims, several groups had sample sizes less than 200. While this is not necessarily a problem, it does have the potential for a Type II error: some of the results that would have been significant are not significant. Due to the small sample size, the results are more conservative than they would be with a larger sample. The conclusion that the police and prosecutor do matter does not change, but some of the results that were not significant may have been significant with a larger sample size.

Future research could attempt to solve sample selection and the small sample size by collecting more data and asking more questions. If there were a larger selection of people who rated their satisfaction and had opportunities to participate, the analysis sample may not have been different on as many factors, causing the results to be more generalizable. Also, the larger sample would reduce Type II error. In addition to increasing the sample size, the researchers could ask more questions of the sample. The data only had four participation opportunities in which the respondents were asked about opportunity to participate and actual participation. There are many more opportunities that a respondent could have participated in, but the data did not have the sequence of questions. With more questions about whether the respondent had the opportunity to participate, fewer respondents would have been dropped for having no opportunities and data could have been collected for other important stages. For example, the trial is a very important participation opportunity both for the respondent and for the criminal justice system. This data did not have information on whether the respondent was subpoenaed for the trial. In sum, future research can increase the sample size and correct for sample selection by surveying more respondents and by asking the respondents more questions.

Temporal Ambiguity

Another limitation of this research is temporal ambiguity. Because the questions about satisfaction with the police and prosecutor were asked after the criminal case finished, the answers to the questions about satisfaction may have been biased by the outcome of the case. Those respondents whose cases resulted in a favorable manner may have felt more satisfied with the police and the prosecutor. Future research can attempt

to address this issue by collecting longitudinal data. If the questions about police satisfaction were asked immediately after the respondent's interaction with the police, and the questions about participation were asked immediately after participation, the researchers would be more likely to get an unbiased account of the respondent's experience. Asking questions throughout the process may also address recollection bias. If respondents are asked about an experience right after the experience occurred, they are less likely to provide inaccurate information.

High Correlation

The final limitation of this research is the high correlations between the PFVs and the independent variables. As was discussed in the results section, due to the high correlations only one PFV was used for each model. With this strategy, this research was unable to test all the potential PFVs for victim satisfaction with police. As a result, this thesis is only able to look at portions of procedural justice. Also, high correlations may cause a multicollinearity problem between the PFVs and the independent variables. Again, this thesis attempted to avoid multicollinearity with the selection of only one PFV, but respondents' satisfaction with the police may still be measuring the same concept as the PFV. Future research may be able to address the high correlation in two ways. One, researchers could question respondents directly after their interaction with the police. This might help respondents distinguish the difference between a police officer being polite and allowing them to talk about the case. The second solution is to provide a more detailed description of the PFVs in the questionnaire. Instead of only asking if the victim thought the police were polite, the questionnaire could also provide examples of what

exactly what is meant by polite. That again might help the respondents differentiate between the different PFVs. By addressing these limitations, future research should be able to delineate what affect the police and prosecutors have, who their behavior affects, and when that behavior has the largest effect. This detailed information will provide a greater opportunity for theoretical and policy implications, providing more specific directions about what the police and prosecutors can do to encourage victim participation.

Conclusion

Past procedural justice research has shown there is reason to believe that victim satisfaction with the police will lead to greater participation in prosecution. Although this thesis falls short of providing conclusive support for this idea, it does find that both police and prosecutors have an effect on victim participation in prosecution. To that end, this research does suggest that procedural justice may in fact be working for victims. Future research is needed to improve upon the limitations of this research in order to determine when, for whom, and in what way police and prosecutors affect participation. Victim participation is important to the criminal justice system for many reasons including the creation of a more just legal system, increasing the effectiveness of the system, and improving satisfaction with the criminal justice system as a whole. Given that victim participation is an important piece of the criminal justice system, it is worthwhile to continue conducting research to determine what will help encourage participation. This research provides a good starting point for future researchers to use as a guide.

Tables

Table 1: Multinomial Regression for Final Sample

| | Variable | Coef. | P> z | e^b |
|---|---------------------|--------------|-----------------|------------|
| Did Not Rate Satisfaction and Did Not Have Any Participation Opportunities | <i>White</i> | -0.437 | 0.014 | 0.646 |
| | <i>Male</i> | 0.634 | 0.000 | 1.886 |
| | <i>Stranger</i> | 0.311 | 0.085 | 1.365 |
| | <i>Weapon</i> | -0.627 | 0.003 | 0.534 |
| | <i>Employed</i> | -0.453 | 0.011 | 0.636 |
| | <i>Victim</i> | 0.701 | 0.001 | 2.016 |
| | <i>Strong State</i> | -0.925 | 0.000 | 0.396 |
| | <i>Injured</i> | 0.484 | 0.022 | 1.623 |
| N=222 | | | | |
| | Variable | Coef. | P> z | e^b |
| Rated Satisfaction and Did Not Have any Participation Opportunities | <i>White</i> | -0.436 | 0.021 | 0.647 |
| | <i>Male</i> | 0.323 | 0.070 | 1.382 |
| | <i>Stranger</i> | 0.349 | 0.072 | 1.418 |
| | <i>College</i> | -0.560 | 0.019 | 0.571 |
| | <i>Victim</i> | 0.704 | 0.001 | 2.021 |
| | <i>Strong State</i> | -0.766 | 0.000 | 0.465 |
| | <i>Age</i> | 0.016 | 0.016 | 1.016 |
| N=184 | | | | |
| | Variable | Coef. | P> z | e^b |
| Did Not Rate Satisfaction and Had at Least One Participation Opportunity | <i>Victim</i> | 1.180 | 0.005 | 3.254 |
| | <i>Age</i> | 0.019 | 0.090 | 1.019 |
| | <i>Three</i> | 0.944 | 0.014 | 2.570 |
| N=47 | | | | |

Reference Category is Final Sample for Thesis

Table 2: Description of Finalized Sample

| | Freq. | Percent |
|----------------------|--------------|----------------|
| Victim | 334 | 39.29 |
| Family Member | 516 | 60.71 |
| Total | 850 | |

Table 3: Respondents' Number of Opportunities

| Number of Opportunities | Family Member | | Victim | | Total | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------|----------------|---------------|----------------|--------------|----------------|
| | Freq. | Percent | Freq. | Percent | Freq. | Percent |
| 1 | 102 | 30.54 | 180 | 34.88 | 282 | 33.18 |
| 2 | 118 | 35.33 | 187 | 36.24 | 305 | 35.88 |
| 3 | 89 | 26.65 | 117 | 22.67 | 206 | 24.24 |
| 4 | 25 | 7.49 | 32 | 6.2 | 57 | 6.71 |
| Total | 334 | | 516 | | 850 | |

Table 4: Participation Opportunities

| Participation Opportunity | Family Member | | Victim | | Total | |
|----------------------------------|----------------------|----------------|---------------|----------------|--------------|----------------|
| | Freq. | Percent | Freq. | Percent | Freq. | Percent |
| Bail/Bond Hearing | 264 | 79.04 | 376 | 72.87 | 640 | 75.29 |
| Grand Jury Hearing | 102 | 30.54 | 205 | 39.73 | 307 | 36.12 |
| Sentencing | 134 | 40.12 | 164 | 31.78 | 298 | 35.06 |
| Victim Impact Statement | 205 | 61.38 | 288 | 55.81 | 493 | 58 |

Table 5: Independent Variables

| | Satisfaction With Police | | Satisfaction With Prosecutor | |
|------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------|-------------------------------------|---------------|
| | Family Member | Victim | Family Member | Victim |
| Not at all Satisfied | 41 | 44 | 54 | 70 |
| Somewhat Dissatisfied | 35 | 37 | 23 | 56 |
| Somewhat Satisfied | 70 | 150 | 87 | 173 |
| Very Satisfied | 188 | 285 | 170 | 217 |
| Total | 334 | 516 | 334 | 516 |

Table 6: Procedural Fairness Variables

| | | Family Members | Victims |
|---|------------|-----------------------|----------------|
| Police Tried to be Polite | Yes | 293 | 464 |
| | No | 41 | 52 |
| Police Cared about What Happened | Yes | 266 | 435 |
| | No | 68 | 81 |
| Police Showed an Interest in Feelings | Yes | 259 | 408 |
| | No | 75 | 108 |
| Police Willing to Talk about What Happened | Yes | 233 | 431 |
| | No | 101 | 85 |
| Police Interested in Catching Offender | Yes | 292 | 447 |
| | No | 42 | 69 |
| Police Tried to Gather All Evidence | Yes | 272 | 435 |
| | No | 62 | 81 |

Table 7: Odds Ratios and Standard Errors for Logistic Models Estimating Participation for Family Members

| Family Members | | | |
|--|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 |
| <u>Bail/Bond Hearing (n=264)</u> | | | |
| | 0.622 | 0.405* | 0.423* |
| <i>PF: Police Catch</i> | (0.260) | (0.196) | (0.207) |
| | | 1.374* | 1.526* |
| <i>Sat. with Police</i> | | (0.242) | (0.296) |
| | | | 0.798 |
| <i>Sat. With Pros.</i> | | | (0.124) |
| | 1.371 | 1.299 | 1.305 |
| <i>White</i> | (0.445) | (0.425) | (0.430) |
| | 0.986 | 0.957 | 0.921 |
| <i>Male</i> | (0.365) | (0.358) | (0.347) |
| | 0.925 | 0.941 | 0.931 |
| <i>Age</i> | (0.068) | (0.071) | (0.071) |
| | 1.001 | 1.000 | 1.001 |
| <i>Age^2</i> | (0.008) | (0.008) | (0.001) |
| | 0.746 | 0.746 | 1.294 |
| <i>Dropout</i> | (0.565) | (0.566) | (0.550) |
| | 0.877 | 0.865 | 0.773 |
| <i>College</i> | (.423) | (0.421) | (0.447) |
| | 0.896 | 0.864 | 0.890 |
| <i>Stranger</i> | (0.312) | (0.304) | (0.315) |
| | 0.940 | 0.874 | 0.910 |
| <i>Domestic Violence</i> | (0.391) | (0.369) | (0.386) |
| | 0.262 | 0.223 | 0.235 |
| <i>Weapon</i> | (0.278) | (0.240) | (0.252) |
| | 0.587 | 0.555* | 0.567* |
| <i>Employed</i> | (0.198) | (0.190) | (0.195) |
| | 0.832 | 0.824 | 0.854 |
| <i>Three</i> | (0.252) | (0.253) | (0.265) |
| | 1.568 | 1.575 | 1.614 |
| <i>State</i> | (0.477) | (0.485) | (0.500) |
| <u>Grand Jury Hearing (n=102)</u> | | | |
| | 0.230* | 0.134** | 0.142** |
| <i>PF: Police Evidence</i> | (0.175) | (0.127) | (0.136) |
| | | 1.365 | 1.438 |
| <i>Sat. with Police</i> | | (0.410) | (0.470) |
| | | | 0.886 |
| <i>Sat. With Pros.</i> | | | (0.258) |
| | 0.970 | 0.907 | 0.874 |
| <i>White</i> | (0.522) | (0.497) | (0.486) |
| | 1.390 | 1.350 | 1.349 |
| <i>Male</i> | (0.887) | (0.872) | (0.865) |

| | | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| <i>Age</i> | 0.954 (0.140) | 0.967 (0.144) | 0.961 (0.144) |
| <i>Age^2</i> | 1.000 (0.002) | 1.000 (0.002) | 1.000 (0.002) |
| <i>Dropout</i> | 2.267 (0.334) | 1.993 (0.384) | 1.842 (0.427) |
| <i>College</i> | 4.127 (3.899) | 4.390 (4.173) | 4.331 (4.113) |
| <i>Stranger</i> | (0.176) | 0.264** (0.170) | 0.267** (0.172) |
| <i>Domestic Violence</i> | 0.373 (0.262) | 0.369 (0.261) | 0.360 (0.256) |
| <i>Weapon</i> | 0.329 (0.353) | 0.349 (0.385) | 0.349 (0.382) |
| <i>Employed</i> | 1.295 (0.676) | 1.279 (0.670) | 1.309 (0.692) |
| <i>Three</i> | 1.381 (0.677) | 1.470 (0.731) | 1.460 (0.727) |
| <i>State</i> | 3.919*** (2.074) | 3.550** (1.902) | 3.606** (1.940) |

Sentencing Hearing (n=134)

| | | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| <i>PF: Police Polite</i> | 6.053** (5.421) | 5.859* (5.623) | 6.005* (5.899) |
| <i>Sat. with Police</i> | | 1.031 (0.338) | 0.998 (0.424) |
| <i>Sat. with Pros.</i> | | | 1.047 (0.406) |
| <i>White</i> | 1.775 (1.279) | 1.768 (1.275) | 1.770 (1.276) |
| <i>Male</i> | 2.970 (2.837) | 2.966 (2.830) | 3.022 (2.929) |
| <i>Age</i> | 1.346** (0.188) | 1.346** (0.188) | 1.354** (0.201) |
| <i>Age^2</i> | 0.997** (0.002) | 0.997** (0.002) | 0.997** (0.002) |
| <i>Dropout</i> | 2.387 (0.421) | 2.391 (0.421) | 2.404 (0.418) |
| <i>College</i> | 0.493 (0.443) | 0.493 (0.443) | 0.488 (0.441) |
| <i>Stranger</i> | 1.224 (1.085) | 1.245 (1.126) | 1.247 (1.128) |
| <i>Domestic Violence</i> | 0.198* (0.165) | 0.200* (0.167) | 0.201* (0.168) |
| <i>Weapon</i> | 1.404 (1.734) | 1.392 (1.721) | 1.398 (1.729) |
| <i>Employed</i> | 0.867 (0.666) | 0.876 (0.680) | 0.870 (0.677) |
| <i>Three</i> | 1.385 (0.856) | 1.372 (0.860) | 1.363 (0.858) |

| | | | |
|---|--------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| | 0.737 (0.585) | 0.739 (0.587) | 0.736 (0.586) |
| <i>State</i> | | | |
| <u>Victim Impact Statement (n=174)</u> | | | |
| | 0.145 (0.170) | 0.104 (0.145) | 0.106 (0.155) |
| <i>PF: Police Feeling</i> | | | |
| | | 1.224 (0.556) | 0.845 (0.430) |
| <i>Sat. with Police</i> | | | |
| | | | 1.845* (0.576) |
| <i>Sat. with Pros.</i> | | | |
| | 2.111 (1.448) | 2.017 (1.400) | 2.705 (1.984) |
| <i>White</i> | | | |
| | 0.238 (0.214) | 0.243 (0.217) | 0.258 (0.239) |
| <i>Male</i> | | | |
| | 0.968 (0.131) | 0.981 (0.136) | 1.036 (0.155) |
| <i>Age</i> | | | |
| | 1.001 (0.002) | 1.001 (0.002) | 1.000 (0.002) |
| <i>Age^2</i> | | | |
| | 0.211** (3.692) | 0.221* (3.587) | 0.203* (4.043) |
| <i>Dropout College+</i> | | | |
| | 0.489 (0.362) | 0.481 (0.359) | 0.541 (0.401) |
| <i>Stranger</i> | | | |
| | 1.22 (1.196) | 1.153 (1.131) | 1.854 (1.978) |
| <i>Domestic Violence</i> | | | |
| | 1.415 (1.699) | 1.300 (1.574) | 1.420 (1.766) |
| <i>Weapon</i> | | | |
| | 2.323 (1.570) | 2.254 (1.535) | 2.299 (1.588) |
| <i>Employed</i> | | | |
| | 0.121** (0.101) | 0.125** (0.104) | 0.093*** (0.083) |
| <i>Three</i> | | | |
| | 0.411 (0.337) | 0.415 (0.344) | 0.338 (0.297) |
| <i>State</i> | | | |

+ Predicts success perfectly, college dropped, 31 obs not used

*Significant at the .10 level

**Significant at the .05 level

***Significant at the .01 Level

Table 8: Odds Ratios and Standard Errors for Logistic Models Estimating Participation for Victims

| Victims | | | |
|--|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 |
| <u>Bail/Bond Hearing (n=376)</u> | | | |
| | 2.911*** | 2.373** | 2.451** |
| <i>PF: Police Talk</i> | (1.069) | (0.931) | (0.965) |
| <i>Sat. with Police</i> | | 1.243 | 1.154 |
| | | (0.186) | (0.178) |
| <i>Sat. with Pros.</i> | | | 1.308** |
| | | | (0.170) |
| | 1.550 | 1.512 | 1.491 |
| <i>White</i> | (0.496) | (0.484) | (0.481) |
| | 0.820 | 0.837 | 0.944 |
| <i>Male</i> | (0.211) | (0.217) | (0.252) |
| | 1.074 | 1.075 | 1.079 |
| <i>Age</i> | (0.056) | (0.056) | (0.057) |
| | 0.999 | 0.999 | 0.999 |
| <i>Age^2</i> | (0.001) | (0.001) | (0.001) |
| | 0.523* | 0.530* | 0.542* |
| <i>Dropout</i> | (0.692) | (0.690) | (0.679) |
| | 0.784 | 0.815 | 0.769 |
| <i>College</i> | (0.219) | (0.229) | (0.218) |
| | 1.079 | 1.037 | 1.056 |
| <i>Stranger</i> | (0.284) | (0.275) | (0.281) |
| | 1.171 | 1.258 | 1.330 |
| <i>Domestic Violence</i> | (0.427) | (0.465) | (0.496) |
| | 1.004 | 1.021 | 0.986 |
| <i>Weapon</i> | (0.238) | (0.242) | (0.236) |
| | 1.419 | 1.312 | 1.296 |
| <i>Employed</i> | (0.446) | (0.421) | (0.422) |
| | 1.163 | 1.167 | 1.143 |
| <i>Three</i> | (0.281) | (0.283) | (0.278) |
| | 1.836** | 1.796** | 1.804** |
| <i>State</i> | (0.454) | (0.446) | (0.451) |
| <u>Grand Jury Hearing (n=205)</u> | | | |
| | 0.374** | 0.363** | 0.364** |
| <i>PF: Police Feeling</i> | (0.167) | (0.175) | (0.175) |
| | | 1.033 | 1.036 |
| <i>Sat. with Police</i> | | (0.200) | (0.204) |
| | | | 0.988 |
| <i>Sat. with Pros.</i> | | | (0.158) |
| | 0.588 | 0.588 | 0.589 |
| <i>White</i> | (0.255) | (0.255) | (0.255) |
| | 0.647 | 0.648 | 0.647 |
| <i>Male</i> | (0.212) | (0.212) | (0.213) |

| | | | |
|--------------------------|----------|----------|----------|
| | 1.092 | 1.094 | 1.093 |
| <i>Age</i> | (0.078) | (0.079) | (0.080) |
| | 0.999 | 0.999 | 0.999 |
| <i>Age^2</i> | (0.001) | (0.001) | (0.001) |
| | 1.1778 | 1.188 | 1.187 |
| <i>Dropout</i> | (0.391) | (0.390) | (0.391) |
| | 1.123 | 1.132 | 1.128 |
| <i>College</i> | (0.451) | (0.457) | (0.459) |
| | 1.188 | 1.185 | 1.187 |
| <i>Stranger</i> | (0.423) | (0.422) | (0.424) |
| | 0.739 | 0.745 | 0.742 |
| <i>Domestic Violence</i> | (0.390) | (0.395) | (0.396) |
| | 1.022 | 1.024 | 1.024 |
| <i>Weapon</i> | (0.332) | (0.333) | (0.333) |
| | 1.109 | 1.097 | 1.100 |
| <i>Employed</i> | (0.485) | (0.485) | (0.488) |
| | 1.796* | 1.801* | 1.806* |
| <i>Three</i> | (0.623) | (0.625) | (0.629) |
| | 2.885*** | 2.856*** | 2.863*** |
| <i>State</i> | (1.139) | (1.142) | (1.148) |

Sentencing Hearing (n=164)

| | | | |
|--------------------------|---------|---------|---------|
| | 0.522 | 0.412 | 0.411 |
| <i>PF: Police Care</i> | (0.285) | (0.261) | (0.261) |
| | | 1.219 | 1.225 |
| <i>Sat. with Police</i> | | (0.316) | (0.326) |
| | | | 0.981 |
| <i>Sat. with Pros.</i> | | | (0.227) |
| | 0.775 | 0.795 | 0.793 |
| <i>White</i> | (0.387) | (0.398) | (0.398) |
| | 0.68 | 0.703 | 0.703 |
| <i>Male</i> | (0.279) | (0.289) | (0.289) |
| | 1.019 | 1.024 | 1.025 |
| <i>Age</i> | (0.076) | (0.077) | (0.077) |
| | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 |
| <i>Age^2</i> | (0.001) | (0.001) | (0.001) |
| | 0.564 | 0.559 | 0.557 |
| <i>Dropout</i> | (0.987) | (1.001) | (1.007) |
| | 1.613 | 1.656 | 1.658 |
| <i>College</i> | (0.677) | (0.698) | (0.699) |
| | 1.132 | 1.142 | 1.145 |
| <i>Stranger</i> | (0.447) | (0.453) | (0.456) |
| | 0.640 | 0.682 | 0.678 |
| <i>Domestic Violence</i> | (0.365) | (0.392) | (0.392) |
| | 1.722 | 1.764 | 1.761 |
| <i>Weapon</i> | (0.645) | (0.665) | (0.665) |
| | 0.441* | 0.422* | 0.421* |
| <i>Employed</i> | (0.202) | (0.196) | (0.196) |
| | 1.003 | 1.006 | 1.010 |
| <i>Three</i> | (0.373) | (0.374) | (0.378) |

| | | | |
|---|---------|---------|---------|
| | 1.720 | 1.744 | 1.742 |
| <i>State</i> | (0.657) | (0.670) | (0.669) |
| <u>Victim Impact Statement (n=288)</u> | | | |
| | 1.907 | 1.946 | 1.794 |
| <i>PF: Police Talk</i> | (1.146) | (1.315) | (1.233) |
| | | 0.981 | 1.100 |
| <i>Sat. with Police</i> | | (0.294) | (0.349) |
| | | | 0.752 |
| <i>Sat. with Pros.</i> | | | (0.218) |
| | 2.146 | 2.160 | 2.273 |
| <i>White</i> | (1.124) | (1.150) | (1.225) |
| | 1.311 | 1.309 | 1.247 |
| <i>Male</i> | (0.710) | (0.710) | (0.680) |
| | 1.042 | 1.040 | 1.042 |
| <i>Age</i> | (0.102) | (0.103) | (0.104) |
| | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 |
| <i>Age^2</i> | (0.001) | (0.001) | (0.001) |
| | 0.267** | 0.266** | 0.279** |
| <i>Dropout</i> | (2.321) | (2.346) | (2.244) |
| | 0.601 | 0.601 | 0.627 |
| <i>College</i> | (0.342) | (0.342) | (0.357) |
| | 0.910 | 0.912 | 0.886 |
| <i>Stranger</i> | (0.499) | (0.502) | (0.489) |
| | 1.557 | 1.545 | 1.535 |
| <i>Domestic Violence</i> | (1.362) | (1.365) | (1.365) |
| | 0.822 | 0.823 | 0.888 |
| <i>Weapon</i> | (0.400) | (0.400) | (0.438) |
| | 1.138 | 1.144 | 1.187 |
| <i>Employed</i> | (0.747) | (0.756) | (0.790) |
| | 0.954 | 0.954 | 0.916 |
| <i>Three</i> | (0.477) | (0.477) | (0.461) |
| | 1.470 | 1.474 | 1.574 |
| <i>State</i> | (0.730) | (0.734) | (0.792) |

*Significant at the .10 level

**Significant at the .05 level

***Significant at the .01 Level

Table 9: Coefficients and Standard Errors for Tobit Models Estimating Participation Rate for Family Members

| Participation Rate- Family Members | | | |
|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 |
| | 0.085 | 0.042 | 0.026 |
| <i>PF: Police Care</i> | (0.106) | (0.147) | (0.146) |
| | | 0.024 | 0.073 |
| <i>Sat. with Police</i> | | (0.056) | (0.060) |
| | | | -0.095** |
| <i>Sat. with Pros.</i> | | | (0.045) |
| | 0.094 | 0.093 | 0.084 |
| <i>White</i> | (0.090) | (0.090) | (0.090) |
| | -0.009 | -0.012 | -0.032 |
| <i>Male</i> | (0.104) | (0.104) | (0.104) |
| | 0.003 | 0.003 | -0.001 |
| <i>Age</i> | (0.022) | (0.022) | (0.022) |
| | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| <i>Age^2</i> | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.000) |
| | -0.090 | -0.091 | -0.092 |
| <i>Dropout</i> | (0.117) | (0.117) | (0.116) |
| | 0.129 | 0.130 | 0.141 |
| <i>College</i> | (0.127) | (0.127) | (0.126) |
| | -0.061 | -0.063 | -0.059 |
| <i>Stranger</i> | (0.098) | (0.098) | (0.097) |
| | -0.039 | -0.039 | -0.053 |
| <i>Domestic Violence</i> | (0.119) | (0.119) | (0.118) |
| | -0.085 | -0.085 | -0.089 |
| <i>Weapon</i> | (0.178) | (0.178) | (0.177) |
| | 0.015 | 0.015 | 0.012 |
| <i>Employed</i> | (0.100) | (0.100) | (0.099) |
| | -0.113 | -0.113 | -0.110 |
| <i>Three</i> | (0.086) | (0.086) | (0.085) |
| | 0.239*** | 0.238*** | 0.241*** |
| <i>State</i> | (0.091) | (0.091) | (0.090) |
| | 0.170*** | 0.168*** | 0.185*** |
| <i>Opportunities</i> | (0.049) | (0.050) | (0.050) |

N=334

76 left-censored obs at part. rate<=0

152 uncensored observations

106 right-censored obs at part. rate>=1

*Significant at the .10 level

**Significant at the .05 level

***Significant at the .01 Level

Table 10: Coefficients and Standard Errors for Tobit Models Estimating Participation Rate for Victims

| Participation Rate-Victims | | | |
|-----------------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 |
| | 0.211* | 0.180 | 0.181 |
| <i>PF: Police Talk</i> | (0.118) | (0.129) | (0.129) |
| | | 0.031 | 0.027 |
| <i>Sat. with Police</i> | | (0.053) | (0.055) |
| | | | 0.014 |
| <i>Sat. with Pros.</i> | | | (0.047) |
| | 0.001 | 0.000 | 0.001 |
| <i>White</i> | (0.114) | (0.114) | (0.114) |
| | -0.117 | -0.115 | -0.111 |
| <i>Male</i> | (0.096) | (0.096) | (0.097) |
| | 0.039** | 0.040** | 0.040** |
| <i>Age</i> | (0.018) | (0.018) | (0.018) |
| | 0.000** | 0.000** | 0.000** |
| <i>Age^2</i> | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.000) |
| | -0.233* | 0.228* | -0.228* |
| <i>Dropout</i> | (0.130) | (0.131) | (0.131) |
| | 0.004 | 0.010 | 0.009 |
| <i>College</i> | (0.107) | (0.107) | (0.107) |
| | 0.076 | 0.071 | 0.070 |
| <i>Stranger</i> | (0.100) | (0.100) | (0.100) |
| | 0.020 | 0.030 | 0.033 |
| <i>Domestic Violence</i> | (0.145) | (0.146) | (0.146) |
| | 0.043 | 0.044 | 0.042 |
| <i>Weapon</i> | (0.091) | (0.091) | (0.091) |
| | -0.014 | -0.022 | -0.023 |
| <i>Employed</i> | (0.115) | (0.115) | (0.116) |
| | 0.099 | 0.099 | 0.099 |
| <i>Three</i> | (0.093) | (0.092) | (0.093) |
| | 0.326*** | 0.322*** | 0.320*** |
| <i>State</i> | (0.096) | (0.096) | (0.096) |
| | 0.108** | 0.106** | 0.103** |
| <i>Opportunities</i> | (0.049) | (0.049) | (0.051) |

N=516

125 left-censored obs at part. rate<=0

194 uncensored observations

197 right-censored obs at part. rate>=1

*Significant at the .10 level

**Significant at the .05 level

***Significant at the .01 Level

Table 11: Significant Findings for Family Members: Odds Ratios and Standard Errors for Participation Opportunities and Coefficients and Standard Errors for Participation Rate

| Family Members | | | |
|---|--------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 |
| <u>Bail/Bond Hearing (n=264)</u> | | | |
| <i>PF: Police Catch</i> | | 0.405* (0.196) | 0.423* (0.207) |
| <i>Sat. with Police</i> | | 1.374* (0.242) | 1.526* (0.296) |
| <i>Sat. With Pros.</i> | | | |
| <u>Grand Jury Hearing (n=102)</u> | | | |
| <i>PF: Police Evidence</i> | 0.230* (0.175) | 0.134** (0.127) | 0.142** (0.136) |
| <i>Sat. with Police</i> | | | |
| <i>Sat. With Pros.</i> | | | |
| <u>Sentencing Hearing (n=134)</u> | | | |
| <i>PF: Police Polite</i> | 6.053** (5.421) | 5.859* (5.623) | 6.005* (5.899) |
| <i>Sat. with Police</i> | | | |
| <i>Sat. with Pros.</i> | | | |
| <u>Victim Impact Statement (n=174)</u> | | | |
| <i>PF: Police Feeling</i> | | | |
| <i>Sat. with Police</i> | | | |
| <i>Sat. with Pros.</i> | | | 1.845* (0.576) |
| <u>Participation Rate (n=334)</u> | | | |
| <i>PF: Police Care</i> | | | |
| <i>Sat. with Police</i> | | | |
| <i>Sat. with Pros.</i> | | | -0.095** (0.045) |

*Significant at the .10 level

**Significant at the .05 level

***Significant at the .01 Level

Table 12: Significant Findings for Victims: Odds Ratios and Standard Errors for Participation Opportunities and Coefficients and Standard Errors for Participation Rate

| Victims | | | |
|---|---------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 |
| <u>Bail/Bond Hearing (n=376)</u> | | | |
| <i>PF: Police Talk</i> | 2.911*** (1.069) | 2.373** (0.931) | 2.451** (0.965) |
| <i>Sat. with Police</i> | | | |
| <i>Sat. with Pros.</i> | | | 1.308** (0.170) |
| <u>Grand Jury Hearing (n=205)</u> | | | |
| <i>PF: Police Feeling</i> | 0.374** (0.167) | 0.363** (0.175) | 0.364** (0.175) |
| <i>Sat. with Police</i> | | | |
| <i>Sat. with Pros.</i> | | | |
| <u>Sentencing Hearing (n=164)</u> | | | |
| <i>PF: Police Care</i> | | | |
| <i>Sat. with Police</i> | | | |
| <i>Sat. with Pros.</i> | | | |
| <u>Victim Impact Statement (n=288)</u> | | | |
| <i>PF: Police Talk</i> | | | |
| <i>Sat. with Police</i> | | | |
| <i>Sat. with Pros.</i> | | | |
| <u>Participation Rate (n=516)</u> | | | |
| <i>PF: Police Talk</i> | 0.211* (0.118) | | |
| <i>Sat. with Police</i> | | | |
| <i>Sat. with Pros.</i> | | | |

*Significant at the .10 level

**Significant at the .05 level

***Significant at the .01 Level

Figure 1: Dependent Variable: Participation Rate.

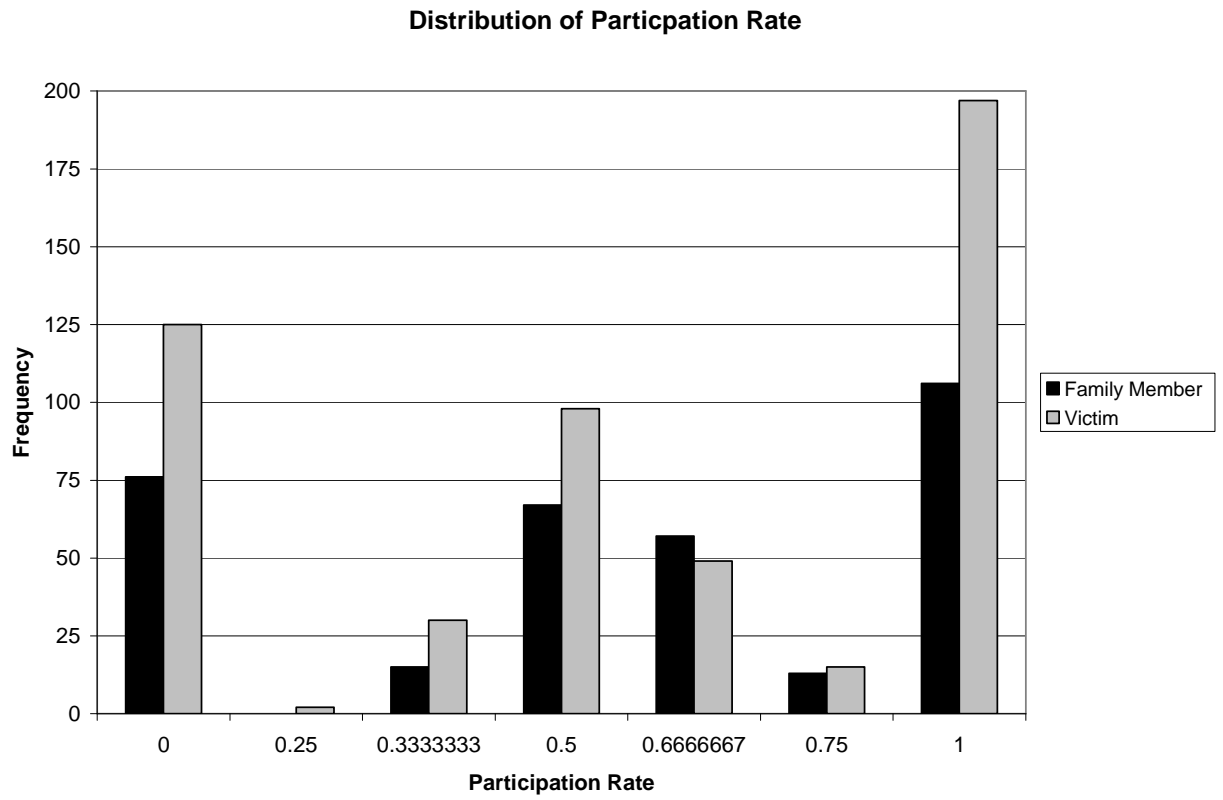


Figure 2: Change in Family Member Satisfaction with the Police and the Prosecutor throughout the Prosecution Process

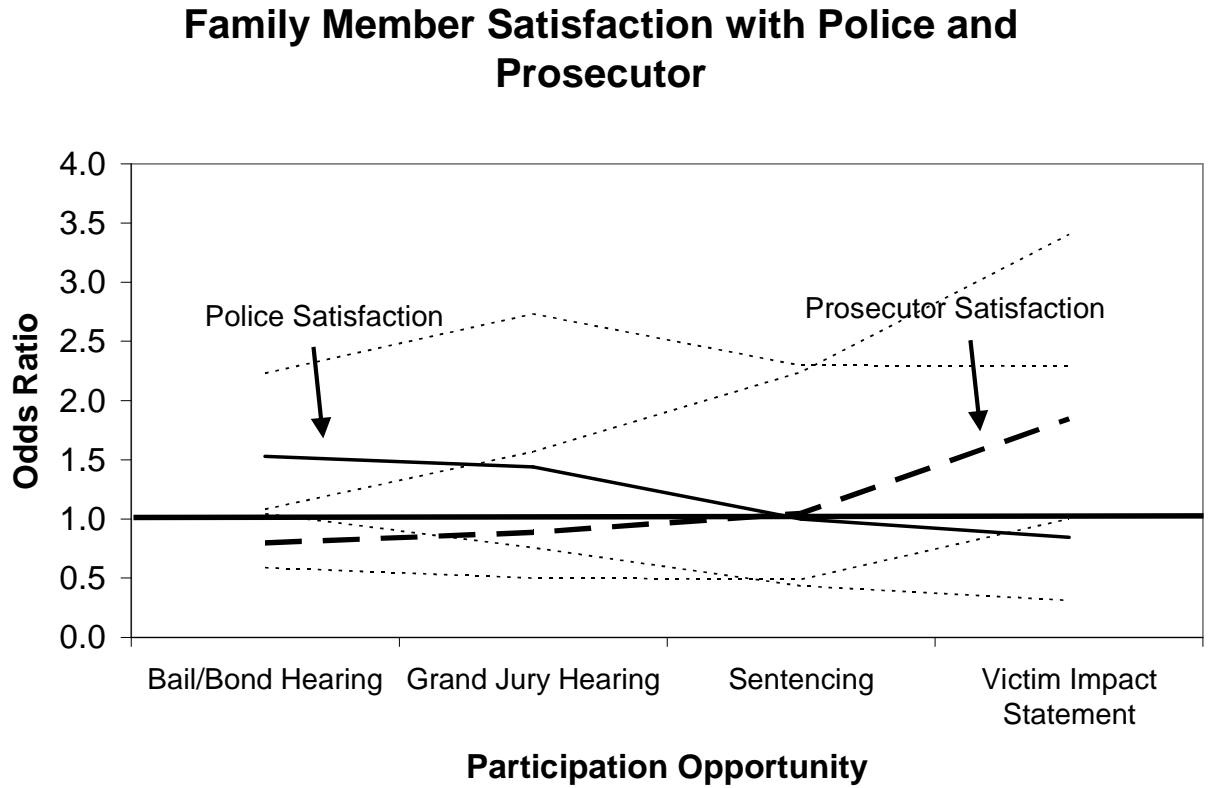
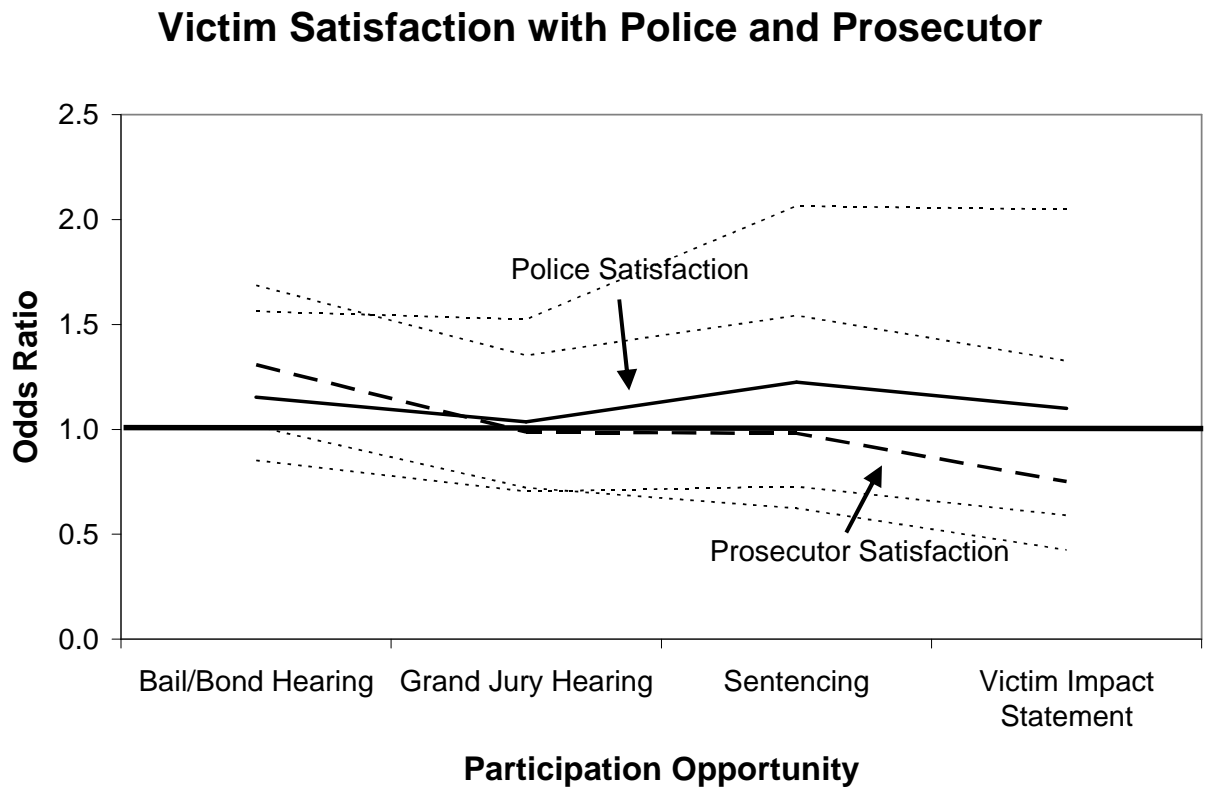


Figure 3: Change in Victim Satisfaction with the Police and the Prosecutor throughout the Prosecution Process



Appendix A

| Legend | |
|---------------|--|
| 1 | Police Tried to be Polite |
| 2 | Police Cared about What Happened |
| 3 | Police Showed an Interest in Feelings |
| 4 | Police Willing to Talk about What Happened |
| 5 | Police Interested in Catching Offender |
| 6 | Police Tried to Gather All Evidence |
| 7 | Respondent Satisfaction with Police |

Table A.1: Correlation Matrix: Bail/Bond Hearing-Family Members (n=264)

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| 1 | 1.000 | | | | | | |
| 2 | 0.511 | 1.000 | | | | | |
| 3 | 0.442 | 0.723 | 1.000 | | | | |
| 4 | 0.353 | 0.456 | 0.582 | 1.000 | | | |
| 5 | 0.393 | 0.431 | 0.419 | 0.354 | 1.000 | | |
| 6 | 0.423 | 0.575 | 0.598 | 0.431 | 0.577 | 1.000 | |
| 7 | 0.440 | 0.696 | 0.689 | 0.443 | 0.423 | 0.632 | 1.000 |

Table A.2 Correlation Matrix: Bail/Bond Hearing-Victims (n=376)

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| 1 | 1.000 | | | | | | |
| 2 | 0.607 | 1.000 | | | | | |
| 3 | 0.500 | 0.719 | 1.000 | | | | |
| 4 | 0.358 | 0.478 | 0.510 | 1.000 | | | |
| 5 | 0.437 | 0.590 | 0.512 | 0.362 | 1.000 | | |
| 6 | 0.231 | 0.456 | 0.406 | 0.360 | 0.526 | 1.000 | |
| 7 | 0.406 | 0.582 | 0.502 | 0.419 | 0.565 | 0.460 | 1.000 |

Table A.3: Correlation Matrix: Grand Jury Hearing-Family Members (n=102)

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1 | 1.000 | | | | | | |
| 2 | 0.447 | 1.000 | | | | | |
| 3 | 0.465 | 0.748 | 1.000 | | | | |
| 4 | 0.296 | 0.442 | 0.602 | 1.000 | | | |
| 5 | 0.585 | 0.693 | 0.632 | 0.545 | 1.000 | | |
| 6 | 0.351 | 0.386 | 0.407 | 0.398 | 0.632 | 1.000 | |
| 7 | 0.249 | 0.647 | 0.654 | 0.386 | 0.525 | 0.520 | 1.000 |

Table A.4: Correlation Matrix: Grand Jury Hearing-Victims (n=205)

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1 | 1.000 | | | | | | |
| 2 | 0.608 | 1.000 | | | | | |
| 3 | 0.543 | 0.597 | 1.000 | | | | |
| 4 | 0.482 | 0.532 | 0.421 | 1.000 | | | |
| 5 | 0.443 | 0.622 | 0.510 | 0.377 | 1.000 | | |
| 6 | 0.274 | 0.442 | 0.342 | 0.297 | 0.609 | 1.000 | |
| 7 | 0.369 | 0.480 | 0.403 | 0.446 | 0.429 | 0.463 | 1.000 |

Table A.5: Correlation Matrix: Sentencing Hearing-Family Members (n=134)

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1 | 1.000 | | | | | | |
| 2 | 0.492 | 1.000 | | | | | |
| 3 | 0.542 | 0.809 | 1.000 | | | | |
| 4 | 0.315 | 0.511 | 0.573 | 1.000 | | | |
| 5 | 0.491 | 0.342 | 0.382 | 0.299 | 1.000 | | |
| 6 | 0.524 | 0.512 | 0.684 | 0.551 | 0.512 | 1.000 | |
| 7 | 0.311 | 0.569 | 0.621 | 0.409 | 0.231 | 0.638 | 1.000 |

Table A.6: Correlation Matrix: Sentencing Hearing-Victims (n=164)

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1 | 1.000 | | | | | | |
| 2 | 0.605 | 1.000 | | | | | |
| 3 | 0.469 | 0.563 | 1.000 | | | | |
| 4 | 0.512 | 0.578 | 0.581 | 1.000 | | | |
| 5 | 0.459 | 0.620 | 0.642 | 0.518 | 1.000 | | |
| 6 | 0.203 | 0.409 | 0.385 | 0.266 | 0.489 | 1.000 | |
| 7 | 0.410 | 0.503 | 0.551 | 0.396 | 0.633 | 0.458 | 1.000 |

Table A.7: Correlation Matrix: Victim Impact Statement-Family Members (n=174)

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1 | 1.000 | | | | | | |
| 2 | 0.586 | 1.000 | | | | | |
| 3 | 0.512 | 0.762 | 1.000 | | | | |
| 4 | 0.356 | 0.472 | 0.559 | 1.000 | | | |
| 5 | 0.421 | 0.418 | 0.459 | 0.340 | 1.000 | | |
| 6 | 0.460 | 0.537 | 0.558 | 0.424 | 0.562 | 1.000 | |
| 7 | 0.474 | 0.672 | 0.718 | 0.431 | 0.368 | 0.573 | 1.000 |

Table A.8: Correlation Matrix: Victim Impact Statement-Victims (n=288)

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1 | 1.000 | | | | | | |
| 2 | 0.566 | 1.000 | | | | | |
| 3 | 0.428 | 0.591 | 1.000 | | | | |
| 4 | 0.357 | 0.517 | 0.377 | 1.000 | | | |
| 5 | 0.369 | 0.589 | 0.500 | 0.375 | 1.000 | | |
| 6 | 0.204 | 0.326 | 0.295 | 0.244 | 0.523 | 1.000 | |
| 7 | 0.351 | 0.514 | 0.428 | 0.377 | 0.532 | 0.422 | 1.000 |

Table A.9: Correlation Matrix: Participation Rate-Family Members (n=334)

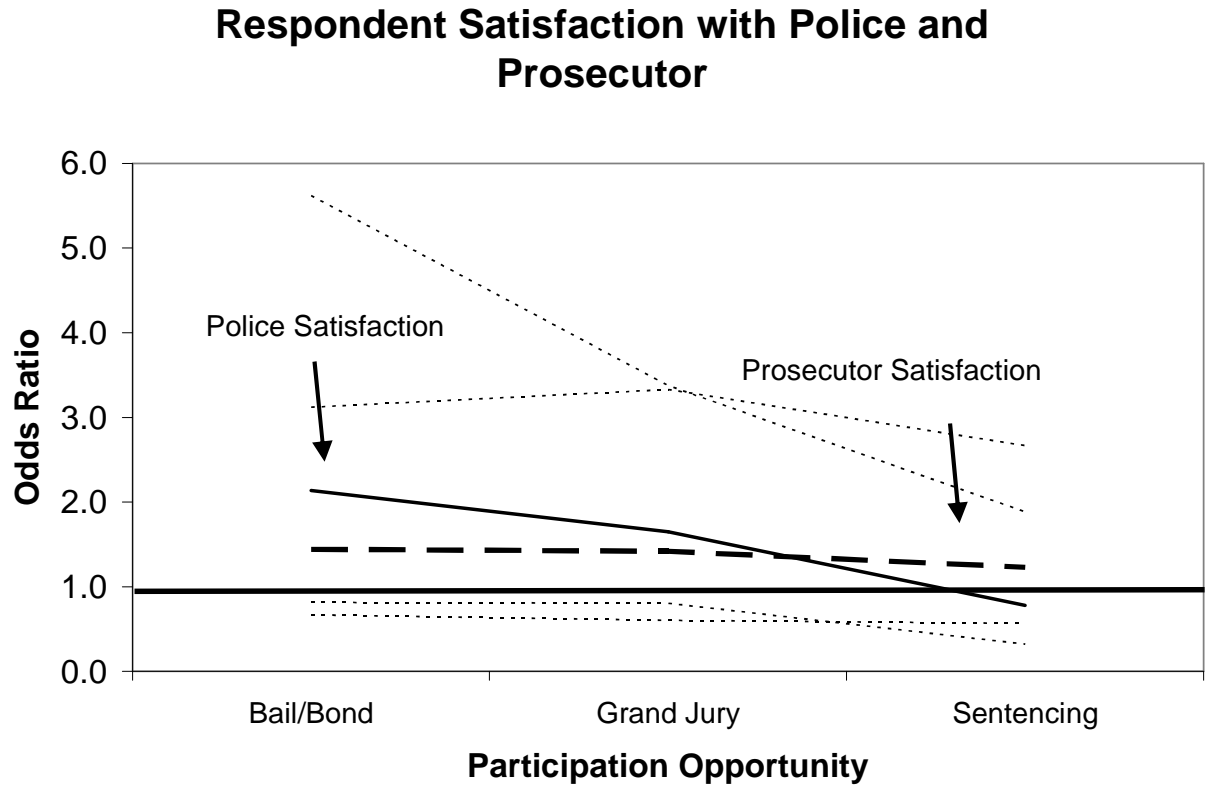
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1 | 1.000 | | | | | | |
| 2 | 0.513 | 1.000 | | | | | |
| 3 | 0.455 | 0.761 | 1.000 | | | | |
| 4 | 0.350 | 0.477 | 0.583 | 1.000 | | | |
| 5 | 0.409 | 0.436 | 0.424 | 0.360 | 1.000 | | |
| 6 | 0.385 | 0.524 | 0.537 | 0.423 | 0.539 | 1.000 | |
| 7 | 0.430 | 0.708 | 0.693 | 0.435 | 0.427 | 0.578 | 1.000 |

Table A.10: Correlation Matrix: Participation Rate-Victims (n=516)

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1 | 1.000 | | | | | | |
| 2 | 0.581 | 1.000 | | | | | |
| 3 | 0.477 | 0.655 | 1.000 | | | | |
| 4 | 0.389 | 0.469 | 0.478 | 1.000 | | | |
| 5 | 0.379 | 0.551 | 0.498 | 0.347 | 1.000 | | |
| 6 | 0.210 | 0.414 | 0.367 | 0.297 | 0.519 | 1.000 | |
| 7 | 0.408 | 0.555 | 0.483 | 0.394 | 0.534 | 0.441 | 1.000 |

Appendix B

Figure B.1: Change in Respondent Satisfaction with the Police and the Prosecutor throughout the Prosecution Process (n=57)



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