

IMPROVING VICTIM SATISFACTION IN VOLUME CRIME
INVESTIGATIONS: THE ROLE OF POLICE ACTIONS AND VICTIM
CHARACTERISTICS

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Abstract

Victim satisfaction plays a critical role in police-victim encounters. Satisfaction could affect victims' willingness to co-operate and report future offences. This thesis explored several factors that affect victim satisfaction. As police conduct is guided by policies such as the Code of Practice for Victims of Crime, the thesis also investigated whether police emotional responses to victims had an effect on performing actions that are expected under the policy and also affect victim satisfaction. Overall, the thesis considered variables not often included in satisfaction research, victim vulnerability, introduced a new way for assessing victim distress, and explored psychological factors that could explain why certain police helping behaviours do not occur. Therefore, the thesis considers police-victim encounters as a system where both police and victim influence each other and added new ideas and evidence to the literature. The thesis reported results from four studies that utilised both quantitative and qualitative data and also, used longitudinal and experimental methods. Study 1 tested a model combining perceived police actions (updates, taking cases seriously, and offering practical help) and victim variables (reassurance and self-reported vulnerability) to predict victim satisfaction. The model predicted victim satisfaction with reassurance as the best predictor. Faster police response and more follow-up contact emerged as the most cited factors in burglary victims' responses to how police could improve their services. Study 2 explored victims' self-reported vulnerability and its relationship with demographics. It was concluded that no meaningful assumptions could be made about vulnerability based on demographic groups. Study 3 was longitudinal and identified a short assessment tool that could be used to predict victim distress post-victimisation. Study 4 explored police attributions, victim reactions towards the police, and the likelihood of police helping behaviours. Negative victim reactivity and negative emotion toward the victim was found to relate to the likelihood of helping behaviours such as contacting victims. The thesis results have implications for policy and practice in terms of providing evidence for the importance of victim policy compliance and proposes a review of vulnerability terminology in the criminal justice context to align an official definition with victim self-reports. The findings could also be used to benefit both the police in maintaining or improving satisfaction, and victims of crime as they proceed through the Criminal Justice system.

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Chapter 1. Literature Review

1.1. Introduction

Working in collaboration with the London Metropolitan Police Service, this research aimed to understand variables that are related to volume crime victims' satisfaction with police investigations in London, and the relationship between satisfaction and mental health outcomes. The project also explored police officers attributions and perceptions about victims and the effect of attributions on police helping behaviours. In general literature has focused on what type of service victims did or did not receive and measuring levels of satisfaction. This thesis took a novel approach to traditional victim research. In addition to traditional approach, it considers variables not often included in research, offers a new way for assessing victim distress, and also looks at psychological factors that could explain why certain police helping behaviours towards victims do not occur.

In order to provide high quality service to the public, the police are reliant on intelligence and co-operation that the public can provide. Satisfaction is a key element in this relationship. Views about the police may affect the extent to which the public co-operates or provides information, for example, in terms of willingness to report future crime (Johnson, 2007). In addition, if the victim is dissatisfied they may drop out which can also affect investigations (Victim Support Report, 2011).

There are several factors in the research literature found to be related to satisfaction with the police service, including expected or perceived police response time (Brandl & Horvath, 1991; Coupe & Griffiths, 1999, Skogan,

2005); perceived lack of police interest and investigative effort (Brandl & Horvath, 1991; FitzGerald, Hough, Joseph, & Qureshi, 2002; Newburn & Merry, 1990) and perceived police manner; follow-ups and the amount and quality of information received from the police (Coupe & Griffiths, 1999; Glauser & Tullar, 1985; Poister & McDavid, 1978; Reisig & Chandek, 2001). Therefore it appears that from victims' point of view more weight is given on the process itself and quality of interaction with the police rather than on the outcome of the investigation (FitzGerald, et al., 2002; Myhill & Bradford, 2012).

The purpose of the research as a whole was to explore variables that predict victims' satisfaction and the relationship between satisfaction and mental health outcomes. Further, the aim was to investigate whether police officer's attributions about victims affected their helping behaviours towards victims of volume crime and whether any particular aspect(s) emerged that the police should be mindful of when dealing with victims of crime. These could subsequently affect satisfaction. Therefore the project produced three pieces of research: analysis of an archival data set comprising two studies, a longitudinal study (Study 3), and an experimental study (Study 4).

The first study, Study 1, used a large data set that was obtained from UK Data Service that contained responses to the Metropolitan Police User Satisfaction Survey. The data set included responses from over 100,000 victims of crime. The purpose of the archival study was to explore factors that predict victim satisfaction. Study 1 tested models combining police actions and victim variables to predict victim satisfaction. Further, this study used qualitative data from the survey to explore burglary victims' responses to how police could

improve their services. Study 1 also found that victim self-reported vulnerability was related to satisfaction and identified self-reported vulnerability as an area for further research. The archival data was used again in Study 2 to explore victim vulnerability in different demographic groups and whether police were able to identify and cater for vulnerability needs.

Study 3 explored the relationship between psychological mechanisms, mental health outcomes and victim satisfaction. This study was longitudinal; victim responses were collected at two points in time. Psychologically and emotionally there are several processes victims go through when dealing with the experience of victimisation. People have reported feelings of distress, frustration, uncertainty, isolation, fear for safety, difficulties sleeping, anger, anxiety and depression (Shapland & Hall, 2007; Victim Support Report, 2011). Kunst, Rutten and Knijf (2013) found that victims with high levels of early symptoms of Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) were at risk of developing PTSD if they scored low on satisfaction with the police response. Study 3 was interested in investigating whether certain psychological mechanisms are related to victim satisfaction with the police investigation. Mechanisms that were explored were need for cognition, trauma susceptibility, worry about crime, and self-efficacy.

It is important to understand the relationships between victim satisfaction and mental health outcomes in order to review existing police interventions and develop new ones in a meaningful way. It was proposed that if significant relationships were found, it could assist in formulation of interventions. This in turn would allow attempts to improve victim satisfaction, which may then strengthen the relationship between the police and the public.

The aim of the Study 4 was to explore police attributions and victim reactivity and their link to helping behaviours. This study was experimental in nature as the victim culpability and reaction towards the police were manipulated. In studies relating to crime, previous research has found differences in attributions of blame in sexual assault cases. For example, sexually promiscuous victims have been blamed more for the assault than sexually inexperienced victims (Davies, Pollard & Archer, 2006) and males have expressed more rape myth beliefs, which are often linked to attributions of blame, than females (Davies, Pollard & Archer, 2006; Page, 2007). Bieneck and Krahe (2011) found that more blame was attributed to victims and less to the offender for rape than robbery. Information regarding prior relationship between victim and offender increased victim blame in rape cases but not in robbery cases. Two reviews of rape victim blame literature (van der Bruggen & Grubb, 2012; Grubb & Turner, 2014) indicate that males have higher rape myth acceptance and blame victim more than females. Females who violated traditional gender roles or consumed alcohol prior to the attack were blamed more (Grubb & Turner, 2012). The review also indicated that the better the victim knows the offender the more the victim is blamed (van der Bruggen & Grubb, 2014).

In terms of domestic violence, victim blaming attitudes were more common amongst respondents who were older, less educated, thought domestic violence against women was common in society or knew victims of domestic violence (Gracia & Tomas, 2014). In contrast, in Eigenberg and Policastro (2015) those with experience of domestic violence were less likely to blame the woman. Men were more likely to blame a female victim for the violence

and conservative attitudes towards women in general increased victim blaming. Perceptions of the aggressor's masculinity/femininity have also influenced blame; masculine aggressors were perceived to have initiated the assault compared to feminine aggressors (Russell & Kraus, 2016).

As victim blame attitudes exist among the general public, they can equally exist among criminal justice professionals. If the police attribute blame to the victim, could the attributions be then linked to officers' subsequent actions? Study 4 drew from Weiner's (1980) attribution-affect-action model. It proposes that after perception of an event attribution occurs that produces emotion(s). Emotions then provide directions for subsequent behaviours. Weiner found that if the cause for an event was perceived as internal and controllable then no helping actions were likely to occur because it had elicited the negative affect of disgust/anger that promoted avoidance. If the cause for the event was perceived to be beyond personal control then helping behaviour was likely to occur because a feeling of sympathy was triggered in the observer.

Another model that was of interest in Study 4 was the stereotype content model (Cuddy, Fiske & Glick, 2007; Fiske, 2012; Fiske, Cuddy, Glick & Xu, 2002). In this model stereotypes contain two dimensions, warmth and competence. Warmth in this model relates to goals or intentions a person or a group are perceived to have that may or may not correspond to one's own goals. Competence is the perceived ability of achieving their goals. If people or groups are perceived as competent, they matter more to the observer than if they were less competent. Warmth stereotypes have been found to elicit active helping behaviours. Competence stereotypes are marked by passive

behaviours, for instance, engaging in interactions that are convenient but not desired (Cuddy, Fiske & Glick, 2007).

Therefore the aim of Study 4 was to explore the relationship between helping behaviours and attributions of blame, victim reactivity, and stereotype content model. In police investigations the attribution-affect-action model and stereotype content model could have implications for victims of crime.

Stewart and Maddren (1997) reported findings that victim blaming predicted charging decisions; the less the police blamed the victim, the higher the likelihood of charging the perpetrator. Study 4 also attempted to identify psychological barriers that could impact how police comply with victim policies.

Overall, these studies aimed to find a model that predicted victim satisfaction in police investigation and explore the relationship between satisfaction and mental health outcomes post-victimisation. The aim was also to highlight police behaviours that drew from officers' reactions to the victims that then could affect victim satisfaction. This research is important due to the practical implications and the potential to offer the police solutions for maintaining high satisfaction and ways to improve satisfaction. Previous literature has investigated victim satisfaction and the current research contributed to that knowledge.

1.2. Victim Satisfaction: Literature Review

There have been several studies that investigated factors related to victim satisfaction with the police. It should be noted that the concept of satisfaction is separate from confidence in the police and satisfaction and confidence

should not be viewed as interchangeable concepts. A person may have a low confidence that the police are performing their duties well and appropriately, however, they may be satisfied with the police response (Myhill & Bradford, 2012). The literature review and the subsequent studies focus on victim satisfaction.

1.2.1. The Importance of Satisfaction with Police Service

People contact the police for various reasons. These include reporting a crime, reporting traffic collisions or medical emergencies, asking for advice and/or information, reporting suspicious activity, and reporting neighbourhood problems or concerns (Skogan, 2005). Newburn and Merry's (1990) Home Office study indicated that motivation to report a crime was for the police to catch the offender(s), to help police to help others, reporting was the right thing to do, the person needed help, and to report loss for insurance purposes. People also appeared to report crimes that they felt may have been trivial but felt it was important to report it in any case. Posick (2014) found that victim and crime characteristics such as victim gender (female), full-time employment, high confidence in police, injury, emotional distress and its intensity increased the likelihood of reporting. The reasons for reporting thus appear to be personal, social, and financial.

On the other hand, reasons for not reporting also vary and sometimes are the same as for reporting. Believing the matter to be trivial (Felson, Messner, Hoskins & Deane, 2002; Sarkis, 2013), fear of reprisals in domestic violence cases or disbelief from the police and privacy concerns (McCart, Smith & Sawyer, 2010; Meyer, 2011), lack of confidence in the police and Criminal

Justice System (Sarkis, 2013), and in domestic violence cases the fear that family may find out about the abuse (Frias & Agoff, 2015) all prevented reporting. Keller and Miller (2015) found that perceived social norms were the most influential factor in reporting intentions and therefore suggested that communities and local organisations should actively encourage reporting.

How the police respond to the contact is the source of (dis)satisfaction and may affect the victim psychologically and emotionally. The Victim Support Survey (2011) indicated that receiving no communication from police was a source of distress, frustration and disappointment. Victims reported feelings of uncertainty, fear for safety, and isolation. Dissatisfied victims have reported lack of police interest and lack of effort to investigate. Resentment was caused when police displayed apathy or did not seem to care (Newburn & Merry, 1990). Fitzgerald, Hough, Joseph and Qureshi (2002) also reported that key irritants in contact with the police were lack of police effort and interest, failure to do anything or not enough, response time (slow to arrive) and not being kept informed about case progression.

The actions that facilitate positive views about the police and may increase satisfaction are the same actions that are a source of dissatisfaction when omitted. Personal and situational factors have been found to impact satisfaction. These include the police paying attention to the victim and what they have to say, clearly explaining what actions they would take or if no action was necessary, being polite and helpful and coming straight away or scheduling an appointment (Skogan, 2005). However, there is also a risk that all positives from the very first contact could be undone if police fail to keep in further contact with the victim as the case progresses (Newburn & Merry,

1990). The Victim Support report (2011) warned that if the police fail to provide information and maintain contact, this could lead to disengagement from the Criminal Justice System, and affect progress of the investigation if the victim drops out. A negative experience could result in the likelihood of not reporting future offences (Victim Support Survey, 2011).

The effect of police actions on satisfaction and the willingness to report was evident in Johnson (2007), who explored areas that victims of domestic violence found most helpful and least helpful within police responses. Actions that significantly related to satisfaction included police explaining the warrant process, informing victims about women's shelters, victims being asked about medical treatment, police provision of information about action steps, and when police demonstrated interest in the victim. Subsequently, willingness to report future incidents was related to perceiving police as being helpful and interested in the victim. Women who saw police as unhelpful were not willing to call police again. Helpfulness and interest in the victim were more strongly related to willingness to report than overall victim satisfaction. Considering the overall findings, satisfaction is an important factor in victim-police encounters and there are theories that attempt to explain what drives victims' views about the police.

1.2.2. Theoretical Considerations

Evaluations and support for the police could be explained from a procedural justice perspective. Procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of the procedures authorities use in their decision-making, carrying out the decisions and the treatment of the public. Antecedents of procedural justice include

perceptions that the authorities treat people fairly, with respect and dignity and that their decisions are un-biased and based on facts (Elliott, Thomas & Ogloff, 2011; Murphy & Barkworth, 2014).

Procedural justice judgements have been linked to public confidence and trust in the police (Tyler, 2001), perceptions about police effectiveness (Gau, 2010), public co-operation with the police and public satisfaction with police service (Hinds & Murphy, 2007; Murphy, Hinds & Fleming, 2008). Tyler (2001) explored public perceptions of quality of treatment (e.g. how fairly people are treated) and its influence on public confidence in police service. Results indicated that the quality of treatment not only had an impact on public confidence but also on obligation to obey the law, seeking help from the police and courts, and even willingness to pay more taxes for intensified police activity.

The Tyler study had both white and minority participants, however, the measures had initially focused on general assessments about treatment and not on how the participant had been personally treated. In terms of personal experiences, the overall judgments were also influenced by experience-based evaluations about the quality of treatment. Tyler concluded that if people feel that the police are sincere, polite, and respectful, the public are more supportive of law and legal authorities.

When discussing procedural justice the concept of legitimacy should be considered. Legitimacy refers to a property that an authority possesses that leads people to feel that the authority is entitled to be obeyed and deferred to (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). Sunshine and Tyler examined the determinants of

legitimacy and the procedural justice perspective argument that legitimacy is linked to the judgements about fairness in police decision-making and exercising authority. If the public perceives that police processes are fair then the police are viewed as a legitimate authority and the public will cooperate with the police. Perceived unfairness on the other hand could lead to alienation, defiance and non-cooperation. Sunshine and Tyler's analysis found that legitimacy was principally based on procedural justice with similar antecedents: quality of decision-making and treatment, and distributive fairness or the extent to which police fairly distribute their services across people and communities.

The authors rightly noted that the model they tested was based on perceptions, not actual police behaviours, as one could not be sure what actually happens in public-police encounters. However, one cannot disagree with their notion that the police have more control over how they treat people than they may have over controlling crime rates.

Murphy, Hinds and Fleming (2008) found that legitimacy judgments had greatest influence on cooperation and legitimacy itself had a positive relationship with procedural justice evaluations. Surprisingly, the evaluations of police performance had a negative relationship with police cooperation; when people perceived the police were performing well in terms of battling crime they were less likely to cooperate. It is possible that people may think police do not need their help if they are perceived to be competent and doing a good job. Their second study using a longitudinal design found that cooperation remained relatively stable, however, legitimacy evaluations predicted changes in cooperative behaviour. This study was different from

most others in that it used a longitudinal design in an attempt to capture causal influence of judgments on cooperation.

In terms of public satisfaction with the police, Hinds and Murphy (2007) also found that procedural justice, legitimacy, distributive justice, police performance and a person's income level predicted satisfaction with the police. All except income level were positively related to satisfaction: those with higher income were less satisfied with the police. However, the results should be interpreted with caution as the authors report that their sample came from an older, more affluent and educated population and satisfaction loaded onto the legitimacy items and not onto its own factor. Therefore the authors concluded that there may have been conceptual overlap and the satisfaction measure should have been more specific.

Elliott, Thomas and Ogloff (2011) reported that higher perceived procedural justice and obtaining a desirable outcome were significant predictors of victim satisfaction. Antecedents of procedural justice were quality of treatment (treating victims with dignity and respect), involving victims in decision-making, unbiased decision-making, and police trustworthiness. These antecedents of procedural justice were found to be stronger predictors of satisfaction than whether victims received a desired outcome or not. The authors suggested that the results indicate a process-based assessment of the police over an outcome-based evaluation. They also reported that willingness to report was not related to procedural justice, however, the authors noted that the question relating to willingness to report may have been too vague.

Murphy and Barkworth (2014) in turn explored the effect of procedural justice judgments and outcome favourability on willingness to report crime among victims of different types of crime. Across the crime types those who had received a favourable outcome were also more likely to say they would report crime to the police in the future. However, when procedural justice and police effectiveness judgements were included, the effect of favourable outcome on willingness to report disappeared. The effect of procedural justice was also found to be context specific and varied across victims of different types of crime.

Among burglary victims, procedural justice and police effectiveness both predicted the willingness to report. Those who scored high on belief that police utilised procedural justice and performed their duties effectively were also willing to report future crime. For violent crime victims, police effectiveness was a better predictor than procedural justice, however, both predicted willingness to report. For domestic violence victims only procedural justice mattered and in contrast among motor vehicle and theft victims procedural justice played no role in reporting; only police effectiveness mattered.

The procedural justice view therefore attempts to offer a theoretical explanation as to what consequences police actions and victims' reactions to those actions may have. Considering the procedural justice perspective, treatment of victims becomes very important. As indicated by previous research into victim satisfaction, the way police respond during contact can influence satisfaction, which could then determine how a person perceives the police service and whether they are willing to help the police during an

investigation or report a crime in the future. Therefore, it is important to understand what variables are related to victim satisfaction in order to maintain or improve satisfaction in the police service.

1.2.3. Variables Related to Satisfaction with the Police

Research among the general public into their satisfaction with the police service have considered both demographic and behavioural factors. Kusow, Wilson and Martin (1997) argued that where one lives affects attitudes towards the police. Their research indicated that the combination of ethnicity and residential location had the largest effect on satisfaction ratings. Whites living in suburban areas were more satisfied than both blacks and whites living in the central city area. In this combination it was the residential area that mattered more than ethnicity. Other variables predicting satisfaction were previous victimisation and age. Those previously victimised were less satisfied with the police and older people more satisfied than younger age groups. Gender had no relationship with satisfaction.

Dukes, Portillos, and Miles (2009) also emphasised the role of perceived neighbourhood safety, which had an effect on public satisfaction ratings. Police response was strongly related to satisfaction ratings. The components of response were response time, time spent with residents when they call for service and involving residents in solving crime problems in the neighbourhood. Victimisation itself had no direct effect on satisfaction. Brown and Benedict (2002) reviewed over a 100 research studies into perceptions and attitudes towards the police and concluded that age, contact with the police, neighbourhood and ethnicity had a significant impact on attitudes

towards the police. Consensus was lacking for the effects of gender, education, socio-economic status, victimisation or fear of victimisation on perceptions about the police. It is to variables relating to the victim that we now turn.

1.2.4. Victim Variables: Demographics and Expectations

1.2.4.1. Demographics. When it comes to victim related variables, particularly demographic variables, research findings are somewhat mixed. For example, age has been found to have an effect on victim satisfaction in that older age groups have indicated higher satisfaction than younger age groups (Brandl & Horvath, 1991; Norris & Thompson, 1993). In these studies age was only relevant in specific crime types and the positive correlation between age and satisfaction in Norris and Thompson was found to be minimal.

It is also worth noting that satisfaction in Norris and Thompson was measured by victims' evaluation of police *helpfulness*. This may not indicate overall satisfaction but partial satisfaction in an aspect of policing. In terms of general attitudes towards the police, being young was a predictor of greater annoyance towards the police (FitzGerald, Hough, Joseph & Qureshi, 2002) and those 60 years and older were more satisfied with the police than younger age groups (Kusow, Wilson & Martin, 1997). On the other hand Tewksbury and West (2001) did not find a relationship between age and victim satisfaction at all. However, their response rate was very small and they cautioned against generalising their overall findings to a wider population.

Similarly, exploring the relationship between gender and satisfaction has produced mixed results. A minimal negative relationship was found with women being less satisfied than men (Norris & Thompson, 1993); women being more satisfied than men (Tewkbury & West 2001) and there being no effect or relationship between gender and satisfaction (Brandl & Horvath, 1991; Coupe & Griffiths, 1999; Felson & Pare, 2008).

In terms of ethnicity the results have been more consistent in that no association has been found between victim ethnicity and their satisfaction with police service or response (Coupe & Griffiths, 1991; Martin, 1997; Poister & McDavid, 1978; Tewkbury & West, 2001). Fleury (2002) reported that white female victims of domestic violence were less satisfied with police response than ethnic minority females. Fleury acknowledged that this was a surprising finding and challenging to explain but suggested it may have been due to white women's higher expectations of the criminal justice system relative to the expectations of minority females, resulting in white women's greater dissatisfaction with their actual treatment.

1.2.4.2. Expectations. When considering variables that may influence victim satisfaction one must also consider victims' expectations. The role of expectations in satisfaction with the police can be seen in research focusing on the relationship between police response time and satisfaction. In general, the findings have been mixed. Poister and McDavid (1978) found that satisfaction was moderately associated with response time. When response time decreased satisfaction increased; with response times of ten minutes or less 72% of the victims indicated that they were satisfied with overall police performance. Only 25% of victims expressed satisfaction when the response

time was more than 50 minutes. Similarly, satisfaction decreased when elderly victims indicated that police could have arrived more quickly (Zevitz & Gurnack, 1991) and increased with the speed of response (Tewksbury & West, 2001). On the contrary Martin (1997) found that response time was not related to satisfaction among domestic violence victims. This could be explained by other factors, such as police helpfulness, which better predicted satisfaction.

In other crime types, serious personal and property crime and minor property crimes, expectations about response time predicted victim satisfaction; if response time was faster than expected then victims were likely to be satisfied with the police (Brandl & Horvath, 1991).

It is also possible that when the police respond quickly to a victim call, it leads to dissatisfaction. Coupe and Griffiths (1999) analysed actual response times to burglaries that were recorded in police logs, victims' estimations of the response time, and also what response time victims had expected. The findings suggested that the average real response time to a burglary (26 minutes) was actually lower than victims' estimated response time (36 minutes). Victims therefore tended to over-estimate the time they had to wait and satisfaction ratings were influenced by these estimates. Once the police had been called victims usually expected the police to arrive within 60 minutes and preferably within 30 minutes. The longer it took for the police to arrive the more dissatisfied victims were.

However, when the victim estimated response time was slower than expected response time, satisfaction did not substantially decrease when the difference

between the two times increased. Coupe and Griffiths (1999) suggested that there is a waiting time threshold at which dissatisfaction may occur if expectations are not met, however, once this level has been reached, further discrepancy in expected time and estimated time did not appear to decrease satisfaction any more. In other words, if people expect police to arrive within 30 minutes but the perceived response time is longer, this may lead to dissatisfaction. Dissatisfaction does not appear to increase further whether the expected time is exceeded by, say, 10, 20, or 30 minutes. This threshold could therefore also explain why a victim might be dissatisfied even with a rapid police response.

Theoretical considerations for the relationship between expectations and satisfaction can be drawn from consumer research. The expectancy disconfirmation model (Oliver, 1980; 1981) posits that consumer satisfaction results from the agreement between an individual's expectation and the actual performance of a product. The way perceptions about performance match expectations determine the type of disconfirmation and have a direct effect on satisfaction. Disconfirmation is positive when the outcome is better than expected and negative when the outcome is poorer than expected. Zero disconfirmation represents a situation where the outcome matches expectation.

Reisig and Chandek (2001) explored satisfaction in police encounters using an expectancy disconfirmation perspective. They argued that disconfirmation in a policing context can be viewed as what the public expects police to do and the actual services rendered. They also critiqued Brandl and Horvath (1991) and Coupe and Griffiths (1999) expectation research for the

assumption that expectations are constant across the public and failed to take into account the possibility that expectations vary among people. They pointed out that encounters with the police occur in one of two ways: the public contacts the police by reporting a crime (voluntary contact) and the police can make contact with the public, for example, through issuing traffic penalties or arrest (involuntary contact). Reisig and Chandek (2001) analysis included samples from burglary victims and those who had received a traffic ticket. Their analysis investigated how differences between expectations of police performance and actual services received affected satisfaction with the police on a general level and at a case level. Case level satisfaction refers to the victim's satisfaction in how their case was handled. The results supported the expectancy disconfirmation model in that case level satisfaction appeared to be a product of the similarity between expectations and perceptions of the actual services police had provided. On the other hand disconfirmation was not related to general satisfaction with the police. The most salient predictor of case-level satisfaction was police behaviour.

Wilson and Jasinski (2004) reported that domestic violence victims whose expectations had been met were more likely to be satisfied with the police than those whose expectations were not met. However, the authors acknowledged that their expectation measure was problematic and participants may have interpreted it as reference to participants' satisfaction. Therefore the results in terms of expectations and satisfaction must be interpreted with caution.

Brathwaite and Yeboah (2004) found that satisfaction was based on what victims expected from police. When expectations were met, victims were

more likely to be satisfied with the police. However, those with high expectations were less satisfied than those who had only expected police to provide a very basic service, for example, dealing with the matter urgently or returning stolen goods. This finding points to expectancy disconfirmation, which also supports the suggestion made by Fleury (2002) that white women were less satisfied with police response than minority women due to differences in their expectations. High expectations would require the police to do more, possibly resulting in negative disconfirmation if the expectations are not met. This may result in a perception of poor performance that negatively affects satisfaction.

Further testing of the expectation disconfirmation model among domestic violence victims was conducted by Robinson and Stroshine (2005) who concluded that whilst police mostly met the victims' expectations about police manner and actions (e.g. to be courteous and respectful, appear concerned and take the case seriously), expectations in themselves were not related to satisfaction. In turn, what the police actually did, predicted victim satisfaction. Satisfaction increased when police were courteous, respectful, appeared concerned, and most importantly appeared to take the matter seriously. In accordance with theory, expectation fulfilment impacted satisfaction levels; when expectations were fulfilled satisfaction increased significantly. Expectations for support from police may also vary according to victim self evaluation of vulnerability and perceptions of seriousness of the crime (Freeman, 2013).

More recent literature indicates that the investigation and prosecution of domestic violence and sexual assault cases in the UK do not meet victim

expectations. Victims have felt judged and not taken seriously; there are failures in both needs assessments and compliance with victim policies (HMIC, 2014; 2015; HM Crown Prosecution Service Inspectorate, 2016).

Expectations play a part in victim satisfaction but also important are the real actions and behaviours carried out by police when dealing with victims. Over 20 years ago Newburn and Merry (1990) reported that victims of theft, burglary, assault and criminal damage appeared more realistic than optimistic about crime clear-up rates. The likelihood of police not catching the offender was not a source for dissatisfaction. However, victims expected sympathy and concern and looked for general reassurance or support. Those victims who perceived they had received these things from the police also reported that they were 'very satisfied'.

Over time victims' views have not appeared to change. According to the Victim Support Survey (2011) victims understand that offenders may never be caught and police must prioritise their limited resources. It must be noted that this view may be shared more by volume crime victims than victims of violent crime or sexual assault due to the nature of those crimes that demand high priority at all times. However, the victims in this survey did expect crime to be taken seriously, receive assurances that their crime was worth reporting and be kept informed of their case progression because lack of contact is interpreted as lack of action and/or effort. These findings imply the importance of process-based policing emphasised in the procedural justice literature (where police actions and the way the police treat people influences their satisfaction) over outcome-based policing. The importance of police actions

becomes evident in studies that have explored the relationship between police actions/behaviours and victim satisfaction.

1.2.5. Police Variables: Actions and Behaviours

Previous research has indicated that although outcomes may be important to victim satisfaction such as when a case is solved, stolen property is returned, or the offender is arrested (Coupe & Griffiths, 1999; Norris & Thompson, 1993), overall it is treatment that appears to be more important for satisfaction levels (Myhill & Bradford, 2012). There are several police behaviours and actions that have been linked to victim satisfaction.

One of these behaviours is investigative effort. Poister and McDavid (1978) found that satisfaction in initial investigation on arrival and follow-up investigation when it occurred predicted overall satisfaction. In property crimes investigative effort predicted satisfaction (Brandl & Horvath, 1991). Police looking for evidence and promising to investigate led to higher satisfaction than if victims did not perceive such concerns (Norris & Thompson, 1993). In contrast, Coupe and Griffiths (1999) reported that among a UK victim sample, a visit by a Scene of Crime Officer (SOCO) or a detective from Criminal Investigation Department (CID) did not affect victim satisfaction in itself; however, satisfaction was influenced by the CID officer's manner. When the officers were perceived favourably it led to higher satisfaction regardless of outcome. Perceived officer indifference in turn lowered victims' regard for the officer.

Police manner and professionalism towards the victims is apparent in several studies. Professionalism, including behaviours such as being concerned,

understanding, and courteous, was found to be the most important predictor of victim satisfaction in Brandl and Horvath (1991). The perception that the police are taking matters seriously, are polite and sympathetic, and show interest or concern towards the victim had a positive relationship with satisfaction (Brathwaite & Yeboah, 2004; Johnson, 2007; Myhill & Bradford, 2012; Robinson & Strohshine, 2005; Tewksbury, 2001; Zevitz & Gurnack, 1991).

The effect of police helpfulness on satisfaction has been explored in research and the actions that are perceived or measured as helpful vary across the studies, including asking about injuries, offering advice, information, or contact details. Not surprisingly police helpfulness affects satisfaction in that when helpful actions occur victims have reported more favourable or satisfied evaluations about the police. In Martin (1997) the helping actions were police asking if the victim was injured and advising about available services and court processes. The greatest predictor of satisfaction in this study was police offering help whereby the more helping actions demonstrated by police, the more satisfied victims were.

Similarly, in Tewksbury and West (2001), helpfulness was considered as police providing information that helped victims to cope with the situation and providing contact information for other resources. Helpfulness was the strongest predictor of satisfaction; as perceived police helpfulness increased so did victim satisfaction. It is interesting to note that in this study asking about victim injuries was a measure of police concern rather than a measure of helpfulness as it was in Martin (1997). This indicates that same actions may be categorised and interpreted differently across research.

In some studies it is not specified what helpfulness entails. In Zevitz and Gurnack (1991) elderly victims perception that efforts had been made to help them was positively related to satisfaction. Similarly, when domestic violence victims felt that police had done nothing to help them, they were less likely to be satisfied with the police than victims who reported that police took some action (Wilson & Jasinski, 2004). From the literature it can be concluded that offering or performing helpful actions is related to higher satisfaction. It is more difficult to pinpoint the best helping actions as interpretations of what is considered as helpful may vary across the victims or methodology used.

One police action that is easier to interpret is further contact with the victim after a crime has been reported. This action, whether it refers to a personal visit, a telephone call or letter, does not leave much room for interpretation as it either happened or did not happen. The problem of not keeping victims informed and the value that victims place on contact with the police has been documented in the literature for over 30 years (Wedlock & Tapley, 2016). For example, Button, Lewis and Tapley (2009a; 2009b) reported that a common need among fraud victims was to be treated with respect and receiving updates. However, police had not kept all victims informed after reporting the crime.

In the Victim Support Survey (2011) victims had reported that receiving no communication from police was a source of distress, disappointment and frustration and they expected to be kept updated and informed. All the positives from initial contact could be undone by lack of contact as the case progresses because victims wish to know what has happened to the offender and seek closure (Newburn & Merry, 1990).

Interestingly, Brandl and Horvath (1991) found no significant relationship between case status updates and satisfaction among personal crime and minor property crime victims. The exception was serious property crime where greater satisfaction was expressed when the victim was informed of the status of the investigation than when they were not. One of the most frequently cited reasons of dissatisfaction was police failure to keep people informed of case progression (Fitzgerald, Hough, Joseph & Qureshi, 2002). Although keeping victims informed does not appear to be an often-measured variable in the literature, intuitively it makes sense that keeping victims informed would result in satisfaction rather than dissatisfaction. Assuming treatment is more important than outcome, even delivering undesirable information is better than no further contact at all. Keeping victims informed is also a requirement under victim policies that aim to assist victims and witnesses as their cases progress through the Criminal Justice system.

1.2.6. Policies Relating to Victims and Witnesses of Crime.

This thesis focuses on and draws from psychological research, however, policies that have been introduced over the years with an aim to improve the treatment of victims and witnesses are relevant in the present thesis.

The most relevant policies, legislation, and reports introduced in the past 20 years include the Youth and Criminal Evidence Act 1999, Victim's Charter, Witness Charter, Code of Practice for Victims of Crime, the development of Witness Care Units, Victim's Right to Review and the Police and Crime Commissioner's (PCC) responsibility for commissioning support services for

victims of crime. The following section will explore these and other related policies/reports.

1.2.6.1. Youth Justice and Criminal Evidence Act 1999 - Special measures

In the past 20 years policies and government reports have been produced with a view to improving victim and witnesses' experience as they proceed through the Criminal Justice System. The Youth Justice and Criminal Evidence Act 1999 introduced measures that can be used to help vulnerable and intimidated victims and witnesses to give their best evidence in court. The actions that can be used to relieve victim/witness distress about giving evidence are collectively called Special Measures. Special measures include giving evidence in private (clearing the court room of members of the public and press), giving evidence behind a screen or via a live link, removal of wigs and gowns of the court personnel, use of video-recorded interview, intermediary to assist with communication or use of an communication aids for those who need a device to communicate. A person is eligible for special measures if they are vulnerable or intimidated. A witness is considered vulnerable if they are under 18 at the time of offence; are suffering from a mental disorder; have a significant impairment of intelligence and social functioning or have a physical disability/disorder.

Intimidated witnesses are eligible for special measures on the grounds of fear and distress about testifying and the court must also consider witness' socio-cultural background, domestic and employment circumstances, religious and political opinions and the behaviour towards the witness by the accused or their family and associates or by any other witness in the proceedings.

The police assess whether a victim is vulnerable or intimidated and submits the assessment to the Crown Prosecution Service who then submit a request for special measures to Court. The court decides based on the application and prior to a trial whether to grant special measures.

1.2.6.2. Victim's Charter

In 2004 the government Criminal Justice Service published the Victim's Charter that was introduced in 1996 and built on the first 1990 Charter. The Charter's aim was to explain what happens after an offence has been reported and the standard of service victims should expect.

The Charter stated that a victim can expect the crime to be investigated and to receive information about what happens. More specifically; the police will respond as quickly as they can, police will give the name and telephone number of the officer or crime desk responsible for the case; police will provide an information leaflet regarding what happens during an investigation and if the offender is caught. Under the Charter victims could also expect police to inform them of any significant developments in the case, that is, if anyone is caught, cautioned or charged and will ask the victim if they wish to receive further information about case progression. The charter therefore acknowledged variables that were considered important to improve victims experience in the Criminal Justice System. This Charter was a temporary measure and was replaced by the Code of Practice for Victims of Crime or Victims' Code in 2005 (Ministry of Justice, 2015).

1.2.6.3. Witness Care Units

In 2005 Witness Care Units (WCU) were established, which were set out to be one point of contact for victims and witnesses. The units consisted of police and CPS staff and provided information to victims and all witnesses. The researcher has personal experience about the practices in WCU; she was employed as a Witness Care Officer for four years and dealt with cases that were heard in Magistrates and Crown Court. Duties included contact by telephone and in writing, provision of information pre- and post-trial, vulnerability and need for support assessments and provision of travel warrants, interpreter and/or childcare where appropriate. The unit was to follow government policy and the researcher worked under the first Victims' Code (2005) and the No Witness No Justice initiative, which aimed to increase victim/witness court attendance and enable more witnesses to give best evidence. The author left the Witness Care Unit prior to the introduction of the update to Victims' Code (2013).

1.2.6.4. Code of Practice for Victims of Crime

The Code of Practice for Victims of Crime (Victims' Code) is part of government strategy to transform the Criminal Justice System by putting victims first and making the system more responsive and easier to navigate. The Victims' Code sets out a minimum standard for services; what victims are entitled to and the duties of service providers during police investigations, pre-trial, during trial and post-trial. Therefore Victims' Code applies to the police, Crown Prosecution Service and Probation Service. Witnesses are entitled to services under Witness Charter (Ministry of Justice, 2013b).

The original Victims' Code stated services set out in the Victim's Charter including Special Measures for those eligible and set the minimum requirement of contact with victims. The 2013 update introduced enhanced entitlements or enhanced support for victims of most serious crime, persistently targeted victims and vulnerable and intimidated witnesses. To mention a few of the entitlements, adult victims are entitled to receive a written acknowledgement from the police that a crime was reported; assessment of whether a victim wants support, what kind of support and whether they are entitled to enhanced support; written information of what to expect within five working days after reporting; referral to Victim Support within two working days and explanation if there is no further action or informed of an arrest, caution, charge, releases on bail. Victims are also entitled to make a Victim Impact Statement and have it read out in Court should they wish.

Under enhanced entitlements the victim will receive, for example, information about special measures; referral to specialist organisations if available and information regarding pre-trial therapy/counselling where appropriate (Ministry of Justice, 2015). The requirement to provide information about counselling was mentioned in a government consultation paper (Attorney General's Office, 2005), which set out the government's ideas how to more effectively support victims. It was published just after the first Victims' Code and called for views from professionals on how to more effectively provide emotional and practical help for victims because at the time it was acknowledged that those needs were not being adequately met.

Another consultation paper from the Ministry of Justice (2012) also set out reforms that were reflected in the 2013 Victim's Code update, such as practical and emotional support to be given to those most in need and funding directed as a priority to victims of serious crime, and those who are persistently targeted and vulnerable. The paper also called for Police and Crime Commissioner's (PCC) to commission services. This has since come into effect. From 2014 the majority of support services for victims has been provided at local level by the PCC. This replaced the model where the majority of services were provided by the government. The key principal in this framework was the shift from measuring service users to measuring outcomes of those services. Overall the focus is to support victims to cope with the immediate impact of crime and recover from harm that they have experienced (Ministry of Justice, 2013a).

In June 2013 the Crown Prosecution Service launched its Victim's Right to Review scheme. Under the scheme victims can request a review in cases where the CPS have made a decision not to prosecute or terminated criminal proceedings. Police Constabularies followed in 2015 and under the police scheme a victim has the right to request a review where police have decided not to bring proceedings in cases where they have the authority to charge or they have decided not to refer a case to the CPS for a charging decision.

1.2.6.5. Effectiveness of policies on victim care

Reforms and clear policies to improve victim and witnesses experience in Criminal Justice system are needed and surveys reflect what victims feel need improving. Findings from the Crime Survey for England and Wales

(Freeman, 2013) based on 2007-2009 data indicated a number of unmet needs. For example, overall victims wanted support, information or advice in 19% of cases however received it in 9% of the cases. Victims were more likely to want support if they were emotionally affected or perceived the incident to have been serious. Therefore, the implication for policy was that crime type and personal characteristics were not the best indicator of wanting support. Rather, the implication was that victims have individual needs for support and not a set of needs.

Despite the reforms in policy, it appears that the policy requirements are not fully met. A report from HM Inspectorate of Constabulary (2014) indicated that in domestic abuse cases police response was not good enough. It was a priority on paper but not in practice. The report found a lack of leadership and direction from senior officers: poor management that failed to reinforce correct behaviours, attitudes and actions. There were weaknesses in collecting evidence at scene. Victims reported they did not feel they were believed or taken seriously and sometimes felt judged. Risk assessments were rigid tick-box interpretations rather than based on professional judgment. Victims of domestic abuse were not correctly identified as being at high risk, therefore safeguarding services were not provided. This report clearly highlighted the shortfalls that exist despite the legislation and policy that is aimed to remove such shortfalls in service provision.

The CPS satisfaction survey (Wood, et al., 2015) also pointed to unmet needs among theft, burglary and violent crime victims and witnesses. Forty-eight percent of victims were referred to victim support with a further 13% wanting a referral but who were not referred. Those who would have like to be referred

were from vulnerable groups, or fell under the enhanced entitlements category in the Victims' Code. Police was reported as having some success in targeting victims most likely to have additional needs, but this was not found for witnesses. HM Crown Prosecution Service Inspectorate report (2016) also concluded that victim and witness care fell short of what was required. Police provided victim care with little input from CPS. Special measures applications were not ready in time; therefore victims were not aware in sufficient time prior to trial whether they had been granted special measures. Further, letters that were sent out to victims had problems with incorrect or out of date information.

The problems in victim care will have consequences for the police even when they have not been the cause of the failings in service provision. The police are the first point of contact and remain as the primary contact throughout the criminal justice process. From personal experience over a number of years, the researcher had several occasions where service provision had failed despite police efforts, however, it was the police that victim/witness blamed and indicated that they would not co-operate or report crime in the future. No doubt this would have an impact on victim satisfaction in police as well. There is an expectation - and perhaps lack of knowledge - as to the extent of the police involvement in victim care. These are of course influenced by the set of policies that the public can access.

To some extent the policies set by the government create a problem for modern policing. Wood (2016) argues that liberal values have influenced police governance in England and Wales, that is, the police have had both operational independence and resistance to political influence over policing.

Tension is caused as more democratic ideas are introduced, such as policing should be influenced by the will of the people, transparency, and responsiveness. The Police and Crime Commissioners are an example of this change: the police have become accountable to a politically influenced entity. Therefore, the challenge for policing is to find a balance between public expectations and its independence. The introduction of the PCCs can also be viewed as a positive development for the police; this type of governance allows the police more freedom to respond to challenges they face in their local area (Greenhalgh & Gibbs, 2014). Satisfaction in the police is an indicator of how well the police are responding to and applying policies and there are clear failures to comply with the policies. One of the aims of this thesis is to offer a psychological view as to why these failures to comply occur.

The literature clearly indicates the importance of police actions in victim encounters and influence on satisfaction. Police actions also appear to influence victims' procedural justice judgments, which in turn are related to satisfaction. Drawing from the literature review the first and second studies explored in more detail which victim and police related variables predicted victim satisfaction and self-reported vulnerability by utilising a very large data set from victims of crime. Study 3 then explored the relationship between satisfaction and psychological outcomes and Study 4 focused on police officers blame attributions and helping behaviours that may occur based on circumstances of the crime and victim reactivity. The aim was therefore to offer suggestions of practical ways in which victim satisfaction could be increased, assist victims to cope, and raising awareness about how aspects

of victim-police encounters may affect police behaviours and how the behaviours link back to satisfaction. In Chapter 2 we begin with a description of the first study, utilising a very large sample, into victim and police variables that predict victim satisfaction and examine qualitative data.

Chapter 2. User Satisfaction Survey 2005-2012: An Archival Study

2.1. Introduction

There are several factors in the research literature that have been found to be related to satisfaction with the police service: expected or perceived police response time (Brandl & Horvath, 1991; Coupe & Griffiths, 1999, Skogan, 2005); perceived lack of police interest and investigative effort (Brandl & Horvath, 1991; FitzGerald, Hough, Joseph, & Qureshi, 2002; Newburn & Merry, 1990) and perceived police manner; follow-ups and the amount and quality of information received from the police (Coupe & Griffiths, 1999; Glauser & Tullar, 1985; Poister & McDavid, 1978; Reisig & Chandek, 2001). Therefore it appears that from the victims' point of view more weight is given on the process itself and quality of interaction with the police rather than on the outcome (FitzGerald, et al., 2002; Myhill & Bradford, 2012).

Considering previous literature regarding victim satisfaction and as a first stage of the research, the current study focused on archived data obtained from UK Data Service, the Metropolitan Police Service User Satisfaction Survey (USS) 2005 – 2012. This presented a unique opportunity to explore a very large victim satisfaction data set. The aim was to explore factors that influence or predict victim satisfaction and whether the results supported previous research. In common with research that uses large data sets, the current data set had some limitations. The data from the survey have been used by the Metropolitan Police Service in their research and posed some problems for psychological enquiry in terms of wording of the survey questions. The questions were at times vague. Issues with large acquired

data sets are not unusual. However, due to the size of the sample and the vast amount of information in the dataset it was considered appropriate for examination with some modifications for statistical analysis purposes. Further, a research paper regarding vulnerability (Chapter 3) using the dataset has been accepted for publication indicating acceptance of the dataset by peer review.

It is important to look at specific actions that may be related to victim satisfaction. Finding the best predictors of satisfaction could inform and offer practical recommendations of best practice for police officers and staff who deal with victims of crime. The role of police actions also becomes important when considering the mental state of the victim and police psychological states that may prevent or reduce certain actions that are required by policy. These will be explored in detail in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5.

In terms of policy, knowing what victims value in their relationship with the police during investigation and beyond is important because it informs policy makers of new areas that affect satisfaction or areas that need improving. Research also informs whether the police are complying with set policies. During the data collection period for the current study the Victims' Code was already in place.

The Victims' Code sets out the minimum standard for services that victims can expect, for example, information and updates, referral to support agencies and assessment of vulnerable and intimidated victims for Special Measures. A policy paper from Criminal Justice System (2005) had argued that victim's would be better informed under the Victims' Code, however, the

paper expressed concern that practical and emotional needs of victims were not adequately met. Therefore, it recommended that victims should have access to emotional support, including professional counselling, and practical help, for example, support in installing home security or help with re-housing.

The Crime Survey for England and Wales based on face-to-face household data from 2007-2009 (Freeman, 2013) indicated that overall victims wanted support, information or advice in 19% of the cases but only received it in nine percent of the cases. Victims were most likely to want support if they had been emotionally affected or perceived the incident had been serious.

Burglary and violent crime victims were most likely to want and receive support.

In 2012 the Ministry of Justice set out reforms for practical and emotional support to be given to those who need it the most. Funding was to be directed to those victims of serious crime, and those who were persistently targeted and vulnerable. In 2013 the Ministry of Justice in its framework for those who were commissioning services nationally and locally stated that the key principal was the shift from measuring the service users to measuring the outcomes of those services.

As the focus of the current study was victim satisfaction and to inform the Metropolitan Police Service how to improve satisfaction, the variables of interest in the current study were whether police were perceived to take matters seriously (Serious consideration); provided updates (Updated) and offered to perform helping actions (Practical Help). Psychological variables related to the victims were victim self-reported vulnerability and feeling

reassured. The relationship of each variable with satisfaction was explored. Further, two models were tested to find the best predictors of satisfaction. Finally, burglary victims' comments regarding how police could improve services were explored using a qualitative analysis. This was an original approach because not only did it explore what victims said, it compared the number of comments made about a topic to satisfaction levels. The literature regarding factors that are related to victim satisfaction with the police were reviewed in the previous chapter.

2.2. Method

2.2.1. Participants

The data from 1st edition of Metropolitan Police Service User Satisfaction Survey (MPS USS) 2005/6 – 2012/13 were analysed. The data set included data from 36 different Borough Operational Command Unit areas across Greater London with a total of 123,174 respondents. Data had been collected quarterly between 2005 and 2012. Data was sourced from UK Data Service. The sample included victims of burglary, violent crime, vehicle crime, racially motivated crime, and road traffic collisions. The survey had not recorded participants' specific age but classified participants by age group. The youngest age group was 16 to 24 years and the oldest 75 years and over. The mode for age was 25 to 34 year olds (24.8% of the sample). Sixty percent of the respondents were male. A majority of the participants were White (68.1%) followed by Asian (12.4%), Black (11.6), other ethnic background (2.7%) and mixed ethnic background (2.6%). The data excluded victims of domestic violence, serious assaults and sexual offences; therefore data was not collected from victims who are considered vulnerable/intimidated under

the Youth Justice and Criminal Evidence act 1999. However, victims had been asked about their perceived vulnerability and as a result the data included victims who self-reported vulnerable.

2.2.2. Design

The study used a between participants design and the analyses carried out were tests of difference or associations (ANOVA and Chi square for nominal data) and also regression analysis to make predictions about the effect of particular variables on victim satisfaction, the outcome variable. It should be noted that due to the great number of respondents (over 120,000) it is not unusual that most, if not all, of the results turn out to be statistically significant. Therefore interpretation of the current results was based on effect sizes. Effect size refers to the measure of magnitude of the relationship between variables or the size of the difference between groups (Dancey & Reidy, 2002).

The effect sizes were partial η^2 for ANOVA, Phi and Cramer's V for Chi-square, and \bar{R}^2 for regression analysis. In ANOVA the lower cut-off points for η^2 are .01 for small effect, .06 medium effect, and .14 for large effect (Cohen, 1988). For Phi and Cramer's V the ranges for magnitude of effect were .00 to .10 for negligible effect, .10 to .20 for weak effect, .20 to .40 for moderate effect, .40 to .60 for relatively strong effect, .60 to .80 strong effect and .80 to 1.00 very strong effect (Rea & Parker, 1992). The \bar{R}^2 in regression analysis represents the percentage of variance in the outcome variable that is accounted for by the independent variable.

2.2.3. Measures

In the data set there were several measures that had been used but the following were selected because they were the most appropriate measures for the current study.

2.2.3.1. Measure of victim satisfaction. The satisfaction measure was the response to the question: “*Taking the whole experience into account, are you satisfied, dissatisfied or neither with the service provided by the police in this case?*” The responses had been given on a scale; 1= *Completely satisfied*, 2= *Very satisfied*, 3= *Fairly satisfied*, 4= *Neither*, 5= *Fairly dissatisfied*, 6= *Very dissatisfied*, 7 = *Completely dissatisfied*. This question was chosen because it described satisfaction in an individual case the best. It should be noted that the scale was a dissatisfaction scale in that the scores increased as satisfaction decreased. For clarity, these scores were reversed. In the following results high scores indicate high satisfaction and low scores dissatisfaction.

2.2.3.2. Police actions. The independent variables regarding police actions were drawn from previous research and personal communications with victims of crime. Police actions that were included in the current analysis were Serious Consideration, Updates and Practical Help. These were measured from yes/no responses to the following questions: “*Did they appear to take the matter seriously?*” (Serious consideration); “*Did the police keep to this arrangement?*” (the agreement how often victim would be updated) for updates and “*Did they give practical help? E.g. with making premises secure, getting you home*” (Practical help).

2.2.3.3. Victim variables. Victim variables that were included as independent variables were vulnerability, and reassurance. Vulnerability was measured from the yes/no response to the question “*Did you consider yourself to be vulnerable in this instance? This could have been because of your age, a disability, or personal circumstances.*” Similarly reassurance was measured from the binary response to “*Were you reassured by what the police did?*”

Responses were recorded as 'Yes', 'No', 'Not answered', 'Don't know', and 'Refused'. As the meaning of the latter three answers are open to interpretation, data were subsequently recoded into a dummy variables '0= No' and '1= Yes' with all other responses recoded as missing.

2.2.3.4. Measure for Treatment. Satisfaction in the way the victim was treated (from here on treatment for short) was chosen in an attempt to find a variable that would reflect victims' perception of how they were treated. This was also considered to broadly reflect procedural justice perceptions because in previous literature procedural justice has been associated with perceptions of police treating people with dignity, respect and fairness. On the USS, the question relating to treatment was “*Thinking about their attitude and behaviour, are you satisfied, dissatisfied or neither with the way you were treated by the police officers and staff who dealt with you?*”. The responses were given on the same 7-point scale as for the other satisfaction related questions. Lower scores therefore indicated higher satisfaction with the way the person was treated, however, for the purpose of the current study and clarity the scores were reversed.

2.2.4. Procedure

2.2.4.1. Quantitative data. The data had been gathered through telephone interviews conducted by an external market research company on behalf of the MPS. The interviews had taken place 6-12 weeks after victims had reported a crime. The interviews had taken place throughout the years 2005-2012.

2.2.4.2. Qualitative method. In addition to statistical methods, a qualitative analysis was conducted using Microsoft NVivo computer software package. The NVivo tool is designed to organise and analyse qualitative data. This analysis explored victim comments to the question "*How can police improve their service?*". The qualitative data consisted of comments made by burglary victims. Due to the vast amount of data it was decided to narrow the source of comments down to one victim group. Burglary victims were chosen because burglary is considered a volume crime and therefore represents a large number of victims who come into contact with the police. The total number of comments from burglary victims was 2,426. Comment length varied from a few words to several sentences.

For each of the satisfaction levels (from Completely dissatisfied to Completely satisfied), the first 150 comments were selected for manual coding. The only exception was the 'Very dissatisfied' category that only had 116 comments in total. Two independent raters created a number of nodes (collections of references about a specific theme). For example, a comment relating to faster police response time was coded under the node 'Faster response time'. There were 51 nodes. The researcher then reviewed all the collected references

under each node for inter-rater reliability. Where the researcher disagreed with the initial coding, the reference was removed from the node. These nodes were subsequently used for auto-coding the remaining comments. Auto-coding involved NVivo automatically recognising and allocating sentences to the existing nodes without doing it by hand.

After auto-coding the rest of the comments, each node was reviewed across the satisfaction levels to ensure the newly coded comments matched the node. The nodes with best match were chosen for further analysis and to narrow down the thematic categories. Criterion for the best match was set at a minimum of 50%. In other words, if at least half of the auto-coded references matched the node theme, the node was selected. This narrowed down the number of nodes from 51 to 21 (Appendix A). The nodes were reviewed once more and references not matching the nodes were removed from the node.

From these 21, nodes with 100 or more references across satisfaction levels were selected, resulting in five nodes in the final analysis. These were considered important to victims because of the large number of references. Further, it allowed for comparisons about the number of references between different satisfaction levels. For a final review, references were re-examined for duplicate coding. If a comment had several sentences with codes for the same node, only one was kept and the others removed. For example, in comments having several references to a faster response time, only one sentence was retained. The rationale for this was to allow the number of references to also represent number of people under each node. Thirty-seven references were removed because of duplication. In all, the final qualitative set contained 1,062 references.

To simplify the data, the satisfaction levels were collapsed into three groups; Dissatisfied, Satisfied, and Neutral (neither satisfied nor dissatisfied). This was possible because each satisfaction level (completely, very and fairly) had a reference total and these totals were summed for the three levels of dissatisfied and three levels of satisfied. It should be noted that one participant may have contributed to several nodes. A discussion of the qualitative data results can be found in Section 4.

2.3. Results - Quantitative data

2.3.1. The Effects of Police Actions and Victim Variables on Satisfaction

The analyses that were carried out aimed to explore the impact of various police actions on victim satisfaction scores. The police actions included were namely serious consideration, updated and practical help. The victim variables included were reassurance and vulnerability.

2.3.1.1. Practical help. Just over half of the respondents (55%) reported that the police had given them practical help. Differences in satisfaction ratings were found between those who reported they had been given practical help ($M = 5.78$, $SD = 1.28$) and those who reported not receiving it ($M = 4.59$, $SD = 1.86$). Between participants ANOVA indicated that giving practical help had a significant medium effect on the satisfaction ratings that was approaching a large effect (cut-off at .14); $F(1, 95311) = 13616.50$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .13$. Those given help were more satisfied with the service provided than those who reported not being given help. On the scale this corresponded on average to the difference between 'Fairly Satisfied' for those

who were given practical help and 'Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied' for those not given practical help.

2.3.1.2. Updated. A minority of the victims, 10%, reported that police had not kept to their arrangement regarding updates. Mean satisfaction scores for keeping to the arrangement was 6.04 ($SD = 1.16$) and 4.32 ($SD = 2.06$) for when the arrangement was not kept to. There was a statistically significant difference in satisfaction with a large effect size: $F(1, 7220) = 1194.08, p < .001, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .14$. When victims were kept updated as agreed victims were more satisfied than when the arrangement was not kept.

It should be noted that the agreement to update was kept with a far greater number of people than not. It was not clear from the question exactly what the agreement entailed, however, it is fair to assume that it meant making further contact with the victim in order to provide updates about case progression. It is also possible, although unlikely, that it included an agreement not to update the victim. In any event, updates had a large impact on satisfaction. When the agreement was kept the results indicated that the victims gave on average the rating of 'Very Satisfied' whereas satisfaction was rated on average "Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied" when the agreement was not kept.

2.3.1.3. Serious consideration. The majority of victims (90%) perceived that the police had taken their matter seriously. Mean satisfaction scores for those who felt their case had been taken seriously was 5.61 ($SD = 1.34$). Mean satisfaction score for victims who reported their matter had not been taken seriously was 2.75 ($SD = 1.67$). This difference in satisfaction

scores was statistically significant and had a large effect on satisfaction

scores: $F(1, 118445) = 46059.86, p < .001, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .28$.

When the matter was perceived to be taken seriously victims were more satisfied than if it appeared it was not taken seriously. The satisfaction score for those who perceived the matter to have been taken seriously was on average 'Fairly satisfied' whereas satisfaction decreased to 'Very dissatisfied' for those who thought that the matter was not taken seriously.

2.3.1.4. Vulnerability. Over a third of the victims (37.5%) self-reported they had considered themselves vulnerable due to age, disability or personal circumstances. A small but statistically significant difference was found in the mean satisfaction scores between those who considered themselves to be vulnerable ($M = 4.94, SD = 1.94$) and those who did not ($M = 5.47, SD = 1.57$). Self-reporting vulnerable individuals rated their satisfaction slightly lower than the non-vulnerable individuals, although this effect was small: $F(1, 47262) = 1055.45, p < .001, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .02$. On the scale this meant that on average for the non-vulnerable the satisfaction score was between 'Fairly' and 'Very' satisfied and for the vulnerable it was approaching 'Fairly satisfied'.

2.3.1.5. Reassurance. A majority of victims, 78%, reported that they were reassured by what the police had done. This had a very large impact on victim satisfaction: $F(1, 114845) = 69180.31, p < .001, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .38$. Those who were reassured by what the officer(s) did were also more satisfied ($M = 5.84, SD = 1.15$) than those who felt not reassured ($M = 3.39, SD = 1.75$). The difference between the two groups was that on average the rating 'Fairly

Satisfied' was given by those who were reassured and "Fairly Dissatisfied" by those not reassured.

2.3.2. Predicting Satisfaction

Regression analysis can be used to identify the relevant importance of different factors on an outcome variable. The five variables (practical help, updated, serious consideration, vulnerability, and reassurance) that all had an effect on satisfaction were subjected to this process. A statistical model was constructed that comprised satisfaction as an outcome variable and the five variables as predictors. The purpose of the model was to test if it was a predictor of satisfaction as a whole and also to determine which variable was the best predictor, or having the greatest unique impact on satisfaction. The model as a whole was found to predict satisfaction: $F(5, 5821) = 734.06, p < .001$. The best predictor of victim satisfaction was reassurance followed by serious consideration, updated, practical help, and vulnerability. The model explained 38.6% of the variance in satisfaction scores. Table 1 on the following page displays the β -values for the predictors.

Table 1

Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Satisfaction (n = 5826)

Variable	Model		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Reassurance	1.47	.06	.30***
Serious Consideration	1.64	.07	.27***
Updates	.92	.05	.20***
Practical Help	.32	.03	.11***
Vulnerability	-.14	.03	-.05***
<i>R</i>	.622		
\bar{R}^2	.386		
<i>F</i>	734.06***		

*** $p < .001$

The *B*-value indicates the change in satisfaction for one unit increase in the predictor value. The +/- sign indicates the direction of the change. For example, a change from not reassured to reassured indicates 1.47 point change towards greater satisfaction. In other words, on average the predicted difference in satisfaction between reassured and not reassured was 1.47 points on the satisfaction scale. With the predictor vulnerability, the change from not vulnerable to vulnerable predicts .14 point change towards dissatisfaction; therefore the non-vulnerable tend to be slightly more satisfied with the service than those who considered themselves as vulnerable.

After Reassurance had emerged as an important predictor in the previous analyses, it was combined together with the treatment variable as a model to predict satisfaction and to determine which one was the best predictor of satisfaction. The treatment-reassurance model was found to predict satisfaction: $F(2, 113449) = 77612.64, p < .001$ and explained more of the variance than the previous model; 57.8% versus 38.6%. The best predictor was treatment: $\beta = .52, t = 233.32, p < .001$. Reassurance was also a significant predictor in this model: $\beta = .35, t = 155.86, p < .001$.

In addition, a model of victim demographics was tested for prediction of satisfaction. It should be noted that it was not possible to include all demographics in this model. Ethnicity and crime type were categorical data with several categories and therefore not suitable for creating dummy variables for regression analysis. It was possible to create dummy variables for gender and age. A stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted to evaluate whether age and gender predicted satisfaction. At step 1 age was entered into the model. Age was a statistically significant predictor of satisfaction $F(1, 120983) = 993.48, p < .001$ and explained 0.8% of the variance in satisfaction scores. As age increased satisfaction also increased. At stage 2 gender was entered and result indicated that females were more satisfied than males. Gender, however, explained only an additional 0.1% of variation in satisfaction. This change in R^2 was significant, $F(1, 120982) = 172.96, p < .001$. Although age and gender were statistically significant predictors, the impact on satisfaction appear to be quite small compared to treatment and feeling reassured.

2.4. Results - Qualitative data

The NVivo software package was used to organise 2,426 burglary victims' responses to how police could improve their service. Exploring the comments was considered as an opportunity to reveal new factors that may affect satisfaction. Five themes emerged and were selected for further analysis; better services for victims, faster response time, more follow-up, more thorough investigation and pro-active policing. The number of references under each node (the collection of references under a specific topic) is represented in Table 2.

The table also displays the number of references from the dissatisfied, satisfied and neutral groups. For example, dissatisfied victims made 64 (23%) comments regarding faster response, satisfied 166 (61%) and neutral 43 (16%). The number of references under the nodes also represent the number of victims because each victims' response was coded only once for each topic. However, one victim could have also contributed to more than one node. Therefore, the bottom row of Table 2 only refers to the total number of references.

Table 2.

Number of References Under Each Node by Satisfaction Levels

Node	Dissatisfied No. of references	Satisfied No. of references	Neutral No. of references	Total No. of references	Dissatisfied %	Satisfied %	Neutral %
Better services for victims	25	96	33	154	16	60	21
Faster response	64	166	43	273	23	61	16
More follow-up	84	239	75	398	21	60	19
More thorough investigation	75	41	23	139	54	29	17
Pro-active policing	17	67	14	98	17	68	14
Total	265	609	188	1,062	25	57	18

A particularly interesting trend in the descriptive results is that dissatisfied burglary victims appear to refer to investigation the most whereas among satisfied victims it is mentioned the least. On the other hand pro-active policing appears to be an important factor in improving police service for satisfied victims and the least important for the dissatisfied. Overall, the factors mentioned the most were more follow-up and faster response.

The first theme, better services for victims, was somewhat problematic because victims had referred to different services and some were already coded under the other nodes. The remaining nodes could also be considered as services to the public. Therefore the example comments were drawn from

the remaining nodes because they could be considered as more specific and consistent.

2.4.1. Faster Response

A large number of victims (273) referred to faster response times. Whilst several comments were very short and simple requests for police to respond quicker, some victims had given more detail. In brackets is the respondent's exact satisfaction level.

Comment 1: "I am unhappy with the fact the police turned up 3 hours after the burglary despite the 999 call." (Fairly dissatisfied)

Comment 2: "Please turn up within an hour for attempted burglary and for real burglary within 5 minutes. Not 3 days." (Fairly dissatisfied)

These two comments from dissatisfied victims give the time they had to wait for the police. There is a particular reference in both comments to the urgency for police to attend burglaries. Comment 3 also makes a reference to the time they had to wait:

Comment 3: "I think they are doing their best, the only way in which I wasn't happy was that it took too long for when I called them at 4:30 am and them arriving at 11 am." (Very satisfied)

In comment 3 there is also an indication the victim might have rated their satisfaction higher had the police arrived sooner. If response time was the only aspect they were unhappy with, perhaps they had had given a 'completely satisfied' rating if response was faster. In this instance they had been very satisfied with the service provided in their case.

2.4.2. More Follow-Up

The greatest number of comments (398) referred to follow-up or case progression updates from the police after the first contact. In particular, the frustration of not being updated and the victim trying to contact the police for further updates are evident in Comment 4.

Comment 4: "Return my calls, I have called once a week since the incident happened but have not received one call back from the police. Overall better communication and updates." (Completely dissatisfied)

In many cases victims did not even know whether the case was still open or whether there had been an arrest:

Comment 5: "More of a follow up afterwards, as I didn't know if anyone had been charged or what was happening" (Fairly dissatisfied)

Comment 6: "I'd appreciate more of a follow up on the case, to know if it's still going on or not. The initial contact was fine but we've had no follow up since." (Fairly satisfied)

Comment 7: "Follow up information could improve, I don't know if the case is ongoing." (Very satisfied)

It is possible that dissatisfaction draws from lack of contact and satisfaction is partly based on the initial contact in these examples. Victims' comments indicated that in many cases there were no further updates or contact.

Therefore it would be impossible to assess satisfaction beyond the initial contact and perhaps those who were satisfied based their assessment on the first encounter with the police.

2.4.3. More Thorough Investigation

One of the most interesting topics to emerge from the comments was victims' perception about the thoroughness of the investigations. This is potentially a new factor for victim satisfaction research. The comments indicated that victims have a basic idea what criminal investigations should focus on and of the role of the Scenes of Crime Officers (SOCO) who collect forensic evidence. Comment 8 also describes the perceived lack of interest in the information the victim has provided:

Comment 8: "I gave the suspects name to the police and they did not bother to go and check up on it. They seemed not bothered to handle the case. The forensics guy did not take any fingerprints, he did not even look in the correct places. I feel they need to investigate more." (Completely dissatisfied)

Comment 9: "They also walked past the alleyway where all the contents of the handbag were emptied. I found it when walking out the house and saw it in clear view. I would have thought they would have at least looked around the house that was burgled, especially when that was the item that was reported stolen. Thing's like this are why my opinion has worsened." (Very dissatisfied)

In comment 9 the victim describes the missed opportunities during the investigation and indicates the minimum they would expect. Their comment also indicates that their opinion about the police was previously more positive but has since worsened and perhaps is reflected in the 'very dissatisfied' rating. One victim had also described the emotional impact of an inadequate investigation and fear they will be re-victimised:

Comment 10: "I'm not happy with the way the incident concluded. There was not an adequate investigation. I have been left feeling unsafe and scared this crime will be repeated." (Completely dissatisfied)

Those who were satisfied with the service provided in their case still found room for improvement in relation to investigation and again there were

indications that they had an idea or expectation of how investigations are performed:

Comment 11: "Overall my impression of the police was very good but in terms of actually investigating the crime, we were less impressed." (Fairly satisfied)

Comment 12: "I feel the SOCO could have taken more fingerprints than they did." (Completely satisfied).

2.4.4. Pro-Active Policing

Comments about pro-active policing were another interesting topic that may have been overlooked in previous research. In the current data, pro-activity primarily referred to police sending patrols to the neighbourhood. One victim gave knowledge about the burglary rates in their area and questioned the lack of warnings from the police:

Comment 13: "In the week I was burgled there were 40 burglaries in the area. If the police can see a trend why don't they warn residents to be extra careful." (Fairly dissatisfied)

One respondent called for co-operation with other agencies and the community in addition to regular patrols and indicated that CCTV might have protective value against burglaries:

Comment 14: "Come on a regular basis to the area where the incidents take place especially at night time, give some sort of protection e.g. cameras, work with the council, have community meetings." (Fairly satisfied)

Pro-activity was also perceived by some to have a crime prevention role; if police send more officers to patrol the streets it might prevent burglaries:

Comment 15: "If they patrol this part of the city then it may not happen again." (Very satisfied)

Comment 16: "More police on the roads to prevent it happening again." (Completely satisfied).

The four themes - faster response, more follow-up in terms of updates about case progression after a crime has been reported, more thorough investigation and pro-active policing - that emerged from the qualitative data support the quantitative results to a degree, particularly the importance of updating victims. They also indicate response time, investigative effort, and pro-active policing as areas that victims consider important when they assess their satisfaction with the police.

2.5. Discussion

The current research investigated how police actions and victim variables affect satisfaction. It also used victims' comments to explore areas that victims' think need improving in police service. These also might be important to victims when they are assessing satisfaction.

The victim variables, vulnerability and reassurance, had an effect on satisfaction scores. Reassurance particularly offers a new area of enquiry as it had a large impact on satisfaction. In terms of vulnerability, those who self-reported as vulnerable were slightly less satisfied with the police. Explanation for this can be found from the literature. HM Inspectorate of Constabulary (2014) found that domestic abuse victims reported they did not feel believed or taken seriously. Risk-assessments were rigid tick-box interpretations rather than based on police professional judgment, therefore victims were not correctly identified as high risk and offered safeguarding services. This may also apply to volume crime victims who self-identify as vulnerable.

Crown Prosecution Service Satisfaction Survey (Wood et al., 2015) found that although Witness Care Units are required to offer full needs assessments

under the Victims' Code, only 47% of victims were assessed. Victims of sensitive offences and victims with enhanced status were more likely to report being treated disrespectfully. Forty-eight percent of victims were referred to victim support services but a further 13% who wanted a referral were not referred. This group included vulnerable victims. Special measures applications have not been ready in time for court hearings and as a result victims have not been aware what measures have been granted in sufficient time prior to trial (HM Crown Prosecution Service Inspectorate, 2016).

CPS may identify vulnerability, but are not given sufficient information by the police to justify Special Measures for the victim (Charles, 2012). Therefore, the difference in satisfaction scores between vulnerable and non-vulnerable can be explained by the treatment they have received. It should also be noted that the difference in satisfaction was small. This finding is important because it provides empirical evidence regarding the size of difference in satisfaction scores compared to descriptive data. Those self-identifying as vulnerable still indicated satisfaction in police but it was slightly lower on the scale than the non-vulnerable and this difference could be explained by the treatment they have received.

Providing practical help, updating victims as agreed, taking cases seriously, vulnerability and reassurance all had an effect on satisfaction scores. These variables combined as a model predicted satisfaction. The best unique predictor of satisfaction in this model was reassurance. Combining reassurance and treatment as a model also predicted satisfaction at case level with treatment emerging as the best predictor.

Overall the results indicated that particular police actions and some of the victim variables have an effect on victim satisfaction and the results are in line with previous research. Providing help or being perceived to be helpful has been linked to victim satisfaction (Johnson, 2007; Martin, 1997; Tewkesbury & West, 2001; Wilson & Jasinski, 2004; Zevitz & Gurnack, 1991).

In the literature helpful actions included providing information that helps victims to cope or to contact available services. In the current study victims were prompted to think about specific actions of giving a lift home or securing premises. However, it was not recorded which actions victims had actually received. This was a limitation because had this information been known further analyses could have revealed the best practical actions that victims find most helpful. Further, it is possible that the victims may not have needed practical help. Where help was not needed, a negative response may somewhat unjustly reflect negatively on the police service.

Victims appear to appreciate police help, which is indicated by the increase in satisfaction when help was given. One of the reasons people contact police is when they need help (Newburn & Merry, 1991). In general, perceptions about helping could also be related to the response time. Victim's critical comments about response time referred to the time they had to wait for the police.

Among burglary victims there may be a sense of urgency for the police to arrive and begin an investigation. This may not be in line with police practice unless the burglary is on-going when victim reports it.

The Association of Chief Police Officers' policy for national call handling standards (2005) sets out national call grades that determine police response and deployment. Emergency grading results in an immediate police response. If not graded as an emergency then the response may not be immediate and the call handler grades the call under one of the following three levels: priority, scheduled, or resolution without deployment. According to the policy, domestic burglary is graded under priority. Therefore the victim may perceive that the police have not responded to their urgent need as quickly as they would like and is not helping them.

The lack of helping actions in police encounters negatively relate to satisfaction as was found in Wilson and Jasinski (2004). As perceptions of helping behaviours are subjective, future research could further explore specific actions victims find particularly helpful. This would not only benefit the victims but could also assist in formulation of policy and inform police officers dealing with the public of best practice. Whatever help the police can offer to a victim, the practice should be continued as it has an effect on satisfaction with the police service.

Similarly to giving practical help, keeping to the agreement of how often a victim is updated had an influence on satisfaction ratings. Those who received their updates as agreed were more satisfied than those who did not. This is not a surprising finding considering past literature that clearly indicates victims want updates and the negative impact on satisfaction when updates are lacking (Button, Lewis & Tapley, 2009a, 2009b; Fitzgerald, Hough, Joseph & Qureshi, 2002; Freeman, 2013; Newburn & Merry, 1990; Victim Support Survey 2011). However, research has not always agreed on the importance of

updates. Brandl and Horvath (1991) found that re-contact with the victim regarding the status of the investigation was only related to satisfaction in serious property crimes (burglary and car theft) but not in personal crime (assaults, robbery and sexual assault) or minor property crime (thefts). They argued that in the serious property cases victims might expect recovery and return of property whereas in minor theft cases the value of the goods is minimal. In personal crime a victim often knows the offender and it may be the conviction, rather than updates, that is more important to the victim.

This explanation could to an extent be challenged. Although it is possible that when an offender involved in a serious personal crime is known and an arrest is made relatively quickly, there is no need for investigation status updates. However, other types of information regarding case status may still be relevant and important to the victim, for example, court dates or the offender's bail conditions even if the investigation as such has concluded. In general, further contact with the victim has resulted in greater satisfaction regardless of the outcome (Coupe and Griffiths, 1999). A more recent analysis of the British Crime Survey found that 29% of the victims who were not kept well informed were satisfied with the police. Ninety-one per cent of the victims who had been kept well informed were satisfied with the police. These included all types of crime. In terms of personal crime, those who felt they were kept informed satisfaction was 89% compared to 30% for victims who were not kept informed (Myhill and Bradford, 2012).

Police follow-up in terms of receiving updates regarding case progression was further reflected in victims' comments. In victims' responses more follow-up was the most often cited way to improve police service. In many instances

victims did not know if their case was open or if there had been any progress. This indicates that victims may have been let down in terms of the promised frequency of contact in the Code of Practice for Victims of Crime. The Code came to effect in 2006 and was effective at the time of the data collection. It stated that *'police will keep you updated on a monthly basis until the case is closed'*. Given that the current data was collected 6-12 weeks after victim reported the crime, there should have been at least one further contact. The quantitative results indicated that 10% of the victims were let down in this regard. Therefore it is not surprising that lack of updates have a negative impact on satisfaction. Those who were dissatisfied may have felt left out and even the satisfied victims highlighted updates as an area for improvement.

Victims' comments raise the question whether the current guideline to update the victims once a month is adequate and whether victims are still left without the most basic information about their cases. Increasing contact with the victims may be an issue for policy and resourcing. However, in order to improve satisfaction, this area calls for improvement and updates should comply with the Code of Practice in every case. The qualitative analysis only reviewed burglary victims' comments and therefore cannot be generalised to all victims. However, the comments support the quantitative results to a degree and discouragingly indicate that some burglary victims were let down.

Keeping the agreement regarding updates has implications for the police-victim relationship. Lack of updates could affect the perception of police trustworthiness. Broken promises in relation to updates could result in a view that the police cannot be trusted to do what they say they would do. Not keeping to arrangements may also violate the feeling that the procedure is

just to the victim. As the victim is at the centre of the criminal case but left uninformed, they may feel the process is not fair to them. This notion is highly speculative and further research is required to test it.

Keeping in touch with victims also allows them to express their views and gives them a voice. Fairness, trustworthiness, and voice were all antecedents of procedural justice judgments that predict satisfaction (Elliott, Thomas & Ogloff, 2011; Murphy & Barkworth, 2014). It can be concluded that the police should make efforts in keeping victims informed of what is happening in their case until it is closed. There may be a psychological need for a closure (Newburn & Merry, 1991). Keeping victims informed can also signal police interest in the victim and that the matter is taken seriously regardless of the crime type.

The results showed that perceptions of police taking the case seriously affect satisfaction. Those who felt their case was taken seriously were more satisfied than those who felt it was not taken seriously. On the satisfaction scale this meant a difference between very dissatisfied and fairly satisfied. Police seriousness and taking interest in both the case and the victim, has in previous research been related to satisfaction (Brathwaite & Yeboah, 2004; Johnson, 2007).

Similar to results regarding updates, a vast majority, 90%, felt that their case was taken seriously which is encouraging. However, the decrease in satisfaction score was evident when it appeared that police were not giving serious consideration to the case. Perhaps the perception of not been taken seriously could be due to communication. Police may take each case very

seriously, however, it may not be communicated effectively to the victim.

Further, victims may not be aware of all investigative methods and the perceived lack of action could be interpreted as a lack of interest.

The police action variables (providing practical help, keeping to agreements about updates, and demonstrating that a case is taken seriously) and victim variables (self-reported vulnerability and reassurance) were combined as a model. The model predicted victim satisfaction, explaining 38.6% of the variance in satisfaction. Reassurance as a best predictor further indicated that it was an important but under-investigated variable.

One of the bases for procedural justice judgments was how well people are treated (Tyler, 2001); therefore, a second model combined reassurance and treatment. This model also predicted satisfaction with treatment becoming the best predictor over reassurance. The result therefore strengthens the notion of the dominance of process-based assessment of the police over outcome-based assessments; treatment is more important than outcomes (Elliott, Thomas & Ogloff, 2011; Myhill & Bradford, 2012).

From the analysis of the qualitative data, two areas of interest emerged that may affect satisfaction: victim perceptions about thorough investigation and pro-active policing. These topics were mentioned several times as ways to improve police service. There is evidence from previous research that perceived lack of interest and investigative effort is related to satisfaction (Brandl & Horvath, 1991; FitzGerald, Hough, Joseph, & Qureshi, 2002; Newburn & Merry, 1990). The current data revealed details as to what investigative effort might entail in the minds of the victims. It emerged from the

comments that some victims appeared to have either knowledge or expectation what an investigation should include, for example, what tasks the police or forensic officers should conduct. It was particularly interesting that the quality of investigation appeared to be most important to dissatisfied victims, whereas it was mentioned the least by satisfied victims. It is possible that those who were satisfied with the service perceived that their case was investigated adequately or that all appropriate steps were taken. For the dissatisfied it may have appeared that insufficient investigation signalled lack of interest or not taking the case seriously. This in turn affects satisfaction. Serious consideration was also found to predict satisfaction in the quantitative analysis.

The qualitative examples support findings from previous research for the role of investigative effort in victim satisfaction. Poister and McDavid (1978) found that satisfaction in the initial and follow-up investigation predicted overall satisfaction. In property crimes investigative effort predicted satisfaction (Brandl & Horvath, 1991). Police looking for evidence and promising to investigate led to higher satisfaction than if victims did not perceive such concerns (Norris & Thompson, 1993). In contrast, a visit by a Scene of Crime Officer or a detective from Criminal Investigation Department did not affect victim satisfaction in itself; satisfaction was influenced by the officer's manner (Coupe & Griffiths, 1999). In the current data, the perception that the police or the Scenes of Crime Officer had not performed the investigation well was a source of criticism for the victims.

Police officers have reported civilians believing that they have sufficient knowledge of police procedures. Huey (2010) interviewed 31 Canadian

investigators and almost all (28) reported that victims or witnesses had asked questions that they felt were influenced by viewing television crime programmes. The investigators mentioned civilians holding unrealistic expectations of their abilities and expressed concerns for potential dissatisfaction when expectations were confronted with realities of police work and its limitations, for example, that DNA results could take up to six months.

Explaining investigative efforts might be an area that the police could focus on in their encounters with victims. No conclusion can be drawn from the data that the police had failed to investigate burglaries. It is likely that adequate steps were taken but this may have not always been evident to the victim. A general explanation of investigative steps in burglary cases could be given when the victim is present to prevent an impression of an inadequate investigation. In Huey (2010) the investigators felt offering explanations regarding investigative procedures at the scene was problematic because it was time consuming, however, it could be argued that explanations are required to counter any myths about police work that lead to unrealistic expectations and dissatisfaction when unmet. It is also an opportunity to reassure the victim that the police and police staff are taking the case seriously and are conducting the investigation in a manner that is professional and based on correct procedure.

The second theme, pro-active policing, referred primarily to police patrols. Some victims pointed to its value in crime prevention. Pro-active policing did not appear to be as important to dissatisfied victims as it was to satisfied victims. It is possible that satisfied victims were suggesting improvement on a general level because they were already happy with the way their case was

handled. Dissatisfied victims may not focus so much on the improvements in the general police services if they feel priority is to have their own cases investigated.

It is difficult to say how much the views about police patrols directly affected case-level satisfaction ratings but they may have indirectly influenced them through the impression that the crime could have been prevented. Particularly among those who were dissatisfied, the perceived lack of patrols and therefore perceived failure to prevent the burglary could result in some of the blame for the crime being attributed to the police. This in turn may impact satisfaction. The problem with this is that police may wish to increase their presence and preventive measures but this is not entirely under their control. Staff resources and budgets may also have an impact on patrolling or prevention decisions.

Across satisfaction levels, requests for more police patrolling in the neighbourhood area may also indicate a sense of concern that burglary will occur again. In areas where people would like to see more regular patrols satisfaction may be affected on a global level and also on the case level. Police presence could be viewed as reassuring and lead to positive assessments about police preventive efforts. On a case level, increased police presence could indicate to victims that efforts are also made to prevent re-victimisation. It should be noted that these are highly speculative attempts to explain the results; the relationship between pro-active policing and satisfaction was not tested. More research into the role of perceived thoroughness of investigations and police patrols is required, however, it

appears that they are important to burglary victims due to the high frequency of comments.

The current study had limitations. The independent variables of interest were effectively responses to either follow-up or non-specific questions and had to be derived from nominal data. For example, in relation to updates, there was no direct question whether a victim had been updated. The question had been two-fold; was there an agreement to update and was the agreement kept.

Future research could address this by the use of more specific questions that attempt to identify exact behaviours. In terms of the practical help item, more elaboration could have identified actions that victims find particularly helpful or consider as practical help. Similarly, it was not possible to determine what had made people feel that their case was or was not taken seriously. Again, a more qualitative design could have revealed which actions indicated to people that something is or is not being taken seriously.

The responses in the data were all victims' perceptions of what had happened and there were no means of verifying whether they reflected reality, for example, how many times the victim was contacted. Coupe and Griffiths (1999) highlighted the danger of basing policy decisions on victims' estimates that have not been reviewed against police records. Recall, their study dealt with police response times that were quicker than victims had estimated.

Future research could address this by using multiple sources in data collection, for example, victim self-reports regarding updates and police records of all contact made with the victim.

In terms of the design, correlational analysis does not indicate cause and effect but a relationship. On the other hand it would be ethically inappropriate to conduct an experimental study considering the subject at hand. It would not be possible to purposefully omit some victims of assistance or contact in order to determine its effect on their satisfaction scores.

The design for the qualitative analysis requires improvement. This was an experimental method of utilising a software tool in identifying previously recognised themes in a text. At the initial review stage, only the coded sentences were reviewed for a match with the node, not the full comment. This was a major limitation because further themes may have been missed. The tool itself was not always accurate in recognising comments belonging to a theme and did allocate references incorrectly. Therefore the references had to be reviewed several times and inaccurate references removed. The software package was useful for organising text under different topics and themes but in order to conduct a comprehensive analysis, a more traditional qualitative method where all content is read and coded would have been required to prevent missing any themes. The sample also only included burglary victims. To improve the method and to draw a more complete picture of what victims think improves the police service, and perhaps their assessment of the police, other victim groups should be included in the analysis.

Overall, the results can be used as an indication of what is associated with satisfaction. Practical help, updates, and taking cases seriously could be viewed as part of the process of how victims are treated, and they are real actions that the police can perform. Therefore they can be identified as factors

that assist in improving or maintaining victims' positive assessment about the police. The qualitative data also highlighted areas that may be important to victims when they make assessments about the police service. Perceptions about adequacy of the investigations and pro-active policing emerged as interesting areas for further research in victim satisfaction.

The victim related variable, self-reported vulnerability, should also be considered because it has implications for service provision during investigations. Victim vulnerability had a small effect on satisfaction ratings. Those who considered themselves vulnerable were slightly less satisfied with the way the police had dealt with their case than victims who did not self-report as vulnerable. Although the impact of self-reported vulnerability on satisfaction was small, the concept itself was interesting and warranted further research. The relationships between demographics, crime type and vulnerability and police identification of vulnerability were explored further in a supplementary study using the User Satisfaction data. The research is described in the next chapter.

Chapter 3. User Satisfaction Survey 2005-2012: Crime Victims' Demographics Do Not Always Relate to Self-Reported Vulnerability

3.1. Introduction

The User Satisfaction data revealed useful actions that have an impact on victim satisfaction, however, it did not allow deeper investigation into victims' psychological states. The following study further utilised the large User Satisfaction data set to explore victims' self-reported vulnerability.

The Criminal Justice System in the UK recognises that there are victims and witnesses of crime who are vulnerable. However, a gap was found between the figures for self-reported vulnerability and official estimates (Burton, Evans & Sanders, 2006). A previous 'Speaking Up for Justice' report (Home Office, 1998) estimated that 3 - 5% of prosecution witnesses might be vulnerable due to their mental or physical disability and a further 2% because they are a victim in a certain type of crime, such as racial, sexual or domestic violence. Estimated prevalence of vulnerability amongst witnesses was 5 - 7%. After including intimidated witnesses, the estimate rose to 7 - 10%. However, Burton et al.'s findings indicated that 45% of their sample self-identified as potentially vulnerable/intimidated witnesses (VIW). In contrast, criminal justice agencies in Burton, et al. identified 9% as VIWs. This lower percentage was within the Speaking Up for Justice Report estimation range of 7 - 10%. Burton, et al. made a conservative estimation that 24% of the sample was potential VIWs.

Thus Burton, et al. highlighted a gap between self-identification and the agencies' estimation. The current research aimed to explore, via victims'¹ self-reports, 1) the proportion of victims self-identifying as vulnerable and whether this figure is still relatively high, 2) if any particular demographic group self-identified as more vulnerable than others, and 3) whether the police were perceived to be able to identify vulnerability and cater for the needs of such individuals. The study also explored changes in self-reported vulnerability over a three year time period (2009-2012).

Research is required on victims' self-reports and police identification of vulnerability because it may reveal further training needs for Criminal Justice organisations. Identifying vulnerability is also critical in ensuring that victims can give their best evidence in court. Giving evidence can be a daunting experience as matters are discussed and questioned in public and victims are usually expected to give evidence with the defendant present. The situation could interfere with giving best evidence, particularly if the victim is psychologically vulnerable. Identifying vulnerability should lead to appropriate support or enhanced services being offered to both victims and witnesses. This, in turn, may have a beneficial effect on victims' psychological well-being whilst they proceed through the Criminal Justice System and beyond.

3.1.1. Definition of Vulnerability in Criminal Justice Context

In the broadest sense vulnerability refers to the risk of a person becoming harmed either physically or psychologically (Vulnerable, n.d.). For example, a

¹ From here on in the term victim will be used to encompass victims and witnesses, except where research refers specifically to witnesses.

physically disabled individual may be at risk of abuse due to the reduced physical defences that limit escape options (Nosek, Foley, Hughes & Howland, 2001). Individuals who are psychologically vulnerable may be at risk of harm due to learning difficulties or because of mental health issues. Two meta-analyses indicated that children and adults with mental disability or illness were at greater risk of violence than non-disabled peers (Hughes, et al. 2012; Jones, et al. 2012). Mental disorders have also been linked to higher risk of homicidal death (Crump, Sundquist, Winkelby, & Sundquist, 2013).

The Code of Practice for Victims of Crime (Ministry of Justice, 2015) defines a vulnerable victim as someone under the age of 18 at the time of the offence, or if the quality of their evidence is likely to be diminished because of a mental disorder; having a significant impairment of intelligence and social functioning; having a physical disability or suffering from a physical disorder. Police services and courts use the Victim's Code definition. If a victim is deemed vulnerable they become eligible for 'Special Measures' in court. Special measures include giving evidence from behind a screen or via video-link, removal of wigs and gowns of the court personnel or having an intermediary assisting with communication (Ministry of Justice, 2015).

The Code of Practice definition is limited in that it makes no reference to emotional states or a victim's views about their vulnerability. Gudjonsson (2010) has suggested that psychological vulnerabilities need to be considered more broadly than simply as a mental illness or learning disability and that the focus should perhaps move to mental health and personality issues in

general. Perloff (1983) suggested that negative life-events, including crime, produce a feeling of vulnerability with symptoms of emotional stress. This was supported in Coston (1995) who found that the majority of previously victimised homeless women felt vulnerable to future victimisation. Thus defining vulnerability accurately can be problematic.

3.1.2. Importance of Accurate Identification and Identification Bias

The Crown Prosecution Service (CPS) calls for early identification for practical and supportive reasons. Special Measures applications are subject to a strict timescale and if victims' needs are not identified early then there may not be sufficient support. Insufficient support could result in a lack of confidence in the system and may even lead to unsuccessful prosecution (Crown Prosecution Service, 2009; Smith & Tilney, 2007). In general, there may be inconsistencies in recording vulnerability. The police may identify a person as vulnerable but the CPS does not. Alternatively the CPS may identify vulnerability, but are not given sufficient information by the police to justify Special Measures for the victim (Charles, 2012).

Angolini (2015) found that in rape prosecutions in London, Judges did not routinely reject special measures applications and were rarely opposed by the defence, however, completing the applications was time consuming. A review of the CPS rape and serious sexual offences units indicates that there are problems in compliance with victim policies; for example, special measures applications were not ready for the court hearing where the application would be considered (HM Crown Prosecution Service Inspectorate, 2016).

The identification of vulnerability may be affected by stereotyping. A person possessing a stereotype about a certain group may attribute the stereotypical characteristics to an individual belonging to that group and then make a judgement about the person (Brown, 2010). Christie (1986) described the stereotype of the 'ideal victim' for whom society most readily affords both sympathy and the label 'victim': an elderly lady who is robbed by a drug addict. In contrast, a young man who is assaulted in a pub by someone he knows is less likely to be labelled a victim nor, perhaps, considered as vulnerable. Stereotypes could cause a problem for identification if some individuals are not identified as vulnerable because they do not fit the stereotypical image of a vulnerable person.

Walklate (2011) examined how studies relating to victimisation have contributed to a presumption of vulnerability. The feminist framework argues that we are not all necessarily victims; therefore there is a need for a deeper understanding of the reality of victimisation, vulnerability and resilience as they are experienced. In the CPS (2015) victim satisfaction survey 43% of the victims said they had been emotionally affected 'a great deal' whereas 15% said they had not been affected at all. Walklate (2011) suggests that the relationship between victimisation and vulnerability is mediated by a person's resilience and that capacity to cope might be subject to changes over time. The kind of suffering that is recognised and responded to is socially constructed and therefore those who are recognised are deemed deserving of our pity. Who and when people are deserving of pity are also political questions and reflected in policies regarding the trauma of victimisation.

In other contexts (e.g. the health arena), categorisation and systematic bias have been found to contribute to differences in quality of service. For example, ethnicity biases in healthcare decision-making may result in discrimination during stressful, time-pressured or high-emotion situations (Major, Mendes & Dovidio, 2013). Similar processes may operate in the Criminal Justice context with differences or biases in identification leading to variation in police services.

In identifying vulnerability it may be beneficial to consider victims' self-reports in order to understand what psychological mechanisms underlie self-identification. Appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1991) argues that emotions are extracted from appraisals or evaluations about events. A primary appraisal is the evaluation of an event's importance for well-being. If the event is evaluated as self-relevant, a secondary appraisal is made to assess how well one is able to cope with the consequences. The mediating role of appraisals in emotions has been found in daily life (Nezlek, Vansteelandt, Van Mechelen & Kuppens, 2008) as well as in the relationship between military combat exposure and psychological distress (McCuaig & Ivey, 2012).

Findings from the Crime Survey for England and Wales (Freeman, 2013) indicated that emotional response and perceiving the crime as serious was strongly related to wanting support. Appraisal theory accounts for individual differences in reactions to the same event and these may be more important than between group differences. Self-reporting as vulnerable may be linked

with appraisals suggesting one is unable to meet the challenges the event presents and, as a result, feelings of vulnerability ensue.

3.1.3. Factors Predicting Vulnerability

Alongside factors such as mental health and disability described in the current Code of Practice for Victims of Crime definition, research indicates that other factors may also influence perceptions of vulnerability. People may feel vulnerable to crime due to social and demographic factors such as being a woman, an older person, unemployed, having negative expectations of themselves or perceiving themselves as socially marginalised (Vieno, Roccato & Russo, 2013). In terms of personal factors, low sexual and body-esteem, self-blame and low self-control have been found to link with individual's risk of victimisation (Fox, Gover & Kaukinen, 2009; Hassouneh-Phillips & McNeff, 2005; Miller, Markham & Handley, 2007; Turanovic & Pratt, 2014).

Vulnerability is often mentioned in research into the fear of crime (Cossman & Rader, 2011; Killias & Clerici, 2000; Schafer, Huebner & Bynum, 2006). This area of research has found a gender gap in fear of crime, with women more fearful of crime than men (Reid & Konrad, 2004; Schafer, Huebner & Bynum, 2006; Smith & Torstensson, 1997). It has been suggested that for women the fear of sexual assault influences the fear of other types of crime, even property crime, although not to the same extent as for personal crime (Ferraro, 1996). Smith and Torstensson (1997) concluded that women might perceive more risk in their environment and respond by expressing higher fear

of crime than men. In contrast, men may think they are invulnerable and therefore discount risks.

Other personal demographics may also be a source of perceived vulnerability. In Perry and Alvi (2012) participants from ethnic, religious, lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) communities were asked how hate crime incidents affected their community. All those surveyed agreed incidents of hate crimes made them feel vulnerable, due to the nature of the crime being interpreted as a 'message' to others in that community. Chakraborti and Garland (2012) argued that in terms of hate crimes, vulnerability and 'difference' should be central to the investigation. They used the Sophie Lancaster case as an example. The victim was attacked and killed in 2007 in a targeted assault due to her distinctive appearance as a member of the 'Goth' subculture. At the time subcultures such as Goths were not included in police hate crime categories. It could be argued that even without the official recognition as a hate crime the case was highly distressing for the Goth community and potentially increased their feelings of vulnerability to such an extreme offence.

3.1.4. Aims and Hypotheses

Burton, Evans and Sanders (2006) highlighted the gap between self-identification and the agencies' estimation of vulnerability. They also found that the police had difficulties in identifying VIWs. Police appeared to hold a cognitive hierarchy in identification such that children and victims in sexual assault cases were more likely to be identified as VIWs due to the visibility of

their apparent vulnerability. More recently a report by HM Inspectorate of Constabularies (2015) found that police still had difficulties in identification; in 23% of the inspected cases police had not recorded whether the victim had any particular needs. Also the needs assessments were at times inadequate and the Inspectors were not confident that information was transferred effectively between the police and the CPS.

The Youth Justice and Criminal Evidence Act 1999 introduced measures that are specifically designed to assist vulnerable victims. Therefore it became important to identify those who are eligible. Under the Victims' Code all victims are entitled to a needs assessment (Ministry of Justice, 2015). Research since then has highlighted the shortcomings of the police in vulnerability identification and assessing needs (Crown Prosecution Service, 2015; Freeman, 2013; HM Inspectorate of Constabularies, 2014; 2015). However, since the Burton, et al. report there has been no further published research that compares self-identified vulnerability with official estimations to inform whether the gap has reduced or increased. Furthermore, the report did not capture whether people in particular demographic groups are more or less likely to self-identify as vulnerable. This is important because levels of service provision may need reviewing if such discrepancies exist.

To address this, the primary purpose of the current study was to determine from victim self-reports whether previous Home Office estimations for the number of vulnerable victims was reflected in a large sample of victims and whether any demographic group perceived themselves to be more or less

vulnerable than others. Based on the Criminal Justice definition and the research literature it was expected that the youngest and/or oldest age groups may be more likely to feel vulnerable than other age groups, women may feel more vulnerable than men, and victims of hate crime may report greater vulnerability than victims of other crime types. The study also explored victims' perceptions about police ability to identify their vulnerability and to cater for their needs. The data also allowed investigation into year-on-year changes in vulnerability, identification, and catering for needs.

3.2. Method

3.2.1. Participants

Data from the first edition of the Metropolitan Police Service User Satisfaction Survey (MPS USS) 2005/6 – 2012/13 were analysed. The data set included data from 36 different Borough Operational Command Unit areas across Greater London with a total of 123,174 respondents. Data had been collected quarterly between 2005 and 2012, however, the vulnerability question and responses had been included and recorded from 2009 onwards. Data was sourced from the UK Data Service. The sample included victims of burglary, violent crime, vehicle crime, racially motivated crime, and road traffic collision. The survey had not recorded participants' specific age but the age group instead. The youngest age group was 16-24 years and the oldest 75 years and over. The data excluded victims of domestic violence, serious assaults and sexual offences. In total 47,560 participants had responded to the vulnerability item; 62.5% were male and 37.5% female. The mode for age was 25 - 34 years.

3.2.2. Measures

3.2.2.1. Vulnerability. Self-reported vulnerability was measured with one item: *'Did you consider yourself to be vulnerable in this instance? This could have been because of your age, a disability, or personal circumstances.'* Responses were recorded as 'Yes', 'No', 'Not answered', 'Don't know', and 'Refused'. As the meaning of the latter three answers is open to interpretation, data were recoded into a dummy variable including 'Yes' and 'No' responses only and all other responses recoded as missing.

3.2.2.2. Identification and catering for vulnerability. Perceived identification of and catering for vulnerability were measured from responses to the question *'Was this [vulnerability] identified by the police when you first contacted them?'* and the follow-up question *'Were these needs catered for?'*. As with vulnerability measure the 'Yes', 'No', 'Not answered', 'Don't know', and 'Refused' were recoded as a dummy variable to include 'Yes' and 'No' responses only with all other responses recoded as missing.

3.2.3. Procedure

The data had been gathered through telephone interviews conducted by an external market research company on behalf of the MPS. The interviews had taken place 6-12 weeks after victims had reported a crime. The data were analysed using chi-square tests. Given that multiple comparisons were undertaken, an increased risk of a Type 1 error was present. To account for pooled error rates, each test was subject to Bonferroni α adjustment with the critical p value set at $<.001$ level to achieve $\alpha = .05$. In addition, where

significant associations were observed, they were evaluated primarily in terms of their effect size.

3.3. Results

Out of the total sample, 47,560 (38.6%) victims had responded to the vulnerability question with 37.6% self-reported as vulnerable. Table 3 displays the descriptive statistics for each demographic group.

Table 3.

Self-Reported Vulnerability in Demographic Groups

Variable			Self-reported as Vulnerable	
	N	%	N	%
Gender	47,557			
Female	17,857	37.5	8,522	47.7
Male	29,700	62.5	9,350	31.5
Ethnicity	46,161			
White	29,760	64.5	9,648	32.4
Black	6,197	13.4	2,914	47.0
Asian	7,129	15.4	3,268	45.8
Mixed	1,578	3.4	786	49.8
Other	1,497	3.2	748	50.0
Age Group	47,218			
16-24	8,185	17.3	3,543	43.3
25-34	12,221	25.9	4,514	36.9
35-44	10,916	23.1	4,124	37.8
45-54	8,411	17.8	2,981	35.4
55-64	4,595	9.7	1,570	34.2
65-74	1,918	4.1	664	34.6
75 and over	972	2.1	374	38.5
Crime type	47,560			
Burglary	11,379	23.9	6,613	40.5
Violent Crime	14,161	29.8	7,396	52.2
Vehicle Crime	15,150	31.9	2,816	18.6
Road Traffic Collision	3,723	7.8	1,172	31.5
Racially Motivated Crime	3,147	6.6	1,876	59.6
Self-reported Vulnerability	47,560			
Vulnerable	17,873	37.6		
Not Vulnerable	29,687	62.4		

Among males 31.5% reported vulnerable and among females the figure was 47.7%. The relationship between gender and vulnerability was significant, although weak in strength (Rea & Parker, 1992); $\chi^2(1, N= 47,557) = 1254.16$, $p < .001$, $\Phi = .16$.

Over half (59.3%, $n = 4067$) of the respondents who had a physical or mental disability reported to have considered themselves vulnerable. Interestingly 35.6% ($n = 42,221$) of respondents without any disability reported to have

seen themselves as vulnerable, indicating that their vulnerability may have stemmed from age, personal circumstances or both.

3.3.1. Sources of Disability

Table 4 displays the ten most cited sources of disability.

Table 4. *Sources of Disability*

Disability	N= 6,748	
	<i>n</i>	%
Mobility	3110	46.1
Manual dexterity	464	6.9
Physical co-ordination	540	8.0
Ability to lift, carry, move objects	523	7.8
Speaking	77	1.1
Hearing	258	3.8
Seeing	285	4.2
Memory	75	1.1
Ability to concentrate, learn or understand	166	2.5
Dyslexia	349	5.2
Mental health issues	1,018	15.1

Notably the largest percentage was for mobility issues (46.1%). It should be noted that the disability total does not add to full 100 per cent because the respondents had in some instances indicated more than one source of disability. Only one of the most cited sources, mental health, produced a weak association with vulnerability, $\chi^2(1, N= 47,560) = 427.98, p < .001, \Phi = .10$, people who self-reported mental health issues were more likely to report as vulnerable.

The remainder of the sources also indicated statistically significant associations, except for issues with speaking which had no association at all after Bonferroni α adjustment. However, the effect sizes were all under .10 indicating negligible effects. Therefore no meaningful assumption can be made about vulnerability based on sources other than mental health issues.

3.3.2. Vulnerability in Age Groups

Analysis revealed a significant relationship between age and vulnerability, however, this association was negligible: $\chi^2(6, N= 47,218) = 162.52, p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .06$. Table 3 displays self-reported vulnerability in percentages by each demographic group. The 16 - 24 year olds had the highest percentage of respondents who considered themselves vulnerable and 55 - 64 year olds the lowest. Due to the negligible effect size no meaningful assumption can be made about vulnerability based on the victims' age. It appears that respondents in the youngest age bracket, including under-18 year olds, were no more vulnerable than those in other age brackets.

3.3.3. Vulnerability and Ethnicity

The ethnicity variable was created from the original 16 ethnic groups in the data set and reduced to five ethnic groups: White, Black, Asian, Mixed, and Other. For example, White British, White Irish and White Other were compressed into a single category, *White*. Among ethnicity groups those categorising as 'Other' ethnicity had the highest percentage of respondents (50%) who reported to have been vulnerable, followed by Mixed (49.8%), Black (47%), Asian (45.8%) and White (32.4%). The comparison of

proportions in vulnerability did not significantly differ between Black and Asian, and Black, Mixed and Other. The proportion of White significantly differed from all other ethnicity groups at $\alpha = .05$ level. A significant association was found between ethnicity and vulnerability, with a weak effect size $\chi^2 (4, N= 46,161) = 978.97, p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .15$. Therefore, although there was a difference in vulnerability between white and all other ethnicity groups indicating that white victims self-reported as less vulnerable than other ethnicity groups, the association was weak.

3.3.4 Vulnerability in Different Types of Crime

A moderate relationship was found between type of crime and self-reported vulnerability: $\chi^2 (4, N= 47,560) = 4377.77, p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .30$. Table 3 presents the percentages of those who reported to consider themselves vulnerable by each type of crime. Victims in racially motivated crime had the highest percentage of vulnerability (59.6%) and victims of vehicle crime the lowest (18.6%). Comparison of proportions indicated significant differences between all crime types at $\alpha = .05$ level.

3.3.5. Identifying Vulnerability

Demographics were used to determine whether there were any differences between the groups in relation to police identifying vulnerability. The independent variables were gender, age, ethnicity and type of crime. Although each analysis for demographics association with vulnerability identification produced a statistically significant result ($p < .001$), all but one had an effect size less than .10. Cramer's V for age, gender, and ethnicity was .05

indicating that there was a negligible association between these variables and police identifying vulnerability.

The association between type of crime and vulnerability identification was weak, $\chi^2(2, N= 16,156) = 416.57, p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .16$. The comparison of proportions revealed a difference in vulnerability identification between vehicle crime victims and victims of other crime types. Vulnerability was identified in 56.1% ($n = 2506$) of vehicle crime cases whereas in all other offences the identification of a victim as vulnerable varied between 74% and 78%.

3.3.6. Catering for Needs

Similar to the identification of vulnerability results, the associations between catering for vulnerability needs and demographics were statistically significant with negligible effect sizes. Cramer's V for age, ethnicity and type of crime all fell short of the .10 threshold for a weak effect and gender had no association with catering for vulnerability needs ($p = .83$). Therefore it can be concluded that these variables had little if any relationship with the extent to which the police were catering for vulnerability needs.

3.3.7. Vulnerability Over Time

Self-reported vulnerability had increased over time from 32.1% in 2009/10 to 36.1% in 2010/11 and further to 46% in 2011/12. However, police identifying vulnerability had not increased with similar rates. In 2009/10 70% of the respondents reported that their vulnerability was identified and by 2011/12 the figure had increased to 73.8%. Eighty-three per cent of respondents whose

vulnerability had been identified ($n = 11,269$) reported that their needs were also catered for. The figures fluctuated over time from 82.7% in 2009/10, rising to 84.8% in 2010/11 and then falling to 81.8% in 2011/12.

3.4. Discussion

The current study investigated self-reported vulnerability and its association with demographic variables, victims' perceptions regarding police identifying their vulnerability and catering for their needs. Previous research found an inconsistency between the official estimation of vulnerable victims and victims' self-reported vulnerability. Self-reported vulnerability was much higher than the official figure. In the current study, just over a third of victims self-reported as vulnerable, in contrast to the 5-7% prevalence estimate in Speaking Up for Justice Report (Home Office, 1998). The current figure is, however, closer to the Burton, Evans and Saunders (2006) estimation of 24%. This supports the suggestion that there may be a significant gap between subjective vulnerability and the official estimation. It should also be noted that the current data excluded victims in domestic violence, sexual offences, and serious assault cases. Had these crime categories been included self-reported vulnerability may have been higher.

The current study focused on differences in self-reported vulnerability amongst different demographic groups. In terms of age, the youngest group (16-24 year olds) had the highest percentage self-identifying as vulnerable, however, the results indicated that age and vulnerability association was statistically significant but negligible in strength. Therefore the current official

cut-off age of 18 years for automatic identification as being vulnerable may not be the best criteria (although it clearly differentiates children from adults). To investigate this further, future research could examine more directly self-perceived vulnerability around this boundary.

In the same fashion one should not automatically consider the oldest age groups as vulnerable. As Pain (1995) noted, grouping the elderly as one category is problematic because individual differences in vulnerability are not considered. Although for many elderly people such an automatic identification may be beneficial, the negative outcome of using a certain age as a criterion is the lack of consideration of all other age groups. There might be a common perception that a young adult without a physical or mental disorder would not be vulnerable. Recall the notion of the ideal victim (Christie, 1986) where an elderly lady is more likely to be afforded a victim status (and probably a vulnerable status as well) than a young man. Yet, the elderly victim may not feel vulnerable at all, whereas the young man may. In such a case it is possible that an elderly victim is erroneously offered more support or access to services than the younger male victim. The present results would challenge this by suggesting that vulnerability exists in all age groups and caution against stereotyping.

Both ethnicity and gender of the victim had a significant but weak relationship with self-reported vulnerability. Women and ethnic minorities felt more vulnerable compared to males and White individuals. In terms of gender, to some extent this may reflect women's general fear of crime as has been

suggested by previous literature (e.g. Reid & Konrad, 2004; Smith & Torstensson, 1997). However, the weak relationship between gender and vulnerability indicates that large differences in vulnerability between males and females may not exist. In terms of ethnicity, the relationship was again weak but it is possible that there is a general sense of vulnerability to particular crimes due to ethnic group membership (e.g. Schafer, Huebner & Bynum, 2006). Indeed, within the types of crime, the highest percentage that reported feeling vulnerable were those subjected to racially motivated crimes.

A moderate sized association was found between vulnerability and crime type; therefore crime type may be an important indicator of vulnerability. In racially motivated crime, violent crime, and burglary more victims self-identified as being vulnerable than those in road traffic collisions and vehicle crime. For racially motivated offences, it may be that prior knowledge of such crimes induces vulnerability (Perry and Alvi, 2012); minority males have been more likely to indicate fear of personal victimisation (Schafer, Huebner & Bynum, 2006).

There is no reason to expect that a burglary victim should psychologically differ from a victim of vehicle crime in their reactions to crime. That is, individuals have their own unique reactions to an event as proposed by appraisal theory research (Lazarus, 1991; McCuaig & Ivey, 2012; Nezlek, Vansteelandt, Van Mechen & Kuppens, 2008). Therefore one possible explanation for the differences in self-identification between victims in different types of crime may be that burglary, assault and hate crimes are more

personal in nature (violating the feeling of personal safety), than vehicle crimes. This in turn may increase or induce the feeling of vulnerability post-victimisation (Perloff, 1983). It is possible that the respondents have reported their post-victimisation vulnerability. That is, instead of reporting what their perceived vulnerability status was at the time of the offence, the victims of personal crime have considered their current and future vulnerability that may have arisen from experiencing these offences.

Levels of police identification of vulnerability (as perceived by victims) did not appear to differ between demographics. None of the demographic groups stood out in terms of levels of identification, which in itself is an important and meaningful result. Encouragingly, it indicates that the police are not focusing on one particular group over others in attempts to identify vulnerability. A weak association was found between crime type and identification. Although vehicle crime had the lowest percentage in self-reported vulnerability it also had the highest percentage of non-identification for those that did self-identify as vulnerable. It is possible that the victim's vulnerability is not considered due to the offence being perhaps regarded as low impact. Another explanation for non-identification in vehicle crime cases may be that it is possible for this type of offence to be reported and resolved over the telephone without an actual visit from the police. If there is no face-to-face encounter and the topic of vulnerability does not arise, it could explain the lower vulnerability identification in this crime type compared to the other crimes where police attendance is more likely.

When a victim was identified as vulnerable the results indicated that there was very little association between demographics and catering for the needs of the self-identified vulnerable victims. This is also an encouraging result as it suggests that when catering for the needs of the vulnerable, there is no discrimination based on age, gender, ethnicity or type of crime.

Self-reported vulnerability had increased over time from 32% to 46% between 2009-2012. A smaller increase from 70% to 73% was found in police identification of vulnerability. Overall this indicates a steady identification rate. Although self-reported vulnerability had increased it appears the police have not fallen behind on identifications.

Taking all these findings into consideration, there appears to be a difference as to what the Criminal Justice system regards as vulnerable and how victims themselves perceive vulnerability. The official definition is very specific, allowing only certain aspects of human condition to be considered. However, this may not be in line with how the victims view themselves. Therefore, the perception of the 'ideal victim' (Christie, 1986) may still persist in the Criminal Justice System and be reflected in policies. However, this does not take into consideration differences in resilience over time and differences between individuals (Walklate, 2011). In practice this means that attention is focused on people who are *assumed* to be vulnerable without full consideration of how the person view themselves and at the expense of those who do not fit the criteria but whom feel vulnerable for whatever reason. Results also support Gudjonsson's (2010) idea that psychological vulnerabilities need to be

considered more broadly than simply as a mental illness or learning disability. Environmental factors as well as previous experience of crime may shape an individual's sense of vulnerability (Goodey, 2004).

Cossman and Rader (2011) argued that those who self-report poor health may also perceive themselves to be more vulnerable to crime. If this is the case, it could partly explain the frequency of self-reported vulnerability in those who did not report disabilities. The respondents may have considered their health when evaluating their vulnerability. Personal circumstances could include any variable that was pertinent to the person at the time, including poor health or being unemployed, or perceiving to be socially marginalised (Vieno, Roccatò & Russo, 2013). Further investigation into personal circumstances was not possible because the respondents were not asked to elaborate what the circumstances were. Had this been the case, further significant sources of vulnerability may have been revealed.

It is also possible that if the victim felt scared and considered this as a source of vulnerability. Currently, alongside the criteria for vulnerable victim, there is a separate category for intimidated victim/witness. This includes individuals whose evidence may be diminished due to fear or distress and also victims in specific crime categories such as sexual offences and domestic violence. In addition a person's age, and social and cultural background must be accounted for when assessing victim intimidation. Intimidated witnesses are also entitled to Special Measures. However, in the minds of the public, the

concepts of intimidated and vulnerable may well be, to a degree, interchangeable.

The current study has a number of practical implications. Currently, special measures are not granted based on victims' self-identification, meaning that an assessment needs to take place to determine whether the victim fulfils the criteria set in Youth Justice and Criminal Evidence Act 1999. Special measures are subject to an application and being granted by a Judge if it is considered that the measures help the victim to give their best evidence. It is understandable that the official guideline is limited in its definition of vulnerability. Broader criteria for vulnerability could result in an increase of applications for special measures, requiring considerable resourcing and delaying case progression. However, the overall impact of catering for vulnerable individuals may not be as great as the impact of not considering the victims' self-evaluation. It could be detrimental to their coping if they are excluded from appropriate support or services. It may also diminish trust in the Criminal Justice system as a whole.

With an increase in numbers of vulnerable victims/witnesses there is a risk of Criminal Justice agencies viewing such individuals as having diminished credibility. Although the CPS has guidelines for credibility assessment, in such cases a judgment based on stereotypes is a pitfall. Not considering a person as vulnerable may also result in behaviour that prevents victim from discussing their vulnerability. It is likely more could be done to raise awareness of vulnerabilities that go beyond mental health, physical disability

and learning disability.

The findings presented here come with caveats and methodological limitations. The vulnerability measure was left somewhat open to participants' personal interpretation. It was difficult to ascertain what victims considered to be the source of vulnerability if they have been thinking about 'their personal circumstances'. Also with yes/no answers, detail and deeper meaning are lost. Future research could address this by including qualitative methods such as open responses or interviews. Until this research is completed it is difficult to build a complete picture regarding the nature of vulnerable victims/witnesses within Criminal Justice system.

In terms of the results, most of the results were either negligible or weak in their effect. However, this can be interpreted to highlight the importance of both widening the scope of vulnerability criteria and increasing the specificity of individual measures. We can extrapolate from this that it is difficult to identify specific groups which are likely to consistently view themselves as vulnerable or not. Although the practical recommendations that can be drawn from this exploratory research are (by the nature of the data) limited, it is suggested that interventions should not assume that particular groups are likely to feel vulnerable.

3.5. Conclusions

The present study investigated victims' self-reported vulnerability, the perceptions of whether their vulnerability was identified by the police and

whether their needs were catered for. It is concluded that mental health issues and the type of crime experienced may be a good criteria for vulnerability. In contrast, focusing on certain age groups may not be. A potentially significant source of vulnerability, personal circumstances, may not have been accounted for in the current data set and calls for more research. In summary, the results indicated that anyone may feel vulnerable and the current guidelines for the police and the courts may be too rigid. It might be appropriate to consider combining the terms 'vulnerable' and 'intimidated' under the definition for vulnerable as this may more accurately reflect what people consider vulnerable to mean. Finally, focusing more on victims self-reports allow referrals to the appropriate support services for victims of crime and subsequently may better serve the Criminal Justice System. Finally, it is worth highlighting that the findings should not be perceived as criticism as to who is included under the current vulnerability definition, but to call for a review and further research into who might be inadvertently excluded, and what factors influence victims' self-identification.

In addition to the new finding regarding victim vulnerability, the User Satisfaction data revealed useful actions that have an impact on victim satisfaction; however, it did not allow deeper investigation into victims' psychological states. Should victim psychological and/or emotional states be related to victim satisfaction, it could assist in development of interventions that police could use to support the victim and potentially improve their service. Therefore the relationship between victim satisfaction and cognitive or emotional responses post-victimisation was the focus of the third study.

Chapter 4. Emotional Response, Expectations, and Victim Satisfaction: A Longitudinal Study

4.1. Introduction

The archival study indicated a number of factors that were related to victim satisfaction. However, the archival data did not allow investigation into relationship between satisfaction and psychological responses beyond vulnerability and reassurance. The relationship between victim satisfaction and cognitive or emotional responses post-victimisation was the focus of the third study. Should victim's psychological and/or emotional states be related to victim satisfaction, it could assist in development of interventions that could be used to support the victim and maintain a high quality service.

Previous research has indicated a negative correlation between satisfaction in the Criminal Justice system and anxiety, depression, symptom severity and elements of Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) among family members of murder victims (Amick-McMullan, Kilpatrick, Veronen & Smith, 1989). The authors noted that these results should be interpreted with much caution because the sample size was very small and the study was designed retrospectively. Despite these limitations, there was an indication that psychological distress was related to satisfaction.

Kunst, Rutten and Knijf (2013) also found that victims with high levels of early symptoms of PTSD were at risk of developing PTSD if they scored low on satisfaction with the police response. Shapland and Hall (2007) argued however, that PTSD is not very useful in measuring the impact of crime because PTSD only indicates a threshold point for several dimensions of the

effects of victimisation. In other words, a victim would first need to reach the specific thresholds before they are diagnosed to have PTSD. Shapland and Hall suggested that it would be better to use the underlying dimensions such as fear, anger, and depression to measure the impact of crime.

Norris and Thompson (1993) explored victim alienation and its relationship with satisfaction. They measured victim alienation using hopelessness, cynicism and pessimism as indicator variables. Their results showed that dissatisfaction predicted alienation and that satisfaction reduced it. The authors suggested based on their finding that the police have the potential to intensify or alleviate victim alienation. Police response to victims in terms of treating them with dignity and taking them seriously has been found to predict ability to cope with crime (Laximinarian, 2013). Similarly, perceived police empathy has been negatively associated with PTSD severity and shame among rape victims (Maddox, Lee & Barker, 2011).

Therefore the way victims evaluate police performance may have an impact on their emotional recovery. Satisfaction with the police was positively related to feelings of empowerment among domestic violence victims following a police intervention (Miller, 2003). This empowerment was in turn positively related to perceptions of safety. Kunst, Popelier and Varekamp's (2015) literature review indicated mixed results regarding the association between satisfaction with the Criminal Justice system and emotional recovery post-victimisation. Some studies pointed to a healing impact and others found no evidence for it. Therefore more research is needed to explore different cognitive and emotional states and whether satisfaction with the police is related to them.

4.1.1. Cognitive and Emotional States and Satisfaction

The focus of the current study was to investigate whether psychological mechanisms, namely need for cognition, trauma susceptibility, self-efficacy, psychological distress, and worry about crime in the neighbourhood, were related to victim satisfaction with the police investigation. The rationale for selecting these variables for the study drew from the original research plan to specifically explore RISK10 scale because its relationship with satisfaction was not known. The initial objective was also to explore other psychological characteristics that might link with satisfaction in order to develop persuasive communication strategies for police to improve victim satisfaction in secondary investigations. The following sections describe each of the cognitive and emotional dimensions, what is known from the literature, and the rationale for choosing these dimensions.

4.1.1.1. Need for cognition. Cohen, Stotland and Wolfe (1955) described the need for cognition as *"a need to understand and make reasonable the experiential world"* (p.291). Cacioppo and Petty (1982) defined the need as a tendency or likelihood for a person to engage in and enjoy thinking. In research, need for cognition has been linked to life satisfaction in that those with higher need for cognition expressed greater life satisfaction than those with a low need for cognition (Coutinho & Woolery, 2004). Need for cognition negatively correlated with self-consciousness, social anxiety and positively correlated with self-esteem (Osberg, 1987).

There appears to have been no previous studies investigating the links between need for cognition, victimisation and victim satisfaction. If such a link

existed it could assist in development of communication methods between the police and the public. For example, what type and how much information would be most useful in police-victim encounters. Those enjoying intellectual challenges might benefit from police contact and information during the process of making sense of their experience.

4.1.1.2. Trauma susceptibility. It has been suggested that those with low pre-victimisation well-being were at risk of developing distress symptoms. Therefore pre-victimisation well-being could have some predictive value on the negative impact of victimisation on well-being (Winkel & Vrij, 1998). Pre-victimisation variables also relate to trauma susceptibility. Trauma susceptibility is a component in the Duality Model of Traumatic Memory, which describes the formation, structure, storage, and retrieval of traumatic memories (Winkel, Wohlwarth & Blaauw, 2003; 2004).

In this model susceptibility to traumatic memories includes intrapersonal (pre-victimisation) and interpersonal/social (post-victimisation) variables as well as cognitive and/or emotional dimensions. Therefore it considers not only the way people think but also emotional and social factors that may have an effect on coping with an adverse event. High susceptibility is likely if a person possesses risk factors such as an anxious/pessimistic style of information processing and lacks protective/resilience factors such as social support.

The model predicts that persistent traumatic memories may emerge if a susceptible person is exposed to an adverse episode, for example victimisation, which involves a strong 'fight-or-flight'- response that invokes a strong initial reaction. These initial responses may result in persistent

traumatic memories amongst susceptible individuals. The initial reactivity reflects normal coping in non-susceptible individuals.

Winkel, Wohlwarth and Blaauw (2003) found support for this prediction: their results showed that high initial reactivity indicated psychological dysfunction in susceptible individuals. This allowed the potential for a very early detection of persistent symptoms and police could have a role in the assessment. They recommended a rapid screening tool as a viable option and those at risk should be actively referred to a victim support agency. They suggested a screening item called the RISK10 scale that measure post-victimisation risk factors such as self-blame. The scale has been tested for predicting trauma susceptibility and emotional adjustment disorder (Winkel, Wohlwarth & Blaauw, 2003; 2004). However, this has not been tested since for predicting distress or to obtain evidence for its utility. The authors indicated also that a shorter version of the RISK10 could be used. They found two items in the scale that were particularly useful for predicting later distress. These were measures for blame attributions (self-blame) and perceiving the event as a mental burden or life threatening. The authors recommended that any new screening instrument should include these items (Winkel, Wohlwarth & Blaauw, 2003).

4.1.1.3. Self-efficacy. Another concept of interest and related to coping was perceived self-efficacy, a feature of Social Cognitive Theory. Bandura (1982, 2001) describes self-efficacy as person's belief that one is able to produce desired results and prevent unfavourable ones. A major source of anxiety is the person's perceived inefficacy to turn off frightening cognitions (Bandura 1988). Bandura argues that self-efficacy beliefs are the

foundation of human agency and without these beliefs people have reduced motivation to act or cope when facing difficulties (Bandura, 2001).

Van den Bogaard and Wiegman's (1991) research among burglary victims suggested that self-efficacy was central to the coping process. They recommended that police interventions should aim to restore or strengthen burglary victims' sense of personal control. Low self-efficacy beliefs have also been found to predict PTSD among victims of violent assault (Johansen, Wahl, Eilertsen & Weisaeth, 2007). As was suggested in relation to victim alienation, police could also have a role in assisting victims to preserve or restore feelings of personal control and alleviate their worry or distress.

4.1.1.4. Worry about crime. There are indications that one's neighbourhood may influence satisfaction. It could be argued that when worry about crime is high, police presence or positive evaluation of police contact may alleviate worries about victimisation or re-victimisation. For example, burglary victims' comments in Study 1 indicated beliefs that police patrols in the neighbourhood could prevent new crimes or re-victimisation. Kusow, Wilson and Martin (1997) found that a combination of race and residential location had an effect on satisfaction. However, residence mattered more than race in satisfaction with the police. In contrast, residence did not predict satisfaction among domestic violence victims in Martin (1997). It should be noted that interpreting these results are problematic because no information was given about how the residence variable was measured. It is not known whether residence was referring to geographical location or type of residence status, for example, co-habiting.

Satisfaction has been found to be lower in areas of high male unemployment, areas of rented property and low levels of social cohesion (Coupe & Griffiths, 1999). Dai and Johnson (2009) found that race again became a non-significant factor when neighbourhood context was examined. At a community level, in areas of high deprivation where there may be a high crime rate, satisfaction with police was lower than in other areas. On an individual level, those who had a positive view about their future neighbourhood conditions and those who perceived safety and low incivility were more likely to express satisfaction. This led the authors to recommend that improving neighbourhood conditions and police conduct were effective ways to improve satisfaction.

Results from Lord, Kuhns and Friday's (2007) longitudinal study support improving policing in the community. The more police activity respondents were likely to observe, the more likely they were to report high satisfaction. Further, the influence of individual and neighbourhood characteristics on satisfaction was mediated by personal contact with the police. However, the study had a limitation in its methodology: data was collected from different samples at different points in time and there was no control group. Therefore their results are an indication about community level satisfaction before and after implementing community policing but not about satisfaction from an individual level. The current study was not looking into differences in satisfaction between residential areas but in the victims' personal worry about crime in their neighbourhood and its effect on satisfaction.

4.1.2. Victim Expectations

In addition to the cognitive and emotional states, the current study also explored victim and public expectations and its relationship with satisfaction with police. The relationship between expectations and satisfaction originally drew from consumer research. The expectancy disconfirmation model (Oliver, 1980; 1981) posits that consumer satisfaction results from the agreement between an individual's expectation and the actual performance of a product. The way perceptions of performance match expectations determine the type of disconfirmation and have a direct effect on satisfaction. Disconfirmation was considered positive when the outcome was better than expected and negative when outcome was poorer than expected. Zero disconfirmation represented a situation where the outcome matched expectation.

This expectation research has since been extended to police-public encounters. Data from London indicates that the public expects police to prevent crime, help those in immediate danger, investigate offences and catch criminals, however, they did not prioritise response to public disorder nor keeping the vulnerable safe (Greenhalgh & Gibbs, 2014). Victim reports suggest that victims expect police to take crime seriously, for police to give assurances that a crime is worth reporting, to be kept updated, police politeness and police showing interest (Brathwaite & Yeboah, 2004; Victim Support Report, 2011). If these expectations are not fulfilled, it can lead to non-reporting. Victims indicated in Sarkis (2013) that lack of confidence in police shaped by their previous experience was a reason for not reporting crime.

In general it appears that victims have realistic expectations in relation to crime clear-up rates and use of arrests (Newburn & Merry, 1990; Martin, 1997). However, the increase in fictional crime television programmes that describe police investigations has led to unrealistic expectations of police abilities (Huey, 2010) because people perceive that they now have sufficient knowledge of how investigations are conducted.

Evaluations of police performance can in turn impact legitimacy evaluations as well. Aviv and Weisburd (2016) investigated why victims tend to have more negative evaluations of police legitimacy than non-victims and found that perceived police performance was an important antecedent of police legitimacy for victims. As the performance evaluations increased, the gap in legitimacy evaluations between victims and non-victims decreased and when performance evaluations were high, perceived legitimacy was higher for victims than non-victims.

Policy also shapes expectations. The Victims' Code sets a minimum standard for services that the victims can expect. For example, victims can expect to receive updates about their case as it proceeds through the criminal justice system. However, it has already been shown that this does not always occur. The Justice Inspectorates (2015) reported that officers were unclear how they should go about keeping in touch with victims and often the contact was perceived as just another bureaucratic requirement. This indicates that whilst victims quite rightly expect contact as per policy, the police do not always prioritise in order to fulfil this expectation.

The relationship between expectations and satisfaction is somewhat unclear with some mixed findings. Zevitz and Gurnack (1991) found for elderly crime victims that some of their expectations correlated with satisfaction. Robinson and Strothshine (2005) found that none of the expectations they measured were directly related to satisfaction. However, in accordance with theory, expectation fulfilment did impact satisfaction levels. Victims whose expectations had been met were more likely to be satisfied with the police than when their expectations were not fulfilled (Robinson & Strothshine, 2005; Wilson & Jasinski, 2004).

Rosenbaum, et al. (2005) found that negative attitudes produced by negative contact with police only appeared in a White sample. They suggested that it could have been due to White individuals expecting the most from the police and were therefore most disappointed in police response. This finding also supports Fleury's (2002) suggestion that white women were less satisfied with police response than minority women due to differences in their expectations. Brathwaite and Yeboah (2004) made a similar discovery; those with high expectations were less satisfied than those who expected the police to provide a very basic service. However, when expectations were met, victims also expressed satisfaction.

Reisig and Chandek (2001) critiqued expectation research for the assumption that expectations are constant across the public and fail to take into account the possibility that expectations vary among people. Their analysis investigated how differences between expectations about police performance and actual services received affected satisfaction with the police on general and case specific levels. They found a weak correlation between expectations

and satisfaction and a moderate to strong relationship between expectation fulfilment and case-level satisfaction. Reisig and Chandek called for the identification of encounter-specific expectations the public may have that are in common with the tasks the police perform when dealing with the public. One of the aims of the current research was to explore what victims and the public expect from the police.

4.1.3. Rationale

It is important to understand the relationships between victim satisfaction and cognitive and emotional states in order to review existing police interventions and develop new ones in a meaningful way. If significant relationships were found, it could assist in reviewing police best practice and formulation of interventions. This in turn would allow attempts to improve victim satisfaction and strengthen the relationship between the police and the public.

In terms of measuring the psychological impact, Shapland and Hall (2007) argued that it would be better to use the underlying dimensions of PTSD (such as anxiety), rather than the PTSD itself, as indicators of the impact of crime because there is little knowledge of the impact of crimes thought not to produce PTSD. Shapland and Hall also noted that the proportion of victims who are emotionally affected does not vary considerably by crime type. Therefore the current study included volume crime (e.g. theft) that allowed investigation of the impact of crimes that may be perceived as less serious or low-impact. The study also included a non-victim control group in order to make comparisons between victims and non-victims.

4.1.4. Aims and Objectives

The questions study 3 addressed were: what is the relationship between victim satisfaction and need for cognition, trauma susceptibility, self-efficacy, worry about crime and distress. Due to the lack of previous research in victims' need for cognition and satisfaction it was hypothesised that they would be positively related as was found with life satisfaction. In addition, a positive relationship might be influenced by the amount of information a victim receives from the police, which may subsequently affect satisfaction.

In terms of the RISK10 and distress, it was expected that these would have a negative impact on satisfaction due to perhaps reduced coping and lack of support. On the other hand self-efficacy could have a positive impact on satisfaction. If police have been able to contribute to restoring an individual's sense of personal control, it might be reflected in a positive evaluation about the police. Based on the previously reviewed research it was expected that worry about crime would be negatively related to satisfaction. Previous research has also described the emotional impact of victimisation and therefore it was also hypothesised that the victim group may score higher on psychological distress compared to a control group.

In addition, public expectations of police actions were surveyed to explore whether there were any differences in expectations between a victim group and a control group; which expectation items were most important to both groups and whether expectation fulfilment was related to satisfaction. It was hypothesised that expectation fulfilment would be positively related to satisfaction in line with previous findings.

4.2. Method

4.2.1. Participants

Metropolitan Police Service provided contact details for victims of crime for the purpose of the current research. A total of 1,709 victims were approached during the data collection period. Data was collected at two points in time. The first survey (time 1) was completed by 68 victims of crime, 39 male and 29 females from the Greater London area. The response rate was very low, 4%. The participants ranged in age between 18 and 84 years ($M = 43.5$, $SD = 15.52$).

Sixty-six respondents reported their ethnicity; 46 White, 11 Asian, 4 of Mixed ethnicity, 3 Black, and 2 of Other ethnic background. Participants reported to have been a victim in one of the following crimes: burglary (8), assault (6), theft (19), theft of a vehicle (2), criminal damage (4), antisocial behaviour (1), robbery (6), theft from vehicle (1), harassment (6), racially/religiously aggravated offence (2) and other non-specified crime (13). Thirty-one victims (45.6%) completed the follow-up survey (time 2), therefore the dropout rate was 54.4%.

The control group consisted of both members of the public and university students who had not been a victim of a crime, lived in the greater London area and were not nor had ever worked for the police ($N = 31$). Including a control group allowed comparisons with victims in psychological measures, expectations and satisfaction. A vast majority of the control group were university students. This was a limitation as a sample from the general public would have been more preferable. However, due to time constraints and

difficulties in recruiting from the general public a decision was made to recruit from the student population to obtain the required number of participants for the analysis. Efforts were made to recruit more mature individuals from the student population for a better match to the victim group. The control group had 21 females and 9 males, and ranged in age between 21 and 65 years ($M = 34.6$, $SD = 11.18$). The majority of the control group participants were White (20), followed by three Black, three Asian, three Mixed and one other ethnic background. One participant did not disclose their demographics.

4.2.2. Design

The research used a correlational design and analysis of variance for testing differences between groups or within participants. The independent or predictor variables were need for cognition, trauma susceptibility, self-efficacy, psychological distress, and worry about crime. The dependent or criterion variable was victim satisfaction in three areas: general satisfaction, satisfaction with local police and satisfaction with case handling. Among the victim group the predictor variables were measured at two points in time to test for any changes over time. The control group was tested once.

4.2.3. Materials

The research was advertised by sending an email or letter to victims with information about the study and an invitation to participate (Appendix B). A consent form (Appendix C) and the questionnaire (Appendix D) were also attached with the invitation. After receiving the completed questionnaires, the victim group participant was sent a debrief form (Appendix E). An online version of the questionnaire was created and the link to survey was sent via email. Those participating online received the same information as those

approached by post. The control group was also provided with an information sheet, consent form and debrief forms (see Appendices F, C, and H). These forms were the same as for victims with minor changes to reflect their non-victim status.

The questionnaire for the victim group contained items that measured perceptions and views in need for cognition, trauma susceptibility (using an adapted version of the RISK 10), self-efficacy, psychological distress, worry about crime, expectations, and victim satisfaction. Demographic data was also collected: participants' gender, age, and ethnicity. The control group questionnaire was identical to the victim group's with the exception that the RISK10 scale and question relating to satisfaction with the way criminal case was handled were omitted (Appendix G). These were not applicable to the control group. The following sections describe the scales.

4.2.3.1. Need for cognition scale. The need for cognition scale (Appendix D, Q1) is an 18-item, 7-point Likert-type scale that is a shorter version of the original 34-item scale (Cacioppo & Petty, 1982; Cacioppo, Petty & Kao, 1984). The responses on the scale were anchored at 1= *Strongly Disagree* to 7= *Strongly Agree*. The scale is designed to measure the likelihood for the respondent to engage in or enjoy thinking. Items include statements such as "*I would prefer complex to simple problems*" and "*I only think as hard as I have to*". Scores were reversed for the negative statements. Thus, higher mean scores indicated high need for cognition.

4.2.3.2. RISK10 scale. The scale for trauma susceptibility (Appendix D, Q5) was adapted from the original 10 and 11-item scales developed by Winkel, Wohlfarth and Blaauw (2003; 2004). The items were statements such as *"I feel this typically had to happen to me"* and *"I experienced the event as a mental burden"*. The original items all required a Yes/No response, however, for the purpose of this study the original items were changed to a 6-point Likert-type scale. There were eight items anchored at 1= *Strongly Disagree* and 6 = *Strongly Agree*. The reason for adopting a Likert-type scale was to allow participants to express their degree of agreement rather than forcing the more rigid yes/no responses. For the purpose of regression analysis altering the responses from binary to multiple choice was considered to be appropriate. Four items from the original could not be converted into multiple choice due to wording or because they related to previous victimisation. The items were 1) *'Before this incident, have you been a victim of crime recently?'*, 2) *'Do you still have problems with that incident?'*, 3) *'The consequences of the previous incident were worse than I expected'*, and 4) *'Did you suffer physical damage?'*. These items were excluded from the scale leaving 8 items.

4.2.3.3. General self-efficacy scale. The 10-item general self-efficacy scale (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995) (Appendix D, Q9) measured participants' perceptions about their ability to deal with problematic situations or achieve desired outcomes. For example: *"I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough"* and *"It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals"*. The responses were on a 4-point scale from 1 = *Not At All True* to 4 = *Exactly True*. Low mean scores reflected low self-

efficacy.

4.2.3.4. Distress - Mental Health Inventory. In order to measure psychological distress during the past month, two subsets from the Mental Health Inventory (MHI-38) (Veit & Ware, 1983) were combined that measured anxiety and depression (Appendix D, Q10-22). The original scale itself was designed to allow the use of individual subsets. The combined scale had a total 13 questions and consisted of nine items dealing with anxiety, such as *"How much of the time, during the past month, have you been a very nervous person?"*. Four items concerned depression, for example, *"During the past month, how much of the time have you been in low or very low spirits?"*. All items except for one were scored on a 6-point scale and a single item was scored on a 5-point scale. All 13 items were reverse scored, higher scores reflecting greater anxiety or depression.

4.2.3.5. Worry about crime scale. The scale was modified from Jackson and Kuha (2013) that measured worry about becoming a victim of burglary or violent crime. The references to specific crimes were removed and modified to concern a general worry about crime and the consequences the worry had on quality of life (Appendix D, Q23-28). For example, *"How often, if at all, do you worry about crime /safety in your neighbourhood?"*. The third question concerned worry about becoming a victim of crime. The responses were given on a Likert-type scale 1 = *All or most of the time*, 2 = *Some of the time*, 3 = *Just occasionally*, 4 = *Never*. The scores were reversed so that high scores indicated high worry.

4.2.3.6. Expectations scale. Expectations about the police service (Appendix D, Q29) was created for the purpose of this study and measured at two points in time (time 1 and time 2) among the victim group. At both stages there were 11 questions with Yes/No responses. The questions were the same for both times, however, at time 1 the questions related to expectations prior to or at the time of reporting the incident. For example, *"When you report an offence, do you expect that... you would be contacted at least once a month"*. At time 2 the questions were formulated to measure expectation fulfillment, that is, whether the police had performed the expected actions: *"After you reported the incident... Were you contacted at least once a month?"*. The scale was based on five survey questions used by the MPS to assess quality of service. The rest of the items were based on concerns raised by victims, such as being taken seriously (Victim Support Survey, 2011).

4.2.3.7. Satisfaction measures. Similarly to the expectation measure, items measuring satisfaction were based on the questions used in the MPS satisfaction survey (Appendix D, Q32-34). The items were on 7-point scales (1= *Completely dissatisfied*, 2 = *Very dissatisfied*, 3 = *Fairly dissatisfied*, 4 = *Neither*, 5 = *Fairly satisfied*, 6 = *Very satisfied*, and 7= *Completely satisfied*). The items *'How satisfied are you in general with the police service?'*, *'How satisfied are you in general with the police service in your area?'*, and *'Taking the whole experience into account how satisfied are you with the service provided by the police in your case?'* measured satisfaction in global, local, and case level, respectively. The third case-level item was excluded from the

non-victim group questionnaire.

4.2.4. Procedure

Data collection took place between March 2014 and April 2015 for the victim group and during October 2015 for the control group. At the first stage victims were asked to complete a questionnaire (time 1) and once completed 6 weeks passed before they were approached again to complete a second set of questionnaires (time 2). Therefore there was more than a month between the surveys. The MPS provided the researcher with lists of victims with their contact details. Some restrictions for participation were put in place for ethical reasons. The information from the MPS was screened to exclude victims who were under 18 years old, those considered vulnerable due to assessed or self-reported mental health issues or impairment, as well as victims of domestic violence, sexual assault, and serious physical assault (e.g. grievous bodily harm, attempted murder). Invitations were also restricted to those living in the Greater London area.

A total of 1,709 victims were approached during the data collection period. For the first round of invitation victims were sent a questionnaire pack via post if an email address was not provided or they had preferred to be contacted via post. Email was used when victims had indicated their preferred form of contact was via email. Victims were asked to fill in a questionnaire in their own time but with a request for a reasonable return date of three weeks. Initially the data collection area included two London boroughs, however, due to the very low response rate this was increased to five boroughs with the

permission from the MPS. After the first round of data collection invitations were sent via email only. Those who did not respond were sent two further invitations. After six weeks from receiving the first completed questionnaire, a second questionnaire was sent to the victims (time 2, Appendix I).

The control group (N= 31) was recruited through opportunity and snowball sampling by advertising at university, utilising social media and by directly recruiting during university classes. The control group completed the survey once.

4.2.5. Data Handling

4.2.5.1. Normality of the distribution, outliers and reliability tests.

The dependent and independent variables were subjected to Shapiro-Wilk's normality test. When the test is significant at $p < .05$, the data is considered non-normal and $p > .05$ indicates normality. The test indicated a normal distribution in need for cognition for the control group, $df(31) = .952$, $p = .182$. A normal distribution was also found for general self-efficacy (control group), $df(31) = .952$, $p = .110$ and for the RISK10 (victim group), $df(68) = .970$, $p = .104$.

Distributions in all other variables indicated non-normality, all $p < .006$.

Skewness was identified in all variables with the lowest value $-.928$ and highest 1.441 . The values for asymmetry and kurtosis were between -2 and $+2$ and are considered acceptable in order to prove normal univariate distribution (George & Mallery, 2010). The values for skewness were therefore not considered problematic.

Kurtosis was also identified in all variables. Only two variables exceeded the acceptable -2 to +2 range: general self-efficacy in the victim group, 3.319 (Standard Error .578) and worry about crime in the control group, 2.187 (Standard Error .821). For these variables Kruskal-Wallis tests were used which is a non-parametric equivalent of a one-way between-participants ANOVA (Brace, Kemp & Snelgar, 2012).

Data was also reviewed for outliers. Outliers were found in general self-efficacy (2 scores in victim group), in distress (2 scores in control group and 6 scores in victim group). However, outliers were not considered problematic after mean and 5% trimmed mean comparisons. To obtain the trimmed mean SPSS removes the top and bottom 5% of the cases and calculates a new mean value. This trimmed mean is compared to the original mean to decide if the more extreme scores were having a significant influence on the mean. If these two mean values are very different, the data points should be investigated further (Pallant, 2007).

For general self-efficacy the 5% trimmed mean was 3.128 and $M = 3.158$ ($SD = .058$). For the distress (control group) the 5% trimmed mean was 2.592 and $M = 2.647$ ($SD = .908$). For the distress (victim group) the 5% trimmed mean was 2.214 and $M = 2.313$ ($SD = .130$). The comparisons indicated that the 5% trimmed mean and original mean were not very different from each other and therefore no further action was taken on the outliers.

Finally, scale reliability was calculated for each Likert-type scale. Need for cognition consisted of 18 items ($\alpha = .63$), the general self-efficacy consisted of

10 items ($\alpha = .91$), and worry about crime consisted of 3 items ($\alpha = .89$).

Cronbach's alphas for the Mental Health Inventory (MHI) items (anxiety and depression) were .95 and .94, respectively. Combined the MHI was found to be highly reliable (13 items; $\alpha = .97$).

Initial reliability test indicated a low reliability for the RISK10 scale (8 items; $\alpha = .51$). After removing item number 5 (*'If needed, I can fall back on supportive environment (partner, friends, relatives)'*) Cronbach's α was increased to .69. Further, the analysis indicated that removing item number 6 (*'I am generally (apart from what happened now) satisfied with my life situation'*) improved alpha to .81. Therefore the items were removed resulting in six scale items, $\alpha = .81$.

4.2.5.2. New RISK2 measure. Winkel, Wohlwarth & Blaauw (2003) recommended that any new screening instrument should incorporate the measures for specific risk factors in RISK10. These were self-blame and perceiving the event as mental burden or life threatening. In the current study RISK2 was created from the RISK10 item numbers 1 and 4 (*'I feel this typically had to happen to me and In comparison to others I feel I am coping worse, respectively'*) for assessing susceptibility to psychological distress ($\alpha = .68$). The process is explained in the following section. The rationale for modifying the original RISK10 into a shorter version was to make it very quick to use in time-pressured situations thus maximising the potential for police to use it.

Reducing the number of items was achieved by first reviewing correlations between MHI measures (anxiety, depression, combined distress) and the

RISK10 items. A cut-off point of $r \geq .50$ was selected; when the bivariate correlations between MHI and RISK10 items were equal to or greater than .50, the RISK10 items qualified for further analysis. Three RISK10 items had $r \geq .50$ with MHI measures.

Item number 1 '*I feel this typically had to happen to me*' correlated with anxiety $r = .55, p < .001$; depression $r = .54, p < .001$ and psychological distress $r = .56, p < .001$.

Item number 4 '*In comparison to others I feel I am coping worse*' correlated with anxiety $r = .63, p < .001$; depression $r = .57, p < .001$ and psychological distress $r = .62, p < .001$.

Item number 7 '*I experienced the event as life threatening*' correlated with anxiety $r = .51, p < .001$, and psychological distress $r = .50, p < .001$.

All three RISK10 items (1, 4 and 7) predicted anxiety at time 1 as a model $F(3,64) = 19.32, p < .001$ and accounted for 45% of the variance in anxiety scores ($\bar{R}^2 = .451$). The best predictors were item 4, $\beta = .38, p = .005$ and item 1, $\beta = .31, p = .005$. Item 7 was not a significant predictor on its own, $p = .287$.

The three items predicted depression at time 1 as a model $F(3, 64) = 15.11, p < .001$ and accounted for 39% of the variance in depression scores ($\bar{R}^2 = .387$). The best predictors were item 4, $\beta = .33, p = .02$ and item 1 $\beta = .33, p = .005$. Item 7 was not a significant predictor on its own, $p = .37$.

Similarly, the three items predicted psychological distress (a combination of the anxiety and depression subscales) at time 1 as a model $F(3,64) = 19.23, p < .001$ and accounted for 45% of the variance in the combined distress scores

($\bar{R}^2 = .449$). The best predictors were item1 $\beta = .37$, $p = .006$ and item4, $\beta = .32$, $p = .003$. Again, item 7 was not a significant predictor on its own, $p = .37$.

Therefore as the RISK10 items 1 and 4 were best predictors for anxiety, depression and psychological distress they were chosen as the items for the new RISK2 measure.

4.3. Results

Several results are reported. First the relationships between RISK scales and distress are described followed by the relationship between the psychological measures and satisfaction. The results then move to differences in distress and satisfaction between time 1 and time 2 and the mediation analysis.

Lastly, victim and non-victim groups were compared and expectation results reported.

4.3.1. RISK10 and Psychological Distress at Time 1 and Time 2

Both the RISK10 and RISK2 were used to predict psychological distress including anxiety and depression.

RISK10 predicted distress at time 1: $F(1,66) = 51.34$, $p < .001$. RISK10 mean score accounted for 43% of the variance in the distress mean score ($\bar{R}^2 = .429$).

Time 1 RISK10 also predicted distress scores at time 2 (a minimum of 6 weeks after time 1): $F(1,29) = 13.43$, $p = .001$. RISK10 mean scores at time 1 accounted for 29% of the variance distress mean score at time 2 ($\bar{R}^2 = .293$).

4.3.2. RISK2 and Psychological Distress at Time 1 and Time 2

The two item RISK2 measure predicted psychological distress at time 1:

$F(1,66) = 53.52, p < .001$. RISK2 explained 45% of the variance in distress scores ($\bar{R}^2 = .453$).

RISK2 score at time 1 also predicted distress scores at time 2: $F(1,29) = 16.83, p < .001$. RISK2 score accounted for 35% of the variance in time 2 distress score ($\bar{R}^2 = .345$).

Therefore in general these results indicate that higher RISK10 and RISK2 scores at time 1 predict higher distress scores at a minimum of 6 weeks later.

4.3.3. Satisfaction and Psychological Scales

There were no correlations at time 1 between the psychological scales need for cognition, RISK10, RISK2, general self-efficacy, anxiety, depression and distress, and satisfaction measures (general, area and case), all $p > .120$. A small negative correlation was found between worry about crime and satisfaction with police service in respondent's area, $r = -.276, N = 68, p = .023$, indicating that as worry about one's neighbourhood increased, satisfaction with police in the area decreased.

Time 1 psychological scales had no relationship with time 2 victim satisfaction measures (all $ps > .062$) except for worry about crime. Time 1 worry about crime had a medium negative correlation with global satisfaction, $r = -.413, N = 31, p = .021$, satisfaction with police service in respondent's area $r = -.589, N = 31, p = .021$, and case-level satisfaction, $r = -.411, N = 31, p < .022$.

Victim's high worry about crime at time 1 therefore indicated a low satisfaction

level at time 2 in terms of general satisfaction with police and satisfaction in case handling.

At time 2 victim distress and worry about crime were related to each of the time 2 satisfaction measures. Medium negative relationships were found between distress and global satisfaction $r = -.495$, $N = 31$, $p = .005$; satisfaction with local police $r = -.489$, $N = 31$, $p = .005$, and case-level satisfaction, $r = -.482$, $N = 31$, $p = .006$. Therefore as distress at time 2 increased, satisfaction in all levels with the police decreased.

Worry about crime at time 2 was also related to each satisfaction level at time 2. There were medium negative relationships between worry about crime and global satisfaction $r = -.458$, $N = 31$, $p = .005$; satisfaction with local police $r = -.540$, $N = 31$, $p = .002$, and case-level satisfaction, $r = -.473$, $N = 31$, $p = .007$. Therefore those who indicated higher worry at time 2 were likely to report lower satisfaction with the police at all levels.

As RISK2 predicted distress scores at time 2, the distress scores were analysed in terms of predicting satisfaction scores. Psychological distress at time 2 (the combination of anxiety and depression subscales) predicted global satisfaction at time 2, $F(1,29) = 9.43$, $p = .005$ and explained 22% of the variance in satisfaction scores ($\bar{R}^2 = .219$).

The model for distress at time 2 and satisfaction in the police in the respondent's local area was significant $F(1,29) = 9.10$, $p = .005$ accounting for 21% of the variance in satisfaction scores ($\bar{R}^2 = .213$).

Similarly, distress at time 2 predicted satisfaction at case-level: $F(1,29) = 8.79$, $p = .006$ and explained 21% of the variance in satisfaction scores ($\bar{R}^2 = .206$).

The relationship between time 2 distress and satisfaction in the police service was negative, and suggested that in order to improve victim satisfaction efforts should be made to reduce victim psychological distress.

4.3.4. Differences in Mental Health and Satisfaction Scores Between Time 1 and Time 2

A one-way repeated measures ANOVA was used to analyse differences in distress and satisfaction scores between time 1 and time 2. There were no significant differences in participant's scores in distress ($p = .645$). Worry about crime was approaching significance with an increase in the mean scores between time 1 and time 2 ($p = .053$). No significant differences in individual's scores over time were found in any of the satisfaction measures; global satisfaction with police ($p = .787$), satisfaction with police in the area ($p = .712$), and case-level satisfaction, $p = .708$. This suggests that distress and satisfaction levels had remained stable over time.

4.3.5. Mediation Analysis

As the RISK scale predicted distress levels, and distress in turn predicted satisfaction scores at time 2 it was considered appropriate to perform further analyses for mediation effect. The purpose of mediation analysis was to explore whether victim distress mediated a relationship between trauma susceptibility and satisfaction. The mediation analysis was carried out using PROCESS (Hayes, 2013), an add-on tool for SPSS. The mediation analysis

does not produce p -values to determine significance of indirect effects. Instead the 95% confidence interval is used to determine statistical significance. When the confidence interval does not cross zero, there is likely to be a genuine indirect effect as it represents significance at $\alpha = .05$. PROCESS also calculates Sobel's Z-score.

The analysis tested the mediating role of distress between RISK2 score and case level satisfaction at time 1. Model number 4 was used with 1000 bootstrap samples. No mediation effect was found: 95% CI [-.32, .52], $Z = .38$, $p = .70$. However, PROCESS warned that the confidence interval end points were not trustworthy and instructed to increase bootstraps. The number of bootstraps was increased to 20000 but this did not alter the result.

Model 4 with 1000 bootstraps was also used to test mediation with RISK2 as an independent variable, distress as mediator and satisfaction as the outcome variable. The time 2 distress score did not mediate the relationship between RISK2 and case level satisfaction at time 2 either; 95% CI [-.92, -.08], $Z = -1.92$, $p = .054$.

4.3.6. Comparing Victim and Control Group

There were no significant differences between the victim group and control group scores on any of the psychological scales, $ps > .137$. The result was separately tested for worry about crime and self-efficacy using Kruskal-Wallis test but this did not alter the result, $ps > .155$.

A one-way between participants ANOVA indicated that there were no significant differences in global satisfaction with police between victims and

non-victims, $p = .502$. Similarly, no significant difference was found in satisfaction with local area police between victims and the control group, $p = .272$.

4.3.7. Expectations

For the expectation analyses, new variables were calculated. The victim and control group expectation score was calculated by summing up the expectation variables at time 1 (minimum 0, maximum 10). Lower scores indicated low expectations and higher scores high expectations.

Expectation fulfilment was calculated by first creating a fulfilment value for eight expectation variables. For example, if at time 1 victims expected police to provide updates and at time 2 reported that this had happened, expectation was considered to have been fulfilled and was given value of 1. If victims reported that the police had not provided updates then value of 0 was assigned. Two items were excluded from calculating the fulfilment score as they could not be matched. These were the item relating to police identifying victim vulnerability because it was not known if the respondent identified as vulnerable. In addition, the item relating to level of victim reassurance was measured on a Likert-type scale and therefore could not be matched with the binary expectation measure.

The fulfilment values were then summed to create one score representing expectation fulfilment (minimum 0 = none of expectations fulfilled, maximum 8 = all expectations fulfilled). Satisfaction variables were also recoded into new binary values. The values completely, very and fairly satisfied were coded into

'satisfied' and completely, very and fairly dissatisfied were coded into 'dissatisfied'.

4.3.7.1. Expectation analysis results

Table 5 on the following page displays the descriptive statistics for victims and control group expectations of the police.

Table 5

*Descriptive Statistics for Victim and Control Group Expectations of the Police**(N= 98)*

Police action	Action Expected	Victims	Victims	Non-victims	Non-victims
	Yes/No	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
A supervising officer contact and provide contact details of the investigating officer (OIC)	No	21	31	17	57
	Yes	47	69	13	43
OIC contact and explain next steps	No	12	18	9	30
	Yes	56	82	21	70
Contacted with updates without asking	No	20	29	16	53
	Yes	48	71	14	47
Police would reassure	No	17	25	8	27
	Yes	51	75	22	73
Police would catch offender(s)	No	29	43	16	53
	Yes	39	57	14	47
Police would recognise vulnerability	No	17	25	11	37
	Yes	51	75	19	63
Police would have empathy	No	11	16	6	19
	Yes	57	84	25	81
Police would do what they promise	No	5	7.5	7	24
	Yes	62	92.5	22	76
Police would take cases seriously	No	7	10	9	30
	Yes	61	90	21	70
Police would give practical information, help or advice	No	7	10	4	13
	Yes	61	90	26	87

The table indicates that the victim and control group shared three police actions that are expected the most: a) police do what they say they would do, b) police provide practical information, help or advice, and c) that the police

deal with people with empathy. Expectations differed between victims and non-victims regarding supervisor contact, updates, and police taking cases seriously. A supervisor was expected to contact and provide OIC details by 69% of the victims and 43% of the non-victims. Updates were expected by 71% of victims vs. 47% of non-victims. Ninety per cent of victims also expected police to take case seriously whereas 70% of non-victims expected it.

There was a difference in expectation scores between the victim and control group. Victims indicated higher expectations ($M = 7.84$, $SD = 2.68$) than the control group ($M = 6.35$, $SD = 2.79$). Independent groups t -test indicated that this difference was statistically significant, $t = 2.52$, $df = 97$, $p = .013$.

Regression analysis revealed that expectation fulfilment predicted satisfaction scores at time 2. The more expectations that were fulfilled the more satisfied victims were with the police in general $F(1,29) = 8.09$, $p = .008$, $\bar{R}^2 = .196$; in the local area $F(1,29) = 9.06$, $p = .005$, $\bar{R}^2 = .217$, and on a case level $F(1,29) = 9.62$, $p = .004$, $\bar{R}^2 = .229$.

4.4. Discussion

In Study 3 the focus was on cognitive and emotional states and expectations and their relationship with satisfaction. It is important to understand the relationships between victim satisfaction and cognitive and emotional states. If significant relationships were found, it could assist in reviewing police best practice and formulation of interventions.

The questions the current study addressed were: what is the relationship between victim satisfaction and need for cognition, trauma susceptibility, self-efficacy, worry about crime and distress? The RISK assessment was reduced from 10 items to two items and tested for predicting distress and satisfaction. Data was collected from victims at two points in time (time 1 and time 2). In addition to the cognitive and emotional states, the current study also explored victim and public expectations and its relationship with satisfaction with police.

There were no correlations at time 1 between the psychological scales need for cognition, RISK10, RISK2, general self-efficacy, distress, and victim satisfaction measures on a global, area or case level. Time 1 psychological scales had no relationship with time 2 satisfaction measures either. There were no significant differences in psychological scales and satisfaction ratings between the victim and control group. There were no differences in the participants' distress and satisfaction scores over time. No mediation effect was found for distress between the RISK2 and satisfaction. There were, however, results relating to identification of post-victimisation distress (RISK2) and expectations with practical implications.

4.4.1. RISK2

Both long and short versions of the RISK assessment predicted distress scores at time 1 and time 2. Psychological distress at time 2 was found to predict satisfaction scores at time 2 on general, local and case-levels. The relationship was negative; as distress increased, satisfaction decreased. This is an important finding as it suggests that the police could with only two questions determine whether a victim is likely to be distressed at a later stage.

Utilising the two items for RISK2: '*I feel this typically had to happen to me*' and '*In comparison to others I'm coping worse*' supports Winkel, Wohlfarth and Blaauw (2003). Their findings indicated that victims who engaged in character attributions (self-blame) and/or perceived an incident as a mental burden appeared to be particularly at risk for persistent arousal and intrusion symptoms. The authors recommended that these victims should be actively referred to victim support. The results suggest that these two questions are appropriate for determining the likelihood of distress.

This finding has practical implications. The short form is more user-friendly than the original RISK10 assessment in a time-pressured situation. Using a short screening tool could be a quick and cost effective intervention in a climate where budgets are limited. It could also be used for short-term investigations to ensure that regardless of crime type victims are assessed and referred appropriately. Both police officers and police staff could use the assessment. Police could either ask the questions directly as part of their contact with the victim or at a minimum focus on what the victim says about their experience. Either increasing contact with the victim or actively promoting referral to a support agency could then be applied to those identified as trauma susceptible, regardless of crime type. It would not require extensive efforts or increase police workload unreasonably as it could be included as part of any contact with the victim. Recall, the Victim's Code promises that following discussions with the police, victim will be informed how often they receive updates. Using a short screening tool might focus attention towards those victims who might be in need of further support but

may not be able to express it themselves. The efforts to reduce victim distress may also improve victim's assessment about the police.

4.4.2. Worry about Crime

Significant results were also found in relation to victims' worry about crime. Initially, at time 1, there was a weak negative correlation between worry and satisfaction with police in the victim's local area. Time 1 worry was also associated with global satisfaction and case-level satisfaction with medium strength. Later, worry measured at time 2 was associated with all levels of satisfaction. It is possible that to a certain extent, victims may have become more aware of their surroundings and/or local police's response post-victimisation and it may be reflected in satisfaction in local policing at time 1. As time passed worry became associated with all levels of satisfaction and this relationship may have been mediated by personal contact with the police, as was suggested in Lord, Kuhns and Friday (2007). If police could reduce the victims' worries about personal safety or crime in their neighbourhood this may be reflected in increased satisfaction. If the police are perceived to have done nothing to alleviate the worry then this may influence negative views about the police. This interpretation of the results is highly speculative as no mediation analysis was performed.

4.4.3. Expectations

In terms of the expectations, qualitatively victims and the control group shared very similar expectations. Expectations that the police do what they say they will do, provide practical information, help or advice, and that they deal with people with empathy were the most cited expectations for both groups. It is

interesting to note, considering the large influence of reassurance on satisfaction in Study 1, that reassurance is only the fourth (control group) and fifth (victim group) most expected police action. As victims appeared to value reassurance and it was the best predictor of satisfaction in Study 1, it is somewhat surprising that reassurance was not the most expected action. Perhaps here lies one possible explanation for the importance of reassurance. It may be less expected but receiving reassurances creates a positive disconfirmation, that is, the treatment was better than what was expected.

Police expressing empathy was expected more than reassurance. Expecting empathy may draw from perceptions about the role of the police, that is, what the police are supposed to do when dealing with victims or the public and which actions should occur. Showing empathy may be perceived as a reasonable requirement that is easily performed, whereas catching offenders is not. Indeed, catching the offender was one of the least expected police actions. Process-based policing over outcome-driven policing is thus reflected in expectations and also indicates victim realism in that not all offenders can be caught. The impact of police empathy on satisfaction requires more research however, there is a suggestion from an exploratory study that police empathy is associated with rape victims' perceived likelihood of going to court (Maddox, Lee & Barker, 2011). Should such results be replicated, the role of police empathy could have implications on Criminal Justice system as a whole.

Further, comparing the descriptive victim and non-victim expectations, it was interesting to note that differences emerged in expectations regarding updates and taking cases seriously. It appeared that these were more expected by the

victims than the public. It could be argued that the importance of these actions does not become clear or desired until a person experiences a situation such as victimisation. It is also possible that victims reported their post-victimisation expectations rather than how they felt before contacting the police.

There was a difference in the number of expectations between the victim and control group. Victims indicated a higher number of expectations than the control group. Although victim group had already been victimised they were prompted to think about their expectations at a pre-victimisation level. Again, it is possible that in victims' responses their post-victimisation expectations are reflected. This is a limitation as there is no way of knowing whether victims were able to position themselves to their pre-victimisation state and expectations or whether the responses were influenced by the initial contact with the police.

Regression analysis revealed that expectation fulfilment in terms of zero disconfirmation predicted satisfaction scores at time 2. When expectations were fulfilled victims also expressed satisfaction with police at a global, local and case level. This is line with previous research (Brathwaite & Yeboah, 2004; Robinson & Strotshine, 2005; Wilson & Jasinski, 2004) and offers further support for the expectancy confirmation model in a police context. The results could be used to further reinforce the importance of complying with policy and inform the police as to what type of expectations the public prioritises so that police could review or formulate policy. There is an emphasis on managing expectations but to fulfil them is to comply with the existing policies - or do as promised - a task that is not always completed.

4.4.4. Limitations

The current study does not come without limitations. In terms of sampling, the data collection was subject to a degree of bias. Victims living in a specific geographical area were approached. This was unavoidable bearing in mind data collection was reliant on Metropolitan Police Service providing contact details for the victims. Permission for data collection was granted only in specific London Boroughs. The response rates were very low resulting in small samples. It is not known whether all those invited via email actually received the invitation as they may have been captured by email filter systems designed to prevent unwanted communications.

It is also not known to what extent apathy towards the police influenced willingness to participate. There were individuals who had received the invitation to the survey and contacted the researcher indicating that because the police had not been helpful towards them, they would not participate in a survey connected to policing. Therefore, responses may have been subject to a self-selection bias in that those more inclined to express their opinion or take part in surveys in general formed the final sample.

Another problematic feature of online surveys is that one cannot be certain under what circumstances the respondent completes the survey. For example, an email address where an invitation is sent may be shared or accessed by multiple persons, the survey may be taken multiple times or responses are given without reading the items. The researcher made efforts to control for these caveats in a number of ways. First, the link to the survey was by invitation only and email addresses were monitored for any addresses

that may not be received by the intended individual. Only those who could be reasonably expected to personally receive the invitation were included in the mailing list. For example, if the victim had provided an email address akin to info@companyname.com, the invitation was not sent because of the generic nature of the address. More than one person may have access to that address. It also created an ethical dilemma; a third party who may not have known the intended recipient had been a victim of crime would be made aware of it. Almost all, however, had provided what appeared to be a personal email address and only a few were excluded due to a generic address. The invitation also began with a greeting using the person's first name to highlight the intended recipient. Second, survey options were set so that the survey could only be taken once, thus preventing multiple completions from one individual. Finally, response times were monitored for excessively rapid response times. Rapid responding was considered to indicate responding without reading the items. It was expected that completing the survey would take approximately 10-15 minutes. The response times gave no cause for concern and they all fell around this mark for those who had completed the survey.

Applying a longitudinal design to the victim participants but not to the control group was also a limitation. Ideally the control group should have been given a questionnaire at two points in time to match the design with the victim group. However, the focus was on comparing the victim responses to the control group at the earliest stage of post-victimisation (time 1). It was postulated that should there be differences between the groups, this would be in distress response at time 1 because for victims the offence had occurred

relatively recently. In addition, comparisons of some of the items would not have been possible over time, for example, the RISK scale and expectation fulfilment.

In terms of the analysis, correlational analyses do not indicate cause and effect. Therefore, the results are interpreted as relationships that may be influenced by a third, not yet known, variable. Therefore using the RISK assessment may not result in identification of all those susceptible to distress. The level of distress may not determine victim satisfaction with police either. However, the relationships act as indicators to variables worth considering in police-public encounters and allow further research. The RISK scale particularly requires further research because currently only the original studies and the current study have tested its usefulness. Furthermore, the response rate at time 1 was very low 4% and less than half (46%) of time 1 participants completed the follow-up questionnaire (time 2), resulting in small samples. This was not anticipated at the beginning of data collection and an important lesson was learned with regards to allowing a longer time for data collection in victim research.

In order to improve reliability and validity of RISK2 the next step for future studies would be to test it with a far larger random sample in a more natural setting, that is, by police at first contact. Alternative versions could also be used simultaneously to test reliability; an expert panel consisting of individuals who have experience of dealing with victims could review wording of RISK2 items combined with an alternative psychological distress scale. The scale could also be tested among different victim groups; the current sample was too small to allow for meaningful comparisons.

Future research could further explore the role of police empathy and its impact on the Criminal Justice system; for example, the effect of perceived empathy on victim's willingness to cooperate or to attend court in different crimes. Also in terms of expectations, future research could further investigate which actions both police officers and victims agree should be expected and can be fulfilled. It could be that dissatisfaction arising from unfulfilled expectations is caused by differences in what the public expect from the police and what the police expect from themselves. For example, victims may not always expect the offender to be caught, however, this could be a high expectation within the police shifting the focus on apprehension at the expense of how victims are treated.

4.5. Conclusions

Study 3 investigated the relationships between psychological states and victim satisfaction. No relationships were found between need for cognition, general self-efficacy, and satisfaction. Worry about crime in terms of neighbourhood crime and personal safety was related to satisfaction and highlighted the opportunity for police to alleviate concerns and subsequently potentially influence satisfaction.

The study also added to the knowledge of victimisation and mental health outcomes; particularly in terms of predicting negative outcomes with a use of short assessment tool. Police actions could alleviate adverse psychological outcomes with appropriate referrals. Although more research is required, the RISK2 screening tool could be considered as a fast, cost-effective and

practical intervention that allows those most in need, regardless of crime type, to be actively referred to support agencies.

In terms of expectancies, further support was found for the expectancy disconfirmation model in a police context. The more expectations that were fulfilled, the more likely victims were to express satisfaction. It also highlighted the role of police empathy in expectations and indicated that victims and the control group appeared to have realistic expectations with regards to the apprehension of perpetrators.

Study 1, 2 and 3 focused on victims and the variables that influence their assessment of the police service. The question that remained was: what are police officers perceptions of victims and do their perceptions influence police actions that also predict victim satisfaction? Study 4 attempted to answer this question by measuring police officers perceptions about victim reactivity and culpability and whether these were related to helping actions.

Chapter 5. Police Officers' Attributions of Blame and the Effect of Victim Characteristics on Police Helping Behaviour

5.1. Introduction

Previous research has found that the factors linked to victim satisfaction include perceived police manner, follow-ups and the amount and quality of information received from the police (Coupe & Griffiths, 1999; Glauser & Tullar, 1985; Poister & McDavid, 1978; Reisig & Chandek, 2001). Study 1, 2, and 3 highlighted the importance of how victims are treated and how police actions could be utilised in attempts to reduce victim psychological distress.

Police surveys tend to focus on volume crime victims and there is evidence that volume crime victims receive better service than other victims as a result (Wedlock & Tapley, 2016). Although this is highly likely, this thesis has shown that volume crime victims are being let down. Given the importance of helpful actions such as keeping victims informed, it is important to understand why variance in such actions occurs, especially as the police are required to comply with actions set out in the Victims' Code at all times. The aim of the current study was to explore police attributions that may affect their treatment of victims and whether there is a link with helping behaviours. In other words the aim was to explore psychological explanations of why helping behaviours - although set out in and demanded by policy - do not always occur.

Attribution relates to the mental linking of an event with an underlying condition, for example, that an event occurred due to personal or environmental factors (Heider, 1958). For instance, a reason for failure in a task could be attributed to either a person's lack of ability (a dispositional /

internal attribution) or task difficulty (a situational / external attribution).

Christie (1986) described the stereotype of the 'ideal victim' for whom society most readily affords both sympathy and the label 'victim': an elderly lady who is robbed by a drug addict. In contrast, a young man is less likely to be labelled a victim nor, perhaps, considered as vulnerable. However, victimology research indicates that young males who live in cities and go out at night are at greatest risk of a robbery (Williams, 2008).

The just-world theory refers to a belief that people get what they deserve, meaning that even good people can have misfortune if their actions are careless or foolish (Lerner & Miller, 1978). Should a person hold just-world beliefs, victim blaming can take place because victimisation is considered as something the victim deserved or a result of the victim's failure to protect them self. This is similar to the attribution error where a failure in a task is perceived to be the result of personal rather than situational factors.

In studies relating to crime previous research has focused on attributions of blame. For example, among the general public attributions of victim responsibility increased in a mock sexual assault case when the victim was perceived to be thin (Clarke & Lawson, 2009). Rogers, Titterington, and Davies (2009) explored blame attributions towards child sexual abuse victims who are disabled to explore whether disabled victims were blamed more for the abuse than non-disabled. They found that negative views about the disabled had a negative association with credibility and positive association with culpability. Victims were perceived as less credible and more culpable and assailants were perceived as less culpable and the offence less serious if the respondent held negative views about the disabled. Davies, Pollard and

Archer (2006) found that sexually promiscuous victims were blamed more for the assault than sexually inexperienced victims. Male participants also attributed more blame on gay victims than straight victims when the offender was male but placed more blame on the straight victim if the assailant was a female.

Bieneck and Krahe (2011) found that more blame was attributed to victims and less to the offender for rape than for robbery. Information regarding the prior relationship between victim and offender increased victim blame in rape cases but not in robbery cases. Two reviews of rape victim blame literature (van der Bruggen & Grubb, 2012; Grubb & Turner, 2014) indicate that males have higher rape myth acceptance and blame victims more than females. In addition, females who violated traditional gender roles or consumed alcohol prior to the attack are blamed more (Grubb & Turner, 2012). The review also indicated that the better the victim knows the offender the more the victim is blamed (van der Bruggen & Grubb, 2014).

In terms of domestic violence, victim blaming attitudes were more common amongst respondents who were older, less educated, thought domestic violence against women was common in society or knew victims of domestic violence (Gracia & Tomas, 2014). In contrast, in Eigenberg and Policastro (2015) those with experience of domestic violence were less likely to blame the woman. Men were more likely to blame a female victim for the violence and conservative attitudes towards women in general increased victim blaming. Perceptions of the aggressor's masculinity/femininity have influenced blame: masculine aggressors were perceived to have initiated the assault compared to feminine aggressors (Russell & Kraus, 2016).

In a policing context, the police appear to attribute most of the blame on perpetrators (Lavoie, Jacob, Hardy & Martin, 1989; Stewart & Maddren, 1997). In child abuse cases the police, in comparison to other professionals (e.g. social workers, nurses, and teachers), blamed the offender more than or equally to other professionals (Hicks & Tite, 1998; Kelley, 1990).

However, differences have been found in attributions of blame in sexual assault and domestic violence research. Victim alcohol consumption has been found to influence victim blame; intoxicated victims are blamed more than sober victims (Stewart & Maddren, 1997). The more intoxicated a victim was perceived to be, the less blame was attributed to the offender and the more blame was attributed to the victim (Schuller & Stewart, 2000). However, factors other than victim drunkenness also influence attributions of responsibility. Contrary to earlier findings, in Goodman-Delahunty and Graham's (2011) study perceived intoxication did not affect police evaluations or responses to sexual assault claims. However, if a victim was perceived as sexually provocative or wearing provocative attire, she was attributed significantly more blame for the alleged assault.

Victim's perceived antagonism in domestic violence cases have also determined how much blame is attributed; if a victim has allegedly antagonised the assailant then they are perceived as somewhat responsible for the assault (Lavoie, Jacob, Hardy & Martin, 1989; Waaland & Keeley, 1985). It is not only victim or situational variables that can affect how police respond to victims. There is some evidence that social-psychological factors may have a role. For example, police officers who reported that their own

work place was sexualised and sexual harassment was a problem were also less victim blaming (Campbell, 1995).

It could be argued that providing specialist training or gaining experience would counteract any personal or situational biases police officers may have in relation to victim blaming. In the UK, the College of Policing has introduced a plan that requires all new recruits to have a degree level qualification or pursue a policing degree. The rationale for this is to modernise the police service and acknowledge the change in the nature of police work, for example, working with complex cases that require specific skills such as cyber crime, domestic abuse and sexual offences. The implication of the plan for victims is that the higher education could counteract new recruits' potential negative personal biases/attitudes through increased knowledge and understanding of victim issues. The plan could also challenge 'cop culture', the unwritten rules, ideas, and attitudes that are based on biases and can influence new recruits' behaviours as they settle into their profession.

Research has investigated the impact of specialist training and/or experience on victim blaming but with mixed results. Officers with more experience with rape cases or those who found their training helpful held more sympathetic views about victims and blamed them less (Campbell, 1995). However, Schuller and Stewart (2000) found no effect of experience on differences between male and female police officers' responses to sexual assault complaints. Lonsway, Welch and Fitzgerald (2001) tested changes in rape-myth acceptance, a scale often used to measure victim blame, after specialised experimental training versus traditional training. No effect of

training condition was found and there were no changes in rape-myth acceptance after the training.

In contrast, Page (2007) found that those officers with experience of less than five investigations held more rape-myth beliefs than those who had investigated more than 21 cases. Furthermore, higher education was related to lower rape-myth beliefs. Page therefore recommended that college educated and experienced officers should be allocated to sexual assault case units. More recently, Sleath and Bull (2012) found no effect of specialist training or years in service on victim blaming. In contrast Darwinkel, Powell and Tidmarsh (2013) reported that ratings of victim blame were significantly lower after training for specialist investigators in sexual assault cases than pre-training.

Whether training and experience helps or not, attributions of blame may have implications for police decision-making. Waaland and Keely (1985) reported the encouraging finding that victim blame did not affect police officers professional decisions. However, victim blame has predicted charging decisions; the lower the blame the higher the likelihood of a charge in domestic violence cases (Stewart & Maddren, 1997).

Similarly, in Stalans and Finn (1995) both experienced and novice officer's beliefs about provocation guided arrest decisions in domestic violence cases. When the wife showed signs of alcoholism and the officer believed she was usually likely to provoke, the officer was less likely to arrest the husband. Those officers who were able to identify repeat abuse, recognised the

husband was dangerous or perceived the wife as more credible than the husband were more likely to recommend a referral to a women's shelter.

McKeown, McEwan and Luebbers (2015) investigated attitudes related to stalking among a community and police officer sample. Their findings suggested that the police was as prone as the members of the general public to believe stalking behaviours were just misunderstood romantic approaches. However, when police judged that stalking was present they tended to take it more seriously than the community sample. It was suggested that it could have been due to experience or knowledge of stalking cases. Shaw, Campbell, Cain and Feeney (2016) found that written police reports of sexual assault cases contained rape myth beliefs and also victim blame for poor investigation after the assault, for example, that the victim did not act like a victim or was uncooperative. Therefore, to some extent, the attributions police officers make could have an effect on how victims are treated. There are theoretical models attempting to explain the link between attributions and behaviours.

5.1.1. Theoretical Considerations

If the police attribute blame to the victim, could the attributions be linked to officers' subsequent helping actions? This idea draws from Weiner's (1980) attribution-affect-action model. It proposes that following perception of an event attribution occurs that produces emotion(s). Emotions then provide directions for subsequent behaviours. The attribution-affect-action model begins with perceptions about controllability and locus, that is, whether or not an event was under personal control. The attribution that is made then leads

to emotions of either pity/sympathy or disgust/anger. Weiner found that if the cause for an event was perceived as internal and controllable then no helping actions were likely to occur because it had elicited disgust/anger that promoted avoidance. If the cause for the event was perceived to be beyond personal control then helping behaviour was likely because feelings of sympathy were triggered in the observer. Thus, affect acted as a mediator between attribution of blame and helping actions.

Weiner's findings have since been tested in further research related to the attribution-affect-action model. Reizenzein (1986) presented a situation where participants perceived either a drunken person or an ill person collapsing on an underground train. There was no direct effect of attribution to helping. However, those in the drunken condition perceived higher controllability and anger towards the subject and lower sympathy and willingness to help compared to those who had perceived an ill person collapsing.

Similarly, Corrigan, Markowitz, Watson, Rowan and Kubiak (2003) explored how attributions, familiarity with mental illness and emotions affected the likelihood of helping and rejecting responses. Helping responses were likely when the cause of mental illness was perceived not to be under the person's control. Rejecting responses were then also less likely. When participants believed the person was responsible for mental illness, for example due to drug abuse, they were less willing to help. Feelings of pity increased helping whereas anger decreased it.

Similar findings were reported in Clarke and Lawson (2009). Higher attributions of fault were related to higher feelings of anger and disgust and

reduction in sympathy. These in turn were related to a decrease in willingness to help a victim in a sexual assault scenario. However, no evidence was found that negative emotions mediated between internal attribution (victim blame) and willingness to help. Sympathy, on the other hand mediated the relationship between external attributions and helping; if the offender was blamed for the assault, this induced feelings of sympathy towards the victim and increased the desire to help.

Another model that is similar to the attribution-affect-action model, because it also describes emotion driven actions, is the stereotype content model (Cuddy, Fiske & Glick, 2007; Fiske, 2012; Fiske, Cuddy, Glick & Xu, 2002). Instead of attribution of blame, the model begins with stereotypes. In this model stereotypes contain two dimensions, warmth and competence. Warmth in this model relates to goals or intentions a person or a group are perceived to have that may or may not correspond to one's own goals. Competence is the perceived ability to achieve goals. If people or groups are perceived as competent, they matter more to the observer than if they were less competent. Competence in these studies was inferred from social status measured by economic success and job prestige (Fiske, 2012).

The dimensions of warmth and competence can be mixed. For example, a person may perceive one group, such as the elderly, as high in warmth but low in competence and affluent people as low in warmth but high in competence. Table 6 describes the mixed stereotype contents. It includes a description of a group, the affect the group may elicit and the tendency for distinctive behaviours towards the group.

Table 6

Mixed Stereotype Content Model (Cuddy, Fiske & Glick, 2007)

	Low Competence	High Competence
High Warmth	Group: Pitied Affect: Pity, sympathy Behaviour: Active facilitation, passive harm	Group: Admired Affect: Admiration Behaviour: Active and passive facilitation
Low Warmth	Group: Hated Affect: Contempt, anger, hate Behaviour: Active and passive harm	Group: Envied Affect: Envy, jealousy Behaviour: Passive facilitation, active harm

These mixed stereotypes result in emotions that can shape behaviour tendencies. Warmth stereotypes have been found to elicit active facilitation: direct efforts in helping, such as assistance or defending. Passive facilitation refers to less direct efforts; convenient co-operation or that interaction is tolerated but not desired. Passive harm is marked by dismissiveness and disregarding the needs of a group. In active harm, such as bullying and harassment, there is intent to hurt (Cuddy, Fiske & Glick, 2007).

In police investigations the stereotype content model and the attribution-affect-action model could have implications for the victims of crime. Stewart and Maddren (1997) reported findings that victim blaming predicted charging decisions; the less the police blamed the victim, the higher the likelihood of charging the perpetrator. An observational study found a relationship between victim characteristics and police comforting behaviour (Foley & Terrill, 2008); for example, women and those who displayed signs of depression or were

involved with a conflict were more likely to be comforted. Although it was not specified to the observers what comforting actions would be, it does indicate that victim characteristics and emotions that they elicit could be related to helping actions. When victims displayed anger towards the police fewer helping behaviours were recorded (Martin, 1997). Given the victim's negative reaction towards the police, it appears that it may have elicited emotions that lead to a decrease in desire to help.

It therefore appears that the attribution-affect-action model and stereotypes in terms of warmth and competence may provide explanations as to how the police may deal with victims of crime. Police attributions of culpability and victim characteristics may influence helping actions through emotional responses.

5.1.2. Aims and Objectives

The aim of the study was to explore whether the police make attributions that are linked to their helping intentions (keeping victims updated, referring them to Victim Support and offering their direct contact details) via officers' emotional responses. If the police attributions or victim variables are linked to helping actions this could provide explanations as to why certain actions that victims expect do not occur. Therefore, taking previous research into consideration, the focus of the present study was to investigate whether the police are more or less likely to offer help to the victims under certain circumstances. The questions the study addressed were:

1) Will attribution of blame and perceived victim reactivity affect helping behaviour intentions, such as, providing further updates, referral of victims to

Victim Support, and offering direct telephone number and/or email so that the victim can make contact?

2) Will experience in criminal investigation have an effect on helping behaviours?

3) Will perceptions of victim warmth and competence result in differences in police behavioural tendencies?

4) Will perceived warmth and competence mediate the relationship between attribution of blame and helping behaviours?

If these police actions are related to how the police perceive victims it could explain the prevalence or lack of actions that are related to victim satisfaction, thus bridging the victim satisfaction research with police perceptions about the victims.

5.2. Method

5.2.1. Participants

A total of 130 serving police officers from a Metropolitan Police Service borough were recruited for the study, 90 males and 33 females. Seven officers preferred not to disclose their gender. The majority were Police Constables (103) followed by Police Sergeants (10), Detective Constables (3), Inspectors (2), and Police Community Support Officers (2). Ten officers had omitted their rank. Fifty-three officers chose not to disclose their age. Of the remainder, they were aged between 19 and 57 years ($M = 31.4, SD = 8.18$). Service years ranged from 6 months to 29 years, with a mean of 6.45 years ($SD = 5.86$). Thirteen officers had not disclosed their years in service. The

number of cases where participants had been in charge of the investigation ranged from 0 to over a 1000 (median = 20, mode = 0).

5.2.2. Design

The research used a between-participants factorial and correlational design. The factorial design had two factors with two levels (2x2): victim culpability (non-culpable/culpable) and victim reactivity (negative reaction/non-negative reaction), thus there were four conditions. The dependent variables were various helping behaviours: contacting multiple victims individually, keeping regular contact with victim, referral to victim support and offering direct contact details. In addition, the dependent variables included perceived active and passive help or harm tendencies among police officers: providing further information and/or advice, providing contact details, belief that contact with victims is tolerated but not desired, contacting victims only if necessary and ignoring/neglecting victims.

5.2.3. Materials

The vignette was a short description of an aftermath of a burglary followed by 21 questions (Appendix J). Originally the design included a robbery scenario in a view to compare crime types, however, it was abandoned to simplify the design. Burglary was chosen because it is considered a volume crime and therefore considered to represent a large group of victims. It was also expected that most officers would have dealt with a burglary at one point in their career. The factors in the vignette were manipulated according to the condition (manipulation in bold):

*John, Sarah and Agnieszka are housemates in a shared property. The house has been burgled when no one was at home. **It appears the backdoor was unlocked** (culpable condition) / **All doors and windows were locked** (non-culpable). John and Sarah report they have items missing. Agnieszka is visiting family abroad and is not expected to return for another month but John has sent her a text message that they have been burgled. **John is angry as he thinks the police response was unacceptably slow and has demanded a SOCO** [a Scenes of Crime Officer who collect forensic evidence] **visit and someone to collect CCTV located near the house. He expects to be contacted on a regular basis by a senior officer** (negative reaction) / **John was shocked and worried and hopes something can be done to catch the burglar(s)** (non-negative reaction).*

In the victim culpability condition participants are informed that a window or door was not locked. In the low culpability condition all doors and windows are locked. In terms of victim reactivity, in the negative reaction condition the victim appears angry, demanding or dismissive of police efforts. In the non-negative reaction condition the victim appears worried. With the exception of these manipulations, the burglary descriptions were identical across conditions. There were four conditions; culpable/negative reaction; culpable/non-negative reaction, non-culpable/non-negative reaction and non-culpable/negative reaction.

The vignette was based on a real-life case. Choosing a real-life case was important in order to achieve a level of credibility, as police officers are familiar with various types of crime. The vignette was followed by 21 questions relating to attribution of victim culpability, self-reported likelihood of helping behaviours, and ratings for perceived warmth and competence of victims and police behavioural tendencies.

5.2.3.1. Reliability tests. Cronbach's α was calculated for each of the two-item scales that measured police perceptions and emotions; sympathy (.502), aggravation (.855), competence (.589) and warmth (.714). Although the Cronbach's α was weak for sympathy and competence, these items have been used in previous research (Cuddy, Fiske & Glick, 2007).

5.2.4. Measures

The attribution scale (Appendix J, Q1-6) was based on measures used in Weiner (1980) and Reizenzein (1986) and modified for the study. The original scale had three items for controllability, sympathy and aggravation. In the present study these were reduced to two items for each variable.

5.2.4.1. Victim culpability. Victim culpability, or blame, was measured with '*How responsible do you think is John for his present condition?*' on a 5-point Likert-type scale, 1 = *Not at all*, 2= *Not very*, 3= *Somewhat*, 4= *Very much*, and 5 = *Completely responsible*; and '*I think that it is John's own fault that he is in his present situation*' (1 = *Completely disagree*, 2 = *Disagree*, 3 = *Somewhat agree*, 4 = *Very much agree*, and 5 = *Completely agree*).

5.2.4.2. Sympathy. Sympathy towards the victim was measured with '*How much sympathy would you feel for John?*' again on 5 - point Likert-type scale: 1= *None at all*, 2= *Not much*, 3= *Undecided*, 4 = *Some* and 5 = *Very much* and '*How much concern would you feel for John?*' (1 = *None at all*, 5 = *Very much*).

5.2.4.3. Aggravation. Aggravation towards the victim was measured with '*How irritated would you feel by John?*' and '*I would feel aggravated by John*', 1= *Not at all*, 2= *Not very*, 3= *Undecided*, 4= *Somewhat*, and 5 = *Very much*.

Omitted items included references to controllability of the cause of the situation, anger, and pity. In terms of controllability, the original item was considered to be open to interpretation because the cause could be interpreted to be either the unlocked door or the burglary itself. The items with direct references to anger and pity ('*I would feel pity for..*' and '*How angry would you feel at..*') were omitted because of high emotional load. It was considered that police officers might not respond well to highly emotional language, especially when they were asked to position themselves according to their professional role.

5.2.4.4. Helping behaviours. Police helping behaviours (Appendix J, Q7-10) were measured by officers rating the likelihood that they would contact each victim individually, contact them even if there was no new information, offer to refer them to Victim Support and provide them with work email and/or direct telephone number (1= *Very unlikely*, 2= *Somewhat unlikely*, 3= *Undecided*, 4= *Somewhat likely*, 5= *Very likely*). Contact between police and victim was considered as an essential helping behaviour because contact would allow information to be passed on and to give the victim an opportunity to seek assistance or information if needed. Previous research had also provided evidence of the importance of contact. Referral to victim support was perceived as helpful because the support agencies are designed to offer practical and emotional support the police officers may not have skills for or time to provide.

Collectively, these helping behaviours are also ones that victims have the right to expect under the Victims' Code.

5.2.4.5. Warmth and competence scale. In relation to stereotype contents model (warmth and competence), this scale was modified from Cuddy, Fiske and Glick (2007) (Appendix J, Q12-15). Participants were asked to indicate how they thought most police officers view victims. Adopting a third person position was thought to be more likely to elicit covert stereotypes and/or culture within the police and to avoid social desirability bias in responding. Perceptions about victim competence were measured by asking how competent and confident burglary victims were perceived to be to protect themselves. Victim warmth was measured by rating victim sincerity and friendliness towards the police. All ratings were on a 5-point Likert-type scale 1= *Not at all*, 2= *Not very*, 3= *Undecided*, 4= *Somewhat*, and 5= *Extremely*.

5.2.4.6. Behavioural tendency scale. Behavioural tendency items were adopted and modified from Cuddy, Fiske and Glick (2007) and related to active and passive help and passive harm (Appendix J, Q16-21). Items relating to active harm were omitted from the original because they were not considered to be suitable for police participants. The original items referred to fighting or attacking a person and in the current research would have inappropriately required the police to rate how likely it was for the police to attack or fight a victim.

Participants were asked for their view how police officers generally behaved towards burglary victims. Items for active facilitation were: [police officers generally] '*Provide further information and/or advice throughout the secondary*

investigation until case is closed' and *'Provide them work email and/or direct telephone number'*. Passive facilitation (undesired contact and co-operation) items were *'Believe that contact with them is tolerated but not desired'* and *'Contact victims only if necessary'*. Passive harm was measured with *'Ignore/neglect victims'*. Again, the questions were worded to allow officers to respond from a non-personal position. The responses were given on a 5-point Likert-type scale, 1= *Very unlikely*, 2= *Somewhat unlikely*, 3= *Undecided*, 4= *Somewhat likely*, and 5= *Very likely*.

Demographic data was also collected: participants' gender, age, the total length of police service and an approximation of the number of cases where the participant had acted as the officer in charge of the case (OIC). Length of service and number of OIC cases were considered as indications for participants' experience.

5.2.5. Procedure

Serving police officers were recruited initially via internal email and later in person during officer training days in July 2015. Each participant was given an information sheet, consent form and debrief form (Appendices K, L, and M) and assigned to one of the four conditions. Two of the conditions had 33 participants and two had 32. As the minimum number of participants recommended for each cell is 20 (Simmons, Nelson & Simonsohn, 2011), the number of participants was adequate for analysis.

It became clear during data collection that some of the items were problematic. Several officers commented that they could not be sure what the first culpability item (*'How responsible do you think is John for his present*

condition?) meant and interpreted it to either mean John's culpability for the burglary or his emotional state. Due to the confusion the item had caused it was considered not to be an appropriate measure for blame and a decision was made not to use it. Therefore responses to the second blame item (*'I think that it is John's own fault that he is in his present situation'*) were used for analysis.

Measuring experience via number of OIC cases was also problematic because several officers indicated they interpreted the question in different ways. Some believed they had been asked to indicate how many OIC cases they had *at the present time* whilst others had indicated their career total. Therefore if an officer had indicated zero OIC cases, it could mean they did not have any at the present time but it could also indicate that they had previously been the OIC in several cases. Many officers chose not to answer the question at all, therefore it was difficult to ascertain whether they had no OIC experience or they did not want to disclose that information. Several officers also commented they could not remember the number of OIC cases they had had and therefore simply guessed. Some had only stated a non-specific number, for example '10+' or '1000+'. Due to the imprecise responses it was decided that experience would be measured from service years and not from the number of OIC cases.

5.2.6. Data handling

The variables were subject to distribution normality tests for skewness, kurtosis and outliers in the same way as for Study 3. Extreme kurtosis (less than -2 or exceeding +2) was detected in blame score for non-culpable/non-

negative condition, 4.773, Standard Error .809. For this variable Kruskal-Wallis' non-parametric between-participants test is reported. Extreme kurtosis was also detected for passive harm variables 'ignoring victims' (2.699, Standard Error .425) and 'neglecting victims' (2.765, Standard Error .422). These variables were used in correlational analysis and the nonparametric Spearman's *rho* test is reported.

5.3. Results

First the ANOVA results are reported: the differences in blame between the conditions, followed by the effect of culpability and victim reactivity on helping behaviours. The correlation results describe the relationships between helping and aggravation, sympathy and officer experience. The correlations between active and passive behavioural tendencies and warmth/competence are reported as well as the mediating effect of aggravation between blame and helping.

5.3.1. Differences in Blame Between Conditions

A one-way ANOVA revealed significant differences in victim blame score between the four conditions, $F(3,124) = 3.15$, $p = .027$, partial $\eta^2 = .071$. Levene's test of inequality indicated that group variances were equal, $p = .172$. Tukey's post-hoc test indicated significant differences in the blame score between those in Culpable/negative reaction condition ($M = 2.44$, $SD = .84$) and Non-culpable/non-negative reaction condition ($M = 1.69$, $SD = .90$). Due to extreme kurtosis in the non-culpable/non-negative condition in blame, the test was repeated using non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis one-way between

participants test. This did not alter the results; significant differences in blame across the conditions were found: $\chi^2(3, N = 128) = 12.23, p = .007$.

A statistically significant culpability main effect was found on the blame score, Kurskal-Wallis $\chi^2(1, N = 128) = 8.42, p = .004$. Respondents in the culpable condition ($M = 1.89, SD = 1.09$) rated victim blame higher than those in the non-culpable condition ($M = 2.28, SD = .88$). This was expected and the analysis was done to check that the blame manipulation in the vignettes elicited a difference in responses. A non-significant finding would have indicated that the manipulation for blame had not been sufficient.

A borderline significant main effect of victim reaction on the blame score was found, Kurskal-Wallis $\chi^2(1, N = 128) = 3.83, p = .050$. Participants in the negative reaction condition gave higher blame scores ($M = 2.27, SD = .1.06$) than those in non-negative reaction condition ($M = 1.91, SD = .92$).

5.3.2. The Effect of Victim Culpability and Victim Reaction on Helping Behaviours

The first question this research aimed to answer was whether culpability and perceived victim reactivity affect helping behaviour intentions. Results are reported separately for each helping behaviour; contacting multiple victims individually, regular contact, referral to victim support and provision of officer's work telephone number or email address.

5.3.2.1. Likelihood of contacting victims individually. A two-way ANOVA was conducted on likelihood of contacting multiple victims individually. Culpability and reactivity were independent variables and helping

behaviour the outcome variable. Levene's test for equality of variances was non-significant, $p = .359$. Culpability did not affect likelihood of contact, $p = .18$. Perceived victim reactivity, however, influenced the likelihood of contact, $F(1,123) = 5.85$, $p < .017$, partial $\eta^2 = .045$. The likelihood of contacting victims individually was higher when the victim reaction was non-negative ($M = 3.77$, $SD = 1.32$) than negative ($M = 3.21$, $SD = 1.36$). There was no significant interaction between these two factors, $p = .77$.

5.3.2.2. Likelihood of contacting victims regularly. A two-way ANOVA was conducted for the effect of victim culpability and reactivity on likelihood of contacting victims regularly even if there was no new information. Levene's test was non-significant, $p = .203$. Culpability did not affect likelihood of regular contact, $p = .16$. Victim reaction again influenced the likelihood of contact, $F(1,124) = 5.63$, $p = .019$, partial $\eta^2 = .043$. Regular contact was more likely when the victim reaction was non-negative ($M = 3.22$, $SD = 1.43$) than negative ($M = 2.66$, $SD = 1.32$) There was no significant interaction between culpability and victim reaction, $p = .95$.

5.3.2.3. Likelihood of offering to refer victim to Victim Support. Victim culpability did not affect likelihood of offering referral to Victim support, $p = .31$ and neither did the victim's reaction, $p = .35$. There was no significant interaction between these two factors, $p = .96$.

5.3.2.4. Likelihood of providing work email address or telephone number for victims to make contact. Victim culpability did not affect the likelihood of providing a work email address or telephone number, $p = .06$, however, victim reaction did: $F(1,123) = 11.41$, $p = .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .085$.

Likelihood of providing contact details was higher when victim displayed a non-negative ($M = 4.08$, $SD = 1.35$) reaction than a negative reaction ($M = 3.19$, $SD = 1.70$). However, Levene's test indicated that equal variances could not be assumed. To overcome the violation of the assumption of homogeneity of variance, an independent samples t-test was performed. This reports statistics when equal variances are not assumed (Dancey & Reidy, 2002). The t-test result did not alter the original result; victim reactivity had an effect on likelihood of police providing their contact details; $t(117.96) = 3.25$, $p = .001$.

In summary, culpability did not appear to have an effect on helping behaviours. On the other hand, the manner in which a victim reacted had an impact on the likelihood of performing helping behaviours. When the victim showed negativity towards the police, the scores for the likelihood of contacting victims individually, regular contact, and provision of police work telephone number/ email address were less than when the victim had a non-negative reaction.

5.3.3. The Relationship Between Police Aggravation or Sympathy and Helping Behaviours

Officers' emotional reactions to the victims and the relationship with helping behaviours were explored. The emotional responses were aggravation and sympathy.

Officer aggravation towards the victim was negatively correlated with contacting victims on a regular basis with a small effect size, $r = -.23$, $r^2 = .084$, $N = 128$, $p = .010$. A medium strength negative relationship was found

between aggravation and providing contact details, $r = -.33$, $r^2 = .11$, $N = 127$, $p < .001$. There was no relationship between aggravation and contacting multiple victims individually ($p = .521$) or offering to refer them to Victim Support ($p = .331$).

An opposite direction result was obtained for the relationship between officer sympathy and helping behaviour. Officer sympathy was positively related, with a small effect size, to likelihood of contacting victims on a regular basis, $r = .23$, $r^2 = .005$, $N = 128$, $p = .008$ and offering contact details $r = -.20$, $r^2 = .004$, $N = 128$, $p = .024$. Sympathy was not related to either contacting multiple victims individually ($p = .235$) or offering to refer them to Victim Support ($p = .177$).

In order to explore whether aggravation or sympathy was a better predictor of likelihood of providing contact details and keeping regular contact with the victims, further regression analyses were conducted.

A model with aggravation and sympathy as independent variables and likelihood of providing contact details as the dependent variable was found to be statistically significant explaining 11% of the variance in likelihood of providing contact details: $F(2, 126) = 8.80$, $p < .001$, $R = .353$, $\bar{R}^2 = .11$. The best predictor was aggravation $\beta = -.298$, $p = .001$. Sympathy was not a predictor in this model, $p = .13$.

In terms of aggravation and sympathy predicting likelihood of regular contact, the model was statistically significant explaining 7.1% of the variance in likelihood of providing contact details: $F(2, 127) = 5.89$, $p = .004$, $R = .293$, $\bar{R}^2 = .071$. The best predictor was equally aggravation $\beta = -.185$, $p = .038$ and

sympathy $\beta = .189$, $p = .033$ because the β -values are almost identical but in opposite directions.

In summary, aggravation appeared to have an effect on helping. When the officers felt irritated and/or aggravated, the likelihood of contacting victims on a regular basis and providing them with contact details decreased. In contrast, an increase in sympathy also increased the likelihood of regular contact and providing contact details to the victim.

5.3.4. Officer Experience and Helping Behaviours

Originally the second research question related to officers' experience with criminal investigation and its effect on helping behaviours. Due to the difficulty in interpreting experience from the intended item (number of OIC cases) the research question was modified to test whether experience in terms of service years had a relationship with helping behaviours.

The length of service was not related to the likelihood of contacting multiple victims individually ($p = .650$), likelihood of offering to refer to Victim Support ($p = .832$), or providing contact details ($p = .876$). The relationship between experience and contacting victims on a regular basis approached significance for a small negative correlation, $r = -.18$, $N = 115$, $p = .051$.

In terms of perceived general police behavioural tendencies, length of service was not correlated with active or passive help behaviours (all $ps > .450$.) A small positive relationship was found between service years and perceived passive harm tendencies of ignoring victims ($r_s = .21$, $N = 116$, $p = .024$) and neglecting victims ($r_s = .28$, $N = 128$, $p = .003$) meaning that as years in

service increased so did the score for the perceived likelihood of passive harm tendencies towards victims among police officers in general. Recall, the respondents were asked how they thought police in general behaved, and not how they personally behaved towards the victims.

5.3.5. Correlations Between Warmth and Competence and Behavioural Tendencies

The third research question tested whether general perceptions about victim warmth and competence resulted in differences in police behavioural tendencies. The mean victim competence rating was not related to any of the helping behaviours nor with the perceived active or passive police behavioural tendencies ($ps > .204$).

However, the mean score for victim warmth was positively correlated to the likelihood of police contact on a regular basis even if there was no new information ($r = .19$, $r^2 = .036$, $N = 127$, $p = .033$). Perceived victim warmth also had a small positive relationship with likelihood of offering a referral to Victim Support ($r = .18$, $r^2 = .032$, $N = 127$, $p = .040$) and the perceived police tendency to provide information and/or advice ($r = .22$, $r^2 = .048$, $N = 126$, $p = .013$).

5.3.6. Mediation Analysis

The final research question required a mediation analysis to test whether perceived warmth and competence mediated the relationship between blame and victim reactivity and helping behaviours. The analysis was conducted using PROCESS (Hayes, 2013), an add-on tool for SPSS. For the purpose of

the analysis the four helping behaviour items were combined as a scale (Cronbach's $\alpha = .68$) and a mean score was calculated. In PROCESS the significance of indirect (mediation) effect is indicated by bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals: should the upper and lower confidence interval range contain a zero then the indirect effect is not significant at .05 level. In addition PROCESS performs Sobel's test to indicate whether a change in the relationship between the independent and dependent variable is statistically significant after the mediator variable is introduced to the model. Model number 4 was used with the number of bootstraps 1000.

No indirect effects were found for warmth and competence. Perceived warmth did not mediate the relationship between victim reactivity and helping behaviours [LCI = $-.080$, UCI = $.086$] nor between blame and helping behaviours [LCI $-.081$, UCI $.003$]. Perceived victim competence did not mediate the relationship between victim reactivity and helping behaviours [LCI $-.044$, UCI $.032$] nor between blame and helping behaviours [LCI $-.018$, UCI $.024$].

In accordance with the attribution-affect-action framework, another mediation analysis was carried out for blame, aggravation and help to determine whether the relationship between blame and help was mediated by aggravation and/or sympathy. An indirect mediation effect was found for aggravation [LCI $-.204$, UCI $-.015$]. As Figure 1 on the following page demonstrates, the standardised regression coefficient between blame and help changed when controlling for aggravation. The prior significant relationship between blame and help disappeared once aggravation was added to the model. The conditions for mediation were met: blame was a

significant predictor of aggravation ($\beta = .46$, $t = 5.88$, $p < .001$) as well as help ($\beta = -.178$, $t = -2.01$, $p = .047$). Aggravation in turn was a significant predictor of help ($\beta = -.26$, $t = -3.02$, $p = .03$)

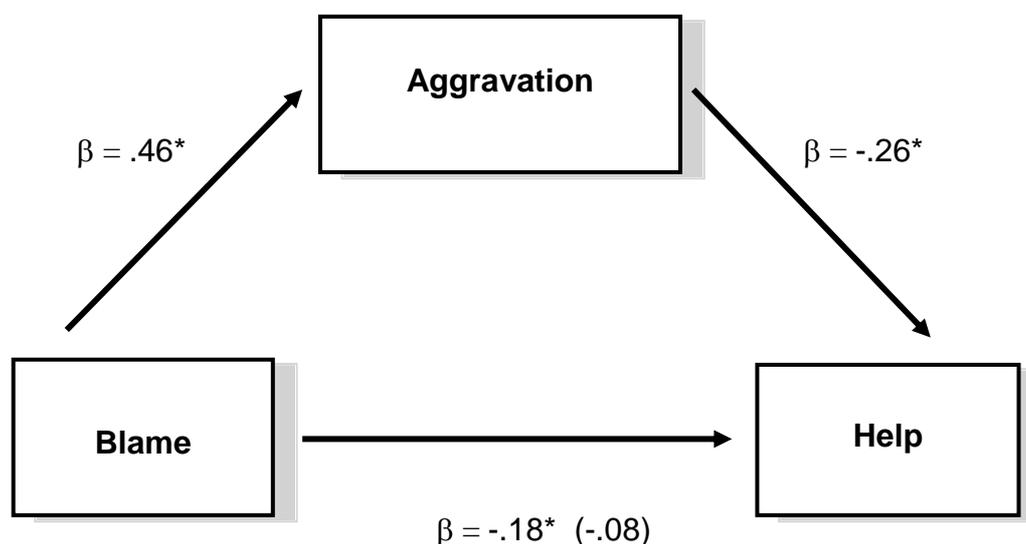


Figure 1. Standardised regression coefficients for the relationship between Blame and Help as mediated by Aggravation. In parentheses the standardised regression coefficient between Blame and Help after adding Aggravation to the model. * $p < .05$.

As blame no longer had a significant relationship with help after aggravation was introduced, a Sobel Z-test revealed the change to be significant $Z = -2.06$, $p = .04$, indicating complete mediation. Aggravation therefore significantly mediated the relationship between blame and likelihood of helping. No mediation effect was found for sympathy, $Z = -.180$, $p = .07$.

5.4. Discussion

Study 1, 2, and 3 explored factors that may affect victim satisfaction. Due to the importance of certain actions to the victims, such as regular updates and contact, the current third study aimed to investigate whether police officers

psychological processes affect their helping behaviours towards the victims. This was important as contacting victims and keeping them updated is a requirement under the Victim's Code policy. The focus was on blame, feelings of sympathy or aggravation towards the victim and perceived warmth and competence.

5.4.1. Attribution of Blame

Attributions of blame could have implications for police-victim encounters, particularly if police decisions lead to the omission of helping actions towards the victims. This in turn could affect victim satisfaction and overall attitudes towards the police. Compared to other professions, police appear to attribute most of the blame on perpetrators (Lavoie, Jacob, Hardy & Martin, 1989; Stewart & Maddren, 1997). However, previous research has found mixed results as to how blame affects decision-making.

In Waaland and Keeley (1985) victim blame did not affect police officers professional decisions. However, arrest decisions have been affected by belief about victim provocation or blame (Stalans and Finn, 1995). In Goodman-Delahunty and Graham's (2011) study perceived intoxication did not affect police evaluations or responses to sexual assault claims. In McKeown, McEwan and Luebbers (2015) the police were as prone as a sample from the general public to believe stalking behaviours were misunderstood romantic approaches. However, when police recognised stalking had occurred they tended to take it more seriously than the community sample. Shaw, Campbell, Cain and Feeney (2016) found that

written police reports of sexual assault cases contained rape myth beliefs and poor investigations were attributed to victim's behaviour.

The current study found that attribution of blame did not influence any of the helping behaviours of contacting multiple victims individually, contacting them regularly even if there was no new information, referrals to support agency nor providing victim with officers contact details. This is an encouraging finding; it appears that the police officers in this sample were able to ignore their possible psychological bias and attributions of blame when they were assessing the likelihood of different helping actions. It also implies compliance with the Victims' Code. An opposite finding would have indicated that personal bias or attitudes in relation to culpability would have been more influential than policy on helping behaviours.

Attributing blame for the burglary to the victim did occur in the current data; victim blame was higher when the victim reacted in a negative way towards the police (complained about response time and demanded investigative actions) than when the victim reaction was more of worry and hope that the police could do something to catch the burglar. It was victim reaction towards the police that appeared to matter in service provision.

5.4.2. Victim Reactivity

Victim reactivity influenced all helping behaviours except referral to Victim Support. The lack of influence on referral could be explained by policy; regardless of the situation each victim of crime should be asked whether they wish to be referred. In terms of reactivity, when the victim reaction was non-negative, individual contact, contacting on regular basis and providing the

officer's telephone number or email address were all more likely than when victim reaction was negative.

The effect of victim reactivity on police behaviours could be explained in relation to perceptions about warmth (victim sincerity and friendliness towards police, adapted from Fiske, Cuddy, Glick & Xu, 2002). Victims who appear worried and non-demanding may be perceived in a more positive light than victims who are perceived to be negative. As such, there may be more willingness to help. Indeed, the warmth evaluations were positively related to regular contact, referral and perceived general tendency to provide information or advice.

The role of perceived victim reactivity could be problematic for police-victim encounters. Previous research has found that when the victim displayed anger towards police, fewer helping actions were recorded (Martin, 2007). However, victim reaction could be driven by their distress and may not be intended as negativity towards the police. Should it be perceived as such then likelihood of contact decreases and potentially causes more distress for the victim and affects their views about the police. Foley and Terrill's (2008) observational study found that victims who displayed signs of depression were more likely to be comforted. The current results support this to an extent; a more subdued reaction increases the likelihood of maintaining contact with the victim.

5.4.3. Police Aggravation and Sympathy

Further to perceived victim reactivity, it appears that police officers' own emotional reactions towards the victim influence their behaviour. In particular,

the level of aggravation and sympathy they feel towards the victim may play a role in helping the victim. The regression model indicated that aggravation and sympathy equally predicted the likelihood of regular contact. Aggravation alone also predicted provision of contact details. This result indicated that police should be mindful of their negative reaction towards victims as it may have an influence on their decision to provide contact details to victims. In this model, sympathy in terms of how much sympathy and concern officers felt for the victim, played no role in the likelihood of providing contact details although on its own there was a positive correlation. It could be argued that in order to keep regular contact with the victim the police should make efforts to disregard negative feelings toward the victim and always provide contact details. In the event that the police are not pro-active in contacting victims, at least the victim has the opportunity to contact the police.

As there were differences in blame according to victim reactivity but no direct effect of blame on helping behaviours, similar to Reisenzein's (1986) findings, it was considered appropriate to conduct mediation analysis. There was a small correlation between blame and help; therefore mediation could explain the lack of direct effect. In Corrigan, et al. (2003) the effects of responsibility disappeared when anger and pity towards the target were considered in relation to helping.

Further, this was an opportunity to test for evidence for the attribution-affect-action model (Weiner, 1980) in a policing context. A mediation effect was found; the relationship between blame and helping was mediated by police aggravation towards the victim. This was in contrast to Reisenzein (1986) who found no evidence that negative emotions mediated between victim

blame and willingness to help. It must be noted that Reizenzein's scenario related to sexual assault. In the current study the officers were presented with a burglary scenario and attribution of blame was perhaps easier to make than if they had considered a sexual assault case where it might be very difficult to blame or feel aggravation towards the victim.

Therefore, evidence for the attribution-affect-action model was found in the current study in terms of the mediating effect of a negative affect. However, it is interesting to note that positive affect (sympathy) did not play a role in mediation. It is possible that if police attributes some blame to the victim and the victim is perceived negatively, this is enough to reduce service provision. On the other hand, blame and helping are not mediated by feeling sympathy towards the victim because as blame increased, sympathy decreased and in order to increase helping, sympathy had to increase as well.

5.4.4. Warmth and Competence

In terms of the stereotype content model, perceived victim competence to protect themselves was not related to helping behaviour. Competence was not related to the perceived general likelihood of active or passive help or harm behaviours either. As mentioned before, warmth perception was positively related to likelihood of regular contact, referral, and to the perception that, in general, police provide information and/or advice to victims of crime. This is not unexpected in the view that aggravation toward the victim was related to a decrease in help. Viewing someone as friendly and sincere would be expected to produce the opposite result: an increase in help.

Warmth and competence were not mediators between blame and helping. In general, measuring warmth and competence as indicators of a stereotype content has not been used in the police context in previous research. The measure itself may have been problematic within the police-victim context. The results do not support the notion that competence stereotypes determine passive behaviours such as reduction in neglect or elicit passive help (Cuddy, Fiske & Glick, 2007). As people infer competence from economic status (Fiske, Cuddy, Glick & Xu, 2002) this may not apply to police when they make competence assessments. It is possible that the police do not perceive that there is a stereotypical burglary victim because anyone could become a victim of such a crime. Police may not perceive that burglary victims as a group possess particular attributes. Therefore, the competence rating does not relate to blame or behaviours because it refers to the group in general rather than an individual.

In terms of warmth perceptions, the results are easier to interpret because warmth (friendliness and sincerity) was more of a description about how people behave. Warmth could be viewed to reflect a non-negative reaction to the police and perhaps the officers were simply describing their personal experience with victims rather than describing a specific group. It follows, as per the positive correlation between non-negative victim reaction and helping behaviours, that warmth ratings positively correlated with helping actions (contact regularly, refer and provide information or advice) and were possibly based on officers' personal experiences.

5.4.5. Officer Experience

Police experience measured by their service years was not related to any of the helping behaviours. However, interestingly experience was associated with perceived passive harm tendencies of ignoring victims and neglecting them. Previous research has focused on the relationship between victim blaming and police experience and training particularly in sexual assault cases with mixed results. Some studies have indicated a positive impact of experience or training on attitudes (Campbell, 1995; Darwinkel, Powell & Tidmarsh, 2013; Page, 2007) whilst others have found no effect (Goodman-Delahunty & Graham, 2011; Lonsway, Welch & Fitzgerald, 2001; Sleath & Bull, 2012). The current study aimed to test for behaviours that are more or less likely to occur as officers gain experience in their profession.

It would be a reasonable assumption that as experience increases, police officers gain more understanding of the effects of crime and what is important to victims and this in turn would result in helping tendencies. The results did not support this assumption. The positive correlation between experience and passive harm may reflect professional apathy or fatigue. It could also simply indicate a different focus or priorities in investigations, for example, clearing crime rates over the treatment of victims. It could also indicate that the police perceive that they are forced into the role of a supporter, which contradicts the ideas they have about their profession and resistance follows in terms of not complying with policy. *"I joined to be a police officer, not a social worker"* is a sentence the researcher has heard in private conversation several times over the years. It is not suggested that supporting victims the way support services and therapists do is a role for the police. Those services require specialist

skills that are not part of police training or the job description and as such should not be expected from the police. The Victims' Code sets the minimum service victims can expect however, the policies do not always have the desired impact on professional practices if they are considered as a burden or perceived to go against the idea of what police work should entail. Indeed, the Criminal Justice Joint Inspection (2015) found that officers were unclear how they should keep in touch with victims and to ensure they are supported. Often victim contact was perceived as 'another bureaucratic requirement'.

There appears to be confusion as to what the role of the police actually is; Constabularies now refer to 'Service' whereas internally the idea of being a 'Force' with a level of disregard for victim-focused policing may still prevail. Attitudes change slowly and it could take sometime before victim expectations are met - despite existing policy. Perhaps the new plans regarding degrees for new officers will have an impact on compliance with victim-focused policies. As a minimum, police recruitment and training should always emphasise the importance of the Victims' Code to new recruits and ensure that they understand that compliance with it is an essential part of their role as police officers.

It is also important to note that the item measuring behavioural tendencies asked the participants to respond from a general perspective rather than offering personal views. Whether they had described a general culture that exists within the police or their own personal views, the trend is somewhat worrying. The less experienced officers may adopt the more experienced officers as role models or learn from their way of work. Should the more experienced officers display any passive harm related tendencies towards the

victims then there is a risk that these tendencies are passed on. Perhaps early in the officers career eagerness to help is more explicit but behavioural tendencies are learnt from other more experienced colleagues. This has policy implications, particularly in relation to officer training and management in that both remain supportive of ideas that facilitate police-victim encounters, for example, continuous encouragement to keep contact with victims.

On the other hand, should the results reflect general attitudes that the more experienced officers have witnessed during their career, then there is also a possibility that ignoring or neglecting witnesses may occur across experience levels. In this case it could also be that the less experienced officers have behavioural tendencies for passive harm. Perhaps due to the lack of experience they are not fully aware of the psychological consequences of crime or what behaviours victims value in their encounters with the police. This again is an issue for police training.

Overall, the current study revealed the role of police officers emotional response in helping actions and how perceptions about victim demeanour could also relate to helping. Aggravation reduced the likelihood of regular contact and provision of contact details. Perceived victim reactivity also had an effect; victims with a negative reaction towards the police were less likely to be contacted. This has implications for police-victim encounters. As victims appreciate contact with the police, this contact is to an extent subject to officers' psychological responses that the officers may not be aware of. A vicious cycle may present itself; victims' perhaps unintended reaction that is perceived as negative towards the police reduces the likelihood of contact when it might be just the thing that the victim needs from the police. No

contact further induces dissatisfaction with the police. In order to stop this cycle, more training and/or raising awareness regarding police psychology may be required.

5.4.6. Limitations and Future Directions

The current study does not come without limitations. The design used a vignette rather than a real-life situation. This is an issue because there may be a difference between how officers intend to behave and how they actually behave. Further, reading a description of an event or person's reaction may not have the same emotional impact as a real-life situation. Although it might not be possible to investigate police attributions in a real-life scenario, there is a risk that reading a description of a crime does not represent what normally occurs. The description of the burglary, however, was based on a real-life case in an attempt to achieve the highest credibility and to elicit true responses.

As mentioned before, the wording of some of the items caused confusion and had to be excluded from analysis. In retrospect, piloting the survey may have revealed this issue early on. Piloting did not take place because an opportunity to collect data from a large number of police officers arose at short notice whereby data collection was possible on limited consecutive days and as such there would not have been sufficient time to analyse a pilot study.

Particularly the items relating to competence may not be pertinent to police studies because victims' competence may not be a factor at all in the sense described in Fiske's work. If competence assessment is drawn from economic status, that was not possible in the current study because no information was

given about victims' income or employment status. Police may not hold stereotypes about burglary victims. That is not to say that stereotypes towards other crime victims do not occur but this was not investigated in the current study. Perhaps more salient stereotype contents exist among police towards offenders.

Finally, one cannot be sure how much responses reflected what police officers do in a real-life situation or if socially acceptable responding took place. Officers were encouraged to respond honestly and were assured of anonymity. In addition, for some items, they were asked to respond from a general point of view to reduce social desirability but with a hope it would elicit implicit tendencies. In any event, there was the possibility that responses reflected what police officers felt they are supposed to do or wish they could do. In other words, there was a possibility of response bias to indicate what they should be doing under current policy (Victims' Code) rather than what they are actually doing. Perhaps future research could include open responses following scale items to determine what realistically occurs in a typical police-victim encounter.

Future research could also expand the current study by including other victim groups in order to determine whether helping actions vary between victims of different types of crime. The interesting trend that perceptions about passive harm behaviours increase with officer experience calls for further investigation to determine whether it occurs due to professional apathy/fatigue or differences in priorities. This line of study could also reveal policy implications, particularly for officer training, professional standards and police occupational health.

5.5. Conclusions

The aim of the study was to explore whether the police make attributions that are linked to their helping action intentions (keeping regular contact, referring them to Victim Support and offering their direct contact details) via officers' emotional responses. It appears that police officers' perceptions about the victims' reaction towards police, police emotional responses and experience are all related to the extent to which they are likely to engage in helping behaviours. Support was found for the attribution-affect-action model: the relationship between blame attribution and helping was mediated by the level of aggravation towards the victim. Police experience measured in service years had a small association with passive harm behaviours in terms of ignoring or neglecting victims.

It was found in previous Study 1 that receiving updates increases victim satisfaction and in deed victims also expect police to contact them to either explain steps in the investigation or to receive updates. However, the current study revealed that perceptions about victim's behaviour towards the police were related to the likelihood of contact. Aggravation elicited from perceptions about the victim reduced the likelihood of contact, whereas warmth (victim friendliness and sincerity) increased the likelihood of contact and referral. Contact with victims may be one of the most essential service provisions because it also presents the opportunity to assess how much support victims need. Referral to support agencies with staff trained to deal with victims might be particularly useful for victims' psychological well being when they are coping with post-victimisation. Referrals also benefit the police because it releases them from carrying out a service they may not have the skills,

training, or time to perform. Therefore, together with findings from Study 1, Study 2, and Study 3, the current study forms a picture of an aspect of police-victim encounters and its effect on victim satisfaction.

Chapter 6. Conclusions

Victim satisfaction plays a critical role in police-victim encounters. Satisfaction could affect victims' willingness to provide information, co-operate with the police and report future offences. The police actively measure victim satisfaction and seek to improve it. This thesis posed several research questions to explore which factors are related to victim satisfaction in police investigations. It also investigated whether police emotional responses to victims had an effect on carrying out certain actions that may affect victim satisfaction, such as providing victims with police contact details.

As the literature in general has focused on what type of service victims did or did not receive and measuring levels of satisfaction, this thesis took a novel approach to traditional victim research. In addition to the traditional approach, it considered variables not often included in research, examined victim vulnerability, offered a new way for assessing victim distress, and also explored psychological factors that could explain why certain police helping behaviours do not occur. Addressing these issues also served to move the focus on victim and police variables rather than just focusing on one side of the police-victim relationship. Therefore the thesis considers police-victim encounters as a system where both influence each other and adding new ideas and evidence to the literature. The thesis reported results from four studies that utilised both quantitative and qualitative data and also used longitudinal and experimental methods.

First, a very large data set with over 120,000 respondents was analysed in order to identify factors that predicted victim satisfaction. Second, a large

number of comments made by victims of burglary regarding their views on how police could improve services were subjected to qualitative analysis to explore factors that victims thought were important in improving police services. In addition, this same data set was also used to further explore victims' self-reported vulnerability quantitatively. This analysis revealed that there might be more vulnerable victims than expected and that the current Criminal Justice definition for vulnerability may be too rigid. The third study focused on psychological mechanisms, such as distress, their relationship with satisfaction, and expectations of police actions after reporting a crime. Finally, the focus was turned to police officers and their emotional responses to victims. This fourth study measured the likelihood of helping actions, for example, police providing their contact details to victims. It also considered factors influencing the likelihood of actions which investigating officer could take that are helpful to victims. The study was experimental in nature and involved conditions where victim culpability to a crime and reaction towards police were manipulated to elicit an emotional response.

Put together the findings pointed to factors that are related to victim satisfaction and at the same time help victims as they proceed through the Criminal Justice system, such as reassuring victims and keeping them informed about case progression. Equally important was the finding that police negative emotional reactions towards victims could prevent helping and subsequently reduce satisfaction. These findings are important for guiding interventions that are designed to improve victim satisfaction or helping victims.

6.1. Answers to the Research Questions

6.1.1. Study 1 - Archival Study

Study 1 addressed the question of which victim psychological factors and police actions predict victim satisfaction. Utilising a very large archival victim satisfaction data set the results identified that satisfaction was predicted by factors such as the police offering practical help, updates on case progression, and police indicating that cases are taken seriously, all of which may assist in maintaining or improving victims' positive assessment about the police. The victim related factors included feeling reassured and self-reported vulnerability, both of which predicted satisfaction. Reassurance was a particularly important factor as it was the best predictor of satisfaction and presents a new area for research.

Qualitative data from the archived victim satisfaction survey was also analysed. Burglary victims' comments further accounted for the quantitative finding about the importance of being kept updated in victim satisfaction. Some victims had not received updates at all and did not know if their case was still under investigation. Victims also made references to faster response times, more thorough investigation and pro-active policing to prevent crime as ways to improve police service. The qualitative analysis added depth to the quantitative data and revealed possible reasons why victims were satisfied or dissatisfied. The study also represented a novel method of exploring the data set qualitatively. Utilising the NVivo software and its autocode feature it was possible to organise and analyse a large amount of qualitative data based on a smaller sample of victim comments.

Relating these findings to the procedural justice research, (e.g. Elliott, Thomas & Ogloff, 2011; Murphy & Barkworth, 2014; Tyler, 2001), taking victims seriously, providing updates and practical help could be viewed as part of the process of how victims are treated. Procedural justice emphasises fairness of police processes and treatment of victims and the aforementioned behaviours towards the victims are actions that the police can perform. They are achievable goals. The findings also support the notion that the way people are treated during investigations may be more important to satisfaction than the outcome of the investigation, in particular the importance of reassuring victims, taking them seriously and providing victims with updates.

The identification of self-reported vulnerability as one of the factors related to satisfaction opened a new research direction. Previous literature had pointed to a gap between self-reported vulnerability and official estimations for the number of vulnerable victims in the Criminal Justice system (Burton, Evans & Sanders, 2006). There may be many more vulnerable people than estimated. Therefore a subsequent study focussed on vulnerability to further explore this issue.

6.1.2. Study 2 - Vulnerability

Study 2 again used the archival data and posed the following questions: 1) are there demographic groups who self-identify more or less vulnerable than others, 2) what are the sources of vulnerability, and 3) did the police identify victims' vulnerability and were their needs catered for? It was concluded that the number of victims who self-identified as vulnerable was higher than in previous official estimations. No meaningful assumptions could be made about vulnerability based on demographic groups. However, mental health

issues and the type of crime experienced may be good criteria for vulnerability. In contrast, focusing on certain age groups may not be.

In terms of identifying vulnerability, there were no meaningful differences in identification based on age, gender, or ethnicity. A weak association was found between victim group and identification: vulnerability was identified less frequently in vehicle crime cases than in all other victim groups. Over a three-year time period the police were able to maintain a steady identification rate despite an increase in self-identifications (from 32% to 46%). Demographic variables had no meaningful association with catering for vulnerability needs and over time catering for needs had remained at a steady level, around 80% of the cases.

The results indicated that anyone may feel vulnerable and the current guidelines for the police and the court may be too rigid. Currently the Code of Practice for Victims of Crime (Ministry of Justice, 2015) defines a vulnerable victim as someone under the age of 18 at the time of the offence; having a significant impairment of intelligence and social functioning; having a physical disability or suffering from a physical disorder; or if the quality of their evidence is likely to be diminished because of a mental disorder. It also defines 'intimidated witnesses' where victim's background and crime type can be taken into consideration. It appeared that victims take into account their personal circumstances when they evaluate their vulnerability because those without physical and/or mental disabilities also self-reported as vulnerable. It might be appropriate to consider combining the terms 'vulnerable' and 'intimidated' under the current definition for vulnerable as this may more accurately reflect what people consider 'vulnerable' to mean.

Taking together the findings from study one and two, this research adds to existing knowledge about what victims find important and what actions predict victim satisfaction. This knowledge could assist the police in their efforts to maintain or improve satisfaction. It also benefits the victims because the police could focus on actions that help victims when they proceed through the Criminal Justice system.

The archival data did not allow investigation into the relationship between satisfaction and psychological responses beyond vulnerability and reassurance. Bearing this in mind, the relationship between victim satisfaction and cognitive or emotional responses post-victimisation was the focus of the third study.

6.1.3. Study 3 - Emotional States, Expectations, and Satisfaction

The questions posed in Study 3 were 1) what is the relationship between victim satisfaction and need for cognition, trauma susceptibility, self-efficacy, worry about crime and distress, 2) what expectations do victims and the public have, 3) were there any differences in expectations between a victim group and a control group; and 4) was expectation fulfilment related to satisfaction?

This study used a longitudinal design. Data was collected from victims of crime and the general public. Metropolitan Police Service provided contact details for the victims and they were recruited via post and email. Data were collected from victims at two points in time, approximately six weeks apart. On both occasions victims completed a questionnaire. The control group was an opportunity sample recruited by snowball sampling and during university classes. The control group completed one questionnaire. Results indicated

that no relationships were found between need for cognition, trauma susceptibility, general self-efficacy, and satisfaction. Worry about crime was related to satisfaction and highlighted an opportunity for police to alleviate victim concerns and subsequently potentially influence satisfaction. This is important bearing in mind that, burglary victims commented on pro-active policing as a way of crime prevention and improving police service.

In terms of expectations, further support was found for the expectancy disconfirmation model (Oliver, 1980; 1981) in a police context. The more expectations were fulfilled, the more likely victims expressed satisfaction. It also highlighted the role of police empathy in expectations. Comparison of victim and non-victim expectations found that victims and the control group both appeared to have realistic expectations regarding apprehension of perpetrators. This again can be referred back to the importance of process-based investigations (Myhill & Bradford, 2012).

Importantly, this study also identified a rapid assessment tool that could predict victims' future levels of psychological distress. In the analysis phase, the RISK10 assessment was reduced to two questions and predicted psychological distress at time 1 and time 2. Although more research is required, this screening tool could be considered as a cost-effective, practical intervention that allows those most in need, across crime types, to be actively referred to support agencies.

Study 1, Study 2, and Study 3 focused on victims and the variables that may influence their assessment of the police service. The questions that remained were (i) what are police officers perceptions about victims and (ii) do such

perceptions influence police actions that may also predict victim satisfaction?

The final study sought to answer these questions.

6.1.4. Study 4 - The Role of Police Attributions and Emotional Responses in Helping

Study 4 investigated police perceptions and posed the following questions:

- 1) Will attribution of blame and perceived victim reactivity affect helping behaviour intentions, such as: providing further updates, referring victims to Victim Support, or offering direct telephone number and/or email address so that a victim can make contact?
- 2) Will police professional experience have an effect on helping behaviours?
- 3) Will perceptions of victim warmth (victim friendliness and sincerity) and competence result in differences in police behavioural tendencies?
- 4) Will perceived warmth and competence mediate the relationship between attribution of blame and helping behaviours?

Study 4 answered these questions by measuring police officers level of victim blaming and officers' emotional responses using an experimental method. The research was advertised and data collected from serving police officers during officers training days. There were four conditions where victim culpability (non-culpable/culpable) and victim reactivity (negative reaction/non-negative reaction) were manipulated. Each officer was allocated to one condition.

Officers read a short vignette and responded to questions that measured the likelihood of contacting multiple victims individually, keeping regular contact with the victim, referral to victim support and offering direct contact details. In

addition, the dependent variables included perceived active and passive help or harm tendencies towards victims among police officers: providing further information and/or advice, providing contact details (active help), belief that contact with victims is tolerated but not desired, contacting victims only if necessary (passive help) and ignoring/neglecting victims (passive harm).

Victim reactivity had an effect on contacting multiple victims individually, regular contact and provision of officer work contact details. When the victim's reaction was negative towards the police, it had a negative impact on likelihood of helping behaviours. Police emotional responses towards the victim also had an impact on helping. Aggravation in terms of police feeling irritated or aggravated towards the victim reduced the likelihood of contact whereas warmth increased the likelihood of contact and referral.

Police experience measured by years of service had a small positive association with passive harm behaviours of ignoring or neglecting victims. The more experienced the officers were, the more likely they were to believe that passive harm toward victims occurred. Support was also found for the attribution-affect-action model (Weiner, 1980) in a police context: the relationship between blame attribution and helping was mediated by level of aggravation towards the victim.

It therefore appears that police officers' perceptions about the victims' reaction towards police and police officers' emotional responses are related to the extent to which they are likely to engage in helping behaviours. The results revealed that victim's behaviour towards the police had an effect on the

likelihood of contact. Encouragingly victim blame had no direct effect on helping.

Taking the findings from the four studies together the results revealed: 1) a number of police actions and victim variables that predict satisfaction, 2) new information which better informs us as to the nature of victim vulnerability, 3) a rapid assessment tool for measuring likelihood of distress, and 4) a number of factors that decrease police actions that are related to victim satisfaction. In particular, the archival study, the longitudinal and the police attribution studies together form a picture of a critical aspect of police-victim encounters and the effect on victim satisfaction.

6.2. Implications and Recommendations

The thesis has several implications for policy and practice. They refer to the overall police treatment of victims but also consider the Criminal Justice system as a whole. In the past 20 years policies and government reports have been produced with a view to improve victim and witnesses' experience as they proceed through the Criminal Justice System. The Youth and Criminal Evidence Act 1999 introduced measures that can be used to help vulnerable and intimidated victims and witnesses to give their best evidence in Court. The Victim's Charter and the Code of Practice for Victims of Crime (Ministry of Justice, 2015) that replaced the Charter, set out the minimum standard for service. Witness Care Units (WCU) were developed to be a single point of contact for victims and witnesses and provide needs assessments and information about case progression in Court. The Police and Crime Commissioners have become responsible for providing support services for

victims at local level since 2014. Overall the focus has been moving to supporting victims to cope with the immediate impact of crime and recover from harm that they have experienced (Ministry of Justice, 2013a). The implications for policy and practice are described in the following sections.

1) Keeping victims informed has implications for the police-victim relationship because contact with victims is one of the most essential service provisions: it keeps victims involved with their cases. It is recommended that policy regarding contact and referral is complied with at all times and in addition to keeping victims' informed, attention is paid to offering reassurances that cases are being taken seriously and investigated thoroughly. Keeping contact with the victims also creates an opportunity for expressions of empathy and alleviating victim's concerns. Reassurance was the best predictor of victim satisfaction; therefore its role in police-victim interactions cannot be ignored. Referral to a support agency that is designed to assist victims in turn might be particularly useful for victims' psychological well-being when they are coping with post-victimisation.

In a time-pressured environment where resources are low referrals also benefit the police because it releases them from carrying out a service they may not have the skills, training or time to perform. Without contact with the victim, it will not be possible to keep victims informed, or to assess the need for support or referral. Further, findings from previous research (Brandl & Horvath, 1991; Coupe & Griffiths, 1999; Freeman, 2013; Myhill & Bradford, 2012; Wedlock & Tapley, 2016; Wood, et al., 2015; Zevitz & Gurnack, 1991) indicated that updates and feedback were important to victims and the archival study indicated that keeping victims updated was one of the variables

that predicted victim satisfaction. The qualitative findings indicated that policy was not always complied with. Indeed, it has been confirmed that the Victims' Code is not always complied with and currently there are no powers to force any agency to comply with the Victims' Code (Victims' Commissioner, 2017). However, in order to maintain positive assessments or improve satisfaction ratings, compliance with all aspects of the Victim's Code, including contact with victims, even if there is no new information, is highly recommended.

2) In terms of victim's self-reported vulnerability the findings have implications for policy and the Justice System as a whole. The current definition for a vulnerable victim deals with age and physical and mental disabilities/illness. However, this may not be in line with how victims view themselves. Currently, the police and the CPS are responsible for identifying vulnerability and presenting a special measures application to the Court. The Court then decides whether special measures are granted. There is a distinct possibility that some victims who self-identify as vulnerable are not considered as such under current guidelines and therefore do not have access to the support they might need, particularly special measures. It is here where considering victims' self-reports becomes very important. The archival study also indicated that people take into account factors other than physical or mental disabilities and consider their personal circumstances. Therefore, it would be important to further explore what these circumstances are and possibly take them into consideration in special measures applications.

Considering the findings, a recommendation can be made for a review of the current definition for vulnerable victim/witness and to consider combining the terms 'vulnerable' and 'intimidated' and their characteristics under one

definition. The category of intimidated victims includes consideration of a victim's background and circumstances. It might be that a better definition of vulnerable combines these two categories because in the mind of the victims they may, to an extent, be interchangeable.

In general, focusing more on victims' self-reports would allow for referral to the appropriate support services for victims of crime and subsequently may better serve the Criminal Justice System because the victims are supported to give their best evidence.

3) Study 2 identified a practical assessment tool for identifying victim post-victimisation distress. Originally an 11-item assessment (RISK10) was reduced to two questions. Both long and short versions of the RISK assessment predicted distress scores at time 1 and time 2. This is an important finding because it suggests that the police could, with only two questions, determine whether a victim is likely to be distressed at a later stage. The short form is more practical than the original RISK10 assessment because it is quicker to use in a time-pressured situation. With a short version there would be no need for calculating points and trying to interpret them. Should a victim indicate that they are not coping well and/or believed that crime was something that 'typically had to happen' to them, a referral could be quickly recommended. This would also be an expression of police empathy and concern towards the victim that previous research links with satisfaction (Myhill & Bradford, 2012; Norris & Thompson, 1993; Tewkesbury & West, 2001; Wood, et al., 2015; Zevitz & Gurnack, 1991).

The assessment is also easy to use by any member of police staff who comes into contact with victims and could result in a referral that aims to alleviate psychological distress and assist the victim with practical information and advice. Further research is needed, however, to test the short version. A study focusing on the police and their perception about the usefulness of the assessment could advise whether the police are willing to use such a method or indeed find it helpful. It is vital in any intervention that the employees who administer it are also comfortable and willing to use it. Although more research is required, this screening tool should be considered as it is quick to use, cost-effective, and a practical intervention that allows those most in need, across crime types, to be referred to support agencies.

4) Turning the focus towards police psychology, officers' attributions of blame and negative emotions towards the victims could have implications for police-victim encounters, particularly if the subsequent police decisions omit helping actions such as keeping regular contact or providing investigating officer's contact details. This in turn could affect victim satisfaction and overall attitudes towards the police.

The positive relationship between an officer's years in service and belief that there is a higher likelihood of police ignoring/neglecting victims obviously has repercussions for victims in that, in terms of contact, they are left out of the investigation. It should be noted that the officers were asked not to report their personal views but how they believe officers are behaving towards victims in general. Therefore the result could either indicate implicit personal attitudes or something that experience has taught them over the years. In any event the trend is worrying and calls for more research. It is a subject that has not yet

been raised and the reasons why officers have this belief have not been explored. Is it because of something they have witnessed themselves or is it because they have personally adopted such behaviours over the years?

The finding that service years are related to the belief that victims are ignored or neglected could also advise policy in terms of officer training and management, in that both remain supportive of ideas that facilitate police-victim encounters, for example, continuous encouragement to maintain contact with victims. Should years in service and the passive harm relationship be based on police professional apathy or fatigue, this could have implications for police professional standards and occupational health. For instance, professional apathy and fatigue could affect how well officers perform their duties and could also indicate mental health issues such as burnout. It is recommended that police attitudes towards the victims be monitored on a regular basis as service years increase because it offers an opportunity for interventions. For example, measuring attitudes every five or ten years and implementing training or refresher courses if negative trends are detected could prevent the chance of ignoring or neglecting victims. It would also give the officers an opportunity to voice their concerns and identify occupational health issues and changes in police occupational culture.

6.3. Limitations and Future Directions

The thesis has some limitations in terms of design and method. In the first archival study and the subsequent vulnerability study, that used the same archival data set, the researcher had no control over how and what questions were asked of the victims. This was a limitation because the researcher may

have chosen more direct and specifically worded items. The importance of specific item wording became particularly evident when independent variables were reviewed. The data consisted primarily of Yes/No responses. It did not include responses to psychometric scales that could be easily computed into mean scores. Instead, independent variables were effectively responses to either follow-up or non-specific questions and had to be derived from nominal data. This could be addressed by the use of specific questions and then asking the participant to elaborate. More elaboration could have identified actions that victims find particularly helpful.

Efforts were made to address this by exploring burglary victims' verbal comments. However, the comments were not direct follow-up questions but a separate request for opinions as to how service could be improved. Therefore, the extent to which the comments reflected a reason for (dis)satisfaction could not be fully determined and necessarily some speculation occurred.

In victim satisfaction research a better design might be to combine both quantitative and qualitative methods. For instance, potentially significant sources of self-reported vulnerability, such as personal circumstances, were not accounted for in the current data set because this information was not requested from the victims. This calls for more research in which personal circumstances could be addressed and explore what factors people consider when they self-identify as vulnerable.

The responses in the archival data were based on victims' perceptions of what had happened but there were no means of verifying whether they reflected reality. This implies that the police may have for instance contacted the victim

but the victim reported no contact. Future research could address this by using multiple sources in data collection, for example, victim self-reports regarding updates and police records of all contact made with the victim. It must be noted that it is unlikely that a large number of victims would have provided incorrect information for the survey; therefore it is also unlikely that incorrect responses would have affected the study results. Although control over the variables was limited, the format of the data set is understandable. Its primary function is to inform police management about victim satisfaction rates and service provision.

In terms of sampling, in the longitudinal third study, the data collection was subject to a degree of bias because victims living in specific geographical areas were approached. However, this was unavoidable because data collection was reliant on the Metropolitan Police Service providing contact details for the victims and permission was granted only in specific London Boroughs. One must bear in mind that difference in victim psychological processes were not expected between geographical samples.

The response rate at time 1 was very low 4% and less than half (46%) of time 1 participants completed the follow-up questionnaire (time 2), resulting in small samples. This was not anticipated at the beginning of data collection and an important lesson was learned with regards to allowing a longer time for data collection in victim research. A further point to consider is the connection this research had with the police; some people declined to participate in the study because they did not perceive that the police had helped them. In future studies with victims it might be more suitable to carry out research without an affiliation with the police. In the current research this was not possible.

Another potentially problematic feature was the use of an online survey. Although easy to set up and free, one cannot be certain under what circumstances the respondent completed the survey. An email address where an invitation is sent may be shared or accessed by multiple persons, the survey may be taken multiple times or responses be given without reading the items. The researcher made efforts to control for these caveats. Email addresses were reviewed to include only what appeared to be personal addresses, the survey software was set to prevent multiple completions, and response times were reviewed for excessively rapid completion times.

Theoretical considerations were a problem for Study 3, particularly for the psychological measures. The study measures were based on different frameworks and consisted of multiple psychological mechanisms. In retrospect that was a caveat because linking the mechanisms together became very difficult. Should the research be carried out again the focus should be perhaps on one or two frameworks, for example, trauma susceptibility. On the other hand several frameworks could also be viewed as a positive feature because there was a unique access to victims and therefore an opportunity to test multiple frameworks.

In particular, the RISK scale requires further research as currently only the original studies and the current thesis have tested its usefulness. Given its potential, this is important because police officers would need to be engaged to use the assessment tool. This could be achieved by conducting further research that measures police perceptions and likelihood of using such assessment.

In terms of the designs across the thesis, correlation analyses do not indicate cause and effect. Therefore the results are interpreted as relationships that may be influenced by a third, not yet known, variable. For example, it cannot be said that using the RISK assessment will result in identification of all those who will be distressed or that the level of distress will determine victim satisfaction with police. The relationships act as indicators to variables worth considering in police-public encounters.

The methodology used in the police attribution study (Study 4) involved a vignette rather than a real-life situation. Using a vignette could be an issue because there is a risk that reading a description of a crime does not elicit attributions or emotions that may occur in a real-life situation. However, using a vignette was considered the best possible alternative to a real-life situation for this design. The description of the burglary was based on a real-life case in an attempt to achieve the highest credibility and to elicit true responses.

In study 4 considerable amount of time was spent to ensure that the wording of the questionnaire items was clear and specific in order to avoid confusion. Despite this the wording of some of the items caused confusion and had to be excluded from analysis. In retrospect, piloting the survey could have revealed this issue early on. Piloting did not take place as an opportunity to collect data from a large number of police officers arose where data collection was possible on limited consecutive days and therefore there would not have been sufficient time to analyse a pilot study.

Also, one cannot be sure to what extent responses reflected what police officers do in a real-life situation or if socially acceptable responding took

place. Officers were encouraged to respond honestly, assured of anonymity and that management would not have access to the raw data. In addition, for some items, they were asked to respond from a general point of view to reduce social desirability but with a hope it would elicit implicit tendencies. There is still the possibility that responses reflected what police officers felt they were supposed to do or wish they could do.

Future research could include open responses following scaled items to determine what occurs in a typical police-victim encounter and allow the police to further explain their position. Future research could also expand from Study 4 by including victims in other type of crime than burglary in order to determine whether helping actions vary between crime types. There is the possibility that some crimes such as theft may be considered as low-level. Subsequently an assumption may exist that victims in such crimes do not need as much attention or help compared to other crimes, for example, violent crime. Therefore determining whether helping actions vary between crime types could reveal further details about police-victim relationship.

The interesting trend that as service years increases, beliefs that victims are neglected or ignored also increase, calls for further investigation. It could be determined whether these beliefs reflect personal experiences due to witnessing such behaviours, or because of personal tendencies, for example, professional apathy/fatigue, or differences in priorities.

Despite the limitations, this thesis provides important information for the police and the Criminal Justice system. The thesis identified the importance of reassurance in victim satisfaction. This is also an area that has not yet been

studied in depth. Victims' qualitative responses about how police services could be improved provided another insight into what victim value. For example, perceptions about inadequate forensic investigation as a source of criticism and beliefs about pro-active policing preventing crime were particularly interesting and revealing. The research also proposes a rapid assessment tool for identifying those victims who are at risk of distress post-victimisation. Finally, the thesis also highlighted the role of emotions in police-victim encounters and how negative emotions towards victims as a response to victim negativity toward the police could reduce the likelihood of police helping the victims. This finding was critical because it highlighted the reciprocal nature of police-victim relationship and how each party could affect the other. The next step would be an investigation of how the relationship develops or is maintained; what is the purpose for contact, are there points where contact increases or decreases, or how involved victims are kept in the investigation.

In conclusion, the thesis took into consideration both victim and police perspectives and found factors that could be considered in interventions designed to improve victim satisfaction. The results have implications for policy and training but most importantly the findings have practical application. Offering reassurances, taking cases seriously, keeping victims informed, and assessing vulnerability are all behaviours that the police can perform in a real-world setting. The way police treat victims can be the source of distress or satisfaction and at the same time victims' reactions towards the police can influence police actions. In this relationship the police do have some power over any negative outcome because the results offer knowledge of what

predicts satisfaction and the role of police in this relationship. Therefore, together the studies form a vivid and revealing description of an aspect in the police-victim relationship that could be used to benefit both the police and victims of crime.

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Original 51 NVivo nodes, reduced to 21 (*italicised*), final 5 in bold:

Accusing victim of lying

Advertise local police services

Advice not to touch crime scene

Be less aggressive

Be less thorough

Be more considerate of victim

Be more helpful

Be more intelligent

Be more organised

Better communication skills

Better community outreach

Better cooperation amongst government departments

Better law enforcement

Better management from higher-ups

Better phone services

Better police station locations

Better resources

Better services for victims

Better success rate

Better training

Better treatment of those involved

CCTV

Clean up after crime scene

Did not take case seriously

Does not need improvement

Eliminate prejudices toward race, religion and disability

APPENDIX A

Faster response time

Fix the housing situation

General dissatisfaction

Greater police presence on the streets

Improve attitude

Improve police's note taking system

Increase efficiency

Inform suspect of consequences to victim

Keep appointments better

Keep promises that they make

Keep victims informed

Less follow up

Limit government restrictions on the police

More follow up***More thorough investigation***

Police were empathetic

Police were helpful

Pro-active policing

Provide more services

Reassurance

They did the best they could

The system should be changed

They should work faster

They should work harder

Use their resources on the severe cases

Understanding the effects of crime and public views about police investigations**Information Sheet**

The aim of this study is to understand the effects of crime, how people deal with the potential effects and public views about investigations. This is an opportunity for you to express your honest views and/or feelings and in turn this would benefit the understanding of how the police could assist victims of crime most effectively. Some of the questions may seem "off-topic" but they are all very useful in understanding peoples thinking styles. It is not anticipated that you will be at any disadvantage or suffer any risk from this study, you are only asked to fill in two questionnaires. There is a chance of emotional upset due to the sensitive topic however you will be provided with contact details to organisations that offer emotional support.

If you decide to take part, in addition to the questionnaire attached to this letter you will be contacted again at a later date to fill in a second questionnaire in order to check for any changes over time. The contact will be by post. You can opt to be contacted via email on the consent form. You are free to withdraw anytime up to the submission of the study report and without giving a reason.

This study is being completed as part of a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) degree at London South Bank University. It is estimated to be completed in 2016. It has been reviewed and ethically approved by London South Bank University Research Ethics Committee. The Metropolitan Police service will **not** be notified who has been invited or taken part in this study and participation will not affect any on-going investigations.

If you do wish to take part, you can keep this information sheet. Please sign and enclose the attached consent form in the blank envelope provided and return it with the questionnaire in the prepaid envelope that is also provided with this letter. *Please return by 14/04/2014. All information received from you will be handled in a confidential manner* and stored in secure environment and on a password protected computer. Only the researcher and university supervisor will have direct access to the information.

If you have questions or a concern about any aspect of this study, please don't hesitate to contact me on aihion@lsbu.ac.uk and I will do my best to answer your questions. If you wish any further information regarding this study or have any complaints about the way you have been dealt with during the study or other concerns you can contact: Dr Daniel Frings at fringsd@lsbu.ac.uk, who is the Academic Supervisor for this study.

Finally, if you remain unhappy and wish to complain formally, you can contact the Chair of the University Research Ethics Committee. Details can be obtained from the university website: <http://www.lsbu.ac.uk/rbdo/external/index.shtml>

Participant ID: _____

Understanding the effects of crime and public views about police investigations

This is your copy of the Consent Form, you can keep it for your records.

Thank you for your interest in participating in this study

I am interested in your honest views about *police investigation, crime and dealing with consequences of crime*. You are asked to fill in a questionnaire in your own time. Please read the following statements before proceeding.

I agree that

- I have read the attached information sheet on the research in which I have been asked to participate and have been given a copy to keep. I have had the opportunity to discuss the details and ask questions about this information.
- I fully understand the nature and purpose of the study
- I fully understand that the decision whether or not to participate will not affect the investigation of my case in any way
- I am taking part anonymously
- I am aware that I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time up to the completion of the study report
- I am under no obligation to divulge personal information if I do not feel so inclined
- Any information identifying me with my data will be securely stored in a separate location.
- The data I provide will be treated confidentially and, if presented (e.g. in a journal paper or at an academic conference), personal details which would allow me to be identified will be removed.
- I may be contacted at a later date for further questions

I hereby fully and freely consent to participate in the study

Signature: _____

Print name: _____

Date ____ / ____ / ____

You can keep this copy for your records. Please sign and enclose the other copy in a separate blank envelope and return it with the questionnaire in the prepaid envelope

Q1: Need for cognition scale

	Strongly Disagree	Mostly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Mostly Agree	Strongly Agree
I would prefer complex to simple problems	<input type="radio"/>					
I like to have the responsibility of handling a situation that requires a lot of thinking	<input type="radio"/>					
Thinking is not my idea of fun	<input type="radio"/>					
I would rather do something that requires little thought than something that is sure to challenge my thinking abilities	<input type="radio"/>					
I try to anticipate and avoid situations where there is likely chance I will have to think in depth about something	<input type="radio"/>					
I find satisfaction in deliberating hard and for long hours	<input type="radio"/>					
I only think as hard as I have to	<input type="radio"/>					
I prefer to think about small, daily projects to long-term ones	<input type="radio"/>					
I like tasks that require little thought once I've learned them	<input type="radio"/>					
The idea of relying on thought to make my way to the top appeals to me	<input type="radio"/>					
I really enjoy a task that involves coming up with new solutions to problems	<input type="radio"/>					
Learning new ways to think doesn't excite me very much	<input type="radio"/>					
I prefer my life to be filled with puzzles that I must solve	<input type="radio"/>					
The notion of thinking abstractly is appealing to me	<input type="radio"/>					
I would prefer a task that is intellectual, difficult, and important to one that is somewhat important but does not require much thought	<input type="radio"/>					
I feel relief rather than satisfaction after completing a task that required a lot of mental effort	<input type="radio"/>					
It's enough for me that something gets the job done; I don't care how or why it works	<input type="radio"/>					
I usually end up deliberating about issues even when they do not affect me personally	<input type="radio"/>					

Q5: RISK10 scale

Thinking about the recent incident, please indicate the degree to which you agree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Mostly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Mostly Agree	Strongly Agree
I feel this typically had to happen to me	<input type="radio"/>					
In comparison to others I run a higher risk of getting re-involved in such an incident	<input type="radio"/>					
I generally feel insufficiently protected against crime	<input type="radio"/>					
In comparison to others I feel I am coping worse	<input type="radio"/>					
If needed, I can fall back on supportive environment (partner, friends, relatives)	<input type="radio"/>					
I am generally (apart from what happened now) satisfied with my life situation	<input type="radio"/>					
I experienced the event as life threatening	<input type="radio"/>					
I experienced the event as a mental burden	<input type="radio"/>					

Q8 Please indicate how much in general the following statements apply to you:

	Strongly Disagree	Mostly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Mostly Agree	Strongly Agree
I feel distant from people	<input type="radio"/>					
I don't feel related to most people	<input type="radio"/>					
I feel like an outsider	<input type="radio"/>					
I see myself as a loner	<input type="radio"/>					
I feel disconnected from the world around me	<input type="radio"/>					
I don't feel I participate with anyone or any group	<input type="radio"/>					
I feel close to people	<input type="radio"/>					
Even around people I know, I don't feel that I really belong	<input type="radio"/>					
I am able to relate to my peers	<input type="radio"/>					
I catch myself losing a sense of connectedness with society	<input type="radio"/>					
I am able to connect with other people	<input type="radio"/>					
I feel understood by the people I know	<input type="radio"/>					
I see people as friendly and approachable	<input type="radio"/>					
I fit in well in new situations	<input type="radio"/>					
I have little sense of togetherness with my peers	<input type="radio"/>					
My friends feel like family	<input type="radio"/>					
I find myself actively involved in people's lives	<input type="radio"/>					
Even among friends, there is no sense of brother/sisterhood	<input type="radio"/>					
I am in tune with the world	<input type="radio"/>					
I feel comfortable in the presence of strangers	<input type="radio"/>					

Q9: General self-efficacy scale

Please indicate how much in general the following statements apply to you:

	Not at all true	Hardly true	Moderately true	Exactly true
I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can usually handle whatever comes my way	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q10-22: Distress - Mental Health Inventory

Q10 How often did you become nervous or jumpy when faced with excitement or unexpected situations during the past month?

- Always
- Very often
- Fairly often
- Sometimes
- Almost never
- Never

Q10-22: Distress - Mental Health Inventory

Q11 Did you feel depressed during the past month?

- Yes, to the point that I did not care about anything for days
- Yes, very depressed almost every day
- Yes, quite depressed several times
- Yes, a little depressed now and then
- No, never felt depressed at all

Q12 How much of the time, during the past month, have you been a very nervous person?

- All of the time
- Most of the time
- A good bit of the time
- Some of the time
- A little of the time
- None of the time

Q13 During the past month, how much of the time have you felt tense or “high-strung”?

- All of the time
- Most of the time
- A good bit of the time
- Some of the time
- A little of the time
- None of the time

Q14 During the past month, how often did your hands shake when you tried to do something?

- Always
- Very often
- Fairly often
- Sometimes
- Almost never
- Never

Q10-22: Distress - Mental Health Inventory

Q15 How much of the time, during the past month, have you felt downhearted and blue?

- All of the time
- Most of the time
- A good bit of the time
- Some of the time
- A little of the time
- None of the time

Q16 How much have you been bothered by nervousness, or your “nerves”, during the past month?

- Extremely so, to the point where I could not take care of things
- Very much bothered
- Bothered quite a bit by nerves
- Bothered some, enough to notice
- Bothered just a little by nerves
- Not bothered at all by this

Q17 During the past month, how much of the time have you felt restless, fidgety, or impatient?

- All of the time
- Most of the time
- A good bit of the time
- Some of the time
- A little of the time
- None of the time

Q18 During the past month, how much of the time have you been moody or brooded about things?

- All of the time
- Most of the time
- A good bit of the time
- Some of the time
- A little of the time
- None of the time

Q10-22: Distress - Mental Health Inventory

Q19 During the past month, how often did you get rattled, upset or flustered?

- Always
- Very often
- Fairly often
- Sometimes
- Almost never
- Never

Q20 During the past month, have you been anxious or worried?

- Yes, extremely to the point of being sick or almost sick
- Yes, very much so
- Yes, quite a bit
- Yes, some, enough to bother me
- Yes, a little bit
- No, not at all

Q21 How often during the past month did you find yourself trying to calm down?

- Always
- Very often
- Fairly often
- Sometimes
- Almost never
- Never

Q22 During the past month, how much of the time have you been in low or very low spirits?

- All of the time
- Most of the time
- A good bit of the time
- Some of the time
- A little of the time
- None of the time

Q23-28: Worry about crime scale

Q23 How often, if at all, do you worry about crime in your neighbourhood?

- All or most of the time
- Some of the time
- Just occasionally
- Never [Skip to Q25]

Q24 Does this worry about crime in your neighbourhood have...

- A serious effect on the quality of your life
- Some effect
- No real effect on the quality of your life

Q25 How often, if at all, do you worry about safety in your neighbourhood

- All or most of the time
- Some of the time
- Just occasionally
- Never [Skip to Q27]

Q26 Does this worry about safety in your neighbourhood have...

- A serious effect on the quality of your life
- Some effect
- No real effect on the quality of your life

Q27 How often, if at all, do you worry about becoming a victim of crime?

- All or most of the time
- Some of the time
- Just occasionally
- Never [Skip to Q29]

Q28 Does this worry about becoming a victim of crime have...

- A serious effect on the quality of your life
- Some effect
- No real effect on the quality of your life

Q29: Expectations scale

Q29 Please indicate your honest views about the police service. When you report an offence, do you expect that...

	Yes	No
a supervising officer would contact you and provide contact details of the investigating officer?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
investigating officer would contact you and explain next steps in your investigation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
you would be contacted with updates without asking	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the police would reassure you	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the police would catch the offender(s)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the police would recognise if a person was vulnerable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the police would deal with you with empathy	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the police would do what they say they would do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the police would take the case seriously	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the police would give practical information, help or advice	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q30 At the time of the incident, did you consider yourself to be vulnerable? This could be due to your age, disability or personal circumstance.

- No
- Yes

Q31 How reassured were you by what the police did?

- Completely reassured
- Very reassured
- Fairly reassured
- Not quite reassured
- Not at all reassured

Q32-34: Satisfaction measures

Q32 How satisfied are you with the police service in general?

- Completely Dissatisfied
- Very Dissatisfied
- Fairly Dissatisfied
- Neither
- Fairly Satisfied
- Very Satisfied
- Completely Satisfied

Q33 How satisfied are you in general with the police service in your area?

- Completely Dissatisfied
- Very Dissatisfied
- Fairly Dissatisfied
- Neither
- Fairly Satisfied
- Very Satisfied
- Completely Satisfied

Q34 Taking the whole experience into account how satisfied are you with the service provided by the police in your case?

- Completely Dissatisfied
- Very Dissatisfied
- Fairly Dissatisfied
- Neither
- Fairly Satisfied
- Very Satisfied
- Completely Satisfied

Q35 Prior to this experience was your overall opinion of the police generally

- Low
- Mixed
- High

Q36 Is your opinion of the police now

- Worse
- Not changed
- Better

Q37 What type of incident it was you reported to the police?

- Burglary
- Assault
- Theft
- Theft of vehicle
- Criminal damage
- Antisocial behaviour
- Other

Q38 What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

Q39 What is your age? _____

Q40 What is your ethnic group?

- White British
- White Irish
- Any other White background

- White and Black Caribbean
- White and Black African
- White and Asian
- Any other Mixed / multiple ethnic background

- Indian
- Pakistani
- Bangladeshi
- Chinese
- Any other Asian background

- Black African
- Black Caribbean
- Any other Black background

- Any other ethnic group

Thank you for taking the time to answer these questions. Please be assured we will keep your answers completely confidential.

Thank you for returning the questionnaire and taking part, the data collection has now concluded.

You answered questions that allow expressions of the state of mind, expectations and views about the police service. There are no right or wrong answers, every individual will have their own unique way of thinking about things.

I am interested in the relationship between state of mind and opinions about the police investigations. Results from the questionnaires will help in understanding how the police can best assist the public during an investigation. Victims in another borough also took part in this study in order to explore any similarities and differences across boroughs. Your responses will be merged with data from other databases.

Here are contact details should you have any queries or wish to withdraw from the study (to withdraw please email me your Participant ID and enter "Withdraw" on the subject line):

Researcher contact details:

Nelli Aihio
Division of Psychology
London South Bank University
London
aihion@lsbu.ac.uk

Supervisor contact details:

Dr Rachel Wilcock
Division of Psychology
London South Bank University
London
Email: wilcockr@lsbu.ac.uk

If you have been affected by any of the questions on the survey, or feel that you need advice or support, here are some details for organisations that may be of use:

Brent Victim Support

Tel: 020 8965 1141

Email: vs.brent@vslondon.org

Website: www.victimsupport.org

Drop-in sessions available on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays between 10am and 3pm at 1 Morland Gardens, Stonebridge, MD10 8DY

Mind (mental health charity)

Tel 0300 1233393

www.mind.org.uk

Brent Mind

Tel: 020 7604 5177

www.brentmind.org.uk

You can call 101 to report a crime that has already happened, seek crime prevention advice or make the police aware of any policing issues in your local area.

Contact details for your borough Safer Neighbourhood Teams can be found at <http://content.met.police.uk/Site/YourBorough>

Invitation to participate in a research study Understanding the Effects of Crime and Public Views about Police Investigations

You are being invited to take part in a research study. The research study has been approved by the Metropolitan Police Service and carried out by London South Bank University. Before you decide please take time to read the following information carefully.

The aim of this study is to understand the links between the different ways people think, the state of mind and public views about the police. This is an opportunity for you to express your honest views and in turn it would benefit the understanding how the police can assist victims of crime most effectively. *You do not have to be a victim of crime to take part.* It is not anticipated that you will be in any disadvantage or suffer any risk from this study, you are asked to fill in questionnaires. There is a chance of emotional upset due to the sensitive topic however I have included contact details to organisations that offer emotional support.

If you decide to take part, you are asked to fill in the attached questionnaire. You are free to withdraw anytime up to the submission of the dissertation and without giving a reason.

This study is being completed as part of a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) degree at London South Bank University. It is estimated to be completed in 2016. It has been reviewed and ethically approved by the London South Bank University Research Ethics Committee.

If you do wish to take part, you can keep this information sheet. Please sign and return the attached Consent Form with the completed questionnaire. All information received from you will be handled in a confidential manner and stored in secure environment and on a password protected computer. Only the researcher and supervisor will have direct access to the information.

If you have questions or a concern about any aspect of this study, please don't hesitate to contact me on aihion@lsbu.ac.uk and I will do my best to answer your questions. If you wish any further information regarding this study or have any complaints about the way you have been dealt with during the study or other concerns you can contact: Dr Daniel Frings at fringsd@lsbu.ac.uk, the Academic Supervisor for this study. Finally, if you remain unhappy and wish to complain formally, you can contact the Chair of the University Research Ethics Committee: ethics@lsbu.ac.uk.

Yours Sincerely,
Nelli Aihio
Research Student
aihion@lsbu.ac.uk

If you have been affected by any of the questions on the survey, or feel that you need advice or support, here are contact details for organisations that may be of use:

<i>Victim Support</i>	tel: 08 08 16 89 111	www.victimsupport.org.uk
<i>Mind</i> (mental health charity)	tel: 0300 1233393	www.mind.org.uk

You can call 101 to report a crime that has already happened, seek crime prevention advice or make the police aware of any policing issues in your local area.

Contact details for your borough Safer Neighbourhood Teams can be found at <http://content.met.police.uk/Site/YourBorough>

Q1 Please indicate the degree to which you agree with the following statements

	Strongly Disagree	Mostly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Mostly Agree	Strongly Agree
I would prefer complex to simple problems	<input type="radio"/>					
I like to have the responsibility of handling a situation that requires a lot of thinking	<input type="radio"/>					
Thinking is not my idea of fun	<input type="radio"/>					
I would rather do something that requires little thought than something that is sure to challenge my thinking abilities	<input type="radio"/>					
I try to anticipate and avoid situations where there is likely chance I will have to think in depth about something	<input type="radio"/>					
I find satisfaction in deliberating hard and for long hours	<input type="radio"/>					
I only think as hard as I have to	<input type="radio"/>					
I prefer to think about small, daily projects to long-term ones	<input type="radio"/>					
I like tasks that require little thought once I've learned them	<input type="radio"/>					
The idea of relying on thought to make my way to the top appeals to me	<input type="radio"/>					
I really enjoy a task that involves coming up with new solutions to problems	<input type="radio"/>					
Learning new ways to think doesn't excite me very much	<input type="radio"/>					
I prefer my life to be filled with puzzles that I must solve	<input type="radio"/>					
The notion of thinking abstractly is appealing to me	<input type="radio"/>					
I would prefer a task that is intellectual, difficult, and important to one that is somewhat important but does not require much thought	<input type="radio"/>					
I feel relief rather than satisfaction after completing a task that required a lot of mental effort	<input type="radio"/>					
It's enough for me that something gets the job done; I don't care how or why it works	<input type="radio"/>					
I usually end up deliberating about issues even when they do not affect me personally	<input type="radio"/>					

Q8 Please indicate how much in general the following statements apply to you:

	Strongly Disagree	Mostly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Mostly Agree	Strongly Agree
I feel distant from people	<input type="radio"/>					
I don't feel related to most people	<input type="radio"/>					
I feel like an outsider	<input type="radio"/>					
I see myself as a loner	<input type="radio"/>					
I feel disconnected from the world around me	<input type="radio"/>					
I don't feel I participate with anyone or any group	<input type="radio"/>					
I feel close to people	<input type="radio"/>					
Even around people I know, I don't feel that I really belong	<input type="radio"/>					
I am able to relate to my peers	<input type="radio"/>					
I catch myself losing a sense of connectedness with society	<input type="radio"/>					
I am able to connect with other people	<input type="radio"/>					
I feel understood by the people I know	<input type="radio"/>					
I see people as friendly and approachable	<input type="radio"/>					
I fit in well in new situations	<input type="radio"/>					
I have little sense of togetherness with my peers	<input type="radio"/>					
My friends feel like family	<input type="radio"/>					
I find myself actively involved in people's lives	<input type="radio"/>					
Even among friends, there is no sense of brother/sisterhood	<input type="radio"/>					
I am in tune with the world	<input type="radio"/>					
I feel comfortable in the presence of strangers	<input type="radio"/>					

Q9 Please indicate how much in general the following statements apply to you:

	Not at all true	Hardly true	Moderately true	Exactly true
I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can usually handle whatever comes my way	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q10 How often did you become nervous or jumpy when faced with excitement or unexpected situations during the past month?

- Always
- Very often
- Fairly often
- Sometimes
- Almost never
- Never

Q11 Did you feel depressed during the past month?

- Yes, to the point that I did not care about anything for days
- Yes, very depressed almost every day
- Yes, quite depressed several times
- Yes, a little depressed now and then
- No, never felt depressed at all

Q12 How much of the time, during the past month, have you been a very nervous person?

- All of the time
- Most of the time
- A good bit of the time
- Some of the time
- A little of the time
- None of the time

Q13 During the past month, how much of the time have you felt tense or “high-strung”?

- All of the time
- Most of the time
- A good bit of the time
- Some of the time
- A little of the time
- None of the time

Q14 During the past month, how often did your hands shake when you tried to do something?

- Always
- Very often
- Fairly often
- Sometimes
- Almost never
- Never

Q15 How much of the time, during the past month, have you felt downhearted and blue?

- All of the time
- Most of the time
- A good bit of the time
- Some of the time
- A little of the time
- None of the time

Q16 How much have you been bothered by nervousness, or your “nerves”, during the past month?

- Extremely so, to the point where I could not take care of things
- Very much bothered
- Bothered quite a bit by nerves
- Bothered some, enough to notice
- Bothered just a little by nerves
- Not bothered at all by this

Q17 During the past month, how much of the time have you felt restless, fidgety, or impatient?

- All of the time
- Most of the time
- A good bit of the time
- Some of the time
- A little of the time
- None of the time

Q18 During the past month, how much of the time have you been moody or brooded about things?

- All of the time
- Most of the time
- A good bit of the time
- Some of the time
- A little of the time
- None of the time

Q19 During the past month, how often did you get rattled, upset or flustered?

- Always
- Very often
- Fairly often
- Sometimes
- Almost never
- Never

Q20 During the past month, have you been anxious or worried?

- Yes, extremely to the point of being sick or almost sick
- Yes, very much so
- Yes, quite a bit
- Yes, some, enough to bother me
- Yes, a little bit
- No, not at all

Q21 How often during the past month did you find yourself trying to calm down?

- Always
- Very often
- Fairly often
- Sometimes
- Almost never
- Never

Q22 During the past month, how much of the time have you been in low or very low spirits?

- All of the time
- Most of the time
- A good bit of the time
- Some of the time
- A little of the time
- None of the time

Q23 How often, if at all, do you worry about crime in your neighbourhood?

- All or most of the time
- Some of the time
- Just occasionally
- Never [Skip to Q25]

Q24 Does this worry about crime in your neighbourhood have...

- A serious effect on the quality of your life
- Some effect
- No real effect on the quality of your life

Q25 How often, if at all, do you worry about safety in your neighbourhood

- All or most of the time
- Some of the time
- Just occasionally
- Never [Skip to Q27]

Q26 Does this worry about safety in your neighbourhood have...

- A serious effect on the quality of your life
- Some effect
- No real effect on the quality of your life

Q27 How often, if at all, do you worry about becoming a victim of crime?

- All or most of the time
- Some of the time
- Just occasionally
- Never [Skip to Q29]

Q28 Does this worry about becoming a victim of crime have...

- A serious effect on the quality of your life
- Some effect
- No real effect on the quality of your life

Q29 Please indicate your honest views about the police service. When you report an offence, do you expect that...

	Yes	No
a supervising officer would contact you and provide contact details of the investigating officer?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
investigating officer would contact you and explain next steps in your investigation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
you would be contacted with updates without asking	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the police would reassure you	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the police would catch the offender(s)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the police would recognise if a person was vulnerable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the police would deal with you with empathy	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the police would do what they say they would do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the police would take the case seriously	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the police would give practical information, help or advice	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q32 How satisfied are you with the police service in general?

- Completely Dissatisfied
- Very Dissatisfied
- Fairly Dissatisfied
- Neither
- Fairly Satisfied
- Very Satisfied
- Completely Satisfied

Q33 How satisfied are you in general with the police service in your area?

- Completely Dissatisfied
- Very Dissatisfied
- Fairly Dissatisfied
- Neither
- Fairly Satisfied
- Very Satisfied
- Completely Satisfied

Q38 What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

Q39 What is your age? _____

Q40 What is your ethnic group?

- White
- Black
- Asian
- Mixed or multiple ethnic background
- Any other ethnic group

Q34 Which London Borough do you live in? _____

Thank you for taking the time to answer these questions. Please be assured we will keep your answers completely confidential.

Participant ID _____

Thank you for returning the questionnaire and taking part in the study

You answered questions that allow expressions of the state of mind, expectations and views about the police service. There are no right or wrong answers, every individual will have their own unique way of thinking about things.

I am also inviting victims of crime to take part in this study in order to explore any similarities and differences across groups of people.

Here are contact details should you have any queries or wish to withdraw from the study (to withdraw please email me your Participant ID and enter "Withdraw" on the subject line):

Researcher contact details:

Nelli Aihio
Division of Psychology
London South Bank University
London
aihion@lsbu.ac.uk

Supervisor contact details:

Dr Daniel Frings
Division of Psychology
London South Bank University
London
Email: fringsd@lsbu.ac.uk

If you have been affected by any of the questions on the survey, or feel that you need advice or support, here are some details for organisations that may be of use:

<i>Victim Support</i>	tel: 08 08 16 89 111	www.victimsupport.org.uk
<i>Mind</i> (mental health charity)	tel: 0300 1233393	www.mind.org.uk

You can call 101 to report a crime that has already happened, seek crime prevention advice or make the police aware of any policing issues in your local area.

Contact details for your borough Safer Neighbourhood Teams can be found at <http://content.met.police.uk/Site/YourBorough>

Thank you for taking time to answer these questions. Please indicate the option that applies to you:

Q10 How often did you become nervous or jumpy when faced with excitement or unexpected situations during the past month?

- Always
- Very often
- Fairly often
- Sometimes
- Almost never
- Never

Q11 Did you feel depressed during the past month?

- Yes, to the point that I did not care about anything for days
- Yes, very depressed almost every day
- Yes, quite depressed several times
- Yes, a little depressed now and then
- No, never felt depressed at all

Q12 How much of the time, during the past month, have you been a very nervous person?

- All of the time
- Most of the time
- A good bit of the time
- Some of the time
- A little of the time
- None of the time

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- All of the time
- Most of the time
- A good bit of the time
- Some of the time
- A little of the time
- None of the time

Q14 During the past month, how often did your hands shake when you tried to do something?

- Always
- Very often
- Fairly often
- Sometimes
- Almost never
- Never

Q15 How much of the time, during the past month, have you felt downhearted and blue?

- All of the time
- Most of the time
- A good bit of the time
- Some of the time
- A little of the time
- None of the time

Q16 How much have you been bothered by nervousness, or your “nerves”, during the past month?

- Extremely so, to the point where I could not take care of things
- Very much bothered
- Bothered quite a bit by nerves
- Bothered some, enough to notice
- Bothered just a little by nerves
- Not bothered at all by this

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- All of the time
- Most of the time
- A good bit of the time
- Some of the time
- A little of the time
- None of the time

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- All of the time
- Most of the time
- A good bit of the time
- Some of the time
- A little of the time
- None of the time

Q19 During the past month, how often did you get rattled, upset or flustered?

- Always
- Very often
- Fairly often
- Sometimes
- Almost never
- Never

Q20 During the past month, have you been anxious or worried?

- Yes, extremely to the point of being sick or almost sick
- Yes, very much so
- Yes, quite a bit
- Yes, some, enough to bother me
- Yes, a little bit
- No, not at all

Q21 How often during the past month did you find yourself trying to calm down?

- Always
- Very often
- Fairly often
- Sometimes
- Almost never
- Never

Q22 During the past month, how much of the time have you been in low or very low spirits?

- All of the time
- Most of the time
- A good bit of the time
- Some of the time
- A little of the time
- None of the time

Q23 How often, if at all, do you worry about crime in your neighbourhood?

- All or most of the time
- Some of the time
- Just occasionally
- Never [if selected, then skip to Q25]

Q24 Does this worry about crime in your neighbourhood have...

- A serious effect on the quality of your life
- Some effect
- No real effect on the quality of your life

Q25 How often, if at all, do you worry about safety in your neighbourhood

- All or most of the time
- Some of the time
- Just occasionally
- Never [if selected, then skip to Q27]

Q26 Does this worry about safety in your neighbourhood have...

- A serious effect on the quality of your life
- Some effect
- No real effect on the quality of your life

Q27 How often, if at all, do you worry about becoming a victim of crime?

- All or most of the time
- Some of the time
- Just occasionally
- Never [if selected, then skip to Q29]

Q28 Does this worry about becoming a victim of crime have...

- A serious effect on the quality of your life
- Some effect
- No real effect on the quality of your life

Q29 Please indicate your honest views about the police service. After you reported the incident,

	Yes	No
Did a supervising officer contact you and provide contact details of the investigating officer?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Did the investigating officer contact you and explain next steps in your investigation?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Were you contacted at least once a month?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Were you contacted with updates without asking?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Did the police catch the offender(s)?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Did the police deal with you with empathy?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Did the police do what they say they would do?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In your view, did the police take the case seriously?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Did the police give you practical information, help or advice?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q31 How reassured were you by what the police did?

- Completely reassured
- Very reassured
- Fairly reassured
- Not quite reassured
- Not at all reassured

Q32 How satisfied are you with the police service in general?

- Completely Dissatisfied
- Very Dissatisfied
- Fairly Dissatisfied
- Neither
- Fairly Satisfied
- Very Satisfied
- Completely Satisfied

Q33 How satisfied are you in general with the police service in your area?

- Completely Dissatisfied
- Very Dissatisfied
- Fairly Dissatisfied
- Neither
- Fairly Satisfied
- Very Satisfied
- Completely Satisfied

Q34 Taking the whole experience into account how satisfied are you with the service provided by the police in your case?

- Completely Dissatisfied
- Very Dissatisfied
- Fairly Dissatisfied
- Neither
- Fairly Satisfied
- Very Satisfied
- Completely Satisfied

Thank you for taking the time to answer these questions. Please be assured we will keep your answers completely confidential.

Vignette:

Imagine you have been allocated as the OIC and presented with the following information about the case:

Remember: All data collected anonymously, so please answer honestly

John, Sarah and Agnieszka are housemates in a shared property. The house has been burgled when no one was at home. It appears the backdoor was unlocked. John and Sarah report they have items missing. Agnieszka is visiting family abroad and is not expected to return for another month but John has sent her a text message that they have been burgled. John is angry as he thinks the police response was unacceptably slow and has demanded a SOCO visit and someone to collect CCTV located near the house. He expects to be contacted on a regular basis by a senior officer.

Q1-6: Attribution scale

1. How responsible do you think is John for his present condition?	Not at all responsible	Not very	Somewhat	Very much	Completely responsible
2. I think that it is John's own fault that he is in his present situation.	Completely disagree	Disagree	Somewhat agree	Very much agree	Completely agree
3. How much sympathy would you feel for John?	None at all	Not much	Undecided	Some	Very much
4. How much concern would you feel for John?	None at all	Not much	Undecided	Some	Very concerned
5. How irritated would you feel by John?	Not at all irritated	Not very	Undecided	Somewhat	Very much irritated
6. I would feel aggravated by John	Not at all	Not very	Undecided	Somewhat	Very much

Q7-Q10: Helping behaviours

Please indicate how likely is it that you would

7. Contact John, Sarah and Agnieszka individually	Very unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Undecided	Somewhat likely	Very likely
8. Contact John, Sarah and Agnieszka on a regular basis even if there are no new information	Very unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Undecided	Somewhat likely	Very likely
9. Offer to refer all three to Victim Support	Very unlikely	Somewhat	Undecided	Somewhat	Very likely
10. Provide them with your work email and/or direct telephone number	Very unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Undecided	Somewhat likely	Very likely

11. Thinking about your experiences as a police officer *in general*, how confident do you feel dealing with victims of crime (in terms of, for example, knowing what to say to them and how to assist them regardless of the incident) ?

Not at all confident Not very confident Somewhat confident Very confident

Q12-15: Warmth and competence scale

I am interested how different groups of crime victim are viewed by the police officers in general. I am not asking how you personally perceive these groups but please indicate *how you think most police officers view them*.

As viewed by police officers

12. Generally, how confident are victims of burglary to protect themselves	Not at all	Not very	Undecided	Somewhat	Extremely
13. Generally, how competent are victims of burglary to protect themselves	Not at all	Not very	Undecided	Somewhat	Extremely
14. Generally, how sincere are victims of burglary with the police	Not at all	Not very	Undecided	Somewhat	Extremely
15. Generally, how friendly are victims of burglary with the police	Not at all	Not very	Undecided	Somewhat	Extremely

Q16-21: Behavioural tendency scale

In your view to what extent will the police officers *generally* behave in each of the following way towards burglary victims:

16. Provide further information and/or advice throughout the secondary investigation until case is closed	Very unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Undecided	Somewhat likely	Very likely
17. Provide them work email and/or direct telephone number	Very unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Undecided	Somewhat likely	Very likely
18. Believe that contact with them is tolerated but not desired	Very unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Undecided	Somewhat likely	Very likely
19. Contact the victims only if necessary	Very unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Undecided	Somewhat likely	Very likely
20. Ignore them	Very unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Undecided	Somewhat likely	Very likely
21. Neglect them	Very unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Undecided	Somewhat likely	Very likely

Please indicate your

Gender: Male Female

Age:

Rank: PC DC PS DS Insp. DI Ch/Insp DCI Supt D/Supt Ch/Supt DCS

Total length of service: _____years_____months

Approximate number of cases as OIC:_____

University Research Ethics reference: UREC 1451

Police officers' perceptions of crime victims and case handling

In an effort to explore police officers' helping actions and intentions, I am conducting a research study with police officers as part of a PhD psychology project in London South Bank University. Your input can help me to answer questions about police officers' helping actions and views regarding victims of crime and will allow you to express your views about these topics from a police officer's point of view. You will be asked to read a short description of a hypothetical crime based on real-life case and asked 20 questions relating to police actions and perceptions about victims. It should take you approximately 10 minutes to complete the survey.

If you are interested in taking part please reply to:

aihion@lsbu.ac.uk

and I will email you the survey. Please write 'Participate' on the subject field.

Your input is very important and will be kept strictly confidential; no other officer or supervisor will be made aware about your participation, and no one from the MPS will have access to the data. Only the researcher and University supervisor have access to data or responses. Your responses will also remain anonymous; you will be assigned an ID code.

This research project has been approved by London South Bank University Research Ethics Board and MPS Research.

You have a right to ask questions before deciding to participate or before you complete the questionnaire. If you have any questions or would prefer to complete a paper survey please email me at aihion@lsbu.ac.uk. Should you wish to contact the London South Bank University Ethics Committee for further questions, or you wish to comment on the research or the researchers please contact: ethics@lsbu.ac.uk quoting the UREC number.

After completing the questionnaire I will confirm that I have received your responses with a debrief form.

You have the right to withdraw at any time without giving a reason and without penalty.

Sincerely,
Nelli Aihio
Division of Psychology
London South Bank University
London
aihion@lsbu.ac.uk

Participant ID: B-C_NN00

University Research Ethics reference: UREC 1451
Police officers' perceptions of crime victims and case handling

CONSENT FORM

Please read the following statements before proceeding, these are your rights as a participant and what you would agree on before giving your consent to participate:

I agree that

- I fully understand the nature and purpose of the study
- I am taking part anonymously
- I am aware that I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time or up to 7 days after the completion of the questionnaire without giving a reason and without penalty. Please provide your Participant ID if withdrawing.
- I am under no obligation to divulge personal information if I do not feel so inclined
- Any information identifying me with my data will be securely stored in a separate location.
- The data I provide will be treated confidentially and, if presented (e.g. in a journal paper or at an academic conference), personal details which would allow me to be identified will be removed.
- I give my consent to participate by returning a completed survey.

I hereby fully and freely consent to participate in the study

Signature: _____

Print name: _____

Date ____ / ____ / ____

Please return this form together with the Questionnaire and keep one copy for your records.

Please make note of your participant ID number at the top of this page.

You have the right to withdraw at any time without giving a reason and without penalty.

Sincerely,
 Nelli Aihio
 Division of Psychology
 London South Bank University
 London
 aihion@lsbu.ac.uk

Participant ID: B-C_NN001

Thank you for taking part in this study!

You have answered questions that allow expressions of police helping intentions and behaviours towards victims and perceptions about victims and their behaviour. Your responses will help us in analysing how those perceptions about victims may affect police intentions and behaviours. There were no right or wrong answers; I am interested in your honest views.

The purpose of this study is also to investigate if there are any differences in helping intentions based on, for example, crime type and victim type and to map the general culture within the police in terms of dealing with victims of crime. Your responses help in understanding how officers feel and think and hopefully will result in future recommendations that are helpful to you as a police officer.

Here are contact details should you have any queries, wish to receive a summary of the findings or wish to withdraw from the study (to withdraw please email me your Participant ID within the next 7 days and enter "Withdraw" on the subject line):

Researcher contact details:

Nelli Aihio
Division of Psychology
London South Bank University
London
aihion@lsbu.ac.uk

Supervisor contact details:

Dr Daniel Frings
Division of Psychology
London South Bank University
London
Email: fringsd@lsbu.ac.uk

If you have been affected by any of the questions on the survey, or feel that you may need support in general please contact your Occupational Health Department or for confidential emotional support outside the MPS:

Mind (mental health charity)
Tel 0300 1233393
www.mind.org.uk

Should you wish to make a comment on the study or the researcher please contact LSBU Ethics Committee by email ethics@lsbu.ac.uk.