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THE FEAR OF IDENTITY MOTIVATED CRIME:

AN "IDENTITY-IN-COMMUNITY CONTEXT" VULNERABILITY PERSPECTIVE

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Criminology

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ABSTRACT

This study uses an "identity-in-community context" vulnerability framework to determine how social and physical markers of vulnerability are associated with *general* fear of crime and the fear of *biased* crime based on (1) race, ethnicity, nationality; (2) gender and sexuality; and (3) political identity. Results show that key markers of vulnerability, such as age, race/ethnicity, gender, and education are associated with being fearful both within categories of fear and across categories. Key markers of vulnerability are revealed as significant predictors of fear across categories of bias, supporting an intersectional framework when understanding fear of bias-motivated victimization across categories of bias. This study also considers the role of perceived collective efficacy in the communities in which people are situated, with a particular focus on how perceived collective efficacy might attenuate the effects of indicators of physical and social vulnerability on fear of bias crime. Results provide mixed support for the direct relationship of collective efficacy across categories of fear of crime. Interaction terms are used to better understand the possible moderating relationship between collective efficacy and key markers of vulnerability on fear, with mixed support shown across categories of bias-motivated fear of crime and general fear of crime. Finally, I explore the role of the perceived likelihood of risk of victimization on the relationship between vulnerability, collective efficacy, and fear. Results from the inclusion of perceived risk show that much of the effect of collective efficacy operates through the perceived risk of victimization, considered the most proximal measure of vulnerability in this study. I use data from a sample of 1,500 respondents of a YouGov survey investigating reactions to crime in both online and offline space administered in late 2021. The data is recently gathered and is used to explore fear of crime in a contemporary context. I use a range of descriptive methods and logistic and OLS regressions to determine results of variables on different outcomes. Results are shown in tables and expanded upon using predicted probabilities. A supplemental analysis also considers the difference of effects using a more conservative measure of the outcome variable to engage with theoretical conversations of measurement for a relatively little explored outcome variable—the fear of bias-motivated crime. Findings speak to important theoretical developments for the vulnerability perspective and fear of crime for a highly relevant crime type, bias-motivated crime. Discussed in tandem with limitations and areas for future development, this study serves as an explanatory and exploratory study using novel data and measures to better understand how fear operates with bias and vulnerability from an "identity-in-community context" framework.

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INTRODUCTION

The role of fear in our contemporary society takes many forms across collective and individual experiences. The fear of crime, a particular form of fear, has been a topic of focus across academic and public conversation for centuries. Much of this focus has been on the determined negative effects of fear of crime on individuals and communities (Farrall et al., 2009; Hale, 1996; Skogan & Maxfield, 1981), including a decrease in individual well-being, self-trust, and trust in one's community (Rader, 2004; Skogan, 1987). Focusing on bias-motivated crimes, or criminal offenses motivated by prejudice against an individual's race, ethnicity, religion, gender, sexuality, or other group trait, the same logic holds. Currently, bias-motivated crimes, also known as hate crimes or identity-motivated crimes, are at a concerningly high level, with scholars and activists alike calling attention to the myriad of factors contributing to their rise (Flores et al., 2022; Lantz & Wenger, 2023; Wenger et al., 2022). In public discourse, The Human Rights Campaign senior vice president, Jay Brown, saying: "The level of fear the [LGBTQ+] community is feeling is real" (Parks, 2022), or Jo-Ann Yoo, executive director of the Asian American Federation, quoted as saying "the fear [among Asian Americans] is very real" (Chao, 2022), stand as powerful examples of how vulnerable populations think about the fear of bias-motivated crime in contemporary time.

Fear of crime, one of the many explored responses people experience to both real and imagined criminal threats, has been a topic of criminological research since the 1960s. The fear of being criminally victimized—conceptually thought of as the emotional response to the threat of crime—works in distinct yet related ways to the more cognitive-based perceived risk of victimization (Ferraro & LaGrange, 1987). Taken together these concepts form a broad scholarship around the study of people's 'reactions to crime', or the study of how we come to develop, make sense of, and react to criminal victimization and offending. A person's fear of crime is understood to be conceptually and empirically different from actual rates of crime as

well as crime severity (Smith, 1987). Scholars consider the way that fear of crime operates in situational and ecological contexts alike, arguing that the 'unpredictable stranger' (Lupton & Tulloch, 1999) and unpredictable neighborhood operate as a type of 'folk devil' (Cohen, 1972) that become the focus of generalized and specific worry, anxiety, and fear. This uncertainty is what scholars have tried to isolate, measure, and test in scholarship on fear of crime, finding support for its impact at the individual, community, and societal levels.

Fear of crime has an especially relevant role in research and discourse on bias-motivated crime. Previous research finds that hate-crime victimization has a particularly harmful effect on both individual (Lantz & Kim, 2019) and community well-being (Bell & Perry, 2015), however, few quantitative studies have been able to examine the fear of identity-motivated crime as a specific dependent variable in comparison to general fear of crime. Focusing on the emotional fear of crime using the vulnerability perspective, this current study explores the relationships between individual identity-related markers of vulnerability, community perceptions, and general fear of crime in comparison to fear of crime motivated by an individual's racial, ethnic, national, gender and sexuality, and political identity. Understanding fear among vulnerable people is an important area of research, as the impact of fear on individuals and communities generally can reinforce perceived vulnerability amongst those who already experience or perceive the highest risk. This research thus serves to illuminate the influences of fear of crime generally versus fear of identity-motivated crime with the potential to place interventions and support for vulnerable populations.

This paper serves as an exploration of the role of "identity-in-community context" by focusing on the role of perceived community collective efficacy on the relationship between identity-based vulnerability and fear of being a victim of a bias-motivated crime. Specifically, this paper investigates if perceptions of community-level collective efficacy moderate the relationship between individual traits of vulnerability and the fear of being a victim of an identity-

motivated crime. While early research established individual traits as predictive of fear of crime, over time research has given more attention to the important influence of community context. Given that everyday bias-motivated incidents are more likely to occur more frequently and near the home of the victim (Benier, 2017; Iganski, 2001), findings on the role of community cohesion and collective efficacy offer important contributions to the impact of community perceptions on the fear of bias-motivated crime. In addition, this study considers the effects of risk perception with collective efficacy. Understanding the perceived risk of victimization as a key measure of vulnerability based on characteristics of the individual and their community (Ferraro, 1995), its effects in addition to collective efficacy speak to each concept's impact on fear of crime. In sum, using descriptive, bivariate, and logistic regression analysis, this paper has the following goals of exploration:

> *Goal 1*: To explore the interrelatedness of bias-motivated crime across categories of vulnerability. Specifically, how strongly correlated are fears of bias-motivated crime based on race/ethnicity/nationality, gender/sexuality, and political identities? Additionally, do the identity markers of race/ethnicity/nationality, gender/sexuality, and political identity impact each of the three bias-motivated fears?
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> *Goal 2*: To investigate and compare the relationships between markers of vulnerability and general fear of crime versus the fear of bias-motivated crime. As will be seen below, much research links identity and community-based markers of vulnerability to general fear of crime, but less has examined vulnerability with bias-motivated offending.
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> *Goal 3:* To investigate the role of perceived collective efficacy on the relationship between identity markers of vulnerability and the fear of bias-motivated crime—thus understanding vulnerability from an "identity-in-community-context" perspective.
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> *Goal 4*: To analyze how the effects of markers of vulnerability (including identity and perceived neighborhood efficacy) on fear of bias-motivated crime and fear of crime

generally might operate through the perceived risk of victimization— theorizing cognitive perception of risk of future victimization as a direct measure of vulnerability, with other indicators of vulnerability affecting fear indirectly.

Goal 5: To examine the robustness of findings to alternative measurements of bias-motivated fear of crime (included in supplementary analysis).

To establish the literature on these goals, the background of this paper is developed from a wealth of previous research that focuses on fear of crime across a range of general and specific causes and consequences. The background begins with a review of the fear of crime literature. It then develops its focus toward the vulnerability perspective, which is used in part to explain differences in fear of crime across the social identities of race, ethnicity, nationality; gender and sexuality; and political identity. Finally, a brief review of community collective efficacy cohesion and perceived risk demonstrate how vulnerability and fear of crime are related to factors beyond the individual.

BACKGROUND

Fear of Crime

Fear of crime is a well-explored topic within criminological research since the mid-1960s, with academic research broadly addressing people's reactions to the real and imagined threat of victimization and offending. However, both academic and public conversations about the anxieties and worries around fear of crime date much further back. Evidence shows that concern amongst the public about the dangers of place and people is not a historically new phenomenon (Curtis, 2001), and as definitions of certain behaviors have become criminal (or not) through legal and informal codes, different crimes have gone in and out of public concern. Looking beyond crime, fear is a very well-explored emotion in humans (Izard, 1977). Fear is thought of as a common and rational response to a present or perceived threat, a coping strategy for humans and other animals to increase their likelihood of survival in a broad range of

circumstances (Lazarus et al., 1980). Understanding fear as an innate emotion of humans that informs various aspects of our reality including crime, fear has long operated within public and private conversation to various ends.

In their analysis of fear of crime as a mechanism of social control, Farrall et al. (2009) highlight some important explanations as to why crime has taken a prominent role in our contemporary perspectives on individual and collective safety. As crime became a central social and political issue through social and economic changes in the mid-20th century, such as increased consumerism, reduction in situational and informal social controls, and an increase in free time among young males:

> "We have seen increasing levels of public anxieties about crime, heightened punitive political rhetoric and action relating to both crime and fear of crime, a greater prominence given to the victim in criminal justice policy, greater force given to public opinion in the policy-making process, more emphasis given to security and the management of risk, and an expansion of crime prevention and commercialization of crime control through private security" (Farrall et al., 2009, p. 9)

The authors go on to explain several other theories of the increase in worry around crime, including greater exposure to crime among liberal elites and the middle class in the 1960s and 1970s, mass media heightening the social significance of crime, growing visibility of community disorder and symbols associated with crime, the rise of affluence, and crime worry as a way of people expressing general concern around the experience of rapid social change (Farrall et al., 2009; Hale, 1996). These various interrelated reasons informed public and academic motivations for focusing on fear of crime. As social change has continued to progress rapidly, many of these motivations have remained the same or taken other shapes, making fear of crime a still-relevant topic of research today.

Shortly after turning their attention to people's reactions to crime in the mid-20th century, social researchers began attempts to measure fear of crime. Scholars point to the creation of the President's Crime Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice created by Lyndon Johnson in 1965 for the collection of this early data. The committee commissioned three reports that, in part, led to the creation of the National Crime Surveys (NCS) conducted by the Bureau of Justice Statistics (BJS) in creating studies that included questions about people's attitudes toward crime and perceptions of safety (Farrall et al., 2009). Additionally, surveys like the General Social Survey (GSS) started asking individuals in the 1970s about their fear of crime at night along with information about their experiences of crime and victimization (Henson & Reyns, 2015). Not soon after these surveys began asking questions related to crime perceptions, researchers began to develop the measurement and conceptualization of fear, with Furstenburg (1971) making an early classification between what he called fear of crime and "concern with crime". From this distinction, researchers have carried the conceptual view that reactions to crime, consist of both: fear, or the emotional response to the threat of crime; and perceived risk, or the cognitive assessment of risk for victimization (Ferraro & LaGrange, 1987). Importantly, these indicators of emotion and perception of risk were found to be related, while not strong enough to suggest they were measuring the same construct (Warr, 1987).

As debates around measurement developed, so too did definitions of fear of crime. Ferraro's seminal definition of fear of crime as "an emotional response of dread or anxiety to crime or symbols that a person associates with crime" (Ferraro, 1995, p. 4), was highly influential in shaping fear as a particular reaction to the threat of crime, distinct from perceived risk (detailed later). Chadee et al. (2007) also define fear of crime as an emotional response and perceived risk as the cognitive response formed out of an assessment of the likelihood of being victimized. While these and several other definitions of fear of crime within the literature exist, Lane et al. (2014) address how definitions share common elements including i) describing fear of crime as a

negative emotional response, ii) in response to threat or danger, and iii) both in response to actual and potential crime. These definitions of fear examine the way that the emotional response of fear can be drawn from a broad range of symbols and signals, including visual neighborhood disorder, perceptions of community cohesion, and social vulnerability, which are expanded more in the collective efficacy review of this paper.

While these debates of measurement and definition went on, researchers discovered many important findings related to fear of crime. From the 1970s through the 2000s fear of crime researchers focused heavily on populations considered to be vulnerable (Lane et al., 2014) including populations such as the elderly (LaGrange & Ferraro, 1989) and women (Ferraro, 1996; Young, 1992). The studies found key differences between age and gender for those who hold more vulnerable social statuses. During this time, building off the previous definitional work, researchers also began to incorporate the influence of perceived risk on fear. Researchers used both individual-and neighborhood-level factors to find key differences between the fear of crime and perceived risk of crime (LaGrange et al., 1992; Rountree & Land, 1996). This era of research also found the positive impact of previous victimization on levels of fear (Smith & Hill, 1991). Since the 2000s, other developments in fear of crime research have progressed our understanding. These include further development of measurement, including the use of Likert and other scales (Fisher & Sloan, 2003; Wilcox et al., 2007), as well as the use of crime-specific measures of fear, perceived risk, and previous victimization (Lane & Fox, 2013). These developments in research importantly address the heterogeneous nature of fear of crime across a range of crime, individual, and ecological factors, and support the complex nature of fear in our contemporary society.

Vulnerability Perspective

The vulnerability perspective explains differences in worry and fears people have about being victimized based on their ascribed or identified status as vulnerable persons. The vulnerability perspective establishes that an individual's fear of crime is positively related to their

social status as a social minority (Lane & Fox, 2013) and suggests that individuals with actual or perceived vulnerability (or vulnerable social characteristics) have more serious reactions to the threat of criminal victimization (Henson & Reyns, 2015). The vulnerability theoretical perspective focuses on differences based on personal characteristics including gender, age, race, and immigration status, and predicts that those who hold marginalized identities will feel increased vulnerability to the threat of crime because of their vulnerable social standing. Research from this perspective is supported by findings that, in addition to experiencing victimization, hearing about events of victimization and knowing others who have been victimized amplifies the perception of vulnerability through the fear and risk of victimization (Chiricos et al., 1997; Skogan et al., 1981). For example, Hale's (1996) review supported that indirect experiences of crime may play a stronger role in worry about victimization than direct experiences.

The vulnerability perspective is conceptualized to contain both physical vulnerability and social vulnerability (Gainey et al., 2011; Lane et al., 2014). Physical vulnerability is tied to a person's (in)ability to prevent victimization through physical means and has been used to explain higher fear of crime for the elderly (Skogan & Maxfield, 1981) and for women (Franklin & Franklin, 2009), given the potential for physical differences between the would-be elderly/female victim and the probable young male offender. These ideas are built in some part on media, familial, and other direct and indirect messages that violent crime by strangers happens to those who cannot defend themselves, despite the opposite most often being true (Lauristsen & Rezey, 2013). The social vulnerability perspective extends beyond physical differences to say that persons with certain social characteristics have high levels of fear of crime because of their characteristics' link with the actual or perceived vulnerability to victimization. Social characteristics such as being non-White, low income, less educated, belonging to a historically marginalized group, or otherwise being less able to respond or recover from victimization, are more likely to feel vulnerable and experience greater fear than those without these characteristics

(Haynie, 1998; Henson & Reyns, 2015). Social vulnerability has also been tied to a general lack of social and political power, such as among people of color and poor people, who may feel less able to protect themselves (Chiricos et al., 1997; Pantazis, 2000). Taking social and physical vulnerability together, the vulnerability perspective considers both physical and social differences as well as the real and perceived threat of victimization in influencing a person's fear of crime. These perspectives are the main theoretical background for this paper, and the following sections explain how vulnerability works within the three identity groups of focus: racial, ethnic, and national identity; gender and sexuality; and political identity.

Race, Ethnicity, and Nationality

Race, ethnicity, and nationality are well-explored social factors in fear of crime research, including the vulnerability perspective (Lane et al., 2014). Early research found that non-White respondents were more afraid of crime than white respondents (Baumer, 1979) and since then, much research has held up these differences across racial, ethnic, and nationality categories. Other work has challenged this view, however, with some research finding that White respondents are more fearful of crime or no meaningful differences across racial and ethnic categories (Ferguson & Mindel, 2007; Gainey et al., 2011). Still, a large majority of studies have established that fear is higher for people of color than White respondents, including Black, Hispanic, and Asian respondents (Chiricos et al., 2001; Eitle & Taylor, 2008). Another main conclusion has been that the relationship between fear and race is best understood to interact with other individual and ecological factors. For example, in a study that explores fear of crime amongst Asian respondents, Grubb & Bouffard (2014) find that the relationship between race and fear is moderated by factors such as immigration status, length of stay in the U.S., language, and other cultural and social factors. Importantly, fear of crime is heterogenous across racial groups and is influenced by a range of other confounding factors.

The minority threat perspective has influenced some research on White respondents' fear of crime and assumes that as the perceived racial and ethnic diversity increases in a given area, the fear of victimization increases (Blalock, 1967; Blumer, 1958). Findings support that the minority threat largely depends on the relative size of a minority population in influencing White respondents' fear of crime (Chiricos et al., 1997). Informing a broad vulnerability perspective, racial and ethnic minority groups' fear of crime has been linked to their subordinate social, economic, and political status since the late 1980s, with differences in fear of crime and its effects discussed in the context of broader social inequality (Pain, 2000; Smith, 1987; Valentine, 1989). Previous research supports that Black, Native American, Hispanic, and mixed-race persons are more likely than Whites to be victims of hate crime (Cheng et al., 2013; Ruback et al., 2015), creating a heightened sense of fear of crime linked to their higher risk of victimization. This higher fear of hate crime victimization decreases the use of their community spaces, mental health, and overall quality of life (Craig-Henderson & Sloan, 2003; Iganski, 2001).

Research on the relationship between fear of crime and nationality has largely focused on the experiences of immigrants. Research on the relationship between foreign-born status and fear of crime has found that foreign-born immigrants experience greater rates of fear than U.S.-born populations (Brown & Benedict, 2004; Lee & Ulmer, 2000). Menjvar & Bejarano (2003) introduce how immigrants experience a "bifocal lens" in which their experiences in the country in which they now live use the experiences from their home countries as a point of reference, including their perception of crime. This lens can operate to decrease fear, with some immigrants having greater faith in the U.S. justice system than in their home countries' systems (Davis et al., 1998; Menjvar & Bejarano, 2003). However, others note that negative experiences with authorities in their country of origin can lead to distrust in the destination countries' authorities (Pogrebin & Poole, 1990). The process of acculturation is found to be an important factor in the relationship with fear, with research supporting that stronger acculturation is associated with

lower fear and perceived risk of crime (Wu & Wareham, 2017; Wu & Wen, 2014). In line with minority threat perspective, Zaatut & Jacobsen's (2023) study of Arab respondents' fear finds that it is largely shaped by ethnic's perceptions of their neighborhood and their non-Arab neighbors, notably Hispanic and Black residents deemed 'dangerous'. This research supports that nationality is an equally important marker of vulnerability that works in related ways to race and nationality. Knowing that the impact of bias-motivated victimization is affected by foreign-born status (Wenger et al., 2022), nationality should be understood as a key predictor of fear.

The relationship between race, ethnicity, nationality, and fear of crime for bias-motivated crimes is limited despite contemporary research finding high rates of bias-motivated victimization among social minorities. Research on anti-Asian hate crimes in the U.S. during the COVID-19 pandemic reported that 34% of respondents reported some type of personal bias-motivated victimization and 61.7% reported that the fear of victimization affected how they acted and behaved (Lantz & Wenger, 2023). Knowing that fear of crime is impacted by previous victimization (Ferraro, 1995; Rountree, 1998), this project applies the vulnerability perspective to better understand the role of previous victimization in addition to markers of vulnerability on the fear of crime among racial, ethnic, and nationality-based minorities.

Gender & Sexuality

An early and consistent finding in studies investigating individual characteristics and their relationship to fear is that females are more fearful of criminal victimization than males (Ferraro, 1995), found across a range of crime types and neighborhood conditions (Rader & Haynes, 2011; Schafer et al., 2006). The vulnerability perspective has been used to explain this relationship, with both the lesser physical size and strength of females and their lessened social power used as explanations (Scarborough et al., 2010; Skogan & Maxfield, 1981). This perspective has been applied to study the interaction of gender with other markers of vulnerability, with Franklin & Franklin (2009) finding that as women got older, their fear of

crime decreased—theorized as a result of their decreased vulnerability to sexual assault. Lane et al. (2014) use this finding to support the idea that the vulnerability and sexual assault hypothesis may work interrelatedly to impact women's fear of crime. The sexual assault hypothesis, or shadow of sexual assault (Ferraro, 1996), supports that women are more afraid of crime because of the possibility of violent sexual assault. This theory exists in line with what Ferraro (1995) had earlier called the "gender-fear paradox", or the paradoxical reality that women have higher rates of fear despite strong findings that females are less likely than males to be victims of crimes. Taken together, these theories support that women experience a heightened sense of vulnerability that informs their fear of crime across a range of crime types and circumstances.

Broadly, gender is understood as one of the strongest and most widely-accepted predictors of fear of crime (May et al., 2010). In line with explanations of fear using the vulnerability perspective, research attributed women's increased fears due to the secretive nature of many crimes against women (e.g. domestic abuse), the perception of victims as those with privilege, and the notion of the criminal as unfamiliar and dangerous (Madriz, 1997). Earlier research using the sensitivity to risk model found the impact of perceived likelihood on fear of crime is moderated by perceptions of crime seriousness and showed that women had higher levels of fear of crime than men for crimes because of their higher physical vulnerability (Warr, 1987). Knowing that gender is a socially constructed concept (Butler, 1990; Connell, 2002), vulnerability is also shaped by the ways that men and women are trained to 'do gender' (West & Zimmerman, 1987). This can include women being taught vulnerability and dependence on men in certain situations and men not being taught to avoid the same situations, explaining differences in fear. Taking these multiple perspectives together, the vulnerability perspective is informed by a range of physical and social factors that contribute to women's heightened sense of fear.

The relationship between fear of crime and sexuality is understood to be different across different crime types and based on previous experiences of victimization (Laing & Davies, 2011;

Otis, 2007). Research on fear of crime amongst sexual and gender minorities found that in the wake of major anti-LGBTQ violence, those who were at the margins of gender and sexual orientation (those that are female, lesbian, genderqueer, queer, transgender, or bisexual), were more likely to report fear compared to males and gay men (Stults et al., 2017). Theories on the role of sexuality and fear of crime tend to fall in line with theories of gender and fear and use the social vulnerability hypothesis (Franklin & Franklin, 2009). These effects of this vulnerability are felt at more than the individual level, with prior research defining hate crimes as "message crimes", which have exogenous effects on the broader community, particularly those who share common social identities and characteristics. Research supports that those who hear about hate crimes and share common traits can exhibit similar symptoms to the primary victim (Herek et al., 1997). Given that the fear of crime measures included within the data used herein join "sexuality and gender identity", these concepts are understood to be a part of similar constructs in which those who fall at the margins of gender and sexuality are most likely to report a greater fear of crime. While often measured separately, Mittleman (2023) uses adolescent bullying to demonstrate how victimization can operate under a "gender policing" framework. He argues victimization may be better understood as a result of gender expression rather than identifying as a sexual minority—a way of punishing 'gender trouble' (Butler, 1990) as opposed to homophobia. Thus, using a measure of gender identity may pick up on some of the impact of sexual identity, which is not included as a measure in the data, and is expanded upon in the limitations and future directions section of this paper.

Political Identity

Of the other identity measures included within this project, political identity is the least explored, if not entirely ignored, factor within research on fear of crime. This can be partly explained by the conceptual ambiguity of 'political identity', which is not an established category within sociological and criminological research. For most U.S.-based research, political identity

is largely synonymous with political party affiliation in which individuals identify in line with the agendas of political groups, and political groups align with the interests of individuals (Greene, 1999). In line with social identity theory, individuals place value and importance on group affiliation which can result in perceptual and attitudinal biases and can reify American partisanship along Democratic, Republican, Independent and other (e.g., Green) political categories (Greene, 1999). Political parties can thus become an important part of an individual's social identity and can present stronger social ties than religious, ethnic, linguistic, or geographic in-group attachments (Westwood et al., 2018).

Within victimization research, political identity is not widely recognized as a factor related to respondents' fear of crime and risk of victimization. However, recent politically motivated crimes, such as the attack against Nancy Pelosi and her husband and the rise in right-wing extremist acts demonstrate a rise in public awareness and knowledge of politically motivated crimes. The literature is unclear on whether political identity influences fear of crime or the risk of victimization. However, given the historical rise in political party animosity (Doherty et al., 2016), it can be assumed that a dividing political consensus may lead to greater in-group and out-group distinctions and subsequent behaviors. Previous research has also outlined how political life and broader political ideologies shape concerns about crime. Farrall et al. (2009) describe fear as "something of an elite-constructed and publically-maintained exaggeration of the reality of public anxieties driven by politics" (Farrall et al., 2009, p. 105). Brown's (2016) research also highlights how GOP candidates find voter support by appealing to racially-focused debates, especially framing immigrants as a main source of criminal threats. These findings support the idea that political identity is a potentially important status that can affect one's fear of crime. Given the importance that political identity has within our contemporary world, this paper plans to further explore the impacts this identity measure has on crime perceptions, specifically fear of crime using the vulnerability perspective.

Collective Efficacy

Research supports that the fear of crime is related to how an individual makes sense of their community (Banks, 2005; Scarborough et al., 2010; Smith, 1987). This includes an individual's assessment of their neighbors and sense of community cohesion, or 'collective efficacy' (Farrall et al., 2009). The criminological term collective efficacy is born out of the social disorganization literature and represents the capacity of residents, organizations, and other groups to exert social control and thereby reduce crime and violence (Sampson & Raudenbush, 2004). While collective efficacy is often used to explain neighborhood variation in crime rates, it is also used within victimization research to predict individual-level outcomes (Maimon & Browning, 2010). Collective efficacy theory stresses the importance of a community in being able to solve its commonly identified problems, such as crime and safety, and can be understood as the 'local social eyes' in the community (Hardyns et al., 2018). Higher rates of perceived collective efficacy are associated with reduced violence and lower crime rates, more generally (Pratt & Cullen, 2005; Sampson et al., 1997).

Collective efficacy's role in fear is linked to the "disorder model" of fear of crime. The disorder model considers the characteristics of a neighborhood in the analysis of fear, based on the idea that perceptions of disorder in one's community contribute to a greater fear of crime (LaGrange et al., 1992; Skogan et al., 1981). This perspective focuses on "social and physical incivilities" (LaGrange et al., 1992) that exemplify disorder in a community through either social factors such as public rowdiness and public crime or physical disorder such as litter, garbage, and graffiti. While both factors of disorder are found to contribute to some extent to fear, Gibson et al. support that "perceptions of collective efficacy are deeply grounded in social structural contexts…like neighborhood disorder" (2002, p. 544). Citing Sampson et al. (1997), the authors argue that the disorder model should be understood in interaction with collective efficacy. Gibson

et al. (2002) go on to find that higher perceptions of collective efficacy had a positive impact on alleviating fear of crime while controlling for other predictors of fear of crime.

The limited work on the role of collective efficacy on identity-motivated crime finds that residents of neighborhoods with high collective efficacy likely provide guardianship over each other, reducing the risk of hate crime victimization (McNeeley & Overstreet, 2018). Additionally, knowing that everyday bias-motivated incidents are more likely to occur more frequently and near the home of the victim (Benier, 2017; Iganski, 2001), the role of an individual's community is predicted to have an important effect on their reactions to bias-motivated crime. These perceptions of one's neighborhood can, and should, be understood in tandem with the vulnerability perspective which supports that one's sense of community can impact their sense of vulnerability. What remains unclear is how community perceptions impact fear along with, or in interaction with, social markers of vulnerability. Taken in tandem with the vulnerability perspective, this paper serves as a test of whether an individual's perceptions of collective efficacy attenuate or amplify the relationship between social vulnerability and fear of identity-motivated crime.

Perceived Risk

As highlighted, perceived risk can be defined as the subjective likelihood of victimization, thought of as distinct but related to the emotional sense of fear a person has about being victimized. The relationship between fear of crime and risk perception is well established (Ferraro, 1995; Jackson, 2004; Gainey et al., 2011, Rountree & Land, 1996), supporting that those who report themselves at a higher risk of becoming a victim have higher levels of fear. It is, in fact, viewed as one of the most direct indicators of vulnerability and thus one of the more proximal predictors of fear. As Ferraro (1995) and LaGrange et al. (1992) show, risk perception is theorized to increase fear of crime while mediating the effect of individual (e.g., gender, age, race) and social factors (e.g., incivilities). Ferraro (1995) also supports this by finding that the

perceived level of social incivilities in a neighborhood significantly influences one's perception of risk, which in turn heightens fear of crime. This mediating relationship is an important consideration for this study, which explores the effects of collective efficacy as a measure of social (in)civility on fear.

The limited research on the relationship between hate crime victimization and perceived risk supports the findings from research on more general crime and risk. Among a sample of sexual minorities, Otis (2007) finds that females, people in neighborhoods characterized by incivility, and those who experienced previous victimization have a heightened sense of the perceived risk of personal hate crime victimization. This research touches on how perceived risk is a response to both personal victimization and indirect victimization—or the by proxy experiences one interprets through incidents in other people's lives (Covington & Taylor, 1991). In this, perceived risk can be facilitated by other measures of vulnerability.

For this study of bias-motivated victimization, perceived risk is also theorized to operate within the "identity-in-community-context" model of fear. Including perceived risk in this study will allow (1) exploration of its impact on fear of crime directly, and (2) exploration of the potential indirect impact of identity and perceived collective efficacy through cognitive risk perception.

METHODOLOGY

Data and Sample

Data for this project comes from 1,500 respondents of a YouGov survey investigating reactions to crime in both online and offline space administered in late 2021. The survey instrument was designed by P. Wilcox and R. McNealey, who commissioned YouGov to administer information from 1,676 respondents from its online panel of over 2 million users. The survey was designed to have equal representation across respondent-reported rural, urban, and suburban status, oversampling from urban and rural residents. While prior studies have

consistently found residents of urban areas to report a higher fear of crime (Lee, 2007; Lane et al., 2014), there is increasing research that shows heterogeneity across urban, rural, and suburban communities (Pleggenkuhle & Schafer, 2018). The use of this data was submitted to the Pennsylvania State University Institutional Review Board per regulation of research on human subjects (Study 00021292) and was determined exempt.

YouGov uses a unique, two-stage sample-matching design for model-based inference (Ansolabehere & Schaffner, 2014). First, YouGov generates a target sample (representative of US adults) using information from the American Community Survey (ACS) and Current Population Survey (CPS). Of this larger sample, 1,500 respondents were matched to a sample from the 2019 CPS on age, race/ethnicity, gender, and education. YouGov then uses propensity score matching in this process and applies weights to the sample to achieve representativeness (Ansolabehere & Schaffner, 2014; Vavreck & Rivers, 2008). In doing so, sample biases are minimized based on the variables used for matching and weighting. Evidence shows YouGov's procedures produce equally representative samples to other probability sampling methods (Graham et al., 2021). Additionally, because of YouGov's robust sampling framework, all variables have a very low non-response rate (>1%), which addresses concerns about non-response measurement bias. The recency of the data collection allows for a uniquely contemporary lens on the fear of crime both generally and for the fear of bias-motivated crime, an increasingly reported on experience (Chao, 2022). The data importantly assesses fear of crime in the present for comparison across previous findings and to establish a current understanding of fear across crime types.

Measures

Dependent Variables

The four dependent variables of interest are (1) fear of crime in general; (2) fear of race/ethnicity/nationality-motivated crime; (3) fear of gender/sexuality-motivated crime; and (4) fear of crime motivated by political identity. The measure of general fear is constructed by

creating a scale of combined responses to survey items asking about the fear of crime for theft, burglary, robbery, assault, threat, and sexual assault. For the identity-motivated fear of crime measures, each is a dichotomous outcome measured from three survey questions asking respondents to indicate how afraid/worried they were about someone hurting or threatening them, or stealing or damaging their property, because of (1) race, ethnicity, or nationality; (2) sexuality or gender identity; and (3) political identity. Responses to all fear items in the survey were measured on a 5-point sliding scale from "Not at all worried/afraid" to "Very Worried/Afraid". Respondents who reported a 3, 4, or 5 on the scale were recoded as 1, or "Fearful", for the purposes of this study. Those who reported a 1 or 2 were recoded as 0, or "Not fearful". The binary recoding was based on the operationalization of previous studies on fear of crime using a 5-point scale (Tillyer et al., 2011). A more conservative measure of fear is outlined in the supplementary analysis. The exact survey language related to fear of crime is included in Table 1.

[Table 1 about here]

Key Explanatory Variables

In using the vulnerability perspective as a main framework for this paper, individual traits of social vulnerability are key predictors of fear of bias-motivated crime. Gender is a strong predictor of fear of crime across a range of crime types and is measured as a 2-category variable for a conflated sex and gender identity of man as 1 and a combined measure of women, non-binary, and transgender respondents (gender minority status) as 0. Race and ethnicity, another important predictor of fear of crime, is measured on a four-point scale of White (1), Black (2), Hispanic (3), and else, including Asian, Native American, Middle Eastern, and two or more races (4). Given the inclusion of race/ethnic/and nationality-motivated crimes, I also control for immigrant status measured (on a three-point scale) as a current citizen/non-citizen first-generation immigrant (1), being a second generation immigrant (2), or a third wave immigrant or later generation (3). I also include political party, measured on a 4-point scale of Democrat (1),

republican (2), independent (3), or a combined count of those who self-designated as "else" or "not sure" (4).

The other main predictor is the measure of perceived collective efficacy and social cohesion. The collective efficacy and social cohesion questions were modeled after those in the PHDCN influenced by Sampson et al.'s (1997) original analysis of collective efficacy. The measure is constructed using a scale of eight questions (detailed in Table 2) that asked respondents their level of agreeance on a five-point scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Responses from the individual questions were averaged to form a scale (Cronbach's Alpha α=.81) which measures the extent to which respondents agree their community has a high degree of collective efficacy and social cohesion.

[Table 2 about here]

As established, risk perception is an important variable in predicting fear of crime. The risk perception variables used herein were based on survey items (outlined in Table 1) that asked respondents their perception of victimization with the question "Please indicate how likely you think the following things will happen in the next 12 months". For identity-specific analyses, risk perception is measured with three distinct variables related to one's risk of victimization based on (1) race, ethnicity, nationality; (2) gender and sexuality; or (3) political identity. Responses for each identity-specific risk were coded on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 = "very unlikely" to 5 = "very likely". For the analyses with overall risk perception as the dependent variable, risk perception is constructed by averaging the scores of risk perception (based on the same 5-point scale) for the following crime types: theft, burglary, robbery, assault, threat, and sexual assault.

Control Variables

A wide range of factors are thought to affect fear of crime based on the vulnerability perspective. The nature of this data and its focus on a range of crime behaviors and reactions allows for a range of unique control variables. Individual-level correlates of fear of crime

included in the model are education (measured as H.S. degree or less, some college, and college degree or more). Due to data missingness, income is not included as a control in this study. However, given some studies that show education is a better predictor of socioeconomic status (SES) for important outcomes (Winkleby et al., 1992), education is a more appropriate predictor of respondent SES. Given that marriage can serve as a protective factor for individuals (Schafer et al., 2006) married status of the last 12 months is included, with married coded as 1 or non-married as 0. Age is a well-established predictor of fear of crime research using the vulnerability perspective, with the elderly theorized to have higher fear than younger people despite a lower risk of victimization (Ferraro & LaGrange, 1987; Warr, 1987). Thus, age is included in the model as a continuous variable. At the community level, controls include rural, urban, and suburban status.

Other important controls are bias-motivated victimization in the last 12 months. Past victimization is one of the strongest predictors in fear of crime research (Mesch, 2000; Skogan 1987) and fits within the vulnerability perspective framework. The survey asked respondents about their previous bias victimization through three distinct questions: "Please indicate the number of times the following things happened in the past 12 months: Someone hurt or threatened me, or stole or damaged my property, because of my race, ethnicity, or nationality/sexuality or gender identity/political identity." The measures were binarized as ever experiencing a victimization type as 1 or never experiencing in the last 12 months as 0. The type of bias victimization included in each model aligns with the type of bias-related fear under investigation (i.e., the influence of previous political victimization on the current fear of politically motivated victimization). For the comparative analysis of identity-motivated fear to fear of crime overall, a measure of overall victimization of crime in the data is included. The overall measure of victimization includes a binary (1=Yes, 0=None) measure of victimization in

the past 12 months for the following crime types: theft, burglary, robbery, assault, threat, and sexual assault.

Analytic Strategy

The analytic approach for this project first begins with a descriptive analysis of the data with special attention to the distribution of fear of crime across identity categories. I then add to the descriptive analysis with an exploration of bivariate correlations between and across categories to expand on the interrelated and intersectional nature of fear, perceived risk, and victimization across social vulnerability categories. I use OLS regression models to test the research goals through the impact of the variables of interest and control variables on overall fear of crime, given the average score index measurement of the overall fear of crime outcome. I then use logistic regression to test the research goals with the three categories of bias-motivated fear of crime as the outcomes. I use logistic regression for the analysis of bias-motivated fears given the dichotomous nature of the dependent variables[1] (Long & Freese, 2006). In addition, the supplementary results include logistic regression models using a different operationalization of fear to expand on findings using a more conservative measure of fear.

RESULTS

Descriptive and Bivariate Results

Descriptive statistics for the sample are presented in Table 3. The table reveals important results about the data and the distribution of fear, perceived risk, victimization, and other key variables. Nearly one-third of the sample report being fearful of threat, theft, and property damage because of their racial, ethnic, or national identity (29%). A similar, but lesser, proportion of people also report being fearful of victimization because of their gender identity and sexuality

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[1] Ordinal logistic models (not shown) were not used due to the violation of the proportional odds assumption from preliminary analyses. Generalized logistic regression also was not appropriate given the comparative nature of interpretation with such a model specification. Hence, I elected to use binary logistic regression with the contrast of "fearful" and "not fearful."

(24%). Notably, out of the three identity categories key to this study political identity had the highest proportion of fear in the sample, with 35% of the sample reporting fear of victimization due to their political identity. Using a scale of general fear of crime from a combined measure of fear across crime types measured in the data, the overall sample's general fear of crime had a mean of 2.24.

[Table 3 about here]

Perceived risk, also measured as a score from 1 to 5, had similarly interesting distributions. The mean score of the perceived risk of victimization in the next 12 months motivated by race, ethnicity, or nationality was 1.76. As with fear of crime, the mean of perceived risk of victimization motivated by gender and sexuality was less than this with a mean of 1.65. Again, the perceived risk of victimization motivated by political identity (1.97) was the highest among the three identity categories. These means can, and should, be understood with the general perceived risk measure with a sample mean of 1.91.

Reported victimization in our sample was, fortunately, a relatively uncommon experience. 4% of the sample reported victimization in the last 12 months motivated by their race, ethnicity, or nationality. Victimization motivated by gender and sexuality (3%) and political identity (6%) were also relatively uncommon, however, with important differences between social identities. For overall victimization, 19% of the sample reported victimization.

These distributions reveal important findings for this sample and overall reactions to crime. First, gender and sexuality motivated victimization were the least reported across fear of crime, perceived risk, and bias-motivated victimization in the past 12 months. Additionally, political identity-motivated fear of crime, perceived risk, and previous victimization was the most reported among the identity categories in this study. Fear of crime, perceived risk, and previous victimization based on race, ethnicity, and nationality fell between the same variable distributions

for gender and sexuality and political identity. These parallel distributions across variables and the three identity categories are discussed further in the concluding section of the thesis.

An analysis of the bivariate correlations between variables in Table 4 reveals additional results. Relatively high correlations are evident between the fear of crime based on race, ethnicity, nationality, and fear of crime based on gender and sexuality (0.66); fear of crime based on race, ethnicity, nationality, and fear of crime based on political identity (0.67); and fear of crime based on gender and sexuality and fear of crime based on political identity (0.62). These correlations suggest that identity-based fears of crime, across various social status, are highly interrelated. This implies an important intersectional lens of fear, which is expanded upon in the discussion.

[Table 4 about here]

The results also show that the correlations between overall fear of crime and the fear of crime motivated by race, ethnicity, nationality victimization (0.70); gender and sexuality (0.60); and political identity (0.59) are moderately high. Thus, the association between identity-motivated fear of crime and fear of crime overall is notable, implying the importance of understanding fear of bias-motivated victimization in tandem with the fear of crime overall.

Similarly high correlations exist between identity categories for perceived risk. The perceived risk of victimization motivated by race, ethnicity, and nationality is highly correlated with the perceived risk of victimization motivated by gender and sexuality (0.65) and the perceived risk of victimization motivated by political identity (0.63). The correlation between the perceived risk of victimization motivated by gender and sexuality and the perceived risk of victimization motivated by political identity was less strong, but still notable at 0.55. Again, this suggests an interrelated relationship between the perceived risk of victimization across identity categories, reinforcing an intersectional perspective that is necessary for understanding not only fear of crime but also perceived risk. The results show that the correlations between overall

perceived risk and the perceived risk of crime motivated by race, ethnicity, nationality victimization (0.71); gender and sexuality (0.63), and political identity (0.57) are highly correlated, reifying again that the relationship between identity-motivated perceived risk of crime and overall perceived risk is important to consider.

To test the bivariate relationship between fear of crime and perceived risk within identity categories, Table 4 also shows the correlations between the two measures for each category. The correlation between the fear of crime motivated by race, ethnicity, nationality, and perceived risk of crime motivated by race, ethnicity, nationality is 0.59. The correlation between fear of crime and perceived risk motivated by gender and sexuality was 0.56, and the correlation between the fear of crime and perceived risk of victimization motivated by political identity was also 0.56. These correlations reinforce Ferraro and LaGrange's (1987) finding that fear of crime and perceived risk are moderately correlated, while still not high enough to be measuring the same construct of reactions to crime.

General Fear of Crime Results

To explore the relationship between markers of vulnerability and general fear of crime, Table 5 presents results for two OLS regression models. The first model incorporates the identity, control, and collective efficacy variables. The second model incorporates the measure of perceived risk to assess the role of the perceived risk of victimization—both in terms of how it affects fear but also how it might absorb/alter some of the effects of indicators of vulnerability in Model 1 (thus suggestive of indirect effects of vulnerability indicators through perceived risk). Together, these two models serve as a baseline for addressing goal 2, to compare the effects of vulnerability for bias-motivated crime versus general fear of crime.

[Table 5 about here]

Findings shown in Table 5 support that key markers of vulnerability are associated with general fear of crime. Specifically, being male was strongly associated with negative overall fear

of crime across models (-0.310; -0.236, p<0.001), holding all else constant. In model 1, those who held a racial, ethnic, or national identity of Black or Else were associated with an increase in fear of crime compared to White respondents. These results didn't hold in the second model, where only Hispanic respondents were associated with an increase in fear compared to White respondents. Second and later-generation immigrants were shown to have lower overall fear than first generation immigrants across both models, holding other variables constant. These findings match with some previous research that supports a higher fear of crime among immigrants (Brown & Benedict, 2004; Pain, 2000). Important for this study, no significant relationship between political party identification and general fear of crime was found. Age was found to be a significant predictor of decreased overall fear, holding all else constant. However, a negative coefficient of -0.007 (p<0.001), meaning a decrease in fear for every unit increase in age, goes against some expectations. Additionally, those with a college degree are shown to have significantly less general fear compared to those with a high school degree or less, supporting the vulnerability perspective and its expectations for higher fear among those with lower SES (Pantazis, 2000). In model 1, previous victimization is a significant predictor of increased fear of overall crime.

Collective efficacy was not a significant predictor of fear in model 1 against expectations of previous literature (LaGrange et al., 1992; Skogan et al., 1981). Still, model 1 shows collective efficacy to have a non-significant, but negative, relationship with overall fear of crime (goal 3). In model 2, collective efficacy becomes a positive and significant predictor of overall fear against expectations—suggesting that, net of perceived risk, collective efficacy is associated with greater not lesser odds of general fear of crime. In model 2, perceived risk is an important significant positive predictor (0.710, p<0.001), controlling for all other variables (goal 4). The findings from Table 5 establish that some of the expected markers of vulnerability in this sample are significant positive predictors of fear of general crime, such as ethnicity, age, and previous victimization.

Others, like immigrant status, gender, and education, show evidence of a negative relationship. Building on this to explore fear of crime for specific bias-motivated crimes as the dependent variable, the following results reveal overlap or divergence with the findings from overall fear of crime, thus illuminating goal 2.

Race, Ethnicity, and Nationality Motivated Fear Results

Table 6 shows the results in odds ratios with standard errors for three multivariate logistic regression models with the fear of crime motivated by race, ethnicity, and nationality as the outcome. Model 1 incorporates the identity, control, and collective efficacy variables to assess goal 2. Models 2 and 3 incorporate the interaction terms of collective efficacy with race, ethnicity, and nationality to explore whether collective efficacy accelerates or attenuates the relationship between race, ethnicity, and nationality and the fear of bias-motivated crime—to assess goal 3. Model 3 also includes the measure of the perceived risk of race, ethnicity, and nationality motivated crime to explore how perceived risk, as a direct measure of vulnerability, operates with the other measures of vulnerability and perceptions of community collective efficacy to illuminate goal 4.

<center>**[Table 6 about here]**</center>

Focusing on the key identity variables and markers of vulnerability, Table 6 reveals some important evidence for answering goal 2. In model 1, holding a Black, Hispanic, or Else racial, ethnic, or national identity has a positive relationship with the odds of being fearful of bias-motivated victimization based on race, ethnicity, and nationality. For example, in model 1 holding a Black racial identity is associated with 3.253 higher odds of fear (p<0.001), holding all other variables constant. In models 2 and 3, however, Hispanic is still positive but no longer a significant predictor of being fearful. For models 1 and 2, being a third or beyond generation immigrant is significantly associated with lower fear. In models 1 and 2, being male is associated with significantly (p<0.1) lower odds of being fearful of racial, ethnicity, and nationality

motivated crime, holding all else constant. Across all model specifications, age is significantly and negatively predictive of the odds of being fearful, akin to the results from the OLS regression of overall fear. In line with previous research on education and fear of crime, having a college degree compared to those with a H.S. degree or less, shows notable and significantly decreased odds of being fearful of race, ethnicity, and nationality bias-motivated victimization, held across all model specifications. Victimization based on race, ethnicity, and nationality and fear of the same bias-motivated crime is significantly associated with increased odds of being fearful in model 1.

In exploring goal 3, the models do not reveal evidence that collective efficacy has a significant association with the fear of racial, ethnic, and nationality motivated crime. Still, models 1 and 2 show a non-significant, but negative, relationship between collective efficacy and the odds of being fearful. In models 2 and 3, the interaction terms of collective efficacy and race, ethnicity, and nationality are not significant, providing no evidence that collective efficacy may moderate the relationship between markers of vulnerability and the fear of race, ethnicity, and nationality biased crime. However, based on the results from model 2, the predicted probability plots shown in Figure 1, Figure 2, and Figure 3 show that across percentiles of collective efficacy there is visually determined divergence of the predicted probability of being fearful of crime across racial categories with White as the reference category.

In model 3, collective efficacy has a non-significant and positive association with the odds of being fearful. This is possibly explained by perceived risk being added in model 3, which shows a positive and significant (4.491, p<0.001) relationship with the odds of being fearful, controlling for all else. This relationship is shown in Figure 4, Figure 5, and Figure 6, which differ from the predicted probabilities from model 2 in theoretically unexpected ways. The results from model 3, variation between model coefficients, and predicted probabilities suggest, per goal 4, that the measures of vulnerability and perceptions of community in the models may operate in

important ways through perceived risk. The results from Model 1 of Appendix Table 1, which explore the role of the key vulnerability variables, interactions with key vulnerability variables, control variables, and fear on a binary measure of perceived risk also confirm this. This model shows a strongly significant and negative relationship between collective efficacy and the odds of the likely risk of victimization motivated by race, ethnicity, and nationality, providing further evidence of the effect of collective efficacy on fear through perceived risk.

Gender and Sexuality Motivated Fear Results

Table 7 shows the results in odds ratios with standard errors for three multivariate logistic regression models with the fear of crime motivated by gender and sexuality as the outcome. Model 1 incorporates the identity, control, and collective efficacy variables to assess goals 2 and 3. Models 2 and 3 incorporate the interaction terms of collective efficacy with gender to explore whether collective efficacy accelerates or attenuates the relationship between gender and sexuality and the fear of bias-motivated crime—to further assess goal 3. Model 3 includes the measure of the perceived risk of gender and sexuality motivated crime to explore how perceived risk, as a key variable of vulnerability, operates with respect to other measures of vulnerability and perceptions of community collective efficacy to illuminate goal 4.

[Table 7 about here]

With attention to the identity variables and markers of vulnerability, the results reveal some key findings. Interestingly, being male is only associated with a significant decrease in the odds of being fearful of gender and sexuality-motivated crime in model 1 (0.587, p<0.01), holding all else constant. Having a Black racial identity is associated with increased odds of fear of gender and sexuality bias-motivated crime compared to White respondents across all model specifications. This finding is also true for Hispanic respondents, again compared to White respondents in this sample. These findings speak to goals 1 and 2 and suggest that race and ethnicity are important predictors of bias-motivated fear of crime beyond racial and ethnic-

motivated crime alone. Age is also a significant predictor of decreased odds of fear, a consistent

finding from the fear of race, ethnicity, and nationality motivated crime results. Education beyond

a high school degree or less is also shown to be a significant predictor in every model, with a

college degree being associated with decreased odds of being fearful in models 1 and 2 and some

college associated with decreased odds of being fearful compared to those with a high school

degree or less in model 3. Finally, previous victimization is a significant and positive predictor of

the odds of being fearful of gender and sexuality motivated crime across all models.

Collective efficacy has a significant and negative effect on the odds of being fearful of

crime motivated by gender and sexuality in model 2 holding all else constant. While collective

efficacy isn't a significant predictor in model 1, it is negatively associated with fear. In models 2

and 3, the interaction of collective efficacy and male is not significantly associated with being

fearful of victimization motivated by gender and sexuality. The predicted probabilities of fear for

model 2 are shown in Figure 7 and provide visual evidence of the differences between gender for

fear across the percentiles of collective efficacy. Still, coefficient suggests collective efficacy is

likely not an important moderator in the relationship between gender and the fear of gender and

sexuality-motivated crime. The main effect provides some evidence that collective efficacy is an

important predictor of fear of gender and sexuality motivated crime. Specifically, the odds of fear

of gender and sexuality-based crime decline significantly as collective efficacy increases in

Model 2.

When the perceived risk of gender and sexuality motivated crime is included in model 3,

collective efficacy is no longer a significant predictor of being fearful and the odds ratio becomes

a non-significant *positive* value. In model 3, where perceived risk is a significant ($p<0.001$)

predictor of being fearful of gender and sexuality motivated crime, other vulnerability indicators

lose significance in comparison to Models 1 and 2. The predicted probabilities from Model 3 are

shown in Figure 8; they differ much like the coefficients from model 2 (Figure 7). Thus, some

identity-related factors and perceived efficacy may, in part, affect fear through perceived risk (per goal 4). Results from Model 2 of Appendix Table 1 provide further evidence of this. Akin to the results of the perceived risk of victimization motivated by race, ethnicity, and nationality (Appendix Table 1, Model 1), the strong and significant effect of collective efficacy on perceived risk of gender-motivated victimization suggest that this perceived risk absorbs much of the effect of collective efficacy on fear when perceived risk is included in models of fear of gender-based victimization (thus illuminating goal 4).

Political Identity Motivated Fear Results

Table 8 shows the results in odds ratios with standard errors for three multivariate logistic regression models with the fear of crime motivated by political identity as the outcome. Model 1 incorporates the identity, control, and collective efficacy variables to assess goals 2 and 3. Models 2 and 3 incorporate the interaction terms of collective efficacy with political party identification to explore whether collective efficacy accelerates or attenuates the relationship between political identity and the fear of bias-motivated crime—to further assess goal 3. Model 3 includes the measure of the perceived risk of political identity motivated crime to explore how perceived risk, as a key variable of vulnerability, operates within the other measures of vulnerability and perceptions of community collective efficacy to illuminate goal 4.

[Table 8 about here]

Some key markers of vulnerability show a significant association with the odds of being fearful of political identity motivated crime. The models suggest differing evidence for the effects of political identity on fear, with model 1 providing evidence that Republican and political Else identified respondents have significantly higher odds of being fearful of political identity motivated crime than Democrat respondents, holding all else constant. In models 2 and 3, identifying as a political Independent or Else is significantly associated with increased odds of being fearful compared to Democrat respondents. Across all model specifications, holding a non-

White racial and ethnic identity is significantly associated with an increase in the odds of being

fearful of politically motivated crime. Like previous models, age has a negative relationship with

the odds of being fearful, but is only significant in model 3 ($p<0.05$). In models 1 and 2, suburban

respondents compared to urban respondents are associated with significantly higher odds of being

fearful of political identity motivated crime. Previous victimization is also a significant predictor

of being fearful in models 1 and 2, controlling for all else.

Of note, collective efficacy is a significant and negative predictor of the odds of being

fearful in model 1, providing important evidence in relation to goal 3. However, that negative

effect disappears in models 2 and 3. In contrast, models 2 and 3 show some evidence for the

interactions of collective efficacy and political identity. Figure 9, Figure 10, and Figure 11 show

the predicted probabilities of fear of political identity motivated crime for model 2. Figure 12,

Figure 13, and Figure 14 show the predicted probabilities of the same fear for the models

including perceived risk (model 3). Differences between the two predicted probabilities speak to

the differences between model specifications. Significant positive results for the interactions of

collective efficacy and political identities of Independent and Else compared to the interaction of

collective efficacy and Democrat suggests that collective efficacy does moderate the effect of

political identity and the fear of political identity motivated crime. More specifically, the positive

effect of collective efficacy in Models 2 and 3 is reduced among Independents and Else in

relation to Democrats.

As with previous results, the effect of collective efficacy also does seem to be adjusted

through the role of the perceived risk of political identity motivated crime, which is a significant

($p<0.001$) and positive predictor of the odds of being fearful in model 3. Results from Model 3 in

Appendix Table 1 confirm this in showing a significant and negative relationship between

collective efficacy and the odds of perceiving the risk of victimization motivated by political

identity as likely. As with the previous bias-categories, these results suggest that collective

efficacy has a powerful effect on perceived risk and is thus likely mediating effects of collective efficacy on fear in the models predicting fear that include perceived risk. Speaking to goal 4, perceived risk being added to the model may contribute to collective efficacy becoming a positive rather than negative predictor of fear, operating against previous theoretical support (LaGrange et al., 1992).

Supplementary Analysis

Three supplementary analyses were conducted to evaluate alternative measurement approaches of the dependent variable for the three different forms of bias in this study: (1) race/ethnicity/nationality; (2) gender/sexuality; (3) political identity. These models were run to explore goal 5, to test different forms of measurement of bias-motivated fear of crime. I replicated the models presented in Table 6, Table 7, and Table 8 with a more conservative measure of fear, where those who reported a 4 and 5 on the 5-point scale of fear (exact language in Table 1) were considered "Fearful" compared to those who reported a 3 or less being "Not Fearful". A weighted descriptive table is included in Appendix Table 2. The multivariate logistic regressions are shown in Appendix Table 3, Appendix Table 4, and Appendix Table 5.

Comparing model stipulations between fear of race, ethnicity, and nationality motivated crime, Table 6 and Appendix Table 3 show the results between alternative measures of fear. Some variables show consistencies across models, including age and perceived risk. However, important differences also are revealed. The effects of race, ethnicity, and immigration in the conservative model (Appendix Table 3) differ greatly, such as non-significant results for differences in the odds of fear among Black, Hispanic, and Else respondents compared to White respondents in models 2 and 3. The two measures of the dependent variable also differ on the impact of previous victimization, education, and immigrant status as markers of vulnerability on fear of bias-motivated crime. While this is notable, even more important is that collective efficacy significantly ($p<0.05$) increases the odds of being fearful of race, ethnicity, and nationality

motivated crime in model 1 of Appendix Table 3. Further, there is a significant and positive interaction effect (p<0.1) between Black racial identity and collective efficacy compared to the interaction of White and collective efficacy while controlling for all else in models 2 and 3. This also differs from the original models in Table 6 and suggests that collective efficacy is potentially associated with fear of race-motivated victimization especially for Black versus White respondents.

Some similar conclusions can be found for the comparative analysis of gender and sexuality motivated fear of crime in Table 7 and Appendix Table 4. Similarities across both groups of models show Hispanic ethnic identity and age as significant predictors in the increase or decrease in the odds of being fearful. Differences between models include inconsistencies in the effect of education, immigration status, as well as gender being a significant predictor of decreased odds of fear in all three models of Appendix Table 4. Additionally, in Appendix Table 4, collective efficacy is a positive and significant predictor of the odds of being fearful in models 1 and 3, controlling for all other variables. In models 2 and 3 of Appendix Table 4, the interaction term of collective efficacy and male compared to non-males is significant and positive of increased odds of being fearful, controlling for all else. This is suggestive of a possible moderating relationship of collective efficacy between gender and fear, which is not found in the main analysis, and indicates that collective efficacy increases fear of gender/sexuality motivated crime for men in particular.

Results from Appendix Table 5 and Table 8 explore the differences in measurement for political identity motivated fear of crime. Comparing the two tables and their models reveal similarities in their findings relevant to goal 5. Both groups of models show a similar relationship between Hispanic ethnic identity, age, and previous victimization on the increase or decrease in the odds of being fearful of politically motivated crime. Differences in effects are seen in the influence of Black racial identity, Else political identity, and suburban residence on fear. Only

model 3 in Appendix Table 5 shows a direct, and significant ($p<0.05$) relationship between collective efficacy and fear of politically motivated crime, while models 1 and 3 of Table 8 suggest a significant relationship. The exploration of the interaction terms also suggests greater significant variation among categories in the main results than what is shown in the supplementary results. In the supplemental results, collective efficacy's positive effect in Models 2 and 3 is moderated by Independent versus Democratic respondents. Thus, both offer some evidence of the moderating role of collective efficacy between political identity, markers of vulnerability, and fear of politically motivated crime.

DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY

Overview of Findings

A wealth of research has looked at fear of crime as an outcome of interest, using various theories including the vulnerability perspective to understand a range of individual and contextual factors that influence people's experiences of fear. Some of this research has focused on the role of perceptions of one's community, and even less has placed focus on the fear of bias-motivated crime. This is somewhat surprising, given that bias-motivated victimization is becoming increasingly common across a range of community contexts (Gover et al., 2020; Perry, 2014). In this study, I use the vulnerability framework to determine how social and physical markers of vulnerability are associated with the fear of crime motivated by (1) race, ethnicity, nationality; (2) gender and sexuality; and (3) political identity, while also considering the role of perceived collective efficacy and the perceived risk of victimization in the communities in which people are situated.

The findings offer some support for the vulnerability perspective and guide the goals of this study. The purpose of goal 1 is to explore the interrelatedness of bias-motivated crime across categories of vulnerability. Goal 1 asks, how strongly are fears of bias-motivated crime based on race/ethnicity/nationality, gender/sexuality, and political identities correlated? Additionally, do

the identity markers of race/ethnicity/nationality, gender/sexuality, and political identity impact each of the three bias-motivated fears? A significant amount of evidence for the interrelated relationship of reactions to crime across categories of vulnerability comes from the results of the bivariate analysis.

High correlations within and between perceived risk and fear of crime show the importance of including both concepts in research on reactions to bias-motivated crime. High correlations between race, ethnicity, nationality, gender and sexuality, and political identity fear of crime show that fear of bias-motivated crime is not an isolated phenomenon within identities and is likely influenced by a range of individual and community level factors, including other identities. Further evidence for this is shown in the significant and positive association between Hispanic ethnicity and Black racial identity in the logistic regression models predicting fear of gender and sexuality and political identity motivated crime. The results show that race and ethnicity are clear predictors of fear of biased crime for more than just fear of crime motivated by race, ethnicity, and nationality. Gender was a less salient predictor of fear across categories of bias, as was political identity.

Goal 2 served to investigate and compare the relationships between markers of vulnerability and general fear of crime versus the fear of bias-motivated crime. The descriptive analysis shows that while bias-motivated victimization is a relatively rare experience, the fear of crime based on identity is a much more common experience for people in this sample. While the sample reported higher rates of overall criminal victimization than bias-motivated victimization, fear was common across both bias-motivated crime and general crime. Extending beyond fear of crime to reactions to crime, the perceived risk scale showed the mean perceived risk of political identity-motivated victimization to be higher than the mean of overall perceived risk. Additionally, the mean perceived risk of race, ethnicity, nationality, and gender and sexuality motivated crime was lower than the mean of overall perceived risk. The results suggest that both

overall fear and bias-motivated fear are more common than victimization and perceived risk, and differences stand across identity groups across all four dependent variables.

Comparing the OLS regression models of overall fear and main logistic regression models of bias-motivated fear also speak to important findings for goal 2 (see Table 9 for overview). The overall fear models showed some key findings for understanding the role of vulnerability, including a negative relationship between fear and age, being male, having a college degree (compared to H.S. degree>less), and being a second or third (and beyond)-generation immigrant (compared to current immigrant/first generation). A positive relationship between vulnerability and fear was found for Hispanic, Black, and else respondents in separate models. When overall perceived risk was added to the overall crime models, variation of model coefficients—notably for collective efficacy—suggests the importance of perceived risk on the relationship between identity-in-context vulnerability variables and general fear. These findings establish some of the expectations for the bias-motivated models, which are less theorized and tested using the vulnerability perspective.

[Table 9 about here]

The results from the models with race, ethnicity, and nationality motivated fear reveal important differences and similarities to the overall fear of crime models. Gender remained an important predictor of fear in some models. Black and Else racial, ethnic, and national identity remained a significant predictor of bias-motivated fear across all model specifications, despite their mixed effects in the general crime models. This offers some evidence that non-White respondents may report being more fearful of specific race-motivated biased crime than crime overall. Non-immigrant respondents showed more significant associations with decreased fear in the general crime models but still showed negative associations with the fear of race, ethnicity, and nationality motivated crime. Negative associations for those with higher levels of education support that education, used as a marker of SES in this study, is associated with a decreased fear

of race, ethnicity, and nationality motivated crime and crime generally. The bias-motivated fear and general fear models provided mixed support for previous victimization as a key predictor of fear.

Collective efficacy was given mixed support as a predictor of fear in the general crime and fear of race, ethnicity, and nationality bias-motivated crime models, speaking to goal 3. Importantly, the impact of collective efficacy seemed to be impacted largely by the introduction of interaction effects and, especially, perceived likelihood of victimization—a significant and positive predictor of fear in both groups of models. Models without perceived likelihood often suggested a null or significant negative relationship between collective efficacy and fear. Once introduced, changes in significance and direction went against expectations of collective efficacy to attenuate fear. Results suggest that some effects of vulnerability markers, including collective efficacy, might operate through perceived risk as a key measure of vulnerability, speaking to goal 4. Thus, residual effects of collective efficacy, net of perceived risk, are sometimes positive rather than negative. Evidence of moderation by collective efficacy in interaction with race and ethnicity was not supported.

Comparing the overall fear of crime models with the models predicting fear of gender and sexuality motivated fear, equally interesting findings emerge. Being male is only significantly negatively related to fear in one of the biased fear of crime models, despite being a negative predictor across both models of general fear of crime. A significant and positive association of Hispanic ethnicity and Black racial identity on fear of gender and sexuality motivated crime and fear of crime overall suggests race and ethnicity may operate as an accelerant of fear in both gender and sexuality biased crime and general crime. Age and education, while mixed in significance, remain negatively associated with both cases of fear. The effect of previous victimization is consistent across models of fear of gender and sexuality motivated crime. In one model of fear of bias-motivated crime, collective efficacy is negatively associated with the odds

of fear. As addressed, the perceived risk of victimization is a significant positive predictor of fear that is theorized to potentially mediate the more indirect measures of vulnerability, including identity variables and perceived collective efficacy. The perceived likelihood of gender and sexuality motivated victimization is again a key part of the puzzle presented.

Finally, comparing the overall fear models with the models predicting fear of politically motivated crime for goal 2 shows support for already discussed findings in addition to unique discoveries. Non-white respondents reported significantly higher odds of being fearful of political identity-motivated crime across all models. Importantly, the fear of bias-crime models also are the only models to show differences among political identities. In addition, the bias-crime models show significantly different odds of fear for those in suburban areas, as opposed to no significant differences shown in the general crime models. Previous victimization and collective efficacy find mixed support as significant predictors of fear. As with previous models, changes in the relationship of collective efficacy can be explained, in part, by the introduction of the significant and positive effect of the perceived risk of political identity motivated victimization.

Theoretical Implications

The findings of the study support several important theoretical implications. The findings from the analysis pertinent to goal 1 support that fear of crime for bias-motivated crimes should be understood using an intersectional lens. Intersectionality denotes how interconnected systems of power are constructed based on race, class, gender, and other social traits and affect the lives of individuals and their interactions with social institutions (Crenshaw, 1991). Findings support perspectives that demonstrate the interrelated nature of race, ethnicity, nationality, gender, sexuality, and politics (Collins, 2000). The consistent findings related to Black racial identity and Hispanic ethnicity across models suggest that these identities may be particularly important for bias-motivated fear. Future research should consider the ways that people make sense of intersectional identity in their perception of crime, or if a 'master status', or primary identity

shaping one's social position, is more influential in informing fear of crime and the perceived risk of victimization (Hughes, 1945). The results of this study suggest race and ethnicity as one such type of primary identity informing fear across different categories of bias.

The findings relevant to goals 2, 3, and 4 also speak to important theoretical implications for the vulnerability perspective. For one, vulnerability should be understood as dynamic across different crime types and their associated fear. Less consistency was shown across models of general fear of crime, fear of race, ethnicity, nationality motivated crime, fear of gender and sexuality motivated crime, and fear of political identity motivated crime. However, several variables did show consistency with the vulnerability perspective. Models predicting the fear of overall crime, fear of race, ethnicity, nationality motivated crime, and fear of gender and sexuality motivated crime show education beyond a high school degree or less as a protecting factor against fear, consistent with previous research using the vulnerability perspective (Wyant, 2008). Age, a negative predictor of fear in several of the models of this study, went against previous research on the vulnerability perspective, which supports the elderly as being more fearful of crime (Ferraro & LaGrange, 1987). This finding may speak to more contemporary experiences of the elderly and young for general fear of crime, or unique impacts of vulnerability on the fear of bias-motivated crime.

Findings on the association of collective efficacy and the perceived risk of victimization of fear in this study also speak to important theoretical developments for the vulnerability perspective. Findings from this study suggest that collective efficacy may work in tandem with or through perceived risk in impacting both general fear of crime and the fear of bias-motivated victimization across categories of bias. This is highlighted especially by the impact of perceived risk on the relationship between markers of vulnerability, collective efficacy, and the fear of crime. Specifically, the effects of markers of vulnerability and collective efficacy were weakened as protective and risk factors when controlling for risk perception, suggesting their effects work

through the perceived risk of victimization. While previous vulnerability models have attempted

to isolate the impact of victimization, perceived risk, identity, and other variables like personal

control on the fear of crime (Hraba et al., 1999; LaGrange et al. 1992; Rountree & Land, 1996;

Shippee, 2012), less has explored the relationship of vulnerability on fear with emphasis on the

community context, and little is known of any that have focused on bias-motivated fear in

particular. Findings from this research suggest the vulnerability perspective is a useful framework

for research on bias-motivated crime, and that research should consider the various factors that

have been associated with vulnerability in creating new models of fear and vulnerability across

crime types.

Limitations and Future Directions

Several considerations should be made before fully understanding the results and

discussion of this study. First, the fear of crime, perceived risk, and victimization measures

included in this data do not necessarily rule out the fact that bias may have motivated the other

crime types. For example, the measures of fear of crime related to theft (exact language included

in Table 2) do not acknowledge the fear of theft sans the role of bias as a motivator. While this

was likely made clear through the expansive language of crime types included in the bias-

motivated questions, later studies of bias-motivated reactions to crime and victimization should

consider the ways bias is understood by survey respondents as a motivating factor. Second,

because self-reported sexuality is not an included measure in the demographics of this data, not

all the effects of sexuality can be accounted for in the analyses that include fear of crime,

perceived risk, and previous victimization motivated by gender and sexuality. However,

considering that gender and sexuality are highly inherent constructs and findings support that

gender expression can be accounted for much of the effect of victimization (Mittleman, 2023),

this should not discredit results. Future exploration using this data may be able to control for

census-level sexuality measures such as those in the Household Pulse Survey to test the differences in effects.

Despite these limitations, this research also suggests several areas for further development. Further research should explore how people make sense of competing or overlapping identities when conceptualizing their fear and risk of bias-motivated victimization. Given the evidence that bias-motivated crime is associated with vulnerability across different categories of social and physical vulnerability, this area of research is well worth further exploration. An overall increase in research on the reactions to bias-motivated crimes is also warranted. Given the particularly harmful effects of hate crime victimization (Iganski, 2001), findings from this study should be used to support future research on the particularly salient effects of risk and fear of biased crime on people. While much of bias-motivated crime has focused on the experiences of racial, ethnic, gender, and sexual minorities, less has focused on the presence of political identity motivated crime. This may be a result of the difficulties in defining and associating a political identity with victimization (Unnever et al., 2007). Regardless, results suggest the fear of political identity motivated victimization is an experience worthy of further exploration.

In conclusion, I find that a Black racial identity, Hispanic ethnic identity, Age, education, previous victimization, and the perceived risk of crime, among other markers of vulnerability are the largest predictors of the fear of race, ethnicity, nationality, gender and sexuality, and political identity motivated crime. Findings of the role of collective efficacy and perceived risk in this association support some evidence of the role of community perceptions and perceptions of risk on the fear of bias-motivated crime. Together, these findings support the "identity-in-community context" vulnerability perspective presented. Importantly, evidence is also shown for the interrelated relationship between fear of different categories of bias-motivated crime. In this, a focus on bias-motivated crime and its causes and consequences becomes integral for

understanding people's current perceptions of crime. Especially for the most vulnerable, if fear is very real, it is very real in its consequences.

Appendix A

Tables and Figures

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics (N = 1500)

	Mean* or %	SD
Dependent Variables		
Fear of Crime		
Fear of Crime: Overall	2.24	1.05
Fear of Crime: Race/Ethnicity/Nationality	29%	.45
Fear of Crime: Gender & Sexuality	24%	.42
Fear of Crime: Political Identity	35%	.47
Explanatory Variables		
Perceived Risk		
Perceived Risk: Overall	1.91	.78
Perceived Risk: Race/Ethnicity/Nationality	1.76	.97
Perceived Risk: Gender & Sexuality	1.65	.89
Perceived Risk: Political Identity	1.97	1.04
Previous Victimization		
Previous Victimization: Overall	19%	.39
Previous Victimization: Race/Ethnicity/Nationality	4%	.19
Previous Victimization: Gender & Sexuality	3%	.16
Previous Victimization: Political Identity	6%	.23
Collective Efficacy	3.51	.64
Male	48%	.50
Race & Ethnicity		
White	62%	
Black	12%	
Hispanic	17%	
Else	9%	
Immigrant Status		
First Generation	10%	
Second Generation	12%	
Third (+) Generation	78%	
Political Party		
Democrat	33%	
Republican	28%	
Independent	28%	
Else	10%	
Control Variables		
Education		
Less than, or High School Degree	39%	
Some College/Associates Degree	27%	
College	34%	
Age	48.50	17.26
USDA Urbanicity Designation		
Urban	29%	
Suburban	44%	
Rural	27%	
Married	45%	.50

*survey weights applied

Table 2: Survey Fear of Crime and Perceived Risk Questions

Crime Type	Survey Question
Fear of Crime	*Regardless of how likely you think it is these things will happen, please indicate how afraid/worried you are about the following:*
Theft	"Someone taking something that belonged to me"
Burglary	"Someone breaking into my residence when I am not home"
Robbery	"Someone forcing me to give up things while I'm walking in public (i.e., mugging, stick-up, robbery)"
Physical Assault	"Someone punching, kicking, slapping, or choking me"
Weapon Assault	"Someone threatening or harming me with a gun, knife, or some other weapon"
Sexual Assault	"Someone touching or harming me in an unwanted sexual manner"
Race/Ethnicity /Nationality-Bias	"Someone hurting or threatening me, or stealing or damaging my property, because of my race, ethnicity, or nationality"
Gender/Sexuality Bias	"Someone hurting or threatening me, or stealing or damaging my property, because of my sexuality or gender identity"
Political Identity Bias	"Someone hurting or threatening me, or stealing or damaging my property, because of my political identity"
Perceived Risk	*Please indicate how likely you think the following things will happen in the next 12 months:*
Theft	"Someone will take something that belongs to me"
Burglary	"Someone will break into my residence when I am not at home (i.e., burglary)"
Robbery	"Someone will force me to give up things while I'm walking in public (i.e., mugging, stick-up, robbery)"
Physical Assault	"Someone will punch, kick, slap, or choke me"
Weapon Assault	"Someone will threaten or harm me with a gun, knife, or some other weapon"
Sexual Assault	"Someone will touch or harm me in an unwanted sexual manner"
Race/Ethnicity /Nationality-Bias	"Someone will hurt or threaten me, or steal or damage my property, because of my race, ethnicity, or nationality"
Gender/Sexuality Bias	"Someone will hurt or threaten me, or steal or damage my property, because of my sexuality or gender identity"
Political Identity Bias	"Someone will hurt or threaten me, or steal or damage my property, because of my political identity"

Table 3: Collective Efficacy and Cohesion Questions

Construct	Survey Questions
Confront Spray Paint	Adults in my neighborhood would directly confront children who were spray-painting graffiti on a local building
Police Spray Paint	Adults in my neighborhood would call the police on children who were spray-painting graffiti on a local building
Break Up Fight	Adults in my neighborhood would break up a fight in front of their house where someone was being beaten or threatened
Police Fight	Adults in my neighborhood would call the police if they witnessed a fight in front of their house where someone was being beaten or threatened
Lobby School	Adults in my neighborhood would lobby government officials if they threatened to close a local school
Police Protest	Adults in my neighborhood would protest if they felt citizens were treated unfairly by police
Neighborhood Values	Residents in my neighborhood share the same values
Neighborhood Trust	Residents in my neighborhood can be trusted

Table 4: Matrix of correlations

Variables	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)	(31)
(1) FOC: R/E/N	1.00																														
(2) FOC: G&S	0.66	1.00																													
(3) FOC: PI	0.67	0.62	1.00																												
(4) FOC: All	0.70	0.60	0.59	1.00																											
(5) P. Risk: R/E/N	0.59	0.36	0.38	0.48	1.00																										
(6) P. Risk: G&S	0.43	0.56	0.37	0.44	0.65	1.00																									
(7) P. Risk: PI	0.39	0.30	0.56	0.38	0.44	0.55	1.00																								
(8) P. Risk: All	0.45	0.35	0.35	0.55	0.71	0.64	0.58	1.00																							
(9) P. Victim.: R/E/N	0.26	0.13	0.18	0.17	0.31	0.14	0.21	0.23	1.00																						
(10) P. Victim.: G&S	0.13	0.21	0.12	0.12	0.15	0.22	0.14	0.15	0.46	1.00																					
(11) P. Victim.: PI	0.12	0.08	0.23	0.09	0.14	0.11	0.33	0.13	0.39	0.40	1.00																				
(12) P. Victim.: All	0.21	0.12	0.15	0.21	0.28	0.21	0.23	0.31	0.32	0.27	0.22	1.00																			
(13) Collective Eff.	-0.15	-0.12	-0.07	-0.12	-0.19	-0.16	-0.09	-0.20	-0.09	-0.01	0.06	-0.14	1.00																		
(14) Male	-0.08	-0.13	-0.03	-0.17	-0.05	-0.13	0.01	-0.09	0.06	0.03	0.07	0.02	0.09	1.00																	
(15) White	-0.27	-0.18	-0.11	-0.17	-0.26	-0.15	-0.04	-0.15	-0.08	-0.03	-0.01	-0.10	0.19	0.11	1.00																
(16) Black	0.13	0.09	0.03	0.07	0.17	0.07	-0.00	0.09	0.03	-0.03	-0.04	0.03	-0.12	-0.08	-0.52	1.00															
(17) Hispanic	0.14	0.11	0.06	0.13	0.09	0.09	0.01	0.06	0.05	0.00	0.03	0.07	-0.11	-0.08	-0.54	-0.15	1.00														
(18) Other (Race)	0.14	0.06	0.08	0.06	0.14	0.06	0.06	0.08	0.04	0.05	0.03	0.05	-0.05	0.00	-0.42	-0.12	-0.12	1.00													
(19) First Generation	0.14	0.10	0.07	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.06	0.08	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.08	-0.07	-0.01	-0.16	-0.04	0.16	0.12	1.00												
(20) 2nd Generation	0.09	0.05	0.03	0.06	0.08	0.05	-0.00	0.02	0.04	0.01	0.01	0.02	-0.03	0.02	-0.25	-0.06	0.30	0.13	-0.11	1.00											
(21) 3rd (+) Generation	-0.17	-0.11	-0.07	-0.13	-0.15	-0.12	-0.04	-0.08	-0.04	-0.05	-0.03	-0.07	0.08	-0.01	0.31	0.07	-0.35	-0.19	-0.62	-0.71	1.00										
(22) Age	-0.22	-0.26	-0.13	-0.21	-0.14	-0.20	-0.01	-0.10	-0.10	-0.04	-0.04	-0.14	0.18	0.10	0.31	-0.08	-0.25	-0.13	-0.11	-0.17	0.21	1.00									
(23) Education	-0.08	-0.05	0.02	-0.07	-0.06	-0.03	0.02	-0.06	0.04	0.05	0.05	0.01	0.10	0.10	0.05	-0.03	-0.09	0.06	0.05	0.02	-0.05	-0.01	1.00								
(24) Urban	0.04	0.04	-0.04	0.06	0.09	0.10	-0.03	0.12	0.05	0.05	-0.03	0.12	-0.10	-0.01	-0.21	0.15	0.11	0.03	0.04	0.05	-0.07	-0.14	-0.00	1.00							
(25) Suburban	0.04	0.01	0.06	0.01	0.02	-0.00	0.05	-0.04	0.01	0.02	0.02	-0.07	0.02	0.09	0.02	-0.01	0.01	-0.02	0.01	0.03	-0.03	-0.01	0.05	-0.50	1.00						
(26) Rural	-0.08	-0.05	-0.02	-0.07	-0.11	-0.10	-0.02	-0.08	-0.07	-0.06	0.00	-0.04	0.08	-0.08	0.19	-0.13	-0.12	-0.01	-0.05	-0.08	0.10	0.14	-0.04	-0.50	-0.50	1.00					
(27) Married	-0.15	-0.16	-0.05	-0.13	-0.14	-0.17	-0.04	-0.13	-0.03	-0.07	-0.01	-0.11	0.20	0.09	0.13	-0.10	-0.06	-0.04	0.00	-0.09	0.07	0.27	0.10	-0.15	0.08	0.07	1.00				
(28) Democrat	0.02	0.06	-0.03	0.02	0.03	0.06	-0.03	-0.02	0.02	0.05	-0.01	0.01	-0.04	-0.09	-0.21	0.24	0.05	0.01	0.04	0.07	-0.08	-0.06	0.14	0.14	-0.04	-0.10	-0.07	1.00			
(29) Republican	-0.09	-0.10	-0.03	-0.04	-0.04	-0.08	-0.01	-0.02	-0.01	-0.03	-0.04	0.01	0.16	0.03	0.22	-0.18	-0.09	-0.07	-0.10	-0.04	0.11	0.17	-0.12	-0.10	0.02	0.08	0.12	-0.42	1.00		
(30) Independent	0.03	-0.01	0.02	-0.01	-0.02	-0.01	0.00	0.00	-0.00	-0.00	0.04	0.03	-0.04	0.11	0.05	-0.09	0.00	0.01	-0.03	0.05	-0.01	-0.02	0.03	0.05	-0.03	-0.01	-0.03	-0.48	-0.38	1.00	
(31) Other (Political)	0.06	0.07	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.05	0.05	0.05	-0.02	0.00	0.02	0.04	-0.11	-0.06	0.00	0.04	0.06	0.04	-0.03	-0.03	-0.01	-0.11	-0.08	0.08	-0.05	-0.06	-0.05	-0.25	-0.20	-0.22	1.00

FOC=Fear of Crime

P. Risk=Perceived Risk

P. Victim.=Previous Victimization

R/E/N=Race/Ethnicity/Nationality

G&S=Gender & Sexuality

PI=Political Identity

Table 5: OLS Regression Models Predicting Overall Fear of Crime

	Model 1		Model 2	
	b	SE	b	SE
Identity Variables				
Male	-0.310****	(0.068)	-0.236****	(0.058)
Race and Ethnicity (White ref.)				
Black	0.182*	(0.105)	0.072	(0.090)
Hispanic	0.227	(0.142)	0.249**	(0.113)
Else	0.234*	(0.130)	0.089	(0.111)
Immigration Status (1st Gen. ref.)				
Second Generation	-0.302*	(0.158)	-0.274*	(0.150)
Third (+) Generation	-0.345**	(0.136)	-0.271**	(0.133)
Political Party (Democrat ref.)				
Republican	0.072	(0.101)	-0.043	(0.089)
Independent	0.044	(0.084)	-0.015	(0.073)
Else	0.071	(0.129)	-0.083	(0.104)
Control Variables				
Age	-0.007***	(0.002)	-0.007****	(0.002)
Education (H.S. Degree or Less ref.)				
Some College/Assoc.	-0.103	(0.081)	-0.097	(0.071)
College	-0.161**	(0.081)	-0.124*	(0.070)
USDA Designation (Urban ref.)				
Suburban	0.055	(0.086)	0.071	(0.073)
Rural	-0.036	(0.089)	0.023	(0.075)
Married	-0.066	(0.071)	-0.018	(0.061)
Community Perceptions				
Collective Efficacy	-0.027	(0.064)	0.118**	(0.057)
Victimization & Perceived Risk				
Previous Victimization (12 mo.)	0.502****	(0.086)	0.102	(0.083)
Overall Perceived Risk			0.710****	(0.042)
Constant	3.003****	(0.295)	1.138****	(0.287)
Observations	1493		1491	
Adjusted R-squared	0.108		0.325	

Standard errors in parentheses (SE)

* p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01, **** p<0.001"

Table 6: Multivariate Logistic Regression Models Predicting Fear of Racial/Ethnicity/Nationality Motivated Crime

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	OR	SE	OR	SE	OR	SE
Identity Variables						
Male	0.731*	(0.119)	0.728*	(0.119)	0.734	(0.139)
Race & Ethnicity (White ref.)						
Black	3.253****	(0.705)	11.423**	(12.761)	7.810*	(9.533)
Hispanic	2.087***	(0.540)	1.165	(1.400)	1.436	(1.877)
Else	2.810****	(0.833)	23.749*	(44.701)	56.392*	(122.618)
Immigrant Status (1st Gen ref.)						
Second Generation	0.710	(0.210)	0.722	(0.214)	0.786	(0.277)
Third (+) Generation	0.532**	(0.136)	0.552**	(0.141)	0.737	(0.230)
Political Party (Democrat ref.)						
Republican	1.262	(0.301)	1.287	(0.306)	0.907	(0.254)
Independent	1.369	(0.269)	1.399*	(0.279)	1.406	(0.320)
Else	1.730**	(0.439)	1.747**	(0.447)	1.096	(0.308)
Control Variables						
Age	0.986***	(0.005)	0.986***	(0.005)	0.982***	(0.006)
Education (H.S. Degree or Less ref.)						
Some College/Associates	0.798	(0.153)	0.795	(0.155)	0.656*	(0.150)
College	0.576***	(0.110)	0.593***	(0.114)	0.545***	(0.122)
USDA Designation (Urban ref.)						
Suburban	1.402*	(0.278)	1.359	(0.276)	1.293	(0.300)
Rural	1.178	(0.245)	1.145	(0.239)	1.242	(0.298)
Married	0.787	(0.131)	0.772	(0.127)	0.900	(0.171)
Previous Victimization: Race/Ethnicity/Nationality	1.402*	(0.278)	1.359	(0.276)	1.293	(0.300)
Community Perceptions						
Collective Efficacy	0.856	(0.110)	0.919	(0.156)	1.376	(0.303)
Interactions (Collective Efficacy * White ref.)						
Collective Efficacy * Black			0.689	(0.222)	0.652	(0.238)
Collective Efficacy * Hispanic			1.202	(0.426)	1.111	(0.434)
Collective Efficacy * Else			0.538	(0.296)	0.366	(0.249)
Perceived Risk						
Perceived Risk: Race/Ethnicity/Nationality					4.491****	(0.492)
Observations	1493		1493		1491	
Pseudo R-squared	0.147		0.150		0.353	
BIC	1668.382		1684.630		1324.528	

Exponentiated coefficients (OR); Standard errors in parentheses (SE)

* p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01, **** p<0.001"

Figure 1. Predicted Probability of being Fearful of Fear of Race, Ethnicity, and Nationality Motivated Crime (Model 2): White vs. Black

Figure 2. Predicted Probability of being Fearful of Fear of Race, Ethnicity, and Nationality Motivated Crime (Model 2): White vs. Hispanic

Figure 3. Predicted Probability of being Fearful of Fear of Race, Ethnicity, and Nationality Motivated Crime (Model 2): White vs. Else

Figure 4. Predicted Probability of being Fearful of Fear of Race, Ethnicity, and Nationality Motivated Crime (Model 3): White vs. Black
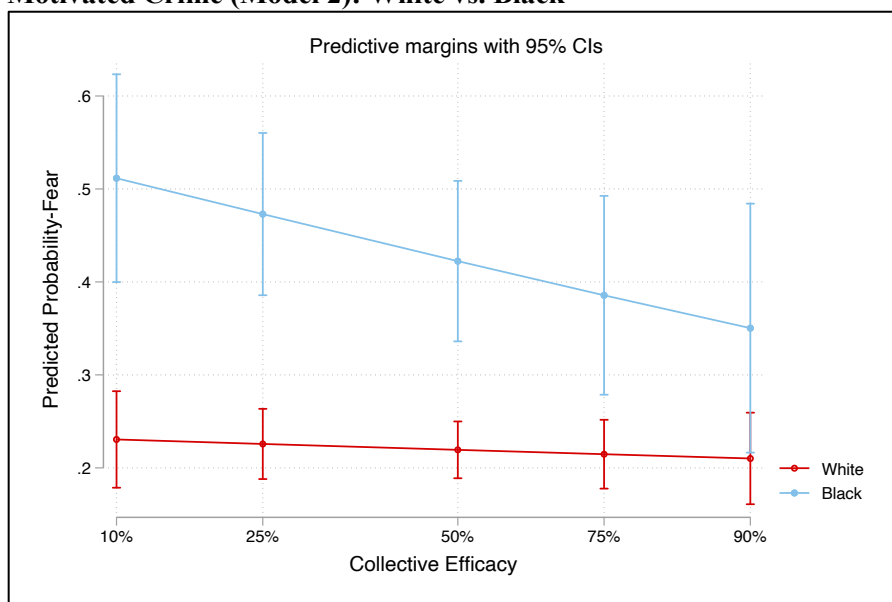
Figure 5. Predicted Probability of being Fearful of Fear of Race, Ethnicity, and Nationality Motivated Crime (Model 3): White vs. Hispanic
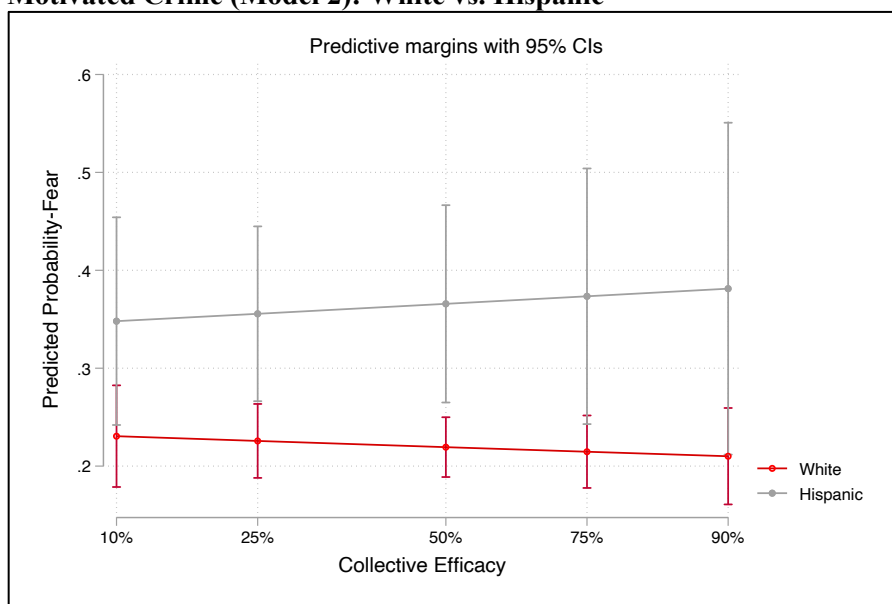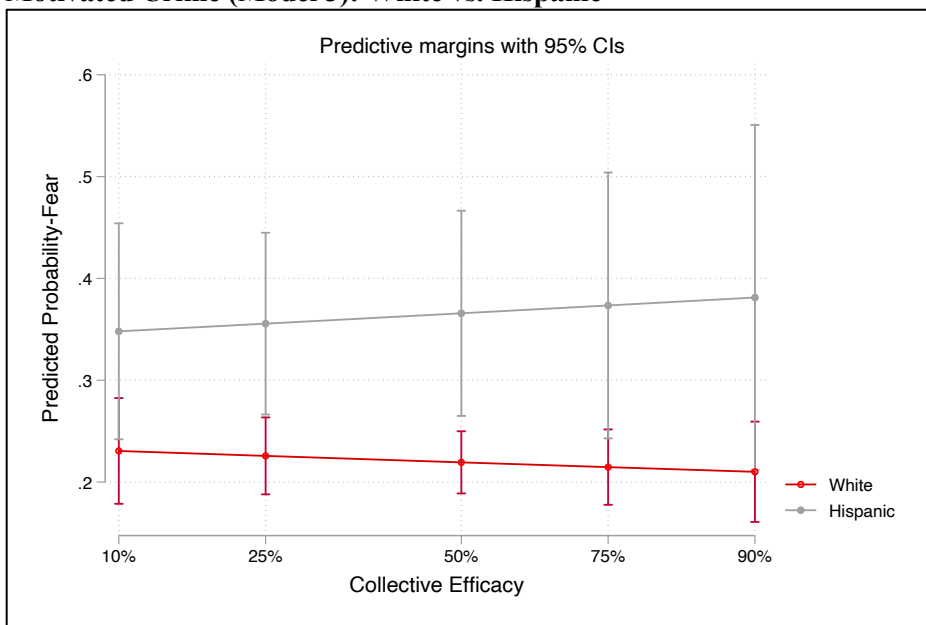

Figure 6. Predicted Probability of being Fearful of Fear of Race, Ethnicity, and Nationality Motivated Crime (Model 3): White vs. Else
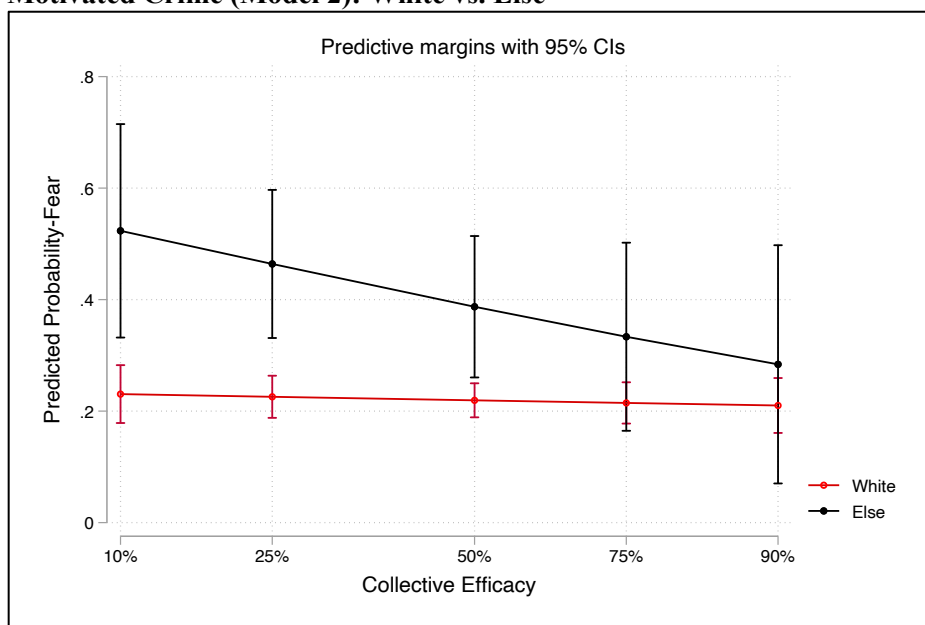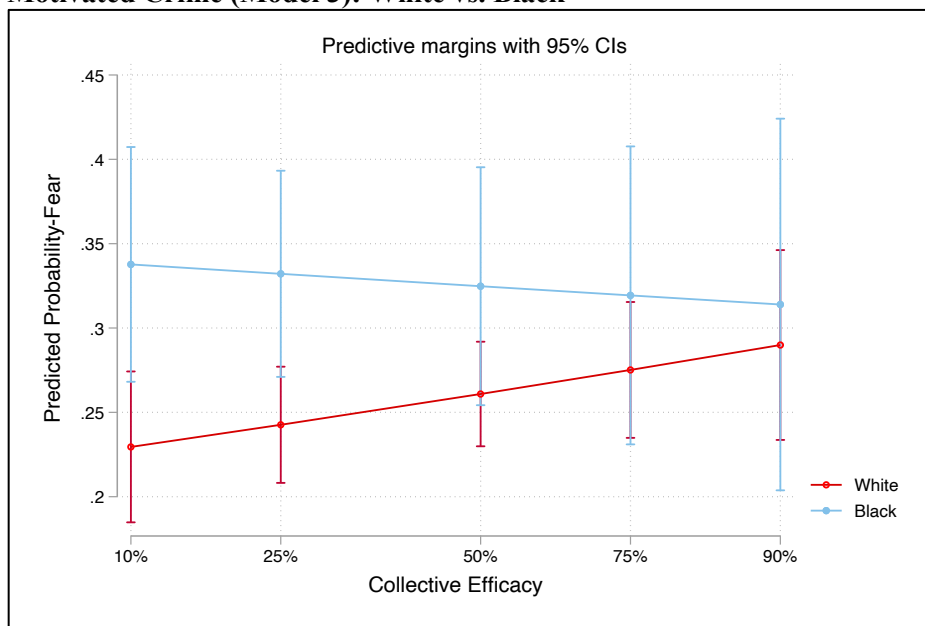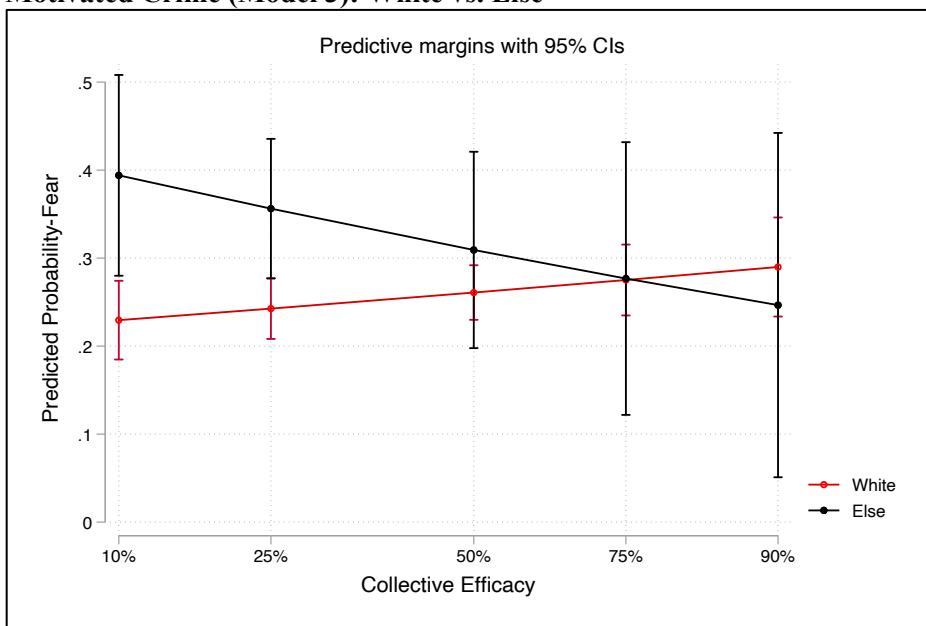
Table 7: Multivariate Logistic Regression Models Predicting Fear of Gender & Sexuality Motivated Crime

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	OR	SE	OR	SE	OR	SE
Identity Variables						
Male	0.587***	(0.102)	0.260	(0.233)	0.504	(0.541)
Race & Ethnicity (White ref.)						
Black	1.676**	(0.379)	1.664**	(0.376)	1.689*	(0.474)
Hispanic	1.773**	(0.491)	1.768**	(0.489)	1.796**	(0.534)
Else	1.270	(0.395)	1.282	(0.402)	1.060	(0.372)
Immigration Status (1st Gen ref.)						
Second Generation	0.582*	(0.188)	0.594	(0.192)	0.758	(0.286)
Third (+) Generation	0.678	(0.182)	0.689	(0.186)	0.917	(0.298)
Political Party (Democrat ref.)						
Republican	0.911	(0.227)	0.906	(0.226)	0.914	(0.247)
Independent	0.940	(0.198)	0.941	(0.198)	0.945	(0.223)
Else	1.399	(0.374)	1.384	(0.372)	1.270	(0.388)
Control Variables						
Age	0.972****	(0.005)	0.972****	(0.005)	0.974****	(0.006)
Education (H.S. Degree or Less ref.)						
Some College/Associates	0.716	(0.147)	0.711	(0.147)	0.651*	(0.150)
College	0.731*	(0.138)	0.724*	(0.138)	0.704	(0.155)
USDA Designation (Urban ref.)						
Suburban	1.116	(0.231)	1.115	(0.231)	1.025	(0.240)
Rural	1.095	(0.237)	1.099	(0.238)	1.372	(0.341)
Married	0.789	(0.139)	0.792	(0.140)	0.856	(0.169)
Previous Victimization: Gender & Sexuality	9.411****	(4.864)	9.392****	(4.900)	6.336**	(4.926)
Community Perceptions						
Collective Efficacy	0.852	(0.102)	0.776*	(0.112)	1.193	(0.236)
Interaction: Collective Efficacy * Male			1.267	(0.321)	1.111	(0.345)
Perceived Risk						
Perceived Risk: Gender & Sexuality					4.914****	(0.552)
Observations	1493		1493		1493	
Pseudo R-squared	0.123		0.124		0.349	
BIC	1577.747		1583.695		1220.093	

Exponentiated coefficients (OR); Standard errors in parentheses (SE)
* p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01, **** p<0.001"

Figure 7. Predicted Probability of being Fearful of Fear of Gender & Sexuality Motivated Crime (Model 2): Man vs. Else

Figure 8. Predicted Probability of being Fearful of Fear of Gender & Sexuality Motivated Crime (Model 3): Man vs. Else

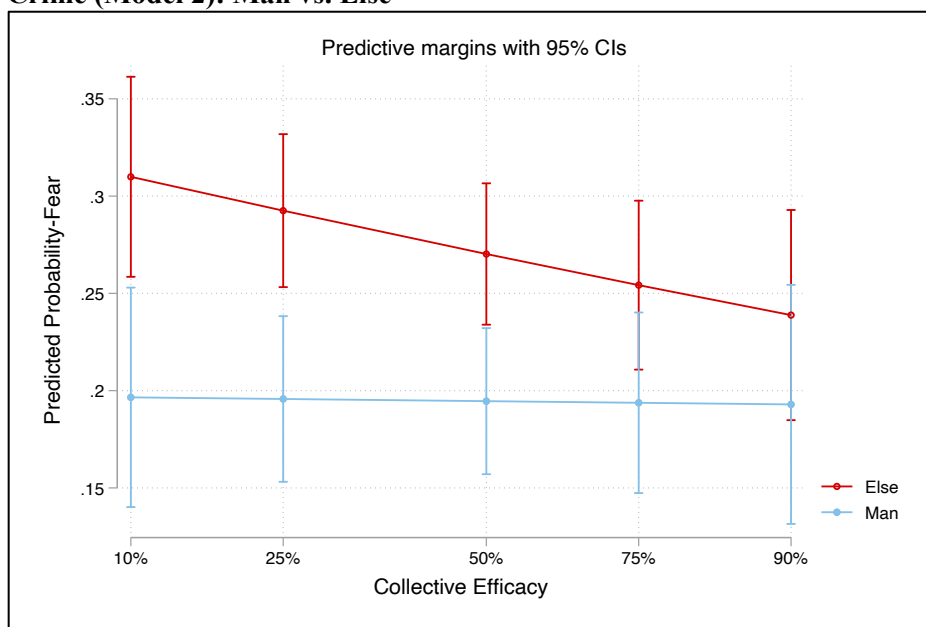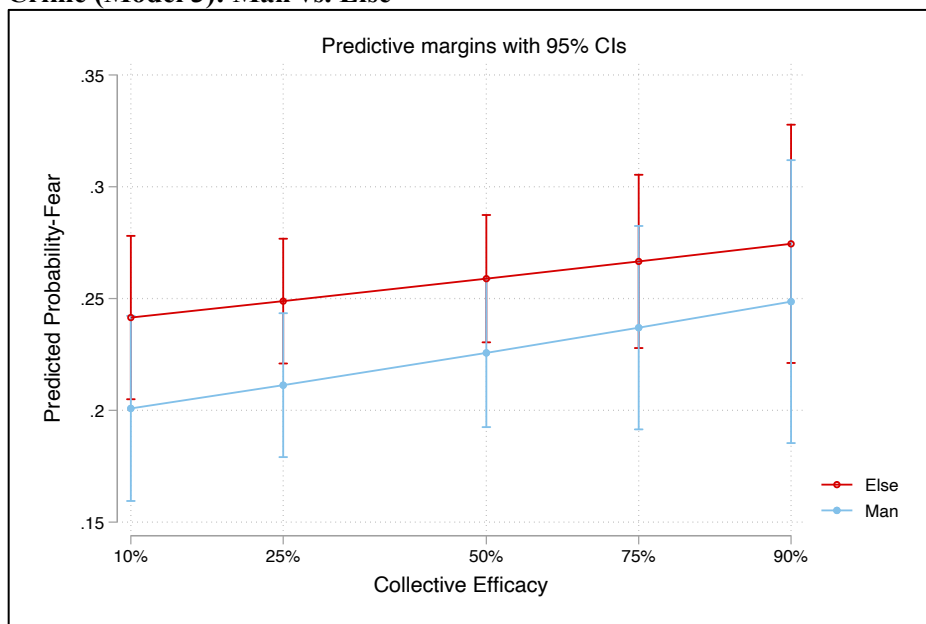**Table 8: Logistic Regression Models Predicting Fear of Political Identity Motivated Crime**

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	OR	SE	OR	SE	OR	SE
Identity Variables						
Male	0.819	(0.118)	0.821	(0.119)	0.776	(0.126)
Race & Ethnicity (White ref.)						
Black	1.585**	(0.327)	1.585**	(0.331)	1.757**	(0.433)
Hispanic	1.552*	(0.388)	1.545*	(0.385)	1.757**	(0.474)
Else	2.036**	(0.578)	2.039**	(0.570)	1.842*	(0.657)
Immigrant Status (1st Gen ref.)						
Second Generation	0.868	(0.262)	0.861	(0.257)	1.115	(0.394)
Third (+) Generation	0.864	(0.217)	0.867	(0.214)	1.026	(0.311)
Political Party (Democrat ref.)						
Republican	1.482*	(0.302)	1.682	(1.785)	3.017	(3.731)
Independent	1.267	(0.226)	6.196*	(6.093)	9.088**	(9.765)
Else	1.660**	(0.401)	17.838**	(22.338)	32.976***	(42.213)
Control Variables						
Age	0.995	(0.004)	0.995	(0.004)	0.989**	(0.005)
Education (H.S. Degree or Less ref.)						
Some College/Associates	1.028	(0.180)	1.028	(0.180)	0.869	(0.177)
College	1.139	(0.190)	1.157	(0.193)	1.047	(0.200)
USDA Designation (Urban ref.)						
Suburban	1.361*	(0.240)	1.376*	(0.242)	1.229	(0.247)
Rural	1.316	(0.242)	1.333	(0.246)	1.299	(0.289)
Married	0.989	(0.145)	1.006	(0.147)	1.116	(0.192)
Previous Victimization: Political Identity	7.355****	(2.420)	7.454****	(2.427)	1.882	(0.907)
Community Perceptions						
Collective Efficacy	0.826*	(0.095)	1.014	(0.197)	1.560**	(0.344)
Interactions (Collective Efficacy*Democrat ref.)						
Collective Efficacy * Republican			0.953	(0.275)	0.778	(0.267)
Collective Efficacy * Independent			0.630*	(0.175)	0.567*	(0.175)
Collective Efficacy * Else (Political)			0.490**	(0.176)	0.377**	(0.144)
Perceived Risk						
Perceived Risk: Political Identity					4.039****	(0.408)
Observations	1491		1491		1490	
Pseudo R-squared	0.061		0.065		0.291	
BIC	1941.231		1954.850		1525.344	

Exponentiated coefficients (OR); Standard errors in parentheses (SE)

* p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01, **** p<0.001"

Figure 9. Predicted Probability of being Fearful of Political Identity Motivated Crime (Model 2): Democrat vs. Republican

Figure 10. Predicted Probability of being Fearful of Political Identity Motivated Crime (Model 2): Democrat vs. Independent
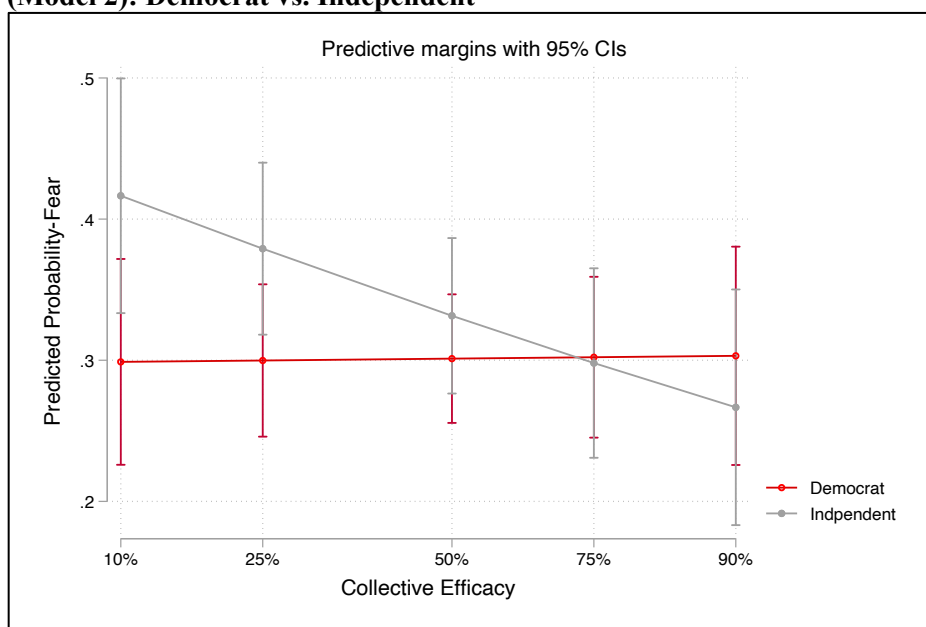
Figure 11. Predicted Probability of being Fearful of Political Identity Motivated Crime (Model 2): Democrat vs. Else
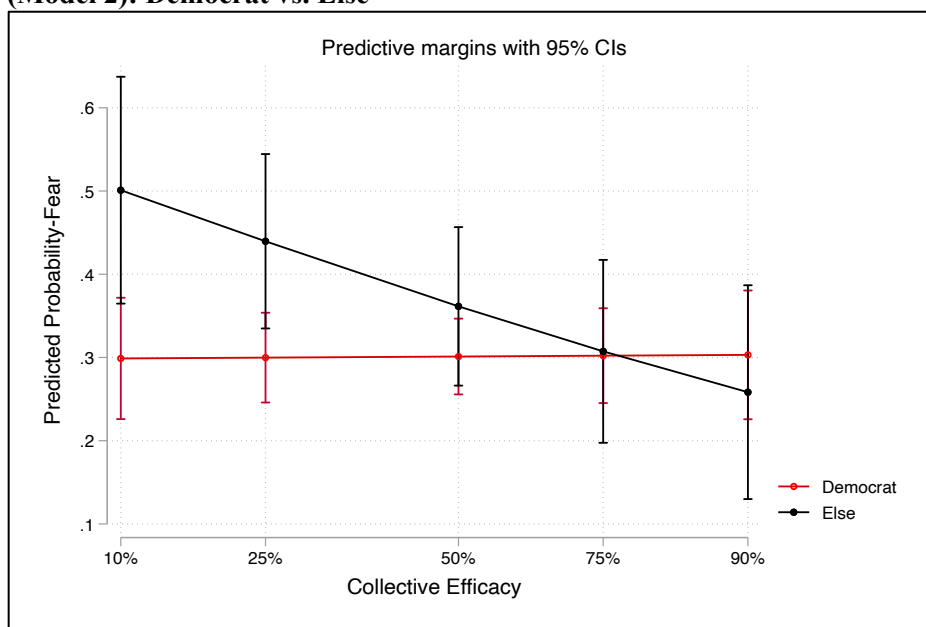
Figure 12. Predicted Probability of being Fearful of Political Identity Motivated Crime (Model 3): Democrat vs. Republican
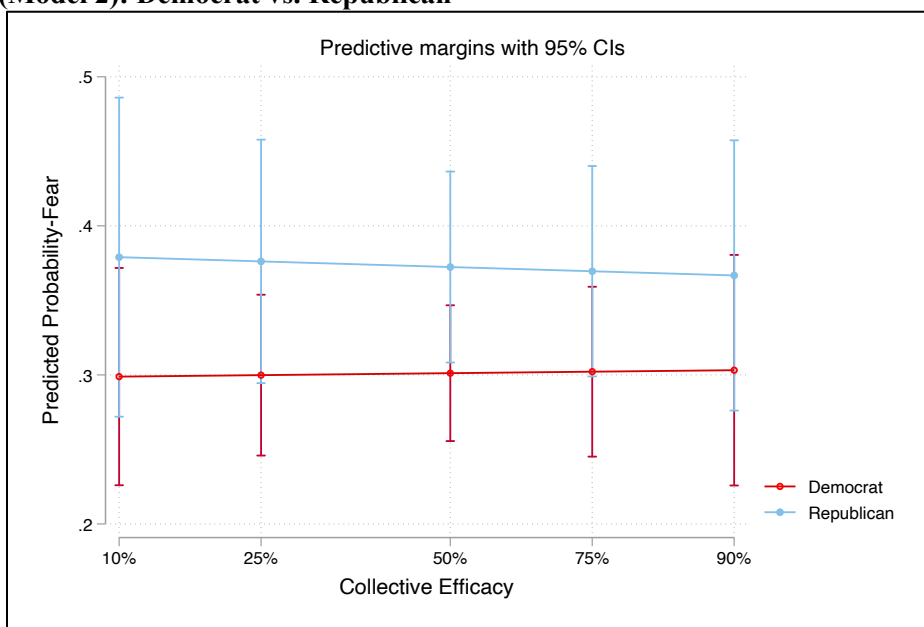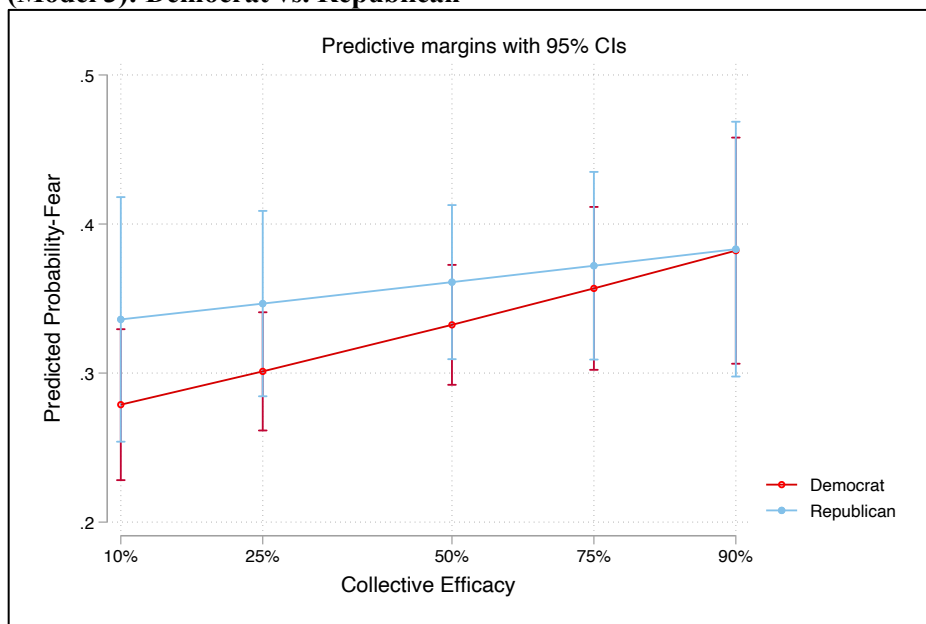
Figure 13. Predicted Probability of being Fearful of Political Identity Motivated Crime (Model 3): Democrat vs. Independent
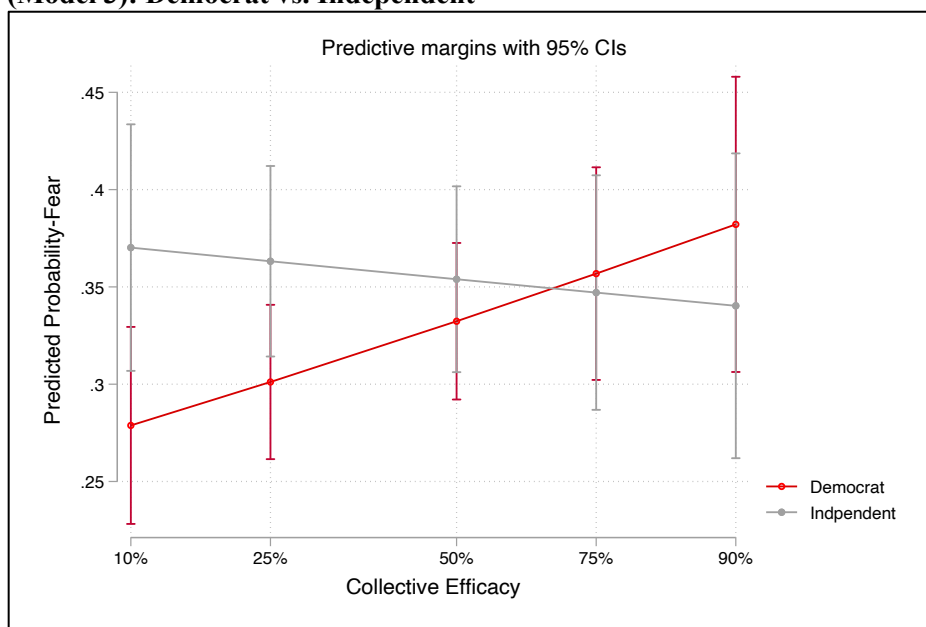
Figure 14. Predicted Probability of being Fearful of Political Identity Motivated Crime (Model 3): Democrat vs. Else
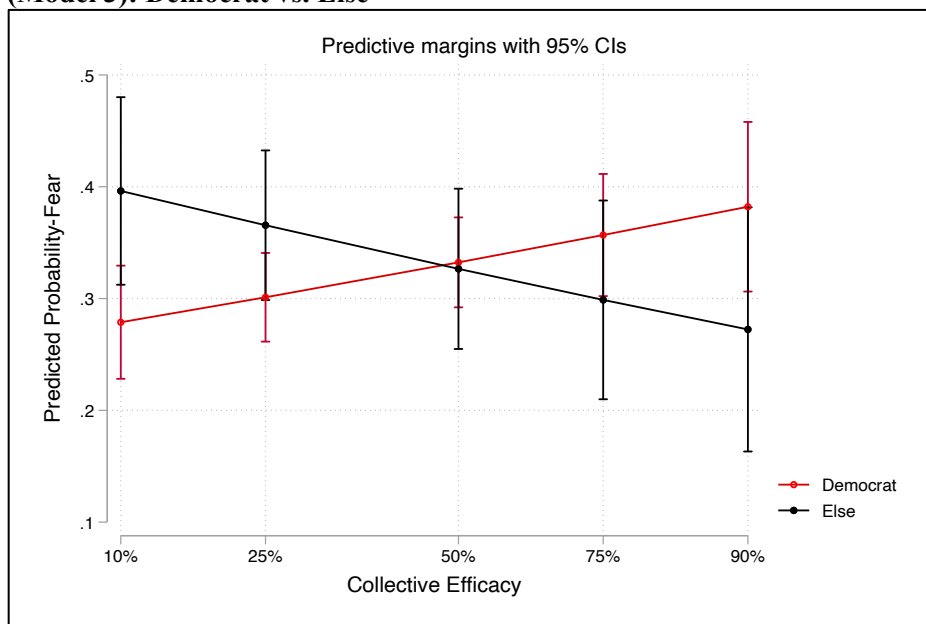
Table 9: Summary of Findings

	FOC: General	FOC: R/E/N	FOC: G&S	FOC: PI
Identity Variables				
Male	-	ns	ns	ns
Race & Ethnicity (White ref.)				
Black	ns	+	+	+
Hispanic	+	ns	+	+
Else	ns	+	ns	+
Immigrant Status (1st Gen ref.)				
Second Generation	-	ns	ns	ns
Third (+) Generation	-	ns	ns	ns
Political Party (Democrat ref.)				
Republican	ns	ns	ns	ns
Independent	ns	ns	ns	+
Else	ns	ns	ns	+
Control Variables				
Age	-	-	-	-
Education (H.S. Degree or Less ref.)				
Some College/Associates	ns	-	-	ns
College	-	-	ns	ns
USDA Designation (Urban ref.)				
Suburban	ns	ns	ns	ns
Rural	ns	ns	ns	ns
Married	ns	ns	ns	ns
Previous Victimization	ns	ns	+	ns
Community Perceptions				
Collective Efficacy	+	ns	ns	+
Interactions (White; Democrat ref.)				
Collective Efficacy * Black		ns		
Collective Efficacy * Hispanic		ns		
Collective Efficacy * Else		ns		
Collective Efficacy * Male			ns	
Collective Efficacy * Republican				ns
Collective Efficacy * Independent				-
Collective Efficacy * Else				-
Perceived Risk				
Perceived Risk	+	+	+	+

+ = positive significant effect; - = negative significant effect; ns= non-significant effect
FOC=Fear of Crime; R/E/N=Race, Ethnicity, Nationality; G&S= Gender and Sexuality;
PI=Political Identity

Appendix B

Appendix Tables

Appendix Table 1: Logistic Regression Models Predicting Perceived Risk of Victimization based on (Model 1) Race, Ethnicity, Nationality; (Model 2) Gender & Sexuality; (Model 3) Political Identity

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	OR	SE	OR	SE	OR	SE
Identity Variables						
Male	1.082	(0.208)	0.262	(0.264)	1.062	(0.179)
Race & Ethnicity (White ref.)						
Black	1.345	(1.833)	0.982	(0.304)	0.954	(0.265)
Hispanic	1.117	(1.462)	0.887	(0.275)	0.792	(0.220)
Else	1.858	(3.171)	1.103	(0.369)	1.450	(0.407)
Immigration Status (1st Gen ref.)						
Second Generation	1.050	(0.428)	0.765	(0.319)	0.744	(0.292)
Third (+) Generation	0.966	(0.325)	0.709	(0.241)	0.981	(0.296)
Political Party (Democrat ref.)						
Republican	1.938**	(0.556)	0.877	(0.250)	1.432	(1.784)
Independent	1.091	(0.269)	0.807	(0.201)	0.397	(0.442)
Else	2.578***	(0.827)	1.390	(0.456)	2.887	(3.871)
Control Variables						
Age	1.005	(0.006)	0.993	(0.006)	1.008	(0.005)
Education (H.S. Degree or Less ref.)						
Some College/Associates	1.291	(0.302)	1.026	(0.250)	1.253	(0.260)
College	0.894	(0.204)	0.809	(0.186)	0.919	(0.183)
USDA Designation (Urban ref.)						
Suburban	1.198	(0.271)	1.008	(0.234)	1.363	(0.277)
Rural	0.970	(0.229)	0.696	(0.170)	1.198	(0.257)
Married	0.712*	(0.139)	0.871	(0.177)	0.942	(0.164)
Previous Victimization	2.947**	(1.462)	2.785*	(1.485)	5.154****	(2.031)
Community Perceptions						
Collective Efficacy	0.421****	(0.100)	0.376****	(0.080)	0.452****	(0.093)
Interactions (Collective Efficacy * White ref.)						
Collective Efficacy * Black	1.288	(0.528)				
Collective Efficacy * Hispanic	1.013	(0.405)				
Collective Efficacy * Race	1.209	(0.608)				
Interaction: Collective Efficacy * Male			1.343	(0.404)		
Interactions (Collective Efficacy*Democrat ref.)						
Collective Efficacy * Republican					0.986	(0.347)
Collective Efficacy * Independent					1.328	(0.425)
Collective Efficacy * Else (Political)					0.903	(0.361)
Fear of Crime						
Fear of Crime: Race, Ethnicity, Nationality	2.734****	(0.240)				
Fear of Crime: Gender & Sexuality			2.830****	(0.262)		
Fear of Crime: Political Identity					2.778****	(0.221)
Observations	1491		1493		1490	
Pseudo R-squared	0.324		0.314		0.281	
BIC	1239.921		1155.643		1464.681	

Exponentiated coefficients (OR); Standard errors in parentheses (SE)
* p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01, **** p<0.001"

Appendix Table 2: Descriptive Statistics with Alternative Fear Measure (N = 1500)

	Mean* or %	SD
Dependent Variables		
Fear of Crime		
Fear of Crime: Overall	2.24	1.05
Fear of Crime: Race/Ethnicity/Nationality	12%	.32
Fear of Crime: Gender & Sexuality	9%	.28
Fear of Crime: Political Identity	14%	.34
Explanatory Variables		
Perceived Risk		
Perceived Risk: Overall	1.91	.78
Perceived Risk: Race/Ethnicity/Nationality	1.76	.97
Perceived Risk: Gender & Sexuality	1.65	.89
Perceived Risk: Political Identity	1.97	1.04
Previous Victimization		
Previous Victimization: Overall	19%	.39
Previous Victimization: Race/Ethnicity/Nationality	4%	.19
Previous Victimization: Gender & Sexuality	3%	.16
Previous Victimization: Political Identity	6%	.23
Collective Efficacy	3.51	.64
Male	48%	.50
Race & Ethnicity		
White	62%	
Black	12%	
Hispanic	17%	
Else	9%	
Immigrant Status		
First Generation	10%	
Second Generation	12%	
Third (+) Generation	78%	
Political Party		
Democrat	33%	
Republican	28%	
Independent	28%	
Else	10%	
Control Variables		
Education		
Less than, or High School Degree	39%	
Some College/Associates Degree	27%	
College	34%	
Age	48.50	17.26
USDA Urbanicity Designation		
Urban	29%	
Suburban	44%	
Rural	27%	
Married	45%	.50

*survey weights applied

Appendix Table 3: Multivariate Logistic Regression Models Predicting Alternate Measure of Fear of Racial/Ethnicity/Nationality Motivated Crime

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	OR	SE	OR	SE	OR	SE
Identity Variables						
Male	0.529***	(0.110)	0.529***	(0.110)	0.562***	(0.124)
Race & Ethnicity (White ref.)						
Black	2.643****	(0.772)	0.217	(0.312)	0.077	(0.135)
Hispanic	2.880****	(0.808)	0.610	(0.872)	0.398	(0.583)
Else	1.685	(0.604)	0.555	(1.156)	0.070	(0.188)
Immigrant Status (1st Gen ref.)						
Second Generation	2.643****	(0.772)	0.217	(0.312)	0.077	(0.135)
Third (+) Generation	2.880****	(0.808)	0.610	(0.872)	0.398	(0.583)
Political Party (Democrat ref.)						
Republican	1.120	(0.320)	1.126	(0.321)	0.834	(0.259)
Independent	1.196	(0.308)	1.173	(0.300)	1.113	(0.307)
Else	1.160	(0.424)	1.203	(0.439)	0.789	(0.295)
Control Variables						
Age	0.977****	(0.007)	0.977****	(0.007)	0.970****	(0.007)
Education (H.S. Degree or Less ref.)						
Some College/Associates	0.900	(0.223)	0.883	(0.221)	0.738	(0.196)
College	0.750	(0.186)	0.734	(0.182)	0.755	(0.203)
USDA Designation (Urban ref.)						
Suburban	1.115	(0.259)	1.126	(0.263)	1.102	(0.277)
Rural	0.848	(0.227)	0.886	(0.238)	0.891	(0.263)
Married	0.945	(0.210)	0.954	(0.212)	1.118	(0.277)
Previous Victimization:						
Race/Ethnicity/Nationality	8.495****	(3.519)	8.278****	(3.354)	2.167*	(1.008)
Community Perceptions						
Collective Efficacy	1.509**	(0.278)	1.140	(0.315)	1.446	(0.384)
Interactions (Collective Efficacy * White ref.)						
Collective Efficacy * Black			2.042*	(0.823)	2.440*	(1.223)
Collective Efficacy * Hispanic			1.545	(0.624)	1.744	(0.720)
Collective Efficacy * Else			1.360	(0.819)	2.085	(1.630)
Perceived Risk						
Perceived Risk: Race/Ethnicity/Nationality					3.074****	(0.373)
Observations	1493		1493		1491	
Pseudo R-squared	0.147		0.150		0.287	
BIC	1075.186		1092.866		948.273	

Exponentiated coefficients (OR); Standard errors in parentheses (SE)

* p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01, **** p<0.001"

Appendix Table 4: Multivariate Logistic Regression Models Predicting Alternative Measure of Fear of Gender & Sexuality Motivated Crime

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	OR	SE	OR	SE	OR	SE
Identity Variables						
Male	0.571**	(0.136)	0.025**	(0.037)	0.060*	(0.089)
Race & Ethnicity (White ref.)						
Black	1.515	(0.545)	1.486	(0.541)	1.570	(0.638)
Hispanic	2.192***	(0.663)	2.138**	(0.648)	2.297**	(0.752)
Else	0.889	(0.378)	0.882	(0.381)	0.732	(0.339)
Immigration Status (1st Gen ref.)						
Second Generation	0.206****	(0.094)	0.218****	(0.100)	0.228***	(0.115)
Third (+) Generation	0.439***	(0.133)	0.444***	(0.136)	0.556	(0.209)
Political Party (Democrat ref.)						
Republican	0.633	(0.221)	0.631	(0.220)	0.666	(0.253)
Independent	0.591*	(0.182)	0.592*	(0.183)	0.572*	(0.187)
Else	0.937	(0.340)	0.903	(0.330)	0.811	(0.327)
Control Variables						
Age	0.957****	(0.008)	0.956****	(0.008)	0.958****	(0.009)
Education (H.S. Degree or Less ref.)						
Some College/Associates	0.694	(0.192)	0.666	(0.186)	0.687	(0.203)
College	0.725	(0.210)	0.706	(0.205)	0.746	(0.236)
USDA Designation (Urban ref.)						
Suburban	1.094	(0.286)	1.093	(0.286)	1.096	(0.322)
Rural	1.030	(0.298)	1.042	(0.301)	1.222	(0.387)
Married	1.199	(0.319)	1.218	(0.324)	1.261	(0.378)
Previous Victimization: Gender & Sexuality	4.791****	(2.170)	4.853****	(2.168)	1.826	(1.063)
Community Perceptions						
Collective Efficacy	1.448*	(0.290)	1.072	(0.233)	1.584*	(0.415)
Interaction: Collective Efficacy * Male			2.382**	(0.914)	1.978*	(0.808)
Perceived Risk						
Perceived Risk: Gender & Sexuality					3.048****	(0.432)
Observations	1493		1493		1493	
Pseudo R-squared	0.147		0.154		0.283	
BIC	890.701		890.987		783.963	

Exponentiated coefficients (OR); Standard errors in parentheses (SE)

* p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01, **** p<0.001"

Appendix Table 5: Logistic Regression Models Predicting Alternative Measure of Fear of Political Identity Motivated Crime

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	OR	SE	OR	SE	OR	SE
Identity Variables						
Male	0.827	(0.155)	0.818	(0.154)	0.762	(0.153)
Race & Ethnicity (White ref.)						
Black	1.272	(0.370)	1.383	(0.407)	1.578	(0.514)
Hispanic	2.383***	(0.646)	2.457****	(0.669)	2.838****	(0.839)
Else	0.746	(0.264)	0.761	(0.266)	0.598	(0.240)
Immigrant Status (1st Gen ref.)						
Second Generation	0.310***	(0.122)	0.292***	(0.116)	0.317**	(0.148)
Third (+) Generation	0.548**	(0.157)	0.530**	(0.152)	0.584	(0.202)
Political Party (Democrat ref.)						
Republican	1.193	(0.307)	3.191	(4.291)	6.853	(9.287)
Independent	0.986	(0.236)	12.995*	(17.068)	12.055*	(16.627)
Else	0.756	(0.275)	0.261	(0.488)	0.105	(0.227)
Control Variables						
Age	0.992	(0.006)	0.992	(0.006)	0.986**	(0.007)
Education (H.S. Degree or Less ref.)						
Some College/Associates	1.015	(0.238)	1.023	(0.240)	0.823	(0.210)
College	1.073	(0.237)	1.069	(0.237)	0.889	(0.209)
USDA Designation (Urban ref.)						
Suburban	1.203	(0.273)	1.225	(0.279)	1.075	(0.262)
Rural	1.194	(0.296)	1.241	(0.309)	1.145	(0.299)
Married	1.140	(0.224)	1.130	(0.224)	1.305	(0.287)
Previous Victimization: Political Identity	5.966****	(1.657)	5.955****	(1.659)	1.621	(0.675)
Community Perceptions						
Collective Efficacy	1.066	(0.160)	1.368	(0.376)	1.917**	(0.523)
Interactions (Collective Efficacy*Democrat ref.)						
Collective Efficacy * Republican			0.760	(0.274)	0.577	(0.216)
Collective Efficacy * Independent			0.477**	(0.175)	0.474*	(0.186)
Collective Efficacy * Else (Political)			1.387	(0.734)	1.648	(1.010)
Perceived Risk						
Perceived Risk: Political Identity					3.042****	(0.327)
Observations	1491		1491		1490	
Pseudo R-squared	0.076		0.082		0.240	
BIC	1253.721		1268.102		1082.704	

Exponentiated coefficients (OR); Standard errors in parentheses (SE)

* p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01, **** p<0.001"

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